

Automatic identification of species with neural networks

A new automatic identification system using photographic images has been designed to recognize fish, plant, and butterfly species from Europe and South America. The automatic classification system integrates multiple image processing tools to extract the geometry, morphology, and texture of the images. Artificial neural networks (ANNs) were used as the pattern recognition method. We tested a data set that included 740 species and 11,198 individuals. Our results show that the system performed with high accuracy, reaching 91.65% of true positive fish identifications, 92.87% of plants and 93.25% of butterflies. Our results highlight how the neural networks are complementary to species identification, which is useful in today's taxonomic crisis.

1 **Automatic identification of species with neural networks.**

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8 **ABSTRACT**

9 A new automatic identification system using photographic images has been designed to
10 recognize fish, plant, and butterfly species from Europe and South America. The automatic
11 classification system integrates multiple image processing tools to extract the geometry,
12 morphology, and texture of the images. Artificial neural networks (ANNs) were used as the
13 pattern recognition method. We tested a data set that included 740 species and 11,198
14 individuals. Our results show that the system performed with high accuracy, reaching 91.65% of
15 true positive fish identifications, 92.87% of plants and 93.25% of butterflies. Our results
16 highlight how the neural networks are complementary to species identification, which is useful in
17 today's taxonomic crisis.

18 **Keywords:** Fish, plant, butterflies, neural network, feature extraction, digital image, and species

19 **INTRODUCTION**

20 Currently, species identification is a taxonomic challenge and an integral process of all biological
21 research, which generates important information for biodiversity conservation. Difficulty
22 identifying species and ambiguity in the species concept, are seriously affecting our ability to
23 estimate levels of biodiversity (Gaston & O'Neill, 2004). The Global Taxonomy Initiative
24 highlights the knowledge gaps in our taxonomic system due to the shortage of trained
25 taxonomists and curators; these deficiencies reduce our ability to understand, use, and conserve
26 biological diversity. High levels of global biodiversity and a limited number of taxonomists
27 represents significant challenges to the future of biological study and conservation. The main
28 problem is that almost all taxonomic information exists in languages and formats not easily
29 understood or shared without a high level of specialized knowledge and vocabularies. Thus,
30 taxonomic knowledge is localized within limited geographical areas and among a limited number
31 of taxonomists. This lack of accessibility of taxonomic knowledge to the general public has been
32 termed the “taxonomic crisis” (Dayrat, 2005).

33 Recently, taxonomists have been searching for more efficient methods to meet species
34 identification requirements, such as developing digital image processing and pattern recognition
35 techniques. These methods automatically identify species based on extracting unique image
36 shape information that distinguishes them by taxonomic groups. Researchers currently have
37 recognition techniques for insects, plants, spiders, and plankton (Gaston & O'Neill, 2004). This
38 approach can be extended even further to field-based identification of organisms such as fish
39 (Strachan, Nesvadba & Allen, 1990; Storbeck & Daan, 2001; White, Svellingen & Strachan,
40 2006; Zion, Alchanatis, Ostrovsky, Barki & Karplus, 2007; Hu, Li, Duan, Han, Chen & Si,
41 2012), insects (Mayo & Watson, 2007; O'Neill, 2007 ; Kang, Song & Lee, 2012), zooplankton
42 (Grosjean, Picheral, Warembourg & Gorsky, 2004) and plants (Novotny & Suk, 2013). These

43 methods are helpful in alleviating the “taxonomy crisis”. In this research, we present a new
44 methodology for the identification of different taxonomic groups to the species level for fish,
45 plants, and butterflies.

46 We designed a simple and effective algorithm (preprocess solution) and defined a range of new
47 features that use pattern recognition with artificial neural network designs (ANN). Our
48 experiments are outlined, discussed, and important conclusions on automatic species image
49 identification are summarized.

50 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

51 **Images**

52 Image data in this study was taking from two sources: natural history museum records, and
53 online databases. Analyses from each collection were done with respect to country. Ichthyology
54 collections from Colombia were compiled from the Instituto de Investigaciones Marinas y
55 Costeras (INVEMAR), the Colección de Referencia Biología Marina Universidad del Valle
56 (CRBMUV), and the Colección Ictiologica Universidad de Antioquia (CIUA). Ichthyology
57 collections from Brazil were found in the Museu de Zoologia da USP (MZUSP), the Instituto
58 Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia Manaus (INPA), and the Museu Nacional Rio de Janeiro
59 (MNRJ). Image data from Spain came from the Museo Nacional de Ciencias Naturales Madrid
60 (MNCN). We tested a data set that included a total of 740 species and 11,198 individuals of fish,
61 plants, and butterflies. Fish specimen images were taken using a Cannon EOS 6dD one-use
62 camera with a 1280 x 960 pixel resolution. 697 total fish species, previously identified by
63 experts, were photographed (see Fig. 1 for a subset of photographed species). Images of 32 plant
64 species were downloaded from the Flavia database (<http://flavia.sourceforge.net/>) (see Fig.2).

65 Image data for 11 species of butterflies were downloaded from the MorphBank database
66 (<http://www.morphbank.net/>) (see Fig. 3.).

67 **System development**

68 Based on pattern recognition theory (Marqués de Sá, 2001) and basic computer-processing
69 pathways used in typical automated species identification systems (Gaston & O'Neill, 2004), we
70 designed a system for automatic individual identification at the species level (Fig. 4). In a novel
71 way, our system shares preprocess and extraction components with both the training and
72 recognition processes. Features of training images are used to build a model of the classification
73 progress pattern after feature extraction. These features and the trained model are then recorded
74 in the database and incorporated in the analysis of subsequent photos. This process uses two
75 types of data to model features of recognition files and results in better species identification
76 results. The following sections provide implementation details for each step in Fig. 4. Due to its
77 size, a list of features could not be included in this manuscript, but is alternatively available upon
78 request.

