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Abstract:	<p>Two of the major applications in geospatial information system (GIS) and remote sensing fields are object detection and man-made feature extraction (e.g., road sections) from high-resolution remote sensing imagery. Extracting roads from high-resolution remotely sensed imagery plays a crucial role in multiple applications, such as navigation, emergency tasks, land cover change detection, and updating GIS maps. This study presents a deep learning technique based on a convolutional neural network (CNN) to classify and extract roads from orthophoto images. We applied the model on five orthophoto images to specify the superiority of the method for road extraction. First, we used principal component analysis and object-based image analysis for pre-processing to not only obtain spectral information but also add spatial and textural information for enhancing the classification accuracy. Then, the obtained results from the previous step were used as input for the CNN model to classify the images into road and non-road parts and trivial opening and closing operation are applied to extract connected road components from the images and remove holes inside the road parts. For the accuracy assessment of the proposed method, we used measurement factors such as precision, recall, F1 score, overall accuracy and IOU. Achieved results showed that the average percentages of these factors were 91.09%, 95.32%, 93.15%, 94.44% and 87.21%. The results were also compared with those of other existing methods. The comparison ascertained the reliability and superior performance of the suggested model architecture for extracting road regions from orthophoto images.</p>	

Road Extraction from High-Resolution Orthophoto Images Using Convolutional Neural Network

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Abstract

Two of the major applications in geospatial information system (GIS) and remote sensing fields are object detection and man-made feature extraction (e.g., road sections) from high-resolution remote sensing imagery. Extracting roads from high-resolution remotely sensed imagery plays a crucial role in multiple applications, such as navigation, emergency tasks, land cover change detection, and updating GIS maps. This study presents a deep learning technique based on a convolutional neural network (CNN) to classify and extract roads from orthophoto images. We applied the model on five orthophoto images to specify the superiority of the method for road extraction. First, we used principal component analysis and object-based image analysis for pre-processing to not only obtain spectral information but also add spatial and textural information for enhancing the classification accuracy. Then, the obtained results from the previous step were used as input for the CNN model to classify the images into road and non-road parts and trivial opening and closing operation are applied to extract connected road components from the images and remove holes inside the road parts. For the accuracy assessment of the proposed method, we used measurement factors such as precision, recall, F1 score, overall accuracy and IOU. Achieved results showed that the average percentages of these factors were 91.09%, 95.32%, 93.15%, 94.44% and 87.21%. The results were also compared with those of other existing methods. The comparison ascertained the reliability and superior performance of the suggested model architecture for extracting road regions from orthophoto images.

Keywords: CNN; deep learning; orthophoto images; OBIA; road extraction; remote sensing

1. Introduction

Space-borne, airborne, and drone-based sensors have obtained large amounts and different kinds of high-resolution images using recent advanced earth observation and remote sensing technologies; these images have been extensively utilized in several applications, such as urban planning (Abdullahi, Pradhan, & Jebur, 2015), disaster management (Youssef, Sefry, Pradhan, Alfadail, & Risk, 2016), and emergency tasks (Weng, 2012). Extracting road networks from remote sensing imagery plays a vital role in the improvement of transportation systems, such

32 as traffic control, map updating, and automatic road navigation, for daily life and industrial
33 applications (Z. Zhang, Liu, & Wang, 2018). Consequently, generating a novel technique to
34 extract road regions from satellite images of high resolution and keeping road networks up to
35 date is useful to geospatial information system (GIS) (W. Shi, Miao, & Debayle, 2014). High-
36 resolution remote sensing imagery can produce massive scale data and has become the main
37 data source to extract road regions and update geospatial database in real time (J. Zhang, et al.,
38 2017). At present, road networks are changing more rapidly than ever. Acquiring precise road
39 information from remote sensing data is also currently demanded (Abdullahi, et al., 2015).
40 Therefore, extracting road features from satellite images of high-resolution has become a major
41 research topic in the remote sensing field (Xia, Zhang, Liu, Luo, & Yang, 2018). Although
42 road extraction from remote sensing imagery has received considerable attention in recent
43 years, the task is still challenging because the sections and structure of roads are irregular and
44 complex, respectively (Youssef, et al., 2016). Other features such as building roof, pedestrian
45 areas, and car parking are similar in satellite images, thereby resulting in insufficient context
46 of roads in these images. Meanwhile, vehicles on roads, shadows of trees, and buildings on
47 roadsides can be identified from high-resolution satellite images (Bakhtiari, Abdollahi, &
48 Rezaeian, 2017). Road class extraction from high-resolution remote sensing imagery is difficult
49 because of the aforementioned issues.

50 Manual and traditional road extraction approaches from high-resolution remote sensing
51 imagery are costly, time consuming, and full of errors because of human operators (J. Wang,
52 Song, Chen, & Yang, 2015). Therefore, different road extraction approaches, such as
53 supervised (Miao, Shi, Gamba, & Li, 2015) and unsupervised (Grinias, Panagiotakis, Tziritas,
54 & sensing, 2016) techniques, have been suggested by researchers to extract road networks from
55 high-resolution remote sensing images. These approaches use textural (Sghaier & Lepage,
56 2016), geometric, and photometric (He, Liao, Yang, Deng, & Liao, 2012) information to
57 extract roads through classification (Cheng, Ding, Ku, & Sun, 2012).

58 **2. Related Works**

59 In this part, we discuss some unsupervised and supervised methods for road extraction from
60 remote sensing images and then explain some early works related to deep learning methods to
61 highlight the main contribution of deep learning approaches in extracting road sections.
62 Unsupervised techniques use clustering algorithms to extract roads from remote sensing
63 images. These methods are a form of pixel-based classification and computer automated (Xu,

64 Xie, Feng, & Chen, 2018). Khesali, Zoj, Mokhtarzade, and Dehghani (2016) proposed a semi-
65 automatic road extraction method by combining high-resolution IKONOS and TerraSAR-X
66 images. They introduced two fusion approaches: knowledge-based fusion and neural network.
67 First, they used various textural parameters and spectral features of optical images to
68 implement neural networks on images and detect roads separately. Then, they applied the
69 knowledge-based fusion method using thresholds of vegetation gray levels and narrow roads
70 to extract road from every reference separately. Finally, the outputs were compared, and the
71 benefits and drawbacks of each data source were examined. The experimental results
72 demonstrated that the suggested approach can be implemented for road extraction. Unsalan and
73 Sirmacek (2012) used a novel system based on probabilistic and graph theoretical approaches
74 to extract road from high-resolution satellite images. They used a different type of images,
75 namely, those from GeoEye, IKONOS, and QuickBird, to specify the weaknesses and strengths
76 of the proposed method. The achieved outcomes proved that the suggested technique is
77 effective and reliable in road extraction on such images. Supervised methods, such as support
78 vector machine (SVM) (Abdollahi, Bakhtiari, & Nejad, 2018), random forest (Bedawi &
79 Kamel, 2015), artificial neural network (Kirthika & Mookambiga, 2011), and deep learning,
80 are more accurate than unsupervised methods. These approaches use labeled samples for
81 training to extract features from remote sensing images (W. Wang, et al., 2016).

