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Testing Land-Use Map Accuracy: Another Look

Acceptance sampling, together with the binomial probability density function, provides a basis from which a sound statistical methodology for map accuracy validation may be developed.

INTRODUCTION
THE PRODUCTION of land-use maps has be-THE PRODUCTION

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come a relatively simple matter with the recent wide availability of both high altitude photography and satellite imagery. Unfortunately, statistical specification of the classification accuracy of such maps remains a problem.

Two recent papers (Genderen and Lock, 1977; Hord and Brooner, 1976) point out the many advantages of image-derived land-use the results of image interpretation are checked against the N ground truth samples and the map is accepted as accurate if X or fewer of the ground truth samples are misclassified. It is further assumed that misclassification of a given area can be unambiguously determined (i.e., it is either right or wrong). This definition of the problem is essentially the same as that of both van Genderen and Lock (1977) and Hord and Brooner (1976). As suggested by Genderen and Lock

ABSTRACT: *Specification and statistical validation of classification accuracy of image-derived land-use maps is a persistent problem in remote sensing studies. The present discussion points out shortcomings in statistical procedures proposed in earlier papers, and suggests that use of concepts from the branch of statistics known as acceptance sampling, together with the binomial probability density function, provides a basis from which a sound statistical methodology for map accuracy validation may be developed.*

be used to statistically establish classifica- ble, be collected using stratified random tion accuracy. However, the methodology sampling. suggested in both papers is questionable Any sampling scheme/decision rule from either an operational or a statistical adopted for this problem should satisfy three
standpoint. standpoint.

The sampling problem as defined here is

the determination of the optimal number, N ,

of ground truth samples and an allowable

number, X , of misclassifications of these

samples. Once these have been determined,
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epting only those maps which show no er-

maps, and suggest procedures which might (1977) ground truth samples should, if possi-

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- It should require a minimum number, N , of ground truth samples.

* Now with the Division of Biological and
Medical Research, Argonne National Laboratory, Genderen and Lock (1977) suggest that accepting only those maps which show no er-

rors in a sample of 20 will result in a probability of less than $0.05 (P < 0.05)$ of accepting a map whose parametric accuracy proportion (O) is 0.85 or less ($Q \le 0.85$) and that accepting no errors in a sample of **30** will result in $P < 0.05$ of accepting maps in which $Q \le$ **0.90.** The authors further point out that these are nearly the minimum number, N , of α ground truth samples for which one can obtain $P < 0.05$ when given the respective Q values.

While the authors' arguments are correct, their procedure ignores the second criterion. The probability of rejecting a map of accuracy Q may be determined by

$$
P = 1 - Q^N. \tag{1}
$$

Thus, if one accepts only those maps which show zero errors in a sample of $30, P = 0.785$ $for Q = 0.95$ and $P = 0.260$ for $Q = 0.99$. That is, the probability of rejecting a map which is **95** percent accurate is roughly **8** in **10** and the probability of rejecting a map which is **99** percent accurate is approximately 1 in 4. This feature could well result in large amounts of time and money spent rechecking maps which were acceptably accurate.

Hord and Brooner **(1976)** take a somewhat different approach in suggesting that one obtain a **95** percent confidence interval about Q based on the sample size N and *0,* the observed proportion correct. The observed proportion correct is calculated as

$$
\hat{Q} = \frac{N - X}{N} \,. \tag{2}
$$

The **95** percent interval is expressed as

$$
P(Q_1 > Q > Q_2) = 0.95
$$

where Q_1 and Q_2 are the upper and lower proportion values, calculated from *0* and N, between which the parametric proportion Q lies with probability **0.95.** Once N has been determined one is instructed to select a \hat{O} (and, thus, an X value) value such that the lower limit of the interval, Q_2 , is greater than some objectionable value, say **0.80.**

This procedure also satisfies the first criterion in that the probability of accepting a map of low accuracy is small. However, it does not address the second criterion, and, since it assumes N to be previously determined, provides no guidance with regard to the third criterion. **A** further difficulty associated with this methodology is that it recommends the normal distribution as an approximation to the binomial. When, as is the case here, the parametric proportion Q is of the order **0.90,** this procedure gives a relatively poor approximation to the true confidence interval unless N is large **(600)** (Cochran, **1977).** In this regard, a table of exact confidence intervals may be found in Rohlf and Sokal **(1969).**

TABLE 1. VALUES OF α AND "EXACT β " FOR $N = 30 - 50$; $Q_2 = 0.85$; $Q_1 = 0.90, 0.95, 0.99$; $\beta = 0.05$. NOTE THAT FOR EACH CRITICAL VALUE X (X = 1, 2, 3) THE SMALLEST ASSOCIATED VALUE OF N YIELDS THE SMALLEST α PROBABILITIES AND THE "EXACT β " VALUE NEAREST THE NOMINAL β (0.05).