79 **Image preprocessing**

80 Image heterogeneity in terms of orientation, size, brightness, and illumination was common (Fig.
81 5.1). Image background was removed with Grabcut's algorithm (Rother, Kolmogorov & Blake,
82 2004) (Fig. 5.2) and converted to grayscale (Fig. 5.3). Different filters were applied to improve
83 the image by removing image noise; the filters used were smooth and median (Fig. 5.4 and 5.5),
84 and the image was then reduced to one of two possible levels, 0 or 1 (Fig. 5.6). **Next**, the
85 processed image was brought to a contour (Fig. 5.7) and then a skeleton (Fig. 5.8). All of these
86 processes were performed for each taxonomic group using the image processing in MATLAB
87 R2009b.

88 **Feature extraction**

89 Feature extraction greatly influences species identification from image processing. Features
 90 should represent taxonomic information and be easily acquired from data images. A series of
 91 geometrical, morphological, and texture features, unique to species, are used in our automatic
 92 identification system; these features can be efficiently extracted with image processing. Fifteen
 93 intuitive features were used in the system and are described below:

94 **Geometrical**

95 Geometric features contain information about form, position, size, and orientation of the region.
 96 The following are some geometric features that are commonly used in pattern recognition.

97 1- *Area* is the total number of pixels of the study area, and is defined as:

$$A(s) = \int_x \int_y I(x, y) dy dx$$

98 $I(x, y)$ depends on the limits of the shape (see figure 5.7).

99 2- *Perimeter*. The number of pixels that belong to the edge of the region (see figure 5.8). In other
 100 words, it is the curve that encloses a region S, defined as:

$$P(s) = \int_t \sqrt{x^2(t) + y^2(t)} dt$$

101 3- *Diameter*. Value representing the diameter of a circle with the same area as the region.

102 4- *Compatibility*. The efficiency of the contour or perimeter $P(s)$ that encloses an area $A(s)$

$$C(s) = \frac{4\pi A(s)}{P^2(s)}$$

103 5- *Compactness*. The efficiency with which area $A(s)$ encloses an object is determined by $P(s)$

$$Co(s) = \frac{P^2(s)}{4\pi A(s)}$$

104 6- *Solidity*. The scalar specifying the proportion of the pixels in the convex hull that are also in
105 the region. This property is supported only for 2-D input label matrices.

106 *Solidity*. The number of pixels, specified in terms of area/scalar.

107 **Texture**

108 Textures are important visual patterns for homogeneous description of regions. Intuitive
109 measures provide properties such as smoothing, roughness, and regularity (Glasbey, 1996).

110 Textures depend on the resolution of the image and can follow two approaches: statistical and
111 frequency. We use the statistical approximation in which statistical values are analyzed first order
112 (on the histogram) and second order (on the co-occurrence matrix).

113 *Statistical first order* is obtained from the gray level histogram of the image. Each value is
114 divided by the total number of pixels (area) and has a new histogram representing the probability
115 that a determined gray level is displayed in the region of interest.

116 Obtained properties:

117 7- *Median*

$$\mu = \sum_{x=1}^n xh(x)$$

118 8- *Variance*

$$\delta^2 = \sum_{x=1}^n (x - \mu^2) h(x)$$

119 *Statistical second order* is the matrix spatial dependence of gray levels or co-occurrence matrices.

120 Given a vector of polar coordinates, $\delta = (r, \theta)$, one can calculate the conditional probability

121 that two properties appear separated by a given distance δ, P_δ using an angle θ of -45 and

122 a distance r equal to one pixel. The features that are extracted from this matrix are:

123 9- *Uniformity*

$$\sum_{x=1}^n \sum_{y=1}^n P_\delta(x, y)^2$$

124 10- *Entropy co-occurrence*

$$- \sum_{x=1}^n \sum_{y=1}^n P_\delta(x, y) \log P_\delta(x, y)$$

125 11- *Homogeneity*

$$\frac{\sum_{x=1}^n \sum_{y=1}^n P_\delta(x, y)}{1 + |x - y|}$$

126 12- *Inertia*

$$\sum_{x=1}^n \sum_{y=1}^n P_\delta(x, y) (x - y)^2$$

127 **Morphological**

128 The morphological features are those that concentrate on the organization of pixels. They
 129 perform a comprehensive description of the region of interest. They fall into two categories: two-
 130 dimensional Cartesian moments and normalized central moments.

131 *Two-dimensional Cartesian moments* are variable at minor order, and initiate at zero at higher
 132 orders. The moment of order p and q of a function $I(x, y)$ is defined as:

$$m_{pq} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^p y^q I(x, y) dx dy$$

133 The parameters p and q denote the order of the moment. When $p = 0$ and $q = 0$, which determines
 134 the center of mass or gravity of the overall function in binary images, the center of mass or
 135 gravity of the region under study is:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{m_{10}}{m_{00}} \quad \bar{y} = \frac{m_{01}}{m_{00}}$$

136 The center of mass or gravity can define the central moments that are invariant to displacement
 137 or translation of the image's region of interest defined as:

$$u_{pq} = \sum_x \sum_y (x - \bar{x})^p (y - \bar{y})^q I(x, y) \Delta A$$

138 Where ΔA is the area of a pixel.

139 *Normalized central moments* are invariant to scale which is defined as:

$$n_{pq} = \frac{u_{pq}}{u_{00}^\gamma}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{p+q}{2} \quad \forall p+q \geq 2$$

