

# REMOTE SENSING VISION-LANGUAGE FOUNDATION MODELS WITHOUT ANNOTATIONS VIA GROUND REMOTE ALIGNMENT

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## ABSTRACT

We introduce a method to train vision-language models for remote-sensing images without using any textual annotations. Our key insight is to use co-located internet imagery taken on the ground as an intermediary for connecting remote-sensing images and language. Specifically, we train an image encoder for remote sensing images to align with the image encoder of CLIP using a large amount of paired internet and satellite images. Our unsupervised approach enables the training of a first-of-its-kind large-scale vision language model (VLM) for remote sensing images at two different resolutions. We show that these VLMs enable zero-shot, open-vocabulary image classification, retrieval, segmentation and visual question answering for satellite images. On each of these tasks, our VLM trained without textual annotations outperforms existing VLMs trained with supervision, with gains of up to 20% for classification and 80% for segmentation. Our code, data, and other resources are available at: <https://graft.cs.cornell.edu>

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Our planet is constantly captured by an extensive array of remote sensors such as satellites or drones. These earth observation images enable the monitoring of various events on the earth such as deforestation, forest fires, and droughts so that rapid actions can be taken to protect our environment. While these images can shed light on various insights about our planet, the scale of such data is huge. This has prompted the development of automatic analysis models that could extract relevant information from a large amount of remotely sensed images. While useful, these models are often specialized and can only recognize a pre-defined set of concepts. Besides, they could be complex, decreasing their accessibility to experts outside of the domain of artificial intelligence.

Researchers developing automatic analysis methods for internet imagery encountered a similar problem a few years ago. One promising solution is to leverage large-scale vision-language models (VLMs) that are trained on millions or even billions of text-image pairs collected on the internet (Radford et al., 2021; Li et al., 2023). These models have demonstrated remarkable abilities to perform open-vocabulary recognition (Gu et al., 2022; Kuo et al., 2023) and enhance accessibility to non-AI experts (Alayrac et al., 2022; Surfis et al., 2023).

It would be incredibly valuable for a range of applications to replicate the success of open-vocabulary recognition for satellite images as well, allowing an analyst to simply query, say, “Where are all the farmlands in the state of Massachusetts?” without requiring any new training or annotation for farms. However, building open-vocabulary vision-language models requires a large number of text-image pairs. This is difficult in remote sensing. Unlike internet images, which are often accompanied by captions or alt-text generated by their creators, satellite images are automatically generated by remote sensors with little to no human involvement and no corresponding text annotations. Prior work has attempted to annotate satellite images with textual annotations (Lu et al., 2017), but this process is expensive and requires expertise. As such, existing image-text datasets for remote sensing are almost four orders of magnitude smaller than the data used to train CLIP (10k

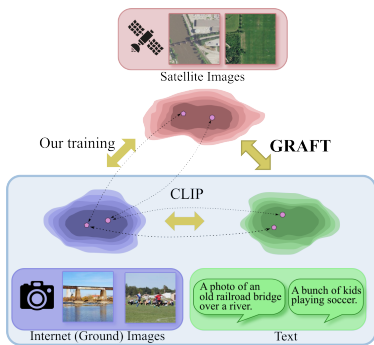


Figure 1: The key insight for building VLMs using GRAFT is to use internet ground images as an intermediary to connect satellite and text. By training a satellite image model to align its embedding with the CLIP embedding of co-located internet (ground) images, we transitively align text with satellite images, sidestepping the need for textual annotations for training remote-sensing VLMs.

vs. 400 million). This challenge motivates the question we answer in this paper: can we build a vision-language model for satellite images without textual annotations?

Our key insight is to leverage *internet images taken on the ground as an intermediary* between text and satellite images. A satellite image captures the condition of a particular location on Earth. The same location could be captured by humans on the ground with cameras. By leveraging the geotags associated with the ground images, we can easily link satellite images to them, creating a large dataset of ground-satellite image pairs. Coupled with pre-trained internet image encoders from CLIP, we use this data to train a vision transformer that can map satellite images to the CLIP encoder’s feature space. We use a contrastive loss on these pairs. Since this feature space is shared by the CLIP text encoder as well, the satellite encoder allows an image-level textual understanding of satellite images, *completely sidestepping the need for textual annotations* (see Fig. 1).

