

# Hybrid Method for Rapid Development of Efficient and Robust Models for In-row Crop Segmentation

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**Abstract:** Crop segmentation is a crucial part of computer vision methods for precision agriculture. Two types of crop segmentation approaches can be observed – based on pixel intensity thresholding of vegetation indices and classification-based including context (e.g. deep convolutional neural network). Threshold-based methods work well when images do not contain disruptions (weeds, overlapping, different illumination). Although deep learning methods can cope with the mentioned problems their development requires a large number of labelled samples. In this study, we propose a hybrid method for the rapid development of efficient and robust models for in-row crop segmentation, combining the advantages of described approaches. Our method consists of two-step labelling with the generation of synthetic crop images and the following training of the Mask R-CNN model. The proposed method has been tested comprehensively on samples characterised by different types of disruptions. Already the first labelling step based mainly on cluster labelling significantly increased the average F1-score in crop detection task compared to binary thresholding of vegetation indices. The second stage of the labelling allowed this result to be increased. As part of this research, an algorithm for row detection and row-based filtering was also proposed, which reduced the number of FP errors made during inference.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Crop growth monitoring systems (CGMS) are the basis for developing fertilisation and irrigation strategies to meet the needs of individual crops, for selective spraying strategies and yield prediction (Cardim Ferreira Lima et al., 2020). CGMS consist of two key components – the data collection platform (e.g. unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV)) with the camera and the data analysis part, taking into account data processing, machine learning models, visualisation and interpretation of the obtained results. The main requirements for CGMS include: (1) reliable, quantitative information, (2) speed of inference, (3) universality and the ability to adapt quickly to new conditions, (4) low operating cost, (5) low manufacturing cost.

The image analysis part in CGMS requires the use of crop segmentation algorithms whose task is to extract crop pixels from other pixels. In the area of precision agriculture, two approaches to segmentation can be observed. Threshold-based methods as-

sume pixel intensity thresholding of a single-channel image in the form of e.g. a selected channel from a specific colour space (e.g. Lab) or a vegetation index. The thresholds in these methods can be selected unsupervised e.g. Otsu (Otsu, 1979), Kapur (Kapur et al., 1985), Rosin (Rosin, 2001) thresholding or supervised when the threshold value is tuned using labelled samples. The advantage of threshold-based methods is the very short inference time. The second group of methods are classification-based methods taking into account the context, which include convolutional neural networks (CNN) and other classical classifiers such as support vector machines (SVM), k-nearest neighbours (KNN) and random forest (RF).

There are publications that have used and developed threshold-based methods. In (Qiao et al., 2020) classical plant segmentation methods were used: Otsu thresholding of the NIR channel and RGB vegetation index ExG (Woebbecke et al., 1995). In (Ashpüre et al., 2019) the thresholding of RGB vegetation indices Canopeo (Patrignani and Ochser, 2015), ExG, MGRVI, RGBVI (Bendig et al., 2015) proved to be the most effective method for cotton canopy ex-

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traction. In (Castillo-Martínez et al., 2020) a plant segmentation method based on thresholding modified RGB vegetation indices was proposed.

Recently, the main focus has been on developing classification-based methods based on deep convolutional neural networks (DCNN), which are state-of-the-art in numerous computer vision tasks. Researchers have often used DCNN for precision agriculture and forestry problems. In (Chadwick et al., 2020; G Braga et al., 2020) trees were segmented and counted using Mask R-CNN (He et al., 2017) and in (Lobo Torres et al., 2020) using SegNet (Badrinarayanan et al., 2017), U-Net (Ronneberger et al., 2015) and DeepLabv3 (Chen et al., 2017). In (Machefer et al., 2020) low-density crops – potatoes and lettuce – were segmented and counted using Mask R-CNN. In (Bosilj et al., 2020) transfer-learning between crop types was studied for crop/weed semantic segmentation with SegNet. Classification-based methods related to DCNN achieve very high accuracy and are characterised by high robustness.

