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AutoCloud+, a “universal” physical and statistical model-based 2D spatial topology-preserving software toolbox for cloud/cloud-shadow detection in multi-sensor single-date Earth observation multi-spectral imagery eligible for systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation

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Abstract: The European Space Agency (ESA) defines as Earth observation (EO) Level 2 information product a single-date multi-spectral (MS) image corrected for atmospheric, adjacency and topographic effects, stacked with its data-derived scene classification map (SCM), whose thematic map legend includes quality layers cloud and cloud-shadow. ESA EO Level 2 product generation is an inherently ill-posed computer vision (CV) problem never accomplished to date in operating mode by any EO data provider at the ground segment. Herein, it is considered: (I) necessary not sufficient pre-condition for the yet-unaccomplished dependent problems of semantic content-based image retrieval (SCBIR) and semantics-enabled information/knowledge discovery (SEIKD) in multi-source EO *big data* cubes. (II) Synonym of EO Analysis Ready Data (ARD) format. (III) Equivalent to a horizontal policy for background developments in Space Economy 4.0. In compliance with the GEO-CEOS Quality Assurance Framework for EO Calibration/Validation guidelines, to contribute toward filling an analytic and pragmatic information gap from multi-sensor EO *big data* to timely, comprehensive and operational EO value-adding information products and services, this work presents an innovative AutoCloud+ CV software toolbox for cloud and cloud-shadow quality layer detection in ESA EO Level 2 product. In vision, spatial information dominates color information. Inspired by this true-fact, the inherently ill-posed AutoCloud+ CV software was conditioned, designed and implemented to be “universal”, meaning fully automated (no human-machine interaction is required), near real-time, robust to changes in input data and scalable to changes in MS imaging sensor’s spatial and spectral resolution specifications.

Keywords: artificial intelligence; color naming; color constancy; cognitive science; computer vision; object-based image analysis (OBIA); physical and statistical data models; radiometric calibration; semantic content-based image retrieval; spatial topological and spatial non-topological information components.

Acronyms

AI: Artificial Intelligence

AI4DIAS: Artificial Intelligence for Data and Information Access Services (at the ground segment)

45	AI4Space: Artificial Intelligence for Space (segment)
46	ARD: Analysis Ready Data (format)
47	ATCOR: Atmospheric/Topographic Correction commercial software product
48	AVHRR: Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer
49	BC: Basic Color
50	BIVRFTAB: Bivariate Frequency Table
51	Cal: Calibration
52	Cal/Val: Calibration and Validation
53	CBIR: Content-Based Image Retrieval
54	CEOS: Committee on Earth Observation Satellites
55	CESBIO: Centre d'Etudes Spatiales de la Biosphère
56	CFMask: C (programming language version of) Function of Mask
57	CLC: CORINE Land Cover (taxonomy)
58	CNES: Centre national d'études spatiales
59	CNN: Convolutional Neural Network
60	CORINE: Coordination of Information on the Environment
61	CV: Computer Vision
62	DCNN: Deep Convolutional Neural Network
63	DEM: Digital Elevation Model
64	DIAS: Data and Information Access Services
65	DLR: Deutsches Zentrum für Luft- und Raumfahrt (German Aerospace Center)
66	DN: Digital Number
67	DP: Dichotomous Phase (in the FAO LCCS taxonomy)
68	DRIP: Data-Rich, Information-Poor (syndrome)
69	EO: Earth Observation
70	EO-IU: EO Image Understanding
71	EO-IU4SQ: EO Image Understanding for Semantic Querying
72	ESA: European Space Agency
73	FAO: Food and Agriculture Organization
74	FIEOS: Future Intelligent EO imaging Satellites
75	FMask: Function of Mask
76	GEO: Intergovernmental Group on Earth Observations
77	GEOSS: Global EO System of Systems
78	GIGO: Garbage In, Garbage Out principle of error propagation
79	GIS: Geographic Information System
80	GIScience: Geographic Information Science
81	GUI: Graphic User Interface
82	IGBP: International Global Biosphere Programme
83	IU: Image Understanding
84	LAI: Leaf Area Index
85	LC: Land Cover
86	LCC: Land Cover Change
87	LCCS: Land Cover Classification System (taxonomy)
88	LCLU: Land Cover Land Use
89	LEDAPS: Landsat Ecosystem Disturbance Adaptive Processing System
90	MAACS: Multisensor Atmospheric Correction and Cloud Screening
91	MAJA: Multisensor Atmospheric Correction and Cloud Screening (MAACS)-
92	Atmospheric/Topographic Correction (ATCOR) Joint Algorithm
93	mDMI: Minimally Dependent and Maximally Informative (set of quality indicators)
94	MHP: Modular Hierarchical Phase (in the FAO LCCS taxonomy)
95	MIR: Medium InfraRed
96	MODIS: Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer

97	MS: Multi-Spectral
98	MSI: (Sentinel-2) Multi-Spectral Instrument
99	NASA: National Aeronautics and Space Administration
100	NIR: Near InfraRed
101	NLCD: National Land Cover Data
102	NOAA: National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
103	NP: Non-Polynomial
104	OBIA: Object-Based Image Analysis
105	OGC: Open Geospatial Consortium
106	OP: Outcome (product) and Process
107	OP-Q ² I: Outcome and Process Quantitative Quality Index
108	QA4EO: Quality Accuracy Framework for Earth Observation
109	Q ² I: Quantitative Quality Indicator
110	RGB: monitor-typical Red-Green-Blue data cube
111	RMSE: Root Mean Square Error
112	RS: Remote Sensing
113	RTD: Research and Technological Development
114	SCBIR: Semantic Content-Based Image Retrieval
115	SCM: Scene Classification Map
116	SEIKD: Semantics-Enabled Information/Knowledge Discovery
117	Sen2Cor: Sentinel 2 (atmospheric) Correction Prototype Processor
118	SIAM TM : Satellite Image Automatic Mapper TM
119	STRATCOR: Stratified Topographic Correction
120	SURF: Surface Reflectance
121	TIR: Thermal InfraRed
122	TM (superscript): (non-registered) Trademark
123	TMask: Temporal Function of Mask
124	TOA: Top-Of-Atmosphere
125	TOARF: TOA Reflectance
126	UAV: Unmanned Aerial Vehicle
127	UML: Unified Modeling Language
128	USGS: US Geological Survey
129	Val: Validation
130	VAPS: Value-Adding information Products and Services
131	VQ: Vector Quantization
132	WGCV: Working Group on Calibration and Validation

133 1. Introduction

134 Radiometric calibration (*Cal*) is the process of transforming remote sensing (RS) sensory
 135 data, consisting of non-negative dimensionless digital numbers (DNs, with $DN \geq 0$) provided
 136 with no physical meaning, into a physical variable provided with a community-agreed
 137 radiometric unit of measure, such as top-of-atmosphere reflectance (TOARF), surface
 138 reflectance (SURF) or surface albedo values in range [0.0, 1.0] [1-3].

139 To cope with the five Vs characterizing *big data* analytics, specifically, volume, variety,
 140 veracity, velocity and value [4], radiometric *Cal* of Earth observation (EO) *big data* is considered
 141 mandatory by the intergovernmental Group on Earth Observations (GEO)-Committee on
 142 Earth Observation Satellites (CEOS) Quality Accuracy Framework for Earth Observation
 143 (QA4EO) Calibration/Validation (*Cal/Val*) guidelines [3]. In agreement with the yet-
 144 unaccomplished visionary goal of a GEO's implementation plan for years 2005-2015 of a Global
 145 Earth Observation System of Systems (GEOSS) [5], the ambitious goal of the GEO-CEOS
 146 QA4EO *Cal/Val* guidelines is systematic transformation of EO *big data* cubes into timely,
 147 comprehensive and operational EO value-adding information products and services (VAPS).

Despite being considered a well-known “prerequisite for physical model-based analysis of airborne and satellite sensor measurements in the optical domain” [1], EO data radiometric *Cal* is largely oversighted in the RS common practice. A lack of EO input data *Cal* requirements means that statistical model-based data analytics and inductive learning-from-data algorithms are dominant in the RS community, including (geographic) object-based image analysis (GEOBIA) applications [6, 7] in the domain of geographic information science (GIScience). On the one hand, statistical model-based and inductive learning-from-data algorithms require as input DNs provided with no physical meaning. On the other hand, inductive learning-from-data algorithms are inherently semi-automatic and site-specific [2]. In practice, they require no radiometric *Cal* data pre-processing, but they typically gain in robustness when input with radiometrically calibrated data.

In compliance with the GEO-CEOS QA4EO *Cal/Val* requirements and with the GEO’s visionary goal of a GEOSS, the European Space Agency (ESA) has recently defined an ESA EO Level 2 information product as follows [8, 9].

- (i) A single-date multi-spectral (MS) image, radiometrically corrected for atmospheric, adjacency and topographic effects,
- (ii) stacked with its data-derived scene classification map (SCM), whose general-purpose, user- and application-independent thematic map legend includes quality layers cloud and cloud-shadow,
- (iii) to be systematically generated at the ground segment, automatically (without human-machine interaction) and in near real-time.

Table 1. Non-standard general-purpose, user- and application-independent ESA EO Level 2 SCM legend adopted by the sensor-specific Sentinel 2 (atmospheric, adjacency and topographic) Correction (Sen2Cor) Prototype Processor [8, 9], developed and distributed free-of-cost by ESA to be run on user side.

Label	Classification
0	NO_DATA
1	SATURATED_OR_DEFECTIVE
2	DARK_AREA_PIXELS
3	CLOUD_SHADOWS
4	VEGETATION
5	BARE_SOILS
6	WATER
7	CLOUD_LOW_PROBABILITY
8	CLOUD_MEDIUM_PROBABILITY
9	CLOUD_HIGH_PROBABILITY
10	THIN_CIRRUS
11	SNOW

Table 2. Standard general-purpose, user- and application-independent ESA Level 2 SCM legend proposed in [10-12]. “Augmented” 3-level 8-class FAO LCCS Dichotomous Phase (DP) taxonomy (identified as classes A11 to B48) + quality layers Cloud and Cloud-shadow + Others = 8 land cover (LC) classes + 2 LC classes (Cloud-shadow, Others) + 1 non-LC class (Cloud).

		Pseudocolor
A11	1. Cultivated and Managed Terrestrial (non-aquatic) Vegetated Areas	
A12	2. Natural and Semi-Natural Terrestrial Vegetation	
A23	3. Cultivated Aquatic or Regularly Flooded Vegetated Areas	
A24	4. Natural and Semi-Natural Aquatic or Regularly Flooded Vegetation	
B35	5. Artificial Surfaces and Associated Areas	
B36	6. Bare Areas	
B47	7. Artificial Waterbodies, Snow and Ice	
B48	8. Natural Waterbodies, Snow and Ice.	
9. Quality layer: Cloud		
10. Quality layer: Cloud-shadow		
11. Others		

Unlike the non-standard ESA EO Level 2 SCM legend adopted by the Sentinel 2 imaging sensor-specific (atmospheric, adjacency and topographic) Correction Prototype Processor (Sen2Cor), developed by ESA and distributed free-of-cost to be run on user side [8, 9], see Table 1, an alternative ESA EO Level 2 SCM legend proposed in [10-12], shown in Table 2, is selected equal to an “augmented” 3-level 9-class Dichotomous Phase (DP) taxonomy of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) – Land Cover Classification System (LCCS) [13], see Figure 1. Such an “augmented” land cover (LC) class taxonomy in the 4D geospatial-temporal scene-domain encompasses the standard fully-nested 3-level 8-class FAO LCCS-DP legend, , see Figure 1, in addition to a thematic layer “other” or “rest of the world”, which includes quality layers cloud and cloud-shadow. In traditional EO image classification system design and implementation requirements [14], the presence of output class “unknown” is considered mandatory to cope with uncertainty in inherently equivocal *information-as-data-interpretation* (classification) tasks [15].

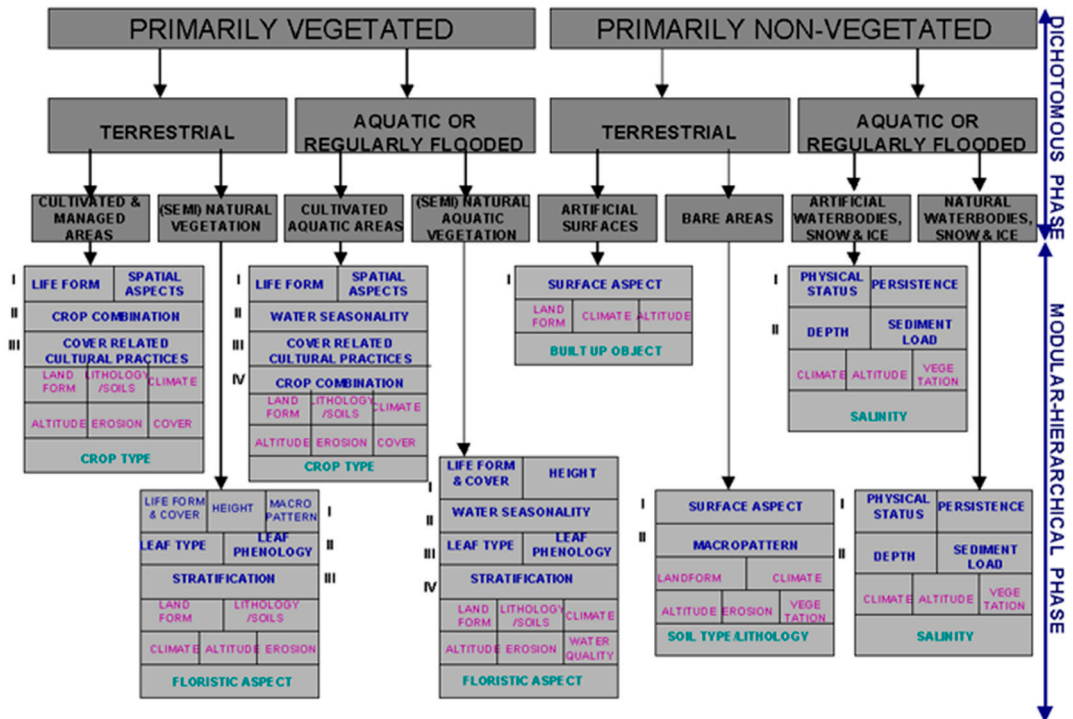


Figure 1. Two-stage fully-nested FAO Land Cover Classification System (LCCS) taxonomy [13]. The first-stage fully-nested 3-level 8-class FAO LCCS Dichotomous Phase (DP) taxonomy is general-purpose, user- and application-independent. It consists of a sorted set of 3 dichotomous layers: (i) vegetation versus non-vegetation, (ii) terrestrial versus aquatic, and (iii) managed versus natural or semi-natural. These 3 dichotomous layers deliver as output the following 8-class FAO LCCS-DP taxonomy. (A11) Cultivated and Managed Terrestrial (non-

aquatic) Vegetated Areas. (A12) Natural and Semi-Natural Terrestrial Vegetation. (A23) Cultivated Aquatic or Regularly Flooded Vegetated Areas. (A24) Natural and Semi-Natural Aquatic or Regularly Flooded Vegetation. (B35) Artificial Surfaces and Associated Areas. (B36) Bare Areas. (B47) Artificial Waterbodies, Snow and Ice. (B48) Natural Waterbodies, Snow and Ice. The general-purpose user- and application-independent 3-level 8-class FAO LCCS-DP taxonomy is preliminary to a second-stage FAO LCCS Modular Hierarchical Phase (MHP) taxonomy, consisting of a battery of user- and application-specific one-class classifiers, equivalent to one-class grammars (syntactic classifiers) [16].

Shown in Figure 1, the standard two-phase fully-nested FAO LCCS hierarchy consists a first-stage fully-nested general-purpose, user- and application-independent 3-level 8-class FAO LCCS-DP legend, preliminary to a second-stage application-dependent and user-specific FAO LCCS Modular Hierarchical Phase (MHP) taxonomy, consisting of a hierarchical (deep) battery of one-class classifiers [13]. The standard first-stage 3-level 8-class FAO LCCS-DP hierarchy is “fully nested”. It comprises three dichotomous LC class-specific information layers, equivalent to a world ontology, world model or mental model of the world [10, 13, 16–21]: DP Level 1 – Vegetation versus non-vegetation, DP Level 2 – Terrestrial versus aquatic and DP Level 3 – Managed versus natural or semi-natural. In recent years, the two-phase FAO LCCS taxonomy has become increasingly popular [22]. One reason of its popularity is that the FAO LCCS hierarchy is “fully nested” while alternative LC class hierarchies, such as the Coordination of Information on the Environment (CORINE) Land Cover (CLC) taxonomy [23], the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) Land Cover Land Use (LCLU) taxonomy by J. Anderson [24], the International Global Biosphere Programme (IGBP) DISCover Data Set Land Cover Classification System [25] and the EO Image Librarian LC class legend [26], start from a Level 1 taxonomy which is already multi-class. In a hierarchical EO image understanding (EO-IU) system architecture submitted to a garbage in, garbage out (GIGO) information principle, synonym of error propagation through an information processing chain, the fully-nested two-phase FAO LCCS hierarchy makes explicit the full dependence of high-level LC class estimates, performed by any high-level (deep) LCCS-MHP data processing module, on the operational quality (in accuracy, efficiency, robustness, etc.) of lower-level LCCS modules, starting from the initial FAO LCCS-DP Level 1 vegetation/non-vegetation information layer whose relevance in thematic mapping accuracy (vice versa, in error propagation) becomes paramount for all subsequent LCCS layers. The GIGO commonsense principle applied to hierarchical semantic dependence is neither trivial nor obvious to underline [27]. On the one hand, it agrees with a minor portion of the RS literature where supervised data learning classification of EO image datasets at continental or global spatial extent into binary LC class vegetation/non-vegetation is considered very challenging [28]. On the other hand, it is at odd with the RS mainstream, where the semantic information gap from sub-symbolic EO data to multi-class LC taxonomies is typically filled in one step, implemented as a supervised data learning classifier [29, 30], e.g., a support vector machine, random forest or deep convolutional neural network (DCNN) [31], which is equivalent to an unstructured black box [27], inherently semi-automatic and site-specific [2] and whose opacity contradicts the well-known engineering principles of modularity, regularity and hierarchy typical of scalable systems [32]. “No Free Lunch” theorems have shown that inductive learning-from-data algorithms cannot be universally good [33, 34].

Over land surfaces of the Earth, the global cloud cover is approximately 66% [35]. In the ESA EO Level 2 product definition, cloud and cloud-shadow quality layer requirements specification accounts for a well-known prerequisite of clear-sky multi-temporal EO image compositing and understanding (classification) solutions proposed by the RS community, where accurate masking of cloud and cloud-shadow phenomena is considered necessary not sufficient pre-condition [9, 10, 36–56]. Intuitively, in single-date and multi-temporal MS image analysis, cloud and cloud-shadow preliminary detection is a relevant problem, because unflagged cloud and cloud-shadow phenomena may be mapped onto erroneous LC classes or

false LC change (LCC) occurrences. Noteworthy, cloud/cloud-shadow detection is a typical example of physical model-based cause-effect relationship, expected to be very difficult to solve by inductive machine learning-from-data algorithms, such as increasingly popular DCNNs [31], suitable for learning complex correlations between input and output features, but capable of no inherent representation of causality [27, 57], in agreement with the well-known dictum that correlation does not imply causation and vice versa [10, 16, 27, 30, 57, 58].

In the last decade, many different cloud/cloud-shadow detection algorithms were presented in the RS literature to run either on a single-date MS image or on an MS image time-series, typically acquired by either one EO spaceborne/airborne MS imaging sensor or a single family (e.g., Landsat) of MS imaging sensors [9, 10, 36-53]. To be accomplished in operating mode at the ground segment (midstream) by EO data providers in support of the downstream sector in an era of Space Economy 4.0 [59], systematic radiometric *Cal* of multi-source multi-angular MS big image data cubes [1, 3, 10, 60-62], encompassing either single-date or multi-temporal cloud and cloud-shadow detection as a necessary not sufficient pre-condition, is regarded by the RS community as an open problem to date [54-56].

To overcome conceptual limitations and well-known failure modes of existing cloud and cloud-shadow detection algorithms [37, 40, 54-56], such as the single-date open source Function of Mask (FMask) algorithm [51, 52], the free-of-cost single-date ESA Sen2Cor software toolbox to be run on user side [8, 9, 37] and the multi-date Multisensor Atmospheric Correction and Cloud Screening (MACCS)-Atmospheric/Topographic Correction (ATCOR) Joint Algorithm (MAJA) developed by the Centre national d'études spatiales (CNES)/ Centre d'Etudes Spatiales de la Biosphère (CESBIO)/ Deutsches Zentrum für Luft- und Raumfahrt (German Aerospace Center, DLR) [39-41], which incorporates capabilities of the ATCOR commercial software toolbox [63-66], this work presents an innovative AutoCloud+ computer vision (CV) software toolbox for cloud and cloud-shadow quality layer detection, suitable for systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation at the ground segment [36, 60, 67]), in compliance with the GEO-CEOS QA4EO *Cal/Val* requirements [3].

Synonym of inherently ill-posed scene-from-image reconstruction and understanding [10, 20, 68, 69]), vision is a cognitive (*information-as-data-interpretation*) process [15], encompassing both biological vision and CV, where CV is *subset-of* artificial (general) intelligence (AI) [70-74], i.e., $AI \supset CV$. In vision, spatial information dominates color information [20]. This unquestionable true-fact is familiar to all human beings wearing sunglasses: in perceptual terms, human panchromatic and chromatic visions are nearly as effective [10]. Based on this observation, an inherently ill-posed AutoCloud+ CV subsystem was constrained, designed and implemented to be "universal" in operating mode, i.e., automated (no human-machine interaction is required to run), near real-time, robust to changes in input data and scalable to cope with changes in MS imaging sensor's spatial and spectral resolution specifications.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Provided with a relevant survey value, Section 2 reviews the interdisciplinary problem background of systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation, regarded as necessary not sufficient pre-condition for a yet-unaccomplished GEOSS development. Related works in cloud/cloud-shadow detection are critically revised in Section 3. Adopted AutoCloud+ methods and materials are proposed in Section 4 and 5 respectively. Collected results are presented in Section 6 and discussed in Section 7. Conclusions are reported in Section 8.

2. Problem background

Featuring a relevant survey value, this Section aims at providing a critical review of the interdisciplinary problem background of systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation. According to our original working hypothesis, to be regarded as our first original contribution, systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation is postulated as necessary not sufficient pre-condition for a yet-unaccomplished GEOSS development, in agreement with the GEO-CEOS QA4EO *Cal/Val* requirements [3]. In this critical review, our second original contribution

highlights the several degrees of novelty of the ESA EO Level 2 product definition (refer to Section 1) in comparison with, for example, alternative EO Analysis Ready Data (ARD) format definitions proposed by the RS community. Next, as our third original contribution, structural limitations in system design of existing open source or commercial software products for EO image radiometric *Cal* (correction) are underlined, to be overcome by an alternative system architecture.

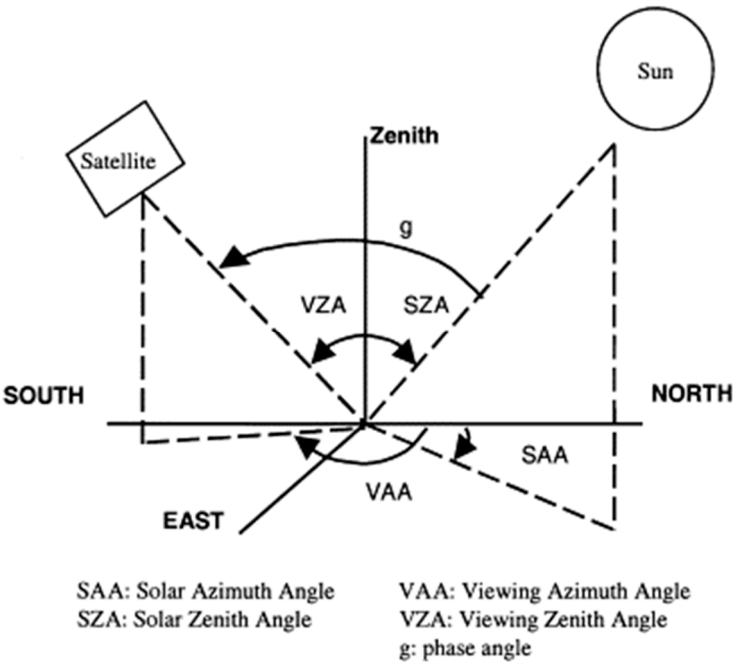


Figure 2. Solar illumination geometries and viewpoint geometries in spaceborne and airborne EO image acquisition.

To successfully cope with the five Vs of EO *big data* analytics, specifically, volume, variety, veracity, velocity and value [4], multi-sensor analysis of multi-temporal multi-angular EO sensory data cubes depends upon the ability to distinguish between relevant changes and no-changes occurring at the Earth surface through time [61, 62]. Necessary not sufficient precondition for EO *big data* transformation into timely, comprehensive and operational EO data-derived VAPS, expected by GEO to be pursued by a GEOSS never accomplished to date [5], is radiometric *Cal*, considered mandatory by the GEO-CEOS QA4EO *Cal/Val* requirements [3]. In short, radiometric *Cal* guarantees EO sensory data interoperability (consistency, “normalization”) through time, geographic space and sensors. In greater detail, the capability to detect and quantify change/no-change in terms of either qualitative (nominal, categorical) Earth surface variables, such as LC classes belonging to a finite and discrete LC class taxonomy (legend), or quantitative (numeric) Earth surface variables, such as biophysical variables, e.g., leaf area index (LAI), biomass, etc. [75], depends on the radiometric *Cal* of EO sensory data, equivalent to non-negative dimensionless DNs ≥ 0 , provided with no physical meaning and typically affected at sensor-level by ever-varying atmospheric conditions, solar illumination conditions, spaceborne/airborne viewing geometries and Earth surface topography, into a physical variable provided with a community-agreed radiometric unit of measure, such as SURF or surface albedo values in range [0, 1] [1-3]. Solar illumination conditions are typically parameterized by metadata *Cal* parameters, such as image acquisition time, solar exoatmospheric irradiance, solar zenith angle and solar azimuth angle, see Figure 2. Sensor viewing characteristics are typical metadata *Cal* parameters, such as sensor zenith angle and sensor azimuth angle, see Figure 2. Atmospheric conditions are described by categorical variables, such as aerosol type, haze, cloud and cloud-shadow, and by numeric variables, such as water vapor, temperature and aerosol optical thickness (AOT) [61, 62]. Finally, Earth surface

geometries must be inferred from ancillary data, such as a digital elevation model (DEM), in combination with solar and viewing conditions [76], see Figure 2.

Adopted by different scientific disciplines, such as machine learning-from-data [30], AI as *superset-of* CV [70], i.e., $AI \supset CV$, and RS [2, 10], popular synonyms of deductive inference are top-down inference, prior knowledge-based inference, learning-by-rule inference and physical model-based inference. Synonyms of inductive inference are bottom-up inference, learning-from-data inference, learning-from-examples inference and statistical model-based inference.

On the one hand, non-calibrated sensory data, provided with no physical meaning, can be investigated by statistical data models and inductive inference algorithms, exclusively. On the other hand, although they do not require physical variables as input, statistical data models and inductive learning-from-data algorithms can benefit from input data *Cal* in terms of augmented robustness to changes in the input data set acquired through time, space and sensors. On the contrary, radiometrically calibrated data, provided with a physical meaning, can be interpreted by either inductive, deductive (physical model-based) or hybrid (combined deductive and inductive) inference algorithms. Although it is considered a well-known “prerequisite for physical model-based (and hybrid) analysis of airborne and satellite sensor measurements in the optical domain” [1, 10, 60–62], EO data *Cal* is largely neglected in the RS common practice. For example, in major portions of the RS literature, including the GEOBIA sub-domain of GIScience [6, 7], no reference to radiometric *Cal* issues is found. This lack of input EO data *Cal* requirements proves that, to date, EO image analytics mainly consists of inductive learning-from-data algorithms, starting from scratch because no *a priori* physical knowledge is exploited in addition to data. This is in contrast with biological cognitive systems, where “there is never an absolute beginning” [77], because *a priori* genotype provides initial conditions (that reflect properties of the world, embodied through evolution, based on evolutionary experience) to learning-from-examples phenotype, according to a hybrid inference paradigm, where phenotype explores the neighborhood of genotype in a solution space [10, 71]. Hybrid inference combines deductive and inductive inference to take advantage of each and overcome their shortcomings [2]. Inductive inference is typically semi-automatic and site-specific [2]. Deductive inference is static (non-adaptive to data) and typically lacks flexibility to transform ever-varying sensory data (sensations) into stable percepts (concepts) in a world model [10, 20, 78, 79].

In compliance with the GEO-CEOS QA4EO *Cal/Val* requirements and the visionary goal of a GEOSS ([5]), ESA has recently provided an original ESA EO Level 2 information product definition, refer to Section 1 [8, 9]. The ESA EO Level 2 product definition is non-trivial. Noteworthy, it is more restrictive than the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) EO Level 2 product definition of “a data-derived geophysical variable at the same resolution and location as Level 1 source data” [80]. According to the standard Unified Modeling Language (UML) for graphical modeling of object-oriented software [81], where symbol ‘ \rightarrow ’ denotes relationship *part-of* pointing from the supplier to the client (vice versa, it would denote relationship *depend-on*), not to be confused with relationship *subset-of*, whose symbol is ‘ \supset ’, meaning specialization with inheritance from the superset to the subset, dependence relationship ‘NASA EO Level 2 product \rightarrow ESA EO Level 2 product’ holds true, see Figure 3. It means that a NASA EO Level 2 product can be accomplished although no ESA EO Level 2 product exists, whereas the vice versa does not hold.

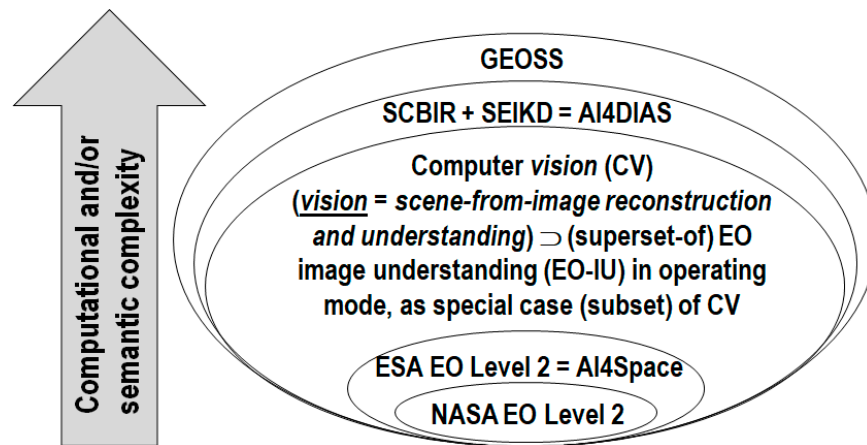


Figure 3. In agreement with the standard Unified Modeling Language (UML) for graphical modeling of object-oriented software ([81]), relationship *part-of*, denoted with symbol ‘→’ pointing from the supplier to the client, should not to be confused with relationship *subset-of*, ‘⊃’, meaning specialization with inheritance from the superset to the subset [81]. A NASA EO Level 2 product is defined as “a data-derived geophysical variable at the same resolution and location as Level 1 source data” [80]. Herein, it is considered *part-of* an ESA EO Level 2 product defined as [8, 9]: (a) a single-date multi-spectral (MS) image whose digital numbers (DNs) are radiometrically corrected into surface reflectance (SURF) values for atmospheric, adjacency and topographic effects, stacked with (b) its data-derived general-purpose, user- and application-independent scene classification map (SCM), whose thematic map legend includes quality layers cloud and cloud-shadow. In this paper, ESA EO Level 2 product is regarded as an information primitive to be accomplished by Artificial Intelligence for the Space segment (AI4Space), such as in future intelligent small satellite constellations, rather than at the ground segment in an AI for data and information access services (AI4DIAS) framework. In this graphical representation, additional acronyms of interest are computer vision (CV), whose special case is EO image understanding (EO-IU) in operating mode, semantic content-based image retrieval (SCBIR) [10, 82-87], semantics-enabled information/knowledge discovery (SEIKD), where SCIR + SEIKD is considered synonym of AI4DIAS, and Global Earth Observation System of Systems (GEOSS), defined by the Group on Earth Observations [5]. Our working hypothesis postulates that ‘NASA EO Level 2 product → ESA EO Level 2 product = AI4Space ⊂ EO-IU in operating mode ⊂ CV → [EO-SCBIR + SEIKD = AI4DIAS] → GEOSS’. It means that GEOSS, whose *part-of* are the still-unsolved (open) problems of SCBIR and SEIKD, cannot be achieved until the necessary not sufficient pre-condition of CV in operating mode, specifically, systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation, is accomplished in advance. Encompassing both biological vision and CV, vision is synonym of scene-from-image reconstruction and understanding. Vision is a cognitive (*information-as-data-interpretation*) problem [15] very difficult to solve because: (i) non-polynomial (NP)-hard in computational complexity [88, 89], (ii) inherently ill-posed in the Hadamard sense [90], i.e., vision admits no solution, multiple solutions or, if the solution exists, the solution’s behavior changes continuously with the initial conditions [20, 68]. Vision is inherently ill-posed because affected by: (I) a 4D-to-2D data dimensionality reduction from the scene-domain to the image-domain, e.g., responsible of occlusion phenomena, and (II) a semantic information gap from ever-varying sub-symbolic sensory data (sensations) in the physical world to stable symbolic percepts in the mental model of the physical world (modeled world, world ontology, world model) [10, 16-21]. Since it is inherently ill-posed, vision requires *a priori* knowledge in addition to sensory data to become better posed for numerical solution [30]. If the aforementioned working hypothesis holds true, then the complexity of SCBIR + SEIKD is not inferior to the complexity of vision, acknowledged to be inherently ill-posed and NP-hard. To make the inherently-ill-posed CV problem better conditioned for numerical solution, a CV system is required to comply with human visual perception. In other words, a CV system is constrained to include a computational model of human vision, i.e., ‘Human vision → CV’. Hence,

dependence relationship: 'Human vision \rightarrow CV \supset EO-IU in operating mode \supset NASA EO Level 2 product \rightarrow ESA EO Level 2 product \rightarrow [EO-SCBIR + SEIKD = AI4DIAS] \rightarrow GEOSS' is our working hypothesis.

