# DATASET FOR IMAGE-BASED ANALYSIS OF MINERAL FERTILIZER GRANULES

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## ABSTRACT

In the context of the mineral fertilizer industry, a crucial sector for global food production, which faces challenges in production efficiency and fast quality control, this work introduces the Mineral Fertilizer Dataset (MFD), a novel annotated segmentation dataset comprising 1,608 images and 125,648 instances of various fertilizer granules with different colors. Addressing the lack of datasets in this field, the MFD supports both semantic and instance segmentation tasks, with segmentation masks that facilitate the computation of the equivalent area diameter of granules. Periodic checks of the area equivalent diameter based on customer specifications are essential to prevent potential defects, such as caking and dustiness, in the produced fertilizer granules. Baseline models based on Feature Pyramid Network (FPN), UNet, and MANet were trained for semantic segmentation, while baseline models based on Mask R-CNN, YOLOv8, YOLOv9, and Mask2Former were trained for instance segmentation. Our experiments demonstrate the efficacy of these models, as well as the robustness of the trained models in identifying fertilizer granules of different colors not included in our dataset, fertilizer granules under 365 nm ultraviolet light, as well as other granular objects such as Polyethylene Terephthalate (PET) pellets, corn, beans, and even pharmaceutical tablets. This dataset, along with its benchmark results on existing semantic and instance segmentation algorithms, aims to facilitate further advancements in computer vision applications for quality control in the fertilizer industry and related sectors.

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### 1 INTRODUCTION

- In the current era of big data and advanced data analysis, many industrial production lines, including those in the mineral fertilizer production, have yet to fully leverage the potential of machine learning methods due to a lack of specialized datasets and hard to get data from those type of production (Yunovidov et al., 2020). Despite being a crucial and rapidly growing sector, mineral fertilizer production faces significant challenges in meeting the rising global demand driven by population growth. As production and consumption levels increase, so do the quality requirements for these products (Ulrich, 2019). Consequently, large-scale facilities are under pressure to enhance production efficiency and control mechanisms to optimize resource utilization and meet consumer expectations.
- Various methods are employed to control particle size in the mineral fertilizer industry, including sieve analysis (Besler, 2008; Kimura et al., 2013), laser scattering (Low-Angle Laser Light Scattering (LALLS)) (ISO, 2009; Lilkov et al., 1999), and opto-electronic control methods (Standardization, 2006; Bjørk et al., 2009; Chávez et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2022). However, each method has its own limitations that restrict its optimal application.
- Sieve analysis, while providing high accuracy, does not support continuous monitoring of particle size distribution and is significantly influenced by particle shape Besler (2008). LALLS, despite being fundamentally accurate, is limited by the maximum analyzable particle size (up to 3 mm) and cannot assess shape and color parameters Lilkov et al. (1999); ISO (2009).
- Opto-electronic control methods are notable for their versatility, utilizing image analysis to estimate a broad spectrum of parameters, including size, shape, and color (Standardization, 2006; Chávez et al., 2015). Furthermore, this method is currently extensively used in the manufacture of mineral

fertilizers. However, the widespread adoption of these methods is hindered by the lack of readily
 available datasets and the need for specialized equipment.

In response to the rising trend of optical quality control in manufacturing processes, we constructed and evaluated a dataset comprised of images of mineral fertilizer granules. In this work, we provided an overview of existing semantic and instance segmentation techniques, reviewed existing literature on image-based analysis of fertilizer granules, proposed a novel annotated dataset of mineral fertilizer granules designed for segmentation tasks called the Mineral Fertilizer Dataset (MFD), and trained semantic segmentation models (FPN (Lin et al., 2017b), UNet (Ronneberger et al., 2015), MANet (He et al., 2022)) and instance segmentation models (Mask R-CNN (He et al., 2017), Mask2Former (Cheng et al., 2022), YOLOv8 (Jocher et al., 2023), YOLOv9 (Wang et al., 2024)) on the proposed dataset to serve as baseline benchmarks.

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# 2 RELATED WORKS

068 Pixel classification and image segmentation form the foundation of machine vision. Over the years, 069 image segmentation algorithms have evolved from traditional methods such as thresholding (Otsu, 1979), conditional random fields and global classification (Plath et al., 2009), and k-means clustering 071 (Dhanachandra et al., 2015), to more recent deep learning-based methods, which have proven to be 072 significantly more effective for semantic and instance segmentation. Predicted segmentation masks 073 enable the computation of the area equivalent diameter of granules, following the principles of par-074 ticle size analysis outlined in ISO 13322-1 (International Organization for Standardization, 2014). 075 Periodic checks of the area equivalent diameter based on customer specifications are crucial for preventing potential defects, such as caking and dustiness, in the produced fertilizer granules. Below, 076 we provide an overview of some existing deep learning-based methods for performing semantic and 077 instance segmentation.