Observing the fact that a satellite image can capture a much bigger physical space than a ground image (e.g., a ground image can only capture part of a lake but a satellite image can capture the whole lake), we further develop a text-to-patch retrieval model using our ground-satellite image pairs. Specifically, with the geotag associated with a ground image, we can identify the pixel location on the satellite image where the ground image is captured. We then construct a vision transformer that can output patch representations that align with the CLIP representation of the ground images. This model allows for not just classification but also localization: we show that we can use this representation to identify patches relevant to a particular textual query or perform text-to-image segmentation by leveraging foundational segmentation models such as SAM (Kirillov et al., 2023).

Since we leverage the alignment between ground images and remotely sensed images to construct vision-language models without textual annotations, we name our method **GRAFT** (Ground Remote Alignment for Training). As shown in Fig. 2, GRAFT can perform classification, retrieval, semantic segmentation (in conjunction with SAM), and VQA (in conjunction with tools such as ViperGPT (Surís et al., 2023), all in a zero-shot manner. We extensively evaluate our VLMs on these tasks and demonstrate state-of-the-art zero-shot performance on various text-to-image retrieval (up to 20% relative improvement over baseline) and text-to-segmentation benchmarks (more than 80% relative improvement over baseline). Our contributions are summarized as follows:

- We introduce GRAFT which enables training remote sensing VLMs without any text annotations.
- To leverage GRAFT we collect two million-scale datasets of remotely-sensed images at different resolutions (1m for NAIP and 10m for Sentinel-2 images).
- Leveraging GRAFT with our dataset we develop *foundational vision-language model for satellite images* that can understand open-world concepts at two different resolutions and outperform prior arts on various image-level and pixel-level understanding tasks by a significant margin.
- We present a solution to the zero-shot VQA problem for satellite images by extending the ViperGPT framework with our VLMs.

## 2 RELATED WORKS

**Foundation Models for Remote Sensing Images.** Inspired by the recent success in internet imagery (Kirillov et al., 2023; Dosovitskiy et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021; He et al., 2022; Kolesnikov

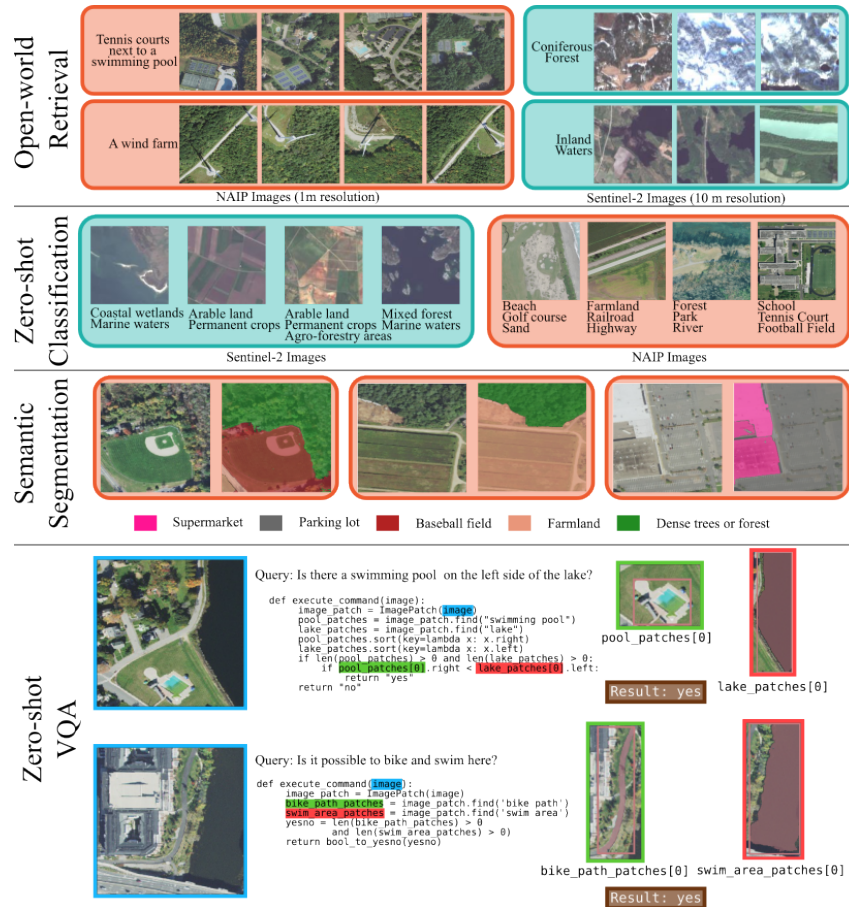


Figure 2: Zero-shot features of our model. GRAFT can perform image retrieval with open-world queries, and zero-shot classification for satellite images. Using other foundational models, we extend it to also perform semantic segmentation and zero-shot VQA. (Please view digitally to see details.)