82 Abdollahi, et al. (2018) used a fusion method based on SVM and level set (LS) algorithms
83 for road extraction from Google Earth images. First, SVM method was applied to classify the
84 images, and then LS method was used to extract road sections from images. The empirical
85 outcomes showed that the introduced technique can achieve excellent results in completeness
86 and correctness values. However, the suggested approach misclassifies some objects that are
87 similar to road class as false road sections.

88 Unsupervised methods rely on color features and are limited by color sensitivity
89 (Panboonyuen, Vateekul, Jitkajornwanich, & Lawawirojwong, 2017). Therefore, if roads in
90 remote sensing imagery have more than one color, then these segmentation algorithms will not
91 attain excellent results and will not perform well in road extraction and classification. The
92 current study focuses on the color sensitivity problem. In recent years, artificial intelligence
93 algorithms have shown important developments in feature segmentation and extraction from
94 remote sensing imagery and have encouraged researchers to identify road class from high-

1 95 resolution remote sensing images because of the great efficiency of deep learning methods in
2 96 various applications (Xu, Chen, Xie, & Wu, 2017).
3

4 97 One of the rapidly growing areas in machine learning is deep learning, which has become an
5 98 optimistic tool for expediting image processing and object detection and has been strongly
6 99 implemented to remote sensing images, especially in mapping of urban land cover with high
7 100 accuracy results (Audebert, Le Saux, & Lefèvre, 2017). This section discusses previous works
8 101 related to deep learning methods that have been applied on remote sensing images to extract
9 102 road sections. J. Wang, et al. (2015) suggested a framework of neural dynamic model to extract
10 103 road sections from VHR remote sensing imagery based on deep convolutional neural network
11 104 (DCNN) and finite state machine (FSM). DCNN works as an important part to identify features
12 105 from a complicated and dynamic atmosphere, whereas FSM changes the identified features to
13 106 state for capturing their tracking habits. Their results indicated that the suggested approach
14 107 outperforms the traditional approaches and is more accurate in extracting road section from
15 108 images of high-resolution satellite data. Panboonyuen, et al. (2017) proposed an approach
16 109 based on DCNN with landscape metrics and conditional random fields (CRF) for extracting
17 110 road parts from high-resolution satellite images. They also applied a function of modern
18 111 activation named exponential linear unit to modify the DCNN proficiency. They implemented
19 112 the proposed approach on Thailand Earth Observation System satellite images and
20 113 Massachusetts road aerial image datasets. Their suggested technique is accurate in road object
21 114 segmentation on different kinds of remote sensing images in terms of recall, precision, and F1.
22 115 The results attained for precision and F1 are 85% and 87% for aerial imagery and 75% and
23 116 64% for satellite imagery. Henry, Azimi, and Merkle (2018) proposed a deep fully
24 117 convolutional neural networks to extract road from SAR images. They added spatial tolerance
25 118 rules to the new networks to enhance their sensitivity towards thin objects. The experimental
26 119 results show that their model can achieve good results and extract most of the road sections in
27 120 their dataset.
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48 121 Alshehhi and Marpu (2017) proposed a convolutional neural network (CNN) model to
49 122 simultaneously extract roads and buildings from high-resolution remote sensing images. They
50 123 used two challenging datasets (Massachusetts and Abu Dhabi) to illustrate the efficiency of the
51 124 suggested network architecture. They integrated small features of roads and buildings of near
52 125 areas with CNN to improve the performance of the model. They found that the introduced
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126 model has excellent performance in extracting road and building features from remote sensing
127 imagery with high-resolution in urban regions.

128 In the current study, we developed a CNN model with regularization methods, such as
129 dropout for road extraction from VHR orthophoto images. This research aims to use object-
130 based image analysis (OBIA) and principal component analysis (PCA) and run the CNN model
131 on several orthophoto images to explore the impact of CNN architecture on road extraction. In
132 remote sensing, PCA methods have been implemented to improve classification, determine the
133 trends in image data, and specify anomalies in outputs (Comber, Harris, & Tsutsumida, 2016).
134 OBIA method can make a smart class decision based on class relationships utilizing image
135 object, size, shape, and spectral, which can overcome color sensitivity and enhance the
136 performance of the classifier on road extraction. Therefore, in this study, we introduced a
137 technique based on CNN and spectral–spatial information to reduce the effect of color
138 sensitivity and extract road from orthophoto images. In this paper, the segmented image using
139 multiresolution segmentation algorithm was used as an input for CNN model for object-based
140 image classification and then trivial opening and closing operation used to extract connected
141 road components and fill holes in the road sections. Therefore, the main contribution of this
142 study is to mix PCA and OBIA with CNN model to classify orthophoto images into road and
143 non-road parts and then trivial opening is applied to make the binary image and extract road
144 parts that has not done in the literature review. By applying this, the computation and training
145 time were reduced, and the proposed model was trained by some samples (road and non-road
146 segments) for only a few seconds, which is very less compared to aforementioned deep learning
147 methods in this study while can achieve good results.

148 **3. Methodology**

149 In this section, the images, pre-processing, and the architecture of the suggested CNN
150 model and training procedure are exhibited.

151 **3.1. Data**

152 In this research, data from orthophoto images from the Selangor State in Peninsular Malaysia
153 were used (Figure 1). Selangor is one of the states in Malaysia and is situated in the western part
154 of the country. The latitude and longitude of Selangor are 3.519863 and 101.538116,
155 respectively. Orthophoto images were collected on November 2, 2015 with an airborne laser
156 scanning of LiDAR system with an Optech Airborne Laser Terrain Mapper 3100 instrument with

157 a flying height of 1510 m in a clear sky condition. These images were captured as RGB with a
158 pixel resolution of 7 cm.

159
160 **Fig. 1.** Study area and the orthophoto images used in this study

161 3.2. Pre-processing

162 3.2.1. Geometric Correction

163 Pre-processing and removal of geometric distortion of remotely sensed data and specifying
164 separate pixels in their properly denoted planimetric (x, y) map locations are necessary.
165 Therefore, we can use geometrically corrected images to exploit polygon area, direction
166 information, and precise distance (Aasen, Honkavaara, Lucieer, & Zarco-Tejada, 2018). For
167 geometric correction, several ground control points were first collected from evidently
168 recognizable points (e.g., solitary trees, corners, and road intersections) from the field. All the
169 chosen points were well distributed throughout the images. Geometric calibration consists of
170 three main steps: (1) recognition of transformation points in the image, (2) application of least
171 square, and (3) accuracy evaluation process (Abdollahi, Pradhan, & Shukla, 2019). At this point,
172 we applied the least square approach to determine the coefficient for the geometric rectification
173 process. In addition, polynomial equations were used to specify the residuals and root mean
174 square between the aligned X, Y coordinates and the reference X, Y coordinates.

175 3.2.2. Normalization

176 Data normalization is important because it enhances the progress of gradient descent
177 optimization and activation functions. In this step, we used min–max normalization to normalize
178 pixel values of the orthophoto images and avoid unusual gradient. Min–max normalization is
179 also called feature scaling, where the range of numeric values of data is decreased between 0 and
180 1. This normalization can be computed using Equation (1).

$$181 \quad z = \frac{x - \min(x)}{\max(x) - \min(x)} \quad (1)$$

182 where z is the normalized data and min and max are the minimum and maximum values in x
183 given its range.

