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Article Deep Learning for On-board Processing of Imaging Spectroscopy: A Survey

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Abstract: Modern hyperspectral imaging technologies generate enormous datasets that could potentially transmit a wealth of information, but such a resource presents numerous difficulties for data analysis and interpretation. Deep learning techniques undoubtedly provide a wide range of potential 3 for solving both traditional imaging tasks and exciting new problems in the spatial-spectral domain. This is true in the primary application area of remote sensing, where hyperspectral technology origi-5 nated and has made the majority of its progress, but it may be even more true in the vast array of now existing and developing application areas that make use of these imaging technologies. The current review advances on two fronts: on the one hand, it is directed at domain experts who desire an updated overview of how deep learning architectures might work in conjunction with hyperspectral acquisition techniques to address specific tasks in various application sectors. On the other hand, 10 by providing them with a picture of how deep learning technologies are applied to hyperspectral 11 data from (near)real-time perspective. The contributions of this review include the existence of these 12 two points of view and the inclusion of opportunities and important problems associated with the 13 development of future CHIME mission to be launched by European Space Agency (ESA).

Keywords: Hyperpectral; Deep learning; Neural networks; image processing; classification ; segmentation; hardware accelerators; CHIME mission

1. Introduction

Imaging spectroscopy in the visible to short-wave infrared (VSWIR) portion of the 18 electromagnetic spectrum is a powerful Earth observation tool that evolved tremendously 19 in the last 40 years (for a review see Rast and Painter [1]). A broad range of research fields 20 and operational applications benefit from the unique capability of imaging spectroscopy 21 sensors to accurately measure the spectral signature of Earth surface from remote sensing 22 platforms, such as but not limited to monitoring of industrial activities, agriculture, ocean colour, as well as pre- and post-monitoring of natural hazards. Nowadays, several hyper-24 spectral sensors are producing an almost continuous stream of data from airborne and 25 spaceborne platforms i.e., AVIRIS-NG [2], EnMAP [3], PRISMA [4], EMITS [5] and future 26 to-be-launched CHIME [6] and SBG [7]. Nearly all hyperspectral spaceborne sensors cap-27 ture data with a bandwidth of ≈ 10 nm and a spatial resolution of ≈ 30 m. When combined 28 with a relatively large swath (\approx 30 km to \approx 150 km), and repeated acquisition schemes, the 29 produced data will need huge storage and computational power to be processed. Because 30 of this and the increasing demand for rapid information and insights from Earth obser-31 vation sensors, there is an urgent need for near real-time information extraction which is 32 hardware friendly and can be embedded into airborne andor space-borne sensors. While 33 multi-spectral sensors capture information in few spectral bands, HS sensors are capable 34 of recording hundreds of spectral bands for each pixel. Therefore, an HS image can be 35 considered as a multi-dimensional data cube which d(dimension)>150. Hence, the spectral 36 signature [8], or fingerprint, of each pixel can be obtained. This signature can be used to 37

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Wavelength λ

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(a) Monochrome RGB Spectroscopy Multispectral Hyperspectral (b) Red (R) Hypercube RGB Image Green (G) Blue (B) ≯ NIŔ х

extract information on the underlying surface and its properties in a quantitative way (e.g. quantitative retrieval of geop-physical properties) or for image classification (Figure 1).

Comparison between different visible-spectrum recording sensors, (a)in pixels, Figure 1. (b)wavelength representation. Image courtesy of Mehta et al.2018 [9]

For many applications i.e., Security, natural hazards, chemical leak detection, etc., is 40 necessary to do the pixel-wise classification of Imaging spectroscopy. Pixel-wised classi-41 fication is also known as image segmentation or semantic segmentation [10]. Hereafter 42 throughout the document image segmentation and classification have been used inter-43 changeably. It has been a recent trend to develop algorithms that can process data (near) 44 real-time, and extract required information to prevent huge down-linking of data and 45 further storage/processing costs [11]. For this goal, traditional machine learning techniques 46 that require manual feature extraction are not a suitable candidate thus deep learning 47 has found its place within the hyperspectral community [12,13]. Moreover, deep learning 48 techniques can design features that are rarely possible by humans analyses [14]. Deep 49 learning algorithms for on-board processing of HS data can be focused on data volume 50 reduction [15,16], feature extraction [17], and target detection from raw data [18]. 51 One should consider the limited memory and power supply on board as well as the quality 52 of acquired data from the satellite to successfully deploy deep learning algorithms. The 53 segmentation algorithms for HS imagery are often referred as supervised segmentation 54 and using mainly spectral information that results in super-pixels [19] or homogeneous 55 regions. In contrary, in computer vision and image processing community refer to both 56 supervised and unsupervised methods and image classification normally is referred to

assigning a label to every pixel in the whole imagery [18]. In early studies, Imaging spectroscopy segmentation was performed using a K-nearest neighbor classifier [20], support vector machines (SVMs) [21] and Gaussian un-mixing models [22]. Moreover, sparse signal representation methods have been used to classify noisy data with help of a learned dictionary [15]. These methods were extensively used before the emergence of deep learning techniques.

