

Early Detection of Fire Blight Disease of Pome Fruit Trees Using Visible-NIR Spectrometry and Dimensionality Reduction Methods

N. Bagheri^{1*}, H. Mohamadi-Monavar²

Received: 07-04-2018 Accepted: 15-08-2018

Abstract

Fire Blight (FB) is the most destructive bacterial disease of pome fruit trees around the world. In recent years, spectrometry has been shown to be an accurate and real-time sensing technology for plant disease detection. So, the main objective of this research is early detecting FB of pear trees by using Visible-Near-infrared spectrometry. To get this goal, the reflectance spectra of healthy leaves (ND), non-symptomatic (NS), and symptomatic diseased leaves (SY) were captured in the visible-NIR spectral regions. In order to keep the important information of spectra and reduce the dimension of data, three linear and non-linear manifold-based learning techniques were applied such as, Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Sammon mapping and Multilayer auto-encoder (MAE). The output of manifold-based learning techniques was used as an input of the SIMCA (Soft independent modeling by class analogy) classification model to discriminate NS and ND leaves. Based on the results, the best classification accuracy obtained by using PCA on the 1st derivative spectra, with accuracy of 95.8%, 89.3%, and 91.6% for ND, NS, and SY samples, respectively. These results support the capability of manifold-based learning techniques for early detection of FB via spectrometry method.

Keywords: Early detection, Fire blight, Precision agriculture, Remote sensing, Vis/NIR Spectrometry

Introduction

At least 10% of global food production is lost due to plant disease (Zhang et al., 2012). Fire blight (FB) is the most destructive bacterial disease of apple (Malus domestica), pear (Pyrus communis) and more generally of Maloideae, a subfamily of the Rosaceae. The causal agent is the necrogenic Gram-negative bacterium Erwinia amylovora (Ea). This pathogen enters the plant through natural openings such as the apoplast of parenchyma cells and colonize nectarthodes or through wounds on succulent aerial parts. Once inside the susceptible host plant, the bacteria multiply mainly in actively growing shoots inducing the progressive necrosis of the infected plant tissues. In resistant host plants or in non-host plants, bacteria cause a local cell death

(hypersensitive-like reaction) and are unable to further colonize the plant tissue (Gaucher et al., 2013). To decrease product losses, fast and timely identification of FB disease is very important (Bagheri et al., 2018). Scouting is normally used as a method for FB detection, which is time consuming and laborious. Thus, an accurate and real-time sensing technology for improvement of plant disease detection is necessary (Futch et al., 2009). Nowadays, spectrometry in the Visible and Near-Infrared (NIR) spectral ranges shows good potential for detection of plant disease and stress (Sankaran et al., 2010; Bagheri et al., 2018). So, various researchers (Delalieux et al., 2007; Purcell et al., 2009; Spinelli et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2007) have used spectral reflectance-based techniques for plant disease detection (Purcell et al., 2009). Bravo et al. (2003) and Moshou et al. (2004) developed a ground-based spectral data collecting system for disease detection in winter wheat fields, which achieved a classification accuracy of over 90% (Bravo et al., 2003; Moshou et al., 2004). Naidu et al. (2009) applied visible infrared spectrometry (350-2500 nm) for detecting

¹⁻ Assistant Professor, Agricultural Engineering Research Institute, Agricultural Research, Education and Extension Organization (AREEO), Karaj, Iran

²⁻ Assistant Professor, Department of Biosystem Engineering, Faculty of Agriculture, Bu-ali Sina University, Hamadan, Iran

^{(*-} Corresponding Author Email: n.bagheri@areeo.ac.ir) DOI: 10.22067/jam.v10i1.71911