184 3.3. Suggested method

185 This study aims to create an effective solution for extracting road sections from VHR
186 orthophoto images using CNN model. The orthophoto image consists of $m \times n \times d$ digital values,
187 where m , n , and d are the image width, length, and depth. Common classification approaches use
188 spectral information and a set of training examples to specify a label to each pixel on the image
189 and classify the images (Sameen, Pradhan, & Aziz, 2018). In the present study, we not only used
190 spectral information but also applied PCA and OBIA not only to achieve spectral information
191 such as brightness, mean and standard deviation of each object but also obtain more information
192 related to geometry and texture such as area, number of pixels, length, homogeneity, contrast,
193 dissimilarity, entropy, correlation for improving the accuracy of classification. In the OBIA
194 process, pixels are classified into objects on basis of either outside variable such as geological
195 characteristics or spectral resemblance. Numerous variables may be assigned and categorized as
196 spectral, shape, and neighborhood. Neighborhood variables include the mean variance of an
197 object associated with dark ones; spectral variables include the standard deviation and mean
198 value of a special spectral band; and shape variables include compactness, size, and perimeter.
199 By combining several neighboring objects into one larger one, each object can be obtained
200 (Blaschke, 2010). For the OBIA process, we applied multiresolution segmentation method to
201 convert the images into superpixels and we tried set the scale, shape, and compactness parameters
202 for the proposed segmentation method to 30, 0.2, and 0.5, respectively, to obtain high accuracy
203 in the classification process. The proposed segmentation method is a region-based method, which
204 reduces the non-homogeneous segments using spectral and shape characteristics. PCA method
205 is a mathematical approach for dimension reduction of data (Ng, 2017). This method extracts the
206 principal pattern on a linear system based on factoring matrix principle and maintains the main
207 features of the image.

3.3.1. Architecture of Convolutional Neural Network

209 A typical CNN model includes alternatively piled convolution layers followed by dense (fully
210 connected) ones. The convolution layers contain a series of layers such as convolution and
211 pooling layers and dense and non-linear transformation functions. The convolution computes a
212 dot product within the nearby region to produce each element of new images (feature maps),
213 which is combined with a collection of weights (kernels) and the input feature maps. A non-linear
214 function (e.g., Relu and tanh) and a pooling function are applied after this operator. Pooling
215 function uses pre-defined functions (e.g., maximum and average) on a nearby area to fulfill
216 down-sampling along the spatial dimensions of feature maps (Hu, Xia, Hu, & Zhang, 2015). A

down-sampling method is doing sampling the image using principle local correlation of the image. This method can maintain effective information while reduce the amount of data processing and provides the features taken through convolution to have spatial invariability. For classifying and predicting the feature vector in the final output of network, a dense layer is applied. Using fully connected layer a set of number normalized to 0 and 1 is achieved, which the greater value of each sample belongs to a specific class. The fully connected layer links all neurons to every single neuron in its layer by taking them from the previous layers. Dropout regularization approach is performed to avoid overfitting in dense layers (Srivastava, Hinton, Krizhevsky, Krizhevsky, & Salakhutdinov, 2014). Dropout regularization method decreases the number of neurons of the network, which do not contribute anymore to the back-propagation and forward-pass (Nogueira, et al., 2016). To produce the probable output for every class, a sigmoid function, which is a logistic regression function, is used for binary classification in the last dense layer. The function maps any real value into another value between 0 and 1 (Krizhevsky, Sutskever, & Hinton, 2012).

$W \times H$ image patch with N -channels centered at $x(i,j)$ and 2D filter-kernel $w_f \times h_f$ as input and output feature maps of $(W - w_f + 1) \times (H - h_f + 1)$ with K -channels are taken by a convolution layer. Each channel of the output image is named a filter site. A stride s_f parameter is the distance, which is needed to slide down the convolution procedure in the input image. This stride parameter can affect the output of the convolution procedure (Hu, et al., 2015). The size of the output map from the convolution process is decreased to $((W - w_f)/s_f + 1) \times ((H - h_f)/s_f + 1)$ if $s_f > 1$. The convolution process is expressed using Equation (2).

$$x_k(ii, jj) = \sum_{n=1}^N \left\{ \sum_{p=0}^{w_f-1} \sum_{q=0}^{h_f-1} x_n(i \cdot s_f + p, j \cdot s_f + q) \cdot h_k(p, q) \right\} + b_k \quad (2)$$

where $x_n(i,j)$ is the pixel value at (i,j) in the n -th channel of an input feature map, $x_k(ii,jj)$ is the pixel value at (ii,jj) in the k -th filter site of the input map, $h_k(p,q)$ is the weight value at (p,q) of the k -th filter, and b_k is the bias parameter of the k -th filter that is shared among all locations (p,q) .

A convolution process is accompanied by an activation function, which is a kind of transformation function. $x_k(ii,jj)$ is used as input to the activation function of the neural network that is the output of convolution operation. b is a bias vector, and w is a weight vector. The activation function is defined using Equation (3).

$$Z(x_k(ii, jj)) = f\left(\sum_{k=1}^k x_k(ii, jj) \cdot w_k + b_k\right) \Leftrightarrow Z = f(X \cdot W + b) \quad (3)$$

For $f(\cdot)$, several alternative functions, such as rectified function, sigmoid, and tanh, can be used. Neurons work effectively with rectified function because this function induces sparsity in the hidden layers and avoid saturation during the learning process. Neurons also do not encounter gradient vanishing difficulty, which occurs when the gradient norm decreases after sequential updates in the back-propagation process (Zhou, Lapedriza, Xiao, Torralba, & Oliva, 2014). In this study, rectified linear unit (Relu) function is used for the first convolution and dense layers, which is defined using Equation (4).

$$A(x_k(ii, jj)) = \max(0, Z(x_k(ii, jj))) \quad (4)$$

Pooling layers are utilized to apply down-sampling to reduce the number of parameters, amount of network computing and the size of image. In this study, we used max pooling to mix semantically comparable features into one (Maggiori, Tarabalka, Charpiat, & Alliez, 2017).

A classifier layer after a convolution and fully connected layer is used to predict class possibilities. In this study, we applied binary logistic regression algorithm to assign observations to a discrete set of classes. In order to solve the problem of binary classification in this study (road and non-road), we used sigmoid activation to map predicted values to probabilities Equation (5).

$$S(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \quad (5)$$

Where z is the input and S is the output between 0 and 1.

3.3.2. Model architecture

In this study, a simple CNN model was applied, which was created with two convolutional layers followed by two max-pooling operation, dropout, and two fully-connected layers (Figure 2). In this model, the convolutional kernel size was defined as 3×3 and 2×2 for pooling size in the max-pooling layer. To avoid overfitting, a dropout operator was implemented in the convolutional layer and the first fully connected layer with a drop probability of 0.25. Dropout is a technique, which neglect randomly chosen neurons during training. This means that their

275 contribution to the activation of downstream neurons is temporally deleted on the forward pass
 276 and any weight updates are not used to the neurons on the backward pass. The entire process was
 277 performed on a CPU Core i7 2.11 GHz and memory RAM of 16 GB and GPU Nvidia Quadro
 278 P4000 with compute capability of 6.1 and memory of 8 GB under the framework of Keras with
 279 Tensorflow back-end. We used 2324 sample data, of which 70% were for training and validation
 280 (1626 samples), and 30% were for testing (698 samples). The number of nodes for the
 281 convolutional and max-pooling layers was set to 32, whereas that for the first dense layers was
 282 256. Given that we had two classes (road and non-road), the number of nodes for the last dense
 283 layer was set to 2 depending on the number of class. A perfect optimization function is required
 284 to minimize the energy function and update the parameters of the model algorithm during training
 285 the model [44]. In this work, one of the most common optimizers (Adam) was used to minimize
 286 the losses and update the parameters, such as weights and biases. In this model, we used Adam
 287 optimizer for stochastic gradient descent to train deep learning models for reducing the loss
 288 function and for loss function a binary cross entropy function was used to quantifies the
 289 difference between two probability distributions. In this model, the adam configuration
 290 parameters such as learning rate, beta1 and beta2 defined as 0.001, 0.9 and 0.999 respectively.
 291 Table 1 shows a summary of the model layers.

