

Unsupervised Tree Detection and Counting via Region-Based Circle Fitting

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Abstract: Automatic tree detection and counting is a very important task for many areas such as environmental protection, agricultural planning, crop yield estimation and monitoring of replanted forest areas. This paper presents an unsupervised method for tree detection from high resolution UAV imagery based on a modified version of the Decremental Ellipse Fitting Algorithm *DEFA*. The proposed Decremental Circle Fitting Algorithm (*DCFA*) works similarly to *DEFA* with the main difference that *DCFA* uses circles instead of ellipses. According to *DCFA*, the skeleton of the 2D shape is calculated first, followed by the initialization of the circle hypotheses and the application of the Gaussian Mixture Model Expectation Maximization algorithm. Finally, model evaluation is performed based on the Akaike Information Criterion. The *DCFA* method was tested on the Acacia-6 dataset, which depicts six months acacia trees, collected with Unmanned Aerial Vehicles in Southeast Asia and it exhibits high performance compared with the state-of-the art unsupervised and supervised methods.

1 INTRODUCTION

Automatic tree detection and counting is a very important task for many areas such as environmental protection, agricultural planning, crop yield estimation and monitoring of replanted forest areas. The different characteristics of various species of trees also make it a challenge. However, with the increasing availability of remote sensing data with high and very high spatial resolution, we are now able to collect information at the level of individual trees. Especially, nowadays, Unmanned Aerial Vehicle (UAV) has become a promising tool for tree detection due to its high spatial resolution and low cost. The majority of the studies use high-resolution aerial or satellite imagery or LiDAR data from a relatively open forest, such as oil palms, olive trees, and fruit trees (Osco et al., 2020; Salamí et al., 2019). Numerous unsupervised methods, based on the spectral and textural features of high-resolution imagery or the elevation features of the Li-DAR data were developed for tree detection. Recently, Deep Learning based algorithms have an increasing potential in developing an automated approach to tree detection and counting with excellent performance.

Unsupervised tree detection methods are based

on the spectral and textural characteristics of high-resolution imagery or the altitude factor of LIDAR data. Numerous methods, such as watershed segmentation (Chen et al., 2006), region growing (Erikson, 2003), polynomial fitting (Wu et al., 2019), distance discriminant clustering (Li et al., 2012), adaptive mean shift (Yan et al., 2020), template matching (Vibha et al., 2009), and object-oriented image segmentation (Qiu et al., 2020) are developed to detect individual trees (Duncanson et al., 2014). Recently, deep learning based algorithms show an increasing potential in developing automated approaches to tree detection and counting with excellent performance.

In this paper, the problem of unsupervised tree detection is studied, since this is still an open problem available for further research and in which the scientific community shows great interest. The proposed method, called Decremental Circle Fitting Algorithm (*DCFA*), is a modified and simplified version of the Decremental Ellipse Fitting Algorithm (*DEFA*) presented by (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2016). In (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2016), an augmentative approach *AEFA* (Augmentative Ellipse Fitting Algorithm) has been also proposed and compared with *DEFA*. *DEFA* outperforms *AEFA* especially for middle and high complexity shapes. The goal of *DEFA* is to represent a given 2D shape with an automatically determined number of ellipses such that the total area covered by the ellipses is equal to the area of

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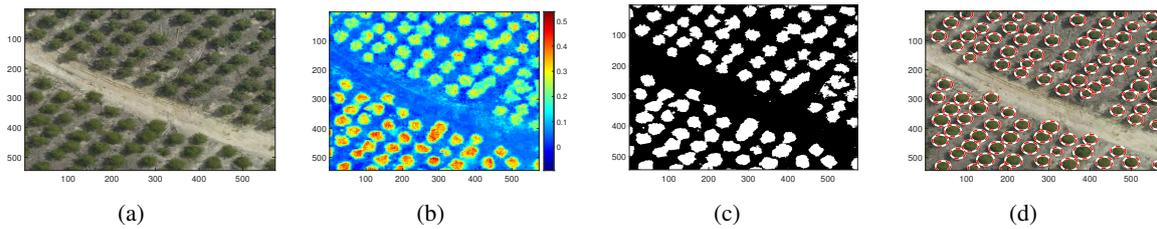


Figure 1: An example of execution of the proposed framework. (a) Original image. (b) RGBVI image (c) Binary image (d) Tree Detection.

the original shape, without any assumptions or prior knowledge about the object structure. The first step, is the creation of the 2D shape's skeleton. *DEFA* starts with a large number of ellipses defined automatically (complex model) and eliminates them gradually (model simplification). Different solutions involving different numbers of ellipses are evaluated based on the Akaike Information Criterion (*AIC*) (Akaike, 1974). Similarly, the goal of *DCFA* is to represent a given 2D shape with an automatically determined number of circles having the same constraints and steps as *DEFA*. Figure 1 depicts an example of the execution of the proposed framework and its intermediate results. The input of *DCFA* is a binary image (see Fig. 1(c)) that is computed using the vegetation index image (see Fig. 1(b)) of the given aerial image (see Fig. 1(a)).

