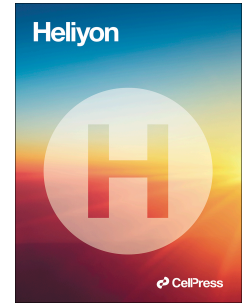


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# Forest Fire Surveillance Systems: A Review of Deep Learning Methods

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8  
9

## 10 **Abstract**

11 This review aims to critically examine the existing state-of-the-art forest fire detection systems that are  
12 based on deep learning methods. In general, forest fire incidences bring significant negative impact to  
13 the economy, environment, and society. One of the crucial mitigation actions that needs to be readied  
14 is an effective forest fire detection system that are able to automatically notify the relevant parties on  
15 the incidence of forest fire as early as possible. This review paper has examined in details 37 research  
16 articles that have implemented deep learning (DL) model for forest fire detection, which were  
17 published between January 2018 and February 2023. In this paper, in depth analysis has been  
18 performed to identify the quantity and type of data that includes images and video datasets, as well as  
19 data augmentation methods and the deep model architecture. This paper is structured into five  
20 subsections, each of which focuses on a specific application of deep learning (DL) in the context of  
21 forest fire detection. These subsections include 1) classification, 2) detection, 3) detection and  
22 classification, 4) segmentation, and 5) segmentation and classification. To compare the model's  
23 performance, the methods were evaluated using comprehensive metrics like accuracy, mean average  
24 precision (mAP), F1-Score, mean pixel accuracy (MPA), etc. From the findings, of the usage of DL  
25 models for forest fire surveillance systems have yielded favourable outcomes, whereby the majority of  
26 studies managed to achieve accuracy rates that exceeds 90%. To further enhance the efficacy of these  
27 models, future research can explore the optimal fine-tuning of the hyper-parameters, integrate various  
28 satellite data, implement generative data augmentation techniques, and refine the DL model  
29 architecture. In conclusion, this paper highlights the potential of deep learning methods in enhancing  
30 forest fire detection that is crucial for forest fire management and mitigation.

31  
32 **Keywords:** Forest preservation, Forest fire, Artificial intelligence and Deep learning

33

## 34 **1 Introduction**

35 Forest fires can be natural or manmade phenomena that occurred in natural ecosystems and usually,  
36 they spread uncontrollably (Pausas, 2012). According to Arteaga et al. (2020), The magnitude,  
37 intensity, and duration of forest fires have continually increased in recent years. It is projected that  
38 continuous climate change will raise the risk of forest fire in many parts of the world, mostly as a result  
39 of extended warm and dry periods, coupled with increased lightning intensity (Robinne, 2021; Krause  
40 et al., 2014; Flannigan et al., 2009). With a staggering 4 billion hectares of forest around the world, it  
41 is clear that the negative impact of forest fires on the environment and global community cannot be  
42 overstated (Seydi et al., 2022). From 2002 until 2016, it is reported that on annual average, more than  
43 420 million hectares of forest were burned globally (Giglio et al., 2018; Robinne, 2021). Forest fires,  
44 which is also frequently referred to as wildfires, are a worldwide occurrence that have significant  
45 implications to the ecosystem, inhabitants, and assets (Kumar, 2022). The utilization of forests,  
46 conversely, is usually done for the purpose of agriculture, logging, mining, and establishment of  
47 infrastructure that include power plants, dams, and roads (Ru et al., 2023). Besides that, the reduction  
48 of forest due to forest fire also will worsen the global warming impact (Aryan et al., 2022).  
49 Furthermore, the unpredictable and out-of-control forest fires can pose a serious hazard to the lives of  
50 communities (Zhao et al., 2018).

51 Forest fires are typically regarded as inevitable calamities, particularly in the summer and  
52 during periods of drought (Ru et al., 2023). Both natural and controlled version of forest fires will  
53 significantly influence the natural forest ecosystems (Datta, 2021). There are three main categories of  
54 forest fires, which are crown fires, surface fires, and ground fires (Brown and Davis, 1973). A  
55 comprehensive explanation of these three forest fire categories can be found in Bennett et al. (2010).  
56 Ground fires primarily burn the duff layer without producing any visible flame. This type of fire can  
57 continually smoulder for an extended period of time with very minimal smoke. While for surface fire,  
58 it produces flaming fronts that consume various types of vegetation, including needles, moss, lichen,  
59 shrubs, and small trees. Out of all the three types of forest fire, surface fire is the most common type  
60 that is characterized by high intensity flames, which can lead to the formation of crown fires (Brown  
61 and Davis, 1973). Additionally, surface fires can also transition into ground fires, while crown fires

62 will become surface fires upon reaching the ground level (Enoh et al., 2021). Crown fires can be either  
 63 passive or active, with passive fires involve the ignition of individual or group of trees. The intensity  
 64 of these fires is commonly high that dependent on various factors, including topography, wind patterns,  
 65 and the density of trees (Bennett et al., 2010). The classification of forest fires based on their size is  
 66 commonly referred to as the size class, which facilitates the comprehension of fire attributes and the  
 67 necessary resources for their management. The determination of forest fire according to the size class  
 68 is typically based on the fire's area and the precise definition may differ from one country to another.  
 69 Table 1 depicts the forest fire classification according to the size class in United States of America.

70 Table 1 Forest fire classification according to the size class (National Wildfire  
 71 Coordinating Group, 2023)

<b>Class</b>	<b>Size of Forest Fire (acres)</b>
Class A	< 0.25
Class B	0.25 - 9.9
Class C	10.0 - 99.9
Class D	100 - 299
Class E	300 - 999
Class F	1000 or more

72

73 It is essential to have forest fire detection and surveillance systems that are both accurate and reliable  
 74 in order to minimize the negative impacts of forest fires. As a consequence, many forest fire  
 75 surveillance systems employ a wide range of technologies, such as satellite imaging, ground sensors,  
 76 and drones, in order to identify, analyse, and respond to the forest fire incidents in real time. The  
 77 utilization of these sensors has led to significant advancements in forest fire detection technologies.  
 78 Furthermore, the integration of deep learning (DL) models has also enhanced the accuracy of these  
 79 technologies. Although, Harkat et al. (2023) and Yang et al. (2023) stated that DL cannot performed  
 80 well due to limited data, generalization, lacks interpretability, and features but the integration DL with  
 81 other method can increase the performance. In the context of remote sensing-based applications, deep  
 82 semantic segmentation models are typically developed with the objective of extracting road networks,  
 83 building detection, and land use classification (Elizar et al., 2022). In recent time, the use of remote  
 84 sensing imagery has become a crucial tool for studying and detecting forest fires, whether through  
 85 spaceborne or airborne, which has proven to be cost and time-effective means of monitoring forest  
 86 fires over large areas of interest (Payra et al., 2023). The Landsat, Advanced Spaceborne Thermal  
 87 Emission and Reflection Radiometer (ASTER), Sentinel, Moderate Resolution Imaging

88 Spectroradiometer (MODIS), Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellites (GOES-16), and  
89 Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) satellite data have gained widespread popularity  
90 as the input modality for detecting and monitoring forest fires. The utilisation of thermal remote sensing  
91 has also made a noteworthy contribution towards the identification of fire-related information such as  
92 fire risk, active fires, fire frequency, burn severity and affected areas (Szpakowski and Jensen, 2019;  
93 Chuvieco, 2009; Bar et al., 2020; Chaudhary et al., 2022). The application of remote sensing (RS) has  
94 provided extensive prospects for both qualitative and quantitative analysis of forest fires across various  
95 spatial scales (Bar et al., 2020; Chaudhary et al., 2022). The main limitations associated with the use  
96 of satellites have been discussed in several studies (Kasyap et al., 2022; Hussin and Juhari, 2012;  
97 Ramakrishna et al., 2016; Girshick, 2015), which have highlighted that the satellite imagery resolution  
98 is often inadequate, resulting in data averaging for a given area, which is less effective for detecting  
99 small fires within a specific pixel. However, the coverage area of satellite imagery is large, which  
100 requires a lot of pre-processing time before resurveying on the same region. Furthermore, the lack of  
101 real-time applications and inadequate precision of the imagery are deemed to be the main reason of not  
102 using satellite data for the continuous monitoring of forest fires.

103 According to Allison et al. (2016), of the input data for a forest fire intelligent application  
104 should match the spatial and temporal scale required for a precise decision-making system. In order to  
105 prevent large number of false alarm cases in a video-based system, the deployed sensors must possess  
106 a high level of resistance to various forms of interference, such as steam, fog, dust pollution, and  
107 condensing water (Krüll et al., 2012). High-altitude aerial/space sensors, including satellites, could  
108 offer a comprehensive view of large regional areas, integrated with georeferencing to locate the fire  
109 positions (Allison et al., 2016). For instance, Gao et al. (2015) acquired data from the Canadian Forest  
110 Fire Weather Index (CFFWI) system to analyse and examine the impact of forest fire under different  
111 weather conditions due to change in temperature, humidity, wind speed, and precipitation. Another  
112 type of sensor modality is wireless sensor networks (WSNs) that utilizes wireless sensor nodes to  
113 achieve broad coverage of the designated regions (Dampage et al., 2022). According to Dampage et  
114 al. (2022), to improve usability of the sensors, a few peripherals that include microcontrollers,  
115 transceiver modules, and power supplies need to be integrated together.

116 Another aerial modality, UAV which is also referred to as Unmanned Aircraft System (UAS)  
117 and colloquially known as drone, is a flying unit that operates without the presence of an on-board  
118 human pilot since it can be remotely controlled from a ground station (Cazzato et al., 2020; Treneska

119 and Stojkoska, 2021). UAV has emerged as a highly effective instrument for mitigating and managing  
120 natural disasters, including forest fires. UAV has been successfully incorporated as a crucial instrument  
121 for the purpose of detecting fires in Maryam et al. (2022). Its capability to reach remote and hazardous  
122 locations is well documented that enables effective environmental surveillance by capturing high-  
123 resolution imagery (Dronova et al., 2021). Therefore, UAV is an ideal sensor modality for the purpose  
124 of forest fire mitigation and management, particularly for the regions with limited road access, where  
125 safety precaution is imperative. However, several critical constraints, especially on the performance,  
126 deployment, and design of the UAV, including autonomy, battery endurance, mobility, and limited  
127 flight time need to be addressed for an effective deployment (Mohsan et al., 2023). Additionally, harsh  
128 weather conditions and environments can further degrade the UAV performance.

129 It is anticipated that the incidence of global forest fires will keep increasing due to climate  
130 change (Vilà-vilardell et al., 2020; Mohammed, 2022). As a result, a comprehensive review of the  
131 current state-of-the-art DL models for detection, mitigation, and management of forest fires is crucial,  
132 whereby the conventional approaches are more time-consuming, expensive, and labour-intensive.  
133 Currently, there is an increasing trend in using DL for forest fire detection. Mohnish et al. (2022) have  
134 combined satellite imagery, ground sensor datasets, and direct visual feeds from unmanned aerial  
135 vehicle (UAV) as the input for a DL model to identify forest fire incidences. These digital image  
136 modalities require extensive analysis and processing steps (Nakagawa et al., 2022), especially for the  
137 satellite imaging (Khryashchev and Larionov, 2020), whereby this sensor often requires heavy  
138 computational processing time and resource. In DL model, the features of interest are learnt  
139 hierarchically, to extract a set of complex patterns to represents the problem (de Almeida et al., 2020).  
140 It is often embedded with augmented data to enhance the possible attributes and features (Alzubaidi et  
141 al., 2021). In order to eliminate repeating inputs, the training data is modified by performing a series  
142 of image manipulations that include random erasing, rotating, flipping, cropping, and translation  
143 (Balkenende et al., 2022; Yamashita et al., 2018). This augmentation process is able to enhance the  
144 efficiency of training a DL model Alzubaidi et al. (2021) and prevent the likelihood of model  
145 overfitting problem (Mohammed, 2022).

146 Recent advancements in machine learning field have made DL the dominant method,  
147 outperforming conventional techniques used in computer vision tasks, such as object recognition,  
148 classification, and natural language processing (Zhao et al., 2017). Even for semantic segmentation  
149 task, DL architectures offer better feature extraction that allow it to retrieve contextual information at

150 various sizes and subsequently label the class of each pixel in an image (Lateef and Ruichek, 2019;  
151 Wu et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2021). A few instances of advanced semantic segmentation models are  
152 PSPNet, U-Net, DeepLab, SegNet, and FCN (Yang and Yu, 2021). These models can automatically  
153 decide optimal segmentation thresholds because of its ability to learn high-level features of forest fires.  
154 Hence, this enables the models to effectively separates the fires from the background, and circumvents  
155 the potential issues of complexity and subjectivity in selecting the manual thresholds (Li et al., 2021b).

156 On the other hand, a simple forest fire detection that makes decision based on an image can be  
157 done through image classification, which aims to recognise semantic classes of a particular image (Wu  
158 et al., 2020) and assign the appropriate labels (Harzallah et al., 2009; Kaur and Singh, 2022). A few  
159 popular instances of classification models are Inception Net, AlexNet, VGG, and DenseNet, which are  
160 frequently used in image classification problem of various applications. Apart from that, bounding  
161 boxes of the forest fire areas can be generated through object localization models (Harzallah et al.,  
162 2009; Kaur and Singh, 2022). When these two previously mentioned processes are combined, they  
163 form the basis of object detection, a powerful tool used in computer vision to detect the class and areas  
164 of the object of interest (Zhao et al., 2019; Kaur and Singh, 2022). In general, object detection is the  
165 process of predicting an object's location by identifying the class to which its belong and reporting the  
166 bounding box information that surround the object (Pathak et al., 2018). Object detection framework  
167 can be classified into two categories: one-stage and two-stage. Models such as R-CNN, FPN, and Faster  
168 R-CNN are several examples of two-stage framework. While, models such as YOLO, Centernet, SSD,  
169 and EfficientDet are several instances of one-stage framework. A large variety of applications, such as  
170 content-based image retrieval, autonomous driving, security, augmented reality, and intelligent video  
171 surveillance are seldomly equipped with object detection capability to produce effective computer  
172 vision applications (Liu et al., 2020).

