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DEEP METRIC LEARNING FOR FEW-SHOT PLANT DISEASES IMAGE CLASSIFICATION

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Abstract: Image classification is a powerful and widely used technique for distinguishing objects across various benchmarks. However, it suffers from several limitations. First, it fails to recognize or adapt to images of unseen categories, making it unsuitable for real-world applications where new categories frequently emerge during testing. Additionally, traditional classification models assume that the training and testing data are drawn from the same distribution, as is the case with most benchmarks. However, in real-word scenarios, even images from the same categories can be captured under different environmental conditions and challenging settings, making a well-trained classification model ineffective when handling out-of-distribution (OOD) data. Few-shot learning comes into play, where few-shot learning models can adapt to unseen categories and generalize better to OOD data using only a small labeled support set during test. In this paper, we present a resource-efficient deep metric learning network for plant leaf disease recognition in few-shot scenarios, addressing real-world challenges, where new diseases may emerge and field conditions can vary significantly. Specifically, we introduce a lightweight triplet network that leverages efficient embedding backbones. We employ MobileNetV2 and MobileViT-S as our network embedding backbones and optimize the network using the triplet loss. Experiments are conducted on the PlantVillage dataset, where the model is trained on 28 categories and evaluated on 10 unseen categories. Using MobileViT-S as the embedding backbone, our approach achieves a top-1 few-shot classification accuracy of 87.18% on the unseen categories.

Keywords: Deep learning, Deep metric learning, Few-shot learning, Lightweight networks, Triplet loss.

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1. Introduction

Plants and crop diseases are one of the key concerns for food security, as crops are considered the main source of food for the world population [1], [2]. Identifying plant diseases at an early stage is essential as it can reduce its harmful effects. Monitoring plant diseases manually can be time-consuming, difficult and error-prune. Deep learning and computer vision have been widely useful in automatically detecting plant diseases, especially in its early stages [3], [4].

Image classification models have demonstrated powerful performance in distinguishing between different categories. However, Image classification comes with various limitations. Image classification models are typically trained with Softmax output layer where the neurons in the output layer correspond to a fixed set of categories. During inference, the model assigns the input image to the category corresponding to the output neuron with the highest probability. This limits the classification model's ability to recognize or adapt to images of unseen categories, making it unsuitable for tasks where new categories frequently emerge during testing, such as person re-identification, retail product recognition and signature verification. Secondly, in most datasets, the training and testing sets are drawn from the same distribution, so a well-trained classification model can achieve very high accuracy on the test set but fails to generalize on out-of-distribution (OOD) data, which is a very common challenge in real-world scenarios.

Motivated by this, Few-Shot learning (FSL) [5] has been developed to address classification tasks with only few labeled examples. It typically aims to mimic the human ability to recognize new objects from just one or a few labeled instances. Various approaches have been proposed to address few-shot recognition tasks, most notably deep metric learning [6], [7], [8] and meta-learning [9], [10].

In plant disease recognition, most available datasets consist of images collected under controlled environments and conditions. For example, PlantVillage dataset [3] is one of the most widely used benchmarks for plant disease classification contains images captured in consistent settings. As a result, training and testing samples are drawn from the same distribution, allowing classification models to achieve high accuracy on the test set but fail to generalize effectively to real-world out-of-distribution agricultural scenarios, where new diseases may emerge and field conditions can vary significantly, and thus motivating the adoption of few-shot learning approaches in our work.

In this work, we introduce a resource-efficient and lightweight deep metric learning approach for few-shot recognition of plant leaf diseases. Specifically, we employ a triplet network that utilizes a lightweight backbone as the embedding model and optimize it using the triplet loss function [6]. We evaluate our approach on the PlantVillage dataset by splitting it into disjoint training and testing sets, with 28 classes used for training and the remaining 10 for testing. Our network employs two lightweight backbone architectures: MobileNetV2 (CNN-based) [11] and MobileViT-S (hybrid) [12]. The performance is assessed under various N-way K-shot settings, with classification accuracy reported using both 1-NN and mean-based strategies, as detailed in the Experiments section. Our approach achieves its best few-shot classification accuracies of 65.02%, 84.01% and 87.18% for the 10-way 1-shot, 10-way 5-shot and 10-way 10-shots settings, respectively, when using MobileViT-S as the embedding backbone along with the 1-NN classification strategy.

In the following sections, we present the structure of the paper. Section 2 provides recent advances in deep metric learning and efficient lightweight backbones and how they are integrated in our work. The proposed approach is discussed in detail in Section 3. Section 4 discussed the implementation details, the utilized datasets as well as the experiments conducted in our research. Lastly, Section 5 provides a conclusion and outlines the future directions.