In (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2016), *DEFA* has been applied on more than 4,000 2D shapes showing its effectiveness on a variety of shapes, shape transformations, noise models and noise contamination levels. *DEFA* has also been successfully applied in the problem of cell segmentation and counting (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2018; Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2020). In (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2018), the application of *DEFA* provides good performance results on segmentation and counting of cell nuclei. Better results on segmentation of touching-overlapping cells were achieved in (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2020), by using an extension of the existing method via fitting of overlapping ellipses. Experimental results demonstrated the effectiveness of *DEFA* in segmenting potentially overlapping cells.

On the tree detection problem, due to the fact that trees have a circular shape, the modification of ellipse fitting to circle fitting provides more robust results. It holds that if two or more trees are connected in the binary image (same detected object), then ellipse fitting *DEFA* may provide lower *AIC* using less ellipses (under-segmentation) or higher number of ellipses (over-segmentation) than the true number of trees. Such typical example is depicted in Fig. 2. In this example, when *DEFA* is used, *AIC* is minimized

using four ellipses resulting over-segmentation (see Fig. 2(i)). Additionally, the global minima of *AIC* under *DEFA* is not so clear. On the other side, under *DCFA*, it holds that *AIC* is clearly minimized under the true number of trees (see Fig. 2(b)). Additionally, according to our experimental results, due to the simplified model of circle, that requires less computations than ellipse model, *DCFA* is 40% faster than *DEFA* on tree detection problem. Detailed experimental results and comparisons of *DCFA* and *DEFA* are also provided in Section 4.

The main contribution of this work is the development of a fully unsupervised method for tree detection from high resolution UAV imagery which exhibits high performance compared with the state-of-the-art unsupervised or supervised methods. Another contribution, is that we show that circle fitting (*DCFA*) is more suitable than ellipse fitting (*DEFA*) on tree detection problem. *DCFA* has several advantages over other existing methods:

- *DCFA* is a parameter free method.
- *DCFA* is a region-based method, so it is more robust and tolerant to noise and boundary segmentation errors than boundary-based methods (e.g. (Khan et al., 2018)).
- *DCFA* automatically identifies the number of trees by considering different numbers of circles and evaluating them based on the *AIC*.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the related work with emphasis on the unsupervised and supervised techniques. Section 3 discusses the problem formulation and describes thoroughly the main steps of the *DCFA*. Section 4 presents our experimental results. Section 5 presents the summary and conclusion of the paper followed by our proposals for future research.

2 RELATED WORK

2.1 Unsupervised Techniques

A segmentation method for tree canopies in aerial images based on region growing was presented by (Erikson, 2003). By simultaneously using a decision function to include or not include a pixel in the spatial domain and in the colour domain, the irregular contour of the tree canopies is preserved in the segmentation result. In 2004, another approach for automatic extraction of olive trees from satellite images was introduced by (Karantzas and Argialas, 2004). Their image processing scheme consisted of two steps. Firstly, enhancement and smoothing of the image take place using nonlinear diffusion and then extraction of the local spatial maxima of the Laplacian which leads to olive tree extraction.

In 2006, (Chen et al., 2006) presented a method for individual tree canopies detection from LiDAR data. This method applied marker-driven watershed segmentation to isolate individual trees. Tree canopies were detected by searching for local maxima in a canopy maxima model (CMM) with variable window sizes. Unlike previous methods, the variable window sizes were determined by the lower bound of the prediction intervals of the regression curve between canopy size and tree height. The canopy maxima model was developed to reduce commission errors of tree canopy detection. Tree canopies were also detected based on the fact that they are usually located in the centre of the crowns.

An algorithm for individual trees segmentation from the LiDAR point cloud was developed by (Li et al., 2012). Their algorithm uses a top-down growing approach that segments trees individually and sequentially from the tallest tree to the shortest one. The method showed good results in segmenting trees from the LiDAR point cloud in complex mixed conifer forests in rugged terrain. LiDAR data were also used by (Duncanson et al., 2014) as well for single tree detection. Their method used a watershed-based delineation of a canopy height model, (CHM), which was then refined using the LiDAR point cloud.

In 2018, a method of automatic delineation of tree canopies based on very high-resolution satellite imagery, was presented by (Wagner et al., 2018). This method was applied to a forest with a very heterogeneous tropical canopy cover and includes preprocessing, selection of forested pixels, boundary enhancement, detection of pixels in the canopy boundaries, correction of shadows for large trees and, finally, canopy segmentation. Another approach for automatic citrus trees extraction using multispectral im-

agery from UAVs and digital surface models (DSMs) was proposed in the same year by (Koc-San et al., 2018). In this method, tree boundaries were extracted using sequential thresholding, Canny edge detection and circular Hough transformations. A combination of object-oriented image segmentation and regression analysis was proposed by (Rizeei et al., 2018) for oil palm trees detection and counting using satellite imagery and LiDAR data. The Circular Hough Transform *CHT* method was presented by (Khan et al., 2018). Their method was unsupervised and it was consisted of two steps. The first step was the preprocessing of the satellite imagery with unsharp masking followed by enhanced multilevel threshold based segmentation. Taking advantage of circular geometry, circular blobs among these segments were filtered out and counted using the Circular Hough Transform.

