REVIEW

Assessment of seed quality using non-destructive measurement techniques: a review

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Abstract

Seed quality is of great importance in optimizing the cost of crop establishment. Rapid and non-destructive seed quality detection methods must therefore be developed for agriculture and the seed production industry. This review focuses primarily on non-destructive techniques, namely machine vision, spectroscopy, hyperspectral imaging, soft X-ray imaging, thermal imaging and electronic nose techniques, for assessing the quality of agricultural seeds. The fundamentals of these techniques are introduced. Seed quality, including chemical composition, variety identification and classification, insect damage and disease assessment as well as seed viability and germinability of various seeds are discussed. We conclude that non-destructive techniques are accurate detection methods with great potential for seed quality assessment.

Keywords: non-destructive measurement, seed classification, seed damage, seed quality, seed viability

Nomenclature

ADF	acid detergent fiber
ANNR	artificial neural network regression
ANN	artificial neural network
BPNN	back-propagation neural network
DA	discriminant analysis
DM	dry matter
ECVA	extended canonical variates analysis
FDA	factorial discriminant analysis
ICA	independent component analysis
iECVA	interval extended canonical variates analysis
iPLS-DA	interval partial least-squares discriminant analysis
iPLSR	interval partial least-squares regression
KNN	k-nearest neighbor

KPCA	kernel principal component analysis
KS	Kennard and Stone
LDA	linear discriminant analysis
lod	limit of detection
LSD	least significance difference
LS-SVM	least-squares support vector machine
LS-SVMR	least-squares support vector machine regression
LW-PCA	locally weighted principal component analysis
MD	Mahalanobis distance
MDC	Mahalanobis distance classifier
MLMR	maximum likelihood multinomial regression
MLP	multilayer perceptron
MLR	multiple linear regression
MPLS	modified partial least-squares
MPLSR	modified partial least-squares regression
MSE	mean squared error
NDA	non-linear discriminant analysis
NNN	non-linear neural networks
OMD	organic matter digestibility
PCA	principal component analysis
PCR	principal component regression
PLS	partial least-squares
PLS-DA	partial least-squares discriminant analysis
PLSR	partial least-squares regression
QDA	quadratic discriminant analysis
RF	random forest
SAM	spectral angle mapper
SIMCA	soft independent modeling class analogy
SSC	soluble sugar content
SWI	single waveband image
SVDD	support vector machine description
RMSEP	root mean square error of prediction
Rp	correlation coefficient of prediction
Ŕ	coefficient of correlation
R ²	coefficient of determination
R_p^2	determination coefficient of prediction
R_{c}^{2}	determination coefficient of calibration
SEP	standard error of prediction
RPD	ratio prediction to deviation

Introduction

Seed is a living product and must be grown, harvested and processed correctly to maximize its viability and subsequent crop productivity. Seed quality has a profound effect on the development and yield of a crop

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(Bradbeer, 1988). Good seed quality can increase yield significantly. Seed quality depends on the health, physiology, germinability and physical attributes of seeds, including the presence or absence of disease, chemical composition, insect infestation, and the presence or absence of weed seeds or other plant varieties. Quality of seeds and their products is directly or indirectly related to human health; nevertheless, the evaluation of seed quality parameters is a time-consuming process. For example, calculation of the germination percentage commonly requires manual counting and grading of germinating seedlings by experienced technicians. Therefore rapid, simple and accurate detection techniques must be developed for farmers and the agro-industry to ensure quality seed during seeding, growth, harvesting, storage and transport to consumers (Huang et al., 2015).

The sowing quality of seed is associated with the germination and growth conditions after sowing and depends on seed composition, kernel maturity, insect infestation, diseases, cleanliness and germination ability (Copeland and McDonald, 1999). The genetic purity of seeds may be detected by molecular identification, DNA analysis, isotope fingerprinting and mineral element analysis (Bradbeer, 1988). Protein electrophoresis, gas chromatography, high-performance liquid chromatography, tetrazolium tests, accelerated ageing and conductivity tests have been employed to evaluate the vigour and germination quality of seeds (Huang et al., 2015). Most of these chemical and physical techniques exhibit high accuracy and good reliability but have certain limitations, such as their high cost, long time requirements and high operator requirements. With the increasing demand for rapid, non-destructive and reliable techniques for evaluation of seed quality in the modern agro-industry, highperformance techniques must be developed for the evaluation of seed quality. A number of non-destructive testing technologies have been developed for evaluation of seed quality (Huang et al., 2015). These non-destructive testing technologies are rapid, accurate, reliable and simple methods for assessing the quality of seeds. This review focuses primarily on non-destructive techniques, namely, machine vision, spectroscopy, hyperspectral imaging, electronic nose, soft X-ray imaging and thermal imaging techniques, which have been used to assess seed quality parameters such as chemical composition,

genetic purity and classification, disease and insect infestation, as well as vigour and germinability. The emphasis in this review is also placed on insights into the methods and techniques that have been investigated for evaluating seed qualities.

Non-destructive techniques for seed quality assessment

Machine vision

Machine vision, also known as 'computer vision' or 'computer image processing', is an artificial intelligence technique that simulates human vision (Huang et al., 2015). This technique is non-destructive, reliable and rapid and has been proven to be an effective and powerful technique for quality evaluation of food and agricultural products, particularly seeds (Hornberg, 2007). A typical machine vision system consists of four basic components: an illumination system, a sensor or camera, a lens and a computer with frame grabber/digitizer (Fig. 1). Most applications of machine vision address the visible spectrum (380–780 nm) (Gunasekaran et al., 1985). A machine vision system should be capable of identifying and grading seeds based on image external features, such as size, shape, colour and texture. The superiority, disadvantages and feasibility of different image external features should be simultaneously considered to select the most suitable feature for specific applications. Machine vision has already been used, with varying success, to assess seeds of a range of crop and non-crop species. This review focuses mainly on machine vision techniques that can be used to classify seed varieties, disease detection, identification of seed varieties, etc.

Spectroscopy

Spectroscopy is used to investigate and measure the spectra produced when matter interacts with, or emits, electromagnetic radiation (Huang *et al.*, 2015). A range of spectroscopic techniques, such as near-infrared- (NIR), mid-infrared- (MIR), fluorescence-, Fourier transforminfrared- (FT-IR) and Raman spectroscopy have been



Figure 1. A typical machine vision system



Figure 2. NIR, MIR or FT-IR spectroscopy (left panel) and Raman spectroscopy (right panel). From Seo et al. (2016).

widely and successfully used as sensitive and fast analytical techniques for authentication and quality analysis of a variety of agricultural seeds (Fig. 2). NIR and MIR spectroscopy are based on molecular overtones and combined vibrations. FT-IR spectroscopy is a technique used to record infrared spectra and detect radiation in the MIR region. FT-IR spectroscopy is an information-rich analytical technique, as it provides a greater amount of chemical information regarding the scanned sample than NIR spectroscopy (Lohumi et al., 2015). Raman spectroscopy is another form of analytical spectroscopy that is suitable for quality and authenticity analysis of agro-food products. This technique can provide specific information needed for identification of sample matrices based on model compounds, such as lipids, proteins and carbohydrates, and is sensitive to minor components (Seo et al., 2016). This review focuses mainly on spectroscopic techniques that can be used to detect seed quality attributes, such as chemical composition, viability and damage by insects and other causes.