173 The number of forest fires will keep increasing due to climate change. The forest fire needs to  
174 be controlled because forests protect biodiversity by providing habitats for plants and animals (Xu et  
175 al., 2022). Forest fires or wildfires pose a substantial danger, since it will bring major and damaging  
176 impacts on nature, properties, as well as humans (Ciprián-Sánchez et al., 2021b). In order to effectively  
177 manage and prevent forest fire incidences, it is essential to develop deep intelligent models with good  
178 precision and efficiency. This review will highlight the methods and architectures of DL models that  
179 have been applied that include the type of datasets used and their accompanying performance accuracy.  
180 This review also discussed the impact of data augmentation methods in training the DL models, which

181 focuses only on the recent works (2018–2023) of DL methods and architectures used for forest fire  
182 detection systems. These comprehensive findings are meant to guide researchers and practitioners to  
183 improve on the current limitations and issues of the current forest fire detection systems. In the  
184 methodology section, this paper discusses a few research questions, search engine databases, search  
185 terms, selection and rejection strategies, and other processes that are related to forest fires. While, in  
186 the discussion section, the results of analysis on the current DL methods in forest fire detection systems  
187 are discussed in depth. The conclusion section of this paper will summarize the review of forest fire  
188 detection using DL and provide several recommendations for future work to enhance the forest fire  
189 detection capability.

190

## 191 **2 Methodology**

### 192 **2.1 Review Protocol**

193 In this paper, the preferred reporting items for standard systematic reviews and meta-analyses  
194 (PRISMA) principles strategy was utilised to conduct the survey, whereby a set of pre-planned  
195 questions was used to identify the related studies that were included in the survey (Theodosiou et al.,  
196 2023). Firstly, this study started with a set of research questions to determine the possible manuscripts  
197 that were deemed suitable for forest fire cases. Then, the related manuscripts were searched from the  
198 prominent databases based on the research questions developed. The collected manuscripts were then  
199 analyzed, and the relevant data was extracted guided by the research questions. The final step is the  
200 documentation process of the extracted data before they are being analysed as required by the research  
201 questions. The following information describes the search engine sources, search terms, and the  
202 procedures for selection and rejection of the papers used in this work:

#### 203 a) Search Engine Source

204 The search engine sources included in this review are IEEE Xplore, Web of Science (WOS),  
205 and Scopus databases, all of which are highly respected and good quality peer-reviewed  
206 sourced.

#### 207 b) Search terms

208 In terms of search terms, the systematic search terms employed are a combination of main  
209 keywords such as "deep learning," "forest fire," "wildfire," and "detection" to ensure the



210 inclusion of all relevant studies. The included search period was selected for a specific timeline,  
211 which are from 2018 to 2023.

212 c) Selection

213 The main selection criteria limit the included research studies that utilise DL methods for the  
214 identification of forest fires. Only studies published in English that specifically address  
215 segmentation, detection, and classification of forest fires using DL models were included. The  
216 selected articles were extracted from a four-year period between 2018 and 2023, which  
217 comprises of journal articles, conference proceedings, and book chapters that are related to our  
218 studied topics.

219 d) Rejection

220 The rejection criteria for this review are review papers, manuscripts in languages other than  
221 English, and studies that were not peer-reviewed, or published as pre-prints or early works.  
222 Such studies were excluded to ensure the quality and reliability of the included studies.

223

224 **2.2 Research questions**

225 The number of DL projects that focused on forest fire detection has significantly increased recently.  
226 This progression in the number of scientific research can be interpreted using Population, Intervention,  
227 and Context (PICo) metric, which were used to formulate the research questions (Munn et al., 2018;  
228 Pollock and Berge, 2018; Kamaruzaman et al., 2023). In this specific research, the population was  
229 defined as "deep learning," while the intervention terms were reserved for "classification", "detection",  
230 and "segmentation" techniques. The context, on the other hand, was specifically targeted towards forest  
231 fire and wildfire. By using the PICo tool, this review was able to narrow down the research scope that  
232 focuses on specific aspects of forest fire detection, which is paper that relies on DL methods.

233 The review report is based on three key research questions in an effort to simplify the analysis  
234 of the selected studies. The first question aims to identify the deep machine learning architecture used  
235 in each study: "What deep architecture has been used in the study?" This step is crucial due to the  
236 varying levels of effectiveness among different DL architectures used in detecting forest fires that use  
237 various input data sources such as satellite imagery, video feeds, and sensor networks. The second  
238 question goal is to determine the type of data that was used in the studies, which could include satellite  
239 images (e.g., Sentinel-1, Landsat-8, etc.), web images, UAV imaging, etc. through asking "What types  
240 of data have been utilised in the study?" The quality and quantity of the utilised data during training

241 and testing a deep model will have a significant impact on the model performance. Lastly, the third  
242 question focuses on evaluating the performance of the methods used in each study, measured by various  
243 performance metrics such as precision, accuracy, F1-score, recall, and mAP by asking the question –  
244 “How well is the selected method performance?”. This analysis can help in determining which of the  
245 methods are most effective that can provide insights into how to optimise the DL model for forest fire  
246 identification.

247

### 248 **2.3 Literature collection**

249 In order to perform the literature search, the following keywords have been used: “deep learning”,  
250 “forest fire”, “wildfire”, “detection”, “segmentation” and “classification”, and also their combined  
251 variations through Boolean operators ‘AND’ and ‘OR’. This study has conducted the search on three  
252 databases, which are Scopus, Web of Science (WoS), and IEEE Explore. A total of 117 manuscripts  
253 were obtained based on the searched keywords. These manuscripts were then categorised into four  
254 groups; identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion as shown in Figure 1. For the first screening  
255 phase, we removed 18 manuscripts from the Scopus database and three manuscripts from the WoS  
256 database. Then, 21 manuscripts were also removed after being cross-checked using Desktop version  
257 of Mendeley, followed by removal of additional 12 manuscripts in favour of full-text manuscripts  
258 availability. After that, the final results after inclusion and exclusion processes, a set of 39 manuscripts  
259 were selected for the final systematic review. Figure 1 depicts the flow chart of manuscript selection  
260 for the final systematic review using the PRISMA framework method.

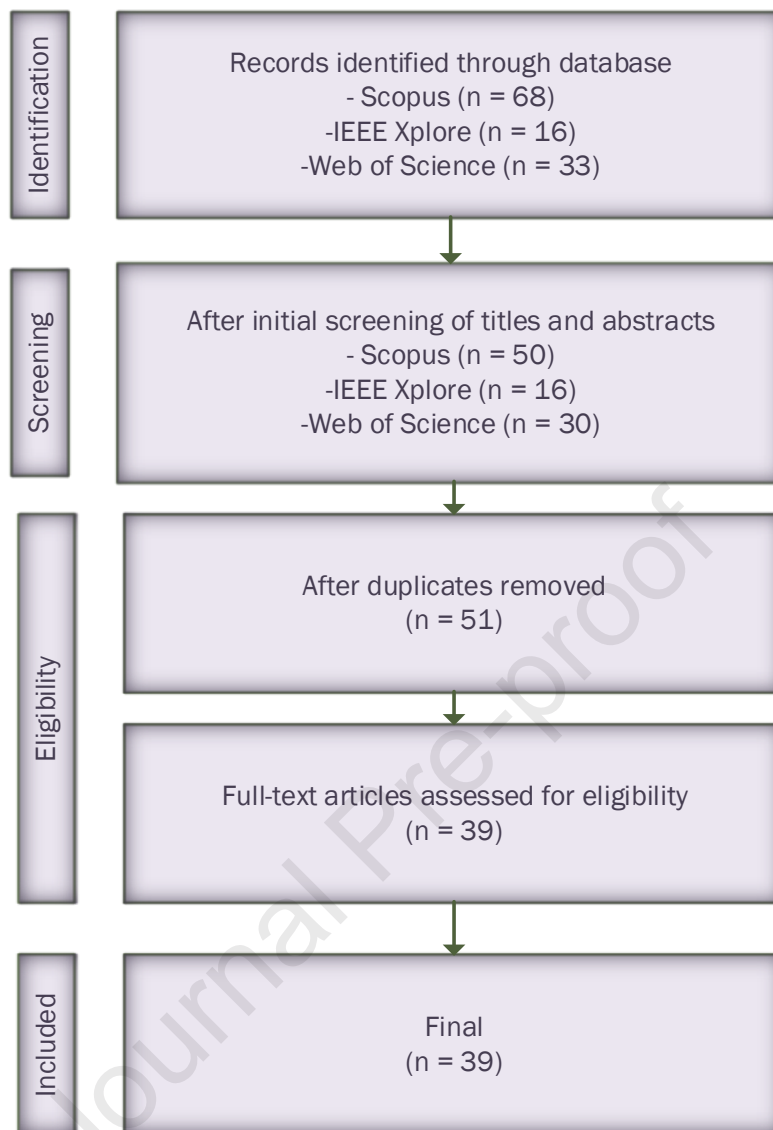


Figure 1 PRISMA framework method

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A total of 39 manuscripts were identified by the review process, covering the period from January 2018 until 2023. Only one journal article was found in the 2018 that has discussed the DL method for forest fire detection. In 2019, five studies were published, all of which were presented as conference papers. Six papers were released in 2020, with four articles being presented as conference papers and two articles being published in journals. The list of publications that were chosen for the final review and analysis is presented in Table 2.

Table 2 A list of articles that has been selected for the final review

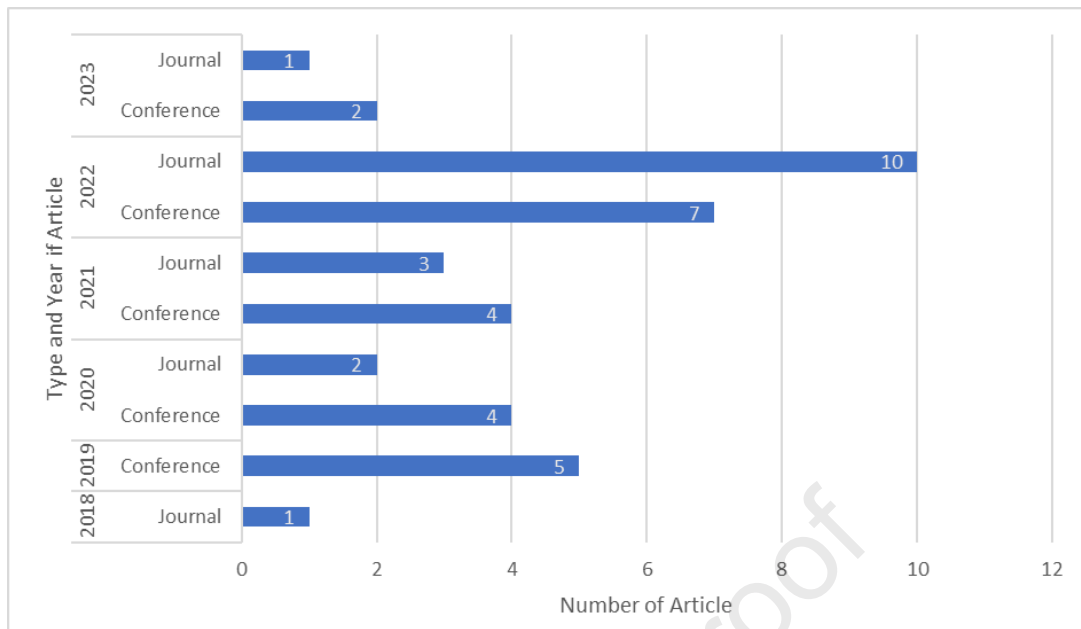
<b>Authors</b>	<b>Year</b>	<b>Title</b>
Zhao et al. (2018)	2018	Saliency detection and deep learning-based wildfire identification in UAV imagery
Wang et al. (2019)	2019	Early Forest Fire Region Segmentation Based on Deep Learning
Toan et al. (2019)	2019	A deep learning approach for early wildfire detection from hyperspectral satellite images
Priya et al. (2019)	2019	Deep Learning Based Forest Fire Classification and Detection in Satellite Images
Jiao et al. (2019)	2019	A Deep Learning Based Forest Fire Detection Approach Using UAV and YOLOv3
Hung et al. (2019)	2019	Wildfire Detection in Video Images Using Deep Learning and HMM for Early Fire Notification System
Ban et al. (2020)	2020	Near Real-Time Wildfire Progression Monitoring with Sentinel-1 SAR Time Series and Deep Learning
Arteaga et al. (2020)	2020	Deep Learning Applied to Forest Fire Detection
de Almeida et al. (2020)	2020	Bee2Fire: A deep learning powered forest fire detection system
Rahul et al. (2020)	2020	Early detection of forest fire using deep learning
Khryashchev and Larionov (2020)	2020	Wildfire Segmentation on Satellite Images using Deep Learning
Benzekri et al. (2020)	2020	Early forest fire detection system using wireless sensor network and deep learning
Li et al. (2021b)	2021	Early Forest Fire Segmentation Based on Deep Learning
Ciprián-Sánchez et al. (2021a)	2021	FIRE-GAN: a novel deep learning-based infrared-visible fusion method for wildfire imagery
Jiang et al. (2021)	2021	Deep learning of qinling forest fire anomaly detection based on genetic algorithm optimization
Bai et al. (2021)	2021	Research on Forest Fire Detection Technology Based on Deep Learning
Fan and Pei (2021)	2021	Lightweight Forest Fire Detection Based on Deep Learning
Ciprián-Sánchez et al. (2021b)	2021	Assessing the impact of the loss function, architecture and image type for deep learning-based wildfire segmentation
Li et al. (2021a)	2021	Early Forest Fire Detection Based on Deep Learning
Mohnish et al. (2022)	2022	Deep Learning based Forest Fire Detection and Alert System
Seydi et al. (2022)	2022	Fire-Net: A Deep Learning Framework for Active Forest Fire Detection
Ghali et al. (2022)	2022	Deep Learning and Transformer Approaches for UAV-Based Wildfire Detection and Segmentation
Khan and Khan (2022)	2022	FFireNet: Deep Learning Based Forest Fire Classification and Detection in Smart Cities
Sun (2022)	2022	Analyzing Multispectral Satellite Imagery of South American Wildfires Using Deep Learning
Gayathri et al. (2022)	2022	Prediction and Detection of Forest Fires based on Deep Learning Approach

Mohammed (2022)	2022	A real-time forest fire and smoke detection system using deep learning
Mohammad et al. (2022)	2022	Hardware Implementation of Forest Fire Detection System using Deep Learning Architectures
Kang et al. (2022)	2022	A deep learning model using geostationary satellite data for forest fire detection with reduced detection latency
Ghosh and Kumar (2022)	2022	A hybrid deep learning model by combining convolutional neural network and recurrent neural network to detect forest fire
Wang et al. (2022)	2022	Forest Fire Detection Method Based on Deep Learning
Li et al. (2022)	2022	A Deep Learning Method based on SRN-YOLO for Forest Fire Detection
Tahir et al. (2022)	2022	Wildfire detection in aerial images using deep learning
Wei et al. (2022)	2022	An Intelligent Wildfire Detection Approach through Cameras Based on Deep Learning
Peng and Wang (2022)	2022	Automatic wildfire monitoring system based on deep learning
Tran et al. (2022)	2022	Forest-Fire Response System Using Deep-Learning-Based Approaches with CCTV Images and Weather Data
Mashraqi, et al. (2022)	2022	Drone Imagery Forest Fire Detection and Classification Using Modified Deep Learning Model
Almasoud (2023)	2023	Intelligent Deep Learning Enabled Wild Forest Fire Detection System
Alice et al. (2023)	2023	Automated Forest Fire Detection using Atom Search Optimizer with Deep Transfer Learning Model
Xie and Huang (2023)	2023	Aerial Forest Fire Detection based on Transfer Learning and Improved Faster RCNN

272

273 Figure 2 shows the division of retrieved studies according to the year and type of publications.  
274 The number of publications has increased in 2021 with seven papers, of which four of them were  
275 conference papers and the remaining three were journal articles. However, in 2022, there was a  
276 remarkable surge in the number of publications with regards to the reviewed topic with a total of 17  
277 publications, of which seven of them were conference papers and the remaining ten were published as  
278 journal articles. As of February 2023, only one journal paper and two conference papers have been  
279 selected for forest fire detection using DL techniques. Overall, most of the studies were presented as  
280 conference papers, accounting for 22 out of the 39 studies. Nevertheless, there was a noticeable  
281 increase in the number of studies published in journals in the later years, indicating that there is a  
282 growing interest in this field of research. Figure 3 shows the percentage of journal and conference  
283 publications according to the publication year (2018 –2023).

