

Region Segmentation

Prof. Ioannis Pitas

Aristotle University of Thessaloniki

pitas@csd.auth.gr

www.aiia.csd.auth.gr

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Region Segmentation

- **Introduction**
- Image Thresholding
- Region Growing
- Split/Merge Techniques
- Relaxation Algorithms in Region Analysis
- Connected Component Labeling
- Texture Description.

Region Segmentation

Object shape can be described in terms of:

- **Its boundary:**
 - It requires image edge detection and following.
- **The region** (set of pixels) it occupies:
 - It requires image segmentation in homogeneous regions.
 - Image regions are expected to have homogeneous characteristics (e.g. intensity, texture).
 - These characteristics can form a feature vector that can be used to discriminate region from one another.

Region Segmentation

- An image domain \mathcal{X} must be segmented in N different regions $\mathcal{R}_1, \dots, \mathcal{R}_N$.
- The segmentation rule is a logical predicate of the form $P(\mathcal{R})$.

Region Segmentation

- Image segmentation partitions the set \mathcal{X} into the subsets \mathcal{R}_i , $i = 1, \dots, N$, having the following properties:

$$\mathcal{X} = \bigcup_{i=1}^N \mathcal{R}_i,$$

$$\mathcal{R}_i \cap \mathcal{R}_j = \emptyset, \quad \text{for } i \neq j,$$

$$P(\mathcal{R}_i) = \text{TRUE}, \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, N,$$

$$P(\mathcal{R}_i \cup \mathcal{R}_j) = \text{FALSE}, \quad \text{for } i \neq j.$$

Region Segmentation

- Region segmentation can employ a logical predicate of the form $P(\mathcal{R}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$.
 - \mathbf{x} is a feature vector associated with an image pixel or pixel set.
 - \mathbf{t} is a parameter vector (usually thresholds).
- A simple segmentation rule has the form:

$$P(\mathcal{R}): f(k, l) < T.$$

Region Segmentation

- In RGB colour images, the feature vector \mathbf{x} can be the three *RGB* image components:

$$\mathbf{x} = [f_R(k, l), f_G(k, l), f_B(k, l)]^T.$$

- A simple RGB image segmentation rule having $\mathbf{t} = [T_R, T_G, T_B]^T$ may have the form:

$$P(\mathcal{R}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}): (f_R(k, l) < T_R) \ \&\& \ (f_G(k, l) < T_G) \ \&\& \ (f_B(k, l) < T_B).$$

Region Segmentation

- ***Geometrical proximity*** plays an important role in image segmentation.
- Segmentation algorithms must incorporate both ***pixel proximity*** and ***pixel homogeneity***.
- A simple approach to geometrical proximity is through image neighborhood definition.

Region Segmentation

We can define two types of image neighbourhoods on \mathbb{Z}^2 :

- The **4-neighbourhood** $\mathcal{N}_4(\mathbf{x})$ of a pixel $\mathbf{x} = [x, y]^T$ is the set that includes its horizontal and vertical neighbours:

$$\mathcal{N}_4(\mathbf{x}) = \{[x - 1, y]^T, [x + 1, y]^T, [x, y - 1]^T, [x, y + 1]^T\}.$$

- The **8-neighbourhood** $\mathcal{N}_8(\mathbf{x})$ of pixel $\mathbf{x} = [x, y]^T$ is a superset of the 4-neighbourhood and contains the horizontal, vertical and diagonal neighbours:

$$\mathcal{N}_8(\mathbf{x}) =$$

$$\mathcal{N}_4(\mathbf{x}) \cup \{[x - 1, y - 1]^T, [x - 1, y + 1]^T, [x + 1, y - 1]^T, [x + 1, y + 1]^T\}.$$

Region Segmentation

- The paths defined by using the 4-neighbourhood consist of horizontal and vertical streaks of length $\Delta x = \Delta y = 1$.
- The paths using the 8-neighbourhood consist of horizontal and vertical streaks of length 1 and of diagonal streaks having length $\sqrt{2}$.

Region Segmentation



- A region \mathcal{R} is called **connected region** if:
 - any two pixels $\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B$ belonging to \mathcal{R} can be connected by a path $\mathbf{x}_A, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{i-1}, \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{i+1}, \mathbf{x}_B$, whose pixels \mathbf{x}_i belong to \mathcal{R} ;and
 - any pixel \mathbf{x}_i is adjacent to both the previous pixel \mathbf{x}_{i-1} and the next one \mathbf{x}_{i+1} in the path.
- A pixel \mathbf{x}_k is said to be adjacent to pixel \mathbf{x}_l , if it belongs to its immediate neighbourhood.

Region Segmentation

Region segmentation techniques can be grouped in three different classes:

- **Local region segmentation techniques** are based on the local properties of the pixels and their neighbourhoods.
- **Global region segmentation techniques** segment an image on the basis of information obtained globally (e.g., by using the image histogram).
- **Split, merge and growing techniques** use both the notions of homogeneity and geometrical proximity.

Region Segmentation

- Introduction
- **Image Thresholding**
- Region Growing
- Split/Merge Techniques
- Relaxation Algorithms in Region Analysis
- Connected Component Labeling
- Texture Description.

Image Thresholding



- The simplest image segmentation problem occurs when an image contains:
 - an **object** having homogeneous intensity.
 - a **background** with a different intensity level.
- Such an image can be segmented in two regions by simple **thresholding**:

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } f(x, y) > T, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

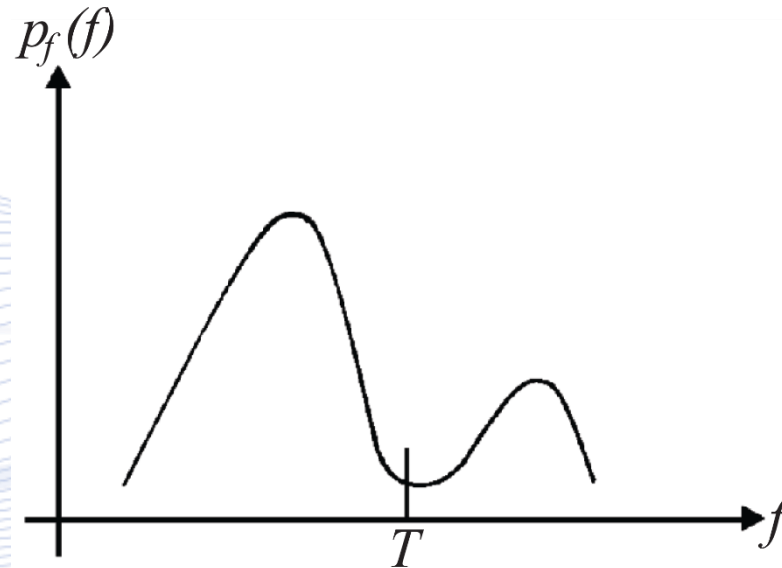
Image Thresholding

- The choice of threshold T can be based on **image histogram** measuring intensity level frequencies in an image having $N_1 \times N_2$ pixels:

$$h(i) = \frac{1}{N_1 N_2} \sum_{k=0}^{N_1-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N_2-1} \delta(f(k, l) - i).$$

Image Thresholding

- If the image contains one object and a background having homogeneous intensity, it usually possesses a ***bimodal image histogram***.