2. Related Work

2.1. Deep Metric Learning

Deep metric learning aims to encode similarity between instances by learning a representation function that maps data into a non-linear embedding space, where instances of the same category are mapped close together, while instances of different categories are mapped far apart. Deep metric learning approaches take advantage of deep neural network backbones to construct these representative embeddings from input images. These approaches have shown significant success across a variety of real-world applications including face verification [6], [13], [14], [15], person re-identification [16], [17], [18], fashion item retrieval [19], [20] and image retrieval [7], [21], [22]. A variety of loss functions have been proposed to optimize deep metric learning models [23], [6], [24], [25], [18], [26].

2.2. Efficient Lightweight Backbones

Building resource-efficient and lightweight deep neural networks is essential for practical real-world applications, particularly for deployment on embedded and edge devices. Lightweight backbones have been employed in different deep learning tasks including image classification, object detection, image segmentation, and few-shot learning. Efficient convolution neural networks (CNNs) have been focusing not only on achieving high performance on benchmark datasets, but also on developing reliable lightweight models with reduced computational complexity [11], [27], [28], [29], [30], [31]. Meanwhile, Vision Transformers (ViTs) have been effective at capturing long-range dependencies and acquiring global contextual representation compared to CNNs. However, they typically require higher computational cost due to the quadratic complexity associated with the self-attention mechanism. Thus, various work focused on developing efficient lightweight ViTs [32], [33]. Another research direction focused on developing powerful lightweight hybrid models that comprises the benefits of both CNNs and ViTs while being resource efficient [12], [34], [35], [36], [37].

In our work, we strive to optimally combine a powerful deep metric learning approach with an efficient light-weight backbone as an embedding model. Thus, we employ triplet loss as our deep metric learning objective, with different resource-efficient backbones including MobileNetV2 and MobileViT-S.

3. Methodology

In this section, we introduce the overall methodology of our proposed approach. We begin first by giving a brief illustration of the used lightweight backbones, we then revisit the triplet loss formulation, which serves as the foundation of our deep metric learning framework. Then, we describe our proposed lightweight triplet network.

3.1. Lightweight Backbones

3.1.1. MobileNetV2 Backbone

MobileNets [11], [29], [30] are lightweight convolutional neural networks that are designed for resource-constrained and edge devices. They are built primarily based on depthwise separable convolution, which notably reduce computational complexity compared to standard convolutions. The MobileNetV2 variant further introduces inverted residual blocks with linear bottlenecks, making it one of the most widely adopted lightweight CNN backbones across various downstream applications such as image classification, image segmentation, object detection and few-shot learning.

3.1.2. MobileViT Backbone

MobileViT, proposed by Mehta et al. [12], aims to effectively combine the advantages of convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and Vision Transformers (ViTs) to design a lightweight and resource-efficient backbone for mobile and edge vision tasks. Since CNNs are powerful due to their spatial built-in inductive biases. However, they are spatially local and lack the global processing capabilities present in ViTs due to their limited receptive field. On the other hand, ViTs are powerful in learning global representation, but are typically considered heavyweight compared to CNNs. From this pursuit, MobileViT introduces a novel MobileViT block that integrates convolution with transformers to effectively model local and global context. MobileViT models the local information using the MobileNetV2 (MV2) block and models the global information using the MobileViT block which substitutes local processing in convolutions with global processing using the multi-headed self-attention (MHSA) operation [38]. Although MHSA operations generally have quadratic complexity and are considered a key source of computational bottleneck in ViTs. MobileViT applies MHSA only to low-resolution feature maps, significantly reducing computational costs and maintaining lightweight design.

3.2. Triplet Loss

The concept of triplet loss was originally presented by [6]. It is one of the most employed loss functions in deep metric learning. Triplet loss constructs triplets consisting of three instances, an anchor (x), a positive (x^+) and a negative (x^-) . The anchor and positive are sampled from the same class (i.e., share the same label) while the negative is sampled from a different class. Each element in the triplet is fed to a deep neural network to be transformed from the input space to the embedding space, forming f(x), $f(x^+)$ and $f(x^-)$ corresponding to the anchor, positive and negative images, respectively. The triplet loss objective is to decrease the distance between the anchor and positive samples while increasing the distance between the anchor and negative samples. Specifically, it enforces the distance between the feature embeddings of the anchor and positive to be smaller than the distance between the feature embeddings of the anchor and negative with a fixed margin α . The triplet loss is formulated as follows:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{x, x^+, x^- \in T} \max(\|f(x) - f(x^+)\|_2^2 - \|f(x) - f(x^-)\|_2^2 + \alpha, 0)$$
 (1)

 α is a fixed violate margin that determines the minimum distance to be enforced between the anchorpositive and anchor-negative pairs. T denotes a mini-batch of triplets composing $\{x, x^+, x^-\}$. The term $\|\cdot\|_2^2$ refers to the squared Euclidean distance in the embedding space.