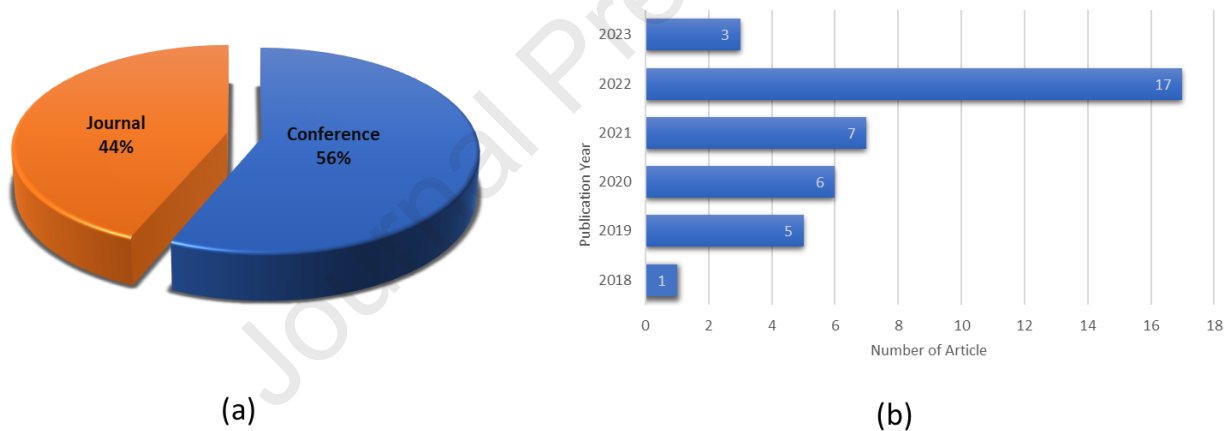
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Figure 2 Journal and conference publications from January 2018 until February 2023



(a)

(b)

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Figure 3 The distribution of the selected publications according to (a) the publication type and (b) publication year (2018- 2023)

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### 3 Discussion

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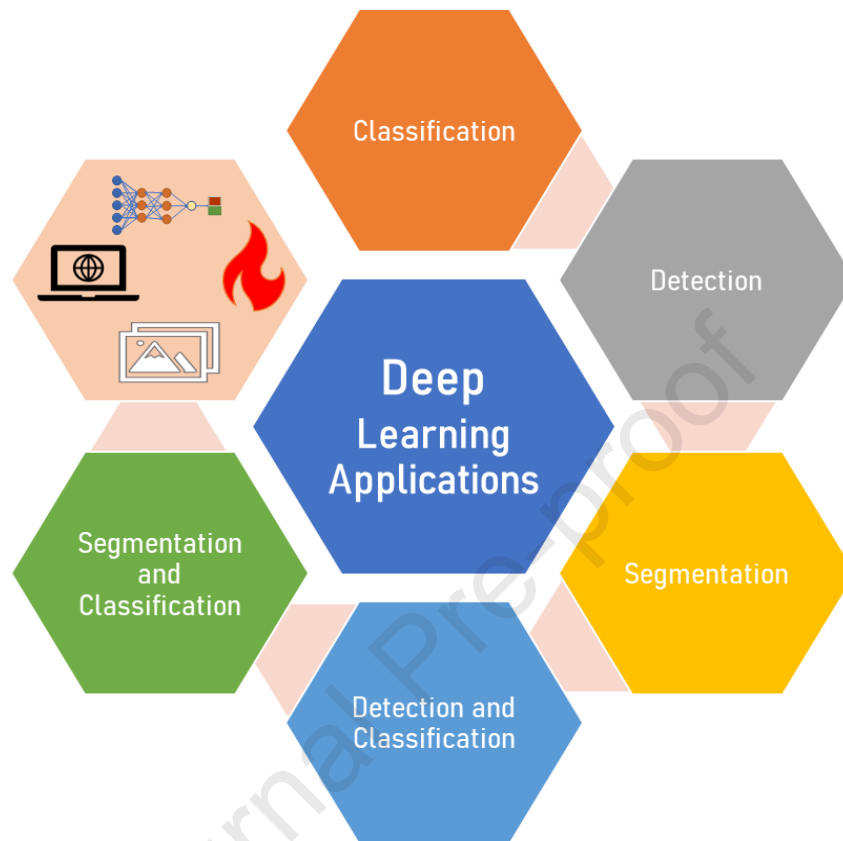
295

296

297

The DL techniques have been widely applied in various computer vision tasks that include image classification, detection, and segmentation. Due to the various different tasks associated with the forest fire surveillance, this section was split into five subsections depending on the type of tasks; classification, detection, detection and classification, segmentation, and segmentation & classification. In the discussion section, a summary of the DL models used in the selected studies, the type of input data, the usage of augmented data augmentation, and the DL model's performance for each manuscript

298 are summarized in details. Figure 4 shows the overall types of DL model applications that have been  
 299 used in forest fire detection studies.



300  
 301 Figure 4 DL model applications for forest fire surveillance system  
 302

### 303 3.1 Classification

304 Classification task is one of the earliest and extensively researched topics in intelligent forest  
 305 monitoring systems (Liao et al., 2023). According to Shinozuka and Mansouri (2009), image  
 306 classification is the procedure of categorising and labelling sets of pixels or vectors inside an image in  
 307 accordance to asset of predetermined criteria. They argued that it is possible to develop the  
 308 classification rule by using one or a combination of spectral or textural properties in an image  
 309 (Shinozuka and Mansouri, 2009). The main objective of picture classification is to ensure that all  
 310 images are classified based on their respective sectors or categories (Abu et al., 2019). Based on the  
 311 selected reviewed papers, the work by Benzekri et al. (2020) produced the greatest accuracy in  
 312 classifying the incident of forest fires. They have compared the performance of three DL models, which  
 313 are long short-term memory (LSTM), recurrent neural networks (RNN), and gated recurrent units

314 (GRU). The experimental results show that GRU achieved the highest accuracy compared to the other  
315 two models. In general, all three models attained performance accuracy of more than 90% and eight  
316 studies have not applied data augmentation technique to their dataset/study. However, the resultant  
317 accuracy for forest fires classification system is still good even without applying any data augmentation  
318 technique.

319

### 320 **3.1.1 InceptionV3**

321 In a study by Priya and Vani (2019), InceptionV3 has been explored to improve the classification  
322 performance of the forest fire satellite images. Their work was validated using 534 satellite images that  
323 consists of 239 fire images and 295 non-fire images. For training purpose, 481 satellite images were  
324 randomly chosen, while the remaining 53 satellite images are dedicated to testing purposes. Uniquely,  
325 the authors have classified the satellite data on forest fires using imbalanced data with a relatively small  
326 number of training data, which frequently leads to overfitting problems.

327

### 328 **3.1.2 ResNet + VGG**

329 Rather than exploring a single ResNet model, Arteaga et al. (2020) investigate multiple pre-trained  
330 CNN models for forest fire classification, which were deployed on mobile platform of the Raspberry  
331 Pi. This study used a medium-sized database of 1,800 images that were downloaded from secondary  
332 source of internet. The authors applied a set of augmented data as part of the training dataset. The data  
333 was augmented by using cropping technique into 224-pixel-wide range, before it is rotated horizontally  
334 with a 50% likelihood, and finally, normalised using the ImageNet database's standard deviation and  
335 mean values. The authors explored several variants of pre-trained VGG and ResNet models. The results  
336 showed that ResNet-18 produced good accuracy performance of 0.9950, processed in less than 2.12  
337 seconds. In addition, their study found that the ResNet-34, ResNet-101, ResNet-50, and ResNet-18  
338 models are more suitable for mobile platform implementation compared to the VGG variants in  
339 detecting forest fires. However, the authors should experiment with large datasets to test whether the  
340 algorithms can work with large dataset or not in real world forest fire situations.

341



### 342 **3.1.3 Ban et al. Architecture**

343 In Ban et al. (2020), their CNN model was used to automatically detect burned zones using a  
344 combination of Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) imagery acquired during wildfire incidents and also  
345 SAR imaging time-series data before the incidents to extract the temporal backscatter changes  
346 information. They have also used Sentinel-2 imagery as an inventory map to verify and validate their  
347 findings, which consists of 10000 points of burned and unburnt areas. Furthermore, they also used  
348 visual comparisons to pad up the datasets, which can be derived from SAR-based progression maps  
349 and burned area maps that were obtained from Sentinel-2. By utilizing training images that were  
350 automatically generated from the coarse binary transition map, the CNN model is fitted and trained  
351 with the goal to improve burned area recognition by producing burned confidence maps. These  
352 confidence maps will then be binarized using Otsu thresholding technique, and the resultant maps will  
353 be gradually merged to increase output reliability and certainty. The limitations of using Sentinel-1  
354 SAR data are not addressed, such as spatial resolution and signal degradation in specific environmental  
355 conditions.

### 356 **3.1.4 RNN, LSTM, and GRU**

358 In this study, Benzekri et al. (2020) presented a novel DL model that uses 2 hidden layers of 50 neurons  
359 and an output layer with either RNN, LSTM, or GRU to predict the final label. The network used Adam  
360 optimizer to backpropagate the loss function. The LSTM model made four incorrect predictions, the  
361 simple RNN model made two incorrect predictions, and the GRU model made one incorrect prediction.  
362 The authors examined the three models using around 2000 sample data points. The LSTM model  
363 achieved 0.0298 loss and 99.82% accuracy on the test data. The simple RNN model had 99.77%  
364 accuracy and a loss of 0.0062. Overall, the GRU model is the most consistent and suitable for early  
365 forest fire detection. The authors claimed that the model was more precise than traditional surveillance  
366 approaches. However, the high accuracy results were only tested on a small dataset compared to the  
367 real world; we need to test them on a large dataset.

### 368 **3.1.5 Bee2Fire**

370 The authors developed the method, namely Bee2Fire, to detect forest fires (de Almeida et al., 2020).  
371 The forest fire localization algorithm of Bee2Fire is based on a ResNet-18, which was pre-trained with  
372 ImageNet data. The authors fine-tuned the system outcomes for three output classes of cloudy sample,

373 smoke sample, and clear sample using transfer learning approach. In addition to scaling each image to  
374 224x224 pixels, additional data augmentation techniques consisted of minor random transformations  
375 such as jitter, zoom, and rotation were also added to the main training dataset. The final training dataset  
376 comprises of 1903 images with 475 images were reserved for validation purpose. The method has  
377 attained an accuracy of 82.35% and a specificity of 99.99%. Using the raw sensor input for the  
378 experiments, Bee2Fire sensitivity is 73.68%, and it improves significantly using adapted sensor  
379 readings to 93.33% sensitivity. However, the model has low sensitivity and specificity during the  
380 testing period to detect smoke columns and fire.

381

### 382 **3.1.6 ResNet-50**

383 A comparative study between three DL architectures was carried out by Rahul et al. (2020). The authors  
384 applied ResNet-50, VGG-16, and DenseNet-121 models for the forest fire detection analysis. The input  
385 images are scaled to 224 pixels-wide, which are then augmented using shearing, flipping, etc. The  
386 general CNN layer configuration comprises of a SoftMax layer, a pooling layer, a ReLu activation  
387 layer integrated with dropout, a batch normalisation layer, and a convolutional layer for the purpose of  
388 image classification. The stochastic gradient descent (SGD) optimizer was found to be the optimal  
389 update backpropagation approach with the best global extremum. In conclusion, ResNet-50 performed  
390 better in comparison to VGG-16 and DenseNet-121. The findings also indicate that the SGD optimizer  
391 is more suitable for forest fire detection compared to the Adam optimizer. However, the specific dataset  
392 used for training and testing the model is not mentioned in the paper, making it challenging to assess  
393 the generalizability of the results.

394

### 395 **3.1.7 Jiang et al. Architecture**

396 Jiang et al. (2021) used genetic algorithm (GA) to tune their CNN model hyperparameters for detecting  
397 fire incidents with excellent accuracy. The authors benchmarked their method with back propagation  
398 (BP) neural network, support vector machine (SVM), GA-CNN, and CNN approaches. The testing and  
399 training data sets, which all together comprise of 1900 images, form the development dataset. The  
400 majority of the images consist of smoke and fire incidents, which contain both positive and negative  
401 images. It performs well in terms of true-positive level, accuracy, and false-alarm level across a wide  
402 range of evaluation conditions. The accuracy value of the optimised GA-CNN method is 95%, which  
403 is better than the accuracy values of the unoptimized CNN algorithm (85%), BP neural network

404 algorithm (73%), and SVM algorithm (90%). The study also concluded that the GA-CNN method is  
405 suitable for use in forest fire detection. The imbalanced data could lead to an overfitting issue;  
406 therefore, the authors should consider the precision and recall metrics for better result interpretation.