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Semantic segmentation Semantic segmentation may be described as a process of classifying pixels with semantic labels. A typical advantage semantic segmentation has over instance segmentation 081 is that, it is less computationally expensive, and can be more readily applied in industrial settings especially when the computers are only equipped with a central processing unit (CPU). Semantic 083 segmentation finds application in various sectors including in to inspect belt conveyor idlers (Siami 084 et al., 2024), concrete surface engineering (Hao & Qi, 2022), pedestrian segmentation (Ullah et al., 085 2018), recognition of navigable areas (Kim et al., 2023), analyzing medical images (Hatamizadeh et al., 2021; Dhamija et al., 2023), and document scanning and optical character recognition (OCR) 087 (Patil et al., 2022) to mention but a few. Deep learning-based semantic segmentation methods maybe 880 grouped into convolutional neural network (CNN) based methods (U-net (Ronneberger et al., 2015), 089 Unet++ (Zhou et al., 2018), FPN (Lin et al., 2017b)), vision transformer based methods (SegFormer (Xie et al., 2021), Swin-Unet (Cao et al., 2021), SegViT (Zhang et al., 2022)), and methods that utilize both transformers and CNNs (Transunet (Chen et al., 2021), MedT (Valanarasu et al., 2021), 091 Transfuse (Zhang et al., 2021b)). In this work, we have performed experiments using three CNN 092 based models: FPN (Lin et al., 2017b), UNet (Ronneberger et al., 2015), and MANet (He et al., 093 2022). However, to make this method more applicable to the mineral fertilizer industry and bulk 094 material analysis, we isolated individual granules from the overall mask. To achieve this, the con-095 tours of the granules in the predicted binary masks were estimated using topological analysis (Suzuki 096 & be, 1985), allowing the instances of each granule to be obtained from the trained semantic seg-097 mentation models.

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099 **Instance segmentation** Instance segmentation involves detecting and drawing masks on each in-100 stance of an object of interest in an image. Instance segmentation methods can be classified into 101 three main categories namely: single-stage, dual-stage, and multi-stage. A single-stage instance 102 segmentation method predicts both object masks and class labels without a separate region proposal 103 neural network. Examples of single-stage instance segmentation methods include: Fully convolu-104 tional instance segmentation (FCIS) (Li et al., 2017), Instance-sensitive fully convolutional network 105 (InstanceFCN) (Dai et al., 2016), PolarMask (Xie et al., 2020) and You only look at Coefficients (YOLACT) (Bolya et al., 2019; 2022). The dual-stage instance segmentation method involves first 106 proposing regions of interest, followed by predicting the object masks and class labels using differ-107 ent neural networks. A typical example of the dual-stage method is Mask-RCNN (He et al., 2017).

108 As the name implies, the multi-stage instance segmentation method involves multiple sequential 109 stages of processing, where each stage refines the instance segmentation results iteratively. Typ-110 ical examples of multi-stage instance segmentation models include: Cascade Mask R-CNN (Cai 111 & Vasconcelos, 2019), and Recurrent neural networks for semantic instance segmentation (RSIS) 112 (Salvador et al., 2017). Besides the aforementioned models, transformer-based models have been utilized for instance segmentation tasks as well such as: SOLQ (Dong et al., 2021), K-Net (Zhang 113 et al., 2021a), Mask2Former (Cheng et al., 2022), OneFormer (Jain et al., 2023), and Mask DINO 114 (Li et al., 2023). Recently, there has been an increase in zero-shot object detection and instance seg-115 mentation methods. Some notable models that have been developed include: the segment anything 116 model (SAM) (Kirillov et al., 2023), and fast segment anything model (FastSAM) (Zhao et al., 2023) 117 which is reported as being fifty times faster than the SAM model. However, these zero-shot models 118 are not yet suitable for deployment in industrial tasks because, they are too slow and hard to main-119 tain. In this work, we performed experiments using Mask R-CNN (He et al., 2017), Mask2Former 120 (Cheng et al., 2022), YOLOv8 (Jocher et al., 2023), and YOLOv9 (Wang et al., 2024) for instance 121 segmentation.

