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OmniSat: Self-Supervised Modality Fusion for Earth Observation

Guillaume Astruc 1,4,3 1,4,3 1,4,3 \odot , Nicolas Gonthier 1,2 \odot , Clement Mallet $1\bullet$ [,](https://orcid.org/0009-0008-6242-0939) and Loic Landrieu^{1,[3](https://orcid.org/0009-0008-6242-0939)}

¹ Univ Gustave Eiffel, IGN, ENSG, LASTIG, France ² IGN, France 3 LIGM, Ecole des Ponts, Univ Gustave Eiffel, CNRS, France 4 CNES, France

Abstract. The diversity and complementarity of sensors available for Earth Observations (EO) calls for developing bespoke self-supervised multimodal learning approaches. However, current multimodal EO datasets and models typically focus on a single data type, either mono-date images or time series, which limits their impact. To address this issue, we introduce OmniSat, a novel architecture able to merge diverse EO modalities into expressive features without labels by exploiting their alignment. To demonstrate the advantages of our approach, we create two new multimodal datasets by augmenting existing ones with new modalities. As demonstrated for three downstream tasks—forestry, land cover classification, and crop mapping—OmniSat can learn rich representations without supervision, leading to state-of-the-art performances in semi- and fully supervised settings. Furthermore, our multimodal pretraining scheme improves performance even when only one modality is available for inference. The code and dataset are available at <https://github.com/gastruc/OmniSat>.

Keywords: Earth observation · Multi-modality · Self-supervized learning

1 Introduction

Self-supervised multimodal learning has recently gathered significant interest within computer vision [38, 84, 104]. Earth Observation (EO) is also particularly well-suited for developing and evaluating such approaches [29, 52], thanks to the large amount of openaccess data captured by sensing technologies with complementary capabilities [36, 81]. Combining different sources of EO observations is crucial for several high-impact applications, including environmental [21, 82, 85] and climate monitoring [58, 99], as well as improving food security [68]. Moreover, learning with few or no labels is essential for developing regions with limited data annotation capabilities [5, 56, 64].

Despite this potential, most multimodal EO datasets and models focus on a single data type, either mono-date images or time series. This limitation prevents them from simultaneously leveraging the spatial resolution of aerial images [59, 66], the temporal and spectral resolutions of optical satellite time series [26], and the resilience of radar to weather effects [4,67]. Additionally, existing approaches are often limited for a given set of sensors, limiting their applicability.

To address these challenges, we introduce OmniSat, a novel architecture designed for the self-supervised fusion of diverse EO data. Existing multimodal approaches often map

multiple unrelated observations from different modalities to one pivot modality [38, 84] or a shared latent space [39, 86]. In contrast, OmniSat merges multiple views of the same area from different modalities into a single representation combining the specific information of each modality [14, 41, 75].

In computer vision, obtaining finely aligned multimodal observations generally requires specialized sensors $[55, 61, 69]$ or the computation of complex mappings between modalities [23, 77]. On the other hand, EO data can be naturally aligned with georeferencing. To leverage this property, we adapt multimodal contrastive learning $[50, 74]$ and cross-modal masked auto-encoding techniques [43] to learn rich multimodal EO representations with a generalist fusion scheme and without annotations.

To address the scarcity of EO datasets with a diverse range of heterogeneous modalities (see Tab. 1), we enrich the TreeSatAI [2] and PASTIS-R [33, 34] datasets with new aligned modalities. This allows us to evaluate OmniSat's ability to handle an arbitrary number of inputs with varying natures and resolutions. Our contributions can be summarized as follows:

- We introduce OmniSat, a new model that learns to combine varied sources of EO observations in a self-supervised manner, resulting in richer joint representations that capture the unique characteristics of each modality.
- We augment two EO benchmarks to create the first datasets with three modalities of different natures (very high resolution images, optical and SAR time series).
- We demonstrate that OmniSat can leverage diverse modalities to learn rich representations, establishing new states-of-the-art for tree species, crop type, and land cover classification. Furthermore, our cross modal self-supervised training scheme improves performance even when only one modality is available during inference.

2 Related Work

This section provides an overview of self-supervised and multimodal learning, emphasizing the specificities of their usage for Earth observation. Lastly, we highlight the scarcity of multimodal EO datasets with diverse data types.

Self-Supervised Learning. This technique consists in learning expressive data representations without labels by using a pretext task. This approach has been particularly successful for natural language [53] and image [72] analysis. Initially focused on discriminative tasks [37, 70, 102], recent self-supervised approaches for images can be categorized as contrastive or generative.

Contrastive methods minimize the distance between representations of paired samples, often the same image under different transformations, and maximize the distance with other samples [15, 17, 46]. More efficient methods only consider positive samples and avoid mode collapse by introducing various asymmetries [18, 42] or normalization [16]. Such approaches have been successfully adapted to EO, for which samples are paired according to their location [91] or time of acquisition [7, 65].

Generative methods reason at the level of individual token—a small portion of the input, typically a patch for images [25]. The objective is to reconstruct the masked tokens of an input image in pixel $[10, 45, 97]$ or feature space $[6]$. This principle has been successfully adapted to EO analysis [20, 30, 101], and was further extended to handle multiple spatial scales [76], multimodality [29,52], or hyperspectral observations [51,62].