Bimodal image histogram and histogram choice.

Image Thresholding



Image thresholding.

Image Thresholding



- If the histogram is noisy:
 - The calculation of the local histogram minimum is difficult.
 - ***Histogram smoothing*** or ***image smoothing*** (e.g., by using one-dimensional low-pass filtering) is recommended.
- If the object and/or background intensity varies:
 - Image histogram may not contain two clearly distinguished lobes.
 - Threshold can be calculated so that only $a\%$ of image pixels belong to object.
- ***A spatially varying threshold*** can be applied.

Image Thresholding



Multiple thresholding can be used for segmenting images containing N objects, provided that each object \mathcal{R}_i occupies a distinct intensity range, defined by two thresholds T_{i-1}, T_i .

- The thresholding operation takes the following form:

$$g(x, y) = \mathcal{R}_i, \quad \text{if } T_{i-1} \leq f(x, y) \leq T_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, N.$$

- Thresholds can be obtained from the image histogram.
- In many cases, the various histogram lobes are not clearly distinguished.

Image Thresholding



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- Thresholds can be obtained from the image histogram.

Image Thresholding

- In many cases, the various histogram lobes are not clearly distinguished.
- Image thresholding in N different **equirange** regions:

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{R}_i & \text{if } i[L/N] \leq f(k, l) < (i + 1)[L/N], i = 0, 1, \dots, N - 2, \\ \mathcal{R}_{N-1} & \text{if } (N - 1)[L/N] \leq f(k, l) < L. \end{cases}$$

Image Thresholding



(a)



(b)

a) Original image; b) Image segmentation in four equirange regions.

Image Thresholding

- **Histogram modification:** Perform edge detection and exclude all pixels belonging to edges, from histogram calculation.
- Another approach is to define a modified histogram:

$$h(i) = \sum_{k=0}^{N_1-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N_2-1} t(e(k, l)) \delta(f(k, l) - i).$$

$e(k, l)$ is an edge detector output,
 $\delta(i)$ is the delta function.

Image Thresholding



- A monotonically decreasing function t can be chosen for histogram modification:

$$t(e(k, l)) = \frac{1}{1 + |e(k, l)|}$$

Image Thresholding

- If the image histogram is concentrated in a small intensity range:
 - Uniform thresholding does not give good results.
 - Non-uniform thresholding creates much better results in this case.
- **Non-uniform thresholding** can be based on **histogram equalization** described by $G(f(k, l))$:

$$g(k, l) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{R}_i, & \text{if } i[L/N] \leq G(f(k, l)) < (i + 1)[L/N], \\ \mathcal{R}_{N-1}, & \text{if } (N - 1)[L/N] \leq G(f(k, l)) < L. \end{cases}$$

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Region growing

- Image segmentation can start from some pixels (seeds) representing distinct image regions.
- **Pixel seeds** can be chosen in a **supervised or unsupervised mode**.
- At least one **seed** s_i , $i = 1, \dots, N$ is chosen per image region \mathcal{R}_i .
- Seeds are **grown**, until they cover the entire image.
- We need:
 - a rule describing a growth mechanism and
 - a rule checking region homogeneity after each growth step.

Region growing

- **Growth mechanism:** at each stage (k) and for each region $\mathcal{R}_I^{(k)}$, $i = 1, \dots, N$, we check if there are unclassified pixels in the 8-neighbourhood of each pixel of the region border.
- Before assigning such a pixel \mathbf{x} to a region $\mathcal{R}_I^{(k)}$, we check if the region homogeneity:

$$P(\mathcal{R}_i^{(k)} \cup \{\mathbf{x}\}) = TRUE$$

is still valid.

Region growing

Region merging can be incorporated in the growing mechanism:

- If we are currently at the pixel $\mathbf{x} = [k, l]^T$:
 - First, we try to merge this pixel with one of its adjacent regions \mathcal{R}_i .
 - If this merge fails, or if no adjacent region exists, this pixel is assigned to a new region.
- The merging rule can be based on the region mean and standard deviation described by m_i and σ_i .

Region growing

- The arithmetic mean m_i and standard deviation σ_i of a class \mathcal{R}_i having n pixels are given by:

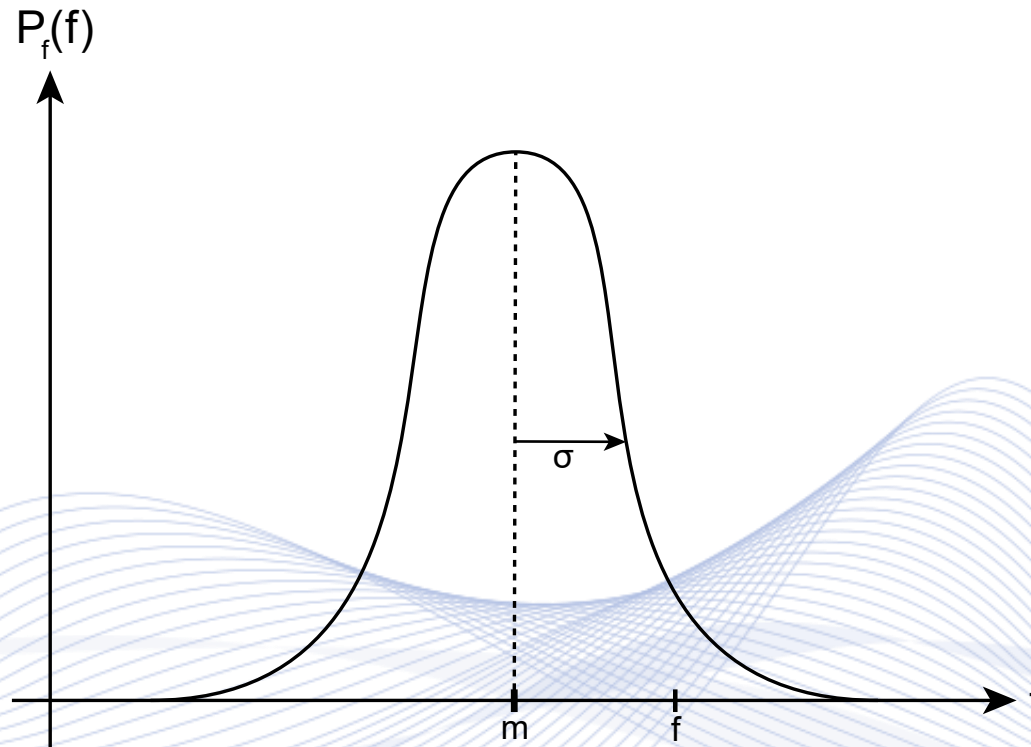
$$m_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(k,l) \in \mathcal{R}_i} f(k, l),$$

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{(k,l) \in \mathcal{R}_i} [f(k, l) - m_i]^2}.$$

- Merging is allowed, if the pixel intensity is close to the region mean value:

$$|f(k, l) - m_i| \leq T_i(k, l).$$

Region growing



Decision on merging a pixel with a region.

