

1 **Quantitative potato tuber phenotyping by 3D imaging**

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16

17 **Abstract**

18 The accurate phenotyping of the external quality attributes of potato tubers is important
19 in potato breeding. Currently, the assessment of potato tuber shape, together with eye
20 density and depth, are based on subjective naked eye visual evaluation. However, such
21 a manual visual assessment makes it very difficult to reliably phenotype these and other
22 important, more complicated, geometrical traits, such as shape uniformity.

23 In this study, a 3D image analysis method has been developed for counting potato eyes
24 and estimating eye depth based on an evaluation of the curvature of an acquired 3D point
25 cloud. Six shape uniformity-related traits, together with their shape indices (SI), were

26 measured for six potato varieties. These were collected from three field experiments
 27 designed initially to study the effects of variation in nitrogen (N), potassium (K) and
 28 compound fertilisers along with tuber mass, on all investigated external traits. We
 29 demonstrate that a 3D image analysis technique can estimate the number of potato eyes
 30 and their depth with a high degree of accuracy. In addition, three shape uniformity traits
 31 were identified as offering a better power discrimination between varieties. The
 32 preliminary experiment found potato tuber mass to significantly affect both the shape
 33 uniformity and eye count, while fertiliser treatments showed no effect on all traits except
 34 SI. However, further investigation with a larger sample size is required for confirmation.

35

36 **Keywords:** 3D image analysis; phenotyping; curvature estimation; shape uniformity;
 37 potato eye; potato shape

38 **Nomenclature**

Abbreviations		SI	Shape index
ABA	Abscisic acid	T	Triangle
ANOVA	Analysis of variance	TP	True positive
CF	Compound fertiliser	Z5	Zhongshu5
CM	Compound microorganism	Z10	Zhongshu10
CV	Coefficient of variation	Z18	Zhongshu18
DBSCAN	density-based spatial clustering of applications with noise	Z19	Zhongshu19
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation		
FN	False negative	Parameters	
FP	False positive	A	Area of the convex hull
GA	Gibberellin acid	A_m	Area of the neighbouring incident triangles
HSV	Hue, Saturation and value	D	Euclidean distance between the top and bottom slice images
K	Potassium	d_i	Euclidean distance between neighbouring slice images
L	Large	$K(x_i)$	Mean curvature normal operator at vertex x_i
M	Medium	$K_H(x_i)$	The mean curvature at x_i
MAS	Marker-assisted selection	minPts	Minimum number of points required to form a dense region
N	Nitrogen	N(i)	The 1-ring neighbours of the ith vertex
OIF	Organic-inorganic fertiliser	p	Perimeter of convex hull

PCA	Principal component analysis	r^2	Coefficient of determination
RGB	Red, green and blue	x_i	The i th vertex
RMSE	Root mean squared error	α_{ij}, β_{ij}	Angles between the two adjacent triangles sharing and subtending the edge of $x_i x_j$
S	Small	ϵ	Maximum distance between two vertices
SCF	Soil conservation fertiliser		
SfM-MVS	Structure from Motion Multiview Stereo		

39

40 1. Introduction

41 Potato (*Solanum Tuberosum L.*) is the fourth most important staple food in the world after
42 wheat, maize and rice. The Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) estimated global
43 potato production at over 368 million metric tons in 2013, substantially increased from
44 334 million tons in 2010 (FAOSTAT, 2013). Potato varieties with shallow eyes and regular
45 round or oblong shapes are most often preferred by customers, including domestic
46 consumers and processors. These attributes readily facilitate further processing to
47 produce chips and French fries (Van Eck et al., 1994), and serve to reduce losses in
48 peeling. With rapid advances in genomic technologies, marker-assisted selection (MAS)
49 is now commonly being used in breeding programmes. Quantitative trait loci (QTLs) can
50 be identified, and genes of interest cloned from the identified QTLs (Tester and Langridge,
51 2010). Potato varieties have shown genetic differences in potato shape, shape uniformity,
52 number of eyes and eye depth, and a number of candidate genes underlying the main
53 QTL have been identified in tuber shape and eye depths (Lindqvist-Kreuzer et al., 2015).
54 Although with appropriate genomic selection, the breeding process and genetic gain can
55 be faster and greater respectively, high-throughput phenotyping is still a major bottleneck
56 in real-world applications. Currently, phenotyping is often highly subjective, labour-
57 intensive and sometimes destructive. A large number of studies on high-throughput

