

# Edge Detection

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# Edge Detection Overview



- **Introduction**
- Edge detection
- Edge thresholding
- Hough transform
- Edge following algorithms
- Contour detection
- Active Contours
- Neural Edge detection
- Neural Contour detection.

# Introduction

An ***image edge*** can be considered as the border between two homogeneous image regions having different illumination intensities.

Edges are useful for:

- image analysis, object recognition and
- image filtering, image compression.

# Introduction

Edge detectors can be grouped into two classes:

- ***Local techniques*** use operators on local image neighborhoods.
- ***Global techniques*** use global information and filtering methods to extract edge information.

# Edge Detection Overview



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# Edge types



Horizontal image edges

# Edge types



Vertical image edges

# Edge types



Horizontal

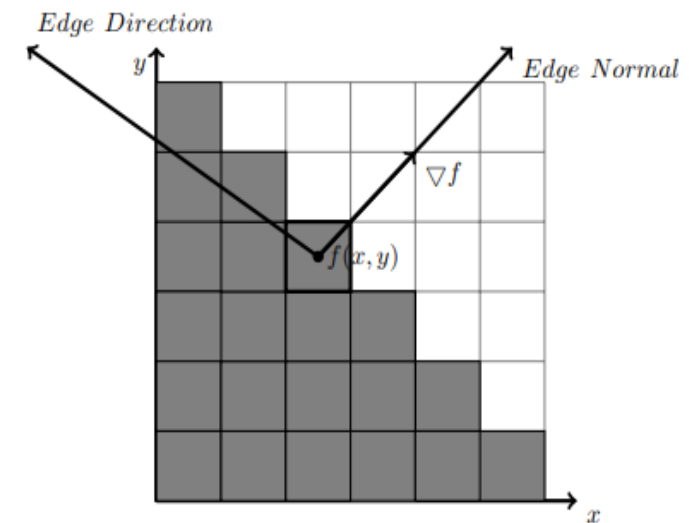
a) Step Edge

b) Ramp Edge



# Edge descriptors

- **Edge normal** is a unit vector in the direction of maximum image intensity change (image grad).
- **Edge direction** is a unit vector perpendicular to edge normal. It can also be described by **edge direction angle**.
- **Edge position or center** is the image position where the edge is located.
- **Edge strength** is related to the local image intensity change along edge normal.



# Edge detection steps

- **Image Smoothing** suppresses as much noise as possible, without destroying true image edges.
  - Image smoothing is a low-pass image operator.
- **Image Enhancement** enhances edge quality, typically by image sharpening.
  - Image sharpening is a high-pass image operator.
- **Edge Detection** retains true edge pixels, while discarding edge noise.
  - Usually, edge thresholding is used for true edge pixel detection.

# Edge detection steps

- **Edge Localization** determines the exact edge location.
  - Sub-pixel edge localization might be required for some applications at a fraction pixel distance, at an e.g.,  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{1}{8}$  pixel resolution.
- **Edge thinning** reduces edge width possibly to 1 pixel.
- **Edge linking** connects broken edge segments.

# Edge detection

- Edge detection is typically a ***local image differentiation*** of the 2D signal  $f(x, y)$  along  $x, y$  image directions.
- Local image differentiation techniques can produce edge detector operators.

# Edge detection

***Image intensity gradient:***

$$\nabla f(x, y) \triangleq \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right]^T \triangleq [f_x \quad f_y]^T.$$

***Gradient magnitude*** can be used as edge detector:

$$e(x, y) = \sqrt{f_x^2(x, y) + f_y^2(x, y)}.$$

# Edge detection

- It can be used as a measure of edge strength.
- Alternatives to be used for fast calculation:

$$e(x, y) = |f_x(x, y)| + |f_y(x, y)|.$$

***Edge direction angle:***

$$\varphi(x, y) = \arctan\left(\frac{f_y}{f_x}\right).$$

# Edge detection

Gradient estimates can be obtained by using **gradient operators** of the form:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{f}_x &= \mathbf{w}_1^T \mathbf{x}, \\ \hat{f}_y &= \mathbf{w}_2^T \mathbf{x}.\end{aligned}$$

- $\mathbf{x}$ : local  $M \times M$  image neighborhood pixel vector.
  - Typically,  $3 \times 3$  image neighborhoods are used.
- $\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2$ : **gradient masks** (weight vectors) having  $M \times M$  entries.

# Edge detection

**Gradient masks** examples:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Prewitt edge detector** masks.

**Sobel edge detector** masks.

- They can be used for horizontal (left) or vertical (right) edge detection.
- No or trivial (by 2) multiplications are involved.



# Edge detection

**Edge templates** are masks that can be used to detect edges along different edge directions.

- Such masks of size  $3 \times 3$  are:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Kirsch edge detector** masks.

- They detect horizontal ( $0^\circ$ ), vertical ( $90^\circ$ ),  $45^\circ$ ,  $135^\circ$  image edges.

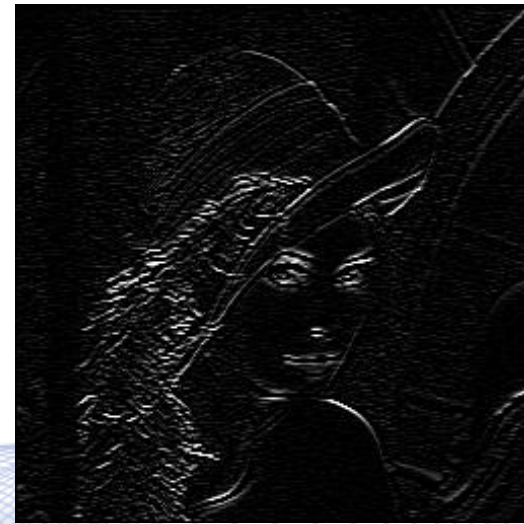
# Edge detection

All templates are applied to each image pixel. The template that produces the maximal output is the winner:

$$e(x, y) = |\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x}|, \quad \text{if } |\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x}| \geq |\mathbf{w}_j^T \mathbf{x}|, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

- $\mathbf{w}_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  is the weight vector associated with each template.
- The corresponding output  $|\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x}|$  is a measure of confidence of the edge detector output (edge strength).

# Edge detection



a) Lenna image; b) Sobel edge detector output ; c) horizontal edges; d) vertical edges.

# Edge detection

Edge detection using the **Laplace operator** :

$$\nabla^2 f(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}.$$

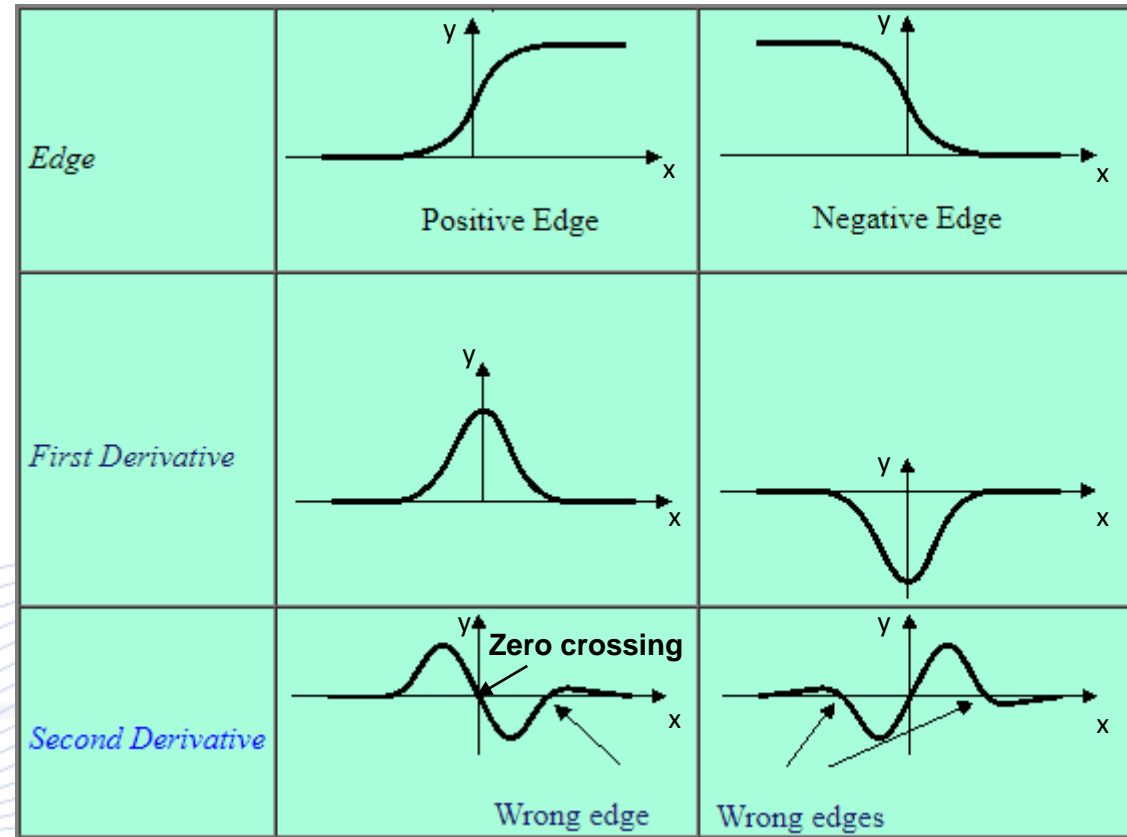
- Edges correspond to large image changes producing:
  - Maxima or minima of first-order image derivatives.
  - Zero-crossings of second-order image derivatives.
- Laplace operator can be numerically approximated:

$$\nabla^2 f(x, y) \cong f(x, y) - \frac{1}{4}[f(x, y + 1) + f(x, y - 1) + f(x + 1, y) + f(x - 1, y)]$$

to find zero-crossing image locations.

# Edge detection

$$y = f(x)$$



First and second order differentiation. Zero crossings [DECETI].

# Edge detection



- Differentiation is a high-pass operator, enhancing noise.
- Second-order differentiation tends to enhance image noise too much.
- The Laplacian operator creates several false edges, especially in areas where the image variance is small.
- Methods to reduce its noise sensitivity:
  - ***Laplacian-of-Gaussian (LoG)*** performs low-pass Gaussian filtering before differentiation.
  - Consider zero-crossings only in areas, where the local image variance  $\sigma^2(i, j)$  is large.