			α Values		
\boldsymbol{N}	Χ	Exact β	$Q_1 = 0.90$	0.95	0.99
30		0.0480	0.8163	0.4465	0.0361
31		0.0420	0.8304	0.4634	0.0384
32		0.0366	0.8436	0.4800	0.0407
33		0.0320	0.8558	0.4964	0.0430
34		0.0279	0.8671	0.5123	0.0454
35		0.0243	0.8776	0.5280	0.0479
36		0.0212	0.8874	0.5433	0.0503
37		0.0184	0.8964	0.5582	0.0529
38		0.0160	0.9047	0.5728	0.0555
39		0.0139	0.9124	0.5871	0.0581
40		0.0486	0.7772	0.3233	0.0075
41		0.0431	0.7914	0.3371	0.0080
42		0.0382	0.8049	0.3510	0.0086
43		0.0339	0.8176	0.3648	0.0092
44		0.0300	0.8296	0.3786	0.0098
45		0.0265	0.8410	0.3923	0.0104
46		0.0234	0.8516	0.4060	0.0110
47	2222222 222222	0.0207	0.8617	0.4195	0.0117
48		0.0183	0.8711	0.4330	0.0124
49		0.0161	0.8800	0.4463	0.0131
50		0.0460	0.7497	0.2396	0.0016

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TABLE 2. OPTIMAL SAMPLE SIZES **(N),** THEIR ASSOCIATED CRITICAL VALUES **(X),** AND VALUES OFa FOR $Q_1 = 0.90, 0.95, 0.99,$ WHEN $Q_2 = 0.85, N = 1,400$. PART 1 OF THE TABLE IS FOR $\beta = 0.05$; PART 2 IS FOR β = 0.01. To Use this Table to Determine an Optimal Sample Size and Critical Value (Given $Q_{\rm z} = 0.85$; IF $Q_{\rm z} = 0.90$, Use Table 3.) FIRST DETERMINE THE DESIRED β Value. If $\beta = 0.05$ Use Part 1; If $\beta = 0.01$ Use Part 2. Then Determine the Q_1 and α Values of Interest. Read Down the Column HEADED BY THE APPROPRIATE Q₁ VALUE UNTIL AN α SMALLER THAN THAT DESIRED IS ENCOUNTERED. FOLLOW THIS ROW TO THE RIGHT TO FIND THE DESIRED N AND **X** VALUES.

X, which satisfies the three criteria may be whether large lots of manufactured articles

DISCUSSION developed from a branch of statistics known as acceptance sampling (Guttman et *al.,* A procedure for determining a sample 1971; Vaughn, 1974) which is concerned size, N, and an allowable number of errors, with statistical procedures for determining

			α Values	
$\cal N$	X	$Q = 0.90$	0.95	0.99
29	$\boldsymbol{0}$	0.9529	0.7741	0.2528
42		0.9322	0.6276	0.0662
53	$\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{array}$	0.9102	0.4982	0.0162
64		0.8937	0.3986	0.0039
74		0.8738	0.3112	0.0009
84		0.8565	0.2434	0.0002
93		0.8333	0.1839	0.0000
103	$\begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \end{array}$	0.8197	0.1442	0.0000
112	$\boldsymbol{8}$	0.7994	0.1088	0.0000
121	9	0.7801	0.0821	0.0000
130	10	0.7619	0.0619	0.0000
138	11	0.7358	0.0445	0.0000
147	12	0.7194	0.0335	0.0000
156	13	0.7038	0.0252	0.0000
164	14	0.6800	0.0181	0.0000
173	15	0.6659	0.0136	0.0000
181	16	0.6435	0.0097	0.0000
190	$17\,$	0.6308	0.0073	0.0000
198	18	0.6098	0.0052	0.0000
214	20	0.5697	0.0027	0.0000
223	21	0.5594	0.0020	0.0000
231	22	0.5408	0.0014	0.0000
239	23	0.5229	0.0010	0.0000
247	24	0.5056	0.0007	0.0000
255	25	0.4888	0.0005	0.0000
263	26	0.4727	0.0004	0.0000
271	27	0.4571	0.0003	0.0000
279	28	0.4420	0.0002	0.0000
287	29	0.4274	0.0001	0.0000
295	30	0.4134	0.0001	0.0000
303	31	0.3998	0.0001	0.0000
311	32	0.3867	0.0000	0.0000
319	33	0.3740	0.0000	0.0000
327	34	0.3618	0.0000	0.0000
335	35	0.3501	0.0000	0.0000
343	36	0.3387	0.0000	0.0000
350	37	0.3212	0.0000	0.0000
358	38	0.3108	0.0000	0.0000
366	39	0.3007	0.0000	0.0000
374	40	0.2909	0.0000	0.0000
382	41	0.2815	0.0000	0.0000
389	42	0.2668	0.0000	0.0000
397	43	0.2582	0.0000	0.0000