The objective of this paper is to evaluate various deep learning techniques in terms of 64 network architecture, reliability, and the ability to handle noisy data. These factors play a 65 crucial role in the implementation of deep learning for on-board applications. Additionally, 66 the study will assess the capability of networks to be trained with limited training samples. 67 The outcome of this analysis will inform the decision on which network architecture and 68 configurations are optimal for onboard Imaging Spectroscopy segmentation. 69

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2. Deep Learning for Imaging spectroscopy segmentation/classification

We start with Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) in different approaches (spectral, spatial, spectral–spatial). Other significant architectures we consider are Autoencoders, Deep Belief Networks, Generative Adversarial Networks, and Recurrent Neural networks. These architectures are flexible and adaptable to onboard Imaging spectroscopy processing as well. Discussion about challenges and new trends to handle them will be followed later in this section.

2.1. Spectral and spatial dimensions in Imaging spectroscopy processing

Hyperspectral data can be processed using different viewpoints. In early studies, pixelwise processing was preferred using deep learning methods. This is done by extracting the spectral signature from each pixel and then comparing it to a known object's spectral signature. We require some prior knowledge about the desired target in this approach. an example of such a study can be found in [23]. To reduce correlated information in spectral signature and remove redundant data, we can perform dimensionality reduction methods i.e.PCA [24], ICA [25], and autoencoders[26].

Dimensionality reduction is usually applied in addition to extracting features from the whole spectral span or on defined 2-dimensional patches (both spectral and spatial dimension dimensions). Extracting features in spectral-spatial dimensions requires extracting information from raw hyperspectral data cubes without applying prior knowledge and/or dimension reduction. This is heavy in computation thus there is a preference to work on sub-volumes instead of the whole data cube.

2.2. Convolutional Neural Networks

Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) stemmed from biological neural systems. They contain an input layer, one or more hidden layer(s) and an output layer [27]. Historically, the development of neural networks has been based on the mathematical modeling of neurons in biological systems. Neurons are defined as the basic computational units in brains. Input is given to the neuron from the dendrite, the output is sent out via axon and the transmission is done through the synapse. A comparison of a biological neuron and the mathematical model in the neural network is provided in Figure 2.



Figure 2. Comparison between biological neuron in the brain and artificial neural networks (**a**) a single neuron in brain (**b**) A single neuron network (**c**)Synapse connection between neurons (**d**)multi-layer network with multiple neurons. Image courtesy of Jain et al.1996 [28].

A network with multiple hidden layers is called a deep neural network [29]. A simple drawing of a deep neural network is pictured in Figure 3.

Deep neural network



Figure 3. Simple representation of deep neural network. Image courtesy of Larochelle et al.2009 [30].

For extracting information from images, Convolution Neural Networks (CNNs) have 101 been introduced [31]. This type of network has been extensively used so far for different 102 imagery analyses [32]. In CNN, the input image is constrained by its architecture. Normally, 103 the neurons are arranged in three dimensions width (w), height (h), and depth (d). Depth 104 is the input depth, in the case of hyperspectral imagery, depth is the number of bands. By 105 proceeding deeper into the network, it refers to the number of features of the input layer. 106 In each layer, the neurons are connected to a selected number of neurons from the previous 107 layer. This is to decrease the number of weights that needs to be defined [32]. 108 CNN's have also been combined with machine learning methods i.e.SVM to extract features 109 and increase robustness toward over-fitting [33]. In this study, a target pixel and the spectral 110 information of its neighbors are organized into a spectral-spatial multi-feature cube without 111 extra modification of the CNN to classify land cover. Another example in [34] is a 2-channel 112 deep CNN that has been used to do land cover classification combining spectral-spatial 113 features. A hierarchical framework has been used for this purpose in [35]. Similarly, in [36] 114 a method is proposed in which spatial and spectral features are extracted through CNNs 115 from Imaging spectroscopy and Lidar. A pixel-wise classification using a 2-channel CNN 116 and multi-source feature extraction was done in [37]. In [38] a framework for Imaging 117 spectroscopy classification has been proposed that uses a fully-convolutional network to 118 predict spatial features starting from multiscale local information and to fuse them with 119 spectral features through a weighted method. This approach later performs classification 120 using SVM. 121