et al., 2020; Dehghani et al., 2023), recent work has started exploring foundation models for remote sensing images that can then be fine-tuned for downstream tasks such as change detection. Some of these foundation models are supervised such as SatlasPretrain (Bastani et al., 2023) while others are based on self-supervised techniques such as contrastive learning (Manas et al., 2021; Mall et al., 2023) or masked image modeling (Jakubik et al., 2023; Sun et al., 2022; Cong et al., 2022; Fuller et al., 2022). These models are effective image encoders, but cannot perform open vocabulary recognition. Open vocabulary recognition can enable non-AI experts to analyze satellite data through natural interfaces such as retrieval or question answering, which is the focus of this work.

**Vision-and-Language Models in Remote Sensing.** Prior work has built VLMs for captioning or retrieval of satellite images (Yang & Newsam, 2010; Zhang et al., 2014; Lu et al., 2017) (see (Wen et al., 2023) for a comprehensive review). However, these models are trained on orders of magnitude less data (thousands of image-text pairs (Hu et al., 2023; Arutiunian et al., 2021) compared to billions for their internet counterparts), because text captions for satellite images cannot be crowd-sourced and must instead be curated. Recently, Zhang et al. also proposed a way to filter large image-text pair datasets to obtain satellite image-text pairs. However, many of the images come from a diverse range of sources and are not uniform. Fine-tuning from internet image models like CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) is another option (Liu et al., 2023; Al Rahhal et al., 2022), but limiting. In this work, we propose to sidestep the problem by leveraging ground images as an intermediary.

**Multi-modality for better recognition.** We leverage ground images from the location where the remote sensing images are captured. Leveraging multiple complementary modalities has seen success in various domains. For instance, leveraging text and image has enabled open-vocabulary

object detection/segmentation in internet imagery (Gu et al., 2022; Ghiasi et al., 2022; Kuo et al., 2023). In remote sensing, using multi-spectral images or radar sensors allows a better understanding of the environment captured by a satellite (Cong et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2023; Jakubik et al., 2023). The ground image modality has been also explored by the community for geo-localization where the goal is to build models that could explicitly connect the remote sensing image and ground image modality (Lin et al., 2015; Toker et al., 2021; Berton et al., 2021; 2022b;a; Sun et al., 2023; Gu et al., 2023). Different from these works, we use ground images as an intermediary to connect remote sensing images with language — a novel uncharted problem domain to the best of our knowledge.

### 3 TRAINING VLMS WITHOUT TEXTUAL ANNOTATIONS

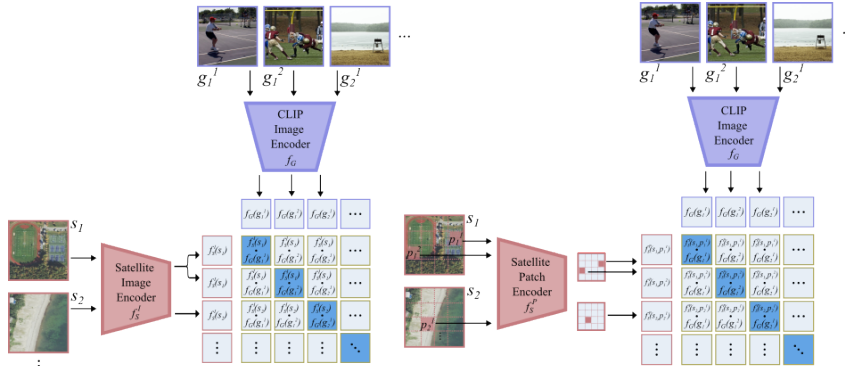


Figure 3: Training image-level VLM (left) and pixel-level VLM (right) with GRAFT. Note that for each satellite image there can be multiple ground images such as  $\{g_1^1, g_1^2\}$  for  $s_1$ .

Our key insight is to create a vision-language model for satellite images by leveraging internet images as an intermediary between text and remotely sensed satellite images (see Fig. 1). In Sec. 3.1, we describe our training methodology GRAFT. In Sec. 3.2, we present our ground-satellite image pairs collection pipeline. Finally, we discuss how we can enhance our models with other foundation models to solve more general tasks for satellite images such as semantic segmentation and VQA.

