

Stochastic Gradient Boosting Algorithm For Land Use Change Detection Using Multi-temporal Landsat 5 TM In Yogyakarta City, Indonesia

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Abstract

The advanced technology in remote sensing and geographic information system has facilitated a great deal to land management through land use/land cover (LULC) change detection using spatial and temporal data to analyze the dynamic conversions on the land surface in two or more periods of time. Classification is the main exercise to present this information to the decision makers. A hybrid bagging-boosting machine learning algorithm was used to generate a binary classifier for separating Urban and Non-Urban classes. A high-resolution image would be such a promising opportunity to achieve high classification accuracy, but issues of availability and feasibility have forced the analyst to settle for medium-resolution spatial data with an imbalanced dataset to detect LULC changes of urban agglomeration area in Yogyakarta city, Indonesia, in the years 1999, 2005, and 2011. The result showed that stochastic gradient boosting algorithm was succeeded in building one robust classifier model using LANDSAT-5TM 2005 with an overall accuracy of 0.76 and ROC-AUC value of 0.83. The replicability of classifier was confirmed by an agreement between the predicted class and the reference data from Statistics Indonesia, which showed root mean square error (RMSE) of 9.9% and R2 of 0.91, indicating sufficiently good accuracy for areal integrated multi-temporal urbanization monitoring.

Keywords: boosting algorithm, land use, change detection, landsat, yogyakarta

1. Introduction

Globally, the urban population in developed and industrializing countries is rapidly expanding to the periphery, shifting the development pressure to local resources of peri-urban areas, and there are still gaps in the integrated planning approaches to address it (Cohen, 2004; Geneletti et al., 2017). Goal 11 of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) has called all countries to "make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable" targeted to "support positive economic, social, and environmental links between urban, peri-urban and rural areas by strengthening national and regional development planning" (UN, 2020). Land Use/Land Cover (LULC) change detection can provide familiarity to urban and peri-urban trade-offs, assisting local government and decision makers in implementing sound-sustainable planning and management of its land and natural resources (Geneletti et al., 2017; Tewabe and Fentahun, 2020).

The advanced technology in remote sensing and geographic information systems has facilitated the LULC change detection with satellite images to analyze dynamic conversions on the land surface in two or more periods of time (Richards, 2013). One of most popular change detection analysis techniques is post comparison that compares satellite images in two or more periods of time after they have been individually classified; thus, image classification is critical in LULC change detection analysis (Heydari and Mountrakis, 2018; Mishra et al., 2017). Medium spatial resolution (25–150 m) imagery data such as LANDSAT products [USGS], which can capture the land cover in relatively large areas from 1972 to the present, has emerged as the most favorable imagery data for pixel-level sequential analysis in describing trends and phenomenon on the land surface (Radočaj et al., 2020; Rocchini et al.,

49 2017). Per-pixel classification depends on spectral information featured in the image's pixel, consisting
50 of several channels/bands (visual, infra-red, thermal to panchromatic wavelength) captured from an
51 electromagnetic signal of the Earth's surface (Lillesand et al., 2015; Lu and Weng, 2007). Each value is
52 then converted to a positive numeric digit using analog to digital signal conversion, namely digital
53 number (DN) of 8 or more binary digits that becomes variables assigned to a pixel vector (Lillesand et
54 al., 2015). DN value is most likely altered from one image to another due to changes on the land surface,
55 differences in radiation, atmospheric conditions, and sensor calibration. Thus it is statistically
56 acceptable as an indicator of change in certain land surface area (Mishra et al., 2017).

57 In order to reduce the complication of interpreting results, the supervised classification (SC)
58 technique which works with probability density function, is a better option because it incorporates
59 sufficient ground truth information before classification and can quantify the accuracy promptly using a
60 statistical by-product, namely confusion matrix to assess the characteristics of case allocations from the
61 classification, such as overall accuracy (OA), precision and recall, F-measurement, and kappa
62 coefficient of agreement (Foody, 2002; Kumar and Sahoo, 2012; Richards, 2013).