grapevine leafroll disease. It was reported that the classification accuracy based on stepwise discriminant analysis ranged from %73 to %81 depending on the features (vegetative indices) used for detecting infected (symptomatic and non-symptomatic) and healthy leaves (Naidu et al., 2009). Lui et al. (2010) applied neural network and PCA (Principle Component Analysis) techniques to discriminate different fungal infection levels in rice panicles with a portable spectroradiometer in the laboratory (350 to 2500 nm). Results indicated that it is possible to discriminate different fungal infection levels of rice panicles under laboratory conditions using spectrometry data (Lui et al., 2010). Zhang et al. (2012) detected powdery mildew of wheat via а spectroradiometer in a laboratory. Based on the results, the PLSR (Partial Least Square Regression) model with a coefficient of determination (\mathbf{R}^2) of 0.80 was good for estimating disease severity and FLDA (Fisher Linear Discriminant Analysis) with accuracy over 90% was produced for the heavilydamaged leaves. Mahlein et al. (2013)developed specific spectral disease indices for detection of three leaf diseases, Cercospora leaf spot, sugar beet rust and powdery mildew in sugar beet plants. The classification results for discrimination of healthy leaves from infected with Cercospora leaf spot, sugar beet rust and powdery mildew leaves were obtained as 92%, 87%, and 85%, respectively (Mahlein et al., 2013). Yuan et al. (2013) analyzed spectral data of winter wheat leaves for detection of yellow rust disease. The spectral differences showed a stronger response in 380-650 nm for both healthy and diseased leaves at the leaf scale. Phadikar et al (2013) classified different types of rice diseases by extracting features from the infected regions of the rice plant images. To reduce complexity of the classifier, important features were selected using rough set theory (RST) to minimize the loss of information. Finally, using selected features, a rule base classifier was built that covered all the diseased rice plant images and provided superior result compare to traditional classifiers. Finally, ten-fold cross validation

was performed to measure the efficiency of the proposed method, which showed superiority over other methods (Phadikar et al., 2013). Barbedo et al. (2015) presented an algorithm for automatic detection of Fusarium head blight in wheat kernels using hyperspectral imaging. With classification accuracy above 91%, the developed algorithm was robust to factors such as shape, orientation, shadowing and clustering of kernels. Huang et al (2015) proposed a new method for grading panicle blast based on hyperspectral imaging. The method was based on the concept of the "bag of textons", which defines a "bag of spectra (BoSW) model for hyperspectral words" data representation. The image results indicated that the proposed method could grade panicle blast effectively with classification accuracies of up to 81.4% for six-class grading and 96.4% for two-class grading in the validation datasets (Huang et al., 2015).

Based on literature review, no research has carried out yet for early detection of FB by spectral data. Because of the necessity of developing a system for early detection of FB disease, in the present research, Visible-NIR spectrometry method was used as a nondestructive method for detection of FB in pear trees during growing. For dimensionality reduction, several spectral preprocessing techniques and three manifold-based learning methods were applied on the spectra for more accurate detection of NS infected leaves. In order to extract an identification algorithm, the preprocessed reflectance performance of spectra and the dimensionality reduction methods were evaluated in affected trees at early stages.

Materials and Methods

Pear leave samples

Pear leaves of healthy and infected trees were collected from a 5 ha pear tree orchard at Damavand city of Tehran Province in Iran on May 2016. Collecting leaves was carried out under clear sky conditions between 10:00 am to 14:00 pm. 34 healthy trees (ND), 50 symptomatic infected trees (SY) and 22 nonsymptomatic infected trees (NS) were selected (Fig.1).

After collecting leaves, samples were packed with different plastic bags and transported immediately to a nearby indoor laboratory for spectral measurements. All leaves were tested in the laboratory by Selective Culture Method to confirm presence of *Erwinia amylovora* bacteria in samples. In this laboratory test, all samples were washed in tap water.



Fig.1. Images of ND, NS, and SY trees

Infected tissues were surface sterilized by immersion in 10% household bleach for 3 min and rinsed twice in sterile distilled water (SDW) for a few minutes. Leaf samples were each macerated in a few drops of SDW in a sterile glass Petri dish using a sterile scalpel and forceps. Thirty minutes after maceration, $30 \,\mu$ L of macerated tissue were streaked onto King's medium agar B (KB). The plates were then incubated at 27°C for 2-3 days and observed daily for bacterial growth. Suspected colonies of *Erwinia amylovora* (white,

circular, mucoid, and curved) were selected and further purified on KB agar at 27°C (King *et al.*, 1954).

