



ICAR 2016

# Multi-scale Imaging for the Study of Reproduction Summer school

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## Part III – From Image Analysis to Pattern Recognition

(Classification)

Jean-Yves Ramel

[ramel@univ-tours.fr](mailto:ramel@univ-tours.fr)

# From Image Analysis to Pattern Recognition

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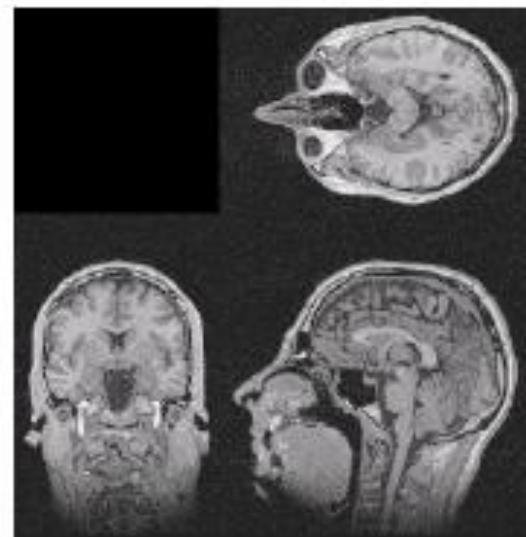
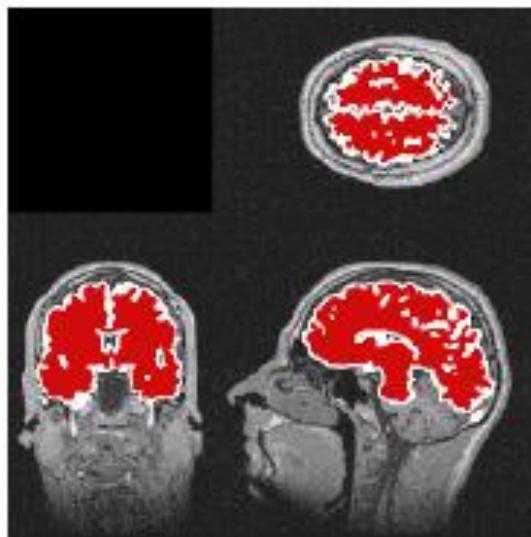
- Brief Introduction
- Image segmentation
  - What does it mean?
  - Contour detection
  - Detection of Regions of Interest (ROI)
- Getting Binary Images
  - Why is it interesting?
  - Image Binarization
  - Connected component extraction and analysis
- From segmentation to recognition
  - What is machine learning? What is classification?
  - Image segmentation using pixel classification
  - ROI characterization and classification

# Segmentation vs Recognition

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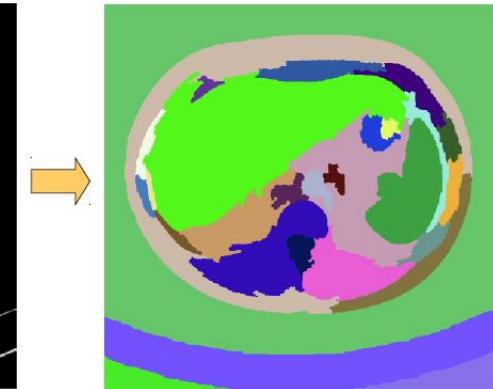
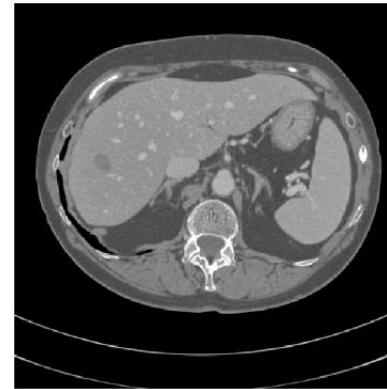
- **Image Segmentation** = Detection of Region of interest, localization and extraction of specific areas = image decomposition into homogeneous regions (according to a specific criteria)
- **Object recognition** = identification of objects / regions = class assignment (→ classifying)

**The dilemma : Need to segment to recognize  
or need to recognize to better segment ???**



# What is segmentation ?

- Image decomposition into regions corresponding to meaningful objects
  - 1 object = 1 label → Pixel tagging
  - 1 object = Homogeneity criteria ?
  - Same color = same region



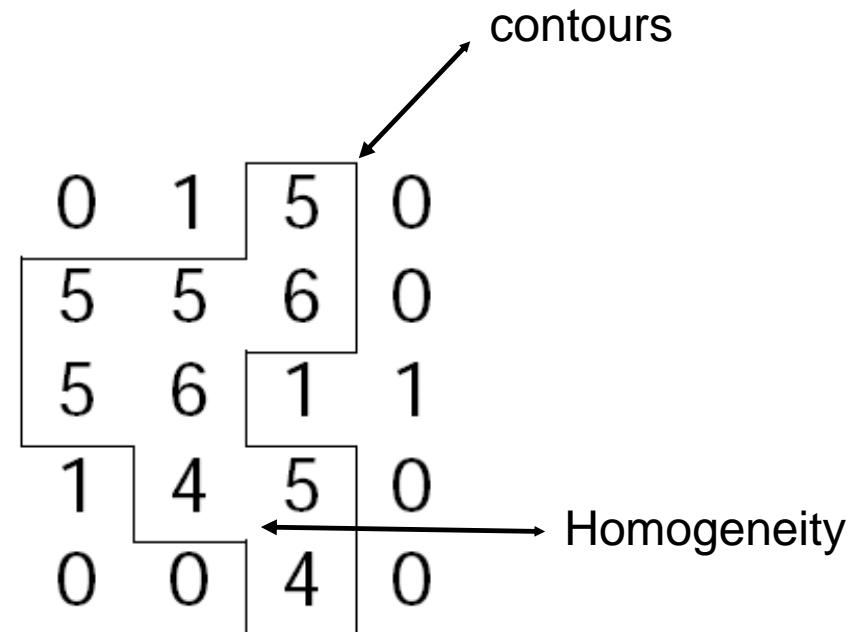
1 region = 1 label = 1 color  
(for human visualisation)

- Easy for human
  - Use of a priori knowledge
  - Looking to the whole image for a more global interpretation
- 3 main categories of segmentation methods
  - Region based approach : associate similar pixels to obtain homogenous regions
  - Contour based approach: search for adjacent dissimilar pixels to obtain the frontiers between homogenous areas
  - Machine Learning based approaches

# What is segmentation ?

- From image to regions
- Region characterization
  - Histogram  $h(i) = (0; 1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6) \rightarrow (7; 4; 0; 0; 2; 5; 2)$
  - Number of pixels inside the region  $R = 9$
  - Average of pixel intensities  $\bar{R} = 5$
  - Standard deviation  $\sigma_R = 4/9$
  - Length of the contour  $R = 18$

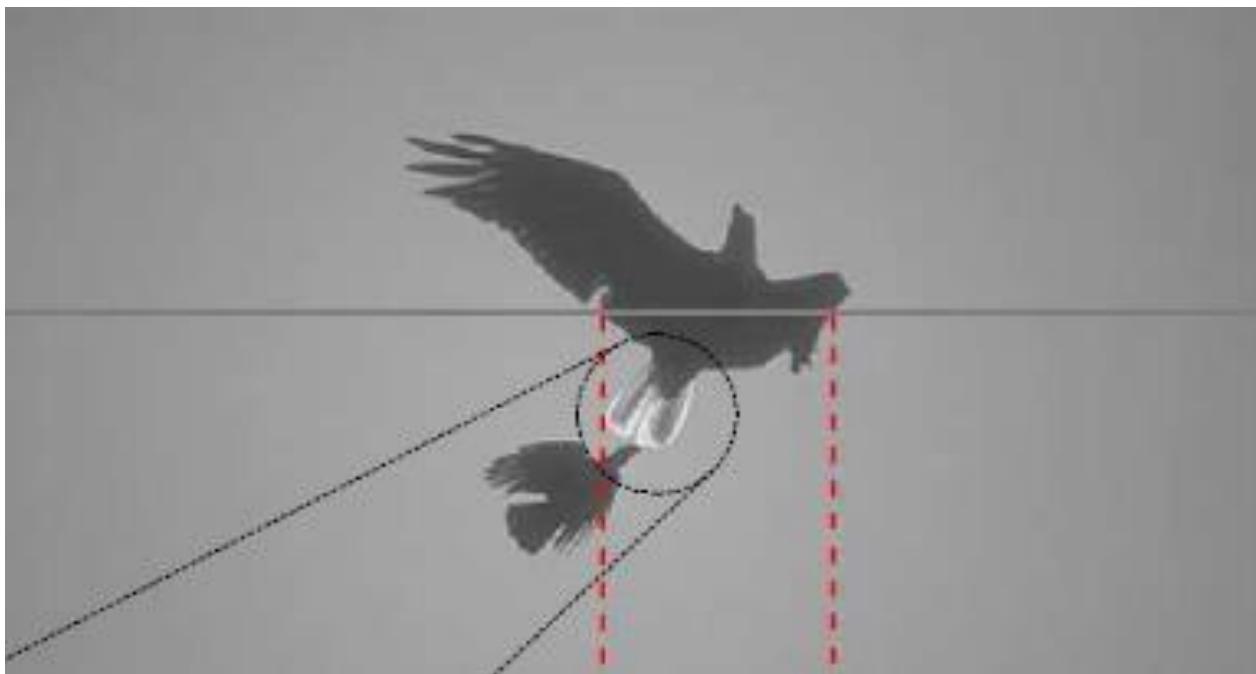
Image → Region  $R$



# Contour based approach

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**Question:** How to detect the contours in an image ???



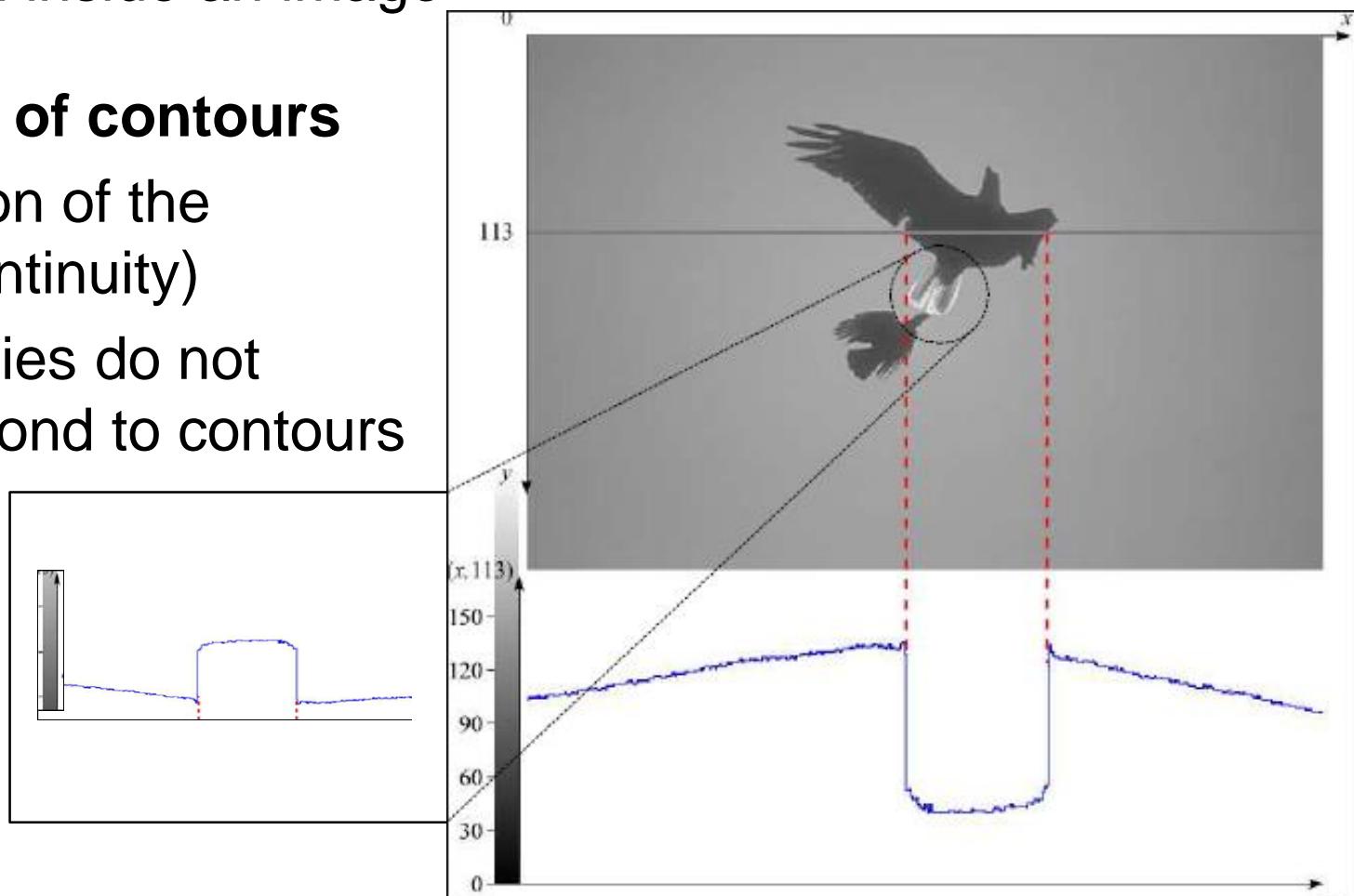
# Notion of contours

## Definition

- Contour = Frontier between 2 objects or between an object and the background inside an image

## Characterization of contours

- Sudden variation of the intensity (discontinuity)
- *But discontinuities do not always correspond to contours*

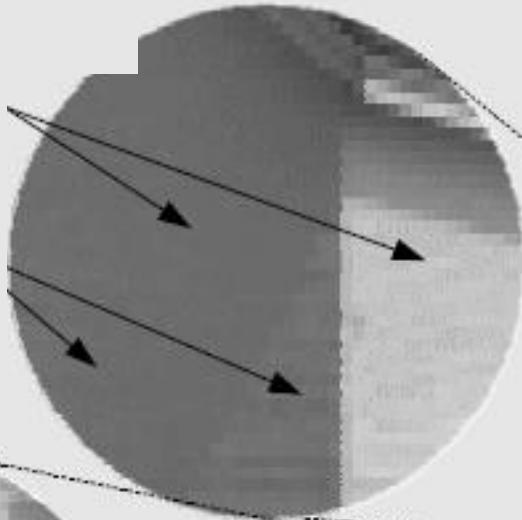
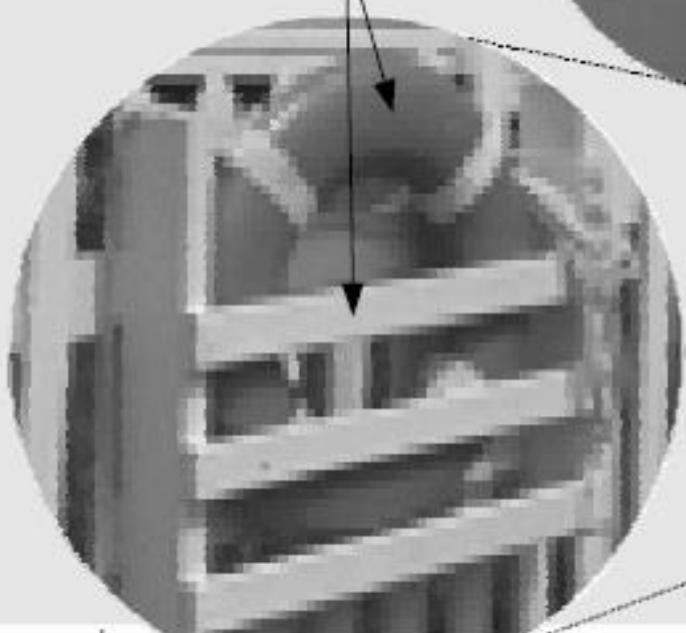


# Notion of contours

## Discontinuity detection in the intensities

Difficulties

Difficulties

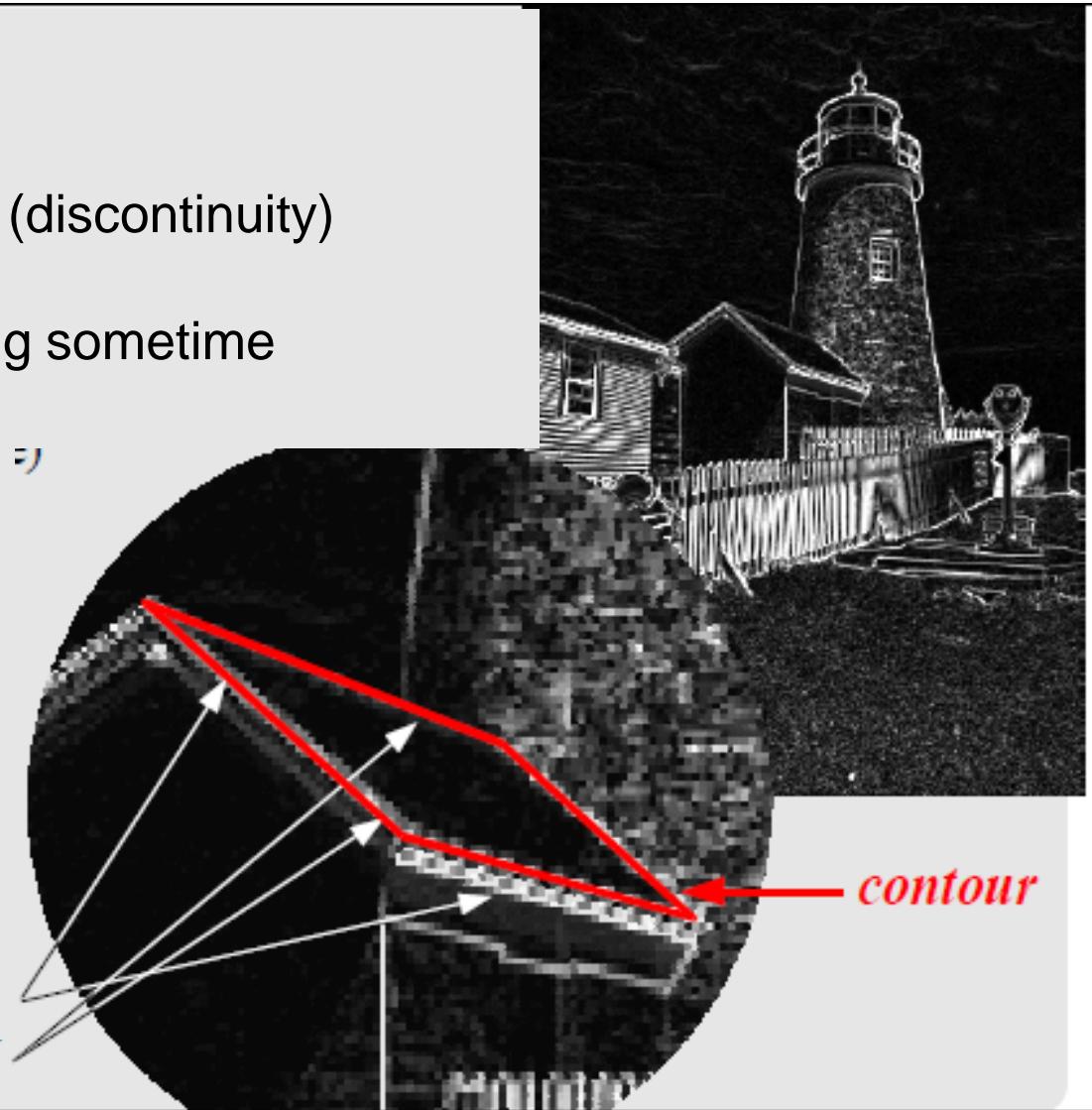


# Notion of contours

## Contour extraction

- **Candidate point detection**
  - According specific properties (discontinuity)
  - With a part of uncertainty
  - Disturbed by noise (smoothing sometime needed)
- **Contour construction**
  - Need a binary image
  - To try to link together the contour pixels (connexity analysis)
  - To obtain a real contour (curves, sequence, ...)