#### 3.1 GRAFT: GROUND REMOTE ALIGNMENT FOR TRAINING VLMS

We build two types of VLMS operating at different levels of understanding: image-level and pixel-level. Image-level models can be used to perform tasks that require understanding the satellite image as a whole such as text-to-image retrieval and zero-shot image classification; pixel-level models can be used when precise localization is required, such as for zero-shot segmentation and visual question answering (for questions like measuring the area of certain features). We note that many existing internet VLMS (Radford et al., 2021; Li et al., 2023) map internet text-image pairs to a common representation space. To build our desired VLMS we propose to build feature extractors that map satellite images to the same representation space. We assume access to a pre-trained internet VLM ( $f_G, f_T$ ) that maps an internet image-text pair to a common representation space (we use CLIP).

##### 3.1.1 IMAGE-LEVEL VLMS

We wish to build an image-level feature extractor  $f_S^I$  that maps a satellite image to the same representation space of ( $f_G, f_T$ ). We can use contrastive loss like CLIP to pull together corresponding pairs of satellite and ground images and push apart negative examples. However, the vanilla contrastive learning setup assumes that each data point in one modality (satellite image) maps to a single point in the other modality (internet images). Unfortunately, satellite images capture a larger area and have multiple ground images associated with them. Thus a new formulation is needed.

We posit that a satellite image’s embedding should be close to *all* ground images captured in the area and be far from ground images for other satellite images. Specifically, for a batch of data

$$\mathcal{B} = \{s_i, \{g_i^j\}_{j=1}^{N_i}\}_{i=1}^{N_B} \quad (1)$$

where  $s_i, i = 1, \dots, N_B$  are satellite images and  $g_i^j, j = 1, \dots, N_i$  are the  $N_i$  ground images taken in the geographical area captured by  $s_i$ . We capture our intuition using the following loss function:

$$\mathcal{L}^I(\mathcal{B}, f_S^I) = \frac{1}{N_B} \sum_{i=1}^{N_B} \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} -\log \frac{\exp(f_S^I(s_i) \cdot f_G(g_i^j)/\tau)}{\sum_{a=1}^{N_B} \sum_{b=1}^{N_a} \exp(f_S^I(s_i) \cdot f_G(g_a^b)/\tau)} \quad (2)$$

The outer sum is over satellite images in the batch, and the inner sum is over ground images for each satellite image. The numerator is the exponentiated similarity (we use cosine distance) between the satellite image  $s_i$  and one of its ground images  $g_i^j$ , while the denominator contains the similarity of the satellite image  $s_i$  to *every* ground image  $g_a^b$  in the batch.  $\tau$  is a temperature hyperparameter. Note that when  $N_i = 1, \forall i$ , Eq. (3) reverts back to the contrastive loss used in CLIP-like formulations. We use this loss to train  $f_S^I$  while keeping  $f_G$  frozen. See Fig. 3 for illustration.

Coincidentally, this loss function resembles the supervised contrastive learning (SCL) (Khosla et al., 2020), although the underlying problems are different. SCL is used for a single modality where examples of the same class are pulled closer to each other whereas we use the loss function to build an encoder for satellite images that aligns with a pre-trained representation of ground images.

### 3.1.2 PIXEL-LEVEL VLMS

Many satellite image understanding tasks such as segmentation require pixel-level localization. To enable pixel-level understanding, we turn to another source of information ignored in the previous section: the precise geographical location where the ground image  $g_j^i$  is captured, which can be mapped to a pixel location  $p_j^i$  in the corresponding satellite image  $s_i$ .

To leverage this signal, we assume a network architecture  $f_S^P$  that can produce a feature vector  $f_S^P(s)[p]$  for every pixel  $p$  in the satellite image  $s$ . We implement  $f_S^P$  using a ViT (Dosovitskiy et al., 2020) that produces feature vectors for non-overlapping patches of the satellite images.  $f_S^P(s)[p]$  is then simply the output feature vector for the patch that contains pixel  $p$ . We train this feature extractor using a loss function similar to Eq. (3):

$$\mathcal{L}^P(\mathcal{B}, f_S^P) = \frac{1}{N_B} \sum_{i=1}^{N_B} \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} -\log \frac{\exp(f_S^P(s_i)[p_j^i] \cdot f_G(g_i^j)/\tau)}{\sum_{a=1}^{N_B} \sum_{b=1}^{N_a} \exp(f_S^P(s_i)[p_j^i] \cdot f_G(g_a^b)/\tau)} \quad (3)$$

to enforce the intuition that the pixel representation should stay close to its ground images in the representation space induced by the pre-trained VLM ( $f_G, f_T$ ). The above equation only provides sparse signals for training: the loss is computed only on pixel locations that have at least one ground image (see Fig. 3). Nevertheless, empirically we found that this sparse supervision suffices.