Region growing

- If more than one merge are possible, the region with the closest mean value is chosen.
- Threshold T_i varies, depending on the region \mathcal{R}_i and the intensity of the pixel $f(k, l)$. It can be chosen this way:

$$T_i(k, l) = \left(1 - \frac{\sigma_i}{m_i} \right) T.$$

Region growing

- If merging $P(\mathcal{R}_i \cup \{\mathbf{x}\})$ was allowed, the updated mean and standard deviation of region \mathcal{R}_i are given by:

$$m'_i = \frac{1}{n+1} [f(k, l) + nm_i],$$

$$\sigma'_i = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n+1} (n\sigma_i^2 + \frac{n}{n+1} [f(k, l) - m_i]^2)}.$$

Region growing

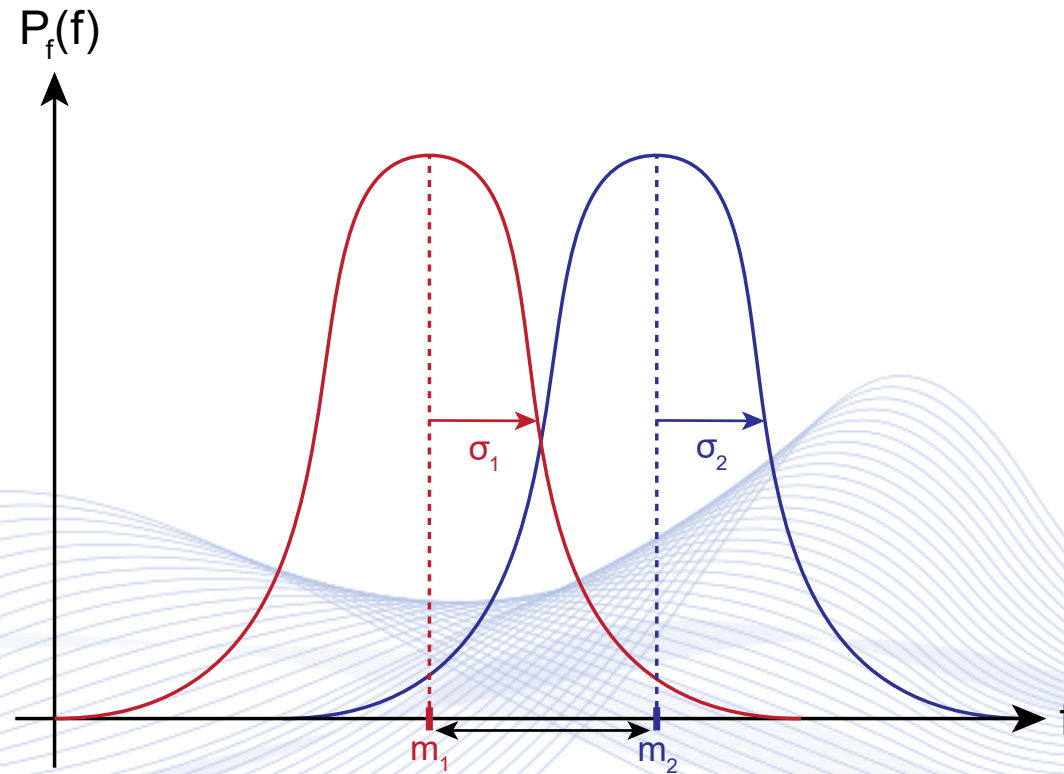
- The region statistics can be used to decide if the merging of two regions $\mathcal{R}_1, \mathcal{R}_2$ is allowed.
- If arithmetic means m_1, m_2 are close to each other:

$$|m_1 - m_2| < k\sigma_i, \quad i = 1, 2,$$

the two regions are merged.

- If no a priori information is available about the image, the image can be scanned in a row-wise manner.

Region growing



Decision on merging two regions.

