

Methods

SeedGerm: a cost-effective phenotyping platform for automated seed imaging and machine-learning based phenotypic analysis of crop seed germination

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Summary

- Efficient seed germination and establishment are important traits for field and glasshouse crops. Large-scale germination experiments are laborious and prone to observer errors, leading to the necessity for automated methods. We experimented with five crop species, including tomato, pepper, Brassica, barley, and maize, and concluded an approach for large-scale germination scoring.
- Here, we present the SeedGerm system, which combines cost-effective hardware and open-source software for seed germination experiments, automated seed imaging, and machine-learning based phenotypic analysis. The software can process multiple image series simultaneously and produce reliable analysis of germination- and establishment-related traits, in both comma-separated values (CSV) and processed images (PNG) formats.
- In this article, we describe the hardware and software design in detail. We also demonstrate that SeedGerm could match specialists' scoring of radicle emergence. Germination curves were produced based on seed-level germination timing and rates rather than a fitted curve. In particular, by scoring germination across a diverse panel of *Brassica napus* varieties, SeedGerm implicates a gene important in abscisic acid (ABA) signalling in seeds.
- We compared SeedGerm with existing methods and concluded that it could have wide utilities in large-scale seed phenotyping and testing, for both research and routine seed technology applications.

Introduction

Seeds are essential for human beings, not only as important food sources, but also for efficient crop production. High-vigour seeds with better seed germination and seedling emergence rates can ensure reliable emergence under varied agricultural conditions and hence are key to yield potential and uniformity (TeKrony & Egli, 1991). A common scoring method for seed germination is to assess radicle protrusion, which quantifies the speed and frequency of

germination (Finch-Savage & Bassel, 2016). Traditionally, the task was accomplished by seed technologists through visual inspections of colour and morphological changes during physiological processes of seed germination (Lin, 1999); however, this approach is labour-intensive and subjective (Joosen *et al.*, 2010; Demilly *et al.*, 2015).

Routine germination scoring still commonly relies on human observation, which has practically constrained the frequency, scale, and accuracy of such experiments (Reyazul *et al.*, 2015; Jahnke *et al.*, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2018). This bottleneck has led to many attempts to automate both seed imaging and associated

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phenotypic analysis, resulting in several research-based solutions such as GERMINATOR and the *phenoSeeder* system, as well as the MultiSense tool (Ducournau *et al.*, 2005; Joosen *et al.*, 2010; Demilly *et al.*, 2015; Jahnke *et al.*, 2016; Ligterink & Hilhorst, 2016; Keil *et al.*, 2017). More recently, advanced computer-vision (CV) and machine-learning (ML) techniques are being applied to germination assays, including the Rice Seed Germination Evaluation System (RSGES) for assessing the germination status of Thai rice species using an artificial neural network (ANN) classifier (Lurstwut & Pornpanomchai, 2017); machine-vision based analysis of visible and X-ray images for evaluating soybean seed quality based on physical purity, viability and vigour (Mahajan *et al.*, 2018); deep learning (DL) algorithms such as U-Net and ResNet for segmenting and classifying rice seed germination status (Nguyen *et al.*, 2018); linear discriminant analysis and multispectral imaging combined for classifying cowpea seeds into categories of ageing, germination, and normality (Elmasry *et al.*, 2019); and a high-throughput micro-CT-RGB (HCR) phenotyping system for dissecting the rice genetic architecture from seedling (Wu *et al.*, 2019).

These solutions include customised hardware devices (e.g. bespoke germination trays, image sensors and seed handling systems) and tailored analytic software built on MATLAB Toolbox, IMAGEJ/Fiji, Microsoft EXCEL macros, image analysis libraries (e.g. VideometerLab3 and OpenCV), and ML/DL libraries (e.g. PyTorch). Although not fully automated, they have been successfully applied to impute germination traits from the acquired seed images, including the quantification of morphological traits (e.g. size and shape), cumulative germination rates (e.g. time to 50% germination, T_{50} , and the proportion of seeds germinated at the conclusion of an experiment, G_{max}), and quality traits such as viability and vigour (Ducournau *et al.*, 2005; Jahnke *et al.*, 2016; Mahajan *et al.*, 2018). Nevertheless, the throughput, automation level, and the range of traits of the above solutions are still limited, such that seed imaging and associated germination-related traits analyses still require human interference.

The emergence of plant phenomics in recent years has brought new perspectives to seed science research (Dell'Aquila, 2009; Watson *et al.*, 2018). By combining cost-effective digital imaging and environment sensors, organ-level plant growth and development can be recorded with detailed imagery, at a very high frequency (Tardieu *et al.*, 2017; Pieruschka & Schurr, 2019; Reynolds *et al.*, 2019b). In particular, many CV and ML combined analytic methods have been developed to enable the automation of organ-level phenotypic analysis, including leaves, roots, and reproductive organs (Pound *et al.*, 2017; Sadeghi-Tehran *et al.*, 2017; Xiong *et al.*, 2017; Zhou *et al.*, 2017a; Yasrab *et al.*, 2019). By combining colour, texture, morphologies, and growth patterns, seed germination can be quantified in a dynamic and objective manner, based on which large-scale and reproducible evidence can be produced to enable new biological discoveries for seed physiology (Teixeira *et al.*, 2007; Demilly *et al.*, 2015; Reyazul *et al.*, 2015; Lurstwut & Pornpanomchai, 2017; Elmasry *et al.*, 2019). Furthermore, the automation of seed germination scoring presents a good opportunity to initiate the standardisation of seed science research. Not only can seed quality

and vigour be digitally assessed, but in addition, biological experiments under varied conditions can be cross-referenced quantitatively to increase the confidence of our research outcomes.

Here, we introduce SeedGerm, a platform designed for automating seed imaging and high-throughput germination analysis for a variety of crop seeds. SeedGerm incorporates cost-effective hardware components for seed imaging and the implementation and maintenance of experimental conditions (e.g. ambient temperature and humidity), as well as ML-based analytic software for measuring both germination- and establishment-related traits during the germination process. Utilising SeedGerm, we are able to quantify the performance of seed lots based on individual seeds rather than a fitted germination curve. The analytic software embedded in SeedGerm is able to process multiple image series at the same time and export analysis results in both comma-separated values (CSV) files and as processed images (e.g. germination masks in PNG format), at both seed and panel levels (normally one genotype per germination panel). We also demonstrate that SeedGerm matches seed specialists' observations for the scoring of radicle emergence timing for crop species such as tomato, pepper, Brassica, barley and maize seeds, which can also be used as a research tool to identify the genetic basis of germination differences between varieties.

Materials and Methods

Seed batch production and storage

Seed lots were produced in commercial production and stored at 12°C and 35% relative humidity (RH) until use. For seed production from the 88 *Brassica napus* L. Diversity Fixed Foundation Set (DFFS) lines used in this study, plants were vernalised (8-h photoperiod, 5°C) for 6 wk at the four-leaf stage and grown in a polytunnel. Seeds were used within 3 months after harvesting. Seed batches from independent mother plants constituted biological replicates. High-quality seed batches of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.) and Brassica were utilised to generate lower quality batches. To this end, a sub-batch was taken from these, which was heat-treated for 3 d at 70°C.

Seed germination conditions

A typical experimental setup uses standard A3-sized filter paper, dark blue seed testing paper used in the germination chambers supplied by Munktel Ahlstrom (Grade 194; Bärenstein, Germany), and substrate to accommodate six sets of 64 individual seeds (384 seeds in total, in six germination panels) for tomato and Brassica seeds. For barley, we carried out experiments with three extended germination panels, with 40 seeds per panel and 120 seeds in total. Due to the size of maize seeds, the entire germination box was used to host 35 seeds per experiment. For pepper seeds, 81 seeds were used in a given panel, resulting in a total of 486. To facilitate sound germination classification, a minimum of A4-sized filter paper is recommended to allow sufficient space between seeds, but further divisions could also be made to separate different genotypes.

Typical automated seed imaging was set with a 1-h interval and normally conducted for between 5 and 10 d depending on

the crop species. For example, *B. napus* seeds were germinated on saturated filter paper in SeedGerm boxes in constant white light at 10°C (in a cold-room or a growth chamber). A standard seed testing process took 7–14 d, with two key traits (germination frequency and seed vigour) being frequently checked by experienced seed technologists. To screen the 88 *B. napus* DFFS lines, seeds were gridded in panels of 50 seeds, with six panels per germination box and five replicates per line. A fully randomised experimental design was followed. In a routine experiment, each SeedGerm box contains two layers of white filter (Grade 3644; Hahnemuehle, Germany), with a single sheet of blue seed germination paper on top. A fixed volume of water (i.e. sterile deionised water, 350 ml) was added to the filter paper stack before the start of the experiment. To ensure even absorption across the filter paper, the wet paper was allowed to stand for 2 h after the addition of water (i.e. a further 30 ml), before gridding the seeds and starting the experiment.