140 Where

141 The above equations can be defined by seven moments that are invariant to rotation, translation,
 142 and scale changes, known as the Hu invariant set of moments (Hu, 1962). In this study, we used
 143 the first Hu moment defined as:

144 13-*Hu1*

$$\varphi_1 = m_{20} + m_{02}$$

145 Normalized central moments can be generated by related moment invariants "AMI" (Flusser &
 146 Suk, 1993), based on the theory of algebraic invariants and invariants under general affine
 147 transformation. We used two of the four invariants associated with discriminant character
 148 moments defined as:

149 14-*Ami1*

$$I_1 = \frac{u_{20}u_{02} - u_{11}^2}{u_{00}^4}$$

150 15-*Ami2*

$$I_2 = \frac{u_{30}^2u_{03}^2 - 6u_{30}u_{21}u_{12} + 4u_{30}u_{12}^3 + 4u_{21}^3u_{03} - 3u_{21}^2u_{12}^2}{u_{00}^{10}}$$

151 These moments enable a high degree of insensitivity to noise that is not altered by rotation,
152 translation, or staggering.

153 The use of the above 15 features (Table 1) has two advantages. First, the features can express the
154 structure of the individual's body, which is important for the identification at species level.
155 Second, our features were elaborately chosen to avoid using feature optimization methods like
156 adapted fuzzy reasoning (Lancieri & Boubchir, 2007). We designed and realized automatic
157 extraction algorithms to compute the values of these features so that all variables and features
158 could be calculated automatically.

159 **Neural Network**

160 A neural network is defined as a parallel computer model composed of a large number of
161 adaptive processing (neural) units which communicate via interconnections with variables. A
162 multiple layer network has one or more layers (neurons) that enable the learning of complex
163 tasks by progressively extracting more meaningful features from the input image patterns (Wu,
164 1997). Compared to other machine learning methods, neural networks learn slower but predict
165 faster and have very good models presenting nonlinear data. The simple perceptron is assigned
166 multiple inputs but generates a single output, similar to different linear combinations that depend
167 on input weights and generate a linear activation function (Rosenblatt, 1958). Mathematically,
168 the neural network can be described with the following equation:

$$y = \varphi \left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i * x_i + b \right)$$

169 W_i : weight vector, X_i : input vector, b : bias activation function.

170 A multilayer perceptron consists of a set of source nodes containing one or more input layer and
171 a set of hidden-node outputs. The input signal propagates through the network layer by layer
172 (Zhang, Patuwo & Hu, 1998). Fig. 6 presents a diagram of the multilayer neural network.

173 The neural network structure is composed of N inputs $N = [N_1, N_2, \dots, N_n]$, a hidden layer h and
174 an output vector $S = [S_1, S_2, \dots, S_m]$. Each S_i is assessed by a single step that transforms the
175 vector S binary signal $[0,1]$. A supervised training phase, or sigmoid activation, is based on the
176 back propagation algorithm in which the weights and biases are updated in the direction of the
177 negative gradient of the performance and then updated in the opposite direction (Werbos, 1974;
178 Rumelhart, Hinton & Williams, 1986; Parker, 1987; Smith & Brier, 1996;). The sigmoid
179 activation function for the hidden layer and output layer is determined by the following equation:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

180 In this study, the number of input neurons is determined by the number of descriptors that are
181 available in each pattern, which in this case is $N=15$ (see variables section). The number of
182 neurons in the hidden layer, h , has been experimentally determined from the error set data
183 searching for the general training date of the ANN. The number of output neurons is determined
184 by the number of species classified in each database.

185 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

186 All features were extracted from images and defined according to the above mentioned methods.
187 We tested different species from various taxonomic groups, using the developed neural network
188 systems. The results of the main tests with different test species are listed below.

189 Experiments were divided into two groups: 1) images from the training group were used for
190 building the classifications of the model; 2) images from the test group were used for the
191 reorganization and testing of the developed model.

192 To determine the optimal number of neurons given a data image, the relationship between the
193 identification success rate and the number of neurons was explored. Fig. 7 shows this
194 relationship for the different configurations considered. We display values for neuron number for
195 each species in the database in Table 2.

196 Table 3 shows the performance average of the artificial neural networks using image data and the
197 15 analyzing features. The data set was randomly divided into 60-70-80-90% training images,
198 resulting in 40-30-20-10% test images. The results with the highest average accuracy for species
199 identification were networks using 80-90% training and 20-10% test images. For these tests, the
200 declared success rate was related to the number of species. Recognition became more difficult
201 with increased species number, as observed in the fish result collections from MZUSP, INPA,
202 INVEMAR, CRBMUV, and MNCN which averaged below 90% recognition.

203 Similar to previous findings (Strachan et al., 1990; Storbeck & Daan, 2001; White et al., 2006;
204 Zion et al., 2007; Novotny & Suk, 2013), the neural network used classified species from image
205 data. However, most other studies only employ databases with low levels of species richness
206 usually spanning many different orders and families and are easily classified due to distinct
207 differences in morphological characteristics. Our neural network builds on the work of these
208 networks, and requires low operator expertise, costs, and response time, but also offers high
209 reproducibility, species identification accuracy, and usability. The ANN algorithm is optimized
210 for testing datasets with high levels of species richness, in this case 740 species (11,198
211 individuals) of fishes, plants and butterflies.