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Region Splitting/Merging

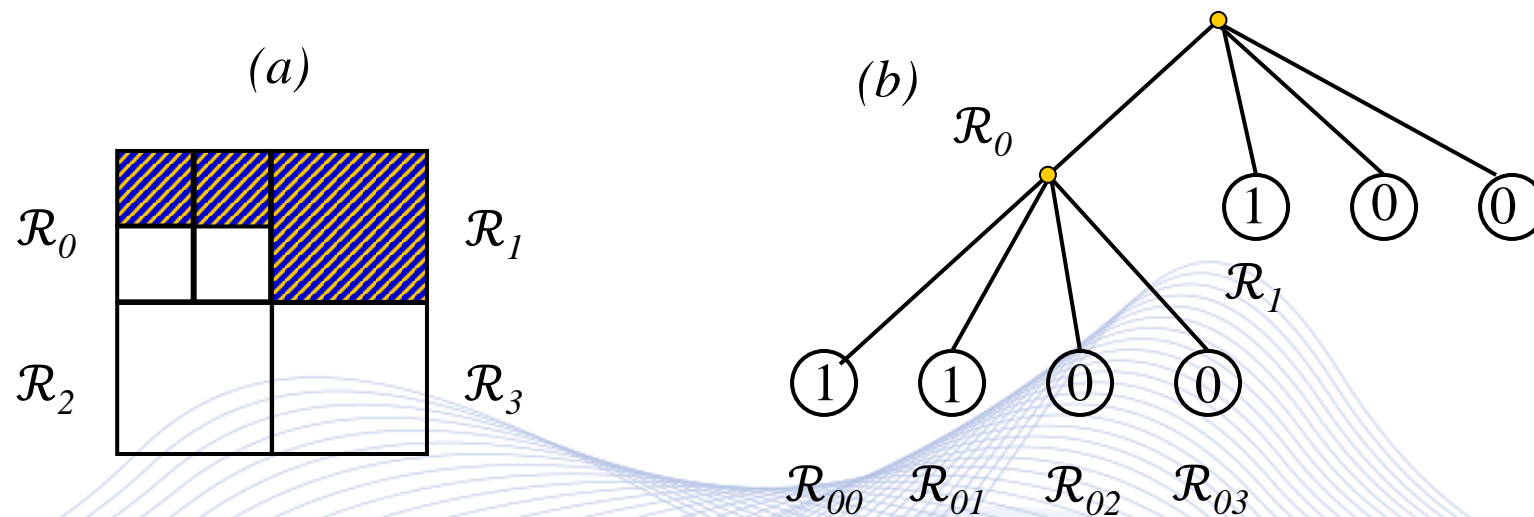


- The opposite approach to *region merging* is *region splitting*:
 - It is a top-down approach.
 - It starts with the assumption that the entire image is homogeneous.
 - If this is not true, the image is split into four sub-images.
- This splitting procedure is repeated recursively until we split the image into homogeneous regions.

Region Splitting/Merging

- If the original image is square $N \times N$, having dimensions that are powers of 2 ($N = 2^n$):
 - All regions produced by the splitting algorithm are squares having dimensions $M \times M$, where M is a power of 2 as well ($M = 2^m, m \leq n$).
 - Since the procedure is recursive, it produces an image representation that can be described by a **quadtree** whose nodes have four sons each.
 - A quadtree is a very convenient region representation.

Region Splitting/Merging



a) Image segmentation by region splitting; b) Quadtree.

Region Splitting/Merging

Disadvantages of region splitting techniques:

- **Oversegmentation.** Regions are created that may be adjacent and homogeneous, but not merged.
- Oblique lines create many small regions of size 2×2 pixels.
 - Solution: **region split and merge algorithm.**
- Sensitivity to geometrical transformations.
- As this is a **recursive algorithm**, **stack overflow** may occur.

Region Splitting/Merging

Region split and merge algorithm.

- It is an iterative algorithm that includes both splitting and merging at each iteration:
 - If a region \mathcal{R} is inhomogeneous ($P(\mathcal{R}) = FALSE$), it is split into four subregions.
 - Two adjacent regions $\mathcal{R}_i, \mathcal{R}_j$ are merged if they are homogeneous: $P(\mathcal{R}_i \cup \mathcal{R}_j) = TRUE$.
- The algorithm stops when no further splitting or merging is possible.

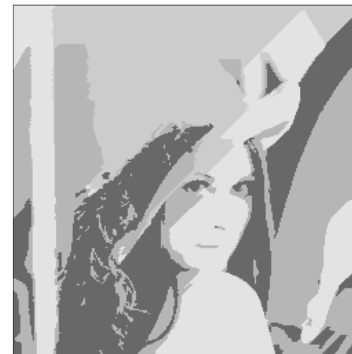
Region Splitting/Merging

- The split and merge algorithm produces more compact regions than the pure splitting algorithm.
- Its major disadvantage is that it does not produce quadtree region descriptions.
- Several modifications of the basic split and merge algorithm have been proposed to solve this problem.
 - The most straightforward procedure is to use the splitting algorithm and to postpone merging until no further splitting is possible.

Region Splitting/Merging



(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Output of: a) region thresholding; b) region growing; c) region splitting; d) region split and merge algorithm.

Region Segmentation

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Relaxation Labeling

- All previous region segmentation methods are deterministic:
 - they assign each image pixel to just one region.
- Such a segmentation is desirable, but not always useful, because they treat ambiguous cases in a rather inflexible way.

Relaxation Labeling

- It is more useful to produce confidence vectors \mathbf{p}_k for each pixel \mathbf{x}_k that contain the probabilities $p_k(i)$ that a pixel \mathbf{x}_k belongs to a class $\mathcal{R}_i, i = 1, \dots, N$:

$$\mathbf{p}_k = [p_k(1), \dots, p_k(N)]^T.$$

- Probabilities $p_k(l)$, called **confidence weights**, must satisfy the following relations:

$$0 \leq p_k(i) \leq 1, \quad \sum_{i=1}^N p_k(i) = 1.$$

- Pixel \mathbf{x}_k is assigned to the region \mathcal{R}_l having the maximal probability $p_k(l)$.

Relaxation Labeling

- Let $m_i, i = 1, \dots, N$, be the arithmetic means of the intensity of each region that usually correspond to histogram peaks and $f(\mathbf{x}_k) = f(n, l)$ the pixel intensity at location $\mathbf{x}_k = [n, l]^T$.

- The initial estimate of confidence weights is given by:

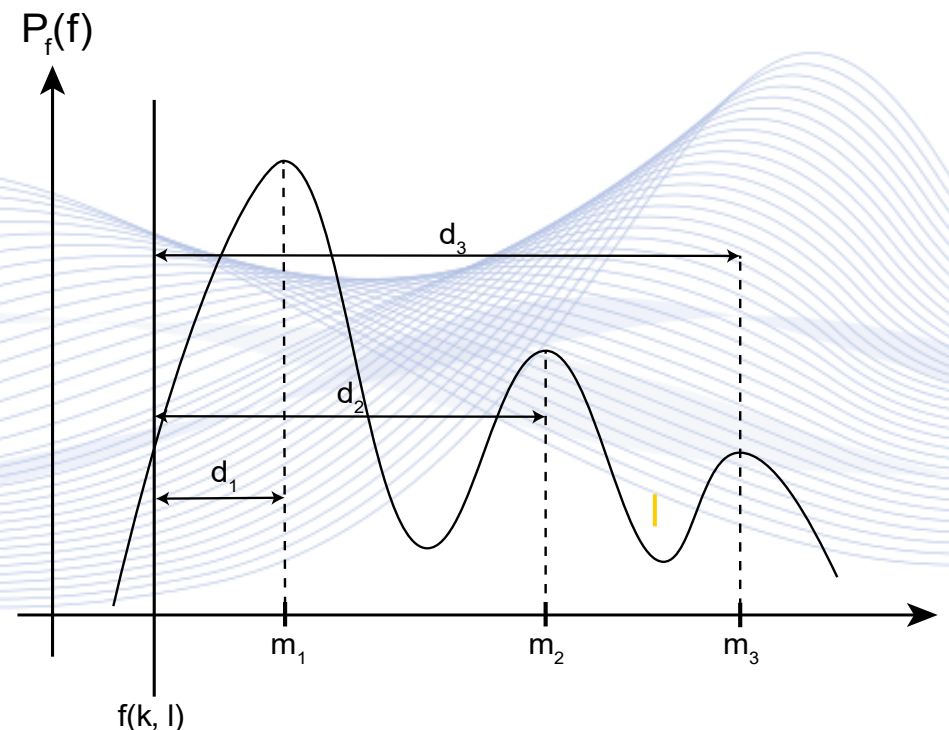
$$p_k^{(0)}(i) = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{|f(n, l) - m_i|}}, \quad i = 1, \dots, N.$$

Relaxation Labeling

- It is inversely proportional to the distance:

$$d_i = |f(n, l) - m_i|$$

of the pixel intensity $f(n, l)$ from the region arithmetic mean m_i .