Dataset	Modalities	Labels	
	images (single date)	time series	
SpaceNet6 ^[83]	SAR+optical (0.5m-2m)	Х	building footprint $(\langle 1m \rangle)$
TreeSatAI ^[2]	$\text{aerial} + \text{S1/S2} (0.2-10\text{m})$	х	forestry $(60m)$
BigEarthNet [88]	S1/S2 (10m)	х	land cover (100m)
DFC20 [78]	S1/S2 (10m)	х	land cover (500m)
MDAS $[49]$	$S1/S2 + hyperspectral (2.2-10m)$	х	land cover $(0.25m)$
DOFA [98]	$NAIP + Gaofen + S1/S2 + EnMAP (1-30m)$	х	Х
PASTIS-R [33, 34]	x	S1/S2 (30-140 / year)	agriculture (10m)
SSL4EO-S12 [94]	х	$S1/S2$ (4 / year)	Х
DFC21-DSE [63]	Х	$S1/S2 + LSS$ (3-9/year) human activity (500m)	
MapInWild [28]	Х	$S1/S2$ (4 / years)	protected areas (10m)
SEN12MS-CR-TS [27]	Х	S1/S2 (30 / years)	cloud cover (10m)
MultiSenge [95]	Х	S1/S2 (30-140 / years)	land cover $(10m)$
FLAIR [31]	a erial $(0.2m)$	S2 (20-114 / year)	land cover $(0.2m)$
Satlas $[12]$	$NAIP(0.5 - 2m)$	$S2(8-12/\text{year})$	various
PASTIS-HD	$*$ SPOT 6-7 (1.5m)	S1/S2 (30-140 / year)	agriculture (10m)
TreeSatAI-TS	a erial $(0.2m)$	\star S1/S2 (10-70 / year)	forestry $(60m)$

Table 1: Publicly Available Multimodal EO Datasets. We provide in parenthesis the spatial resolutions of the single-date images and labels, and the temporal resolutions of time series. S1/S2 denotes Sentinel-1 and $2. \star$: modalities added in this work.

Several hybrid approaches combine the discriminative power of contrastive methods and the scalability of generative objectives for natural images [72,103] and EO data [29]. Our proposed OmniSat model also implements both mechanisms. A key feature is that we leverage the precise alignment between different sources of EO data to contrastively match small patches of different modalities rather than entire images or time series.

Self-Supervised Multimodal Learning. Multimodal computer vision has received a lot of interest [13], notably due to the success of cross-modal pre-training [74]. Recent models align the embeddings of heterogeneous modalities such as video and sound [50], depth and images [44], text and image $[3, 9]$, or multiple combinations of these modalities [38, 39, 84, 86].

Multimodal learning also has a long history in EO [60, 73, 100] due to the large variety and complementarity of sensors [36, 81]. However, recent transformer-based architectures [92] for EO are often limited to one type of modality, be it a single image [20, 76] or time-series [34, 89]. For example, CROMA [29] and PRESTO [90] are specifically designed for paired optical and radar observations, but cannot handle Very High Resolution (VHR) data. USat [52] considers images with different resolutions, but only takes a single date within a time series. UT&T [31] can natively take single and multi-date observations of different modalities, but cannot be easily pre-trained in a self-supervised manner since it relies on convolutions and an ad-hoc late fusion scheme.

Fig. 1: Datasets. We represent three tiles from the considered multilabel classification datasets: FLAIR (a), TreeSatAI-TS (b) and PASTIS-HD (c). TreeSatAI-TS is a new dataset built by replacing the single-date Sentinel-1 and 2 images of TreeSatAI [2] by year-long time series. PASTIS-HD (c) adds VHR satellite images to PASTIS-R $[34]$. \star : modalities added in this work.

Multimodal EO Datasets. As reported in Table 1, many multimodal EO datasets use Sentinel-1 [11] and 2 [26] data for applications ranging from land cover to forestry analysis and fire detection. We also note that most multimodal datasets only contain data of one type: mono-date image or time series. Several datasets (BigEarthNet [88], DFC20 [78], MDAS [49]) select a single date from time series. However, single Sentinel-1 and 2 acquisitions can be significantly affected by rain and cloud cover, respectively. Furthermore, capturing the temporal dynamics is crucial to characterize the phenology of vegetation [93],

FLAIR [31] is the first multimodal EO dataset to propose both very high spatial resolution ($\leq 2m$) and high temporal resolution (> 4 images/year). Satlas [12] combines sentinel-2 time series and for 5% to tiles (continental US), very high definition NAIP images. The functional map of the World [19] integrates observations from various sensors, but most areas are only observed with one sensor. Two other datasets contain time series and single images from multiple sources, but were not available at the time of writing this article: IARPA-SMART [40] and DOFA [98].

To showcase how OmniSat can consume an arbitrary number of modalities with different spatial, spectral, and temporal resolutions, we selected two commonly used EO benchmarks, TreeSatAI [2] and PASTIS-R [34], whose focus on crop type mapping and forestry differs from the land cover analysis of FLAIR. We added new modalities to these datasets to reach three distinct data types: VHR aerial images, optical time series, and SAR time series. See Fig. 1 for an illustration, and Sec. 4.1 for more details on how we extended these datasets.

3 Method

We consider a tile x observed through a set M of M distinct sensors or modalities. The goal of the OmniSat model is to learn in a self-supervised fashion to combine

Fig. 2: OmniSat Architecture. We illustrate OmniSat for $M = 3$ modalities, and a tile split into $P = 4$ patches. The $M \times P$ input tokens x_{P}^{M} are encoded by M modality-specific encoders \mathcal{E}^{M} , yielding the token representations f_{P}^{M} . The module $\mathcal C$ combines them into multimodal patch representations f_P^{\star} . The token embeddings f_P^{M} are supervised by a contrastive cross-modal objective. We also use a reconstruction objective: the masked multimodal representations f_{P}^{\star} are decoded by modality-specific networks $\mathcal{D}^{\mathbf{M}}$ to reconstruct their corresponding inputs in $x_{\mathbf{P}}^{\mathbf{M}}$.

all modalities M into a multimodal representation f^* . We first provide details about OmniSat's architecture in Sec. 3.1. We then explain our our training scheme, which consist of a cross-modal contrastive objective (Sec. 3.2) and a multimodal masked encoding task (Sec. 3.3). Finally, we present the implementation details in Sec. 3.4. The overall method is represented in Fig. 2.

3.1 Architecture

This section presents the tokenization process, the structure of the encoder and decoder for each modality, and the architecture of the modality combiner network.