In 2019, (Wu et al., 2019) proposed a method to estimate the canopy cover of a pure Ginkgo biloba L. planted forest in China. Their method was consisted of an individual tree segmentation-based method using LiDAR data, a canopy height model-based method, and a statistical model method. Another automated method for individual tree detection was presented by (Marques et al., 2019). Their method was based on the calculation of vegetation indices using visible (RGB) and near-infrared (NIR) bands combined with the tree canopy height model.

2.2 Supervised Techniques

In recent years, Deep Learning based algorithms have shown increasing potential for developing automated approaches to tree detection and counting with excellent performance. A Multi-level Attention Domain Adaptation Network for oil palm tree detection and counting was developed by (Zheng et al., 2020). They used a classification method with various post-processing steps. Semantic segmentation is used to classify image regions into distinct groups based on their content. The Fully Convolutional Network *FCN* (Long et al., 2015), *SegNet* (Badrinarayanan et al., 2017), *Unet* (Ronneberger et al., 2015), *DeepLab* (Chen et al., 2017), and *PSPNet* (Chen et al., 2017) are commonly used networks. Yao et al. (Yao et al., 2021) used four networks, including *CNNs* and *FCNs*, for tree counting. They reported that the encoder-decoder *FCNs* showed better results than the *CNNs*. A similar study was conducted by (Tong et al., 2021). Their Point-Wise Supervised Segmentation Network *PWSSN* is able to complete the detection and create a mask for each tree.

Semantic segmentation cannot separate individual objects from the same category. However, object de-

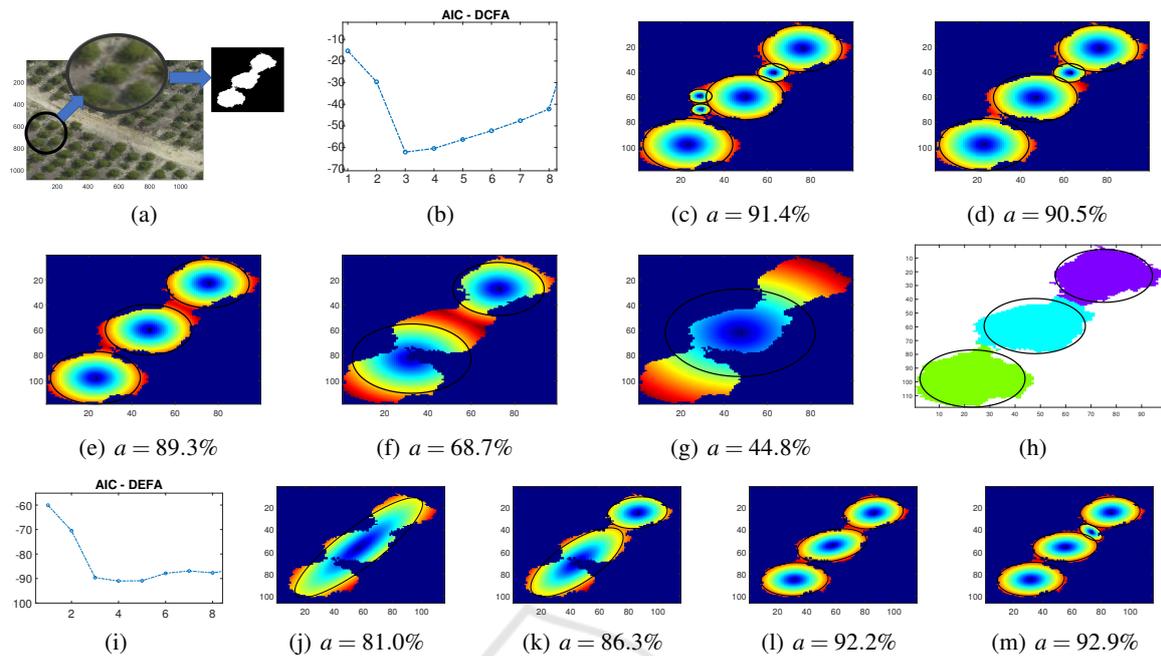


Figure 2: (a) Original image and the binary object that is given to the *DCFA* as input. (b) the *AIC* criterion for different values of circles. (c)-(g) The intermediate solutions proposed by *DCFA* using 6, 4, 3, 2 and 1 circles. Captions show the estimated values of shape coverage. (h) The association of pixels to three circles which is the final solution estimated by *DCFA*. (i) The *AIC* criterion for different values of ellipses *DEFA*. (j)-(m) The intermediate solutions proposed by *DEFA* using 1, 2, 3, 4 ellipses. Captions show the estimated values of shape coverage a .

tection is able to recognise each object in the input image and categorize it accordingly. A bounding box can be used for the individual object detection. Common algorithms include Region-based Convolutional Neural Networks *RCNNs* (Girshick et al., 2014), *SPP-Net* (He et al., 2015), and *Fast RCNNs* (Ren et al., 2015). These methods consist of two steps. First, the proposed areas are defined, and then, the bounding box is created and the categorization is performed. A DeepForest network for detecting individual trees was proposed by (Weinstein et al., 2020). A deep-learning method for palm trees detection and counting on aerial geotagged imagery was proposed by (Ammar et al., 2021). Their method involved three object detection networks. However, the tree canopies could not be delineated.