58 phenotyping or 'phenomics' have been published in recent years, with the majority
59 focused on various forms of imaging-based technologies (Samal and Choudhury, 2020;
60 Yang et al., 2020). For instance, 2D image analysis has been shown to have good
61 potential in quantifying external fruit quality and has been widely applied to measure basic
62 shape characteristics, including aspect ratio and volume (AKodagali and Balaji, 2012;
63 Beyer et al., 2002; He et al., 2017; Ishikawa et al., 2018). More recently, a reduction in
64 hardware and computational cost has seen 3D imaging techniques being increasingly
65 explored. For example, a 3D model reconstructed using the Structure from Motion
66 Multiview Stereo (SfM-MVS) technique has been successfully deployed to estimate more
67 sophisticated shape characteristics of strawberry, including eight significant uniformity-
68 related traits (Li et al., 2020). In addition, a structured light-based technique has been
69 successfully applied to the 3D reconstruction of the whole plant (Nguyen et al., 2015),
70 where a commercialised device with integrated software was able to perform both data
71 collection and 3D reconstruction (Morena et al., 2019). Another 3D reconstruction
72 technique, in the form of laser scanning, has been applied for fruit size measurement,
73 although the scanning stage is comparatively slower than the other two methods
74 (Scarmana et al., 2020).

75

76 In potato breeding, accurate and fast tuber shape assessment is still a bottleneck in our
77 effort to understand the association between the genetic variant and phenotype. Great
78 efforts have been devoted to measuring potato shape from a 2D image analysis. Potato
79 shape is most often divided into five categories based on the length to width ratio as:
80 round, round-oval, oval, long-oval and very long. Prior work has included an image

81 analysis algorithm for automated segmentation and aspect ratio estimation in video
82 frames developed to assess this characteristic (Razmjooy et al., 2012; Si et al., 2018). A
83 more sophisticated method was developed by using six parameters from a spherical-
84 harmonic model (Torppa et al., 2007). Potato shape uniformity is an important trait due to
85 its direct influence on customer satisfaction and benefits in further processing, including
86 the production of chips or French fries. Afshin et al. (2016) developed a classification
87 model with extracted size-shape features including roundness, elongation, eccentricity
88 and extent, that involved the use of Fourier-shape features. Their total correct
89 classification rate was 98% although this was only allocated to two shape categories
90 ('regular' and 'irregular'). To improve size classification accuracy and take thickness
91 information into account, a low-cost 3D stereo camera was applied to generate accurate
92 potato tuber volume estimation, and showed promising results as an online size grading
93 system (Smith et al., 2018; Su et al., 2017; Torppa et al., 2007). An oval difference degree
94 and a grid calculation method were developed for surface area shape detection and
95 subsequent classification of tubers into categories of normal, bump, bent shape, and
96 hollow (Su et al., 2018). It is clear that as a high dimensional feature, shape uniformity
97 cannot be objectively measured by manual assessment. Also, the number of potato eyes
98 and their depth are usually evaluated manually, where eye depth is allocated into four
99 categories of: superficial, slightly deep, deep and very deep. Manual assessment for
100 potato eye categorisation can be fast, but given that each potato tuber has multiple eyes
101 with varied depths, their determination can be extremely rater dependent (Lindqvist-
102 Kreuze et al., 2015). Tuber formation and development is a complex process, which is
103 affected by environmental, biochemical and genetic factors, for which Nitrogen (N),

104 potassium (K) and phosphorus (P) all play important roles (Rens et al. 2015, Grzebisz et
105 al. 2018). However, the mechanisms concerning the phenotypic plasticity of shape
106 uniformity of potato tubers under differing nutrient regimes together with the role of size
107 remains unknown.

108 This study aimed to develop automated 3D image analysis software to: (1) assess
109 algorithm performance for counting potato eyes together with their depth estimation; (2)
110 analyse the tuber shape uniformity of six potato varieties; (3) evaluate the influence of
111 genotype, tuber mass and different nutrient regimes on tuber shape uniformity, eye
112 number and depth.

113

114 **2. Material and methods**

115 **2.1. Potato samples**

116 In order to understand the nutrient influence on the external quality traits of potato tubers,
117 potato samples were collected from three large field experiments at Chabei Research
118 Station (41°27'N, 115°3'E, Elevation 1358 m) in Zhangjiakou, Hebei province, China. The
119 soil type is chestnut, typical in the Hebei Bashang plateau. The soil organic matter and
120 total nitrogen content were 2.70% and 0.09%, respectively; the soil potassium level was
121 142 mg kg⁻¹.