Two directions of the development of crop segmentation methods in precision agriculture are justified by the optimality of their application in specific cases. When there is no weed infestation, crops do not overlap, the background is homogeneous, the application of methods of classical computer vision based on RGB vegetation indices, automatic thresholding, blob detection gives satisfactory results. On the other hand, when the mentioned problems occur, the application of the threshold-based methods is no longer optimal. Methods based on deep learning are able to cope with this limitation, however, training a robust model requires a large number of labelled samples, which is a considerable limitation for this approach.

The phenomena of weed infestation, shading and overexposure are often local, resulting in a proportion of individual crops that can be segmented by classical methods and be the basis for developing more robust deep learning methods. On the other hand, the use of crop localisation patterns in the field (crops occur in rows and the distance between rows and crops is usually constant) can be used to assess the correctness of class prediction for crops and non-crops.

Our research developed a hybrid method for rapid development of efficient and robust models for in-row crop segmentation, combining the advantages of classical threshold-based methods and deep learning models. It also proposed an approach to improve model prediction by taking into account field geometry and comprehensive evaluation.

## 2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 2.1 Dataset

The samples used in this study represent parts of the research plot that was used to observe celery growth during the 2019 season from June to October. A drone with RGB camera was used to collect images from the field. The selected test samples represent different stages of crop growth (initial, flowering, mature) and disruptions, taking into account: weed infestation, crop overlapping, shadows, overexposure.

The characteristics of the selected test samples are as follows: (1) Reference conditions (no disruptions), initial stage (Ref), (2) Only weeds, inhomogeneous background, flowering stage (Weed), (3) Only overlapping of crops, mature stage (Overlapping), (4) Weeds and overlapping of crops, mature stage (Weed/Overlapping), (5) Variable lighting conditions and overlapping of crops, mature stage (Lighting/Overlapping). The described test samples are shown in Figure 1.

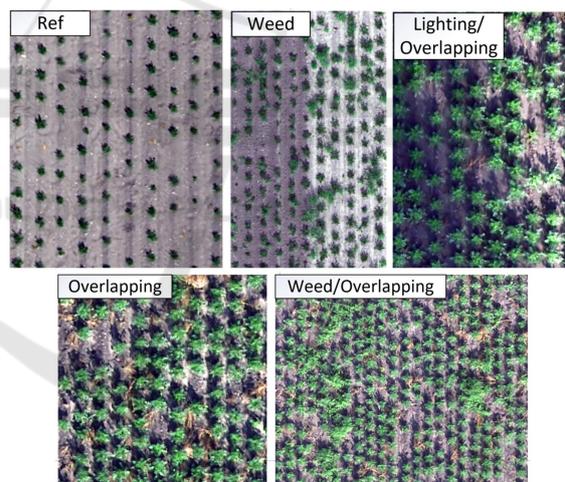


Figure 1: Test samples used in the study: Ref, Weed, Lighting/Overlapping, Overlapping, Weed/Overlapping.

Three types of labelling were used in the study. To validate the methods in crop detection task, all crop midpoints were labelled with point labels. Based on these points, rows were manually identified and their orientation was determined in the form of a row line label. A summary of the number of point and line annotations for specific test samples is shown in Table 1.

Additionally, 10 areas each representing crop and non-crop pixels (e.g. weeds, soil, etc.) were extracted to validate the presented methods in the segmentation task. In particular, areas that are most difficult to classify e.g. crop edges, shadows, weeds were selected.

Table 1: Number of point (crops) and line (rows) annotations for test samples.

|       | Ref | Weed | Ligh./<br>Over. | Over. | Weed/<br>Over. |
|-------|-----|------|-----------------|-------|----------------|
| crops | 132 | 195  | 140             | 132   | 422            |
| rows  | 10  | 11   | 10              | 11    | 22             |

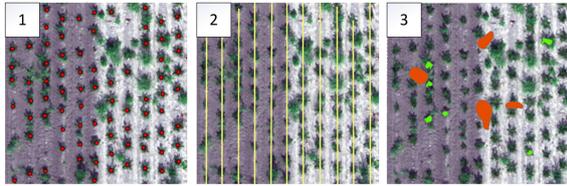


Figure 2: Annotations used in the study: 1. Single crop midpoints, 2. Row lines, 3. Crop and non-crop areas.