407

### 408 **3.1.8 Gayathri et al. Architecture**

409 Instead combining CNN with normal LSTM, Gayathri et al. (2022) utilised LSTM and CNN in a hybrid  
410 setting of bidirectional algorithm. The approach incorporated Google's Firebase, which can be linked  
411 to mobile or IoT devices via notifications for alert purposes. The proposed model achieved 96%  
412 accuracy for training dataset and 92% accuracy for test dataset. The findings indicate that the  
413 integration of two DL models for the purpose of forest fire classification can yield more favourable  
414 outcomes. Based on the results, it shows that this study has an overfitting problem because it obtained  
415 a high accuracy value but low precision and recall results.

416

### 417 **3.1.9 Ghosh and Kumar Architecture**

418 Rather than using a single model, Ghosh and Kumar (2022) combined both RNN and CNN networks  
419 to extract the features, which are then passed to two fully-connected layers for final classification. For  
420 the Mivia dataset, there are a total of 22,500 images, of which 12,000 contain fire or smoke sequences  
421 while the remaining 10,000 contain neither fire nor smoke. For the Kaggle dataset, a total of 1000  
422 images are available with 755 of the images are of fire class, whereas the other 245 images are normal  
423 class. Ghosh and Kumar (Ghosh and Kumar, 2022) managed to achieve accuracy values of 99.62%  
424 and 99.10% for the Mivia lab and Kaggle fire datasets, respectively. The integration of CNN and RNN  
425 networks points to the possibilities for improved performance in detecting forest fires with a more  
426 comprehensive feature extraction model. However, this work lacks data augmentation, which can be  
427 used to balance the dataset. The authors applied preprocessing (augmentation) before training the  
428 dataset, which shows that the preprocessing would help to avoid overfitting and obtain good accuracy  
429 in classification.

430

### 431 **3.1.10 FFireNet**

432 In FFireNet, Khan and Khan (2022) freeze the MobileNetV2 original weights and implement fully-  
433 connected layers on top of the feature extraction layers. They have used a dataset with evenly  
434 partitioned images, where 950 images were assigned to the fire class and the rest of 950 images were  
435 assigned to the no-fire class. Moreover, the authors applied augmentation techniques to the training  
436 dataset and reduced the size of the input images to 224x224 pixels in order to better represent the  
437 variety of images in the dataset. The FFireNet achieved an accuracy of 98.42% with an error rate of  
438 1.58%, a recall of 99.47%, and a precision of 97.42%. It outperformed several benchmarked CNN  
439 models such as Xception, NASNetMobile, ResNet152-V2, and Inception-V3. FFireNet, which has  
440 been introduced recently, has shown that the inclusion of fully connected layers into the MobileNetV2  
441 model results in more favourable outcomes compared to the models without it. In this paper, the lack  
442 of a training dataset could lead the model to classify dense fog as fire smoke, and the model will have  
443 low accuracy when the dataset has a low-quality image.

444

### 445 **3.1.11 Modified MobileNet-v2**

446 In this study, Mashraqi et al. (2022) the focus of the work is to explore drone images that will be used  
447 to find and classify forest fires using a modified version of the DL model called DIFFDC-MDL. In  
448 order to produce the optimal set of feature vectors, DIFFDC-MDL enhanced the basic MobileNet-v2  
449 architecture by integrating a hybrid LSTM-RNN layer. The shuffled frog leap algorithm (SFLA) is  
450 used to optimize the hyperparameter so that the model can achieve an even higher rate of classification  
451 performance. In concise form, SFLA imitates the foraging behaviour of frog populations. The authors  
452 utilised the SFLA on Fire Luminosity Airborne-based Machine Learning Evaluation (FLAME) dataset,  
453 which comprises 6000 samples divided into two balanced groups (fire images, 3000, and no-fire  
454 images, 3000). The DIFFDC-MDL produced a good performance accuracy of 99.38%, which proved  
455 that an optimized set of hyperparameters can potentially enhance the efficacy of the DL model.

456

### 457 **3.1.12 Inception-ResNet-V2**

458 In this study, Mohammed (2022) focuses on transfer learning technique to extract features of smoke  
459 and forest fires from the ImageNet dataset. The compiled dataset, which contains 1,102 images for  
460 every fire and smoke class were used as input to a pre-trained Inception-ResNet-V2 network. Data  
461 augmentation methods were also performed by using scaling and flipping operations. Inception-  
462 ResNet-V2 network was utilised in this study to extract the optimal features from the dataset, whereby

463 ResNet layers were tasked to learn residual parameters to prevent diminishing weights problem. The  
464 authors utilised the Adam optimizer with the following configurations; dropout rate, batch size fixed  
465 at 55 images, momentum update rate, initial learning rate (LR) of 0.001, 10 backpropagation epochs,  
466 categorical cross-entropy loss function, and callback using a threshold of 2 for early stopping,  
467 respectively. The convolutional layer dimension is decreased using average pooling layers, while the  
468 likelihood overfitting is prevented via dropout layers. The proposed model achieved a 99.09%  
469 accuracy, 100% precision, 98.08% recall, a 98.09% F1-score, and a 98.30% specificity for the forest  
470 fire classification task. The authors also implemented transfer learning method, which enables them to  
471 enlarge the training dataset, which has been proven to work well for their system. The author  
472 implemented the data augmentation to increase the dataset and applied the dropout layers to avoid  
473 overfitting results. However, the author does not show results for training and testing, which causes  
474 doubt in the results of this work.

475

#### 476 **3.1.13 AlexNet**

477 In this work, Mohammad et al. (2022) analysed CNN-9, ResNet-50, MobileNet V2, GoogleNet,  
478 AlexNet, SqueezeNet, and Inception V3 to establish the ideal model for standalone module deployment  
479 on Raspberry Pi hardware. Two sources were utilised, which are the Kaggle wildfire detection and  
480 Mendely datasets that contain 275 fire images and 275 no-fire images. They further increased dataset  
481 variation by performing augmentation methods. Their findings indicate that AlexNet architecture  
482 produced the best accuracy (99.42%), followed by GoogleNet, MobileNet, ResNet-50, CNN-9, and  
483 Inception V3. However, there is no information relay system has been deployed from the Raspberry Pi  
484 via emails or messaging services in case of fire incidents. The authors only applied a small dataset and  
485 it worked well for the models. However, the forest fire system needs a larger dataset in the real world  
486 to train the different conditions of forest fire.

487

#### 488 **3.1.14 Kang et al. Architecture**

489 Due to the great temporal resolution of satellite sensors in geostationary, Kang et al. (2022) found that  
490 forest fires can be spotted immediately if the data is used smartly. They have utilised 91 incidences of  
491 forest fires, in which seven of these occurrences have caused extensive damage to huge forest fires.  
492 Using just basic data augmentation methods through rotation and flip operations, the model was trained  
493 until convergence. The input data comprised of 9x9 window images having N input characteristics,  
494 and the outcome was a binary class, representing whether or not the centre pixel of the window showed

495 a forest fire incident. The simulation results produce precision, F1-score, accuracy, and recall values  
 496 of 0.91, 0.74, 0.98, and 0.63, respectively. The effectiveness of their CNN model in detecting forest  
 497 fires improved when data augmentation and spatial patterns were utilised during model fitting.  
 498 However, the models predicted larger areas than actual areas of forest fire. Table 3 shows a summary  
 499 of classification applications used in forest fire detection studies.

500

### 501 3.1.15 AFFD-ASODTL

502 The AFFD-ASODTL model automates forest fire detection using Atom Search Optimizer with Deep  
 503 Transfer Learning, improving response times and reducing wildfire damage (Alice et al., 2023). The  
 504 authors used the DeepFire dataset to detect forest fires. The AFFD-ASODTL approach was tested on  
 505 a dataset of 500 samples, with 250 fire and 250 non-fire samples. The paper highlights the superior  
 506 performance of the AFFD-ASODTL method compared to other models. Providing additional  
 507 information about the dataset's characteristics or sources would greatly assist in evaluating its  
 508 representatives and generalization.

509

510

511 Table 3 The selected reviewed papers that applied classification algorithm for forest fire detection

Authors	Year	Method	Architecture	Accuracy	Application	Augmentation	Type of Data
Priya et al. (2019)	2019	CNN	Inception V3	Accuracy - 98%	Classification	No	Satellite Image
Arteaga et al. (2020)	2020	CNN	ResNet + VGG	Accuracy - 99.5%	Classification	Yes	Image
Benzekri et al. (2020)	2020	RNN, LSTM and GRU	RNN, LSTM, GRU	Accuracy - 99.89%	Classification	No	Image
de Almeida et al. (2020)	2020	CNN	ResNet18	Specificity - 99%	Classification	Yes	Image
Rahul et al. (2020)	2020	CNN	ResNet-50, VGG-16, DenseNet-121	Accuracy - 92.27%	Classification	Yes	Image
Ban et al. (2020)	2020	CNN	CNN	Accuracy - 83.53%	Classification	No	Satellite Image

Jiang et al. (2021)	2021	CNN	BP NN, GA, SVM, GA-BP	Accuracy - 95%	Classification	No	Image
Ghosh and Kumar (2022)	2022	CNN	RNN	Accuracy - 99.62%	Classification	Yes	Image
Kang et al. (2022)	2022	CNN	CNN & RF	Accuracy - 98%	Classification	Yes	Satellite Image
Khan and Khan (2022)	2022	CNN	FFireNet, MobileNetV2	Accuracy - 98.42%	Classification	Yes	Image
Mashraqi et al. (2022)	2022	DIFFDC-MDL	hybrid LSTM-RNN, MobileNet V2	Accuracy - 99.38%.	Classification	No	Image
Mohammad et al. (2022)	2022	CNN	Resnet 50, GoogleNet, CNN-9 Layers, MobileNet, InceptionV3, AlexNet	Accuracy - 99.42%	Classification	Yes	Image
Mohammed (2022)	2022	CNN	Inception-ResNet	Accuracy - 99.09%	Classification	Yes	Image
Gayathri et al. (2022)	2022	CNN	CNN	Accuracy - 96%	Classification	No	Image
Alice et al. (2023)	2023	Deep Transfer Learning	Quasi Recurrent Neural Network (QRNN), ResNet50 and optimize parameter used Atom Search Optimizer	Accuracy - 97.33%	Classification	No	Image

512

513 **3.2 Detection**

514 For the object detection task, the goal is to localize and provide the label to a particular object within  
515 an image or video. The process of object detection involves not only identifying the object category,  
516 but also making prediction regarding the location of each object through bounding box representations

517 (Wu et al., 2020). Zaidi et al. (2022) described that the concept of object detection is a logical  
518 progression from object classification, which is originally focused on solely object identification within  
519 an image. Object detection creates individual computational model for each object, which becomes  
520 essential input for computer vision-based applications (Sharma and Mir, 2020). Previously, the  
521 researchers used color-based and machine learning method for forest fire detection. Color-based forest  
522 fire detection is a technique that utilizes the color properties of forest fire and smoke to identify pixels  
523 (Zhentian et al., 2018). Meanwhile, object detection in machine learning is detection and locates the  
524 object in images or videos (Rahul et al., 2023). This method also known as traditional method (Patkar  
525 et al., 2024). There were nine selected studies that have applied object detection method in detecting  
526 forest fires. Four out of the nine studies have implemented data augmentation techniques to further  
527 enrich the training dataset. Apart from that, hyperparameter optimization has also been implemented  
528 in Almasoud et al. (2023) work to further improve the accuracy. In general, one of the selected studies  
529 used a UAV-based image dataset, two of the studies used satellite image datasets, and the remaining  
530 studies utilised ground fire image dataset for the purpose of detecting forest fires.

531

### 532 **3.2.1 YOLOv3-tiny**

533 In Jiao et al. (2019) work, they have used UAV-captured aerial imagery as a training dataset to fit their  
534 YOLOv3-tiny model. The backbones of the network are ResNet and Darknet-19, which are used to  
535 extract the optimal set of features. A multi-scale approach through feature pyramid network (FPN) are  
536 used to locate the best bounding box. The training process for the model consisted of 60,000 epochs,  
537 with each batch utilises a set of 64 images. The results indicate that the detection rate is 83%, tested on  
538 a set of 60 images. However, in order for the proposed model to be useful for a small-scale detection,  
539 it needs to further enhanced since it is not capable to detect early-stage fires before they become  
540 wildfires. They also found out that data augmentation usage, when applied to a larger image dataset  
541 can enhance the accuracy of forest fire detection system. However, the authors also do not mention the  
542 limitations of using small-scale UAVs for forest fire detection.

543

### 544 **3.2.2 DNCNN + Hidden Markov Model**

545 In order to reduce the number of false alarms, Hung et al. (2019) developed a method that integrates  
546 DL model with the Hidden Markov Model (HMM). The authors utilised a set of standard data  
547 augmentation techniques, which include image rotation and flipping of the horizontal and vertical axes.



548 The authors used the CNN model with the aim of determining the status of each picture in each frame.  
549 The deep normalisation CNN (DNCNN) architecture was considered as the object detection algorithm.  
550 For buffer checking, Faster R-CNN model was employed during the training phase. For the training of  
551 the HMM, the output of DNCNN is used to identify the video frame class. The authors have utilised  
552 4,555 test images and 5,295 training images for the CNN analysis. On the other hand, the video dataset  
553 consists of 613 testing frames and 827 training frames. The results show that the DNCNN outperformed  
554 AlexNet, ZF-Net, and GoogleNet in terms of prediction performance. The authors claimed that the  
555 suggested method reduces the number of false alarms from 288 to 33 incidents, or an 88.54% reduction  
556 rate. The paper lacks a comparison between the proposed system and current fire detection methods or  
557 algorithms, hindering the evaluation of its performance in comparison to other approaches.

558

### 559 **3.2.3 h-EfficientDet**

560 In this work, Li et al. (2021a) have developed a deep model based on object detection approach, called  
561 h-EfficientDet, which was adapted from the well-known DL algorithm, EfficientDet. The revised  
562 model substitutes the nonlinear activation function from swish to the hard swish version and combines  
563 it with an effective feature fusion system known as BIFPN. The resultant detection accuracy could  
564 reach as good as 98.35 %. The suggested fire detection method was evaluated using a dataset of 4,282  
565 fire images, trained using an Adam optimization adaptive learning rate strategy. Three performance  
566 measures were utilised that include frame rate (FPS), mean absolute precision (mAP), and miss rate  
567 (MR) to validate the efficiency of the forest fire detection. The proposed system is very efficient at  
568 detecting tiny forest fire incidences, with a real-time detection rate of 97.73% accuracy. However, the  
569 authors do not compare the performance of h-EfficientDet with other algorithms, making it difficult to  
570 assess its superiority.