122

123 A total of three large field experiments were laid out in a randomised block design, planted
124 on 1st May 2019. Experiment 1 consisted of four sub-experiments, each of which
125 contained three blocks. There were five plots for each block, randomly allocated to one
126 of the five levels of nitrogen (N) fertiliser input (0, 100, 200, 300 and 400 kg ha⁻¹) with

127 fixed P and K rates at 240 and 300 kg ha⁻¹; each sub-experiment area was allocated to
 128 one of the four varieties: Favorita, Zhongshu10 (Z10), Zhongshu18 (Z18) and
 129 Zhongshu19 (Z19). Experiment 2 consisted of three blocks, with twelve plots per block.
 130 Four levels of potassium (K) fertiliser input (0, 150, 300 and 450 kg ha⁻¹) with fixed N and
 131 P rates at 300 and 240 kg ha⁻¹ were applied to each of the three varieties: Zhongshu5
 132 (Z5), Z18 and Shepody. Experiment 3 contained three blocks, each with fifteen plots; five
 133 compound fertilisers (Table 1) were applied to each block for two varieties, including Z5
 134 and Z18. There were in total 126 plots in this experiment and three potato samples,
 135 including the large, medium and small sizes, which were subjectively collected from each
 136 plot to increase the variability of size and shape (Table 2).

137 **Table 1.** Details of the five compound fertilizer treatments used in the new fertilizer
 138 experiment to study the effects of these treatments on potato growth and yield

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Treatment*	Compound fertiliser (CF, kg ha ⁻¹) (N:P ₂ O ₅ :K ₂ O =15:15:15)	F1+25% F1 (CF, kg ha ⁻¹)	F1+Organic- inorganic fertiliser (OIF, kg ha ⁻¹)	F1+Soil Conservation fertiliser (SCF, kg ha ⁻¹)	F1+Compound microorganism (CM, kg ha ⁻¹)
Base Fertiliser	CF480	CF780	CF480+OIF300	CF480+OIF300	CF480+OIF600

139 *CF: Sino-Arab Chemical Fertilizers Co.,Ltd (SACF), N:P₂O₅:K₂O = 15:15:15;

140 SCF: Guizhou Bao Tu ecological recycling agriculture technology Co., Ltd., N:P:K = 6:4:10;

141 OIF: Yunnan Tumama Fertilizers Co.,Ltd, N:P₂O₅:K₂O = 8:8:14, Organic matter ≥12%;

142 CM: *Bacillus subtilis* / *Bacillus licheniformis*, complex fermentation, microbial content ≥ 0.2 billion per gram.

143

144 **2.2. Manual assessment**

145 In order to evaluate the performance of the 3D image analysis for potato eye evaluation,
146 manual assessment was conducted for both the number and depth of the eyes. The
147 number of eyes was counted manually for 122 randomly selected tuber samples. 78 eyes
148 were selected from 15 tubers for eye depth measurement. Modelling clay was molded
149 into each potato eye depression, where the resulting positive molding defined the eye
150 shape after peeling off. The eye depth was then obtained by measuring the height of the
151 positive clay model of the eye. All eyes were individually labelled using a marker pen so
152 that they could later be correctly located in acquired point clouds.

153

154 **Table 2.** Mean and standard deviation potato tuber mass (g) for each variety in the three
155 experiments.

	<i>Favorita</i>	<i>Z5</i>	<i>Z10</i>	<i>Z18</i>	<i>Z19</i>	<i>Shepody</i>
1	267.9±121.0		222.3±96.7	221.7±132.7	251.0±151.6	
2		260.4±114.4		224.9±96.4		204.6±72.5
3		183.1±93.9		162.0±58.7		

156

157 **2.3. Image acquisition system**

158 A 3D imaging platform (Greenpheno Ltd, Wuhan, China), placed in a darkroom, was used
159 to reconstruct a complete 3D model of the potato tubers. The imaging platform consisted
160 of a Basler camera (acA2040-25gc, Germany) mounted on a tripod with a resolution of

161 2046 x 2046 pixels and exposure time of 10 ms, a turntable (MERA300, Hongxingyang
162 Technology Ltd, China), a white LED lighting panel (1200 x 600 mm) behind the camera,
163 and a blue cuboid holder in the middle of the turntable (29 x 29 x 58 mm) on which potato
164 tubers were pinned. The schematic of the measurement configuration is shown as figure
165 1a. With a viewing angle of 35° in the horizontal, the distance between the lens and
166 sample was approximately 80 cm. The camera trigger and turntable rotation were
167 controlled and synchronised via custom-built software, and images were captured evenly
168 at 37 viewing angles at a speed of 56 s per complete rotation.

169 The image capture and processing were conducted using a high-performance computer
170 with Intel Core i9 9900k processor, 32 GB of memory, and a NVIDIA GeForce 2080ti
171 graphics processing unit (GPU).

172

173 **Figure 1.** Schematic showing configuration of the measurement system (a) and the
174 resulting point cloud of the potato tuber and holder (b).