Hardware design

To carry out high-quality seed imaging to record physiological processes of germination in a continuous manner, we have

designed two types of hardware apparatus: a relatively low-cost translucent plastic germination box mounted with a fixed camera for routine germination experiments, and a more expensive bespoke mini-gantry imaging system built on the top of a transparent polyethylene box for long-term experiments. Both designs are shown in Fig. 1, where the image sensors used in the fixed design are high-definition (HD) Pi camera modules (Raspberry-Pi; Sony UK TEC, Pencoed, UK; 5 megapixel (MP) with a maximum of 2592×1944 pixels per image, Fig. 1a) and the mini-gantry design is equipped with an 8 MP HD USB camera, with an undistorted wide-angle lens and a maximum of 4160×3120 pixels per image (Fig. 1b). As the focus of the moving USB camera is adjustable, the latter design has been used for a variety of experiments to explore the physiological processes between germination and seedling (e.g. a 15-d experiment for wheat seeds, Fig. 1b). Also, some digital sensors have been installed in the SeedGerm device, recording ambient humidity and temperature on an hourly basis. As advised by previously published work (Schumann *et al.*, 1995; Afzal *et al.*, 2017), transparent polypropylene used to build SeedGerm devices has been tested repeatedly and did not have effects on germination and seedling growth. A brief outline of the hardware design and cost of the

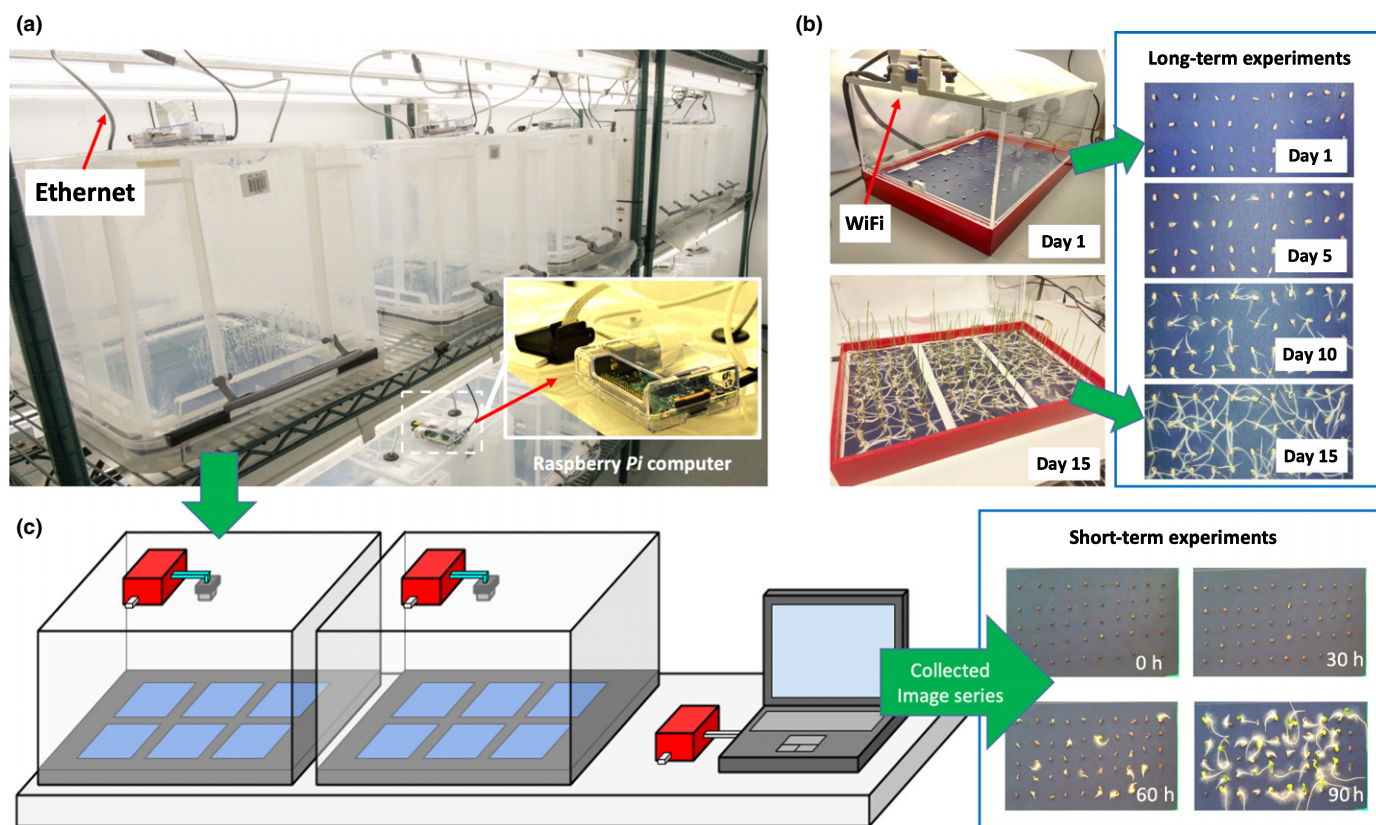


Fig. 1 Two types of SeedGerm hardware with wired and wireless connectivity used for acquiring seed germination image series for different crop species. (a) A set of imaging devices (dimensions: H31, W39, D48 cm) installed in a cold-room for acquiring seed germination images during experiments. Image sensors used in the fixed design are controlled by Raspberry Pi computers (in the small window) and data is transferred via ethernet connection. (b) The mini-gantry design is equipped with an undistorted wide-angle lens USB camera affixed to the top of the germination box (dimensions: H25, W30, D45 cm) for recording images of long-term germination experiments, and data is transferred via WiFi connection. (c) Stylised view of SeedGerm devices shows the connection with a gateway machine to allow for device configuration and imaging data transfer. A single panel of Brassica seeds monitored in a short experiment illustrates the germination procedure at various establishment stages.

SeedGerm device can be seen in Supporting Information Notes S1.

Both SeedGerm hardware designs are controlled by low-cost single-board computers (i.e. Raspberry Pi 2 or Pi 3 computers). In a given experiment, users can set up seed imaging via a graphic user interface (GUI)-based software application (i.e. the imaging module) running on Pi computers embedded in the SeedGerm hardware, through which imaging parameters such as resolution and interval can be programmed. The GUI control software is cross-platform and was developed using PYTHON's native GUI package, TKINTER (Shipman, 2013), and has been described previously (Zhou *et al.*, 2017b). It also allows users to define meta-data for each experiment, including species, genotypes, experiment duration, and the naming convention for the acquired images. A number of experiments can be monitored simultaneously (Fig. 1a,c). The data collation and management are controlled by LINUX-based *cron*tab scheduling, at near real-time. Users can visually inspect experiments (e.g. tomato in Fig. 1c and wheat in Fig. 1b) from their own computers or smart devices using a virtual private network (VPN) or remote desktop software.

Open-source software system

Besides the seed imaging module, the SeedGerm software system also contains a light-weight data management module and a ML-based analysis module (Fig. 2a). An image acquired by the imaging module is firstly saved on the SeedGerm hardware's local

storage. Then, the image is checked for its size and clarity; if the size and clarity are greater than a predefined threshold value, it will be transferred to a gateway computer via wired (ethernet) or wireless network connections. This synchronisation task is carried out on an hourly basis, between many SeedGerm devices and the gateway computer, where images from different devices are collated in folders named after their associated experiments defined through the seed imaging module. Between the gateway machine and onsite storage (e.g. a dedicated workstation or high-performance computing infrastructure, HPC), data synchronisation tasks are normally accomplished overnight, when onsite network traffic is less busy. The data management module is administered by either *cron*tab scheduling on LINUX (Debian 9.0 onwards) or Bash scripting on WINDOWS (WINDOWS 7 onwards), which have been described in our previous work (Reynolds *et al.*, 2019a).

For different end-users, automated phenotypic analysis can be conducted either centrally on a HPC or in a distributed manner on a workstation. Each experiment generates a time-lapse image series, which is uploaded to the onsite storage progressively during the experiment. Then, users can use the ML-based phenotypic analysis module (i.e. analysis software) to either analyse these images through a command-line interface on HPC clusters, or tailored GUI-based software on a normal workstation computer. Both approaches output similar analysis results, including the quantification of germination- and establishment-related traits in CSV files, as well as a sequence of processed images (e.g. dynamic seed masks and panel segmentation images) in PNG format.