63 The automated decision-making technology in data science statistics called machine learning has
64 facilitated SC effectively, especially when involving bigger data. It employs a set of statistical tools and
65 methods to allow a computer program to learn from some observations/cases to identify patterns and
66 perception, involving more observations to boost the decision-making power of the machine learning
67 algorithm (Gutierrez, 2015). There are three major steps in SC with machine learning methods:
68 preparing the training dataset, selecting the classification algorithm, and finally delivering the result and
69 classification accuracy (Afaq and Manocha, 2021; UKEssays, 2018). In LULC classification with
70 machine learning, a training dataset (e.g., a set of satellite data paired with observed LULC type in a
71 particular area of interest) will be used to build a classifier model so that the classifier performs well on
72 the training dataset as well as on the test datasets (e.g., datasets from other satellite images that are not
73 used to train the classifier) (Gutierrez, 2015). Selecting an algorithm for LULC classification using a
74 medium spatial-resolution image is challenging because it must encompass the available training pixels
75 in order to calculate the optimum hyperparameters to perform the best separation of the spectral values
76 and ensure that the algorithm is reproducible for time-series land cover change analysis to support
77 sound-sustainable land use planning and management (DeFries and Chan, 2000; Kumar and Sahoo,
78 2012; Lu and Weng, 2007; Richards, 2013).

79 A variety of machine learning techniques and their characteristics for LULC classification from
80 time-series imagery data are discussed in (Gómez et al., 2016; Lu and Weng, 2007). Parametric
81 algorithms, such as maximum likelihood estimation (MLE), can produce high accuracy classification
82 result in less time-consuming and hassle-free procedures as reported by Kaliraj (Kaliraj et al., 2017),
83 showing that high OA using ETM+ data (81.16%) and TM data (77.52%) facilitated with ERDAS
84 Imagine (HEXAGON™). Mohajane et al. (Mohajane et al., 2018) showed that high OA using TM data
85 (99.9%) and ETM+ data (99.8%) with an open source software, Quantum GIS ver.3.0.0. However, MLE
86 is a fixed linear function, and it is prone to produce noisy results when the training field has complex land
87 cover types; thus, it cannot be reliable to handle bigger size data (Lu and Weng, 2007; Richards, 2013).
88 A non-parametric algorithm, not controlled by a set of statistical parameters, offers a more flexible
89 learning process of separation for various types and bigger size data. Support vector machine (SVM) is
90 the most popular non-parametric classifier due to its performance, ability to generalize problems and
91 uniqueness in delivering global optimum solution (Awad and Khanna, 2015; Lu and Weng, 2007).
92 Compared to the MLE algorithm, SVM has demonstrated its robustness in land use classification using
93 TM, OLI, and Sentinel-2 images with SVM's to MLE's OA sequentially comparing as follows: 86.67 % to
94 80%, 81.67% to 70.60%, and 84.17% to 76.40% (Taati et al., 2015; Topaloğlu et al., 2016). However,
95 SVM is outperformed by multi-layered machine learning algorithms such as classification trees and
96 naive Bayes [22]. Nevertheless, no single algorithm can solve every LULC classification problem. De
97 Fries & Chan (DeFries and Chan, 2000) compared multi-layered decision tree algorithms with bootstrap

98 aggregation (DTbagging) and boosting (DTboosting) to compare with the standard decision tree. They
99 found that while DTboosting produced the highest accuracy, DTbagging produced the highest stability
100 and robustness to noise. Further, Friedman (Friedman, 2002) established a mixed bagging and
101 boosting model namely stochastic gradient boosting (SGB) to improve calculation speed and model
102 performance which is successfully implemented by Lawrence (Lawrence et al., 2004) using two
103 high-resolution images, IKONOS and Probe-1.