3.3.3. Trivial Opening

293 Trivial operation was applied to extract connected road components on basis of some criteria.
 294 Assume that $P(i)$ is the connected component, P is the image and T is main axis length, the trivial
 295 opening can be achieved using Equation 6 (Sujatha & Selvathi, 2015).

$$R_0 = \{P \mid \text{Long axis of minimum ellipse enclosing } P(i) \geq T\} \quad (6)$$

298 Where R_0 is the connected component. According to the condition T , trivial operation is utilized
 299 for suitable connected road components extraction. The whole region of connected road
 300 components is preserved if that component satisfied the condition T and it is removed if not
 301 satisfied the condition T . Since high-resolution remote sensing imagery were used in this paper,
 302 road sections emerged as long features and similar areas in these images, in which they can be
 303 simply filtered using trivial opening after classification by CNN. Also, closing morphological
 304 operation was applied to remove unwanted objects inside the extracted road parts and fill the
 305 holes.

307 **Fig. 2.** Proposed CNN model architecture

308

309

310 **Table 1**

311 Summary of the proposed CNN model layers

312

313 3.4. Performance Evaluation

314 Measurement factors, namely, precision, recall, F1 score, intersection over union (IOU) and
315 overall accuracy (OA) (Equations (7)–(11)), are utilized to assess the efficiency of the introduced
316 approach. Recall denotes the proportion of road pixels that are accurately classified among all
317 actual road pixels. Precision describes the proportion of road pixels that are accurately classified
318 among all anticipated pixels. F1 score is a composition of recall and precision. IOU calculates
319 the number of pixels common between the prediction and target masks divided by the total
320 number of pixels present across both masks. OA measures the precision of road and non-road
321 pixels.

$$322 \textit{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP+FP} \quad (7)$$

$$323 \textit{Recall} = \frac{TP}{TP+FN} \quad (8)$$

$$324 \textit{F1} = \frac{2 \times \textit{Precision} \times \textit{Recall}}{\textit{Precision} + \textit{Recall}} \quad (9)$$

$$325 \textit{IOU} = \frac{TP}{TP+FP+FN} \quad (10)$$

$$326 \textit{OA} = \frac{\textit{Pos}_r + \textit{Pos}_n}{N} \quad (11)$$

327 where N is the number of pixels for test images and \textit{Pos}_r and \textit{Pos}_n are the positive number of road
328 and non-road pixels at a pixel level.

4. Experimental results

Semantic segmentation, especially detection and extraction of objects (e.g., roads), from remote sensing images of high resolution play an essential role in several applications, such as traffic management, land cover analysis, urban planning, and emergency tasks. An increasing number of satellites are being launched as remote sensing technology develops. Therefore, accessing remote sensing imagery has become easier than before. This work also defined a model based on CNN and trivial opening methods to classify image into non-road and road areas and extract roads from orthophoto images. Arcmap 10.6, Ecognition Developer, and Python were used to perform the proposed model and calculate the performance accuracy for road extraction. Four images from various areas covered by vegetation and building were used to validate the performance of the suggested model in road extraction from orthophoto images in general (Figure 3). The figure has subfigures of three columns and five rows. The original, classified images and target road map (ground truth) are presented in the first, second and third columns, respectively. Figures 3(a), (c) and (j) show the image in an outer space of the city. The road section in the image was not surrounded by other features compared with the road section in Figures 3(e) and (g), which was completely covered by buildings, trees, and cars. As observed in the original images of Figure 3, the road and other features appeared with similar spectral characteristics, which introduced difficulty for the model in extracting road class accurately. Similar objects (noise) also appeared as road class in the extracted image. Therefore, we used PCA and OBIA to obtain additional information related to road objects, such as geometry, shape, and elongation, for modifying the performance of the suggested CNN model and extracting road class with high accuracy by eliminating non-road pixels and noises. After all the information was gathered, it was used as input for the proposed CNN model to identify road class from other objects in the orthophoto images. Figures 3(b), (d), (f), (h) and (k) show that the mixing CNN model and trivial opening could classify and extract the road section from VHR orthophoto images with high precision.

Fig. 3. Results of road extraction using the suggested CNN model: original orthophoto images (a, c, e, g, j), extracted road sections (b, d, f, h, k) and target road map (i, ii, iii, iv, v)

Figure 4 shows the performance accuracy of the proposed model with a dropout for 100 epochs on training and validation datasets. The model had learned effective characteristics to classify the images and extract road class depending on the increment in model accuracy and

361 reduction in model loss over time. The accuracy of the model from one epoch to another
362 fluctuated due to the use of dropout, which yielded a moderately different model at every
363 epoch. The performance computation of the proposed CNN model was dependent on the
364 hyperparameters such as image patch size and convolutional filters as well as dropout and other
365 layers. The proposed CNN model with dropout took 174 second to be trained. Therefore, the
366 performance calculation of the model is effective for the examined images while it will require
367 more time for larger datasets.

Fig. 4. Model accuracy (a) and model loss (b) of the proposed CNN model

370 Road class extraction from high-resolution remotely sensed images can be considered binary
371 classification. In this study, a confusion matrix was used to evaluate the performance of the
372 proposed CNN model and assess the number of pixels belonging to road sections (positives) and
373 other sections (negatives). Four important factors should be considered for calculating confusion
374 matrix: true positive (TP), true negative (TN), false positive (FP), and false negative (FN). TP
375 indicates the number of precisely categorized road pixels, TN indicates the number of perfectly
376 categorized non-road pixels, FP indicates the number of incorrectly categorized road pixels, and
377 FN indicates the number of inaccurately categorized non-road pixels (Jan Dirk Wegner,
378 Montoya-Zegarra, & Schindler, 2015). We calculated precision, recall, F1 score, IOU and OA
379 based on confusion matrix parameters to calculate the efficiency of the introduced approach for
380 road extraction. Table 2 exhibits the percentage of performance measures for calculating the
381 accuracy of road extraction based on CNN model for each image separately.