Hyperspectral imaging

Hyperspectral imaging has recently emerged as a powerful analytical technique for food quality and

authenticity analysis. This technique is used to acquire both spectral and spatial information from an object (Wu and Sun, 2013). A hyperspectral imaging system includes light sources, wavelength dispersion devices and detectors. As the centre of a hyperspectral imaging system, wavelength dispersion devices are used to disperse broadband light into different wavelengths (Fig. 3). The detector collects light, which carries useful information from the wavelength dispersion device and measures the intensity of the light by converting radiation energy into electrical signals (Huang et al., 2015). Using hyperspectral imaging, sample analysis is convenient and comparatively fast because a large number of samples are analysed at the same time, whereas spectroscopic methods analyse only one sample at a time (Lohumi et al., 2015). Machine vision and spectroscopy can only provide spatial or spectral information, whereas hyperspectral imaging, which integrates machine vision and spectroscopy advantages, can simultaneously obtain spatial and spectral information by using only one system. In this regard, hyperspectral imaging has been widely used by researchers to evaluate the exterior quality of seeds and predict their internal composition (Mahesh et al., 2011a; Zhu et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2014).



Figure 3. A typical hyperspectral reflectance/fluorescence imaging system. From Qin et al. (2013).

Thermal imaging

Thermal imaging is a technique for converting the invisible radiation pattern of an object into visible images for feature extraction and analysis without establishing contact with the object. Using this method, the surface temperature of any object can be mapped at a high resolution in two dimensions. The thermal data produced may be used directly or indirectly in many ways (Manickavasagan et al., 2008). The application of thermal imaging has gained popularity in the agro-food industry in recent years (Vadivambal and Jayas, 2011). The major advantage of thermal imaging is that it is a non-contact, non-invasive and rapid technique that can be used in online applications (Fig. 4). Thermal cameras are easy to handle and highly accurate temperature measurements are possible (Vadivambal and Jayas, 2011). Using thermal imaging, it is possible to obtain temperature mapping of any particular region of interest with fast response times, which is not possible with thermocouples or other temperature sensors that can only measure spot data. The repeatability of temperature measurements in thermal imaging is high (Ishimwe et al., 2014). In addition, thermal imaging does not require an illumination source, unlike other imaging systems. Nowadays, thermal imaging has a potential application in many operations involved in agriculture, starting from assessing seed quality, especially in detection of diseases, insects and seedling viability, estimating soil water status, estimating crop water stress, scheduling irrigation, determining disease and pathogen affected plants, estimating fruit yield and evaluating maturity of fruits and vegetables (Chelladurai et al., 2010; Manickavasagan et al., 2010;

Vadivambal and Jayas, 2011). In spite of the fact that it could be used as a non-contact, non-destructive technique, it has some drawbacks in comparison with other imaging techniques because high resolution thermal imaging is costly and accurate thermal measurements depend on environmental and weather conditions. Thus it may not be possible to develop a universal methodology for its application in seed quality assessment.

Soft X-ray imaging

Electromagnetic waves with wavelengths ranging from 1 to 100 nm (and energies of approximately 0.12 to 12 keV) are called soft X-rays. The low penetration power of these waves and their ability to reveal internal density changes make soft X-rays suitable for use in evaluating agricultural products (Neethirajan *et al.*, 2007). Soft X-ray imaging is a well-known technique that takes a few seconds (3–5 s) to produce an X-ray image. Soft X-ray imaging has begun to be used in the seed industry to detect internal voids, defects, insect infestation and insect damage (Karunakaran *et al.*, 2004; Neethirajan *et al.*, 2006; Mathanker *et al.*, 2013).

Electronic nose

An electronic nose is an instrument consisting of an array of electronic and chemical sensors with partial specificity and a pattern recognition system that is capable of recognizing simple or complex odours (Wilson and Baietto, 2009). These devices typically have arrays



Figure 4. A typical thermal imaging system. From Manickavasagan et al. (2010).

of sensors used to detect and distinguish odours precisely in complex samples and at low cost (Zhou *et al.*, 2012). Electronic nose devices have been employed in a wide variety of applications, including classification of kernels and microbial pathogen detection.

Quality detection of seeds using non-destructive techniques

Quality assessment of seeds: chemical composition

In recent years, non-destructive sensing techniques, mainly spectroscopy and hyperspectral imaging, have been widely used to determine the internal composition of seeds (Table 1). Previous studies have shown that spectroscopy systems can be applied successfully to determine the protein contents of corn (Armstrong et al., 2011), maize (Baye et al., 2006), common beans (Hacisalihoglu et al., 2010), rice (Wu and Shi 2004), soybean (Ferreira et al., 2014), peanuts (Wang et al., 2012), jatropha (Vaknin et al., 2011), rapeseed (Velasco and Möllers, 2002), sunflower (Fassio and Cozzolino, 2004), canola (Daun et al., 1994), cotton (Huang et al., 2013), foxtail millet (Yang et al., 2013), flax, safflower, sesame and palm (Pandord et al., 1988). Previous studies have shown that spectroscopy is highly accurate in protein prediction. The coefficients of determination for prediction (R_p^2) of a partial least-squares regression (PLSR) model have been found to be 0.98 for corn (Chen et al., 2014), 0.99 for rapeseed (Pandord et al., 1988), 0.96 for cottonseed (Huang et al., 2013), 0.98 for peanut (Pandord et al., 1988) and 0.91 for soybeans (Ferreira et al., 2014). Spectroscopy has also been used to estimate the fibre content of soybean, corn (Armstrong et al., 2011) and rapeseed (Wittkop et al., 2012; Bala and Singh, 2013;), and the sucrose content of soybean (Choung, 2010). However, unsatisfactory results have been reported for carbohydrate determination in maize (Baye and Becker 2004; Tallada et al., 2009), rice (Wu and Shi 2004), foxtail millet (Chen et al., 2013) and soybean (Choung 2010; Ferreira et al., 2013) and made the same conclusions in their study that any changes in the compositional amount among the sample are not translated into differences within the spectra. In recent research, hyperspectral imaging has been used to predict crude protein and crude fat fractions in soybean (Zhu et al., 2011), protein in wheat (Mahesh et al., 2011a) and alpha-amylase activity in wheat (Xing et al., 2009, 2011). Unsatisfactory prediction results have been obtained in some cases using hyperspectral imaging because of the difficulty of extracting the most important object features for assessing the physical structure and chemical composition of samples. The oil content is an important parameter in the internal quality evaluation of most oilseed