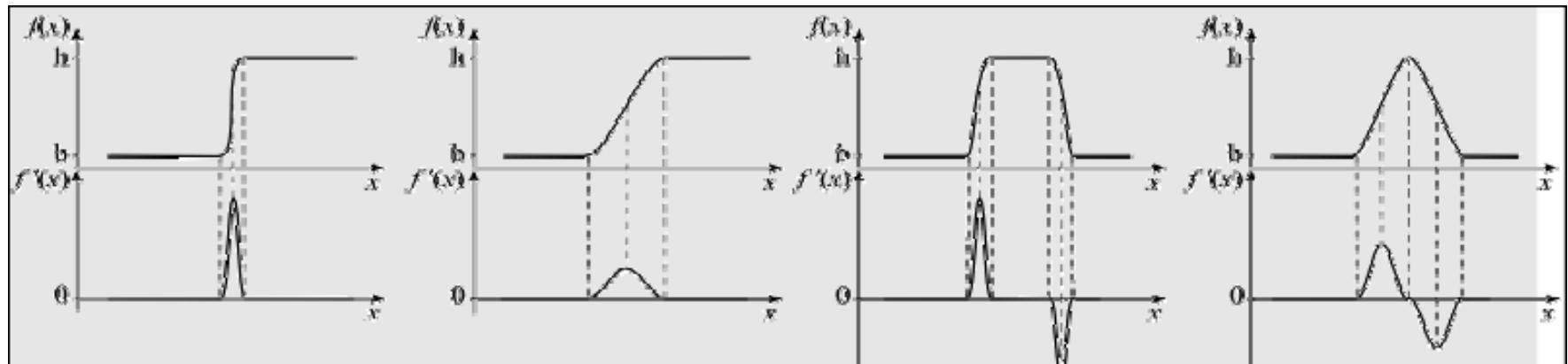
*points contours !*



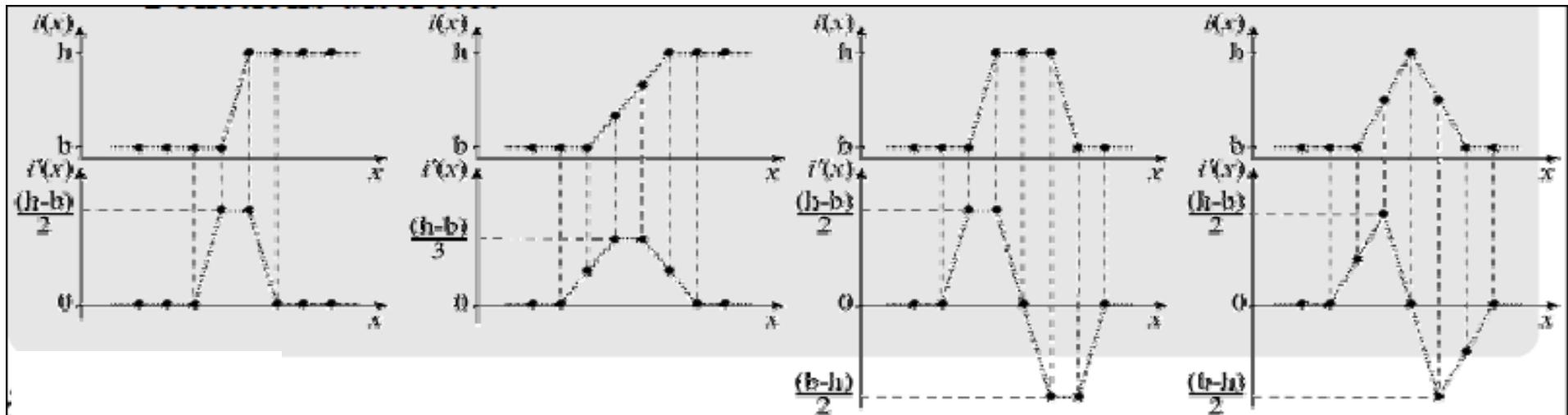
# Contour detection

## Bringing out contour areas : First derivative

- Continuous functions

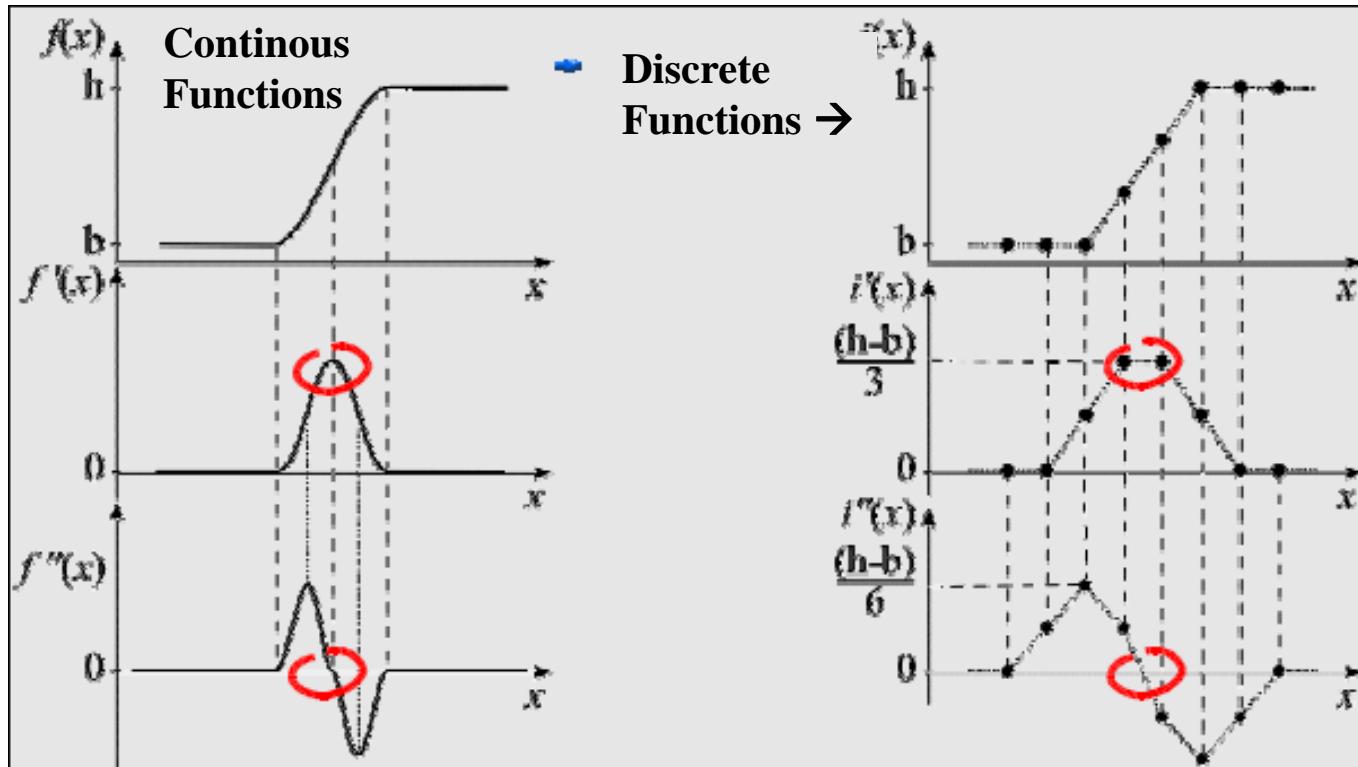


- Discrete functions



# Contour detection

## Bringing out contour areas : Second derivative



Contour point detection : utilization of a selection criteria

- First derivative : local maxima
- Second derivative : zero crossing

# Contour detection & Gradient

## Notion of gradient : First Derivative in 2D

- The (discrete) image  $I$  is defined as a set of quantified point of an underlying bi dimensional function  $f(x,y)$

## 2D derivative of the underlying function

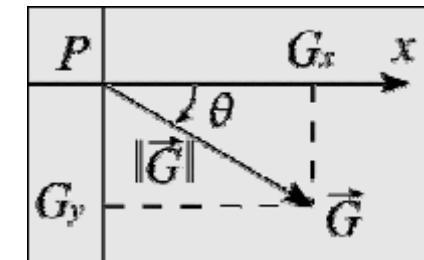
- We can compute a (partial) derivative of  $f$  in each principal directions →

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} \text{ et } \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y}$$

- Their combination corresponds to the gradient, with 2 dimensions

$$\rightarrow \vec{\nabla} f(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{G}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} G_x(x, y) \\ G_y(x, y) \end{pmatrix}$$

- This vector is characterized, in each point  $P$ , by
  - its norm (or module)  $\|G\| = \sqrt{G_x^2 + G_y^2}$
  - its direction  $\Theta = \arctan(G_y / G_x)$

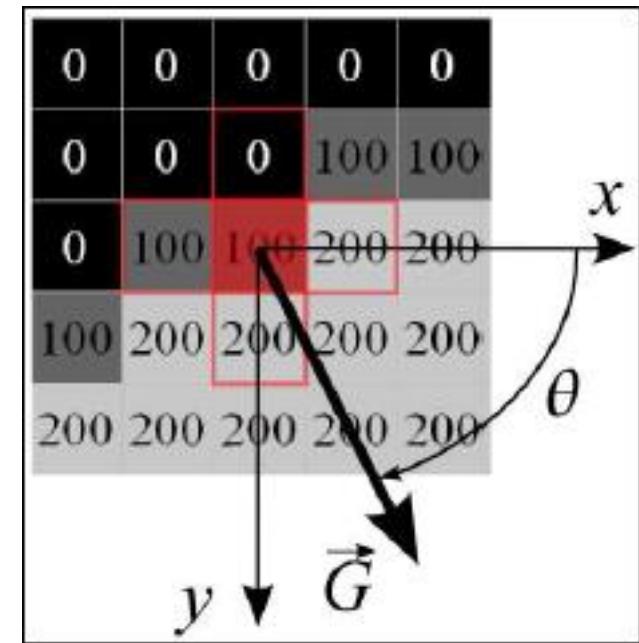


# Contour detection & Gradient

## First derivative in 2D (discrete)

### Main properties of the gradient

- The magnitude of the vector represents the slope of the surface in the image around  $P$
- High magnitude = strong variation around  $P$
- The direction of the vector corresponds to the direction of the strongest slope in  $P$
- The vector is oriented in the direction of the ascendant slope (ascendant order of gray level)



### Relations between Gradient and contour

- Contour = important variation of gray levels
- The gradient vector is perpendicular with the contour

Associated masks :

$$G_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} : \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} +1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$G_y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} : \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} +1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Dérivées premières :  $G_x = 50$ ,  $G_y = 100$

Norme du gradient :  $\|\vec{G}\| = \sqrt{G_x^2 + G_y^2} = 112$

Autres formules parfois utilisées (plus simples) :

$$\|\vec{G}\| = |G_x| + |G_y| = 150 \quad \text{en norme } L_1$$

$$\|\vec{G}\| = \max(|G_x|, |G_y|) = 100 \quad \text{en norme } L_\infty$$

Direction du gradient :  $\theta = \arctan(G_y/G_x) = 63^\circ$

# Contour detection & Gradient

## Principles of the smoothing+derivative masks

- The noise effects are amplified during derivation
- Necessity of a smoothing of the image
  - Neither, Pre-processing before the derivative
  - Or, at the same time, during the derivative
- Simultaneous smoothing and derivative :
  - Principle : smoothing in a perpendicular orientation from the derivative
    - Average in columns of the derivative computed on the lines;
    - Average in lines of the derivative computed on the column.
  - Smoothing/derivative filters can be constructed, less sensitive to noise :

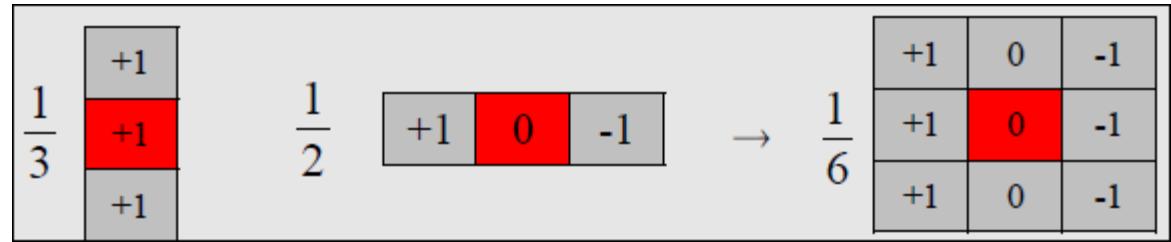
$$\begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{3} \\ \begin{matrix} +1 \\ +1 \\ +1 \end{matrix} \end{array} \quad \frac{1}{2} \begin{matrix} +1 & 0 & -1 \end{matrix} \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{6} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline +1 & 0 & -1 \\ \hline +1 & 0 & -1 \\ \hline +1 & 0 & -1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

- Several such models have been defined : Prewitt, Sobel, ...

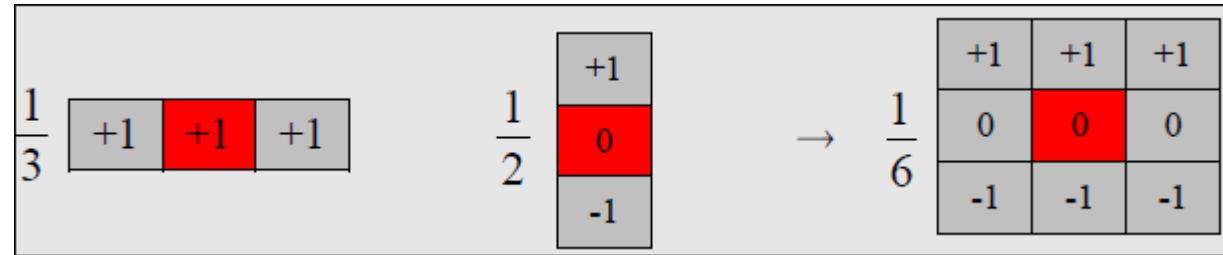
# Contour detection & Gradient

## Prewitt filter: mean/derivative

- Vertical component of the gradient  $G_x$

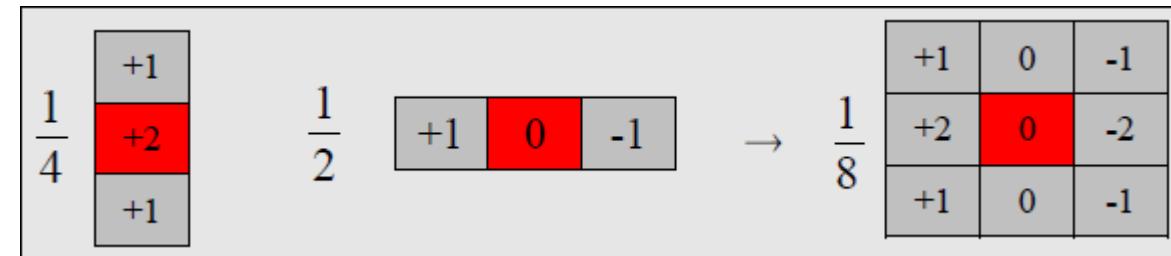


- Horizontal component of the gradient  $G_y$

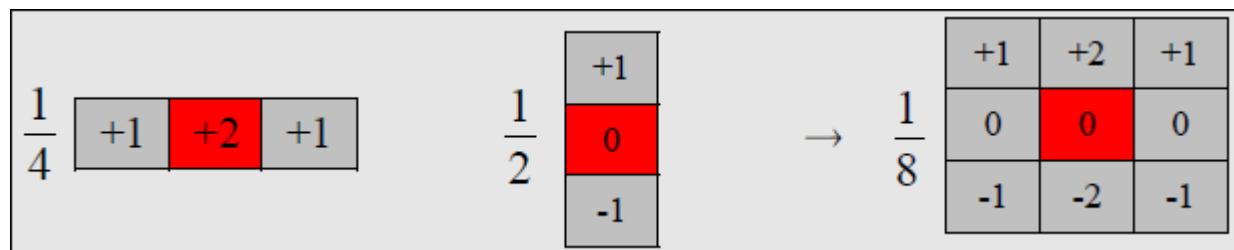


## Sobel filter : Gaussian/derivative

- Vertical component of the gradient  $G_x$



- Horizontal component of the gradient  $G_y$



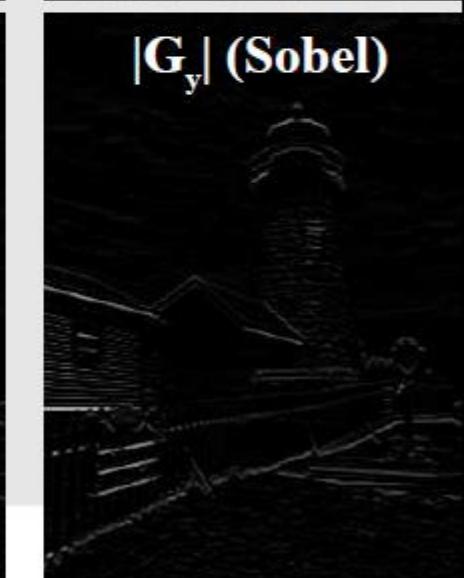
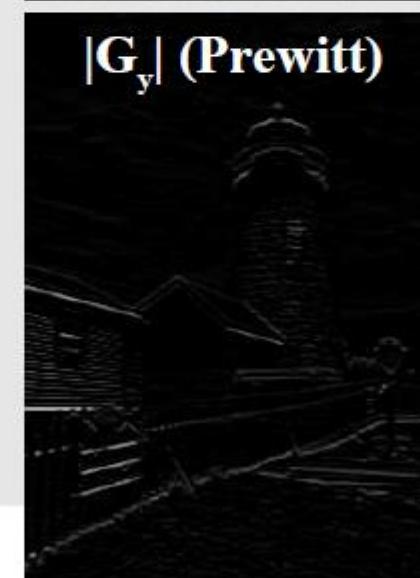
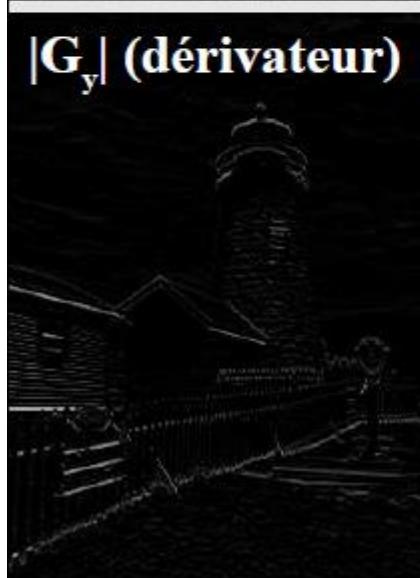
# Contour detection & Gradient



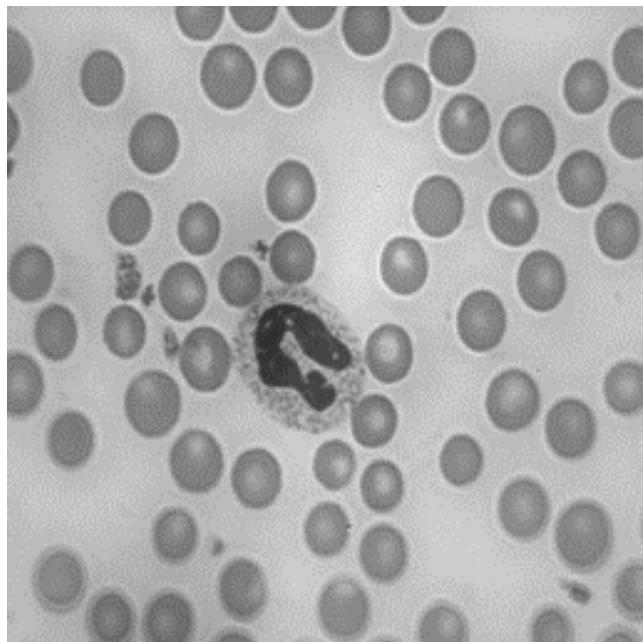
Vertical boundaries



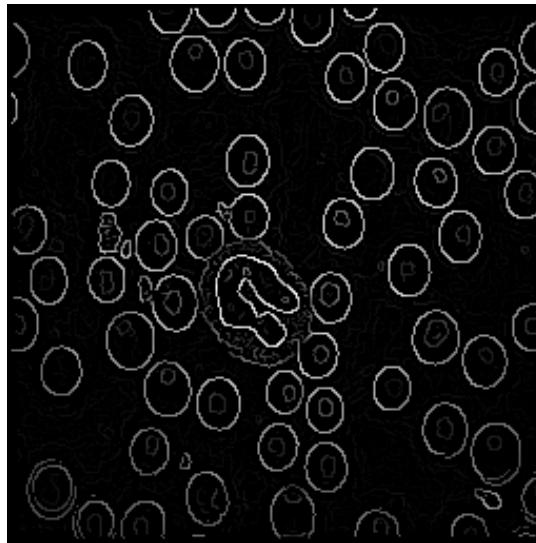
Horizontal boundaries



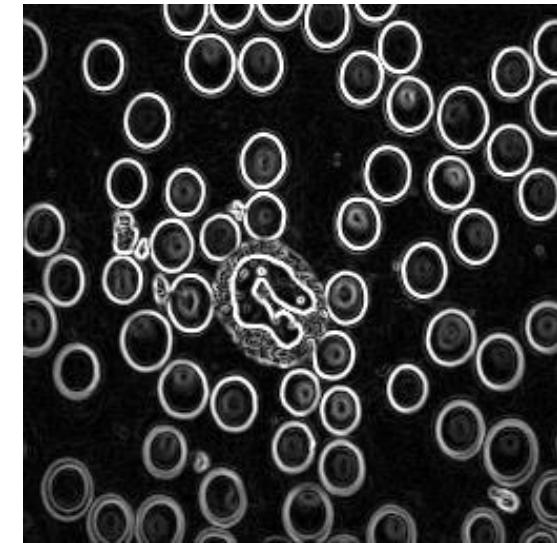
# Contour detection & Gradient



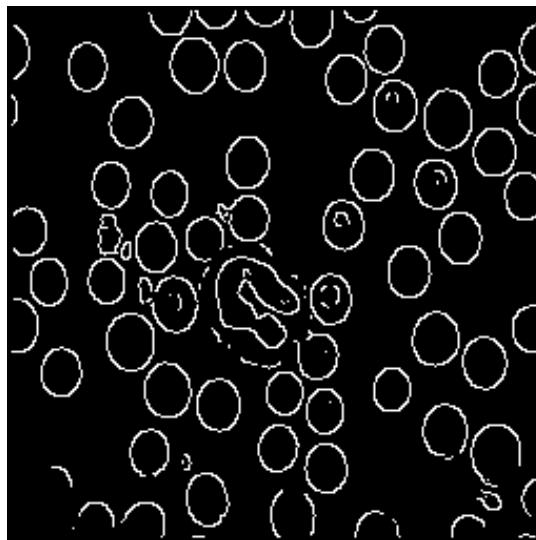
Prewitt



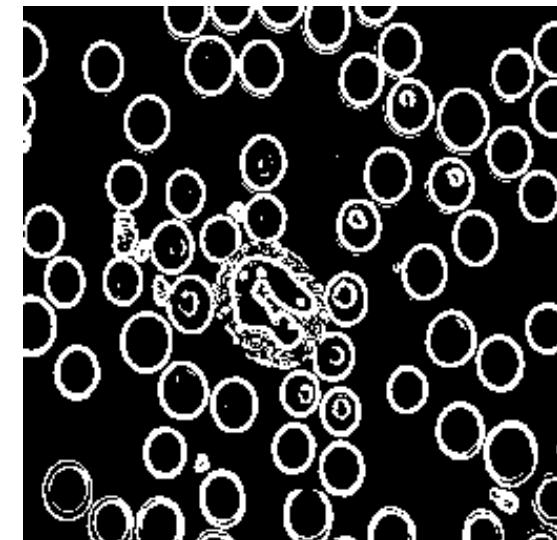
Sobel



Magnitude



Thresholding



# Contour detection & Laplacian

## Definition of Laplacian (second derivative)

- Le Laplacian is defined by :
$$\Delta f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$
- It is a scalar signed value (not a sectorial one as the gradient)