2.2.1. Spectral dimensional CNN

one-dimensional CNN (1D-CNN) is used to perform pixel-wise classification for Imag-123 ing spectroscopy processing. These networks apply to the spectral or spatial dimension. 124 These networks are affected by noise easily thus making it challenging to use them for 125 remote sensing, in general [39]. One solution is to use averaged spectrum from a group of 126 neighboring pixels. This method best suits small-scale analyses such as crop segmentation 127 [40]. Another solution is to perform PCA analyses before running CNN however, in the 128 case of near real-time image processing, there is no room for heavy pre-processing tasks 129 such as PCA. A different solution described in [41] uses a multi-scale CNN that applies to a 130

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pyramid of data that contains spatial features in multiple-scale. For small training samples, a band selection before CNN analysis has been proposed [42].

2.2.2. Spectral-spatial dimensions CNN

Working with both spectral and spatial features generally leads to better results in 134 Imaging spectroscopy processing. In [43] a dual-stream channel CNN has been used that 135 gets spectral features from the approach of [39], spatial features using the approach of [44] 136 and a softmax regression classifier to combine those features. In [45] a combination of L2 137 norm and sparse constraint have been used with a similar combination of spectral-spatial 138 features. In other studies, AlexNet [46] have been employed to do spatial-spectral analyses 139 i.e. Densenet and architecrures like VGG-16 [38,47]. In [48] few-shot learning approach 140 [49] has been used to learn a metric space that causes the samples of the same class to be 141 close to each other to deal with the problem of a few training samples. Another way to 142 improve accuracy while having a shortage of training information has been proposed in 143 [50]. In this approach, the redundant information in the hidden layer is explored to find 144 connections and improve the training process. Other examples of using spatial-spectral 145 features together and improving the learning process can be found in [51-53]. They have 146 used a variety of methods based on the super-pixel reconstruction of different features to improve the accuracy of segmentation and classification. The sensor-based feature learning 148 is another method proposed by [54] in which five layers of spectral-spatial features were reconstructed according to sensor specifications. Another improvement to sensor-based 150 training was explained in [55] which uses a novel architecture that actively processes input 151 features into meaningful response maps for classification. All of the mentioned studies 152 have used complex multi-step procedures that make them not suitable for (near)real-time 153 processing of Imaging spectroscopy, however, the better performance of using multi-scale 154 and multi-feature approaches has been proved according to mentioned studies in this 155 section. 156

2.3. Auto-encoders

To deal with the issue of limited training samples when processing Imaging spec-158 troscopy, auto-encoders in different variations have been tested. For the first time in [56] 159 PCA in spectral dimension was combined with auto-encoder in the other two dimensions 160 to improve feature extraction for classification. In [57] and [58] stacked auto-encoders were 161 employed in combination with PCA to flatten spectral dimension and followed by SVM and 162 multi-layer perceptron (MLP) to perform classification. In [59] stacked auto-encoder was 163 optimized for anomaly detection in Imaging spectroscopy. A combination of auto-encoders 164 and CNN have been also tested in multi-scale approaches to extract features [60]. Another 165 important point of using a stacked auto-encoder is the capability of handling noisy input. 166 An example described in [61] used a stacked auto-encoder to generate feature maps from 167 noisy input and then used super-pixel segmentation and majority voting. Another study 168 used a pre-trained network by stacked encoders combined with logistic regression on noisy 169 input to do supervised classification [62]. A framework based on stacked auto-encoders 170 has been proposed to perform unsupervised classification on noisy input [63], this later 171 was improved to an end-to-end classification pipeline for Imaging spectroscopys [64]. 172

2.4. Deep belief networks, Generative Adversarial Networks, Recurrent Neural networks

Deep belief networks (DBNs) have the capability of dimension reduction which makes 174 them a good candidate to extract features. In [65] a DBN was combined with logistic 175 regression to perform feature extraction. A combination of one- and two-layer DBN was 176 combined with PCA. To perform (near)real-time anomaly detection DBN has been tested 177 that also delivered promising results in extracting local objects [66]. A combination of 178 DBN and wavelet transform has been also proposed by [67]. In [68,69] unsupervised 179 classification was performed using DBNs and in the later study, an end-to-end classifica-180 tion framework based on DBNs and spectral angle distance metric were proposed. In 181