crops. Spectroscopy within the range of 400-2500 nm has been widely used to determine oil content in peanuts (Sundaram et al., 2010), maize (Tallada et al., 2009), safflower (Rudolphi et al., 2012), rapeseed (Velasco and Becker, 1998; Velasco et al., 1999; Petisco et al., 2010), sunflower (Pandord et al., 1988; Pérez-Vich et al., 1998; Fassio and Cozzolino, 2004), jatropha (Vaknin et al., 2011), canola (Daun et al., 1994), cotton (Huang et al., 2013), corn and soybean (Armstrong et al., 2011). The coefficients of determination of the oil prediction model were 0.99, 0.91, 0.98, 0.92, 0.95, 0.98, 0.95, 0.87 and 0.84 for peanut, safflower, rapeseed, sunflower, jatropha, canola, cotton, corn and soybean, respectively. Hyperspectral imaging has also been used to predict the oil and oleic acid concentrations in corn (Weinstock et al., 2006). An NIR hyperspectral imaging system (750-1090 nm) was used to predict the oil content in maize and the determination coefficient of the PLSR model for the determination of oil content was found to be 0.75 (Cogdill et al., 2004). The results indicated outstanding performance of the non-destructive technique in the prediction of the internal composition of the seed. Spectroscopy has also been used to determine the fatty acid content of peanuts (Sundaram et al., 2010), soybean (Patil et al., 2010), safflower (Rudolphi et al., 2012), rapeseed (Kim et al., 2007), sunflower (Cantarelli et al., 2009), jatropha (Vaknin et al., 2011), canola and flax (Siemens and Daun, 2005) with high accuracy. The amino acid composition of seeds is also a concern in their quality assessment since high protein content and a rational amino acid composition of seed are a major concern to the plant breeder (Chen et al., 2011). Studies have shown that near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) and FT-NIRS can be used successfully in the assessment of amino acid composition in rapeseed (Pandord et al., 1988; Chen et al., 2011), peanuts (Wang et al., 2012), rice (Zhang et al., 2011) and foxtail millet (Yang et al., 2013). An experiment in high-resolution hyperspectral reflectance imagery in the near-infrared region (960-1700 nm) was conducted to predict the amino acid content of fresh soybeans and showed that the best predictions (MSE = 0.305, R = 0.611) were obtained using a non-linear artificial neural network (ANN)-based regression model based on the secondderivative spectra data produced for the nitrogen concentration (Monteiro et al., 2007). Spectroscopy has also been used to determine the moisture content of soybean (Pandord et al., 1988; Ferreira et al., 2013; Ferreira et al., 2014), sunflower (Pandord et al., 1988; Fassio and Cozzolino, 2004), peanuts (Sundaram et al., 2010), flax, safflower and cotton (Pandord et al., 1988), as well as the pH of cocoa beans (Sunoj et al., 2016), the mineral contents (K, Mg, Ca and P) of peanuts (Phan-Thien et al., 2011), the seed weight of rapeseed (Velasco et al., 1999), the grain weight of rice and brown rice (Wu and Shi, 2004), the ethanol content of

Table 1. Assessment of chemical composition in seeds using different non-destructive techniques

Chemical composition	Seed	Method	Spectra reg	gion	Analysis method	Recult	References
	Seed	Wiethou	(iiiii)		(3)	Result	References
Protein, starch	Bean	Spectroscopy	907–1689		PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.80 - 0.88$	Hacisalihoglu <i>et al.,</i> 2010
Protein, starch, amylose	Bean	Spectroscopy	1000-2500		PCA, PLSR	RPD = 2.6 - 3.7	Plans <i>et al.,</i> 2013
Fatty acid	Canola seed	Spectroscopy	400-2500		MPLSR	SEP=0.42-0.77%	Siemens and Daun, 2005
Oil, protein	Canola seed	Spectroscopy	850-1050		PLSR, MLR	SEP = 0.43–0.55%, 0.35–0.42%	Daun <i>et al.,</i> 1994
pH, polyphenol	Cocoa bean	FT-NIR spectroscopy	3600–12500 cm ⁻	_1	PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.80, \ 0.85$	Sunoj et al., 2016
Oil, oleic acid	Corn	Hyperspectral imaging	950–1700		PLSR	RMSEP=0.74%, 14%	Weinsto1ck et al., 2006
Protein, fat	Corn	Spectroscopy	1000-2500		PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.98, \ 0.94$	Chen <i>et al.</i> 2014
Protein, oil, starch, density	Corn	Spectroscopy	904-1685		PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^{\rm 2} = 0.68 - 0.91$	Armstrong et al., 2011
DM, protein, ADF, OMD	Corn	Spectroscopy	400-2500		PCA, PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^{\rm P} = 0.42 - 0.92$	Fassio et al., 2009
Moisture, oil, protein, crude fibre	Cotton	Spectroscopy	1100-2500		MLR	R = 0.98, 0.99, 0.98, 0.95	Pandord et al., 1988
Protein, oil	Cotton	Spectroscopy	1100-2498		PLSR, LS-SVMR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.96, \ 0.95$	Huang <i>et al.</i> 2013
Fatty acid	Flax seed	Spectroscopy	400-2500		MPLSR	SEP = 0.62 - 1.2%	Siemens and Daun, 2005
Moisture, oil, protein, crude fibre	Flax seed	Spectroscopy	1100-2500		MLR	<i>R</i> = 0.96, 0.99, 0.99, 0.98	Pandord et al., 1988
Protein, carbohydrates, fat	Foxtail millet	Spectroscopy	950–1650		MLR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.70 - 0.94$	Chen et al., 2013
Protein, fat, starch, amino acids	Foxtail millet	Spectroscopy	800-2500		PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.71 - 0.93$	Yang et al., 2013
Protein, oil content, composition	Jatropha	Spectroscopy	1100–2498		MPLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.86, \ 0.91 - 0.95, \ 0.10 - 0.73$	Vaknin et al., 2011
Moisture, oil content	Maize	Hyperspectral imaging	750–1090		PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.87, \ 0.75$	Cogdill et al., 2004
Ethanol yield	Maize	Spectroscopy	400-2498		PLSR	RMSEP = 0.56%	Hao <i>et al.</i> , 2012
Protein	Maize	Spectroscopy	400-2500		MLR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.94$	Rosales <i>et al.</i> , 2011
Protein, oil, SSC	Maize	Spectroscopy	904-1685		PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^{\rm 2} = 0.25 - 0.89$	Tallada et al., 2009
Protein, starch	Maize	Spectroscopy	890-1700		PLSR	SEP=1.7%, 11.5%	Baye et al., 2006
Mineral: Ca, K, Mg, P	Peanut	Spectroscopy	400-2498		PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.172 - 0.792$	Phan-Thien et al., 2011
Moisture, oil, protein, crude fibre	Peanut	Spectroscopy	1100-2500		MLR	R = 0.98, 0.99, 0.99, 0.99, 0.98	Pandord et al., 1988
Protein, amino acid	Peanut	Spectroscopy	950-1650		PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.99, 0.83 - 0.96$	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2012
Moisture content	Peanuts	Spectroscopy	400-2500		PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.84 - 0.97$	Sundaram <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Oil, fatty acids	Peanuts	Spectroscopy	400-2500		PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^{\rm 2} = 0.99$	Sundaram <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Moisture, oil, protein, crude fibre	Palm	Spectroscopy	1100-2500		MLR	R = 0.79, 0.78, 0.71, 0.57	Pandord et al., 1988
Amino acid	Rapeseed	Spectroscopy	1100-2498		MPLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.89 - 0.98$	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2011
Fatty acid	Rapeseed	Spectroscopy	400-2500		MPLSR	$R_{\rm p}^{\rm 2} = 0.95 - 0.98$	Velasco and Becker, 1998
Fatty acid	Rapeseed	Spectroscopy	1100–2500		MPLSR	$R_{\rm p}^{\rm 2}$ = 0.72–0.98	Kim et al., 2007

