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# Automatic Citrus Canker Detection from Leaf Images Captured in Field

Min Zhang<sup>a</sup>, Qinggang Meng<sup>b,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup>College of Computer Science, ChongQing University, China.

<sup>b</sup>Department of Computer Science, Loughborough University, UK.

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## Abstract

Citrus canker, a bacterial disease of citrus tree leaves, causes significant damage to citrus production worldwide. Effective and fast disease detection methods must be undertaken to minimize the losses of citrus canker infection. In this paper, we present a new approach based on global features and zone-based local features to detect citrus canker from leaf images collected in field which is more difficult than the leaf images captured in labs. Firstly, an improved AdaBoost algorithm is used to select the most significant features of citrus lesions for the segmentation of the lesions from their background. Then a canker lesion descriptor is proposed which combines both color and local texture distribution of canker lesion zones suggested by plant phytopathologists. A two-level hierarchical detection structure is developed to identify canker lesions. Thirdly, we evaluate the proposed method and its comparison with other approaches, and the experimental results show that the proposed approach achieves similar classification accuracy as human experts.

### *Keywords:*

Citrus canker detection, Zone-based texture distribution, Classification, Hierarchical detection, Feature learning, Hue-intensity-saturation.

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## 1. Introduction

Citrus canker is a disease which gets worldwide concern as its potentially hazardous threat to citriculture. This disease can affect all types of citrus

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\*Corresponding author

Email addresses: zhangmin122@hotmail.com (Min Zhang), q.meng@lboro.ac.uk (Qinggang Meng)

4 crops, including oranges, sour oranges, grapefruit, tangerines, lemons and  
5 limes and presently it occurs in over thirty countries in Asia, Pacific and  
6 Indian Ocean islands, South America, Middle East and USA (Polek, 2007).

7 This disease is caused by the bacterium *Xanthomonas axonopodis* pv  
8 *citri* (Xac) (Vernière et al., 2003). The infection of citrus canker results  
9 in defoliation, die-back, premature leaf and fruit drop and at last the trees  
10 will produce no fruits at all. Citrus canker is highly contagious and can be  
11 spread rapidly by wind, rain, landscaping equipment, people work in field,  
12 moving infected or exposed plants or plant parts. Moreover, citrus canker  
13 is difficult to eradicate. Once it is introduced into an area, elimination of  
14 inoculum by removal and destruction of infected and exposed trees is the  
15 most accepted practice to quarantine the disease and stop further spread  
16 (Gottwald et al., 2001; Gottwald and Timmer, 1995). For example, U.S.  
17 Department of Agriculture established a regulation – the “1900-ft rule”. The  
18 regulation requires the removal and destruction of diseased citrus trees and  
19 of all citrus trees within a 1900-ft radius. In United States, over 12 million  
20 US dollars per year are dedicated to citrus canker control program.

21 At present, there is no effective method to eradicate citrus canker, and the  
22 basic strategy is to reduce the effect of infection and to prevent the spread.  
23 Detecting citrus canker at the early stage is the key to control this disease.  
24 So far different technologies have been used to identify citrus canker, such as  
25 plant physiology, biochemistry, serological techniques, molecular biology and  
26 detection methods based on information technology (Gambley et al., 2009;  
27 Golmohammadi et al., 2007).

28 The most accurate methods of citrus canker identification are serological  
29 techniques, and molecular biology (for examples, enzyme-linked immunosor-  
30 bent assay, protein profiles as determined by electrophoretic techniques and  
31 DNA analysis methods) (Park and Young, 2006; Park et al., 2006). These  
32 methods have to be carried out in laboratory and some of them are costly  
33 and time consuming, and they are mainly used by quarantine bureaus to  
34 confirm the disease.

35 The widely used method to identify canker in field is by plant phy-  
36 topathologists’ visual observation of each suspicious tree (Gottwald et al.,  
37 2002; Das, 2003). It is based on the fact that citrus canker is mainly a  
38 leaf-spotting disease. Leaf lesions become visible about 7 to 10 days after  
39 infection. As the lesions age, they change appearance in different phases,  
40 and they are easy to be confused with other citrus diseases, such as citrus  
41 scab disease. Identification of citrus canker needs experienced experts, oth-

42 erwise the misjudgment can lose the best opportunity to prevent the spread  
43 of the disease. The lack of experts in this area limits the timely and wide  
44 identification of the disease.

45 As information technologies have been applied in more and more fields,  
46 new methods are now being investigated to identify citrus disease.

47 • **Fluorescence spectroscopy:** In Brazil, scientists proposed methods  
48 to detect citrus canker in citrus plants using laser induced fluorescence  
49 spectroscopy. They developed a new optical technique to detect citrus  
50 canker with a portable field spectrometer unit and showed that the  
51 laser induced fluorescence spectroscopy had the potential to be applied  
52 to citrus plan (Belasque et al., 2008).

53 • **Hyperspectral imaging:** hyperspectral imaging approach was devel-  
54 oped by (Qin et al., 2009; Lins et al., 2009) to detect canker lesions on  
55 citrus fruits. They used spectral information divergence classification  
56 methods to detect the disease and obtained good classification results.

57 • **Machine vision technology:** Pydipati (Pydipati et al., 2006) used  
58 machine vision technology to identify the citrus canker on citrus leaves.  
59 All the sample leaves were preprocessed and their images were captured  
60 by an imaging station under the same angle and light. HIS color space  
61 and spatial gray-level dependency matrices were used to generate color  
62 texture features, then SAS stastical analysis were conducted to reduce  
63 feature set and classify four kind of citrus leaves, which are greasy spot,  
64 melanose, scab and normal citrus leaves. Dae (Dae et al., 2009) also  
65 used the similar methods to detect grapefruit peel diseases.

66 One limitation of the existing image-based citrus canker detection meth-  
67 ods is that they are all based on images collected in a highly controlled  
68 environment under specific conditions. However in real world, it is often the  
69 planters who first find the symptom of disease in field. In comparison with  
70 the other two methods mentioned above, machine vision technology has ad-  
71 vantages in detection citrus canker in field. It needs no specific equipments or  
72 chemical reagents, and images are easy to capture by digital cameras, mobile  
73 phones or other equipments and can be transferred by internet.

74 The objective of this paper is to present an approach based on computer  
75 vision to detecting citrus canker. The detection is based on citrus leaf images  
76 collected in field which is more difficult and challenge than those captured in  
77 labs. The main contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

- 78 • Deal with citrus canker detection from real citrus leaf images captured  
79 in field rather than from labs.
- 80 • An improved AdaBoost algorithm was developed to segment citrus le-  
81 sions from background.
- 82 • The whole leaf images were divided into several zones. Then the local  
83 features of each zone (distribution of color and texture information)  
84 were extracted and assembled to generate a citrus canker descriptor.
- 85 • A hierarchical and staged detection scheme was formulated to identify  
86 citrus canker based on images collected under various natural condi-  
87 tions.
- 88 • Several machine learning methods were investigated to construct the  
89 classifier and tested on real-world data. Furthermore, the proposed ap-  
90 proach was also compared with human experts in this area to demon-  
91 strate the feasibility of machine vision and pattern recognition technol-  
92 ogy in citrus canker detection.

93 The rest of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 proposes the  
94 hierarchical citrus canker detection method. Section 3 describes the citrus  
95 canker lesion descriptor. In this section, LBPH (Local Binary Pattern on  
96 Hue) features and the combined local feature are presented. Section 4 reports  
97 the experimental results. Finally section 5 concludes the paper.