104 The selection of a machine learning algorithm for LULC classification is determined by the quality
105 and availability of data in the area of interest (Mishra et al., 2017). However, retrieving and collecting
106 information for supervised LULC classification is quite difficult, especially in cities in a developing
107 country with a tropical climate due to scarcity of cloud-free spatial data and the spectral similarity
108 among urban and non-urban features of land surface due to the mixed-land use in the city region
109 (Schneider et al., 2015). Yogyakarta is a rapidly growing secondary city in Indonesia that is
110 well-recognized for regional-ranked universities in Southeast Asia, such as the University of Gadjah
111 Mada and the University of Islam Indonesia (UIN). Since 1947, the local government of Yogyakarta city
112 has divided its peri-urban into northern zone (for campus and academic-related development) and
113 southern zone (for cultural-related development) (Yunus, 1991). From 1980 to 2000, Yogyakarta
114 Special Province has experienced a significant increase in population as well as length of road and
115 built up area, showing that Sleman Regency (the administrative area in northern zone) has the largest
116 decrease in the agricultural area followed by Bantul Regency (the administrative area in southern
117 zone) (Yunus and Harini, 2005). The city has been experiencing sprawl phenomenon to its peri-urban
118 since the 2000s (Giyarsih, 2001; Rachmawati et al., 2004). Cellular automata (CA) model integrated
119 with binary logistic regression/Markov chain using medium spatial-resolution images showed LULC
120 change in Yogyakarta city, and its agglomeration area increased at a rate of 329 ha/year in 2003-2013
121 mainly to north-eastern region and predicted to increase to 539 ha/year in 2013-2023 mainly to
122 south-western direction (Wijaya and Umam, 2015). However, the CA-Markov Chain model is a
123 one-way statistical predictor that works based on contiguity rule and cannot calculate the fluctuation of
124 the change trends (Memarian et al., 2012). Sustainable and long-term oriented land management as
125 part of the principles of good governance (Gochoero, 2018) cannot be put into practice unless a
126 comprehensive knowledge of the LULC change map is maintained on a regular basis.

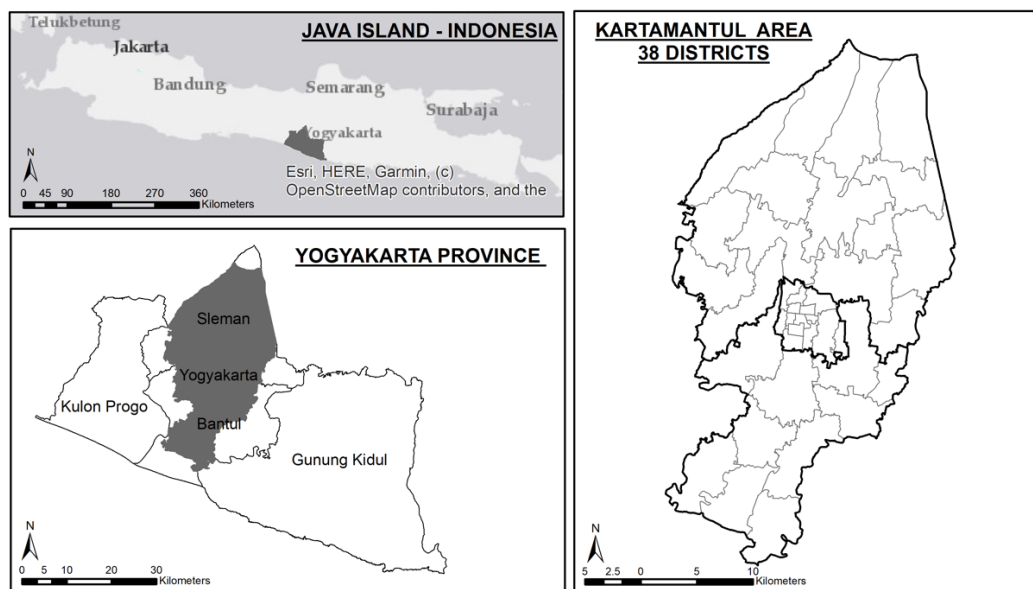
127 Periodical spatio-temporal assessment of urbanization is urgently needed to support various
128 policies and decisions making in sustainable land resource management, not only for government in
129 developing countries but also in small developed countries. Despite freely available remotely sensed
130 data, technical challenges in data mining have hindered the updates of periodic land cover maps by
131 the local government, especially in the less developed countries such as in the Lower Mekong and
132 Hindu Kush-Himalaya (Saah et al., 2019) as well as in Libya (Alawamy et al., 2020). This has
133 increased the need for single-date classifiers for land cover detection to support the capacity of local
134 government in a self-sustained land use mapping to achieve the SDGs target in the future. Therefore,
135 we tried to employ a supervised classifier model using a single medium spatial-resolution imagery data
136 to produce a coherent multi-temporal land cover change detection based on empirical evidence from
137 Yogyakarta city that represents a rising city in a developing country. The aims of this study are: (i) to
138 establish a robust and reliable land cover classifier model with a machine learning algorithm using
139 single medium spatial resolution; and (ii) to assess the replicability of the classifier model to multi-dates
140 of medium spatial resolution.