Table 2

Precision, recall, f1 score, overall accuracy and IOU of the model for accuracy assessment

5. Discussion

385 As shown in Table 2, the percentage of precision, recall, F1 score, OA and IOU were 92.75%,
386 96.08%, 94.39%, 95.48%, and 89.37% respectively, for the image in Figure 3(b). The values
387 were 93.64%, 96.19%, 94.90%, 95.91% and 90.29% for the image in Figure 3(d); 91.25%,
388 95.32%, 93.24%, 94.54% and 87.33% for the image in Figure 3(f); 90.48%, 95.10%, 92.73%,
389 94.10% and 86.44% for the image in Figure 3(h); and 87.35%, 93.91%, 90.51%, 92.21% and
390 82.66% for the image in Figure 3(k). As specified in Table 2, the proposed method obtained
391 higher precision for road extraction from the image in Figure 3(d) than those in other figures for

392 the entire assessment parameters. The same was observed for the image in Figure 3(b). Compared
393 with the image in Figure 3(b), the proposed model could achieve higher precision and OA for
394 the image in Figure 3(d). Therefore, the method could identify numerous pixels related to road
395 section in this figure. In other words, the model recognized many pixels not belonging to the road
396 region (FP) of the image in Figure 3(b). The accuracy of measurement parameters decreased
397 slightly due to the presence of trees and car parking. The images in Figures 3(d) and (b) were
398 captured in a non-complex area, where the road section was not completely covered by other
399 objects, such as vegetation, cars, and buildings. Therefore, the suggested approach attained the
400 highest accuracy for road extraction from the two images. By contrast, the image in Figure 3(f)
401 was slightly surrounded by other features with a similar spectral reflectance to roads, especially
402 car parking. As a result, these regions were identified as road sections and decreased the accuracy
403 for road extraction of the image in this figure. The model failed to distinguish car parking sections
404 from road sections in some parts. Therefore, in terms of performance measures, the extracted
405 road of the image in Figure 3(f) had lower accuracy than that of the images in Figures 3(b) and
406 (d). For the last image (Figure 3(k)), the precision of the introduced method for road extraction
407 decreased dramatically compared with that for the images in other figures. For the entire accuracy
408 assessment measures, the method achieved lower accuracy for extraction road class than that for
409 the images in other figures. The image in Figure 3(k) was taken in a complex area, and the
410 accuracy reduction in the figure was due to high similarities between road class and other
411 features, such as shadow and car parking, in which the proposed method encountered difficulty
412 in extracting road class and obtained less accuracy than for the images in other figures. In some
413 parts, the road section has more similarity with car parking sections. Thus, the method produced
414 plenty FPs in these sections. As a result, separating road regions from their environments was
415 difficult because these sections had similar spectral reflectance to roads. Extraction of road parts
416 was also difficult. Therefore, we applied OBIA to use spatial information for increasing the
417 classification accuracy. However, using the OBIA, PCA, and CNN techniques concurrently
418 determined that the suggested model had overall success for extracting road sections from
419 orthophoto images. We performed PCA and OBIA to obtain additional information. The use of
420 this information as input for the CNN model had resulted in an extremely precise road extraction.
421 Figure 5 plots the precision, recall, f1 score, overall accuracy and IOU of the model for accuracy
422 assessment of four different orthophoto images. All the images and performance measures are
423 shown in x-axis and y-axis, respectively.

425 **Fig. 5.** Accuracy assessment factors of the suggested method for road extraction from four
1
2
3 426 different orthophoto images

4
5 427 We compared the performance measure factors of this work with those of other works to show
6
7 428 the advantages of the proposed approach in extracting road class from orthophoto images. We
8
9 429 used five orthophoto images to run and show the effectiveness of the suggested method, whereas
10
11 430 other works used several images. Therefore, we considered the average percentage of
12
13 431 measurement factors for comparison. Jan D Wegner, Montoya-Zegarra, and Schindler (2013)
14
15 432 developed a novel CRF based on PN-Potts model and represented a probabilistic presentation of
16
17 433 network structure in the image for extracting road class from aerial orthoimages. They first
18
19 434 segmented images into superpixels and then extracted a feature vector per superpixel. They fed
20
21 435 the extracted feature vector to a random forest classifier to allocate a unary road probability for
22
23 436 each superpixel. Next, promising candidate routes were generated, and superpixels were sampled
24
25 437 randomly with high road possibility as seed nodes. Finally, superpixels of every candidate path
26
27 438 created a higher-order category in CRF by connecting them with minimum cost paths. They
28
29 439 performed their method on two various datasets, in which the average value of accuracy
30
31 440 assessment measures was taken for comparison. Zhong, Li, Cui, and Jiang (2016) applied
32
33 441 contemporary fully convolutional networks to extract road and building from high-spatial
34
35 442 resolution images. They used Massachusetts dataset in training, validating, and testing the model
36
37 443 and evaluated the accuracy of the proposed model using various parameters. They separated each
38
39 444 image into nine uniformed $3 \times 500 \times 500$ -pixel image to make full use of the exiting pretrained
40
41 445 models. The proposed model was directly fine-tuned on basis of FCN-16s-PASCAL model. They
42
43 446 set the learning rate to $1 \times e-14$ and the model was trained for 20,000 iterations. They found that
44
45 447 the extraction accuracy rate of the suggested model improves remarkably by mixing the deep
46
47 448 final-score layer with the shallow fine-grained pooling layer outcomes. They evaluated precision,
48
49 449 recall, F1 score, and OA factors, which are taken for comparison with those of the proposed
50
51 450 method in the present study. Wei, Wang, and Xu (2017) performed a road structure refined CNN
52
53 451 (RSRCNN) method to extract road regions from aerial images. They designed deconvolutional
54
55 452 and fusion layers in the architecture of RSRCNN to gain structured output of road extraction. For
56
57 453 setting training, validation and test sets, they segmented every image into 16 nonoverlapping
58
59 454 375×375 images as an input to RSRCNN. Next, they applied RSRCNN in deep learning platform
60
61 455 “Caffe” and for fine-tuning on their model, they used the pretrained of the 13 convolutional layers
62
63 456 of VGG as the initial parameters. Then, a back propagation (BP) algorithm utilized for training
64
65 457 RSRCNN model. For training RSRCNN, they used a new loss function based on geometric

information of road structure, which is called road structure-based loss function. They evaluated the proposed method performance on basis of overall accuracy, F1, precision, and recall factors. The values are shown in Table 3 for comparison with those of our work. Ardiyanto and Adji (2017) proposed a method for road part segmentation based on deep learning-based techniques, which is called deep residual coalesced convolutional network (RCC-Net). The RCC-net extracts relevant features by performing dimensionality reduction. For accuracy assessment, they applied precision, recall, F1, and OA measures. The average percentages of these factors are exhibited in Table 3 for comparison with those of the introduced work in this study. Table 3 shows the results achieved in this work compared with those in other works. In addition, we compared our model with modern deep learning methods such as generative adversarial networks (GANs) and fully convolutional networks (FCN) to show the validity and superior performance of the suggested model for road extraction from orthophoto images. Kestur, et al. (2018) proposed a model based on U-shaped FCN (UFCN) to extract road section from unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) images. They evaluated precision, recall, f1 score and accuracy for classification performance, which are taken for comparison with those of the suggested approach in the current study. Q. Shi, Liu, and Li (2018) introduced a novel model of convolutional network based on end-to-end generative adversarial networks to extract road parts from remote sensing data with VHR images. They calculated measurement factors such as completeness (recall), correctness (precision) and quality percentage (equivalent to IOU) to evaluate the validity of proposed model for road extraction. Table 4 exhibits the average percentage of achieved results in the present work compared with new deep learning methods.