## 3.2 COLLECTING GROUND-SATELLITE IMAGE PAIRS

To perform our training, we need a dataset of ground-satellite image pairs. We collected two such datasets for two different kinds of remote sensing imagery: NAIP (U.S.G.S., 2022) (high resolution, with 1 meter per pixel) and Sentinel-2 (Drusch et al., 2012) (low resolution, with 10 meters per pixel). We describe our data collection process below.

**Ground Images:** We collect ground images from Flickr<sup>1</sup>. To obtain representative images from diverse regions (instead of just populous places), we uniformly select locations and sample non-duplicate images with accurate geo-tags (street-level accuracy). We remove indoor images using an indoor-outdoor classifier (a ResNet18 trained on SUN397 (Xiao et al., 2010)). While we found no discerning effect between using ‘all’ and ‘outdoor’ images, we filtered for ease of experimentation.

**Satellite Images:** We sample satellite images with their center at the geotags of the ground images. All the ground images whose geotags fall in this satellite image are assigned to it. Additionally, we do not sample satellite images using the already assigned ground images. As a result, we avoid high overlaps between satellite images (at least 112 pixels apart). We validate this sampling choice in Sec. 4.4. Fig. 4 shows the density of the image pairs in the US (left) and the world (right) with NAIP

<sup>1</sup>Flickr API: <https://www.flickr.com/services/api>



and Sentinel-2 respectively. To avoid over-representation, we randomly sample 25 ground images, if there are more than 25 of them. Our model uses  $224 \times 224$  satellite images, however for better augmentation (rotation and translation without padding), we download  $448 \times 448$  images.

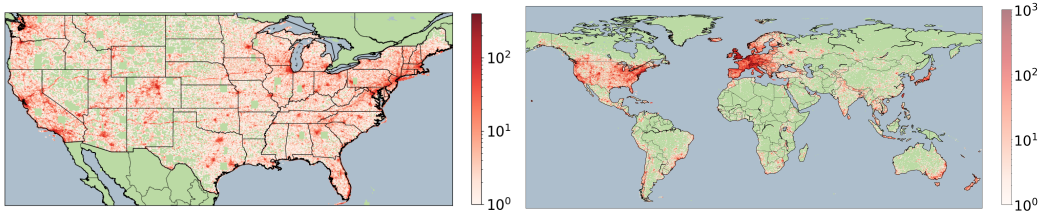


Figure 4: Frequency histogram of locations of samples in our internet image-NAIP image pair dataset (left) and in our internet image-Sentinel-2 image pair dataset (right).

In addition to location consistency between ground and satellite images, we also incorporate temporal consistency into Sentinel-2 data. Specifically, we collect the temporally closest images from the location of the internet images (containing  $< 1\%$  of cloud). We cannot do so for NAIP since the revisit time of NAIP is much longer (once every 2 years vs once every 5 days for Sentinel-2). We make use of EarthEngine APIs<sup>2</sup> to obtain satellite imagery. Our dataset collection efforts yield 10.2 million pairs for NAIP and 8.7 million pairs for Sentinel-2 (also refer to Appendix A).

### 3.3 ENHANCING GRAFT VLMS WITH FOUNDATIONAL MODELS

While the performance GRAFT is impressive (see Sec. 4), we can further extend its capability using other foundation models and enable a wider range of applications:

**Zero-shot Image Segmentation.** While the pixel-level model can already be used to perform segmentation, we can improve its performance by leveraging bottom-up segmentation models like SAM Kirillov et al. (2023). To enhance the pixel-level model with SAM, we first select the highest-scoring patches using our model and then feed the center of the patch as point prompts to SAM.

**Visual Question Answering (VQA).** While GRAFT can be used to answer simple questions such as “Which satellite images contain a baseball field?”, more nuanced questions may require sophisticated reasoning. To allow for more sophisticated questions, we couple our VLM with ViperGPT (Surís et al., 2023). ViperGPT uses an LLM to convert the natural language query into a program, which in turn makes calls to an open-vocabulary object detector. We replace the GLIP-based detector in Viper-GPT with our pixel-level GRAFT model. To produce a detection output, we threshold pixel-level scores and retrieve connected components to get instances, and then further refine each instance by using SAM as before. Further details are in the Appendix C.5.