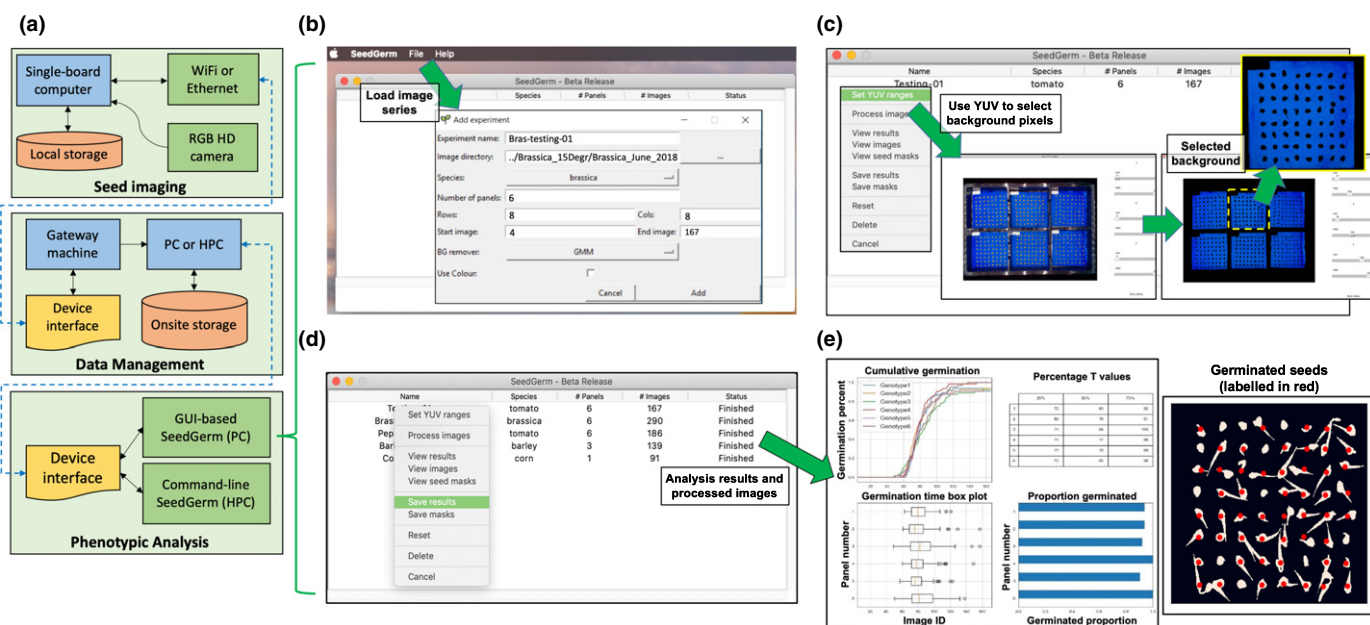


Fig. 2 The software components and data flows of the SeedGerm software together with graphic user interface (GUI)-based analysis software designed for processing multiple germination image series using supervised machine learning, computer vision and parallel computing. (a) Three software modules designed for automated seed imaging, data management and machine-learning based phenotypic analysis. (b) The input parameters that can be set by users before automated phenotypic analysis. (c) The background pixels in germination panels (i.e. filter paper) identified using user-configured YUV colour-space ranges (where Y stands for brightness, U and V for colour components). (d) After processing a number of experiments, germination and morphological traits are quantified and ready to be downloaded. (e) Cumulative germination curves, uniform and G_{max} plots produced to score seed quality and seed vigour together with dynamic seed masks recording entire germination procedures for different genotypes in a germination box.

GUI-based analysis software

For the ML-based phenotypic analysis module, the workflows for both GUI and command-line approaches are fundamentally identical. We therefore use the more accessible GUI software to introduce the analysis procedure, which has been designed to execute on either WINDOWS (i.e. the .exe executable, WINDOWS 10 tested) or Mac OS (i.e. the .app file, v.10 onwards). The analysis software packages can be downloaded from our GitHub repository. The initial GUI contains an empty window with a menu bar, and experiments can be added via the “Add experiment” window (Fig. 2b), through which users can enter a given experiment’s name, select an image series for processing, and choose a crop species such as Brassica, maize, pepper, tomato, or cereals. New plant species can be trained and added to the software through the Modules directory, an approach that is independent of the core analysis algorithm. Users need to briefly define the germination experiment associated with the selected image series, including the number of panels in a given SeedGerm device, and the number of Rows and Columns of seeds in each panel. In particular, users can define the Start and End image IDs to initiate and terminate the phenotypic analysis, because the background in early images can be over-saturated due to excess water soaked by the filter paper, whereas late images can contain too many overgrown seedling and roots (e.g. images between the 4th and 167th image are analysed in Fig. 2b). Default values of the Start and End images are the first and last image of the selected series.

In order to deal with varied image quality and features caused by lighting, crop species, and different establishment phases, a number of ML-based algorithms have been implemented in the software. Users can select the ML technique from the ‘BG remover’ dropdown to remove the background pixels, which includes U-Net (Ronneberger *et al.*, 2015), Gaussian mixture model (GMM) (Stauffer & Grimson, 1999), and stochastic gradient descent (SGD) (Bottou & Bousquet, 2008), which are explained in the Core analysis algorithm section. After an experiment is added, users are required to set YUV colour-space ranges (Y stands for the brightness, U and V for colour components (Szeliski, 2010)) to delineate the background (i.e. filter paper) in the first image of the selected series (Fig. 2c). By adjusting the sliding bars in the ‘Set YUV ranges’ window, backgrounds are mostly retained, representing different types of filter paper used in diverse experiments. After defining YUV values, users can click the ‘Process images’ item to start the phenotypic analysis (Fig. 2c). Similar to our previous work (Zhou *et al.*, 2017a), the analysis software has also employed parallel computing to process multiple experiments simultaneously, and up to 12 image series have been analysed at a time on an average computer (Intel Core i5, 8GB RAM) and over 120 series on a HPC (Fig. 2d). This implementation has enabled a multi-threading analysis running on HPC clusters for greater throughput.

Finally, when the analysis is completed, germination traits (e.g. T_{25} , T_{50} , T_{75} , G_{max} , and germination timing curves for each panel), morphological traits (e.g. area, width and length, extent, convex area, and circularity for each seed), and a range of processed images (showing the germination procedure and labelling

individual seeds) are produced (Fig. 2e). Users can click ‘View results’ on the shortcut menu to display the analysis outputs, as well as download a range of processed images (Video S1) and the analysis results in CSV files, containing phenotypic analysis at the image (overall results), the panel (i.e. a given genotype), and the seed levels (see Notes S2).

Core analysis algorithm

The core analysis algorithm for SeedGerm includes three key parts: an ML-based background remover, feature extraction and germination detection, and traits measurement (Fig. 3). To establish a more general algorithm to analyse different types of seeds robustly, we have used a mixture of deep learning (DL, i.e. U-Net) and supervised ML (i.e. GMM and SGD) to divide background (filter paper) and foreground (seeds) pixels. For example, after users set the YUV values to retain background pixels, the selected BG remover is trained based on features of the background (e.g. RGB, contrast, intensity values) in the image (Fig. 3a). Then, the YUV values are applied to representative images across the image series (i.e. images at the beginning, middle, and end of the series) to segment background pixels, which allows the ML model to learn background features at different establishment stages during a given experiment, without overfitting the classifier for a specific crop species or a particular experimental setting. Finally, the trained classifier (i.e. the background remover) is applied to each image in the series, producing background masks excluding any seed for each germination panel (Fig. 3b).

After producing background masks, they are inverted so that only seed-related objects can be retained. SGD has been chosen as the main learning algorithm for germination scoring and was used for our routine germination experiments because it performs well when the seed–background contrast is high when seeds can be clearly delineated from the surrounding background pixels. Unlike SGD, the GMM model is used for image series with low seed–background contrast when seeds are slightly out-of-focus. It is slower, but it is more robust when the background is complex (e.g. roots from different seeds are crossing). For images with acceptable quality but under changeable lighting conditions, we tend to use U-Net, a recent convolutional neural network (CNN) for semantic segmentation, which excels the Fully Convolutional Network (Jonathan *et al.*, 2015) by adding skip connections and extra upsampling layers to provide both local and global information. The implementation of U-Net is exploratory, with the aim of using deep learning techniques to improve analysis for unseen datasets (e.g. treated seeds and new plant species).

For feature extraction and germination detection (Fig. 3c,d), we applied descriptive statistical moments (i.e. Hu Moments (Hu, 1962)) to describe a given seed’s area and its centroid position, which are invariant to the scale and rotation changes of seeds due to imbibition in early germination stages. Features such as minor axis length (seed width), major axis length (seed length), length and width ratio, perimeter, delta of Hu moments (i.e. difference of a seed’s Hu moments between two