Table 3

Comparison of implementation factors of the suggested approach with other works (The best values are in bold)

Table 4

Comparison of implementation factors of the proposed method with other modern deep learning models (The best values are in bold)

488 Figure 6 plots the accuracy assessment factors for demonstrating the evident differences
489 between the proposed model and other works. All the aforementioned works and corresponding
490 values are shown in x-axis and y-axis, respectively. The percentages of precision, recall, and F1
491 for the first three works were considerably lesser than those of Xu (2018) and our work.
492 Therefore, their methods were not as accurate as our work for road extraction. Given that Hu
493 used encoder–decoder deep learning method for road extraction, it achieved high percentage in
494 precision and f1 score factors with 93.4% and 93.7% respectively. However, for the remaining
495 measurement factors (recall and OA), the proposed method obtained higher percentage than other
496 methods. Therefore, the proposed approach was notably proficient for road extraction from
497 orthophoto images.

499 **Fig. 6.** Accuracy measurement factors of the proposed method for road extraction compared
500 with other works for road extraction

501 Furthermore, the accuracy assessment factors for showing the obvious differences between the
502 suggested method in this study and other modern deep learning approached are plotted in Figure
503 7. Y-axis and x-axis show the corresponding values and mentioned works, respectively. As it
504 observed, the percentages of precision and OA for the Kesture (2018) work are higher than those
505 of Shi (2018) and our work. Therefore, their model was more accurate than others for road
506 extraction. Given that Shi used GANs model for road extraction, it achieved less percentage in
507 precision factor (88.31%), which means their model was not as accurate as the proposed method
508 in this work (CNN) and Kesture (2018) work (FCN). The proposed method in this paper achieved
509 higher percentage than other methods for the measurement factor (recall), which approved the
510 suggested method was remarkably efficient for road extraction from orthophoto images.

511
512 **Fig. 7.** Accuracy assessment factors of the suggested model compared with other modern deep
513 learning models for road extraction

514 6. Conclusion

515 In this study, our goal was to introduce a method to extract different types of roads from
516 orthophoto images based on deep learning method (CNN). The proposed approach consists of

the following steps: (1) geometric correction to assign a spatial coordinate system for the content of a map; (2) PCA for transforming a main correlated dataset into a considerably smaller collection of uncorrelated parameters, which describes nearly the entire information represented in the main dataset; and (3) OBIA to use spectral and spatial information, such as class relationship, size, and shape, for improving classification. All the obtained information was used as input for the combining CNN model and trivial opening for classification image into road and non-road sections and road extraction. We implemented the proposed model on five orthophoto images from different areas with dissimilar complexities to show the superiority of the model for road extraction. Performance measures such as precision, recall, F1, OA and IOU were calculated. The values achieved were 92.75%, 96.08%, 94.39%, 95.48%, and 89.37% for the image in Figure 3(b); 93.64%, 96.19%, 94.90%, 95.91% and 90.29% for the image in Figure 3(d); 91.25%, 95.32%, 93.24%, 94.54% and 87.33% for the image in Figure 3(f); and 90.48%, 95.10%, 92.73%, 94.10% and 86.44% for the image in Figure 3(h); and 87.35%, 93.91%, 90.51%, 92.21% and 82.66% for the image in Figure 3(k). These results confirmed the efficiency of the model for road extraction. In addition, the accuracy measurement factors of the suggested method were compared with those of other works. The plotted results verified the effectiveness of the method for road extraction from orthophoto images. The suggested model has some advantages, which make it suitable for road extraction from orthophoto images. The model can identify and extract not only junction and curved sections but also straight roads. The proposed method can also detect barriers, such as cars, tree shadows, and buildings. However, the results and images indicate that the model performance decreases when the complexity and the size of image increases. In other words, the method cannot extract road in complex areas where the road section is completely surrounded by other features. This inability is a disadvantage of the introduced model.

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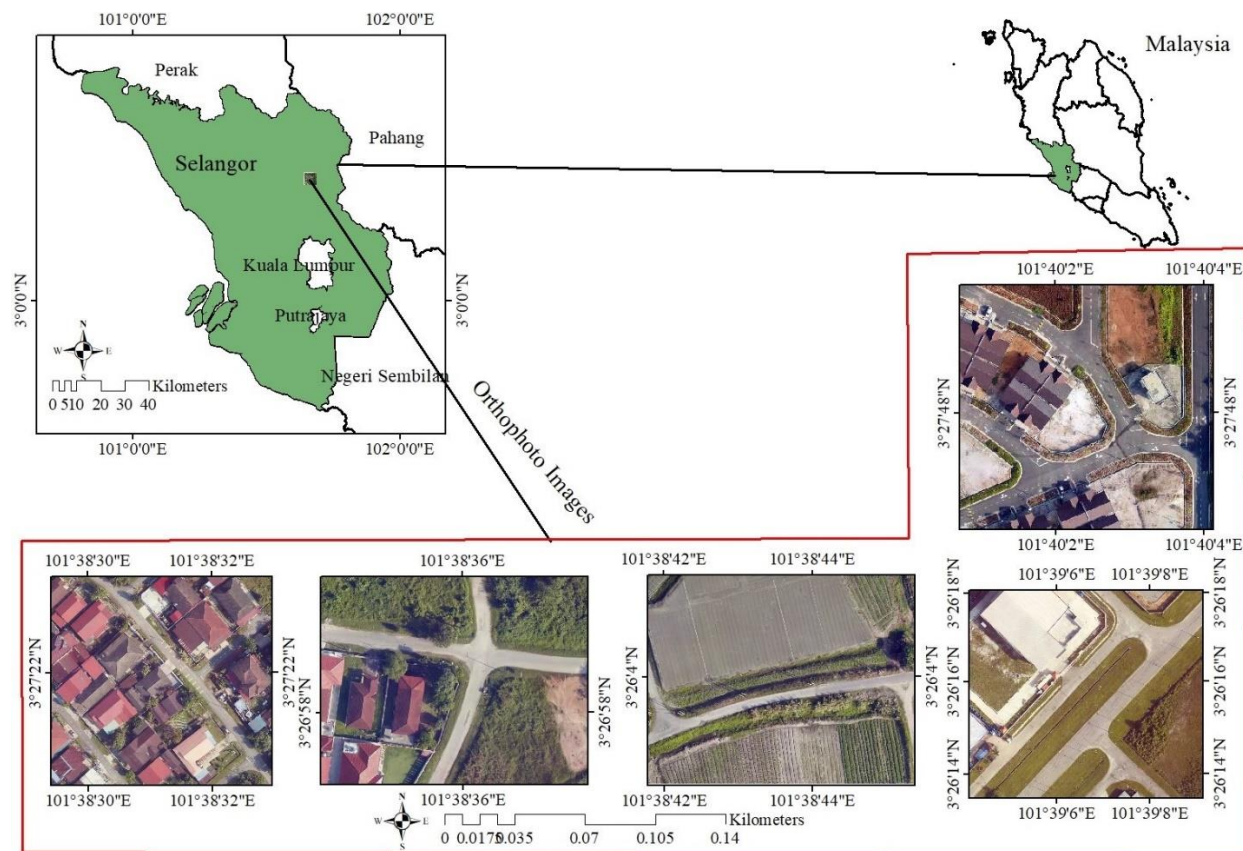