## 98 **2. Hierarchical Citrus Canker Detection**

99 To detect citrus canker from the images collected in field is more difficult  
100 than the images captured in labs, one of the key reasons is because the  
101 background is sometimes similar to the specific part of a canker lesion. To  
102 deal with this problem, a hierarchical citrus canker detection algorithm is  
103 presented. Figure 1 illustrates this detection process including the global  
104 matching stage, and the local feature extraction and canker detection stage.  
105 The global matching stage aims to find suspicious citrus disease lesion areas  
106 from background and the canker detection stage is to identify canker lesions  
107 from other citrus disease lesions.

108 Due to the variety of canker lesions, in the global matching stage, we  
109 have to find all the possible areas and some of them may be other disease

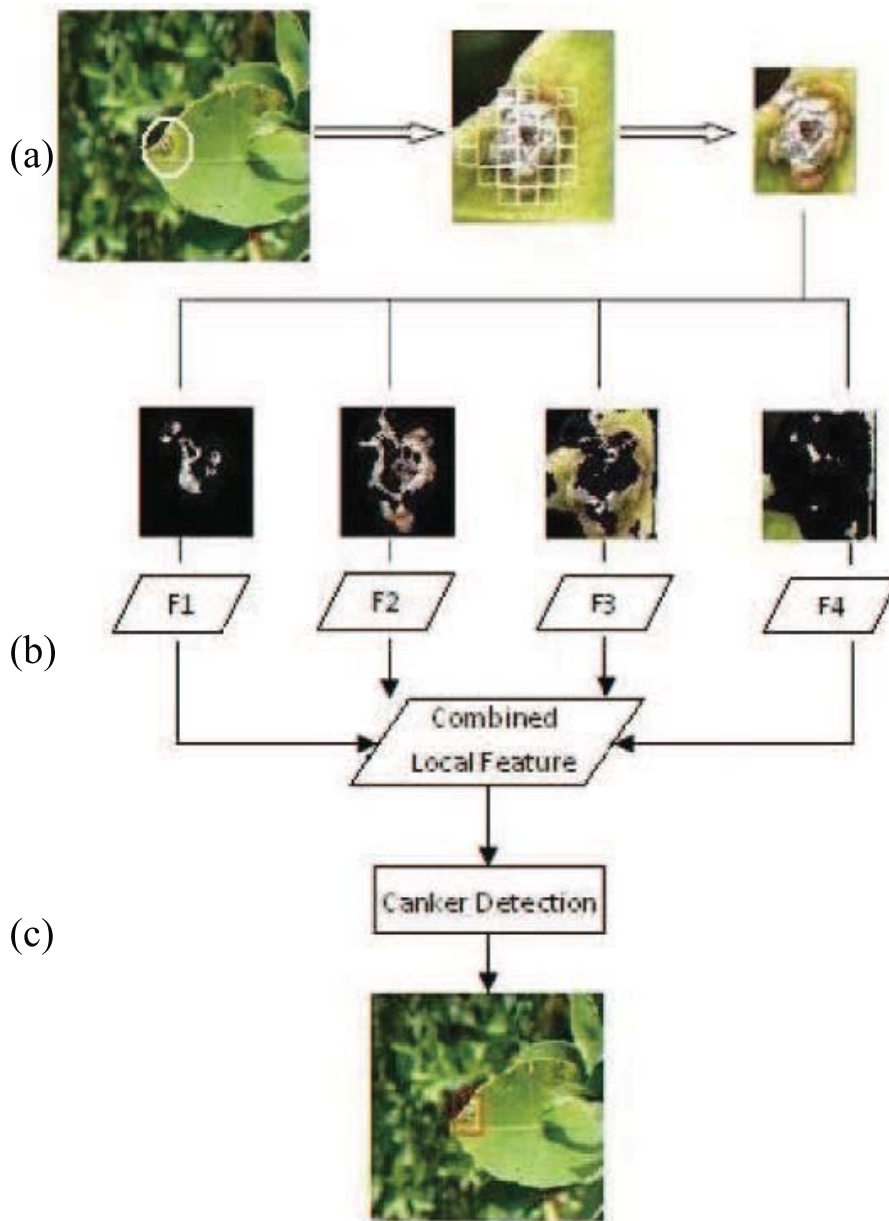


Figure 1: Hierarchical citrus canker detection.(a) global matching based on window union approach; (b) feature extraction based on zones; (c) canker detection and output. F1, F2, F3 and F4 are local feature vectors

110 infected lesions. To avoid missing the canker lesions and to search quickly, in  
111 this phase we use a bottom-up method: window union algorithm as shown  
112 in algorithm 1, for lesion area searching. Firstly the image is searched in  
113 a small window size and classified by classifier  $C_1$  which was used for fast  
114 judging whether a small area is a part of any kind of disease lesion. Then the  
115 detected small windows are merged to form bigger areas. Finally the merged  
116 areas are judged by the classifier named  $C_2$  which was trained with larger-size  
117 image samples than samples used by classifier  $C_1$ . Classifier  $C_1$  and classifier  
118  $C_2$  use the same training method, but work on different window sizes. After  
119 the classification of  $C_2$ , the possible citrus lesion areas were located on the  
120 image. Figure 2 shows the procedure of global matching.

121 Then the merged area was quantized into four zones to extract the com-  
122 bined local features for canker detection. The whole set of citrus canker  
123 images was classified into six types by a clustering algorithm according to  
124 lesion color distribution. In the phase of canker detection, each of the six  
125 classifiers is trained on its corresponding type of citrus canker lesions (as  
126 shown in figure 3) and other disease (not citrus canker disease) lesion sample  
127 set.

128 The features used in this training and detection are the combined local  
129 features, which will be discussed in section 3.2. If the lesion is judged as any  
130 type of canker lesion described above, it is classified to be canker infected.

131 In our approach, a SceBoost algorithm was used to train the above thresh-  
132 old classifiers, the detailed description of SceBoost algorithm is in section 3.1.  
133 Our strategy is to include other disease samples we collected in negative sam-  
134 ple set and take each type of canker lesion samples as positive sample set for  
135 the corresponding classifier. Then the obtained training sets are used to  
136 construct the six individual type canker classifiers.

### 137 3. Citrus Canker Lesion Descriptor

138 Citrus canker lesions' appearance can be described by phytopathologists  
139 as follows (Polek, 2007; Gottwald et al., 2002; Das, 2003): Leaf lesions de-  
140 velop first on the lower surface as tiny, slightly raised, blister like spots; At  
141 first they are circular in shape, then may become irregular; As the lesions  
142 age, they become tan or brown with water-soaked raised margins usually  
143 surrounded by a chlorotic or yellow halo or ring; At last the lesions change  
144 to be corky or spongy and the centers may become crater-like, old lesions  
145 may fall out, creating a shot-hole effect; Lesions' sizes depend on the cultivar