175

176 **2.4. 3D model reconstruction**

177 In order to optimise processing speed and reconstruction accuracy, the original 2D image
178 was first cropped to a lower resolution (1957 x 1401 pixels), which was high enough to
179 accommodate potato tubers of all sizes in this study. The cropped image was then
180 converted from RGB (red, green and blue) to a grayscale image. Because the background
181 intensity was lower than the potato tuber and its holder, an arbitrary thresholding was
182 then applied to remove the background - setting the background pixel values to zero.
183 Commercial software Agisoft Photoscan (Agisoft, LLC, St. Petersburg, Russia) was used

184 to reconstruct the 3D point cloud model by implementing the SfM-MVS algorithm. This
185 first generates a sparse point cloud to identify overlapping images based on SfM using
186 input images calibrated for the camera locations. This is followed by applying MVS to
187 produce a dense point cloud (Fig. 1b) based on the calibrated images (Westoby et al.,
188 2012).

189

190 **2.5. Point cloud pre-processing**

191 Due to the arbitrary 3D coordinate system generated by SfM, which leads to inconsistent
192 orientations for samples, pre-processing was conducted to calculate the coordinates
193 obtained by the moment and translation of the raw point cloud to the origin of the 3D
194 coordinate system. Principal component analysis (PCA) was applied to the coordinates
195 of all cloud points to obtain the eigenvector corresponding to the largest eigenvalue. This
196 gave the major principal axis and so the main orientation along the potato tuber and holder.
197 A rotation matrix was then derived and used to rotate the point cloud to align it with the z
198 axis of the system coordinate frame. The resulting point cloud was converted from RGB
199 (red, green and blue) to HSV (hue, saturation and value). Exploiting the colour difference
200 between potato tuber and its holder, arbitrary thresholding was applied on the hue
201 channel so that the potato tuber could be separated from the whole point cloud. In order
202 to facilitate curvature analysis, a mesh was generated from the pre-processed 3D point
203 cloud, as shown in figure 2a, by Poisson mesh reconstruction (Kazhdan et al., 2006).

204

205 **2.6. Accuracy of the 3D reconstruction**

206 The accuracy of the 3D model reconstruction was evaluated by comparing the tuber
207 volumes measured by image analysis with the water displacement method for 30 sample
208 tubers (Li et al., 2017), where the volume of the tested tubers ranged from 150 to 718
209 cm³. A QuickHull algorithm was performed to obtain the convex hull of the point cloud.
210 This consisted of many triangles together with the cloud centroid. The volume of the
211 convex hull was calculated by integrating the volumes of the individual tetrahedrons
212 (Yamamoto et al., 2018). As the blue holder could be segmented from the point cloud and
213 the volume was known, the absolute estimated tuber volume could be derived.

214

215 **2.7. Curvature-based potato eye counting and depth estimation**

216 The mean curvature describes locally how the curvature of an embedded surface in an
217 ambient space, such as Euclidean space, changes from one place to another. It can thus
218 be used to detect and describe the eye traits of a potato tuber. The mean curvature values
219 of the vertices were calculated using the method described in Meyer et al. (2003), where
220 the potato tuber is represented as a triangular mesh. Then for each vertex x_i , its 1-ring
221 neighbours $N(i)$ can be determined. The mean curvature normal operator $K(x_i)$ at vertex
222 x_i was calculated as:

$$223 K(x_i) = \frac{1}{2A_m} \sum_{j \in N(i)} (\cot \alpha_{ij} + \cot \beta_{ij})(x_i - x_j)$$

224 where A_m is the area of the neighbouring incident triangles. This is calculated using the
225 following iterative procedure, irrespective of whether the triangle T incident to x_i is obtuse
226 or not: (a) initialize $A_m = 0$, (b) for each T, if it is non-obtuse, then $A_m += A_v$; otherwise, if
227 the angle at x_i in T is obtuse, then $A_m += \text{area}(T)/2$; otherwise $A_m += \text{area}(T)/4$, where

$$228 A_v = \frac{1}{8} \sum_{j \in N(i)} (\cot \alpha_{ij} + \cot \beta_{ij}) \|x_i - x_j\|^2, \alpha_{ij} \text{ and } \beta_{ij} \text{ are the angles between the two}$$

229 adjacent triangles sharing and subtending the edge of $x_i x_j$. The mean curvature K_H at x_i
230 is finally estimated as half the magnitude of $K(x_i)$: $K_H(x_i) = 0.5 ||K(x_i)||$.