3.3. Proposed Approach

Our proposed approach employs the triplet network [6]. The triplet network processes three images as input, an anchor image, a positive image, and a negative image. The anchor and positive images are taken randomly from the same category while the negative is taken from a different category within the training set. Consequently, the three images are fed to a shared embedding network which projects the given images from the input image space to a low-dimensional embedding space. In this space, images from the same category should have embeddings that are close together, whereas images belonging to different categories should be positioned far apart. We adopt the triplet loss function for optimizing our network, which is clearly discussed in the previous section. Prior to computing the triplet loss, the three output embedding vectors are L2-normalized to have unit norm. We utilize lightweight and efficient backbone architectures pre-trained on the ImageNet dataset [39] for building a resource-efficient triplet network. Our proposed lightweight triplet network is given in Figure 1.

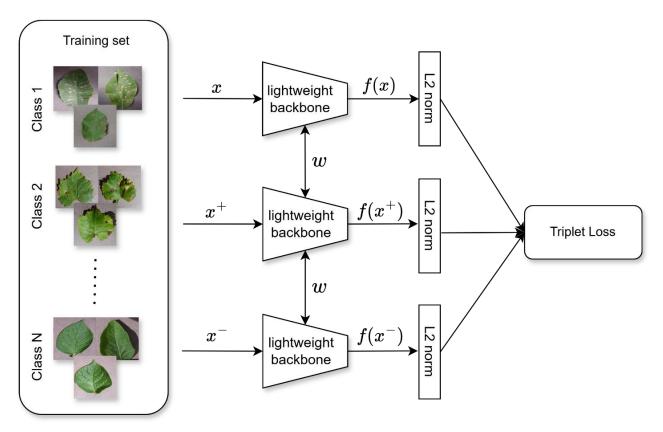


Figure. 1: The architecture of our proposed lightweight triplet network. The weights of the lightweight backbone are shared across all three branches, as depicted in the figure. During the training phase, triplets are formed only from a subset of classes (denoted as N in the figure), while the remaining M classes are left for testing purposes to assess the model's ability to generalize to unseen categories.

4. Experiments and Results

4.1 Implementation Details

Our triplet networks are trained on input images resized to 224×224 resolution over 25 epochs, with a batch size of 32 on the Plant Village dataset. Training is performed with PyTorch on an NVIDIA P100 GPU. We use the Adam optimizer [40] with an initial learning rate of 1e-5 and a StepLR scheduler

which decreases the learning rate by a factor of 0.1 every 8 epochs. In Eq 1., the margin α is set to 1 in our experiments.

4.2. Dataset

The Plant Village dataset [3] is one of the largest and most widely employed datasets for plant disease classification. It comprises 54,303 labeled images of both healthy and diseased plant leaves, belonging to 38 distinct classes, representing diseases across 14 different crop species. We split the dataset into a source domain and a target domain, ensuring that there is no overlap in categories between them. Specifically, the embedding models are trained on 28 categories, while the remaining 10 categories are reserved for testing purposes to assess the network's generalization ability on unseen classes, as provided in Table 1 and Table 2. To maintain a balanced formulation of triplets across training categories, we generate the training triplets by randomly sampling 500 anchor-positive pairs from each class. For each of these pairs, a negative sample is randomly selected from a different category, resulting in a total number of 14000 training triplets. A sample of the constructed triplets from the training categories is depicted in Figure 2.

Figure. 2: Example of the triplets constructed from the training categories



Table 1: The list of categories used for training the proposed triplet network

	Plant Type	Category	
1	Apple	Healthy	
2	Apple	Cedar apple rust	
3	Apple	Black rot	
4	Grape	Healthy	
5	Grape	Leaf blight	
6	Grape	Esca (black measles)	
7	Grape	Black rot	
8	Corn	Healthy	
9	Corn	Cerocospora leaf spot	
10	Corn	Northen leaf blight	
11	Corn	Common rust	
12	Peach	Healthy	
13	Peach	Bacterial Spot	
14	Strawberry	Healthy	
15	Strawberry	Leaf scorch	
16	Cherry	Healthy	
17	Cherry	Powdery mildew	
18	Potato	Healthy	
19	Potato	Early blight	
20	Potato	Late blight	
21	Tomato	Healthy	
22	Tomato	Yellow leaf curl virus	
23	Tomato	Early blight	
24	Tomato	Late blight	
25	Tomato	Mosaic virus	
26	Tomato	Spider mites	
27	Tomato	Target spot	
28	Tomato	Leaf mold	

Table 2: The List of categories used for evaluating the proposed methodology in our experiments.