Multimodal Tokenization. All available modalities are spatially aligned through georeferencing. This allows us to divide the tile x into a set P of P non-overlapping patches consistently across all modalities: $x_p^{\mathbf{M}} = \{x_p^m\}_{m \in \mathbf{M}}$ corresponds to M distinct views of the same patch p with different modalities. Each modality m takes its values in a space Ω^m such that $x_p^m \in \Omega^m$. We index tokens with pairs (m, p) , defined for each modality m and patch p, for a total of $M \times P$ tokens.

Time series from Sentinel satellites may experience registration errors spanning several meters, complicating their precise alignment with high-resolution imagery. However, using temporal sequences of satellite data mitigates these errors as aggregation over time tends to balance out misalignments.

Fig. 3: OmniSat Architecture. OmniSat is composed of dedicated patch encoders for image (a) and time series b, here represented for a length of $L = 4$ time stamps. The modality combining module C is depicted in (c) with $P = 2$ and $M = 3$. Elements colored in orange are learned networks or parameters.

Encoder-Decoder for Images. Image tiles are split into small square patches: $\Omega^{\text{img}} =$ $\mathbb{R}^{C\times W\times W}$ with W the size of the patches in pixels and C the number of channels. As shown in Fig. 3a, we encode these inputs with a sequence of convolutions and max-pool layers until the spatial dimension is fully collapsed. Decoding involves a symmetric sequence of convolutions and un-pooling layers. Contrary to existing masked autoencoders, we pass the pooling indices from the encoder's max-pooling to the decoder's un-pooling in the manner of SegNet [8]. This dispenses the encoder from learning the intra-patch spatial configuration. This allows the image encoder to focus on the radiometric information, which may be more relevant depending on the application.

Encoder-Decoder for Time Series. Each temporal patch is represented by L sequential observations with C channels: $\Omega^{TS} = \mathbb{R}^{C \times L}$, each associated with a time stamp. We encode the temporal patches using a Lightweight Temporal Attention Encoder (LTAE) model [32], an efficient network for geospatial time series processing. We decode vector representations into time series by repeating the vector L times across the temporal dimension, adding a temporal encoding for each time step, and using an MLP to map the results to size C . See Fig. 3b for an illustration.

Optical time series are notoriously affected by clouds [87]. This may affect the validity of the reconstruction task: the decoder cannot know which observations are cloudy, making the reconstruction objective unpredictable. To circumvent this issue, we use the temporal attention maps of the encoder's LTAE to select dates to reconstruct: cloudless observations are more informative and should have a higher attention score [80]. We only consider in the reconstruction loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{reconstr}}$ the top 25% dates in terms of the LTAE's attention maps.

Modality Combining Network. The modality combining network C , represented in Fig. 3c, takes the $M \times P$ token embeddings $f_{\mathbf{P}}^{M}$, some of whom can potentially be masked. We equip each token with a Euclidean relative positional encoding [96] calculated based on their patch's position $\{r(p, q) | (p, q) \in \mathbf{P}^2\}$, allowing each token to

selectively consider its spatial surroundings. As most EO data are captured from above (satellite or aerial), their distribution is invariant by horizontal translation, making this choice of encoding preferable to an absolute position encoding.

The modality combining module $\mathcal C$ starts with a series of B residual self-attention blocks connecting all tokens across modality. We then perform cross-attention between the resulting token embeddings $g_{\mathbf{P}}^{\mathbf{M}} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times M \times P}$ and P copies $f_{\mathbf{P}}^{\text{comb}}$ of a modality combining token $f^{comb} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ learned as a free parameter. Each copy of f_p^{comb} is spatially located at the patch p for the relative positional encoding r . The module $\mathcal C$ outputs P multimodal encodings f_{P}^{\star} combining all available modalities for each patch:

$$
g_{\mathbf{P}}^{\mathbf{M}} = \text{self-attention} \left(f_{\mathbf{P}}^{\mathbf{M}}; r \right) \tag{1}
$$

$$
f_{\mathbf{P}}^{\star} = \text{cross-attention} \left(f_{\mathbf{P}}^{\text{comb}}, g_{\mathbf{P}}^{\mathbf{M}}; r \right) . \tag{2}
$$

3.2 Contrastive Objective

We denote by f_p^m the d-dimensional encodings of the input patch x_p^m given by their dedicated encoders. We propose to supervise the embeddings f_p^m with a contrastive objective encouraging spatial consistency *across modalities*. Indeed, while each modality captures distinct characteristics of p, all encodings f_p^m share the same latent variable: the semantic content of the patch.

In practice, we want $f_p^{\hat{m}}$ to be closer to f_p^n for $n \neq m$ than to f_q^n for other patches $q \neq p$. We define **B** as the set of patches within the current batch of observations. We adapt the classic InfoNCE loss [71] to our setting with two main differences, illustrated in Fig. 4. (i) each token (m, p) has $M - 1$ positive matches: the tokens corresponding to the same patch p but viewed in another modality $n \neq m$; and (ii) as EO observations are generally spatially regular, nearby patches may be visually indistinguishable. Therefore, we exclude from the negative matches of (m, p) all tokens in modality m and which are too close to p. To this end, we remove the set $T(m, p)$ of tokens with modality m and whose patches are in the same tile as p. Our loss function $\mathcal{L}_{\text{contrast}}$ is defined as such:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{contrast}} = \frac{1}{M|\mathbf{B}|} \sum_{(m,p)\in\mathbf{M}\times\mathbf{B}} \log \left(\frac{\sum_{n\neq m} \exp(\langle f_p^m, f_p^n \rangle / \gamma)}{\sum_{(n,q)\in\mathbf{M}\times\mathbf{B}\backslash T(m,p)} \exp(\langle f_p^m, f_q^n \rangle / \gamma)} \right), \quad (3)
$$

with γ a temperature parameter, and $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ the scalar product in \mathbb{R}^d . This function, specifically designed for geospatial data, allows us to contrast individual patches across modalities, which is not typically feasible for natural images. However, as the contrastive objective aligns multimodal representations, the patch encoders may be encouraged to overlook the distinct attributes of their respective modality. Instead, they may focus only on features shared by all modalities, *i.e*. their *common denominator*. To ensure that encoders also capture modality-specific information, we incorporate a reconstruction objective, detailed in Sec. 3.3.

