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# *Estimating Chicago’s tree cover and canopy height using multi-spectral satellite imagery*

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## **Abstract**

Information on urban tree canopies is fundamental to mitigating climate change [1] as well as improving quality of life [2]. Urban tree planting initiatives face a lack of up-to-date data about the horizontal and vertical dimensions of the tree canopy in cities. We present a pipeline that utilizes LiDAR data as ground-truth and then trains a multi-task machine learning model to generate reliable estimates of tree cover and canopy height in urban areas using multi-source multi-spectral satellite imagery for the case study of Chicago.

## 1 Introduction

Major American cities such as New York, Los Angeles, Boston, and Chicago have set forth tree planting initiatives as part of larger efforts to mitigate climate change, improve quality of life, and promote environmental equity. One of the primary issues policymakers face when deciding how to allocate tree planting resources is a lack of high quality, up-to-date datasets about the urban canopy. This paper proposes a novel pipeline for generating estimates of two urban canopy measures, tree cover and canopy height, in Chicago for timepoints when high-quality data is unavailable. Previous research has utilized machine learning (ML) approaches to predict tree canopy [3] but have yet to leverage these techniques to create detailed estimates of urban tree cover and canopy height as demonstrated in this project.

## 2 Data on the Urban Canopy

Three main techniques have been previously developed to generate estimates of urban canopies. Surveying techniques have been used, for example, by Morton Arboretum in Chicago to produce a tree census. This tree census counted the number of trees in 268 selected plots, and then extrapolated those numbers to the entire city, estimating that Chicago contains about 3,997,000 trees [4]. As it would be impossible for humans to physically count the number of trees in an area as large as Chicago, the exact number of trees remains unknown and can only be estimated.

An alternative to surveying techniques is airborne Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR). LiDAR utilizes light beams to create a cloud of millions of points that can be accurate within a few centimeters [5]. Numerous algorithms exist for detecting and measuring trees from LiDAR point clouds that can be used to generate three-dimensional representations of the urban canopy. Despite this, LiDAR can only capture a point in time, and the collection of LiDAR data, especially over large areas, is quite expensive, so researchers are often relegated to using outdated data.

To get around a lack of consistent data collection, ML techniques can be used to generate accurate, up-to-date estimates of urban canopies. Weinstein et al. [6] used a convolutional neural network to identify individual trees through image segmentation in a California forest using RGB (red, green, and blue) images. In addition to RGB images, multi-spectral (MS) imagery has been shown to aid in predictive models. Wang Li et al. [3] successfully used a ML model to predict forest canopy height from MS imagery in a mountainous region of China. Furthermore, previous research has tried to predict relative building and vegetation height and semantic segmentation masks simultaneously [7,8]. Despite these efforts, studies have yet to estimate tree cover and canopy height in an urban setting using MS satellite images.

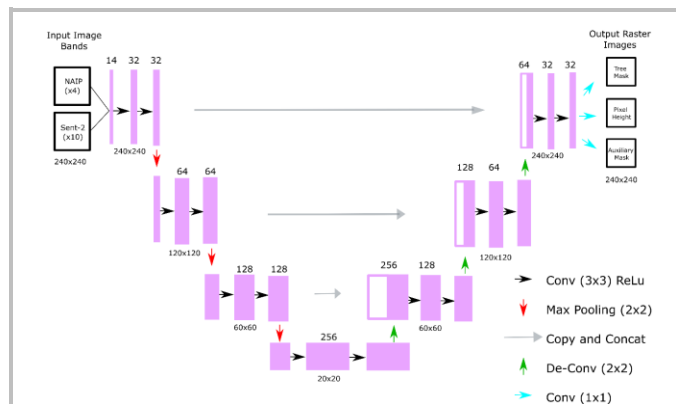
33 This paper focuses on multiple measures of the urban canopy, tree cover and canopy height, because  
 34 alone, neither horizontal nor vertical measures of the urban canopy capture the whole effect trees  
 35 have on the environment. In general, larger trees tend to have a greater environmental effect than  
 36 smaller trees, with numerous smaller trees often unable to match the effects of a single large tree [9,  
 37 10]. By accounting for both a horizontal and vertical measure, a more accurate assessment of the  
 38 urban canopy’s impact on climate indicators can eventually be quantified.