571

### 572 **3.2.4 SRN-YOLO**

573 In this study, the authors proposed SRN-YOLO, which is an upgraded version of YOLO-V3 combined  
574 with a sparse residual network (SRN) in order to identify forest fires precisely by using a more efficient  
575 network architecture (Li et al., 2022). There are a total of 880 images, whereby 704 images are for  
576 training and 176 images are for testing. The batch size is configured to be 64, while the momentum is  
577 fixed at 0.9 and the subdivision size is configured to be 8, as well as the decay is configured to be  
578 0.005. In order to increase the convergence rate of the model during the early stages of training, the  
579 LR is fixed at 0.001; after which, the number of iterations hits 2500, 5000, and 7500, the LR value

580 decreases by a factor of 10% compared to the prior value. The results indicate that the proposed  
581 approach produces a good balance of performance with a minimal missed detection rate and is more  
582 accurate compared to the other YOLO architectures. This demonstrates the usefulness of the proposed  
583 approach in identifying forest fire incidents. However, the authors only used eight videos of forest fire,  
584 which is quite small and did not mention about non-forest fire videos. Therefore, the authors need to  
585 use more videos of different situations to test the strength of the model in real forest fire conditions.

586

### 587 **3.2.5 Mohnish et al. Architecture**

588 Mohnish et al. (2022) has implemented another CNN-based object detection algorithm to detect and  
589 send warnings about forest fires that has been employed on a Raspberry Pi platform. The developed  
590 system was trained and validated by using a set of 2500 fire and 2500 non-fire images that were  
591 retrieved from an open-source website. The authors have also used an image generator to augment the  
592 training dataset. A dropout is embedded into the architecture to reduce the likelihood of overfitting  
593 issue. However, the authors only use accuracy results but in image classification we need other metrics  
594 to prevent overfitting results and give more information about the results.

595

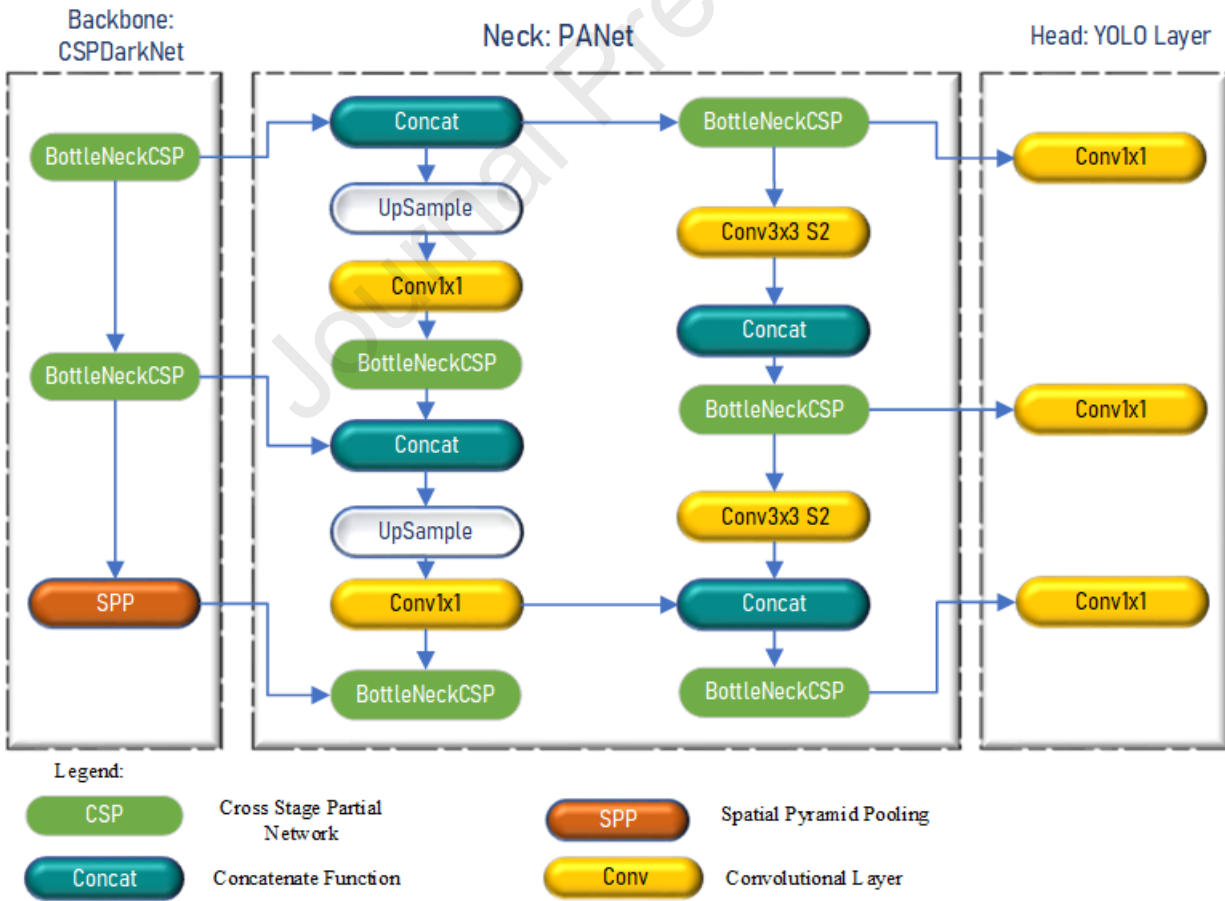
### 596 **3.2.6 ResNet18-saliency**

597 In order to develop a comprehensive forest fire detection system, Peng and Wang (2022) combined  
598 several techniques and then deployed them in a real-time C++ environment. The system consists of  
599 three main components, which are motion detection, visual saliency detection (VSD), and classification  
600 of fire images using transfer learning methodology. In order to effectively retrieve the relevant object  
601 of interest, the authors only applied the VSD algorithm to the maps that contained moving objects by  
602 using ResNet-18 as the backbone. They have used a real-world video dataset of 11 videos with fire  
603 incidences and 16 videos without fire incidences for the validation purposes. One frame is sampled  
604 from a video data for every eight frames to update the background model of the system. Their system  
605 has detected 15 false alarms out of 1,329 detections for 16 non-fire videos, producing 1.12% false  
606 positives with overall accuracy of 99.28%. The authors concluded that the classification strategy based  
607 on DL has offered the benefits of rapid detection with good identification accuracy. The authors do not  
608 address the possible constraints of implementing the suggested approach on various platforms.

609

610 **3.2.7 YOLOv5**

611 Another object detection work that focuses on UAV imaging to map out the fire zone was designed by  
 612 Tahir et al. (2022). They proposed a YOLOv5-based object detection system to detect fires based on  
 613 the FireNet and FLAME aerial image datasets. These datasets have been augmented using image  
 614 processing operators such as brightness, exposure, noise, cropping, saturation, cut-out, hue, blur,  
 615 mosaic, etc. Operators that have produced additional three outputs for the training dataset. The LR and  
 616 batch size have been fixed at 0.00001 and 16, respectively and trained for a maximum epoch of 350.  
 617 The resultant outputs showed that the average accuracy is 97.14%, recall is 91.89%, and F1-score is  
 618 94.44%. The loss rate of the training box is 0.0168, while the loss of the training object is 0.00738.  
 619 Based on the results, the model is efficient in real-time fire detection with good accuracy. However,  
 620 the authors have also incorporated other types of wildfire images, not limited to UAV, which makes  
 621 the system require large input data as illustrated in Figure 5.



622

623

Figure 5 Three significant phases of YOLOv5 (Tahir et al., 2022)

624

### 625 **3.2.8 YOLO**

626 Wang et al. (2022) proposed an object detection model that could detect and identify the incidence of  
627 forest fire rapidly and precisely using minimal computation, low level equipment, and a small DL  
628 model. The authors suggested that their approach has a good level sensitivity and accuracy when tested  
629 using fire dataset that contains 1442, 617, and 617 of training, testing and validation images,  
630 respectively. The model is 27 initialized with a transfer learning approach and then trained for 80  
631 epochs with a batch size fixed at 8, and 0.001 LR, coded on the PyTorch framework. The reported  
632 results indicated that the proposed model's prediction accuracy is 83.9% and its recall rate is 96.9%.  
633 This model is useful for development of lightweight forest fire monitoring products. Nevertheless, the  
634 test images that contain forest fires are relatively scarce and lead to the dataset imbalance problem,  
635 which can be addressed by using data augmentation techniques.

636

### 637 **3.2.9 ACNN-BLSTM**

638 An intelligent DL-based wild forest fire detection and warning system, IWFFDA-DL, was developed  
639 by Almasoud (2023). To identify the presence of a forest fire, an ACNN-BLSTM model, which is an  
640 attention-based convolutional neural network with BiLSTM was used. This ACNN-BLSTM  
641 hyperparameters were tuned using the bacterial foraging optimization (BFO) method, which directly  
642 enhances the detection efficiency. When a fire incident is discovered, the authorities will receive  
643 signals from the Global System for Mobile (GSM) modem, allowing them to take immediate  
644 appropriate mitigation action. The model achieved a good accuracy rate of 99.56%, recall – 99.46%,  
645 F-Score – 98.65, and exceeded the other benchmarked methods performance. This paper is another  
646 example of works that utilizes hyperparameter optimization to demonstrate better performance  
647 outcomes, and directly validated the importance of the model optimization. However, this work only  
648 focuses on three classes, namely normal, potential and extreme. Therefore, we cannot determine  
649 whether this model is good or not for forest fire detection. The structure of the BLSTM model utilized  
650 in this work of forest fire warning and detection is illustrated in Figure 6.

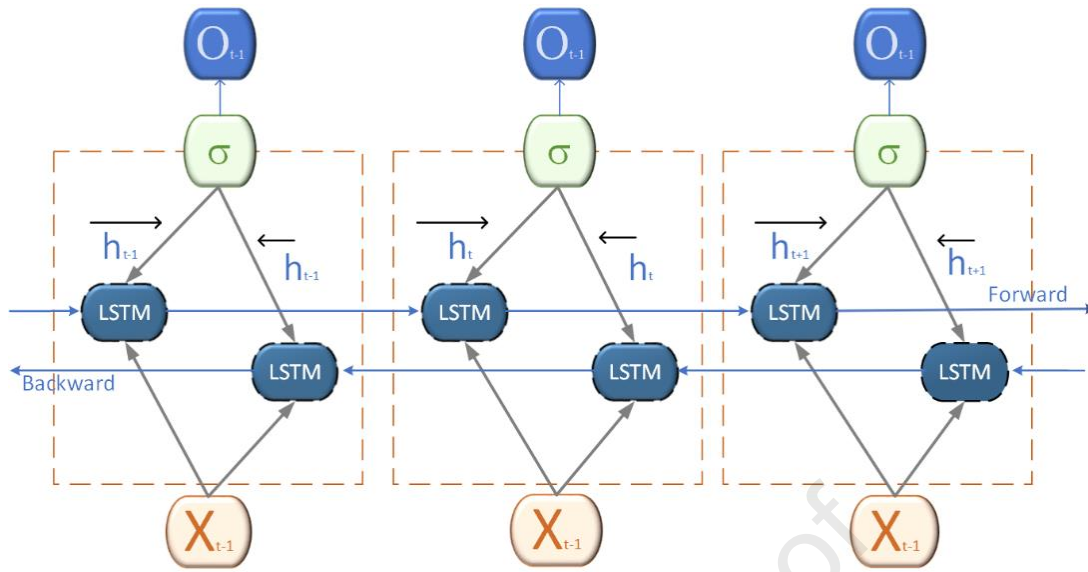


Figure 6 BLSTM model structure (Almasoud, 2023)

651

652

653

### 654 3.2.10 Fire-GAN

655 In this research, the authors Ciprián-Sánchez et al. (2021a) evaluated the effectiveness of Generative  
 656 Adversarial Networks (GAN) method, to enable the DL model to adapt to various forest fire scenarios.  
 657 Firstly, the authors employed a VGG-19 network that has already been pretrained on ImageNet to  
 658 extract multi-layer features. A GAN-based network model was proposed to integrate infrared and  
 659 visible channels. The authors used the Corsican Fire Dataset, which includes ground truth segmentation  
 660 map of the forest fire regions, along with 640 sets of visible and near-infrared (NIR) fire images. In  
 661 addition, 477 visible-NIR image combinations without fire incidents are also added to the RGB-NIR  
 662 data collection. After performing the data augmentation techniques, there are 128 image combinations  
 663 for the validation set and 8192 images for the training set. The model developed by the authors can  
 664 identify the best performing combination of these parameters. The efficiency of the model can be  
 665 improved and overfitting can be reduced by collecting more pairs. The authors stated that their study  
 666 could improve wildfire fighting by using visible-NIR images to detect and segment wildfires  
 667 accurately. Table 4 shows the summary of detection-based methods in forest fire detection studies.

668

### 669 3.2.11 Transfer Learning and Improved Faster RCNN

670 The author proposed a method for forest fire detection using transfer learning and improved Faster  
 671 RCNN (Xie and Huang, 2023). Transfer learning with pre-trained ResNet50 network and Faster RCNN  
 672 with feature fusion and attention were integrated. The ImageNet dataset was used for transfer learning,

673 initializing the convolutional layer of Faster RCNN. The method achieved 93.7% detection accuracy  
 674 in aerial images. However, it is important to note that the authors did not provide a thorough analysis  
 675 of the computational requirements or efficiency of the proposed method. Such a lack of detail could  
 676 potentially pose a limitation in real-world applications.