231 A surface region with a negative value was deemed as a downward concavity and hence
232 potentially an eye. An arbitrary threshold (-1.8) was applied to remove both convex and
233 shallow concave vertices. To cluster together the vertices corresponding to the same eye,
234 density-based spatial clustering of applications with noise (DBSCAN) was applied.
235 Finding DBSCAN groups points that are close to each other was based on the
236 measurement of Euclidean distance (Ngo and Macabebe, 2016). Two parameters
237 including ϵ (eps) and the minimum number of points required to form a dense region
238 (minPts) were required to implement DBSCAN. Eps determines the maximum distance
239 between two vertices for which one can be considered as within the neighborhood of the
240 other, and minPts defines the minimum number of points for each cluster (Fig. 2b). Here,
241 the value of 0.1 (ϵ) and 20 (minPts) were selected for the best agreement with ground-
242 truth data. The number of eyes (Eye_N) for each potato tuber was determined by the
243 number of clusters and the average curvature of each cluster was used to correlate with
244 actual eye depth. In this study, the average of all eye depths for each sample (Eye_D)
245 was used for data analysis.

246

247 **Figure 2.** 3D mesh of a potato tuber surface generated from a point cloud (a) and
248 identified eyes labelled with false colours (b).

249

250 **2.8. Potato tuber external quality traits**

251 The shape index (SI) is a typical shape trait applied to the potato longitudinal section that
252 was measured in 2D space in a previous study (Nankar et al., 2020). However, the results
253 are highly dependent on the viewing angle and shape uniformity. In this study, the SI was
254 defined as the ratio between the tuber length and the maximum width of the largest lateral
255 image slice in parallel with the horizontal plane. Six shape uniformity-related parameters,
256 which showed good correlations with manual assessment for fruit uniformity assessment,
257 were measured in the study. A 3D imaging-based shape uniformity assessment was used
258 to quantify the difference between a series of roundness measures taken from the top
259 view (Fig. 3a) and the side views around the whole tuber, including area and main
260 orientation (Fig. 3b). A more detailed explanation and specific characterisation of all
261 shape uniformity-related traits was provided by Li et al. (2020). All the shape uniformity
262 traits used in this study are listed in Table 3 along with brief descriptions.

263

264 **2.9. Data analysis**

265 **2.9.1 Evaluation of potato eye counting**

266 The evaluation of eye counting was based on the correct recognition of potato eyes
267 present in the 3D model. The region is classified as true positive (TP) if the eye is correctly
268 recognised; as false positive (FP) if there is no eye in the target region; or as false
269 negative (FN) if the eye is present in the 3D model but is not recognised. The performance
270 of the curvature-based potato eye recognition was measured by a precision (Eq. 1) and
271 recall (Eq. 2) analysis (Zhao et al., 2011). A high precision indicates a high TP percentage
272 and low FP percentage, whilst a high recall indicates a high TP percentage.

273

$$Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \quad (1)$$

274
$$Recall = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (2)$$

275

276 Further assessment was by the measurement of the F1 score (Eq. 3), which takes both
 277 precision and recall into account and provides an overall measure of the robustness:

278
$$F1 = \frac{2 * Precision * Recall}{Precision + Recall} \quad (3)$$

279 **2.9.3. Statistical analysis**

280 Minitab 19 (Minitab Inc., USA) was used for the statistical analysis - analysis of variance
 281 (ANOVA). For all three experiments, fertiliser treatment and variety were considered as
 282 two fixed effects and mass as a covariate in ANOVA.

283

284 **Table 3. Description of the shape uniformity parameters measured for potato**
 285 **tubers**

Shape uniformity parameters	Description
CV_A	Coefficient of variation (CV) of 100 side view areas with 3.6° intervals along the z axis. Only the pixels within the middle 80% of the total height were used for the area calculation.
Max_A/Min_A	Ratio between the maximum and minimum areas within 100 side views.
CV_D	The CV of principal orientations of 100 side view projected images, calculated by principal component analysis (PCA).
L/W	Aspect ratio of the minimum bounding box of the maximum circumference for horizontal slice images.
CIR	Circularity of the convex hull of the maximum circumference calculated by Eq. 4, where A and p are the area and perimeter of the convex hull.

STR

Straightness of the curve passing through the centroid of all horizontal slice images (N=80) calculated by Eq. 5, where d_i is the Euclidean distance between neighbouring slice images, and the D is the Euclidean distance between the top and bottom slice images.

286

$$CIR = \frac{4\pi A}{p^2} \quad (4)$$

$$STR = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} d_i}{D} \quad (5)$$

289

290 3. Results

291 3.1. Performance evaluation of the 3D reconstruction

292 The accuracy of the 3D reconstruction was evaluated by comparing the actual tuber
293 volumes with the estimated volume measured by image analysis. The comparison is
294 displayed in figure 4, where the small deviation observed in the r^2 and RMSE values of
295 0.99 and 10.4 cm³ respectively, shows good performance in the 3D reconstruction.

296

297 **Figure 4.** Regression analysis for tuber volume as measured by both manual assessment
298 and image analysis. Red line is the idealised regression curve.