# Edge detection

**Laplacian-of-Gaussian (LoG)** HVS model  $\nabla^2 G(x, y)$ :

- $G(x, y)$  is a low-pass Gaussian function:

$$G(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x^2 + y^2)\right\}.$$

- Laplacian operator  $\nabla^2 f(x, y)$  is a **2D high-pass filter**.
- LoG operator is given by:

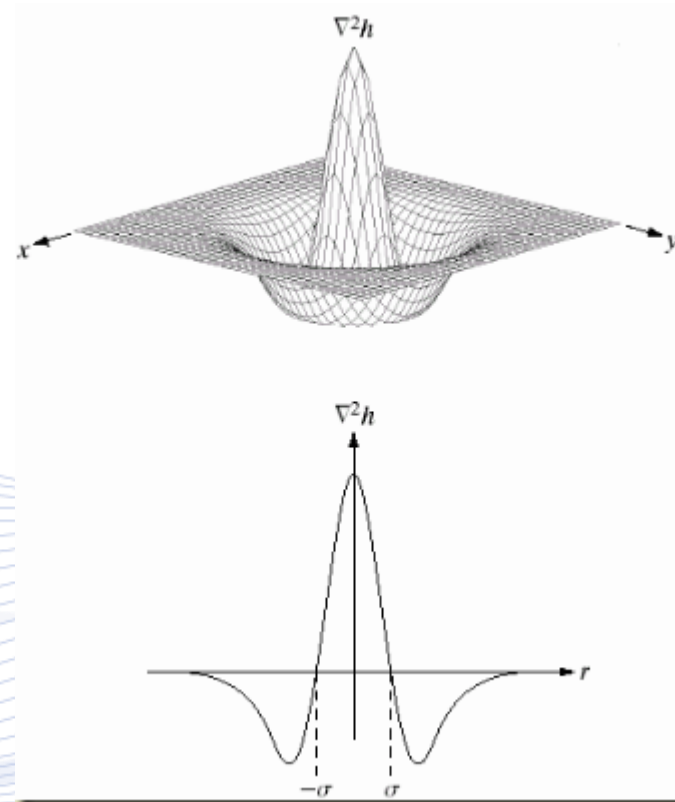
$$\nabla^2 G(x, y) = -\frac{1}{\pi\sigma^4} \left(1 - \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x^2 + y^2)\right\}.$$

# Edge detection

- LoG has ***band-pass*** frequency characteristics.
- It can smooth noise and perform edge detection.
- 2D LoG has the shape of a ***Mexican sombrero***.
- It models well retina ***ganglion receptive fields***.



# Edge detection



Negative LoG function [LOG].

# Canny edge detector



- This is probably the most widely used edge detector in computer vision.
- Canny has shown that the first derivative of a Gaussian filter kernel closely approximates the operator that optimizes the product of signal-to-noise ratio and localization.
- This analysis is based on step edges corrupted by additive Gaussian noise.

# Canny edge detector

- Image smoothing can be performed by applying a **Gaussian filter**  $G(x, y)$ :

$$f(x, y) = i(x, y) ** G(x, y),$$

where  $G(x, y)$  is the Gaussian kernel function:

$$G(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x^2 + y^2)\right\}$$

and **\*\*** denotes 2D convolution.

# Canny edge detector

- The partial derivatives  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  are given by:

$$f_x = \frac{\partial(i**G)}{\partial x} = i(x,y)**\frac{\partial G}{\partial x}(x,y) = i(x,y)**G_x(x,y),$$

$$f_y = \frac{\partial(i**G)}{\partial y} = i(x,y)**\frac{\partial G}{\partial y}(x,y) = i(x,y)**G_y(x,y).$$

Differentiation property:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(f ** g) = \frac{df}{dx} ** g + f ** \frac{dg}{dx}$$

# Canny edge detector

- $G_x(x, y), G_y(x, y)$  are the partial derivatives of  $G(x, y)$  with respect to  $x, y$ :

$$G_x(x, y) = \frac{-x}{\sigma^2} G(x, y)$$

$$G_y(x, y) = \frac{-y}{\sigma^2} G(x, y).$$

- Compute the gradient magnitude:

$$e(x, y) = \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2}.$$

- Apply non-maxima suppression.
- Apply hysteresis thresholding/edge linking.

# Edge detection

- Local *data dispersion* measures can be used as edge detector.
- **Local variance**  $\sigma^2(i, j)$  in a  $M \times M$ ,  $M = 2\nu + 1$  **image neighborhood (image window)**:

$$\sigma^2(i, j) = \frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{k=i-\nu}^{i+\nu} \sum_{l=j-\nu}^{j+\nu} [f(k, l) - \bar{f}(i, j)]^2,$$

$$\bar{f}(i, j) = \frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{k=i-\nu}^{i+\nu} \sum_{l=j-\nu}^{j+\nu} f(k, l).$$

# Edge detection

- ***Local image range:***

$$w(k, l) = \max_A \{f(k, l)\} - \min_A \{f(k, l)\}$$

- ***A: Local  $M \times M$  image window.***

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# Edge thresholding

When the edge detector output is large, a local edge is present. This can be found by ***thresholding***:

$$E(i, j) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } e(i, j) \geq T, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- Threshold  $T$  can be chosen using edge detector output histogram, so that it exceeds only a small percentage of edge pixels.
- Thresholding is global.
- Edge detector output thresholding produces a binary image.

# Edge thresholding

- Global thresholding may produce thick edges in one region and thin or broken edges in another region. Thus, locally adapted thresholding is desirable.
- A heuristic adaption technique is to calculate the local arithmetic mean of the edge detector output:

$$\bar{e}(i, j) = \frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{k=i-\nu}^{i+\nu} \sum_{l=j-\nu}^{j+\nu} e(k, l)$$

and to use it in the threshold calculation:

$$T(i, j) = \bar{e}(i, j)(1 + p).$$

- $p$  is a percentage indicating the level of the thresholding above the local arithmetic mean.

# Edge Detection Overview



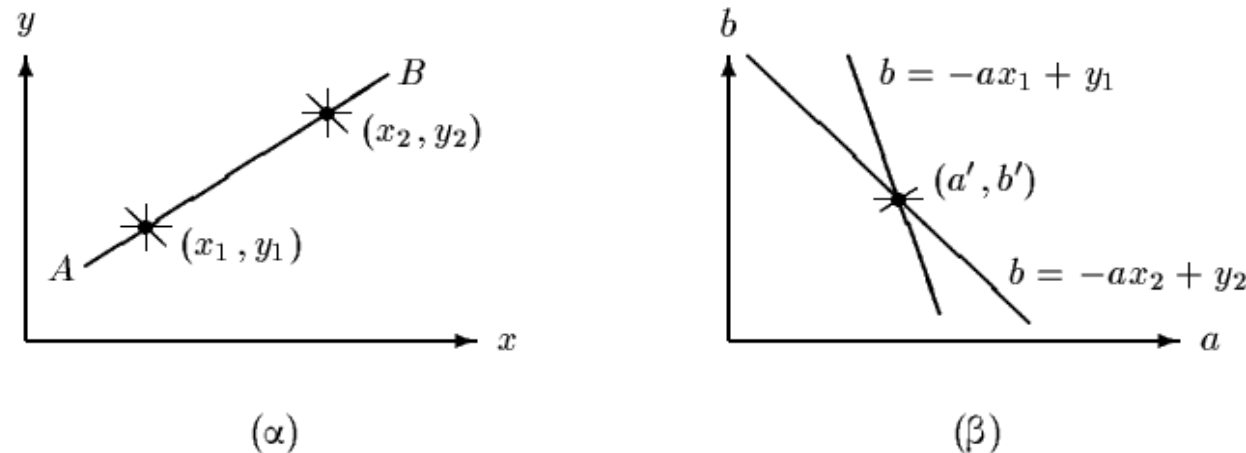
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# Hough transform

**Hough Transform** uses a parametric description of simple geometrical shapes (curves), in order to reduce the computational complexity of the search space.

- The parametric description a straight line is a linear equation:

$$y = ax + b.$$



a) Image plane; b) parameter space.

# Hough transform

Hough transform for straight line detection:

- The parameter space is discretized to form a parameter matrix  $P(\alpha, b)$ ,  $a_1 \leq \alpha \leq a_k$ ,  $b_1 \leq b \leq b_k$ .
- For every pixel  $[x_i, y_i]^T$  that possesses value 1 at the binary edge detector output, the equation  $b = -\alpha x_i + y_i$  is formed.
- For every parameter value  $\alpha$ ,  $a_1 \leq \alpha \leq a_k$ , the corresponding parameter  $b$  is calculated and the appropriate parameter matrix element (**bin**)  $P(\alpha, b)$  is increased by 1:

$$P(\alpha, b) = P(\alpha, b) + 1.$$

- This process is repeated until the entire binary image is scanned.

# Hough transform



- The parametric model has difficulties in representing vertical straight lines, because parameter  $a$  must tend to infinity.
- A ***polar representation*** of a straight line can be used instead :

$$r = x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta$$

- It describes a line having the orientation  $\theta$  at the distance  $r$  from the origin.
- For a binary image of size  $N_1 \times N_2$ :

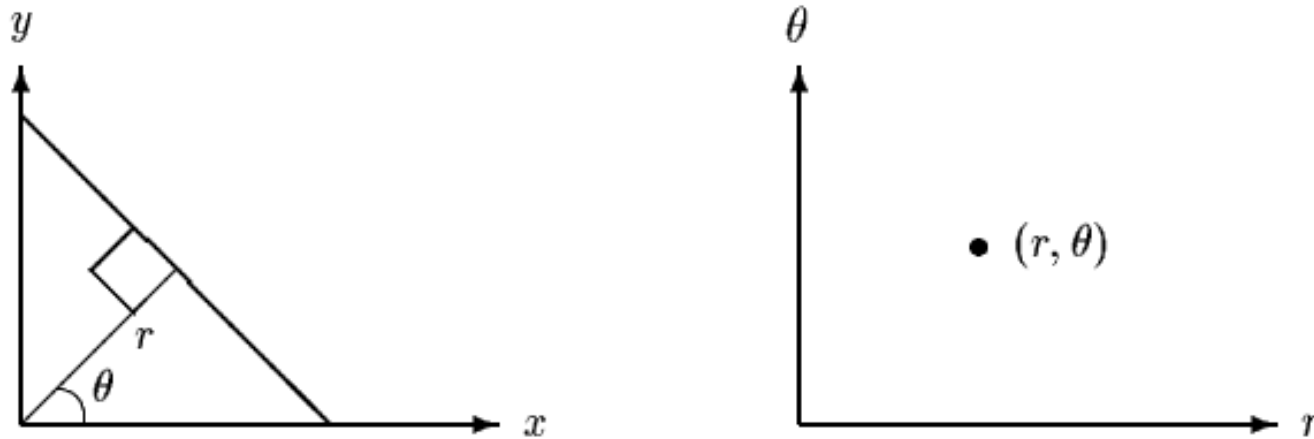
$$-\sqrt{N_1^2 + N_2^2} \leq r \leq \sqrt{N_1^2 + N_2^2},$$
$$-\pi/2 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2.$$