An improved ("augmented") and more restrictive ESA EO Level 2 product definition could be defined to account for bidirectional reflectance distribution function (BRDF) effect correction, in addition to atmospheric, topographic and adjacency effects correction, to model surface anisotropy in multi-temporal multi-angular EO image data cubes [2, 61, 62, 66, 91-94]. A surface that reflects the incident energy equally in all directions is said to be Lambertian, where reflectance is invariant with respect to illumination and viewing conditions, see Figure 2. On the contrary, a surface is said to be anisotropic when its reflectance varies with respect to illumination and/or viewing geometries. These changes are driven by the optical and structural properties of the surface material. In other words, in EO image pre-processing (enhancement) for radiometric *Cal*, BRDF effect correction is LC class-specific [61, 62, 66, 91-94]. The LC class-specific task of BRDF correction is to derive, for non-Lambertian surfaces, spectral albedo (bi-hemispherical reflectance, BHR) values, defined over all directions [2, 66, 91-94], from either SURF or TOARF values where the Lambertian surface assumption holds [63-66, 91].

Our first original contribution is to consider an ESA EO Level 2 information product a baseline information unit (information primitive) whose systematic generation is of paramount importance to contribute toward filling an analytic and pragmatic information gap from multi-sensor, multi-temporal and multi-angular EO *big image data cubes* into timely, comprehensive and operational EO data-derived VAPS, in compliance with the yet-unaccomplished visionary goal of a GEOSS [3, 5]. In Figure 3, our working hypothesis postulates that systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation is an inherently ill-posed CV problem, where CV \supset EO-IU, whose solution in operating mode is necessary not sufficient precondition for the yet-unaccomplished dependent problems of semantic content-based image retrieval (SCBIR) [10, 82-87] and semantics-enabled information/knowledge discovery (SEIKD) in large-scale EO image data cubes, with SCBIR + SEIKD considered synonym of artificial intelligence for data and information access services (AI4DIAS), where AI4DIAS is *part-of* a yet-unaccomplished GEOSS. The closed-loop AI4DIAS system architecture, suitable for semantics-enabled incremental learning [10, 87], is sketched in Figure 4 [10].

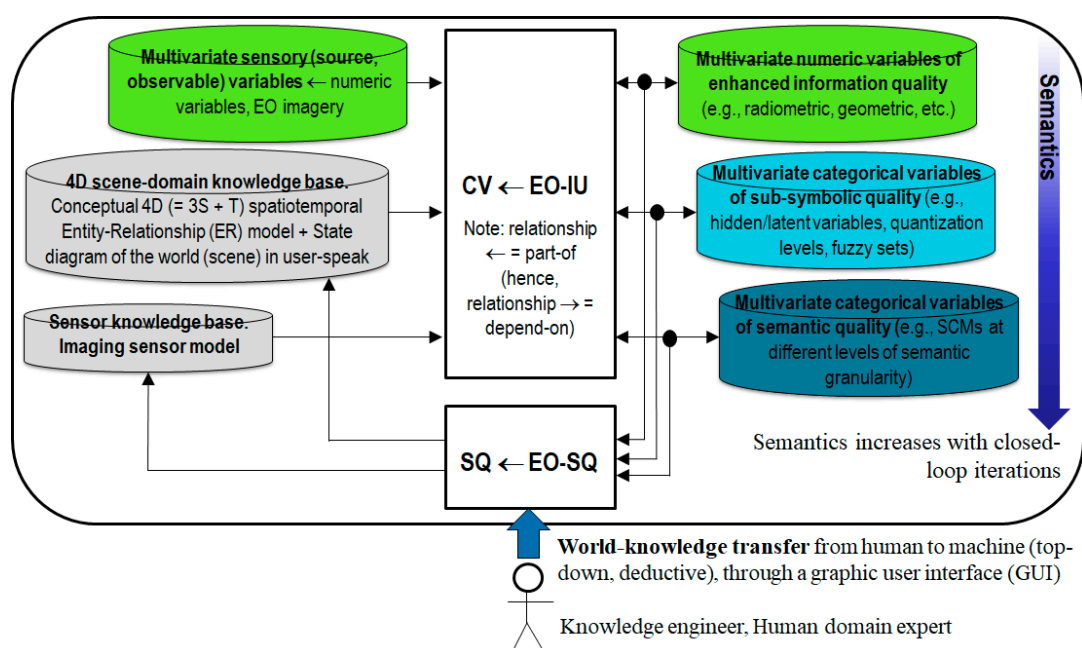


Figure 4. Artificial intelligence (AI) for data and information access services (AI4DIAS), synonym of semantics-enabled DIAS or closed-loop EO image understanding (EO-IU) for

semantic querying (EO-IU4SQ) system architecture. At the Marr level of system understanding known as system design (architecture) [69], AI4DIAS is sketched as a closed-loop EO-IU4SQ system architecture, suitable for incremental semantic learning. It comprises a primary (dominant, necessary not sufficient) hybrid (combined deductive and inductive) feedback (provided with feedback loops) EO-IU subsystem in closed-loop with a secondary (dominated) hybrid feedback EO-SQ subsystem. *Subset-of* a computer vision (CV) system, where $CV \supset EO-IU$, the EO-IU subsystem is required to be automatic (no human-machine interaction is required by the CV system to run) and near real-time to provide the EO-SQ subsystem with useful information products, including thematic maps of symbolic quality, such as single-date ESA EO Level 2 Scene Classification Map (SCM) considered necessary not sufficient pre-condition to semantic querying, synonym of semantics-enabled information/knowledge discovery (SEIKD) in massive multi-source EO image databases. The EO-SQ subsystem is provided with a graphic user interface (GUI) to streamline: (i) top-down knowledge transfer from-human-to-machine of an *a priori* mental model of the 4D geospatial-temporal real-world, (ii) high-level user- and application-specific EO semantic content-based image retrieval (SCBIR) operations. Output products generated by the closed-loop EO-IU4SQ system are expected to monotonically increase their value-added with closed-loop iterations, according to Bayesian updating where Bayesian inference is applied iteratively [95, 96]: after observing some evidence, the resulting posterior probability can be treated as a prior probability and a new posterior probability computed from new evidence. One of Marr's legacies is the notion of computational constraints required to make the typically ill-posed non-polynomial (NP)-hard problem of intelligence, encompassing vision [89], better conditioned for numerical solution [30]. Marr's computational constraints that reflect properties of the world are embodied through evolution, equivalent to genotype [71], into the human visual complex system, structured as a hierarchical network of networks with feedback loops [89, 97-102, 181]). Marr's computational constraints are Bayesian priors in a Bayesian inference approach to vision [69, 95, 103], where ever-varying sensations (sensory data) are transformed into stable percepts (concepts) about the world in a world model [20], to perform successfully in the world [15].

To justify our working hypothesis sketched in Figure 3, specifically, 'Human vision \rightarrow CV \supset EO-IU in operating mode \supset NASA EO Level 2 product \rightarrow ESA EO Level 2 product \rightarrow [EO-SCBIR + SEIKD = AI4DIAS] \rightarrow GEOSS', let us introduce, first, the definition proposed for an EO-IU system to be considered in operating mode and, second, the background knowledge of vision in the multidisciplinary domain of cognitive science [70-74].

Based on scientific literature [10-12, 60, 78, 79, 104], a CV \supset EO-IU system is defined in operating mode if and only if it scores "high" in every index of a minimally dependent and maximally informative (mDMI) set of EO outcome and process (OP) quantitative quality indicators (Q²Is), to be community-agreed upon to be used by members of the RS community, in agreement with the GEO-CEOS QA4EO *Cal/Val* guidelines [3]. A proposed instantiation of an mDMI set of EO OP-Q²Is includes:

- (i) degree of automation, inversely related to human-machine interaction, e.g., inversely related to the number of system's free-parameters to be user-defined based on heuristics,
- (ii) effectiveness, e.g., thematic mapping accuracy,
- (iii) efficiency in computation time and in run-time memory occupation,
- (iv) robustness (vice versa, sensitivity) to changes in input data,
- (v) robustness to changes in input parameters to be user-defined,
- (vi) scalability to changes in user requirements and in sensor specifications,
- (vii) timeliness from data acquisition to information product generation,
- (viii) costs in manpower and computer power,
- (ix) value, e.g., semantic value of output products, economic value of output services, etc.

According to the Pareto formal analysis of multi-objective optimization problems, optimization of an mDMI set of OP-Q²Is is an inherently-ill posed problem in the Hadamard sense [90], where many Pareto optimal solutions lying on the Pareto efficient frontier can be considered equally good [105]. Any EO-IU system solution lying on the Pareto efficient frontier can be considered in operating mode, therefore suitable to cope with the five Vs of spatial-temporal EO *big data*, namely, volume, variety, veracity, velocity and value [4].

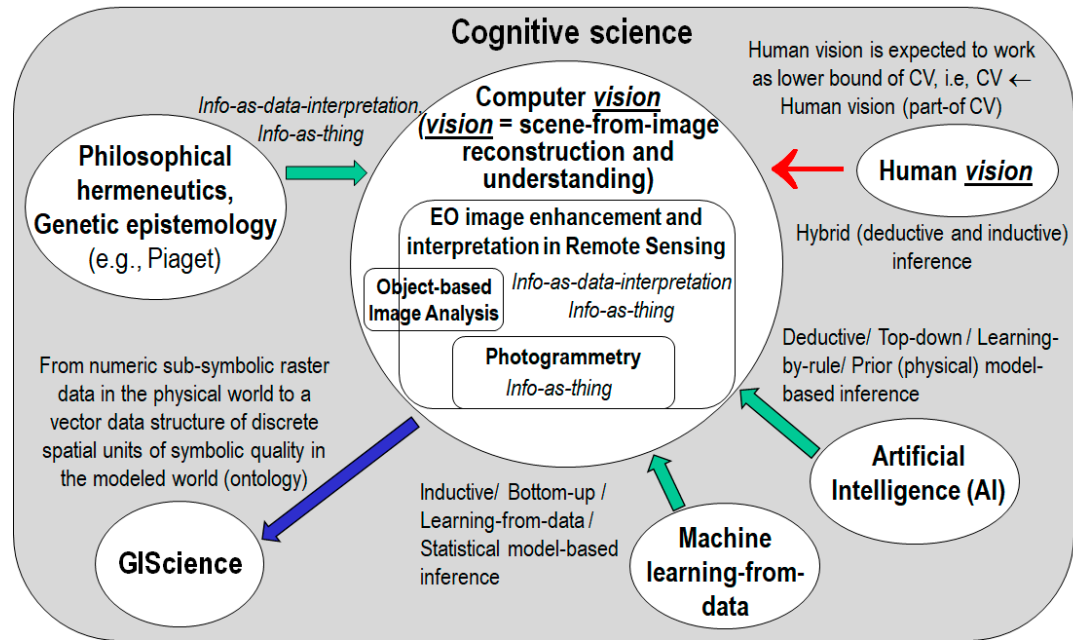


Figure 5. Multi-disciplinary cognitive science domain, where it is postulated that ‘Human vision → computer vision (CV)’, where symbol ‘→’ denotes relationship *part-of* pointing from the supplier to the client, not to be confused with relationship *subset-of*, ‘⊃’, meaning specialization with inheritance from the superset to the subset, in agreement with the standard Unified Modeling Language (UML) for graphical modeling of object-oriented software [81]. Working hypothesis ‘Human vision → CV’ means that human vision is expected to work as lower bound of CV, i.e., a CV system is required to include as *part-of* a computational model of human vision. In practice, to become better conditioned for numerical solution, an inherently ill-posed CV system is required to comply with human visual perception phenomena in the multi-disciplinary domain of cognitive science. Cognitive science is the interdisciplinary scientific study of the mind and its processes. It examines what cognition (learning, adaptation, self-organization) is, what it does and how it works [15, 70-74]. It especially focuses on how information/knowledge is represented, acquired, processed and transferred either in the neuro-cerebral apparatus of living organisms or in machines, e.g., computers. Like engineering, remote sensing (RS) is a meta-science [106], whose goal is to transform knowledge of the world, provided by other scientific disciplines, into useful user- and context-dependent solutions in the world. Neuroscience, in particular neurophysiology, studies the neuro-cerebral apparatus of living organisms. Neural network (NN) is synonym of distributed processing system, consisting of neurons as elementary processing elements and synapses as lateral connections. Is it possible and even convenient to mimic biological mental functions, e.g., human reasoning, by means of an artificial mind whose physical support is not an electronic brain implemented as an artificial NN (ANN)? The answer is no according to the “connectionists approach” promoted by traditional cybernetics, where a complex system always comprises an “artificial mind-electronic brain” combination. This is alternative to a traditional approach to artificial intelligence (AI), whose so-called symbolic approach investigates an artificial mind independently of its physical support [70].

In the multidisciplinary domain of cognitive science (see Figure 5), vision is synonym of scene-from-image reconstruction and understanding [20], see Figure 6. Encompassing both biological vision and CV, vision is a cognitive (*information-as-data-interpretation*) problem [15], very difficult to solve because: (i) non-polynomial (NP)-hard in computational complexity [88, 89], (ii) inherently ill-posed in the Hadamard sense [90], i.e., vision admits no solution, multiple solutions or, if the solution exists, the solution's behavior changes continuously with the initial conditions [20, 68]. Vision is inherently ill-posed because affected by: (I) a 4D-to-2D data dimensionality reduction, from the spatial-temporal scene-domain to the (2D) image-domain, for example responsible of occlusion phenomena, and (II) a semantic information gap, from ever-varying sub-symbolic sensory data (sensations) in the physical world to stable symbolic percepts in the mental model of the physical world (modeled world, world ontology, world model) [16-21]. Since it is inherently ill-posed, vision requires *a priori* knowledge in addition to sensory data to become better posed for numerical solution [30]. For example, in inherently ill-posed CV systems, a valuable source of *a priori* knowledge is reverse engineering primate visual perception [89, 97-102], so that a CV system is constrained to include a computational model of human vision, i.e., 'Human vision \rightarrow CV', see Figure 5. According to cognitive science, $AI \supset CV$ is not a problem in statistics [107], which is tantamount to saying there is no (qualitative, equivocal, nominal) semantics in (quantitative, unequivocal, numeric) sensory data [10]. These principles are implicit in the dual meaning of word information, either quantitative (unequivocal) *information-as-thing*, typical of the Shannon data communication/transmission theory [108], or qualitative (equivocal) *information-as-data-interpretation*, typical of $AI \supset CV$ tasks investigated by philosophical hermeneutics [15].

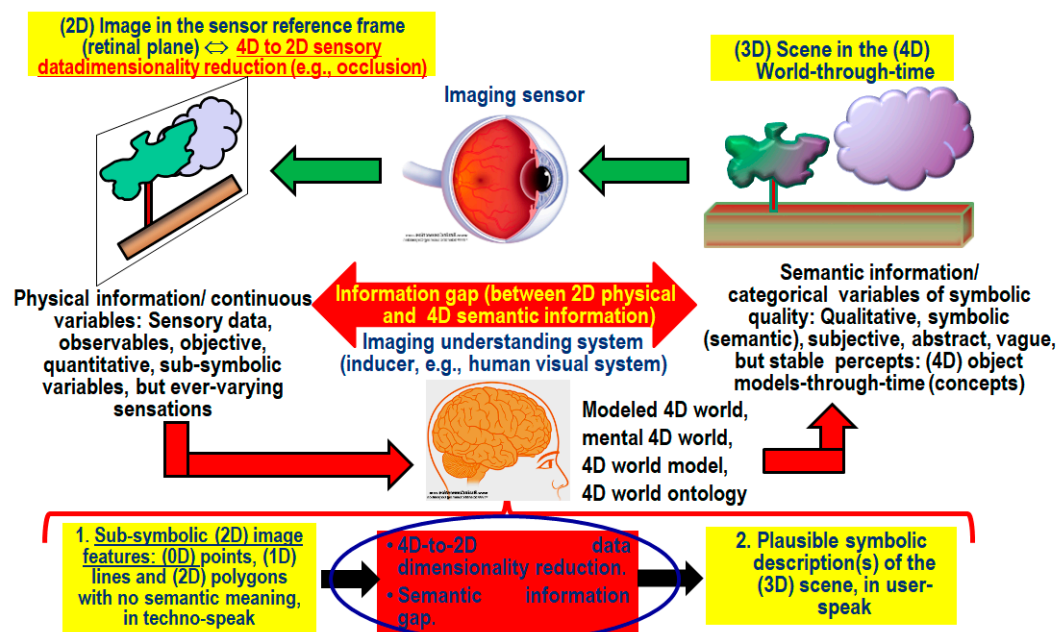


Figure 6. Synonym of scene-from-image reconstruction and understanding, vision is a cognitive (*information-as-data-interpretation*) problem [15] very difficult to solve because: (i) non-polynomial (NP)-hard in computational complexity [88, 89], and (ii) inherently ill-posed [20, 68] in the Hadamard sense [90]. Vision is inherently ill-posed because affected by: (I) a 4D-to-2D data dimensionality reduction from the scene-domain to the image-domain, e.g., responsible of occlusion phenomena, and (II) a semantic information gap from ever-varying sub-symbolic sensory data (sensations) in the physical world-domain to stable symbolic percepts in the mental model of the physical world (modeled world, world ontology, world model) [16, 21]. Since it is inherently ill-posed, vision requires *a priori* knowledge in addition to sensory data to become better posed for numerical solution [30].

Largely overlooked by the RS and CV literature, an unquestionable true-fact (observation) is that spatial information dominates color information in vision [20]. This commonsense knowledge is obvious, but not trivial. For example, it is familiar to all human beings wearing sunglasses: human panchromatic vision is nearly as effective as chromatic vision in scene-from-image reconstruction and understanding [10]. This true-fact means that spatial information dominates both the 4D geospatial-temporal scene-domain and the (2D) image-domain involved with the cognitive task of vision, whose goal is scene-from-image reconstruction and understanding, see Figure 6. This evidence is also acknowledged by the Tobler's first law (TFL) of geography, familiar to geographers. The TFL of geography states that "all things are related, but nearby things are more related than distant things"[109], although certain phenomena clearly constitute exceptions [110]. Obscure to many geographers familiar with the TFL formulation, the statistical concept of spatial autocorrelation is the quantitative counterpart of the qualitative TFL of geography [10]. The relevance of spatial autocorrelation in both the 4D geospatial-temporal scene-domain and the (2D) image domain involved with vision is at the very foundation of the (GE)OBIA approach to CV, originally conceived around year 2000 by the GIScience community as a viable alternative to traditional 1D spatial-context insensitive (pixel-based) image analysis [6, 7]. Unfortunately, rather than starting from past background knowledge in the multi-disciplinary domain of cognitive science, the GEOBIA approach was started from scratch by a self-referencing GEOBIA sub-community within the GIScience domain, see Figure 5 [6, 7, 111, 112]. As a consequence of its lack of interdisciplinarity, the GEOBIA community showed an increasing tendency to "re-invent the wheel" in ever-varying implementations of the same sub-optimal EO-IU system architecture, although the CV community clearly acknowledged that the linchpin of success of any CV solution is system design together with information/knowledge representation, rather than algorithm or implementation [16, 69]. Based on these observations, to enforce a 'Human vision \rightarrow CV' paradigm, see Figure 5, the following constraint can be adopted to make an inherently ill-posed CV system better conditioned for numerical solution [10].

If a chromatic CV \supset EO-IU system does not down-scale seamlessly to achromatic image analysis, then it tends to ignore the paramount spatial information in favor of subordinate (secondary) spatial context-insensitive color information, such as MS signatures typically investigated in traditional pixel-based single-date or multi-temporal EO-IU algorithms. In other words, a necessary and sufficient condition for a CV \supset EO-IU system to fully exploit primary spatial topological information (e.g., adjacency, inclusion, etc.) and spatial non-topological information (e.g., spatial distance, angle distance) components, in addition to secondary colorimetric information, is to perform nearly as well when input with either panchromatic or color imagery [10].

Supported by this background knowledge about vision, a true-fact is that ESA EO Level 2 product generation is an inherently ill-posed CV problem (*chicken-and-egg* dilemma), whose inherently ill-posed CV subtask is cloud and cloud-shadow quality layer detection. Since it is ill-posed, ESA EO Level 2 product generation is, first, very difficult to solve; in fact, no ESA EO Level 2 product has ever been accomplished in operating mode by any EO data provider at the ground segment to date. Second, it requires *a priori* knowledge in addition to sensory data to become better conditioned for numerical solution.

Our conclusion is that systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation, at the core of the present work, is of potential interest to relevant portions of the RS community, involved with EO *big data* transformation into timely, comprehensive and operational EO data-derived VAPS [3, 5]. Regarded as necessary not sufficient pre-condition for a GEOSS to cope with the five Vs of EO *big data* analytics, see Figure 3, systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation is still open for solution in operating mode.

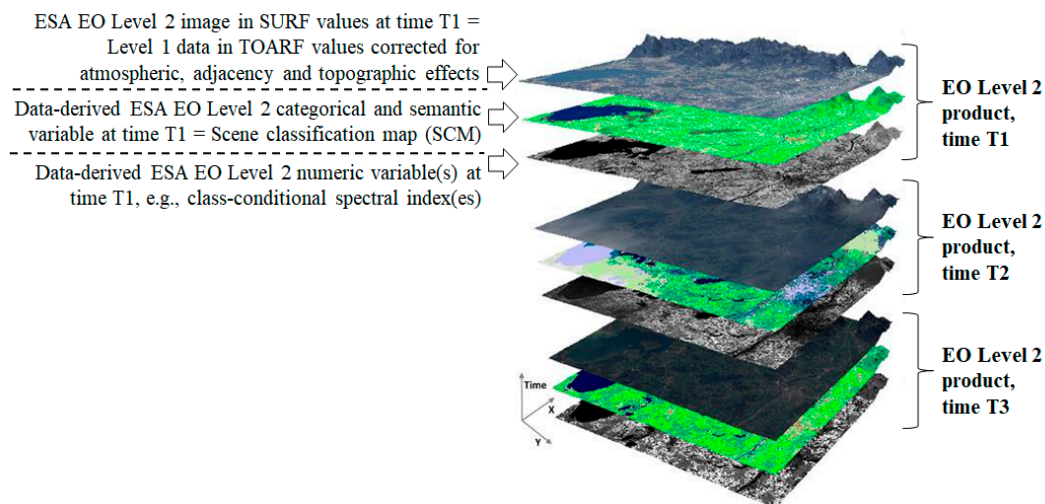


Figure 7. Semantics-enabled EO data cube, synonym of artificial intelligence for data and information access services (AI4DIAS). Each single-date EO Level 1 source image, radiometrically calibrated into top-of-atmosphere reflectance (TOARF) values and stored in the database, is automatically transformed into an ESA EO Level 2 product comprising: (i) a single-date multi-spectral (MS) image radiometrically calibrated from top-of-atmosphere reflectance (TOARF) into surface reflectance (SURF) values, corrected for atmospheric, adjacency and topographic effects, stacked with (ii) its EO data-derived value-adding scene classification map (SCM), equivalent to a sensory data-derived categorical/qualitative variable of semantic quality, where the thematic map legend is general-purpose, user- and application-independent and comprises quality layers such as cloud and cloud-shadow. It is eventually stacked with (iii) its EO data-derived value-adding numeric variables, such as biophysical variables, e.g., LAI [75], class-conditional spectral indexes, e.g., vegetation class-conditional greenness index [113, 114], categorical variables of sub-symbolic quality (geographic field-objects), e.g., fuzzy sets/discretization levels low/medium/high of a numeric variable, etc. [115].

The several degrees of novelty of the ESA EO Level 2 product definition (refer to Section 1) are highlighted below.

First, the ESA EO Level 2 product definition is innovative because it overtakes the traditional concept of EO data cube with an innovative EO data cube stacked with its data-derived value-adding information cube, synonym of semantics-enabled data cube or AI4DIAS, see Figure 7. A semantics-enabled EO data cube is alternative to existing EO data cubes, affected by the so-called data-rich information-poor (DRIP) syndrome [116], such as the existing first generation of the European Commission (EC) data and information access services (DIAS) [117, 118]. Intuitively, EC-DIAS is affected by the DRIP syndrome because it is provided with no CV system in operating mode as inference engine, capable of transforming geospatial-temporal EO *big data*, characterized by the five Vs of volume, variety, veracity, velocity and value [4], into VAPS, starting from semantic information products, such as the ESA EO Level 2 SCM baseline product. Sketched in Figure 4, AI4DIAS complies with the Marr's intuition that "vision goes symbolic almost immediately... without loss of information" [69] (p. 343).

Second, in our understanding the ESA EO Level 2 product definition is synonym of EO Analysis Ready Data (ARD) format. This ARD definition is in contrast with the Committee on Earth Observation Satellites (CEOS) ARD for Land (CARD4L) products definition [119], where atmospheric effect removal is required exclusively, whereas no data-derived SCM is demanded as additional output. It is also in contrast with the U.S. Landsat ARD format [120, 121], where atmospheric effect removal is required, but no SCM is provided as output. In practice, the CARD4L and U.S. Landsat ARD definitions are *part-of* the ESA EO Level 2 product

definition. The latter includes the former. When the latter is accomplished, so is the former, but the vice versa does not hold.

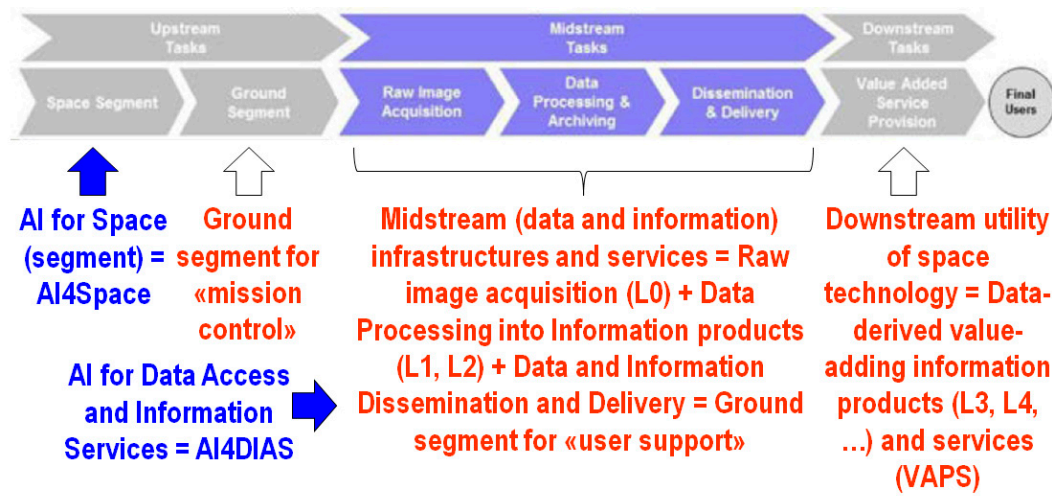


Figure 8. Definitions in Space Economy 4.0: space segment, ground segment for «mission control» = upstream, ground segment for «user support» = midstream (infrastructures and services), downstream (utility of space technology) [59] (pp. 6, 57).

Third, we consider ESA EO Level 2 product generation a horizontal policy for background developments in support of a “new” Space Economy 4.0 [59], see Figure 8. In Space 4.0, global value chains will require both vertical and horizontal policies. Vertical policies are more directional and ‘active’, focussing on directing change, often through mission-oriented policies that require the active creation and shaping of markets. Horizontal policies are more focused on the background conditions necessary for innovation, correcting for different types of market and system failures [59].

Fourth, in an “old” mission-oriented (vertical) space economy [59], the ground segment is typically defined as consisting of upstream and midstream, defined as the portion of ground segment for mission support and user support respectively, see Figure 8. ESA expects ESA EO Level 2 product generation to be accomplished by EO data providers at midstream. Actually, ESA EO Level 2 product generation should occur as early as possible in the information processing chain, e.g., in the space segment preliminary to the ground segment, in compliance with the Marr’s intuition that “vision goes symbolic almost immediately... without loss of information” [69] (p. 343). Hence, in Figure 3, ESA EO Level 2 product generation becomes synonym of AI applications for the space segment, AI4Space, where $AI \supset CV$. AI4Space comes before the application of AI techniques to the ground segment, specifically, AI4DIAS. If a $CV \subset AI$ application in operating mode is implemented onboard a spaceborne platform of an EO imaging sensor to provide imagery with intelligence (semantics), then Future Intelligent EO imaging Satellites (FIEOS), conceived in the early 2000s [122], become realistic, such as future intelligent EO small satellite constellations. In EO small satellite constellations provided with no on-board radiometric *Cal* subsystem, improved time resolution is counterbalanced by inferior radiometric *Cal* capabilities, considered mandatory by the GEO-CEOS QA4EO *Cal/Val* guidelines [3] to guarantee interoperability of multiple platforms and sensors within and across constellations. The visionary goal of AI4Space is realistic, based on the recent announcement of a research and technological development (RTD) project focused on future intelligent small satellite constellations. The quote is: “an Earth-i led consortium will develop a number of new Earth Observation technologies that will enable processes, such as the enhancement of image resolution, cloud-detection, change detection and video compression, to take place on-board a small satellite rather than on the ground. This will accelerate the delivery of high-quality images, video and information-rich analytics to end-users. On-board

cloud detection will make the tasking of satellites more efficient and increase the probability of capturing a usable and useful image or video. To achieve these goals, ‘Project OVERPaSS’ will implement, test and demonstrate very high-resolution optical image analysis techniques, involving both new software and dedicated hardware installed onboard small satellites to radically increase their ability to process data in space. The project will also determine the extent to which these capabilities could be routinely deployed on-board British optical imaging satellites in the future” [123].

Fifth, in the RS common practice, the potential impact of the ESA EO Level 2 product definition is relevant because it makes explicit once and for all the undisputable true-fact that atmospheric effect correction [9, 49, 61-66, 124], adjacency and topographic effect corrections [76, 125-129], BRDF effect correction [61, 62, 66, 91-94]; [92], in addition to cloud/cloud shadow quality layer detection [9, 10, 36-39, 41-56], are inherently ill-posed CV problems [20, 68] in the Hadamard sense [90], whose solution does not exist or, if it exists, it is not unique or it is not robust to small changes in the initial condition, including changes to the input dataset. Since they are inherently ill-posed, atmospheric, topographic, adjacency and BRDF effect corrections, in addition to cloud/cloud shadow quality layer mapping, require *a priori* knowledge in addition to sensory data to become better posed for numerical solution [30]. This is tantamount to saying that radiometric *Cal* of EO imagery, encompassing ESA EO Level 2 product generation, is a *chicken-and-egg* dilemma [10, 125]. On the one hand, no EO image understanding (classification) into a finite and discrete taxonomy of LC classes, in addition to categorical layers cloud and cloud-shadow, is possible in operating mode if radiometric *Cal* is not accomplished in advance, where dimensionless DN_s are transformed into a physical unit of radiometric measure to guarantee data interoperability through space, time and sensors, in agreement with the GEO QA4EO *Cal/Val* requirements [5]. On the other hand, no radiometric *Cal* of EO imagery is possible without knowing in advance LC classes and nominal quality layers, such as cloud and cloud-shadow masks, since atmospheric, topographic and BRDF effect corrections are LC class-dependent. This is tantamount to saying that, to become better posed for automatic numerical solution (requiring no human-machine interaction), an inherently ill-conditioned CV algorithm for EO image correction from atmospheric, topographic, adjacency and BRDF effects ought to be run on a stratified (layered, class-conditional) basis, i.e., it should run separately on informative EO image strata (masks, layers). A stratified (layered, class-conditional) approach to CV complies with well-known criteria in the equivocal domain of *information-as-data-interpretation* [15].

- Well known in statistics, the principle of statistic stratification. It states that “stratification will always achieve greater precision provided that the strata have been chosen so that members of the same stratum are as similar as possible in respect of the characteristic of interest” [130].
- The popular problem solving criterion known as divide-and-conquer (*dividi-et-impera*) [29], to be accomplished in agreement with the engineering principles of modularity, hierarchy and regularity considered necessary for scalability in structured system design [32].
- A Bayesian approach to CV, where driven-without-knowledge (unconditional) data analytics is replaced by driven-by-(prior) knowledge (class-conditional) data analytics [69, 95, 103, 131]. In the words of Quinlan: “one of David Marr’s key is the notion of constraints. The idea that the human visual system embodies constraints that reflect properties of the world is foundational. Indeed, this general view seemed (to me) to provide a sensible way of thinking about Bayesian approaches to vision. Accordingly, Bayesian priors are Marr’s constraints. The priors/constraints have been incorporated into the human visual system over the course of its evolutionary history (according to the “levels of understanding of an information processing system” manifesto proposed by Marr and extended by Tomaso Poggio in 2012)” [103, 131]. In agreement with a Bayesian approach to CV, our working hypothesis, sketched in Figure 3, postulates that CV includes a computational model of human vision, i.e., ‘Human vision → CV’. In practice, a CV system is constrained to comply

with human visual perception. This CV requirement agrees with common sense, although it is largely oversights in the RS and CV literature. In the words of Marcus: “there is no need for machines to literally replicate the human mind, which is, after all, deeply error prone, and far from perfect. But there remain many areas, from natural language understanding to commonsense reasoning, in which humans still retain a clear advantage. Learning the mechanisms underlying those human strengths could lead to advances in AI, even if the goal is not, and should not be, an exact replica of human brain. For many people, learning from humans means neuroscience; in my view, that may be premature. We don’t yet know enough about neuroscience to literally reverse engineer the brain, per se, and may not for several decades, possibly until AI itself gets better. AI can help us to decipher the brain, rather than the other way around. Either way, in the meantime, it should certainly be possible to use techniques and insights drawn from cognitive and developmental psychology, now, in order to build more robust and comprehensive AI, building models that are motivated not just by mathematics but also by clues from the strengths of human psychology” [27]. According to Iqbal and Aggarwal: “frequently, no claim is made about the pertinence or adequacy of the digital models as embodied by computer algorithms to the proper model of human visual perception... This enigmatic situation arises because research and development in computer vision is often considered quite separate from research into the functioning of human vision. A fact that is generally ignored is that biological vision is currently the only measure of the incompleteness of the current stage of computer vision, and illustrates that the problem is still open to solution” [132]. For example, according to Pessoa, “if we require that a CV system should be able to predict perceptual effects, such as the well-known Mach bands illusion where bright and dark bands are seen at ramp edges, then the number of published vision models becomes surprisingly small” [133], see Figure 9. In the CV and RS common practice, constraint ‘Human vision → CV’ is a viable alternative to heuristics typically adopted to constrain inherently ill-posed inductive learning-from-data algorithms, where *a priori* knowledge is typically encoded by design based on empirical criteria [27, 30, 57]. For example, state-of-the-art DCNNs [31] encode *a priori* knowledge by design, where architectural metaparameters must be user-defined based on heuristics. In inductive DCNNs, number of layers, number of filters per layer, spatial filter size, inter-filter spatial stride, local filter size for spatial pooling, spatial pooling filter stride, etc., are typically selected by users based on trial-and-error strategies. As a consequence, inductive DCNNs work as black boxes [27, 57], whose opacity contradicts the well-known engineering principles of modularity, regularity and hierarchy typical of scalable systems [32]. In general, inductive learning-from-data algorithms are inherently semi-automatic (requiring human-machine interactions to define system’s free-parameters, such as architectural metaparameters) and site-specific (data-dependent) [2]. “No Free Lunch” theorems have shown that inductive learning-from-data algorithms cannot be universally good [33, 34].