Table 1. Continued

Chemical composition	Seed	Method	Spectra reg (nm)	ion Analysis metho (s)	od Result	References
Fibre content	Rapeseed	Spectroscopy	400-2500	PCA, MPLSR	$R_p^2 = 0.53 - 0.81$	Wittkop <i>et al.,</i> 2012
Moisture, oil, protein, crude fibre	Rapeseed	Spectroscopy	1100-2500	MLR	R = 0.99, 1.0, 0.99, 0.99	Pandord et al., 1988
Oil, protein	Rapeseed	Spectroscopy	400-2498	PCA, MPLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.98, \ 0.96$	Petisco et al., 2010
Phenol, crude fibre	Rapeseed	FT-NIR spectroscopy	3600–12800 cm ⁻	⁻¹ PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.96, \ 0.91$	Bala and Singh, 2013
Protein	Rapeseed	Spectroscopy	1100-2500	MPLSR	R = 0.94	Velasco and Möllers, 2002
Seed weight, oil, fatty acid	Rapeseed	Spectroscopy	1100–1460 and 1560–2500	MPLSR	<i>R</i> = 0.92, 0.92, 0.73– 0.94	Velasco et al., 1999
Amino acid	Rice	Spectroscopy	1100-2498	PCR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.84 - 0.95$	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2011
Grain weight, brown rice weight, amylose content	Rice	Spectroscopy	1100-2500	MLR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.67, \ 0.71, \ 0.85$	Wu and Shi, 2004
Starch, protein	Rice	Spectroscopy	1100-2500	PLSR, LS-SVM ICA	, $R_{\rm p} = 0.89 - 0.98$	Shao <i>et al.,</i> 2011
Amylose, protein	Rice	Spectroscopy	1100-2500	LS-SVM, ANN	$R_{\rm p} = 0.82 - 0.88$	Shao <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Moisture, oil, protein, crude fibre	Safflower	Spectroscopy	1100-2500	MLR	R=0.85, 0.97, 0.77, 0.84	Pandord et al., 1988
Moisture, oil, protein, crude fibre	Sesame	Spectroscopy	1100-2500	MLR	<i>R</i> = 0.99, 0.99, 0.99, 0.99, 0.75	Pandord et al., 1988
Colour, moisture	Soybean	Hyperspectral imaging	400-1000	PLSR	$R_{\rm p} = 0.83, \ 0.97$	Huang et al., 2014
Fatty acid	Soybean	Spectroscopy	850-1048	PLSR, ANN, LS-SVM	SEP=0.42-1.67%	Igne <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Fatty acid	Soybean	Spectroscopy	850-1048	PLSR	SEP = 0.01-0.08%	Hurburgh, 2007
Fatty acid	Soybean	Spectroscopy	850-1048	PLSR, ANN, SVMR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.67 - 0.94$	Kovalenko et al., 2006
Fatty acid	Soybean	Spectroscopy	850-1048	MPLSR	$R_p^2 = 0.63 - 0.89$	Patil <i>et al.,</i> 2010
Moisture, oil, protein, crude fibre	Soybean	Spectroscopy	1100-2500	MLR	R = 0.92, 0.99, 0.99, 0.99, 0.76	Pandord et al., 1988
Moisture, protein, lipid	Soybean	Spectroscopy	1000-2500	PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.50 - 0.81$	Ferreira et al., 2013
Moisture, ash, protein, lipid	Soybean	Spectroscopy	1000-2500	PLSR	$R_p^2 = 0.63 - 0.91$	Ferreira et al., 2014
Oil, linoleic, oleic acid	Soybean	Spectroscopy	400-2500	MPLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.91, \ 0.73, \ 0.68$	Rudolphi <i>et al.</i> , 2012
Protein, fat	Soybean	Hyperspectral imaging	850-1700	PLSR	$R_{\rm c}^2 = 0.9, \ 0.97$	Zhu et al., 2011
Protein, oil content	Soybean	Raman spectroscopy	$200-1800 \text{ cm}^{-1}$	iPLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.92, \ 0.87$	Lee et al., 2013
Protein, oil, fibre	Soybean	Spectroscopy	904–1685	PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.44 - 0.90$	Armstrong et al., 2011
Sucrose	soybean	Spectroscopy	400-2500	MPLSR	$R_{\rm p}^{\rm 5} = 0.92$	Choung, 2010
Sweetness, amino acid	Soybean	Hyperspectral imaging	400-1000	ANNR	$R^{r} = 0.61, 0.60 - 0.74$	Monteiro et al., 2007

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Table 1. Continued						
Chemical composition	Seed	Method	Spectra region (nm)	Analysis method (s)	Result	References
Fatty acid	Sunflower	Spectroscopy	400–2500	MPLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.94$	Moschner and Biskunek-Korell. 2006
Moisture, crude protein, oil	Sunflower	Spectroscopy	400-2500	MPLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.0.95, 0.96, 0.9$	Fassio and Cozzolino, 2004
Moisture, oil, protein, crude fibre	Sunflower	Spectroscopy	1100-2500	MLR	R = 0.96, 1.0, 0.99, 0.99	Pandord et al., 1988
Oil, fatty acid	Sunflower	Spectroscopy	1100-2500	MPLSR	$R_p^2 = 0.92, \ 0.97 - 0.99$	Pérez-Vich et al., 1998
Oleic acid	Sunflower	Spectroscopy	1596-1794	PLSR	LOD = 3.4%	Cantarelli et al., 2009
Alpha amylase activities	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	1000–2500	PLSR	$R_{\rm c}^2 = 0.72 - 0.88$	Xing et al., 2011
Alpha amylase activities	Wheat	Spectroscopy	1000-2500	PLSR	$R_p^2 = 0.63 - 0.82$	Xing et al., 2011
Protein	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	960–1700	PLSR, PCR	$R_{\rm p}^{1} = 0.68, 0.82$	Mahesh <i>et al.</i> , 2011a
Alpha amylase	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	1255–2300	PCA, PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.54, \ 0.73$	Xing et al., 2009
Moisture	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	960-1700	PCA, LDA, QDA	61-100%	Mahesh et al., 2011b
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maize (Hao *et al.*, 2012), the phenol content of rapeseed (Bala and Singh, 2013) and the polyphenol content of cocoa beans (Sunoj *et al.*, 2016). In recent years, hyperspectral imaging has been used to predict the moisture content of corn (Cogdill *et al.*, 2004; Mahesh *et al.*, 2011b) and soybean during drying (Huang *et al.*, 2014), the sweetness (sucrose, glucose and fructose contents) of soybean (Monteiro *et al.*, 2007) and the colour of soybeans during drying (Huang *et al.*, 2014).