299

300 3.2. Potato eye counting and depth estimation

301 With the current PC configuration, the processing time for the eye traits generation was
302 around 2.5 minutes per tuber. To evaluate the performance of curvature-based potato
303 eye counting, the results from image analysis methods were compared with manual
304 assessments (Fig. 5a). Linear regression indicated the image analysis-based potato eye
305 counting was highly consistent and comparable with manual counting ($r^2 = 0.90$, RMSE

306 = 0.95). The image analysis method was also superior in recall (0.95) and precision (0.96),
307 showing a high F1 measure (0.95).

308 For eye depth, a linear relationship was found between the curvature values (Fig. 5b) and
309 depth from manual assessment ($r^2 = 0.81$, RMSE = 0.51 mm). The slope (-0.902) and
310 intercept (0.111) of this linear relationship were used to estimate the eye depth of other
311 potato samples collected from the main experiments.

312 **Figure 5.** Comparison of the estimated potato eye number by a 3D image analysis
313 software with manual counting (a). Correlation between the estimated curvature values
314 and actual potato eye depth assessed manually (b). Red lines are idealised regression
315 curves.

316

317 **3.3. The effects of genotypes, fertiliser treatment and tuber mass on shape traits**

318 With the current PC configuration, the processing time for the generation of tuber shape
319 traits was between 6 and 10 seconds per tuber. Significant differences were found in SI,
320 eye traits and all shape uniformity related traits except STR (Table 4) among the tested
321 varieties in all three experiments. Genotypes differed significantly in STR for both
322 experiments 1 and 3, approaching significantly in experiment 2 (p -value = 0.051).
323 Fertiliser treatments did not significantly affect any trait, except N fertiliser on SI: where
324 increasing N led to decreasing SI. The analysis of mass effects showed consistent results
325 for SI and all shape uniformity related traits except CV_A, CV_D and STR.

326 According to the statistical analysis for experiments 1 and 2, L/W, Max_A/Min_A and CIR
327 showed better discriminative power among varieties than the other three shape
328 uniformity-related traits. According to the national potato quality standard in China, potato

329 tubers can be categorised into small (< 100 g), medium (100 – 300 g) and large (> 300 g)
330 size groups. Due to the limited number of tubers in the small group for all experiments,
331 and large group for experiment 3, further analysis was only conducted on these three
332 shape uniformity-related traits and the eye traits in experiment 1 and 2 by selecting the
333 samples of each variety from the medium and large groups. Most of the varieties showed
334 higher shape uniformity for the medium sized tubers than for the large ones (*p-value* <
335 0.05). The only exception was Z18, which did not show significant differences among
336 sizing groups in both experiments (Fig. 6).

337 A significant difference was found for the number of eyes (Eye_N) among varieties. Z5,
338 Z19 and *Favorita* all had higher counts than other varieties (Fig. 7). The effect of tuber
339 mass on Eye_N was significant for all three experiments. More detailed analysis was
340 conducted for each individual variety (Fig. 7a and c), and generally the Eye_N showed
341 an increasing trend from medium to large sized tubers in both experiments. Consistent
342 with previous knowledge, Z5 (Fig. 7c) and *Favorita* (Fig. 7a) are varieties with high Eye_N.
343 Z19 had significantly higher Eye_D than either Z10 and Z18 (*p-value* < 0.05) in
344 experiment 1 (Fig. 7b), and Z5 showed the highest Eye_D in experiment 2 (Fig. 7d). The
345 influence of tuber mass on Eye_D was inconsistent between experiments, but no
346 significant difference was observed between large and medium size groups for both
347 experiments.

348

349 **Table 4.** ANOVA of potato tuber and eye traits in dependency of genotype, fertiliser
350 treatment and mass.

