An Improved Deep Learning Application for Leaf Shape Reconstruction and Damage Estimation

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Abstract: Leaf damage estimation is an important research method, metric, and topic regarding both agricultural and ecological studies. The majority of previous studies that approach shape reconstruction work with parametric curves, lacking generality when treating leaves with different shapes. Other appliances try to calculate the damage without estimating the original leaf form. In this work, we propose a procedure to predict the original leaf shape and calculate its defoliation based on a Conditional Generative Adversarial Network (Conditional GAN). We trained and validated the algorithm with a dataset with leaf images from 33 different species. Also, we tested the produced model in another dataset, containing images from leaves from 153 different species. The results indicate that this model is better than the literature, and the solution potentially works with different leaf shapes, even from untrained species.

1 INTRODUCTION

Computing tools are increasingly aiding in daily tasks, as ecology (Martinez and Franceschini, 2018; Gunnarsson et al., 2018; Muiruri et al., 2019) and agriculture (da Silva et al., 2019; Saidov et al., 2018; Prabhakar et al., 2019). Among the most recent applications, we enforce canopy studies (Silva et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2019; Delabrida et al., 2017), geological studies (Delabrida et al., 2016b; Delabrida et al., 2016a), the agricultural management (Delgado et al., 2013; da Silva et al., 2019; Bauer et al., 2019), among others. The application of these devices on the field creates new perspectives on the uprise of cutting-edge technology.

A relevant problem in ecology and agriculture is leaf damage estimation. According to Turcotte et al. (Turcotte et al., 2014), the consumption of plants by animals is a relevant factor in evolutionary and ecological processes. This relationship, named herbivory, is responsible for a grand share of the macroscopic biodiversity. They also assess the need for robust leaf damage estimation methods. For instance, researchers use this variable as an indicator to analyze the ecosystem interactions (Muiruri et al., 2019; Benítez-Malvido et al., 2018), or even to analyze the impact of predators in crops (Saidov et al., 2018; Baudron et al., 2019).

The leaf conditions also are indicators of many factors in plants and ecosystem health. Clement et al. (Clement et al., 2015) reinforce that this parameter reflects the plant’s response to biotic and abiotic conditions. Furthermore, this information also helps in understanding the strength of the plant against pests and diseases. These factors are important in both ecological (Cárdenas et al., 2015) and agricultural (da Silva et al., 2019; Leite et al., 2019) hypotheses tests.

However, to properly understand and formulate global hypotheses on the influence of leaf damage in ecosystem functionality traits, such as primary productivity or food web stability, a fair estimate of leaf damage, in a comparative way, should be provided across ecosystems and habitats. For instance, Kozlov et al. (Kozlov et al., 2015) provided a global protocol to estimate leaf area lost, reaching the average of 5% of leaf area lost to herbivory in the planet. Nev-
Nevertheless, this work ignored canopy habitats, both in temperate and tropical forests.

On the other hand, Ribeiro and Basset (Pontes Ribeiro and Basset, 2007; Ribeiro and Basset, 2016) provided a protocol precisely to estimate the canopy leaf area lost, likely to be comparable to the ground vegetation. The constrains to the latter protocol is the time consumed and the risk involved in climbing to produce the data. If a professional climber could use a wearable computing device (dismissing the risky climbing of a scientist) and collect the data faster and more reliable, any better protocol capable of being reproduced on the ground or climbing would contribute to generating global batter estimates. Global warming and its effects on planetary ecological functionality demand such a methodological constraint to be quickly overcome.

Most techniques found in the literature present applications developed for specific contexts. Some approaches lack generality in shape, while others are specifically designed for particular species or cases. The procedures and tests do not provide enough data to assume the solutions’ generality in all studied cases. Also, none of the found solutions apply Artificial Neural Networks to estimate the leaf form. Thus, in this work, we propose a novel algorithm to reconstruct the leaf shape using a trained Conditional Generative Adversarial Network (Conditional GAN) based on U-Net.

1.1 Contributions

The main contribution of this paper is:

- A novel method to reconstruct the original leaf shape and estimate the damage, applying a U-Net based Conditional GAN.

Secondary contributions of this work are:

- An artificial random damage generation method to create a synthetic database;
- An analysis of the algorithm precision and its comparison with other techniques;
- An analysis of the quality of the shape reconstruction.

