Automatic fruit recognition: a survey and new results using
Range/Attenuation images

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Abstract

An automatic fruit recognition system and a review of previous fruit detection work are reported. The methodology presented is able to recognize spherical fruits in natural conditions facing difficult situations: shadows, bright areas, occlusions and overlapping fruits. The sensor used is a laser range-finder giving range/attenuation data of the sensed surface. The recognition system uses a laser range-finder model and a dual color/shape analysis algorithm to locate the fruit. The three-dimensional position of the fruit, radius and the reflectance are obtained after the recognition stages. Results for a set of artificial orange tree images and real-time considerations are presented. © 1999 Published by Elsevier Science Ltd on behalf of the Pattern Recognition Society. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Range images; Shape recognition; Contour extraction; Circular Hough transform; Agriculture

1. Introduction

1.1. Automatic vision systems in agriculture

The use of computers to analyze images [1] has many potential applications for automated agricultural tasks. But, the variability of the agricultural objects makes it very difficult to adapt the existing industrial algorithms to the agricultural domain. The agricultural systems must support this flexibility, and methods for including domain knowledge in algorithms should be studied as a rational way to cope with this variability.

There are many processes in agriculture where decisions are made based on the appearance of the product. Applications for grading the fruit by its quality, size or ripeness are based on its appearance, as well as a decision on whether it is healthy or diseased. Humans are easily able to perform intensive tasks like harvesting and pruning using basically the visual sensory mechanism. This suggests that a system based on a visual sensor should be able to emulate the interpretation process of the human visual recognition system.

The current areas of image analysis research in agriculture can be classified into two main groups: Research tools and Decision-making (Fig. 1) [2]. The first group of image analysis systems includes applications like plant growth monitoring, orphometry of new cultivars or biological cell counts. This type of tool allows a researcher to efficiently gather the data automatically. The user...
monitors the performance of the system and can intervene when the system misinterprets an image. These image processing tools also allow features to be measured automatically which would be too time-consuming to do manually. The second group of image analysis systems must provide information to guide the mechanical equipment. Such systems support two different groups of applications, Grading and Guidance. The use of image processing for grading is being applied to many products, including oranges, potatoes, apples, carrots, green peppers, tomatoes and peaches. The grading may be for size and shape, color, or the presence of defects. Current guidance research includes harvesting oranges, tomatoes, mushrooms, apples, melons and cucumbers. The guidance research also focuses its attention on navigating robot vehicles using machine vision strategies or other simple sensors in order to obtain autonomous mobile capabilities.

The techniques used in the above applications are successful under the constrained conditions for which they were designed, but the algorithms are not directly usable in other applications. In principle, computers are flexible because they can be re-programmed, but in practice it is difficult to modify the machine vision algorithms to run for a slightly different application because of the assumptions made to achieve robustness and speed for a specific application [3].

1.2. Robotic harvesting

The automatic harvesting of citrus has been done entirely by hand and the cost of this labor fluctuates around 25% [4], 30% [5] and 33% [6] of the total production costs. So, an efficient robotic system could reduce the production costs significantly and this is one of the reasons why the use of an automated robotic system for harvesting is so attractive. The other reason is to improve the quality of the fruit that would make the product more competitive.

The configuration of the trees significantly alters the percentage of visible fruits in the tree. For tree row configurations, with a hedge appearance, the visibility of the fruit can reach 75–80% of the actual number of fruits [4], which is much better than the 40–50% of visibility for conventional plantings. So, a reconfiguration of the crops should be considered in order to reach the degree of profitability expected when automating a harvesting task.

There are several techniques used for the harvesting of fruits which are not appropriate for the fresh fruit market due to the damage caused to the fruit during its collection. These techniques include the shaking of tree limbs or tree trunks, oscillating forced-air removers and the complementary chemical treatment. Fruits are usually bruised when striking limbs during the landing. So, there is a need for a non-aggressive method to perform the harvesting of fruits as delicately as possible. The manual picking is the most delicate way to perform the harvesting, but it is expensive and time-consuming.

The use of robots to pick tree fruits was first proposed by Schertz and Brown [7] in a review of mechanical citrus harvesting systems. The basic concepts of robotic harvesting were established in this paper. One of these concepts was the line-of-sight approach to fruit picking. This consists of the following three steps: (1) to visually locate the fruit with an optical sensor, (2) to guide the fruit detachment device along the line of sight to the fruit, and (3) to actuate the device when the fruit is contacted. A robotic system based on the Schertz approach consisting of a simple robotic arm, a B/W TV camera and a control computer was built for the harvesting of apples [8]. The TV camera was used to locate the fruit attached to an artificial canopy. The control computer directed the robot arm along the line-of-sight to the targeted fruit until a contact was made by a mechanical whisker. No detachment device was implemented.

D’Esnon and Rabatel [9] presented the first version of the apple picking robot, known as MAGALI. The robot consisted of a hollow tube mounted in a vertical support frame. Attached to the end of the tube was a rotating cup-effector used to detach a fruit from a simulated apple tree canopy. The hollow tube could slide in and out, rotate left and right, and move up and down the support frame. A B/W camera was attached to the support frame to detect the fruit. When the fruit was detected, the tube was aligned with the fruit. The tube would extend out until a contact with the fruit was detected by a reflectance sensor in the end-effector. The cup would rotate behind, cutting the stem and allowing the detached fruit to roll down to hollow tube into a collection bin.

Other extensive research has been directed at using robots for a variety of agricultural harvesting tasks: grapes [10,11], asparagus [12], cucumbers [13], mushrooms [14] and apples [15]. Kawamura investigated the harvesting of tomatoes and used a stereoscopic vision system to obtain the three-dimensional location [16].

A second version of the MAGALI robot was constructed in 1986 [17]. The new design included a spherical manipulator, a camera at the center of the rotation axes and a vacuum grasper. MAGALI is a hydraulically
actuated vehicle, self-propelled and totally self-guided in the pathways by four ultrasonic telemeters.