212 The predictive ability of the ANNs was affected by the high phenotypic similarity between
213 species in the analysis, for example small fish species such as those from the family Characidos
214 (Annex 1, Fig. 8). The magnitude of this error comes from low phenotypic differences of some
215 species that vary only in minor details, like teeth or fin radii, which hinders classification.
216 However, the error obtained on the neural network model has been low in other taxonomic
217 families (Table 3). Overall performance of the system achieved high accuracy and precision,
218 with 91.65% true positive fish identifications, 92.87% plant identifications, and 93.25% butterfly
219 identifications. The evaluation of results appears simple at first glance: the comparison of success
220 rates appears sufficient, however upon closer examination, the success rates in tests on closed
221 data sets strongly depend on the number of species and the ratio of test to training image
222 samples. The data sets with a lower species number have higher success rates, possibly explained
223 by species with very distinct morphological characteristics.

224 The strength of this research is in its applicability to combat the “taxonomic crisis”. In the past
225 three decades, many promising techniques for fish identification have emerged. Many of them
226 are based on genetics, interactive computer software, image recognition, hydro-acoustics, and
227 morphometrics (Fischer, 2013). In our study, neural networks were tested as a possible method
228 for species identification. However, taking advantage of the fast performance of the ANNs and
229 the speed of modern PCs, further research should explore the applications of the ANN
230 methodology to automate biomass estimation and real-time species classifications. This could
231 produce useful tools for both scientific and commercial use. Fischer (2013) concludes that the
232 image recognition methods are useful but their transferability and resolution are poor because
233 species differ between geographic regions. This is a clear obstacle to future ANN development
234 and network identification success. Our advances in this field in relation to species identification
235 should be developed for specific geographic regions and translated into user-friendly

236 applications. We support the development of species identification methods that are globally
237 interchangeable but also tailored to regional biodiversity composition.

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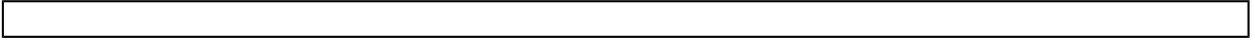


Table 1 (on next page)

Table 1

Features extracted

Table 1. Features extracted

Type	Variable	Description
Geometrical	A	Area
	P	Perimeter
	D	Diameter
	C	Compatibility
	Co	Compactness
	S	Solidity
Texture	u	Median
	δ^2	
	$E_{r,\theta}$	Variance
	$H_{r,\theta}$	
	$HG_{r,\theta}$	Uniformity
	l_{ij}	Entropy co-occurrence
	ϕ_1	Homogeneity
	I_1, I_2	Inertia
Morphologica l		Hu1
		Ami1-Ami2

Table 2(on next page)

table 2

FC (Fish collection); parameters used in neural network systems.

Table 2. FC (Fish collection); parameters used in neural network systems.

Data set	Learning rate	Number of generations	Number of Hidden layers	Number of input layers	Number of output layers (# species)
FC-MZUSP	0.2	95000	200	15	100
FC-INPA	0.15	100000	180	15	91
FC-MNRJ	0.25	78000	60	15	14
FC-INVEMAR	0.3	84000	250	15	189
FC-CIUA	0.12	90000	60	15	33
FC-CRBMUV	0.35	140000	300	15	172
FC-MNCN	0.2	110000	250	15	98
FLAVIA	0.1	50000	60	15	32
BUTTERFLIES	0.5	50000	35	15	11

Table 3(on next page)

Table 3

FC (Fish collection); results of ANN tests with species for 15 features

Table 3. FC (Fish collection); results of ANN tests with species tests for 15 features

			Average Percentage of images (Training / test)			
Data set	Species	Images	60/40	70/30	80/20	90/10
FC-MZUSP	100	1718	76.67	81.34	83.34	88.31
FC-INPA	91	1640	76.29	78.94	84.44	89.93
FC-MNRJ	14	422	82.62	87.18	90.56	91.65
FC-INVEMAR	189	1703	76.72	84.03	86.45	88.08
FC-CIUA	33	472	83.08	86.99	90.19	91.77
FC-CRBMUV	172	2392	77.36	85.21	87.29	88.85
FC-MNCN	98	959	72.34	86.21	88.15	89.11
FLAVIA	32	1800	68.79	88.48	91.61	92.87
BUTTERFLIES	11	92	73.62	80.43	88.83	93.25

Figure 1

Figure 1

Samples of some species data set : 1) *Curimata mivartii* 2) *Leporinus striatus* 3) *Ctecolucius hujeta* 4) *Cinopotamus magdalenae* 5) *Astyanax magdalenae* 6) *Roeboides occidentalis* 7) *Genycharax tarpon* 8) *Cyphocharax magdalenae* 9) *Hemibrycon decurrens* 10) *Brycon medemi* 11) *Lebiasina multimaculata* 12) *Hemibrycon dentatus* 13) *Triporheus magdalenae* 14) *Characidium phoxocephalum* 15) *Leporinus muyscorum* 16) *Hemibrycon boquiae* 17) *Brycon hennir* 18) *Characidium caucanum* 19) *Roeboides dayi* 20) *Astyanax fasciatus* 21) *Argopleura magdalenensis* 22) *Apteronotus eschemeyeri* 23) *Eigenmannia virescens*.