The rest of this article is organized as follows: In Section 2, we introduce the state-of-the-art presented in the literature and the main differences between these approaches and ours. After this, we present the proposed method in Section 3. Within this section, we introduce the databases employed in this work in Subsection 3.1. Subsection 3.2 displays the proposed preprocessing technique. In Subsection 3.3, we discuss the synthetic dataset generation method, with the artificial damage generation process to train the Conditional GAN. Section 3.5 presents the Neural Network employed in this method. In Subsection 3.6 we present the calculation method for the damage estimation, and in Subsection 3.7 we present the evaluation methods for the proposed technique. Section 4 presents the obtained results from the tests, and in Section 5 we present the conclusions and discussion.

2 RELATED WORK

As presented before, leaf damage estimation, or defoliation estimation, is a significant problem. Thus, we overview some of the state-of-the-art algorithms and methods applied to resolve this issue.

For this matter, Da Silva et al. (da Silva et al., 2019) used Convolutional Neural Networks and synthetic damaged leaf images produced from a real dataset to estimate defoliation. Initially, they preprocess the real images to reach a limited size and binarized masks. The researchers then apply an artificial defoliation technique to generate a large amount of labeled data from damaged artificial leaves. Finally, they used the data to train Convolutional Neural Networks models (AlexNet, VGGNet, Resnet), in which the last layer performs a regression to estimate the damaged area value. The applied train dataset contains images from soybean leaves. Although the presented results display leaves from two different species, the solution’s generality to different leaves with varying shapes is debatable.

Also, Machado et al. (Machado et al., 2016) proposed an original method to estimate the foliar damage caused by herbivory. Their work presents a novel algorithm based on parametric curves to estimate the original leaf shape. Using this data, they determine the estimated damage based on the predicted shape of the original leaf. Once again, this method’s generality is uncertain, as it relies on the assumption that the leaves have non-convex shapes.

Manso et al. (Manso et al., 2019) also created a smartphone application to detect rust in coffee leaves. For this matter, their algorithm separates the leaf from the background using different color spaces. Then, it segments the damaged spaces using Otsu’s algorithm. Finally, they identify and classify the damage using artificial neural networks. Once again, although the researchers presented precise results, their algorithm cannot be generalized for various plant species and issues.

To detect Yellowness and Esca in grapevines, Al-Saddik et al. (Al-Saddik et al., 2018) established an
analysis based on spectral reflectance and image texture. They preprocess the images based on different color spaces. Then, they classify them using artificial neural networks. Once again, their work is technically sound, obtaining outstanding results. Nevertheless, this technique and method apply directly to the targeted species without generality.

Liang et al. (Liang et al., 2018) created a method to estimate leaf area, edge, and defoliation in soybean plants. In their application, the user manually selects a region of interest in which the algorithm examines the requested information. They estimate the original leaf area and calculate the leaf damage using this procedure. Although the researchers present good results to soybean crop leaves, they do not analyze their solution in a more general context.

Although many works present solutions regarding this problem, most of them lack generalism. Some of the related papers propose shape-dependant methods. Others treat issues related to single or few species. It is also impossible to claim how general the procedures are, based on some works’ provided information. Finally, these authors do not analyze the quality of the shape reproduction. In this work, we present and test a method applied to leaf images from multiple species, allowing us to determine how general the solution is in terms of shape and species.

3 METHODS OVERVIEW

In this section, we present a general overview of the proposed method. Also, we display a general overview of how we developed this work.

The proposed method’s main thread starts with a preprocessing to extract a mask containing the leaf area in the image, separated from its background. Then, we submit the segmented image to a trained Conditional GAN model to obtain the estimated original leaf shape. Finally, we compare the output with the input image to obtain the estimated percentage of defoliation. Figure 1 illustrates this method.

Also, we used the preprocessing method to generate the masks’ database containing the entire leaves’ shapes. We used these images to generate a synthetic database containing leaf masks with artificially included damage. This database was further used to train the Conditional GAN method to obtain the test model, using the original masks database as ground truth. Figure 1 also illustrates this set of stages.

3.1 Databases Description

In this work, we used two different databases. The first one is henceforth named FLAVIA. It was presented by Wu et al. (Wu et al., 2007). This set contains pictures from 1907 leaves from 33 different plant species. The pictures are colored images with a resolution of 1600x1200 pixels. We used this dataset
for the synthetic database creation and model training, validation, and tests.

We also used the Middle European Woods dataset, presented by Novotny and Suk (Novotný and Suk, 2013). Henceforth called MEW 2012, this set contains 9745 leaf images from 153 different species and is also available already binarized, with various resolutions. We used this dataset to perform further tests on the damage estimation process and the shape reconstruction.