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123 **Image-based analysis of fertilizer granules** To increase production efficiency, the fertilizer in-124 dustry is leaning more towards using optical control to assess the quality of produced goods (Wang 125 et al., 2022). Quality control in mineral fertilizer production relies on assessing individual granule 126 characteristics like size, area, and color (UNIDO and International Fertilizer Development Center, 1998). This ensures adherence to customer specifications and identifies anomalies in the production 127 process. By inspecting the quality of produced fertilizer granules, possible environmental pollution 128 is also tackled. Yunovidov et al. (2020) explored a robotic system utilizing classical computer vi-129 sion for online monitoring of granule size. This system captured images using a high-speed camera 130 and employed image processing techniques to estimate size via ellipses. While color analysis was 131 not implemented, its potential was acknowledged. The system's performance was comparable to 132 the industry-standard Camsizer P4 machine. Building upon their previous work (Yunovidov et al., 133 2020), Yunovidov et al. (2021) expanded the system's capabilities to encompass granule area, color, 134 and sphericity estimation. Software improvements like adaptive equalization and distance separa-135 tion enhanced image processing. Additionally, a data recording system documented quality analysis 136 results, enabling both process control and data collection. The upgraded system again demonstrated 137 comparable performance to the Camsizer P4 machine.

138 Based on our research, there are no similar publicly available datasets. Hence, MFD is the first 139 such dataset to be made publicly available to the research community. The closest datasets we 140 found, which are commonly used in related fields, include the Rice Image Dataset (Koklu et al., 141 2021), the Corn Grain Dataset (Ribeiro, 2015), and a dataset consisting of 409 images of well-142 sorted and poorly sorted sediment, terrigenous, carbonate, and volcaniclastic sands and gravels, and 143 their mixtures, used to develop the SediNet model (Buscombe, 2020). All three datasets are suitable for image classification tasks but are not designed for semantic or instance segmentation, which are 144 critical for our intended application. These segmentation tasks enable the computation of the area 145 equivalent diameter of produced fertilizer granules, in accordance with the ISO 13322-1 standard 146 (International Organization for Standardization, 2014). 147

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# 3 MINERAL FERTILIZER DATASET

151 The MFD dataset comprises 1,608 annotated real images of various types of mineral fertilizer gran-152 ules captured in different fertilizer production plants, encompassing 125,648 instances of fertilizer granules. Figure 1 displays sample images of these mineral fertilizer granules, including Potas-153 sium ore (KCl), Ammonium Nitrate  $(NH_4NO_3)$ , and mineral fertilizers containing phosphorus 154 (Diammonium Phosphate (DAPh) and NPK). Static images of sampled 100g of DAPh, and NPK 155 granules were captured using a camera with a rolling shutter at a resolution of 1920 x 1080 pix-156 els. On the other hand, images of the other fertilizer granule types were captured using a camera 157 with a global shutter at a resolution of 1280 x 1024 pixels. Images of  $NH_4NO_3$  were captured 158 dynamically on the conveyor belt. 159

 The Computer Vision Annotation Tool (CVAT) (CVAT.ai Corporation, 2023) was used to annotate
 the images of the fertilizer granules. Figure 2 shows an annotated image within the CVAT platform. Three different individuals annotated the dataset. Initially, a test dataset (educational dataset)



After annotating the images, we filtered the annotation of images with overlapping granules, and 208 several layers to preserve only the first layer of totally visible granules. The images were then split 209 into smaller tiles of 480 x 480 pixels while preserving the annotations and ensuring that each tile 210 was unique using a self developed algorithm. Geometric transformations such as random rotation, 211 random scaling, and cropping were also applied to make our dataset balanced. Additionally, we 212 used multiple iterations of erosion and dilation with a 3x3 pixel elliptical kernel to smooth the 213 masks obtained after manual annotation and dataset balancing. Table 1 provides an overview of the MFD dataset, Figure 3 shows the distribution of granules in the images that make up the dataset, and 214 Figure 4 shows a typical annotated image with the segmentation masks displayed after geometric 215 transformations and before 480 x 480 tiles splitting.



segmentation to the mineral fertilizer industry as well as industries that work with objects of similar morphology such as pellets, grains, and even pharmaceutical tablets. The models were trained on images of 480 x 480 pixels, for 100 epochs on an NVIDIA RTX A2000 12GB Graphics Processing Unit (GPU). We used 80% of the dataset for training, and 20% for validation.