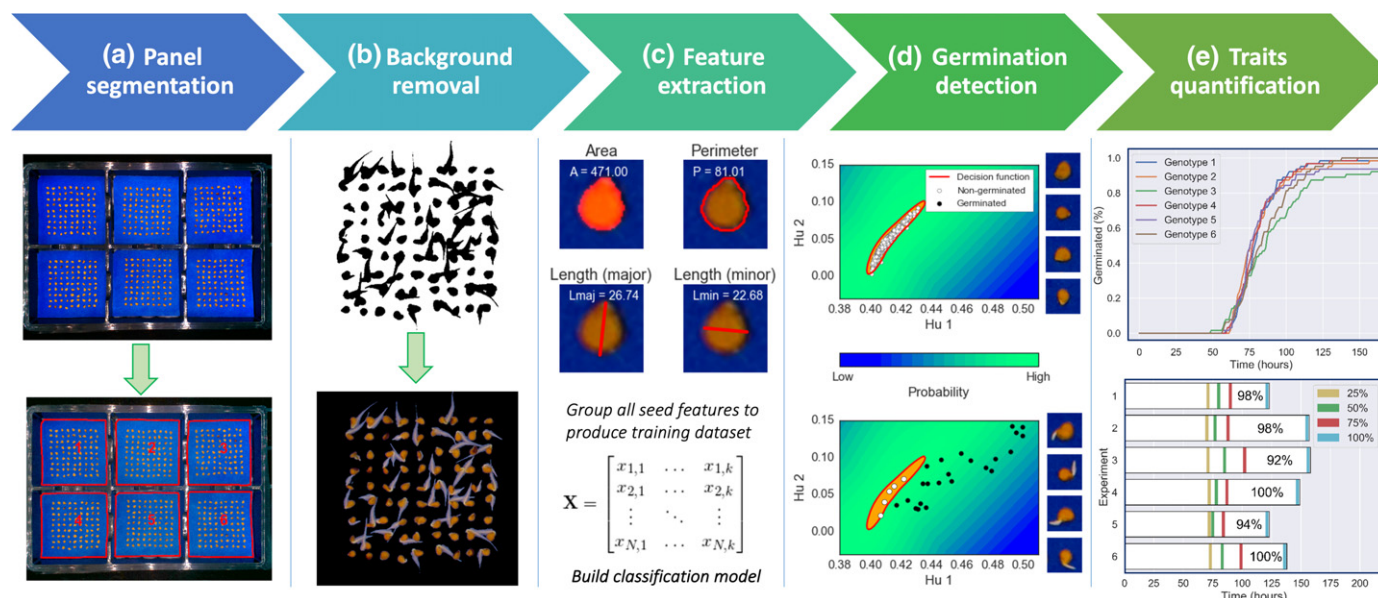


Fig. 3 Crop analysis algorithm embedded in the SeedGerm analysis software for automated seed germination scoring and phenotypic analysis. (a) Location of individual experiments in a given germination box, which is identified from the first image by panel segmentation using the YUV colour-space ranges (where Y stands for brightness, U and V for colour components). (b) Background removal models trained using labelled background (filter paper) and foreground (seeds) pixels, which are subsequently applied to retain seed-related objects. (c) Descriptive statistical moments (Hu moments) are used to measure seed morphological features for each seed in a given germination panel. Features across the image series are combined to form a set of training vectors. (d) A novelty detection model (one-class support vector machine (SVM)) is trained based on the training vectors and is then applied to the time series to classify the germination status for each seed, germinated (closed circles) and non-germinated (open circles). (e) Germination scoring and morphological traits for all seeds are collated to produce cumulative germination curves and germination timing plots.

consecutive images), delta of seed area, and delta of seed length and width, have been computed to monitor a seed's morphological changes. The aforementioned features from the pre-germination stage are extracted from the first 20% of images in the series and are then combined to form a training matrix (Fig. 3c) to train a classification model with the assumption that the label for all the seeds is non-germinated. The detection model used is called novelty detection (Schölkopf *et al.*, 2001), which is a one-class support vector machine (SVM) established on the training matrix and is then used to determine the germination status of each seed in the image series. Based on the training data, a decision function is generated by the model to enclose pre-germination feature vectors (shown as white circles enclosed by the red-coloured contour in the embedding p -dimensional space shown in Fig. 3d); then, as the germination experiment progresses, feature vectors are recomputed. When a seed begins to germinate, its feature vector should gradually leave the boundary of the initial observation region (i.e. abnormal with a given confidence in the germination assessment – black circles outside the red-coloured contour in Fig. 3d). The seed's probability of germination will increase as well. The novelty detection model scores germination for all detected seeds, resulting in cumulative germination rates for each seed lot in a given germination panel (Fig. 3e). Since the novelty detection model is reinitialised and retrained for each experiment using the first 20% pre-germination images of the selected image series as training data, the detection model is dynamic and hence the risk of overfitting is low. The implementation of the above algorithms can be seen in Notes S3.

Morphological traits analyses

The last key component of the analysis software is the measurement of morphological features, before true leaf production from apical meristems. This approach utilises the *measure* module in Scikit-Image (van der Walt *et al.*, 2014), which is enumerated briefly below:

- (1) 'Seed Area' is the total number of pixels in the region of a segmented seed, which quantifies the size of a seed together with its associated radicles, if it is germinated. This trait can be used to define the size change of seeds during germination (e.g. imbibition).
- (2) 'Seed Perimeter' measures the length of the contour line that encloses a given seed and, if germinated, its associated radicles. This trait can be used to verify the change of the seed size and radicle emergence during germination.
- (3) 'Seed Major/Minor Ratio' measures the width and length (W : L) ratio of the ellipse that encloses a seed and, if germinated, its associated root regions. This trait can be used to define the shape change of a given seed during germination.
- (4) 'Seed Convex Hull Area' measures the area of the smallest polygon that can enclose a seed and, if germinated, its associated root regions. This trait can be used to define the change of the seed and root coverages in a germination panel.
- (5) 'Seed Extent' is the ratio of the total number of pixels contained by a seed to the total pixels contained in its bounding box. This trait is useful to assess the seed establishment rate because the area of the bounding box should increase faster than the seed area.

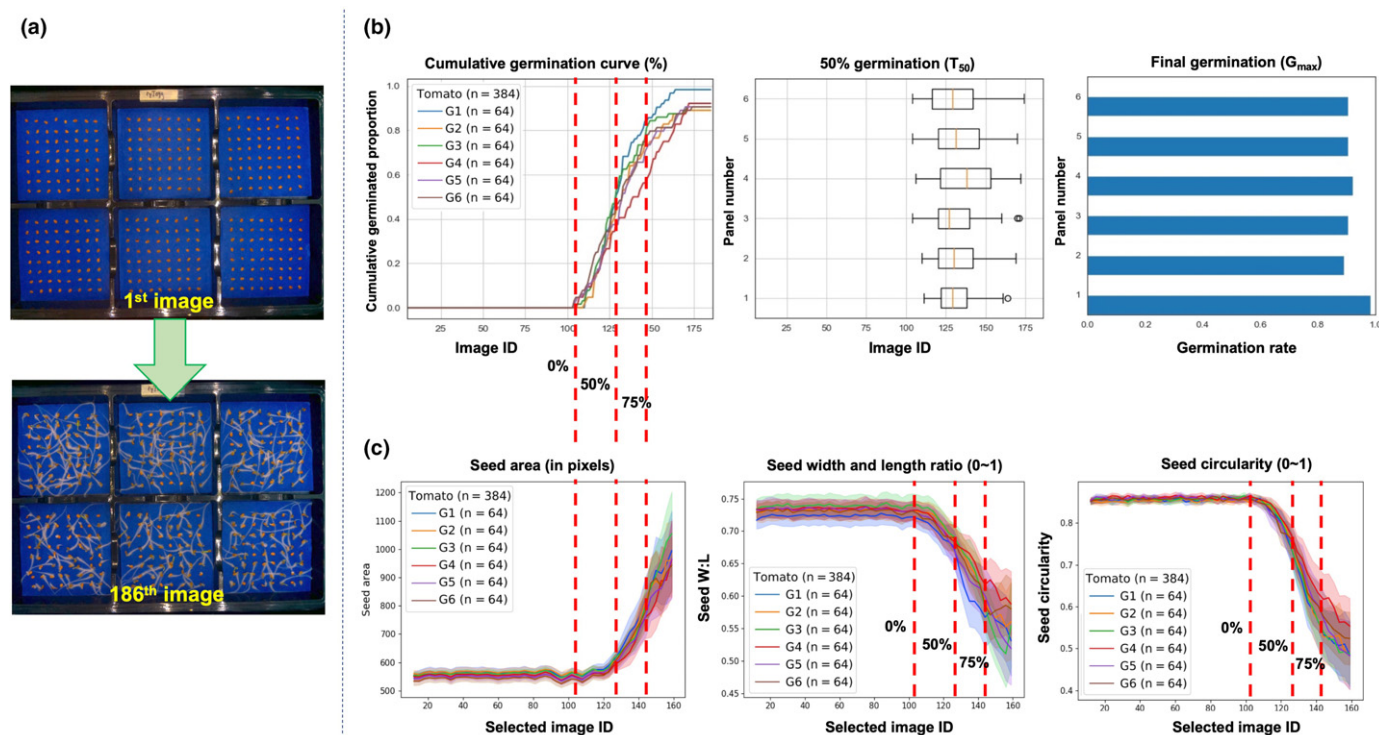


Fig. 4 Germination-related and morphological traits quantified by the SeedGerm software. (a) The time-lapse image series of six tomato genotypes (384 seeds) acquired in an 8-d experiment. (b) The quantification of germination related traits, including cumulative germination curves, T_{50} germination rates, and G_{max} final germination rate. For the whisker box plot in the middle, boxes show the quartile values (25–75%) of the T_{50} germination data, with vertical lines (coloured orange) at the median. The whiskers extended from the boxes show the range of the data (i.e. the lower quartile minus $1.5 \times$ the interquartile range, the upper quartile plus $1.5 \times$ the interquartile range). Data beyond the whiskers are considered to be outliers (open circles). (c) The quantification of morphological traits, which include seed area, width and length ratio, extent, and circularity. Coloured shading areas denote confidence intervals, between the 15th and 85th percentiles of the data. The three red dashed lines indicate the average corresponding image IDs when germination has started, 50% of seeds have germinated, and 75% of seeds have germinated.

(6) ‘Seed Circularity’ calculates the roundness of a seed, and, if germinated, its associated root regions. If the seed is a perfect circle, its circularity reading is 1; a line segment would have a circularity of 0. The circularity is defined as $4 \times \pi \times \text{Area} / \text{Perimeter}^2$, where *Area* is Seed Area (in pixels) and *Perimeter* is Seed Perimeter (in pixels). This trait is also used to differentiate different crop seeds and their germination rates.