An Italian company, AID Catania, designed and built a prototype of a citrus harvesting autonomous robot with a single arm, driven by a vision system which was operated both in the laboratory and in the orange grove [5,18]. This robot has a cylindrical coordinate electrical driven arm which supports a goal-oriented smart end-effector. The end-effector is made of a mobile helix and a fixed cylinder. An infrared proximity sensor indicates that the orange is at the right distance. Approximately 65% of the located fruits were successfully detached. The authors also presented their plans to develop a multi-arm robot for automatic picking of oranges, but no more references were found about this research.

Harrell presents the design of a citrus picking robot CPR [19]. The robot consists of a single arm with a spherical coordinate system whose joints are actuated by servo hydraulic drives. The rotating-lip picking mechanism (PM) includes, in a small cavity at the end of the arm, a CCD video camera, an ultrasonic ranging transducer to provide distance information to objects in front of the PM, light sources and the rotating lip to cut the stem of the fruit.

The Japanese company, Kubota [20] developed a fruit-picking robot which uses a mobile platform to approximate a small four-degrees-of-freedom manipulator to the detachment area. The gripper had a mobile vacuum pad to capture the fruit and to direct it towards a cutting device, an optical proximity sensor, a strobe light and a color camera, with everything protected by a fork-shaped cover.

The Spanish–French CITRUS project to harvest oranges, includes an agronomical study, the development of a visual system to locate the fruit, the design and control of a harvesting arm, the integration of the grasping and cutting device and the field test [3]. There are two versions of the robot: one with cylindrical coordinate system and a more sophisticated version with spherical coordinates. This second version is the same robot used in the second design of the MAGALI fruit harvester. The grasping method used is based on a vacuum sucker and to detach the fruit, a spinning movement is used.

For the harvesting of apples, the AUFO robot was developed as the Central Enterprise for the Organization of Agriculture and Food Industry [15]. This robot was designed to use six arms with a movement in a vertical plane due to the use of only two horizontal axes per arm. To sweep the whole volume of the tree, the robot platform is moved around the tree by small angular shifts. The position of the apples is computed by a triangulation technique using two color cameras.

The harvesting of melons was studied and a prototype harvester was constructed to selectively harvest these fruits [21–23]. The system consists of a robot with a Cartesian manipulator mounted on a frame moved by a trac-tor. The robot vision system is used to locate the melons and to guide the attaching device towards the fruit.

Stepanov presents a review of different robotic systems developed in Russia under different projects [24]. The MAVR-1 is an autonomous grape robot, the MOP-1 is a vegetable harvesting robot to harvest melons, pumpkins and cabbage and the MIIP-1 is a fruit picking robot to collect oranges and apples.

The AGRIBOT is a Spanish project [25] to harvest fruits with the help of a human operator who has the main responsibility of the fruit detection task. The operator using a joystick moves a laser pointer until the laser spot is in the middle of the fruit. The three-dimensional coordinates are recorded and the parallelogram manipulator is controlled towards the fruit. A gripper system based on a pneumatic attaching device and an optical proximity sensor is used to detach the fruit.

Nowadays, the harvesting of agricultural products is limited to crops which ripen at the same time and which do not need individual or delicate treatment [26]. Selective harvesting could increase the efficiency of production, and improve the fruit quality.

1.3. Fruit detection review

One major difficulty in developing machinery to selectively harvest fruits is to determine the location, size and ripeness of individual fruits. These specifications are needed to guide a mechanical arm towards the object. The computer vision strategies used to recognize a fruit rely on four basic features which characterize the object: intensity, color, shape and texture. In the following paragraphs, a review of different approaches is presented. This review is sorted chronologically in order to understand the evolution of research in this area.

Schertz and Brown suggested that the location of fruits might be accomplished by photometric information, specifically by using the light reflectance differences between leaves and fruits in the visible or infrared portion of the electromagnetic spectrum [7]. Gaffney determined that “Valencia” oranges could be sorted by color using a single wavelength band of reflected light at 660 nm [27]. This technique was capable of distinguishing between normal orange, light orange and green fruits.

The first computer vision system for detecting apples consisted of a B/W camera and an optical red filter, and used the intensity data to perform the analysis [8]. In the first step, a thresholding is done to obtain a binary image. This binary image is smoothed to eliminate noise and irrelevant details in the image. Finally, for each of the segments, the difference between the lengths of the horizontal and vertical extrema are computed. So, a roundness measure is obtained as well as the centroid and radius values. Then, the density of the region is computed by placing a window, whose size is determined by the mean value of the extrema, on the centroid. If the density
of the region is found to be greater than a present threshold, the region is accepted as an apple.

Grand D’Esnon developed a vision system, for the MAGALI robot, to detect apples using a color camera [17]. An analog signal processing system was able to select points of a given color within the image. But, this vision system required a protective covering to get a dark background. In the second version of this system, three color cameras were used with different optical filters. A more detailed description of this new version is given by Rabatel [28]. The vision system is based on the analysis of three spectrum bands chosen after a spectro-photometric study in the visible and close infra-red bands. The three color CCD cameras and the three different filters (950, 650 and 550 nm) are used to obtain three intensity images. Some ratio features (with reference to the image filtered at 950 nm) are used to decide which pixels belong to a fruit or to a leaf. After a preliminary study based on the spectral properties of the apple tree’s leaves and the apples (Golden Delicious (yellow–green), Red Delicious and Granny Smith (green)), it was possible to recognize even the green mature apples. The extension of this work to other varieties of apples or fruit trees involves individual spectral studies for each recognition problem. No quantitative data is presented but the authors declare that not all the fruits are recognized and there are failures in the detection. Using a similar technique, the harvesting of tomatoes with machine vision was investigated by Kawamura [29].

Whitaker presents a system to recognize and locate green tomatoes in a natural setting [6]. An intensity image with 256 gray levels is used. The analysis is not based on the intensity level, but uses shape information. The circular Hough transform (CHT) is applied to a binary edge and direction images. The results obtained are very sensitive to the user-specified threshold value, and the best results for a 99% threshold value are 68% correct detection and 42% false detection. The contour of the leaves is one of the major problems, since the analysis algorithm interprets them as possible fruits. The authors recognized that, at that time, the algorithm was computationally intensive on a serial processor and can not be performed in real time.