Example annotations are shown in Figure 2.

For training, fragments of the field that had no common part with the test samples were used.

## 2.2 Threshold-based Segmentation with RGB Vegetation Indices

For plant/background segmentation from RGB images, a commonly used classical method is thresholding of vegetation indices of the general form:

$$VI(\theta) = \theta_R R + \theta_G G + \theta_B B \quad (1)$$

where  $R$ ,  $G$ ,  $B$  denote RGB image channels and  $\theta_R$ ,  $\theta_G$ ,  $\theta_B$  - coeffs related to this channels.

For this study, ExG index was chosen, whose usefulness has been proven in many works concerning segmentation in precision agriculture (Hamuda et al., 2016; Riehle et al., 2020) with the form:

$$ExG = -R + 2G - B \quad (2)$$

The main assumption in determining the vegetation indices  $VI(\theta)$  is that higher values of  $VI(\theta)$  correspond to plants and lower values to background. Based on this fact, a binary plant/background segmentation can be performed as follows:

$$Y_{predict}^{binary} = (VI(\theta) > T) \quad (3)$$

The use of fixed  $T$  threshold values is rarely applied because it is characterised by low robustness to changes in image characteristics. The most common is automatic thresholding, which determines the optimal threshold based on calculated statistics. Otsu thresholding, which is typically used in combination with RGB vegetation indices for plant/background segmentation, was used in this study.

## 2.3 Segmentation with Mask R-CNN

The second type of models used in this research are models for instance segmentation based on pre-trained DCNNs. Mask R-CNN is a representative of such methods and was chosen for this study due to its widespread use among researchers.

Mask R-CNN is an extension of the Faster R-CNN (Ren et al., 2015) algorithm for instance detection with a segmentation part, which is a small Fully Convolutional Network (FCN) (Long et al., 2015). Its integral part is the so-called backbone, which is a specific convolutional neural network architecture pre-trained on the ImageNet (Deng et al., 2009) dataset, acting as a feature extractor. Backbone ResNet50 (He et al., 2016) was used in this study.

The effectiveness and robustness of deep learning models are strongly dependent on the number and variety of samples prepared for training. The following sections describe how an improved two-step labelling process was conducted for the problems in question.

### 2.3.1 First Stage of Labelling for Mask R-CNN

The first labeling stage aimed to obtain a basic model for instance segmentation very quickly. The improved labelling process is shown in Figure 3.

Standard sample delineation is time-consuming. To reduce the annotation time, a binary mask  $Y_{predict}^{binary}$  obtained by thresholding the ExG index was used. As can be seen in Figure 3 Otsu thresholding of ExG index extracts the greenness from the background very well. If the crops do not overlap, extracted clusters of green pixels representing an individual crop can be added to a collection of crop samples (example individual samples selected for the collection are marked with red rectangles in Figure 3). On the other hand, the extracted background fragments after segmentation can be added to the collection of non-crop samples without additional user supervision. A significant problem during instance segmentation can be caused by green objects, which are not crops, e.g. weeds. If they are not added to the non-crop sample collection, the model will classify them as crops during inference. To avoid this, it was decided at the first labelling stage to label a few such objects and add them to the non-crop sample collection. Due to frequent crop/weed overlaps, it was sometimes necessary to manually delineate the non-crop samples. The total number of samples obtained in stage one was 50 (including at most 10 non-crop samples), which allowed fast labelling and a good representation of the data in the crop sample collection.