Results

Germination and morphological traits

A set of germination experiments were conducted to test and improve the SeedGerm platform. The analysis results from an experiment with 384 tomato seeds (six genotypes), which were placed on six panels in a customised germination box, with one genotype per panel (64 seeds), can be seen in Fig. 4. The imaging interval is 60 min, and 186 images were acquired in total, over an 8-d period (Fig. 4a). Analysis outputs include two types of traits: germination traits quantified using 1st–186th images (Fig. 4b), including cumulative germination curves, T_{50} germination rates to assess the uniformity of germination, and G_{max} to quantify the proportion of seeds germinated at the end of the experiment; and morphological traits quantified using 1st–160th images (Fig. 4c),

including seed area, width and length (W : L) ratio, and circularity. By combining both traits, we can identify morphological changes of six genotypes at the pre-germination stage (before the 106th image). As soon as the germination process started, the cumulative germination curves and associated morphological features became divergent between genotypes. It can be seen that there is a strong correlation between the germination curves and the seed area curves, fitting in the developmental procedure when radicles coming out of seeds can dramatically increase the W : L ratio, and the more roots, the lower the W : L ratio and circularity. The quantification of germination and morphological traits exhibits the usefulness of a combined approach to cross-check and improve detection accuracy.

Additionally, we used the analysis outputs to evaluate germination uniformity or variability, an important trait that required complex formulas to compute previously (Ranal & De Santana, 2006). For example, box-and-whisker plots are provided amongst the result files to demonstrate the statistical dispersion of T_{50} germination rates (Fig. 4b), showing the difference between 25th and 75th percentiles of each genotype, as well as the median time to 50% germination of all genotypes. For example, genotype 6 seeds (G6) possess lower germination variability and better germination uniformity, which is verified by narrower percentile ranges and similar median values across tested seed batches. We

have removed a number of late images (after T_{75}) when presenting the morphological traits (Fig. 4c), due to substantial measurement variations caused by overlapping roots at late stages. The results of the analysis from the experiment can be seen in Datasets S1 & S2.

Germination analysis for different crop seeds

To demonstrate the robustness and generalisation of the SeedGerm system, we have used SeedGerm to score germination for a range of crop seeds. The germination analyses were produced for four crop species: tomato, pepper, maize and barley (Fig. 5). Seed images at three different experiment

stages can be seen in the first three columns of images shown in Fig. 5. After conducting time-series seed imaging, we used SeedGerm software to measure germination and morphological traits. Each germination panel (enclosed by dotted rectangles coloured in red in Fig. 5) contains one genotype. Seeds in the panel were monitored continuously, with dissimilar durations due to varied research objectives, for example, 165 h (7 d) for tomato (Groot & Karssen, 1992), 180 h (8 d) for pepper (Smith & Cobb, 1991), 138 h (6–7 d) for maize (Flórez *et al.*, 2007), and 138 h (6–7 d) for barley (Al-Karaki, 2001). These experiments were also checked by specialists daily, so that manual and SeedGerm scores could be compared and verified.

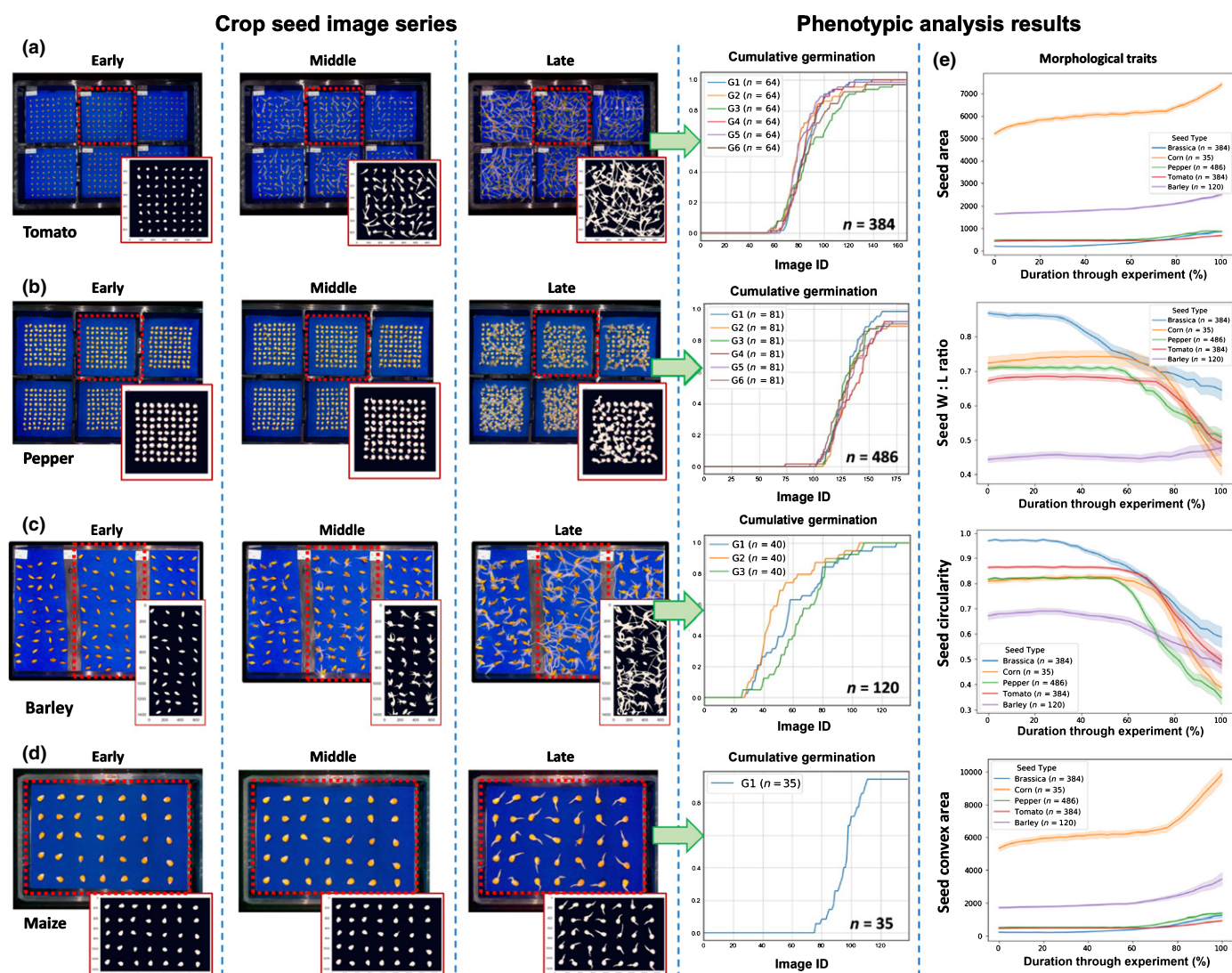


Fig. 5 Germination scoring for four crop seeds with varied experimental settings together with comprehensive morphological traits measurements. (a) 384 tomato seeds (six genotypes) used for seed germination experiments, producing six cumulative germination curves on hourly measures during a 7-d period. (b) 486 pepper seeds (six genotypes) used for germination experiments, producing six cumulative germination curves on hourly measures during an 8-d period. (c) 120 barley seeds (three genotypes) used for germination experiments, producing three cumulative germination curves on hourly measures during a 6-d period. (d) 35 maize seeds (one genotype) used for a germination experiment, producing a cumulative germination curve on hourly measures during a 6-d period. (e) Morphological measurements produced by plotting hourly changes against the duration of experiments, so that all experiments can be compared on similar bases, including a number of traits such as seed area (in pixels), W : L ratio (0–1), seed circularity (0–1), and convex area (in pixels). Coloured shading areas denote confidence intervals, between the 15th and 85th percentiles of the data.

Table 1 Table of validation metrics used to compare between manual counting and SeedGerm scoring.

	<i>r</i> (Cumulative Rate)	<i>r</i> (Image ID)	MAE (h)	F1
Barley	0.981072	0.803827	13.27500	0.961039
Brassica	0.992307	0.885759	9.140625	0.935779
Maize	0.993662	0.873848	3.542857	0.985507
Pepper	0.999013	0.952276	6.025000	0.993631
Tomato	0.992766	0.888033	4.903226	0.991736

r denotes Pearson's correlation, MAE denotes mean absolute error, F1 denotes F1 score.

The tomato seed germination experiments were conducted in six panels (i.e. six genotypes), with 64 seeds per panel and 384 seeds monitored in total (Fig. 5a). Six cumulative germination curves were produced based on hourly measurements for a 7-d period. We could clearly identify small differences amongst these genotypes between T_{50} and T_{75} , when germination rates diverged. Similarly, germination variances could also be quantified for pepper and barley experiments (Fig. 5b,c). The three barley genotypes monitored exhibited a wide variety of cumulative germination, similar to what has been reported previously (Matthews & Khajeh-Hosseini, 2007). Due to the size of maize seeds, we conducted one experiment per germination box (35 seeds per box, Fig. 5d). Still, SeedGerm software is capable of conducting reliable traits measurement even when the number of germination experiments is changed. These panel- and seed-level germination measurements were exported and saved in several CSV files (see Datasets S3–S6).