The AID robot vision system was implemented to recognize oranges by preprocessing the color image with an electronic filter and locating the fruits by recognizing distributions of the orientation of maximum gradients [5]. A color camera pixel with an artificial lighting is used. An analog electronic filter enhances the image and during digitization, 6 bits are used to codify the pixel value which is proportional to the closeness of the actual pixel hue to a present reference hue. With this pseudo-gray image, a gradient image and a direction image are computed using the Sobel operator. Finally, the scene interpretation is done through searching for a match with an object model previously stored. This gradient direction template is moved step by step throughout the direction image. Approximately 70% of the visually recognizable fruits were detected. This was one of the first studies that attempted to recognize spherical forms in the image, in this case through the orientation of gradients. This technique was also used, together with a method of segmentation by region growing and a search for spherical patterns [30].

Slaughter and Harrel [31] introduced a method to locate mature oranges based on color images. This system uses the Hue and Saturation components of each pixel obtained using a color camera and artificial lighting. So, there is a two-dimensional feature space and two thresholds are employed based on the maximum and minimum values for the saturation and the hue components. This leads to a linear classifier that can be displayed as a square region in the feature plane. Approximately 75% of the pixels were correctly classified. This algorithm (in software) took 2.5 s/image and the authors suggested a hardware implementation to increase the performance.

Sites [32] presents a system to recognize ripe apples and peaches. This intensity-based method uses a B/W camera and color filters (630–670 nm) to increase the contrast between the fruits and the background. Artificial light is used and most of the images are recorded under night operation. The whole method can be divided into five steps: (1) thresholding based on a constant 37% value, (2) smoothing by a binary filter, (3) segmentation by an eight-neighbor connected component labeling, (4) feature extraction (area, perimeter, compactness, elongation), and finally (5) classification by a linear decision function or a nearest-neighbor method. Classification results around 89–90% are obtained working at night and for mature fruits. During the day, an 84% classification accuracy is declared and at least 20% of false detections. Analysis of the preliminary tests resulted in a selection of a 4.5 mm²/pixel field of view resolution, which was able to provide the necessary geometric details.

Slaughter and Harrel [33] extended their earlier study by using the RGB components recorded by a color camera as features and a traditional Bayesian classifier method to segment the fruit pixels from the background pixels. So, each pixel has three components (R, G, B) and each of them is classified as belonging to a fruit or to the background. No artificial lighting or optical filters are used. The tests show that 75% of the pixels are correctly classified. Harrel et al. [34] present a method to estimate the size and position of the fruit region which contained an initial valid pixel.

Texture can also be used to segment objects of interest from the background. Some fruits have textures different from their leaves, some are smooth while others are rough. Texture analysis has been used and might be a way to locate some specific fruits [35].
The European Eureka Project CITRUS ROBOT, involving both “Instituto Valenciano de Investigaciones Agrarias” (Valencia, Spain) and CEMAGREF (Montpellier, France), investigated the robotic harvesting of oranges [4]. Several techniques for the vision system were developed, but none of them was able to recognize non-mature fruits. Three methodologies were used. In the first one, a B/W camera in conjunction with a red filter (630 nm) and two synchronized flashlights were employed to obtain a uniformly illuminated scene which is as much independent as possible of the environmental conditions. With the use of a fast thresholding algorithm, 80% of the visible fruits were detected but a high rate of failures was found. In the second approach, two B/W cameras instead of one, and two red and green filters (630 and 560 nm) for each camera were utilized. Computing the ratio between the gray levels of both the images, the threshold method works and is independent of the luminosity level (the two flashlights are also used here). Approximately 80% of the fruits were successfully detected and approximately 10% were false detections. Finally, in the third experiment, they used a color camera without artificial illumination. Each pixel with its three RGB components is considered a pattern and a Bayesian classifier is used, similar to the method presented by Slaughter and Harrel [33,34]. Success and failure rates of approximately 90 and 5%, respectively, for the visible fruits were reported. These results were not completely satisfactory since these performance indices are only valid for mature fruits and the three vision systems presented do not cope with green oranges.

A vision system for the harvesting of melons has been investigated under a close collaborative research between the Purdue University (USA) and The Volcani Center (Israel). In the first attempt [36], a B/W camera is used to obtain intensity images of the melon crop. The vision technique is divided into two steps. First, there is an analysis step to identify the melon and its position and size; this first stage performs an image enhancement, a thresholding, a parameter extraction and hypothesis generation. Shape and texture parameters in the neighborhood of the hypothesized position are computed to obtain the final candidates. The second stage performs a knowledge-directed evaluation using rules which allows to avoid noisy detections and to eliminate multiple occurrences. If the second step is not employed, approximately 89% of success and relatively high rates of false detections are found, but when using the knowledge-based rules, 84 and 10% rates are obtained, respectively.

The AUFO project, for the harvesting of apples, includes a stereo vision system that uses two color cameras separated by a certain distance and having a converging position [15]. Firstly, there is a segmentation of both images based on a threshold value. The regions obtained are grouped and the mean position per region obtained.

For all the possible pairs of segments between both images, the three-dimensional position is computed. The technique used to compute the position is a simple triangulation algorithm divided in two steps. The first step gives the X–Y position using the projection on the X–Y horizontal plane and the second step computes the heights or Z coordinates from each camera viewpoint. If the difference between this heights is lower than 40 mm, then an object is considered to be present. Only 41% of the visual fruits are detected correctly and some false detections appear.

A general vision system for the above melon harvesting problem is presented by Dobrousin [37]. The vision system is divided into two subsystems, a far-vision and a near vision. The far-vision subsystem uses a B/W camera to locate the X–Y coordinates of the melon. The near-vision subsystem uses a B/W camera and a linear laser source to extract the distance or Z coordinate, so that a picking arm can be guided. In this work, only the methodology used for the far-vision subsystem is shown. Several images are captured in different blowing conditions to avoid occlusion of the melons from the leaves. These images are filtered, segmented by a histogram-based thresholding, cleaned by a morphological erosion parameter and finally all the images are integrated by performing a logical OR operation. The resulting image is analyzed and some features (shape, area, size) are extracted from each segment. Finally, a rule-based classification is applied to obtain the valid fruits. Approximately, 80% of the melons are detected and these gray-level routines have been integrated in a real-time pipelined system. The authors also propose the use of infrared images to detect the differences of temperatures that should exist between the leaves, the soil and the melons.