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272		Granule Type	Image Count	Instances		
273		DAPh	402	17063		
274		KCl	403	39165		
275		$NH_4NO_3$	402	50240		
276		NPK	401	19180		
277		Total	1608	125648		
278						
279	Table 2: Perfor	mance of sema	ntic segmentation	n models on th	ne MFD Dataset	
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201		Model Bac	kbone	mIoU		
283		FPN mol	oilenetv3_large_1	00 0.859		
284		UNet mol	oilenetv3_large_1	00 0.869		
285		MANet mol	oilenetv3_large_1	00 0.875		
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288	4.1 SEMANTIC SEGME	NTATION USING	G FPN, UNET A	ND MANET		
289				1.1 (57		
290	We explored the performan	ice of three sem	antic segmentation	on models (FI	$^{2}N$ (Lin et al., 2017a),	UNet
291	(Ronneberger et al., 2015	), and MANEL	(He et al., $2022$ lowerd at al. $20^{\circ}$	)) on the min $(0)$ was used	eral tertilizer dataset	. FOF
292	avtraction	ener vo large (H	loward et al., 20	(9) was used	as the backbone for fe	ature
293	extraction.					
294	The semantic segmentatio	n experiments v	vere conducted in	n three stages	. First, the binary mas	sks of
295	the fertilizer granules were	preprocessed u	sing three iteration	ons of erosion	with a $3 \times 3$ elliptical k	cernel
296	to separate granules in the	masks that appe	eared to be joined	I. Second, the	segmentation models	were
297	trained using a combination	on of binary cro	ss-entropy (BCE	$(Y_1 - de et al)$	., 2004), dice (Sudre	et al.,
298	2017), and boundary differ	rence over unior	n (Sun et al., 202	3) loss function	ons as shown in Equat	10n 2.
299	Third, based on the predic	ted binary mas	ks from the train	ed models, the	ie contours of each gr	anule
300	instance were estimated us	sing topological	analysis (Suzuki	l & De, 1985).		
301						
302	$\mathcal{L} =$	$0.2 \cdot \text{BCE} + 0.4$	$1 \cdot \text{Dice Loss} + 0$	$0.4 \cdot \text{Boundary}$	r DoU	(2)
303	TT · .1 · . 11·	1 6		. <b>.</b> .	. 11.4	
304	Using the predicted binar	y masks from t	the trained sema	intic segment	ation models, the cor	itours
305	of the granules were estim	ated through to	pological analys	SIS (SUZUKI &	be, 1985), implement	ted in
306	can operate on a CPU and	anowing the first	fast assessment	s The results	obtained using these	three
307	semantic segmentation mo	dels are summa	rized in Table 2	$A \mod f$	MANet outperformed	I FPN
308	and UNet	dels ale sullina		Among them,	MARINE Outperformed	1111
300						
310	4.2 INSTANCE SEGMEN	TATION USING	MASY P CNN	VOLOV8		
311	4.2 INSTANCE SEGMEN MASK2FORMER	TATION USING	MASK K-CININ	, IOLOV8,	I OLOV 9, AND	
212	MASK21 OKMER					
312	Instance segmentation is a	a crucial step in	analyzing mine	ral fertilizer	granules, as it allows	us to
21/	identify and isolate individ	lual granules wi	thin an image. I	n this section,	we explore the applic	cation
314	of Mask R-CNN (He et al.	, 2017), YOLOv	v8 (Jocher et al.,	2023), YOLC	w9 (Wang et al., 2024	), and
315	Mask2Former (Cheng et a	l., 2022) for inst	tance segmentati	on of mineral	fertilizer granules.	
316	The VOI Ov& models were	a trained on ima	ges of 480 v 480	nivels ever	nt the VOI Ov81 sec or	nd the
31/	YOLOv9 models which w	ere trained on ir	nages of $320 \times 3'$	20 nixels to a	commodate our comm	nating
318	resources.		114505 01 520 A 5	-0 pineis to at	commodule our comp	aung
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Table 1: Overview of the MFD Dataset

319 320 Table 3 provides a summary of the performance of the trained models. The results show that the 321 YOLOv8 and YOLOv9 models performed better than the Mask R-CNN and Mask2Former models. It is possible to tweak the hyperparameters of these models but we used the default parameters to 322 estimate the baseline performance of these models. The ResNet-50 backbone with Feature Pyramid 323 Network (FPN) was used to train the Mask R-CNN and Mask2Former models. Another keen ob-