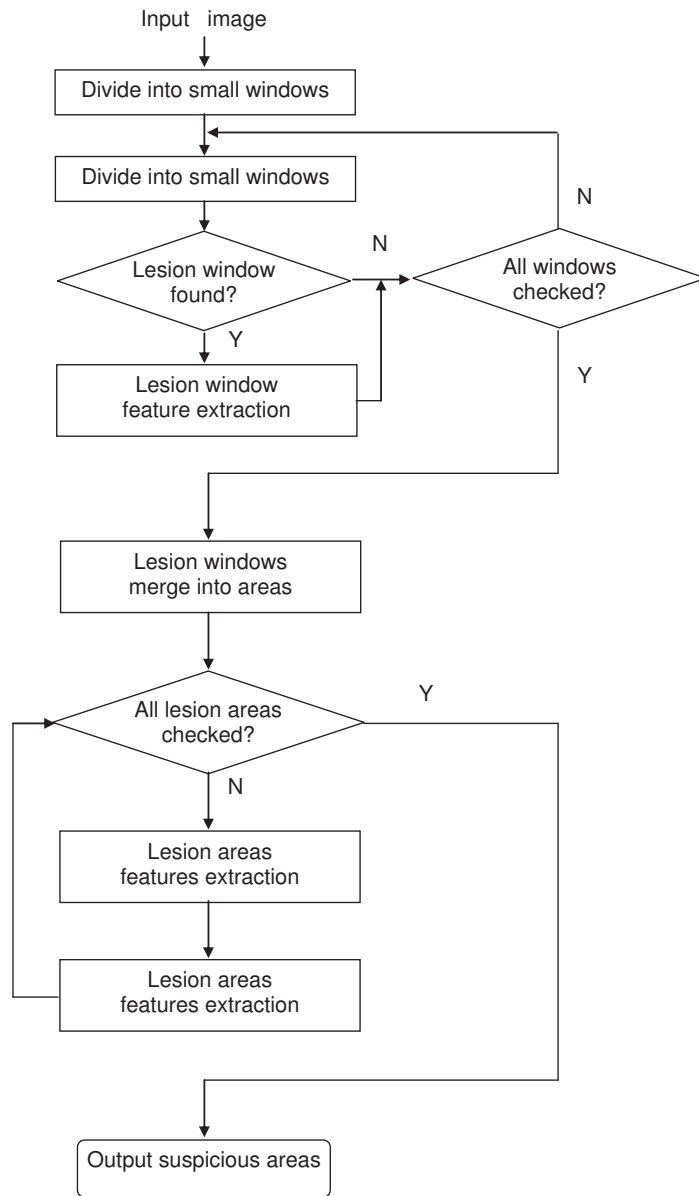


Figure 2: Flowchart of global matching stage



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**Algorithm 1** Window union algorithm for lesion area detection

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**Input:**

- The image,  $I$ ;
- The classifier of small size samples,  $C_1$ ;
- The classifier of area size samples,  $C_2$ ;
- The set of lesion windows,  $Q = \emptyset$ ;
- The set of merged windows,  $P = \emptyset$ ;
- The set of lesion area,  $R = \emptyset$ ;
- The threshold of merged area  $Th$ ;

**Output:**

- The set of merged lesion areas,  $R$ ;

- 1: preprocess image  $I$ ;
  - 2: divide  $I$  into small windows  $W_{ij}$  which are in the same size,  $I = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n (W_{ij})$ ,  
 $W_{ij} \cap W_{pq} = \emptyset$ , if  $i \neq p$  and  $j \neq q$ ,  $m$  is the number of lesion windows at vertical direction and  $n$  at horizontal direction;
  - 3: **for** each  $W_{ij}, i = 1 \dots m, j = 1 \dots n$ , **do**
  - 4:   extract features of  $W_{ij}$ ;
  - 5:   classify  $W_{ij}$  using classifier  $C_1$ ;
  - 6:   **if**  $W_{ij}$  is classified to be lesion, **then**
  - 7:     add  $W_{ij}$  to  $Q$ ;
  - 8:   **end if**
  - 9: **end for**
  - 10: **for** each window  $Q_i, Q_i \in Q$ , **do**
  - 11:   traverse every element in  $P$ ,
  - 12:   **if**  $Q_i$  is adjacent to any area in  $P$ , **then**
  - 13:     **if** area  $P_k$  is adjacent to  $Q_i$ , **then**
  - 14:       add  $Q_i$  to  $P_k$  and update  $P_k$ ;
  - 15:     **else**
  - 16:       add  $Q_i$  to  $P$  as new element;
  - 17:     **end if**
  - 18:   **end if**
  - 19: **end for**
  - 20: traverse every element in  $P$ , if the size of  $P_k \geq Th$ , add  $P_k$  to  $R$ ;
  - 21: **return**  $R$ ;
-

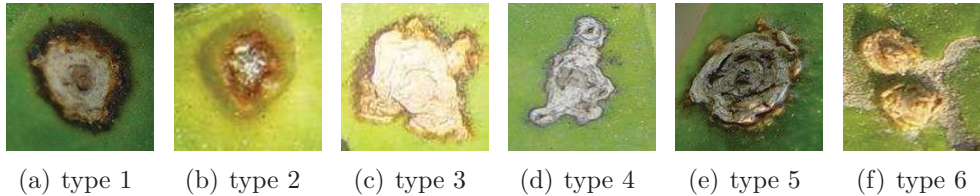


Figure 3: Examples of six types of citrus canker lesions

146 and the age of the host tissue at the time of infection. From the description  
 147 we can find that the lesions vary in shape, size and color by the kind of  
 148 citrus cultivar and the infection time. Rule-based citrus canker description  
 149 was infeasible as it is hard to translate all the phytopathologist knowledge  
 150 into digital image feature patterns. Instead, in this paper, machine learning  
 151 algorithms were investigated to select the most significant features of cit-  
 152 rus canker lesions. Two-level features are proposed to describe citrus canker  
 153 lesions: the first level features named global features are extracted for de-  
 154 tecting citrus lesion areas from the image background; and the second level  
 155 features (named combined local features) are constructed from the lesion ar-  
 156 eas which are detected by global features to further identify canker lesions  
 157 from other confusable citrus diseases lesions. The global lesion feature ex-  
 158 traction is detailed in section 3.1 and followed by the description of combined  
 159 local features in section 3.2.

### 160 3.1. Boosted Global Feature Selection

161 This first stage of citrus lesion detection from an image collected in field is  
 162 to separate lesion areas from background. Figure 4 shows some examples of  
 163 citrus canker images: image in 4(a) is collected in lab and others are collected  
 164 in field. From figure 4 we can find that it is much more difficult to detect  
 165 canker lesions from images collected in field than from those captured in lab:  
 166 the background often includes grasses, citrus leaves and soil, and some of  
 167 these objects are similar with canker lesions to some degree.

168 Because of the complexity of background and the fact that canker les-  
 169 sions have various appearances, it is hard to decide what features are the  
 170 most distinguished ones to represent canker lesions. Several image process  
 171 methods have been used to extract features from canker lesions and back-  
 172 ground, including each component's mean, standard deviation, variance and



Figure 4: comparison of images captured in field and in lab. (a) Image captured in lab; (b)(c)(d) images captured in field

173 correlation coefficient in RGB color space and HIS color space; FFT texture  
 174 features, Gabor features and gray level co-occurrence matrix, gray level dif-  
 175 ference features; the edge amount calculated by Prewitt operators, Canny  
 176 operators and Sobel operators (Zhang, 2008).

177 Boosting algorithm (Freund, 1995; Xiao et al., 2003; Li and Zhang, 2004)  
 178 is a statistical method and the motivation of this method is to integrate the  
 179 results of a set of weak classifiers sequentially and vote them to form a more  
 180 efficient and strong classifier using a weighted voting scheme. It was firstly  
 181 proposed in (Kearns and Valiant, 1989), and (Freund and Schapire, 1997)  
 182 presented Adaboost algorithm which has become a representative boosting  
 183 algorithm.