Benady and Miles present a description of the near-vision subsystem for the melon harvester robot [26]. This system, as explained above, uses a laser line projector to illuminate the scene. This line of light when contacting the surface of a melon is recorded as a curved line; the deformation of the initial straight line indicates the distance to the object by a triangulation analysis. This triangulation system is used to get one profile at every previously present distance gap. These profiles (not contours) are analyzed using the CHT to obtain a matrix of votes indicating the candidates for being the center of a melon. To get the most probable candidates the distribution of votes around a pixel is used instead of the absolute value of votes. For increasing the efficiency of the algorithm, some domain specific rules are used. These rules rely on the following parameters: the expected size, the shape, the position of the ground, and the height value of the presumed fruit pixels that must belong either to the surface of the melon or to leaves covering the fruit. All the fruits that were visually discernible were detected by the system, and no false detection occurred.
For the purpose of detecting oranges during the initial stages of maturity, a system reported by the Spanish-French CITRUS ROBOT project [38] uses flashlamps and a B/W camera to obtain an intensity image of the scene that must have concave surface where a fruit is present. This approach uses the shape information and not only the intensity levels, like previous work, to detect spherical objects. The algorithm can be divided into two steps. The first stage computes another image indicating the degree of concavity. The raw image is thresholded to consider only those pixels which have certain curvature and thereby reducing the computing time required for the next step. The second stage consists of fitting an ellipse to the initial image for all the points that passed the threshold. This fitting gives an error index indicating the goodness of the fit in two directions, and finally this information is weighted and used in conjunction with the thresholded image to obtain the final segmented image.

This system recognizes oranges in the first stages of maturity and results of 75 and 8% of success and false detection rates, respectively, are reported. The false detections are mainly due to the presence of sky or patches of sky. The processing time per fruit is about 20 s and around 3 min for each scene.

A robotic system for greenhouse operation, AG-ROBOT, was developed at CIRAA in Italy [39]. The vision system used for this project is based on a color camera that supplies the HSI color components. Hue and Saturation histograms are employed to perform a thresholding to segment the image. The three-dimensional information is obtained by a stereomatching of two different images of the same scene. About 90% of the ripe tomatoes are detected and the most frequent errors are due to occlusions.

There is a study for the recognition of partial circular shapes which was tested for the detection of broken biscuits in sorting applications [40]. In this work also, the technique is applied to the recognition of oranges in a tree using a color camera. Since the oranges are mature and the leaves are green, the image has enough contrast to apply an edge detection procedure and a contour image is obtained. The technique presented can be divided in two steps: an initial segmentation of contours obtaining groups of pixels with constant curvature, and a second step of contour segment grouping to obtain circle candidates and their parameters (radius, center and ratio of visible contour). The method works very well when a good contour image is obtained, like in the biscuit application, but there are serious problems for the detection of fruits since the contour due to the occlusion of an orange by another orange or by a leaf generates false candidates.

Table 1
Summary of the most important vision systems for agricultural harvesting. No food inspection systems are included

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research reference</th>
<th>Type of fruit</th>
<th>Sensor and accessories&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Detection method applied&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Detects green fruit</th>
<th>Success/false detection rates&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[8]</td>
<td>Apples</td>
<td>B/W + F</td>
<td>Intensity (Thr + FE + RC)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[17]</td>
<td>Apples</td>
<td>Color</td>
<td>Color (Thr)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[17,28]</td>
<td>Apples</td>
<td>3 Color + 3 F</td>
<td>Color (Ratio + Thr)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>50%/100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[6]</td>
<td>Tomatoes</td>
<td>B/W</td>
<td>Shape (Edge + CHT)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>68%/42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[5]</td>
<td>Oranges</td>
<td>Color + F + L</td>
<td>Shape (Gradient + Matching)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>70%/NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[31]</td>
<td>Oranges</td>
<td>Color + L</td>
<td>Color (Hue&amp;Sat + LC)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>75%/NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[32]</td>
<td>Apples and Peaches</td>
<td>B/W + F + L</td>
<td>Intensity (Thr + FE + LC)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>84%/20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[33,34]</td>
<td>Oranges</td>
<td>Color</td>
<td>Color (RGB + BC)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>75%/NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[4]</td>
<td>Oranges</td>
<td>B/W + F + 2L</td>
<td>Intensity (Thr)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>80%/High%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[4]</td>
<td>Oranges</td>
<td>2 B/W + 2F + 2L</td>
<td>Intensity (Ratio + Thr)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>80%/10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[4]</td>
<td>Oranges</td>
<td>Color</td>
<td>Color (RGB + BC)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>90%/3-5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[36]</td>
<td>Melons</td>
<td>B/W</td>
<td>Intensity (Thr + FE + Thr)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>84%/10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[15]</td>
<td>Apples</td>
<td>2Color</td>
<td>Color (Thr + Stereo)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>41%/NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[37]</td>
<td>Melons</td>
<td>B/W + Blower</td>
<td>Intensity (Thr + FE + RC)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>80%/NR%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[21]</td>
<td>Melons</td>
<td>Laser&amp;B/W + Blower</td>
<td>Shape (Profile + CHT + RC)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>100%/0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[38]</td>
<td>Oranges</td>
<td>B/W + L</td>
<td>Shape (Concv + Thr&amp;Fitting)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>75%/8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[39]</td>
<td>Tomatoes</td>
<td>Color</td>
<td>Color (Hue&amp;Sat + Thr)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>90%/NR%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> (B/W = Black/White camera, Color = Color camera, F = Filter, L = Artificial lighting).

<sup>b</sup> Thr = Thresholding, FE = Feature extraction, LC = Linear classifier, BC = Bayesian classifier, RC = Rule-based classifier, RGB = Red-Green-Blue feature space, Hue&Sat = Hue-Saturation feature space, CHT = Circular Hough Transform, Gradient = Gradient image, Concv = Concavity image, Profile = Profile image.

<sup>c</sup> (NR = Not Reported).
A major problem in segmenting intensity or gray-level images lies in the selection of the threshold value that distinguishes an object from the background [41]. This value depends on the illumination of the scene and there is no a priori knowledge about it because the illumination conditions can vary randomly. For instance, a fruit in the sun appears ten times brighter than a leaf in the sun, a fruit in the shade appears four times dimmer than the leaf in the sun.