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142 2. Study Area

143 The target study area is 38 districts in Kartamantul, the urban agglomeration area in Yogyakarta
144 Province, Indonesia, which consists of three adjacent municipalities as shown in Fig.1; Yogyakarta city

145 (14 districts), Sleman Regency (14 districts), and Bantul Regency (10 districts). Total area is 77,170
146 hectares and population number is 2,037,928 in 2019 (BPS-Statistics of Bantul Regency, 2019;
147 BPS-Statistics of Sleman Regency, 2019; BPS-Statistics of Yogyakarta Municipality, 2019).
148 Kartamantul area is predominantly covered by agricultural land (paddy field, cropland, and plantation)
149 encircling the urban area (Yogyakarta city) in the middle. Yogyakarta city had been the capital of
150 Indonesia from 1949 to 1950 and started to be developed into an academic-related activity area in the
151 north (now Sleman Regency) and Mataram Kingdom culture-related activity area in the south (now
152 Bantul Regency) (Yunus, 1991). In 2000, Yogyakarta Province had the highest urbanization level
153 nationwide at 57.7% (Widyatmoko, 2007) whereas the urbanization level in peri-urban area reached
154 37.77% (Selang et al., 2018) in 2016. The study area is located in 7.33°S, 110.50°E and situated at an
155 elevation from 45 m to 500 m above sea level (asl). Geologically, the province is home to an active
156 volcano of >1000 m asl in the north and the Indian Ocean in the south of the area, making the city into a
157 basin area. Moreover, the rainy season lasts for half a year (from November to April) with an average
158 precipitation of 221.5 mm/month, an annual average temperature of 26.5°C and an average humidity of
159 85% has made the climate good for agriculture-based activity (BPS-Statistics of Bantul Regency, 2005;
160 BPS-Statistics of Sleman Regency, 2005; BPS-Statistics of Yogyakarta Municipality, 2005).



161
162 **Fig. 1.** Location of Kartamantul as a study area with 38 districts, consisting of 14 districts in
163 Sleman Regency, 14 districts in Yogyakarta city, and 10 districts in Bantul regency of Yogyakarta
164 Province, Java Island, Indonesia. Copyright: ESRI OpenStreetMap contributor.