TABLE *2.4ontinued*

are of acceptable quality. The case where such articles are either defective or nondefective provides a direct analogy to the map accuracy problem because we can consider any land-use map to be made up of a large number of potential ground truth samples (articles) which are either correctly classified (non-defective) or misclassified (defective).

In the map accuracy problem, where the number of articles in the lot is virtually infinite, a sampling plan may be based on the binomial probability density function (p.d.f.). The binomial p.d.f. is given by

$$
f(Y;N,Q) = \frac{N!}{(N-Y)! Y!} Q^{N-Y} (1 - Q)^Y. (3)
$$

This function describes the probability of getting exactly Y misclassifications in a sample of N drawn from a population with a parametric accuracy proportion Q.

One first determines a low accuracy proportion, Q_2 , which one wishes to reject with probability $(1 - \beta)$. The quantity, β , which is equal to the probability of accepting an inaccurate map is known as "consumer's risk" in acceptance sampling.

Once Q_2 and β have been determined one

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picks a value of N and, using Equation 3, finds the largest value, X, such that

$$
\sum_{y=0}^{x} f(Y; N, Q_2) \leq \beta \tag{4}
$$

The value X as defined by Equation 4 is our critical value, because we will reject our map as being inaccurate if it shows more than X misclassifications in our N ground truth samples. Having determined X, one may now use Equation 3 to calculate the probability, α , of rejecting a map of some high accuracy proportion, $Q₁$. The quantity **a,** known as "producer's risk" in acceptance sampling, is given by

$$
\alpha = \sum_{Y=X+1}^{N} f(Y;N,Q_1). \tag{5}
$$

It may be noted that, because the binomial

p.d.f. is discrete, several values ofN have the same associated critical value X. Further, for any fixed critical value X , low accuracy Q_2 , and consumer's risk **p,** the smallest associated N value always yields the lowest producers risk, α . Table 1 shows values of N from 30 to 50 and their X values, for $\beta = 0.05$, $Q_2 = 0.85$, together with the α values associated with $Q_1 = 0.90, 0.95, 0.99$. Considering the column labeled "Exact β ", which is equal to the left side of Equation 4, we see that, by increasing N for fixed X , we are in effect reducing our true consumers risk $(Exact \beta)$ far below its nominal value, at the expense of inflating the producers risk (α) . Thus, for fixed β and X the minimum associated N value may be considered optimal since it also minimizes producers risk.

Table 2 presents the optimal values of N which occur between $N = 1$ and $N = 400$ for

Part 2: $\beta = 0.01$					
			α Values		
\overline{N}	\boldsymbol{X}	$Q_1 = 0.95$	0.97	0.99	
44	$\boldsymbol{0}$	0.8953	0.7832	0.3574	
64		0.8361	0.5759	0.1346	
81		0.7766	0.4398	0.0480	
97	$\frac{1}{2}$	0.7203	0.3323	0.0166	
113		0.6717	0.2522	0.0058	
127		0.6140	0.1832	0.0018	
142		0.5692	0.1364	0.0006	
156	$\frac{4}{5}$ 6 7 8 9	0.5217	0.0989	0.0002	
170		0.4787	0.0718	0.0001	
183		0.4328	0.0505	0.0000	
197	10	0.3977	0.0366	0.0000	
210	11	0.3597	0.0257	0.0000	
223	12	0.3254	0.0180	0.0000	
236	13	0.2943	0.0127	0.0000	
249	14	0.2662	0.0089	0.0000	
262	15	0.2409	0.0062	0.0000	
275	16	0.2180	0.0043	0.0000	
287	17	0.1934	0.0029	0.0000	
300	18	0.1750	0.0021	0.0000	
312	19	0.1552	0.0014	0.0000	
325	20	0.1405	0.0010	0.0000	
337	21	0.1245	0.0006	0.0000	
350	22	0.1128	0.0005	0.0000	
362	23	0.0999	0.0003	0.0000	
374	24	0.0885	0.0002	0.0000	
386	25	0.0783	0.0001	0.0000	
398	26	0.0693	0.0001	0.0000	