Spectral data acquisition

portable high-resolution fiber-optic А spectrometer (Avaspec 3648, Netherland) in the range of 200 to 1100 nm with a resolution of 0.05-20 nm was used to collect the spectral reflectance data of pear leaves under laboratory conditions. The dark spectrum was obtained by turning off the light source (Dep UV, 78W / 0.75A, Dimension: 315 x 165 x 140 mm/weight: 5 kg AVAntes. Netherland) and covering the tip of the fiber-optics reflectance probe (7 fibers 200 mm or 400 mm core, 6 light-fibers, 1 read fiber, N.A.= 0.22. Standard 2 m length, splitting point in the middle. AVAntes. Netherland) completely. reference spectrum The $(R_{reference})$ was measured by turning the light source on and placing the probe in the front of a reference tile. Then the sample spectrum (R_{sample}) was measured to calculate the relative spectrum by following equation:

$$R_{relatuve} = \frac{R_{sample} - R_{dark}}{R_{reference} - R_{dark}} \times 100$$
(1)

Due to the high level of noise in the 200-400 nm and 1000-1100 nm, further analysis was performed only on the spectral data in the range of 400-1000 nm. The spectral measurements were taken 5 times for each sample. Data of ND, SY, and NS leaf samples was collected and recorded. The absorbance at a certain wavelength (λ) was calculated as [log (1/Reflectance)] at this wavelength (λ) based on Beer Lambert law.

Chemo metric analysis

All data analysis and feature extraction were performed in MATLAB (version 2011b, Math work, Inc. USA). Preprocessing methods and plot visualizations of features were carried out in Unscrambler Software (Version X10: CAMO Software, Oslo, Norway). For each sample. three measurements with two replications were carried out and mean value was obtained for each concentration. Two of the most commonly used scatter-correction techniques in spectroscopy, Multiplicative Scatter Correction (MSC) (Geladi et al., 1985) and Standard Normal Variate (SNV) (Barnes

et al., 1989) were used. MSC aims to reduce the scattering effects by fitting each spectrum to a reference spectrum, which usually corresponds to the mean spectrum of the data set. Each spectrum is fitted by linear least square regression. The first derivative filtering based on Savitzky-Golay was used to remove offsets (Savitzky and Golay, 1964). SIMCA classification accuracy of these preprocessing methods is shown in Table 1. To detect ND, NS and SY, samples, spectral variables extracted from the pre-processed spectra were used directly as inputs of classification Mentioned manifold-based algorithms. learning techniques were applied to reduce the magnitude of the high-dimensional spectral variables space in order to improve the performance of the classifier (Tian, 2010).

Most of the time, measured data have highdimensional vectors while terse and precise manifold data is required (Ghodsi, 2006). Therefore, it is necessary to protect the least vital parameters that describe all data information and manifold learning methods and also remove additional data. Hereon, three more common unsupervised dimensionality reduction methods were used: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Jolliffe, 2002), Sammon mapping (Sammon, 1969), and Multilayer auto-encoders (MAE) (Demers and Cottrell, 1993). The number of features were applied for these dimensionality reduction methods was between four to seven. In order to establish the same condition, four features were selected.

Multilayer auto-encoders are feed-forward neural networks with an odd number of hidden layers (Demers and Cottrell, 1993) which share weights between the top and bottom (although asymmetric lavers network structures may be employed as well). In PCA, the data transformation is linear, while Sammon mapping and MAE are non-linear methods. PCA is one of the classical methods in dimensional reduction. PCA is also known as the Karhunen Loève transform, or singular value decomposition (SVD). The key idea of PCA is to find the low-dimensional linear subspace which captures the maximum

proportion of the variation within the data. According to Lorente et al. (2015) and Lee and Verleysen (2007) research, PCA and Sammon mapping were suitable for the small data sets used in this work, since the simplest models of manifold learning methods are more acceptable for small data sets with highdimensionality (Lee and Verleysen, 2007; Lorente et al., 2015). Furthermore, MAE as a nonlinear method was applied to support the results of two other manifold leaning techniques. The application of MAE in plant disease detection has not been reported yet, while neural networks are more common (Laurindo et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2010). The goal of SIMCA as a classification method is to get an organization rule for a set of m known groups, thus it is used to distinguish m classes where the similarity within a class is emphasized (Vanden Braden and Hubert, 2005). In SIMCA algorithm, the format of training samples was described bv dimensionality reduction techniques (PCA, Sammon mapping and MAE) for each class. The original SIMCA and modifications by Hawkins (Mahalanobis distance) and Gnanadesikan methods were compared with respect to classification accuracy and their robustness towards the number of PCs selected to describe the different classes. SIMCA modified with the Mahalanobis distance method was found to be a good alternative to the original SIMCA which seems to be more robust for finding outliers when the exact number of PCs for building the model is not known (De Maesschalck et al., 1999).