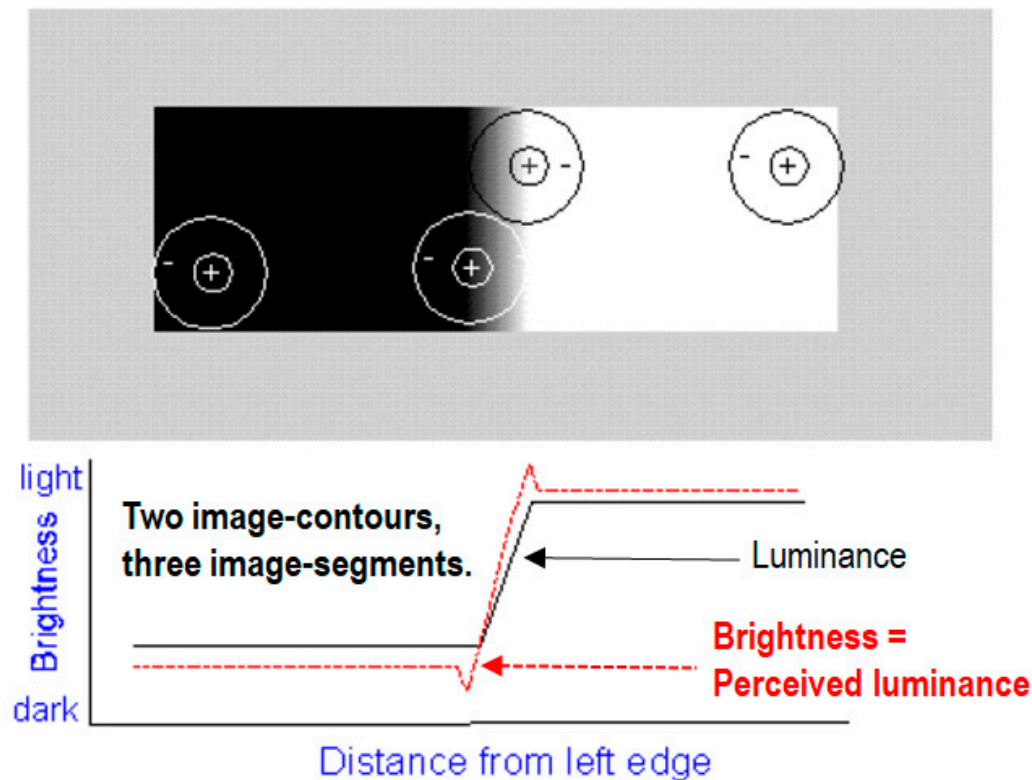


Figure 9. Mach bands illusion. In black: Ramp in luminance units across space. In red: Brightness (perceived luminance) across space. One of the best-known brightness illusions, where brightness is defined as a subjective aspect of vision, i.e., brightness is the perceived luminance of a surface, is the psychophysical phenomenon of the Mach bands: where a luminance (radiance, intensity) ramp meets a plateau, there are spikes of brightness, although there is no discontinuity in the luminance profile. Hence, human vision detects two boundaries, one at the beginning and one at the end of the ramp in luminance. Since there is no discontinuity in luminance where brightness is spiking, the Mach bands effect is called a visual “illusion”. Along a ramp, no image-contour is perceived by human vision, irrespective of the ramp’s local contrast (gradient) in range $(0, +\infty)$. In the words of Pessoa, “if we require that a brightness model should at least be able to predict Mach bands, the bright and dark bands which are seen at ramp edges, the number of published models is surprisingly small” [133]. In 2D signal (image) processing, the important lesson to be learned from the Mach bands illusion is that local variance, contrast and first-order derivative (gradient) are statistical features (data-derived numeric variables) computed locally in the (2D) image-domain NOT suitable to detect image-objects (segments, closed contours) required to be perceptually “uniform” (“homogeneous”) in agreement with human vision. In other words, these popular local statistics are not suitable visual features if detected image-segments/image-contours are required to be consistent with human visual perception, including ramp-edge detection. This straightforward (obvious), but not trivial observation is at odd with a large portion of the existing computer vision (CV) and remote sensing (RS) literature, where many semi-automatic image segmentation/image-contour detection algorithms are based on thresholding the local variance, contrast or first-order gradient, e.g., [134-136], where a system’s free-parameter for thresholding image-objects or image-contours must be user-defined in range $\in (0, +\infty)$ based on heuristics.

Although it is largely ignored by large portions of the RS community, the unequivocal true-fact that inherently ill-posed CV \supset EO-IU algorithms for radiometric *Cal* of DNs into SURF or surface albedo values do require EO image classification to be performed in advance is implicitly confirmed by existing open source or commercial software toolboxes for EO image enhancement (pre-processing), reviewed hereafter.

Supported by NASA, the baseline of the U.S. Landsat ARD format [120, 121] is atmospheric effect removal by the open source Landsat-4/5/7 Ecosystem Disturbance Adaptive Processing System (LEDAPS). In LEDAPS, exclusion masks for water, cloud, shadow and snow surface types were detected by an over-simplistic set of prior knowledge-based spectral decision rules applied per pixel [124]. Quantitative analyses of LEDAPS products led by its authors revealed that these exclusion masks were prone to errors, to be corrected in future LEDAPS releases [124]. The same considerations hold for the Landsat 8 OLI/TIRS-specific Landsat Surface Reflectance Code (LaSRC) adopted by the U.S. Landsat ARD format [137]. Unfortunately, suitable for testing or *Val* purposes, a multi-level image consisting of exclusion masks has never been generated as output by either LEDAPS or LaSRC. To detect quality layers cloud and cloud-shadow, in addition to snow/ice pixels, recent versions of LEDAPS and LaSRC adopted the open source C Function of Mask (CFMask) algorithm [120, 121]. CFMask was derived from the open source Function of Mask (FMask) algorithm [51, 52], translated into the C programming language to facilitate its implementation in a production environment. Unfortunately, to date, in a recent comparison of cloud and cloud-shadow detectors, those implemented in LEDAPS scored low among alternative solutions [55]. By the way, potential users of U.S. Landsat ARD imagery are informed by USGS in advance about typical CFMask artifacts [56]. Like other cloud detection algorithms [54, 55], CFMask may have difficulties over bright surface types such as building tops, beaches, snow/ice, sand dunes, and salt lakes. Optically thin clouds will always be challenging to identify and have a higher probability of being omitted by the U.S. Landsat ARD algorithm. In addition, the algorithm performance has only been validated for cloud detection, and to a lesser extent for cloud shadows. No rigorous evaluation of the snow/ice detection has ever been performed.

Transcoded into CFMask by the U.S. Landsat ARD processor, the open source Fmask algorithm for cloud, cloud-shadow and snow/ice detection was originally developed for single-date 30 m resolution 7-band (from visible blue, B, to thermal InfraRed, TIR) Landsat-5/7/8 MS imagery, which includes a thermal band as key input data requirement [51]. In recent years, FMask was extended to 10 m/20 m resolution Sentinel-2 MS imagery [52], featuring no thermal band, and to Landsat image time-series (multiTemporal Mask, TMask) [53]. For more details about the FMask software design and implementation, refer to the further Section 3.

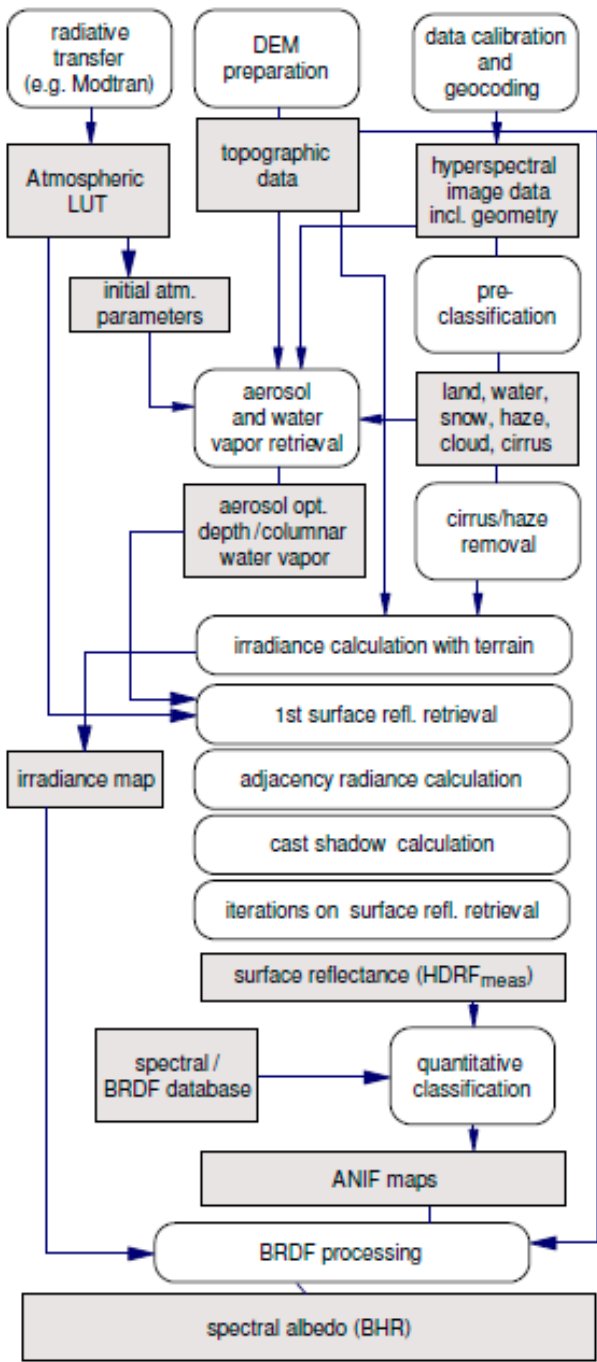


Figure 10. Same as in [66], courtesy of Daniel Schlöpfer, ReSe Applications Schlöpfer. A complete (“augmented”) hybrid (combined deductive and inductive) inference workflow for MS image correction from atmospheric, adjacency and topographic effects. It combines a standard Atmospheric/Topographic Correction for Satellite Imagery (ATCOR) commercial software workflow [63, 64], with a bidirectional reflectance distribution function (BRDF) effect correction, which requires as input an image time-series of the same surface area acquired with different combinations of the sun and sensor positions. Processing blocks are represented as circles and output products as rectangles. This hybrid workflow alternates deductive/prior knowledge-based and inductive/learning-from-data inference units, starting from initial conditions provided by a first-stage prior knowledge-based decision tree for static (non-adaptive to data) color naming, such as the Spectral Classification of surface reflectance signatures (SPECL) decision tree [65] implemented within the ATCOR commercial software toolbox. Categorical variables generated as output by the two processing blocks identified as “pre-classification” and “classification” are employed as input by the subsequent processing

blocks to stratify (mask) unconditional numeric variable distributions, in line with the statistic stratification principle [130]. Through statistic stratification, inherently ill-posed inductive learning-from-data algorithms are provided with *a priori* knowledge required in addition to data to become better posed for numerical solution, in agreement with the machine learning-from-data literature [30].

In the Atmospheric/Topographic Correction for Satellite Imagery (ATCOR) commercial software product, several per-pixel (spatial context-insensitive) deductive spectral rule-based decision trees are implemented for use in different stages of an EO image enhancement pipeline [63-66, 138, 139], see Figure 10. According to Richter and Schläpfer [63, 64], “pre-classification as part of the atmospheric correction has a long history, e.g., in the NASA’s processing chain for MODIS” [50], also refer to [9, 49]. One of the ATCOR’s prior knowledge-based per-pixel decision trees delivers as output a haze/ cloud/ water (and snow) classification mask file (“image_hcw.bsq”), see Table 3. In addition, ATCOR includes a so-called prior knowledge-based decision tree for Spectral Classification of surface reflectance signatures (SPECL) [65], see Table 4. Unfortunately, SPECL has never been tested by its authors in the RS literature, although it has been validated by independent means [138, 139].

Table 3. Thematic map legend of the ATCOR-2/3/4 spectral pre-classification [63-66], whose output product is identified as “image_hcw.bsq” (hcw = haze / cloud / water and snow) map. According to Richter and Schläpfer, “pre-classification as part of the atmospheric correction has a long history, e.g., as part of NASA’s processing chain for MODIS”, e.g., refer to [50].

Label	ATCOR-2/3/4 spectral pre-classification, Land Cover (LC) class definition	Order of detection
0	Background	
1	Cloud shadow	5
2	Cirrus – Thin over water	10
3	Cirrus – Medium over water	11
4	Cirrus – Thick over water	12
5	Land (if not 0 to 5 or 6 to 17)	17
6	Saturated (if (DN > 0.9 * DNmax), then saturated)	1
7	Snow / ice	6
8	Cirrus – Thin over land	7
9	Cirrus – Medium over land	8
10	Cirrus – Thick over land	9
11	Haze – Thin/medium over land	13
12	Haze – Thick/medium over land	14
13	Haze – Thin/medium over water	15
14	Haze – Thick/medium over water	16
15	Cloud over land	3
16	Cloud over water	4

Table 4. Rule set (structural knowledge) and order of presentation of the rule set (procedural knowledge) adopted by the prior knowledge-based MS reflectance space quantizer, eligible for MS reflectance space hyperpolyhedralization into MS color names, called Spectral Classification of surface reflectance signatures (SPECL), implemented within the ATCOR commercial software toolbox [63-65].

Index	Spectral Categories	Spectral Rule (based on reflectance measured at Landsat TM central wave bands: b1 is located at 0.48 μm, b2 at 0.56 μm, b3 at 0.66 μm, b4 at 0.83 μm, b5 at 1.6 μm, b7 at 2.2 μm)	Pseudo-color
1	Snow/ice	$b4/b3 \leq 1.3$ AND $b3 \geq 0.2$ AND $b5 \leq 0.12$	
2	Cloud	$b4 \geq 0.25$ AND $0.85 \leq b1/b4 \leq 1.15$ AND $b4/b5 \geq 0.9$ AND $b5 \geq 0.2$	
3	Bright bare soil / sand / cloud	$b4 \geq 0.15$ AND $1.3 \leq b4/b3 \leq 3.0$	
4	Dark bare soil	$b4 \geq 0.15$ AND $1.3 \leq b4/b3 \leq 3.0$ AND $b2 \leq 0.10$	
5	Average vegetation	$b4/b3 \geq 3.0$ AND ($b2/b3 \geq 0.8$ OR $b3 \leq 0.15$) AND $0.28 \leq b4 \leq 0.45$	

6	Bright vegetation	$b4/b3 \geq 3.0$ AND $(b2/b3 \geq 0.8$ OR $b3 \leq 0.15)$ AND $b4 \geq 0.45$	
7	Dark vegetation	$b4/b3 \geq 3.0$ AND $(b2/b3 \geq 0.8$ OR $b3 \leq 0.15)$ AND $b3 \leq 0.08$ AND $b4 \leq 0.28$	
8	Yellow vegetation	$b4/b3 \geq 2.0$ AND $b2 \geq b3$ AND $b3 \geq 8.0$ AND $b4/b5 \geq 1.5^a$	
9	Mix of vegetation / soil	$2.0 \leq b4/b3 \leq 3.0$ AND $0.05 \leq b3 \leq 0.15$ AND $b4 \geq 0.15$	
10	Asphalt / dark sand	$b4/b3 \leq 1.6$ AND $0.05 \leq b3 \leq 0.20$ AND $0.05 \leq b4 \leq 0.20^a$ AND $0.05 \leq b5 \leq 0.25$ AND $b5/b4 \geq 0.7^a$	
11	Sand / bare soil / cloud	$b4/b3 \leq 2.0$ AND $b4 \geq 0.15$ AND $b5 \geq 0.15^a$	
12	Bright sand / bare soil / cloud	$b4/b3 \leq 2.0$ AND $b4 \geq 0.15$ AND $(b4 \geq 0.25^b$ OR $b5 \geq 0.30^b)$	
13	Dry vegetation / soil	$(1.7 \leq b4/b3 \leq 2.0$ AND $b4 \geq 0.25^c)$ OR $(1.4 \leq b4/b3 \leq 2.0$ AND $b7/b5 \leq 0.83^c)$	
14	Sparse veg. / soil	$(1.4 \leq b4/b3 \leq 1.7$ AND $b4 \geq 0.25^c)$ OR $(1.4 \leq b4/b3 \leq 2.0$ AND $b7/b5 \leq 0.83$ AND $b5/b4 \geq 1.2^c)$	
15	Turbid water	$b4 \leq 0.11$ AND $b5 \leq 0.05^a$	
16	Clear water	$b4 \leq 0.02$ AND $b5 \leq 0.02^a$	
17	Clear water over sand	$b3 \geq 0.02$ AND $b3 \geq b4 + 0.005$ AND $b5 \leq 0.02^a$	
18	Shadow		
19	Not classified (outliers)		

^a These expressions are optional and only used if b5 is present. ^b Decision rule depends on presence of b5. ^c Decision rule depends on presence of b7.

Commissioned by ESA, the Sentinel-2 (atmospheric and topographic) Correction Prototype Processor (Sen2Cor) is not run systematically at the ESA ground segment. Rather, it can be downloaded free-of-cost from an ESA web site to be run on user side [8, 9, 37]. Hence, the Sen2Cor software toolbox does not satisfy the ESA EO Level 2 product requirements specification, refer to Section 1. The existing Sentinel-2 sensor-specific Sen2Cor prototype processor, sketched in Figure 11, adopts the same feedforward workflow of the popular ATCOR commercial software product [63-66]. The Sen2Cor software toolbox accomplishes, first, one SCM product generation from TOARF values by means of a per-pixel (spatial context-insensitive) prior spectral knowledge-based (static, non-adaptive to data) decision tree, whose SCM legend is shown in Table 1. Next, a stratified (class-conditional, driven-by-knowledge) MS image radiometric correction approach is adopted to transform TOARF into SURF values, where SURF values are sequentially corrected for atmospheric, adjacency and topographic effects stratified by the same SCM product generated at first stage from TOARF values.

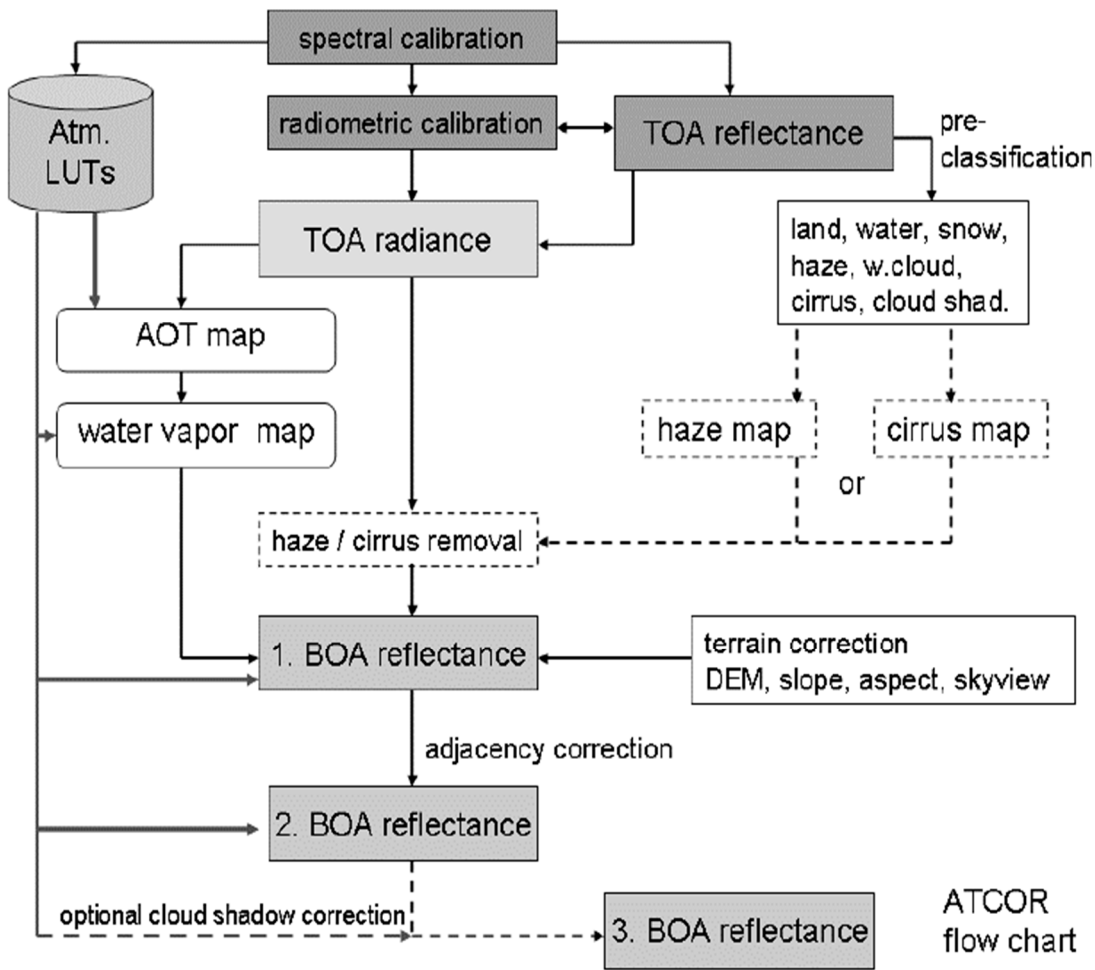


Figure 11. Sen2Cor flow chart for ESA Level 2 product generation from Sentinel-2 imagery [8, 9, 37], same as in the Atmospheric/Topographic Correction for Satellite Imagery (ATCOR) commercial software toolbox [63, 64]. While sharing the same system design, Sen2Cor and ATCOR differ at the levels of abstraction of algorithm and implementation [69]. First, a scene classification map (SCM) is generated from top-of-atmosphere reflectance (TOARF) values. Next, class-conditional MS image radiometric enhancement of TOARF into surface reflectance (SURF) values, synonym of bottom-of-atmosphere (BOA) reflectance values, corrected for atmospheric, adjacency and topographic effects is accomplished in sequence, stratified by the same SCM product generated at first stage from TOARF values. More acronyms in this figure: AOT = aerosol optical thickness, DEM = digital elevation model, LUT = look-up table.

Aa a viable alternative to the existing Sen2Cor, ATCOR, LEDAPS and LaSRC system design and implementation solutions, an inherently ill-posed atmospheric, topographic, adjacency and BRDF effect corrector for systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation, where EO image classification, including cloud/cloud-shadow quality layer detection, is required in advance to be run on a LC class-specific basis [76, 125-127], is conceptually proposed as sketched in Figure 12 [10, 78, 79]. The estimation from an input numeric variable, starting from EO sensory data equivalent to DNs provided with no physical meaning, of an output numeric variable provided with a physical meaning of increasing quality, such as EO data-derived TOARF, SURF and spectral albedo values featuring increasing levels of radiometric *Cal* quality, requires as additional input, at each stage of the EO image enhancement flow chart, a categorical (nominal) variable belonging to a preliminary SCM automatically generated from the EO image radiometrically corrected at the previous stage in the workflow. In other words, equivalent to two sides of the same coin, categorical variables (e.g., SCMs at increasing levels of mapping accuracy and semantics) and continuous variables (e.g., TOARF, SURF and

spectral albedo values) should be estimated from raw EO imagery (coded as dimensionless DNs, provided with no physical meaning) alternately and iteratively. It means that, in an EO image pre-processing workflow conceived as a hybrid inference feedback system, such as the stratified topographic correction (STRATCOR) algorithm proposed in [76], numeric variables are estimated on a categorical (stratified, masked, class-conditional) basis while (enhanced) categorical variables are estimated from (enhanced) continuous variables, in addition to *a priori* knowledge, which is required in addition to data to make the inherently ill-posed CV problem of radiometric *Cal* better posed for numerical solution [10, 30, 91], see Figure 12.

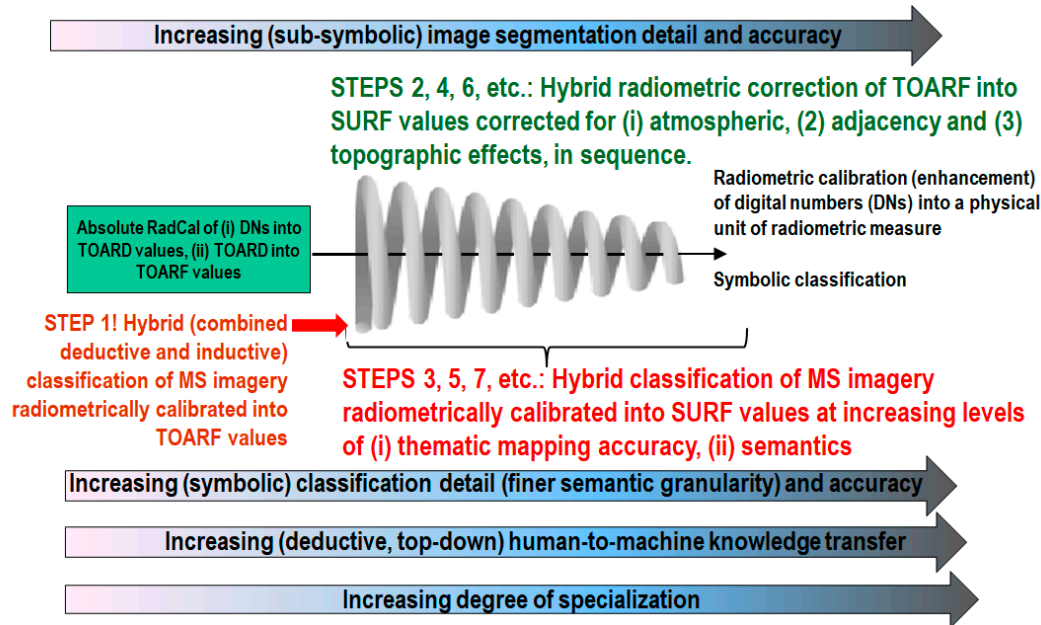


Figure 12. Ideal ESA EO Level 2 product generation design as a hierarchical alternating sequence of: (A) hybrid (combined deductive and inductive) radiometric enhancement of multi-spectral (MS) dimensionless digital numbers (DNs) into top-of-atmosphere reflectance (TOARF), surface reflectance (SURF) values and spectral albedo values corrected in sequence for (1) atmospheric, (2) adjacency, (3) topographic and (4) BRDF effects, and (B) hybrid (combined deductive and inductive) classification of TOARF, SURF and spectral albedo values into a sequence of ESA EO Level 2 scene classification maps (SCMs), whose legend (taxonomy) of community-agreed land cover (LC) class names, in addition to quality layers cloud and cloud-shadow, increases hierarchically. An implementation in operating mode of this EO image pre-processing system design for stratified topographic correction (STRATCOR) is presented and discussed in [10, 76, 78, 79]. In comparison with this desirable system design, let us consider that, for example, the existing Sen2Cor software toolbox, developed by ESA to support a Sentinel-2 sensor-specific Level 2 product generation on user side [8, 9, 37]), adopts no hierarchical alternating approach between MS image classification and MS image radiometric enhancement. Rather, Sen2Cor accomplishes, first, one SCM generation from TOARF values based on a per-pixel (spatial context-insensitive) prior spectral knowledge-based decision tree. Next, a class-conditional MS image radiometric enhancement of TOARF into SURF values corrected for atmospheric, adjacency and topographic effects is accomplished in sequence, stratified by the same SCM product generated at first stage from TOARF values, see Figure 11.

As our fourth original contribution, it is worth mentioning here that TOARF, SURF and surface albedo values whose physical domain of change is [0.0, 1.0], e.g., estimated as intermediate products or final output product by an ESA EO Level 2 product generator, can be rescaled to the discrete and finite range {0, 255} according to an unsigned char data coding, e.g., $\text{byte}(\text{SURF} / 255. + 0.5)$, affected by a quantization (discretization) error equal to $(\text{Max} - \text{Min}) / \text{number of bins} / 2$ (due to rounding to the closest integer, either above or below) $= (1.0 - 0.) / 255. / 2. = 0.002 = 0.2\%$. This observation, to be

considered straightforward, which does not mean either obvious or trivial, means that, for example, the Planet Surface Reflectance (SR) Product [182], coded as a 16-bit unsigned short integer, can be transcoded into an 8-bit unsigned char, affected by a quantization error as low as 0.2%, with a 50% save in memory storage.

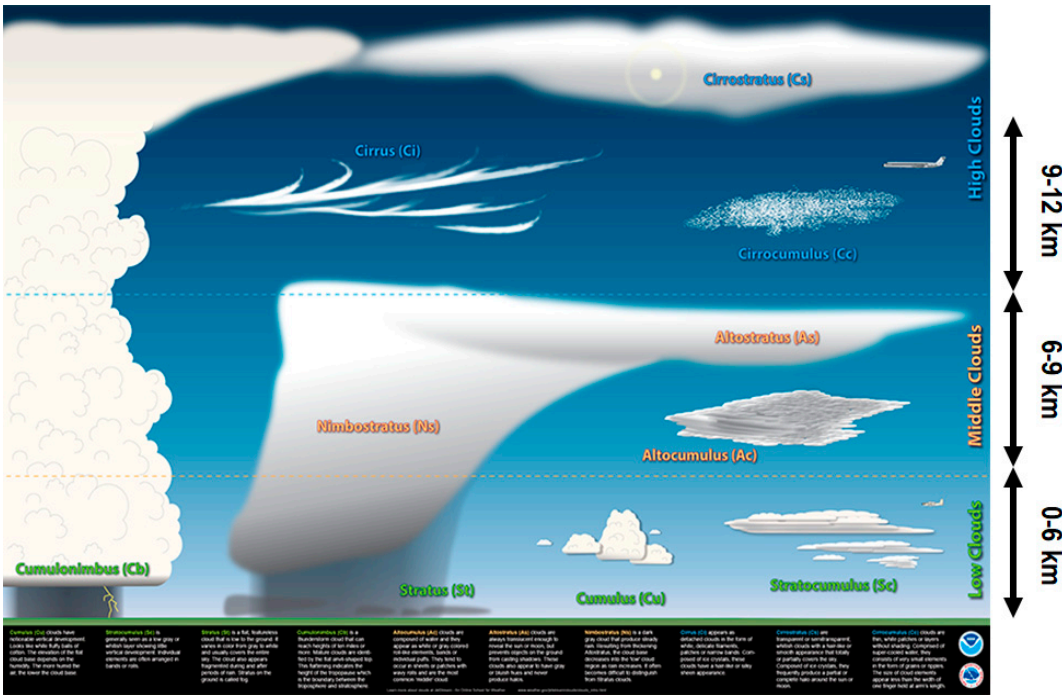


Figure 13. Cloud classification according to the U.S. National Weather Service (www.srh.noaa.gov/jetstream/clouds/corefour.htm).

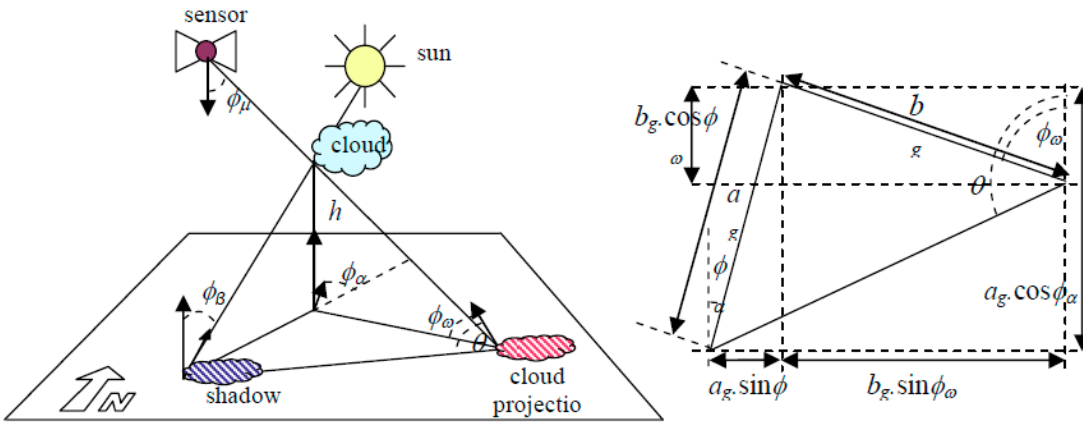


Figure 14. Courtesy of [48]. Sun-cloud-satellite geometry for arbitrary viewing and illumination conditions. Left: Actual 3D representation of the Sun/ Cloud/ Cloud-shadow geometry. Cloud height, h , is a typical unknown variable. Right: Apparent Sun/ Cloud/ Cloud-shadow geometry in a 2D soil projection, with $a_g = h \cdot \tan \phi_{\beta}$, $b_g = h \cdot \tan \phi_{\mu}$.