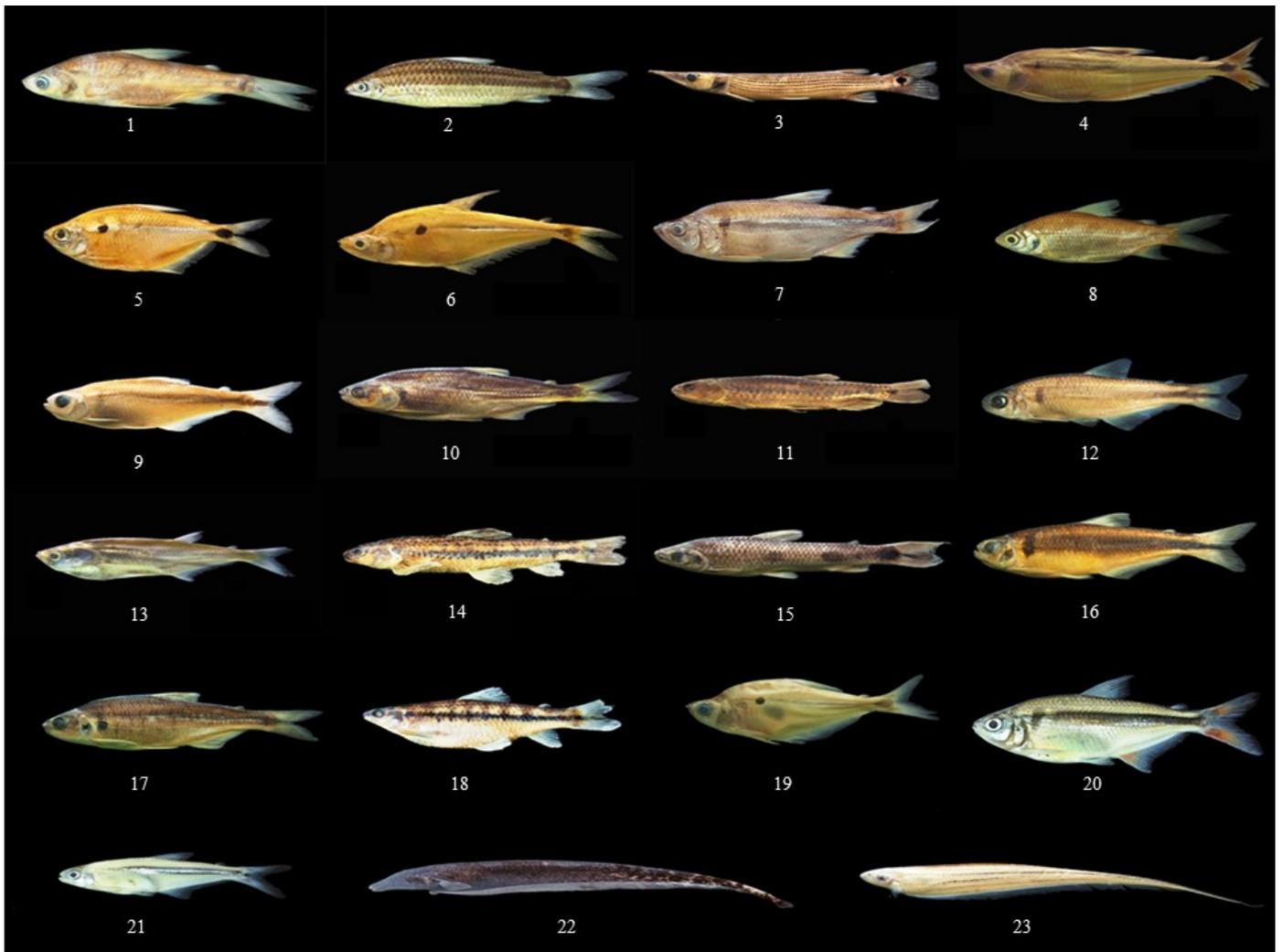


Figure 2

Figure 2

Samples of our data set: 1) *Phyllostachys edulis* 2) *Aesculus chinensis* 3) *Berberis anhwensis* 4) *Cercis chinensis* 5) *Indigofera tinctoria* 6) *Acer Dalmatum* 7) *Phoebe zhennan* 8) *Kalopanax septemlobus* 9) *Cinnamomum japonicum* 10) *Koelreuteria paniculata* 11) *Ilex macrocarpa* 12) *Pittosporum tobira* 13) *Chimonanthus praecox* 14) *Cinnamomum camphora* 15) *Viburnum awabuki* 16) *Osmanthus fragrans* 17) *Cedrus deodara* 18) *Ginkgo biloba* 19) *Lagerstroemia indica* 20) *Nerium oleander* 21) *Podocarpus macrophyllus* 22) *Prunus yedoensis* 23) *Ligustrum lucidum* 24) *Tonna sinensis* 25) *Prunus persica* 26) *Manglietia fordiana* 27) *Acer buergerianum* 28) *Mahonia bealei* 29) *Magnolia grandiflora* 30) *Populus Canadensis* 31) *Liriodendron chinense* 32) *Citrus reticulata*.