184 In this study, our previously developed Adaboost algorithm, SceBoost, is  
 185 used to select the most significant features and for constructing classifiers in  
 186 algorithm 1. The selected features are combined into a global feature vector,  
 187 which is tested to be efficient in detecting lesion areas from complicated  
 188 natural background. we improve the original AdaBoost algorithm by using  
 189 both adaptive symmetric cross entropy threshold and classification error to  
 190 select a weak classifier at each range. The weak classifiers in our algorithm  
 191 are linear classifiers using perception approach (Zhang et al., 2007). We can  
 192 define the symmetric cross entropy of two weak classifiers  $h_i$  and  $h_j$  as:

$$SCE(h_i : h_j) = \sum_{k=1}^N |h_i^k - h_j^k| \cdot \left(\frac{w_i^k}{w_j^k}\right)^{w_i^k} \cdot \left(\frac{w_j^k}{w_i^k}\right)^{w_j^k} \quad (1)$$

193 Where  $h_i^k$  is the classification result of example  $X_k$  by weak classifier  
 194  $h_i$ , and  $w_i^k$  is the weight given to example  $X_k$  after the weak classifier  $h_i$   
 195 has been selected,  $N$  is the number of samples.  $SCE(h_i : h_j)$  represents

196 the information difference between  $h_i$  and  $h_j$ . For two class problem  $h_j^k \in$   
 197  $\{-1, 1\}$ , we can use the weights to indicate the information of these random  
 198 variables' distribution. If  $h_i^k$  was not equal to  $h_j^k$ ,  $SCE(h_i : h_j)$  can indicate  
 199 the different amount of information carried by the two weak classifiers. The  
 200  $SCE(h_i : h_j)$  value is large with big difference between  $h_i^k$  and  $h_j^k$ , and vice  
 201 versa.

202 To determine whether a weak classifier  $h_i$  is redundant or not we can  
 203 calculate  $S(h_i)$  as:

$$S(h_i) = \max_t SCE(h_i : h_t); t = 1, 2, \dots, T \quad (2)$$

204 Where  $h_1, h_2, \dots, h_T$  are weak classifiers that have been selected at training  
 205 round  $T$ . Before  $h_i$  is selected as the weak classifier for training round  $T + 1$ ,  
 206  $S(h_i)$  will be compared with a threshold  $ATS$ . If value of  $S(h_i)$  is less than  
 207  $ATS$ , then  $h_i$  is deleted from the candidate list. The value of  $ATS$  may  
 208 change during learning period, if we can not find a weak classifier that the  
 209 value  $S(h_i)$  is less than  $ATS$ , then  $ATS$  is adjusted according to equation 3:

$$ATS = ATS * C; 0 < C < 1 \quad (3)$$

210 Where  $C$  is a coefficient which is selected based on experimental results  
 211 (with different  $C$ ). It can affect the search granularity and the computing  
 212 time. The SceBoost algorithm is illustrated in algorithm 2, and more details  
 213 can be found in (Zhang et al., 2007).

### 214 3.2. Local Canker Lesion Feature Description

215 To distinguish a citrus canker from other leaf diseases cannot be achieved  
 216 easily by global features of the whole image only. As shown in figure 5, other  
 217 disease lesions may have the similar shape or color or texture as canker le-  
 218 sions. Detailed information is needed for further identification. From the  
 219 observations of phytopathologists it can be seen that the canker lesion may  
 220 be divided into several specific zones. The combination of all zones and the  
 221 fusion of different features of each zone can describe the subtle differences be-  
 222 tween canker lesions and lesions caused by other citrus diseases. A combined  
 223 local feature descriptor is proposed in this research based on each zone's  
 224 features.

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**Algorithm 2** Algorithm SceBoost-part 1/2

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**0. Input:**

Training examples  $E = (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$   
The maximum number  $Mmax$  of weak classifiers to be selected  
The initial value of adaptive threshold  $ATS$   
The feature vector  $F = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$ ;  
The candidate classifiers set  $Ch$ ;

**1. Initialization:**

$w_i = 1/N$ ;  $H = \phi$ ;  $h_0 = 0$ ;

**2. Iteration:**

**for**  $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$  **do**

(1) Using  $w_t$  to produce sample weights distribution  $D_t$  on E

$$D_t = \frac{w_t}{\sum_{i=1}^N w_i} \quad (4)$$

(2) On each feature vector  $f_j, j = 1..m$ , fit the weak classifiers  $h_{j,t}$  on  $D_t$  ;

(3)  $Ch = (h_{j,t}, j = 1..m)$

(4) For  $h_{j,t}, j = 1..m$ , calculate classification error:

$$\varepsilon_i = \sum_i w_t^{(i)} |h_{j,t}(x_i) - y_i| \quad (5)$$

(5)

**while**  $Ch$  is nonempty **do**

Choose  $h_{j,t}$  with lowest  $\varepsilon_j$  from the candidate classifiers

Calculate :

$$S(h_{j,t}) = \max_k SCE(h_{j,t} : h_k); k = 1, 2, \dots, t - 1 \quad (6)$$

**if**  $S(h_{j,t}) < ATS$  **then**

The classifier  $h_{j,t}$  is selected,  $h_t = h_{j,t}$ ,  $\varepsilon_t = \varepsilon_j$

Goto (8)

**else**

Remove  $h_{j,t}$  from  $Ch$

**end if**

**end while**

(6) Adjust  $ATS$  according to Eq.(3)

(7) Goto (5)

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**Algorithm 2** Algorithm SceBoost-part 2/2

---

(8) Calculate :

$$\beta_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln\left(\frac{1 - \varepsilon_t}{\varepsilon_t}\right) \quad (7)$$

(9) Update weights:

$$w_{t+1}(i) = w_t^i \beta_t^{1 - |h_t(x_i) - y_i|} \quad (8)$$

end for

**3. Return the strong hypothesis:**

$$H = \text{sign}\left(\sum_{t=1}^T \beta_t h_t(x)\right), \text{ sign is a signum function.} \quad (9)$$

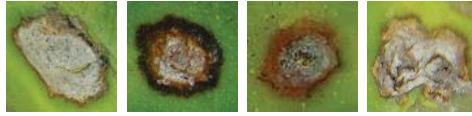
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225 *3.2.1. Local Binary Patterns*

226 Local Binary Pattern (LBP) is a gray-scale texture description which was  
227 originally introduced by Ojala et al. (Ojala et al., 1996). The LBP operator  
228 defines a texture  $T$  for a central pixel in a local neighborhood area of radius  
229  $R$ , which is sampled at  $P$  points:

$$T = t(g_c, g_0, \dots, g_{P-1}) \quad (10)$$

230 where,  $g_c$  corresponds to the gray value of the central pixel,  $g_p$  is the value  
231 of its  $p$ th neighbor. The neighborhood is thresholded by the value of the



(a) samples of citrus canker lesions



(b) Samples of other citrus disease lesions

Figure 5: Citrus canker and other diseases lesions

232 central pixel and the thresholded pixels in the neighborhood are multiplied  
 233 by a corresponding binomial coefficient weight. LBP is a unique P-bit pattern  
 234 code by multiplying binomial coefficient  $2^p$  with each  $S(g_p - g_c)$ :

$$LBP_{P,R} = \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} S(g_p - g_c)2^p \quad (11)$$

235 where:

$$S(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

236 By definition, LBP describes the spatial structure of the local texture.  
 237 However, LBP is normally derived from gray images, color texture images  
 238 need to be transformed into gray images before calculating the LBP, there-  
 239 fore the color information is lost. In the following sections, we obtain the  
 240 color-texture information of an image by deriving its LPB based on the Hue  
 241 component.