677  
 678

679 Table 4 Detection-based methods for forest fire monitoring and surveillance.

Authors	Year	Method	Architecture	Accuracy	Application	Augmentation	Type of Data
Hung et al. (2019)	2019	DN-CNN	Faster R-CNN, Hidden Markov Model (HMM)	Detection rate - 96%	Detection	Yes	Image & Video
Jiao et al. (2019)	2019	CNN	YOLOv3	the detection rate can reach 83%.	Detection	No	UAV Image
Li et al. (2021a)	2021	h-EfficientDet	EfficientDet and h-EfficientDet	Accuracy - 98.35%	Detection	No	Image
Peng and Wang (2022)	2022	CNN	SqueezeNet1.1, AlexNet, MobileNetV3 Large and Small MobileNetV1 0.25 & 1.0, MobileNetV2 0.25 & 1.0, ResNet18, & VGG-16	Accuracy - 99.28%.	Detection	No	Image
Li et al. (2022)	2022	CNN	YOLOv3, YOLO-LITE, Tinier-YOLO	mAP - 96.05%	Detection	No	Image
Mohnish et al. (2022)	2022	CNN	CNN	Accuracy - 92.20%	Detection	Yes	Image
Tahir et al. (2022)	2022	CNN	YOLOv5	F1-score - 94.44%.	Detection	Yes	UAV Image
Wang et al. (2022)	2022	CNN	YOLO	Accuracy - 83.9%	Detection	No	Image
Almasoud (2023)	2023	IWFF DA-DL,	ACNN-BLSTM optimized BFO & YOLO v3	Accuracy - 99.56%.	Detection	No	Image

		ACN N- BLST M					
Ciprián-Sánchez et al. (2021a)	2021	CNN	Fire-GAN, VGG-19	Information entropy EN - 10	Classification	Yes	Image
Xie and Huang (2023)	2023	Transfer Learning and Improved Faster RCNN	ResNet50 network and Faster RCNN with feature fusion and attention	Accuracy - 93.7%	Detection	No	UAV image

680

### 681 3.3 Segmentation

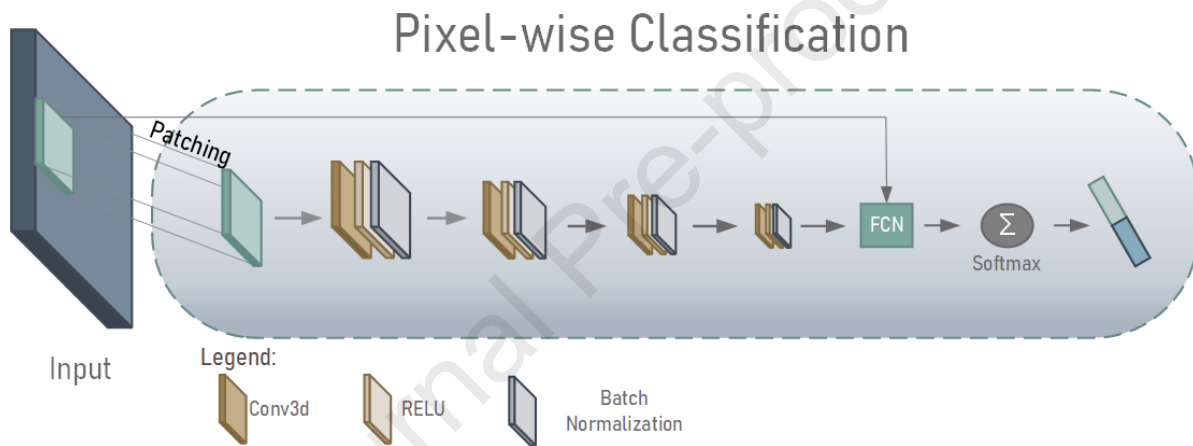
682 Apart from classification and detection tasks, image segmentation technique has also been explored by  
683 many researchers to detect the forest fire incidents. Segmentation can be defined as a technique  
684 employed to partition an image into multiple sections or segments (Tan, 2016). It can be conceptualized  
685 as instructing an individual to delineate boundaries surrounding objects in a given image. The resultant  
686 output of the segmentation process is a set of segmented areas that collectively encompass the entirety  
687 of the image or a series of contours extracted from the image (Nadipally, 2019). In this comprehensive  
688 review, only five studies have employed the segmentation algorithm for forest fires detection. Out of  
689 these five papers, Seydi et al. (2022) work that used a Deep CNN model has produced the highest level  
690 of precision. Besides, three of the studies rely on satellite imagery, while the other two studies rely on  
691 ground forest fire imagery. The five proposed DL architectures are 3D CNN, SqueezeNet, F-Unet,  
692 Fire-Net, and Fully CNN, which have been finetuned for segmentation application.

693

#### 694 3.3.1 Toan et al. Architecture

695 Instead of using the popular Landsat satellite imagery, Toan et al. (2019) have used the GOES-16  
696 satellite imagery as the training data for their study. The multilayer structure of DL architectures,  
697 especially deep neural networks, allow the usage of multispectral input in both temporal and spatial

698 dimensions, whereby they have used VIIRS-AFP, MODIS-Terra, GOES-AFP, and AVHRR-FIMMA  
 699 methods. The authors implemented a layer of patch normalisation to improve the dataset's training  
 700 potential with a relatively small dataset of 168 images of fire and 48 images of non-fire. Their results  
 701 show that the proposed technique achieves 96.05% precision, 91.89% recall, and 94% F1-score by  
 702 using only random search hyperparameter optimization. The purposely-built model also has a low lag  
 703 time, with only 2.6 hours of training time compared to the other models. The authors used the data  
 704 augmentation method to increase the dataset and avoid high errors in the proposed model. The  
 705 utilization of a spatio-spectral deep neural network has been found to be useful for predicting the early-  
 706 stage forest fires as shown in Figure 7.



707  
 708 Figure 7 The utilization of a spatio-spectral deep neural network has been proposed as  
 709 a means of predicting wildfires in their early stages (Toan et al., 2019)

710

### 711 3.3.2 SqueezeNet

712 For extracting the fire maps, Wang et al. (2019) have employed SqueezeNet as the backbone and  
 713 incorporated an additional framework to produce a precise forest fire segmentation model. The authors  
 714 used the CIFAR-10 dataset, which contains 60,000 images that are split into 10 classes, resulting in  
 715 6,000 images for each class. Fifty thousand images are used for training, while ten thousand images  
 716 are used for testing purposes. The parameter size of the improved SqueezeNet is 0.53 MB that produces  
 717 detection accuracy of 0.942%. The authors have further tested the proposed model on two more forest  
 718 fire videos for experimental purposes. The authors have elucidated that the proposed methodology is  
 719 capable of segmenting the forest fire areas, even when the image is partially obstructed by smoke noise.  
 720 The outcomes proved that the proposed methodology is appropriate for forest fire monitoring,



721 especially in detecting early breakout fires. However, the authors need to provide other metrics results  
722 to give more information about model's performance.

723

### 724 **3.3.3 F-Unet**

725 In this study, the authors utilized a segmentation model of F-Unet framework, which is modified from  
726 U-Net models, for the identification of forest fires (Li et al., 2021b). The authors have utilised the  
727 FLAME dataset, which consists of 2003 fire images. This study shows that the addition of a feature  
728 fusion network to the U-Net architecture enable the model to incorporate several feature maps of  
729 varying sizes effectively in an attempt to improve the model's segmentation accuracy. The results  
730 showed that F-Unet enhances the mean pixel accuracy (MPA) of Unet by 8.42% and improve the mean  
731 intersection over union (MioU) of Unet by 7.45%. The findings demonstrated that F-Unet is suitable  
732 as a forest fire segmentation model that greatly enhances the efficiency of the early detection system.  
733 The findings also proved that the incorporation of feature-fusion module can lead to a more efficient  
734 segmentation model of forest fires with a reduced FPS. However, the authors have not addressed  
735 possible challenges in implementing the proposed feature fusion network.

736

### 737 **3.3.4 Fire-Net**

738 In this study, Seydi et al. (2022) have suggested the utilization of Landsat-8 RGB and thermal images  
739 as a training dataset for the development of a novel segmentation model, which they have named as  
740 Fire-Net. The authors prepared 722 patches of 256x256 pixels, in which they are divided into training  
741 dataset of 469 patches, validation dataset of 109 patches, and testing dataset of 144 patches. For  
742 hyperparameter configurations, the authors used a batch size of 7 patches, a LR of 0.0001, and a  
743 maximum epoch of 250 epochs. The Fire-Net works very well in segmenting both non-active fire and  
744 active fire regions according to the performance metrics of F1-score, overall accuracy (OA), miss  
745 detection (MD), precision false positive rate (FPR), recall, and the kappa coefficient. It achieves an  
746 overall accuracy of 97.35% and can detect small active fires. The authors proved that the proposed  
747 model namely, Fire-Net could be applied to segment forest fire regions accurately using satellite  
748 imagery input. However, the authors do not mention the possible difficulties or disadvantages of  
749 utilizing Landsat-8 imagery for identifying fires.

750

### 751 3.3.5 Fully CNN

752 Instead of using a single forest fire event location, Sun (2022) trained a Fully CNN (FCNN)  
 753 segmentation model using Landsat-8 images. The results are very promising with F1 and F2 scores of  
 754 0.928 and 0.962, respectively. While, the precision performance is 0.878, and its recall value is 0.989.  
 755 In summary, there were active fires in 14,274 of the sampled images, and there were non-fire cases in  
 756 10,685 of the images. This model rarely missed identifying the active fire pixels, although sometimes  
 757 it was excessively sensitive and misidentified non-fire pixels for fire ones. The author should have  
 758 implemented data augmentation or transfer learning on the dataset to prevent overfitting issue. Table  
 759 5 shows the summary of segmentation architecture used in forest fire detection studies.

760  
761 Table 5 Segmentation-based methods for forest fire monitoring and surveillance.

Authors	Year	Method	Architecture	Accuracy	Application	Augmentation	Type of Data
Toan et al. (2019)	2019	CNN	3D CNN	F1-score - 94%	Segmentation	Yes	Satellite Image
Wang et al. (2019)	2019	CNN	SqueezeNet	Accuracy - 94.2%	Segmentation	No	Image
Li et al. (2021b)	2021	CNN	F-Unet, U-net	MPA - 94.77%	Segmentation	No	Image
Seydi et al. (2022)	2022	CNN	Deep CNN	Accuracy - 99.98	Segmentation	No	Satellite Image
Sun (2022)	2022	CNN	Fully - CNN, U-Net, U-Net Light	F1-score - 0.928	Segmentation	No	Satellite Image

762

### 763 3.4 Detection and Classification

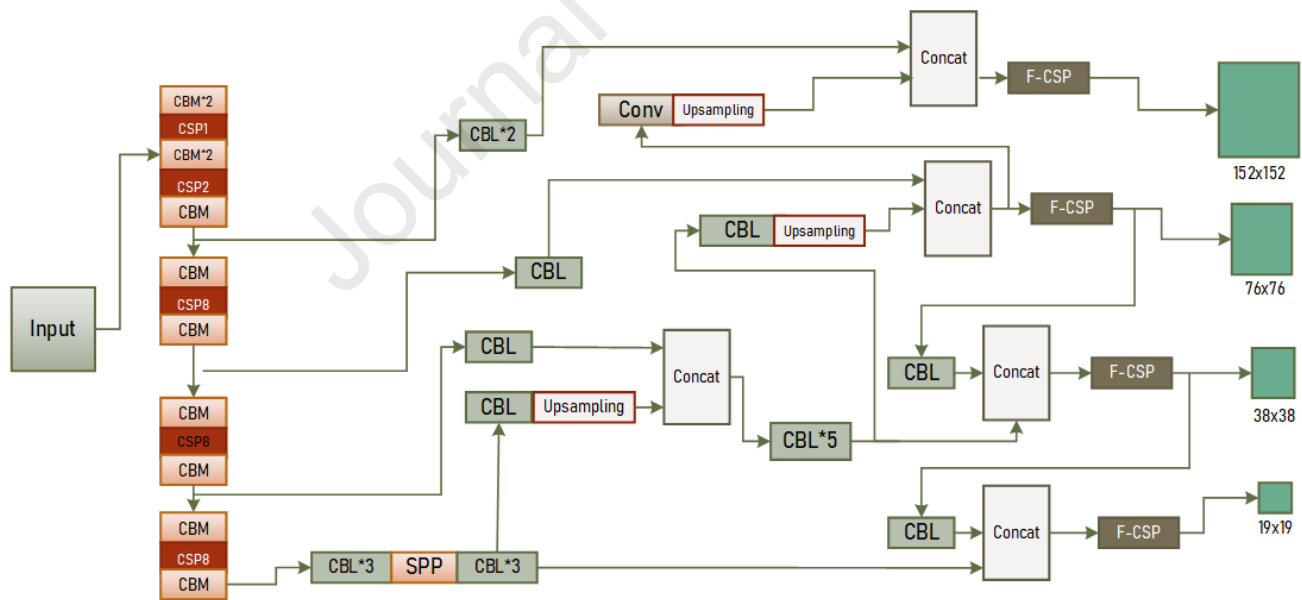
764 There are four studies have been selected for forest fire monitoring systems using a combination of  
 765 detection and classification tasks. Out of the four methods, only the work by Fan and Pei (2021) did  
 766 not implement any data augmentation method for the forest fire detection. On the other hand, the  
 767 highest accuracy out of the four methods is attained by Bai and Wang (2021) with 96.5% accuracy.  
 768 Bai and Wang (2021) have used a combination of YOLO and VGG architectures in their work.

769

### 770 3.4.1 YOLO+VGG

771 In this study, a combined YOLO+VGG have been to produce a joint decision for fire warning system.  
 772 This study used a transfer learning technique to initialised the models to identify the presence of smokes  
 773 and flames (Bai and Wang, 2021). The top layers of the original VGG are removed, while retaining  
 774 the bottom feature extraction layers. The decision-making layer for VGG has been improved by adding  
 775 leaky ReLU activation function, and dropout layers. Then, the YOLO network was configured with a  
 776 LR of 0.001, a parameter of weight decay of 0.0005, and a value of momentum of 0.9. A total of 3,500  
 777 images were included that consists of 1,600 images of forest fire and 1,900 images of non-forest fire.  
 778 The dataset was further expanded by a factor of 10 using data augmentation techniques through random  
 779 crop, translation, and scale operators. The detection speed run at 30.9 frames per second with a mAP  
 780 performance of 96.5%. These results shown that the data augmentation is important to prevent the  
 781 overfitting issue when used imbalanced dataset. This work is suitable for early detection of forest fire  
 782 systems that rely on low FPS input using an optimized YOLO structure as shown in Figure 9.

783



784

785 Figure 8 The network structure of YOLO that has been optimized and demonstrated  
 786 by Bai and Wang (2021)

787

### 788 3.4.2 YOLOv4-Light

789 The second method that employed a combination of detection and classification was proposed by Fan  
790 and Pei (2021) that modifies lightweight network structure YOLOv4-Light to detect forest fires. For  
791 the feature extraction network, MobileNet replaces the standard YOLOv4's backbone, while PANet's  
792 original convolution is replaced with a depth-wise separable convolution, which increases the  
793 prediction performance and makes it more appropriate for embedded system applications. The authors  
794 developed a FDRLS dataset that contains over 6,000 images, whereby the background class is  
795 significantly enriched with various information, whereas the forest class also covers a wide range of  
796 unique forest types from cold, tropical, and temperate zones. The authors also applied Mosaic for data  
797 enhancement. The authors also highlighted that they tested the false alarm of forest fire detection before  
798 and after the addition of red leaf recognition. They also produced good speed detection and model size  
799 to ensure it complied with the system.