Instance segmentation is a combination of semantic segmentation and object detection and it is able to detect objects and demarcating their boundaries (He et al., 2017). Instance segmentation is used for counting trees by demarcating their canopies. A *Mask R-CNN* model and feature pyramid network *FPN* were used by (Ocer et al., 2020) for tree extraction from high-resolution UAV data with different scales and tree contents.

In 2019, a deep learning approach to predict and count oil palm trees in satellite imagery was presented

by (Mubin et al., 2019). The proposed method consisted of two different convolutional neural networks *CNNs* to detect young and mature oil palm trees and GIS during data processing and result storage. A method for detecting diseased pinus trees that combines deep convolutional neural networks *DCNNs*, deep convolutional generative adversarial networks *DCGANs*, and an AdaBoost classifier was presented by (Hu et al., 2020). A convolutional neural network *CNN* approach for citrus tree counting from multi-spectral UAV imagery was presented by (Osco et al., 2020). The method estimates a dense map with the certainty that every pixel contains a tree. A mask region-based convolutional neural network *Mask R-CNN* for detecting discontinuous canopy and height of Chinese fir was presented by (Hao et al., 2021).

In 2022, a deep-learning method based on instance segmentation for tree counting was developed by (Sun et al., 2022). They used the cascade mask regions with convolutional neural networks *CMask R-CNN* and added three types of attention modules to build the derivatives of *CMask R-CNN*. A deep learning model for detecting and counting olive trees on satellite images was proposed by (Abozeid et al., 2022). The proposed *SwinTUNet* model is a *Unet*-like network consisting of an encoder, a decoder, and skip connections. The Swin Transformer block is the basic

unit of *SwinTUNet* to learn local and global semantic information.

3 TREE DETECTION AND COUNTING

In this Section, we present the Decremental Circle Fitting Algorithm (*DCFA*) for unsupervised tree detection and counting based on a modified version of the Decremental Ellipse Fitting Algorithm (*DEFA*) (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2016). The main difference with *DEFA* is that the proposed method *DCFA* approximates an arbitrary 2D shape with a number of circles instead of ellipses. *DCFA* is simpler and faster (40% according to our experiments) than *DEFA* due to the simplified model of circle, that requires the estimation of three parameters, instead of five parameters model of ellipse. The input to *DCFA* is a binary image representing the shape to be modelled by circles. *DCFA* starts with an automatically defined, large number of circles (complex model) and progressively eliminates some of them (model simplification). Different models are evaluated based on the *AIC*.

3.1 Problem Formulation of Circle Fitting

Similarly with the problem formulation of ellipse fitting presented in (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2016), hereafter we present the proposed problem formulation of circle fitting so that the total area covered by the circles is equal to the area of the original shape without any assumption or prior knowledge about the object structure (Equal Area Constraint).

We assume a binary image I that represents a 2D shape. A pixel p of I belongs either to the foreground FG ($I(p) = 1$) or to the background BG ($I(p) = 0$). The area A of the 2D shape is given by

$$A = \sum_{p \in FG} I(p) \quad (1)$$

We also assume a set C of k circles C_i , each with an individual area $|C_i|$. A binary image U_C is also defined such that $U_C(p) = 1$ at points p that are inside any of the circles $C_i \in C$ and $U_C(p) = 0$, otherwise. Then, we define the coverage $\alpha(C)$ of the 2D shape by the given set of circles C as:

$$\alpha(C) = \frac{1}{A} \sum_{p \in FG} I(p) \cdot U_C(p) \quad (2)$$

In essence, $\alpha(C)$ is the percentage of 2D shape points that are below some of the circles in C . Let $|C|$

denote the sum of the areas of all circles

$$|C| = \sum_{i=1}^k |C_i| \quad (3)$$

The problem of Maximum Coverage $MAX-\alpha$ amounts to computing the parameters of a set C^* of k circles C_i , so that $\alpha(C^*)$ as defined in Equation 2 is maximised, under the constraint that the sum of the areas of all circles is equal to the area of the 2D shape (Equal Area Constraint). Formally,

$$C^* = \arg \max_C \alpha(C) \text{ s.t. } |C| = A \quad (4)$$

According to Equation 4, different models of the same number of circles can be evaluated. However, in tree detection problem, the number of circles that better fit on a segmented object is generally unknown. Therefore, in this work we have used *AIC* to evaluate models with different number of circles (see Section 3.3.3).