3.2 Preprocessing

In the last section, we presented some of the state-of-the-art techniques to estimate leaf damage. In this section, we present the initial processing process to segment leaves from the background. To capture the leaf shape, we followed a systematical preprocessing algorithm in six steps:

1. Insert paddings to fit the image into a square;
2. Reduce the size of the image to 400x400;
3. Convert to grayscale;
4. Enhance the contrast using a radiometric transformation;
5. Calculate the threshold using Otsu’s method;
6. Binarize the image;

In the synthetic dataset generation, we also eliminate internal holes to generate ideal leaf images. Finally, we developed a novel randomly artificial damaged leaf image creation method, with which we produced a dataset to train the Conditional GAN.

This subsection presents the preprocessing method’s details to segment the leaf area from the background. Furthermore, this process is also the basis for synthetic dataset generation.

At first, we transform the image to grayscale. After this, we include paddings to alter the picture into a square shape, according to its largest dimension. The padding pixels use the maximum pixel value from the image to support the binarization process thresholding. After this primary process, we submit the image to a contrast enhancement using a radiometric transformation. For this, the application must scale the image pixels in the [0, 1] interval. We chose the exponent based on experimental tests on the grayscaled frames. This transformation darkens the intensity of the darkest pixels and increases the intensity of the lightest pixels. This transformation changes the pixel value according to the equation below:

\[ G_f(x,y) = G_i(x,y)^{10} \]  

Finally, after the contrast enhancement, the following stage is the binarization. For this matter, we used Otsu’s method (Bangare et al., 2015) to determine the separation threshold from the leaf and the background. This method seeks to maximize the intra-class variance function, \( \sigma^2(k) \), given by the equation:

\[ \sigma^2(k) = \frac{[\mu_T \omega(k) - \mu(k)]^2}{\omega(k)(1 - \omega(k))} \]  

Where \( k \) is the highest number of all the possible threshold values and:

\[ \omega(k) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} p(i) \]  
\[ \mu(k) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} i.p(i) \]  
\[ \mu_T = \sum_{i=1}^{L} i.p(i) \]  

Obtained from the histogram normalized as a probability density function, \( p(i) \), for the \( L \) candidate values of separation threshold in the histogram. With this method, we estimate the ideal threshold to binarize the image. The \( \omega(k) \) term represents the class probability, \( \mu(k) \) term represents the class means, and \( \mu_T \) represents the global mean. Finally, \( i \) assumes all values present in the histogram. The identified vulnerability is that this preprocessing method can identify reflection spots as damage, as it uses a single threshold value. Nonetheless, this method has been demonstrated to be reliable for image binarization. This issue could misidentify these spots as a damaged area.

3.3 Synthetic Dataset Generation

In the last section, we presented the preprocessing method to binarize leaf images and prepare them to apply the proposed method. In this section, we present the technique applied to produce the database for the GAN training. In this stage, we used the FLAVIA dataset, presented in Section 3.1.

Most leaves in the dataset present no damage. Some of them present a small amount of damage and some present light reflection spots. To overcome this and create a better representation of the ideal leaf shape, we selected the largest contour recognized after the binarization to create a complete leaf representation. From this technique, we created the 1907 masks corresponding to the 1907 images on this dataset. In the next stage, we need to create measurable artificial damage in the leaf masks to create a supervised learning dataset.
3.4 Artificial Damage Creation

In this subsection, we present how we created artificial random damage on the leaves. As Da Silva et al. (da Silva et al., 2019), we also applied artificial damage techniques to generate a training dataset.

At first, we understand that the leaf has a slightly greater probability of having damage at its borders. Thus, we created a 2-D probability distribution, $g(x,y)$, centered on the $(x_0, y_0)$ average center position of the $x$ and $y$ coordinates of the leaf mask binarized image. Equation 6 of this 2-dimensional Gaussian distribution centered in $(x_0, y_0)$ and a $\sigma$ standard deviation is:

$$g(x,y) = e^{-\frac{(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Furthermore, we created a probability density function (PDF), $p(x,y)$, for the damage using $g(x,y)$ according to the following equation:

$$p(x,y) = 1 - g(x,y) + P_0$$

Where $P_0$ is a minimum probability offset. Finally, the probability of damage outside of the leaves limits in the image must be zero. This condition happens by multiplying the PDF function by the leaf mask. In the first stage of this work, we chose a baseline value of $P_0 = 0.3$, and $\sigma = 100$ based on the databases’ practical tests. In the second stage, we chose a baseline value of $P_0 = 0.6$, and $\sigma = 10000$, to generate more damage on average.