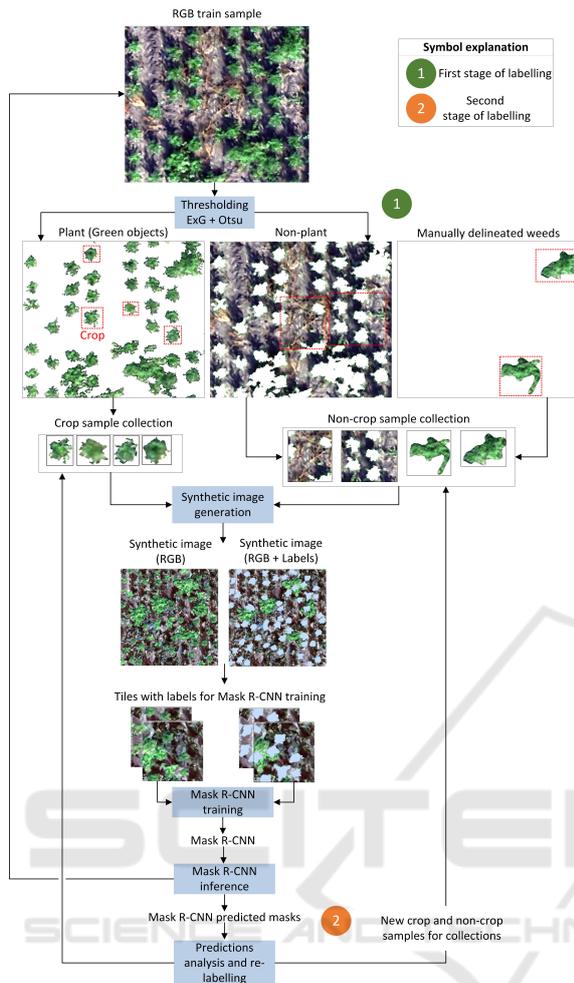


Figure 3: Conceptual scheme of the proposed method for the development of crop segmentation models.

### 2.3.2 Synthetic Images Generation and Mask R-CNN Training

The next step in preparing samples for Mask R-CNN training is generating synthetic images. This approach has many advantages over standard instance labelling on single images: (1) controlling the density and overlapping of crop and non-crop objects, (2) obtaining accurate masks, even when the instances overlap and eliminating the problem of labelling cut instances on the edges of images, (3) the possibility to oversampling objects from minority classes.

The generation of synthetic images in this research was conducted as follows. The input parameters of the proposed method were the number of crop objects, the number of green non-crop objects and the allowed object overlap. First, a heterogeneous background was generated by combining different non-green samples (formed after ExG+Otsu

segmentation) from the non-crop collection. Then samples from the crop collection were placed at random locations. Before adding the next sample, it was checked if the overlap between the new sample and the previous ones was smaller than acceptable. If not, the position of the new sample was chosen again. Adding crop samples was finished when the specified number of samples of this class was reached. The next step was to add green non-crop objects to the synthetic image in the same way as crop objects.

The resulting synthetic image with its corresponding mask was then divided into tiles of standard size 256, obtaining training samples for the Mask R-CNN model, as shown in Figure 3.

### 2.3.3 Second Stage of Labelling for Mask R-CNN

The second labelling stage was used to improve the inference based on the prediction analysis of the first model on the training samples.

During the second stage, the following objects were labelled: (1) crops that were not detected (FN) and formed a separate cluster (for crop collection), (2) non-crop fragments that were detected as crops (FP) and form a separate cluster (for non-crop collection), (3) fragments of crop and non-crop that are detected as crop and form a common cluster (delineation needed, individual fragments to crop and to non-crop collection), (4) detected crops with a low confidence score ( $< 70\%$ ).

After performing the described additional labelling, the selected or delineated objects were added to the corresponding crop or non-crop collections. The procedure for generating synthetic images and training the Mask R-CNN model was repeated.

## 2.4 Crop Rows Detection and Row-based Filtering

The crops considered in this study grew in rows. This typical pattern for the problem undertaken can be used to improve the detection of crops. In this section, an algorithm for crop row detection and row-based filtering will be presented.