### 242 3.2.2. Canker Lesion Zone Segmentation

243 A whole canker lesion includes several elements such as crater-like areas,  
 244 water-soaked margins etc (Polek, 2007) as shown in figure 5(a). Canker  
 245 lesions change with citrus types and the phase of the disease. Classifying  
 246 canker lesions can be regarded as a multi-class classification problem. A  
 247 new color-texture feature LBPH (LBP on Hue) and a feature combination  
 248 method are proposed in order to describe canker lesions. This canker lesion  
 249 description is based on the spatial structure of the canker lesion areas with  
 250 several color quantized zones. The images of the citrus disease area are firstly  
 251 transformed into HIS(Hue-Intensity-Saturation) color space from RGB. HIS  
 252 color space is more related to human perception mechanism than RGB color  
 253 space. Furthermore images collected in field are always under different light  
 254 conditions, the hue component in HIS color space helps to reduce the effect  
 255 of different lights.

256 Our approach is to divide the whole infected area into four zones based on  
 257 the description of plant phytopathologists: the center area, the inner circular  
 258 hue zone, the halo and the leaf background.

259 The quantization method is as follows:  $I$  is the image for segmentation,  
 260 a global threshold algorithm is applied to find three optimized thresholds  
 261  $H_{t1}, H_{t2}, H_{t3}$  on hue component of  $I$  to segment image  $I$  into four zones  
 262  $Z_1, Z_2, Z_3$ , and  $Z_4$ . They may not be regularly segmented zones in shape, but

263 the pixels with a similar hue value are labeled to be in the same zone. As  
 264 shown in figure 6, after the partition, each zone mainly represents a relatively  
 265 meaningful part of a canker lesion and the distribution of zones reflects the  
 266 spatial structure of a canker lesion.

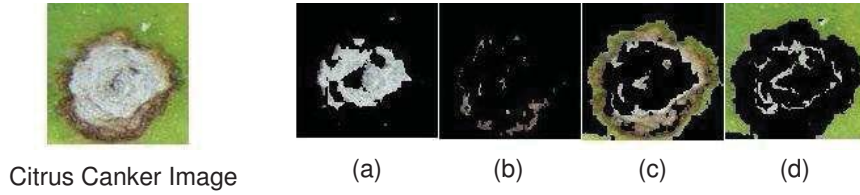


Figure 6: Citrus Canker zone segmentation; The hue-thresholds used are 0.1797, 0.2900 and 0.4036

267 *3.2.3. Citrus Canker Local Feature Description*

268 A measurement of the local color-texture feature of each zone can be  
 269 defined as a LBPH descriptor. The proposed LBPH operator combines color  
 270 and texture by simply deriving LBP based on hue component. It has been  
 271 proved to be efficient ( see comparison results in table 1) especially for color  
 leaf images under various natural light conditions in field in our research.

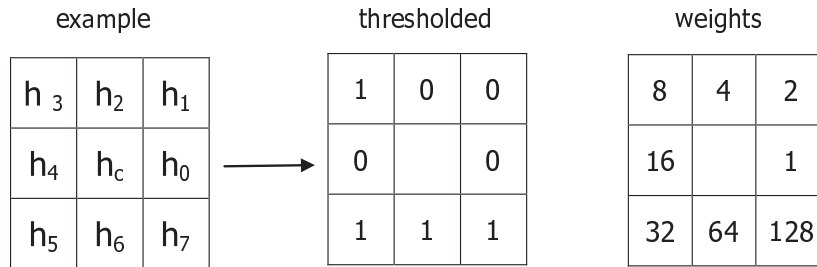


Figure 7: Example of LBPH descriptor. (a) example of 8-neighborhood; (b) thresholded; (c) weights;  $h_3, h_5, h_6, h_7 > h_c$ ;  $h_0, h_1, h_2, h_4 < h_c$ ;  $C = (h_3 + h_5 + h_6 + h_7)/4 - (h_0 + h_1 + h_2 + h_4)/4$ ;  $LBPH = (h_3 * 8 + h_5 * 32 + h_6 * 64 + h_7 * 128) / C$

272 In figure 7, an image is firstly converted into HIS color space. For a local  
 273 neighbored area, the central pixel  $h_c$  and its P neighbors  $h_p$ , ( $p = 0, \dots, P-1$ ),  
 274



275 we can calculate the joint difference texture  $T$  by subtracting  $h_c$  from  $h_p$ ,  
 276 where  $t(h_i - h_j)$  is the difference distribution of color between neighbor pixels  
 277  $h_i$  and  $h_j$ .

$$T = t(h_0 - h_c, \dots, h_{P-1} - h_c) \quad (12)$$

$$h_c - h_p = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h_p > h_c \\ 0 & \text{if } h_p \leq h_c \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

278 Let the number of  $h_p(h_p > h_c)$  be  $c_u$  and the number of  $h_p(h_p \leq h_c)$  be  
 279  $c_l$ . Then contrast operator  $C$  can be calculated as:

$$C = \frac{S_u}{c_u} - \frac{S_l}{c_l} \quad (14)$$

280 where  $S_u = \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} h_p, h_p > h_c$ ; and  $S_l = \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} h_p, h_p \leq h_c$ .

281 If  $c_u$  or  $c_l$  is zero,  $S_u$  or  $S_l$  is directly set to zero. Also from the defini-  
 282 tion 14, we can infer that  $C$  cannot be zero.

283 The LBPH value of a central pixel  $h_c$  is computed as:

$$LBPH_P = \frac{\sum_{p=0}^{P-1} s(h_p - h_c)2^p}{C} \quad (15)$$

284 where

$$s(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

### 285 3.3. Combined Local Feature

286 As shown in figure 6, the segmented zones may represent different parts  
 287 of a canker lesion and the combination of zones can provide the spatial struc-  
 288 ture information of whole lesion. Color or texture vary in these zones, for  
 289 example the texture may be water-soaked or halo. A zone-based combined  
 290 local feature descriptor is proposed to integrate color and texture informa-  
 291 tion. By using the segmentation methods mentioned in section 3.2.2, we  
 292 can get hue-based segmented zones. The distribution of texture in a canker  
 293 lesion can be computed by the mean of LBPH in each zone which is defined  
 294 as formula 16:

$$Z_{kLBPH_P} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M LBPH_{P(i,j)}}{N_k}, (P(i, j) \in Z_k) \quad (16)$$

295 where  $Z_k$  is the mean of LBPH in zone  $k$ ,  $N_k$  is the number of the pixels  
 296 included in this zone.  $P$  is the number of the neighbors.  $N$  is the row number  
 297 and  $M$  is the column number of this image.

298 Figure 8 shows an example of LBPH value distribution in each zone.  
 299 The  $X$  and  $Y$  axes represent pixel position and the vertical axis repre-  
 300 sents the LBPH value. It can be seen that there are obvious differences  
 301 between LBPH value distributions of the zones. To describe the color distri-  
 302 bution we used the mean of hue components of pixels in each zone. Vector  
 303  $[Z_{kLBPH_P}, Hm_k]$  is a combined feature which is used as the descriptor of a  
 304 zone  $Z_k$ . For a lesion area with  $K$  zones, the combined local feature descrip-  
 305 tor is  $[Z_{1LBPH_P}, Hm_1, \dots, Z_{K-1LBPH_P}, Hm_{K-1}]$ , which covers all zones of a  
 306 lesion and provides the structure information (by the sequence of zones), local  
 307 color information and texture information of a lesion.