### → Masques associés aux dérivées secondes :

pour  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$  :  $\frac{1}{4}$

pour  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}$  :  $\frac{1}{4}$

### → Masques alternatifs (dérivées calculées sur les axes à 45°) :

pour  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial X^2}$  :  $\frac{1}{4}$

0	0	+1
0	-2	0
+1	0	0

pour  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial Y^2}$  :  $\frac{1}{4}$

+1	0	0
0	-2	0
0	0	+1

### → Approximations discrètes du Laplacien $\Delta$ :

$$\frac{1}{8} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & +1 & 0 \\ \hline +1 & -4 & +1 \\ \hline 0 & +1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

ou  $\frac{1}{8} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline +1 & 0 & +1 \\ \hline 0 & -4 & 0 \\ \hline +1 & 0 & +1 \\ \hline \end{array}$

ou encore  $\frac{1}{16} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline +1 & +1 & +1 \\ \hline +1 & -8 & +1 \\ \hline +1 & +1 & +1 \\ \hline \end{array}$

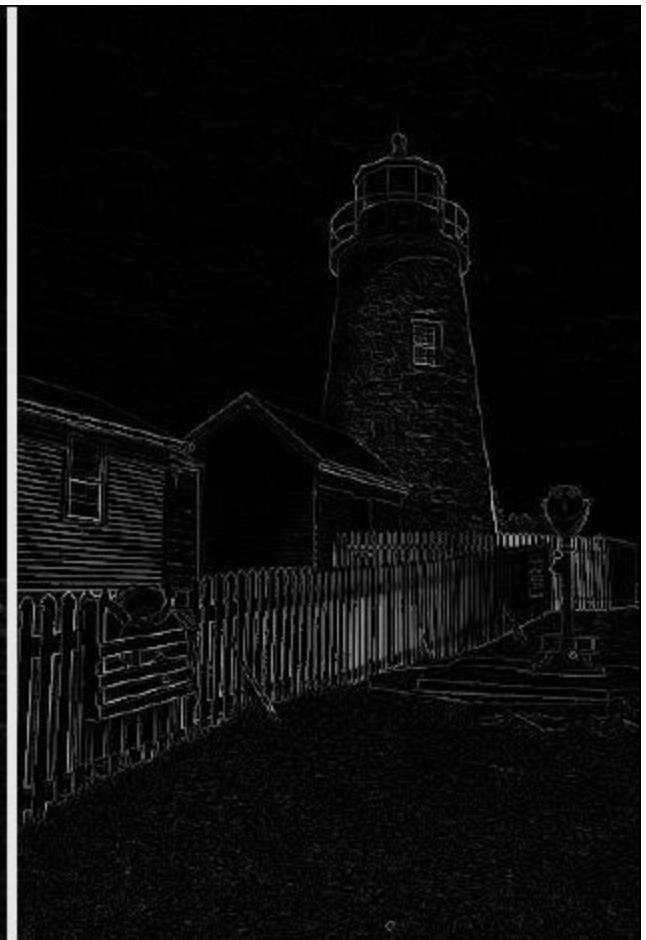
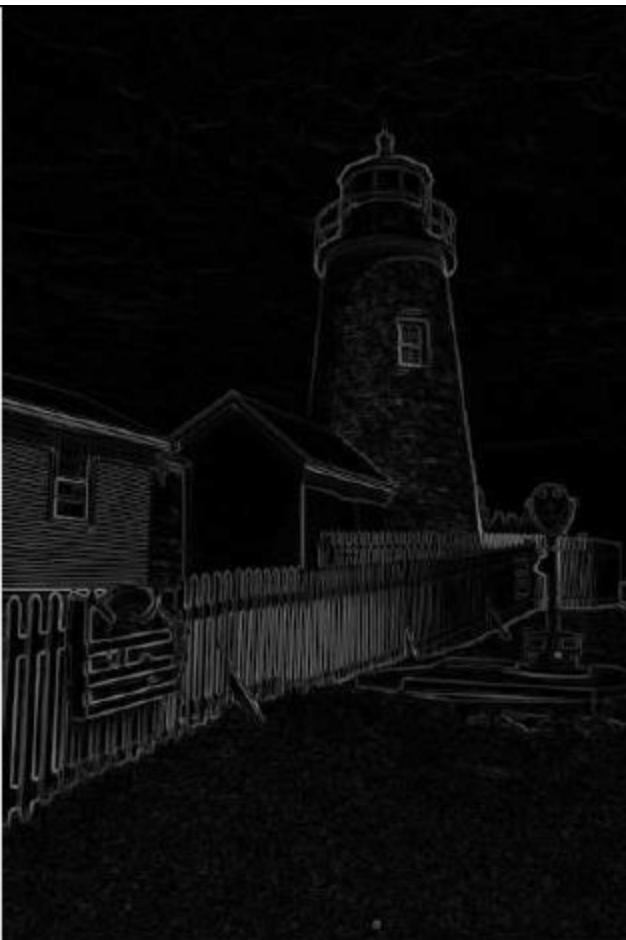
# Contour detection & Laplacian

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Sobel

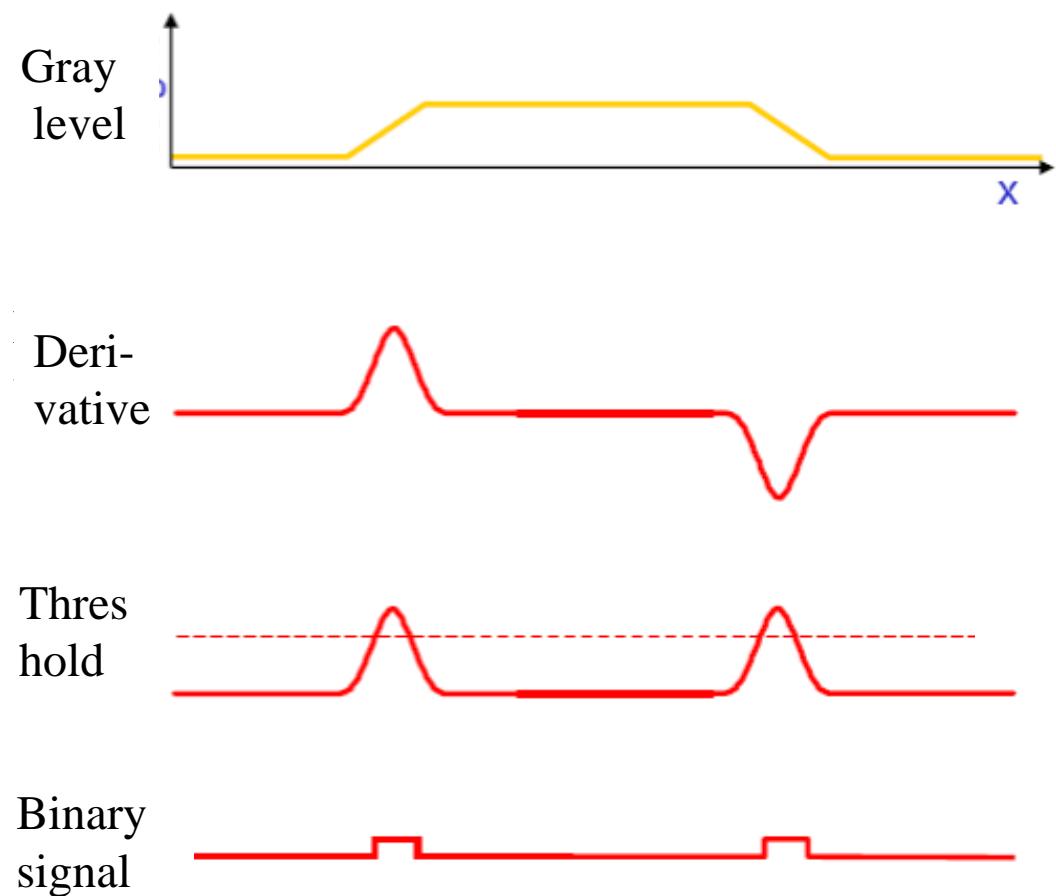
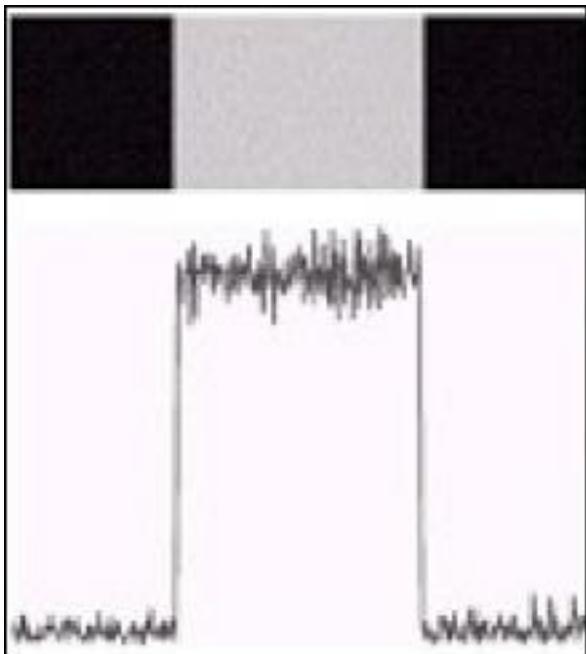


Laplacian



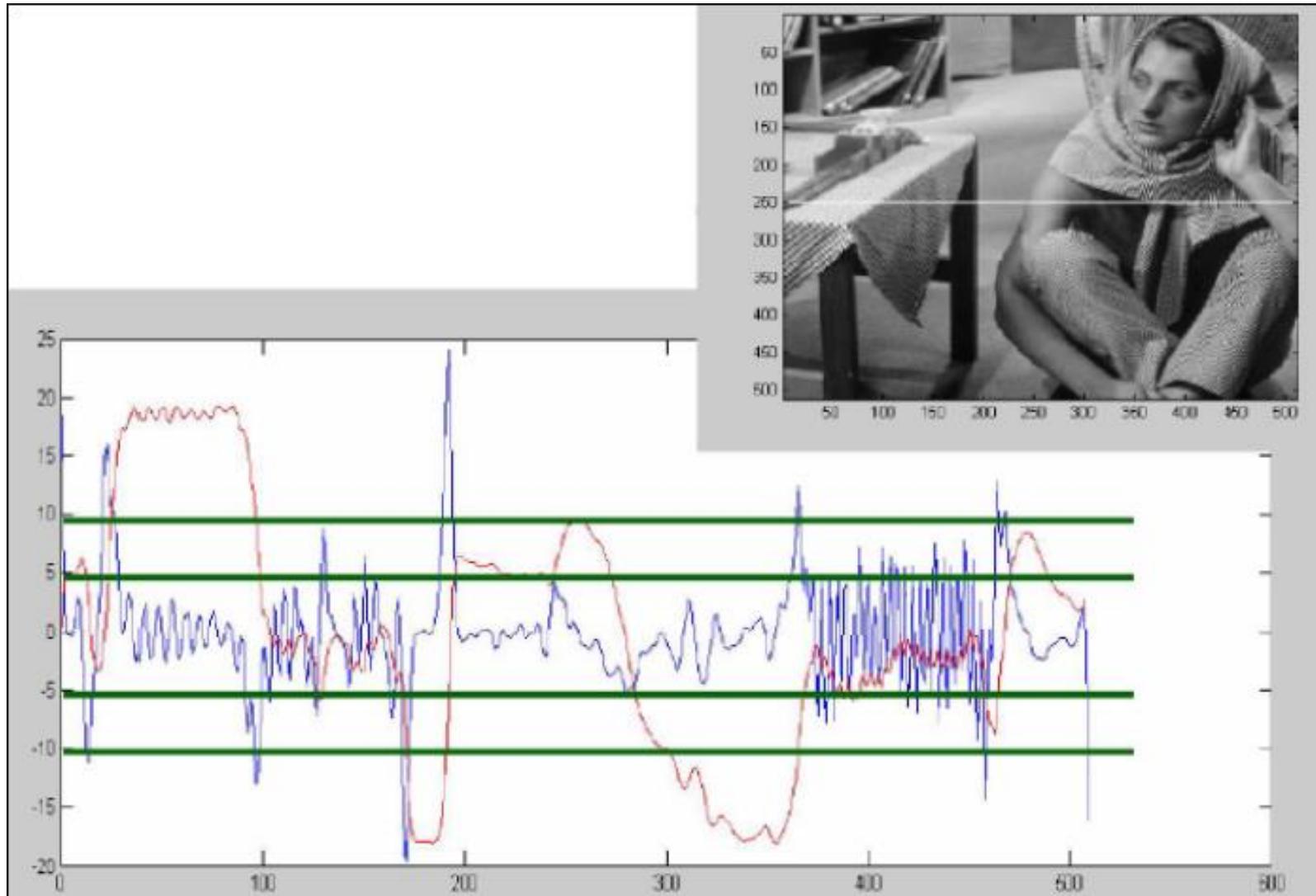
# Contour detection & Thresholding

- Noise vs real Contours → Local vs Global extrema



# Contour detection and noise...

What about the choice of the local maxima to keep?



# Optimal filtering: Canny

## Filtering in several steps (not only one convolution)

Given :

- A contour model (step)
- A noise model (Gaussian white noise)

Cauterization of the performances in terms of :

- detection (mainly for low contours)
- localization (precision of the position)

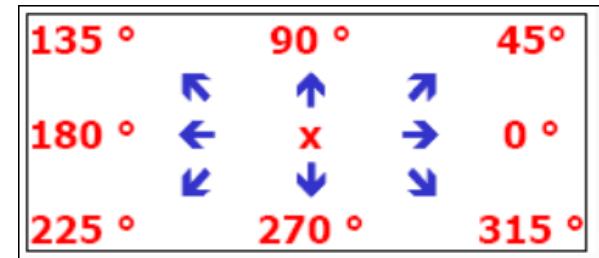
### 1. Apply a Gaussian filtering to remove noise

### 2. Compute gradient with Sobel in X and Y

- compute gradient magnitude  $|G| = |G_x| + |G_y|$
- 

### 3. Compute directions of the gradient

- Direction of gradient  $\theta = \arctan(G_y / G_x)$
- Round the directions with multiples of  $\pi/4$



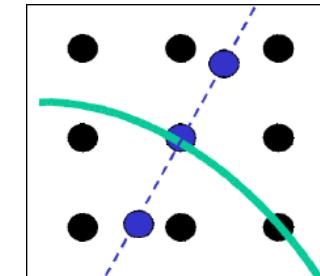
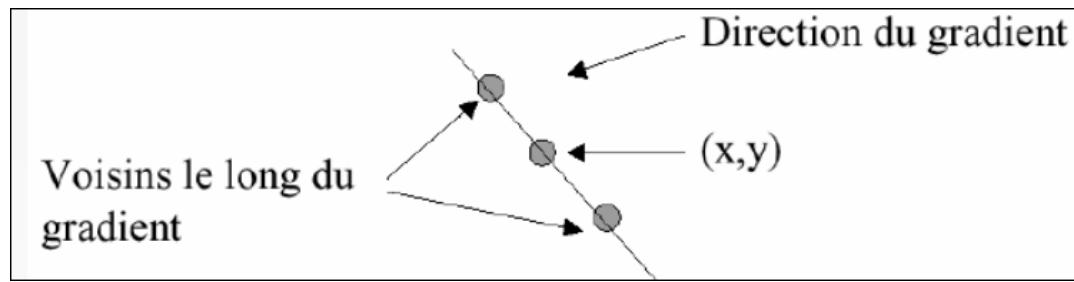
# Optimal filtering: Canny

## 4. Removal of non-maxima:

- IF the magnitude of the gradient at the pixel  $(x, y)$  is lower than the magnitude of one of its 2 neighbors along the gradient direction, THEN set the magnitude of the pixel  $(x, y)$  to zero.

## 5. Thresholding of the contours (hysteresis) :

- Need 2 thresholds : One high  $S_h$  & one low  $S_b$ .
- For each pixel, analyse the magnitude of the gradient :
  1. IF  $\text{magnitude}(x, y) < S_b$  THEN put pixel to 0 ( $\in / \text{contour}$ )
  2. IF  $\text{magnitude}(x, y) > S_h$  THEN set pixel  $\in \text{contour}$
  3. IF  $S_b \leq \text{magnitude}(x, y) \leq S_h$  AND pixel is connected to another pixel already accepted as contour THEN set pixel  $\in \text{contour}$ .



# Contour detection, summary

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- The detection of contour points is based on derivative computation (gradient or Laplacian) of the image
- The computation of the derivative is approximated using convolution masks
  - Advantages : very fast, very local.
  - Drawbacks : very sensitive to noise (Laplacian). Need denoising before
- The smoothing+derivative filter are less sensitive but also less precise
- All these filters allow only to estimate the probability for each pixel to be part of a contours (candidate points)
- Then, we have to :
  - Decide if either the pixel is really part of a contour or not, according a threshold for example
  - Analyze the selected point to build real contour chains

# Region based approach

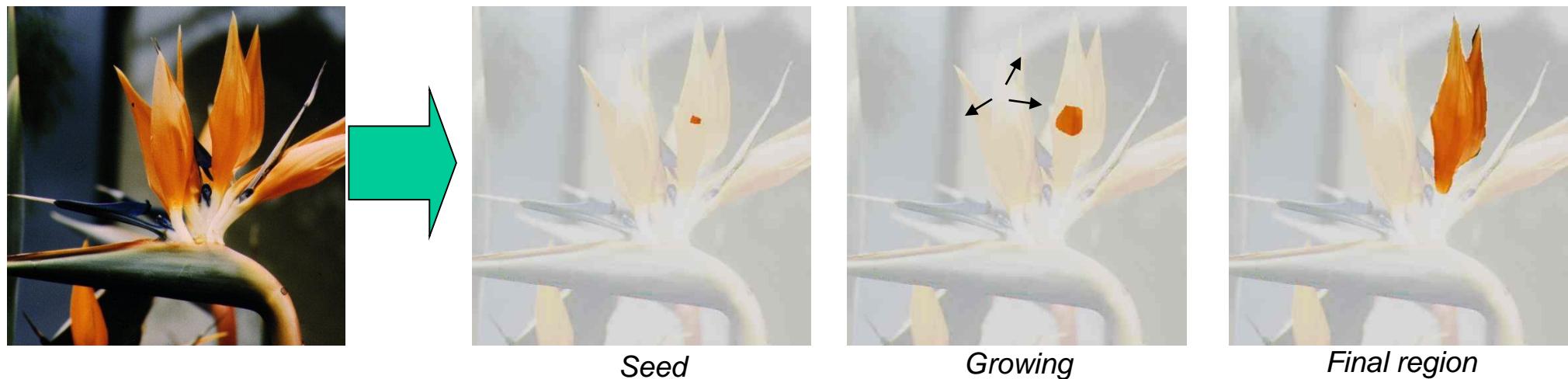
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- Question : How to agglomerate pixels into regions ?
- Question : How to split images into regions ?