New morphological traits included in the SeedGerm analysis are seed convex area, seed extent and seed circularity, which have been used to quantify dynamics of germination of different crop seeds, as they were difficult to assess using traditional approaches (TeKrony & Egli, 1991; Dell'Aquila, 2009). For example, using the seed convex area trait, we found that maize had the quickest establishment rate after T_{50} , while other crop seeds were very similar (Fig. 5e). Due to substantial variations caused by too many overlapped radicles at the late germination stage, end image IDs for the above analysis are different. Similarly, panel- and seed-level morphological measurements are saved as CSV files (see Datasets S7–S10).

Validation of the SeedGerm platform

To validate analysis produced by SeedGerm, we used a range of validation methods to comprehensively compare human and SeedGerm scores. A multitude of metrics were produced (Table 1), including Pearson's correlation metric (*r*) to measure the strength of the linear relationship between SeedGerm and manual scoring for cumulative germination rates. For all tested crop species, SeedGerm's cumulative predictions yield a Pearson's correlation greater than 0.98 (*r* (Cumulative Rate)' column in Table 1), indicating a strong linear correlation and goodness of fit. Pearson's correlation (*r*) was used to evaluate the linear relationship between SeedGerm's true positive germination

timings and their respective timings scored by seed scientists ('*r* (Image ID)' column in Table 1). In addition to the correlation metrics, we also calculated the mean absolute error ('MAE (h)' column in Table 1) to interpret the average error, in h, of the germination time compared with manual scores for each germinated seed. The MAE measures the forecast error in SeedGerm's prediction against human scoring (the true value), showing a satisfactory error range. Lastly, the F1 score (for which 1 indicates a perfect set of classifications and 0 means all false negatives or false positives (Sasaki, 2007)), a classification metric similar to accuracy but more appropriate for imbalanced datasets, was used to incorporate the number of true positives, false positives, and false negatives into a single score for evaluating the germination classifications made by SeedGerm. Based on the F1 scores (Table 1), we can conclude that SeedGerm performed well across all tested crop species. These methods evaluate both SeedGerm's final germination scoring as well as the germination timing of each seed, covering germination rate, timing and uniformity, respectively.

To visualise the correlation between SeedGerm scoring and seed specialists' counting, we used 19 time series (over 4000 images in total) to perform the correlation, with three series of maize (129 seeds in total), six series of tomato (384 seeds), six series of Brassica (384 seeds), one series of pepper (81 seeds), and three series of barley (120 seeds). Manual scoring was performed using the image series, where cumulative germinated seed counts for each image and the image ID for when each seed germinated were recorded. There is a strong correlation between SeedGerm's scoring and that of the manual observers, which can be seen in Fig. 6. A predicted-equals-actual line (coloured red) is included (Fig. 6a) to show how SeedGerm's cumulative scores deviate from the manual scores. Additionally, line plots contrasting cumulative seed-by-seed scoring between SeedGerm and specialists' counting are shown in Fig. 6(b). SeedGerm's scoring is largely identical to that of manual counting, except that it tends to overestimate the number of germinated seeds in crowded experiments such as the later establishment stages of Brassica and tomato experiments.

SeedGerm as a research tool

To test the ability of SeedGerm to be used as a research tool in routine biological experiments, we used the *B. napus* Diversity Fixed Foundation Set (Harper *et al.*, 2012) to detect genetic differences in seed germination. After setting replicate seed batches of each variety, biological replicates of 50 seeds were sowed in SeedGerm boxes in a randomised design. SeedGerm scored the germination parameters of 88 varieties with a range of germination behaviours, with some showing strong dormancy, while most seed lots germinated to high levels, but with varying kinetics. SeedGerm scored the T_{10} , T_{50} , T_{90} and G_{max} after 8 d (Fig. 7a,b). To test the accuracy of the SeedGerm outputs, 60 seed lots were also scored by a manual observer based on images. The agreement was strong (Dataset S11), except for T_{90} in varieties requiring the longest time to germinate, where SeedGerm has a weak tendency to score seeds as germinated before the manual observation.

The SeedGerm outputs were then used for associative transcriptomic (AT) analysis, as described previously (Harper *et al.*,

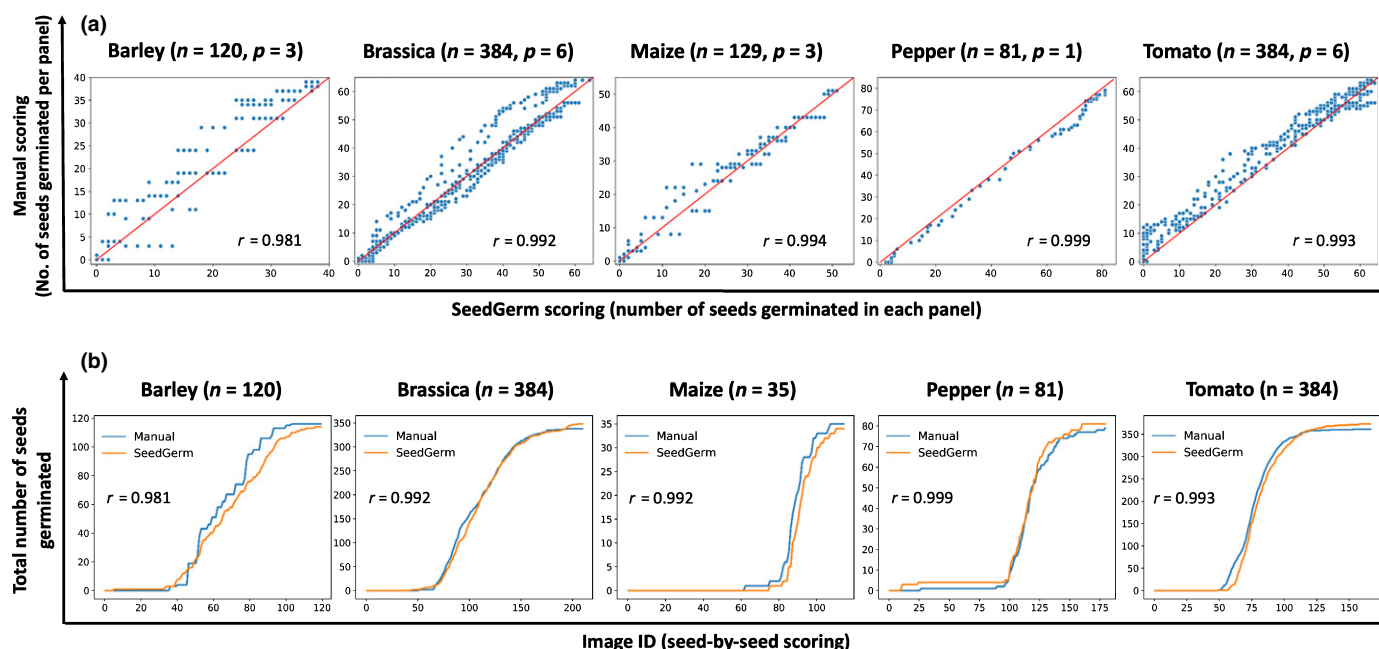


Fig. 6 Pearson's correlation (r) performance metric to evaluate SeedGerm's scoring using manual cumulative germination rates and seed-by-seed germination scoring for five crop species. (a) For all tested species, SeedGerm's predictions display a strong linear correlation and goodness of fit ($r > 0.98$) based on cumulative germination rates. Each point represents the number of seeds classified as germinated in a panel in an image, meaning multiple populations are plotted together. The red line displays SeedGerm's cumulative count equalling the cumulative manual count. The number of panels associated with each scatterplot is denoted as p . (b) Seed-by-seed scoring between SeedGerm and specialists' counting plotted to demonstrate the reliability of SeedGerm scoring as well as its tendency to predict additional germinated seeds at the end of crowded experiments.

2012). The AT found no significant associations between T_{10} , T_{50} and T_{90} and polymorphisms in *B. napus*. However, we found a strong association between G_{max} and genotype on chromosome A5, with both single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and gene expression markers (Harper *et al.*, 2012) associated with the trait in this region (Fig. 7c–e). This is distinct from those loci identified in previous studies (Hatzig *et al.*, 2015, 2018), but significant, even after correcting for multiple testing. This region spans *c.* 340 kb and contains at least 69 known transcribed genes, one of which is a *B. napus* orthologue of the known germination regulator protein phosphatase 2C, known as *HIGH ABA INDUCED 3 (HAI3)* (Yoshida *et al.*, 2006; Bhaskara *et al.*, 2012), which has a role in seed sensitivity to abscisic acid (ABA). Although more work is needed to precisely identify the underlying gene of interest, it is evident that the SeedGerm platform is capable of automating phenotypic analysis of seed germination with sufficient accuracy to perform standard genetic analysis of seed dormancy and germination rate.

Discussion

Automated seed phenotyping

Plant phenomics is a fast-developing research area focusing on obtaining meaningful phenotypic information to enable scientists to address diverse biological questions, from cellular organisms to populations in the field (Tardieu *et al.*, 2017; Zhou *et al.*, 2018; Furbank *et al.*, 2019; Yang *et al.*, 2020). Many academic and industrial attempts have been made to study seed germination and

seedling vigour, including research-based tools such as GERMINATOR, MultiSense and RSGES, as well as commercial solutions such as the PhenoSeeder platform (developed by Forschungszentrum Jülich, Germany), SeedAIXPERT and Germination Scanalyzer (www.lemnatec.com/products/seed-screening), and Seeds Automatic Germination Analyzer (SAGA, France, no longer trading). These methods are capable of carrying out seed imaging, advanced 3D seed morphological analysis (i.e. *phenoSeeder*), and germination related traits analyses; however, their applications are limited due to their costs, availability, automation level, analysis throughput, and the technical scalability.