Relaxation Labeling

- In many cases, it is highly probable that two adjacent pixels belong to two specific **compatible** classes $\mathcal{R}_i, \mathcal{R}_j$, e.g.,:
 - Pixels of classes 'Road' and 'Pavement'.
- **Incompatible** regions are those that are not expected to be found in adjacent image locations, e.g.,:
 - Pixels of classes 'Road' and 'Sea'.

Relaxation Labeling

- The compatibility between two regions $\mathcal{R}_i, \mathcal{R}_j$, is described in terms of a **compatibility function** $r(i, j)$, whose range is:

$$-1 \leq r(i, j) \leq 1.$$

- Its values have the following meaning:

$$r(i, j) = \begin{cases} < 0, & \text{Regions } \mathcal{R}_i, \mathcal{R}_j \text{ are incompatible.} \\ = 0, & \text{Regions } \mathcal{R}_i, \mathcal{R}_j \text{ are independent.} \\ > 0, & \text{Regions } \mathcal{R}_i, \mathcal{R}_j \text{ are compatible.} \end{cases}$$

Relaxation Labeling

- Compatibility functions are known a priori or can be estimated from an initial image segmentation.
- Incompatible regions tend to compete in adjacent image pixels, whereas compatible regions tend to cooperate.
- ***Competition and cooperation*** can continue in an iterative way until a steady state is reached.
 - Each pixel \mathbf{x}_k receives confidence contributions from any pixel \mathbf{x}_l lying in its 4- or 8-neighbourhood.

Relaxation Labeling

The resulting change in confidence weight $p_k(i)$ of the pixel \mathbf{x}_k at step (n) is the following:

$$\Delta p_k^{(n)} = \sum_l d_{kl} \left[\sum_{j=1}^N r_{kl}(i, j) p_l^{(n)}(j) \right].$$

- The sum of the parameters d_{kl} is chosen to be equal to 1:

$$\sum_l d_{kl} = 1.$$

Relaxation Labeling

- The updated probabilities for the pixel \mathbf{x}_k are given by:

$$p_k^{(n+1)}(i) = \frac{p_k^{(n)}(i) [1 + \Delta p_k^{(n)}(i)]}{\sum_{i=1}^N p_k^{(n)}(i) [1 + \Delta p_k^{(n)}(i)]}$$

- The iterations stop when convergence is achieved.
- The iterative equations form ***relaxation labelling***.
- It is expected to produce relatively large connected homogeneous image regions, by removing small spurious noisy regions within larger regions.

NN region segmentation



Street scene segmentation [APOLLO].

Region Boundary Following



- In certain cases, the region boundary is desired.
- If the segmented image $g(x, y)$ is available, the boundary obtained by finding **region transition pixels** $b(x, y)$:

$$b(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \{(g(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}_i \text{ and } g(x, y - 1) \in \mathcal{R}_j, i \neq j) \\ & \text{or } (g(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}_i \text{ and } g(x - 1, y) \in \mathcal{R}_j, i \neq j)\}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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- Texture Description.

Connected Component Labeling

- Digital image segmentation produces either a binary or a multivalued image output $g(k, l)$.
 - Each image region is labelled by a region number.
 - Typically, background has label 0.
 - Each region may consist of several disconnected subregions.
- **Connected component labeling** assigns a unique number to each **pixel blob** of 1s.

Connected Component Labeling

- Connected component labeling algorithms can be divided into two large classes:
 - **Local neighborhood algorithms** (performing local operations, typically in a recursive manner).
 - **Divide-and-conquer** algorithms.
- If each blob corresponds to a single object, connected component labeling performs **object counting** in a binary image.

Connected Component Labeling

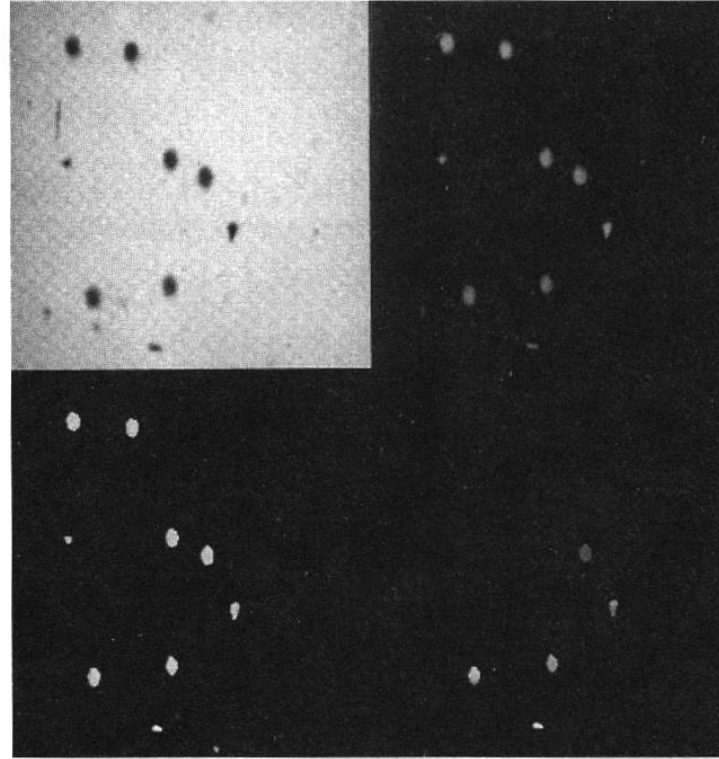
Fire propagation algorithm:

- The image is scanned in a row-wise manner, until the first pixel at an object boundary is hit.
- A 'fire' is set at this pixel that propagates to all pixels belonging to the 8-neighbourhood of the current pixel.
- Then the current pixel is burned out (e.g., takes value 0).
- This recursive operation continues, until all image pixels of the image object are 'burnt out' and the fire is extinguished.

Connected Component Labeling

- When an object is burned out, all its pixels have value 0 and cannot be distinguished from the background.
- This procedure is repeated until all objects in the image are counted.
- A by-product of this algorithm is the **area** of each object (number of its pixel).