# Region Growing

## Algorithm:

- Select seed points
- Examines neighboring pixels of initial seed points
- Determines whether the pixel neighbors should be added to the region
- The process is iterated on



## The Similarity threshold value

- The criteria of similarities or so called homogeneity are important. It usually depends on the original image and the segmentation result we want.
- Some criteria often used are grayscale (average intensity or variance), color, and texture or shape.

# Region Growing

**The suitable selection of seed points is important**

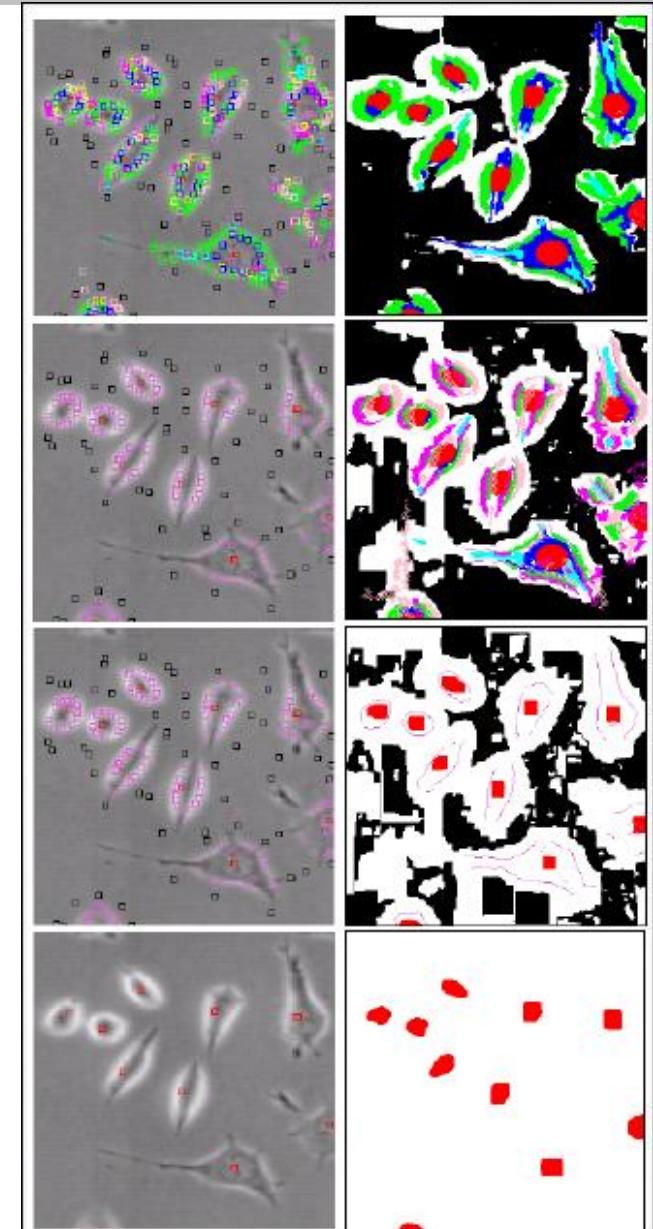
- The selection of seed points is depending on the users
- Some automatic/random selection methods can be used (avoiding high gradient pixels)

**More information on the image is better**

- Number of seed points?
- Homogeneity criteria?.

**A minimum area threshold**

- No region should be smaller than this threshold in the segmented image



# Region Growing

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## Advantages

- Simple
- We can determine the seed points and the criteria we want to use
- We can choose the multiple criteria at the same time

## Disadvantages

- It is a local method with no global view of the problem
- Sensitive to noise
- Seed dependent
- Computationally expensive
- A continuous path of points a continuous small color gradient may exist which connects any two points in the image



# Split and Merge

## Principle :

- Divide recursively the image into 4 sub-regions (SPLIT)
- Merge homogenous adjacent regions (MERGE)

SPLIT

0	1	0	0	7	7	7	7
1	0	2	2	7	7	7	7
0	2	2	2	7	7	7	7
4	4	2	2	7	7	7	7
0	0	1	1	3	3	7	7
1	1	2	2	3	7	7	7
2	4	3	0	5	7	7	7
2	3	3	5	5	0	7	7

*Image initiale*

0	1	0	0	7	7	7	7
1	0	2	2	7	7	7	7
0	2	2	2	7	7	7	7
4	4	2	2	7	7	7	7
0	0	1	1	3	3	7	7
1	1	2	2	3	7	7	7
2	4	3	0	5	7	7	7
2	3	3	5	5	0	7	7

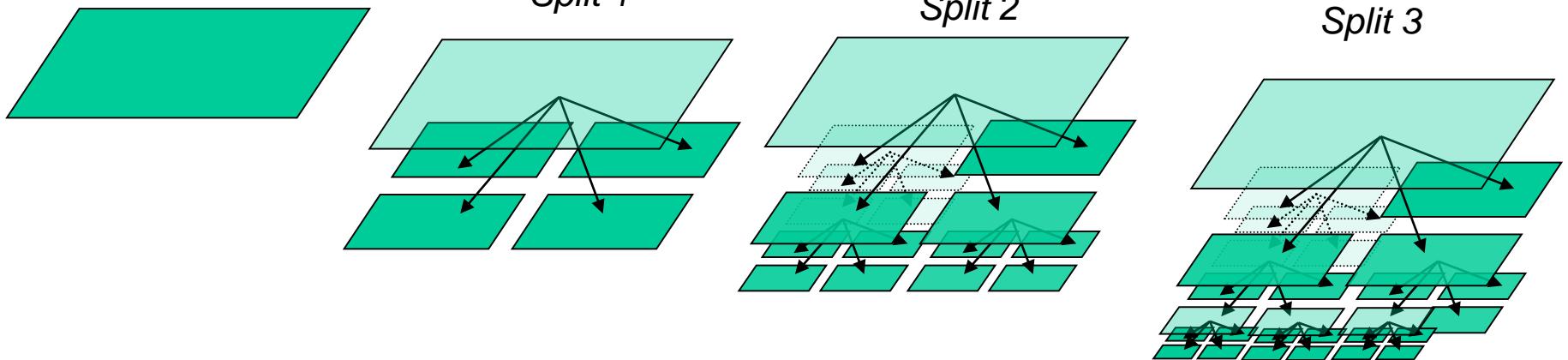
*Split 1*

0	1	0	0	7	7	7	7
1	0	2	2	7	7	7	7
0	2	2	2	7	7	7	7
4	4	2	2	7	7	7	7
0	0	1	1	3	3	7	7
1	1	2	2	3	7	7	7
2	4	3	0	5	7	7	7
2	3	3	5	5	0	7	7

*Split 2*

0	1	0	0	7	7	7	7
1	0	2	2	7	7	7	7
0	2	2	2	7	7	7	7
4	4	2	2	7	7	7	7
0	0	1	1	3	3	7	7
1	1	2	2	3	7	7	7
2	4	3	0	5	7	7	7
2	3	3	5	5	0	7	7

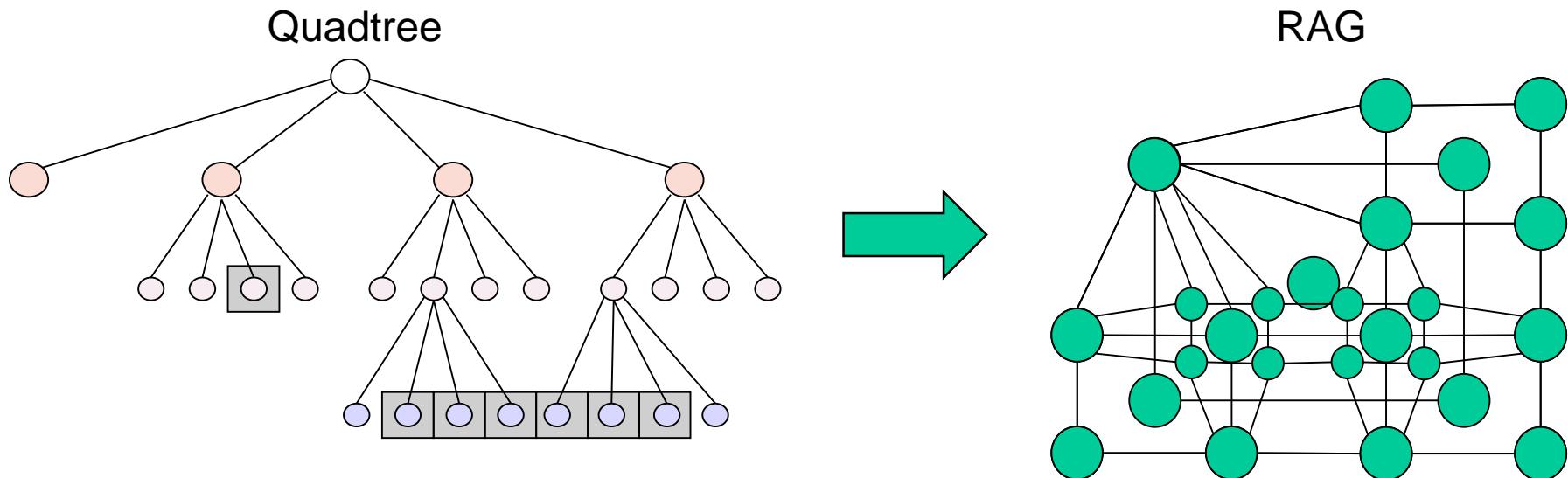
*Split 3*



# Split and Merge

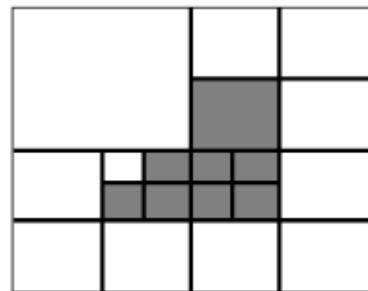
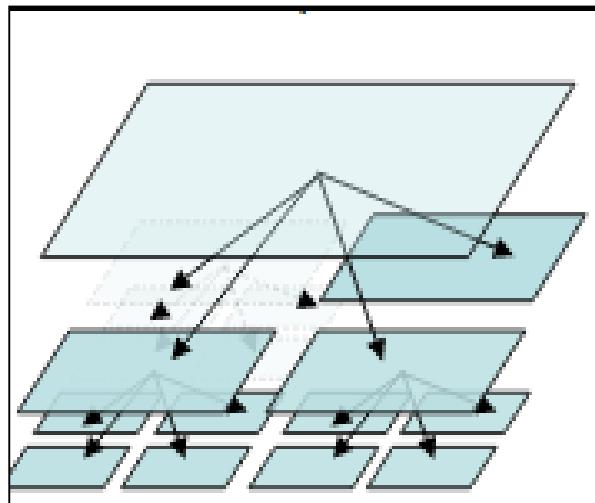
## MERGE

- A Region Adjacent Graph is constructed
- Vertices attributes : homogeneity measure between graph
- Iterative merging of the nodes

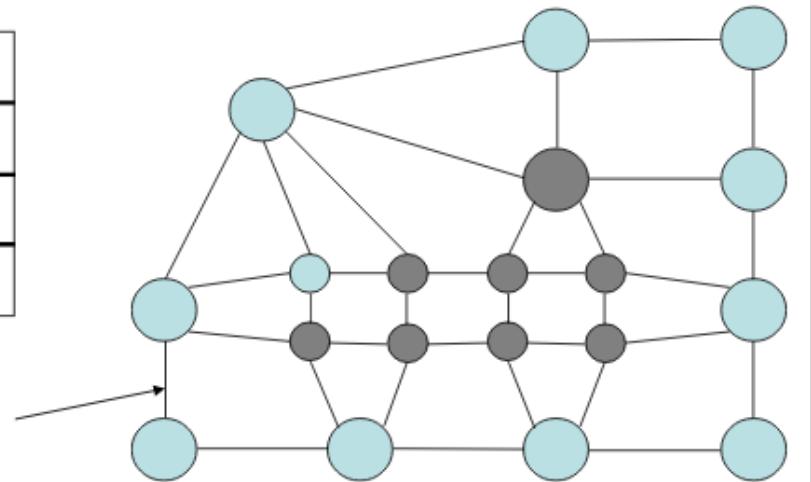


# Split and Merge

- It is the dual approach of the region growing method
- Time consuming



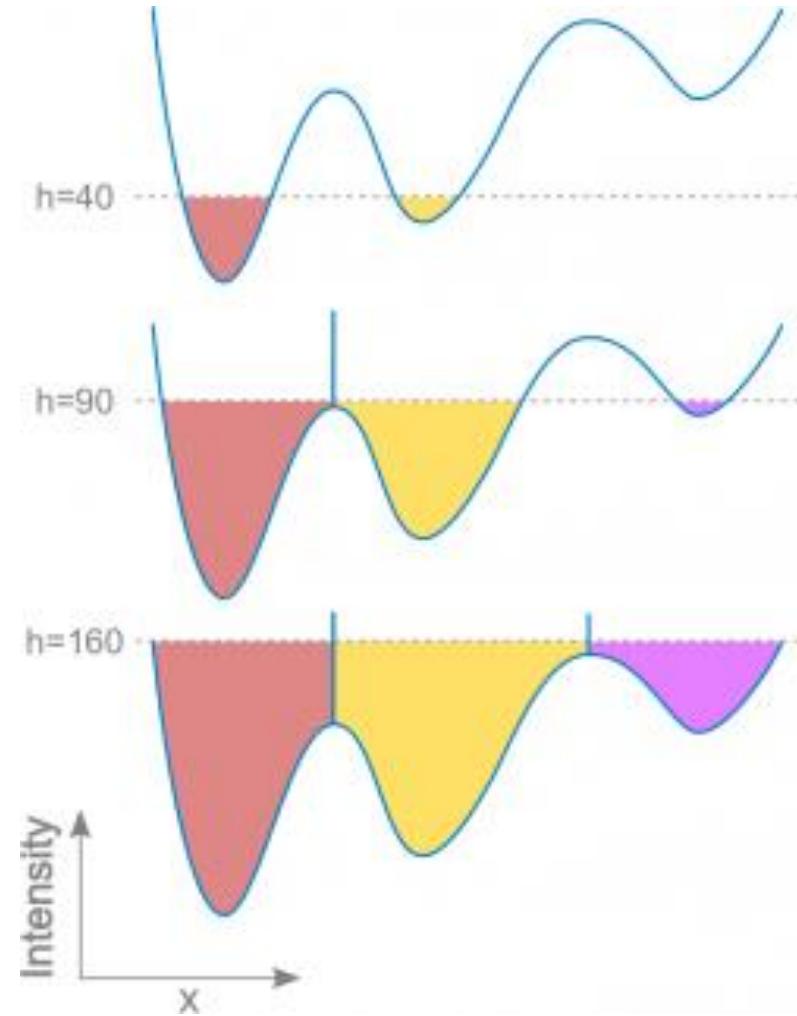
La distance en terme d'homogénéité de régions est portée par l'arrête valuée qui les relie dans le RAG



# Classical Watershed

## Watershed by flooding

- Considering the input image as topographic surface
- Placing a water source in each regional minimum of its relief
- Flooding from the sources → Dams are placed where the different water sources meet
- The watersheds are the zones dividing adjacent catchment basins
- The first image points that are reached by water are the points at the lowest grayscale value  $h\{min\}$
- All image pixels are progressively reached up to the highest level  $h\{max\}$



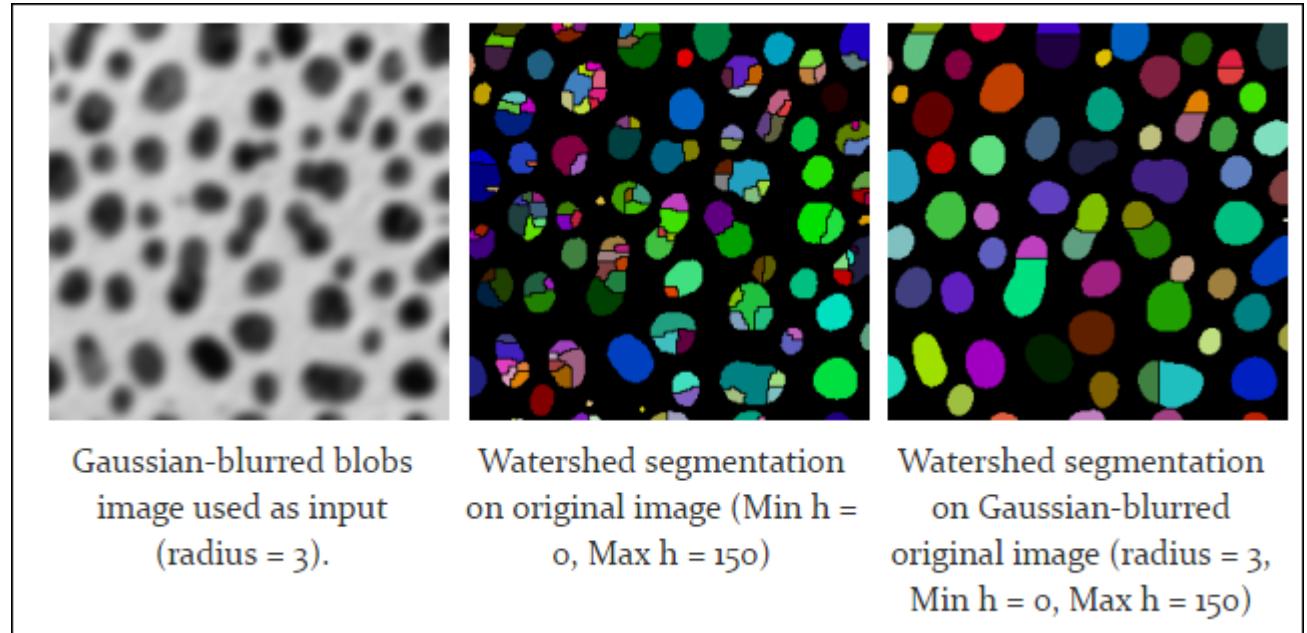
# Classical Watershed

## Advantages

- High precision

## Drawbacks

- High memory consomption
- Sensitive to noise
- Over-segmentation when many regional minima exist → Post processing needed



**Binary Watershed → Cf Binary Image**

# Binary Image Processing

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## Why so much attention?