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) two competing neural networks are used as 182 generator and discriminator [70]. These networks have been used to perform classification 183 when dealing with small training samples [71]. In similar cases, GANs have been employed 184 to perform the final phase of Imaging spectroscopy classification using the discriminator 185 agent [72–74]. Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) are mainly used to process time series. 186 In the case of this, they are considered as sequences of a video series (each spectral band 187 as a sequence), and RNNs are used to find similarities between time frames [75,76]. A 188 combination of RNN to explore the spectral domain and LSTM(Long Short Term Memory) 189 for exploring spatial features was proposed in [77]. RNNs have also been used to process 190 mixed pixels in spectral dimension affected by noise [78]. 191

2.5. Unsupervised and semi-supervised approaches

Based on the fact that usually we face the problem of having limited training samples 193 at hand semi-supervised and unsupervised approaches are getting more popular in the do-194 main of Imaging spectroscopys. Examples can be found in [79,80] that use semi-supervised 195 and layer-wise classification to process large-scale Imaging spectroscopys. Another ex-196 ample of performing pixel-wise classification can be found in [81] using an unsupervised 197 method with CNN. First, inaccurate training samples were used and the classification was improved with a small set of accurately labeled training samples. In [82] to handle 1 9 9 the limited training sample problem, a convolution-deconvolution network was used for unsupervised spectral-spatial feature learning. The convolution network was used to 201 reduce dimensionality and deconvolution was used to reconstruct input data respectively. 202 Another possibility that has been explored to deal with a few training samples is improving 203 the training procedure as explained in [83] where unlabeled data is used in combination 204 with a few labeled samples and RNN to classify Imaging spectroscopys. Another approach 205 that was tested is using ResNet to learn spectral-spatial features from unlabeled data which 206 also showed promising results [84]. 207

2.6. *Challenges in Imaging spectroscopy processing and new trends for handling them* 2.6.1. Limited training sets

The issue of having limited training samples remains a constant problem so far in the world of Imaging spectroscopy processing. New approaches have been explored in the direction of using semi-supervised techniques [85], self-supervising approaches [86] and domain adoption [87] which explores the discriminative input information to feed the neural network. Another approach is active transfer learning which used the most discriminative features from unlabeled input training samples [88].

2.6.2. Handling noisy data

To reconstruct high-quality input data for classification, some approaches are getting noticed. One study has explored super-resolutions in combination with transfer learning to reduce noise and improve the quality of the input training samples [89]. Other studies have used CNN with sparse signal reconstruction [90] and Laplacian pyramid network (LPN) [91] for enhancing input data. Another method explored presented in [92] uses structure tensors with a deep convolutional neural network to improve the quality and reduce noise. 220

2.7. Increase speed and accuracy

A new trend in the field of computer vision is using CapsuleNets (CapsNet) [93] which uses a set of nested neural layers. These networks increase the scalability of the model while increasing the speed of computation. Examples can be found in [94–96]. It was shown that by using spectral-spatial Capsnet the model converged quickly while avoiding over-fitting [97].

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2.8. Hardware accelerators

To increase the performance of HS data processing different hardware has been tested, such as computing clusters [98], GPUs and FPGAs (Field Programmable Gate Arrays) [99]. Recent advances in FPGAs have made them a suitable candidate to perform on-board image processing in both airborne and spaceborne platforms [100].

FPGA is a hardware unit consisting of an array of logic blocks, RAMs, hardcopy IPs, I/O 234 pads, routing channels, etc [101]. It can be customized to perform different functions to 235 be performed at different times and levels. A previous generation of similar technology 236 was called ASICs [102]. FPGAs are more flexible and easier to program. It has shown 237 lower power consumption and improved performance compared to on-board processing 238 of hyperspectral imagery [103]. A few studies recently have performed different functions 239 related to onboard HIS processing including data compression and image segmentation 240 [104]. 241

Older versions were using FPGAs for end-member extractions [103], another one used
Xilinx Virtex-5 FPGA for automatic target detection [105] and Xilinx FPGA was used to
perform end-member extraction for multiple targets [106]. Spectral signature un-mixing
has been also tested on FPGA and graphical processing units (GPUs). Results have been
competitive in terms of accuracy.242
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One study has used FPGA to demonstrate onboard processing capability to detect chemical plumes [107]. This study has been a pilot phase for developing an AI unit for the upcoming hyperspectral satellite to be launched by NASA JPL. A main drawback of using FPGA is the difficulty of its configuration and programming. For solving this OpenCL package from Intel and VITIS library (previously VHDL) from Xilinx have been developed [108]. Therefore, there have been limited studies on implementing deep learning for FPGA. Thus, our future step is going to be implementing deep learning on FPGA on the proposed hardware architecture for future CHIME missions [109].