Connected Component Labeling



a) Microscopy image; b) Negative image; c) Thresholded negative image; d) Labelled connected regions (some of them are not visible).

Connected Component Labeling

Local CCL algorithm:

- Each pixel $f(n, l)$ having value 1 is labeled by the concatenation of its (n, l) coordinates.
- We scan the labeled image.
- We assign to each pixel the minimum of the labels in its 4-connected or 8-connected neighborhood.
- This process is repeated until no more label changes are made.

Connected Component Labeling

Blob coloring algorithm.

- It has two passes:
 - In the first pass, colors are assigned to image pixels by using a three-pixel L-shaped mask, while color equivalencies are established and stored, when needed.
 - In the second pass, the pixels of each connected region are labeled with a unique color by using the color equivalences obtained in the first pass.

Connected Component Labeling

Shrinking algorithm.

- If a pixel $f(n, l)$ has value 1, it retains this value after local shrinking, if and only if at least one of its East, South or South-East neighbors has value 1.
- This local operation is described by the following recursive relation:

$$f(n, l) = h[h[f(n, l - 1) + f(n, 1) + f(n + 1, l) - 1] + h[f(n, l) + f(n + 1, l - 1) - 1]].$$

Connected Component Labeling

- Function $h(t)$ is given by:

$$h(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } t \leq 0, \\ 1, & \text{for } t > 0. \end{cases}$$

- After repeated binary image scanning by this shrinking operation, each connected component shrinks to the North-West corner of its bounding box, before it vanishes at the next shrinking operation.

Connected Component Labeling

Divide-and-conquer CCL algorithm.

- It uses the split and merge algorithm:
 - Inhomogeneous regions consisting of 0s and 1s are split recursively, until we reach homogeneous regions consisting only of 1s.
 - These regions are assigned a unique label (split step).
 - Label equivalences can be established, by checking the borders of all homogeneous regions.
 - Those regions having equivalent labels are merged to a single connected component.

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- **Texture Description.**

Texture description



Image texture is a measure of image coarseness, smoothness and regularity.

- Texture description methods:
 - **Statistical techniques:**
 - They are based on region histograms.
 - They measure contrast, granularity, and coarseness.

Texture description

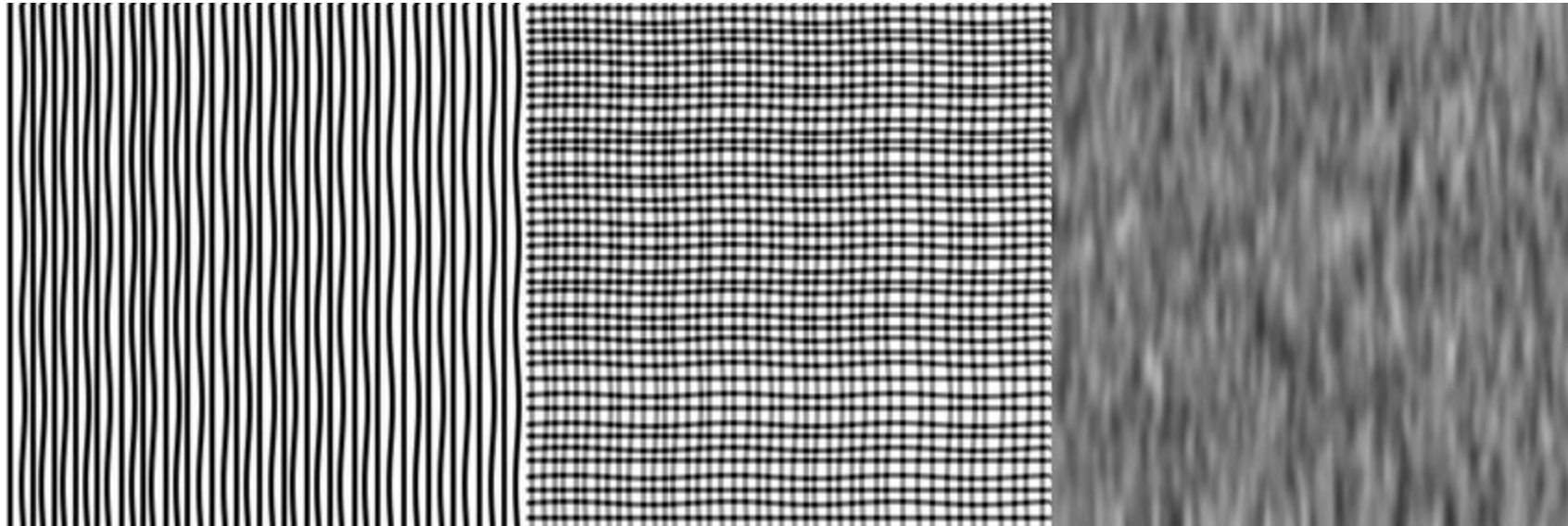


a) Coarse image texture;



b) Fine image texture.

Texture description



Directional image texture [RES].

Texture description



- ***Spectral methods:***
 - They are based on:
 - ***autocorrelation function*** of an image region or
 - ***image periodogram*** (Fourier transform power distribution),
 - in order to exploit ***texture periodicity***.
- ***Structural methods:***
 - They describe the texture by using pattern primitives accompanied by certain geometrical placement rules.

Texture description

The simplest texture descriptors are based on *image pixel probability distribution (pdf)* $p_f(f)$.

- Image histogram is an estimation of pixel pdf, when assuming *image signal stationarity*.
- Let $f_k, k = 1, \dots, N$ be the various image intensity levels.
- The first four histogram central moments are given by:
 - *Image Mean:*

$$\mu = \sum_{k=1}^N f_k p_f(f_k).$$

Texture description

- **Image Skewness:**

$$\mu_3 = \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \sum_{k=1}^N (f_k - \mu)^3 p_f(f_k).$$

- **Image Variance:**

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_{k=1}^n (f_k - \mu)^2 p_f(f_k).$$

Texture description

- **Image Kurtosis:**

$$\mu_4 = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{k=1}^n (f_k - \mu)^4 p_f(f_k) - 3.$$

- **Image entropy** is defined in terms of the histogram as well:

$$H = - \sum_{k=1}^N p_f(f_k) \ln p_f(f_k)$$

and can be used for feature description.

Texture description

Spatial information can be described by using the ***histogram of grey-level differences***:

- Let $\mathbf{d} = [d_1, d_2]^T$ be the ***displacement vector*** between two image pixels and $g(\mathbf{d})$ the grey-level difference at a displacement \mathbf{d} :

$$g(\mathbf{d}) = |f(k, l) - f(k + d_1, l + d_2)|.$$

- $p_g(g, \mathbf{d})$ denotes the ***grey-level difference histogram*** at a displacement \mathbf{d} .