Quality assessment of seeds: insect damage and diseases

Seed damage by insects, fungi or natural causes, such as germination, are an important factor in seed quality during storage and processing. Seed damage is therefore taken seriously by consumers and the food industry. Various non-destructive techniques such as machine vision, spectroscopy, hyperspectral imaging, soft X-ray imaging, electronic nose and thermal imaging have been widely used in the detection of insect damage, insect infestation and diseases in seeds (Table 2). Machine vision has been used together with back-propagation neural networks based on colour features to detect external defects in rice seeds, such as germs, diseases and incompletely closed glumes, with an accuracy of 98.6-99.2% (Cheng et al., 2006). A machine vision system developed for the detection of damaged wheat kernels based on morphological and textural properties was shown to have a classification accuracy of 91-94% (Delwiche et al., 2013). A machine vision system was also used to detect damaged soybeans based on colour features with an accuracy of 99.6% (Shatadal and Tan, 2003). Recently, spectroscopy has been used to identify defects in corn (Esteve Agelet et al., 2012) and soybean (Sirisomboon et al., 2009). Hyperspectral imaging has been used to detect sprout damage in wheat (Singh et al., 2009a; Xing et al., 2010) and to detect sprouting in barley (Arngren et al., 2011). In a recent study, a machine vision system was used to detect diseases and insects for the purpose of quality sorting of areca nuts with an accuracy of 90.9% (Huang, 2012). Spectroscopy-based methods have also been used to detect and classify fungus-infected maize (Giacomo and Stefania, 2013), wheat (Soto-Cámara et al., 2012) and soybeans (Wang et al., 2004), to determine the percentage of fungal infection in rice (Sirisomboon et al., 2013) and to identify the green mottle mosaic virus in cucumber (Lee et al., 2016). However, this technique has yielded unsatisfactory results for fungal infection determination in rice because the moisture and starch contents in rice affect the overall extent of fungal infection (Sirisomboon et al., 2013). Numerous studies have been conducted using hyperspectral imaging to detect fungal-infected wheat (Singh et al., 2012) and maize

Insect damage/diseases	Seed	Method	Feature(s)/spectra region (nm)	Analysis method(s)	Result	References
Disease detection	Areca nuts	Machine vision	Geometric, colour	BPNN	90.90%	Huang, 2012
Sprout detection	Barley	Hyperspectral imaging	1002–1626	PCA, NNN, MLMR	Error: 3%, 32%	Arngren et al., 2011
Damaged detection	Corn	Spectroscopy	850–1650	PLSDA, SIMCA, KNN, LS-SVM	<99%	Esteve Agelet <i>et al.,</i> 2012a
Aflatoxin B1	Corn	Hyperspectral imaging	1100–1700	PLS-DA	96.90%	Kandpal et al., 2015
Green mottle mosaic virus	Cucumber	Raman Spectroscopy	400–1800 cm ⁻¹	PLS-DA	86%	Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2016a
Fungal infection	Maize	Hyperspectral imaging	400-1000	PCA, DA	_	Del Fiore <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Fumonisins detection	Maize	Spectroscopy	650–2500	MLR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.91$	Giacomo and Stefania, 2013
Fungus-infect	Maize	Spectroscopy & color imaging	904–1685	LDA, ANN	89%, 79%	Tallada <i>et al.,</i> 2011
Aflatoxin B1	Maize	Hyperspectral imaging	1000-2500	PCA, FDA	88-100%	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Fungal infection	Maize	Hyperspectral imaging	1000-2498	PCA, PLSR	$R_{\rm p}^2 = 0.73 - 0.86$	Williams et al., 2012
Fungal infection	Maize	Hyperspectral imaging	400–700	LDA	94.4%, 91.7%	Yao et al., 2013
Insect-damaged	Mungbean	Hyperspectral imaging	1000–1600	PCA, LDA, QDA	85%, 88%	Kaliramesh et al., 2013
Defect detection	Rice	Machine vision	Contour, colour	PCA, BPNN	91.1-99.4%	Cheng <i>et al.</i> , 2006
Fungal infection	Rice	Spectroscopy	950–1650	PLSR	R = 0.67	Sirisomboon et al., 2013
Insect-damaged	Soybean	Hyperspectral imaging	900-1700	PCA, LDA, QDA	40-94%	Chelladurai <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Insect-damaged	Soybean	Hyperspectral imaging	400-1000	KS, SVDD	95.60%	Huang <i>et al.</i> , 2013
Bug damage	Soybean	Soft X-ray imaging	Intensity of X-ray image	_	Good	Pinto et al., 2009
Damaged detection	Soybean	Machine vision	Colour	ANN	99.60%	Shatadal and Tan, 2003
Defect detection	Soybean	Spectroscopy	600–1100	PCA, PLSDA, SIMCA	72.2%, 100%	Sirisomboon et al., 2009
Fungal-damaged	Soybean	Spectroscopy	400-1700	PLS, ANN	84-100%	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2004
Bacteria infected	Watermelon	Hyperspectral Imaging	400-1000	PLS-DA, LS-SVM	91.7%, 90.5%	Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2016b
Fusarium detection	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	400-1000	PCA, SAM	67%	Bauriegel et al., 2011
Insect fragments	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	1000–1600	PLSR	$R_{\rm p} = 0.99$	Bhuvaneswari <i>et al.,</i> 2011
Fungal infection	Wheat	Thermal imaging	_	LDA, QDA	96-100%	Chelladurai <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Fungal infection	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	400–1700	LDA	95%	Delwiche <i>et al.</i> , 2011
Damaged detection	Wheat	Machine vision	Morphology, texture	LDA, KNN	91–94%	Delwiche <i>et al.</i> , 2013
Insect infestation	Wheat	Soft X-ray imaging	Textural, shape moments, histogram	BPNN	98%	Karunakaran et al., 2004
Insect infestation	Wheat	Soft X-ray imaging	Textural, histogram	BPNN	86%	Karunakaran <i>et al.,</i> 2004
Insect infestation	Wheat	Thermal imaging	_	LSD	83%	Manickavasagan <i>et al.,</i> 2008
Fungal detection	Wheat	Electronic nose	_	PCA, PLS-DA	85.30%	Paolesse et al., 2006
Insect detection	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	1000–1700	PLS-DA, iPLS-DA	91-100%	Serranti et al., 2013