3.3 Multimodal Reconstruction Objective

During training, we mask a fraction of tokens $K \subset M \times P$ and replace their embeddings with a learned vector $f^{\text{mask}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Note that the masking can differ across modalities,

Fig. 4: Contrastive Loss. We represent the token matching matrix for two tiles Tile₁ and Tile₂ viewed across 3 modalities m_1 , m_2 , and m_3 . Tile₁ is composed of the patches p_1 and p_2 , while Tile₂ comprises q_1 and q_2 . In contrast to classic approaches which ignore the diagonal and assign each sample with a single positive match, our loss defines operates at the patch level, considers multiple positives per token, and excludes tokens in a block-diagonal fashion.

and some patches may be entirely masked. All tokens are then processed by the modality combining network C, which outputs P multimodal embeddings $f_{\mathbf{P}}^{\star}$:

$$
f_{\mathbf{P}}^{\star} = \mathcal{C}\left(\{f_p^m\}_{(m,p)\notin\mathbf{K}} \cup \{f^{\text{mask}}\}_{(m,p)\in\mathbf{K}}\right) . \tag{4}
$$

To encourage the patch embeddings f_P^{\star} to capture information from all modalities, we build a multimodal reconstruction objective. We denote by $\mathcal{D}^m : \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \Omega^m$ the dedicated decoder of each modality m and write the reconstruction loss as:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{reconstr}} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{K}|} \sum_{(m,p)\in\mathbf{K}} \frac{1}{\dim(\Omega^m)} \left\| \mathcal{D}^m(f_p^*) - x_p^m \right\|^2 ,\tag{5}
$$

with dim(Ω^m) the dimension of Ω^m . The total loss is the sum of $\mathcal{L}_{\text{reconstr}}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{contrast}}$.

3.4 Implementation Details

We detail here the specific parameters chosen in all our experiments.

Tokenization. We split each tile along a regular spatial grid to produce a set of nonoverlapping patches P consistent across all modalities. For TreeSat and FLAIR, we use a 10×10 m grid, meaning that the VHR input tokens are small image patches of size 50×50 with 0.2m per pixel. The patches of Sentinel observations with a resolution of 10m are single-pixel temporal sequences of spectral measurements. For PASTIS-HD, we use a 40×40 m grid, meaning that the VHR patches are of size 40×40 with 1.0m per pixel. The patches of Sentinel observations [26] are 4×4 image time series which we spatially flatten before encoding.

Hyperparameters. To show the versatility of OmniSat, we use the same configuration throughout all experiments. The embedding size is $d = 256$, resulting in image encoders and decoders with 3.6M and 1.8M parameters, 403K and 96K for optical time series, and 402K and 95K for radar time series. The modality combiner module is composed of $B = 6$ residual self-attention blocks and a single cross-attention block, for a total of 3.6M parameters. We train our model on 3 A6000 GPUs with a batch size of 128 multimodal tiles per GPU and set the contrastive temperature γ to 0.1. We train our model with the ADAM optimizer [54], with a learning rate of 10^{-4} for pretraining and 2×10^{-5} for fine-tuning, and a ReduceLROnPlateau scheduler [1] with a patience of 10 epochs and a decay rate of 0.1. When re-implementing competing methods, we use the hyperparameters of their open-source repository.

4 Experiments

We evaluate OmniSat's performance across three multimodal datasets, including two new datasets introduced in this work and presented in Sec. 4.1. We outline our experimental protocol and our adaptation of competing methods in Sec. 4.2. We then present our quantitative results and analysis in Sec. 4.3and conduct an ablation study to in Sec. 4.4.

4.1 Datasets

Weconsider three multimodal datasets: FLAIR [31], and the augmented TreeSatAI-TS [2] and PASTIS-HD [33, 34]. See Fig. 1 for an illustration of these two last datasets.

TreeSatAI-TS: TreeSatAI [2] is a multimodal dataset for tree species identification, containing 50,381 tiles of 60×60 m with multi-label annotations for 20 classes and all taken in Germany. Each tile is associated with a very high resolution RGB and near-infrared (NIR) image (0.2 m pixel resolution), a single Sentinel-2 multi-spectral image (10m per pixel resolution, 10 bands), and a single Sentinel-1 radar image (10m per pixel resolution, 3 bands: two polarization channels and their ratio).

Motivated by the fact that fine-grained vegetation discrimination relies heavily on temporal dynamics information [93], we introduce TreeSatAI-TS¹. This extended version uses open-source data to add Sentinel-1 and Sentinel-2 time series to each tile, spanning the closest available year to the VHR observation for Sentinel-2. Note that due to the weather patterns and position of the area of interest with respect to Sentinel-2's orbit, the optical time series is particularly irregular and occluded, with up to 50% of acquisitions being non-exploitable. Despite this challenge, we included the raw observations without pre-processing, whereas TreeSatAI's single-date images have been manually selected.

PASTIS-HD: The PASTIS dataset [33], is designed for semantic and panoptic segmentation of agricultural parcels using Sentinel-2 time series and covers 18 crop types across 2433 image time series with dimensions of 1280×1280 m. Each series contains between 38 and 61 observations with 10 spectral bands. PASTIS-R [34] adds the corresponding Sentinel-1 radar time series. We only used the ascendent time series of Sentinel-1 for our training and evaluation, for a total of 169,587 radar images with three bands.