In the case of a positive answer, it injects the loss at the spot, randomly selecting a reference size. The area has a 10% probability of having a 60-pixel reference value, 40% probability of having a 30-pixel reference value, and 50% of having a 20-pixel reference value.

To generate the synthetic dataset, we produced 12 versions of each leaf with random losses. For this matter, we chose a pixel located in a coordinate, $(x, y)$, as a candidate for receiving the artificial damage. The damage only occurs if the pixel is located in the boundaries of the leaf. For the first four images, we ran the method with 100 coordinates. For the fifth to the eighth, we executed the procedure with 200 coordinates. For the final four, we performed it with 300 coordinates. The resulting dataset presented 22884 shapes with various levels of artificially generated damage.

3.5 Conditional GAN Architecture

In the last section, we presented the preprocessing procedure used to feed the shape reconstruction and damage estimation algorithm. Furthermore, we introduced how we generated artificial damage to create the training dataset. In this section, we present the architecture of the Deep Neural Network applied in this solution.

Our implementation takes the work of Isola et al. (Isola et al., 2017) as a baseline. For this matter, we applied a U-Net based Conditional GAN architecture. This network has two main modules: a generator and a discriminator. At first, the generator takes an input image and produces a predicted output. Then, the discriminator evaluates the prediction.

3.5.1 U-Net

U-Nets are generative models of deep neural networks. Originally, this technique was proposed to perform segmentation in biomedical images (Ronneberger et al., 2015). They are similar to Variational Autoencoders (VAEs) (Hou et al., 2017), and
due to their generative capability, they can be used to reconstruct images pixel-by-pixel. These networks are applied for recognition and segmentation (Dong et al., 2017; Oktay et al., 2018) and for reconstruction (Hyn et al., 2018; Antholzer et al., 2018).

3.5.2 Generator

The architecture of the generator is an Encoder-Decoder network. This implementation uses a U-Net, which is an Encoder-Decoder with interconnected mirrored layers. Figure 3 displays a high-level visualization of this architecture.

3.5.3 Discriminator

The discriminator follows a PatchGAN architecture. This composition is similar to the encoding section of an Encoder-Decoder network. Still, according to Isola et al. (Isola et al., 2017), this is an application of a Markovian Discriminator and can have a reduced size.

3.5.4 Training

This network employs a two-part training. At first, the algorithm trains the discriminator according to the baseline answers. After this, the generator weights are updated according to the baseline truth and the discriminator guess.

Initially, we performed the training algorithm for 20 epochs. The first results were already better than the ones presented in the literature. Nevertheless, we observed some signals of overfitting. Thus, we trained the network for five epochs, obtaining a significant improvement. With this further improvement, the error reaches a way smaller value, becoming the state-of-the-art on the proposed problem.

3.6 Damage Estimation

In the previous section, we presented the network architecture and its training aspects. In the preprocessing stage, we convert the image to grayscale and apply a binarization process. After this, we apply this image to the Conditional GAN, obtaining a mask with the predicted original shape as a result. Finally, we calculate the damage percentage as:

\[ P_d = (1 - \frac{\sum_{i,j} Im_d(i,j)}{\sum_{i,j} Im(i,j)}) \times 100(\%) \]  

(8)

Where \( P_d \) represents the damage percentage, \( \sum_{i,j} Im_d(i,j) \) represents the sum of the binarized value (0 or 1) of each pixel of the damaged leaf image, and \( \sum_{i,j} Im(i,j) \) represents the sum of the binarized value (0 or 1) of each pixel of the baseline image. We used the original image mask as the baseline for calculating the ground truth values of damage and the model’s outputs to calculate the predicted damage.

3.7 Evaluation Methods

The previous section introduced the neural network applied to estimate the leaves’ original shape, starting from damaged leaf images. We also presented the image datasets and the artificial damage generation process used to produce the synthetic dataset before this. In this section, we display the methods to evaluate the prediction quality. From the original 22884 images, we used the first 22833. We randomly separated these images into three distinct sets. 10% of the images composed the validation dataset. Another 10% formed the test dataset. The remainder 80% were used for training the algorithm. In the second stage, we repeated the process described above, changing the parameters to allow more damage. We also used the 22884 images to produce the dataset using the same proportions.