#### 308 4. Experimental Results

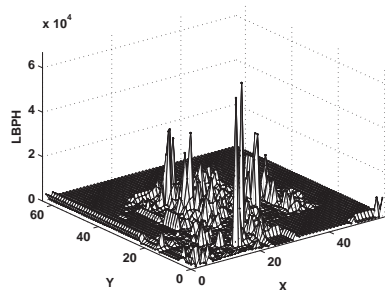
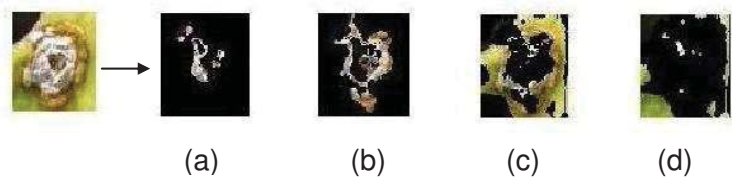
309 The proposed method has been tested to evaluate its effectiveness<sup>1</sup>. All  
 310 the experiments were carried out on a PC, with a Pentium 4 CPU of 3.4GHz  
 311 and 1G RAM. The operating system is Microsoft Windows XP. The program  
 312 was developed in Matlab version 7.0. The performance of different methods  
 313 were evaluated in terms of classification rate.

314 The leaf images used in this research were collected from orange plants in  
 315 winter in 2005 and 2006 from Guangdong province, China and in spring in  
 316 2007 from Guangxi province, China. We collaborated with a group of citrus  
 317 phytopathologists from the Citrus Research Institute which is the national  
 318 scientific research center of China for citrus fruits. All the images of citrus  
 319 canker disease and other diseases in this paper were captured in field by the  
 320 citrus phytopathologists from the citrus infected trees and they also provided  
 321 the disease information so we could label each image with its relevant disease.

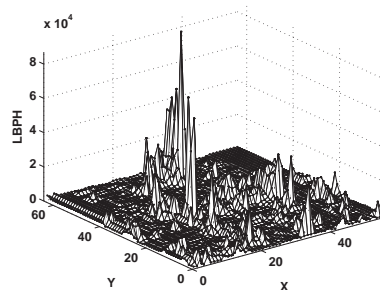
322 Different types of leaves were selected including normal leaves, citrus  
 323 canker infected leaves, leaves infected by black spot of citrus, citrus melanose

---

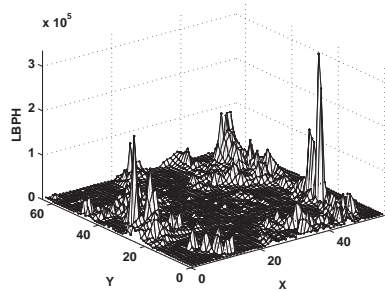
<sup>1</sup>Some of the citrus canker datasets and source codes are available from this link <http://www-staff.lboro.ac.uk/~coqm/AdditionalInformationAboutCitrusCanker.htm>



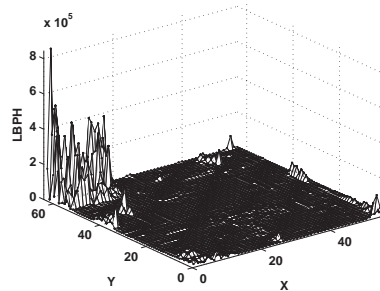
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Figure 8: Example of LBPH value distribution in each zone

324 and citrus scab disease, they were classified into different diseases by experts.  
325 The images are at different phases of disease and taken under various envi-  
326 ronments. The original image size was between  $1280 \times 960$  to  $3456 \times 2304$   
327 and the images were captured by digital camera Sony DSCP92 and Canon  
328 EOS350D.

#### 329 4.1. Training Samples

330 The citrus canker samples were selected from more than 500 images from  
331 which the citrus phytopathologist labeled the canker lesions areas. 1000  
332 canker samples were then obtained from the above 500 images (there might  
333 be more than one canker lesions in one image) and the lesions' length are  
334 from 60 pixels to 100 pixels, some of the citrus canker samples are shown in  
335 figure 9.

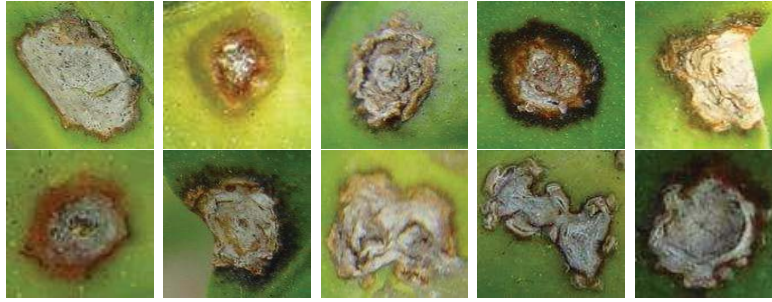


Figure 9: Samples of citrus canker lesions

336 The negative samples for citrus canker detection include normal leaves,  
337 leaves infected by other diseases and non-citrus leaves. We obtained the  
338 negative samples by three means: more than 2000 samples were from nor-  
339 mal citrus leaf images as shown in 10(a); 1400 non-citrus leaf samples were  
340 searched and downloaded from web as shown in 10(b); 500 other samples  
341 were other disease lesions on citrus leaves.

342 After elimination of some images such as those with low image quality,  
343 we select 1000 positive citrus canker samples and 2000 negative samples.  
344 These samples were in different sizes depending on size of each lesion area.  
345 In the global matching period, the negative sample set includes normal leave  
346 samples without any lesions. As we need small window size ( $10 \times 10$  in this  
347 study) images to train the classifier  $C_1$  in algorithm 1 at the first level, the

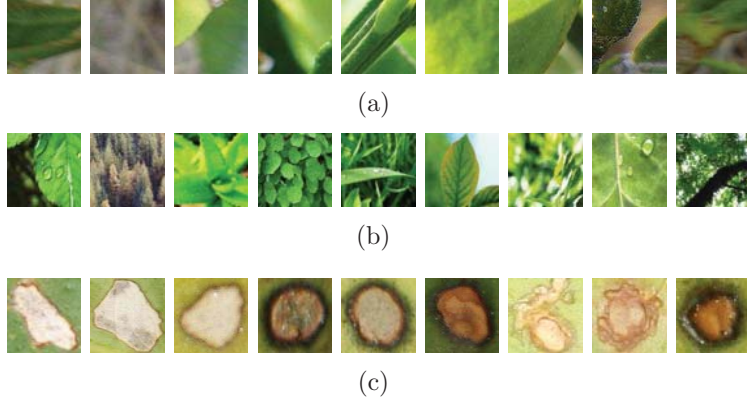


Figure 10: Negative samples. (a) Normal citrus leaves; (b) No-citrus leaves; (c) Other citrus disease lesions

348 original positive and negative samples were divided into  $10 \times 10$  sub-images.  
 349 The positive sample set with 7000 samples in  $10 \times 10$  image size was created by  
 350 the above process. Negative sample set with 10000 samples in the same size  
 351 was simply set up by randomly selecting sub-images from the 2000 negative  
 352 image samples.

353 The first level classifier  $C_1$  was trained 100 rounds on the training sample  
 354 set of *Set10000-10* which including 4000 positive  $10 \times 10$  samples and 6000  
 355 negative  $10 \times 10$  samples. At the second level of global matching, 600 positive  
 356 samples from the above 1000 positive samples and 600 negative samples  
 357 from the 2000 negative samples were randomly selected and normalized to  
 358  $120 \times 120$  as *Set1200-120* to train the classifier  $C_2$ .