3.2 Image Segmentation

We assume a high-resolution UAV aerial image containing a large number of trees. Each tree has no holes and stands out from its local background with its green color and round shape.

The first step in our approach is to compute the vegetation index (see Fig. 1(b)). Vegetation indices maximize sensitivity to vegetation characteristics and minimize interfering factors such as background soil reflection, directional effects, or atmospheric effects. Specifically, we used the red-green-blue vegetation index *RGBVI* introduced by (Bendig et al., 2015). The *RGBVI* is defined as the normalized difference of the squared green reflectance and the product of blue and red reflectance:

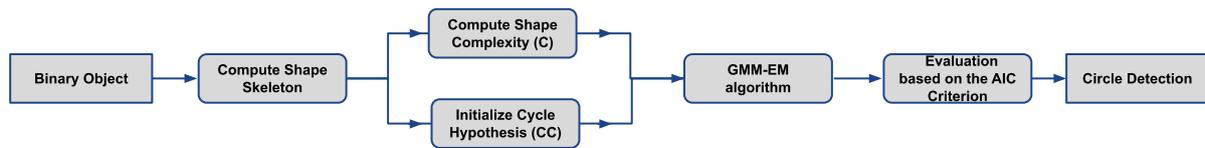
$$RGBVI = \frac{(R_G)^2 - (R_B * R_R)}{(R_G)^2 + (R_B * R_R)} \quad (5)$$

where R_G , R_B and R_R denote the red, blue and green reflectance respectively.

The following step is to create a binary image I using the Otsu method (Otsu, 1979) and then fill the holes and reject very low are objects (see Fig. 1(c)). The binary image I represents a set of 2D shapes to be modelled by circles. Then for each detected object (2D shape), *DCFA* is applied as described below.

3.3 DCFA Algorithm

The *DCFA* works similarly to *DEFA* (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2016) with the main difference that *DCFA* uses circles instead of ellipses. The main steps

Figure 3: The schema of the main steps of the *DCFA*.

of the *DCFA* are depicted in Fig. 3 and are explained thoroughly below:

3.3.1 Initialization of Circle Hypothesis

First, the medial axis (skeleton) S of the 2D shape is calculated. Then follows the initialization of the circle hypotheses. *DCFA* defines a set CC of circles that are used as initial circle hypotheses. The centers of these circles lie on S and their radius is defined by the minimum distance of these centers from the contour of the shape. The circles are considered for inclusion in CC in decreasing order of radius. Initially, $CC = \emptyset$. Each considered circle is included in CC if its overlap with the already selected circles is below a certain threshold.

3.3.2 Evolution of Circle Hypothesis

The Gaussian Mixture Model Expectation Maximization *GMMEM* algorithm is responsible for computing the parameters of a fixed number k of circles in C with the best coverage $\alpha(C)$ of the given 2D shape. This is achieved by the repeated application of two steps. The assignment of the shape points to the circles and the estimation of the circle parameters.

3.3.3 Solving for the Optimal Number of Circles

Different models (i.e., solutions with different numbers of circles) are evaluated based on the AIC criterion (see Eq. 6), which weighs the trade off between model complexity and approximation error. The AIC-based model selection criterion amounts to minimizing the following quantity for all possible numbers of circles, k :

$$AIC(C) = SC \cdot \ln(1 - \alpha(C)) + 2 \cdot k \quad (6)$$

where SC denotes a shape complexity measure (SC) defined in (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2016). SC is calculated based on the radius of the circles centered on and maximally inscribed in the 2D skeleton of the shape. Intuitively, this attains a good balance between the increased shape coverage achieved when more circles are used to approximate a particular shape and the associated increased complexity of that model (due to the increase in the number of circles used).

To minimize the AIC criterion, *DCFA* reduces the number of circles considered starting from a large,

automatically defined set (the set CC of circles defined in the initialization step). Since there is no lower bound on the AIC as the number of circles decreases, this process continues until the set of all circles contains a single circle. In each iteration (each candidate number of circles from $|CC|$ down to 1), a pair of circles is selected as candidates for merging. The pair that is finally merged is the one that gives the lowest AIC. Of all possible models (with a minimum of 1 to a maximum of $|CC|$ circles), the one with the minimum AIC is finally reported.

Figure 2 illustrates an example run of *DCFA*. The colour-map of Figure 2(c)–2(g) corresponds to the distance of foreground pixels from the center of the circles introduced so far (cold and warm colours denote small and large distances, respectively). As shown in Fig. 2(c) and 2(d), the circles that are located in the most over-segmented regions are selected so as to maximise the expected coverage. Figure 2(b) shows the AIC criterion for different values of circles. The solution with three circles clearly minimizes AIC. Figure 2(e) and 2(h) shows the final solution and the clustering of pixels, respectively.