# Hough transform

The same Hough transform algorithm can be used by employing the model:

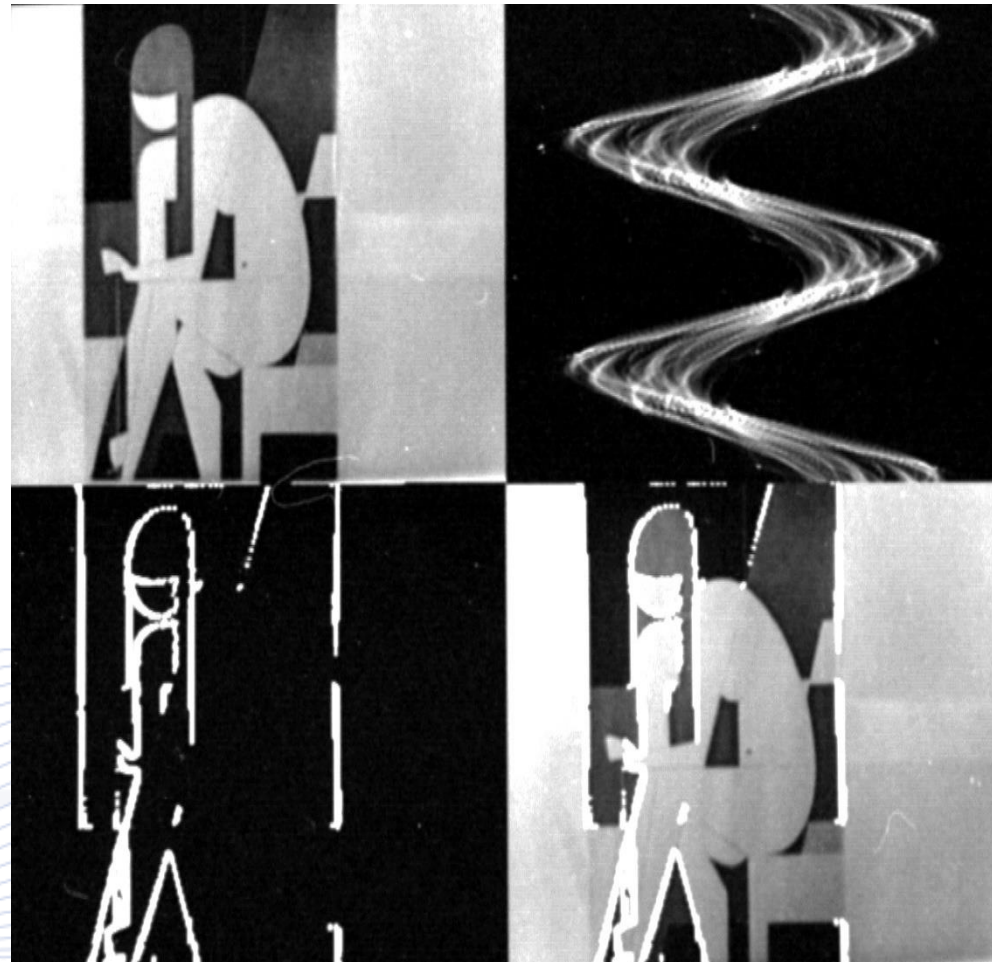
$$r = x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta$$

using a parameter matrix  $P(r, \theta)$ .



a) Polar straight-line representation on the image plane; b) parameter space.

# Hough transform



Upper row: a) Original image; b) Hough polar parameter space;  
Lower row: c) detected straight lines; d) lines overlaid on original image.



# Hough transform

- Local edge direction can be used in the Hough Transform calculation, by reducing a 2D search to a 1D search.
- If both sides of  $r = x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta$  are differentiated with respect to  $x$ , the following equation gives the line gradient:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\cos \theta = \tan \left( \frac{\pi}{2} + \theta \right),$$
$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{2} - \varphi.$$

- $\varphi$ : local edge direction.
- The use of the edge gradient reduces the computational complexity of the Hough Transform to the order  $O(N)$ .

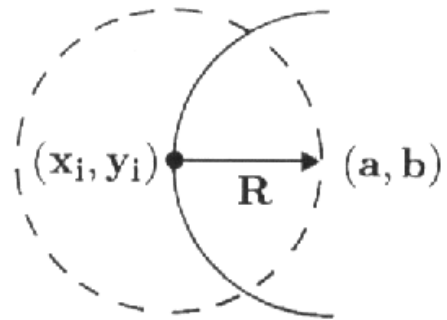
# Hough transform

- Hough Transform can be generalized to detect any parametric curves of the form  $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) = 0$ , where  $\mathbf{a}$  is the parameter vector.
- The memory required for the parameter matrix  $P(\mathbf{a})$  increases as  $K^p$ , where  $p$  is the parameter number.
- This method is practical only for curves having a small number of parameters, e.g., for circles:

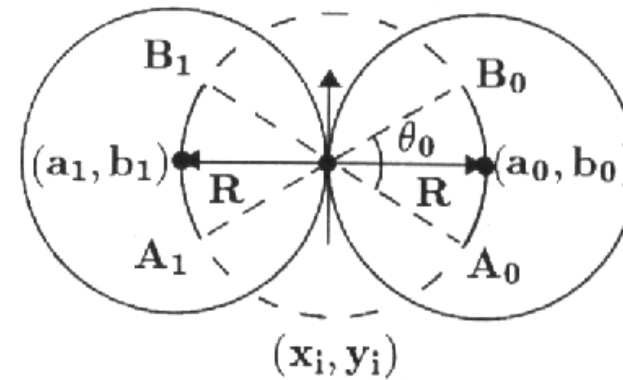
$$(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 = r^2.$$

- Its parameters are the radius  $r$  and the center coordinates  $(a, b)$ .
- A 3D parameter matrix  $P(r, a, b)$  is needed.

# Hough transform



(α)



(β)

a) Locus of circle centers that traverse  $[x_i, y_i]^T$ ; b) Locus of circle centers that traverse  $[x_i, y_i]^T$  and are tangent to local edge.

# Hough transform



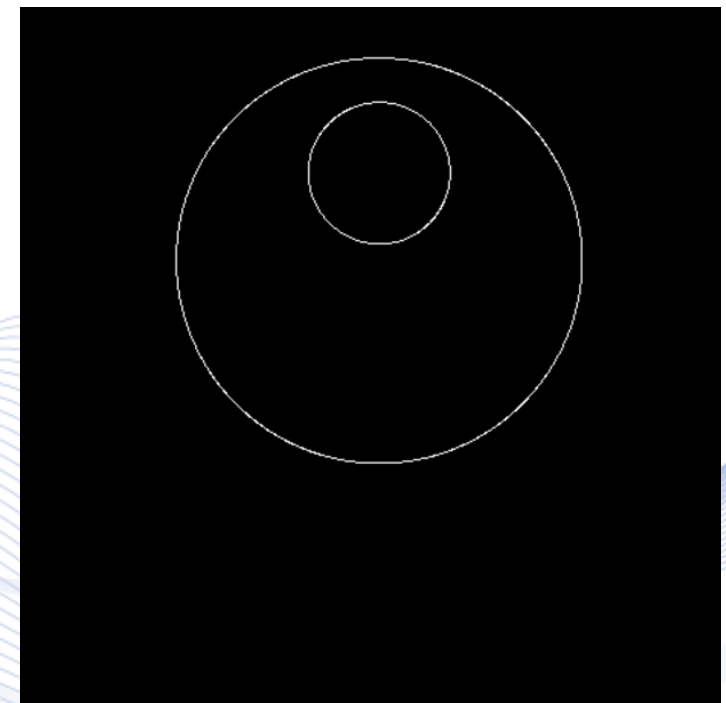
## *Hough Transform for circles*

Let  $[x_i, y_i]^T$  be a candidate binary edge image pixel. A circle of radius  $r = R$  having center  $(a, b)$  and passing through  $[x_i, y_i]^T$  is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}x_i &= a + R \cos \theta, \\y_i &= b + R \sin \theta.\end{aligned}$$

- For any radius  $r$ ,  $0 < r \leq r_{max}$ , the coordinates  $(a, b)$  are calculated and the corresponding matrix  $P(a, b, r)$  elements increase by one.
- These points belong to a cone surface.
- This process is repeated for any eligible pixel of the binary edge detector output.

# Hough transform



Hough Transform in Byzantine iconography analysis.

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# Edge-following algorithms



**Boundary-following** algorithms follow the local edge elements, ensuring local edge continuity.

**Edge continuity** features:

- $e(\mathbf{x}) = e(x, y)$ : edge magnitude at location  $\mathbf{x} = [x, y]^T$ .
- $\varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \varphi(x, y)$ : edge direction.
- $|e(\mathbf{x}_i) - e(\mathbf{x}_j)|$ : similarity measure for neighboring edge magnitude.
- $|\varphi(\mathbf{x}_i) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}_j)|$ : direction difference similarity measure.

# Edge-following algorithms

Two neighboring edge pixels can be linked (for edge following), if:

$$\begin{aligned}
 |e(\mathbf{x}_i) - e(\mathbf{x}_j)| &\leq T_1, \\
 |\varphi(\mathbf{x}_i) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}_j)| \bmod 2\pi &\leq T_2, \\
 |e(\mathbf{x}_i)| &\geq T, \quad |e(\mathbf{x}_j)| \geq T.
 \end{aligned}$$

- Edges do not change magnitude and/or direction abruptly.
- Small edge magnitude pixels should not be mistaken as edge elements to be followed.