Leave one out cross-validation (LOOCV) was performed to evaluate and compare the performance of the classification models. 80 percent of data was used for calibration and 20 percent of data was used for validation. Five iterations were applied and 20% of data left out each time. A mean confusion matrix was created as an average of all iterations. For evaluating the classification performance, overall accuracy was computed for each classification model from its associated mean confusion matrix (Fleiss, 1981).

Results and Discussion

Development of classification models

According to the algorithm of SIMCA, all acquired data were classified into healthy and diseased classes. The combination of spectral ranges (visible-short NIR), the pre-processing methods (no pre-processing, SG, MSC and SNV), and the dimensionality reduction techniques (PCA, Sammon mapping and MAE) were evaluated with regards to their classification performance in detecting NS leaves. The results of the SIMCA classifier on the visible-NIR spectra with applying the different preprocessing techniques and three dimensionality reduction methods show in Table 1. The accuracy of SIMCA and other linear classification methods has confirmed early bruises detection of apples in different regions of spectra (Baranowski et al., 2012) and pistachios classification (Vitale et al., 2013). The most accurate SIMCA model was the PCA manifold, with 95.8% accuracy on the derivative spectra. As a whole, the 1st derivative spectra showed the most accurate classification results in comparison with MSC and SNV methods. According to Lorente et al. (2015) research, the best classification results belonged to the raw spectra without preprocessing with small differences to SNV and MSC methods (Lorente et al., 2015). This is because the scatter-correction methods only remove the structural and physical variations of spectra, while they save the absorption properties related to the chemical components in the spectra. It should be noted that the 1st derivative preprocessing method was not evaluated with them. In consequence, MSC and SNV probably removed some important information for FB detection from the spectral measurements, as both try to fit spectra to the mean of spectrum. The total accuracy of dimensional reduction methods was almost higher than each class. Since the maximum number of samples belong to SY, then this group had the most weight in the total result. In order to display the classification of NS group, the cooman's plot was also drawn in every dual group. The vertical and horizontal axis of cooman's plot showed two classes and the SIMCA critical distance (0.95) from each

class. In this study, ND, SY and NS data in placed class1, class2 and class3. respectively. Cooman's plot has four parts. The data which is belong to two classes was placed in the lower left square. It means there is just a small distance from both models, while out of ranges' data dispersed in the upper right square. Fig 2 shows the cooman's plot of different sample groups with SIMCA model. For example in Fig. 2a, samples in the horizontal rectangle belong to class2 and the vertical rectangle on the left shows samples of class1. According to Fig. 2, NS samples had more confliction with SY in three studied data reduction methods (c, f and h) whereas ND and SY separated obviously. However, interference was rarely seen between NS and ND (Fig. 2b, e and g). According to Table 1, the 1st derivative preprocessed spectra had the better results in comparison with other methods. Therefore cooman's plot was drawn based on SG. The performance of cooman's plot was also approved by full differentiation of aroma components of wild strawberries (Negri *et al.*, 2015).

 Table 1- SIMCA classification accuracy of non-preprocessing and some preprocessing methods for dimensionality reduction techniques in Visible-NIR region (%)

Dimensionality	Classes	Classification accuracy (%)					
reduction techniques	Classes	Raw data	1 st derivative	SNV	MSC		
PCA	ND	90.3	95.8	92.7	93.1		
	NS	86.9	89.3	85.7	88.4		
	SY	93.1	91.6	94.0	91.6		
	Total	96.4	98.0	97.4	96.94		
	ND	85.9	92.0	88.2	91.3		
Sammon mapping	NS	81.4	83.9	81.5	83.3		
	SY	90.5	90.6	91.7	89.1		
	Total	92.4	95.0	93.8	93.94		
MAE	ND	88.5	94.7	90.9	92.2		
	NS	83.9	89.3	83.8	86.5		
	SY	92.6	90.4	92.0	89.7		
	Total	94.8	97.0	95.3	95.2		

Partial Least Square (PLS)

PLS as a full spectrum method was employed for the analysis of FB in pear leaves. The calibration model was developed in order to evaluate test data. Then the first polynomial equation was predicted. PLS regression model using calibration and validation data of raw, SG, SNV and MSC spectra is shown in Fig. 3. The same accuracy was recorded between actual and predicted data for detection of palm oil adulteration in lard (Basri et al., 2017), and between predicted and reference values of tocopherol content in olive oil (Cayuela and Garcia, 2017). Based on the coefficient determination of PLS regression (Fig. 3), the calibration and validation of a PCA classifier on SNV and MSC spectra, was fitted in with nonlinear techniques. comparison According to the results of Table 1, 1st

derivative and MSC are more accurate preprocessing methods. Three dimensionality reduction techniques and two preprocessing methods, including 1st derivative and MSC was combined in order to distinguish NS leaves (Table. 2). The results are almost close in studying manifold learning based methods, whereas PCA prediction was more accurate. Lorente et al (2015) showed similar results on citrus (Lorente et al., 2015). Based on the result, combination of MSC and PCA showed a better predictive model in comparison with Sammon mapping and MAE. In the most cases, the models for three types of reduction techniques dimensionality are completely strength and accurate because they were able to distinguish the NS leaves as members of SY class.