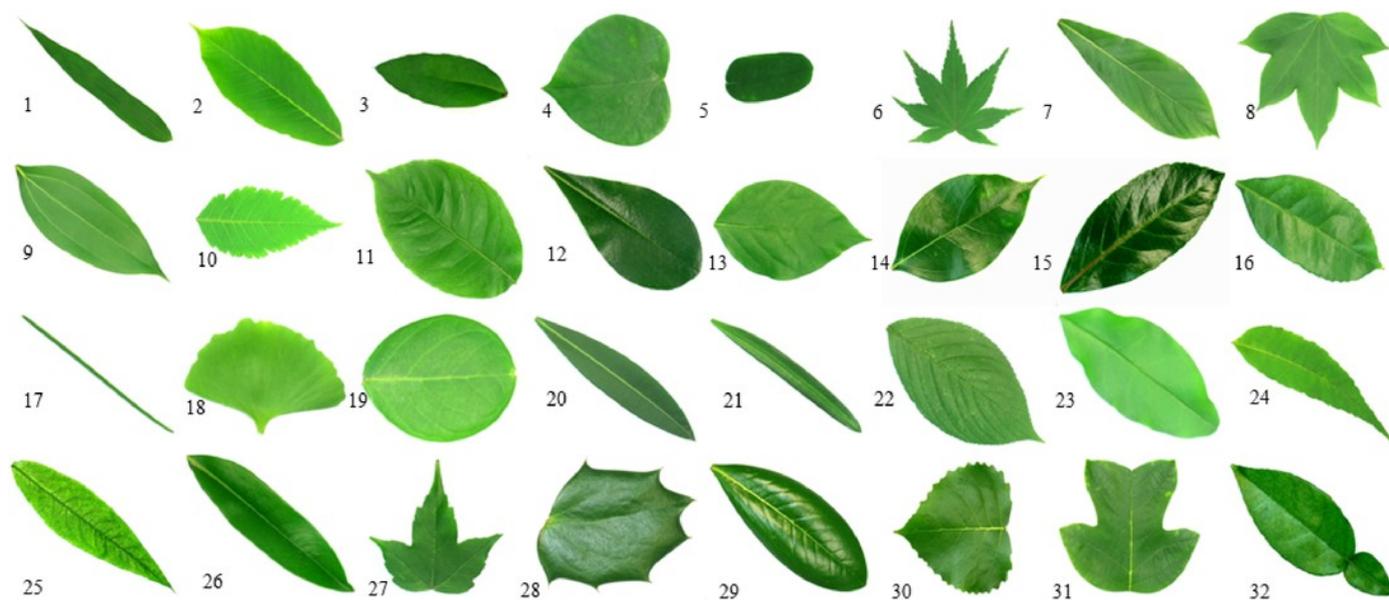


Figure 3

Figure 3

Samples of our data set: 1) *Agraulis vanillae* 2) *Anthocharis midea* 3) *Ascia monuste* 4) *Danaus gilippus* 5) *Danaus plexippus* 6) *Dryas iulia* 7) *Enodia portlandia* 8) *Glutophrissa Drusilla* 9) *Heliconius charithonia* 10) *Pieris rapae* 11) *Pontia protodice*.