Texture description



- If an image region has ***coarse texture***, the histogram $p_g(g, \mathbf{d})$ tends to concentrate around $g = 0$ for small displacements \mathbf{d} .
- If the region has ***fine texture***, it tends to spread, when is larger than the ***texture grain*** size.

Texture description

Several texture measures can be extracted from the histogram of grey-level differences:

- **Mean:**

$$\mu_{\mathbf{d}} = \sum_{k=1}^N g_k p_g(g_k, \mathbf{d}).$$

- **Variance:**

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{d}}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^N (g_k - \mu_{\mathbf{d}})^2 p_g(g_k, \mathbf{d}).$$

Texture description

- **Contrast:**

$$c_{\mathbf{d}} = \sum_{k=1}^N g_k^2 p_g(g_k, \mathbf{d}).$$

- **Entropy:**

$$H_{\mathbf{d}} = - \sum_{k=1}^N p_g(g_k, \mathbf{d}) \ln p_g(g_k, \mathbf{d}).$$

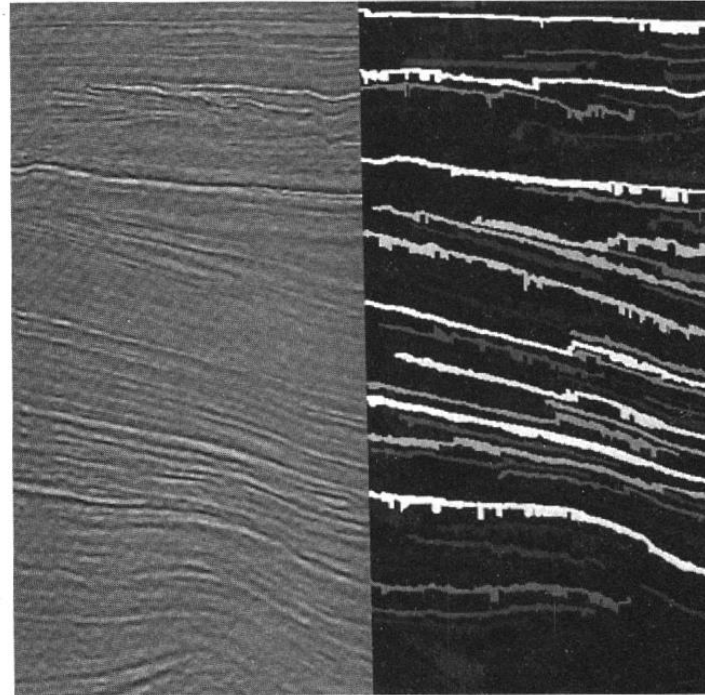
- Advantages: computational simplicity and capability to give information about the spatial texture organization.

Texture description



- A **run length** l of pixels having equal intensity f in a direction θ is an event denoted by (l, f, θ) .
- Run lengths reveal both **texture directionality** and **texture coarseness**.
- Coarse textures tend to produce long grey-level runs.
- Directional texture tends to produce long runs at specific directions θ .

Texture description



a) Original image; b) Run-length image.

Texture description

Let $N(l, f, \theta)$ denote the number of events (l, f, θ) in an image having dimensions $N_1 \times N_2$ and N_R denote the total number of existing runs:

$$T_R = \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{l=1}^{N_R} N(l, f_k, \theta).$$

- The ratio $N(l, f, \theta)/T_R$ is the **grey-level run histogram** at a specific direction θ .

Texture description

The following texture features can be calculated from the grey-level run lengths:

- **Short-run emphasis:**

$$A_1 = \frac{1}{T_R} \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{l=1}^{N_R} \frac{1}{k^2} N(l, f_k, \theta).$$

- **Long-run emphasis:**

$$A_2 = \frac{1}{T_R} \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{l=1}^{N_R} k^2 N(l, f_k, \theta).$$

Texture description

- **Grey-level distribution:**

$$A_3 = \frac{1}{T_R} \sum_{k=1}^N \left[\sum_{l=1}^{N_R} \frac{1}{k^2} N(l, f_k, \theta) \right]^2 .$$

- **Run-length distribution:**

$$A_4 = \frac{1}{T_R} \sum_{l=1}^{N_R} \left[\sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{k^2} N(l, f_k, \theta) \right]^2 .$$

Texture description

- ***Run percentages:***

$$A_5 = \frac{1}{N_1 N_2} \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{l=1}^{N_R} N(l, f_k, \theta).$$

Texture description

Grey-level co-occurrence matrix elements $p(f_k, f_l, \mathbf{d})$ denote the joint probability of two pixels f_k, f_l that are displaced by \mathbf{d} .

- It is estimated from an image by counting the number n_{kl} of occurrences of the pixel values f_k, f_l distanced by displacement \mathbf{d} in the image.
- If n be the total number of any possible joint pairs, co-occurrence matrix elements $C_{\mathbf{d}}(k, l)$ are given by:

$$C_{\mathbf{d}}(k, l) = \hat{p}(f_k, f_l, \mathbf{d}) = \frac{n_{kl}}{n}.$$

Texture description

- Co-occurrence matrix C_d has dimension $N \times N$, where N is the number of grey levels in the image.
- Co-occurrence matrices carry very useful information about spatial texture organization.
 - If the texture is coarse, their mass tends to be concentrated around the main diagonal of C_d .
 - If the texture is fine, co-occurrence matrix values are much more spread.
 - If texture carries strong directional information along direction d , co-occurrence matrix entries tends to have their mass in the main diagonal of C_d .

Texture description

Several texture descriptors have been proposed to characterize the cooccurrence matrix content:

- **Maximum probability:**

$$p_d = \max_{k,l} C_d(k, l).$$

- **Entropy:**

$$H_d = - \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{l=1}^N C_d(k, l) \ln C_d(k, l).$$

- **Moment of order m :**

$$I_d = \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{l=1}^N |k - l|^m C_d(k, l).$$

Texture description

Spectral texture characterization is based on:

- **image power spectrum**, e.g., **periodogram** $|F(u, v)|^2$:

$$F(u, v) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} f(n, m) \exp \left[-i \left(\frac{2\pi n u}{N} + \frac{2\pi m v}{M} \right) \right].$$

- **autocorrelation function** $R_{ff}(k, l)$ of an image $f(i, j)$:

$$R_{ff}(k, l) = \frac{1}{(2N_1 + 1)(2N_2 + 1)} \sum_{i=-N_1}^{N_1} \sum_{j=-N_2}^{N_2} f(i, j) f(i + k, j + l).$$

Texture description



- It can be calculated both for positive and negative lags (k, l) .
- It usually attains a maximum for zero lag $(0,0)$.
- It drops exponentially with (k, l) (positive or negative).
- Direct definition-based computation of the autocorrelation function is preferred for a small number of lags (k, l) .
- The calculation of $R_{ff}(k, l)$ for a large number of lags is performed using 2D FFT.