4 EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

4.1 Dataset

For the assessment of the proposed methodology we used the Acacia-6 dataset introduced by (Tong et al., 2021). The dataset was created by Unmanned Aerial Vehicles in an area covered by acacia trees in South-east Asia. The size and morphological characteristics of these trees change greatly during the growing season, resulting in obscurations and overlaps. Therefore, the Acacia dataset is created with different months such as 6 and 12 months (Tong et al., 2021). For this work, the Acacia-6 dataset was used which contain acacia trees at the age of six months (see Fig. 4). The shape of trees in Acacia-6 is complete, and there are clear boundaries between objects. In the experiment, we divided the original Acacia-6 image into 247 sub-images of the same size.



Figure 4: Acacia-6 Dataset (Tong et al., 2021).

4.2 Evaluation Metrics

To evaluate the proposed method, we used the metrics True Positive Rate (TPR) also known as Recall, Precision ($Prec$) and F_1 -score (F_1). The following equations are used to define the above mentioned metrics:

$$TPR = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (7)$$

$$Prec = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \quad (8)$$

$$F_1 = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN} \quad (9)$$

where TP is the value of true positives meaning the correctly identified trees, FN is the value of false negatives meaning the number of trees that are not recognized by the algorithm and FP is the value of false positives meaning the number of tree predictions that contain no trees.

High precision means that almost every prediction is a tree, regardless the number of trees that are not recognized by the algorithm. In contrast, a high recall means that almost all trees were found, regardless the number of tree predictions that contain no trees. The F_1 -score is the harmonic mean of precision and recall.

4.3 Baseline Methods

The proposed method is compared with the following unsupervised methods:

- *CHT* method proposed by (Khan et al., 2018) is based on Circular Hough Transform as described in Section 2.1.
- *CHT++* method, an improved version of the *CHT* method that reduce false positives of *CHT*. The *CHT++* method overcomes this drawback by adding an area constraint that excludes spurious

tree predictions. This is done by removing the detected circles having low the number of pixels that belong to the binary image I (green area).

- *DEFA* method proposed by (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2016) as described thoroughly in Section 1.

In order to show the robustness of the proposed method, it is also compared with the following state-of-the-art supervised and weakly supervised methods:

- Point-Wise Supervised Segmentation Network *PWSSN* proposed by (Tong et al., 2021) which was described in Section 2.2.
- Weakly Supervised Deep Detection Network *WSDDN* introduced by (Bilen and Vedaldi, 2016) which performs simultaneously region selection and classification.
- Proposal Cluster Learning *PCL* introduced by (Tang et al., 2018) which generates proposal clusters to learn refined instance classifiers by an iterative process.
- Continuation Multiple Instance Learning *C-MIL* method presented by (Wan et al., 2019) which targets alleviating the non-convexity problem of multiple instance learning using a series of smoothed loss functions.

4.4 Experimental Results

Tables 1 and 2 summarize the results of the unsupervised and supervised methods, respectively, obtained with the Acacia-6 dataset for the original image. The results of the supervised methods (*PWSSN*, *WSDDN*, *PCL* and *C-MIL*) are presented according to the experimental evaluation of (Tong et al., 2021). In our experiments, we have also divided the original Acacia-6 image into 247 sub-images. By dividing the original image into sub-images we are able to calculate the average scores of the individual scores per image of the 247 sub-images. This is done to perform an experiment where all images have the same weight in the metric calculations (equal weight per area). Thus, Table 3 shows the average values calculated for the 247 sub-images of the Acacia-6 dataset from the individual results per image.

As expected Tables 1 and 3 show the same ranking of methods with very little difference between the results of the original image (see Table 1) and the average results of the 247 sub-images (see Table 3). The *DCFA* method clearly outperforms all the unsupervised methods under any metric. *CHT++* ranks second in terms of F_1 -score. It ranks third in terms of the TPR value (but with a very slight difference

from the *CHT* method), however, has a much higher *Prec* value. This points to the main drawback of the *CHT* method, which is that it leads to many false positives and low *Prec* value. The *CHT* method is second in terms of *TPR* value, but has a very low *Prec* value yielding the lowest F_1 -score over all methods. The *CHT++* method, on the other hand, overcomes this drawback by adding an area constraint that rejects false tree predictions, resulting in a higher *Prec* value. *DEFA* is the third top performing method in terms of F_1 -score, that shows the lowest *TPR* value, while its *Prec* value is sufficiently high. This shows that *DEFA* is not able to identify all trees. Its main disadvantage is the higher fusion, which means that two adjacent trees can be identified as one.

Table 1: Results of the unsupervised methods obtained on the Acacia -6 dataset for the original image.

Method	TPR	Prec	F1
CHT	0.875	0.556	0.680
CHT++	0.861	0.853	0.857
DEFA	0.826	0.897	0.860
DCFA	0.876	0.908	0.892

Table 2: Results of the supervised methods and *DCFA* obtained on the Acacia -6 dataset for the original image.