327	Model	$mAP^{box}50$	$mAP^{box}50-95$	$mAP^{mask}50$	$mAP^{mask}50 - 95$
328	Mask R-CNN	0.747	0.597	0.747	0.600
329	YOLOv8n-seg	0.939	0.759	0.927	0.675
330	YOLOv8s-seg	0.950	0.786	0.937	0.698
331	YOLOv8m-seg	0.952	0.796	0.945	0.727
332	Mask R-CNN*	0.659	0.527	0.659	0.529
333	YOLOv8n-seg*	0.926	0.726	0.898	0.559
334	YOLOv8s-seg*	0.940	0.763	0.913	0.588
335	YOLOv8m-seg*	0.946	0.778	0.918	0.604
336	YOLOv8l-seg*	0.948	0.789	0.925	0.618
337	YOLOv9c-seg*	0.947	0.778	0.918	0.602
338	YOLOv9e-seg*	0.948	0.782	0.924	0.615
330	Mask2Former*	0.723	0.564	0.724	0.550
0.40	Mask2Former	0.723	0.569	0.731	0.576

Table 3: Performance of models on the MFD Dataset. Models with \* where trained using 320 x 320 pixels images.

Table 4: Inference speed of trained models on different devices

	Frames per Second (FPS)		
Model	RTX A2000	RTX 4050 Max-Q	Intel Core <sup>™</sup> Ultra 7
MANet	71.74	69.06	8.50
Mask R-CNN	64.90	41.98	3.19
Mask2Former	49.21	25.75	4.56
YOLOv8m-seg	66.82	57.03	4.84

servation is that the YOLO models that were trained on 480 x 480 pixels images performed better than those trained on 320 x 320 pixels images. Factors such as increased input data, augmented data variety, or the 640-pixel input size for YOLO could contribute to this.

Figures 5, 6, 7, and 8 illustrate the inferences made by the trained models on our test images with a confidence threshold of 0.70. Figures 9, 10, and 11 demonstrate the robustness of the trained models in segmenting fertilizer granules of various colors not included in our dataset, while Figure 12 highlights the models' performance under ultraviolet light. Additionally, Figures 13, 14, 15, and 16 showcase the models' ability to segment objects with similar morphology. 

# 4.3 INFERENCE SPEED ON DIFFERENT DEVICES

The inference speed of the trained models was measured on three devices: one with an NVIDIA RTX A2000 12GB graphics processing unit (GPU), another with an NVIDIA GeForce RTX 4050 Max-Q 6GB GPU, and a third with an Intel Core™ Ultra 7 155H Meteor Lake-P central processing unit (CPU) without a GPU. The inference speed was determined by computing the average of the total time required for pre-processing, inference, and post-processing for each image in the test dataset. The results of our experiment are summarized in Table 4. From the table, it is evident that selected models can be used in real-time applications with GPU unit and can be used for periodical control in CPU devices. 

#### CONCLUSION

We have presented a robust annotated instance segmentation dataset of mineral fertilizer granules with different colors, consisting of 1,608 images and 125,648 instances. This dataset bridges the existing gap of a lack of datasets for instance segmentation in the fertilizer industry and can serve as a baseline for further analysis of the quality of produced fertilizer granules. Additionally, it can be used to develop industrial optical control systems for bulk materials, even in compliance with



432 433 434 435 436 437 438 439 (b) MANet (c) Mask R-CNN (d) Mask2Former (a) Test image (e) YOLOv8m-seg 440 441 Figure 10: Inferences on Amino Acid fertilizer test data 442 443 444 445 446 447 448 449 450 (c) Mask R-CNN (a) Test image (b) MANet (d) Mask2Former (e) YOLOv8m-seg 451 452 Figure 11: Inferences on blue NPK test data 453 454 455 456 457 458 459 460 461 (b) MANet (c) Mask R-CNN (d) Mask2Former (a) Test image (e) YOLOv8m-seg 462 Figure 12: Inferences on NPS+B 20-20-14+0.2 oiled fertilizer test data under 365 nm ultraviolet 463 light 464 465 466 467 468 ISO 13322-1. We have created a benchmark of established instance segmentation models, including 469 Mask R-CNN, YOLOv8, and YOLOv9. Furthermore, our experiments with fast semantic segmen-470

Mask R-CNN, YOLOV8, and YOLOV9. Furthermore, our experiments with fast semantic segmentation models capable of rapid CPU inference show promising results. Combining these models with classical computer vision (CV) post-processing techniques can achieve quality comparable to instance segmentation models for calculating the mask of each granule in an image. We hope that this dataset will pave the way for further advancements in the use of computer vision for quality control purposes in the mineral fertilizer industry.