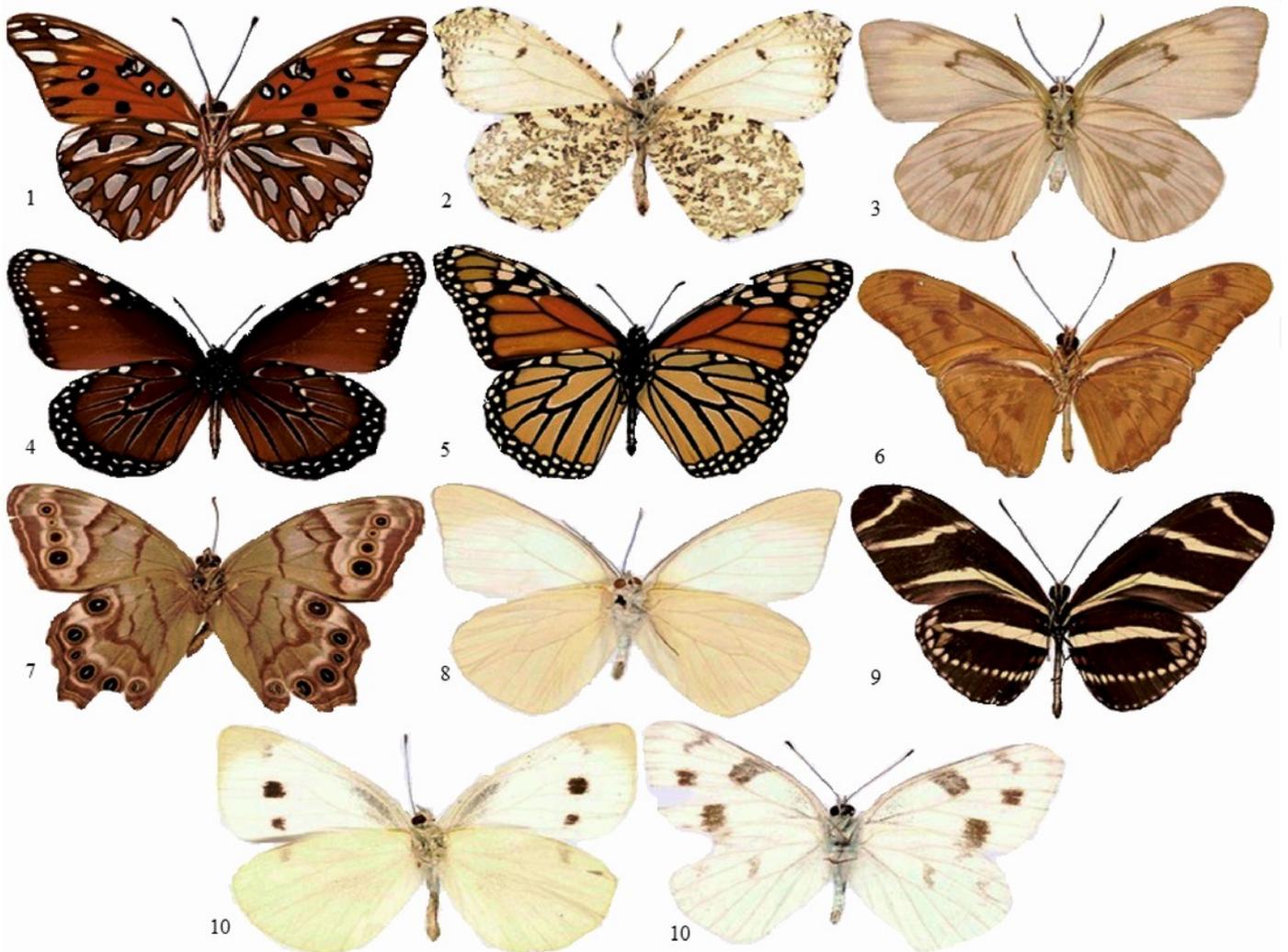


Figure 4

Figure 4

System architecture

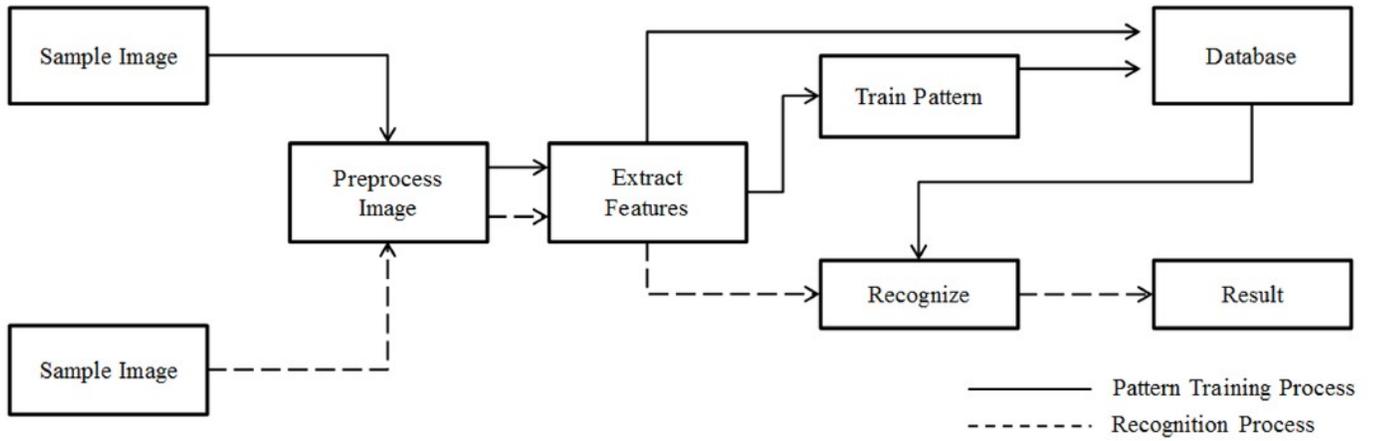


Figure 5

Figure 5

Image processing 1) jpg image, 2) Image background is removed, 3) grayscale image, 4) smoothing filter, 5) median filter, 6) binarized image, 7) contour image 8) skeletonized image.



Figure 6

Figure 6

General architecture of a multilayer perceptron.