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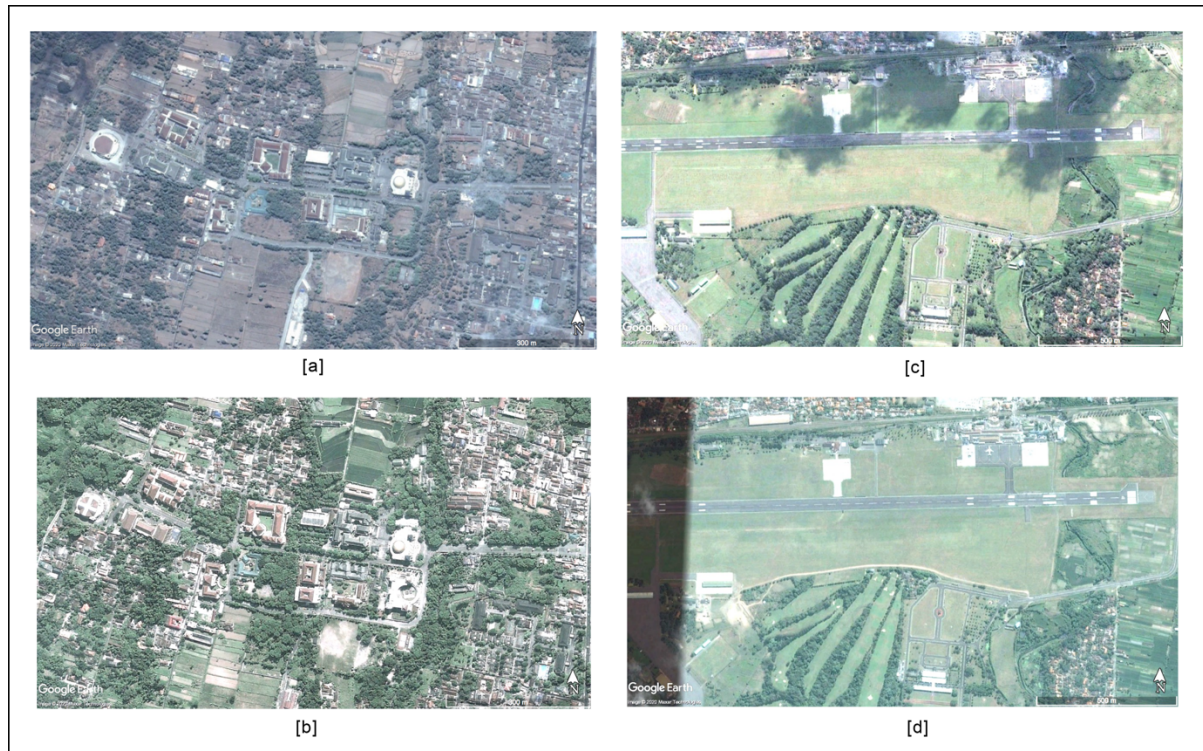
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347 348 **Appendix A**

349 Notably, there were two spots, such as Adisucipto International Airport (AIA) in the mid-eastern
350 part (in a blue-lined square) and University of Islam Indonesia (UII) in the northern part (in a red-lined
351 square), which had been perfectly classified as class-U in 1999 and 2005 were then classified as
352 class-NU in 2011 (see Fig.8). This was most probably due to the changes in vegetational cover
353 conditions in 2011. Apart from time to time comparison of satellite images for those two spots presented
354 in Fig. A1 below (e.g., from 2006 to 2011 for UII and from 2006 to 2010 for AIA), information from
355 newspaper articles and an in-depth interview with local inhabitants were collected to confirm the
356 phenomenon.
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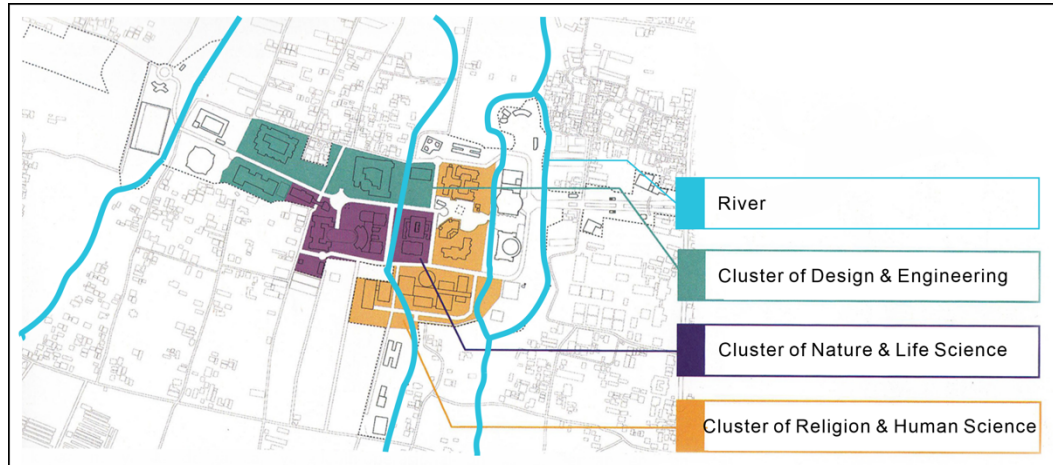