TABLE *3.4ontinued*

 $Q_2 = 0.85, \beta = 0.05, 0.01,$ together with their associated critical values (X) and α values for $Q_1 = 0.90, 0.95, 0.99$. Part 1 of the table is for $\beta = 0.05$, part 2 for $\beta = 0.01$. Table 3 presents the same information except $Q_2 = 0.90$ and $Q_1 = 0.95, 0.97, 0.99$. (These tables were produced by a **FORTRAN** program written by the author. Copies of the program listing are available on request.)

In order to use these tables to determine the number of ground truth samples required to establish map accuracy, one should first have an accuracy proportion which is considered low (Q_2) . If $Q_2 = 0.85$ use Table 2; if $Q_2 = 0.90$ use Table 3. One must then determine the desired probability of accepting a map of low accuracy (consumers risk or β). If $\beta = 0.05$, use part 1 of the table; if $\beta = 0.01$, use part 2. One now should pick an accuracy value which is considered high (Q_1) (for Table 2, $Q_1 = 0.90, 0.95, 0.99$; for Table 3, $Q_1 = 0.95, 0.97, 0.99$ and some objectionably large consumers risk, *a.* Having done this, one reads down the column headed by the appropriate Q₁ value until one encounters an α value smaller than the one selected above. Moving to the left along the row in which this α occurs one finds the N

and X values required to produce this α , given our previously determined Q_2, Q_1 , and β values. One then collects N ground truth samples, checks the corresponding points on the map against them, and accepts the map as accurate if X or fewer of the samples are misclassified.

For an example, say we consider an inaccurate map to be one in which the proportion correctly classified is 0.85 or less. Therefore $Q_2 = 0.85$ and we use Table 2. Say further than an acceptable consumers risk (β) is 0.05. We are therefore using part **1** of Table 2. Let us also assume that we want to have a probability of rejecting a map which is 95 percent accurate $(Q_1 = .95)$ of less than 0.05 $(\alpha =)$ 0.05). We therefore enter the column headed by 0.95 and read down until we encounter α $= 0.0432$. Reading across, we find that $N =$ **93** and X = 8. Thus, we take **93** ground truth samples and accept our map as accurate if 8 or fewer of these samples are misclassified.

CONCLUSION

The choice of Q_2 , Q_1 , β , and α may be expected to vary with the mapping task at hand. In general $Q_2 = 0.85$ or 0.90 seems a reasonable specification for minimal accuracy requirements, and user satisfaction would seem to preclude consumers risk probabilities of greater than **0.05.**

Producers risk and the associated problem of determining just what high accuracy is, are more flexible. If one feels that his maps are essentially perfect, and that specifying accuracy is merely a matter of formal verification, taking the smallest possible sample and accepting the map only if no errors are found (as in van Genderen and Lock, **1977)** might be attractive in that this approach does minimize the cost of ground truth sampling. However, if one should reject a map, one must presumably correct it, which might be expensive. Thus, larger ground truth sample sizes which provide protection to good but not perfect maps would seem preferable. For routine mapping tasks, which should be very accurate, taking $Q_1 = 0.99$ and $\alpha = 0.10$ would require no more than **81** samples (Table **3,** part **2,** row **3)** and would give considerable protection against rejection of accurate maps. In cases where map accuracy might be lower, one might want greater protection against rejecting acceptable maps and thus might opt for larger ground truth sample sizes. In any of these cases, given established values for α , β , Q_1 , and Q_2 , the methodology outlined here will allow one to select the minimum ground truth sample size, N , and allowable number of errors, X , which satisfy these restrictions. Tables *2* and **3** can, in most cases, be used to look up the

required N and X directly. For combinations of Q_1 , Q_2 , α , or β not given, Equations 4 and **5,** together with the fact that, for fixed X and β , α is minimized by the smallest N satisfying Equation **4,** can be used to find the required solution.

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