- **Problem simplification (0 & 1)**
  - Background = white / Shapes = black
  - 1 object → 1 region / 1 contour → 1 black component (blob)
  - Analysis, characterization of objects from B&W data
  - Counting, measure, shape analysis are easier
- **Mathematic morphology and discrete geometry**
  - Many possible operations on binary images



# Binarisation = Thresholding

- **Manual Thresholding** → The easiest and the most often used
- There is a relation between the gray level and the probability of belonging to a shape



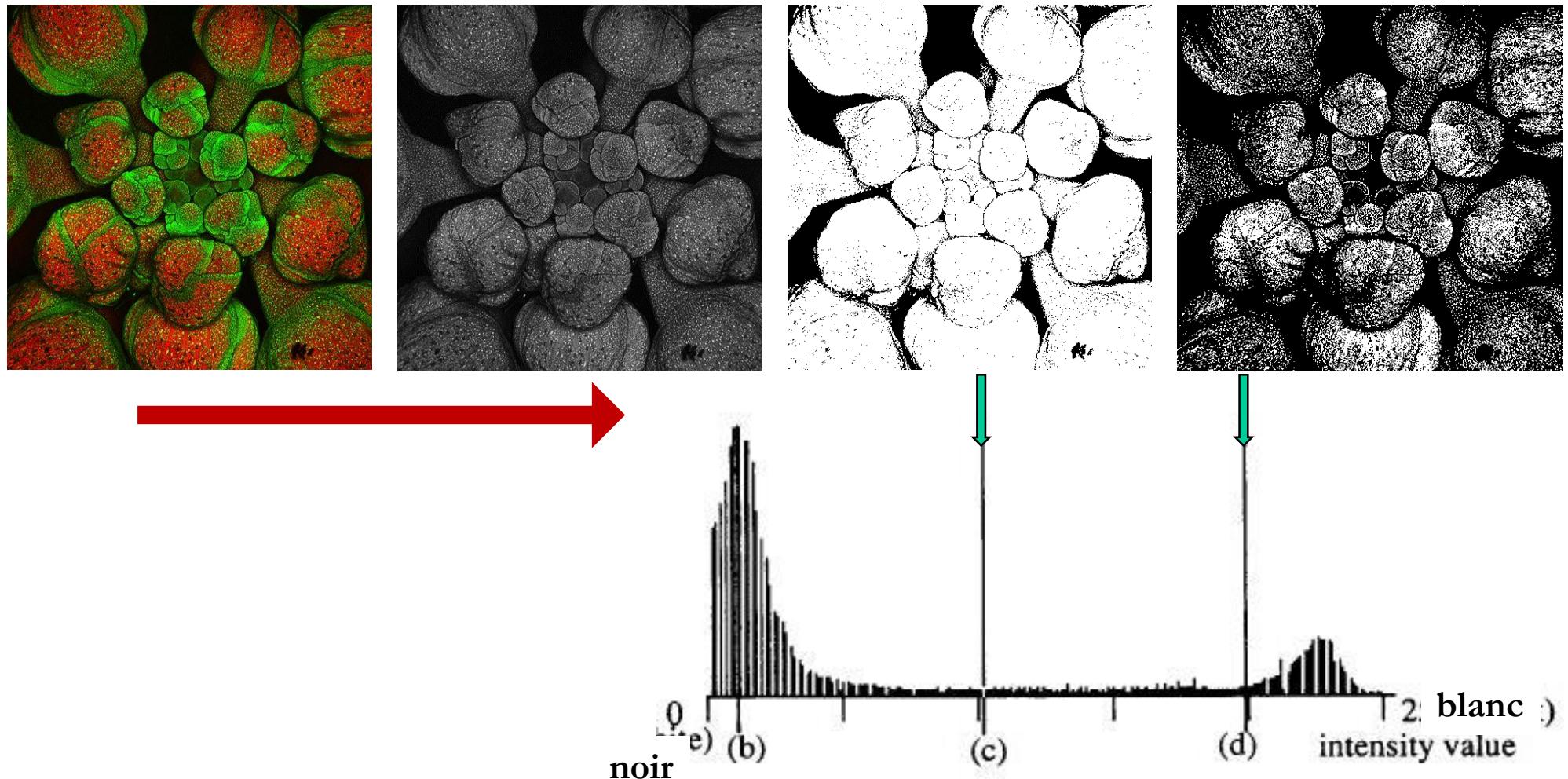
Gray  
level

0 Noir

Blanc 255

# Binarisation with a global threshold

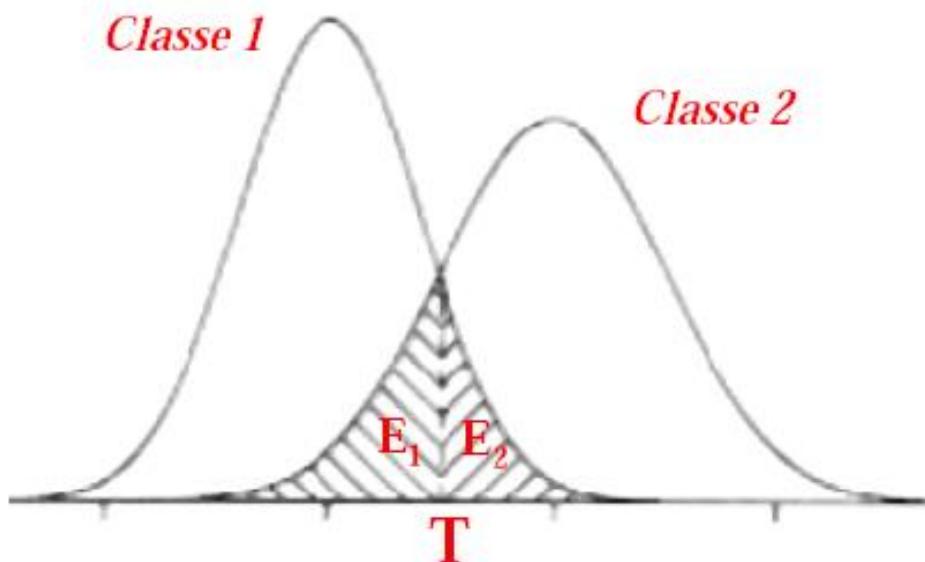
- How to choose a good threshold → so many methods
  - It depends of the images and the objectives ...



# Automatic thresholding: OTSU

---

- Knowing there are only 2 classes of color in the image
  - We assume that the gray level distribution is composed by 2 Gaussians
  - We look for a threshold  $t$  that will minimize the intra-class variance



# Automatic thresholding: OTSU

- For each possible value of  $t$ , the intra class variance is computed

$$\sigma_w^2(t) = \omega_1(t)\sigma_1^2(t) + \omega_2(t)\sigma_2^2(t)$$

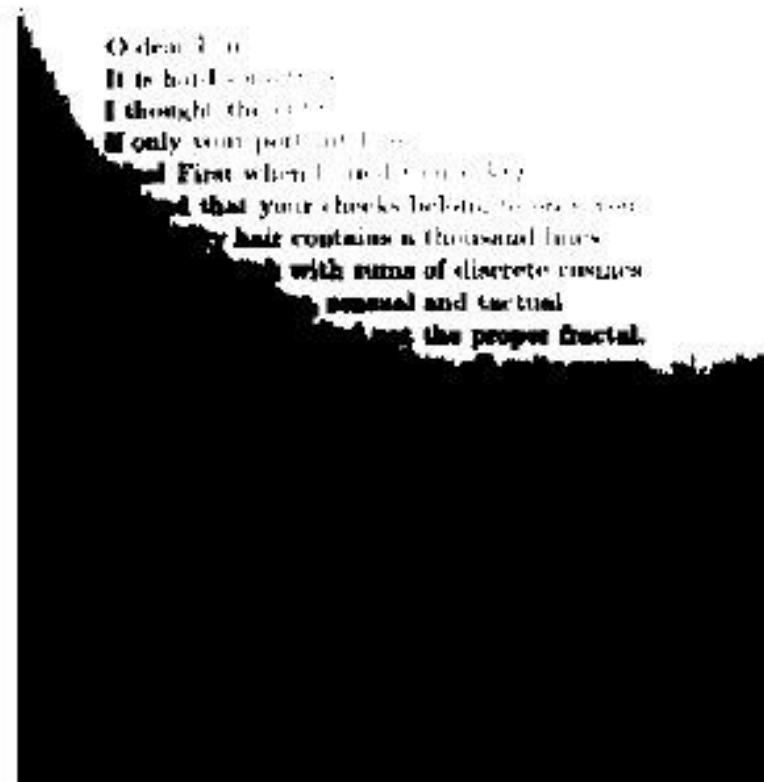
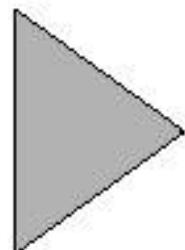
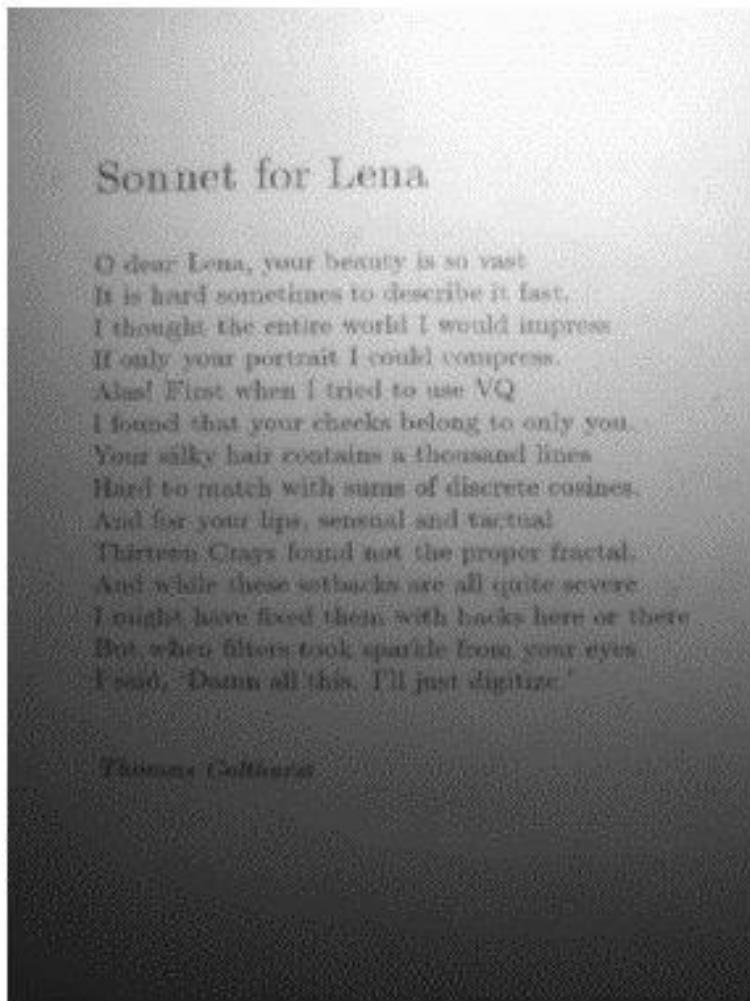
- The optimal threshold is the one for which  $\sigma_w^2$  is minimum
  - $w_i$  is the probability (weight) of the class  $i$
  - $\sigma_i^2$  is the variance of the gray levels of the class  $i$
- A more efficient formulation uses the inter-class variance  $\sigma_b^2$ 
  - probability and mean of the classes can be updated iteratively

$$\sigma_b^2(t) = \sigma^2 - \sigma_w^2(t) = \omega_1(t)\omega_2(t) [\mu_1(t) - \mu_2(t)]^2$$

1. Calculer l'histogramme et les probabilités de chaque niveau d'intensité
2. Définir les  $\omega_i(0)$  et  $\mu_i(0)$  initiaux
3. Parcourir tous les seuils possibles  $t = 1 \dots$  intensité max
  1. Mettre à jour  $\omega_i$  et  $\mu_i$
  2. Calculer  $\sigma_b^2(t)$
4. Le seuil désiré correspond au  $\sigma_b^2(t)$  maximum.

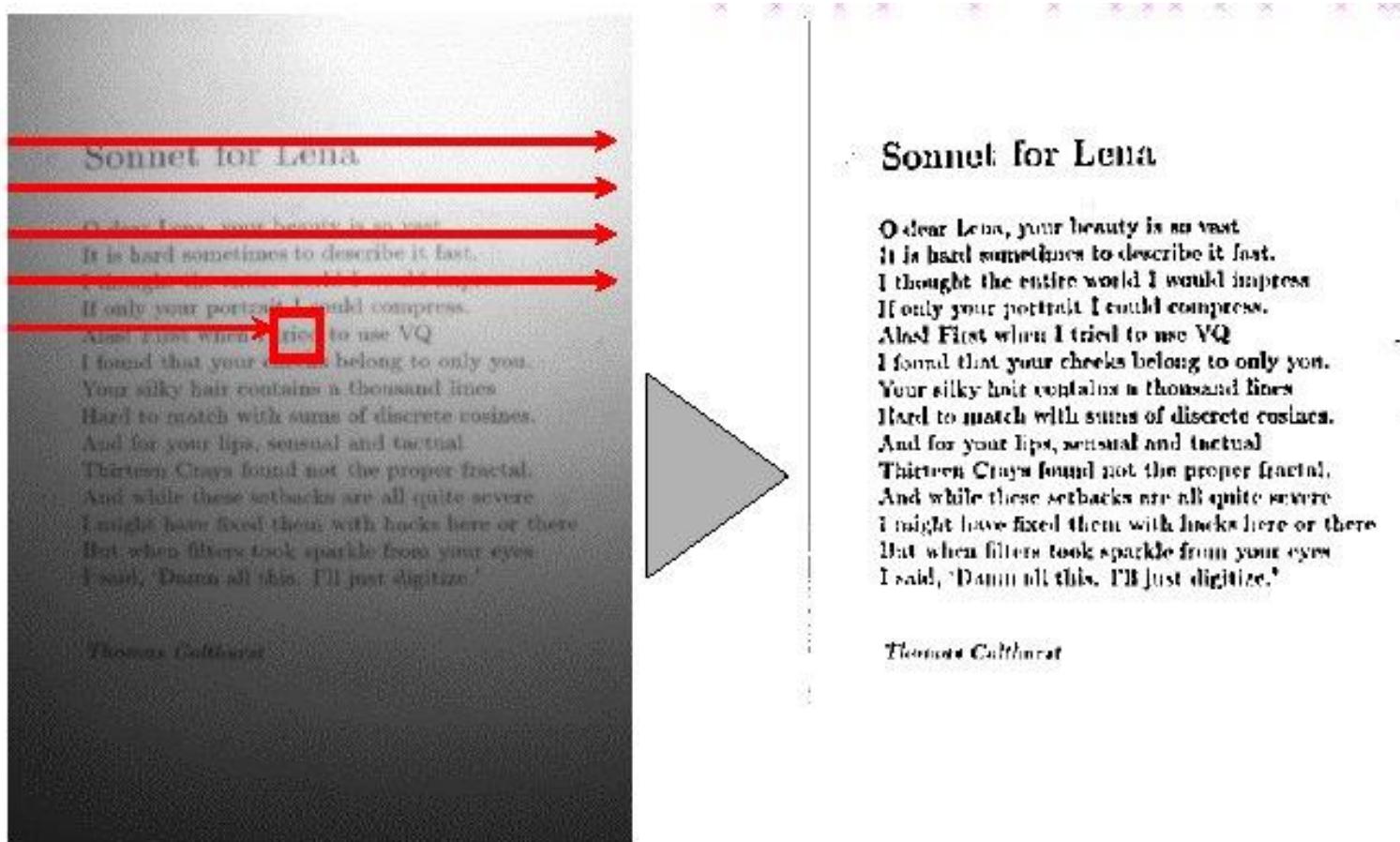
# Problem with Global Thresholding

- A solution ?



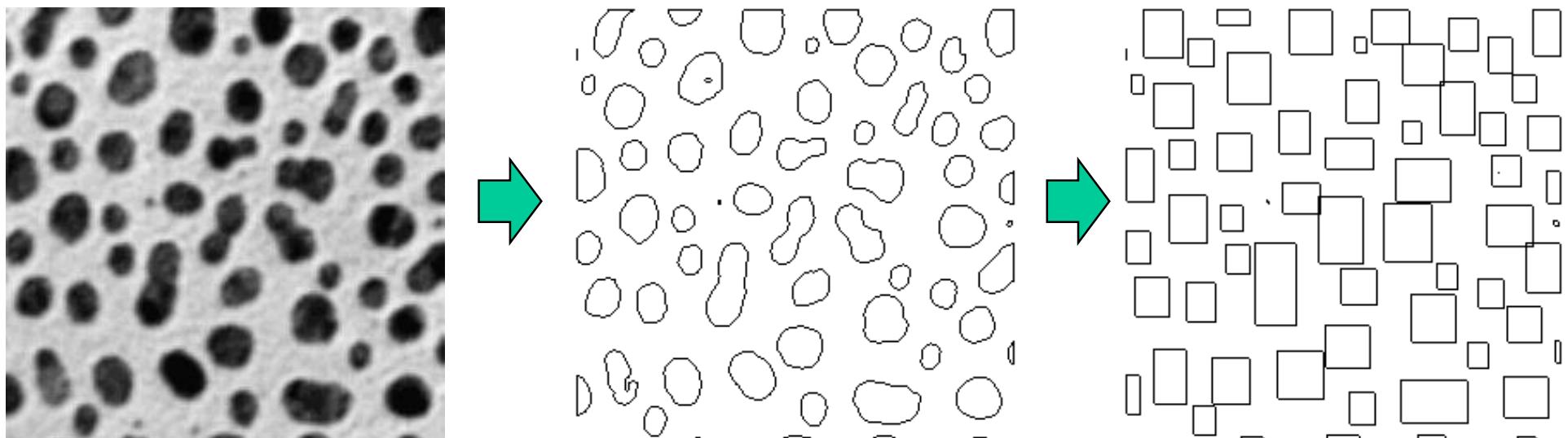
# Adaptive local Thresholding

- A local threshold is defined and used for each pixel according to its neighborhood (sometime difficult to select)
- **Niblack** :  $S = m + ks^2$  avec  $k = -0,2$  |  $m$  : mean et  $s$  : standard deviation



# Background-Foreground segmentation

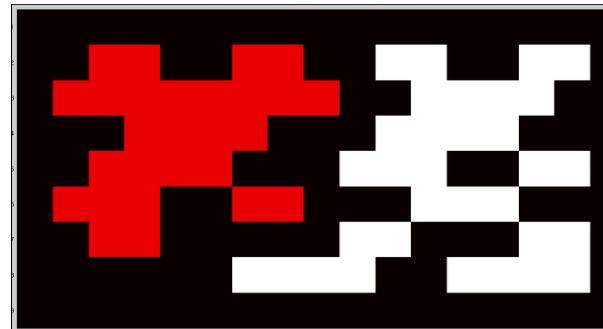
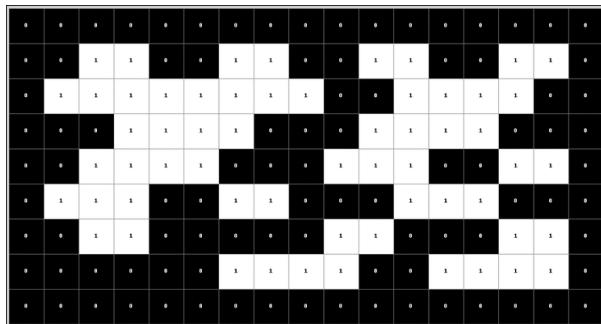
- **How to analyze black shapes on a white background?**
  - Shape localization
  - Counting
  - Describing, characterizing
  - Classifying



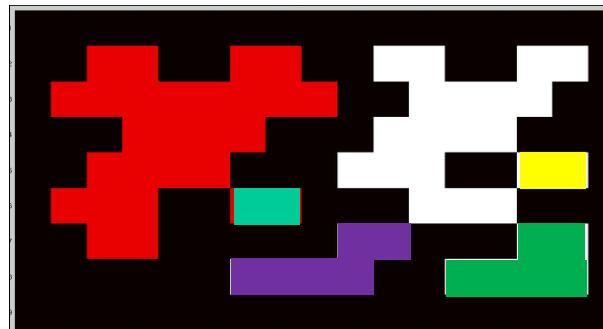
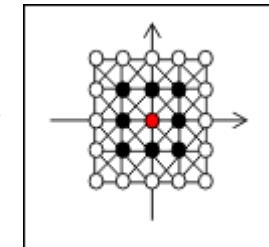
# Connected component extraction

- **Notion of Connected component**

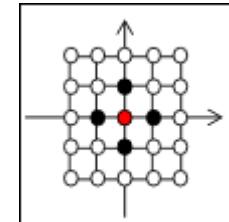
- A set S of pixels is a 4-connected component if and only if, for all pairs of pixels P and Q, a 4-path  $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$  with  $p_1 = P$  and  $p_n = Q$  and all  $p_i \in S$ .
- A set S of pixels is a 8-connected component if and only if, for all pairs of pixels P and Q, a 8-path  $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$  with  $p_1 = P$  and  $p_n = Q$  and all  $p_i \in S$ .