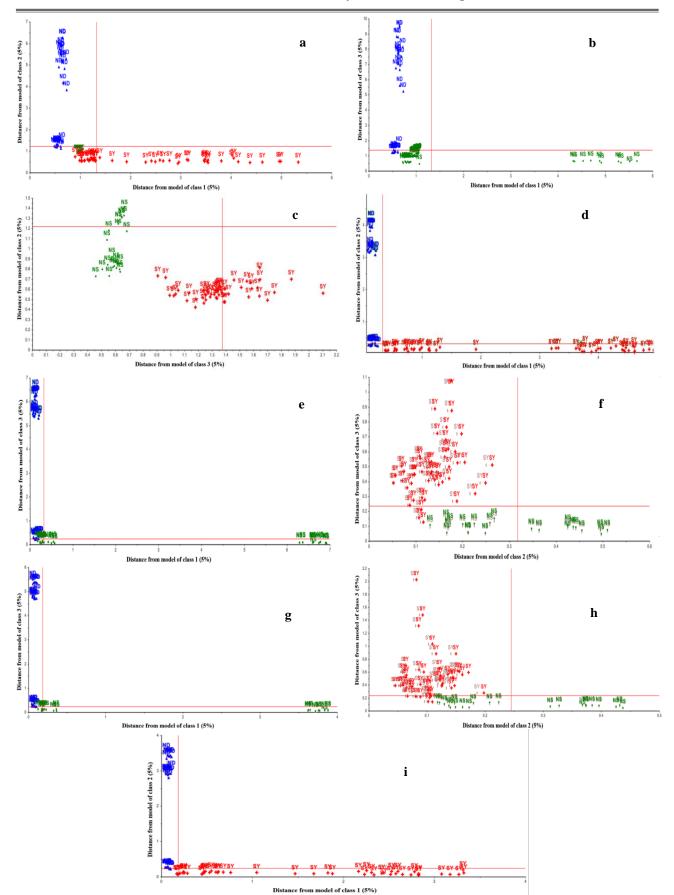


Fig.2. Coomans plot of SIMCA model which a, b and c related to PCA, d, e and f showed the Sammon Mapping results and g, h and i depicted MAE analysis

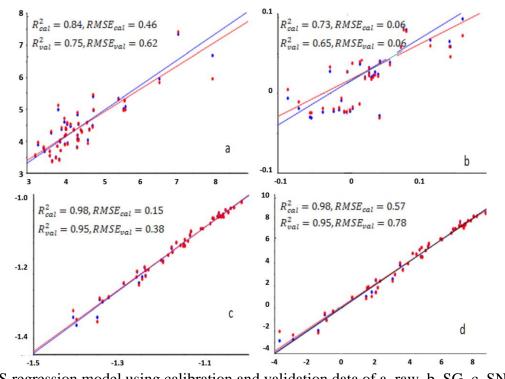


Fig.3. PLS regression model using calibration and validation data of a. raw, b. SG, c. SNV and d. MSC spectra

Table 2- Prediction percent of NS as Diseased or Healthy leaves	Table 2	- Prediction	percent of	NS as	Diseased	or Healthy	leaves
--	---------	--------------	------------	-------	----------	------------	--------

		PCA		Sammon mapping		MAE	
		Diseased	NS	Diseased	NS	Diseased	NS
1^{st}	Diseased	96.0	76.5	89.0	55.5	95.0	61.2
derivative	NS	2.7	22.3	11.0	42.1	3.1	36.8
MSC	diseased	98.0	75.9	94.0	62.2	97.0	71.4
	NS	2.0	24:0	5.0	32.9	1.6	29.0

Conclusions

In the present research, the ability of spectrometry method for detection of FB disease of pear trees was assessed. For this purpose, the visible and NIR spectra of pear trees' leaves were obtained with a spectrometer (200-1100 nm). In order to anv inappropriate information, eliminate several spectral pre-processing techniques (1st derivative SG, MSC and SNV) were then adjusted on the spectra. In order to detect nonsymptomatic FB affected leaves in early stage. some manifold-based learning methods (PCA, Sammon mapping and MAE) were applied to transform the high-dimensional spectral data significant representations of lowinto dimensional spectral data.