To enhance the spatial resolution and utility of PASTIS, we introduce PASTIS- $HD²$, which integrates contemporary VHR satellite images (SPOT 6-7 [24]). We apply orthorectification and pansharpening, resample the resulting images to a 1m resolution, and finally convert them to 8 bits. We follow the protocol of Irvin *et al*. [52] to use the dense annotations for a multi-label classification task: each patch is associated with the

¹The dataset is available at [https://huggingface.co/datasets/IGNF/TreeSatAI-Time-Series.](https://huggingface.co/datasets/IGNF/TreeSatAI-Time-Series)

²The dataset is available at [https://huggingface.co/datasets/IGNF/PASTIS-HD.](https://huggingface.co/datasets/IGNF/PASTIS-HD)

labels of all of its pixels. This conversion allows us to evaluate all methods in the same setting and configuration as TreeSatAI.

FLAIR. The FLAIR dataset [31] combines VHR aerial images with time series data. It comprises 77,762 aerial tiles (512 \times 512 pixels, 0.2 m resolution) with five channels (RGB, near-infrared, and a normalized digital surface model) taken in France, alongside corresponding Sentinel-2 time series (10 m resolution, 10 spectral bands, 20 to 114 observations per year). We apply the same processing as PASTIS to use the dense annotation for a multi-label classification task.

4.2 Experimental Setting

This section details our experimental protocol and our adaption of competing algorithms. Evaluation Protocol. All experiments follow a similar setting:

- Pre-training (optional). Methods that support self-supervised pre-training (OmniSat, SatMAE [20], ScaleMAE [76], CROMA [29]) are pre-trained for up to 250 epochs on the entire training set without access to labels.
- Fine-Tuning. We propose two settings for fine-tuning:
	- Fully Supervised Fine-Tuning. We train the resulting models using all the labels in the training set.
	- Semi-Supervised Fine-Tuning. We use a portion of 10% or 20% of the training set, stratified by the distribution of classes, to fine-tune the models. For models without pre-training, this corresponds to supervision in the low-data regime.
- Unimodal and Multimodal Evaluation. We evaluate all methods using each available modality independently and combining all supported modalities.

Adapting Competing Approaches. We report the performance of several methods taken from the literature on our considered datasets: LightGBM [2], PRESTO [90], and MOSAIKS [79]. However, few existing methods can operate on single- and multidate data at the same time. To ensure a fair evaluation of competing approaches, we modify various state-of-the-art models to handle a broader combination of modalities. We provide details on these changes in the appendix.

4.3 Numerical Experiments and Analysis

In this section, we report our model's performance and efficiency compared to other approaches across the considered datasets and propose our analysis.

TreeSatAI-TS. Tab. 2 presents the performance of different models on TreeSatAI and TreeSatAI-TS. We report several key observations:

– Benefit of Time Series. For the original TreeSatAI dataset with single-date Sentinel-1/2 observations, none of the pre-training schemes significantly improve performance beyond simple baselines such as ResNet, PSE, or MLP, even in a semi-supervised setting. In particular, single-date S1 observations yield low performance for all methods (below 20 F1-score), emphasizing the need to use the entire time series. OmniSat exhibits significantly improved results on TreeSatAI-TS, with or without pretraining. Image models struggles to extract meaningful features temporally aggregated temporal observations, while OmniSat learn rich dynamic features.

Table 2: Performance on TreeSatAI-TS. We report the weighted F1 for multi-label tree species classification on TreeSatAI (TSAI) and our extended TreeSatAI-TS (TSAI-TS) dataset when fine-tuning with 10% and 100% of training labels. The first line of the table is the modality used for evaluation. We distinguish methods that are **best for one modality** within a dataset, best in a dataset across all modalities, and the **best overall** performance. *: late feature fusion with a ResNet pretrained on ImageNet. \bigcirc : Foundation model trained on extensive external data. †: model evaluated on this dataset for the first time.

Model	pre-	All		Sentinel-1		Sentinel-2		VHR Image	
	training	10%	100%	10%	100%	10%	100%	10%	100%
Evaluated on TreeSatAI: single date for Sentinel-1 and Sentinel-2									
† PSE [35]	None	$47.2*$	$68.1*$	11.5	14.6	48.5	58.3		\blacksquare
\uparrow ViT [25]	None	42.7	57.1	8.7	17.5	39.8	57.3	36.7	51.7
MLP[2]	None	42.6^{\star}	$71.5*$	3.4	10.1	22.1	52.0	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$
ResNet [2]	ImageNet	\overline{a}		\overline{a}			\overline{a}	58.8	70.1
LightGBM $[2]$	ImageNet	$\overline{}$	$54.3*$	\overline{a}	11.9	\blacksquare	48.2	\overline{a}	44.0
PRESTO [90]	⇔	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	19.8	$\overline{}$	46.3	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$
† DOFA [98]	⇔	59.5	71.6	11.6	19.3	48.2	57.0	51.6	67.5
MOSAIKS $[22, 79]$ TSAI		$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	56.0	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$
† CROMA [29]	TSAI	49.6	61.0	10.1	12.7	47.8	55.7	$\overline{}$	
\uparrow SatMAE [20]	TSAI	46.1	61.5			40.3	49.7	44.1	61.4
† ScaleMAE [76]	TSAI	47.6	62.5	$\overline{}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	46.7	55.2	46.9	63.6
OmniSAT (ours)	TSAI	56.2	70.4	5.3	6.4	48.4	57.1	52.8	68.9
Evaluated on TreeSatAI-TS: Sentinel-1 and Sentinel-2 time series spanning one year									
\uparrow PSE+LTAE [35]	None	$59.4*$	$71.2*$	42.6	52.4	44.0	57.2	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$
\dagger UT&T [31]	ImageNet	43.8	56.7	42.3	55.2	41.5	57.0	44.3	55.9
† DOFA [98]	⇔	41.8	71.3	0.0	$0.0\,$	25.0	39.4	51.6	67.5
\uparrow Scale-MAE [76]	TSAI-TS	44.1	60.4	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	11.0	31.5	46.9	63.6
OmniSAT (ours)	None	52.2	73.3	31.6	55.9	33.9	49.7	51.4	71.0
OmniSAT (ours)	TSAI-TS	61.1	74.2	48.2	56.7	51.4	62.9	58.3	70.5

The foundation model DOFA [98], with 111 million parameters and a large closedsource training set, outperforms all models when evaluated on single-date modalities. However, OmniSat reaches higher performances on TreeSatAI-TS with only 10 million parameters, which we attribute to its ability to leverage temporal modalities.