#### 359 4.2. System Testing Samples

360 In the experiments, we chose two test sets in which samples are different  
 361 from those in training. One set consists of 200 positive samples covering six  
 362 canker lesion types and 200 negative samples including normal citrus leaves  
 363 (figure 10(a)), non-lesion samples (figure 10(b)) and other citrus disease le-  
 364 sions (including those very similar to real citrus canker lesions and those  
 365 relatively easy to distinguish, see figure 10(c)). The second test set has 891  
 366 randomly selected lesion samples including citrus canker and other citrus dis-  
 367 eases which are very similar to the real citrus canker disease (e.g. blackspot,  
 368 melanose, and citrus scab disease), therefore, it is more difficult to detect

369 the true citrus canker than the first test set. This 891 data set is only used  
 370 to compare the proposed approach with citrus human experts to test the  
 371 system performance under this challenge situation. In the following, *Set400*  
 372 represents the first test set and *Set891* represents the second test set.

### 373 4.3. Comparison of Different Texture Descriptors

374 This section reports the experimental results on *Set400* using different  
 375 texture descriptors: LBPH feature, original LBP operator and Gabor op-  
 376 erator in the second stage of hierarchical detection procedure, in which the  
 377 classifier  $C_2$  were trained using different features on the *Set1200-120* as men-  
 378 tioned in 4.1. Table 1 shows the comparison results of the three texture  
 379 descriptors on *Set400* during conducting the hierarchical detection. In the  
 380 figure, “ $LBPH_8$ ” represents the features proposed in section 3.2 at canker  
 381 detection phase; while “ $Gabor_{6,8}$ ” represents Gabor features on six scales and  
 382 eight directions; and “ $LBP_8$ ” represents the original  $LBP_{8,1}$  operator to de-  
 383 scribe the texture. We can find that the classification performance is 88%  
 384 for  $LBPH_8$  and it is higher than the original  $LBP_8$  whose classification rate  
 385 is 85.25%. Also  $LBPH_8$  obtained a better classification result than  $Gabor_{6,8}$   
 386 which has high-dimension features than  $LBPH_8$ .

Table 1: comparison of different texture descriptors

	Classification Rate	canker	non-disease	other disease
$LBP_8$	0.8525	0.98	0.64	0.81
$LBPH_8$	0.88	0.975	0.67	0.9
$Gabor_{6,8}$	0.86	0.975	0.64	0.85

387

### 388 4.4. Zone-based Features vs. Whole-image-based Features

389 In section 3.2.2 we proposed a color-quantized method to divide a lesion  
 390 area into four zones and extract features from each zone, we keep classifier  
 391  $C_1$  and retrain  $C_2$  using *Set1200-120* using two different features. The test  
 392 set is *Set400*. Table 2 lists the experimental results of zone-based and whole-  
 393 image-based methods in the canker detection using  $LBPH_8$  feature descrip-  
 394 tor on *Set400* data set. Because it contains some spatial and more detailed  
 395 information than area-based features, the zone-based method provides bet-  
 396 ter results with the same type of features. More importantly, zone-based

397 features have their obvious advantages on distinguishing canker lesions from  
 398 other disease lesions. Especially for the similar diseases identification, the  
 399 zone-based method obtained 90% classification correct rate while the whole-  
 400 image-based method only had 20%.

Table 2: comparison of zone-based and whole-image-based features

	Classification Rate	canker	non-disease	other disease
<i>Zone – based</i>	0.88	0.975	0.67	0.9
<i>Whole – image – based</i>	0.6725	0.895	0.70	0.2

401

#### 402 4.5. Comparison of Different Classifiers

403 Neural Networks such as Radial Basis Network(RBN), Support Vector  
 404 Machine(SVM) and k-nearest neighbors algorithms have been successfully  
 405 exploited in various pattern recognition problems. In this research, we train  
 406 these classifiers on *Set1200-120* at canker detection stage as a single type  
 407 canker classifier and compare their performance with AdaBoost classifier on  
 408 *Set400*. RBF is used as the kernel function of SVM and the number of  
 409 nearest neighbors is set to be 4 shown as  $KNN_4$  in table 3. In this table,  
 410 TPR means true positive rate and FPR means false positive rate. It can be  
 411 seen Adaboost classifier outperformed the other classifiers in this problem on  
 412 both TPR and FPR, and RBN worked better than  $KNN_4$  and SVM.

Table 3: comparison of different classifiers

	Classification Rate	TPR	FPR
<i>AdaBoost</i>	0.88	0.975	0.785
<i>RBN</i>	0.7325	0.88	0.585
$KNN_4$	0.6925	0.92	0.465
<i>SVM</i>	0.63	0.6375	0.6825

413

#### 414 4.6. Subclasses Classifiers vs. All-against-all Detection

415 In section 2, subclasses classifiers are trained for each type of citrus canker  
 416 lesion at canker detection stage and these classifiers are combined to conduct  
 417 the classification task. We selected 600 samples canker lesions which were

418 divided into six types, and each type canker lesion classifier was trained for 50  
 419 rounds on the set of 100 positive samples and 100 other similar disease lesions  
 420 to train the classifiers. Another strategy is to train an all-against-all classifier  
 421 that covers 600 all types of canker lesions and all types of negative samples.  
 422 The two types of classifiers are all based on AdaBoost and the number of  
 423 samples for training all-against-all classifiers are six times of each subclass  
 424 classifier. Figure 11 shows the classification rate of six-subclass classifiers  
 425 and all-against-all classifier during training. It is shown that the all-against-  
 426 all classifier needed more rounds of training to reach stable classification  
 427 accuracy than subclass classifiers did.

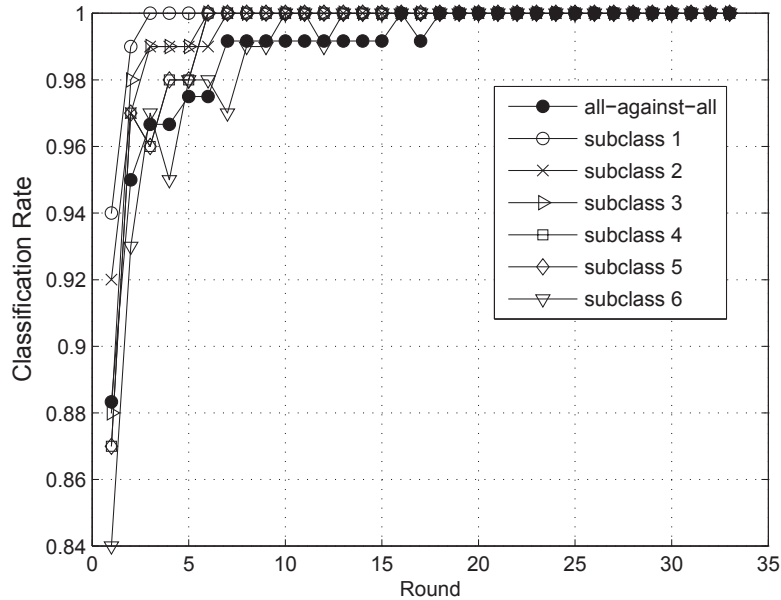
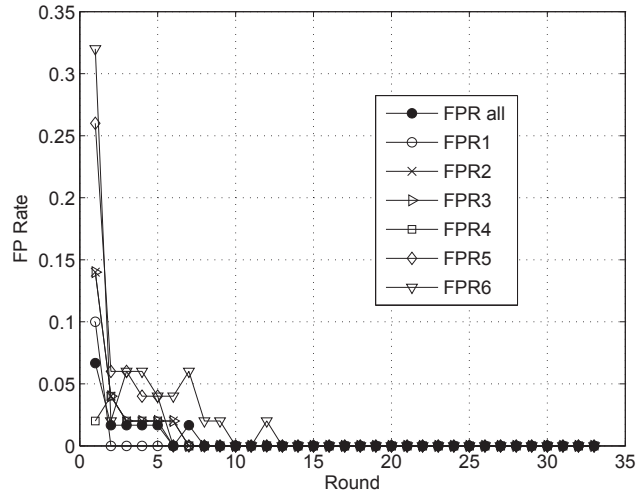