### 39 3 Estimating Tree Cover and Canopy Height

40 Chicago LiDAR point cloud data from 2017 was retrieved from the Illinois Geospatial Data  
 41 Clearinghouse [11]. Additional MS satellite imagery was used from the National Agriculture  
 42 Imagery Program (NAIP) and the Sentinel-2 satellite program. Four-band NAIP RGB and NIR data  
 43 at 1-m resolution was collected from the US Geological Survey’s earth explorer for 2017 and 2019.  
 44 Sentinel-2 data from 2017 and 2019 was collected from the Sentinel Hub’s Earth observation  
 45 browser, with four bands at 10-m resolution, and six bands at 20-m resolution. A methodology  
 46 similar to Roussel et al. [12] was used to extract ground truth tree cover and canopy height measures  
 47 from the LiDAR data. Details on how the input data was prepared can be found in the appendix.

#### 48 3.2 Training the UNet Multi-Task Model

49 This paper followed a multi-task (MT) learning approach, utilizing the UNet architecture which has  
 50 achieved good performance on various pixel-level tasks [13,14,15,16]. Three tasks, predicting if a  
 51 pixel is part of a tree (tree mask), estimating how tall a pixel represents (pixel height), and a third  
 52 auxiliary task predicting whether a pixel represents impervious space ( $NDVI < 0$ ) were included  
 53 together to enable better generalizations on individual tasks. The UNet architecture consists of an  
 54 encoding path and a decoding path that share representations to increase the output’s resolution [17].



55 Figure 1. UNet model architecture.

56 The primary MT model used in this paper can be seen in Figure 1. The output of the decoding path  
 57 is fed into three separate convolutional layers, one with a linear activation (pixel height) and two  
 58 with sigmoid activation (tree mask, auxiliary mask). To retrieve canopy height, the predicted tree  
 59 mask was applied to the pixel height layer to only retain the height of pixels determined by the  
 60 model to be trees. An Adam optimizer algorithm was used to train models with mean squared error  
 61 loss used for pixel height and with Jaccard distance loss used for the two binary masks to account  
 62 for class imbalance in the data [18]. In total, 9,535 240x240 images from 2017 were used to train  
 63 the model, with 25% of these images held out as a testing set. The input images for the model  
 64 consisted of the 14 MS bands from the NAIP and Sentinel 2 satellite images. In addition to the  
 65 primary model shown in Figure 1, separate models for comparison were run with just the RGB  
 66 bands of the NAIP images, single-task versions of the model for each output, and versions where  
 67 only the encoding features of the model were shared by the three tasks, with separate decoding layers  
 68 for each output. The model was trained and evaluated solely using data from 2017. It was then used  
 69 to predict tree cover and canopy height for 2019 where ground truth data does not exist. To evaluate  
 70 model performance, Intersection over Union (IoU) is used for the tree mask and the impervious

71 surface mask, while Mean Absolute Error (MAE) is used for pixel height.

## 72 4 Results

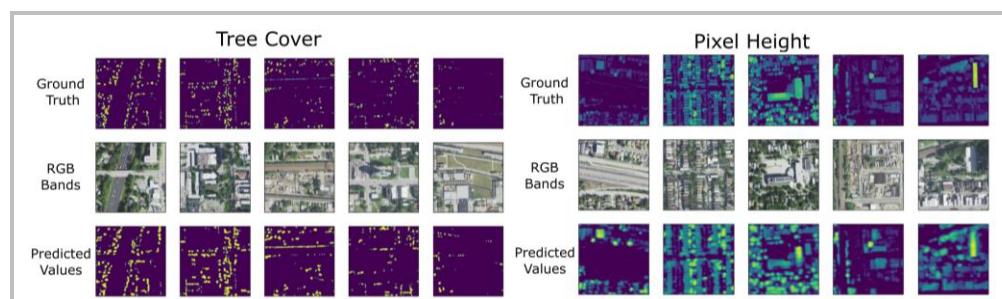
73 Ten UNet models were run to determine which method was best able to locate trees and determine  
 74 their height. Table 1 shows the results of these models. The model that was best able to locate trees  
 75 (IoU=.647) was the MT model with fully shared layers. This was unexpected as the MT model with  
 76 partially shared layers (encoding only) contained nearly twice as many parameters and allowed for  
 77 more features specific to the individual tasks. Because the tasks are all closely related, the features  
 78 most relevant to each individual task may simply be the shared features. Pixel height was best  
 79 predicted by the UNet model looking at pixel height alone within about five percent of the observed  
 80 value. It is possible that pixel height predictions suffered in the MT models because the weighting  
 81 scheme was more focused on generating an accurate prediction of tree location. Notably, while the  
 82 MT models using MS image bands achieved better results for all three tasks, nearly comparable  
 83 results were found when using only the RGB bands of the NAIP data.