We also performed a round of predictions in the MEW 2012 dataset after the training process. We reduced the images to 256x256 pixels and applied the same random damage process presented in Section 3.2, with \( P_0 = 0.7 \) and 10 to 40 random damage coordinates chosen for a faster generation process, as the database had several images. Also, we applied the same pixel damage sizes and probabilities. In this case, each image generated four new ones in the dataset, with a total of 38980 images. Although there were some differences in the generation process, the images must be resized to 400x400 pixels for the model to work correctly.

3.7.1 Damage Estimation Evaluation

Similarly to Da Silva et al. (da Silva et al., 2019), we also obtain values of the real defoliation percentage \( d_r \) and the estimated defoliation percentage \( d_e \). This value can be measured on both validation and test sets, as we generated the synthetic dataset from the ground truth. Thus, we also evaluate the Root Mean Square Error, given by the following equation:

\[ RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum (d_e - d_r)^2} \]  

(9)

Also, we perform a set of quantitative and qualitative analysis based on the prediction results.
3.7.2 Shape Reconstruction Evaluation

In the last subsection, we presented the evaluation method for the damage estimation process. After analyzing the defoliation estimation method’s quality, we also provide a quantified evaluation of the image reconstruction process. For this matter, we applied the Dice Coefficient, which is a method also used by several authors to evaluate image similarity (Genc Tav et al., 2012; Sampat et al., 2009; Shamir et al., 2019; Mun et al., 2017; Nitsch et al., 2019). Equation 10 presents how to calculate the dice coefficient \((DC)\) for a pair of images, given by \(A\) and \(B\).

\[
DC = \frac{2|A \cap B|}{|A| + |B|} \tag{10}
\]

The value coefficient result is always in the \([0, 1]\) interval. A high dice coefficient value indicates that the images have high similarity. Thus, we use this factor to measure the shape reconstruction process’s success, calculating the dice coefficient to compare the ground truth and model output images.

4 RESULTS

In the last section, we presented the applied method to evaluate the leaf damage predictions. This process bases on the estimation of the original leaf shape using a Conditional GAN. In this section, we present an overview of the original and predicted data. Also, we display the results of the applied tests and present some preliminary conclusions from quantitative and qualitative analysis.

The first important result is the analysis of the RMSE, defined by the equation 9. The validation dataset had an RMSE value of 0.92 \((\pm 1.90)\), and the test dataset had a value of 0.92 \((\pm 1.85)\). Both validation and test datasets have similar results for the RMSE value. This conclusion presents a considerable advance from the literature methods, which had a reference value of 4.57 \((\pm 5.80)\) (da Silva et al., 2019). After the second training stage, the obtained results for the error were even lower. The validation dataset had an RMSE value of 0.61 \((\pm 0.99)\), and the test dataset had a value of 0.52 \((\pm 0.73)\). Table 1 presents these obtained results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Validation Set</th>
<th>Test Set</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial Round</td>
<td>0.92 ((\pm 1.90))</td>
<td>0.92 ((\pm 1.85))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved Round</td>
<td>0.61 ((\pm 0.99))</td>
<td>0.52 ((\pm 0.73))</td>
</tr>
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</table>

The validation set for the initial stage contains 2283 images randomly selected from the original dataset. The estimated average damage on this set is 10.68 \(\pm 6.34\%\). The maximum damage value is 37.99\%. The real average damage is 9.86 \(\pm 6.03\%\), with a maximum value of 35.31\%. For the second stage, the initial stage’s validation set contains 2288 images randomly selected from the original dataset. The estimated average damage on this set is 23.88 \(\pm 12.97\%\). The maximum damage value is 65.59\%. The real average damage is 23.84 \(\pm 13.06\%\), with a maximum value of 65.76\%. In Figure 4 and 5, we display the boxplots with the distribution from this data.

![Figure 4](image1.png)

**Figure 4: Validation Set - Damage Distribution for the Initial Round.**

![Figure 5](image2.png)

**Figure 5: Validation Set - Damage Distribution for the Improved Round.**

Also, we produced a graph comparing the obtained data with the ground truth. We did it both for the initial and improved stages. Figure 6 and 7 display the...
results for the validation dataset on the initial and improved rounds.

Similarly, the test set also contains 2283 images randomly selected from the initial set. The average estimated damage in this set is 10.66 ± 6.44%. The maximum value in this set is 56.14%. The real damage distribution average and standard deviation are 9.84 ± 6.19%, with a maximum damage of 52.74%. In Figure 8 and 9, we display the boxplots with the distribution from this data.