### 3.4 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

We parameterize all our models using ViT-B/16 (Dosovitskiy et al., 2020). We also provide analysis on ViT-B/32 on a few tasks for fair comparison with baselines. All our models are initialized using the CLIP image encoder. We select hyperparameters using a validation set with NAIP resolution that we collected. This validation set is annotated using segmentation annotations from OpenStreetMaps from the same time as NAIP images as in (Bastani et al., 2023). The same set of hyperparameters is used for training the Sentinel-2 models. Please see Appendix C.2 for more information about this.

## 4 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

In this section, we evaluate GRAFT on three kinds of tasks: image classification and retrieval, semantic segmentation and question answering. We ablate various design choices we have made.

<sup>2</sup>EarthEngine API: <https://developers.google.com/earth-engine>

Table 1: Zero-shot performance of Sentinel-2 image-level model on classification and retrieval benchmarks. Our model is significantly better on almost all the classification and retrieval metrics (red and blue indicate best and second best performance). We also compare our model against the 1-shot performance of remote sensing models that lack language capabilities.

Model	Labeled Satellite Data	Input	Backbone	Classification		Retrieval			
				EuroSAT Acc.	BEN mAP	EuroSAT mAP <sup>100</sup>	EuroSAT mAP <sup>20</sup>	BEN mAP <sup>100</sup>	BEN mAP <sup>20</sup>
CLIP	✗	Text	ViT-B/32	47.61	21.31	46.86	49.61	30.45	32.20
CLIP	✗		ViT-B/16	<b>53.59</b>	23.13	63.99	72.57	32.54	33.10
CLIP-RSICD	✓		ViT-B/32	45.93	<b>27.68</b>	49.88	53.50	38.76	36.11
RemoteCLIP	✓		ViT-B/32	38.59	22.76	51.21	53.27	34.39	38.42
SeCo	✗	Image	ResNet-50	45.63	23.86	68.78	78.42	40.48	51.11
CACo	✗		ResNet-50	48.50	26.92	<b>69.90</b>	<b>79.15</b>	<b>47.40</b>	<b>57.02</b>
Satlas	✓		Swin	42.04	18.47	63.64	72.61	29.17	30.46
<b>GRAFT</b>	✗	Text	ViT-B/32	47.80	29.31	66.12	72.36	45.88	45.35
<b>GRAFT</b>	✗		ViT-B/16	<b>63.76</b>	<b>32.46</b>	<b>81.56</b>	<b>85.21</b>	<b>49.61</b>	<b>53.86</b>

#### 4.1 IMAGE-LEVEL UNDERSTANDING

We are interested in understanding how GRAFT models performs at image-level understanding tasks. We consider two tasks: zero-shot image classification (i.e., assign an image a text label) and text-based image retrieval (i.e., retrieve all images relevant to a text query).

**Datasets and Evaluation.** For models trained on Sentinel-2 data, we evaluate classification and retrieval performance on EuroSAT (Helber et al., 2019) and BigEarthNet (or BEN by Sumbul et al. (2019)). For models trained on NAIP data, we evaluate zero-shot classification on SAT-4 and SAT-6 (Basu et al., 2015). We also create a multi-label NAIP dataset using annotations from OpenStreetMap (OSM contributors, 2023) to evaluate both classification and retrieval.

**Baselines.** We consider CLIP as a natural baseline. There is no prior work on vision-language models trained without annotations. Instead, we consider two vision-language models that are trained in a *supervised* manner with text annotations: CLIP-RSICD (Arutiunian et al., 2021) and RemoteCLIP (Liu et al., 2023). Please refer to Appendix B for the text prompt used for the zero-shot models.

In addition to the aforementioned zero-shot baselines, we also provide one-shot baselines on various representation learning approaches for Sentinel-2 models. For these baselines, instead of using textual queries, we use the feature of the single example. To get a better understanding of the performance, we report the average performance over 10 different runs.

**Results.** For the performance of GRAFT models trained on Sentinel-2 data, we report classification results (left) and retrieval results (right) in Tab. 1; for GRAFT models trained on NAIP, we report classification and retrieval performance in Tab. 2. Almost across the board (with the exception of one retrieval metric), our model (GRAFT) outperforms all other models irrespective of pre-training modality and pre-training supervision. Furthermore, the margin of improvement is large for many of the datasets. For example, for EuroSAT classification, GRAFT with ViT-B/16 outperforms all other models by almost **10 points (20% relative)**. The gains on SAT-6 are even larger (**30 points**). In general, the ViT-B/16 backbones perform better, with the exception of SAT-4/SAT-6. The latter two datasets have  $28 \times 28$  images (smaller than the ViT-B/32 patch), which may explain this discrepancy.