Most of the above vision systems (Table 1) give the two-dimensional position of the fruits. The third dimension about fruit location is usually obtained by two-dimensional position of the fruits. The third coordinate of each scene point as well as a value indicating the attenuation of the laser energy due mainly to the distance, the surface type and orientation of the sensed surface. So, for each full scan, four digital images are obtained. Two images represent the azimuth and elevation angles \( (AZ(x, y) \) and \( EL(x, y) \), the distance or range is included in \( RANG(x, y) \) and the attenuation is in \( ATTE(x, y) \). As can be seen, no natural lighting shadows appear since an active sensor is used and the laser beam is, in this case, the light source.

After the above image extraction, an image processing and generation process is carried out. An image enhancement technique is applied to the \( RANG(x, y) \) and \( ATTE(x, y) \) to increase the quality of these images. But the most interesting aspect is based on the sensor model previously computed using a set of different kinds of surfaces at different distances and orientations. This model allows us to know the reflectance of the surface, which only depends on the type of surface, but not on the distance and orientation of the sensor with respect to the sensed objects. So, the reflectance image \( REFLECT(x, y) \) theoretically gives us an image whose pixel values depend only on the energy absorbing ability of the object surface. This image could be used as an ideal one, but the need for computing the surface normal with high precision at each pixel, leads to a noisy image when non-soft surfaces are present.

The same model permits to obtain another image \( AREF(x, y) \) (apparent reflectance), which does not require the estimation of the surface normal. This image is similar to an intensity image obtained with a TV-camera using a red filter and also utilizing a high-power lighting system placed along the axis of the camera. But, our \( AREF(x, y) \) image has an advantage over the former image; based on the scene knowledge, distances to valid sensed points are known, and so high value pixels can be rejected if they are outside this range. With this knowledge-based image transformation, \( AREF(x, y) \) is not perturbed by patches of sky, objects far away or points belonging to the soil. So, the \( AREF(x, y) \) image can only be compared with images obtained after a classification has been done to distinguish between the objects and the background, using color TV-cameras and artificial illumination. Finally, we can conclude that the \( AREF(x, y) \) image has a quality at least as good as the best TV-images which we have been able to obtain.

The image analysis process uses three input images \( RANG(x, y) \), \( ATTE(x, y) \) and \( REFLECT(x, y) \) to detect the position of the fruit \( (Pos(x, y)) \), its approximate radius \( (Rad) \), the distance from the origin of the 3-D scanner to...
the center of the fruit (Dist), and the mean reflectance (Refl) of that fruit can be used to determine its degree of ripeness.

This information allows us to perform a selective harvesting based on the size and the ripeness of the fruits. So, only the desired type of fruit is selected to be detached. The final information supplied to the AGRIBOT robot control system is the (X, Y, Z) Cartesian coordinates of the center of the fruit and the localization accuracy expected.

3.1. The 3-D sensor

The 3-D sensor consists of a point laser range-finder and a tilt/pan mechanism to direct the laser for scanning the desired area of the scene. The range sensor is commercially available from a German company, SICK Optic Electronic (DME 2000). The sensor is based on the principle of phase shift between emitted and returned amplitude modulated laser signal. Following are some of the main technical features of this sensor:

- Resolution: 1 mm.
- Consistency: 1–25 mm (depends on the target reflectance).
- Accuracy: ±5 to ±65 mm (depends on the target reflectance).
- Max. measuring range: 2047 mm (Configured to measure from 600 to 2647 mm).
- Wavelength: 670 nm (red color).
- Laser class: 2.
Fig. 3. Some examples of range and attenuation images for two different artificial orange tree scenes. At the top, from left to right: scene with four mature oranges; the range image and the attenuation image. At the bottom, another sequence for a scene with four green oranges.

- Measuring rate: 29 ms (100 ms when also measuring the attenuation).
- Light spot size: 3 mm (measuring distance 2 m).

The scanner mechanism is programmable to allow to select the desired area of the scene to be scanned and the spatial resolution needed. The spatial resolution varies from the center of the image to the boundary, since the angular resolution is constant. This fact does not deform the shape of the fruits due to the symmetric shape of these spherical objects. So, there is no need for any type of correction before processing the captured image. The spatial resolution used in the set of images recorded for this study ranges between 1.5 to 3 mm/pixel. A spatial resolution of 3 mm/pixel is appropriate to have a detailed information about the objects shape.

The sensor supplies several digital and analog signals, but two of them are the most useful: the range to the sensed surface and the signal attenuation. Some range and attenuation images are shown in Fig. 3, and the intensity image of the same scene obtained with a photographic camera is also displayed for comparison. The size of these images are 100 by 100, and the time required to capture them is around 1000 s since the measurement time is 100 ms. The slow scanning speed is not admissible in a practical application and a faster sensor must be used for a practical recognition system.

The range and attenuation signals can be used to derive additional information about the scene based on the model of the laser range-finder. This model allows us to obtain the reflectance, the appearance reflectance, the precision and the standard deviation of the digitized pixel. A more detailed description of the sensor model is given in Appendix A. Using a visible red laser wavelength, like in the present work where we use a 670 nm/laser, there is a contrast between green/blue surfaces and red/yellow/orange/white objects. This fact is interesting when a color analysis algorithm is employed, since the objects belonging to the second group of colors are easily separated from a green/blue background. Also, the sensitivity of the sensor when the color surface changes from green to red, gives a good clue to deduce the degree of ripeness. These reasons suggest the use of a red laser source instead of an infrared or green laser. But, if only the shape of the scene is going to be analysed to recognize the objects, the infrared telemeter versions are preferred since the attenuation is lower and it is independent of the surface color and therefore the accuracy of the range data is good throughout the whole image.

3.2. Image processing and image generation

This stage of processing has two basic goals: the generation of new images for an easier analysis and the restoration of these images. Fig. 4 shows a detailed diagram indicating the flow of information and the transformation process. Most of the algorithms are based
on the model of the laser range-finder illustrated in Appendix A.