3. Related works

To contribute toward filling an analytic and pragmatic information gap from multi-sensor, multi-temporal and multi-angular EO *big data* cubes to systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation never accomplished to date by any EO data provider at the ground segment (refer to Section 1), our attention focuses on the RTD of an inherently ill-posed CV subsystem for cloud and cloud-shadow quality layer detection (see Figure 13 and Figure 14) in operating mode (refer to Section 2), considered an open problem to date by the RS community

[54-56]. Provided with a relevant survey value, this Section revises standard cloud/cloud-shadow detectors, available either open source or free of cost. To highlight their structural drawbacks and failure modes, if any, as our fifth original contribution, standard cloud/cloud-shadow detectors are critically reviewed at the Marr's four levels of system abstraction, known as information/knowledge representation, system design, algorithm and implementation [10, 16, 69].

In the last decade, many different cloud/cloud-shadow detection algorithms were presented in the RS literature, to be input with either a single-date MS image or an MS image time-series typically acquired by either one EO spaceborne/airborne MS imaging sensor or a single family of MS imaging sensors, e.g., spaceborne Landsat [9, 10, 36-39, 41-53].

Predated by a long history of deductive convolutional neural networks (CNNs), consisting of "handcrafted" (physical model-based) multi-scale 2D spatial filter banks, developed since the early 1980s for multi-scale image analysis (encoding, decomposition), synthesis (decoding, reconstruction) [140] and classification [141], the recent hype about inductive end-to-end learning-from-data Deep CNNs (DCNNs) in CV applications [31] is progressively affecting the RS discipline, in spite of increasing disillusionment in the AI community [10, 27, 57, 97, 107, 142-145]. For example, an increasing number of DCNN applications for cloud detection can be found in the RS literature, e.g., [35]. However, to our best knowledge, only one application of DCNNs to the simultaneous detection of cloud and cloud-shadow phenomena exists to date [146].

To explain this fact, a non-trivial understanding of the information/knowledge representation in DCNNs is required, according to the Marr's four levels of understanding of an information processing system, specifically, information/knowledge representation, system design (architecture), algorithm per architectural block and implementation per algorithm [10, 69, 78, 79]. In inductive learning-from-data DCNNs, 2D spatial filter profiles are learned end-to-end from supervised image examples whereas *a priori* knowledge is encoded by design based on heuristics, a.k.a. trial-and-error. In greater detail, the whole set of DCNN architectural metaparameters, specifically, number of layers, number of convolutional filters per layer, filter size, inter-filter stride, subsampling filter size, subsampling inter-filter stride, etc., is user-defined based on empirical criteria. Unfortunately, inductive learning-from-data algorithms, including DCNNs, are affected by inherent limitations [2, 10, 27, 30, 33, 34, 57, 97, 107, 142, 143] and known failure modes [144, 145], including the following. Suitable for learning complex correlations between input and output features, inductive learning-from-data systems are unable to learn representations of causality (cause-effect relationships, dependency), known that "correlation does not imply causation and vice versa" [10, 16, 27, 30, 57, 58]. This limitation implies that, first, it not straightforward to integrate *a priori* knowledge about the physical world onto a DCNN architecture, whose information representation pertains mainly to (largely opaque) correlations between input and output features. Second, DCNNs thus far have shown no self-organizing capability, e.g., based on combinations of cooperative with competitive learning-from-data policies [147], suitable for developing a syntactic hierarchical system [16, 27], structured as a network of specialized subnetworks [10], in agreement with the engineering principles of modularity, hierarchy and regularity considered necessary for scalability in structured system design [32]. In the words of Marcus, "the core problem, at least at present, is that deep learning learns correlations between sets of features that are themselves "flat" or non-hierarchical, as if in a simple, unstructured list, with every feature on equal footing. Hierarchical structures (e.g., syntactic trees that distinguish between main clauses and embedded clauses in a sentence) are not inherently or directly represented in such systems, and as a result deep learning systems are forced to use a variety of proxies that are ultimately inadequate, such as the sequential position of a word presented in a sequences " [27].

Our straightforward, but not trivial conjecture is that cloud/cloud-shadow detection is a typical example of physical model-based cause-effect relationship expected to be very difficult to solve by inductive machine learning-from-examples algorithms, including DCNNs, suitable

for learning complex correlations between input and output features, but unable to discover inherent representations of causality.

This conjecture is perfectly confirmed by experimental conclusions reported in [146] (pp. 32, 33): “The main problem of DCNN-based classification is cloud-shadow, e.g., in an image object-based Intersection over Union, IOU, classification quality measure assessment in range [0, 1], class cloud-shadow scored as low as IOU = 0.0212 in the validation image set at hand”. Predicted by theory, these experimental results prove *a posteriori* the well-groundedness of our first-principles in the AI \supset CV domains. These expected results reveal that, based on knowledge of the first-principles in inference, specifically, induction, deduction and abduction [16, 19, 21], and in agreement with the increasing disillusionment of the AI community about deep learning-from-data [10, 27, 57, 97, 107, 142-145], the RS community should avoid exploring dead-end solutions where AI \supset CV algorithms, developed by other communities in the cognitive science domain (see Figure 5), are adopted as black-boxes by RS scientists and practitioners, such as increasingly popular DCNNs applied for detecting cloud and cloud-shadow cause-effect-relationships in EO imagery. Based on this rationale, although considered state-of-the-art by the mainstream CV and RS audience, DCNN solutions are excluded from any further review in this paper, focused on jointly cloud/cloud-shadow detection.

For comparison purposes, three popular computer programs available free-of-cost for cloud/cloud-shadow detection in spaceborne MS imagery are critically revised hereafter, see Table 5.

- The open source single-date FMask algorithm [51], originally developed for single-date 30 m resolution 7-band (from visible blue, B, to thermal InfraRed, TIR) Landsat-5/7/8 MS imagery, which includes a thermal band as key input data requirement. FMask was recently extended to 10 m/20 m resolution Sentinel-2 MS imagery [52], featuring no thermal band, and to Landsat image time-series (multiTemporal Mask, TMask) [53]. The potential relevance of FMask is augmented by considering that CFmask, an Fmask program version transcoded into the C programming language for increased efficiency, is adopted for cloud, cloud-shadow and snow/ice classification by the LEDAPS and LaSRC algorithms for atmospheric correction in the U.S. Landsat ARD product [120, 121, 137]. Unfortunately, CFMask is affected by known artifacts [56]. Moreover, in a recent comparison of cloud and cloud-shadow detectors, those implemented in LEDAPS scored low among alternative solutions [55].
- The single-date Sentinel-2 Multi-Spectral Instrument (MSI) sensor-specific Sen2Cor prototype processor, capable of automated atmospheric, adjacency and topographic effect correction and SCM product generation, including cloud and cloud-shadow detection, refer to the SCM legend shown in Table 1. The Sen2Cor prototype processor is distributed free-of-cost by ESA to be run on user side [8, 9]. Hence, it does not satisfy the ESA EO Level 2 product requirements specification proposed in Section 1. Sen2Cor incorporates capabilities of the ATCOR commercial software toolbox [63-65], see Figure 11. Sen2Cor is affected by known artifacts [37, 40, 54].
- The multi-date CNES/CESBIO/DLR Multisensor Atmospheric Correction and Cloud Screening (MACCS)-Atmospheric/Topographic Correction (ATCOR) Joint Algorithm (MAJA) [39, 41], which incorporates capabilities of the ATCOR commercial software toolbox [63-65]. It is affected by known artifacts [40, 54].

Table 5 summarizes the Sen2cor, MAJA and FMask computer programs at the Marr levels of system understanding known as information/knowledge representation, system design (architecture) and algorithm [10, 69, 78, 79].

Table 5. Comparison of alternative cloud/cloud-shadow detection algorithms at the Marr levels of system understanding of information/knowledge representation, system design (architecture) and algorithm [10, 69, 78, 79]

Acronyms	Multi-spectra l (MS)	Radio metric	Spa tial res	Spectral resolutio n	Singl e-date (S) or	Land cover (LC) class detection, in addition to	Cloud detection	Cloud-shadow detection
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Digital number (featuring no physical meaning) = DN Top-of-atmosphere reflectance = TOARF. Surface reflectance = SURF, where TOARF \supset SURF, because TOARF \approx SURF + atmospheric noise + topographic noise. Inductive = I. Deductive = D. Hybrid = Combined I + D = H. 1D Pixel-based (spatial context-insensitive and spatial topology non-preserving) = P. 1D Object-based (spatial context-sensitive, but spatial topology non-preserving) = O. 2D image analysis (spatial context-sensitive and spatial topology-preserving) = 2D. Yes: Y. No: N.	Sensor(s)	calibration	resolution	Acronyms:	Multi-temporal (MT)	classes and cloud shadow, if any	Acronyms:	Acronyms:	Acronyms:	Acronyms:	Acronyms:	Spatial search of cloud-shadow pixels starting from cloud candidates
		Acronyms: TOARF or SURF, refer to cell at top left		Acronyms: Visible Blue, Green, Red = B, G, R. Near InfraRed (IR) = NIR. Medium IR = MIR. Thermal IR = TIR.		Acronyms: I, D or H, refer to cell at top left	Acronyms: P, O or 2D, refer to cell at top left	Acronyms: I, D or H, refer to cell at top left	Acronyms: P, O or 2D, refer to cell at top left	Acronyms: I, D or H, refer to cell at top left	Acronyms: P, O or 2D, refer to cell at top left	
Proposed approach, AutoCloud+	All MS past, present and future, airborne or spaceborne, whether or not provided with radiometric calibration metadata files	DN or TOARF or SURF or surface albedo	Any	From B, G, R, NIR, MIR to TIR, including Cirrus band (depending on the available spectral channels).	S	H, with LC classes: Water, Shadow, Bare soil, Built-up, Vegetation, Snow, Ice, Fire, Others	P + O + 2D	H	P + O + 2D	H	P + O + 2D	Y
Sen2Cor (including all cloud probability classes)	Sentinel-2 MSI	TOARF	10 m	B, G, R, NIR, MIR to TIR, including Cirrus band.	S	D, with LC classes: Water, Bare soil, Vegetation, Snow	P	D	P	D	P	Y
MAJA	Formosat2, LANDSAT 5/7/8, SPOT 4/5, Sentinel 2, VENUS.	TOARF	5.3 to 30 m	From B, G, R, NIR, MIR to TIR, including Cirrus band (depending on the available spectral channels)	MT	D, with LC classes: Water, Bare soil, Vegetation, Snow	P	D	P	D	P	Y
FMask	Landsat 7/8 (with thermal band) and Sentinel-2 (without thermal band)	TOARF	10 to 30 m	From B, G, R, NIR to MIR, plus TIR when available (in Landsat imagery)	S	D, with LC classes: Clear land, clear water, snow.	P	D	P + contextual to remove isolated pixels	H	P + O, due to Segmentation of the cloud layer	Y

ATCOR-4 [64]	Airborne, spaceborne	TOARF or SURF or spectral albedo	Any	From B, G, R, NIR to MIR, including Cirrus band (depending on the available spectral channels). No TIR is exploited.	S	D, with LC classes: Water, Land, Haze, Snow/Ice (depending on the available spectral channels)	P	H (D + I, e.g., I = image-wide histogram-based analytics)	P	H	P	N
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The first observation stemming from Table 5 is that the Sen2cor and MAJA computer programs employ deductive (top-down, prior knowledge-based) inference, exclusively, to map MS imagery onto LC classes, in addition to quality layers cloud and cloud-shadow. This is in contrast with biological cognitive systems [77], where hybrid inference combines deductive and inductive inference to take advantage of each and overcome their shortcomings [2, 10, 33, 34, 78, 79], refer to Section 2.

The second observation driven from Table 5 is that the Sen2cor, MAJA and FMask computer programs employ 1D image analysis algorithms exclusively, either pixel-based, i.e., spatial context-insensitive and spatial topology non-preserving, or spatial context-sensitive (e.g., image object-based or local window-based), but spatial topology non-preserving (non-retinotopic) [10, 89, 97, 147]. In CV programs, 1D image analysis is a methodological (structural) drawback because perceptual evidence proves that, in vision, primary spatial topological information (e.g., adjacency, inclusion, etc.) and spatial non-topological information (e.g., spatial distance, angle measure) components dominate secondary color information, which is the sole information available at the sensor's spatial resolution, i.e., at the pixel level of spatial analysis, refer to Section 2 [10]. Intuitively, 1D image analysis algorithms are invariant to permutations in the 1D vector data sequence generated from a (2D) image, where image is synonym of 2D gridded data set, see Figure 15 [31]. In short, 1D analysis of (2D) imagery is affected by a loss in data dimensionality.

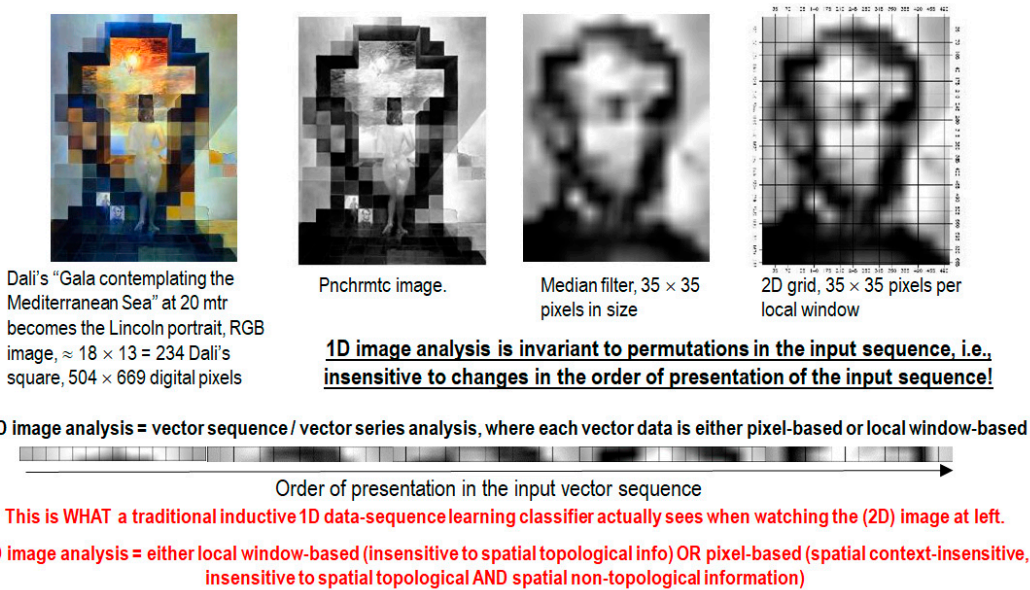


Figure 15. Example of 1D image analysis, which is spatial topology non-preserving (non-retinotopic) in a (2D) image-domain [10, 89, 97, 147]. Intuitively, 1D image analysis is insensitive to permutations in the input data set [31]. Synonym of 1D analysis of a 2D gridded data set, 1D image analysis is affected by spatial data dimensionality reduction. The (2D) image at left is transformed into the 1D vector data stream (sequence) shown at bottom, where

vector data are either pixel-based or spatial context-sensitive, e.g., local window-based. This 1D vector data stream means nothing to a human photointerpreter. When it is input to either an inductive learning-from-data classifier or a deductive learning-by-rule classifier, the 1D vector data sequence is what the classifier actually sees when watching the (2D) image at left. Undoubtedly, computers are more successful than humans in 1D image analysis. Nonetheless, humans are still far more successful than computers in 2D image analysis (see Figure 16).

Alternative to 1D image analysis is 2D image analysis, which is spatial topology-preserving (retinotopic) [10, 89, 97, 147], i.e., it is sensitive to permutations in the order of presentation of the input data set [31], see Figure 16. In our understanding, 2D image analysis is the linchpin of success of multi-scale 2D spatial filter banks for image analysis (encoding, decomposition), synthesis (decoding, reconstruction) and classification, either deductive/physical model-based [140, 141] or end-to-end inductive learning-from-data, such as DCNNs [31].

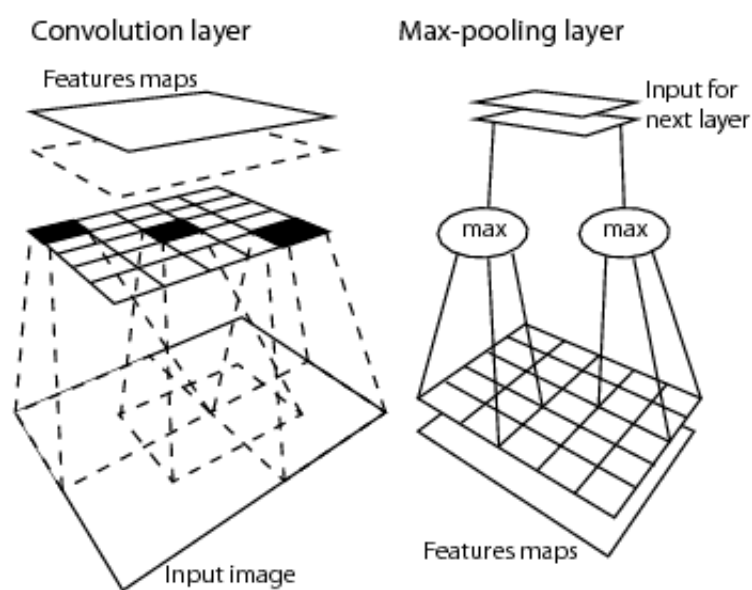


Figure 16. 2D image analysis as synonym of spatial topology-preserving (retinotopic) feature mapping in a (2D) image-domain [10, 89, 97, 147]. Intuitively, 2D image analysis is sensitive to permutations in the input data set [31]. Activation domains of physically adjacent processing units in the 2D array of convolutional spatial filters are spatially adjacent regions in the 2D visual field. Provided with a superior degree of biological plausibility in modelling 2D spatial topological and spatial non-topological information components, distributed processing systems capable of 2D image analysis, such as deep convolutional neural networks (DCNNs), typically outperform traditional 1D image analysis approaches. Will computers ever become as good as humans in 2D image analysis?

The fundamental difference between 1D image analysis and 2D image analysis with regard to spatial topology-preserving (retinotopic) feature mapping [10, 89, 97, 147] is at the basis of a proposed revision of the loose GE(OBIA) paradigm [7] into a more restrictive definition of EO imagery for Geographical Sciences (EO4GEO), synonym of 2D analysis of EO (2D) imagery for GIScience applications [111, 112], see Figure 17.

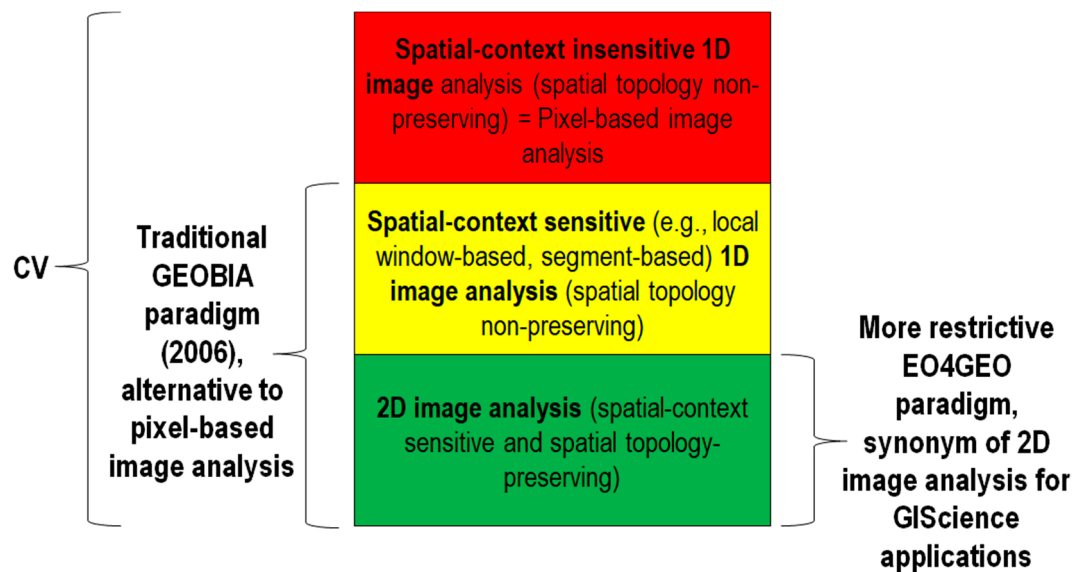


Figure 17. EO for Geographical Sciences (EO4GEO, EO4GIScience) framework, meaning EO big data analytics in operating mode for GIScience applications, constrained by 2D (retinotopic, spatial topology-preserving) image analysis in cognitive science [111]. EO4GEO is more restrictive than the traditional GEOBIA paradigm, formalized in 2006 and 2014 as a viable alternative to 1D spatial context-insensitive (pixel-based) image analysis [6, 7, 112].

At the Marr's less abstract levels of understanding of an information processing system, known as algorithm and implementation [10, 69, 78, 79], subsequent to the two more abstract levels of understanding of information/knowledge representation and system design (architecture), it is interesting to investigate the Sen2Cor's static (non-adaptive to data, prior knowledge-based) per-pixel spectral rule-based decision tree implementation for automated ESA EO Level 2 SCM product generation [9]. Noteworthy, the same considerations driven from the Sen2Cor's spectral knowledge-based decision tree implementation for SCM generation hold for the LEDAPS, LaSRC and ATCOR spectral knowledge-based decision trees, implemented for pixel-based pre-classification as necessary not sufficient pre-condition to make inherently ill-posed atmospheric and/or topographic correction algorithms better posed for numerical solution [30], see Section 2. According to Richter and Schlöpfer [63, 64], "pre-classification as part of the atmospheric correction has a long history, e.g., in the NASA's processing chain for MODIS" [50].

First, in the interdisciplinary domain of cognitive science [11, 12], it was highlighted that static (non-adaptive to data, prior knowledge-based) spectral rule-based decision trees aim at a mutually exclusive and totally exhaustive (hyper)polyhedralization of a MS reflectance (hyper)space, equivalent to (numeric) color space discretization into color names belonging to a categorical variable, known as color vocabulary. Within the domain of cognitive science (see Figure 5), color naming was deeply investigated by linguistics. Central to this consideration is Berlin and Kay's landmark study of a "universal" inventory of eleven basic color (BC) words in twenty human languages: black, white, gray, red, orange, yellow, green, blue, purple, pink and brown [148]. Suitable for color naming of MS imagery, MS reflectance (hyper)space (hyper)polyhedralization is difficult to think of and impossible to visualize when the MS data space dimensionality is superior to three, see Figure 18. This is not the case of basic color (BC) names adopted in human languages [148], whose mutually exclusive and totally exhaustive perceptual polyhedra, neither necessarily convex nor connected, are intuitive to think of and easy to visualize in a 3D monitor-typical red-green-blue (RGB) data cube [149], see Figure 19.

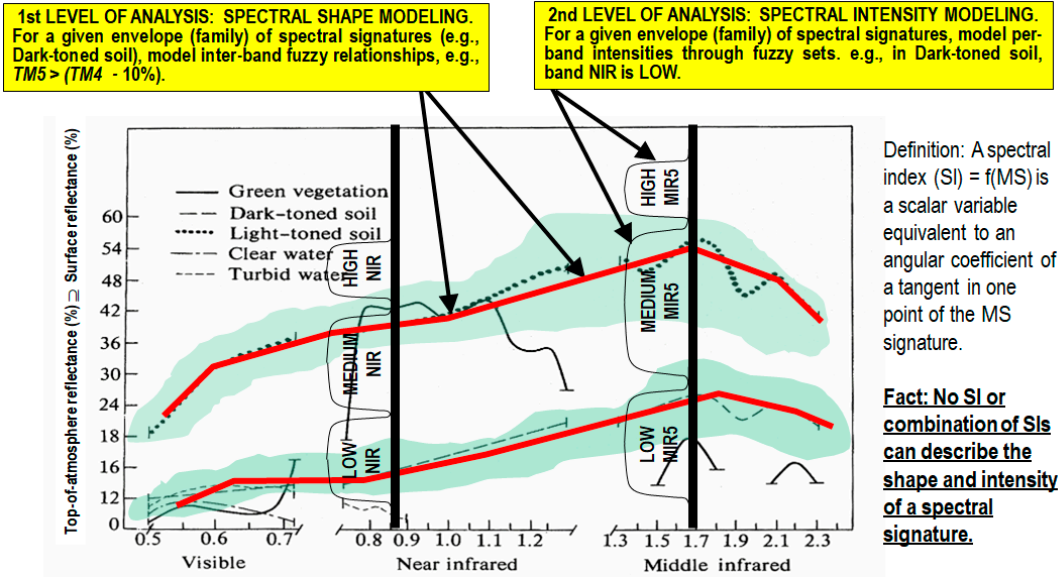


Figure 18. Examples of land cover (LC) class-specific families of spectral signatures [14] in top-of-atmosphere reflectance (TOARF) values, which include surface reflectance (SURF) values as a special case in clear sky and flat terrain conditions [150], i.e., in general, $TOARF \geq SURF$, where $TOARF \approx SURF$ (depicted as an ideal “noiseless” spectral signature in red) + atmospheric and topographic noise. A within-class family of spectral signatures (e.g., dark-toned soil) in TOARF or SURF values forms a buffer zone (hyperpolyhedron, envelope, manifold, joint distribution), depicted in light green. Like a vector quantity has two characteristics, a magnitude and a direction, any LC class-specific MS manifold is characterized by a multivariate shape and a multivariate intensity information component. In the RS literature, typical prior knowledge-based spectral decision trees for MS reflectance space hyperpolyhedralization into a finite and discrete vocabulary of MS color names, such as Sen2Cor’s [9], MAJA’s [39, 41], ATCOR’s [63, 64], LEDAPS’ [120, 121, 124] and LaSRC’s [120, 121, 137], typically adopt either a multivariate analysis of spectral indexes or a logical (AND, OR) combination of univariate variables, such as scalar spectral indexes or spectral channels, considered mutually independent. A typical spectral index is a scalar band ratio or band-pair difference equivalent to an angular coefficient of a tangent to the spectral signature in one point. It is well known that infinite functions can feature the same tangent value in one point. In practice, no spectral index or combination of spectral indexes can reconstruct the multivariate shape and multivariate intensity information components of a spectral signature. As a viable alternative to traditional static (non-adaptive to data) spectral rule-based decision trees found in the RS literature, the Satellite Image Automatic Mapper (SIAM)’s prior knowledge-based spectral decision tree [10, 11, 12, 76, 78, 79, 91, 113, 114, 138, 139, 151] adopts a convergence-of-evidence approach to model any target family (ensemble) of spectral signatures, forming a hypervolume of interest in the MS reflectance hyperspace, as a combination of multivariate shape information with multivariate intensity information components. For example, as shown above, typical spectral signatures of dark-toned soils and typical spectral signatures of light-toned soils form two MS envelopes in the MS reflectance hyperspace that approximately share the same multivariate shape information component, but whose pair of multivariate intensity information components does differ.

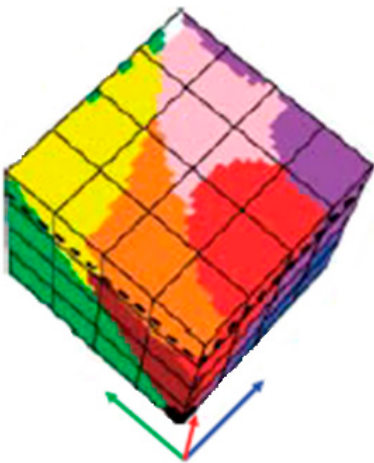













Figure 19. Courtesy of [149]. Unlike a MS reflectance space hyperpolyhedralization difficult to think of and impossible to visualize when the number of channels is superior to three, an RGB data cube polyhedralization is intuitive to think of and straightforward to display. For example, based on psychophysical evidence, human basic color (BC) names can be mapped onto a monitor-typical RGB data cube. Central to this consideration is Berlin and Kay’s landmark study of a “universal” inventory of eleven BC words in twenty human languages: black, white, gray, red, orange, yellow, green, blue, purple, pink and brown [148].

In vision, where a (2D) image-domain and a 4D geospatial-temporal scene-domain co-exist, see Figure 6, a community-agreed discrete and finite vocabulary of MS color names, pertaining to a MS color space in the image-domain, such as the eleven BC names proposed by Berlin and Kay in the image-domain of visible bands RGB [148], see Figure 19, should never be confused with a vocabulary of classes of real-world objects in the scene-domain, such as a discrete and finite legend of LC classes. Color names provide a categorical (nominal) representation of the numeric photometric variable associated as attribute to any LC class belonging to a discrete and finite LC class legend. Encoded as a categorical variable, a color attribute of a (categorical) LC class should never be confused with the LC class it belongs to. On the hand, the same color name can be shared by several LC classes. On the other hand, a single LC class can feature several color names as photometric attribute [11, 12]. For example, Adams et al. correctly observed that discrete spectral endmembers typically adopted in hyperspectral image interpretation “cannot always be inverted to unique LC class names” [152]. This commonsense knowledge is sketched in Table 6, where set $A = \text{DictionaryOfColorNames}$ with cardinality $|A| = a = \text{ColorVocabularyCardinality} = 11$ and set $B = \text{LegendOfObjectClassNames}$ with cardinality $|B| = b = \text{ObjectClassLegendCardinality} = 3$. Between the vocabulary A of color names in the image-domain and the vocabulary B of LC classes in the scene-domain there is a binary relationship, $R: A \Rightarrow B$, subset of the 2-fold Cartesian product $A \times B$, i.e., $R: A \Rightarrow B \subseteq A \times B$, where $A \neq B$ in general. The Cartesian product $A \times B$ is a set whose elements are ordered pairs of each instance of set A combined with each instance of set B . Hence, the size of the Cartesian product $A \times B$ is rows \times columns = $a \times b$, where $a \neq b$ in general. Noteworthy, Cartesian product $A \times B \neq \text{FrequencyCount}(A \times B)$, where $\text{FrequencyCount}(A \times B)$ is known as two-way contingency table, association matrix, cross tabulation, bivariate table, bivariate frequency table (BIVRFTAB) or confusion matrix [10, 22, 153-157].

Table 6. . Example of a binary relationship $R: A \Rightarrow B \subseteq A \times B$ from set $A = \text{DictionaryOfColorNames}$, with cardinality $|A| = a = \text{ColorVocabularyCardinality} = 11$, and the set $B = \text{LegendOfObjectClassNames}$, with cardinality $|B| = b = \text{ObjectClassLegendCardinality} = 3$, where $A \times B$ is the 2-fold Cartesian product between sets A and B . The Cartesian product of two sets $A \times B$ is a set whose elements are ordered pairs. The size of $A \times B$ is rows \times columns = $a \times b$. The dictionary $\text{LegendOfObjectClassNames}$ is a

superset of the typical taxonomy of land cover (LC) classes adopted by the RS community. “Correct” entry-pairs (marked with √) must be: (i) selected by domain experts based on a *hybrid* combination of deductive prior beliefs with inductive evidence from data and (ii) community-agreed upon, to be used by members of the community [11, 12].

			Target classes of individuals (entities in a conceptual model for knowledge representation built upon an ontology language)		
			Class 1, Water body	Class 2, Tulip flower	Class 3, Italian tile roof
Basic color (BC) names	black			√	
	blue		√	√	
	brown		√	√	√
	grey				
	green		√	√	
	orange			√	
	pink			√	
	purple			√	
	red			√	√
	white			√	
	yellow			√	

In spite of this commonsense knowledge, see Table 6, and in contrast with the unquestionable true-fact that, in vision, primary spatial information dominates secondary color information in both the image-domain and the scene-domain [10-12, 20], see Section 2, prior knowledge-based spectral decision trees for MS color space hyperpolyhedralization into color names implemented by the RS community typically assume that the vocabulary A of color names in the image-domain and the vocabulary B of LC classes in the scene-domain do coincide in cardinality, semantics and order of presentation. If hypothesis $A = B$ holds true, then the binary relationship $R: A \Rightarrow B \subseteq A \times B \neq \text{FrequencyCount}(A \times B)$ becomes a bijective (injective and surjective) function, while the two-way confusion matrix $\text{FrequencyCount}(A \times B)$ becomes square, where the main diagonal guides the interpretation process [11, 12]. This is the case of the LC map legend of an SCM product generated as output by a static decision tree of spectral rules implemented by the ATCOR software toolbox, see Table 3 and Table 4, and by the Sen2Cor software toolbox, see Table 1, where there is one spectral rule (or OR-combination of spectral rules) per LC class and vice versa. Since the unrealistic assumption that categorical variable $A = \text{DictionaryOfColorNames}$, with cardinality $|A| = a = \text{ColorVocabularyCardinality}$, coincides with categorical variable $B = \text{LegendOfObjectClassNames}$, with cardinality $|B| = b = \text{ObjectClassLegendCardinality}$, is undertaken at the abstract level of system understanding of information/knowledge representation, considered the linchpin of success of any information processing system [10, 16, 69], it heavily affects all subsequent levels of abstraction, specifically, system design, algorithm and implementation, in agreement with well-known information principle known as garbage in, garbage out (GIGO), synonym of error propagation through an information processing chain [11, 12]. This error propagation effect affecting $CV \supset EO\text{-}IU$ applications increases as the imaging sensor’s spatial resolution becomes finer, such as in EO high spatial resolution (HR, in range [1 m, 30 m]) and very high spatial resolution (VHR, < 1 m) image understanding tasks [14].

In addition to the unrealistic assumption that vocabularies of color names and of LC class names do coincide at the level of system understanding of information/knowledge representation, the implementation of the Sen2Cor’s spectral rules for MS reflectance space hyperpolyhedralization into MS color names appears inadequate to define mutually exclusive and totally exhaustive hyperpolyhedra, where each hyperpolyhedron is a multivariate data distribution (joint probability).