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Insect damage/diseases	Seed	Method	Feature(s)/spectra (nm)	region Analysis method(s)	Result	References
Fusarium damaged detection	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	400-1000	PCA, LDA	92%	Shahin and Symons, 2011
Mildew-damaged	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	400-1000	PLSR	96%	Shahin et al., 2014
Sprout damaged	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	1000-1600	PCA, LDA, QDA, MD	100%	Singh et al., 2009a
Midge-damaged	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	700-1100	PCA, LDA, QDA	95.3-99.3%	Singh et al., 2010
Insect identification	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	700-1100	PCA, ANN, QDA	91–100%	Singh et al., 2010
Insect-damaged	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	1000-1600	LDA, QDA, MD	85 - 100%	Singh et al., 2009b
Fungal-damaged	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	700-1100	LDA, QDA, MD	97.3-100%	Singh et al., 2012
Fungicide detection	Wheat	Spectroscopy	400-2500	PCA, MPLS	84%	Soto-Cámara et al., 20
Sprout-damaged	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	400 - 1000	PCA	88 - 100%	Xing <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Sprout detection	Wheat	Soft X-ray imaging	1	ANN	90–95%	Neethirajan <i>et al.</i> , 2007

(Del Fiore et al., 2010; Williams et al., 2012; Yao et al., 2013) and to detect bacteria-infected watermelon seeds (Lee et al., 2016). One study showed that the electronic nose is a powerful tool for the detection of fungal contamination in wheat; the accuracy obtained using partial least-squares discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) was found to be 85.3% (Paolesse et al., 2006). Recently, chlorophyll fluorescence has been used to sort white cabbage seeds, resulting in 97% germination by removing 13.2% of the seeds with very high chlorophyll fluorescence signal from the seed lot (Jalink et al., 1998). Similar studies have been conducted to evaluate the seed maturity in cabbage (Dell'Aquila et al., 2002), tomato (Jalink et al., 1999), barley (Konstantinova et al., 2002), carrot (Groot et al., 2006) and pepper (Kenanoglu et al., 2013) using chlorophyll fluorescence. Thermal imaging has been used to detect fungal infestations in stored wheat using linear discriminant analysis (LDA) and quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA), with an accuracy of 100% for healthy samples and 96–97% for infected samples (Chelladurai et al., 2010). In a study in which a hyperspectral imaging system (1100-1700 nm) was used to detect aflatoxin B1 (AFB1) contaminants on corn kernels, a PLS-DA was performed, and a minimum classification accuracy of 96.9% was achieved (Kandpal et al., 2015). Similar studies have been performed to detect AFB1 contaminants on the surfaces of healthy maize kernels using a short wavelength infrared (SWIR) hyperspectral imaging system (Wang et al., 2014). The feasibility of short-wave near-infrared hyperspectral (700-1100 nm wavelength range) and digital colour imaging with different statistical discriminant classifiers was investigated for use in the detection of wheat damaged by four different insect species: the rice weevil (Sitophilus oryzae), the lesser grain borer (Rhyzopertha dominica), the rusty grain beetle (Cryptolestes ferrugineus) and the red flour beetle (Tribolium castaneum). Accuracies of 96% were achieved for healthy wheat kernels and 91-100% for insect-damaged wheat kernels (Singh et al., 2010a). Similarly, numerous studies have been performed to detect insect-damaged (Singh et al., 2009a, 2009b, 2010a, 2010b; Serranti et al., 2013) and mildewdamaged (Shahin et al., 2014) wheat using hyperspectral imaging. Hyperspectral imaging has also been detect insect-damaged used to mung bean (Kaliramesh et al., 2013) and insect fragments in semolina (Bhuvaneswari et al., 2011) and soybean (Huang et al., 2013; Chelladurai et al., 2014). Soft X-ray imaging technology has been used to detect red flour beetle infestation in wheat. An accuracy of 86% was achieved using textural features with a back-propagation neural network (BPNN) classifier (Karunakaran et al., 2004b). Soft X-ray imaging has also been used to detect internal wheat seed infestation by insects (Karunakaran et al., 2004a) and bug damage in soybean seeds (Pinto et al., 2009). In a recent study, thermal

Table 2. Continued

imaging was used to detect insect infestation in wheat with an accuracy of 77.6% for infested seeds and 83% for healthy seeds (Manickavasagan *et al.*, 2008). A recent study has shown that multispectral imaging can be used for spinach seeds to discriminate uninfected seeds from infected seeds with 80–100% classification rate (Olesen *et al.*, 2011).

Quality assessment of seeds: variety identification and classification

Variety identification and classification of seed species using non-destructive techniques has been extensively investigated by researchers worldwide (Table 3). Machine vision has been used to identify four wheat varieties using morphological features and colour features with an accuracy of 95.86%, which suggests that morphological features are more effective than colour features in recognizing wheat varieties (Arefi et al., 2011). Machine vision has also been used to classify seeds of various species using morphological, colour, textural and wavelet features and to distinguish among species of wheat, barley, oats and rye (Choudhary et al., 2008) and between wheat and barley (Guevara-Hernandez and Gomez-Gil, 2011). Similarly, machine vision has been used to identify nine Iranian wheat seeds based on their varieties, using textural features, with an accuracy of 98.15% (Pourreza et al., 2012) and to recognize five Chinese corn varieties based on their external features (Chen et al., 2010). Machine vision has also been used to identify bean varieties (Venora et al., 2009), discriminate among wheat grain varieties (Zapotoczny, 2011a, 2011b), identify wheat varieties (Zayas et al., 1986; Dubey et al., 2006), classify corn (Jingtao et al., 2012; Pazoki et al., 2013), discriminate among rapeseed varieties (Li et al., 2007; Kurtulmuş and Unal 2015), classify pepper seeds (Kurtulmuş et al., 2016) and classify rice varieties (Rad et al., 2011; Hong et al., 2015). Accuracy is an important evaluation parameter in variety identification; most of these studies have reported highly accurate results, in the range of 85-100%. In addition, machine vision has been shown to exhibit an overall accuracy of greater than 80% in grading maize (Yi et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2013) and soybean (Kılıç et al., 2007). Recently, an electronic nose was used to distinguish among varieties of wheat seeds with an accuracy of 100% (Zhou et al., 2012). Thermal imaging was used in a recent study to identify eight western Canadian wheat varieties. The overall classification accuracies of eight-class model, red-class model (four classes), white-class model (four classes), and pairwise (two-class) model comparisons obtained using a quadratic discriminant method were 76, 87, 79 and 95%, respectively, and those obtained using bootstrap and leave-one-out validation methods were 64, 87, 77 and 91%, respectively

(Manickavasagan et al., 2010). Hyperspectral imaging systems have been used for accurate and reliable discrimination among varieties of maize seeds (Zhang et al., 2012), for classification of four varieties of maize seeds in different years (Huang et al., 2016), for identification of wheat varieties (Choudhary et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2012), for differentiation of wheat classes grown in western Canada (Mahesh et al., 2008) and for differentiation among varieties of rice (Kong et al., 2013). Some of these applications have accuracy achieved a classification 100%. of Hyperspectral imaging has also been used by several researchers for hardness classification of maize (Williams et al., 2009; McGoverin et al., 2011). Recently, hyperspectral imaging has been used to distinguish among transgenic soybeans (Esteve Agelet et al., 2012) and rice (Liu et al., 2014). Similarly, a NIRS technique has been used to distinguish among herbicide-resistant genetically modified soybean seeds (Lee and Choung, 2011). It has also been demonstrated that multispectral imaging technique can be used to distinguish transgenic- from non-transgenic rice seeds (Liu et al., 2014).