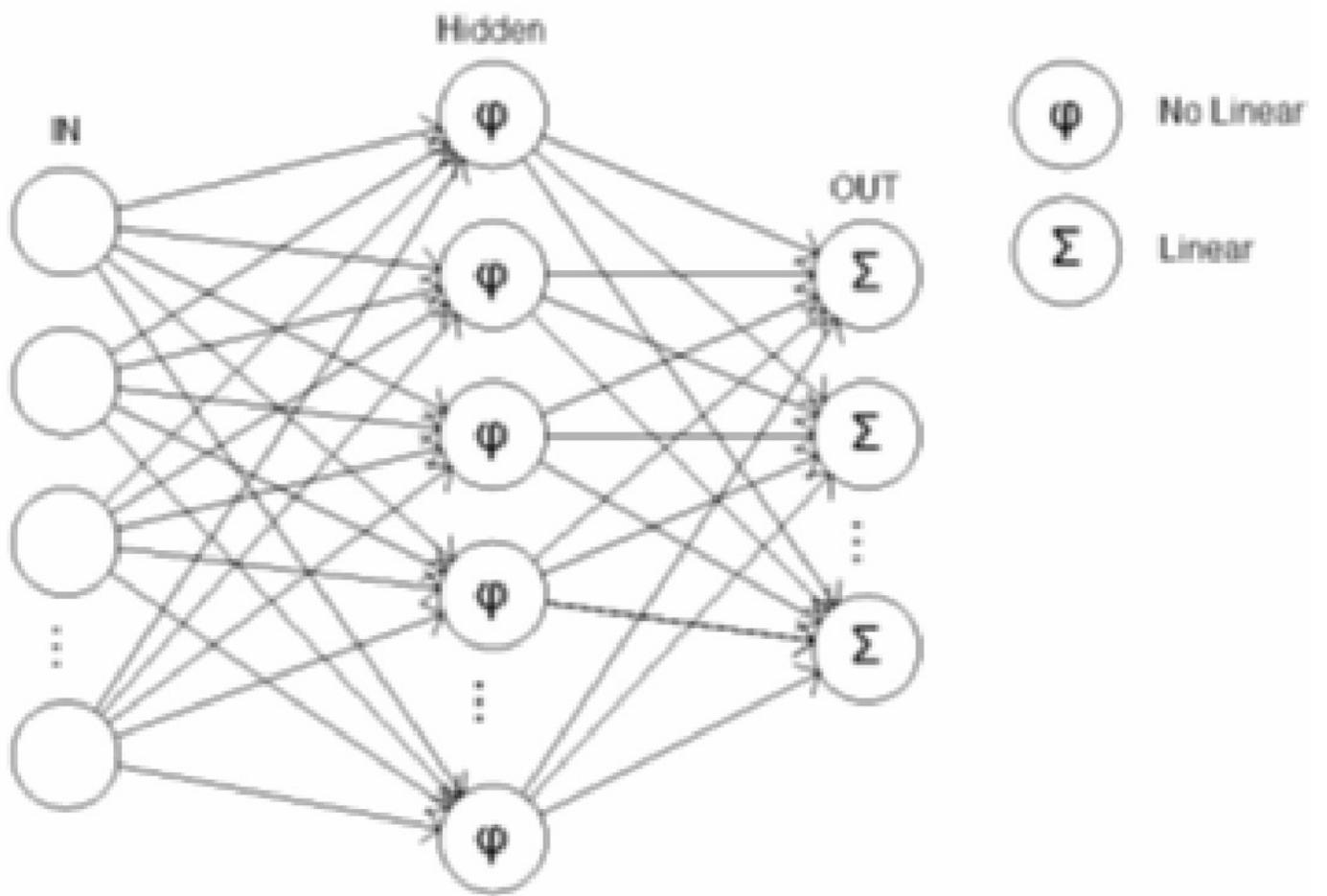


Figure 7

Figure 7

Relationship between the success rate and the number of neurons for each neural network.

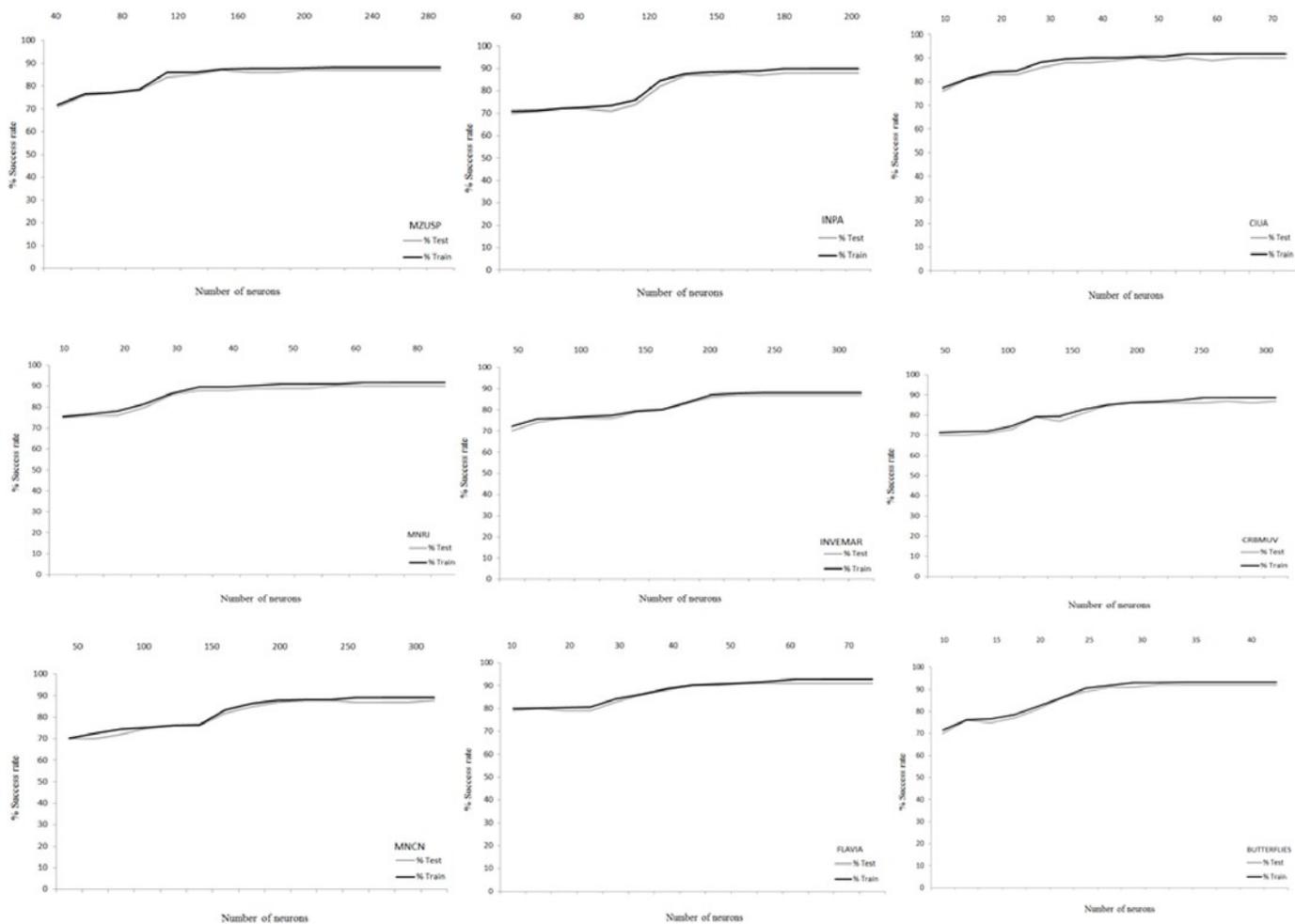


Figure 8

Figure 8

An example of species confusion in the genus *Astyanax* 1) *Astyanax magdalenae*, 2) *Astyanax caucanus*, 3) *Astyanax fasciatus*, and 4) *Astyanax microlepis*.