84 Table 1: UNet model results

85

Model	Bands Used	Tree Mask IoU	Height MAE	Auxiliary IoU
Tree Mask Alone	RGB Only	.475	-	-
Tree Mask Alone	14 MS Bands	.476	-	-
Pixel Height Alone	RGB Only	-	.063	-
<b>Pixel Height Alone</b>	<b>14 MS Bands</b>	-	<b>.050</b>	-
Auxiliary Mask	RGB Only	-	-	.131
Auxiliary Mask	14 MS Bands	-	-	.747
MT Fully Shared	RGB Only	.614	.099	.878
<b>MT Fully Shared</b>	<b>14 MS Bands</b>	<b>.647</b>	.085	<b>.940</b>
MT Partially Shared	RGB Only	.621	.070	.884
MT Partially Shared	14 MS Bands	.642	.072	.934

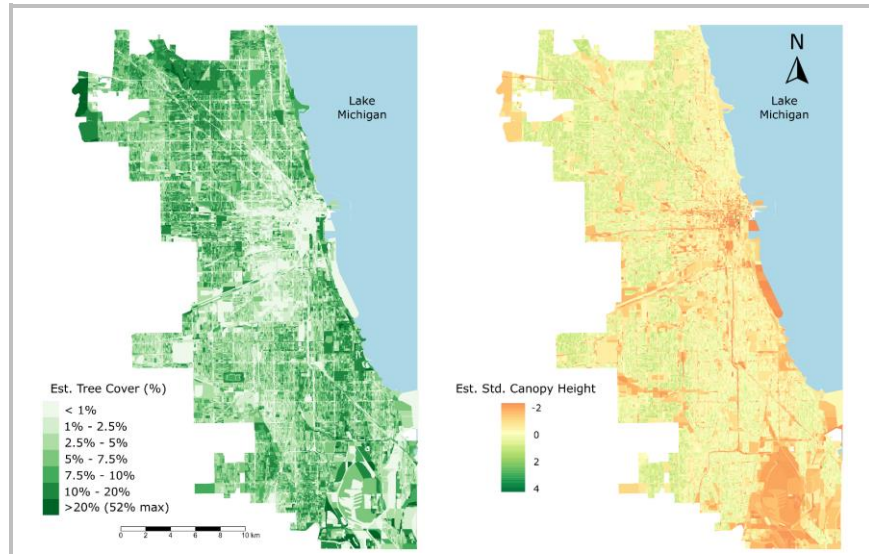
86 While the IoU of .647 and the MAE of .050 indicated relatively good predictions of tree cover and  
 87 canopy height, it was important to visually inspect the results to ensure that the metrics provided an  
 88 accurate assessment of model performance. Figure 2 shows the ground truth raster layers generated  
 89 by the analysis of the LiDAR data, the RGB bands of the NAIP satellite image that fed into the  
 90 model, and the predicted output raster layers generated by the models for tree cover and canopy  
 91 height among the 2017 test data. Tree cover seems to mimic the ground truth data well, although  
 92 there may be a slight overinflation of tree size in some spots. Additionally, it appears that some  
 93 smaller trees may have been missed, while some small shrubbery may have been misidentified as  
 94 trees. This is to be expected as even a human looking through the satellite images would have a  
 95 difficult time capturing all the pixels that contain trees. For pixel height, the model clearly struggled  
 96 with some of the taller buildings; however, it is important to remember that only the height of pixels  
 97 determined to be trees are interpreted in final canopy height estimates. Among locations that are  
 98 clearly trees from the satellite data, the model seemed to appropriately predict height values.