In Figure 4 the geometric parameters of the field used in the described methods are defined:  $\alpha$  - slope angle of crop row,  $d_{row}$  - mean distance between rows,  $d_{crop}$  - mean distance between crops in row.

We can easily observe that the centres of the crops, located in the same row, determine the direction of the row. This fact was used in the designed algorithm. For the classical segmentation method, the centres were the midpoints of the detected blobs on the bi-

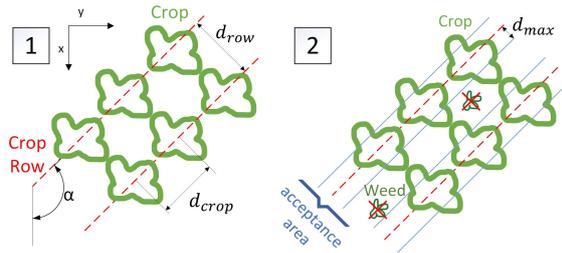


Figure 4: Basic geometric parameters of the field (1) and the idea of row-based filtering (2).

nary mask  $Y_{predict}^{binary}$ . The smallest blobs from this mask were removed, as they would complicate the performance of the algorithm. For the Mask R-CNN model, the centres of the predicted instance masks were used.

As input parameters of the algorithm, the minimum number of crops per row  $n_{crop}$  and the maximum distance between crop and row  $d_{max}$  were also defined, to remove the influence of false positive crop centres on line detection. The idea of row-based filtering is shown in Figure 4. The proposed algorithm for row detection is described in pseudocode:

Input:

S - set of centres of detected crops  
 alpha - angle of field rows  
 n<sub>crop</sub> - min number of crops in row  
 d<sub>max</sub> - max distance between crop and row

Output:

lines - sets of points belonging to rows

```
lines = dict()
line_counter = 1
while len(S) > 0:
    xp, yp = random.choice(S)
    b = yp - tg(alpha)*xp

    points_in_line = {}
    for each (x_i, y_i) in S:

        calculate distance d_i between point
        (x_i, y_i) and line with alpha and b

        if d_i < d_max:
            points_in_line.add((x_i, y_i))

    if len(points_in_line) >= n_crop:
        lines[line_counter] = points_in_line
        for each (x_i, y_i) in points_in_line:
            S.remove((x_i, y_i))
        line_counter += 1
    else:
        S.remove((x_p, y_p))
```

Due to randomness in the selection of points from the set S, the algorithm was repeated k times. The following parameters were adopted for the row detection algorithm:  $n_{crop} = 5$ ,  $d_{max} = d_{row}/4$ ,  $k = 10$ .

## 2.5 Evaluation

The evaluation was conducted for the various tasks to thoroughly compare the methods. This chapter describes the metrics used for the evaluation.

### 2.5.1 Crop Detection Metrics

The evaluation for crop detection was performed using crop midpoint annotations as in Figure 2. Three metrics have been proposed for this problem, namely precision ( $PPV_{Crop}$ ), recall ( $TPR_{Crop}$ ) and F1-score ( $F1_{Crop}$ ), with the following formulas:

$$PPV_{Crop} = \frac{TP_{Crop}}{TP_{Crop} + FP_{Crop}} \quad (4)$$

$$TPR_{Crop} = \frac{TP_{Crop}}{TP_{Crop} + FN_{Crop}} \quad (5)$$

$$F1_{Crop} = \frac{2 * PPV_{Crop} * TPR_{Crop}}{PPV_{Crop} + TPR_{Crop}} \quad (6)$$

where  $TP_{Crop}$ ,  $FP_{Crop}$ ,  $FN_{Crop}$  denotes the number of detected crops midpoints appropriately assigned to the type of prediction