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Fig. A1. Google Earth Historical Imagery to corroborate the classification result in Yogyakarta city from 2005 to 2011 featuring (a) UII in Sept-2006. Source: Google Earth pro V 7.3. (September 11, 2006). University of Islam Indonesia, Yogyakarta Indonesia 7° 41' 17.27"S, 110° 24' 51.09"E, Eye alt 827 m. Maxar Technologies 2020. <http://www.earth.google.com> [August 15, 2020]; (b) UII in Jun-2011. Source: Google Earth pro V 7.3. (June 11, 2011). University of Islam Indonesia, Yogyakarta Indonesia 7° 41' 17.27"S, 110° 24' 51.09"E, Eye alt 827 m. Maxar Technologies 2020. <http://www.earth.google.com> [August 15, 2020]; (c) AIA in Jun-2006. Source: Google Earth pro V 7.3. (June 8, 2006). Adisucipto International Airport, Yogyakarta Indonesia 7° 47' 28.39"S, 110° 25' 52.33"E, Eye alt 4480 m. Maxar Technologies 2020. <http://www.earth.google.com> [August 15, 2020]; (d) AIA in Apr-2010. Source: Google Earth pro V 7.3. (April 8, 2010). Adisucipto International Airport, Yogyakarta Indonesia 7° 47' 28.39"S, 110° 25' 52.33"E, Eye alt 4480 m. Maxar Technologies 2020. <http://www.earth.google.com> [August 15, 2020].

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UII campus was built in the 1990s, covering almost 39 hectares of water recharge area in Ngemplak District, Sleman Regency. In 1995, UII initiated to create an environmentally friendly campus by planting more vegetations on its surrounding according to a special zoning plan (see Fig.A2), such as bamboo along the riverbanks within the campus, indigenous trees from the west, middle and east part of Indonesia, symbolic trees of Java Island such as *Manilkara kauki* and *Stelechocarpus burahol* (GT et al., 2018). Those trees took years to grow that it was not quite shown in 2005, but it was formidably shown in 2011 where the foliage was already very thick and dense.



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380 Fig.A2. Spatial Zoning Plan for Greening the UII Campus (modified from (GT et al., 2018)).
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383 Meanwhile, the case of AIA, with a total area of about 180 hectares (Provinsi Jawa Tengah, 2019),
384 has a runway of 2200 m x 45 m that was just coated in 2005 (Najamudin, 2017) so that it could be
385 reflected perfectly in 2005 imagery. The 2006 Yogyakarta earthquake catastrophe cracked in the AIA
386 runway and ruined the AIA terminal building so badly that the airport was closed down for about 10 days
387 (ABP, 2020; Bharly, 2006). The reconstruction of the runway was probably not done seamlessly
388 because of the rush to start the operation for transportation gate of volunteers and donations from all
389 over the world for the earthquake recovery. As a result, the runway was not as clearly reflected in 2011
390 as it was in 2005. Furthermore, it appeared that the grass that was supposed to cover the 2285 m x 150
391 m solid soil based-runway strip (Najamudin, 2017) took years to thrive, so it was reflected pungently in
392 2011 rather than in 2006. Fig. A3 presents a detail of the runway map of AIA.



393
394 Fig. A3. Map of Runway in Adisutjipto International Airport -AIA (taken from (Najamudin, 2017)).