First, Sen2Cor models each joint probability by a single spectral rule as an and/or-combination of univariate distributions. It assumes a joint distribution is equivalent to a product of univariate distributions, which holds true if and only if univariate variables are

mutually independent. This assumption is completely unrealistic when modeling manifolds of LC class-specific spectral signatures sampled at a discrete and finite set of spectral bands. These spectral band values are not statistically independent because they are LC class-dependent. In general, multivariate data statistics are more informative than a combination of univariate data statistics. For example, maximum likelihood data classification, accounting for multivariate data correlation and variance (covariance), is typically more accurate than parallelepiped data classification whose rectangular decision regions, equivalent to a concatenation of univariate data constraints, poorly fit multivariate data in the presence of bivariate cross-correlation [24]. As a typical example of this critical point, see Table 4, showing the SPECL decision tree instantiation proposed by the ATCOR software toolbox, where each spectral rule is implemented as a sequence of univariate statistics.

Second, in the Sen2Cor's spectral rule-based decision tree a spectral rule implementation typically adopts many spectral indexes in the definition of each hyperpolyhedron equivalent to a MS color name. Like a vector quantity has two characteristics, a magnitude and a direction, any LC class-specific MS manifold is characterized by a multivariate shape and a multivariate intensity information component, see Figure 18. A spectral index, implemented as either a band difference or a band ratio, is conceptually equivalent to the angular coefficient of a tangent to the spectral signature in one point. It is well known that infinite functions can pass through the same point with the same angular coefficient. It means that, although appealing due to its conceptual and numerical simplicity [2], any scalar spectral index, equivalent to a spectral slope, is a MS shape descriptor independent of the MS intensity. It is unable *per se* to represent either the multivariate shape information component or the multivariate intensity information component of a MS signature [10]. In other words, no spectral index or combination of spectral indexes provides a lossless reconstruction of the multivariate shape and multivariate intensity information components of a spectral signature [10-12]. Because of this spectral information loss, the number of scalar spectral indexes proposed in the RS literature is ever increasing [2], in the unrealistic attempt to extract a more informative scalar variable from a multivariate spectral signature. In some published works, the misuse of spectral indexes reaches its peak when, to simplify a multivariate spectral signature both conceptually and numerically, the number of univariate spectral indexes extracted from the spectral signature is superior to the number of spectral bands; in this no-win situation, no MS data compression is accomplished while a loss in spectral information is guaranteed. As a typical example of this second critical point, see Table 4, showing the SPECL decision tree instantiation proposed by the ATCOR software toolbox where several band ratios are employed for modeling a MS hyperpolyhedron of interest in the MS data hyperspace.

4. Methods

To contribute toward the RTD of the first (never accomplished to date) CV system in operating mode capable of systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation from multi-sensor, multi-temporal and multi-angular EO *big data* cubes (see Section 1), where conceptual drawbacks and failure modes of available CV subsystems for cloud and cloud-shadow detection in EO optical imagery, such as Sen2Cor and MAJA, must be overcome (see Section 3), an inherently ill-posed AutoCloud+ CV subsystem development [10, 36, 67] was constrained in accordance to the following system requirements specification, at the levels of system understanding of information/knowledge representation, system architecture, algorithm and implementation in the multidisciplinary domain of cognitive science (see Figure 5).

- Combined deductive and inductive (hybrid) inference, where deductive and inductive inference alternate at increasing levels of specialization, see Figure 12, to take advantage of each and overcome their shortcomings [10, 76, 78, 79].
- 2D (retinotopic, spatial topology-preserving) image analysis, see Figure 16, where primary spatial information and secondary color information in vision are combined according

to a convergence-of-evidence approach, consistent with human symbolic reasoning, where eventually weak, but independent sources of evidence can be combined to infer strong conjectures, and where it is acknowledged that “vision goes symbolic almost immediately” [10, 69].

- Provided with feedback loops (feedback system) [89, 97-102, 181]. A hybrid feedback CV system is alternative to inductive feedforward CV systems, such as popular DCNNs [31], deductive feedforward CV systems, such as Sen2Cor, see Figure 11 and Table 5, and hybrid feedforward CV systems, such as the “augmented” ATCOR software toolbox, see Figure 12.

- Suitable for cloud and cloud-shadow quality layer detection in MS imagery under operational constraints of “universality”. To be considered “universal” in operating mode (refer to Section 2), AutoCloud+ was required to be: (i) “fully automated”, i.e., it requires no human-machine interaction to run and no labeled data set for supervised inductive learning-from-data, (ii) near real-time, e.g., its computational complexity increases linearly with image size, (iii) robust to changes in MS imaging sensor’s spatial and spectral resolution specifications, and (iv) robust to changes in radiometric *Cal* metadata parameters, i.e., AutoCloud+ can be input with multi-source MS imagery whether or not radiometrically *Cal* into TOARF, SURF or surface albedo values, such as EO image acquired by multiple platforms, either spaceborne or airborne, including unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs), whose lightweight imaging sensors typically do not provide any radiometric *Cal* metadata file.

At the level of system understanding of information/knowledge representation, the AutoCloud+ CV subsystem adopts a convergence-of-evidence approach equivalent to a Bayesian naïve classifier. According to the Bayesian law, a naïve Bayes classifier assumes the “naïve” conditional independence of input features F_i , $i = 1, \dots, I$, hence,

$$p(c|F_1, \dots, F_I) = p(c) \prod_{i=1}^I p(F_i|c). \quad (1)$$

Deeply investigated by the CV community [16, 69, 88] and by those portions of the RS community involved with traditional content-based image retrieval (CBIR) [87, 158] and with EO-IU applications for Earth surface variables estimation [10-12, 20, 78, 79, 159-161], well-known visual features are: (i) color values, typically discretized by humans into a finite and discrete vocabulary of BC names [148, 149]; (ii) planar shape [10, 160-163]; (iii) texture, defined as the perceptual spatial grouping of texture elements known as texels [10, 16, 164-166] or tokens [69]; (iv) inter-object spatial topological relationships, e.g., adjacency, inclusion, etc., and (v) inter-object spatial non-topological relationships, e.g., spatial distance, angle measure, etc. [16-21]. In vision, color is the sole visual property available at the imaging sensor’s spatial resolution, i.e., at pixel level. In other words, pixel-based information is spatial context-independent, i.e., per-pixel information is exclusively related to color properties. Among the aforementioned visual variables, per-pixel color values are the sole non-spatial (spatial context-insensitive) numeric variable. It is easy to prove that, irrespective of their Pearson inter-feature cross-correlation, if any, individual sources of visual evidence, specifically, color, local shape, texture and inter-object spatial relationships, are statistically independent because, in general, Pearson’s linear cross-correlation does not imply causation [10, 16, 27, 30, 57, 58]. In the CV domain, if priors are ignored because considered equiprobable in a maximum class-conditional likelihood inference approach, alternative to a maximum *a posteriori* optimization criterion, and if a canonical interpretation based on frequentist statistics can be relaxed by fuzzy logic [167] into a membership function $m(\cdot) \in [0, 1]$, then the naïve Bayes classifier, see Equation (1), becomes [10-12]:

$$\begin{aligned} & p(c| \text{ColorValue}(x), \text{ShapeValue}(x), \text{TextureValue}(x), \text{SpatialRelationships}(x, \\ & \text{Neigh}(x))) = \\ & p(c|F_1, \dots, F_{I=4}) = p(c) \prod_{i=1}^{I=4} p(F_i|c) \propto \\ & m(c| \text{ColorValue}(x), \text{ShapeValue}(x), \text{TextureValue}(x), \text{SpatialRelationships}(x, \\ & \text{Neigh}(x))) \propto \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \min \left\{ \sum_{\text{ColorName}=1}^{\text{ColorVocabularyCardinality}} m_1(\text{ColorValue}(x) | \text{ColorName}) \cdot m_2(\text{ColorName} | c), \right. \\
& m_3(\text{ShapeValue}(x) | c), m_4(\text{TextureValue}(x) | c), m_5(\text{SpatialRelationships}(x, \\
& \text{Neigh}(x)) | c) \} = \\
& \min \{ m_2(\text{ColorName}^* | c), m_3(\text{ShapeValue}(x) | c), m_4(\text{TextureValue}(x) | c), \\
& m_5(\text{SpatialRelationships}(x, \text{Neigh}(x)) | c) \}, c = 1, \dots, \text{ObjectClassLegendCardinality}, \\
& \text{where } \text{ColorName}^* \in \{1, \text{ColorVocabularyCardinality}\}, \text{ such that } m_1(\text{ColorValue}(x) | \\
& \text{ColorName}^*) = 1 \text{ and } m_2(\text{ColorName}^* | c) \in \{0, 1\}, \tag{2}
\end{aligned}$$

where x is a spatial unit in the (2D) image-domain, either 0D point, 1D line or 2D polygon [168], $\text{Neigh}(x)$ is a generic 2D spatial neighborhood of spatial unit x , $\text{colorValue}(x)$ belongs to a MS measurement space \mathfrak{R}^{MS} , i.e., $\text{ColorValue}(x) \in \mathfrak{R}^{\text{MS}}$, and color space \mathfrak{R}^{MS} is partitioned into a set of mutually exclusive and totally exhaustive hyperpolyhedra, equivalent to a discrete and finite vocabulary (categorical variable) of static color names, with $\text{ColorName} = 1, \dots, \text{ColorVocabularyCardinality}$. About Equation (2), the following considerations hold.

- Each numeric $\text{ColorValue}(x)$ is one point in a MS color space \mathfrak{R}^{MS} . In the MS color space, each point belongs to a single color name (hyperpolyhedron), identified as ColorName^* in the static color vocabulary, i.e., $\forall \text{ColorValue}(x) \in \mathfrak{R}^{\text{MS}}$, then equality $\sum_{\text{ColorName}=1}^{\text{ColorVocabularyCardinality}} m_1(\text{ColorValue}(x) | \text{ColorName}) = m_1(\text{ColorValue}(x) | \text{ColorName}^*) = 1$ holds, where $m_1(\text{ColorValue}(x) | \text{ColorName}) \in \{0, 1\}$ is a binary (crisp) membership function, with $\text{ColorName} = 1, \dots, \text{ColorVocabularyCardinality}$.
- Equation (2) shows that any convergence-of-evidence approach is more selective than each individual source of evidence, in line with a focus-of-visual attention mechanism [88].
 - In Equation (2), a vocabulary of color names, physically equivalent to a partition of a numeric color hyperspace \mathfrak{R}^{MS} into color name-specific hyperpolyhedra, is conceptually equivalent to a latent/ hidden/ hypothetical categorical variable, see Figure 20. In statistics, the popular concept of latent/hidden categorical variable was introduced to fill the information gap from input numeric observables, e.g., sub-symbolic sensory data such as color values in a color space, to an output categorical variable, such as a discrete and finite dictionary of LC classes in the mental model of the physical world (world ontology, world model). Latent/hidden variables are categorical variables not directly measured, but inferred from lower level variables. “The terms hypothetical variable or hypothetical construct may be used when latent variables correspond to abstract concepts, like perceptual categories or discrete mental states” [10, 169, 170]. Hence, to fill the semantic gap from input sub-symbolic sensory data to an output categorical variable of symbolic quality, an hypothetical categorical variable, such as a discrete and finite dictionary of BC names [148, 149], is considered to be of “semi-symbolic” quality, i.e., superior to zero semantics, but inferior to the symbolic quality of the output categorical variable.

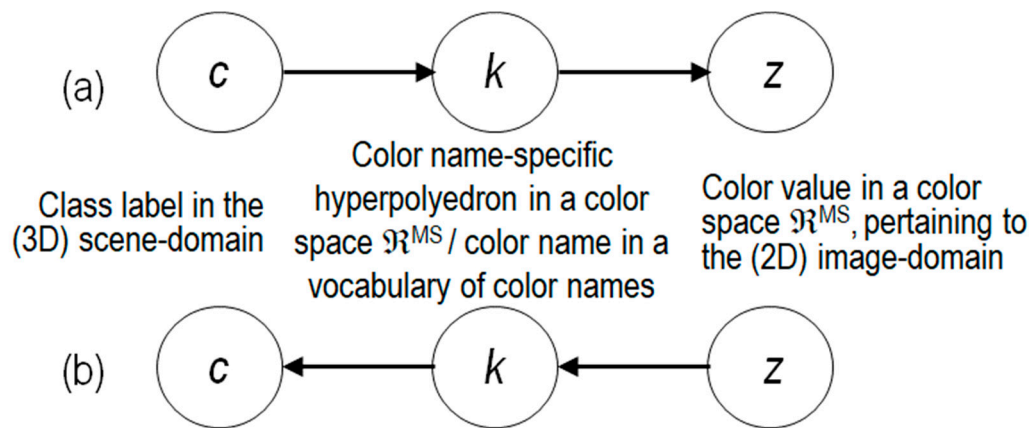


Figure 20. Graphical model of color naming, adapted from [169]. Let us consider z as a (sub-symbolic) numeric variable, such as MS color values of a population of spatial units, with vector data $z \in \mathfrak{R}^{MS}$, where \mathfrak{R}^{MS} represents the MS data space, while c represents a categorical variable of symbolic classes in the physical world, with $c = 1, \dots, \text{ObjectClassLegendCardinality}$. (a) According to Bayesian theory, posterior probability $p(c|z) \propto p(z|c)p(c) = p(c) \sum_{\text{ColorName}=k=1}^{\text{ColorVocabularyCardinality}} p(z|k)p(k|z)$, where color names, equivalent to color hyperpolyhedra in a numeric color space \mathfrak{R}^{MS} , provide a partition of the domain of change, \mathfrak{R}^{MS} , of numeric variable z . (b) For discriminative inference, the arrows in the graphical model are reversed using Bayes rule. Hence, a vocabulary of color names, physically equivalent to a partition of a numeric color space \mathfrak{R}^{MS} into color name-specific hyperpolyhedra, is conceptually equivalent to a latent/ hidden/ hypothetical variable linking observables (sub-symbolic sensory data) in the real world, specifically, color values, to a categorical variable of semantic (symbolic) quality in the mental model of the physical world (world ontology, world model).

- Equation (2) shows that for any spatial unit x in the image-domain, when a hierarchical CV classification approach estimates posterior $m(c| \text{ColorValue}(x), \text{ShapeValue}(x), \text{TextureValue}(x), \text{SpatialRelationships}(x, \text{Neigh}(x)))$ starting from an *a priori* knowledge-based near real-time color naming first stage, where condition $m_1(\text{ColorValue}(x)| \text{ColorName}^*) = 1$ holds, if condition $m_2(\text{ColorName}^*| c) = 0$ is true according to a static community-agreed binary relationship $R: \text{VocabularyOfColorNames} \Rightarrow \text{LegendOfObjectClassNames}$ (and vice versa) known *a priori* at first stage, see Table 6, then the output membership function $m(c| \text{ColorValue}(x), \text{ShapeValue}(x), \text{TextureValue}(x), \text{SpatialRelationships}(x, \text{Neigh}(x))) = 0$ irrespective of any second-stage assessment of spatial terms $\text{ShapeValue}(x)$, $\text{TextureValue}(x)$ and $\text{SpatialRelationships}(x, \text{Neigh}(x))$, whose computational model is typically difficult to find and computationally expensive. Intuitively, Equation (2) shows that first-stage static color naming of any spatial unit x in the image-domain, either (0D) pixel, (1D) line or (2D) polygon, allows the color-based stratification of unconditional multivariate spatial variables into color class-conditional multivariate data distributions, in agreement with the statistic stratification principle [130] and the divide-and-conquer (*dividi-et-impera*) problem solving approach [29, 30, 32]. Well known in statistics, the principle of statistic stratification guarantees that “stratification will always achieve greater precision provided that the strata have been chosen so that members of the same stratum are as similar as possible in respect of the characteristic of interest” [130].

At the levels of understanding of system design, algorithm and implementation, the AutoCloud+ CV subsystem requirements specification listed above is ambitious, but realistic, because AutoCloud+ can rely upon several $CV \supset EO\text{-}IU$ software units (modules) already implemented, tested (by their authors) and validated (by independent third-parties) in recent years [10-12]. These existing $CV \supset EO\text{-}IU$ software units can be combined according to an

original six-stage hybrid feedback EO-IU system architecture, hereafter identified as QuickMap™ technology, see Figure 21, in compliance with the engineering principles of modularity, hierarchy and regularity considered mandatory by structured system design to guarantee scalability [32]. The six-stage hybrid feedback CV ⊃ EO-IU system shown in Figure 21 constitutes the core of the inference engine required by the closed-loop EO-IU4SQ system to systematically provide sub-symbolic EO *big data* cubes with meanings (semantics, intelligence), to transform a traditional DIAS into an innovative AI4DIAS framework, see Figure 4 [10, 82-86].

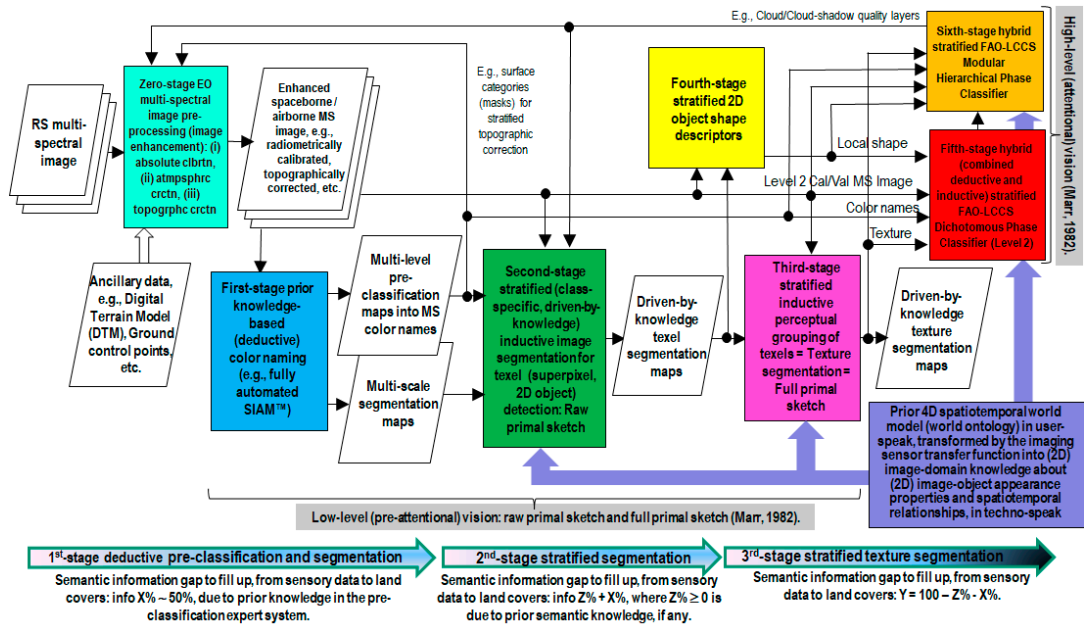
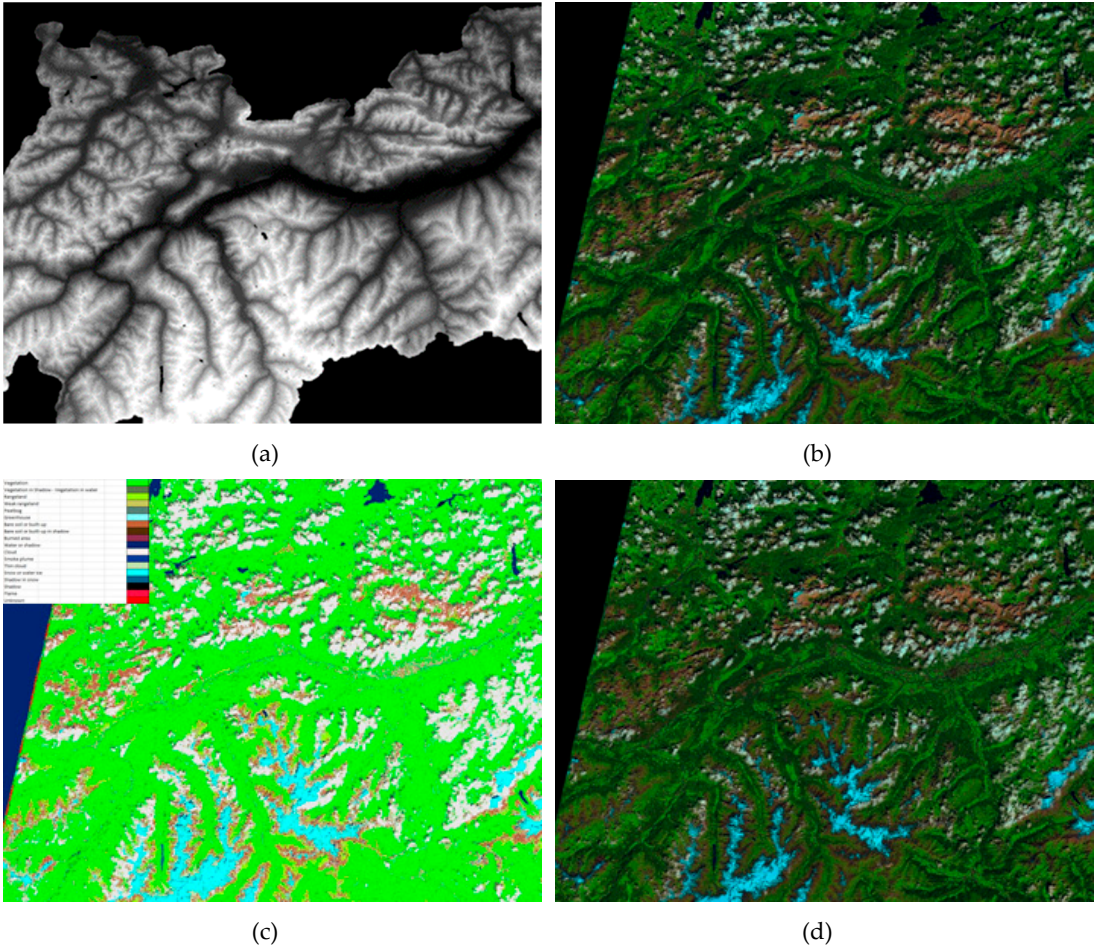
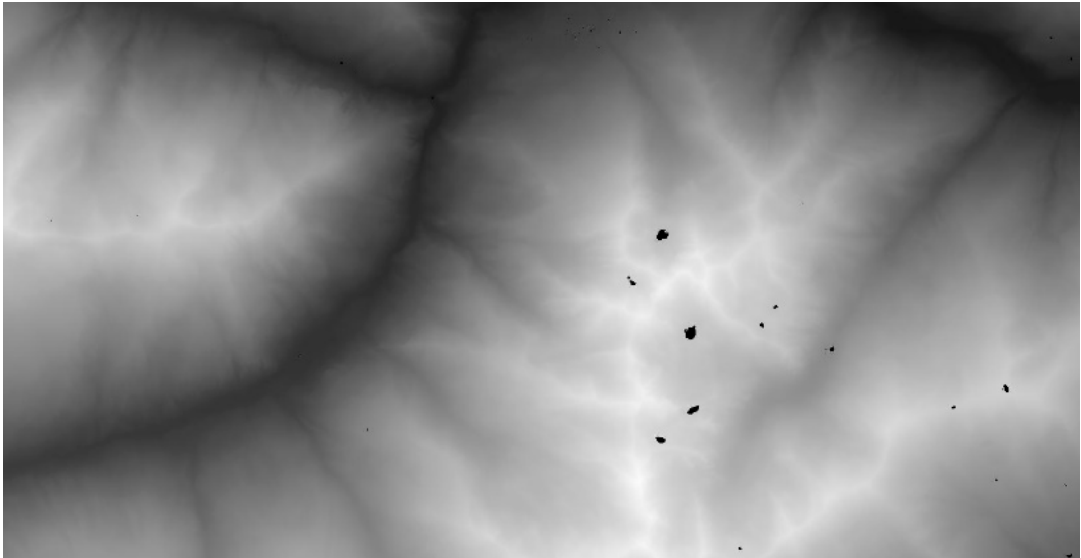


Figure 21. Six-stage hybrid (combined deductive and inductive) feedback EO image understanding (EO-IU) system design, identified as QuickMap™ technology. It is based on a convergence-of-evidence approach to vision, consistent with Bayesian naïve classification ([10]). Alternative to inductive feedforward EO-IU system architectures adopted by the RS mainstream, such as Deep Convolutional Neural Networks (DCNNs) [31], it supports a hierarchical approach to a first-stage general-purpose, sensor-, application- and user independent EO image understanding (classification) subsystem, followed by a second-stage sensor-, application- and user-specific EO image understanding subsystem, consistent with the standard two-stage fully-nested Land Cover Classification System (LCCS) taxonomy promoted by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations, where a first-stage 3-level 8-class Dichotomous Phase (DP) is preliminary to a second-stage Modular Hierarchical Phase (MHP) [13]. For the sake of visualization, each of the six data processing stages plus stage-zero for EO data pre-processing (enhancement) is depicted as a rectangle with a different color fill. Visual evidence stems from multiple information sources, specifically, numeric color values quantized into categorical color names, local shape, texture and inter-object spatial relationships, either topological or non-topological. An example of first-stage general-purpose, user- and application-independent EO image classification taxonomy required by an ESA EO Level 2 Scene Classification Map (SCM) product is the 3-level 8-class FAO LCCS-DP legend, in addition to quality layers cloud and cloud-shadow. Second-stage EO image classification is user- and application-specific, where an SCM product of Level 3 or superior is provided with a map legend consistent with the FAO LCCS-MHP taxonomy [13], see Figure 1. In this figure, acronym SIAM stays for Satellite Image Automatic Mapper (SIAM), a lightweight computer program for MS reflectance space hyperpolyhedralization into a static vocabulary of MS color names, superpixel detection and vector quantization (VQ) quality assessment [10, 11, 12, 76, 78, 79, 91, 113, 114, 138, 139, 151].

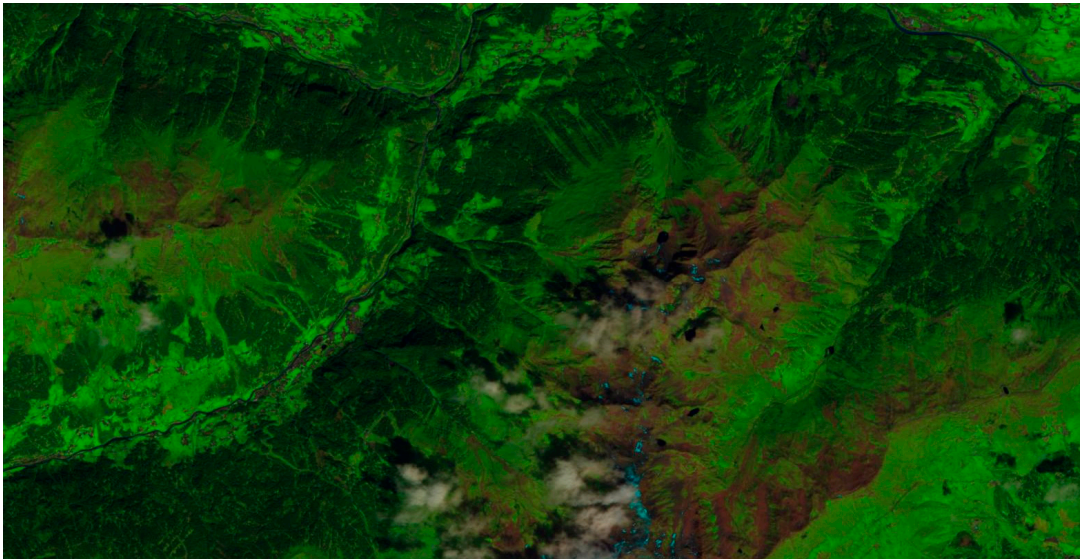
At the levels of system understanding of algorithm and implementation, the six-stage hybrid feedback CV \supset EO-IU system architecture shown in Figure 21 employs the following ensemble of existing CV software functions.

- (i) Zero-stage EO image pre-processing (enhancement), to guarantee multi-source multi-temporal and multi-angular EO image harmonization and interoperability [10].
 - I. Required input data set: MS image provided with a radiometric *Cal* metadata file, in agreement with the GEO-CEOS QA4EO *Cal* requirements [3].
 - a. Absolute radiometric *Cal* of DN_s into TOARF values, based on radiometric *Cal* gain and offset metadata parameters.
 - b. Automated stratified atmospheric, stratified adjacency and stratified topographic correction (STRATCOR) of TOARF into SURF values, see Figure 22, e.g., refer to [10, 76].

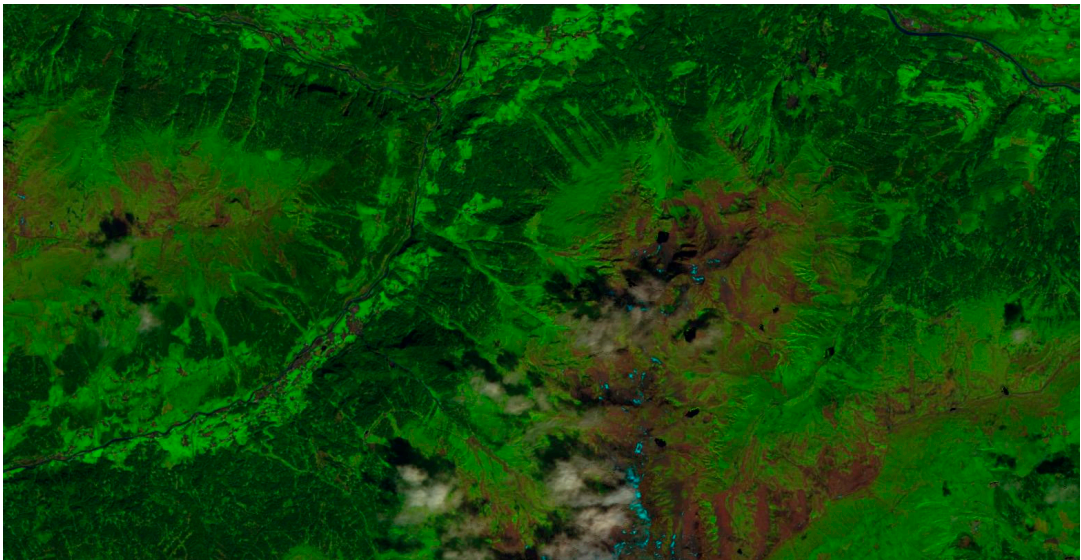




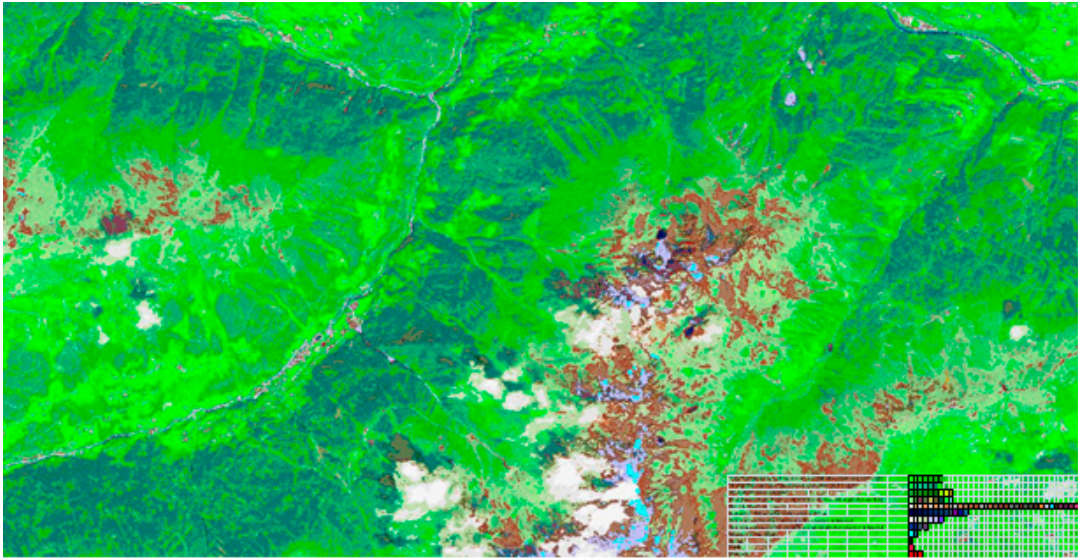
(e)



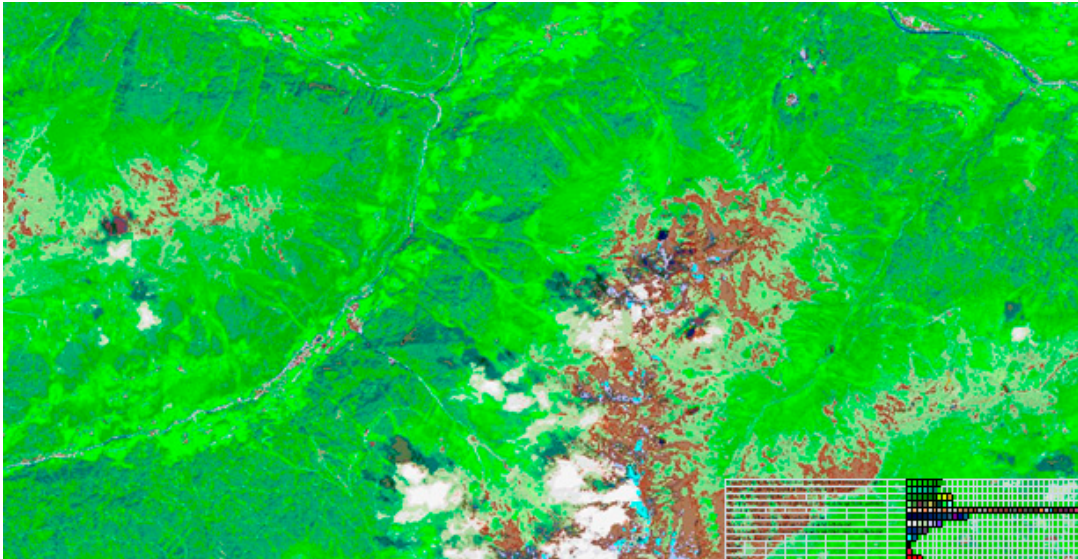
(f)



(g)



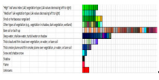
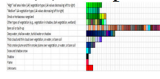
(h)



(i)

Figure 22. Automated stratified topographic correction (STRATCOR) of TOARF into SURF values, see Figure 23, e.g., refer to [10, 76]. (a) Input data set 1: Digital Terrain Model (DTM) of Tirol, Austria. 10 m resolution. (b) Input data set 2: Sentinel-2 Multi-Spectral Instrument (MSI) image of Austria (acquisition date: 2016-08-07), depicted in false colors (R: band MIR, G: band NIR, B: band Blue), 10 m resolution, calibrated into TOARF values. No histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes. (c) Input data set 3: Satellite Image Automatic Mapper (SIAM) output map in color names [10, 11, 12, 76, 78, 79, 91, 113, 114, 138, 139, 151], automatically generated from the input Sentinel-2 image in TOARF values. Output map

legend at coarse granularity, 18 spectral categories, depicted in false colors: (d) STRATCOR output product. Sentinel-2 MSI image of Austria, depicted in false colors (R: band MIR, G: band NIR, B: band Blue), 10m resolution, radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values and automatically corrected for topographic effects. No histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes. (e) Zoom-in of the DTM shown in (a). (f) Zoom-in of the input Sentinel-2 image in TOARF values shown in (b). (g) Zoom-in of the STRATCOR output image shown in (d). To be compared with the zoomed-in input image shown in (f). (h) Zoom-in of the SIAM output map in color names, automatically generated from the input Sentinel-2 image in TOARF values shown in (b). Output map legend at coarse granularity, 96 spectral

categories, depicted in false colors:  (i) Zoom-in of the SIAM output map in color names, automatically generated from the STRATCOR output image in TOARF values shown in (d). Output map legend at coarse granularity, 96 spectral categories, depicted in false colors: . To be compared with the zoomed-in SIAM map generated from the input image, shown in (h). This is an example of the radiometric correction approach sketched in Figure 12, where preliminary classification and correction stages alternate in a hierarchical sequence.