Method	TPR	Prec	F1
PWSSN	0.975	0.983	0.979
WSDDN	0.702	0.776	0.715
PCL	0.751	0.785	0.773
C-MIL	0.826	0.879	0.868
DCFA	0.876	0.908	0.892

Table 3: Average scores of the unsupervised methods computed over individual scores per image of the 247 sub-images obtained from the Acacia-6 dataset.

Method	TPR	Prec	F1
CHT	0.870	0.602	0.694
CHT++	0.861	0.859	0.852
DEFA	0.849	0.889	0.818
DCFA	0.870	0.904	0.883

As it is explained above, the proposed method clearly outperforms all the unsupervised methods under any metric either in the original image (Table 1) or in the sub-images (Table 3). Between the supervised methods (see Table 2), *PWSSN* method proposed by (Tong et al., 2021) is the top-ranking method. The proposed method outperforms the rest of the supervised methods, showing that a fully unsupervised technique can be compared with supervised techniques with satisfactory results. The *C-MIL* method ranks third. The *PCL* and the *WSDDN* methods fail to provide satisfactory results.

Figure 5 shows three example results of the *DCFA*, the *CHT++*, and the *DEFA* methods, respectively, from the Acacia-6 dataset. In all cases, the proposed

method successfully detects the vast majority of trees and achieves a higher F_1 -score value than the other methods. In most of the cases, the detections of the *DCFA* agree with the human intuition. More specifically, Figures 5(a) and 5(b) show that the *DCFA* method correctly identifies all trees, and in Figure 5(b) the vast majority of trees are correctly detected. In these examples, the *CHT++* method is second in terms of F_1 -score due to lower *TPR* value especially in Fig. 5(f). Concerning the *DEFA*, in some cases fails to discriminate adjacent trees, since they may be identified as one due to used ellipse model. Such cases are depicted in the bottom right of Fig. 5(g), in the bottom left of Fig. 5(h) and in the top right of Fig. 5(i).

Figure 6 shows an example of the results of the *CHT* and *CHT++* methods. As shown, the *TPR* value is the same and sufficiently high for both methods. Figure 6(a) shows the main drawback of the *CHT* method, which is that it leads to many false positives and thus a low *Prec* value. The *CHT++* method, on the other hand, overcomes this drawback by adding an area constraint that rejects false tree predictions, resulting in a higher *Prec* value.

According to our experiments there exist some cases where the proposed framework provides low performance results that are mainly due to the failure of the image segmentation step, as depicted in Figure 7. Figures 7(a) and 7(b) depict two sample results of the *DCFA* with low performance on *TPR* and *Prec* metrics, respectively. In the Figure 7(a), the used *RGBVI* index fails to segment some small trees on the right part of the image due to the low image quality. In the Figure 7(b), the used *RGBVI* index detects dense vegetation (plants) as tree region, resulting false alarms. Therefore, even in false detections there is green color that could be confusing even to the human eye. In both cases, the *DCFA* well detects the rest segmented trees.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

An unsupervised method (*DCFA*) for accurate and automatic tree detection and counting was presented in this work. *DCFA* is a modified version of the ellipse fitting algorithm (*DEFA*) introduced by (Panagiotakis and Argyros, 2016) with the main difference that it uses circles instead of ellipses. Different models are evaluated based on the Akaike Information Criterion (*AIC*). The experimental results on the Acacia-6 dataset showed the effectiveness of the proposed method as well as its superiority in comparison to relevant unsupervised state-of-the-art methods. Ad-