The significant improvement compared to *supervised* VLMs such as CLIP-RSICD and RemoteCLIP suggests that it is much more advantageous to use many ground-satellite image pairs without text, rather than fine-tuning in a supervised manner on small datasets.

In addition, our *zero-shot* GRAFT models also outperform *one-shot* performance of previous foundation models, including Satlas which is pre-trained on 302 million *labeled* examples. For example, on the challenging BigEarthNet, zero-shot GRAFT ViT-B/32 is able to outperform 1-shot Satlas by  $\sim 13$  mAP on average without using any annotated images.

Table 2: Zero-shot performance of NAIP image-level model on classification (Left) and retrieval (Right) metrics. GRAFT outperforms the existing models on both retrieval and classification tasks at this resolution as well (red and blue indicate best and second best performance).

Model	Backbone	Classification			Retrieval	
		SAT-4 Acc.	SAT-6 Acc	NAIP-OSM mAP	NAIP-OSM mAP <sup>100</sup>	NAIP-OSM mAP <sup>20</sup>
CLIP	ViT-B/32	<i>50.74</i>	30.39	26.94	56.71	57.51
CLIP	ViT-B/16	46.60	25.82	31.89	60.88	61.59
CLIP-RSICD	ViT-B/32	47.72	<i>40.57</i>	<i>32.51</i>	<i>64.58</i>	<i>63.71</i>
RemoteCLIP	ViT-B/32	33.55	20.76	23.29	42.03	40.84
<b>GRAFT</b>	ViT-B/32	<b>66.64</b>	<b>72.42</b>	41.36	74.31	74.77
<b>GRAFT</b>	ViT-B/16	53.42	66.57	<b>42.47</b>	<b>75.35</b>	<b>76.55</b>

Table 3: Accuracy of our pixel-level models on the Satlas land-cover segmentation task.

Model	NAIP	Sentinel
CLIPSeg	<i>26.99</i>	<i>20.02</i>
<b>GRAFT</b>	<b>49.38</b>	31.95
<b>GRAFT+SAM</b>	-	<b>32.43</b>

Table 4: Performance of our model on zero-shot VQA when used with ViperGPT.

Model	Question type				
	Presence	Area	Comp.	Count	Average
GLIP	<b>72.04</b>	<i>22.91</i>	<i>48.98</i>	<i>23.57</i>	<i>37.69</i>
<b>GRAFT</b>	<i>61.46</i>	<b>32.04</b>	<b>50.34</b>	<b>44.38</b>	<b>44.05</b>

#### 4.2 PIXEL-LEVEL UNDERSTANDING

We next evaluate our pixel-level model on zero-shot segmentation on the Satlas (Bastani et al., 2023) segmentation task. This task offers two benchmarks: one at NAIP resolution and the other at Sentinel-2 resolution. The segmentation task is 11-way landcover classification, but we remove 3 of the 11 categories that do not appear at all in the test set.

For the NAIP resolution, the segmentation masks are at a resolution 16 times smaller than the images. As such, for the NAIP resolution benchmark, we directly evaluate GRAFT without any SAM-based refinement. For the Sentinel-2 resolution, we report results both with and without SAM.

**Baseline:** We compare our model against CLIPSeg (Lüddecke & Ecker, 2022), which train a decoder on top of CLIP (using additional internet images) to perform open-world segmentation.

**Results:** Tab. 3 shows the results. GRAFT nearly **doubles** the per-class accuracy on the NAIP benchmark, and yields more than a **50%** relative improvement on the Sentinel-2 benchmark. Interestingly, refinement with SAM offers only a minor improvement.

#### 4.3 VISUAL QUESTION ANSWERING

ViperGPT uses GLIP (Li et al., 2022) as the underlying vision model. We swap out the GLIP model with our own pixel-level model trained on the NAIP data and evaluate both models on the test set of the high-resolution version of RSVQA benchmark (Lobry et al., 2020). We subsample 500 unique test questions (because of API restrictions on the ViperGPT’s LLM) and replace the images with NAIP images from the same location. We report our results in Tab. 4. With our pixel-level model, ViperGPT outperforms the variant with GLIP by a significant margin across all question and question types (except presence), yielding an almost **6 point** improvement in zero-shot accuracy. Fig. 2 (last row) shows example queries, where GLIP fails to detect the swimming pool or bike path and therefore gets an incorrect answer. However, the GRAFT model can get the correct answer.