8-connectivity



4-connectivity



# Connected component extraction

- A two pass algorithm

```
.....*.*. . . * * *. . . .
.....*.*. . . * * *. . . .
.. * * * *, * * *. . . .
.. * * * * * * *. . . .
.. * * * * * . . . .
.. . * * * * . . . .
.. . . * * * . . * . .
.. . . . * * * . . * * . .
.. * * . . * * * . . * * . .
.. * * . . . . . . . .
.. . . . . . . . . .
```

(b) Original binary image.

```
.....11. . . 222. . . .
.....11. . . 222. . . .
.. 1111. . 2222. . . .
.. 11111111. . . .
.. . 1111. . . .
.. . . 111. . 3. . .
.. . . 111. . 33. . .
.. 44. . 111. . 33. . .
.. 44. . . . . . . .
.. . . . . . . . .
```

(c) Labeling in progress.

```
.....11. . . 222. . . .
.....11. . . 222. . . .
.. 1111. . 2222. . . .
.. 11111111. . . .
.. . 1111. . . .
.. . . 111. . 3. . .
.. . . 111. . 33. . .
.. 44. . 111. . 33. . .
.. 44. . . . . . . .
.. . . . . . . . .
```

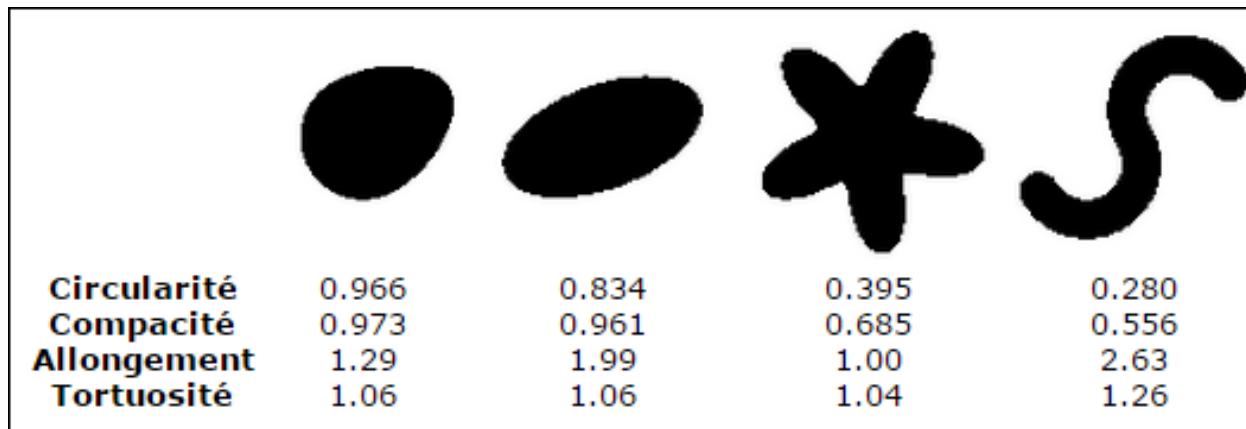
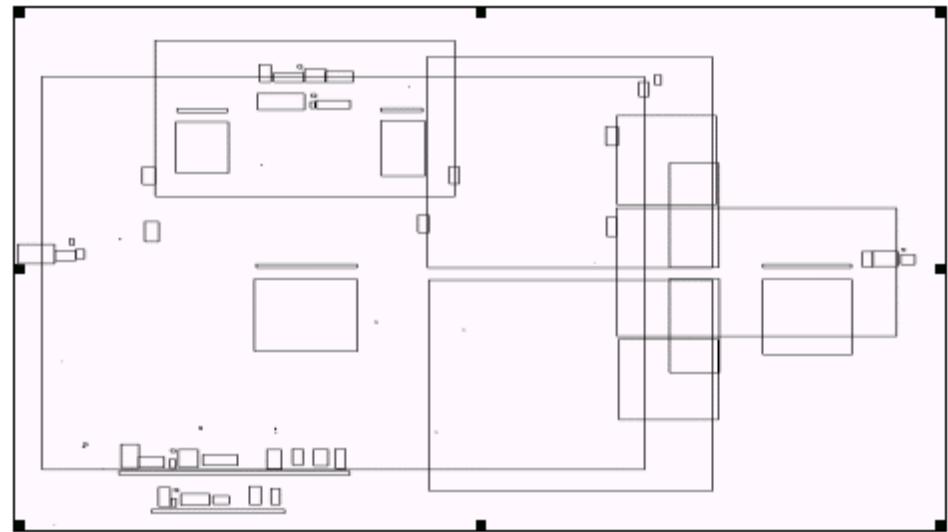
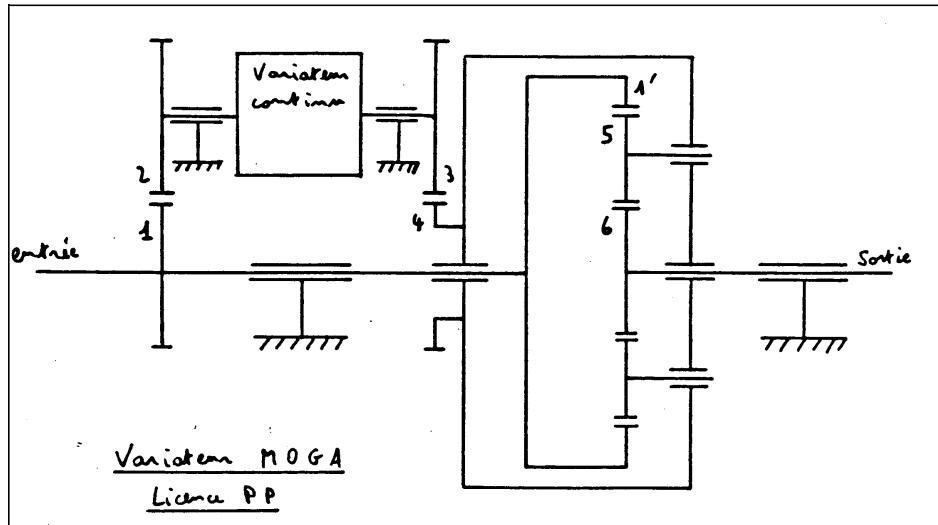
(d) Scanning completion.

```
.....11. . . 111. . . .
.....11. . . 111. . . .
.. 1111. . 1111. . . .
.. 11111111. . . .
.. . 1111. . . .
.. . . 111. . 2. . .
.. . . 111. . 22. . .
.. 33. . 111. . 22. . .
.. 33. . . . . . . .
.. . . . . . . . .
```

(e) After label unification  
and reassignment.

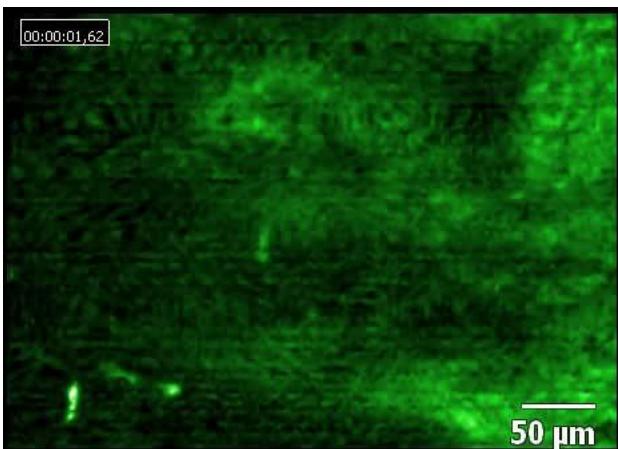
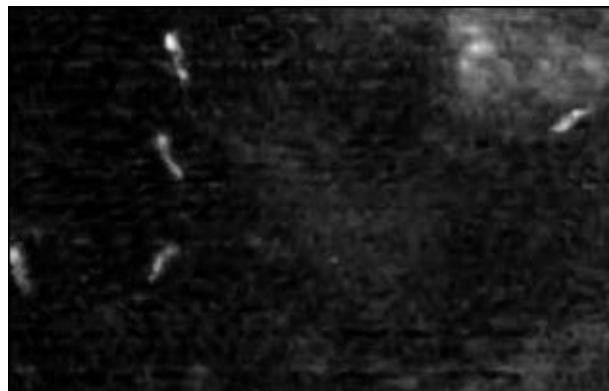
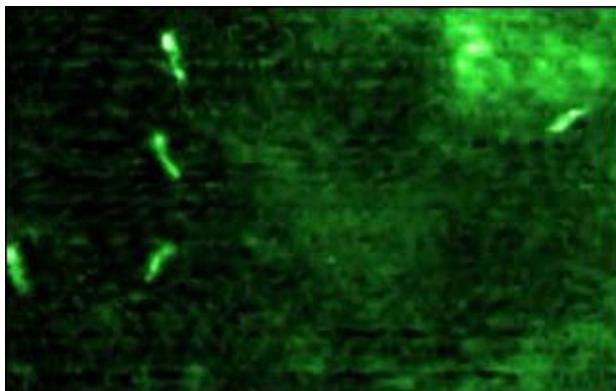
# Connected component Analysis

- Studying their size and shape

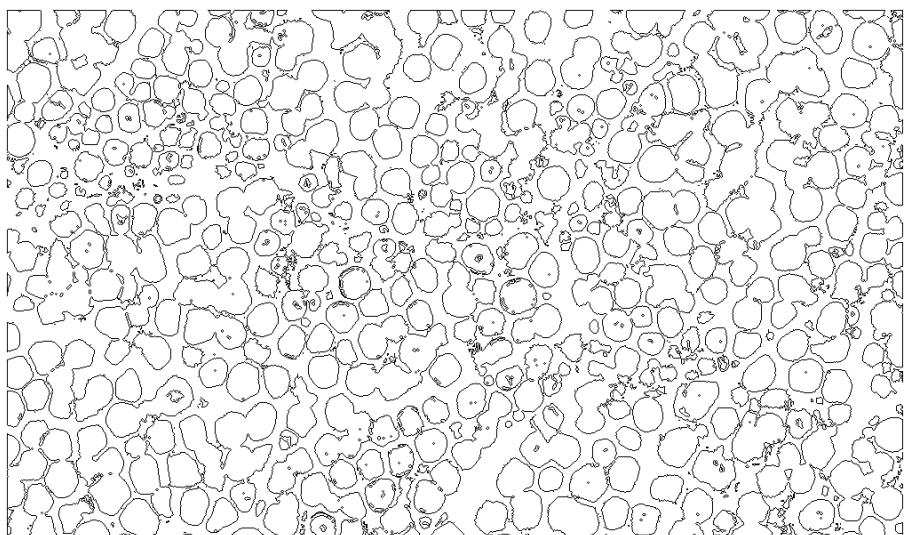
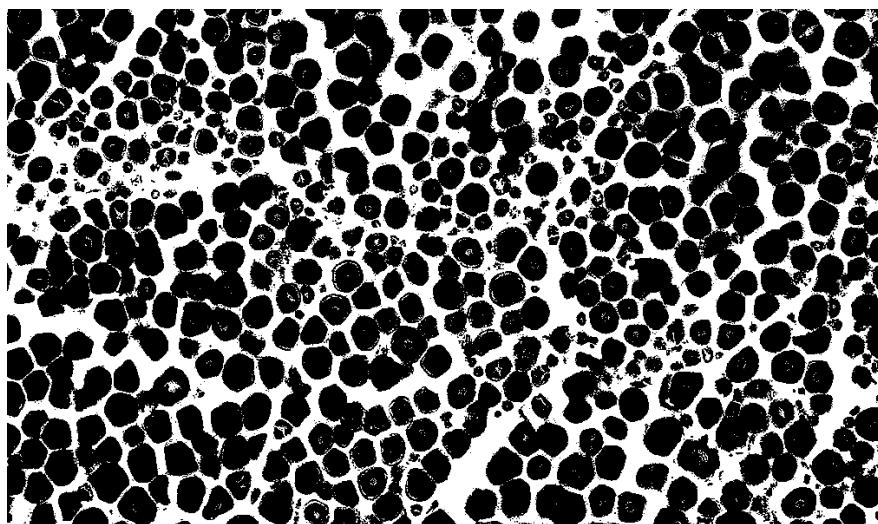
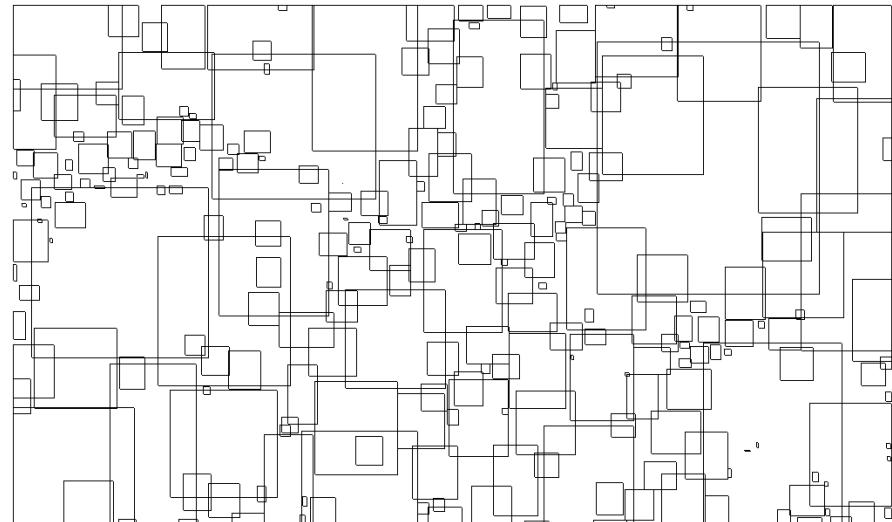
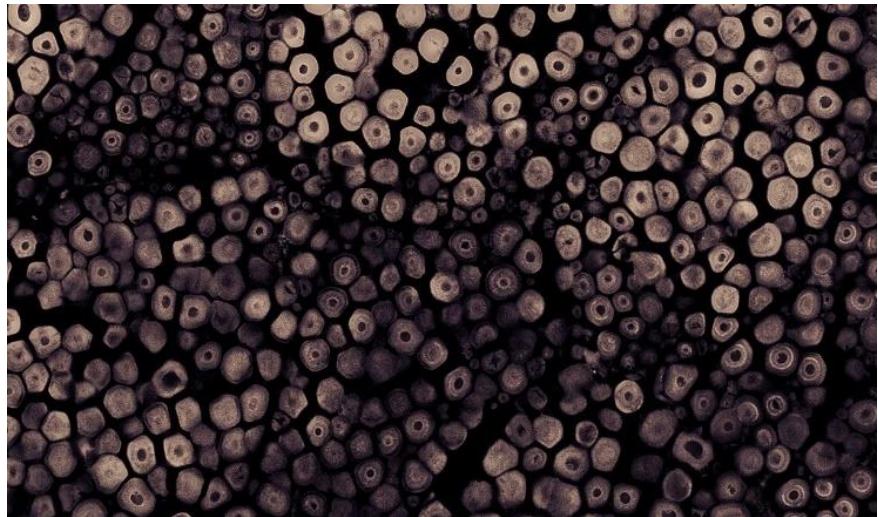


# Connected component Analysis

- Exploitation of the connected components
  - How ?
  - Image analysis sequence ?



# Connected Components and connexity !



# Mathematical / Binary morphology

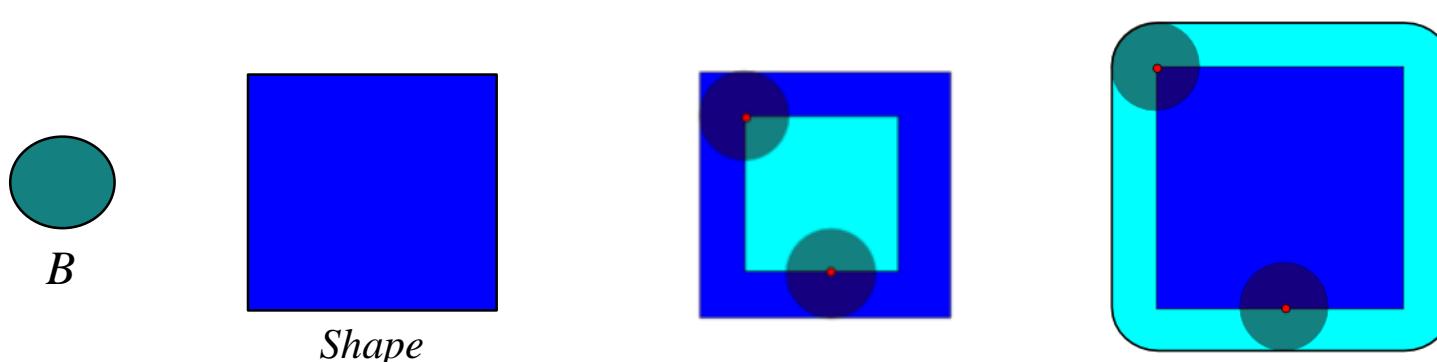
---

## Binary morphology and structuring element

- The basic idea in binary morphology is to probe an image with a simple, pre-defined shape, drawing conclusions on how this shape fits or misses the shapes in the image.
- This simple "probe" is called the structuring element, and is itself a binary image

Some examples of widely used structuring elements (denoted by  $B$ ):

- In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $B$  is an open disk of radius  $r$ , centered at the origin.
- In  $\mathbb{Z}^2$ ,  $B$  is a  $3 \times 3$  square, that is,  $B=\{(-1,-1), (-1,0), (-1,1), (0,-1), (0,0), (0,1), (1,-1), (1,0), (1,1)\}$ .
- In  $\mathbb{Z}^2$ ,  $B$  is the "cross" given by:  $B=\{(-1,0), (0,-1), (0,0), (0,1), (1,0)\}$ .

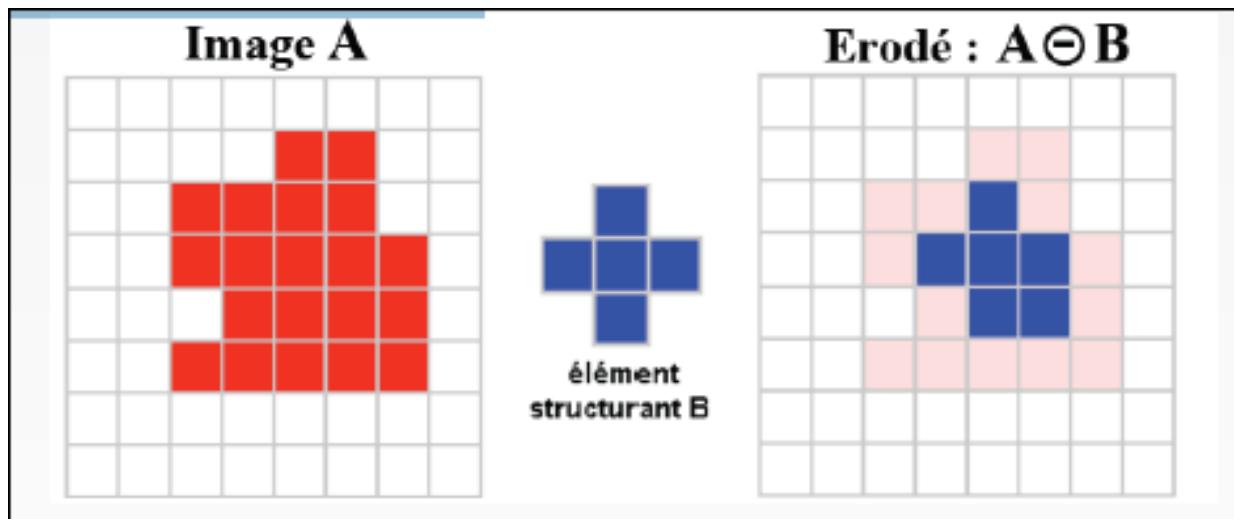


# Basic operations: Erosion

Let  $B_x$  be the center of the structuring element  $B$  that is put on the pixel  $X$  of the image

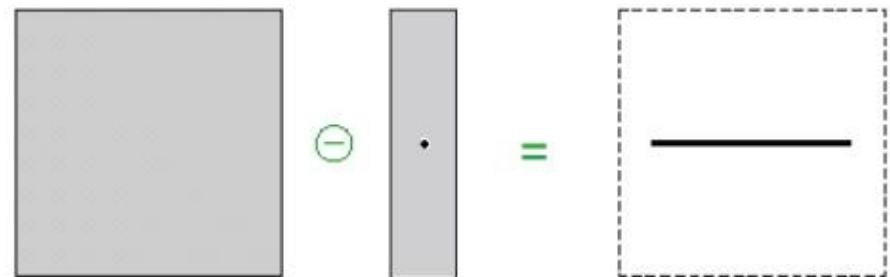
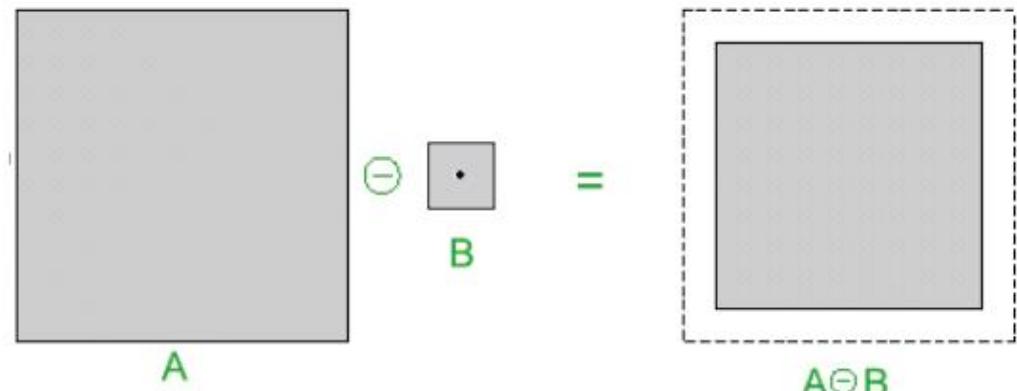
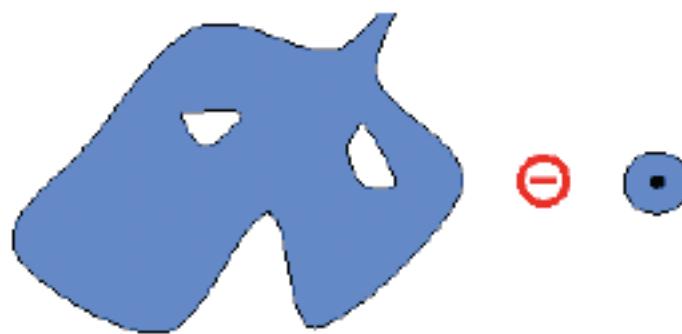
Algorithm :