The type of prediction ( $TP_{Crop}$ ,  $FP_{Crop}$  or  $FN_{Crop}$ ) for crop detection was determined as follows. Let us denote as G any ground truth point and as P any prediction point. For each such pair, let us calculate the Euclidean distance between them  $d_{G,P}$ . Next, let us assign to each G point the nearest distance prediction P with the assumption that each prediction point can be used only once (if the same prediction is assigned to several Gs, the closer point G will have priority). G points for which no P point has been assigned (situation when there are fewer predictions than ground truth points) are identified as FN predictions. All unassigned P points are treated as FP predictions. In the situation where a point P is assigned to G, the distance  $d_{G,P}$  determines the type of prediction. If  $d_{G,P} \leq d_{max}$  then the prediction is considered as TP. Conversely, if  $d_{G,P} > d_{max}$  the prediction is denoted as FP. The interpretation of  $d_{max}$  is analogous to Figure 4 and similarly  $d_{max} = d_{row}/4$  is assumed

### 2.5.2 Crop Rows Detection Metrics

The evaluation for crop rows detection was performed using a line annotations as in Figure 2. Similar to the previous section 2.5.1, three metrics were proposed, namely precision ( $PPV_{Row}$ ), recall ( $TPR_{Row}$ ) and F1-score ( $F1_{Row}$ ), which were calculated based on  $TP_{Row}$ ,  $FP_{Row}$ ,  $FN_{Row}$  denoting the number of detected crop row lines appropriately assigned to the type of prediction.

The interpretation of the prediction mistakes ( $TP_{Row}$ ,  $FP_{Row}$ ,  $FN_{Row}$ ) in crop row detection is analogous to the section 2.5.1 except that in this case, instead of the distance between points  $d_{G,P}$ , it is considered the average distance between the row line from the ground truth  $l_g$  and the prediction points  $P_i$  belonging to the row line prediction  $l_p$  with the formula:

$$d_{l_g, l_p} = \frac{1}{N_p} \sum_{i=1}^{N_p} d_{P_i, l_g} \quad (7)$$

### 2.5.3 Segmentation Metric

The quality of segmentation was assessed using the Intersection over Union (IoU) metric with a formula:

$$IoU_{Seg} = \frac{TP_{seg}}{TP_{seg} + FP_{seg} + FN_{seg}} \quad (8)$$

where  $TP_{seg}$ ,  $FP_{seg}$ ,  $FN_{seg}$  denotes the number of pixels appropriately assigned to the type of prediction. Evaluation for crop segmentation was performed for marked crop and non-crop areas as in Figure 2.

## 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the following notations are adopted for the compared approaches: (1) VegIndex for threshold-based segmentation with ExG index and Otsu thresholding, (2) MaskRCNN\_v1 for Mask R-CNN model trained after 1st labelling stage, (3) MaskRCNN\_v2 for Mask R-CNN model trained after re-labelling in 2nd stage. A comparison of the proposed methods is presented in Table 2.

For the Ref sample, all methods (VegIndex, MaskRCNN\_v1, MaskRCNN\_v2) achieved high scores in the crop and crop row detection tasks ( $F1_{Crop} > 0.99$  and  $F1_{Row} = 1$ ) and the differences between them were negligible. In the segmentation problem, the classical VegIndex method for Ref achieved the highest IoU. The results for Ref show the great usefulness of classical methods based on vegetation indices for crop segmentation in images without disruptions in the form of weeds, overlapping.

Significant differences between the methods MaskRCNN\_v1(\_v2) and VegIndex were observed for images containing disruptions (Weed, Overlapping, Weed/Overlapping, Lighting/Overlapping). Even the first model (MaskRCNN\_v1) performed significantly better than VegIndex for these test samples. For crop detection,  $F1_{Crop}$  increased from values of (0.720 - 0.774) for VegIndex to (0.914 - 0.977) for MaskRCNN\_v1. Example predictions of crop midpoints for the considered methods are shown in Figure 5.