### 800 3.4.3 YOLOV5S+MFEN

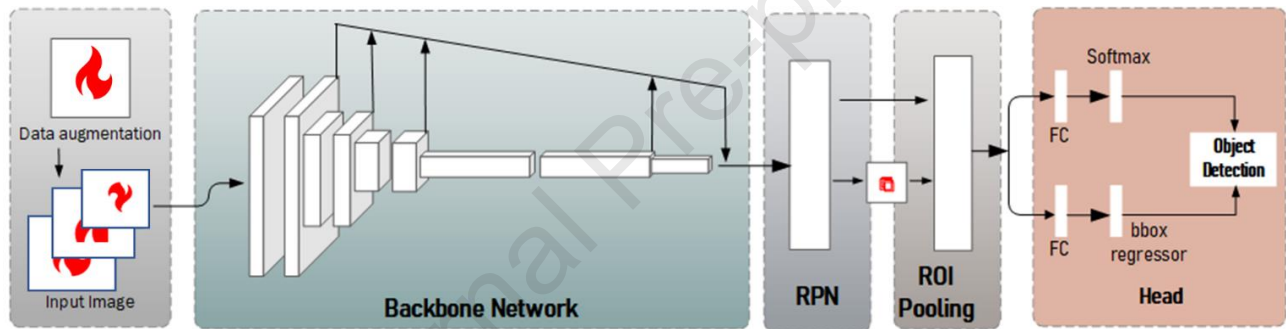
801 In this study, Wei et al. (2022) introduced YOLOV5S architectures, a recently introduced deep object  
802 detection model for detecting forest fires. The authors have setup a ratio of training to testing images  
803 to 80:20 that results in a self-created dataset with 11,520 training and 2,880 testing images. The authors  
804 utilized mosaic data augmentation techniques, including scaling, rotation, translation, and cropping  
805 operations, at both the image-level and pixel-level. The SGD optimizer with a cosine annealing LR set  
806 to 0.01 was used to fit the model for a maximum of 900 epochs. The batch size value was fixed at 32,  
807 while the momentum and weight decay coefficient were set to 0.937 and 0.005, respectively. In order  
808 to extract contextual information from multi-scale objects in complex visual scenes, the authors devised  
809 a model with multi-scale feature extraction network (MFEN). This technique works particularly well  
810 for real-time forest fire monitoring, making it appropriate for deployment to edge devices with limited  
811 computing resources. However, the model required a larger size to detect the wild flame compared to  
812 wild smoke compared to DNCNN-based model.

813

### 814 3.4.4 DetNAS

815 The last algorithm that uses a combination of detection and classification models to identify forest fire  
816 incidents was introduced by Tran et al. (2022) that is based on neural architecture search-based object  
817 detection (DetNAS). The authors deployed Faster R-CNN, testing it with various backbones that  
818 include ResNet, VoVNet, FBNetV3, and ShuffleNet V2. Furthermore, a part of ShuffleNetV2 block

819 has also been embedded in the network as a searchable element in the backbone network. The batch  
 820 size is set at 16 images, and the models were trained for a maximum of 10,000 epochs with an initial  
 821 LR of 0.15. The authors found a forest fire detection performance of 27.9 mAP, supporting the use of  
 822 a lightweight ShuffleNet V2 model. The model was trained using 349,774 combined CCTV images  
 823 and weather data, and evaluated on 39,243 CCTV images. Simple data augmentation techniques were  
 824 used to enrich the training dataset. The results were validated on a forest fire outbreak dataset with  
 825 2,128 events. The RMSE for each test fold is about 2.6, which indicates that the model overfits the  
 826 train data and generates subpar predictions using the test dataset. The models obtained a low mAP  
 827 value due to the smoke visual similarities as well as many classes of dataset. The modified Faster R-  
 828 CNN architecture, as depicted in Figure 9, has been first introduced by Tran et al. (2022). Table 6  
 829 shows the summary of detection and segmentation applications in forest fire detection studies.



830  
831 Figure 9 Architecture of Faster R-CNN illustrated by Tran et al. (2022)  
832

833  
834 Table 6 A combination of detection and segmentation-based methods for forest fire monitoring and  
835 surveillance.

Authors	Year	Method	Architecture	Accuracy	Type	Augmentation	Type of Data
Bai and Wang (2021)	2021	CNN	YOLO & VGG network	Accuracy - 96.5%	Detection & Classification	Yes	Image
Fan and Pei (2021)	2021	CNN	YOLOv4 & MobileNet	mAP - 75.72	Detection & Classification	No	Image

Wei et al. (2022)	2022	CNN	YOLOv5S & Mobilenetv3	Accuracy - 90.5%	Detection & Classification	Yes	Image
Tran et al. (2022)	2022	DetNAS	ShuffleNetV2, Faster R-CNN model with VoVNet, ResNet, & FBNetV3	mAP - 27.9	Detection & Classification	Yes	Image

836

### 837 3.5 Segmentation and Classification

838 Among the selected papers, there are only four studies that have used a combination of segmentation  
839 and classification methods. Interestingly, all of these studies have implemented some forms of data  
840 augmentation techniques. The accuracy attained by Ghali et al. (2022) produced the best forest fire  
841 detection score of 99.95% accuracy by deploying a combination of DenseNet-201 and EfficientNet-  
842 B5 models (TransUNet and TransFire) with the DCNN (EfficientSeg) architecture.

843

#### 844 3.5.1 Fire\_Net

845 In a study by Zhao et al. (2018), they have utilized a 15-layered Deep Convolutional Neural Network  
846 (DCNN) called Fire\_Net, which was modified from the 8-layered AlexNet model. The authors argued  
847 that the methodology for integrating saliency identification and Deep Learning (DL) for forest fire  
848 recognition has not yet been made available. Thus, they utilised 1500 imagery taken from various  
849 modalities to explore optimal model configuration for forest fire recognition. This combined dataset  
850 comprises of 908 images without fire incidents and 632 images with fire incidents. The saliency  
851 segmentation method was employed by the authors to augment the training dataset to a total of more  
852 than 3,500 images. The results indicate that the model achieved an accuracy of 98% and 97.7% for  
853 with and without augmented data, respectively. However, the proposed model is weak against the mist  
854 noise during fire incidents. The authors suggested IR sensors be incorporated as part of the decision-  
855 making layers to assess whether or not a fire has occurred.

856

### 857 **3.5.2 U-Net, ResNet34, and U-ResNet34**

858 Another work that combines both segmentation and classification models for forest fire recognition  
859 was proposed by Khryashchev and Larionov (2020) that uses a combined approach of ResNet-34, U-  
860 Net, and U-ResNet34 to recognize forest fires based on satellite images. The model was trained and  
861 tested using 1457 and 393 high-resolution satellite images, respectively. For the data augmentation  
862 techniques, the authors employed random chromatic distortion method applied in HSV colour format.  
863 This method improves the robustness of the algorithm for noisy imagery due to glare from reflective  
864 surfaces and small clouds. The authors also highlighted that augmented data have improved the model  
865 performance from F1-score of 0.371 to 0.465. However, when the authors applied the random  
866 chromatic distortion method, the model could not recognize the forest fire in clay areas. Therefore, the  
867 authors need to apply another data augmentation method to improve the models.

868

### 869 **3.5.3 EfficientNet-B5 + DenseNet-201, EfficientSeg, TransUNet + TransFire**

870 Instead used a single deep model, Ghali et al. (2022) employed ensemble DL approach through two  
871 vision transformers to identify and classify forest fire incidents. They have integrated the DenseNet-  
872 201 and EfficientNet-B5 models and also EfficientSeg with two vision transformers (TransFire and  
873 TransUNet) to perform forest fires segmentation and localization. They have validated the performance  
874 by using FLAME dataset, which is a freely accessible database with a total of 48,010 RGB images,  
875 which have been divided into 17,855 images of non-fire incidents and 30,155 images of fire incidents.  
876 For the purpose of forest fires segmentation, an additional collection of 2003 RGB images has been  
877 added to the training dataset. The following data augmentation methods were used by the authors: shift  
878 with random values, zoom, shear, and rotation. The proposed ensemble model of classification  
879 obtained higher accuracy compare to other models. However, the proposed ensemble model needed  
880 more inference time. For segmentation, the TransUNet-R50-ViT also obtained good accuracy –  
881 99.90% and F1-score – 99.90%. This model also needed more inference time after TransFire and  
882 EfficeintSeg.

883

### 884 **3.5.4 U-Net, FusionNet, VGG-16**

885 In this last work, Ciprián-Sánchez et al. (2021b) argued that a deep segmentation model for fire  
886 detection is primarily affected by the model's loss function and architecture. The models that have been

887 evaluated by the authors are VGG-16-based Frizzi architecture, visible FusionNet-based Choi  
 888 architecture, U-Net-based Akhloufi architecture, Focal Tversky, Dice, and Unified Focal losses. The  
 889 performance was verified using NIR images from the Corsican Fire Database, as well as additional two  
 890 kinds of merged visible-NIR images created by Li et al. (2018) and Ciprián-Sánchez et al. (2021a).  
 891 After the data augmentation methods have been applied, the full dataset consists of 8192 images of  
 892 training data and a 128 images of test data. For performance and correlation analysis, the Akhloufi +  
 893 Focal Tversky + visible combination is the best combination and hyperparameter setting. However,  
 894 when the authors added the attention modules to improve the results, the combination only slightly  
 895 improved the results. The authors have also demonstrated that forest fire recognition performance can  
 896 be influenced by both its loss function and architecture. Table 7 shows the summary of detection and  
 897 segmentation applications used in the selected forest fire detection studies.

898

899 Table 7 A combination of segmentation and classification-based methods for forest  
 900 fire monitoring and surveillance.

Authors	Year	Method	Architecture	Accuracy	Application	Augmentation	Type of Data
Zhao et al. (2018)	2018	DCNN	Deep CNN - Saliency	Accuracy - 98%	Segmentation and Classification	Yes	Aerial, UAV, Satellite and Ordinary View Image
Khryashchev and Larionov (2020)	2020	CNN	U-Net & ResNet34	F1-score - 0.465	Segmentation and Classification	Yes	Satellite Image
Ciprián-Sánchez et al. (2021b)	2021	CNN	U-Net, FusionNet & VGG-16	F1-score - 0.9263	Segmentation and Classification	Yes	Image
Ghali et al. (2022)	2022	DCNN	TransU-Net, TransFire, EfficientSeg, EfficientNet-B5 and DenseNet-201	Accuracy - 99.9%	Segmentation and Detection	Yes	Image

901

902



## 903 4 General Discussion

904 This review provides a comprehensive investigation on the forest fires detection using DL methods,  
905 emphasising both the significant potentials and drawbacks of the reviewed methods. While DL models  
906 have shown the capacity to successfully analyse vast and complex data, which have enhanced the  
907 detection accuracy over conventional approaches, this review would like to highlight a number of  
908 limitations that must be overcome to fully realise the complete systems.

909 Classification-based algorithm is the most popular method used to detect forest fires and  
910 wildfires among the reviewed DL methods. A total of 15 studies have primarily designed forest fires  
911 recognition system based on the classification-algorithms, followed by 11 studies that utilized object  
912 detection algorithms. Furthermore, five reviewed studies have focused on image segmentation-based  
913 algorithms that subdivide the images into distinct regions or segments. Additionally, four of the  
914 reviewed studies have implemented a combination approach of segmentation and classification  
915 algorithms, while another four studies employed a combination of detection and segmentation  
916 strategies. The forest fires image dataset was used as the primary input modality for most of the  
917 reviewed studies that includes both forest fire and non- forest fire images. Some researchers have also  
918 included smoke images as part of the training data. Due to the dataset imbalance between the videos,  
919 satellite images, and UAV images, many authors have employed data augmentation techniques to  
920 produce a more balanced training dataset. Based on the statistics, 20 of the reviewed studies have  
921 employed data augmentation methods, while the remaining 19 studies did not. This review also  
922 discovered that studies that used data augmentation methods typically performed better and produced  
923 better performance accuracy (> 90%). Figure 10 depicts a summary of the type of dataset, type of DL  
924 algorithms, and number of reviewed studies that have used data augmentation methods.