3. Summary and discussion

We explored the most recent trends in using deep learning for hyperspectral imagery. 256 Almost all of the reviewed studies referred to limited training samples as a main limiting 257 factor to employing deep learning widely in the HS image processing field. Another 258 mentioned limiting factor is the lack of computation infrastructure and hardware in remote 259 sensing-related studies. According to the review, there are many studies on using deep 260 learning for land cover classification however there is still a gap in the studies on target 261 and anomaly detection as well as data fusion and spectral unmixing. Segmentation of 262 Imaging spectroscopy using deep learning is still a path less walked. Network architectures 263 such as UNet, ResNet, and VNet are proven to be good choices to start with, although the 264 application-based scenarios still need more work to be defined. Regarding the classification 265 of Imaging spectroscopys, deep learning has shown to be effective, however since a lot 266 of computational resources are required to perform deep learning and satisfactory results 267 can be obtained from traditional classification approaches i.e.SVM, there is still reluctance in many users to employ deep learning. To handle the problem of limited training sets 269 and noisy input data using GANs can be a good option to produce an augmented dataset and reduce noise in training samples. reinforcement learning can also be a good candidate 271 that is worth further exploration. Since there is a trend to process Imaging spectroscopy 272 onboard (using hardware accelerators) for both remote sensing and non-remote sensing 273 applications, a summary of the most common methods according to their suitability for 274 on-board implementation is provided in Table 1. 275

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	pixel-wise segmenta- tion	noise- robustness	lightweight [*]	easy imple- mentation on board	training- samples required
K-nearest neighbours	No	No	Yes	Yes	high
SVM	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	high
Spectral un-mixing	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	high
Sparse signal representa- tion [110]	Yes	No	No	No	low
RNN	Yes	No	No	No	high
CNN	Yes	No	No	Yes	high
FCN [111]	No	Yes	No	Yes	high
3D-kernel CNN [112]	No	Yes	No	No	low
SVM-CNN	No	Yes	No	No	high
multi-branch CNN	No	Yes	No	No	low
deep CNN	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	high
GhostNet [113]	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	low

Table 1. A summary of the most commonly used image segmentation of hyperspectral imagery according to the most important features for onboard implementation.

^{*} low power and low latency

According to Table 1, conventional methods are easy to implement but need many 276 training samples and traditional processing and updating procedures. Therefore, us-277 ing CNN-based methods has found its place within the hyperspectral users' community. 278 Several versions of neural networks have been tested and in total deep CNN and 3D-279 kernel-CNN networks have shown very good results. Since we are focusing on optimizing 280 network structure for onboard processing, GhostNets might be a good option as well. 281 However, the accuracy might not be optimal. Other challenges when aiming for on-board 282 processing of Imaging spectroscopy are noisy data and no atmospheric correction available 283 at level zero data as a well limited training set. Therefore, we should focus on testing 284 different network structures on simulated and real data similar to the upcoming CHIME 285 mission shortly [114]. Overall, on-board processing of HS imagery is the new area of study 286 that will open many new possibilities in the remote sensing domain. 287

4. Conclusion

Particularly in industries that profit from the computer-assisted interpretation of both 289 visible and unseen (to the human sight) occurrences, the depth of information present in 290 Imaging spectroscopy data is unquestionably attractive. However, cost-benefit analyses 291 of industrial and professional Imaging spectroscopy technologies make it necessary for 292 enabling elements to be present to activate their deployment potential. Machine learning 293 technologies are expanding quickly in scope these days, and with the introduction of Deep 294 Learning, they are changing the field of digital data analysis. By using a multidisciplinary 295 approach and making our work accessible to practitioners, machine learning scientists, and 296 domain experts, we attempted to examine what is currently occurring with the conver-297 gence of Imaging spectroscopy and deep learning technologies in this study. One of the key 298 problems that developed as a barrier to high-quality scientific production is the publicly 299 available datasets, even though pixel- and spectral-based analysis jobs may count on an 300 order of thousands of training samples for Imaging spectroscopy volume. More generally, 301 the quantity and caliber of data collected across the spectrum of disciplines continue to be a 302 major obstacle to the creation of solid, efficient, and comprehensive Imaging spectroscopy-303 DL solutions. The provision of high-quality Imaging spectroscopy datasets can instead be 304

encouraged by the investigation of various DL techniques for the RS field. Additionally, the ability to approach difficult visual tasks via DL solutions can be beneficial for other application domains where the penetration of Imaging spectroscopy technology is still far behind.

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