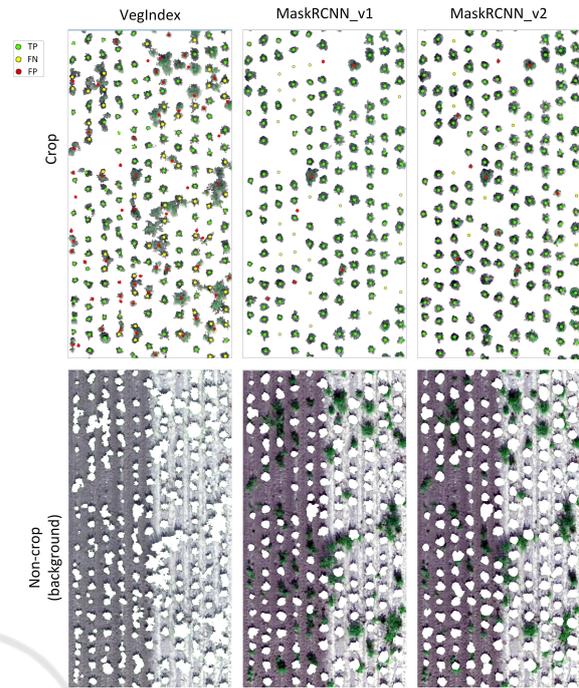


Figure 5: Crop detection and segmentation for the Weed test sample and the analysed methods VegIndex, MaskRCNN\_v1, MaskRCNN\_v2.

In Figure 5 we observe that the source of errors for the VegIndex method is overlapping and weeds. The resulting blobs after classical segmentation often represent connected fragments of crops and weeds. The centre of such an extracted blob is treated as FP (red points) and the centres of the real crops contained in this blob as FN (yellow points).

It is worth noting that in most cases (except for Ref test sample)  $PPV_{Crop} > TPR_{Crop}$  for all methods. One reason for this fact is the row-based filtering applied, which reduced the number of FP predictions. Examples of FP crop predictions that were removed due to row-based filtering are shown in Figure 6.

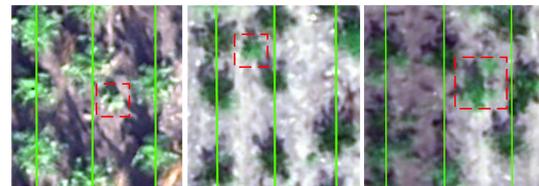


Figure 6: Examples of objects falsely classified as crop and filtered out with row-based filtering.

For crop row detection, the predictions of the models MaskRCNN\_v1(\_v2) made it possible to detect correctly all rows in the test samples. A few errors can be observed for the VegIndex method. Example crop row predictions for the VegIndex and MaskRCNN\_v2 methods are shown in Figure 7.

Table 2: Comparison of the proposed methods.

| Dataset              | Method      | $PPV_{Crop}$ | $TPR_{Crop}$ | $F1_{Crop}$  | $PPV_{Row}$ | $TPR_{Row}$ | $F1_{Row}$ | $IoU_{Seg}$  |
|----------------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|------------|--------------|
| Ref                  | VegIndex    | 0.985        | 1.000        | 0.992        | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | <b>0.780</b> |
|                      | MaskRCNN_v1 | 0.992        | 0.992        | 0.992        | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | 0.673        |
|                      | MaskRCNN_v2 | 1.000        | 0.992        | <b>0.996</b> | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | 0.686        |
| Weed                 | VegIndex    | 0.750        | 0.692        | 0.720        | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | 0.222        |
|                      | MaskRCNN_v1 | 0.960        | 0.872        | 0.914        | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | 0.630        |
|                      | MaskRCNN_v2 | 0.953        | 0.944        | <b>0.948</b> | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | <b>0.821</b> |
| Overlapping          | VegIndex    | 0.847        | 0.712        | 0.774        | 0.917       | 1.000       | 0.957      | 0.945        |
|                      | MaskRCNN_v1 | 1.000        | 0.955        | 0.977        | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | 0.825        |
|                      | MaskRCNN_v2 | 1.000        | 0.985        | <b>0.992</b> | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | <b>0.956</b> |
| Weed/Overlapping     | VegIndex    | 0.880        | 0.659        | 0.753        | 0.952       | 0.909       | 0.930      | 0.242        |
|                      | MaskRCNN_v1 | 0.972        | 0.912        | 0.941        | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | 0.849        |
|                      | MaskRCNN_v2 | 0.983        | 0.957        | <b>0.970</b> | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | <b>0.862</b> |
| Lighting/Overlapping | VegIndex    | 0.823        | 0.664        | 0.735        | 0.900       | 0.900       | 0.900      | 0.667        |
|                      | MaskRCNN_v1 | 1.000        | 0.879        | 0.935        | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | 0.749        |
|                      | MaskRCNN_v2 | 1.000        | 0.971        | <b>0.986</b> | 1.000       | 1.000       | 1.000      | <b>0.858</b> |