II. Required input data set: panchromatic image or MS image provided with no radiometric *Cal* metadata file. In this case, an inherently ill-posed color constancy algorithm must be run to guarantee input data interoperability through time, space and sensors, see Figure 23. In human vision, color constancy ensures that the perceived color of objects remains relatively constant under varying illumination conditions, so that they appear identical to a “canonical” (reference) image subject to a “canonical” (known) light source (of controlled quality), e.g., under a white light source [171]. In short, solution of the color constancy problem is the recovery “of an illuminant-independent representation of the reflectance values in a scene” [172]. In practice, color constancy supports image harmonization and interoperability when a radiometric *Cal* metadata file is not available to transform dimensionless DN_s into a physical unit of radiometric measure. Computational color constancy is an under-constrained problem in the Hadamard sense [171, 173], hence it is difficult to solve. Since it does not have a unique solution, color constancy requires *a priori* knowledge in addition to sensory data to become better conditioned for numerical solution [30]. Unfortunately, biophysical mechanisms of color constancy remain largely unknown to date. Hence, inherently ill-posed computational color constancy cannot be constrained by prior knowledge of biological color constancy mechanisms to become better posed for numerical solution. For these reasons, there has been a large number of alternative color constancy algorithms proposed in the CV literature in the last 30 years [171, 173]. Inspired by human vision, a novel self-organizing statistical algorithm for multi-band image color constancy was recently implemented, as reported in [10, 174, 175].

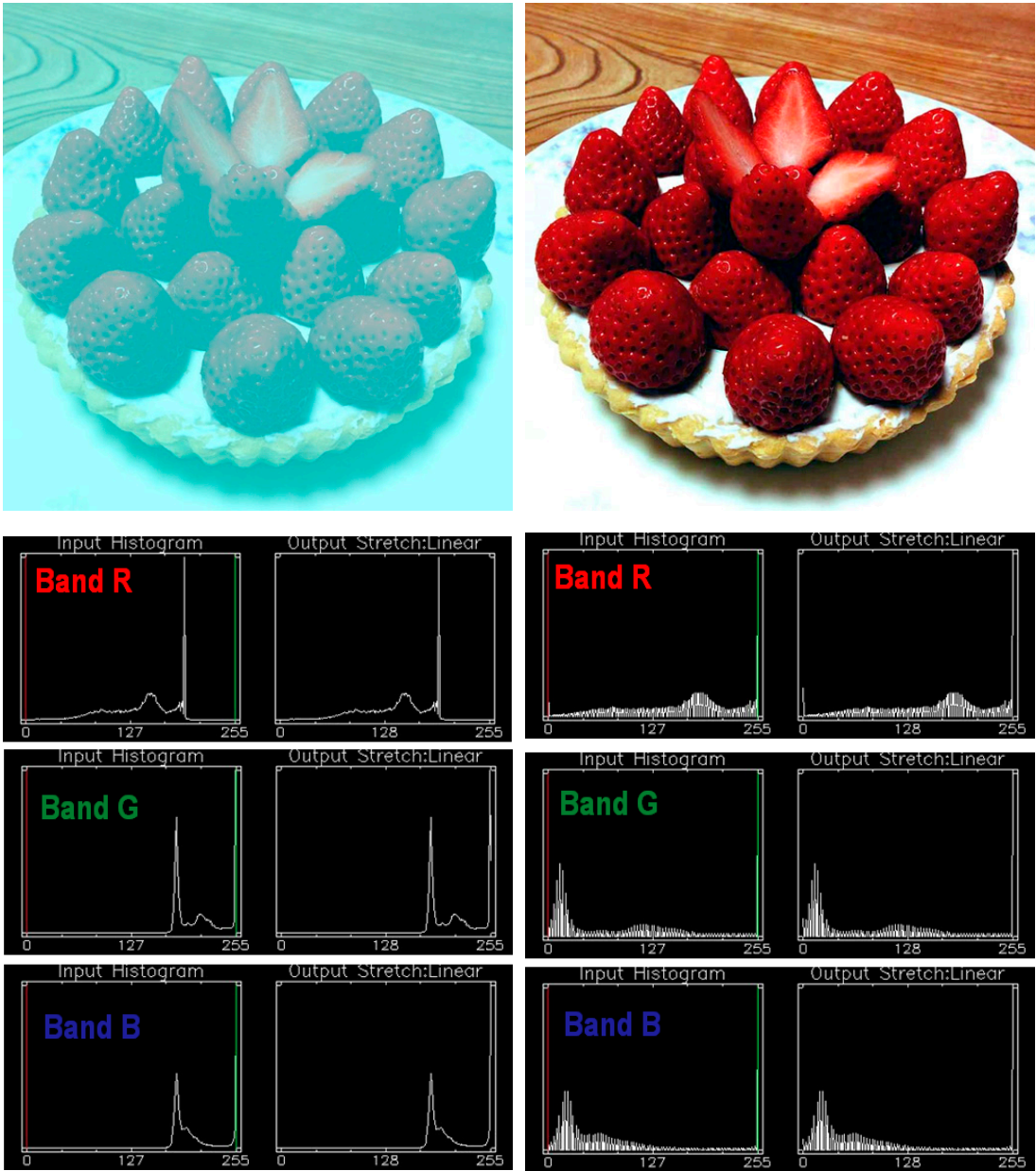
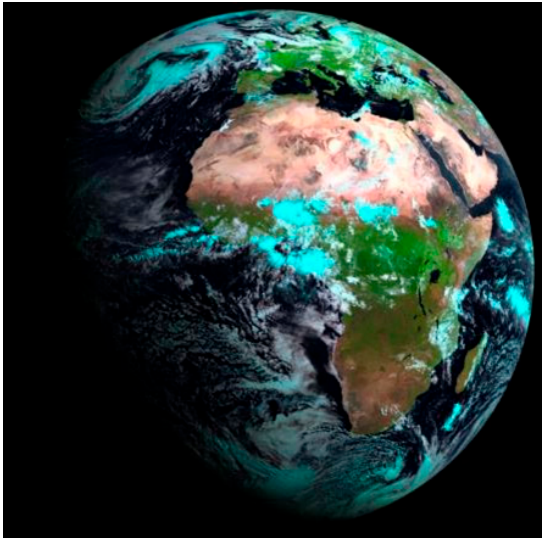


Figure 23. Top left: RGB image, source: Akiyoshi Kitaoka @AkiyoshiKitaoka, web page: <http://nymag.com/selectall/2017/02/strawberries-look-red-without-red-pixels-color-constancy.html>. Strawberries appear to be reddish, though the pixels are not. No histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes, see the monitor-typical RGB input-output histograms shown at bottom left. Top right: Output of the self-organizing statistical model-based color constancy algorithm, as reported in [10, 174, 175], input with the image shown top left. No histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes, see the monitor-typical RGB input-output histograms shown at bottom right.

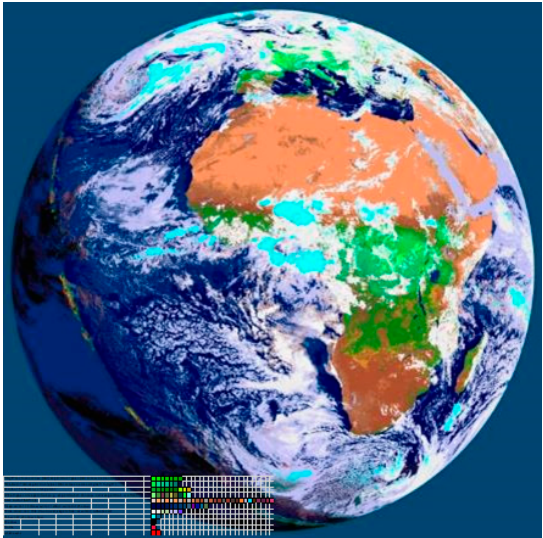
(ii) First-stage prior knowledge-based color naming.

- I. Required input data set: MS image radiometrically *Cal* into TOARF, SURF or surface albedo values. Proposed to the RS community in recent years, the Satellite Image Automatic Mapper™ (SIAM™) is a lightweight computer program for automated near real-time MS reflectance space hyperpolyhedralization into MS color names, superpixel detection and vector quantization (VQ) quality assessment [10, 11, 12, 76, 78, 79, 91, 113, 114, 138, 139, 151], see Figure 24, Figure

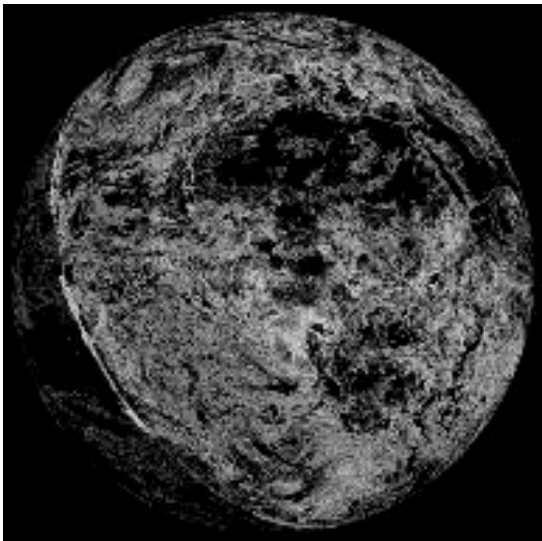
25 and Figure 26. SIAM claims its scalability to MS imaging sensors featuring different spectral resolution specifications, see Table 7 and Table 8. Moreover, the SIAM’s spectral knowledge-based decision tree for MS reflectance space hyperpolyhedralization outperforms its counterparts in terms of spectral quantization capability at different quantization levels, parameterized by the total number of detected color names at different levels of color granularity, see Table 7 in comparison with Table 1 for Sen2Cor, Table 3 for ATCOR and Table 4 for ATCOR-SPECL. To accomplish a superior scalability to changes in sensor’s specifications and a superior robustness to changes in input data, ranging from TOARF to SURF and surface albedo values, SIAM features a superior degree of redundancy of its multivariate spectral rules [11, 12]. For example, among the spectral knowledge-based decision trees under comparison, the SIAM decision tree is the sole to adopt two different sets of spectral rules to model the multivariate shape and the multivariate intensity components of a target manifold (hypervolume) of MS signatures, see Figure 18.



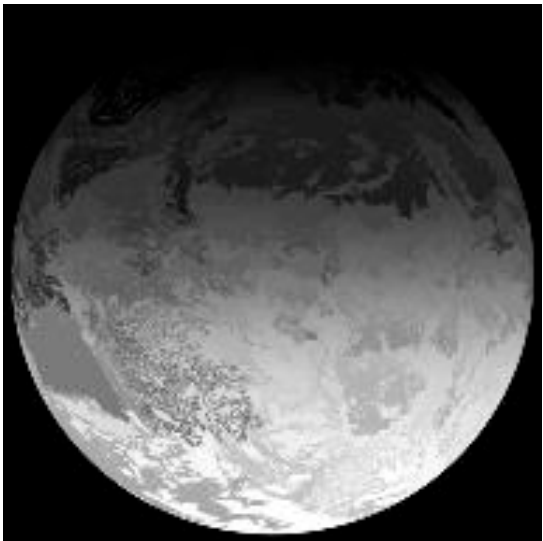
(a)



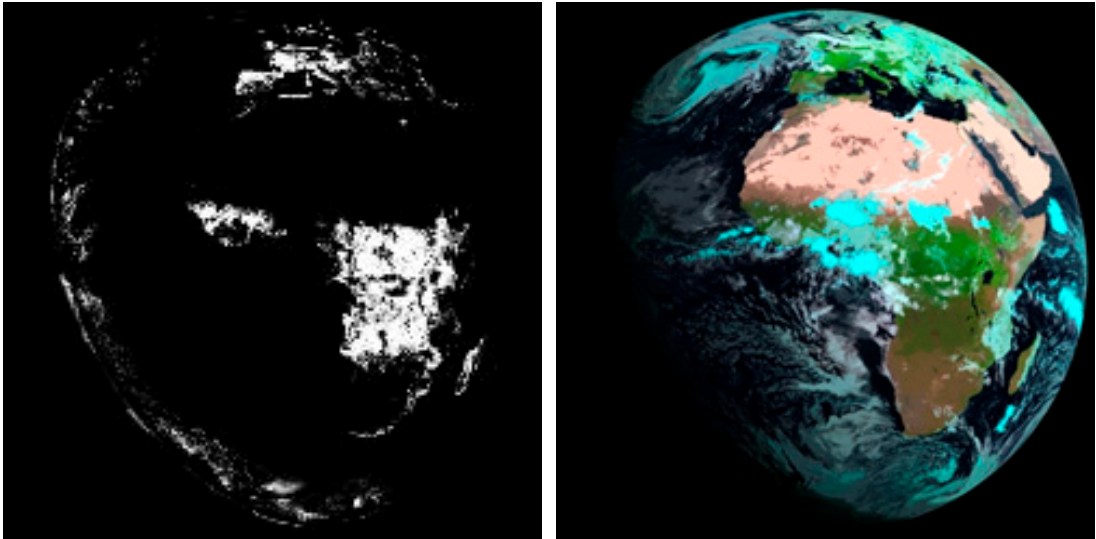
(b)



(c)



(d)



(e) (f)

Figure 24. (a) Meteosat Second Generation (MSG) SEVIRI image acquired on 2012-05-30, radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values and depicted in false colors (R: band MIR, G: band NIR, B: band Blue), spatial resolution: 3 km. No histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes. (b). Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR)-like SIAM (AV-SIAM) hyperpolyhedralization of the MS reflectance hyperspace and prior color map of the input MS image. The AV-SIAM map legend, consisting of 83 spectral categories, see Table

7, is depicted in pseudocolors. Map legend, similar to Table 8: (c) To visualize contours of image-segments automatically detected in the multi-level SIAM color map-domain by a deterministic two-pass connected-component multi-level image labeling algorithm [16, 176], see Figure 25, an automatic 4- or 8-adjacency cross-aura measure is estimated in linear time, see Figure 26. (d) Segmentation map deterministically generated from the SIAM multi-level output map shown in (b). Each segment is identified by a monotonically increasing (from top to bottom) integer number. (e). Vegetation binary mask, automatically generated from the SIAM multi-level output map shown in (b). On the left, pixel candidates for vegetation belong to spectral category: vegetation in shadow. (f) Piecewise-constant image reconstruction, where each pixel is replaced by the mean reflectance value of the segment that pixel belongs to ("object-mean view"). If the color quantization error (equal to the per-pixel absolute difference between the input image and the piecewise-constant image reconstruction) is "low", then the quality of the prior knowledge-based SIAM's color space partitioning is "high". No histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes.

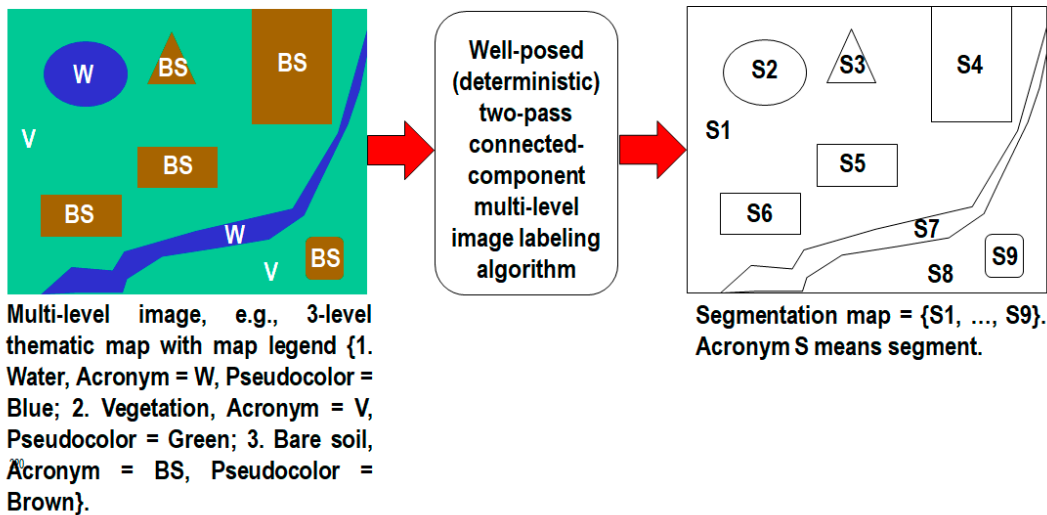


Figure 25. One segmentation map is deterministically generated from one multi-level (e.g., binary) image, such as a thematic map, but the vice versa does not hold, i.e., many multi-level images can generate the same segmentation map. To accomplish the determinist task of segmentation map generation from a multi-level image, the two-pass connected-component multi-level image labeling algorithm [16, 76] requires two raster scans of the input data set. In the figure above, as an example, nine image-objects/segments S1 to S9 can be detected in the 3-level thematic map shown at left. Each segment (image-object) consists of a connected set of pixels sharing the same multi-level map label. An image-object is either (0D) pixel, (1) line or (2D) polygon [168]. Each stratum/layer/level consists of one or more segments, e.g., stratum Vegetation (V) consists of two disjoint segments, S1 and S8. In general, a stratum is a multi-part polygon. Hence, in any multi-level (categorical, nominal, qualitative) image domain, three labeled spatial primitives (spatial units) co-exist and are provided with parent-child relationships: (i) pixel with a level-label and a pixel identifier (ID, e.g., the row-column coordinate pair), (ii) segment (either 0D, 1D, or 2D) with a level-specific label and a segment ID, and (iii) stratum (multi-part polygon) with a level-specific label, equivalent to a stratum ID. This overcomes the ill-fated dichotomy between traditional unlabeled sub-symbolic pixels versus labeled sub-symbolic segments in the numeric (quantitative) image domain traditionally coped with by the object-based image analysis (OBIA) paradigm [7].

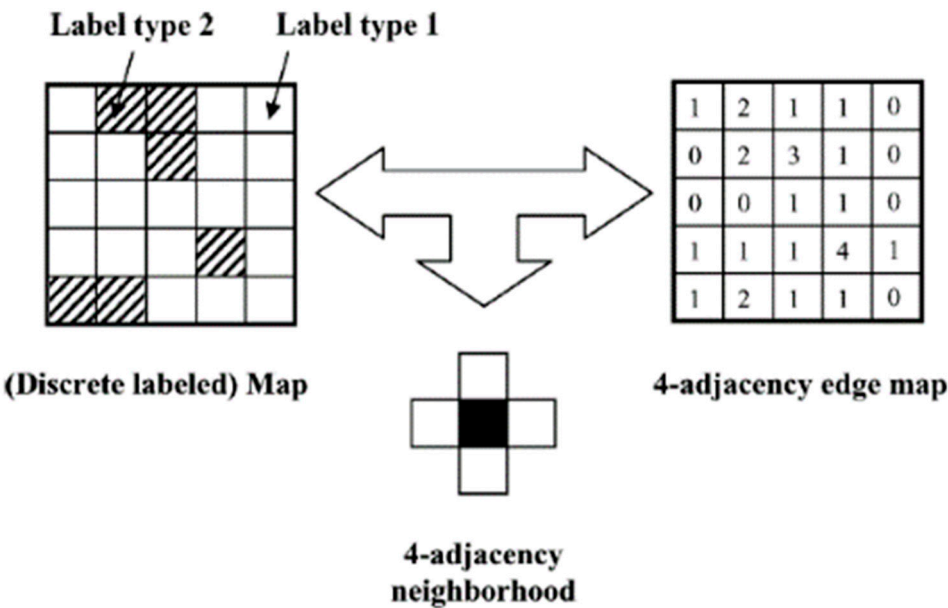


Figure 26. Example of a 4-adjacency cross-aura map, shown at right, generated in linear time from a two-level (binary) image shown at left.

Table 7. The SIAM computer program (release 88 version 7) is an EO system of systems scalable to any past, existing or future MS imaging sensor provided with radiometric calibration metadata parameters. It encompasses the following subsystems. (i) 7-band Landsat-like SIAM™ (L-SIAM™), with input channels Blue (B), Green (G), Red (R), Near Infra-Red (NIR), Medium IR1 (MIR1), Medium IR2 (MIR2), and Thermal IR (TIR). (ii) 4-band (channels G, R, NIR, MIR1) SPOT-like SIAM™ (S-SIAM™). (iii) 4-band (channels R, NIR, MIR1, and TIR) Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR)-like SIAM™ (AV-SIAM™). (iv) 4-band (channels B, G, R, and NIR) QuickBird-like SIAM™ (Q-SIAM™) [10, 11, 12, 76, 78, 79, 91, 113, 114, 138, 139, 151].

SIAM, r88v7	Input bands	Prior knowledge-based color map legends: Number of output spectral categories = Vocabulary of multi-spectral (MS) color names			
		Fine discretization levels	Intermediate discretization levels	Coarse discretization levels	Inter-sensor discretization levels (*)
L-SIAM	7 – B, G, R, NIR, MIR1, MIR2, TIR	96	48	18	33 (*): employed for inter-sensor post-classification change/no-change detection
S-SIAM	4 – G, R, NIR, MIR1	68	40	15	
AV-SIAM	4 – R, NIR, MIR1, TIR	83	43	17	
Q-SIAM	4 – B, G, R, NIR	61	28	12	

Table 8. Legend (vocabulary) of the prior knowledge-based color map generated from a 7-band MS image (consisting of Landsat-like bands B, G, R, NIR, MIR1, MIR2 and TIR), radiometrically calibrated into TOARF, SURF or surface albedo values, by the Landsat-like SIAM (L-SIAM™, release 88 version 7) implementation, also refer to Table 7. For the sake of representation compactness, pseudo-colors of the 96 spectral categories are gathered along the same row if they share the same parent spectral category in the decision tree, e.g., "strong" vegetation, equivalent to a spectral end-member. The pseudo-color of a spectral category (color name) is chosen as to mimic natural colors of pixels belonging to that spectral category.



- II. Required input data set: RGB image, either true- or false-color, not provided with radiometric calibration metadata parameters, but submitted to color constancy. The RGB Image Automatic Mapper (RGBIAM) is a lightweight computer program capable of color naming, superpixel detection and VQ quality assessment in non-calibrated RGB imagery, either true- or false-color, submitted to color constancy as a mandatory non-calibrated RGB image pre-processing stage for image harmonization through space, time and sensors. RGBIAM comprises a novel expert system capable of partitioning a three-band RGB data cube, either true- or false-color, into a pre-defined vocabulary of RGB color names at two different

quantization levels of color granularity, specifically 50 and 11 color names, see Figure 27 and Table 9 [10, 174, 175].

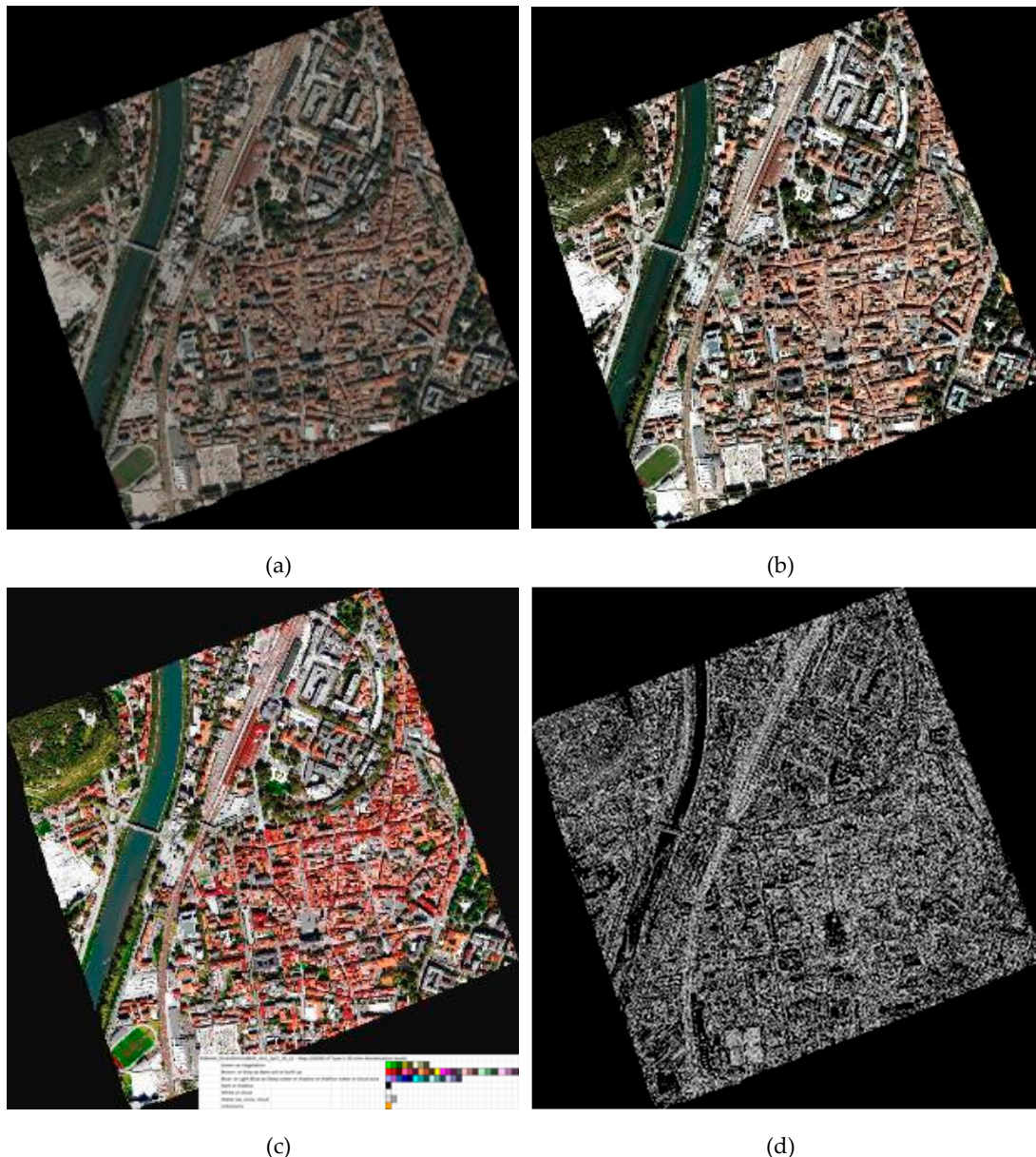


Figure 27. (a) Airborne 10 cm resolution true-color RGB orthophoto of Trento, Italy, 4017 x 4096 pixels in size x 3 bands, acquired in 2014 and provided with no radiometric calibration metadata file. No histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes. (b) Same RGB orthophoto subject to self-organizing statistical color constancy. (c) RGBIAM polyhedralization of the RGB color space and prior color map of the RGB image subject to color constancy. The RGBIAM map legend, consisting of 50 spectral categories, is depicted in

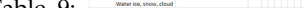
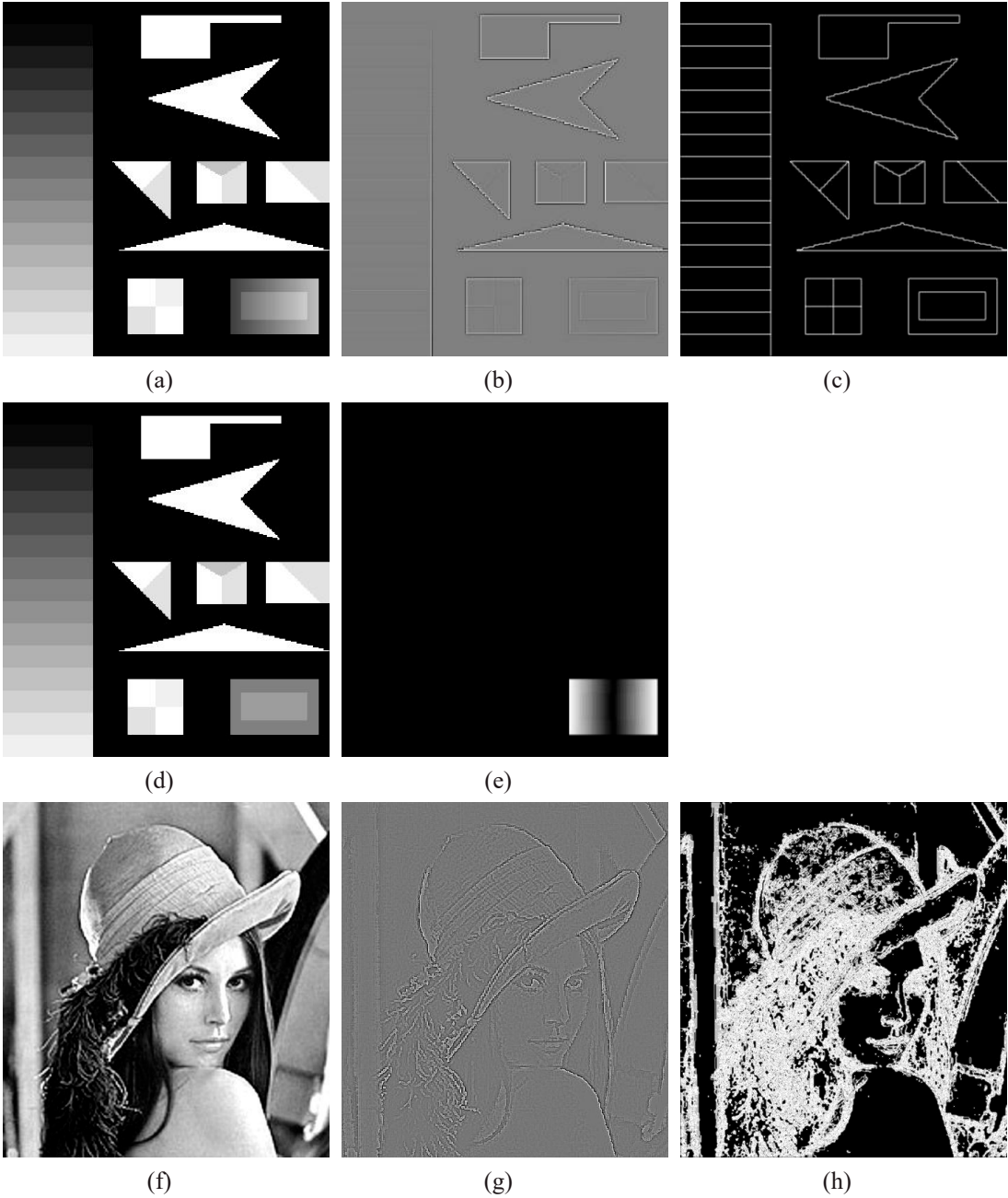
pseudocolors. Map legend, shown in Table 9: . Input parameters: none. Processing time (one-pass, IDL implementation) = 2 min. (d) To visualize contours of image-segments automatically detected in the multi-level RGBIAM color map-domain by a deterministic two-pass connected-component multi-level image labeling algorithm [16, 176], see Figure 25, an automatic 4- or 8-adjacency cross-aura measure is estimated in linear time, see Figure 26.

Table 9. Legend (vocabulary) of the prior knowledge-based color map generated from a 3-band RGB image, in either true- or false-color and submitted to a color constancy pre-processing stage, by the RGBIAM (release 6 version 2) implementation at fine color quantization with 50 color names (versus 11 basic color names at coarse color space partitioning). For the sake of representation compactness, pseudo-colors of the 50 spectral categories are gathered along the same row if they share the same parent spectral category in the decision tree. The pseudo-color of a spectral category (color name) is chosen as to mimic natural colors of pixels belonging to that spectral category.