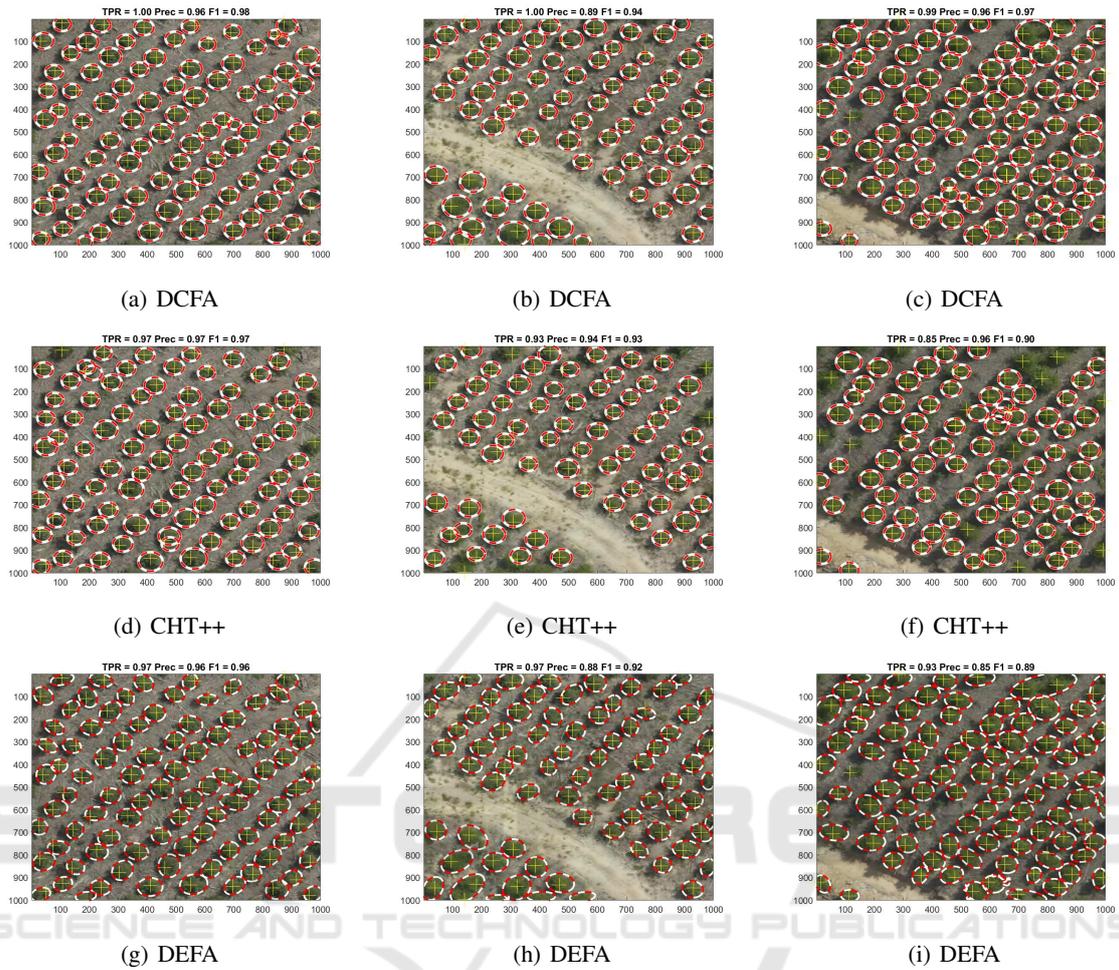


Figure 5: Sample results of the unsupervised methods on the Acacia-6 dataset. The detected and the ground truth trees are plotted with white-red circles and yellow pluses respectively. (a),(b),(c) The results of the *DCFA* method. (d),(e),(f) The results of the *CHT++* method. (g),(h),(i) The results of the *DEFA* method.

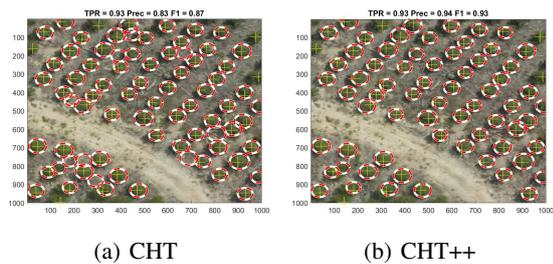


Figure 6: A sample results of the *CHT* (a) and the *CHT++* (b) method on the Acacia-6 dataset. The detected and the ground truth trees are plotted with white-red circles and yellow pluses respectively.

ditionally, the *DCFA* has been compared with state of the supervised methods yielding comparable results on the Acacia-6 dataset. In this work, we also show that the simpler and faster method *DCFA* is more suit-

able than *DEFA* on tree detection problem due to the circular tree shapes.

There is no doubt that automatic tree detection has been extensively explored by the scientific community, but there are still some challenges ahead. Automatic tree detection and counting is an evolving field of research and can effectively contribute to the study of many areas such as environmental protection, agricultural planning, crop yield estimation and monitoring of replanted forest areas. Our goal is not only to improve our method but also to develop such methods for automatic tree detection that can be used as input in a second step for green and agriculture planning. Forest road network planning is an important and challenging task since its spatial arrangement reduces the incidence of fires and prevents the spread of fires on larger areas (Stefanović et al., 2016).

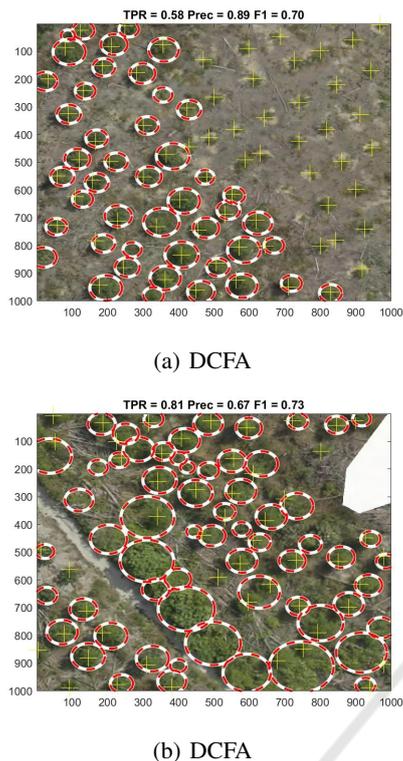


Figure 7: Two sample results of the DCFA with low performance on (a) TPR and (b) Prec metrics. The detected and the ground truth trees are plotted with white-red circles and yellow pluses respectively.

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