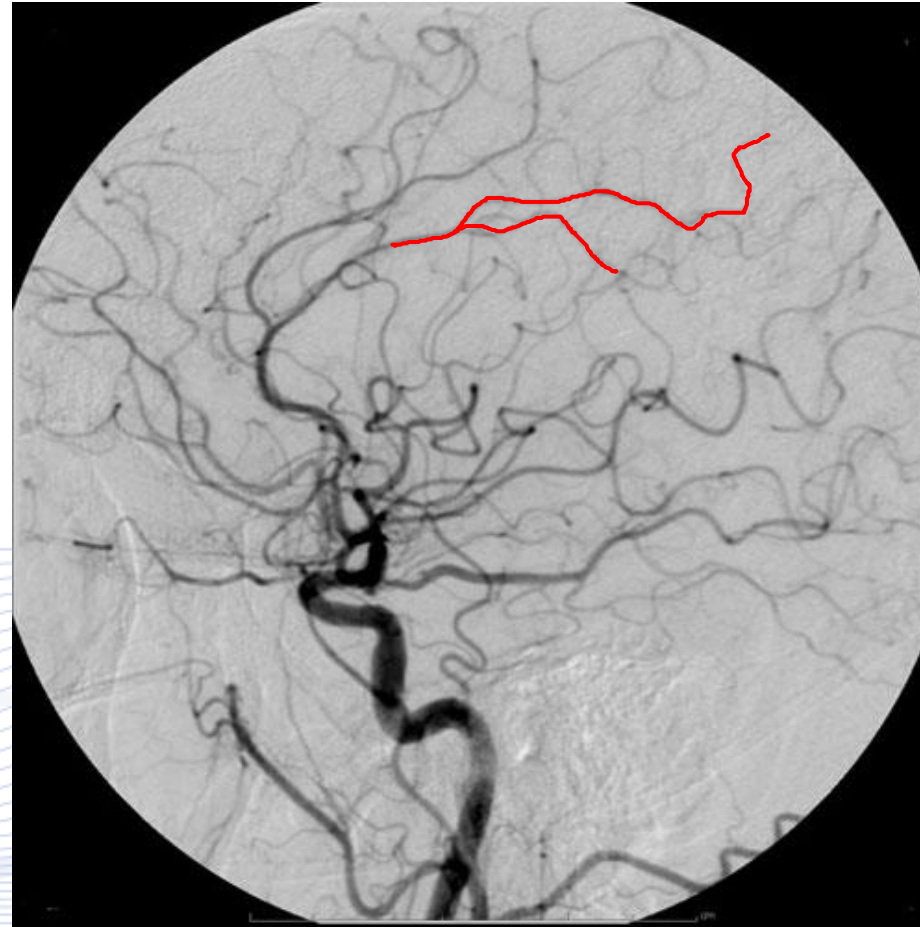


# Edge-following algorithms

**Heuristic edge following** uses the previous constraints:

- Edge following starts from an edge pixel  $\mathbf{x}_A$ , satisfying  $|e(\mathbf{x}_A)| \geq T$ .
- If no neighboring edge pixel satisfies all inequalities, the algorithm stops.
- If more than one neighbor satisfies them, edge pixel  $\mathbf{x}_N$  that possesses the minimal differences  $|e(\mathbf{x}_N) - e(\mathbf{x}_A)|$ ,  $|\varphi(\mathbf{x}_N) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}_A)|$  is chosen.
- The procedure continues recursively, with the new edge pixel  $\mathbf{x}_N$  as a starting element.

# Edge-following algorithms

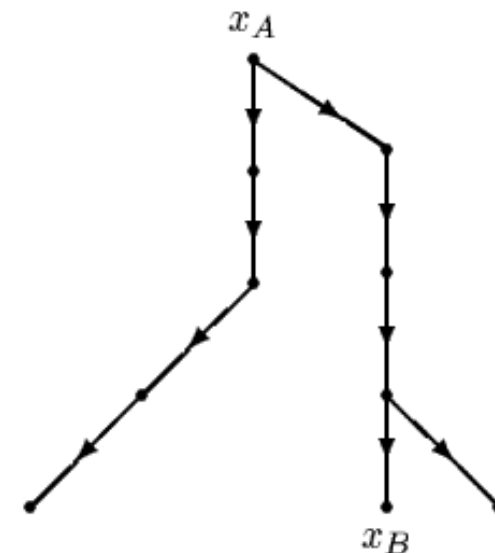
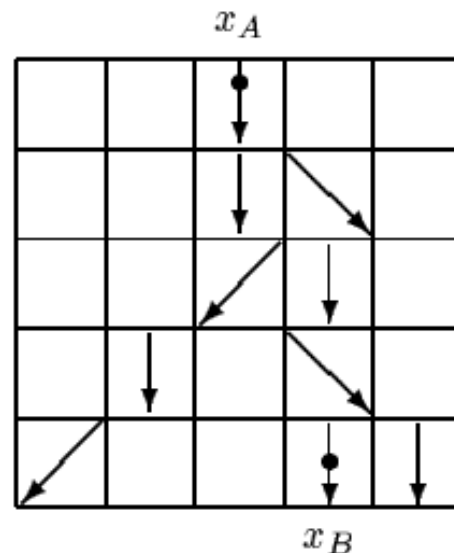


Heuristic contour following in subtractive angiography [Wikipedia].

# Edge-following algorithms

Edge following can be based on **graph search**:

- Edge elements at position  $x_i$  can be considered as graph nodes.
- The nodes are connected to each other, if local edge linking rules are satisfied.



# Edge-following algorithms

- Let us suppose we form a **cost function**  $C(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)$  for a path connecting nodes  $\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_A$  to  $\mathbf{x}_N = \mathbf{x}_B$ :

$$C(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N) \\ \triangleq - \sum_{k=1}^N |e(\mathbf{x}_k)| + a \sum_{k=2}^N |\theta(\mathbf{x}_k) - \theta(\mathbf{x}_{k-1})| + b \sum_{k=2}^N |e(\mathbf{x}_k) - e(\mathbf{x}_{k-1})|.$$

- The heuristic graph search algorithm tries to produce a minimum cost path from  $\mathbf{x}_A$  to  $\mathbf{x}_B$ .
- The algorithm is based on the cost function and on the choice of the successors of a node  $\mathbf{x}_i$ , by using edge linking criteria.

# Edge-following algorithms

Basic disadvantages of the heuristic graph search algorithm:

- The need to keep track of all current best paths.
- Short paths (close to the origin) may have smaller cost than longer paths that are more likely to be the final winners.

# Edge-following algorithms

Edge following based on ***dynamic programming***:

- The optimal path between two nodes  $\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B$  of an edge graph consists of optimal subpaths for any node lying on it.
- Thus, the optimal path between two nodes  $\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B$  can be split into two optimal subpaths  $\mathbf{x}_A \mathbf{x}_i$  and  $\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_B$  for any  $\mathbf{x}_i$  lying on the optimal path  $\mathbf{x}_A \mathbf{x}_B$ .
- Following objective function to be maximized:

$$F(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N) = \sum_{k=1}^N |e(\mathbf{x}_k)| - a \sum_{k=2}^N |\theta(\mathbf{x}_k) - \theta(\mathbf{x}_{k-1})|$$

# Edge-following algorithms

- Start and target nodes:  $\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_A$  and  $\mathbf{x}_N = \mathbf{x}_B$ .
- The target function  $F$  can be written:

$$F(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N) = F(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{k-1}) + f(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{x}_k),$$

where:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{x}_k) = |e(\mathbf{x}_k)| - a|\theta(\mathbf{x}_k) - \theta(\mathbf{x}_{k-1})|.$$

# Edge-following algorithms

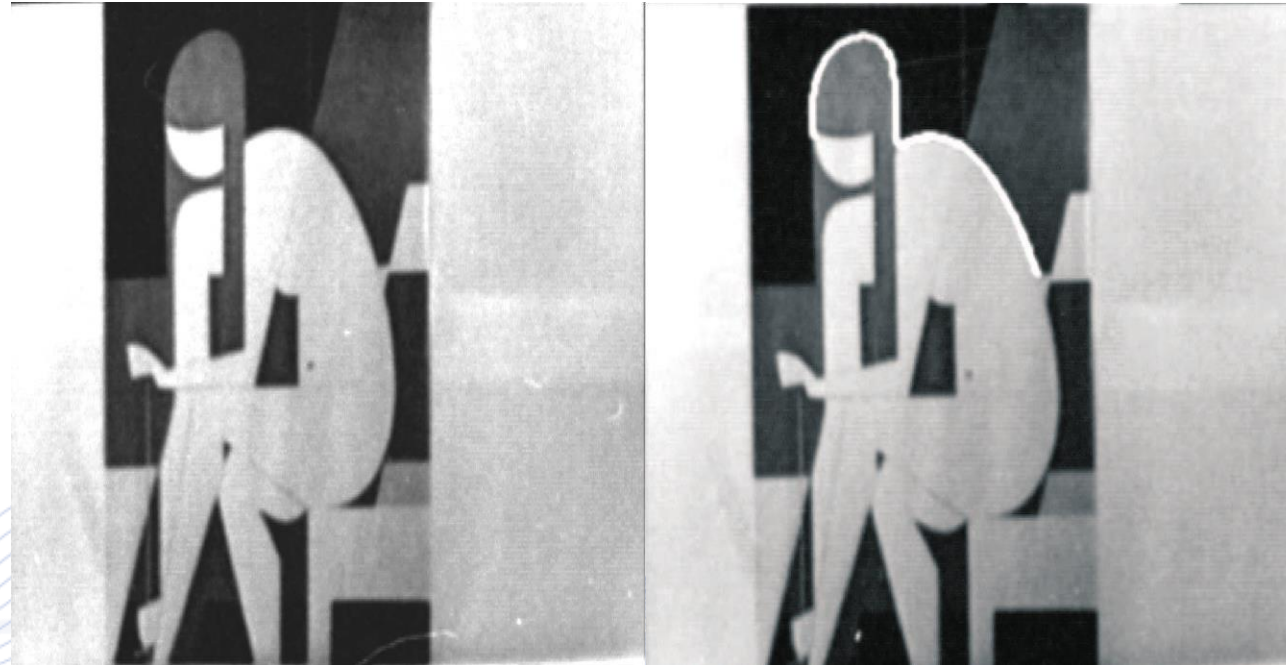
- The optimal path  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_1 \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k$  can be divided into two optimal paths  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_1 \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k$  that satisfy the following relation:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{F}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_1, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k) &= \max_{\mathbf{x}_i, i=1, \dots, k} F(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k) = \\ &= \max_{\mathbf{x}_i, i=1, \dots, k} \{F(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{k-1}) + f(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{x}_k)\} = \\ &= \max_{\mathbf{x}_k} \{\hat{F}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_1, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1}) + f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k)\}. \end{aligned}$$

- The initial value of  $\hat{F}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_1)$  is given by:  $\hat{F}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_1) = |e(\mathbf{x}_1)|$ .
- $N$  independent optimization steps: In every step, we are looking for nodes  $\mathbf{x}_k$  such that the objective function  $\hat{F}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_1, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k)$  to be maximized.



# Edge-following algorithms



Edge following based on dynamic programming: a) original image; b) edge following result.