Texture description

- Autocorrelation function $R_{ff}(k, l)$ is given by the inverse 2D DFT:

$$R_{ff}(k, l) = \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} \sum_{v=0}^{M-1} F(u, v) F^*(u, v) \exp \left[i \left(\frac{2\pi ku}{N} + \frac{2\pi lv}{M} \right) \right].$$

- Autocorrelation function $R_{ff}(k, l)$ is the inverse 2D DFT of Periodogram:

$$|F(u, v)|^2 = F(u, v) F^*(u, v).$$

Texture description



- Pre-multiplication of the image $f(m, n)$ by a two-dimensional window $w(m, n)$ produces a relatively smooth power spectrum estimate.
- Both 2D DFT and inverse 2D DFT can be calculated via 2D Fast Fourier Transform algorithms.

Texture description

- If polar coordinates are used for power spectrum $R_{ff}(r, \varphi)$ description:

$$r = \sqrt{\omega_1^2 + \omega_2^2}.$$

$$\phi = \arctan\left(\frac{\omega_2}{\omega_1}\right).$$

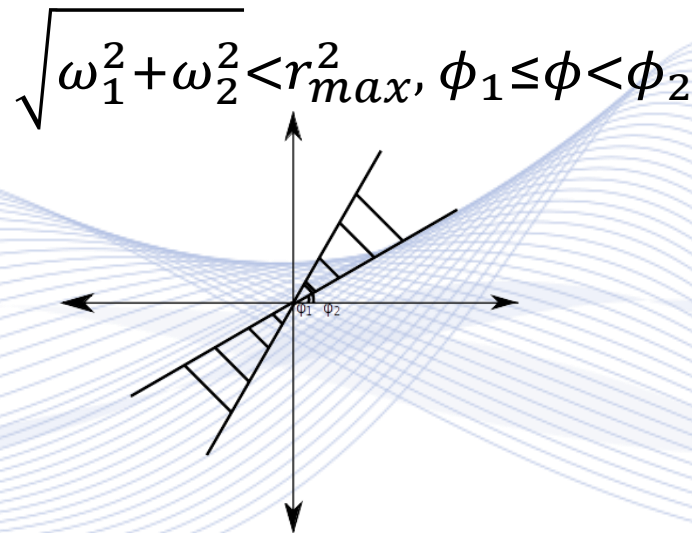
- **Angular power spectrum distribution** $P_\phi(\phi)$ is a very good descriptor of texture directionality:

$$P_\phi(\phi) = \int_0^{r_{max}} P_{ff}(r, \phi) dr.$$

Texture description

- This integral can be approximated by a summation within a wedge $\phi_1 \leq \phi < \phi_2$ in the spectral domain:

$$P_\phi(\phi) \approx \sum_{\sqrt{\omega_1^2 + \omega_2^2} < r_{max}, \phi_1 \leq \phi < \phi_2} |F(\omega_1, \omega_2)|^2 .$$



Integration wedge for the calculation of $P_\phi(\phi)$.

Texture description

- **Radial power spectrum distribution:**

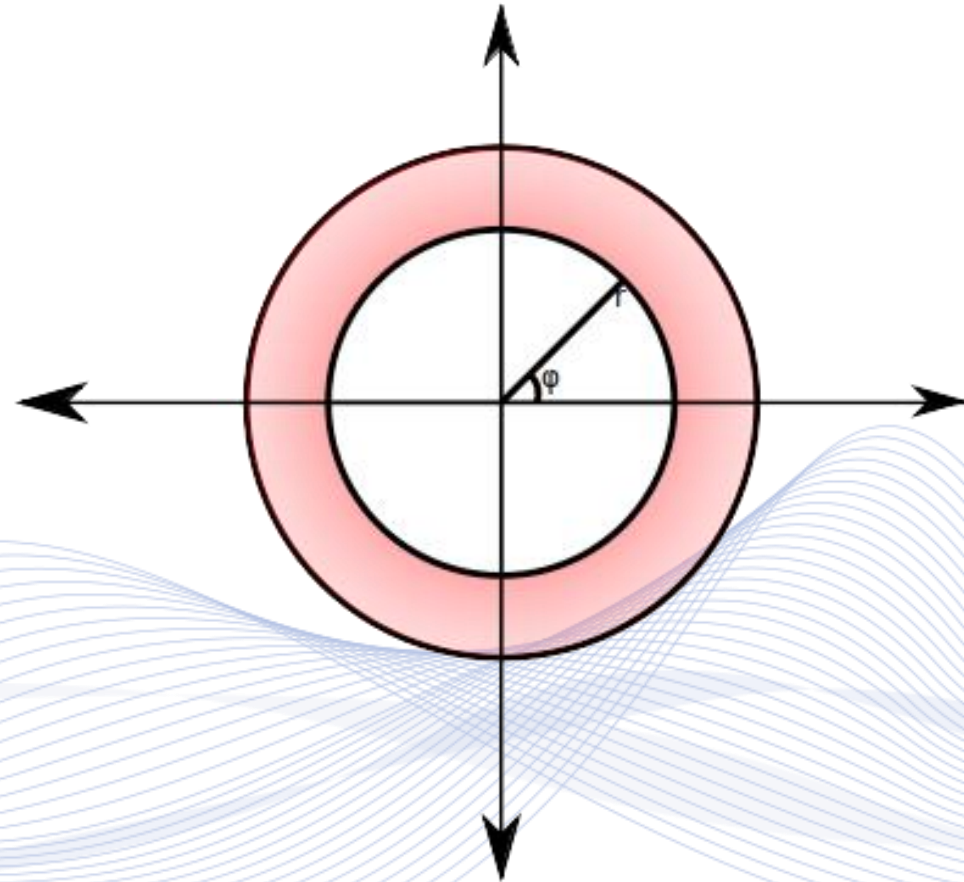
$$P_r(r) = \int_0^{2\pi} P_{ff}(r, \phi) d\phi$$

can describe texture coarseness.

- It can be approximated, by splitting the spectral domain into concentric rings:

$$P_r(r) \approx \sum_{r_1^2 \leq \sqrt{\omega_1^2 + \omega_2^2} < r_2^2} |F(\omega_1, \omega_2)|^2, \quad r_1 \leq r < r_2.$$

Texture description



Integration ring for the calculation of $P_r(r)$.

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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/>**

**Contact: Prof. I. Pitas
pitass@csd.auth.gr**