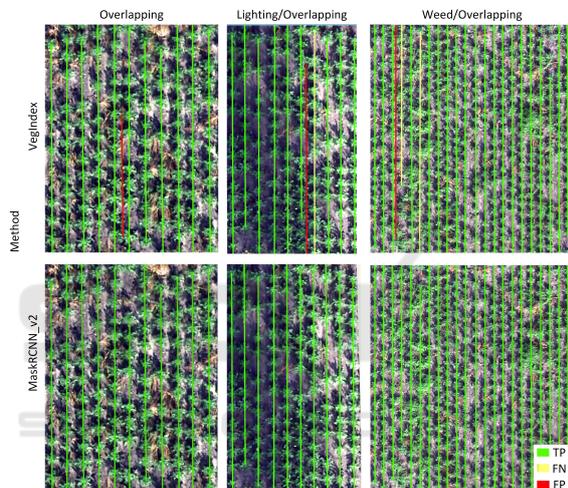


Figure 7: Line detection on Overlapping, Lighting/Overlapping, Weed/Overlapping test samples for VegIndex and MaskRCNNv2 methods.

In Figure 7 two types of errors can be observed: FP (red lines) and FN (yellow lines). Inter-row FP lines result from the overlapping of crops from two neighbouring rows. In such a situation the centres of the resulting blobs after segmentation fall between the rows and may form lines with a similar orientation as the true rows. FN lines were observed in the Weed/Overlapping test sample. The undetected rows in this case were characterised by high weed cover in the row and a relatively low number of visible crops. Despite the few errors in the prediction of the VegIndex method, the proposed algorithm proved to be partially robust to disruptions.

In the segmentation task, as expected, we observe low IoU values for the VegIndex method for samples characterised by weed infestation (Weed, Weed/Overlapping). All weed fragments are treated as crops by the VegIndex method, which is the source

of many FP errors. Despite problems with extracting single instances, the VegIndex method did very well with semantic segmentation of pixels from the Overlapping test sample and achieved comparable results to MaskRCNN\_v2 due to the lack of weeds.

From the results obtained for crop detection and segmentation, we observe a significant improvement comparing the MaskRCNN\_v1 and MaskRCNN\_v2 models. The average  $F1_{Crop}$  increased from 0.952 for MaskRCNN\_v1 to 0.978 for MaskRCNN\_v2. Due to the reduction of a significant number of FP errors by row-based filtering, the reduction of FN errors was mainly responsible for the improved inference of Mask R-CNN-based models, as is shown in Figure 5 (yellow dots indicate FN) and in Table 2 by analysing the  $TPR_{Crop}$  values. This is primarily the result of additional annotations (in the 2nd labelling step) of crops that were not detected by the first model.

## 4 CONCLUSIONS

The developed hybrid method for row-based crop segmentation made it possible to achieve significantly better results than the classical segmentation method based on vegetation indices with low user supervision. Although binary plant/background thresholding is not able to distinguish crops from green weeds it can be used successfully to prepare data for efficient labelling for deep learning models, as shown in this research. It was also demonstrated that considering field parameters through row-based filtering reduces mistakes made by the deep learning model.

The next steps in the development of our methods could be the improvement of the generation of synthetic samples and a method to automatically complete sample collections of different classes.

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