351

352

353

354

355

	Treatment	SI	L/W	CV_A	Max_A/Min_A	CV_D	CIR	STR	Eye_N	Eye_D
Variety x N x Weight	Variety									
	Favorita	1.97 a	1.21 b	0.20 b	1.18 b	1.56 b	0.98 b	1.05 b	10.34 a	3.56 ab
	Z10	1.66 b	1.20 b	0.17 b	1.16 bc	1.57 b	0.98 b	1.06 b	6.28 c	3.02 c
	Z18	1.89 a	1.17 b	0.18 b	1.13 c	1.59 b	0.98 b	1.05 b	7.08 bc	3.44 bc
	Z19	1.50 c	1.33 a	0.21 a	1.27 a	1.76 a	0.96 a	1.08 a	8.02 b	4.06 a
	F^a	52.7***	22.6***	16.1***	45.0***	20.4***	35.4***	6.97***	18.51***	9.31***
	N									
	N0	1.83 a	1.24	0.19	1.19	1.64	0.97	1.05	7.96	3.51
	N100	1.76 ab	1.24	0.19	1.20	1.62	0.97	1.06	8.09	3.41
	N200	1.83 a	1.24	0.20	1.19	1.63	0.98	1.06	7.44	3.47
	N300	1.68 b	1.22	0.19	1.18	1.59	0.98	1.06	7.63	3.53
	N400	1.68 b	1.20	0.18	1.17	1.62	0.98	1.07	8.56	3.67
	F	4.82**	1.20 ns	0.49 ns	1.29 ns	0.69 ns	1.05 ns	2.08 ns	0.90 ns	0.39 ns
	Weight									
F	112.9***	11.09***	1.79 ns	8.12**	0.18 ns	18.85***	2.34 ns	36.52***	0.82 ns	
Variety x K x Weight	Variety									
	Shepody	2.22 a	1.27 a	0.21 a	1.23 a	1.59a	0.97 a	1.05	6.08 a	3.34 a
	Z18	1.97 b	1.18 b	0.18 b	1.14 b	1.59a	0.98 b	1.04	6.94 a	3.62 a
	Z5	1.63 c	1.45 c	0.23 a	1.37 c	1.73b	0.95 c	1.06	10.21 b	5.14 b
	F	72.8***	54.3***	17.8***	105.0***	20.4***	29.85***	3.05 (p=0.051)	31.77***	44.3***
	K									
	K0	1.94	1.29	0.20	1.23	1.63	0.96	1.06	7.83	3.91
	K150	1.97	1.31	0.21	1.25	1.65	0.97	1.04	7.06	4.02
	K300	1.91	1.31	0.20	1.24	1.64	0.97	1.06	8.40	4.02
	K450	1.94	1.30	0.21	1.26	1.62	0.96	1.05	7.68	4.18
	F	0.34 ns	0.15 ns	0.51 ns	0.60 ns	0.49 ns	0.44 ns	0.72 ns	1.84 ns	0.50 ns
Weight										
F	17.28***	5.38*	2.86 ns	8.62**	0.79 ns	6.39*	0.05 ns	31.77***	4.36*	
Variety x CF x Weight	Variety									
	Z18	1.91 a	1.17 a	0.18 a	1.13 a	1.59 a	0.98 a	1.04 a	6.10 a	3.50 a
	Z5	1.53 b	1.38 b	0.22 b	1.32 b	1.79 b	0.95 b	1.07 b	9.49 b	5.14 b
	F	124.2***	88.5***	24.5***	212.2***	61.5***	100.4***	16.0***	81.5***	102.0***
	CF									
	F1	1.76	1.29	0.21	1.24	1.65	0.97	1.04	7.34	4.35
	F2	1.71	1.28	0.20	1.23	1.67	0.97	1.06	7.21	4.73
	F3	1.75	1.29	0.19	1.22	1.70	0.96	1.07	8.05	3.96
	F4	1.71	1.28	0.19	1.22	1.71	0.97	1.05	7.87	4.28
	F5	1.68	1.25	0.21	1.22	1.72	0.97	1.06	7.74	4.28
	F	0.67 ns	0.59 ns	0.93 ns	0.50 ns	1.10 ns	0.76 ns	2.27 ns	0.60 ns	2.37 ns
Weight										
F	6.88**	10.97**	0.11 ns	12.14**	0.47 ns	13.84***	0.00 ns	87.65***	12.88**	

356

357 *Significant at 0.05 level; ** Significant at 0.01 level; *** Significant at 0.001 level

358 ^aF: F-value

359

360 **Figure 6.** Analysis of the effect of potato size groups: large (L) and medium (M) on L/W,
361 Max_A/Min_A and CIR in experiment 1 (a-c) and 2 (d-f).

362

363 **Figure 7.** The effect of potato size group large (L) and medium (M) on Eye_N and Eye_D
364 in experiment 1 (a, b) and 2 (c, d).

365

366 **4. Discussion**

367 The present study is the first to use 3D imaging technology for counting potato eyes and
368 assessing qualitative traits, including potato Eye_N and Eye_D, using an imaging-based
369 analysis. Generally, large differences in Eye_N were found between large and medium
370 sized tubers for Z18 and Z19. For relatively small potatoes, eyes might not have fully
371 developed and hence the image analysis software might not be sensitive enough to detect
372 the extremely shallow eye depressions, which may result in the underestimation of Eye_N.
373 Consequently, phenotyping Eye_N in a practical breeding programme requires a
374 relatively large potato tuber for more robust results; thus, future studies are necessary to
375 establish a mass threshold for each variety to better assess eye count reliably.