Fig. 1. Study area and the orthophoto images used in this study

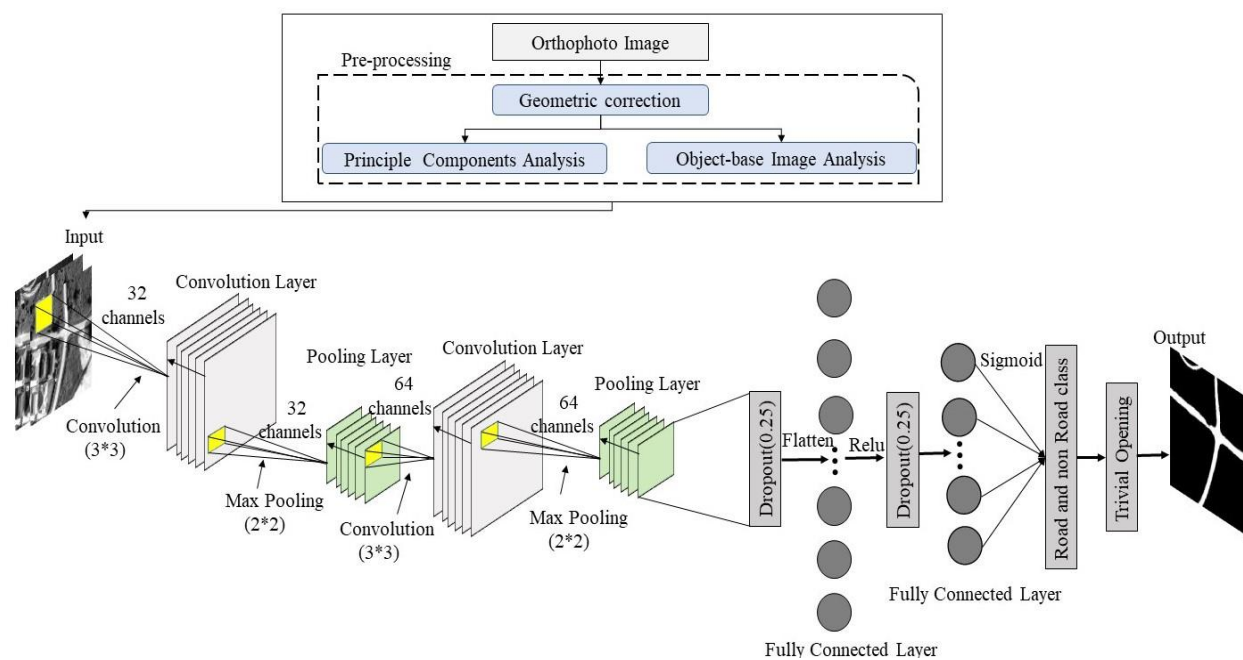


Fig. 2. Proposed CNN model architecture

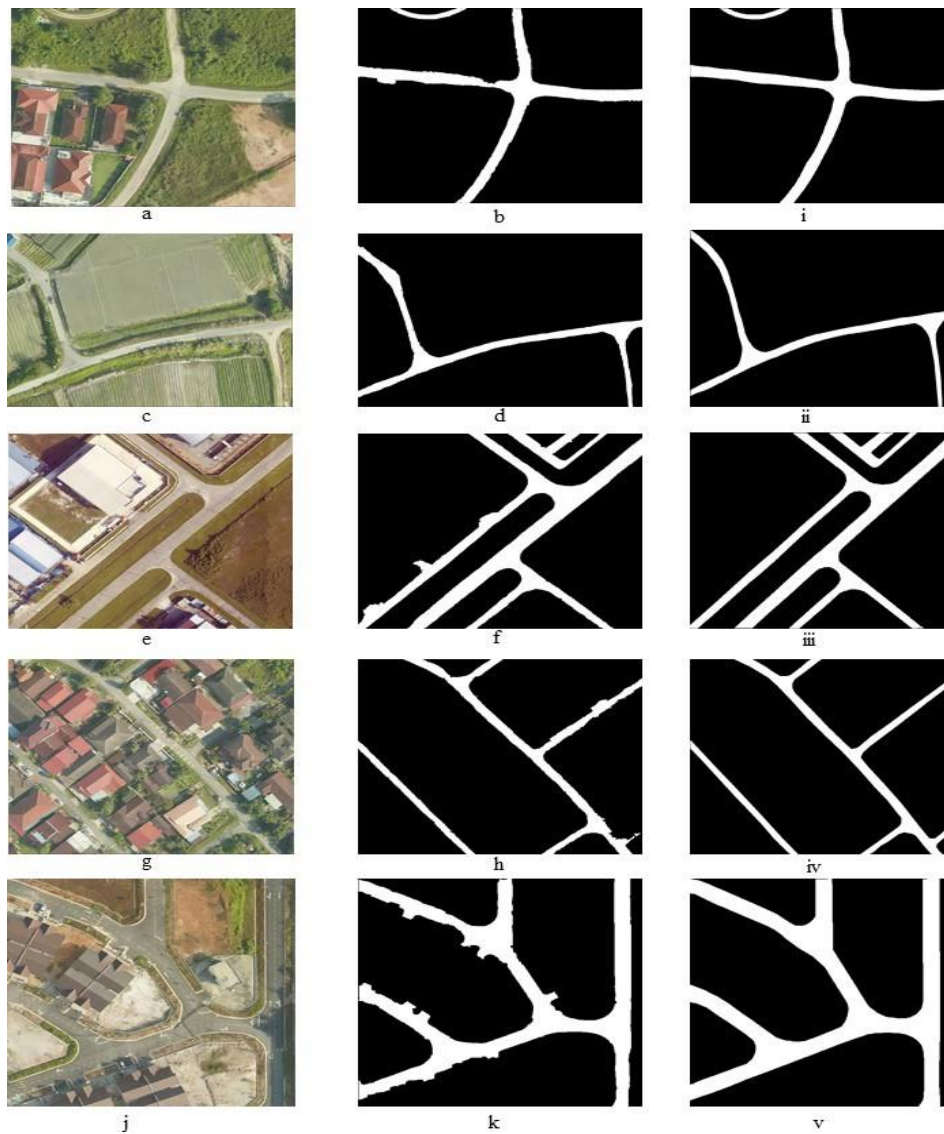


Fig. 3. Results of road extraction using the suggested CNN model: original orthophoto images (a, c, e, g, j), extracted road sections (b, d, f, h, k) and target road map (i, ii, iii, iv, v)