RGBIAM_StndrdStrtchdBGR_r6v2_SpCt_50_12 - Map LEGEND of Type 1: 50 color discretization levels									
Green-as-Vegetation									
Brown- or Gray-as-Bare soil or built-up									
Blue- or Light Blue-as-Deep water or shadow or shallow water or cloud aura									
Dark or shadow									
White or cloud									
Water ice, snow, cloud									
Unknowns									

(iii) Second stage for image-contour detection and image-segmentation (raw primal sketch) [10, 69]. Based on an original physical model-based multi-scale multi-orientation 2D wavelet-based spatial filter bank [10], equivalent to a prior knowledge-based (deductive) CNN alternative to inductive learning-from-data DCNNs currently dominating the CV literature and whose architecture is based on heuristics, the proposed physical model-based CNN is consistent with constraint ‘Human vision \rightarrow CV \supset EO-IU’, see Figure 5. In particular, a CV \supset EO-IU subsystem is tested on complex EO spaceborne/airborne images if and only if it performs in agreement with human visual perception on test cases at increasing levels of signal complexity, e.g., 1D synthetic signal, (2D) synthetic image, natural panchromatic imagery and natural color imagery whose “ground truth” is intuitive to understand, etc. Perceptual criteria to comply with are: (I) the Mach bands visual illusion [133], see Figure 9, and (II) the perceptual true-fact that human panchromatic and chromatic vision mechanisms are nearly as effective in scene-from-image reconstruction and understanding (refer to Section 2). The proposed physical model-based multi-scale multi-orientation CNN design and implementation satisfy these perceptual requirements. To reduce computation time, each 2D wavelet-based spatial filter, $2D_f(\cdot)$, assumed to be $W \times W$ pixels in size, is implemented as a 2D separable filter, such that $2D_f(x,y) = 1D_g(x) \times 1D_g(y)$, where the 1D wavelet-based spatial filter, $1D_g(\cdot)$, is W pixels in size [140]. Hence, computational complexity of separable per-filter image convolution is $2W \times$ image size in pixels, rather than $W \times W \times$ image size in pixels. On theory, four filter orientations (0° , 45° , 90° and 135°) and four dyadic spatial scales, $s = 0, \dots, 3$, are employed, where filter size $W_0 = 2^0 \times 3 = 3$ pixels, $W_1 = 2^1 \times 3 \approx 7$ pixels, $W_2 = 2^2 \times 3 \approx 13$ pixels and $W_3 = 2^3 \times 3 \approx 25$ pixels. In practice, the same W_0 filter is applied hierarchically upon the raw image at scale 0 and on three low-pass filtered images, downscaled by a factor of 2 at scales 1 to 3 [140]. The implemented CNN is capable of: (a) near-orthogonal image analysis/decomposition and lossless image synthesis/reconstruction, in analogy with the well-known multi-scale Gaussian and Laplacian pyramid proposed in [140], (b) automated (requiring no human-machine interaction) zero-crossing (ZX) image-contour detection ([10]), in line with the biologically plausible CV system proposed by Marr [69], and (c) automated ZX image-segment (blob, closed-contour) detection [10], never accomplished by Marr in his seminal work [69], see

Figure 28. Such a deductive CNN implementation is alternative to inductive learning-from-data algorithms for image-contour detection and image segmentation, either 2D image analysis approaches, such as DCNNs [31], or 1D image analysis approaches, e.g., [134-136], which are inherently semi-automatic and site-specific [2].





(i)



(l)



(m)



(n)



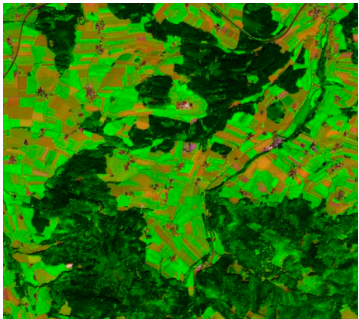
(o)



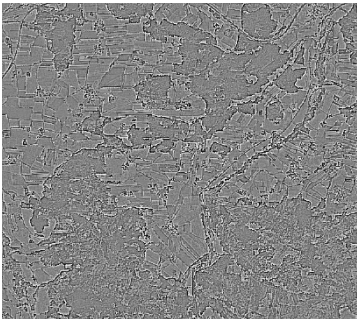
(p)



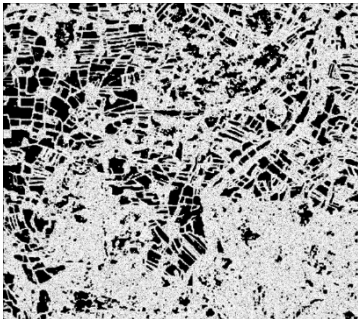
(q)



(r)



(s)



(t)

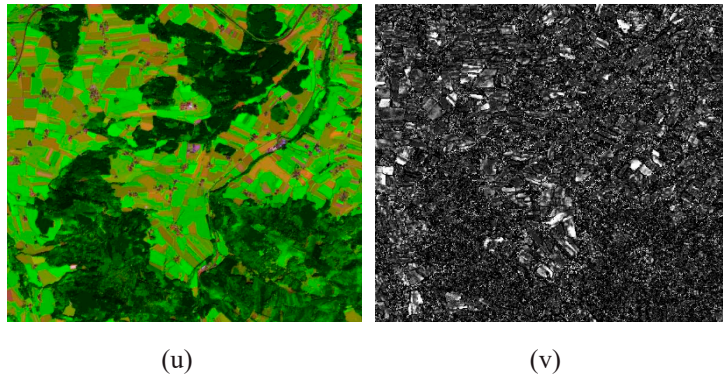


Figure 28. To comply with constraint ‘Human vision \rightarrow CV \supset EO-IU’, see Figure 5, an EO-IU subsystem for image-contour detection and image segmentation is tested on complex EO spaceborne/airborne images if and only if it performs in agreement with human visual perception, such as: (1) the Mach bands visual illusion [133] and (2) the perceptual true-fact that human panchromatic and chromatic vision mechanisms are nearly as effective in scene-from-image reconstruction and understanding, starting from simpler test of increasing signal complexity, e.g., 1D synthetic signal, 2D synthetic image, natural panchromatic and natural chromatic images of intuitive “ground truth”, etc. (a) SUSAN synthetic panchromatic image, byte coded in range $\{0, 255\}$. Step edges and ramp edges at known locations (the latter forming the two inner rectangles visible at the bottom right corner) form angles from acute to obtuse. According to human vision, 31 image-segments can be detected as reference “ground-truth”. (b) Sum (synthesis) of the wavelet-based near-orthogonal multi-scale multi-orientation image decomposition. Filter value sum in range $[-255, +255]$. (c) Automated (requiring no human-machine interaction) image segmentation into zero-crossing (ZX) segments generated from ZX pixels detected by a multi-scale multi-orientation spatial filter bank, equivalent to a prior knowledge-based CNN, different from Marr’s single-scale isotropic ZX pixel detection ([69]). Exactly 31 image-segments are detected with 100% contour accuracy. Segment contours depicted with 8-adjacency cross-aura values in range $\{0, 8\}$, see Figure 26. (d) Image-object mean view = object-wise constant input image reconstruction. (e) Object-wise constant input image reconstruction compared with the input image, per-pixel root mean square error (RMSE) in range $[0, 255]$. (f) Natural panchromatic image of Lenna. (g) Same as (b). (h) Same as (c), there is no CV system’s free- parameter to be user-defined. (i) Same as (d). (l) Same as (e). (m) Natural RGB-color image of Lenna. (n) Same as (b). (o) Same as (c), there is no CV system’s free- parameter to be user-defined. (p) Same as (d). (q) Same as (e). (r) Zoom-in of a Sentinel-2A MSI Level-1C image of the Earth surface south of the city of Salzburg, Austria. Acquired on 2015-09-11. Spatial resolution: 10 m. Radiometrically calibrated into top-of-atmosphere reflectance (TOARF) values in range $\{0, 255\}$, it is depicted as a false color RGB image, where: R = Medium InfraRed (MIR) = Band 11, G = Near IR (NIR) = Band 8, B = Blue = Band 2. Standard ENVI histogram stretching applied for visualization purposes. (s) Same as (b). (t) Same as (c), there is no CV system’s free- parameter to be user-defined. (u) Same as (d). (v) Same as (e).

(iv) Third stage for planar shape indexing. An original minimally dependent and maximally informative (mDMI) set of planar shape (geometric) indexes was conceived and implemented as described in [10, 163]. The proposed mDMI set of geometric functions comprises scale-invariant roundness (compactness and no holiness) $\in [0, 1]$, elongatedness (and no holiness) ≥ 1 , multi-scale straightness of boundaries $\in [0, 1]$, simple connectivity (no holiness) $\in [0, 1]$, rectangularity (and no holiness) $\in [0, 1]$ and convexity (and no holiness) $\in [0, 1]$, to be estimated per image-object in addition to size and orientation, see Figure 29.

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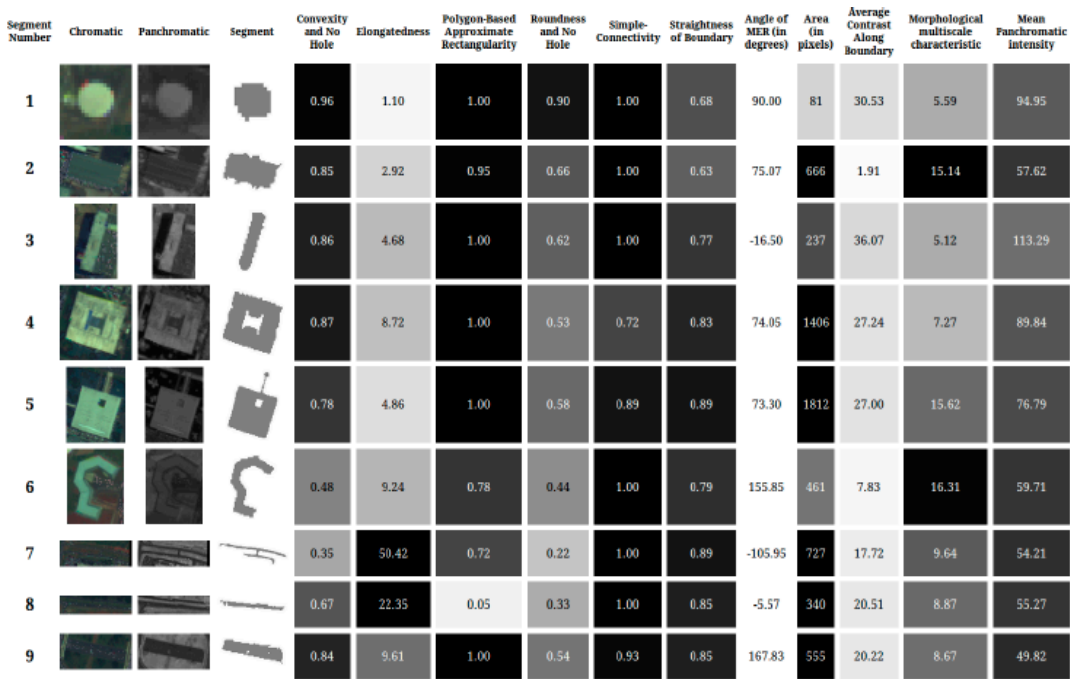


Figure 29. Screenshot of a graphic user interface (GUI) specifically developed to show a human expert values of the proposed minimally dependent and maximally informative (mDMI) set of geometric attributes. In this GUI, darker cells correspond to: (i) higher values of geometric attributes and (ii) lower values of photometric attributes, like the panchromatic mean intensity shown at the rightest column. In this figure, for reasons of readability only nine segments are shown simultaneously for comparison. Detected in the spaceborne VHR test image of an urban area, segments 1 through 6 correspond to buildings or parts of buildings while segments 7 through 9 belong to roads. These two families of segments appear easy to discriminate based on different combinations of ranges of change of their geometric attributes.

- (v) Fourth stage for texture segmentation (full primal sketch), synonym of perceptual spatial grouping of texture elements, texels [10, 16, 164-166] or tokens [69]. Based on a multi-scale texture binary profile accomplished in linear time complexity via multi-scale window-based analysis of the spatial distribution of binary image-contours [10]. To date, automated image-texture segmentation is an open problem [20, 68, 141, 177].
- (vi) Fifth stage for general-purpose, user- and application-independent ESA EO Level 2 product generation (refer to Section 1), based on a 2D convergence-of-visual-evidence approach, according to Equation (2) [10], where the proposed ESA EO Level 2 SCM product taxonomy consists of a standard 3-level 8-class FAO LCCS-DP legend augmented with quality layers cloud and cloud-shadow, see Table 2 and Figure 1.
- (vii) Sixth stage for user- and application-dependent FAO LCCS-MHP classification (see Figure 1), based on a 2D convergence-of-visual-evidence approach, according to Equation (2) [10].

At the levels of system understanding of information/knowledge representation, system architecture, algorithm and implementation, the AutoCloud+ subsystem requirements specification is considered a specialized version of the aforementioned six-stage hybrid feedback CV system baseline. In greater detail, the AutoCloud+ flow chart, algorithm and implementation are specialized as follows [10, 36, 67], see Figure 30.

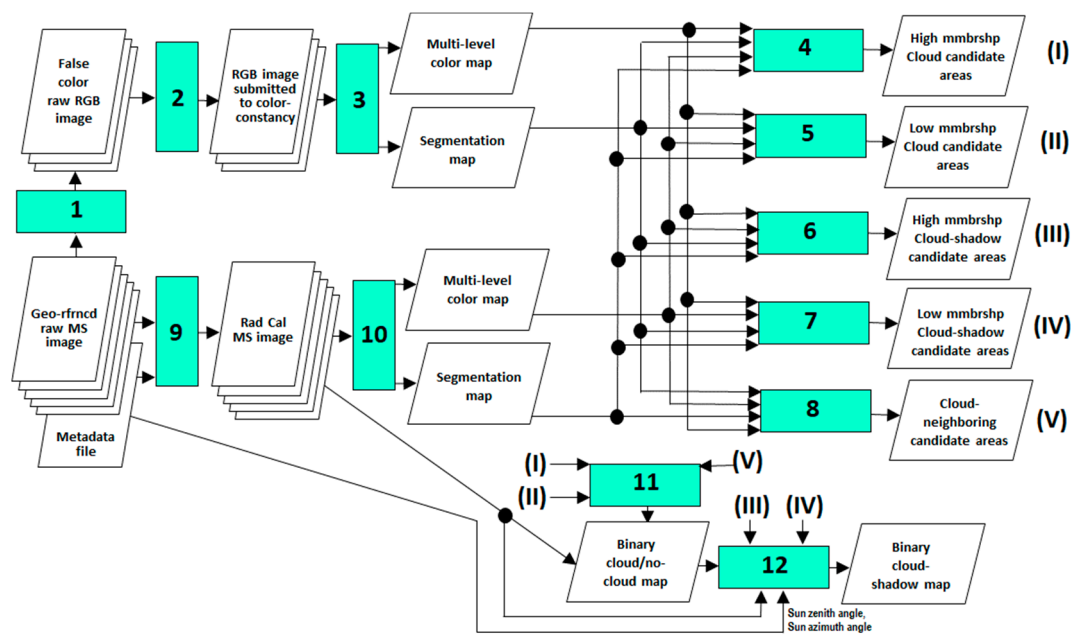


Figure 30. AutoCloud+ hybrid (combined physical model-based and statistical model-based) 2D image analysis system design (architecture) for spatial context-sensitive and spatial topology-preserving cloud/cloud-shadow detection. (1) True- or false-color RGB channel selection. (2) Statistical self-organizing color constancy algorithm. (3) RGBIAM lightweight computer program for RGB color space polyhedralization into color names, superpixel detection and vector quantization (VQ) quality assessment. (4) Candidate cloud areas, based on convergence-of-evidence. (5) Candidate no-cloud areas, based on convergence-of-evidence. (6) Candidate cloud-shadow areas, based on convergence-of-evidence. (7) Candidate no-cloud-shadow areas, based on convergence-of-evidence. (8) Candidate cloud neighboring areas, based on convergence-of-evidence. (9) Radiometric calibration of digital numbers (DNs) into TOARF, SURF or surface albedo values. (10) SIAM lightweight computer program for MS reflectance space hyperpolyhedralization into color names, superpixel detection and vector quantization (VQ) quality assessment. (11) Spatial cloud modeler: Clouds detected from candidate cloud and cloud neighboring areas. (12) Spatial bidirectional cloud and cloud-shadow modeler: Physical model-based cloud shadow detection, moving from cloud to cloud-shadow candidates and vice versa, for mutual reinforcement learning.

First, the two SIAM and RGBIAM lightweight computer programs for color space discretization into color names are combined to pursue convergence of photometric evidence, whether or not the color space is radiometrically calibrated. For example, when the input MS image is radiometrically calibrated into TOARF, SURF or surface albedo values, then SIAM and RGBIAM are run in parallel upon, respectively, the original input MS image (calibrated) and an RGB false-color selection of the input (calibrated) image pre-processed by the self-organizing algorithm for color constancy (similar to image enhancement by histogram stretching). The two output multi-level maps in color names generated as output by SIAM and RGBIAM can be deterministically segmented in linear time complexity with image size into labeled image-objects (super-pixels, connected sets of pixels featuring the same color label) by a well-known two-pass connected-component multi-level image labeling algorithm [16, 176], see Figure 25. In the SIAM and RGBIAM output segmentation map, each connected-component is labeled with one segment identifier (ID) together with one semi-symbolic color name. For example, an image-object, either (0D) pixel, (1) line or (2D) polygon [168], is provided with a segment ID, a MS color name 'green-as-Vegetation' by SIAM and an RGB color name 'Green' by RGBIAM.

Second, candidate cloud-objects and candidate cloud-shadow-objects are detected in the image-domain based on a convergence of spatial shape and size properties with SIAM and

1820 RGBIAM color names. Stratified (class-conditioned) by color names, a driven-by-knowledge
1821 shape-preserving dilation process is run to fill small spatial gaps within cloud/cloud-shadow
1822 candidate areas (e.g., due to self-occlusion and shadow-casting phenomena occurring in
1823 clouds, where solar luminance decreases) and along boundaries of candidate cloud areas.

1824 Third, the cloud candidate image-objects can grow in the image-domain to include
1825 spatially adjacent image-objects whose color, shape and size properties are consistent with the
1826 hypothesis of belonging to class crown-of-cloud.

1827 Finally, a bidirectional physical knowledge-based data modeler is run for spatial
1828 reasoning (see software blocks identified as 11 and 12 in Figure 30). Making use of OBIA
1829 concepts for spatial information modeling [178], it is capable of cloud/cloud-shadow image-
1830 object pair spatial matching in shape while accounting for the sun position, to reduce cloud
1831 and cloud-shadow false positives and false negatives. In the quest for a unidirectional cloud-
1832 to-cloud-shadow relationship, candidate cloud-shadows are searched for in the (2D) image-
1833 domain to be matched in shape by each individual candidate cloud-object adopted as starting
1834 position. This spatial search moves from the candidate cloud-object of interest, in the direction
1835 of the sun azimuth angle (known from the input EO image metadata file) with orientation
1836 away from the sun, for a spatial length estimated as a dependent variable of the cloud height,
1837 which is the sole unknown independent physical variable to cope with, estimated according to
1838 an *a priori* physical knowledge-based model of real-world cloud heights, in line with Sen2Cor
1839 [9]. The dual quest for object-pair matching in shape deals with the cloud-shadow-to-cloud
1840 unidirectional relationship, which is usually neglected in other cloud/cloud-shadow detectors,
1841 such as Sen2Cor [9] and MAJA ([39]). A simplified flow chart of the hybrid AutoCloud+
1842 software toolbox for automated cloud/cloud-shadow detection is shown in Figure 31.

1843 At the implementation level of system understanding, it is worth mentioning that
1844 candidate cloud/cloud-shadow image-object pairs are matched in shape according to the
1845 mDMI set of planar shape functions implemented in [10, 163]. The AutoCloud+ software blocks
1846 identified as data processing units 4 to 8, 11 and 12 in Figure 30 were implemented within the
1847 Trimble's eCognition Developer commercial software environment for fast prototyping OBIA
1848 solutions [179].
1849

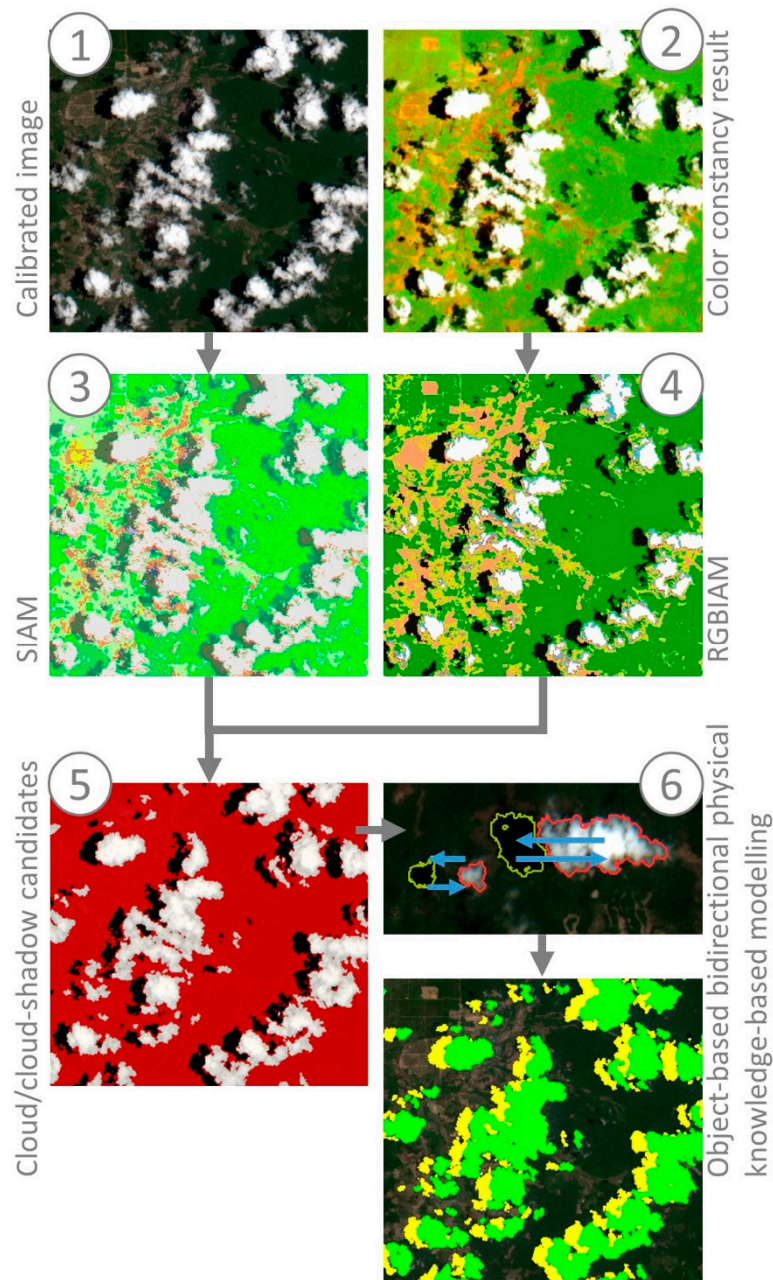


Figure 31. Simplified flow chart of the hybrid AutoCloud+ software toolbox for automated cloud/cloud-shadow detection, see Figure 30. This intuitive workflow is depicted as a sequence of two input data sets (1) and (2), generated from the same input MS image, one submitted to radiometric *Cal* (when radiometric *Cal* metadata parameters are available) and the other submitted to statistical color constancy, followed by four intermediate information products (3) to (6), and one final output product, specifically, a three-level output map with semantic layers cloud/cloud-shadow/others (rest of the world), shown at bottom right.

5. Materials

For testing purposes, the novel AutoCloud+ algorithm for cloud/cloud-shadow detection in single-date MS imagery was compared in quantitative terms of outcome and process quality, in compliance with the mDMI set of EO OP-Q²Is proposed in Section 2, with alternative standard CV software solutions available open source or free of cost, specifically, the single-date Sen2Cor and multi-temporal MAJA software toolboxes.

As proof of concept, AutoCloud+, Sen2Cor and MAJA (refer to Table 5) were compared upon two test images, selected to be representative of the complexity of the cloud/cloud-shadow detection problem in real-world situations.

The first test image was selected as a Sentinel-2 A (S2A) Multi-Spectral Instrument (MSI) Level 1C image radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values, depicting an Earth-surface area located in Cambodia (Product ID: S2A_MSIL1C_20170421T031541_N0204_R118_T48PWV_20170421T033212), see Figure 32, for which Sen2Cor and MAJA results were available for download from the Copernicus Open Access Hub (<https://scihub.copernicus.eu/dhus/#/home>) and from the CNES website (<https://theia.cnes.fr/atdistrib/rocket/#/search?collection=SENTINEL2>) respectively. This first test image shows a large variety of cloud patterns, varying in shape, size and cloud height, together with typical critical elements in cloud and cloud-shadow detection, such as cloud-shadows projected over water and vegetated surface types, in addition to occluded cloud and cloud-shadow phenomena.

A second test image was identified in a Sentinel-2 B (S2B) Level 1C image radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values, depicting an Earth-surface area located in the Alpine area between Austria and Germany (Product ID: S2B_MSIL1C_20180616T102019_N0206_R065_T32TPT_20180616T154713), see Figure 32. In this second test image, potential critical elements in cloud/cloud-shadow detection are the presence of snow/ice patterns in high-elevation areas, eligible for confusion with ice clouds, of clouds located next to visible snow/ice surface types and of Earth surfaces affected by shadows casted by mountains rather than clouds. For this second test image no MAJA mapping result was available for download from the aforementioned CNES website.

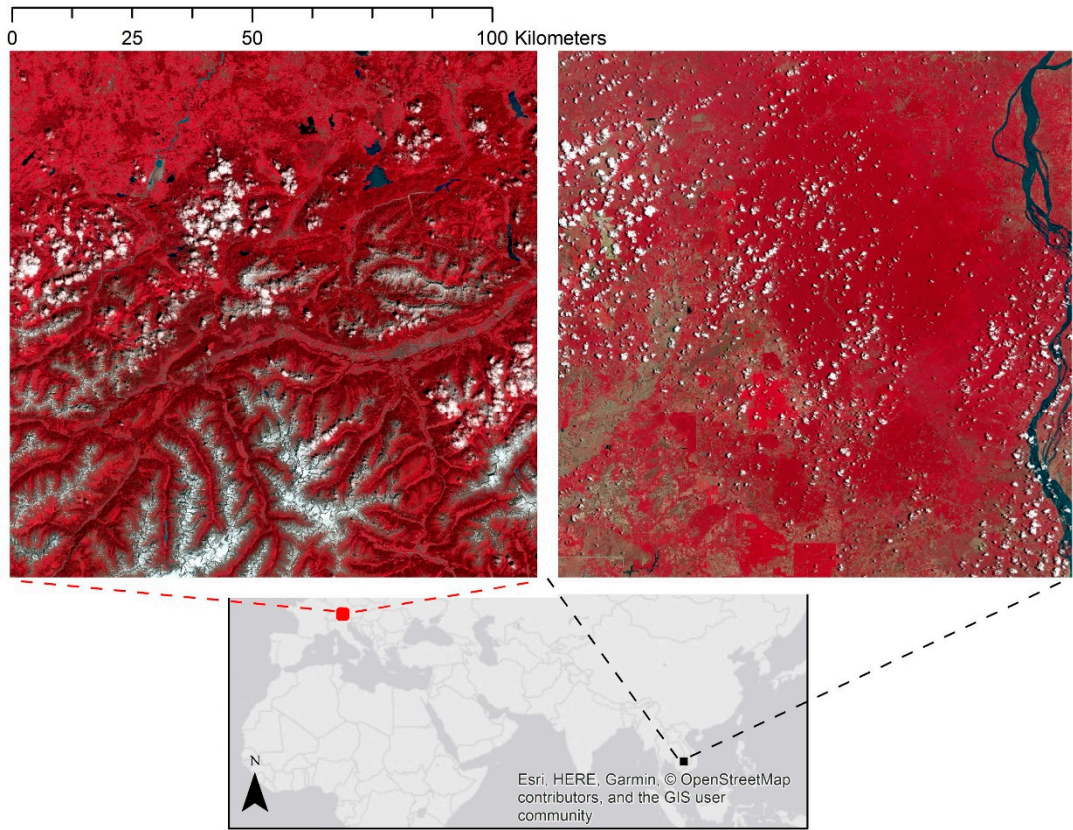


Figure 32. Overview of the two study areas adopted for testing (Left: Cambodia test site, Right: Alpine test site located between Austria and Germany). EO images of these two test areas must be selected to be representative of the complexity of the cloud/cloud-shadow detection problem in real-world situations. At left, second test image, identified as a Sentinel-2 B Multi-Spectral Instrument (MSI) Level 1C image, radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values,

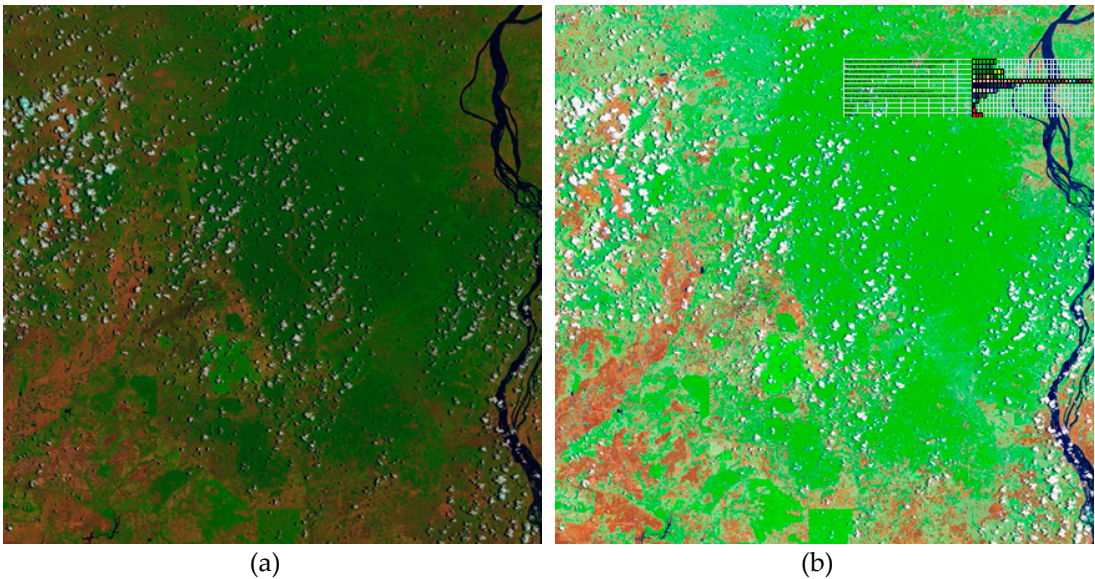
depicted in false-colors: monitor-typical RGB channels are selected as R = Near InfraRed (NIR) channel, G = Visible Red channel, B = Visible Green channel. Histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes. Product ID: S2B_MSIL1C_20180616T102019_N0206_R065_T32TPT_20180616T154713. At right, first test image, identified as Sentinel-2 B MSI Level 1C image, radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values, and depicted in false-colors as the second test image shown at left. Product ID: S2A_MSIL1C_20170421T031541_N0204_R118_T48PWV_20170421T033212.

6. Results

Alternative cloud/cloud-shadow output maps generated by the single-date AutoCloud+, single-date Sen2Cor and multi-temporal MAJA software toolboxes were compared in quantitative terms of outcome quality, as defined in the mDMI set of EO OP-Q²Is proposed in Section 2. In addition, the AutoCloud+ CV subsystem was assessed in quantitative terms of process quality, as defined in the mDMI set of OP-Q²Is proposed in Section 2. Noteworthy, this quality assurance strategy goes far beyond the traditional quantitative assessment policy of EO-IU systems presented in the RS literature, almost exclusively limited to mapping accuracy.

With regard to process quality indicators defined in the mDMI set of OP-Q²Is proposed in Section 2, such as degree of automation and computation time, AutoCloud+ ran automatically (without human-machine interaction) upon the two test images, where Step 1 to Step 5 in Figure 31 were computed in near real-time, specifically, in linear time complexity with image size, equal to around 2 minutes per Sentinel-2 image in a standard laptop computer. The bidirectional object-based cloud/cloud-shadow spatial modeler, shown as Step 6 in Figure 31 and prototyped in the Trimble eCognition software, depends on the number of cloud and cloud-shadow candidate image-objects detected in the image-domain at Step 5. For each of the two Sentinel-2 images selected for testing, the eCognition software prototype at Step 6 ran in a reasonable time frame, around 5 minutes per input image.

With regard to outcome quality indicators defined in the mDMI set of OP-Q²Is proposed in Section 2, enhanced input images, either radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values or submitted to color constancy, and intermediate SIAM's and RGBIAM's output maps generated from the first Sentinel-2 test image are shown in Figure 33. Final cloud/cloud-shadow output maps generated by the single-date AutoCloud+, single-date Sen2Cor and multi-temporal MAJA computer programs are shown in Figure 34, zoomed-in in Figure 35 and extra zoomed-in in Figure 36. Table 10 reports on the total area of clouds and cloud-shadows detected by the three algorithms of interest in the first test image.