376 It is worth noting that errors in the estimation of Eye_N and Eye_D could be introduced in
377 the imaging setup and 3D reconstruction algorithm as well as in manual assessment. Due
378 to the limitation of the viewing angle for the imaging setup, the bottoms of the potato
379 tubers were partly occluded and could not be fully reconstructed, which led to the
380 underestimation of Eye_N and decreased the accuracy of Eye_D. There is no widely
381 accepted method to accurately measure the potato eye depth as far as we know. A

382 modelling clay method was used in this study but due to the irregular shape of the potato
383 tuber, it was hard to standardise this method, which also may have introduced errors in
384 the eye depth estimation. The effect of genotypes on Eye_N and Eye_D is consistent with
385 previous knowledge and fertiliser input appears not to have had an effect on Eye_N and
386 Eye_D.

387 Accurate estimation of Eye_D requires a higher quality of 3D model than other traits. For
388 SfM-MVS, high quality 3D reconstruction relies on a large number of viewing angles and
389 sufficient depth variation, which cannot be fully controlled due to the variation of the
390 smoothness of surfaces in the present study, and this was probably the major error source
391 for Eye_D estimation. Inaccurate feature extraction and matching always leads to spikes
392 and holes in reconstructed point clouds/meshes. The density, resolution and quality of
393 the 3D reconstructed point cloud/mesh directly affects the estimation of the mean
394 curvature of the points. The lower the density, resolution and quality of the 3D point
395 cloud/mesh, the less accurate the estimated mean curvature, and thus the less reliable
396 the estimated potato eye depth. To improve the quality of the 3D reconstructed point
397 cloud/mesh, more accurate SfM techniques, such as a fast feature detector (Ghahremani
398 et al., 2021), can be applied. Other 3D scanning techniques can also generate 3D point
399 cloud data that is compatible with the proposed image analysis software. Structured light-
400 based 3D scanning can potentially provide more rapid and automated data acquisition.
401 Structured light-based scanners project a pattern of light onto the sample and calculate
402 the distance of each point based on the shape of the observed pattern of reflected light.
403 Compared with SfM-MVS, structured light requires fewer rotations of the sample and
404 generates high quality point cloud data in a more robust manner. Moreover, commercial

405 structured light scanning systems do not need separate software to implement 3D
406 reconstruction. While it is difficult to apply structured light scanning to shiny specular
407 surfaces, such as strawberry fruit, the rough matt surface of potato tubers may make it
408 suitable in a future study.

409 Phenotyping potato tuber shape in current potato breeding programmes simply groups
410 shape into six broad shape categories. Any assessment of shape uniformity is still lacking,
411 although this can be a more important trait in both potato retail and processing. Six shape
412 uniformity-related traits, which previously showed good agreement with manual
413 assessment in strawberries, were adopted in this study. Shape uniformity differed
414 significantly among the chosen varieties. Z18 was found to have a better shape-uniformity
415 than other varieties in the three experiments, and Z10 was comparable with Z18 in
416 experiment 1 for all shape uniformity-related traits. It is possible that there is genetic
417 variability in the potato tuber shape uniformity which can potentially be exploited in
418 breeding programmes. In previous studies (Li et al., 2020), CIR, Max_A/Min_A and LW
419 were considered as more important variables than others, and this was consistent with
420 the present study in that a greater number of varieties could be discriminated against by
421 them. In this study, the potato tubers in the large group showed a trend of lower shape
422 uniformity than the medium sized tubers, except for Z18, which showed a consistently
423 higher shape uniformity than the other varieties. This hypothesis needs to be confirmed
424 in a future study with a larger number of samples. As a high input of N fertiliser can
425 increase the tuber size, a future study can be conducted to understand the optimal N
426 input to balance the tuber size and external quality, including SI and shape uniformity.

427 Although the effects of fertiliser treatments on shape uniformity and eye traits were initially
428 investigated with a sampling method in this study, further work with a larger number of
429 samples should be conducted based on the automated imaging methodology developed
430 here to confirm the initial finding.

431

432 **5. Conclusion**

433 Overall, this study demonstrated that the proposed 3D image analysis method is capable
434 of providing quantitative phenotypic data for SI, shape uniformity and eye-related traits in
435 potatoes. L/W, Max_A/Min_A and CIR were found to show the best discriminative power
436 among varieties. The impact of variety, fertiliser and mass on tuber shape uniformity were
437 innovatively assessed based on a 3D image analysis method. In this preliminary study,
438 different fertiliser treatments showed no significant impact on shape uniformity and eye
439 traits, but tuber size significantly affected the selected shape-uniformity traits. Inconsistent
440 results were obtained for the analysis of the effect of tuber mass on the eye depth,
441 probably due to the inadequate quality of the 3D model and limited sample number. By
442 adopting an alternative 3D scanning method, such as a structured light based 3D
443 reconstruction approach, it is believed that high-throughput phenotyping for novel external
444 traits could be obtained in a practical commercial potato breeding programme.

445

446 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

447 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
448 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

449

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