The range image is almost noise-free when the attenuation of the image is low, or in other words, if the scene surfaces have a good reflectance. Since this property is modeled by a function relating the attenuation of the signal with the standard deviation of the range measurement, an adaptive approach can be implemented to change the restoration coefficients as the attenuation for each pixel of the image varies. This technique is able to remove outliers, smooth surfaces and preserve jump boundaries. The knowledge of the standard deviation expected for the neighborhood of each pixel and the difference with the actual value give us the information required to take the most appropriate restoration decision.

The model of the precision of the range measurement and the reflectance as a function of the attenuation allow us to generate two new images which will be used in future processing steps to obtain the position precision of the fruit and to determine the reflectance of the fruit which indicates the ripeness of the fruit.

The apparent reflectance image is computed based on the apparent reflectance model and some domain specific knowledge which give us the necessary support to eliminate bright areas that are not created by a fruit or that are outside the working volume of the robot manipulator. This image is finally smoothed by a low-pass filter accomplishing a good-quality image. The final apparent reflectance image is much better than the intensity images obtained using a red optical filter and a B/W camera, since no strange bright areas appear and there is no need of artificial illumination due to the active property of the laser sensor.

3.3. Image analysis approach

This image analysis approach is characterized by the use of two different images of the same scene: \(AREF(x, y)\) and \(RANG(x, y)\). These pictures were obtained with the same sensor, so a direct pixel-to-pixel correspondence
exists between both images allowing an easier integration of the individual analysis results. For each of these images, a different analysis algorithm (color and shape) is applied and finally a high-level integration is performed in order to take into account both results (Fig. 5).

A scene-based knowledge is incorporated to reduce the computing time required by the algorithms and to make the analysis task more robust and immune to noisy disturbances. This information includes the expected fruit radius interval (30–50 mm), the expected distance to the fruits (1–2.5 m), the maximum predicted reflectance value of the tree leaves (0.3 for perpendicular incidence) and the angular resolution of the processed image.

The apparent reflectance image, $AREF(x, y)$, is segmented by thresholding at a preset value based on the scene knowledge, so the background pixels are set to zero. The remaining zero-non values are clustered by a labeling procedure based on the Euclidean distance between pairs of pixels. During this stage, the maximum apparent reflectance (minimum distance error) of each cluster is used to compute the distance to the closest point of the fruit. The reflectance image is employed to average the clustered pixels, obtaining an approximate estimate of the reflectance of the object surface, which can be used to know the ripeness of the fruit. The position and radius estimation is based on the extrema position values in the vertical and horizontal directions inside the cluster. The detected clusters without a minimum number of pixels belonging to it are rejected as valid fruit in order to eliminate the possibility of random small areas of a highly reflective non-fruit object. Since the size supplied by the former method tends to be smaller than the real size, a range image-based exploration is done starting from the previously computed radius value. Once the final radius is calculated, this value is added to the previous distance to the fruit's surface to obtain the distance to the fruit center. Finally, a rule-based rejection algorithm is applied to reduce the chance of false detection. This rule is based on the range image and states that no pixels can be found inside the area of the candidate fruit, with range values greater than the estimated distance to the fruit center. If some candidate violates this rule then it is not considered a fruit candidate anymore.

The previous algorithm based on the apparent reflectance image and also on the range image which refines the results, basically only detects mature fruits. Such fruits are characterized by an apparent reflectance of 0.3 or higher. This method is not time consuming and allows a quick detection of three-dimensional fruit position, its size and the ripeness of the fruit based on the reflectance value.

A more time-consuming method is based on the shape of the fruits detected in the range image ($RANG(x, y)$). A special pseudo-edge detection algorithm is applied to detect steep slopes corresponding to proximity regions to the boundaries of the fruit, but rejecting the step boundaries which mainly belong to leaf-to-leaf transitions. Ba-

![Fig. 5. Data flow diagram of the dual image analysis approach. The left side represents the color analysis and the right side represents the shape analysis.](Image 288x404 to 500x671)
after the thresholding. If a low enough threshold value is chosen, the medium voted pixels are considered, and if a posterior clustering technique is applied summing all the votes for each pixel inside a cluster, the imperfect spherical shape of the fruits is overcome and a robust system is obtained.

This CHT not only manages a matrix of accumulators or matrix of votes, it also accumulates, for each pixel in the image, the average distance and reflectance of the surrounding pixels which vote for each pixel. This information allows a quick computation of the distance to the center of the fruit and an estimation of the reflectance of the surface of the object which will be used to calculate the ripeness. Appendix C shows some corrections to the distance to the center of the fruit, which are needed, due to the special features of the edge extraction stage, in order to obtain more accuracy in the distance measurements.

The clustering algorithm is similar to the one used in the processing of the apparent reflectance image, but is adapted to manage several images of votes for each radius tested and the distance and reflectance vote matrix. In this clustering process, the final radius, distance and reflectance are estimated taking into account the pixels belonging to each cluster. Clusters without a sufficient number of votes are rejected to eliminate the appearance of random clusters because of the low initial threshold values. Finally, as in the color analysis process, the same rule-based rejection algorithm is applied to reduce the chance of the false detections.

The results obtained by the color and shape analysis methods are integrated in order to obtain a final result with the contributions of both methods (see Fig. 5), resulting in a higher amount of correct detections, but without spurious detections produced when the same fruit is recognized by both the methodologies. In this case, the position, radius and distance information provided by shape analysis is considered more precise and the reflectance is supplied by the result obtained from the color analysis method.

Fig. 6 shows some intermediate images, for two tree scenes, obtained using color (left side) and shape (right side) analysis. The four images displayed for the color analysis are from top to bottom: the \( \text{AREF}(x, y) \) image, the thresholded image, the result of clustering and the detected fruits overlaid on the \( \text{AREF}(x, y) \) image. The five images displayed for the shape analysis are from top to bottom: \( \text{RANG}(x, y) \) image, a binary version of the gradient image after the two-limit thresholding, the matrix of votes for one of the radius tested, the matrix of votes after the clustering and the detected fruits overlaid on the \( \text{RANG}(x, y) \) image. The objects detected are integrated and superimposed over the photographic version of the tree scene. Some position shifts occur due to the non-perfect pixel-to-pixel correspondence between these images that were recorded with different sensors and from slightly distinct observation angles.