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**Limitations** We considered only the primary fertilizers produced in large-scale continuous pro-478 cesses, which are subsequently used as bases for more complex fertilizers. Additionally, there are 479 many specialized fertilizer blends used in various geographic regions, which we had not test yet. 480 The fertilizer types we have described represent only a small portion of the existing brands and 481 types of such products. We will include more annotated data of DAPh, KCl,  $NH_4NO_3$ , NPK, and 482 other fertilizer granule types in the MFD dataset to increase its size and variety, which will also 483 enhance the capability of models trained on it. Furthermore, the YOLOv8l-seg, YOLOv9c-seg, and YOLOv9e-seg models were trained on 320 x 320 pixel images due to our currently available 484 computing resources. However, with 640 x 640 pixel images—the default size used to train these 485 models-better performance metrics can be achieved.



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- # Process annotations data
  d\_path\_annot = '../MFD\_datasets\_coco/annotations/MFDbalanced\_instances\_default.json'
  - d\_path\_images = '../MFD\_datasets\_coco/images'

```
810
811
      processed_data = {
812
           'Id': [],
813
           'image_path': [],
           'semantic_masks': [],
814
815
816
       with open(d_path_annot, 'r', encoding="utf-8") as json_file:
817
           json_data_dir = json.load(json_file)
818
           # Process image data
           for image_inf in tqdm(json_data_dir['images'], desc="Process images:
819
               "):
820
               real_img_id = image_inf['id']
821
               for k in processed_data:
822
                   processed_data[k].append([])
               processed_data['Id'][-1] = real_img_id
823
               img_path = os.path.join(
824
                   d_path_images, image_inf['file_name']
825
               )
826
               processed_data['image_path'][-1] = str(img_path)
827
               SIZE = (image_inf['height'], image_inf['width'], 3)
828
               processed_data['semantic_masks'][-1] = np.zeros(SIZE[:2], dtype=
                   np.uint8)
829
830
       with open(d_path_annot, 'r') as json_file:
831
           json_data_dir = json.load(json_file)
832
           image_id_old = ''
833
           skipped_counter = 1
           morph_kernel = cv2.getStructuringElement(
834
               cv2.MORPH_ELLIPSE, (3, 3)
835
           )
836
837
           for annotation_data in tqdm(
               json_data_dir['annotations'], desc="Process annotations: "
838
           ):
839
               # Data may be numerated to image of have through numeration
840
               process_image_id = annotation_data['image_id']
841
842
               image_data_indx = processed_data['Id'].index(process_image_id)
843
               label = annotation_data['category_id']
               # Process each granule
844
               for point_i, point in enumerate(annotation_data['segmentation']):
845
                   if isinstance(point, list):
846
                       point_xy = [
847
                            [point[j], point[j + 1]] for j in
848
                            range(0, len(point), 2)
                       1
849
                       cnt = np.array(point_xy).reshape((-1, 1, 2)).astype(
850
                           np.int32
851
852
                       if len(cnt) < 3: # bad contour</pre>
853
                           print('Cnt is bad')
                            continue
854
855
                       single_mask = np.zeros((480, 480), dtype=np.uint8)
856
                       _ = cv2.drawContours(
857
                           single_mask,
                            [cnt], -1, label, cv2.FILLED
858
859
                       single_mask = cv2.morphologyEx(
860
                            single_mask, cv2.MORPH_ERODE, morph_kernel,
861
                                iterations=3
862
                       )
                       processed_data['semantic_masks'][image_data_indx][
863
                           single_mask != 0] = label
```

```
x, y, w, h = annotation_data["bbox"]
                   else:
                       continue
       # Visualize Processed Data
      image_indx = 0
      test_image = cv2.imread(processed_data['image_path'][image_indx])
      test_image = cv2.cvtColor(test_image, cv2.COLOR_BGR2RGB)
      plt.rcParams['figure.figsize'] = [10, 10]
      f, axarr = plt.subplots(1,2)
      _ = axarr[0].imshow(test_image, cmap='gray', vmin=0, vmax=255)
      _ = axarr[1].imshow(processed_data['semantic_masks'][image_indx], cmap='
          gray', vmin=0, vmax=1)
907
908
909
910
911
912
913
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915
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917
```