99 Figure 2: 2017 tree cover and pixel height predictions.

100 **4.1 Predicting 2019 Tree Cover and Canopy Height**

101 Utilizing the model trained in 2017, we inferred the 2019 tree cover and canopy height metrics for  
102 Chicago and estimated a total city-wide cover of 5.9%. This is a slight increase from the ground  
103 truth 2017 LiDAR data which calculated the city-wide cover to be about 4.8%. Notably, these  
104 estimates are much lower than results from Chicago’s 2020 tree census which estimated the canopy  
105 cover to be nearly 16% when including shrubs [4]. This paper’s estimates may be more reliable than  
106 the larger tree cover estimates proposed via survey techniques as they are based on the highly  
107 accurate 2017 LiDAR data. The ten sample images shown in Figure 2 all provide examples of areas  
108 with less than 10% of pixels identified as trees. Figure 3 shows the 2019 UNet predictions at 46,149  
109 census blocks. The maps here indicate that the areas of highest tree cover are concentrated primarily  
110 in the northern part of the city, as well as within the many parks that line Chicago’s eastern coast.



111 Figure 3: Estimated tree cover and canopy height.

112 **5 Conclusions and Future Work**

113 This paper provides a novel pipeline for estimating tree cover and canopy height. Utilizing ML,  
114 specifically the UNet architecture with MS imagery, researchers and policy makers are presented a  
115 method with which to generate up-to-date and accurate measures of the urban canopy. With better  
116 data, better decisions can be made about where to plant new trees in cities to maximize climate  
117 benefits while improving equity and quality of life for as many people as possible. The results from  
118 this study provide confidence that ML methodologies can generate usable estimates of the urban  
119 canopy moving forward. Additionally, many studies utilizing satellite imagery across different  
120 domains for various ML tasks only use RGB image bands, often because RGB bands are the only  
121 bands available at high resolutions. This study provides initial evidence that including MS bands in  
122 ML models, even when these bands are at lower resolutions, can lead to slight increases in predictive  
123 capacity. Urban tree canopies are constantly evolving, so to keep up with these ever-changing  
124 environments, policymakers need to arm themselves with the highest quality data. When and where  
125 LiDAR data collection is unavailable, ML methods provide a promising alternative for researchers  
126 and governments to generate estimates of the urban canopy.

127 Moving forward, newer ML models could be easily integrated into this pipeline, while more  
128 resources could allow for the usage of higher resolution MS imagery to further improve predictions.  
129 Additionally, there is a need to test model generalizability geographically leveraging global LiDAR  
130 datasets (e.g. GEDI) as well as including additional auxiliary tasks (e.g. species type, above ground  
131 carbon estimates) which can provide useful information for urban tree planting policies and  
132 initiatives. By leveraging ML techniques to generate high quality data, public officials will be given  
133 more confidence that their decisions will have strong and lasting positive impacts on communities.

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## 191 **Appendix**

### 192 **Preparing the UNet input data**

193 The LiDAR point cloud data consisted of 1,131 2500x2500 foot tiles with a derived nominal pulse  
194 spacing of one point every 0.35 meters. First, a vegetation mask was created using the NIR and Red  
195 bands of the NAIP images, creating a normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) raster layer  
196 as calculated in Zhao et al. [19]. The point cloud was then masked, keeping only points that were  
197 vertically aligned with NDVI values above .05. Masking the point cloud not only speeds up  
198 calculations, but also prevents buildings and non-biological objects from being classified as trees.  
199 Points below six feet and above 80 feet were filtered out to ignore small shrubbery and any incidental  
200 non-vegetation points (e.g., birds). A canopy height model was then generated using a pitfree  
201 algorithm which allows for individual tree detection using a local maximum filter. Next, trees were  
202 segmented based on the Dalponte and Coomes algorithm [20]. From this process, two raster layers  
203 were generated, one with binary values if a pixel was identified as being part of a tree, while the  
204 other raster layer contained the average max height of each pixel. These raster layers were then  
205 mosaiced together and stacked on top of the Sentinel-2 and NAIP data which were all projected to  
206 the extent and resolution of the NAIP 1-m data. These raster stacks were then cut into 240x240 pixel  
207 patches to be used as the input for a convolutional neural network.