– Benefits of Multimodality. When using all modalities, OmniSat outperforms all competing methods by a margin of 3% F1-score. The multimodal performance of OmniSat and CROMA, which learn to combine data sources, is strictly superior to the F1-score of their best modality by 3.7% and 5.3% points, respectively. Conversely, the performance of methods that rely on late-fusion (SatMAE, ScaleMAE, ViT) is comparable to their best modality. This demonstrates the value of learning to combine information from different sources end-to-end.

Table 3: Performance on PASTIS-HD. We report the macro-averaged F1-score for crop-type multi-class classification on the PASTIS-HD dataset. We distinguish methods that are best for one modality, best in a dataset across all modalities. *: late feature fusion with a ResNet. †: model evaluated on this dataset for the first time.

Model	pre-	All		Sentinel-1		Sentinel-2		VHR image	
	trained	20%	100%	20%	100%	20%	100%	20%	100%
\dagger UTAE [33, 34]	None	$36.8*$	$46.9*$	20.1	40.7	32.7	37.6	\overline{a}	$\overline{}$
† ResNet50 [47]	ImageNet	$\overline{}$					$\overline{}$	57.6	59.3
\dagger UT&T [31]	ImageNet	54.2	53.5	58.8	62.8	54.9	61.3	51.1	49.8
\uparrow DOFA [98]	⇔	53.7	55.7	36.7	41.5	50.8	53.4	47.9	54.8
\uparrow Scale-MAE [76] PASTIS-HD 42.0			42.2		$\overline{}$	41.2	46.1	48.8	51.9
\uparrow CROMA [29]	PASTIS-HD 57.5		60.1	55.3	56.1	53.0	56.7	\overline{a}	
OmniSAT (ours) No		42.0	59.1	58.2	60.2	51.7	60.1	47.3	52.8
OmniSAT (ours) PASTIS-HD		62.6	69.9	60.8	69.0	61.8	70.8	54.6	59.3

Table 4: Performance on FLAIR. We report the macro-averaged F1-score for land cover multiclass classification on the FLAIR dataset. We distinguish methods that are best for one modality and best in a dataset. †: model evaluated on this dataset for the first time.

– Benefits of Cross-Modal Pre-Training. With access to all modalities, our selfsupervised pre-training improves by 0.9% point the F1-score of the model fine-tuned on 100% of labels, compared to not pre-training, and 8.9% when using only 10% of labels. This shows that our pre-training leads to more expressive multimodal features. Interestingly, when performing inference with Sentinel-2 time series alone, the performance increase linked to the pre-training becomes 13.2% with 100% labels and 17.5% with 10%. This illustrates that our self-supervised pre-training scheme improves the features learned by each encoder despite not relying on annotated data.

Experiments on PASTIS-HD. The analysis of the performance of various models on PASTIS-HD is reported in Tab. 3, and is consistent with the ones of TreeSatAI-TS. First, by learning to combine all modalities despite their different resolutions, OmniSat achieves state-of-the-art results on this benchmark. Second, our cross-modal pretraining significantly improves OmniSat's performance in the multimodal $(+10.8 \text{ pF1-score}$ with

Fig. 5: Efficiency. We report the best performance of different models between TreeSatAI and TreeSatAI-TS, with pre-training and fine-tuning using 100% of labels. The area of the markers is proportional to the training time, broken down in pre-training and fine-tuning when applicable.

100% of training label) and all single-modality settings (8.8 points for Sentinel-1, 10.7 for Sentinel-2, and 6.5 for the VHR images).

Experiments on FLAIR. We report in Tab. 4 the results on the bimodal FLAIR dataset for multilabel classification. OmniSat outperforms the much larger ScaleMAE [76] and UT&T $[31]$ models with 100% of labels and both modalities by 3.4%. Our pre-training scheme had a smaller impact than for the TreeSatAI-TS experiment. We attribute this to the fact that only two modalities are available, which decreases the supervisory power of our cross-modal contrastive objective and our multimodal reconstruction loss. This highlights a limitation of OmniSat: the model needs to be pretrained on a modality-rich dataset to achieve its best performance.

Efficiency Evaluation. We plot in Fig. 5 the best performance between TreeSatAI and TreeSatAI-TS for different models according to their size and training time. OmniSat is more compact, faster to train, and performs better than all evaluated models, including the DOFA foundation model. The highly-specialized combination of PSE, LTAE, and ResNet is a strong contender, outperforming significantly larger models with generic encoding-decoding schemes.

4.4 Ablation Study

In this section, we report the results of several experiments evaluating the impact and validity of our main design choices, see Tab. 5.

a) Encoder/Decoder Architecture. We propose several improvements to the standard image encoder-decoder scheme used in computer vision to accommodate the specificities of EO data. In particular, passing the max-pool indices from the image patch encoder to its decoder allows the learned representation to focus on characterizing the spectral signature instead of fine-grained spatial information, and leads to a performance increase of 0.7% in the full supervision setting.

Table 5: Ablation Study. We present the impact of several design choices on the TreeSatAI-TS dataset, measured in terms of macro-averaged F1-score.

Experiment	10% 100%	Experiment	10% 100%
OmniSat	61.1 74.2	b) no contrastive loss	55.6 73.4
a) no index bypass 57.5 73.5		b) naive contrastive loss 57.8 72.2	
a) no date filtering 58.2 71.6		b) no reconstruction loss 59.0 72.2	

As clouds frequently obstruct optical time series, we use an unsupervised datefiltering scheme to reconstruct only meaningful acquisitions. This approach leads to a significant improvement of 3.6%, showcasing the benefit of developing modality-aware approaches for EO.

b) Role of Loss Functions. When training without contrastive loss, we observe a decrease in performance of 0.8% in the fully supervised regime, and a more pronounced drop of 5.5% in the semi-supervised regime. This demonstrates how learning consistent encoding across encoders facilitates their subsequent fusion. Interestingly, when implementing a naive contrastive loss that considers all negative examples from the batch, the decrease is greater than simply removing this loss $(2\%$ in full supervision). This strategy may introduce indistinguishable negative examples and perturb the learning process.