Both the images in Fig. 6 include four fruits. In the left image the citrus are mature and in the right image the citrus are green. Since the color of the images in the right scene is green, the color analysis did not detect any fruit, but we can notice the existence of some specular reflection in the middle of the fruit that is finally rejected because of the small size of the clusters. Three fruits are found in the right scene with the shape analysis, so one fruit is not detected. Looking at the vote image after the clustering, four candidates are present but one of them is a false detection, but fortunately the rule-based rejection step eliminates the false detection.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Experimental results

A set of 15 images were captured by scanning an artificial orange tree, containing a total of 38 oranges. This test set of images is not exhaustive considering the number of fruits, but contains the most typical configurations of occlusion and overlapping that are frequently found in a real fruit scene. The test set includes about 58% of mature fruits and about 42% of green oranges.

The color analysis method is able to recognize every one of the mature fruits but obviously none of the green fruits are detected due to their similarity with the color of the tree leaves. False detections, possibly appearing because of the presence of bright objects, branches or background, are not found showing the robustness supplied by the \( \text{AREF}(x, y) \) image and the rejection stages (size-clustering-based and rule-based rejections).

The shape analysis method recognizes mature fruits as well as green fruits, but presents difficulties for detecting the fruit when less than 30% of its contour is not visible. This fact leads to some error in detection of the fruits, but like in the color method, no false detections are found due to the robustness supplied by the rejection stages. Table 2 shows the detection results. The overall classification results show that approximately 87% of the visible fruits (to a human) are detected and no false detections were found. These results do not mean that the system is free of false detections; some false detections could occur under certain circumstances but its probability is very low. The recognition system performance (in our case, 87%) varies with the percentage of green fruits; the overall correct detection results ranges from 74% for a set of only green fruits to 100% for orange, red or yellow color fruits.

A specular reflection is detected in the center of the fruit even for the green variety. This information could be used to increase the performance of the system (some tests indicate 90% for only green fruits) but it imposes some constraints about the fruit surface or skin to be detected and reduces the general spherical object
Fig. 6. Some intermediate images during the image analysis process. At the top-left and top-right, two photographs are shown. Each of these images is processed by the color and shape analysis and the final results are displayed by overlapping circumferences with the computed radius.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis method</th>
<th>Partial success/failure rate</th>
<th>Final success/failure rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Color</td>
<td>58%/0%</td>
<td>87%/0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shape</td>
<td>74%/0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2. Real-time considerations

The algorithms have been executed on a Pentium-90 MHz processor without special image processing hardware. The software was written in Matlab code applicability to only shiny spherical objects. For this reason, the specular information was not taken into account in the recognition stages.
and the Matlab interpreter was used to execute the algorithms spending an average of 10 s to recognize each fruit. The software was not compiled to generate a faster code, so the timings reported can be improved to cope with the requirements of a real-time application. An average processing time of 1 s/fruit is expected using compiled programs and an image processing board.

The use of the color and shape analysis proceeds as two sequential stages instead of two parallel stages. An additional step to remove the objects detected by the color stage, can improve the speed of detection since the input image to the shape analysis becomes simpler. The shape analysis is approximately 10 times slower than the color analysis, and its processing time depends on the number of edge pixels in the input image forwarded to the CHT process. The complexity of the CHT is proportional to the number of edge pixels. This sequential configuration can lead to a system with reduced processing times for images with mature fruits.

4.3. Future work

Future work should be focused on the improvement of the shape recognition stage so that it is able to detect more number of spherical objects. This way, the overall location performance would not depend on the maturity stage of the fruit. To fulfil this requirement, the range image should not only be analyzed by its contour shape, but by profile shape or by the curvature of the surfaces. This additional analysis could improve the correct detection rates to a hypothetical maximum limit of 95% of the visible fruits, but its real-time achievement should be studied.

The compiled version of the recognition and location system will have to be integrated in the AGRIBOT robot to allow the system to locate fruits in an automatic mode. As it was explained, this system was originally designed to locate the fruits manually. Now, the system could work automatically and only the non-detected fruits could be pointed manually if the additional labor costs, due to the manual operation, are considered advisable.

There is a need for performing a ripeness study to correlate the reflectance information obtained for each fruit with its ripeness. This study should supply a set of tables or functions, one for each type of fruit or variety considered, relating the reflectance value with the ripe classification.

5. Summary

A review of different vision systems to recognize fruits for automated harvesting is presented. This survey of recent works in this field should be useful to researchers in this interesting area. Current research proves the feasibility of practical implementations of these computer vision systems for the analysis of agricultural scenes to locate natural objects under difficult conditions. Some basic considerations about the distributions and characteristics of the fruits in natural orange crops are discussed.

The research reported here explores the practical advantages of using a laser-range finder sensor as the main component of a three-dimensional scanner. This sensor supplies two sources of information, the range to the sensed surface and the attenuation occurred in the round-trip travel. A model of the attenuation process is presented and used to restore images and to derive additional information: reflectance, apparent reflectance, range precision and the range standard deviation. The apparent reflectance image and the range image are used to recognize the fruit by color and shape analysis algorithms. The information obtained with both the methods is merged to find the final fruit position. The three-dimensional information with its precision, the size and the average reflectance of the image is the final information obtained for every fruit. This information allows a selective harvesting to improve the quality of the final product for the fresh fruit market.

Some experimental results are presented showing that approximately 74% of the green fruits are detected and this correct location rate is improved as the amount of mature fruits in the scene increases, reaching a 100% of correct detection over the visible fruits. No false detections were found in the test images used. Future work could be directed to extract more shape information from the range image to improve the detection results.

The integration of the recognition methods with the AGRIBOT harvesting system will be reported in future publications.

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Appendix A. The laser range-finder model

The main goal of this section is to derive a mathematical expression which is able to model the behavior of the laser range-finder when the operational conditions change. The attenuation signal supplied by the sensor must depend on the distance $r$ to the object, the reflectance properties of the target surface and the angle $\theta$ between the laser optical axis and the normal to the target surface.

Let $\rho_d$ denote the diffuse reflectance coefficient which is the ratio between the reflected diffuse flux and the
incident radiant flux $F_i$ ($3.4 \times 10^{-3}$ w). The values of this coefficient ranges from 0 for a black surface to 1 for an ideal white surface. $\rho_d$ depends on the wavelength of the light, but in our case a fixed wavelength, 670 nm, will be utilized.