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# Contour detection



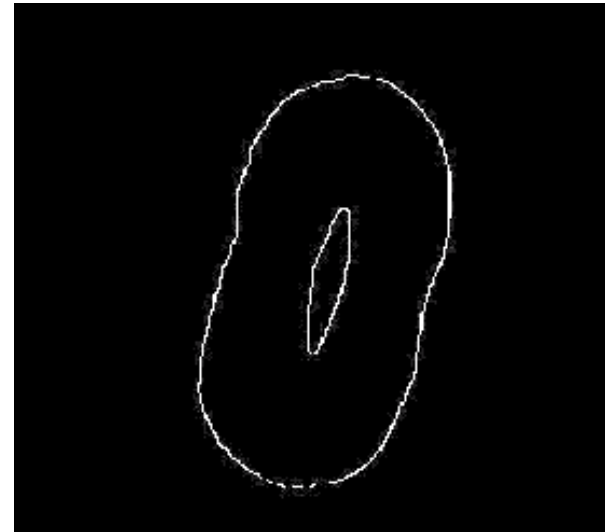
- Edge detection aims at detecting characteristic image changes in image intensity and/or color.
- An **object contour** is a typically closed curve enclosing all image object pixels , i.e., image pixels having same color or intensity or texture.
- **Contour detection** aims to find pixel label changes at the border between two image objects.
  - Typically, a binary classifier determines whether an image pixel belongs to a contour.

# Contour detection

- Contour detection is more difficult than edge detection.
- It is useful for shape analysis and object recognition.
- Simplest contour description: ordered list of contour pixels  $[x_i, y_i]^T, i = 1, \dots, N$ .



# Contour following



a) Tooth cross-section mosaic; b) tooth and oral cavity contour following.

# Contour following algorithms



- Binary valued digital image  $\mathcal{X}$ .
- A pixel  $\mathbf{x}$  is equaled to one when it belongs to the pattern (black pixel) or zero when it is part of the background (white pixel).
- **Contour**: list of black pixels that are **connected** to each other (forming pixel sequence  $\mathcal{B}$ ).
  - Types of contour pixel: 4-border and 8-border.

# Contour following algorithms



## ***Square Tracing Algorithm***

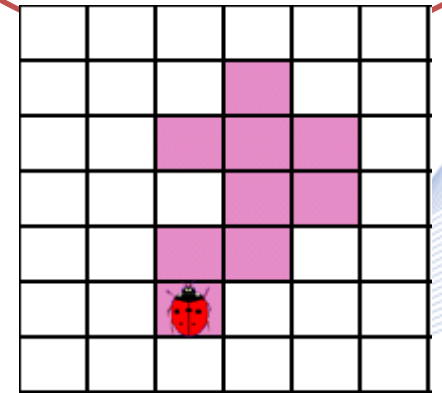
- It is one of the first attempts to extract the contour of a binary pattern.
- Input: A binary image  $\mathcal{X}$ , containing one object (connected component)  $\mathcal{P}$  of black pixels in a background of white pixels.
- Output: A sequence  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  of contour pixels.
- At algorithm start, set  $\mathcal{B}$  as empty.

# Contour following algorithms

## Square Tracing Algorithm

- Start at **starting pixel  $p$** : Scan each pixel column from bottom to top and left to right, until encounter a black pixel  $x$  belonging to  $\mathcal{P}$  and insert  $x$  in  $\mathcal{B}$ . The starting pixel  $p$  is  $x$  and the current pixel  $x$  is the left to the previous one.
- If you find black pixel  $x$ , turn left and if you find a white one, turn right in a square clockwise motion until you find a black pixel  $x$  again.

On a black pixel, turn left, on a white pixel, turn right..



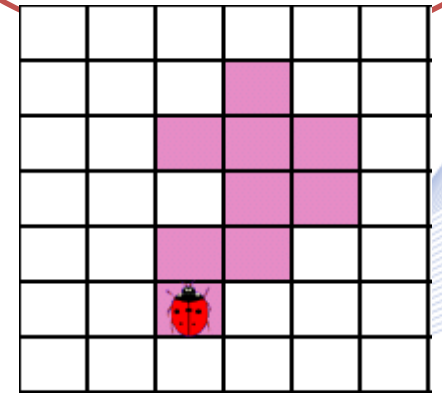
[GHU2000]



# Contour following algorithms

- The algorithm stops when you encounter the starting pixel again.
- The black pixels you walked over will be the contour of the pattern.

On a black pixel, turn left, on a white pixel, turn right..

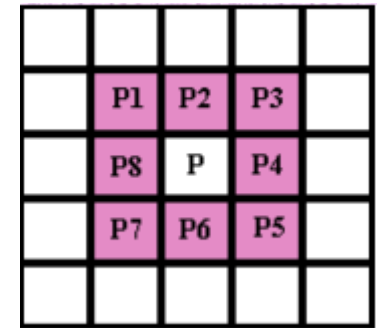


[GHU2000]

# Contour following algorithms

## *Moore-Neighbor Tracing Algorithm*

- **Moore neighborhood** of a pixel  $p$  is the set of 8 pixels  $M = \{p_1, \dots, p_8\}$ , which shares a vertex or edge with that pixel.
- Input: A binary image  $\mathcal{X}$ , containing one object (connected component)  $\mathcal{P}$  of black pixels in a background of white pixels.
- Output: A sequence  $\mathcal{B} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\}$  of contour pixels.



[GHU2000]

# Contour following algorithms

- At algorithm start, set  $\mathcal{B}$  as empty.
- Start at **starting pixel  $p$**  : Scan each pixel of  $\mathcal{P}$  from bottom to top and left to right until encounter a black pixel  $x$ . The starting pixel  $p$  is  $x$  and the current pixel is the white pixel next to it which belongs to  $M$ .
- Insert the starting pixel to  $\mathcal{B}$ .

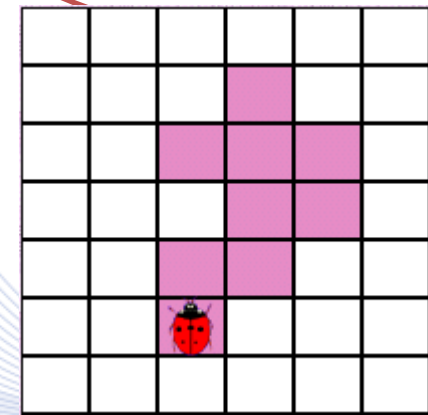


[GHU2000]

# Contour following algorithms

- If  $x$  is a black pixel, let this pixel be the starting pixel  $p$  and until we find a black pixel  $x$  again, define as the current pixel the white pixel next to it which belongs to Moore neighborhood  $M$ . This continues, until the starting pixel is visited for a second time.
- The walked over black pixels will be the object contour.

Every time you hit a black pixel, backtrack, go around pixel in a clockwise direction until you hit a black pixel.

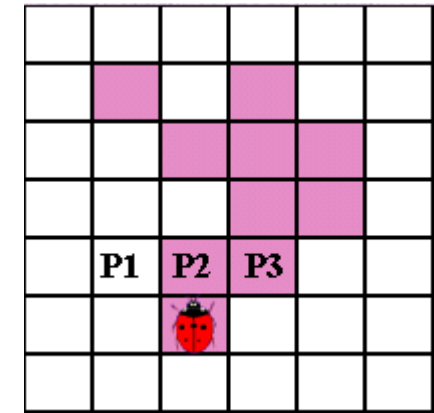


[GHU2000]

# Contour following algorithms

## *Theo Pavlidis' Algorithm*

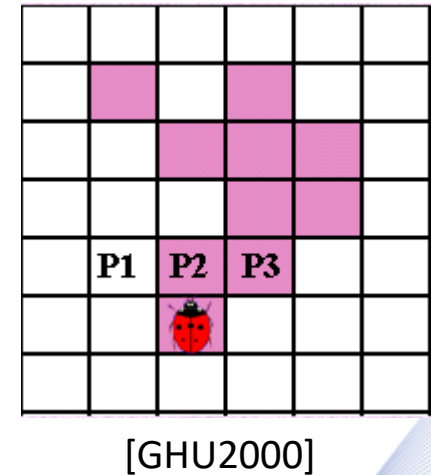
- Let 3 image pixels be denoted by:  $\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3$ .
- Input: A binary image  $\mathcal{X}$ , containing one object (connected component)  $\mathcal{P}$  of black pixels in a background of white pixels.
- Output: A sequence  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  of contour pixels.



[GHU2000]