We also remove the reconstruction loss, meaning that only the encoders are learned contrastively during pre-training. This results in a drop of 2% F1-score point, illustrating the importance of pre-training the transformer C alongside its encoders.

Limitations. All datasets used in our experiments are based in Europe, primarily due to the availability of open-access annotations. This regional focus prevents us from evaluating our model's performance in tropical and developing countries, which present unique challenges in terms of label provision, heterogeneity, and complex classes.

A limitation of our pre-training scheme is its dependence on a sufficient number of aligned modalities, as illustrated by its moderate impact on the bimodal FLAIR dataset.

5 Conclusion

We introduced OmniSat, a new architecture for the self-supervised modality fusion of Earth Observation (EO) data from various sources. To facilitate its evaluation, we augmented two existing datasets with new modalities of different natures and resolutions. We experimentally showed that leveraging diverse modalities with a flexible model improves the model's performance in both fully and semi-supervised settings. Moreover, our training scheme can exploit the spatial alignment of multiple modalities to improve our model's unimodal performance. Finally, we proposed several improvements to leverage the unique structure of EO data in the architecture of our model, such as automatic date filtering for reconstructing time series. We hope that our promising results and new datasets will encourage the computer vision community to consider EO data as a playing field for evaluating and developing novel self-supervised multimodal algorithms.

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Appendix

In this appendix, we present an extended ablation study in Section A-1, details our competing methods in Section A-2, provide the classwise performance in Section A-3, and provide qualitative illustrations in Figure A-2.

A-1 Supplementary Ablations

We propose supplementary ablations to evaluate the impact of several design choices.

Experiment	All	VHR	S2	S1
Default	74.2	70.5	62.9	56.7
a linear w. random init	66.8	57.3	58.9	54.8
h ViT	70.5	70.8	64.0	52.6
c linear from ScaleMAE	68.9	51.2	66.7	52.2
d Spatial masking	73.2	70.1	63.2	54.6
e Modality masking	72.4	70.2	61.2	55.4

Table A-1: Supplementary Ablation. Performance (weighted F1) on TreeSatAI-TS of alternate VHR encoders (a-c) and masking schemes (d-e).

Alternate VHR Encoder. To train OmniSat on both VHR (20cm) and Sentinel (10m) images, we must embed patches of 50×50 pixels. We consider here alternative encoders to CNNs: a linear layer (Tab. A-1.a) and a ViT with 10×10 patches (Tab. A-1.b). The results suggest that 50×50 patches are too large to use linear projection. While ViTs reach slightly higher unimodal performance, CNNs allow us to bypass maxpool indices to the decoders (Sec. 3.1) leading to higher multimodal performances.

Using Pretrained VHR models. Rescaling the 50×50 patches to the 224×224 resolution of ScaleMAE or SatMAE proved impractical in terms of memory. Instead, we use the pretrained patch encoder of ScaleMAE by rescaling our 50×50 patches to 16×16 , removing the infrared channel, and adding a projection layer to our token size $D = 256$ (Tab. A-1.c). Interestingly, this leads to a cross-modal distillation which improves the results for S2. The VHR and multimodal performance remain below OmniSat, which can be attributed to the lack of a NIR channel.

Masking Strategies. We report the results for spatially consistent masking (patches are masked for all modalities simultaneously, Tab. $A-1.d$) and modality masking (the patches of a random modality are all masked, Tab. A-1.e). Our random masking strategy performs better.

Relative *vs*. Absolute Positional Encoding. We evaluate the impact of replacing the relative positional encoding of tokens, based on the patch position, with an absolute position encoding, based on the position of the patches in their tile—similar to what is classically done for image processing.

With an absolute positional encoding, OmniSat reaches an F1-score of 58.4 and 73.0 when fine-tuned with 10% and 100% of the training set of TreeSatAI-TS, respectively. This is 2.7 and 1.2% below a model trained with relative positional encodings. We conclude that relative positional encodings are better suited for analyzing EO images. While the upper patches of natural images are bound to correspond to the sky, and the lower patches contain ground, no such analogy can be made for EO data, whose distribution is equivariant through small horizontal translation.

Impact of Pretraining on Monomodal Performance. We aim to determine how our multimodal pretraining scheme improves the monomodal performance (*e.g*., +13.2% for Sentinel-2 in full supervision). We consider two mechanisms that may lead to more

discriminative features: (i) multimodality allows us to train the modality combiner network C with more data, or (ii) our cross-modal and token-wise alignment-based losses provide a strong supervisory signal. We propose an experiment to verify which mechanism is the leading reason of our scheme's strong performance.

We pre-train OmniSat on TreeSatAI-TS in mono- and multimodal settings *with a constant amount of tokens*. More precisely, we pre-train OmniSat using *all* input tokens from the S2 modality *only*, and using *all* 3 modalities but only 33% of patches. This means that each experiment considering the same number P of input tokens. We then train a single linear layer to map these representations to class scores (linear probing) using 10 and 100% of the annotated S2 data. Finally, we evaluate the quality of these linear mappings on the test set using only the S2 modality.

The model trained with a multimodal pretext task reaches a F1-score of 44.7 for 10% and 46.3 for 100% of the training data. The model trained only with S2 performs significantly worse: 26.9 for 10% and 29.8 for 100% of data. This result suggests that the key to the efficacy of our pretraining scheme is the supervisory signal of per-patch contrastive and reconstruction objectives, rather than just increasing the number of tokens viewed by the transformer backbone.