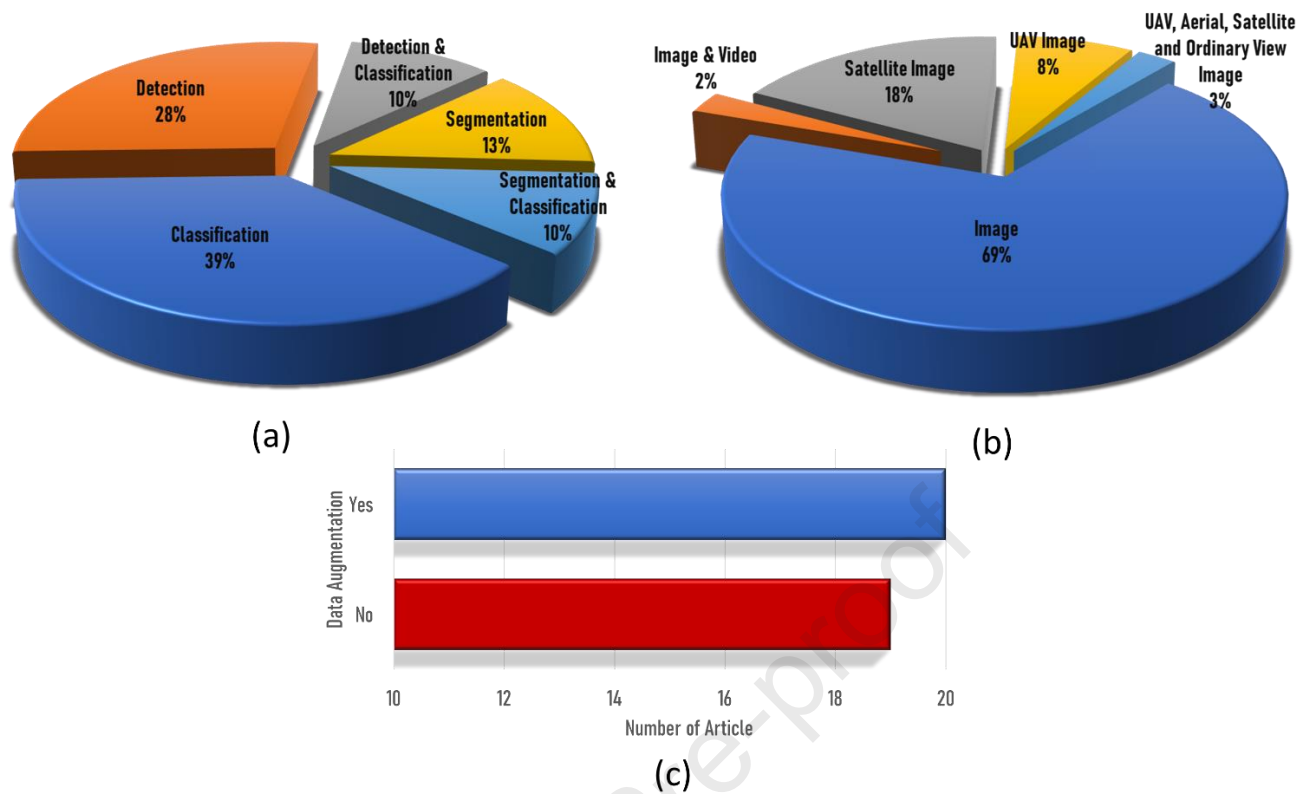


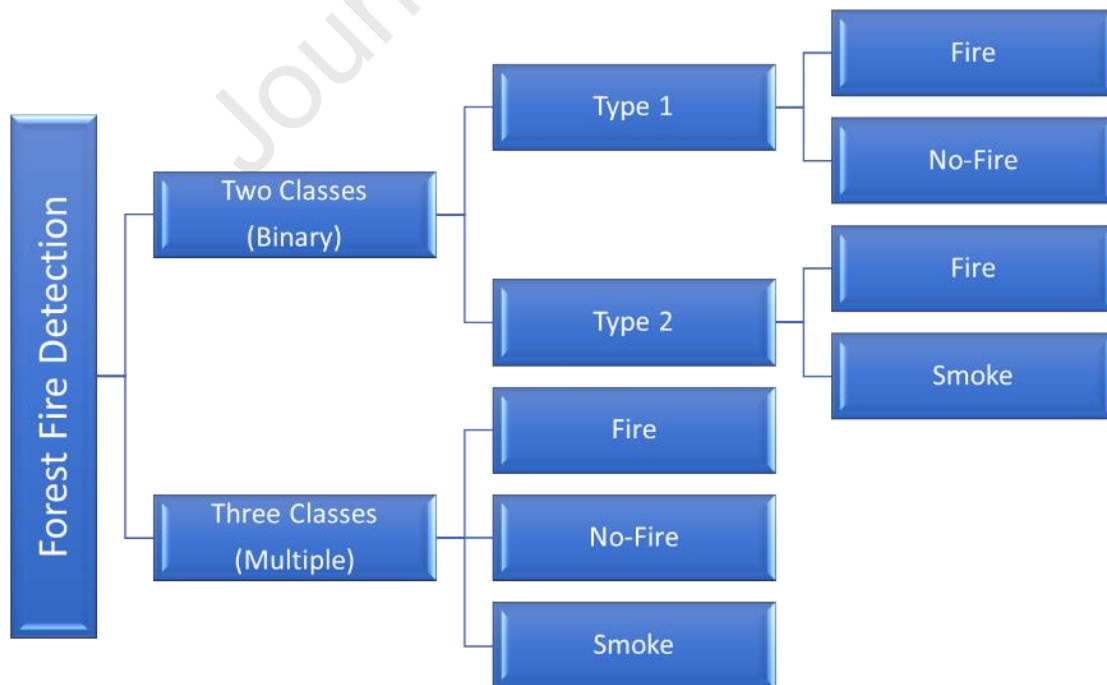
Figure 10 A summary of (a) DL applications for selected forest fire studies (b) Type of data used in forest fire studies (c) Number of publications that have used data augmentation techniques.

925  
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927  
928  
929

930 One of the biggest problems among the current methods is the needs for a wide range of high-  
931 quality training data that accurately mimics different scenarios of forest fire incidents. To capture this  
932 set of intricate feature representations, a significant amount of diverse training data is necessary for a  
933 deep learning network (Abdani et al., 2022). Without this kind of data, DL models run the risk of  
934 becoming too specific to the training data and do not able to make a good generalization when it  
935 encounters a new data. Moreover, many researchers note that DL models are frequently referred to as  
936 "black box" models, which might hinder interpretability and transparency of the model as many  
937 architectures needs to be fine-tuned for any specific applications. Therefore, Quach et al. (2023)  
938 employed a two-part approach involving Explainable Artificial Intelligence for smart agriculture to  
939 assess how effectively deep learning models recognise various features within images: (1) evaluating  
940 the deep learning model's accuracy using assessment techniques, and (2) employing Grad-CAM to  
941 interpret the model's ability to detect image features. Additionally, Huang et al. (2023) utilised  
942 Bayesian Deep Detectors (BDD) to evaluate uncertainty in SAR target detection. Their primary  
943 objective is to offer insights into the confidence levels associated with classification and localization

944 results. The ability to generalise well is crucial in many applications, and data augmentation has  
 945 become a crucial method for increasing the accuracy and reliability of the DL model (Elizar et al.,  
 946 2023). For example, Kang et al. (2022) and Khryashchev and Larionov (2020) have utilized data  
 947 segmentation methods to increase their training dataset size, which have resulted in improved forest  
 948 fire detection performance.

949 Another issue that needs to be resolved in most of the reviewed studies is the imbalanced class  
 950 distribution of the data. If a DL model is trained with imbalanced dataset, undesirable outcomes might  
 951 occur as the training process will skew towards a particular class (Alzubaidi et al., 2021). Therefore,  
 952 some studies generated advanced synthetic data through the usage of conditional GAN, with the aim  
 953 of equalizing the quantity of training data across different classes based on their respective labels  
 954 (Zulkifley et al., 2020, 2022). Another interesting finding is many studies that have optimized their  
 955 hyperparameter configuration generally produced a better forest fires detection rate as proposed by  
 956 Mashraqi et al. (2022). Besides that, we found another important factor affecting the DL-based  
 957 segmentation performance model, which are loss function and architecture design as highlighted by  
 958 Ciprián-Sánchez et al. (2021b). In general, we have also identified the three most common types of  
 959 classes for the purpose of forest fire surveillance system, as illustrated in Figure 11.



960  
 961 Figure 11 The general forest fire surveillance system class division.  
 962

963 Resolving bottlenecks in deep learning-based forest fire detection models is a critical attempt  
964 that requires comprehensive approaches to challenges. Therefore, the solution to this problem involves  
965 a number of approaches, such as hyperparameter tuning, hybrid transfer learning, and a combination  
966 of DL and machine learning methods. For instance, we can apply the Guo and Liu (2021) proposed  
967 method to DL-based forest fire detection model. Guo and Liu (2021) proposed the adoption of GAN  
968 for soft sensor modeling to address these DL limitations. Guo and Liu (2021) also introduced a hybrid  
969 framework that combines mechanisms and data-driven approaches to create a GAN-based soft sensor  
970 model, aiming to enhance interpretability and reliability in sensor-based predictions. Additionally, the  
971 transfer learning method can be applied to the forest fire detection model to improve the accuracy of  
972 detection. For instance, Xie and Huang (2023) have used ImageNet data for the purpose of transfer  
973 learning, initializing the convolutional layer for the Faster RCNN model. The proposed model has  
974 shown improvements in detection accuracy. Alice et al. (2023) employed Atom Search Optimization  
975 (ASO) to tune the hyperparameter ResNet model and transfer learning method. Based on the results,  
976 the authors found that the proposed method obtained good accuracy compared to the other models.  
977 Therefore, the review found that hybrid frameworks, transfer learning, and hyperparameter tuning can  
978 enhance the performance of DL-based models.

979 This review has demonstrated the efficacy of several DL architectures in identifying forest fires,  
980 trained by using different data sources, including fire images, satellite imagery, and UAV images. In  
981 addition, we have also highlighted the possible implications of collaboration between researchers and  
982 practitioners to enhance data sharing, device or tool improvement, and DL processes in forest fire  
983 detection. Although DL has significant potential for improving forest fire prevention and management,  
984 a significant improvement is still required in a number of critical areas, especially for detecting small  
985 size fire incidents, which is crucial for early detection system. Some of the domains that can be  
986 improved include the exploration of novel architectures and methods, the optimization of  
987 hyperparameters, and the consideration of practical issues of DL model (computational burden,  
988 memory size, etc.) for the detection of forest fires. DL models may become a useful method for forest  
989 fires prevention and management with continued research and collaboration among the researchers.  
990 Figure 12 depicts the summary of application, issues, and future work for forest fire detection using  
991 the DL models.

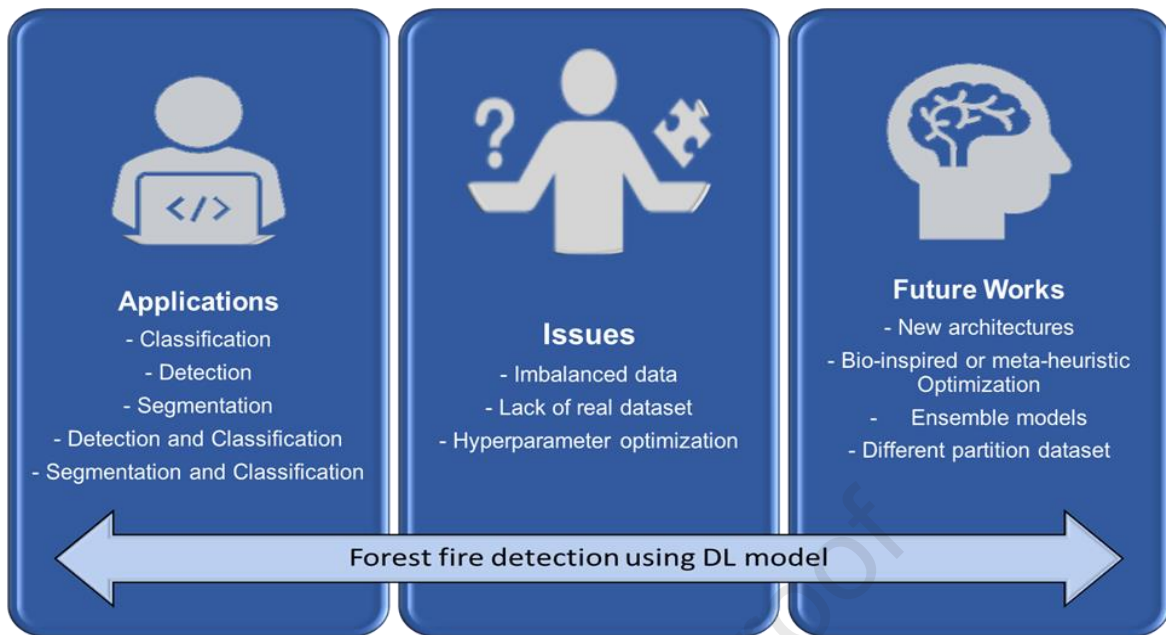


Figure 12 A summary of application, issues and future works for forest fire detection using DL model

## 5 Conclusion

This review paper presents an evaluation of the current state-of-the-art in forest fire detection and monitoring systems using DL-models. This review also evaluates the effectiveness and efficiency of several DL algorithms. We have also highlighted several limitations and challenges with the current methodologies, such as lack of training data and imbalanced dataset issues. These limitations will serve as the guidance to address the drawbacks with the aims to develop more reliable and precise forest fire detection systems. A direct performance comparison between the reviewed models or studies cannot be determined due to differences in applications and training datasets. Therefore, it is recommended to make performance comparison between different architectures using the same type of input modality and training dataset for the future work. In general, the adoption of the DL-model has substantially improved the capability of forest fire monitoring and mitigation strategies, but more researches are needed to fully realise their potential.

This aim of this review is to provide valuable implications for the development of more effective forest fire detection systems and provide valuable insights and recommendations for researchers and practitioners. By establishing more dependable and precise forest fire detection technologies, we can help prevent and reduce the destruction caused by forest fires. Based on this

1012 review, several recommendations are made for future work on forest fire detection: Parameter  
1013 optimization using meta-heuristics or bio-inspired optimization techniques such as ant colony  
1014 optimization and firefly optimization can be applied to determine the optimal hyperparameter settings.

1015 An area of potential research for forest fire monitoring and surveillance involves the integration  
1016 of multi-modality input from satellite imagery, unmanned aerial vehicles (UAV), and drones. This  
1017 multi-input system has the potential to offer precise and prompt information to relevant authorities. For  
1018 example, satellite imagery can be utilized to identify the location of a forest fire or to conduct a  
1019 preliminary assessment. While, UAV and drones have the potential to serve as a means of transmitting  
1020 live data pertaining to the magnitude of the burned areas and providing detailed images for loss  
1021 analysis. Additionally, they can be used to capture image of the affected areas, which is surely hard to  
1022 access. The utilization of UAV and drones not only mitigates the safety risk for the authorities, but also  
1023 enables the acquisition of high-resolution images that are conducive for further detailed analysis.  
1024 Furthermore, real-time data can be obtained at a lower cost compared to conventional methods.

1025 There is also a potential for model improvement through hybridization or integration of several  
1026 DL models, instead relying on one model. By utilising more prediction models, the complexity of the  
1027 system can be increased. In fact, an ensemble method can be explored by stacking two or multiple  
1028 models, limited by the computational resources. A more complex utilization of regularization can also  
1029 be implemented that include dropout, batch normalization and data augmentation methods. The  
1030 regularization method can reduce the likelihood of model overfitting as well as reduce the model's  
1031 memory usage.

1032 The presence of an imbalanced dataset in a deep learning model poses a considerable obstacle  
1033 to achieving good levels of accuracy. To counteract the potential for overfitting and low accuracy,  
1034 sophisticated data augmentation techniques must be utilized. Neural Style Transfer, Generative  
1035 Adversarial Networks (GAN), and Neural Architecture Search (NAS) are some of the promising  
1036 methods that offer extensive generation of synthetic data for the forest fire applications. Moreover, we  
1037 found that no studies have utilized different dataset partitioning. Therefore, it is worth to explore  
1038 whether partitioning of the training dataset can affect the model's performance. In conclusion, this  
1039 review aims to benchmark the capabilities of the DL-model for forest fire surveillance and monitoring  
1040 systems and provide a significant resource for researchers and policymakers working on this topic by  
1041 summarizing the comprehensive assessment of the reviewed studies.

## 1042 **Conflicts of Interest**

1043 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## 1044 **Author Contributions**

1045 Conceptualization, A.S. and M.A.Z.; formal analysis, A.S. and M.A.Z; methodology, A.S. and M.A.Z.;  
1046 writing—original draft, A.S., M.A.Z., H.H.H., F.G., I.D., and M.S.; writing—review and editing, A.S.,  
1047 M.A.Z., H.H.H., F.G., I.D., and M.S. All authors contributed equally to this work. All authors have  
1048 read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

1049

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1054

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**Declaration of interests**

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