In this study, we present the SeedGerm system, a platform that combines automated seed imaging and vision-based phenotypic analysis with cost-effective hardware to enable high-throughput analysis of seed germination experiments for a variety of crop species. Based on more than three years' experiments and system improvements, we believe that our system is easy to access and capable of carrying out scalable seed germination scoring for the following reasons: its low-cost and easy-to-build hardware design, its flexibility, which enables it to incorporate different experiments, its open-source and modular software design, its scalability of traits analyses, and the availability of user-friendly GUI software, source code and design documents.

The SeedGerm hardware design

In comparison with high-end seed phenotyping devices such as *phenoSeeder* (Jahnke *et al.*, 2016) and its commercial version, our hardware design follows a low-cost and easy-to-build strategy.

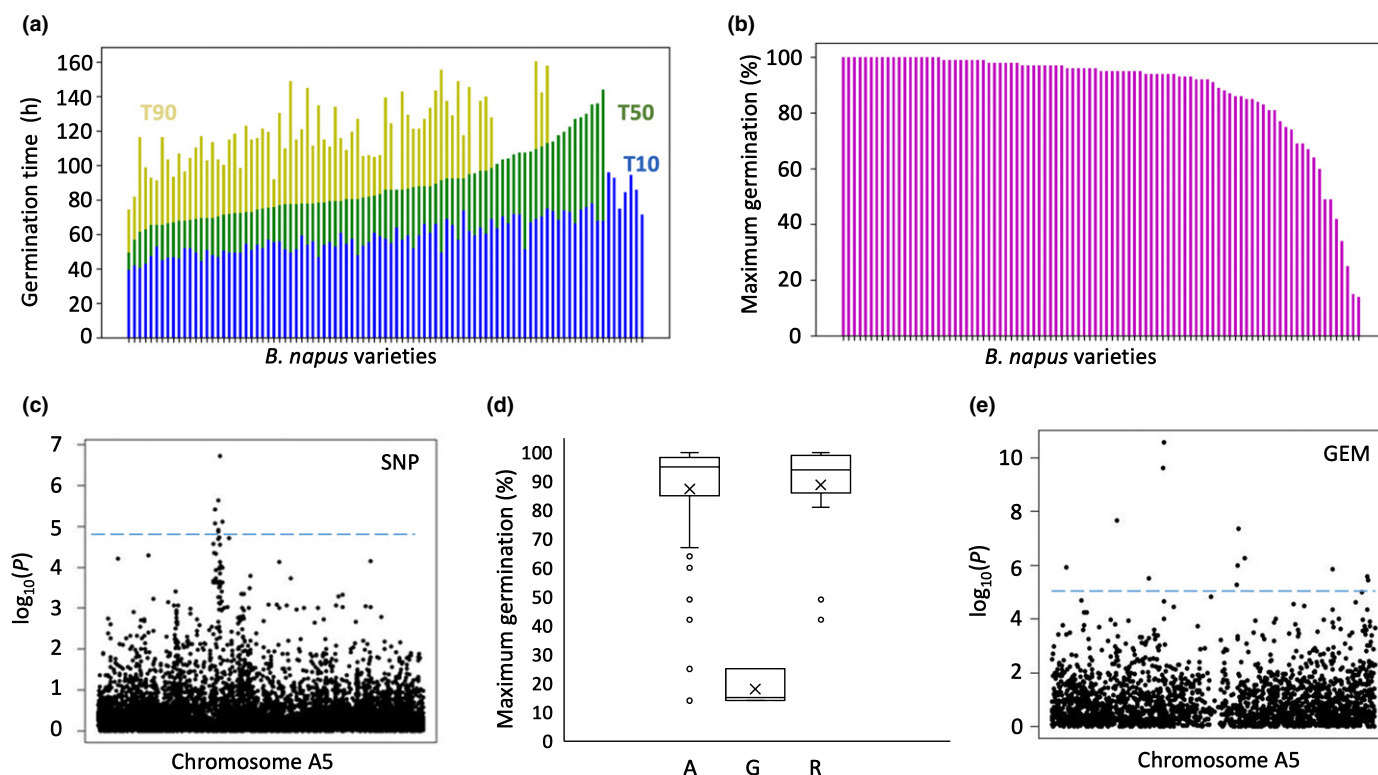


Fig. 7 SeedGerm applied to detect genetic differences in 88 varieties of *Brassica napus* with a range of germination behaviours. SeedGerm scored the T_{10} , T_{50} , T_{90} and G_{max} after 8 d. (a) Germination time (h) for T_{10} , T_{50} , and T_{90} cumulative germination rates for 88 *B. napus* varieties. (b) G_{max} cumulative germination rates for 88 *B. napus* varieties. (c) A single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) association between G_{max} and genotype on chromosome A5, blue dashed line indicates significant associations with a false detection rate (FDR) of 0.1. (d) Box plot to show germination scores for variety sets with each allele score for the most significant SNP on chromosome A5. Boxes show the quartile values (25–75%) of the maximum germination data, with horizontal lines at the median and crosses at the mean. The whiskers extended from the boxes show the range of the data. Data beyond the whiskers are plotted as outliers (open circles). (e) Analysis with correlated gene expression markers showed that the expression of at least two genes in this region are correlated with germination, demonstrating sufficient accuracy of SeedGerm to perform standard genetic analysis of seed dormancy and germination rate. Blue dashed line indicates significant associations with an FDR of 0.005.

The material used to build the device can be easily accessed (see Notes S1). The germination box was made of either translucent plastic for the fixed design or transparent polyethylene for the more expensive gantry design, which can ensure reliable germination and seedling growth. To provide biologically relevant data from imbibition to seedling, an overhead image sensor (e.g. a Pi camera module or an HD USB camera) was installed to acquire high-quality seed image series during the entire germination procedure. To increase the throughput of seed imaging, we used Raspberry Pi computers (e.g. Pi 2 Model B or Pi 3 Model B+) to control imaging and collect metadata via SeedGerm's seed imaging module. Because fixed-camera designs such as GERMINATOR (Joosen *et al.*, 2010), the MultiSense tool (Keil *et al.*, 2017), and RSGES (Luristwut & Pornpanomchai, 2017) are relatively limited in terms of automation, we developed a mini-gantry design to improve the degree of automation so that a larger number of germination experiments can be monitored. A single-axis camera movement framework has been built to move the camera module to specific positions to monitor different experiments, with programmed intervals controlled by the Pi computer. By extending the length of the gantry system and the size of the germination box, more experiments can be included. The mini-gantry design

consists of a pulley system, belts, 3D-printed supports, an extendable steel bar for rails, and a stepper motor with a driver circuit.

The assessment and comparison of germination performance for different seed batches with varied treatments is often laborious and prone to errors. Previous work (Ligterink & Hilhorst, 2016; Mahajan *et al.*, 2018) has relied on CV and ML techniques to calibrate obtained images to ensure the reliability of the experimental settings. However, because experimental conditions (e.g. temperature and humidity) are also key to seed germination, we have installed affordable environmental sensors (e.g. combined ambient temperature and humidity) and a fluorescent lighting device into the SeedGerm hardware to facilitate continuous monitoring.

We followed open hardware suggestions (Gibney, 2016; Czedik-Eysenberg *et al.*, 2018) to improve the flexibility of SeedGerm. The hardware design is freely available to the community and allows changes for other research requirements. For example, by replacing the image sensor with multi- or hyperspectral cameras, seed germination can be studied beyond visible bands. Also, adding a side image sensor (Humplik *et al.*, 2015) or 3D imaging (Roussel *et al.*, 2016) to the SeedGerm system can support the analysis of seedling growth with vertical

information. Such hardware improvements can be carried out without any restrictions, which is likely to provide flexible options for seed research rather than mainly relying on costly commercial solutions such as Germination Scanalyzer or SAGA. Although SeedGerm is low cost, its design is capable of carrying out high-quality (e.g. each pixel equals 0.15–0.2 mm) and automated seed imaging to provide sufficient visual evidence and sensor data for biological experiments. Also, the low-cost feature helps to increase the scalability of SeedGerm, as more devices can be built relatively cheaply to accommodate more experiments, which has been hard to achieve previously.

The SeedGerm software design

There has been a growing need for the standardisation of plant phenotyping in recent years, resulting in the ISA-Tab format (Sansone *et al.*, 2012), Minimal Information About Plant Phenotyping Experiments (MIAPPE) (Ćwiek-Kupczyńska *et al.*, 2016), and ontology approaches to enable comparative phenomics research (Oellrich *et al.*, 2015). Much previous work (Demilly *et al.*, 2015; Nguyen *et al.*, 2018; Wu *et al.*, 2019) in seed phenotyping has employed bespoke data collection processes and data formats, meaning external researchers and laboratories have been limited to the use and support of these methods. When designing SeedGerm's software system, we therefore chose to standardise the collection of image and sensor datasets following the ontological suggestions. Additionally, to calibrate images acquired by different SeedGerm devices, users were required to enter metadata to define their experiments, including experiment ID, genotype, biological replicates, treatment, and experiment duration; imaging intervals, image resolution, white balance, exposure mode, and shutter speed were then controlled automatically by the imaging module to largely standardise the data collection.