#### 4.4 ABLATIONS

We conduct the following two ablations to validate our design choices. Reported performance is on a separate held-out validation set of NAIP images annotated with Open Street Maps (see Appendix C.2 materials for more information about this validation set).

**Importance of sampling in data collection:** To reduce overlapped satellite images, we sample satellite images such that the central pixels of each satellite image are at least 112 meters apart (see



Sec. 3.2). If instead we sample the satellite images randomly, performance drops from 74.8% mAP to 69.3% mAP. This vindicates our sampling strategy.

**Importance of images vs text:** Instead of using the CLIP embedding of internet images as the intermediary for learning, we could instead use alt-text information from the internet images as direct textual supervision for contrastive learning. Replacing the ground image embeddings with the embeddings of this alt-text reduces performance from 74.8% mAP to 65.4% mAP. Even using textual embeddings as an auxiliary loss still yields reduced performance (70% mAP). This suggests that images, not text, are the better intermediary for alignment, possibly due to the large noise in alt-text (see Appendix E for more details). Further ablations can be found in the Appendix E.

#### 4.5 EXAMPLE APPLICATIONS

Our models can be used to create powerful visualization and analysis tools for city and regional planning, agriculture, and climate science. For example, we can use our model to query for any open-world concept on satellite images from a large region and create maps for that concept. We show example maps for cities, roads and farms in Massachusetts using NAIP images in Fig. 5.

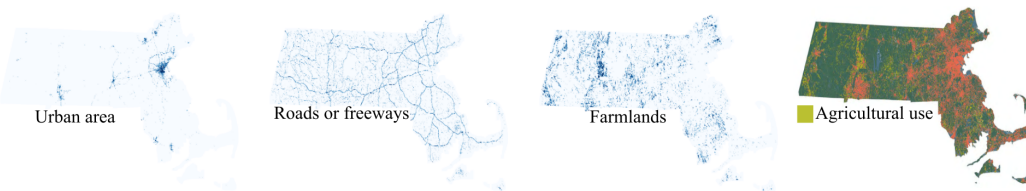


Figure 5: Density maps produced using open-world queries for cities, roads, and farmlands using our method (darker blue means higher density). The right-most map shows the true agricultural land use pattern. Our map matches with the ground truth.

## 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION



Figure 6: Top retrievals of GRAFT when finding dynamic objects such as cargo ships or airplanes. Images with green box show a successful retrieval of dynamic objects.

**Limitations:** One limitation of GRAFT is that it is difficult to capture dynamic objects in satellite images. Our models cannot align satellite images with internet images of dynamic objects because of the low revisit rate of satellites. Fig. 6 shows top retrieval for concepts like ‘cargo ship’. While GRAFT cannot find such dynamic objects, it can still retrieve where they might potentially be found. Using a higher temporal resolution (daily revisit) is a way to handle this problem in the future. Please refer to the Appendix F for more potential directions of improvement.

**Conclusions:** We present GRAFT— a method to train vision-language models for satellite images that can be used for a diverse set of vision problems in remote sensing. To train this model, we propose a novel method of connecting satellite images with text using internet images as an intermediary. This allows us to train a first-of-its-kind large-scale VLM for remote sensing imagery without expensive language-paired data. This VLM yields state-of-the-art accuracy for zero-shot image classification, retrieval, segmentation and VQA, providing gains of up to 20% on classification and up to 80% for segmentation. We believe that this VLM can enable scientists of all stripes to analyze the vast trove of satellite data that is now available.

## 6 ETHICS

As in all visual recognition, there is potential negative impact through violations of individual privacy. While the resolution of our satellite imagery is not sufficient for identifying individuals, it does hold the potential for detecting environmental alterations made by individuals. The use of our proposed techniques for surveillance should be appropriately regulated. Furthermore, models such as CLIP learn various biases relating to race, culture, gender, and more from the internet (Agarwal et al., 2021). Since GRAFT is trained with the text image encoder of CLIP, it may inadvertently perpetuate or even exacerbate such biases. The use of our model should be done carefully in applications that are sensitive to such biases.

Furthermore, to mitigate the misuse of our models and data we release the data and the trained models only to people complying with an ethics agreement. By adhering to the ethics agreement, the user agrees to follow the laws, regulations, and the ASPRS Code of Ethics (ASPRS). We also ask the user to provide their intended use case before accessing the model. Another thing to note is that the data we use for this training is already freely and publicly available, hence our model is not exacerbating the issue of privacy.

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