- $B_x$  is positioned on each pixel  $X$  of the object  $A$
- IF all pixels of  $B$  are inside the object  $A$  THEN  
 $B_x$  is set to kept (as part of the eroded object)



# Basic operations: Erosion

- Examples



# Basic operations: Dilatation

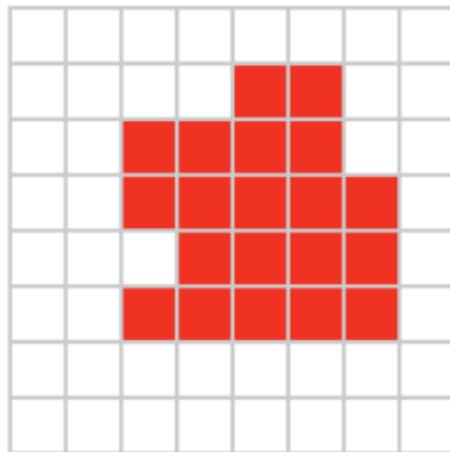
---

Let  $B_x$  be the center of the structuring element  $B$  that is put on the pixel  $X$  of the image

Algorithm :

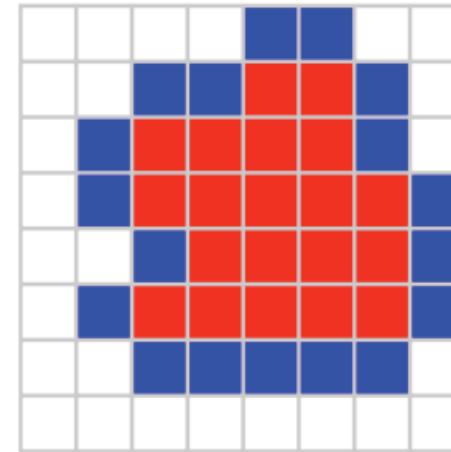
- $B_x$  is positioned on each pixel  $X$  of the object  $A$
- IF  $B \cap A \neq \emptyset$  THEN  
 $B_x$  is set to kept (as part of the dilated object)

Image A



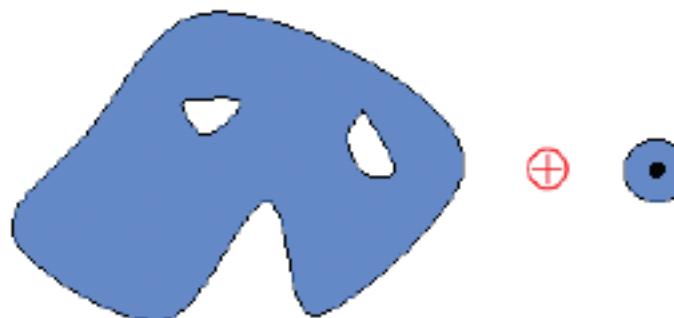
élément structurant B

Dilaté :  $A \oplus B$



# Basic operations: Dilatation

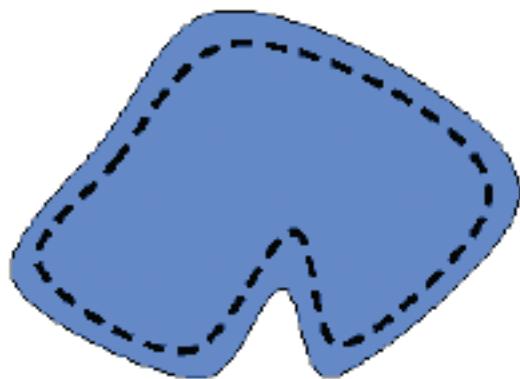
- Examples



$$A \oplus B =$$

A diagram illustrating the dilation of a binary mask. On the left is a solid gray square labeled **A**. In the center is a smaller gray square labeled **B**, which contains a black dot. To the right of **B** is a green plus sign ( $\oplus$ ). To the right of the plus sign is the resulting dilated mask, shown as a larger gray square with a dashed outer boundary. This dashed boundary represents the area where the structuring element **B** has been applied to **A**.

$$A \oplus B$$

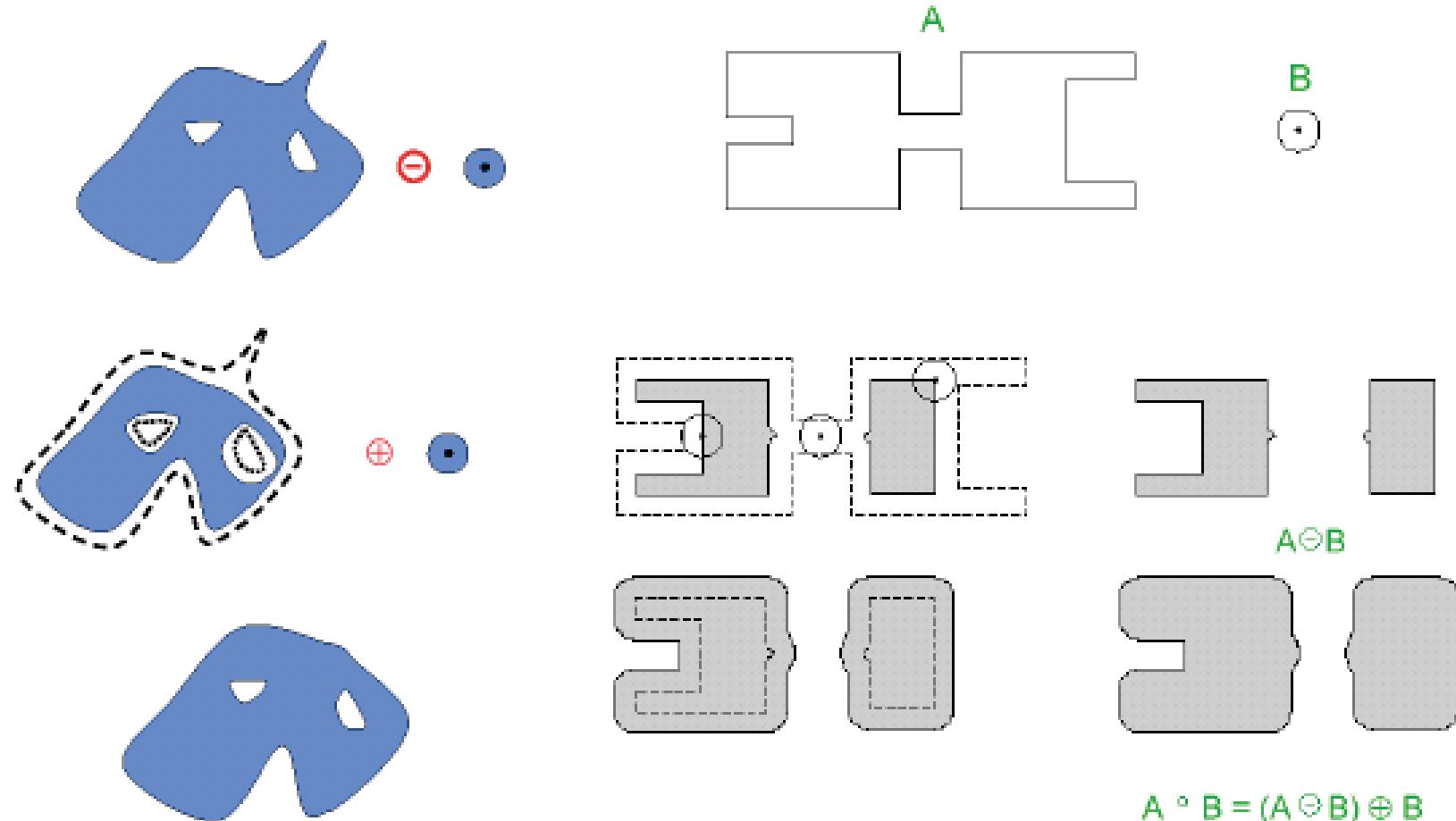


$$A \oplus B =$$

A diagram illustrating the dilation of a binary mask. On the left is a solid gray square labeled **A**. In the center is a horizontal gray rectangle labeled **B**, which contains a black dot. To the right of **B** is a green plus sign ( $\oplus$ ). To the right of the plus sign is the resulting dilated mask, shown as a larger gray square with a dashed outer boundary. This dashed boundary represents the area where the rectangular structuring element **B** has been applied to **A**.

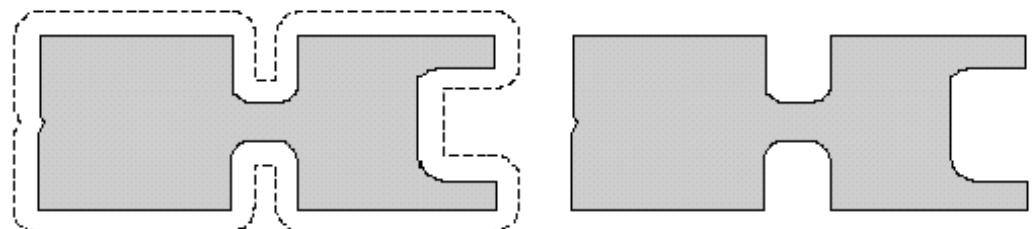
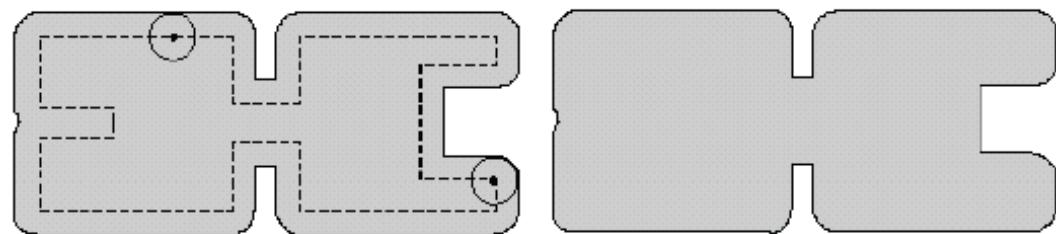
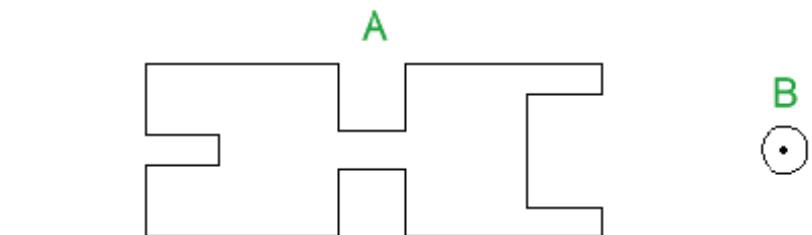
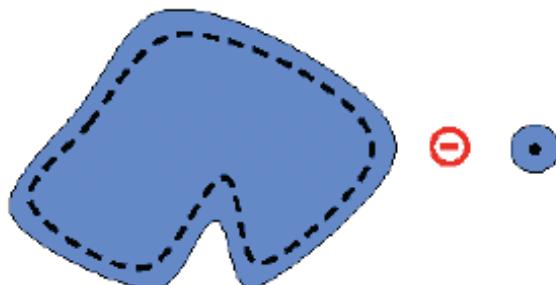
# Basic operations: Opening

- $A \vee B = (A - B) + B$



# Basic operations: Closing

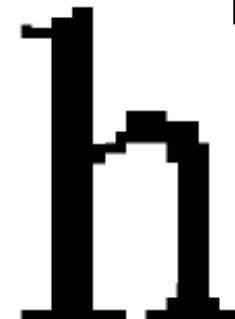
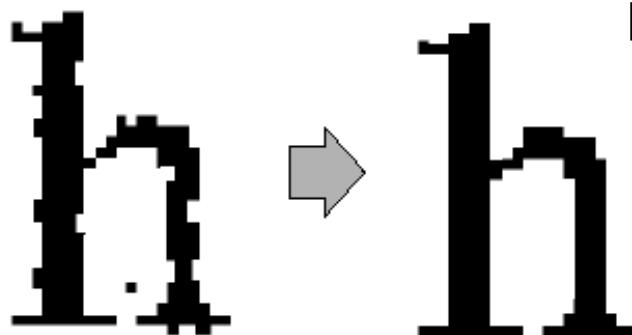
- $A \cdot B = (A + B) - B$



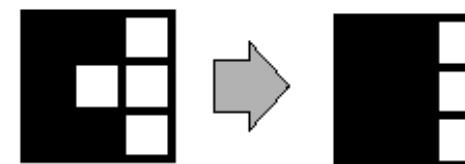
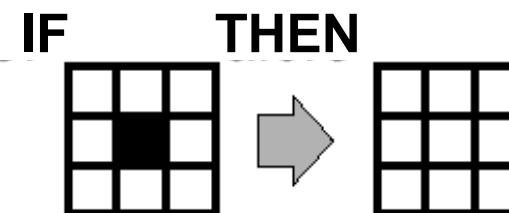
$$A \cdot B = (A \oplus B) \ominus B$$

# Basic operations: quality improvement

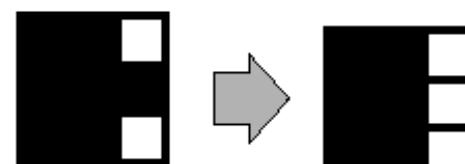
## Using binary patterns



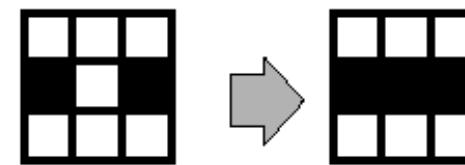
Noise removal



Hole filling



Connexity reparation



Ect...

# Basic operations: quality improvement

CHRI  
BEAVIE  
BEAVI.  
*Variigne* D.



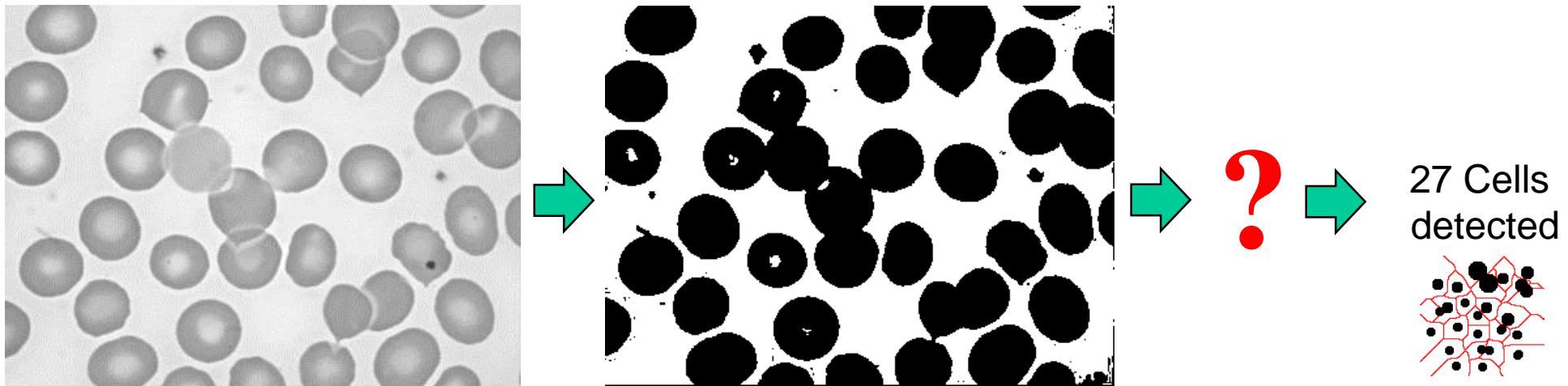
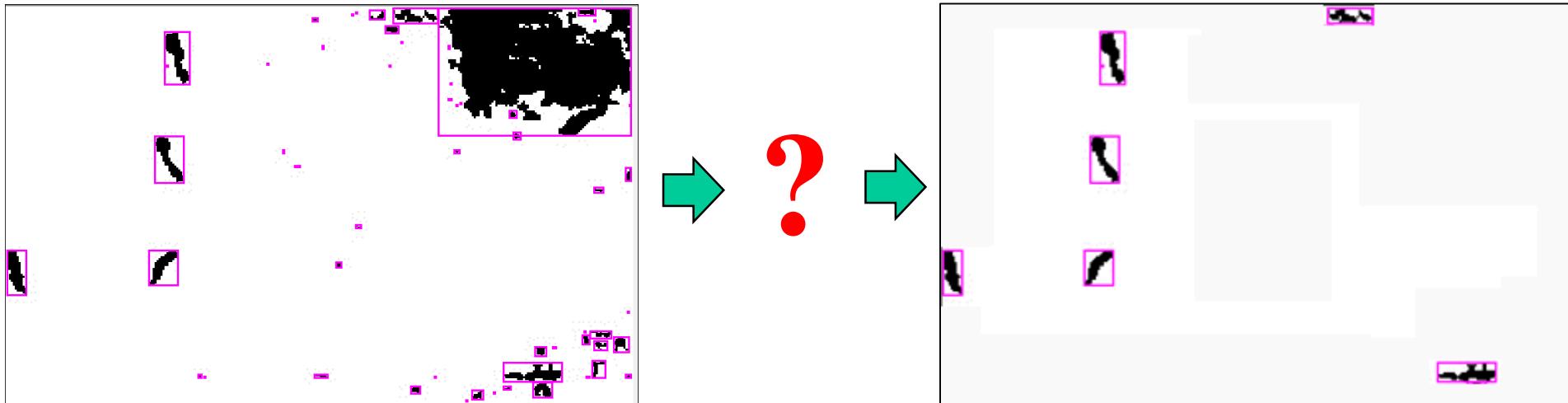
# Basic operations: quality improvement

CHRI  
BEAVIE  
BEAV-I  
*Variation* D



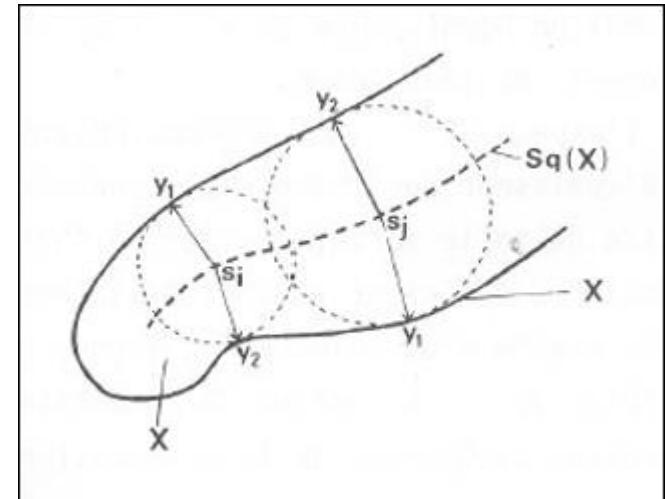
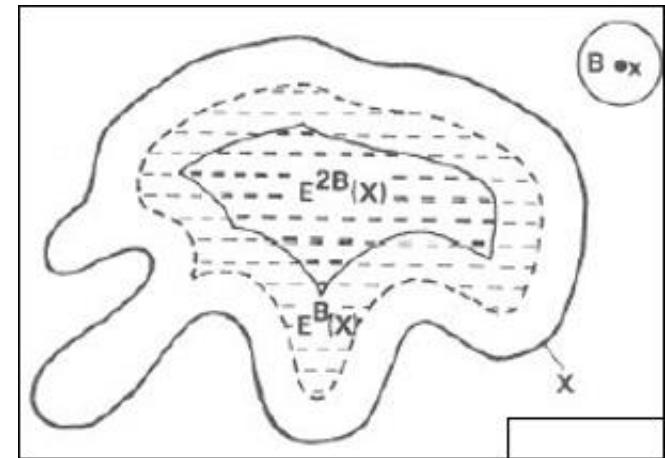
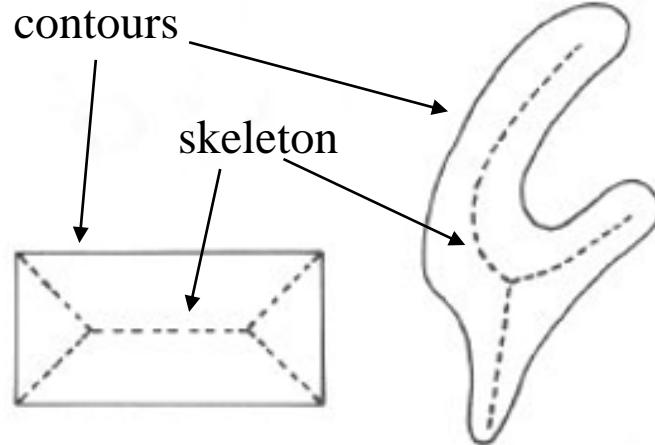
# Basic operations: quality improvement

- Image analysis sequence ?