To increase the scalability of the phenotypic analysis, we chose to implement our algorithms in PYTHON instead of MATLAB, as previously reported (Jahnke *et al.*, 2016; Elmasry *et al.*, 2019). The reasons are that PYTHON is easy to understand, cross-platform, and self-contained (Millman & Aivazis, 2011), and is supported by a wide range of open-source libraries such as Scikit-Image (van der Walt *et al.*, 2014), OpenCV (Howse,), Scikit-Learn (Pedregosa *et al.*, 2011), and Keras/TensorFlow (Ramapasek & Goldenberg, 2016). Publicly available development kits have enabled us to extend and upgrade our software relatively easily. For example, new crop species and traits can be added to the core analysis algorithm through new modules, where guideline seed morphological features can be predefined. Also, as we implemented the software based on a modular software design, modules developed for one species can be shared by other functions in analysis and parallel computing.

Recently, deep learning has become a powerful technique used by some seed germination analysis software (Mahajan *et al.*, 2018; Nguyen *et al.*, 2018; Halcro *et al.*, 2020), in which it was applied to extract features, segment seeds, and classify germination status. Although DL is presently relatively easy to implement through PYTHON, the reasons we chose a combined CV and ML approach are as follows. First, DL requires a very large amount of

training datasets to perform better than supervised ML and CV-based methods – for features that need to be engineered frequently such as varied seed germination experiments, DL might not be suitable. Second, we normally need to build a dedicated DL model of each species; hence, it is time-consuming and ineffective to employ DL techniques to analyse a large number of crop species. Third, DL is likely to overfit for particular experiment settings and becomes problematic when conditions are changed. To allow our solution to be adopted by a broader research community that has varied experimental settings, we chose supervised GMM, SGD and novelty detection learning techniques based on generalised feature selection. More importantly, by designing the ML models to reinitialise and retrain with background features at different establishment stages for each experimental setting, the learning models embedded in SeedGerm are dynamic and can be updated for each experiment, enabling us to avoid overfitting the learning models for a specific crop species or a particular experiment.

By employing CV algorithms, SeedGerm can also measure cumulative germination rates and seed morphologies such as size, width and length, extent and circularity to assess seed quality and seedling vigour, from germination to seedling. For example, we have measured imbibition using the change of seed size, radical protrusion based on seed major : minor ratio, and germination speed through seed extent. If new biological questions are proposed, new traits and features could be designed jointly by biologists and computer scientists, instead of blindly relying on DL techniques. Because the SeedGerm software can be easily extended and accessed, we believe it is scalable and easy to access.

Applications of the SeedGerm system

Our work has demonstrated that SeedGerm is capable of scoring germination and measuring morphological changes automatically, for five major crop species and between different genotypes. The results show that SeedGerm could be employed to score germination frequency and seedling vigour, based on which the preformation of seed batches can be assessed. These traits were regularly checked by experienced seed engineers and scientists in order to provide certificates of seed germination and establishment performance in seed testing and seed insurance (Khurana & Singh, 2001; Dell'Aquila, 2009). Hence, it is evident that SeedGerm has the potential to provide a replacement for manual assessment of germination frequency and radical emergence activities. Furthermore, as many traits measured by SeedGerm are highly correlated with seed performance and the effectiveness of post-harvest seed enhancement processes, SeedGerm is likely to contribute towards seed certification, guidance on sowing density, or even seed insurance in the future.

Besides routine seed testing of germination frequency, the applications of SeedGerm could also be expanded to seed vigour (i.e. how fast and uniform radical emergence) through the monitoring of morphological traits, which are important for estimating canopy closure, weed suppression, and crop yields, and for seed research (Attree *et al.*, 1992; Nelson *et al.*, 2012; Paparella *et al.*, 2015). Beyond existing traits analyses, continuous

phenotypic analysis can extend our insights into the entire physiological procedure of germination, via increased understanding of phenotypic effects of individual seeds and seed batches under dissimilar treatments. Furthermore, we also set up a range of experiments to score germination rates and timing across a diverse panel of *B. napus* varieties to demonstrate the biological relevance of SeedGerm as a research tool to measure the effect of genetics. We showed that SeedGerm outputs can be used successfully for GWAS, identifying an association on *B. napus* chromosome A5 that explains the difference between high and low germinating varieties in the panel (Fig. 7b–e). Although the GWAS study identified associations over a 100kb region, the region does contain the gene *BnaA05g27660D*, a homologue of Arabidopsis *AHG3*, which is known to regulate ABA signalling during germination in Arabidopsis (Yoshida *et al.*, 2006); this would therefore be a strong candidate for further study. The low-germinating allele is only present in older spring varieties, including Bronowski and Duplo, suggesting that it has been consistently selected against by modern oilseed rape breeders. Hence, we believe that SeedGerm has great potential to have significant uses in seed germination scoring and seed testing, for both research and routine seed technology applications.

SeedGerm issues

It is also important to point out some edge cases where the system has struggled. Due to camera position and lighting problems, some image series were of poor quality. Although we have added software calibration to allow users to improve the classification accuracy for low-quality datasets (e.g. colour features), the analysis could still suffer. For such datasets, only through manually selecting image IDs (see Notes S4) could we realistically reduce variance and improve the accuracy of the analysis. SeedGerm's scoring tends to overestimate the number of germinated seeds in crowded experiments such as the later stages of Brassica and pepper experiments. To provide reproducible measures of the uniformity, timing and germination rates, we scored large numbers of seed samples and found that implementing a distance of at least 1 cm between seeds noticeably improved the accuracy of the analysis for crowded experiments. As different crop seeds have very diverse morphologies, some morphological measures cannot easily be transferred from one species to another, which indicates that the application of Online-Learning or Transfer Learning mechanisms (Wen *et al.*, 2017) could be potentially beneficial for future development. Although the learning models embedded in SeedGerm are dynamic for each experiment, the cost of such a design is that additional computational resources are required, requiring users to obtain a higher-performance computer (i7 CPU with 16GB RAM) to perform analysis. It should be noted that – to maintain the reliability of parallel computing – we do not recommend that more than eight tasks be run in parallel on an average computer, because processing multiple image series simultaneously places a high demand on computing resources, and some PYTHON functions have been locked because they are not thread-safe during multi-thread processing.

Conclusion

In conclusion, limitations of current seed imaging and scoring approaches have prevented automated and scalable analysis of seed germination. In this paper, we present the SeedGerm system, which integrates cost-effective hardware and user-friendly software for performing seed imaging and ML-based analysis for measuring establishment- and germination-related traits. The system has been applied to many germination experiments for five crop species, through which we could assess the performance of seed batches quantitatively. Morphological traits such as seed size, width and length, extent and circularity were also measured to provide insights into the physiological procedure of seed germination. We demonstrate that SeedGerm matches seed specialists' observations for the scoring of radicle emergence timing and its biological relevance in identifying a gene important in ABA signalling in seeds with associative transcriptomics. We believe that the SeedGerm system could have a wide range of applications in seed testing and germination scoring, in both research and industrial contexts.

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Author contributions

JZ, SP and JC wrote the manuscript, JZ, RB, SP, CMO'N, DR, TLC, WL and JB designed the germination hardware used in the paper, and JZ, JC, TLC, AB and DW designed the SeedGerm analysis algorithms. JC, TLC, AB and DW implemented the software system and established the learning models under JZ's supervision, SP and RW designed the biological experiments, and CMO'N, GS and QL performed biological experiments and manual scoring under SP's supervision. SP, RW and RB provided biological expertise. RB, JR and GFA designed and performed biological experiments at Syngenta. JC and JB packaged the GUI executables. JZ, JC, CMO'N, SP, GS, TLC, AB, WL and JB tested the software. JZ, JC, AB, DW, CMO'N, RW and SP performed the data analysis and improved the platform. All authors read and approved the final manuscript. JC, CMO'N and RW contributed equally to this work.

Data availability

Project name: SeedGerm. Project release page and source code: <https://github.com/Crop-Phenomics-Group/SeedGerm/releases>. Testing image series: barley (109 MB), Brassica (638 MB), corn (257 MB), pepper (572 MB), and tomato (563 MB). GUI software: SeedGerm.exe (128 MB). Operating system(s): platform-independent. Requirements: PYTHON 3.7, Scikit-Image, OpenCV, Scikit-Learn, Keras.

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Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

Dataset S1 Cumulative germination data.

Dataset S2 Morphological traits.

Dataset S3 Barley cumulative data.

Dataset S4 Tomato cumulative data.

Dataset S5 Pepper cumulative data.

Dataset S6 Maize cumulative data.

Dataset S7 Barley morphological data.

Dataset S8 Tomato morphological data.

Dataset S9 Pepper morphological data.

Dataset S10 Maize morphological data.

Dataset S11 *Brassica napus* SeedGerm and manual comparison.

Notes S1 SeedGerm hardware design and cost.

Notes S2 The analysis results of SeedGerm.

Notes S3 Code fragments for background-removal and germination novelty detection algorithms.

Notes S4 The selection of image IDs before SeedGerm analysis.

Video S1 Time series of seed germination and automated scoring.

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