According to the results, the maximum NS classification accuracy (89.3%) was obtained by employing PCA and MAE on the derivative spectra. In the case of visible-NIR spectra, the second NS classification accuracy (88.4%) was acquired by employing PCA on the MSC correction spectra. From these results, it can be concluded that, the linear manifold learning technique for dimensionality reduction (PCA) is more accurate than the non-linear technique (Sammon mapping and MAE). Furthermore, it should be noticed that the 1st derivative SG showed the most accurate classification results than the MSC and then SNV preprocessed spectra and also ND was discriminant from NS and SY in significant level of 5%. As reported by these results, the present research plans the structure of an automatic commercial system based on dimensionality reduction and

classifier methods for early detection of FB in near future.

References

- 1. Bagheri, N. Mohamadi-Monavar, H. Azizi, A. Ghasemi, A. 2018. Detection of Fire Blight disease in pear trees by hyperspectral data. European Journal of Remote Sensing 51 (1): 1-10.
- 2. Baranowski, P., W. Mazurek, J. Wozniak, and U. Majewska. 2012. Detection of early bruises of apple using hyperspectral and thermal imaging. Food Engineering 110: 345-355.
- 3. Barbedo, J. G. A., C. S. Tibola, and J. M. C. Fernandes. 2015. Detecting Fusarium head blight in wheat kernels using hyperspectral imaging. Biosystems Engineering 131: 65-76.
- 4. Barnes, R. J., M. S. Dhanoa, and S. J. Lister. 1989. Standard normal variate transformation and de-trending of near-infrared diffuse reflectance spectra. Applied Spectroscopy 43: 772-777.
- 5. Basri, K. N., M. N. Hussain, J. Bakar, Z. Sharif, M. F. Abdul-Khir, and A. S. Zoolfakar. 2017. Classification and quantification of palm oil adulteration via portable NIR spectroscopy. Spectrochimica Acta Part A: Molecular and Biomolecular Spectroscopy 173: 335-342.
- 6. Bravo, C., D. Moshou, J. West, A. McCartney, and H. Ramon. 2003. Early disease detection in wheat fields using spectral reflectance. Biosystems Engineering 84 (2): 137-145.
- 7. Cayuela, J. A., and J. F. Garcia. 2017. Sorting olive oil based on alpha-tocopherol and total tocopherol content using near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) analysis. Food Engineering: 1-10.
- 8. Delalieux, S., J. Van Aardt, W. Keulemans, E. Schrevens, and P. Coppin. 2007. Detection of biotic stress (*Venturia inaequalis*) in apple trees using hyperspectral data: non-parametric statistical approaches and physiological implications. European Journal of Agronomy 27 (1): 130-143.
- 9. DeMers, D., and G. Cottrell. 1993. Non-linear dimensionality reduction. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 5: pages 580-587, San Mateo, CA, USA, 1993. Morgan Kaufmann.
- De Maesschalck, R., A. Candolfi, D. L. Massart, and S. Heuerding. 1999. Decision criteria for soft independent odeling of class analogy applied to near infrared data, Chemometrics and Intelligent Laboratory Systems 47: 65-77. DOI: 10.1016/S0169-7439(98)00159-2.
- 11. Fleiss, J. L. 1981. Statistical Methods for Rates and Proportions, second ed. Wiley-Interscience.
- Futch, S. H., S. Weingarten, and M. Irey. 2009. Determining greening infection levels using multiple survey methods in Florida citrus. Proceedings of Florida State Horticulture Society 122: 152-157.
- 13. Gaucher, M., T. D. Bernonville, S. Guyot, J. F. Dat, and M. N. Brisset. 2013. Same ammo, different weapons: Enzymatic extracts from two apple genotypes with contrasted susceptibilities to fire blight (*Erwinia amylovora*) differentially convert phloridzin and phloretin in vitro, Plant Physiology and Biochemistry 72: 178-189.
- 14. Geladi, P., D. MacDougall, and H. Martens. 1985. Linearization and scatter-correction for nearinfrared reflectance spectra of meat. Applied Spectroscopy 39: 491-500.
- 15. Ghodsi, A. 2006. Dimensionality Reduction "A Short Tutorial", Department of Statistics and Actuarial Science, University of Waterloo, Ontario, Canada.
- Huang, S., L. Qi, X. Ma, K. Xue, W. Wang, and X. Zhu. 2015. Hyperspectral image analysis based on BoSW model for rice panicle blast grading. Computers and Electronics in Agriculture 118: 167-17.
- 17. Jolliffe, I. T. 2002. Principal Component Analysis, second ed. Springer, New York, USA.
- 18. King E. O., M. K. Ward, and D. E. Raney. 1954. Two simple media for the demonstration of pyocyanin and fluorescein. Journal of Laboratory and Clinical Medicine 44: 301-307.