Quality assessment of seeds: seed viability

A good-quality seed is one that is capable of germination under various conditions. A non-viable seed is one that fails to germinate even under optimal conditions (Bradbeer, 1988). In recent years, non-destructive techniques, mainly spectroscopy and hyperspectral imaging, have been widely used to predict seed viability (Table 4). A machine vision system was used to predict alfalfa and sativa seed germinability using the RGB (red, green, blue) density value with correlation coefficients of 0.982 and 0.984 for alfalfa and sativa, respectively (Behtari et al., 2014). Researchers have also studied soybean and snap bean seed germinability using electric impedance spectroscopy in the frequency range of 60 Hz to 8 MHz (Vozáry et al., 2007). Recently, spectroscopy has been used to distinguish viable gourd (Min and Kang, 2003), cucumber (Mo et al., 2012), patula pine (Tigabu and Odén, 2003), watermelon and pepper seeds (Lohumi et al., 2013; Seo et al., 2016) from their non-viable counterparts, to assess corn seed viability (Ambrose et al., 2016) and to predict the viability of cabbage and radish seeds (Shetty et al., 2011). Most of these studies have reported accuracies of more than 90% in viable seed identification. Hyperspectral imaging systems have also been used for accurate and reliable discrimination of viable and non-viable seeds of corn (Ambrose et al., 2016), radish (Ahn et al., 2012), watermelon (Bae et al., 2016) and pepper (Mo et al., 2014) with accuracies of 95.6, 95, 84.2 and 99.4%, respectively. Recently, a hyperspectral fluorescence imaging technique was used to extract the

Table 3. Assessment of variety identification and classification in seeds using different non-destructive technique
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Variety classification/			Feature(s)/spectra			
identification	Seed	Method	region (nm)	Analysis method(s)	Result	References
Crading	Boon	Machina wision	Sizo colour	ANINI	60 1 00 3%	Kilic at al 2007
Variety identification	Bean	Machine vision	Morphology		87 1-100%	Venora $at al = 2009$
Variety description	Com	Machine vision	Morphology	MI P and Nouro Euzzu	040/ 060/	Pazoki et al. 2012
variety classification	Com	Wachine vision	shape	MLF and Neuro-Fuzzy	94 /0, 90 /0	razoki <i>el ul.,</i> 2013
Variety identification	Corn	Machine vision	Morphology, colour	SVM	97.3–98%	Jingtao <i>et al.,</i> 2012
Grading	Maize	Machine vision	Morphology	_	81.9%	Yi et al., 2007
Variety identification	Maize	Machine vision	Geometric, shape, colour	BPNN	88–100%	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Grading	Maize	Machine vision	Colour		95%	Wu et al., 2013
Varieties identification	Maize	Hyperspectral imaging	380-1030	PCA, KPCA, LS-SVM, ANN	98.89%	Zhang et al., 2012
Hardness	Maize	Hyperspectral imaging	1000-2500	PCA	$R_{\rm p} = 0.11 - 0.60$	McGoverin and Manley, 2012
Hardness	Maize	Hyperspectral imaging	960–2498	PCA, PLSDA	RMSEP = 0.18, 0.29	Williams et al., 2009
Varieties classification	Maize	Hyperspectral	400-1000	LS-SVM	94.40%	Huang et al., 2016
Varieties discrimination	Pepper	Machine vision	Colour, shape and texture	ANN	84.94%	Kurtulmuş et al., 2016
Variety classification	Rapeseed	Machine vision	Colour	ANN	92.06-100%	Li et al., 2007
Varieties discrimination	Rapeseed	Machine vision	Colour, texture	SVM, KNN	99.24%	Kurtulmus and Ünal. 2015
Varieties classification	Rice	Machine vision	Colour, texture	ANN	96.67%	Rad <i>et al.</i> , 2011
GM, non-GM	Rice	Hyperspectral	405–970	PCA, PLSDA, LS-SVM, PCA-ANN	94–100%	Liu et al., 2014
Variety identification	Rice	Hyperspectral	1039–1612	PLSDA, SIMCA, RF, KNN SVM PCA	80–100%	Kong et al., 2013
Varieties classification	Rice	Machine vision	Morphological, colour, texture	KNN, SVM, RF	90.54%	Hong et al., 2015
GM, non-GM	Soybean	Hyperspectral imaging	880–1720	LW-PCR, PCA-ANN	72–79%	Esteve Agelet et al., 2012b
GM, non-GM	Sovbean	Spectroscopy	400-2500	PCA, PLSDA, SIMCA	97%	Lee and Choung, 2011
Classification	Wheat	Machine vision	Morphology, colour	ANN	95.86%	Arefi <i>et al.</i> , 2011
Classification	Wheat	Machine vision	Texture	LDA	98.15%	Pourreza <i>et al.</i> , 2012
Varieties discrimination	Wheat	Machine vision	Geometric		99–100%	Zapotoczny, 2011b
Variety identification	Wheat	Machine vision	Shape, size	ANN	84–94%	Dubev et al., 2006
Varieties discrimination	Wheat	Machine vision	Texture	PCA, LDA, NDA, ANN	98%	Zapotoczny, 2011a
Variety identification	Wheat	Hyperspectral	850-1700	PCA, SIMCA	90–100%	Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 2012
		imaging				,
Varieties discrimination	Wheat	Electronic nose	_	PCA, LDA, BPNN	100%	Zhou <i>et al.</i> , 2012
Varieties discrimination	Wheat	Thermal imaging	_	QDA	64–95%	Manickavasagan <i>et al.</i> , 2010

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Table 3. Continued						
Variety classification/ identification	Seed	Method	Feature(s)/spectra region (nm)	Analysis method(s)	Result	References
Varieties discrimination	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaøinø	960–1700	LDA, QDA, ANN	96–100%	Mahesh <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Variety identification	Wheat	Hyperspectral imaging	960–1700	PCA, LDA, QDA, ANN	79.9–99.1%	Choudhary et al., 2009
Classification	Wheat, barley	Machine vision	Morphology, colour,	DA, KNN	55-100%	Guevara-Hernandez and
Classification	Wheat, barley, oats, rye	Machine vision	Morphology, colour, texture	LDA, QDA	89.4–99.4%	Choudhary et al., 2008