The diffuse reflected radiant intensity $I_d$ (w/s·rad) depends on the incident radiant flux $F_i$, the diffuse reflectance coefficient $\rho_d$, and the incident angle $\theta$. Using the cosine Lambert law, the following expression is found:

$$I_d = \frac{F_i}{\pi \rho_d \cos \theta}. \quad \text{(A.1)}$$

The fraction of the received laser signal which passes throughout the optical system of the sensor is denoted by $x$. The $x$ value range from 0 to 1 for ideal optics. Theoretically, this value must be a constant, but for our sensor the transmission rate changes when the distance to the sensor varies:

$$x = a_1 [a \tan(a_2 r)]^2. \quad \text{(A.2)}$$

The area of the optical surface for the signal reception is represented by $A_s$ (908 mm$^2$). The solid angle $\Omega$ captured by the sensor is equal to $A_s / r^2$. The radiant flux captured by the laser range-finder is a function of $I_d$, $r$ and $\Omega$. The following equation expresses this relationship:

$$F_c = x I_d \Omega = \frac{(x A_s F_i)}{\pi} \frac{\rho_d \cos \theta}{r^2}. \quad \text{(A.3)}$$

Finally, $Atte$, the signal supplied by the sensor on a decibel unit scale, can be modeled in the following way:

$$Atte = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{F_c}{F_i} \right) = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{x A_s F_i}{(x A_s F_i/\pi)(\rho_d \cos \theta/r^2)} \right). \quad \text{(A.4)}$$

$$Atte = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\pi r^2}{a_1 [a \tan(a_2 r)]^2 A_s \rho_d \cos \theta} \right). \quad \text{(A.5)}$$

This model is directly employed to obtain the following equation to compute the diffuse reflectance coefficient:

$$\rho_d = \frac{\pi r^2}{a_1 [a \tan(a_2 r)]^2 A_s \rho_d \cos \theta 10^{4Ate/20}}. \quad \text{(A.6)}$$

To compute the reflectance coefficient, it is necessary to know the distance $r$, the signal attenuation $Atte$, and the angle $\theta$ (Fig. 7). The first two parameters are obtained directly by the sensor, but for computing $\theta$ there is a need for analyzing the range image and produce a surface normal image. Due to error in computing surface normals, we obtain noise reflectance images.

If the term related to $\theta$ is placed on the left-hand side of Eq. (A.6), the apparent reflectance is obtained, which is much easier to calculate:

$$\rho_d \cos \theta = \frac{\pi r^2}{a_1 [a \tan(a_2 r)]^2 A_s \rho_d \cos \theta 10^{4Ate/20}}. \quad \text{(A.7)}$$

In a previous work [47], the following dependencies between the signal to noise ratio, $SNR$, and the captured radiant flux, $F_c$, are exhibited:

$$SNR = \left[ \frac{\eta \lambda T}{hc} F_c \right] = \left[ \frac{(\pi r^2)}{(a_1 [a \tan(a_2 r)]^2 A_s \rho_d \cos \theta)} \right]^{1/2}, \quad \text{(A.8)}$$

where $h$ is the Planck constant, $c$ is the speed of light ($= 3 \times 10^8$ m/sec), $\lambda$ the laser beam wavelength = 0.67 $\mu$m and $\eta$ the photocathode quantic efficiency.

Taking into account that the standard deviation and the precision of the range measurements are inversely proportional to the $SNR$, the following two expressions allow us to estimate these parameters:

$$\sigma_r = (1.45 \times 10^{-5}) 10^{0.54Ate + 0.5}, \quad \text{(A.9)}$$

$$Precision = (13.8 \times 10^{-6}) 10^{0.6Ate + 8}. \quad \text{(A.10)}$$

**Appendix B: The maximum and minimum gradients for edge extraction**

Two values are calculated to perform the thresholding of the gradient image obtained by applying a Sobel operator. The goal is to obtain a set of pixels belonging to the boundaries of the spherical object. This set of pixels will be used to perform the CHT, but to reduce the possibility of error, only the pixels within a certain
surface slope interval are considered. The pixels with slopes higher than a maximum value are not considered since these abrupt transitions could be due to leaf-to-leaf jumps. Pixels with slopes below the minimum value are also not taken into account. The two threshold values are computed so that a two-pixel-wide ring is always obtained when spherical objects exist. The outermost pixel of the contour of the sphere is not considered for getting rid of the step edge which could be a source of undesired edges.

If \( N \) is the number of pixels existing in the radius of a sphere (Fig. 8), then we obtain the following relationship: \( y = \sqrt{N^2 - x^2} \) for a spherical object. To obtain the slope function, \( y \) is derived with respect to \( x \) obtaining

\[
\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{\sqrt{N^2 - x^2}}, \quad (B.1)
\]

and the gradients for the pixels \( N - 1 \) and \( N - 3 \) are

\[
\text{Gradient}_{\text{max}} = \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=N-1} = \frac{N - 1}{\sqrt{N^2 - (N - 1)^2}}, \quad (B.2)
\]

\[
\text{Gradient}_{\text{min}} = \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=N-3} = \frac{N - 3}{\sqrt{N^2 - (N - 3)^2}}, \quad (B.3)
\]

### Appendix C: Distance to the object correction when using the CHT

Appendix B describes the selection of the two threshold values to obtain the edge image. Since we are not using the real boundary of the spherical object, the computation of the distance to the center of the object \( d \) is equal to \( d' \) (distance computed using the CHT) plus an error \( e \). If \( dz \) is the angular resolution of the image and \( N \) is the number of pixels in the radius of the sphere which it is being searched by the CHT, then we can deduce the following relations (see Fig. 9):

\[
d' = r \cos(dz(N - 2)) \quad (C.1)
\]

\[
e = \sqrt{N^2 - (N - 2)^2} (dz \: r) \quad e \text{ is the error produced.} \quad (C.2)
\]

Finally, the corrected distance is computed by the following expression:

\[
d = d' + e = r \cos((N - 2)dz) + \sqrt{N^2 - (N - 2)^2} (dz \: r). \quad (C.3)
\]

### References


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