We also produced a graph comparing the obtained data with the ground truth. Figure 10 and 11 displays the results for the test dataset on the initial and improved rounds. A qualitative analysis of the results shows that the sets have similar distributions, reinforcing the RMSE parameter results.

4.1 MEW 2012 Results

As mentioned, after the first test, we also performed predictions in another database, with different species from the ones used in training. For this matter, we chose the MEW 2012, containing 9745 images, from which generated 38980 images with artificial random
The average estimated damage in this set is 5.05%. The standard deviation for this distribution is 4.43%. The maximum damage value in this set is 37.90%. In this case, the real damage distribution average and standard deviation are 3.93 ± 4.39%, with a maximum value of 41.87%. The RMSE for this prediction is 1.76 (± 3.02).

We also presented the graph comparing the obtained data with the ground truth. Figure 12 displays the results for the MEW 2012 dataset. As this dataset has more species and samples, the predictions’ distribution looks wider from qualitative analysis. Thus, the RMSE result confirms that the prediction quality was similar, even with a dataset containing leaves from more and untrained species.

### 4.2 Shape Reconstruction Results

We compared the network model’s output with the ground truth initially generated or obtained from the datasets to evaluate the shape reconstruction. Initially, we evaluated the distributions for the validation and test datasets and performed a statistical analysis to check if the predicted and original shapes represent different populations based on their dice coefficient results distribution. The populations distributions presented in Figures 13, 14, and 15.

In red, we present the dice coefficient comparing the damaged leaves with the original shapes. In blue, we present the dice coefficient comparing the reconstructed leaves and the original shapes. The variances between the red and blue populations are different. Therefore, we chose to apply Welch’s $t$-test to compare the populations. For all the studied cases, the $p$-value was lower than $2 \times 10^{-16}$, indicating that the populations mean is not equal. In other words, the process creates different shapes that are not caused by random events.

For the reconstructed data, the dice coefficient’s average value in the validation set is 0.992 ± 0.008. The average result for the test set is 0.993 ± 0.007. The worst-case was 0.869 for the validation test, 0.912 for the test set. Finally, the average obtained from the MEW 2012 set is 0.988 ± 0.017.
5 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS

In this work, we proposed a novel method to estimate the leaf damage, based on reconstructing the original leaf shape using a U-Net based Conditional GAN. This network was trained using a synthetic dataset with artificial random damage and tested using elements from the original dataset and an independent dataset.

We identified some of the most relevant papers in the literature dealing with defoliation and leaf damage estimation in the related work. Some solutions use parametric curves to estimate the original shape, while others try to classify the leaves or estimate damage using artificial neural networks. Nevertheless, the practical solutions present no proof of generality for working with different species.

Before supplying the algorithms, the algorithm preprocesses the images and converts them to masks containing the original image’s leaf segments’ location. For this matter, we add padding to the image to turn its shape into a square. After this, we convert the picture to grayscale and enhance the contrast. Finally, we binarize it using Otsu’s method. We removed small damage and noise in the synthetic dataset generation, using only the most significant identified contour.

In this first stage, we used the FLAVIA dataset, containing 1907 images from 33 species. To generate the synthetic database, we proposed a method to produce artificial random damage. With this method, we created a database containing leaves with different damage levels. We used this data to supply deep neural network training, as well as validation and test.

The network architecture is a Conditional GAN. This method used a U-Net as generator architecture and PatchGAN as the discriminator. After training the algorithm, we compared the damaged leaf with the original image to obtain the defoliation value ground truth and compared them against the generated images with the predicted shape, providing the estimated defoliation percentage.

The validation and test sets results indicate that the damage estimation algorithm performed better than the previous work observed in the literature. Our reference values for the RMSE parameter vary from 0.61 (± 0.99) to 0.52 (± 0.73). All the reference values are lower than the reference parameter found in the literature, which is 4.57 (± 5.80). Also, the dice coefficient average indicates that the shape reconstruction was accurate in most of the cases.

To test the model generalism, we applied our method to leaves from the MEW 2012 dataset, con-
taining 9745 images from 153 species. We also generated random synthetic damage on the leaf masks to predict the original shape and calculate the damaged area. Even with more leaves from more species, the algorithm maintained the RMSE factor in 1.76 \pm 3.02, indicating the proposed solution’s generalism. Also, in this case, the dice coefficient average indicates that the shape reconstruction was accurate.

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