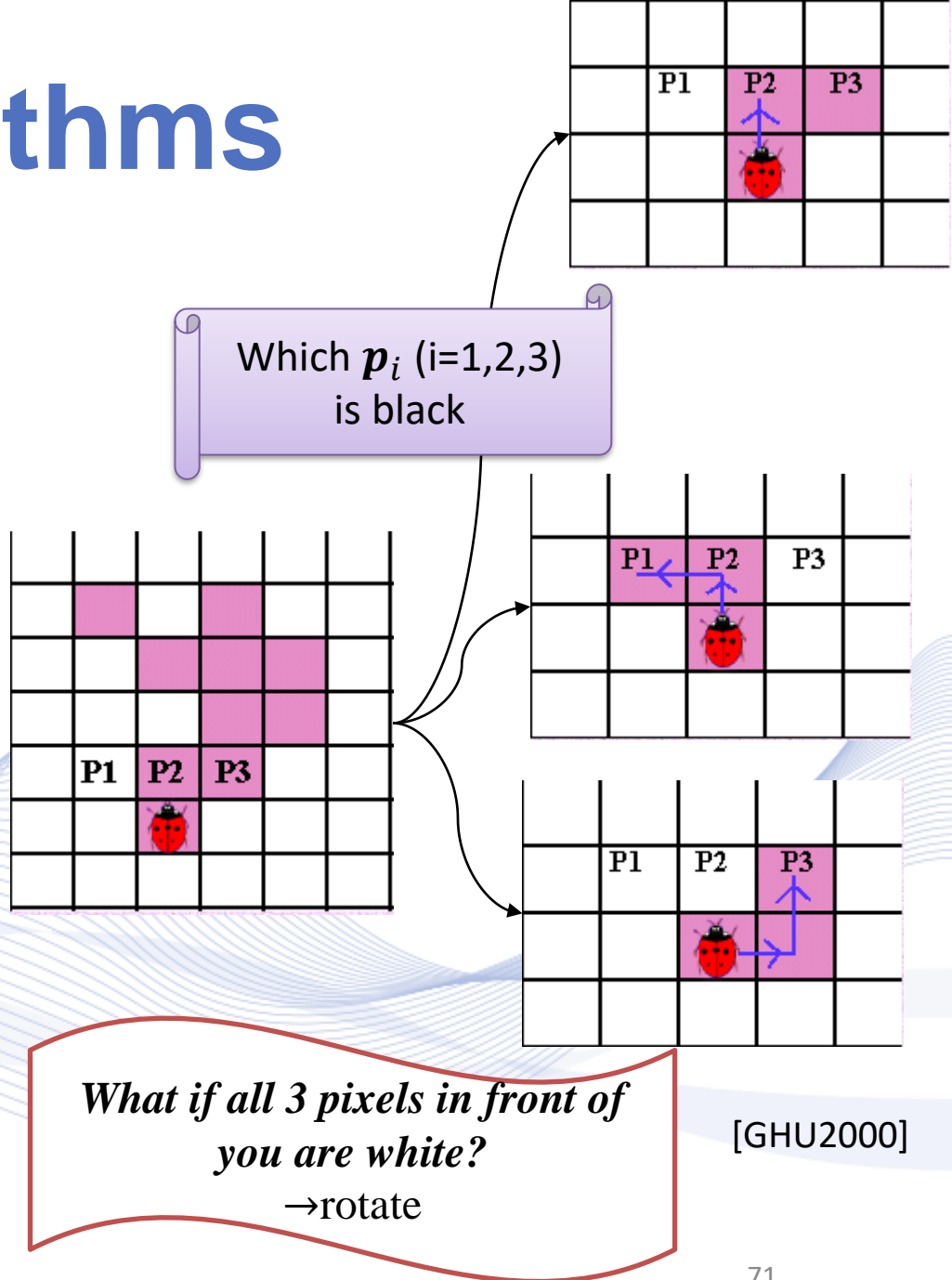
# Contour following algorithms

- At algorithm start, set  $\mathcal{B}$  is empty.
- Start at **starting pixel  $p$** : Scan each pixel column of from bottom to top and left to right until encounter a black pixel  $x$ , whose left adjacent pixel is white. Now the start pixel  $p$  is  $x$ . Insert the start pixel  $p$  in  $\mathcal{B}$ .
- If  $p_1$  is black, insert it to  $\mathcal{B}$  and move one step forward followed by one step to your current left pixel to land on  $p_1$ .



# Contour following algorithms

- If  $p_2$  is black, insert it to  $\mathcal{B}$  and move one step forward to land on  $p_2$ .
- If  $p_3$  is black, insert it to  $\mathcal{B}$  and move one step to your right followed by one step to your current left.
- If they are all white, rotate.
- Stop when you have rotated 3 times, or the start pixel is visited for a second time.
- The contour will be the black pixels in  $\mathcal{B}$ .



# Edge Detection Overview



- Introduction
- Edge detection
- Edge thresholding
- Hough transform
- Edge following algorithms
- Contour detection
- **Active Contours**
- Neural Edge detection
- Neural Contour detection.



# Active Contours

- **Active contours** or **snakes** are deformable models of an image contour.
- They describe object boundaries/contours by a parametric curve.
- An **energy functional** is always associated with an active contour.
- The desired contour is obtained by defining **energy functional minimization**.

# Active Contours

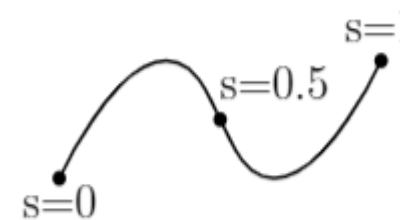
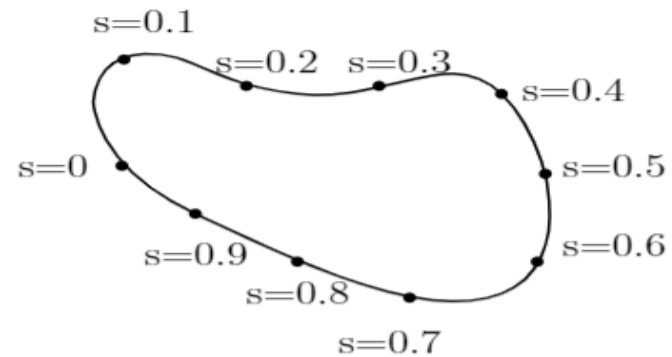
A curve can be represented by a vectorial function.

- In the continuous case:

$$\mathbf{v}(s) = [x(s), y(s)]^T, \quad 0 \leq s \leq 1.$$

- In the discrete space case, a contour is described by a vertex list:

$$C = \{\mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{n-1}\}, \quad \mathbf{v}_i = [x_i, y_i]^T.$$



a) Closed curve; b) Open curve.

# Active Contours

- An active contour possesses energy  $E$  (**energy functional**), which is defined as the sum of the three energy terms:

$$E = E_i + E_e + E_c = \int_0^1 \left( E_i(\mathbf{v}(s)) + E_e(\mathbf{v}(s)) + E_c(\mathbf{v}(s)) \right) ds.$$

- $E_i$ : **Internal energy** due to contour bending. It serves to impose piecewise contour smoothness constraint.

# Active Contours

- $E_e$ : **External energy** that describes how well the contour matches local image data.
  - Numerous forms can be used, attracting the curve toward specific image features, e.g., local image edges.<sup>2</sup>
- $E_c$ : **External constraints** are responsible for putting the snake near the desired local minimum (optional).

# Active Contours



## *Internal Energy*

$$E_i(\mathbf{v}(s)) = \alpha(s)|d\mathbf{v}/ds|^2 + \beta(s)|d^2\mathbf{v}/ds^2|^2.$$

- $d\mathbf{v}/ds$  is the first order derivative, forcing the contour to act like a **membrane**.
- $d^2\mathbf{v}/ds^2$  is the second order derivative, forcing the contour to act like a **thin-plate**.
- $\alpha(s)$  and  $\beta(s)$  controls the relative importance of membrane and thin-plate terms: **elastic/stretching** and **stiffness/bending**.

# Active Contours

- **Smoothness** of the whole snake:

$$E_i = \int_0^1 E_i(\mathbf{v}(s)) ds$$

- In the discrete space case, numerical differentiation can be performed:

$$\begin{aligned} d\mathbf{v}/ds &\cong \mathbf{v}_{i+1} - \mathbf{v}_i \\ d^2\mathbf{v}/ds^2 &\cong \mathbf{v}_{i+1} - 2\mathbf{v}_i + \mathbf{v}_{i-1} \end{aligned}$$

- Internal energy is given by:

$$E_i = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \alpha |\mathbf{v}_{i+1} - \mathbf{v}_i|^2 + \beta |\mathbf{v}_{i+1} - 2\mathbf{v}_i + \mathbf{v}_{i-1}|^2.$$

# Active Contours

## *External Energy*

- Image edges are described by image gradient  $\nabla I(x, y)$ .
- External energy at a contour point  $\mathbf{v}(s)$  is given by:

$$E_e(\mathbf{v}(s)) = -|\nabla I(x, y)|^2.$$

- and or the whole snake:

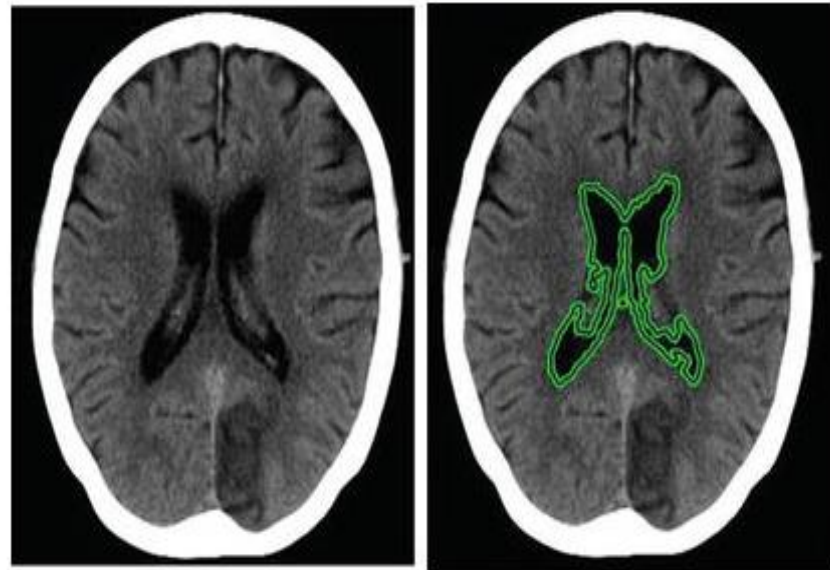
$$E_e = \int_0^1 E_e(\mathbf{v}(s)) ds \text{ (continuous case)}$$

$$E_e = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E_e(\mathbf{v}_i) \text{ (discrete case).}$$

- Simplified version of the total energy:

$$E = \alpha \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} |\mathbf{v}_{i+1} - \mathbf{v}_i|^2 - \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} |\nabla I(\mathbf{v}_i)|^2.$$

# Active Contours



[HEM2018]

Active contour on a brain CT image.



# Edge Detection Overview



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- Neural Contour detection.

# NN Edge detection

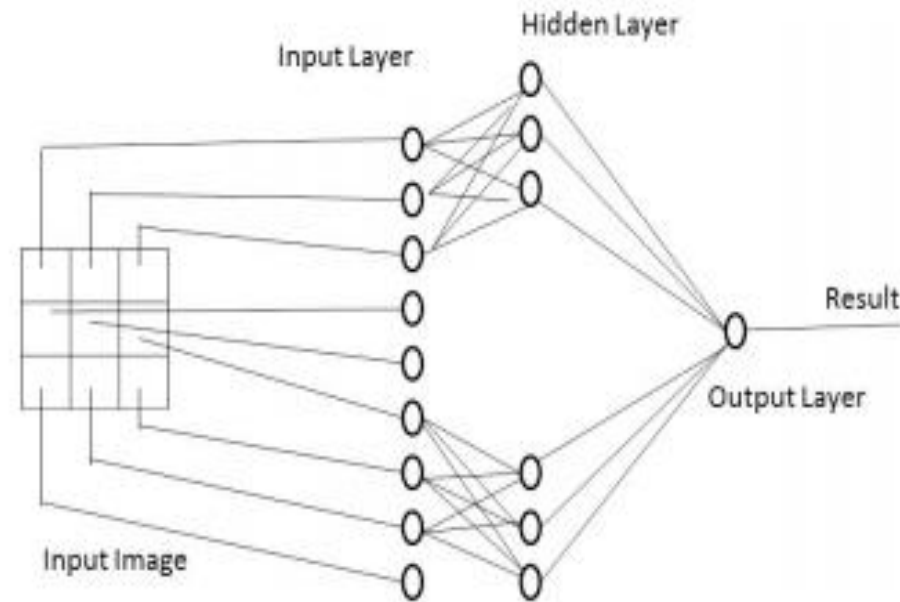


- A **Neural Network** (NN) edge detector can be considered as a nonlinear filter: it can have a built-in thresholding capability.
- Thus, the filtering, thresholding operation of edge detection is a natural application for neural network processing.