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fluorescence spectra of cucumber seeds in the 425-700 nm range to discriminate between viable and nonviable cucumber seeds using four types of algorithms. The discrimination accuracies achieved based on the subtraction image, the ratio image and the ratiosubtraction image were 100 and 99.0% for viable and non-viable seeds, respectively (Mo et al., 2015). Hyperspectral imaging has also been used to classify muskmelon seeds based on germination ability with an accuracy of 94.6%, using a PLS-DA classification algorithm (Kandpal et al., 2016). Hyperspectral imaging in the range of 1000-2498 nm was able to predict the viability of barley, wheat and sorghum seed with correlation coefficients of 0.85, 0.92 and 0.87, respectively (McGoverin et al., 2011). Recently, multispectral imaging has been demonstrated to be a potential technique to evaluate castor seed viability with 96% correct classification rate at 19 different wavelengths ranging from 375 to 970 nm (Olesen et al., 2015). Other studies have been conducted, using multispectral imaging to examine germination ability and germ length in spinach seeds; with the use of PLS-DA of images of spinach seeds it was possible to classify large spinach seeds from small-sized and medium-sized seeds (Shetty et al., 2012). Infrared thermography has also been used to predict whether a quiescent seed will germinate or die upon water uptake, and the technique was reported to be able to detect imbibition- and germination-associated biophysical and biochemical changes (Kranner et al., 2010). A similar technique has been used for viability evaluation of lettuce seeds (Kim et al., 2013) and to evaluate germination capacity of leguminous plant seeds (Baranowski et al., 2003).

Summary and future trends

This paper provided an overview of previous studies on seed quality assessment using non-destructive measurement techniques, namely chemical composition (Table 1), insect damage and diseases (Table 2), variety identification and classification (Table 3) and viability (Table 4). Machine vision, spectroscopy, hyperspectral imaging, thermal imaging, electronic nose and soft X-ray imaging are the main techniques to determine seed quality. Among them, spectroscopy and hyperspectral imaging techniques for chemical composition, machine vision, hyperspectral imaging, spectroscopy and soft X-ray imaging for insect and diseases detection, machine vision, thermal imaging and hyperspectral imaging for seed variety identification and classification, and spectroscopy and hyperspectral imaging for viability of seeds has been widely used in research, quality assessment, and for industrial purposes. For this, numerous spectroscopy instruments are commercially available. However, most of the

Application	Seed	Method	Feature(s)/spectra region (nm)	Analysis method(s)	Result	References
Classify based on germination ability	Muskmelon	Hyperspectral imaging	948–2494	PLS-DA	94.60%	Kandpal et al., 2016
Classify the viable and non-viable seeds	Gourd	Spectroscopy	1100–2500	PLS-DA	96%, 95%	Min and Kang, 2003
Classify the viable and non-viable seeds	Cucumber	Raman spectroscopy	$150-1890 \text{ cm}^{-1}$	PLS-DA	100%	Mo et al., 2012
Classify the viable and non-viable seeds	Watermelon	Hyperspectral Imaging	1000–2500	PLS-DA	84.20%	Bae et al., 2016
Discriminate the viable and empty seeds	Patula pine	Spectroscopy	400–2498	PLS model	96%, 88%	Tigabu and Odén, 2003
Discriminate the viable and non-viable seeds	Corn	Hyperspectral Imaging	1000–2500	PLS-DA	95.60%	Ambrose <i>et al.,</i> 2016b
Discriminate the viable and non-viable seeds	Radish	Hyperspectral Imaging	400-1000	PLS-DA	95%	Ahn et al., 2012
Discriminate the viable and non-viable seeds	Pepper	Hyperspectral Imaging	400–700	PLS-DA	99.4%	Mo et al., 2014
Discriminate the viable and non-viable seeds	Watermelon	FT-NIR spectroscopy	1000–2500	PLS-DA	100%	Lohumi et al., 2013
Discriminate the viable and non-viable seeds	Cucumber	Hyperspectral fluorescence imaging	425–700	SWI	99%, 97%	Mo et al., 2015
Discriminate the viable and non-viable seeds	Pepper	FT-NIR spectroscopy, Raman spectroscopy	1400–2400, 1800–970 cm ⁻¹	PLS-DA	99%	Seo et al., 2016
Measure the seed viability	Corn	FT-NIR spectroscopy, Raman spectroscopy	1000–2500, 170–3200 cm ⁻¹	PCA, PLS-DA	100%	Ambrose <i>et al.,</i> 2016a
Predict the viability of seeds	Barley, wheat, sorghum	Hyperspectral Imaging	1000–2498	PCA, PLS-DA	<i>R</i> = 0.85, 0.92, 0.87	McGoverin <i>et al.,</i> 2011
Predict the viability of seeds	Cabbage, radish	Spectroscopy	1100–2500	ECVA, iECVA	Error: 6–8%, 2–3%	Shetty et al., 2011
Predicting the seed germinability Predicting the seed germinability	Alfalfa <i>, Sativa</i> Soybean, snap bean	Machine vision Electrical impedance spectroscopy	RGB density value 60 Hz–8 MHz	-	$R = 0.982, 0.984$ $R^2 = 0.27 - 0.49,$ $0.44 - 0.50$	Behtari <i>et al.</i> , 2014 Vozáry <i>et al.</i> , 2007

Table 4. Assessment of seed viability using different non-destructive techniques

instruments are too expensive to be widely used in practical production. Therefore, one of the main concerns of current researchers is how to decrease the cost while maintaining accuracy of analysis. In contrast, hyperspectral imaging provides both spatial and spectral information and is suitable for both external quality classification and for prediction of internal chemical composition. However, current hyperspectral imaging technology is not widely used compared with spectroscopy. This limitation may be due to the timeconsuming process of hyperspectral imaging to generate a hypercube and the large amount of hyperspectral data. As a new technology that has only been studied for over a decade, hyperspectral imaging has a long way to go before it can be moved from laboratories to practical application. Recently, machine vision techniques have been placed as in-line detection and grading systems in actual production. Generally, a complete detection process for machine vision technique includes image acquisition, image processing and analysis, and formulation of decisions. These steps can be accomplished with only one smart camera, considering the increasing development of electronics and microprocessors. Thermal imaging and soft X-ray imaging are of very limited use in seed quality assessment due to high cost, the requirement of a controlled environment as the precision of this instrument fluctuates with environmental condition. The electronic nose technique is commonly used to determine seed quality during storage because it detects chemical interactions between the substrates over the gas sensors and the aromatic compounds. Electronic noses today generally suffer from significant weaknesses which limit their widespread application in seed quality assessment. Their sensing ability is profoundly influenced by ambient factors that are very critical in seed quality assessment. We should address the rapid development of instruments coupled with the improvement of analysis algorithms to help to promote efficient technologies for the seed quality assessment field.

Conclusions

This paper presents an overview of studies that have shown that non-destructive techniques can be used effectively as reliable and accurate tools for the composition prediction, variety identification and classification, quality grading, damage detection, insect infestation detection and viability and germinability prediction of agricultural seeds. These non-destructive techniques are rapid, accurate, reliable and simple tools for quality assessment of seeds. Given the urgent need of the industry for advanced testing methods and rapid development of suitable technologies and instruments, non-destructive techniques exhibit great potential to be dominant methods for quality assessment of seeds.

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Conflicts of interest

None.

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