	Plant Type	Category
1	Apple	Healthy
2	Blueberry	Healthy
3	Orange	Citrus greening
4	Raspberry	Healthy
5	Soybean	Healthy
6	Squash	Powdery mildew
7	Pepper	Healthy
8	Pepper	Bacterial spot
9	Tomato	Bacterial spot
10	Tomato	Septoria leaf spot

4.3. Experimental Results

As stated in the dataset section, we split our data into training and testing sets, denoted as D_{train} and D_{test} , respectively. D_{train} contains categories C_{train} , while D_{test} comprises unseen categories C_{test} . Where D_{train} and D_{test} are non-overlapping in terms of object categories, such that $C_{train} \cap C_{test} = \emptyset$. The D_{train} contains 28 categories while the D_{test} includes the remaining 10 categories which are stated in Table 1 and Table 2. For few-shot learning evaluation, our approach is assessed under standard N-way K-shot settings. Specifically, we conduct experiments using 10-way 1-shot, 10-way 5-shot, and 10-way 10-shot configurations. In our experiments, we fixed the parameter N to 10 which represents the unseen categories in D_{test} . Following common few-shot protocols, we randomly sample K support images from each of the N categories in D_{test} , where the remaining images in D_{test} serving as query samples. Consequently, the total support set size becomes 10, 50, and 100 for K values of 1, 5, and 10, respectively. During testing, the model classifies each query image into one of the N novel classes based on feature embeddings learned by the network, by comparing its embedding to those of the support set for all N categories. In Table 3, we report the computational complexity of lightweight backbones employed in our triplet network, in terms of parameters and floating-point operations (FLOPs).

Table 3: A comparison between MobileNetV2 and MobileViT-S in terms of Params and FLOPs. The Params and FLOPs are recomputed on 224×224 input images, excluding the models' fully connected layers.

Backbone network	# Params	FLOPs
MobileNetV2	3.0M	0.3G
MobileViT-S	5.4M	1.4G

We evaluate and compare the performance of our network using two different lightweight embedding backbones: MobileNetV2 and MobileViT-S. These backbones are evaluated under various N-way K-shot configurations, as previously described. For calculating the test classification accuracy, we use two classification strategies based on the support and query embeddings. First, we apply the 1-nearest neighbor (1-NN) approach, where each query image is assigned to the class of its nearest support embedding among the N test classes. Second, we compute the distance between the query embedding and all K support embeddings for every test class, and the query is then assigned to the class whose support set (comprising K samples) yields the lowest mean distance to the query embedding among all N classes. As observed in Table 4, adopting MobileViT-S as the embedding backbone along with the 1-NN as the classification strategy yields to favorable performance across all evaluation settings. The detailed few-shot classification accuracies for both backbones under various N-way K-shot settings and evaluation strategies (1-NN and mean-based) are reported in Table 4.

Table 4: Few-shot classification performance on the PlantVillage dataset. 10-way here represents the 10 unseen classes within the test set.

Backbone	Classification strategy	10-way 1-shot	10-way 5-shot	10-way 10-shot
MobileNetV2	Mean	55.18%	70.88%	73.34%
MobileNetV2	1-NN	55.18%	74.10%	80.92%
MobileViT-S	Mean	65.02%	82.85%	83.96%
MobileViT-S	1-NN	65.02%	84.01%	87.18%

5. Conclusion

In this work, we introduce a computationally efficient deep metric learning network for few-shot recognition, which leverages a lightweight backbone and is optimized using the triplet loss. we experiment our triplet network with both a lightweight CNN-based backbone (MobileNetV2) and a hybrid backbone (MobileViT-S). One of our experimental observations is that using a hybrid embedding backbone outperforms its CNN-based counterpart in deep metric learning approaches, owing to its global context modeling and input-adaptive weighting mechanisms. The proposed approach achieves a top-1 few-shot classification accuracy of 87.18% on the PlantVillage dataset, demonstrating strong generalization performance on unseen test categories. In future, we plan to investigate alternative efficient embedding backbones, explore various hard-mining strategies to enhance the effectiveness of the triplet loss, and even experiment with different loss functions to further improve model optimization and generalization.

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