**Convolutional Neural networks (CNN)** have convolutional layers and nonlinear activation functions interspersed with pooling (subsampling) layers.

- Typical CNN convolution kernels perform edge detection (learned only by training).

# NN Edge detection

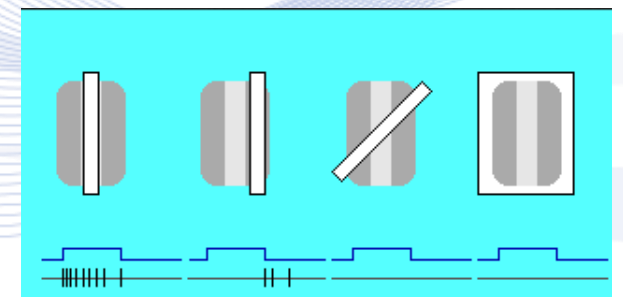
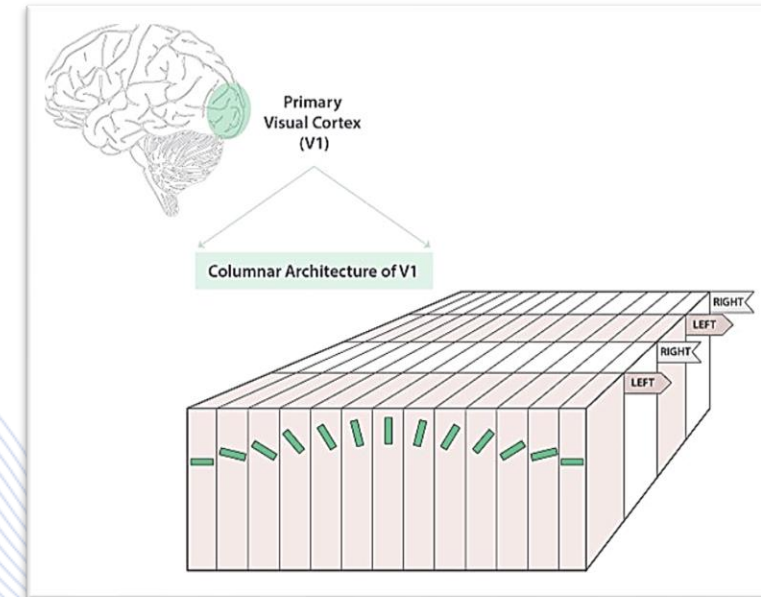


Neural Network Architecture for image edge detection [SEN2012].

# NN Edge detection

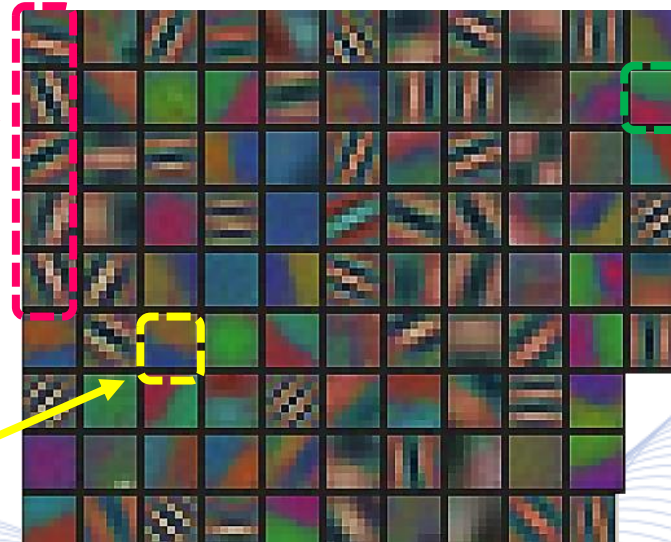
## ***Biological V1 Hypercolumn:***

- CNNs were inspired by brain neurons in the mammalian ***primary visual cortex*** (V1).
- V1 cells are mapped to the same local region of the retina, forming ***hypercolumns***.
- Hidden layers are similar to V1 simple cells, detect image lines and are sensitive to orientation.



# NN Edge detection

orientation selectivity  
found in V1 simple cells



green/red color opponency  
observed in retinal neurons  
and human visual perception

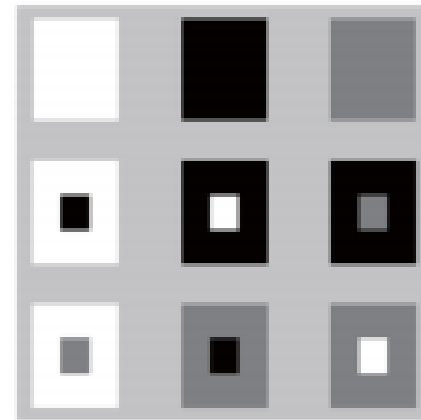
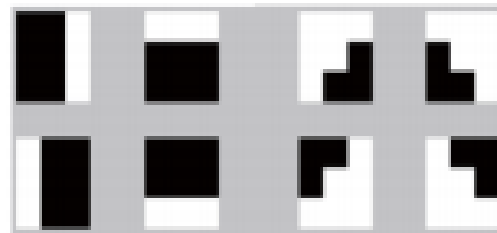
blue/yellow color opponency  
observed in retinal neurons  
and human visual perception

ZFNet convolution kernels that have been produced by training to perform  
edge/line detection.

# NN Edge detection

## ***CNN training for edge detection:***

- 17 spatial image patterns are considered (8 edge and 9 non-edge patterns).
- Edge thresholding implemented through sigmoid activation functions.



a) Edge Training Patterns; b) Non edge Training Patterns [MOH2013].

# NN Edge detection

goal is to learn 9 parameters

By just treating these 9 numbers as parameters the backprop can choose to learn 1,1,1 or -1,-1,-1 or learn the Sobel filter or Scharr filter.

How to choose weights in the filter?

10	10	10	0	0	0
10	10	10	0	0	0
10	10	10	0	0	0
10	10	10	0	0	0
10	10	10	0	0	0
10	10	10	0	0	0

6 x 6



1	0	-1
1	0	-1
1	0	-1

3 x 3



=

-0	30	30	0
0	30	30	0
0	30	30	0
0	30	30	0

4 x 4



3	0	1	2	7	4
1	5	8	9	3	1
2	7	2	5	1	3
0	1	3	1	7	8
4	2	1	6	2	8
2	4	5	2	3	9

6 x 6

convolution



$W_1$	$W_1$	$W_1$
$W_1$	$W_1$	$W_1$
$W_1$	$W_1$	$W_1$

3 x 3

=

0	0	0	0
30	10	-10	-30
30	10	-10	-30
0	0	0	0

4 x 4

$W_i$ =weights→edge templates

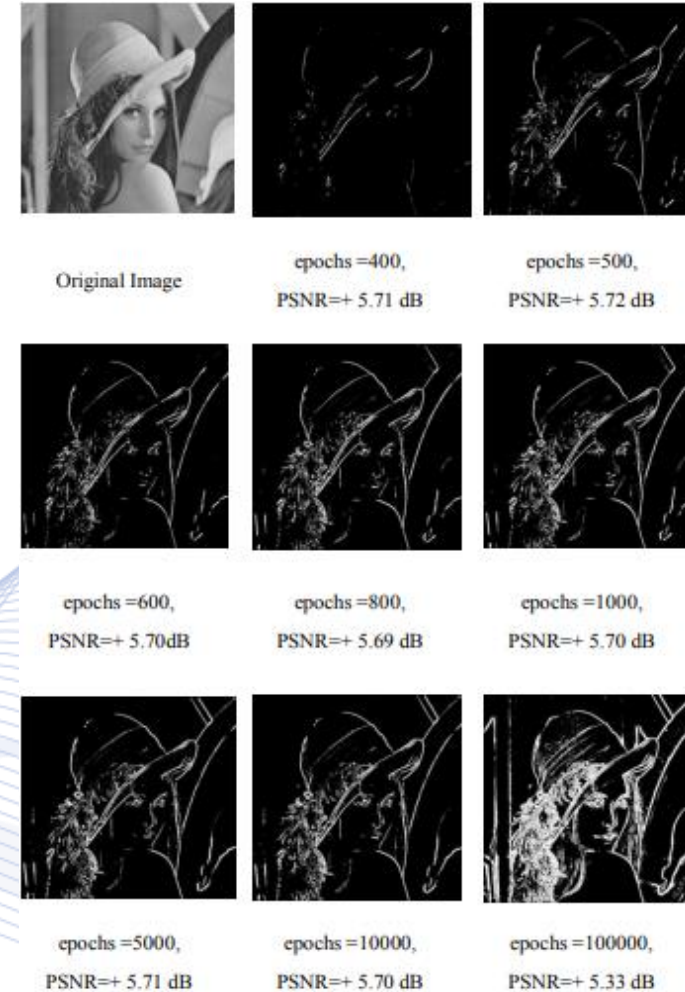
Edge detection - an original image (left), a filter (in the middle), a result of a convolution (right)

We can make our algorithm to learn parameters of the filter

We can also learn to detect edges there at 45° or 70° or 73° or any other orientation it chooses.