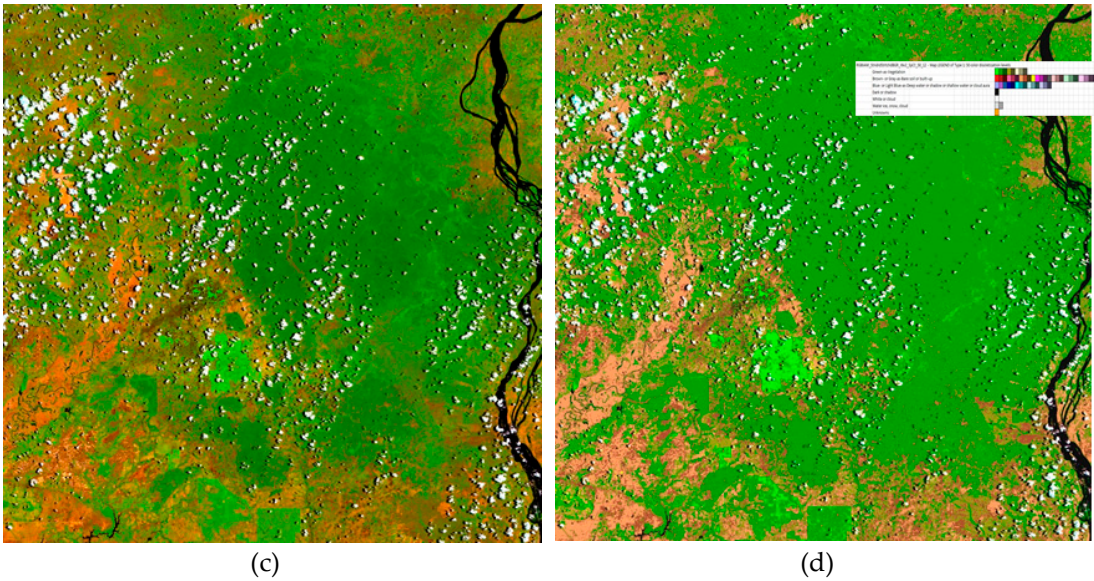


Figure 33. (a) First test image of a Cambodia site. Sentinel-2 A Multi-Spectral Instrument (MSI) Level 1C image of Cambodia, radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values. Acquisition date: 2018-06-16. Depicted in false-colors: monitor-typical RGB channels are selected as R = Medium InfraRed (MIR) channel, G = Near InfraRed (NIR) channel, B = Visible Blue channel. No histogram stretching is employed for visualization purposes. (b) SIAM map of the test S2 image shown in (a). SIAM map legend: 96 color names, depicted in pseudocolors as follows

(see Table 8): (c) First test image, shown in (a), submitted to a self-organizing color constancy algorithm. Depicted in false-colors: monitor-typical RGB channels are selected as R = Medium InfraRed (MIR) channel, G = Near InfraRed (NIR) channel, B = Visible Blue channel. No histogram stretching is employed for visualization purposes. (d) RGBIAM map of the test S2 image shown in (c). RGBIAM map legend: 50 color names, depicted in pseudocolors as follows (see Table 9):

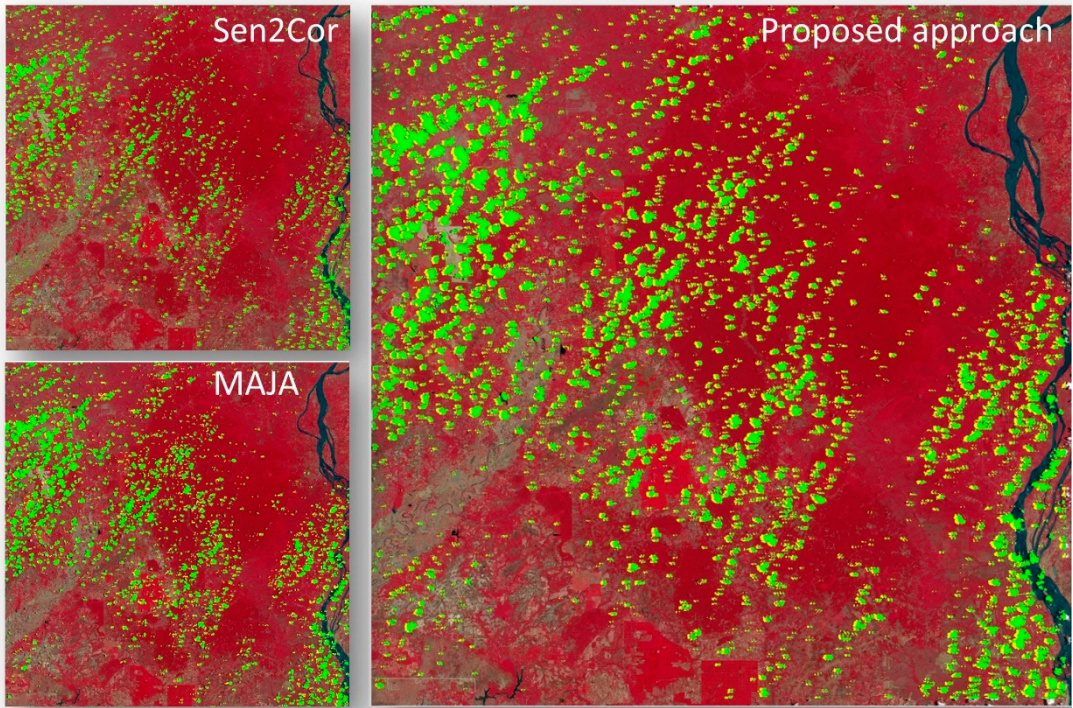


Figure 34. First test image of a Cambodia site. Final 3-level cloud/cloud-shadow/others maps generated by the three algorithms under comparison, specifically, single-date AutoCloud+, single-date Sen2Cor and multi-date MAJA, where class “others” is overlaid with the input Sentinel-2 A Multi-Spectral Instrument (MSI) Level 1C image, radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values and depicted in false-colors: monitor-typical RGB channels are selected as R = Near InfraRed (NIR) channel, G = Visible Red channel, B = Visible Green channel. Histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes. Output class cloud is shown in a green pseudocolor, class cloud-shadow in a yellow pseudocolor.

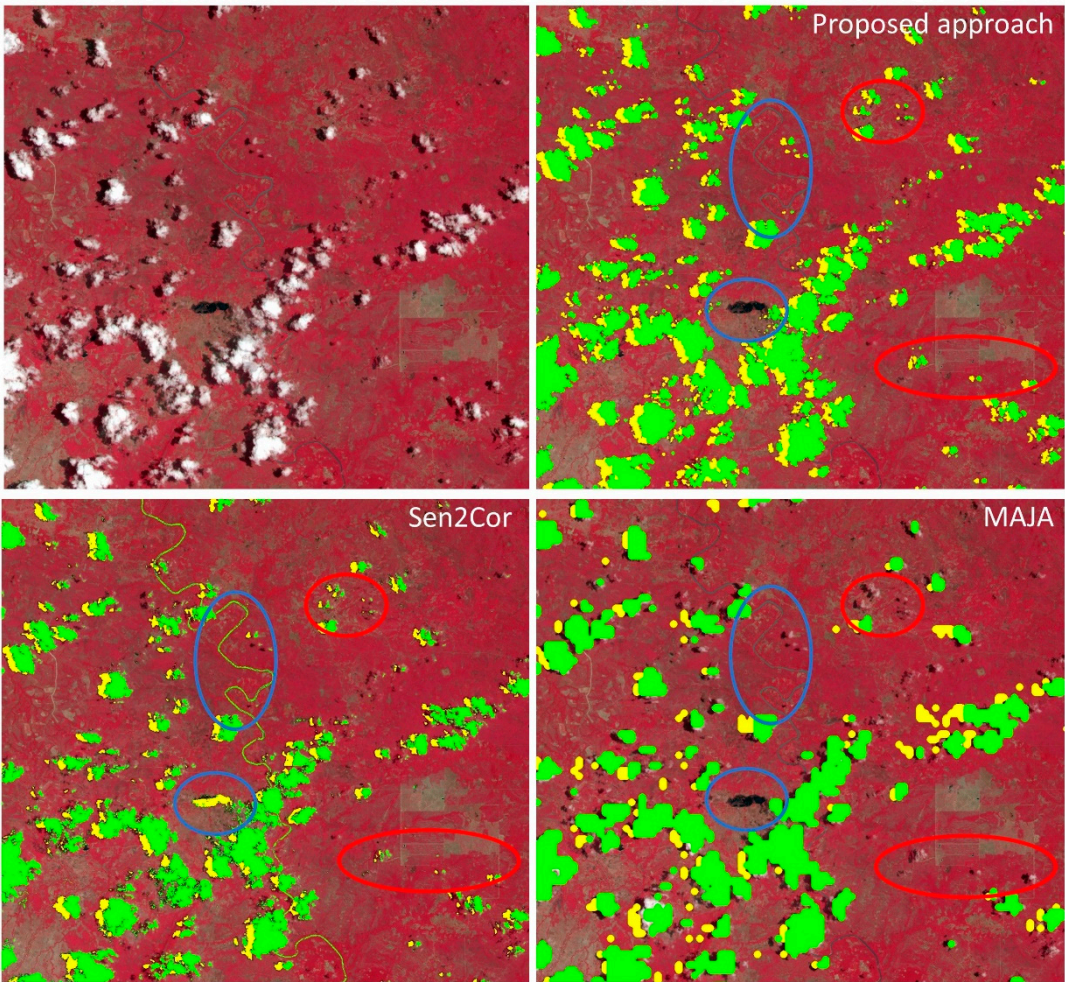


Figure 35. First test image of a Cambodia site. Zoom-in of the final 3-level cloud/cloud-shadow/others maps generated by the three algorithms under comparison, where class “others” is overlaid with the input Sentinel-2 A Multi-Spectral Instrument (MSI) Level 1C image, radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values and depicted in false-colors: monitor-typical RGB channels are selected as R = Near InfraRed (NIR) channel, G = Visible Red channel, B = Visible Green channel. Histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes. Output class cloud is shown in a green pseudocolor, class cloud-shadow in a yellow pseudocolor. Based on qualitative photointerpretation, Sen2Cor appears to underestimate cloud-shadows, although some water areas are misclassified as cloud-shadows. In addition, some river/river beds are misclassified as clouds. These two cases of cloud false positives and cloud-shadow false positives are highlighted in blue circles. MAJA overlooks some clouds small in size (in relative terms), as highlighted in red circles.

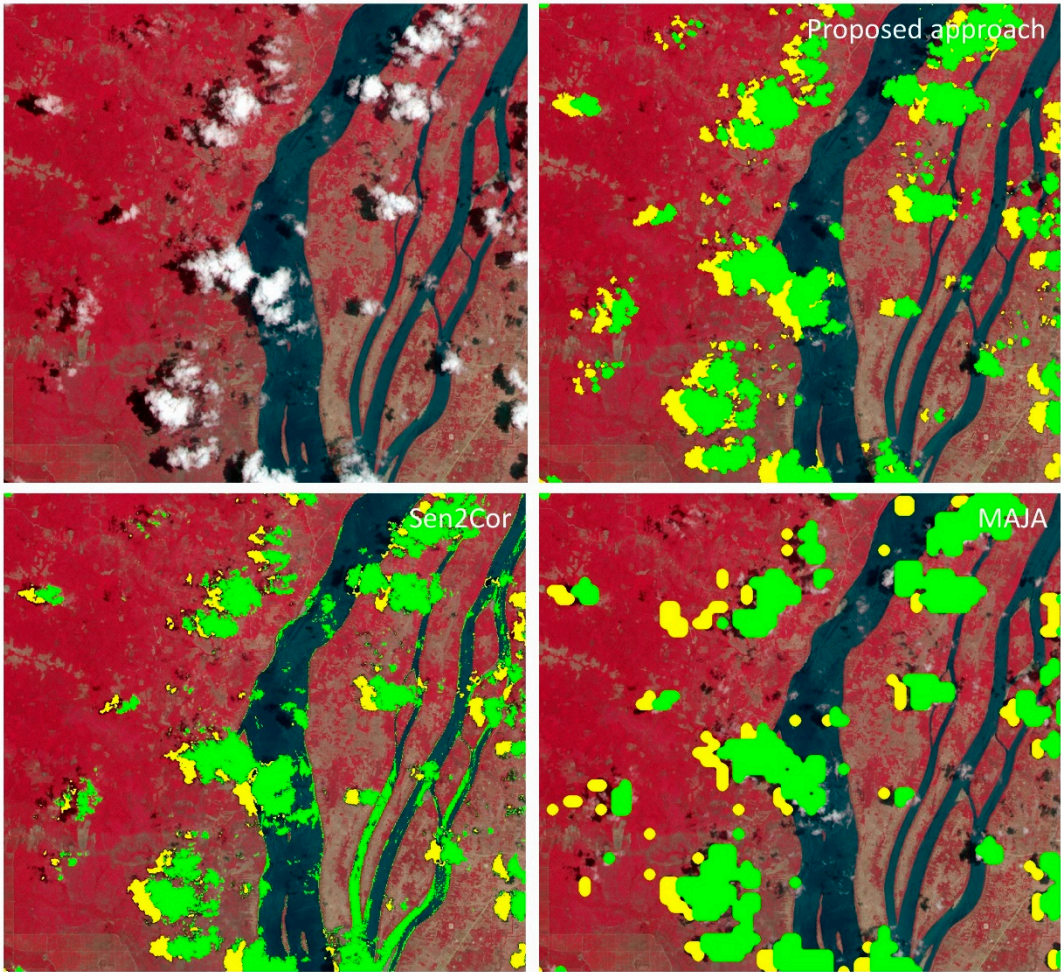


Figure 36. First test image of a Cambodia site. Extra zoom-in of the final 3-level cloud/cloud-shadow/others maps generated by the three algorithms under comparison, where class “others” is overlaid with the input Sentinel-2 A Multi-Spectral Instrument (MSI) Level 1C image, radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values and depicted in false-colors: monitor-typical RGB channels are selected as R = Near InfraRed (NIR) channel, G = Visible Red channel, B = Visible Green channel. Histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes. Output class cloud is shown in a green pseudocolor, class cloud-shadow in a yellow pseudocolor. Based on qualitative photointerpretation, Sen2Cor appears to underestimate cloud-shadows, although some detected cloud-shadows are false positives because of misclassified water areas. To reduce false positives in cloud-shadow detection, MAJA adopts a multi-date approach. Nevertheless, MAJA misses some instances of cloud-over-water. Overall, MAJA cloud/cloud-shadow results look more “blocky” (affected by artifacts in localizing true boundaries of target image-objects).

Table 10. First test image of a Cambodia site. Comparison of cloud/cloud-shadow total areas detected by the three tested algorithms.

	Cloud area (ha)	Cloud-shadow (ha)
AutoCloud+	103811	49368
Sen2Cor*	82589	20296
MAJA	109373	25896

*including all cloud probability classes

Final cloud/cloud-shadow output maps generated from the second Sentinel-2 test image by the single-date AutoCloud+ and single-date Sen2Cor computer programs are shown in Figure 37, zoomed-in in Figure 38. Table 11 reports on the total area of clouds and cloud-shadows detected by the two algorithms of interest in the second test image.

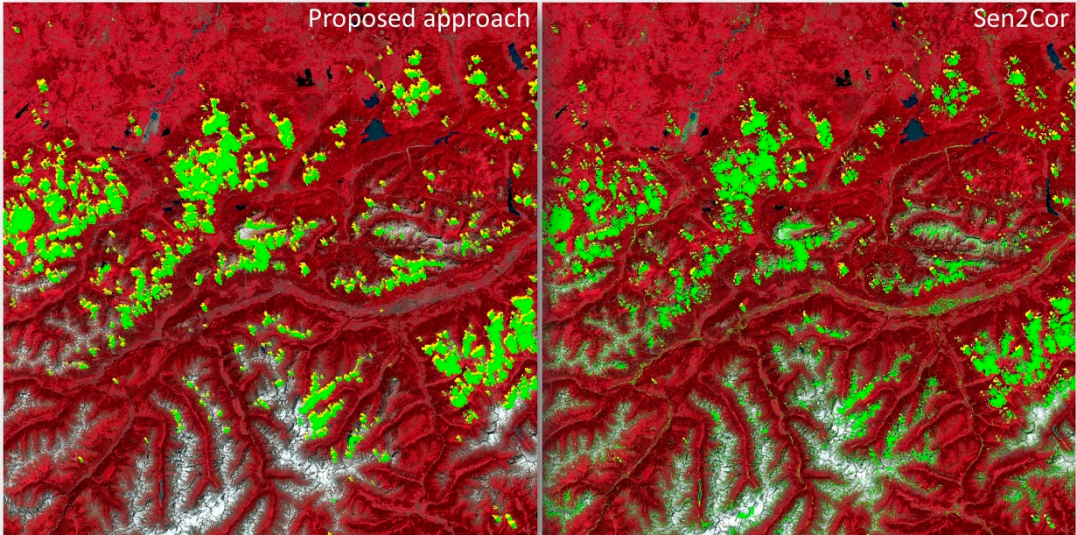


Figure 37. Second test image of an Alpine site. Final 3-level cloud/cloud-shadow/others maps generated by the two algorithms under comparison, specifically, single-date AutoCloud+ and single-date Sen2Cor, where class “others” is overlaid with the input Sentinel-2 B Multi-Spectral Instrument (MSI) Level 1C image, radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values and depicted in false-colors: monitor-typical RGB channels are selected as R = Near InfraRed (NIR) channel, G = Visible Red channel, B = Visible Green channel. Histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes. Output class cloud is shown in a green pseudocolor, class cloud-shadow in a yellow pseudocolor.

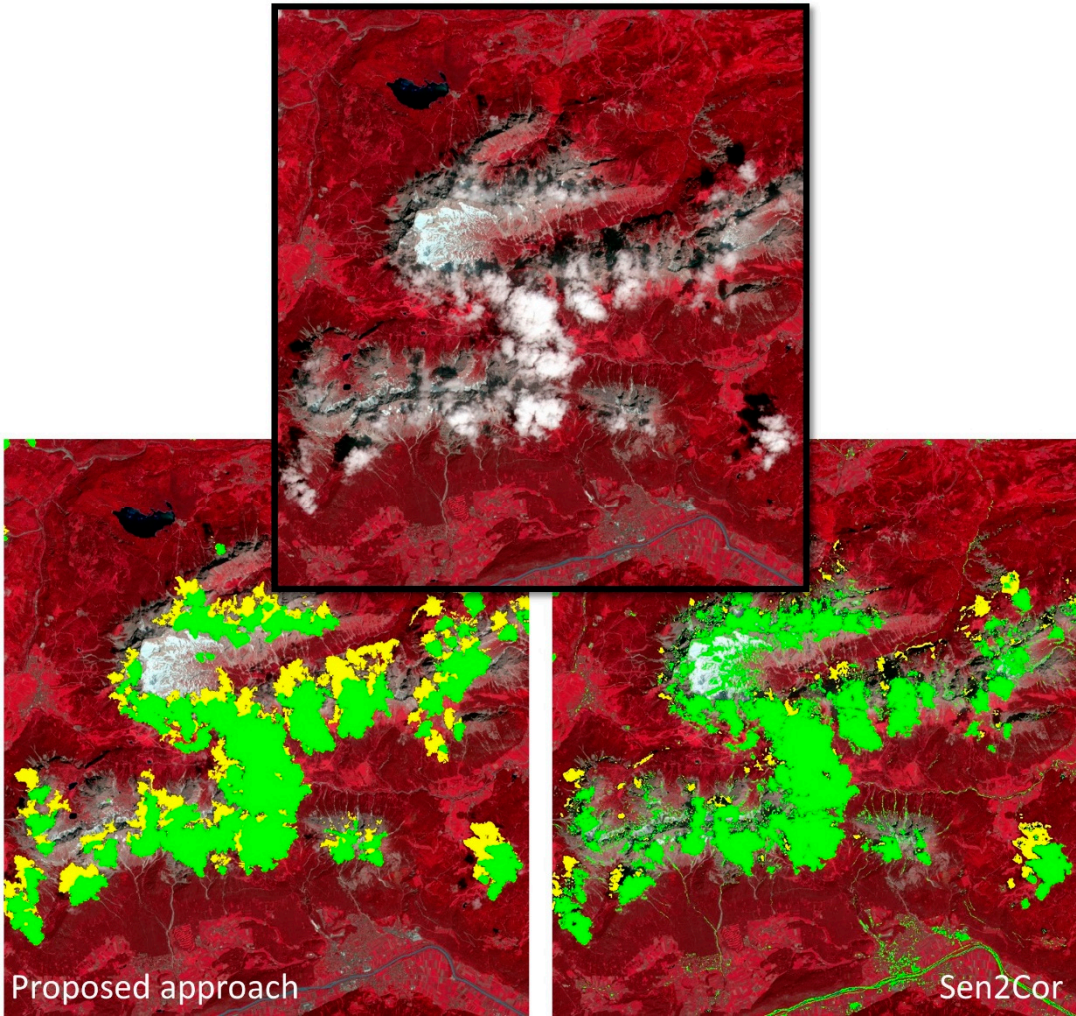


Figure 38. Second test image of an Alpine site. Zoom-in of the final 3-level cloud/cloud-shadow/others maps generated by the two algorithms under comparison, where class “others” is overlaid with the input Sentinel-2 A Multi-Spectral Instrument (MSI) Level 1C image, radiometrically calibrated into TOARF values and depicted in false-colors: monitor-typical RGB channels are selected as R = Near InfraRed (NIR) channel, G = Visible Red channel, B = Visible Green channel. Histogram stretching is applied for visualization purposes. Output class cloud is shown in a green pseudocolor, class cloud-shadow in a yellow pseudocolor. Based on qualitative photointerpretation, Sen2Cor appears to underestimate cloud-shadows, while some detected clouds are false positives because of misclassified water in river/river beds or misclassified snow/ice areas. AutoCloud+ avoids most of these cloud false positives and cloud-shadow false negatives by means of 2D spatial reasoning, specifically, by means of physical model-based modeling of cloud/cloud-shadow 2D shape properties and of bidirectional cloud/cloud-shadow 2D spatial relationships in the image-domain.

Table 11. Second test image of an Alpine site. Comparison of cloud/cloud-shadow total areas detected by the two tested algorithms.

	Cloud area (ha)	Cloud-shadow (ha)
AutoCloud+	106667	37905
Sen2Cor*	75180	14526

*including all cloud probability classes

7. Discussion

For the first Sentinel-2 test image of a Cambodia site, qualitative photointerpretation of the AutoCloud+ intermediate output products shown in Figure 33, in combination with quantitative vector quantization (VQ) error maps automatically generated as output by both the SIAM and RGBIAM software toolboxes (not shown), confirmed the validity of the SIAM and RGBIAM software solutions for color space quantization into categorical color names, in line with the existing literature [11, 12, 174], where SIAM was validated at continental scale on multi-year annual Landsat image mosaics. At first glance, qualitative photointerpretation of the output 3-level cloud/cloud-shadow/others thematic maps generated by the three AutoCloud+, Sen2Cor and MAJA algorithms under comparison, shown in Figure 34, look satisfactory. No cloud large in size (in relative terms) is missed by any algorithm. Actually, detected clouds appear somehow overestimated rather than underestimated in AutoCloud+ and MAJA. On a second glance, differences between the three approaches become notable. Table 10 reports on the total area of extracted clouds and cloud-shadows. AutoCloud+ and MAJA score similar values for the cloudy total area (~103 000 ha / 109 000 ha), but the former scores twice as much in the total amount of cloud-shadow areas (~50 000 ha). The Sen2Cor results reveal the lowest total area values (~ 82 500 ha / 20 000 ha) for both classes cloud and cloud-shadow respectively. These summary statistics are confirmed by visual analysis of zoomed-in subsets of Figure 34, as shown in Figure 35 and Figure 36. AutoCloud+ and MAJA appear to dilate (grow, on purpose) clouds at cloud boundaries to include an aura of thin cloud regions, if any, which are typically ignored by Sen2Cor. In this spatial neighboring analysis, MAJA results look more “blocky”, i.e., affected by artifacts in localizing perceptually true boundaries of target image-objects, whereas the AutoCloud+ approach “naturally” follows the shape of clouds as they are perceived by a human photo interpreter. Sen2Cor largely underestimates cloud-shadows, although some water areas are misclassified as cloud-shadow, see Figure 35. In addition, some river/river beds are misclassified as clouds, see Figure 35 and Figure 36. To avoid such false positives in cloud and cloud-shadow detection affecting Sen2Cor, MAJA adopts a multi-temporal approach. Nevertheless, MAJA misses some instances of clouds small in size (in relative terms), which are detected quite well by the other two algorithms, see Figure 35. In addition, MAJA misses some instances of cloud-over-water, see Figure 36. Overall, on closer inspection of the first test case, single-date AutoCloud+ scores qualitatively “high” in cloud and cloud-shadow mapping accuracy, both affected by few false positives and few false negatives. Hence, single-date AutoCloud+ is considered superior to single-date Sen2Cor in mapping accuracy and superior to multi-date MAJA in mapping accuracy as well as ease-of-use and timeliness, since the former requires less input data to run.

For the second Sentinel-2 test image of an Alpine site, qualitative photointerpretation of the output 3-level cloud/cloud-shadow/others thematic maps generated by the two AutoCloud+ and Sen2Cor algorithms under comparison, shown in Figure 37 and zoomed-in Figure 38, confirm conclusions drawn from the first test case. Sen2Cor appears to underestimate cloud-shadows, while some detected clouds are false positives because of misclassified water in river/river beds or misclassified snow/ice areas. AutoCloud+ avoids most of these cloud false positives and cloud-shadow false negatives. Image-wide statistics collected in Table 11 confirm that AutoCloud+ tends to detect 30% to 40% more cloud-affected areas (in ha) and 50% more areas affected by cloud-shadow phenomena than Sen2Cor.

To be validated in future works at large spatial scale and multiple time samples according to the GEO-CEOS *Val* guidelines [180], these preliminary results confirm the well-groundedness of our working hypothesis (see Figure 3) in the multi-disciplinary domain of cognitive science (see Figure 5), starting from the AutoCloud+ project requirements specification summarized in Section 4 at the levels of system understanding of information/knowledge representation, system architecture, algorithm and implementation.

AutoCloud+ process quality indicators belonging to the mDMI set of EO OP-Q²Is proposed in Section 2, but not investigated in this experimental session are robustness to changes in input data, at large spatial scale and time span in agreement with the GEO-CEOS

Val guidelines [180], and scalability to changes in imaging sensor's spatial and spectral resolutions. In agreement with theory (refer to Section 2 and Section 3), AutoCloud+ is expected to score "high" in all EO OP-Q²Is proposed in Section 2.

8. Conclusions

To contribute toward filling an analytic and pragmatic information gap from EO *big data*, characterized by the five Vs of volume, variety, veracity, velocity and value [4], to timely, comprehensive and operational EO data-derived value-adding products and services (VAPS), in compliance with the GEO-CEOS QA4EO Calibration/Validation (*Cal/Val*) requirements [3] and with the yet-unaccomplished visionary goal of a GEO's implementation plan for years 2005-2015 of a Global Earth Observation System of Systems (GEOSS) [5], the present research and technological development (RTD) work provides several original contributions.

Conceptual in nature and pertaining to the interdisciplinary domain of cognitive science, see Figure 5, our first original contribution coincides with our working hypothesis, see Figure 3. In symbols of the standard Unified Modeling Language (UML) for graphical modeling of object-oriented software [81], our working hypothesis reads as:

'Human vision \rightarrow CV \supset EO-IU in operating mode \supset NASA EO Level 2 product \rightarrow ESA EO Level 2 product \rightarrow [EO-SCBIR + SEIKD = AI4DIAS] \rightarrow GEOSS',

where symbol ' \rightarrow ' means *part-of* dependence, pointing from the supplier to the client, whereas symbol ' \supset ' means *subset-of* relationship (with inheritance), pointing from the superset to the subset. This working hypothesis postulates that necessary not sufficient pre-condition for multi-sensor EO *big data* cube analytics is systematic generation of ESA EO Level 2 product [8, 9] (for definition, refer to Section 1), encompassing cloud and cloud-shadow quality layer detection in operating mode (for definition, refer to Section 2). In greater detail, systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation was regarded as necessary not sufficient pre-condition for developing timely, comprehensive and operational EO data-derived VAPS, such as semantic content-based image retrieval (SCBIR) + semantics-enabled information/knowledge discovery (SEIKD) = artificial intelligence (AI) for Data and Information Access Services at the ground segment (AI4DIAS), in multi-sensor, multi-temporal and multi-angular EO *big data* cubes as *part-of* the GEO-CEOS visionary goal of a GEOSS, never accomplished to date by the RS community. This dependence relationship means that the GEOSS open problem, whose *part-of* are the still-unsolved (open) subproblems of SCBIR and SEIKD, cannot be accomplished until the necessary not sufficient pre-condition of computer vision (CV) \supset EO image understanding (EO-IU) in operating mode, specifically, systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation, is accomplished in advance.

Generation of an ESA EO Level 2 product from MS imagery is a CV \supset EO-IU task. Synonym of scene-from-image reconstruction and understanding [20], vision is a cognitive (*information-as-data-interpretation*) problem [15] very difficult to solve because (i) non-polynomial (NP)-hard in computational complexity [88, 89], (ii) and inherently ill-posed [20, 68], because affected by: (I) a 4D-to-2D data dimensionality reduction, from the scene-domain to the image-domain, and (II) a semantic information gap, from the sub-symbolic (quantitative, unequivocal) image-domain to the symbolic (qualitative, unequivocal) scene-domain [15, 20]. Hence, vision \supset CV \supset ESA EO Level 2 product generation are inherently ill-posed problems very difficult to solve, that require *a priori* knowledge in addition to sensory data to become better conditioned for numerical solution [30]. If dependence 'ESA EO Level 2 product \rightarrow [EO-SCBIR + SEIKD = AI4DIAS] \rightarrow GEOSS' holds, according to our working hypothesis, then the complexity of GEOSS \geq complexity of [SCBIR + SEIKD] \geq complexity of ESA EO Level 2 product, which is inherently ill-posed and NP-hard. This conclusion is a derived conjecture. It highlights, first, the potential relevance of ESA EO Level 2 product as information primitive for EO data-derived VAPS development in Space Economy 4.0 [59]. Second, it justifies the present work, whose overarching goal is systematic ESA EO Level 2

product generation, starting from cloud and cloud-shadow quality layer detection in operating mode.

Our second original contribution is both conceptual and pragmatic in the codification of RS best practice, which is the focus of efforts made by, for example, intergovernmental organizations such as GEO and CEOS. ESA EO Level 2 product is regarded as baseline information primitive suitable for an “augmented” EO Analysis Ready Data (ARD) format specification, more restrictive (in terms of output product requirements specification) and more informative (in terms of physical and conceptual/semantic quality of numeric and categorical output products, respectively), but more difficult to be inferred from EO sensory data than the U.S. Landsat ARD [120, 121] and CEOS ARD for Land (CARD4L) formats [119].

To contribute toward filling an analytic and pragmatic information gap from EO *big data* to timely, comprehensive and operational EO data-derived VAPS, starting from the necessary not sufficient pre-condition of systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation, our final original contribution deals with the RTD and the preliminary quality assessment of AutoCloud+, a “universal” software toolbox for cloud and cloud-shadow quality layer detection in multi-sensor multi-angular EO single-date MS imagery, either uncalibrated or radiometrically calibrated into TOARF, SURF or surface albedo values.

Noteworthy, jointly detection of cloud and cloud-shadow is a typical example of physical model-based cause-effect relationship, expected to be very difficult to solve by inductive machine learning-from-data algorithms, such as increasingly popular DCNNs [31], suitable for learning complex correlations between input and output features, but capable of no inherent representation of causality ([57]; [27]), in agreement with the well-known dictum that correlation does not imply causation and vice versa ([10]; [30]; [57]; [27]; [58]; [16]).

In comparison with standard cloud/cloud-shadow software toolboxes available either open source or free of cost, such as FMask, Sen2Cor and MAJA, AutoCloud+ features several degrees of novelty at the Marr’s four levels of system understanding, specifically, information/knowledge representation, system architecture, algorithm and implementation. For example, at the levels of abstraction of information/knowledge representation and system architecture, typically considered the linchpin of success of an information processing system, AutoCloud+ is the sole hybrid (combined physical and statistical model-based) 2D image analysis (spatial context-sensitive and spatial topology-preserving) approach provided with feedback loops, in agreement with biological cognitive systems [71, 77, 89].

In a proof-of-concept conducted by qualitative photointerpretation of two Sentinel-2 test images, AutoCloud+ outperformed the standard single-date Sentinel-2 sensor-specific Sen2Cor and the multi-date MAJA computer program in terms of cloud and cloud-shadow mapping quality indicators, such as true positive, false positive, true negative and false negative occurrences.

With regard to an mDMI set of EO OP-Q2Is proposed in Section 2, potential advantages of the proposed hybrid feedback 2D image analysis approach for cloud and cloud-shadow detection are summarized below.

(1) The AutoCloud+ computer program is “fully automated”.

- i. It requires no system’s free-parameter to be user-defined based on heuristics, unlike mainstream CV and EO-IU algorithms, such as inductive DCNNs, where *a priori* knowledge is encoded by design based on empirical criteria, a.k.a. trial-and-error. Hence, its ease of use cannot be surpassed by alternative algorithms.
- ii. It requires no supervised data set for inductive learning-from-data. Hence, its costs in manpower for collecting training data samples are zero and its timeliness from data collection to output product generation is reduced to computation time.

(2) It employs a known hybrid feedback CV system design (architecture, see Figure 21) whose processing units have been to a large degree implemented in operating mode and tested/validated in previous works, e.g., refer to the SIAM and RGBIAM lightweight computer programs for color space partitioning into color names, superpixel detection and

VQ quality assessment ([10]; [11], [12]; [174]). Hence, its RTD costs in manpower are greatly reduced.

- (3) In line with biological vision, the AutoCloud+ CV subsystem exploits dominant spatial topological and spatial non-topological information components in combination with secondary color information, discretized into color names, according to a convergence-of-evidence approach consistent with symbolic human reasoning, where potentially weak independent sources of evidence are typically combined to infer strong conjectures. For example, in two Sentinel-2 test images selected for proof-of-concept, the single-date AutoCloud+ computer program scored better than standard software toolboxes, such as the single-date Sen2Cor and the multi-date MAJA, in both cloud and cloud-shadow detection in terms of true positive, false positive, true negative and false negative estimates. In addition to showing a superior mapping accuracy, based on theory AutoCloud+ is expected to score also “high” in robustness to changes in input data and in scalability to changes in MS imaging sensor’s specifications.

To underpin the operational readiness of the AutoCloud+ software toolbox in support of systematic ESA EO Level 2 product generation, a complete AutoCloud+ software transcodification into the C programming language is planned for efficiency reasons, together with GEO-CEOS stage 3 and stage 4 *Val* campaigns to be conducted by independent means at large spatial extent and time span with multiple MS imaging sensors, in compliance with the GEO-CEOS *Val* guidelines [180] and the GEO-CEOS QA4EO *Cal/Val* requirements [3].

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, A.B. and D.T.; Methodology, A.B. and D.T.; Software, A.B. and D.T.; Validation, D.T.; Formal Analysis, A.B. and D.T.; Investigation, A.B. and D.T.; Resources, A.B. and D.T.; Data Curation, D.T.; Writing-Original Draft Preparation, A.B.; Writing-Review & Editing, A.B. and D.T.; Visualization, A.B. and D.T.; Supervision, D.T.; Project Administration, D.T.; Funding Acquisition, D.T.

Funding: This research was funded in part by the Austrian Science Fund (FWF) through the Doctoral College GIScience (DK W1237- N23) and by the Austrian Research Promotion Agency (FFG) with regard to project Sentinel-2 Semantic Data Cube (Sen2cube).

Acknowledgments: Andrea Baraldi thanks Prof. Raphael Capurro for his hospitality, patience, politeness and open-mindedness. The authors wish to thank the Editor-in-Chief, Associate Editor and reviewers for their competence, patience and willingness to help.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funders had no role in the design of the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, and in the decision to publish the results.

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