- 19. Laurindo, B. S., R. D. F. Laurindo, A. M. Azevedo, F. T. Delazari, J. C. Zanuncio, and D. J. Henriques da Silva. 2017. Optimization of the number of evaluations for early blight disease in tomato accessions using artificial neural networks, Scientia Horticulturae 218: 171-176.
- 20. Lee, J. A., and M. Verleysen. 2007. Nonlinear Dimensionality Reduction. Springer, New York, USA.
- 21. Liu, Z. Y., H. F. Wu, and J. F. Huang. 2010. Application of neural networks to discriminate fungal infection levels in rice panicles using hyperspectral reflectance and principal components analysis. Computers and Electronics in Agriculture 72: 99-106.
- Lorente, D., P. Escandell-Montero, S. Cubero, J. Gomez-Sanchis, and J. Blasco. 2015. Visible-NIR reflectance spectroscopy and manifold learning methods applied to the detection of fungal infections on citrus fruit. Food Engineering 163: 17-24.
- Mahlein, A. K., T. Rumpf, P. Welke, H. W. Dehne, L. Plümer, U. Steiner, and E. C. Oerke. 2013. Development of spectral indices for detecting and identifying plant diseases. Remote Sensing of Environment 128: 21-30.
- 24. Mohammadi Moghaddam, T., S. M. A. Razavi, M. Taghizadeh, A. Sazgarnia, and B. Pradhan. 2015. Vis-NIR hyperspectral imaging and multivariate analysis for prediction of the moisture content and hardness of Pistachio kernels roasted in different conditions. Journal of Agricultural Machinery 5 (2): 281-291. (In Farsi).
- 25. Moshou, D., C. Bravo, J. West, S. Wahlen, A. McCartney, and H. Ramon. 2004. Automatic detection of 'yellow rust' in wheat using reflectance measurements and neural networks. Computers and Electronics in Agriculture 44 (3): 173-188.
- 26. Naidu, R. A., E. M. Perry, F. J. Pierce, and T. Mekuria. 2009. The potential of spectral reflectance technique for the detection of Grapevine leafroll-associated virus-3 in two redberried wine grape cultivars. Computers and Electronics in Agriculture 66: 38-45.
- 27. Negri, A., D. Allegra, L. Simoni, F. Rusconi, C. Tonelli, L. Espan, and M. Galbiati. 2015. Comparative analysis of fruit aroma pattern in the domesticated wild strawberries "Profumata di Tortona" (F. moschata) and "Regina delle Valli" (F. vesca), Frontiers in Plant Science 6: 1-13.
- 28. Phadikar, S., J. Sil, and A. K. Das. 2013. Rice diseases classification using feature selection and rule generation techniques. Computers and Electronics in Agriculture 90: 76-86.
- 29. Purcell, D. E., M. G. O' Shea, R. A. Johnson, and S. Kokot. 2009. Near-infrared spectroscopy for the prediction of disease rating for Fiji leaf gall in sugarcane clones. Applied Spectroscopy 63 (4): 450-457.
- 30. Sammon, J. W. 1969. A nonlinear mapping for data structure analysis. IEEE Transactions on Computers 18: 401-409.
- 31. Sankaran, S., A. Mishra, R. Ehsani, and C. Davis. 2010. A review of advanced techniques for detecting plant diseases. Computers and Electronics in Agriculture 72 (1): 1-13.
- 32. Savitzky, A., and M. J. E. Golay. 1964. Smoothing and differentiation of data by simplified least square procedures. Analytical Chemistry 36 (8): 1627-1639.
- 33. Spinelli, F., M. Noferini, and G. Costa. 2006. Near infrared spectroscopy (NIRs): Perspective of fire blight detection in asymptomatic plant material. Proceeding of 10th International Workshop on Fire Blight. Acta Hort 704: 87-90.
- 34. Tian, T. S. 2010. Dimensionality Reduction for Classification with High-Dimensional Data. PhD thesis, VDM Verlag, Saarbrücken, Germany.
- 35. Vanden Branden, K., and M. Hubert. 2005. Robust classification in high dimensions based on the SIMCA method, Chemom. Intell. Lab. Syst. 79: 10-21 available at: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chemolab.2005.03.002.