A-2 Adapting Competing Methods

We adapt competing methods to allow them to handle single images and time series at different resolutions. We performed multiple tests for each approach and kept the configurations leading to the competing approach' highest performance.

- Multimodality. We train methods that are not natively multimodal (PSE $[35]$, ViT [25], DOFA [98], SatMAE, ScaleMAE) using a late-fusion scheme [48] by concatenating the embeddings learned in each modality, as suggested by Ahlswede *et al*. [2]. For UT&T [31], initially designed for VHR images and Sentinel-2 time series, we add a branch for Sentinel-1 integration, which is identical to the Sentinel-2 branch except for the first layer.
- Handling Temporal Data. To evaluate image models (SatMAE, ScaleMAE, CROMA) on time series, we convert image sequences to single images by concatenating for each pixel and channel channel-wise the median observation for the four seasons: spring, summer, fall, and winter [57].
- Handling VHR Data. To evaluate methods designed for low-resolution images (PSE, LTAE [32]) in a multimodal setting that includes VHR images, we concatenate their final embedding to the the one of a ResNet network.
- Scaling Models. The considered datasets are smaller than the ones typically used to train large ViT-based models, making them prone to overfitting. To address this issue we select a ViT-Small [25] backbone for SatMAE, ScaleMAE and CROMA. For DOFA, we use a ViT-Base, the smallest pretrained model available.
- Multi-Class Prediction. To evaluate ViT-based models on classification experiments, we insert a linear layer that maps the embedding of the class token $\langle CLS \rangle$ to a vector of class scores. For the UT&T model, we compute a spatial average of the last feature map, followed by a similar linear projection.

A-3 Supplementary Results

We report the performance of different approaches for each class for the two datasets graphically in Figure $A-1$ and as a table in Table $A-2$. OmniSat is able to parse complex scenes including mixed forest, cultures, and complex urban areas. In particular, Omnisat leverage temporal dynamics to distinguish between different vegetation species.

Failure Case. We report in the bottom half of Figure A-2 hard examples from our three datasets and compare the prediction of OmniSat and other models. For the TreeSatAI-TS example, the Sentinel-2 optical time-series is highly occluded: over 80% of acquisitions are covered by clouds. Furthermore, the forest tile contains a large variety of tree species organized in densely connected canopy, making its classification particularly hard. Indeed, the texture of the images in closed forests does not bring additional discriminative information.

The example from FLAIR is a scrap yard, which is almost entirely covered by broken vehicles. Since FLAIR's annotations focus on the ground rather than transient or stationary objects, identifying the actual land cover in such scenarios is very challenging.

The image taken from PASTIS contains a mix of several different crop types, including the class *mixed cereal* which can already correspond to a parcel with various cereal types. This leads to a hard classification problem for all methods.

Fig. A-1: Class-Wise Performance. We plot the performance of different models for each class, sorted by decreasing frequency. OmniSat improves the performance across the board, and for rare classes in particular.

Table A-2: Class-Wise Performance. We report the F1-score for each class for TreeSatAI-TS, FLAIR, and PASTIS-HD for multilabel classification. We also report the unweighted classaveraged F1-score (Macro-F1). We can observe that OmniSat outperforms UT&T [31] and Scale-MAE [76] on nearly all classes for both datasets. In particular, we observe the most significant gains for classes with discriminative temporal dynamics, such as broadleaf tree species and the vineyards class.

	Inputs	Ground truth	OmniSat	UT&T [31]	Scale-MAE ^[76]
TreeSatAI-TS		- Picea ♣ - Betula - Alnus <i>≢</i> - Quercus \blacktriangleright	- Picea - Betula - Alnus - X	- Picea - Betula - Alnus - X - Pinus \clubsuit	- Picea - X - X - X
FLAIR		- building - pervious surf. - impervious surf. - deciduous - brushwood - herbaceous - agricultural - vineyard	- building - pervious surf. - impervious surf. - deciduous - brushwood - herbaceous - agricultural - vineyard	- building - pervious surf. - impervious surf. - deciduous - brushwood - herbaceous - agricultural - X	- building - pervious surf. - impervious surf. - deciduous - brushwood - herbaceous - X - X
PASTIS-HD		- Meadow - Corn - Winter rapeseed - Beet	- Meadow - Soft winter wheat - Soft winter wheat - Corn - Winter rapeseed - Beet	- Meadow - X - X - X - X - Potatoes	- Meadow - X - X $- x$ $- X$ - Sunflower - Grapevine
TreeSatAI-TS		- Quercus \blacktriangleright - Acer \blacktriangleright - Alnus <i>≢</i> - Larix ≇	- Quercus - X $- x$ $- x$ - Abies \clubsuit	- X - X - X - X - Abies - Betula	- X - X - X - X - Picea \triangle
FLAIR		- decideous - herbaceous - water - pervious surf. - bare soil	- decideous - herbaceous - water - X $- x$ - building - imperv. surf. - brushwood	- decideous - herbaceous - X - pervious surf. - X - building - imperv. surf. - brushwood - coniferous	- decideous - herbaceous - X - pervious surf. - X - building - imperv. surf. - brushwood - coniferous - other
PASTIS-HD		- Meadow - Winter wheat - Corn - Potatoes - Mixed cereal	- Meadow - Winter wheat - Corn - Potatoes $- x$ - Winter barley - Wint. rapeseed - Legum. fodder	- Meadow - X - X - X - X - Spring barley - Orchard - Legum. fodder - Durum wheat - Fruits, veg	- Meadow - Winter wheat - Corn - X $- x$ - Winter barley - Wint. rapeseed - Winter triticale

Fig. A-2: Qualitative Results. We report predictions of OmniSat and two competing models on tiles from our datasets, including a failure case (bottom). OmniSat can detect classes with recognizable temporal dynamics such as agricultural lands or mixed forest areas with both coniferous **#** and deciduous trees \blacktriangleleft . Other methods, and in particular ScaleMAE, struggle to detect these classes.