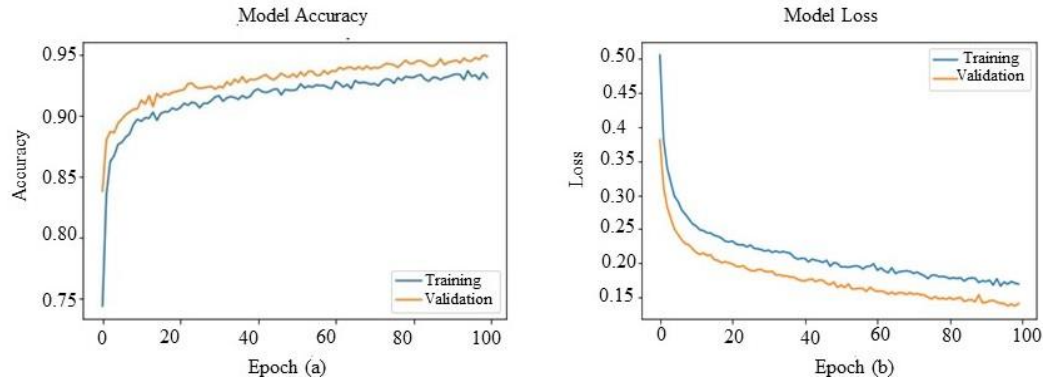


Fig. 4. Model accuracy (a) and model loss (b) of the proposed CNN model

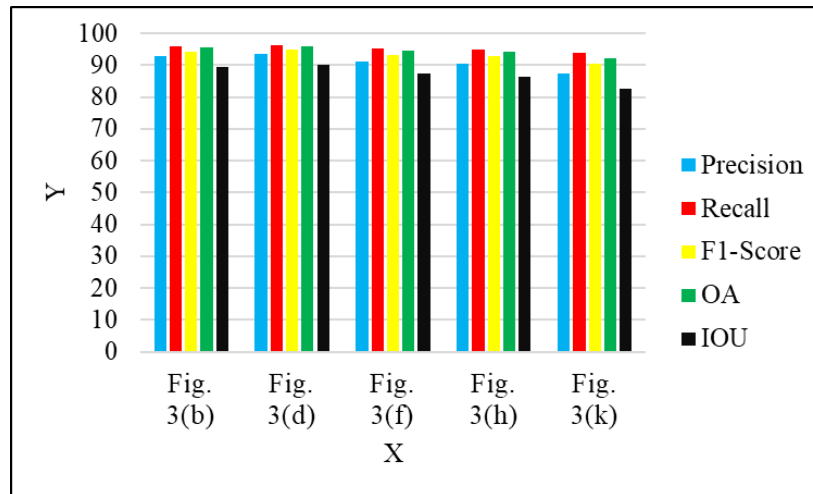


Fig. 5. Accuracy assessment factors of the suggested method for road extraction from four different orthophoto images

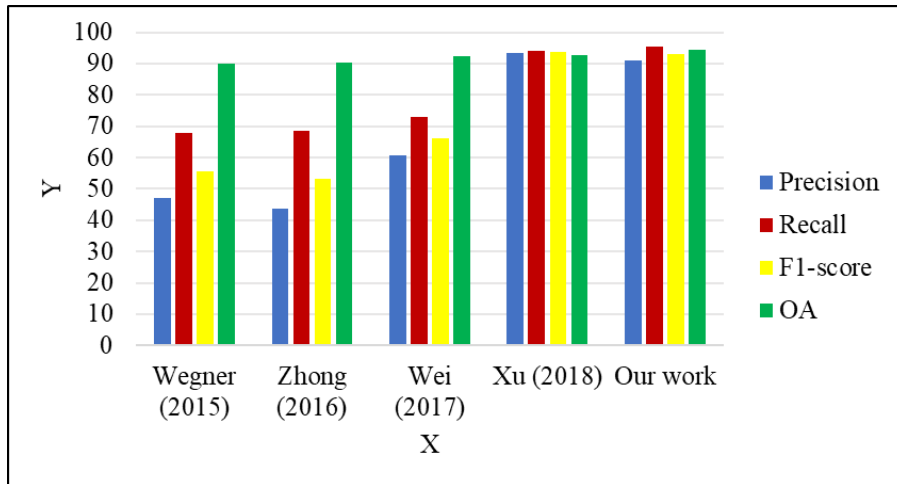


Fig. 6. Accuracy measurement factors of the proposed method for road extraction compared with other works for road extraction

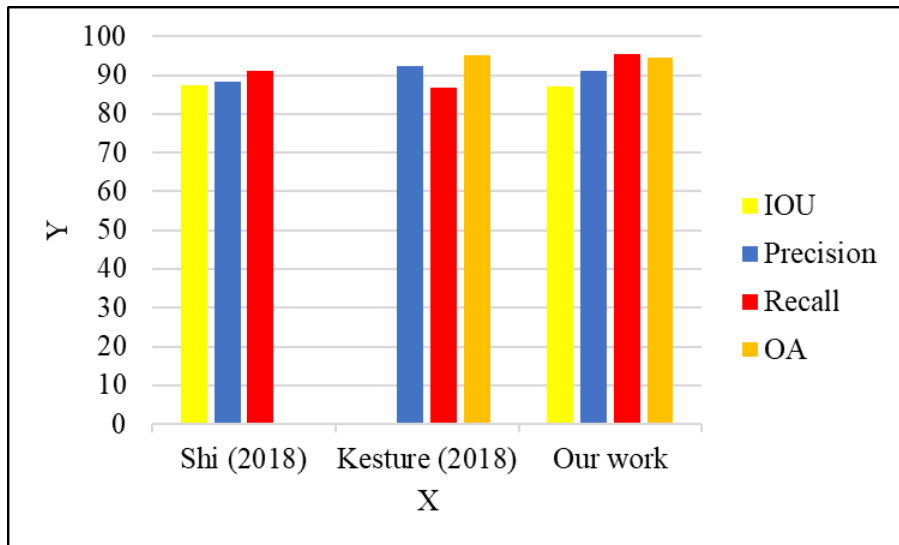


Fig. 7. Accuracy assessment factors of the suggested model compared with other modern deep learning models for road extraction

Table 1. Summary of the proposed CNN model layers

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Parameter
Input	(None, 5, 5, 1)	0
Convolution2D	(None, 5, 5, 32)	320
Max-Pooling	(None, 2, 2, 32)	0
Convolution2D	(None, 2, 2, 64)	18496
Max-Pooling	(None, 1, 1, 64)	0
Dropout	(None, 1, 1, 64)	0
Flatten	(None, 64)	0
Dense	(None, 256)	16640
Dropout	(None, 256)	0
Dense (sigmoid)	(None, 2)	514

Table 2. Precision, recall, f1 score, overall accuracy and IOU of the model for accuracy assessment

Figures	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F1 (%)	OA (%)	IOU (%)
Fig. 3(b)	92.75	96.08	94.39	95.48	89.37
Fig. 3(d)	93.64	96.19	94.90	95.91	90.29
Fig. 3(f)	91.25	95.32	93.24	94.54	87.33
Fig. 3(h)	90.48	95.10	92.73	94.10	86.44
Fig. 3(k)	87.35	93.91	90.51	92.21	82.66

Table 3. Comparison of implementation factors of the suggested approach with other works (The best values are in bold)

Methods	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F1 score (%)	OA (%)
Wegner (2015)	47.1	67.9	55.6	89.9
Zhong (2016)	43.5	68.6	53.2	90.4
Wei (2017)	60.6	72.9	66.2	92.4
Xu (2018)	93.4	94	93.7	92.6
Our work	91.09	95.32	93.15	94.44

Table 4. Comparison of implementation factors of the proposed method with other modern deep learning models (The best values are in bold)

Methods	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	IOU (%)	OA (%)
Shi (2018)	88.31	91.01	87.32	-
Kestur (2018)	92.5	86.8	-	95.2
Our work	91.09	95.32	87.21	94.44



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