# NN Edge detection

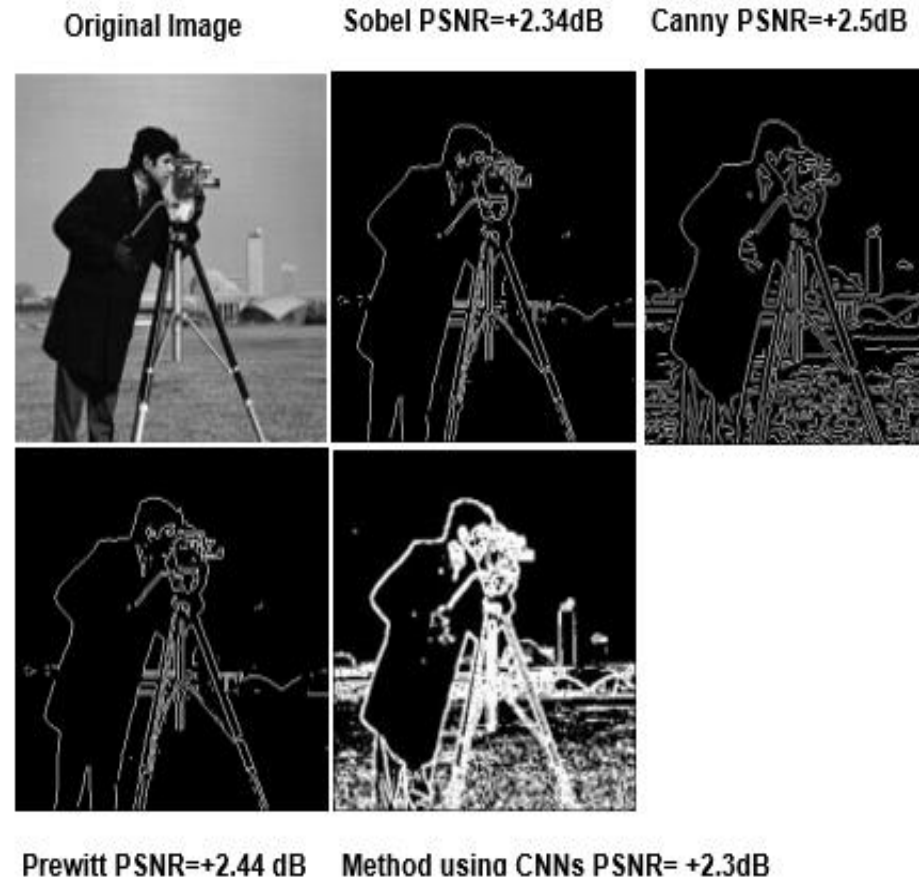
- The best Peak signal-to-noise ratio (PSNR) is obtained when the test image is applied for the maximum epochs trained network.
- NN edge detection is better than other edge detection methods.
- It detects more true edge pixels and produces little edge noise.



[MOH2013]



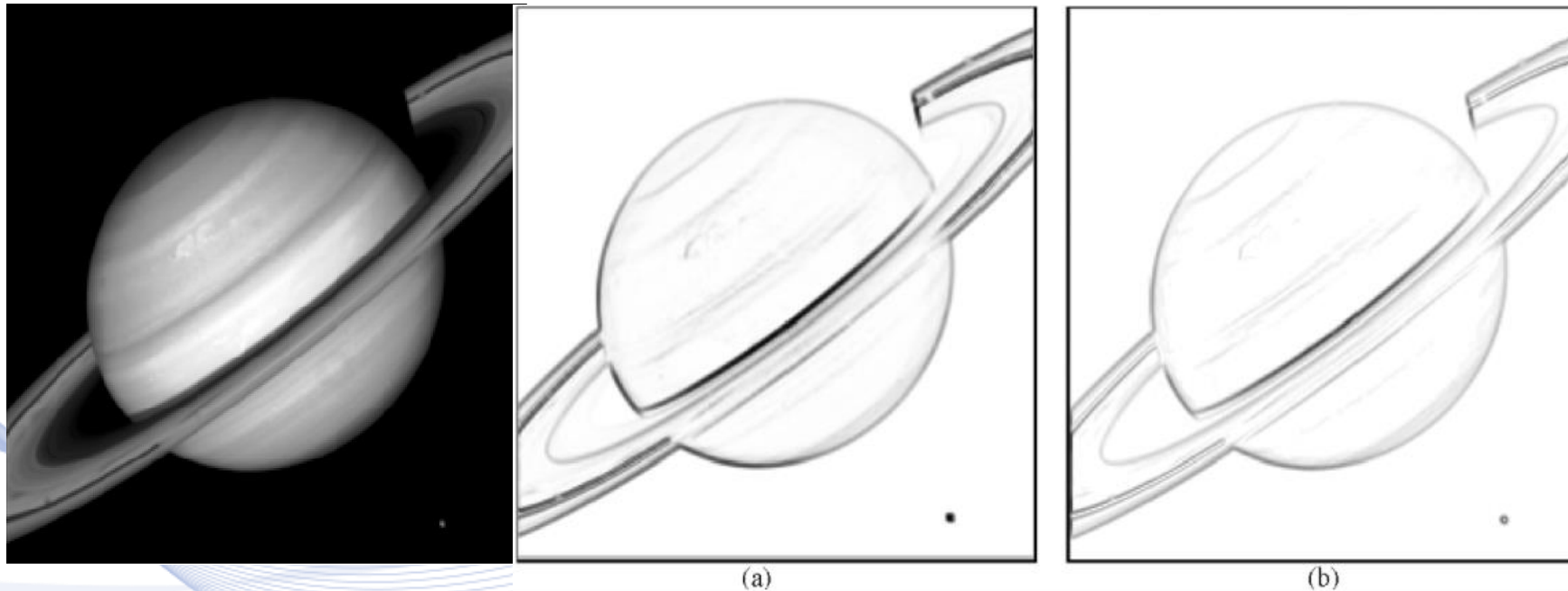
# NN Edge detection



[MOH2013]

# SVM Edge Detection

- Binary SVM classification:
  - ‘the pixel is part of an edge’ or not.

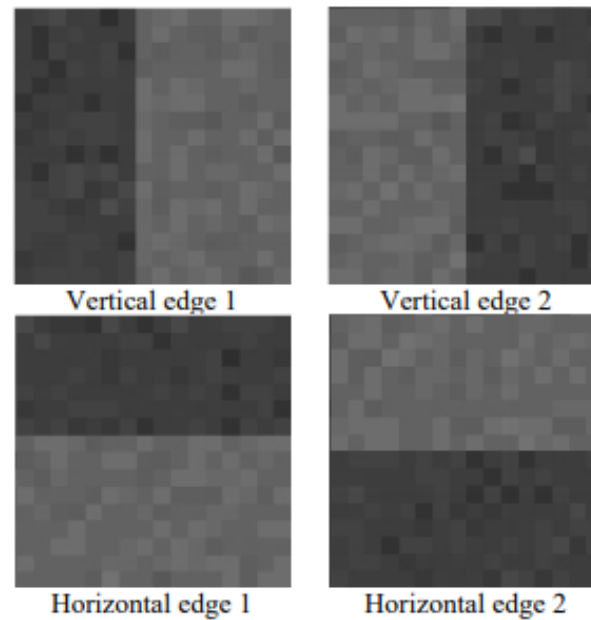


a) SVM edge image; b) Sobel edge image [GOHA2000].

# SVM Edge Detection

- Input to the SVM: a vector which is formed for each pixel given the difference between this one and the pixels in its  $3 \times 3$  neighborhood.
- In Training: horizontal and vertical edges are used.
  - The other edges will be generalized by the SVM.
- The pixels considered as edges are those into each image that are in the border between bright and dark zones.

# SVM Edge Detection



Training images [GOH2000].

# Edge Detection Overview



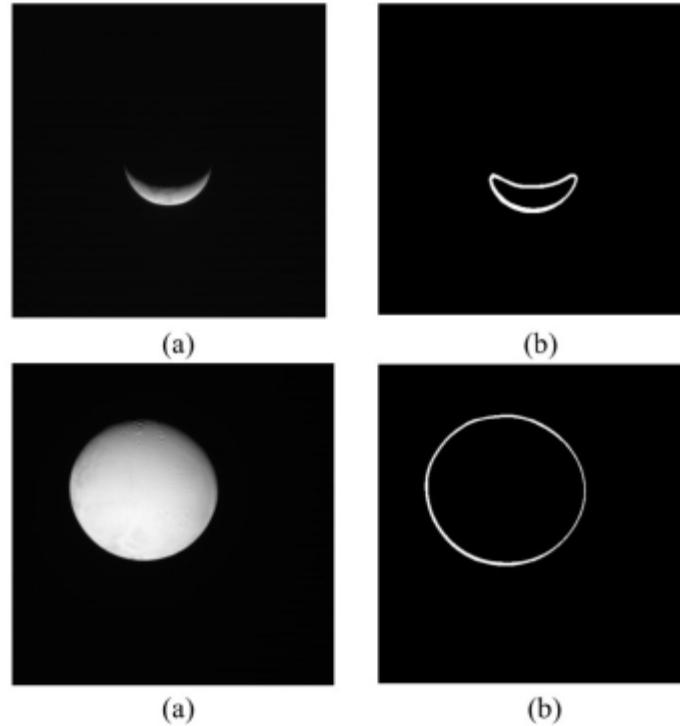
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# NN Contour detection

Contour detection can be considered as a classification task:

- Classify a pixel as contour or non-contour one.
- Contour detection can be achieved by sliding-window strategy:
  - CNN image features are extracted in which each image window, to be followed by classification.
  - Pixels as features: number of inputs neurons.
- Any classifier, e.g., random forest classifier, can be used to predict whether the central pixel of this local image window is a contour point or not.

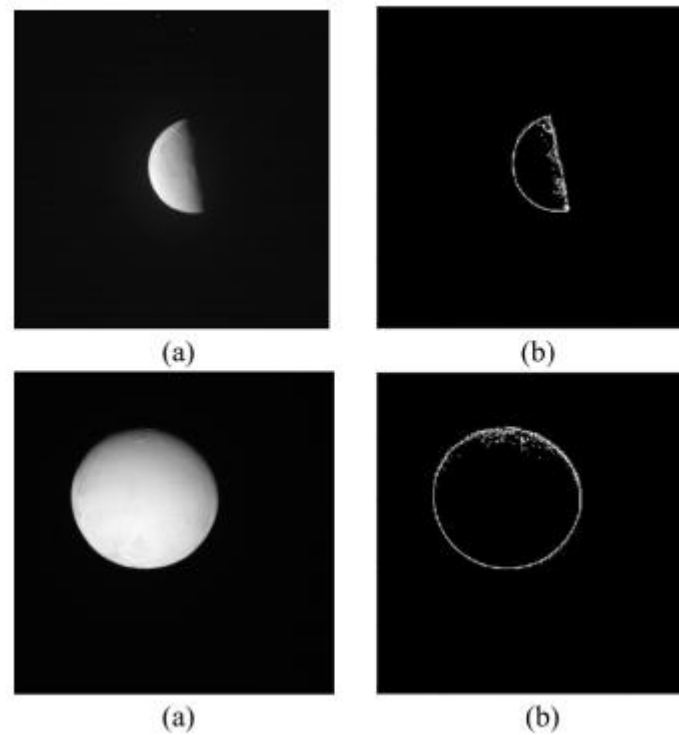
# NN Contour detection



a) Original Image; b) CNN contour detection in Cassini ISS images [LI2019].

# SVM Contour detection

- We can use SVMs for binary classification.
  - The SVM is connected to neural network with two fully connected layers.



a) Original Image; b) CNN contour detection in Cassini ISS images [LI2019].



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# Q & A

**Thank you very much for your attention!**

**More material in  
<http://icarus.csd.auth.gr/cvml-web-lecture-series/>**

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