- 36. Vitale, F., M. Bevilacqua, R. Bucci, A. D. Magri, A. L. Magri, and F. Marini. 2013. A rapid and non-invasive method for authenticating the origin of pistachio samples by NIR spectroscopy and chemometrics.
- 37. Yang, C. M., C. H. Cheng, and R. K. Chen. 2007. Changes in spectral characteristics of rice canopy infested with brown planthopper and leaffolder. Crop Science 47: 329-335.
- 38. Yuan, L., J. C. Zhang, K. Wang, R. W. Loraamm, W. J. Huang, J. H. Wang, and J. L. Zhao. 2013. Analysis of spectral difference between the foreside and backside of leaves in yellow rust disease detection for winter wheat. Precision Agriculture, published online, 7 May 2013.
- 39. Zhang, J. C., R. L. Pu, J. H. Wang, W. J. Huang, L. Yuan, and J. H. Luo. 2012. Detecting powdery mildew of winter wheat using leaf level hyperspectral measurements. Computers and Electronics in Agriculture 85: 2-13.



تشخیص زودهنگام بیماری آتشک درختان میوه دانهدار با استفاده از طیفسنجی مرئی– مادون قرمز و نزدیک و روشهای کاهش ابعاد

نیکروز باقری'*، حسنا محمدی منور ً

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۳۹۷/۰۱/۱۸ تاریخ پذیرش: ۱۳۹۷/۰۵/۲۴

چکیدہ

بیماری آتشک یکی از مخرّبترین بیماری باکتریایی درختان میوه دانهداردر سراسر جهان است. در سالهای اخیر، طیفسنجی بهعنوان یک روش دقیق و زمان واقعی برای تشخیص بیماریهای گیاهی شناخته شده است. بنابراین، هدف اصلی این پژوهش تشخیص بیماری آتشک درختان گلابی در مراحل اولیه آلودگی با استفاده از طیفسنجی مرئی و مادون قرمز نزدیک است. برای دستیابی به این هدف، طیف بازتابی برگهای سالم، بـرگهای شبهبیمار و برگهای بیمار در محدوده طیفی نور مرئی و مادون قرمز نزدیک است. برای دستیابی به این هدف، طیف بازتابی برگهای سالم، بـرگهای شبهبیمار و برگهای بیمار در محدوده طیفی نور مرئی و مادون قرمز نزدیک اندازه گیری شد. به منظور حفظ اطلاعات مهم طیفی و همچنین کاهش ابعاد دادهها، روشهای مختلف خطی و غیرخطی مانند تجزیه و تحلیل PCA، نقشهبرداری سامون و روش اتوکودر چندلایه (MAE) مورد استفاده قرار گرفت. خروجی روشهای مذکور بهعنوان ورودی برای روش طبقهبندی SIMCA با هدف تفکیک برگ سالم، بیمار و فراس سالم، شبهبیمار و بیمار تتایچ، بهترین طبقهبندی با استفاده از روش PCA در طیف مشتقی، با دقت ۸۸۵۸ و ۱۹/۶ و ۱۹/۶ درصد بهترتیب برای نمونههای سالم، شهبیمار و برمار

واژههای کلیدی: بیماری آتشک، تشخیص زودهنگام، سنجش از دور، طیفسنجی مرئی/مادون قرمزنزدیک، کشاورزی دقیق

۱- استادیار پژوهش، مؤسسه تحقیقات فنی و مهندسی کشاورزی، سازمان تحقیقات، آموزش و ترویج کشاورزی، کرج، ایران

۲- عضو هیئت علمی، گروه مهندسی بیوسیستم، دانشکده مهندسی کشاورزی، دانشگاه بوعلی سینا، همدان، ایران

(Email: n.bagheri@areeo.ac.ir نویسنده مسئول: (*- نویسنده مسئول)