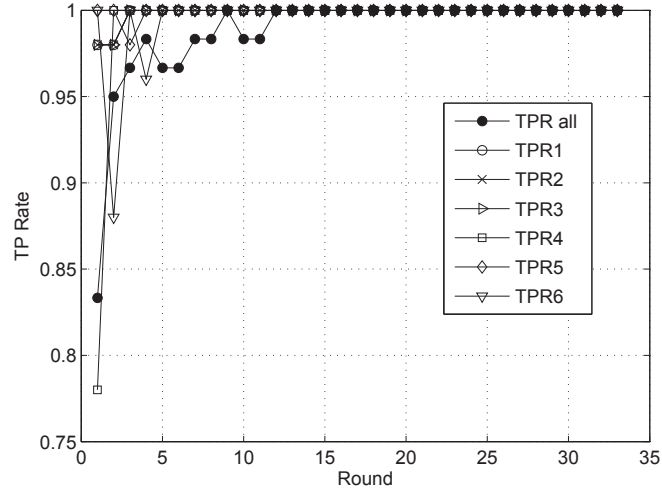
Figure 11: Training classification rates comparison of subclass classifiers vs.all-against-all classifier.

428 Figure 12 detailed the comparison of TPR and FPR during training be-  
 429 tween two methods. Table 4 compares the experimental results for sub-  
 430 subclass classifiers and the all-against-all classifier. It can be seen that the  
 431 subclass classifiers can identify the canker lesions more accurately; while the  
 432 all-against-all classifier performs better on non-lesion samples. Considering





(a) FP rates



(b) TP rates

Figure 12: FP and TP comparison of subclass classifiers vs.all-against-all classifier.

433 the harm of the citrus canker, the miss of canker in detection is more dan-  
 434 gerous than the non-lesion, therefore subclass strategy is more reasonable for  
 this research.

Table 4: results from subclasses classifier and all-against-all

	Classification Rate	canker	non-disease	other disease
<i>Subclasses</i>	0.88	0.975	0.67	0.9
<i>All – againt – all</i>	0.8475	0.83	0.80	0.93

435

#### 436 4.7. Machine Vision vs. Human Vision

437 In our experiments, we chose *Set891* (in which each sample’s citrus canker  
 438 type was determined by a plant expert in field) to compare the performance of  
 439 the proposed approach with human experts. We randomly changed the order  
 440 of the *Set891* samples and then sent them to other experienced plant experts  
 441 who never saw them before. The experts were required to classify each sample  
 442 image on PC screen. We compared the expert’s classification results with  
 443 the results gained by the proposed approach. We used hierarchical detection  
 444 method, zone-based combined features and AdaBoost classifier as mentioned  
 445 in previous sections. Table 5 shows the comparison results. It can be seen  
 446 that the proposed approach achieves a quite similar result as the experts.

447 In this experiment, a few factors might affect the detection success rate  
 448 of human experts. Detecting lesion images on screen is quiet different from  
 449 the way in field. Plant experts use several modalities when working in field  
 450 including vision and touch etc., while in above comparison, only one modal-  
 451 ity, vision, was used. In field, experts make judgments by observing the  
 452 leaves/lesions from different angles. Especially on the late stage of canker  
 453 disease, the lesions’ center bulges on the leaf surface and experts usually ob-  
 454 serve lesions from each side of the leaves and sometimes they will make the  
 455 decision by touching the leaves as well. By discussing with some plant ex-  
 456 perts we found that when experts work in field, the types of lesions are usually  
 457 less than in *Set891*, they usually need to distinguish one or two diseases at  
 458 one site. The *Set891* combines true citrus canker samples and several other  
 459 very similar citrus disease samples to test the performance of the proposed  
 460 approach under this more challenging situation. In this dataset, for some  
 461 citrus leave images, even human experts cannot be quite sure whether it is  
 462 true citrus canker or not by just looking at one image on computer screen.

463 Also in field the experts can check several leaves on the same tree, thus even  
 464 they are not quite sure about one or two lesions they can still make the right  
 465 decision eventually; while on computer screen, they need to make decision  
 466 for each lesion image. When required to judge several hundreds pictures  
 467 on screen, some experts said their emotional instability changed during this  
 468 process and they had different feel from in field. Furthermore, the quality of  
 469 the pictures in datasets varies, partial details of some pictures are not clear.  
 470 All the above factors cause the relative lower success rate of human experts  
 471 on screen than in field.

472 The camera-based canker detection system can not replace plant experts  
 473 in field or in dedicated labs. However, the proposed method aims to work  
 474 from a remote place and to quickly obtain an initial detection result. It  
 475 can be used as an early detection/warning system to detect canker disease  
 476 at their very early stage or as a server-based remote pre-detection method  
 477 using images transmitted through internet. Since the citrus plants are widely  
 478 distributed and we do not have enough plant experts, camera-based systems  
 479 can be used to select the suspicious canker samples and then experts can  
 480 make further confirmation/final diagnosis or go to the field to make further  
 481 checks.

Table 5: machine vision vs. human vision

	classification rate
<i>Machine vision</i>	0.8799
<i>Human vision</i>	0.8687

## 482 5. Conclusions

483 This paper presented an approach to automatically detecting citrus canker  
 484 from citrus leaf images captured in field. A hierarchical detection strategy  
 485 was introduced to segment lesion leaf images captured in field from back-  
 486 ground, which is different from previous research based on images collected  
 487 in a laboratory environment. Then a citrus canker feature descriptor was  
 488 proposed by combining leaf image color and texture information to model  
 489 citrus canker lesions. Local LBPH descriptors were used in order to reveal  
 490 the spatial properties of citrus canker in each lesion zone. A modified Ad-  
 491 aBoost algorithm (SceBoost) which we developed before was used to select  
 492 the most significant features.

493 Different feature operators and classification techniques were evaluated  
494 and compared based on citrus leaf samples in this research including several  
495 kinds of citrus diseases and normal citrus leaves in different environments.  
496 The experimental results demonstrated that the proposed approach led to  
497 a higher classification accuracy than other methods. Meanwhile the ex-  
498 periment compared the proposed approach with human expert classification,  
499 and the results showed that the classification accuracy of the proposed ap-  
500 proach is similar to citrus plant’s experts who examined the image of each  
501 citrus leaf on computer screen. It proves that the proposed approach in this  
502 paper has great potential to be applied in real world. Future study will sim-  
503 ulate the experts’ observation to combine multi-angle images of a citrus leaf  
504 for identification and extend the proposed approach to other plants’ disease  
505 detection and quality management.

#### 506 *Acknowledgements*

507 The first author thanks Citrus Research Institute of China for provid-  
508 ing pre-classified citrus disease datasets. The authors also wish to thank  
509 anonymous reviewers for their constructive and detailed comments.

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