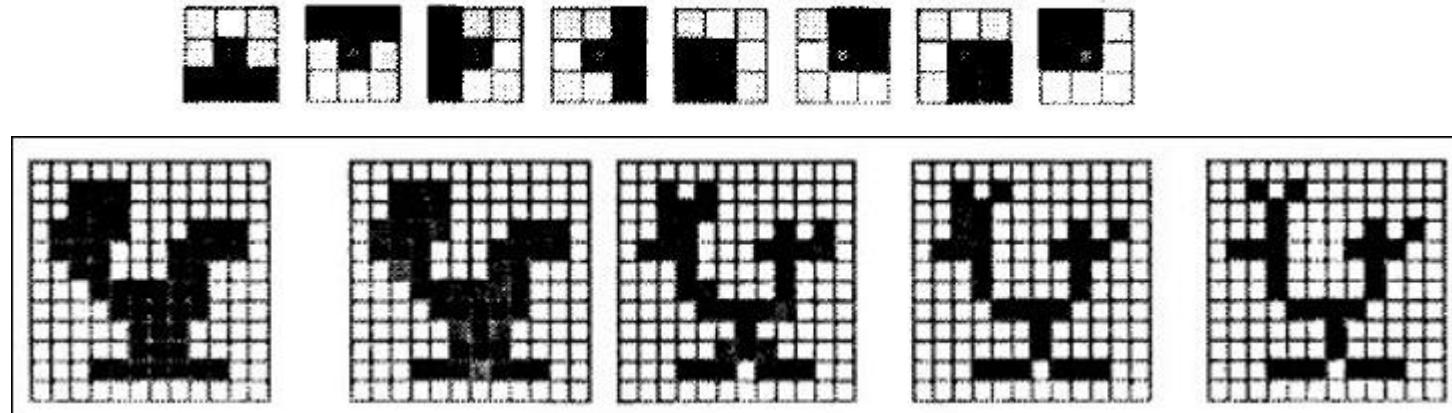
# More sophisticate: Skeleton

- Skeleton is defined by the set of points located at equal distance from the border of the shape
- Union of the centers of the maximal spheres that can be included into the shape
- Computed by successive erosions

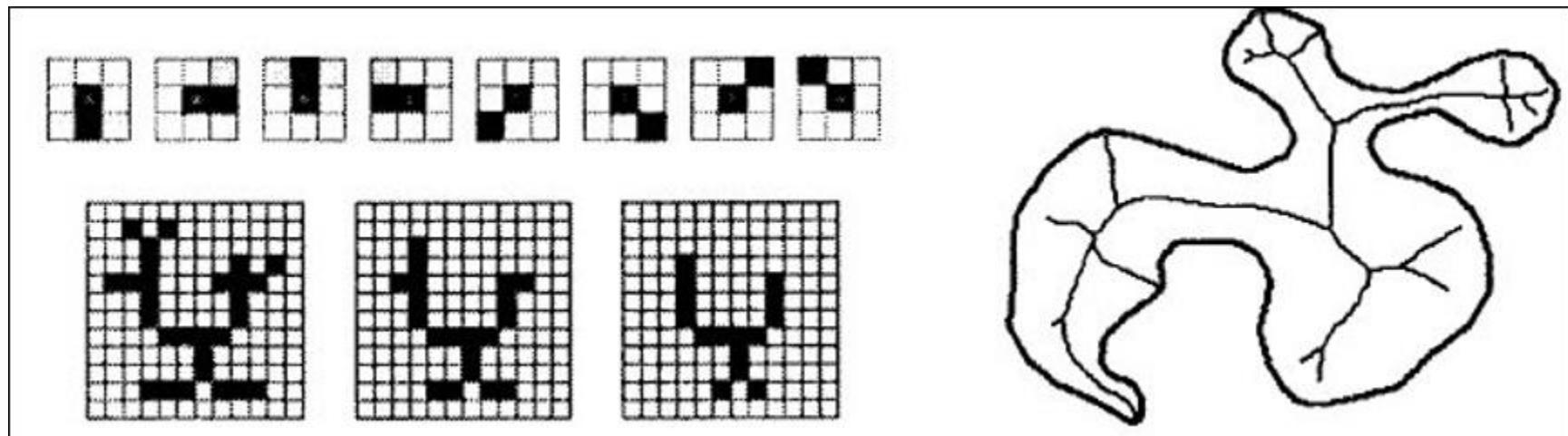


# More sophisticate: Skeleton

- Computation of the skeleton by successive erosions with different masks

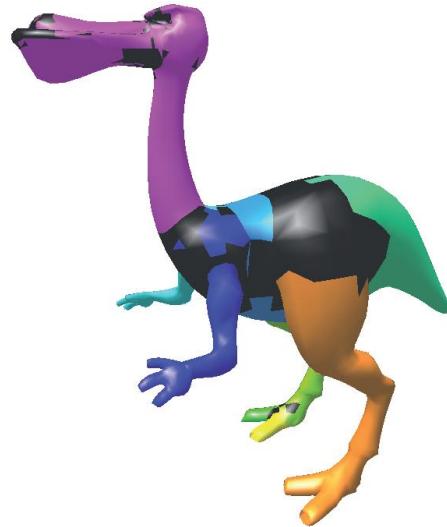
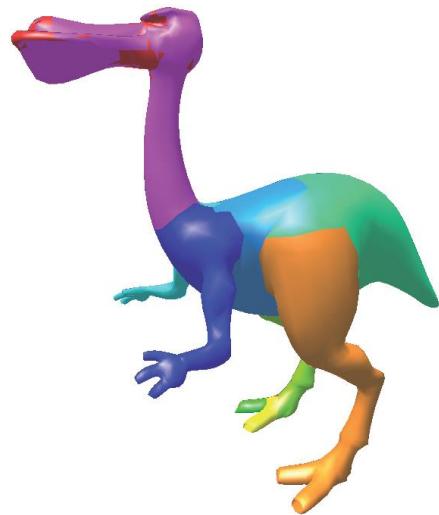
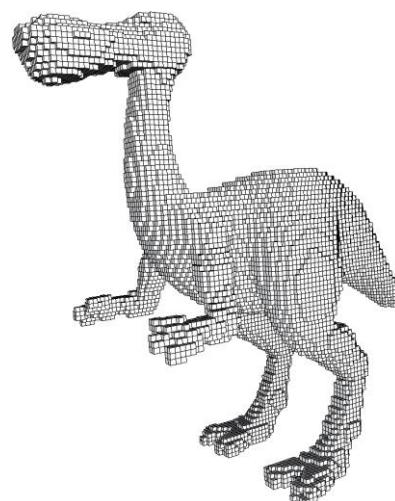
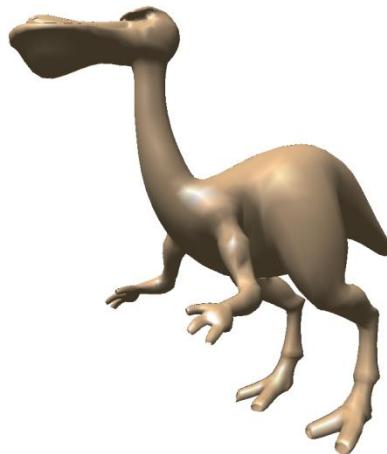


- Small branches have to be removed by using specific masks



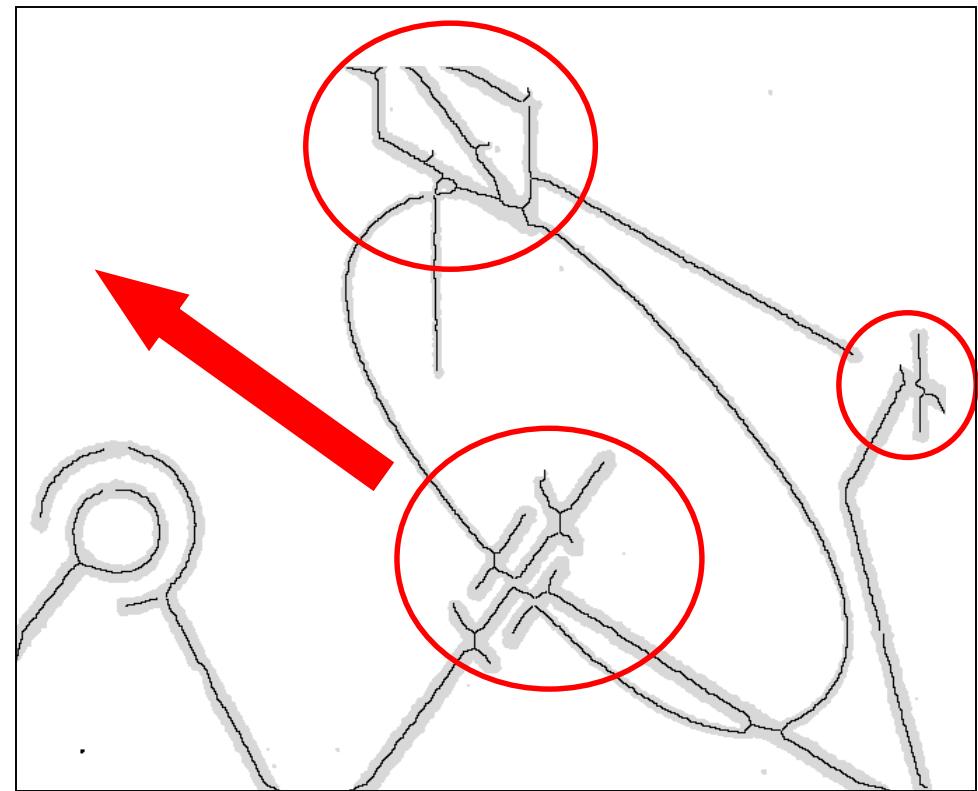
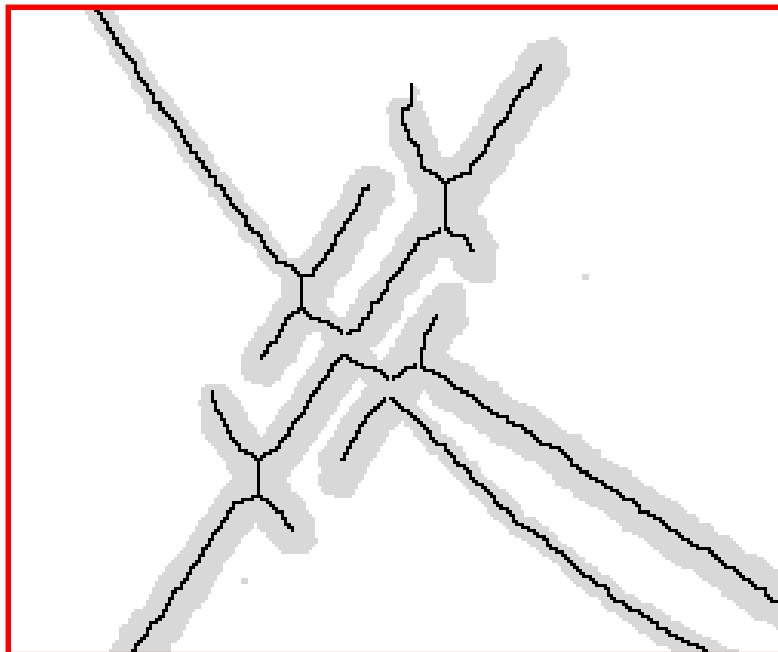
# Possible also in 3D

---



# But not so easy to analyse . . .

- Possible wrong representations of junctions and crossing (noise)
- Noise, barbules, ...

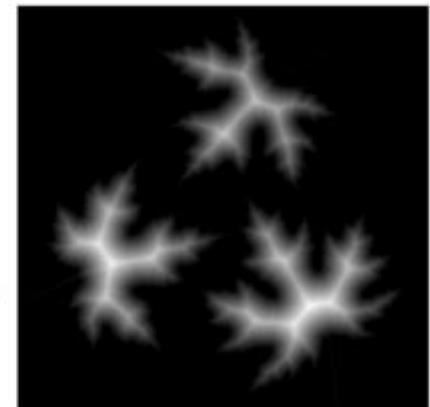
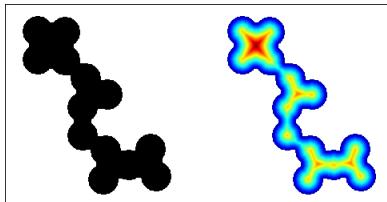


# Distance map and Watershed

## Euclidian Distance Map (EDM)

- Function that associates to each pixel the distance to the background pixels

$$F_X^d : \mathbf{Z}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$$
$$p \mapsto d(p, X^c)$$

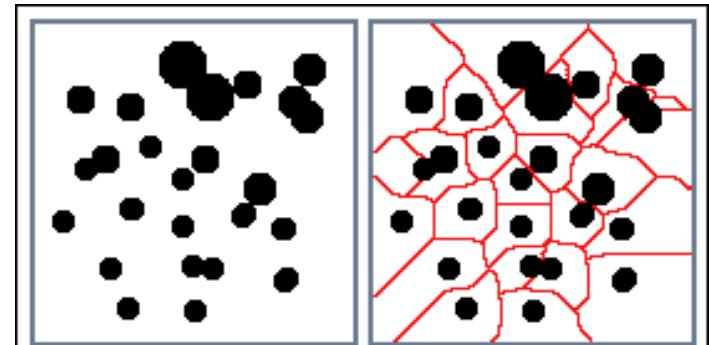


$X$

$F_X^{d_k}$

## Binary Watershed based on EDM

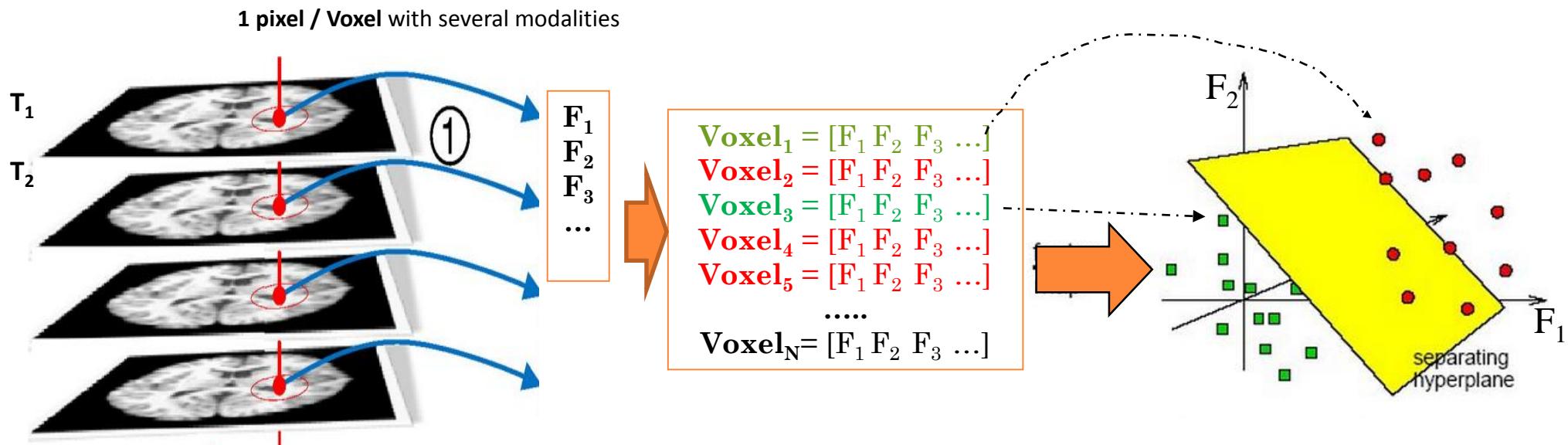
- Based on EDM, finds the ultimate eroded points (UEPs)
- Dilate each of the UEPs as far as possible
  - either until the edge of the particle is reached,
  - or the edge touches a region of another (growing) UEP.
- Automatically cutting particles that touch
- Work best for smooth convex objects that don't overlap too much.



# Machine learning based approaches

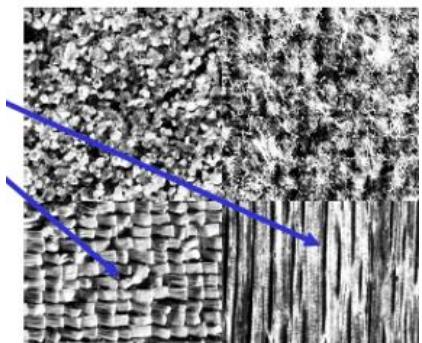
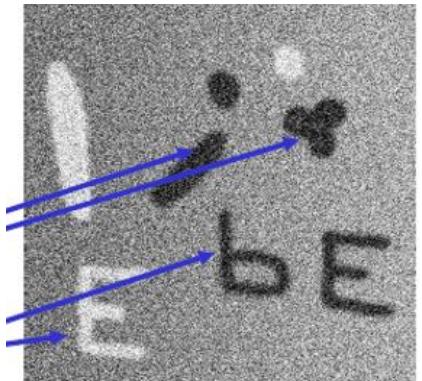
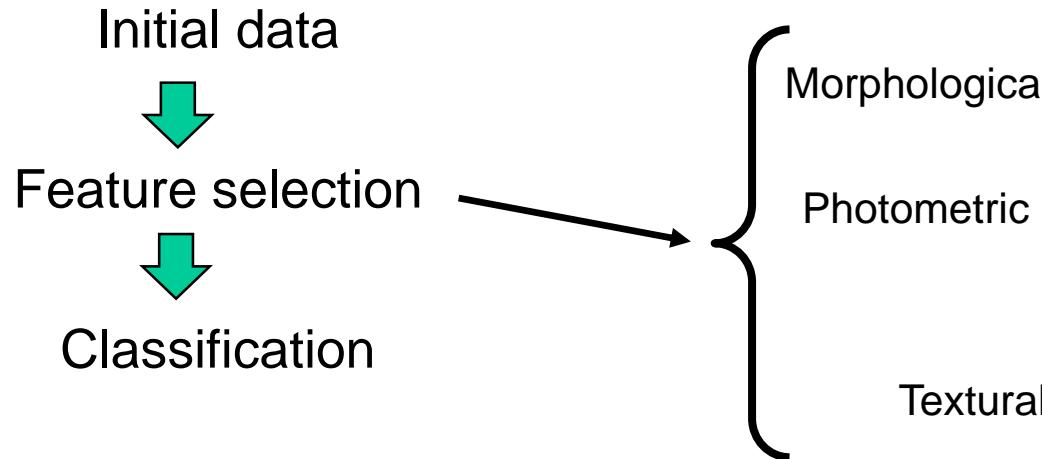
## Principles

- Images are no more seen as image, **BUT**
- Pixels become objects → Each object has to be described by features
- 1 object  $\Rightarrow$  p features  $\Rightarrow$  1 Vector = 1 Point  $\in \mathbb{R}^p$
- Data analysis, Statistics and Machine Learning tools become usable



# Machine learning based approaches

## Feature selection for object description



## Classification

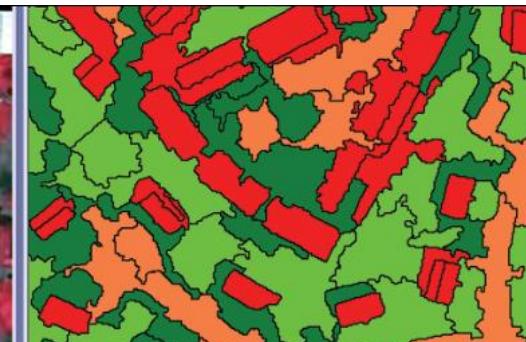
### ○ Supervised Classification

A training/learning set is available to define a **classifier**

### ○ Unsupervised Classification

We just have the feature vectors

⇒ Grouping of similar vectors to build homogenous clusters

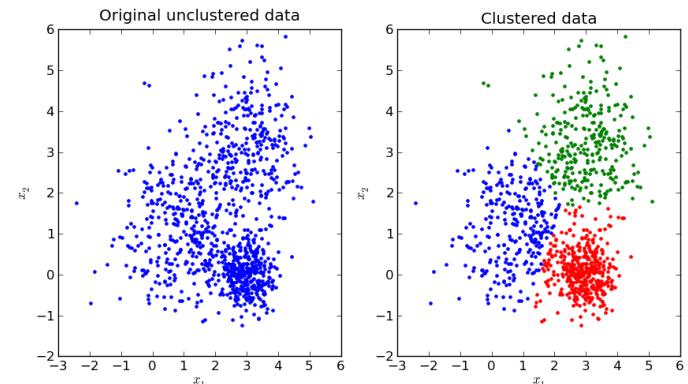


# Machine learning based approaches

## Unsupervised classification : k-means clustering

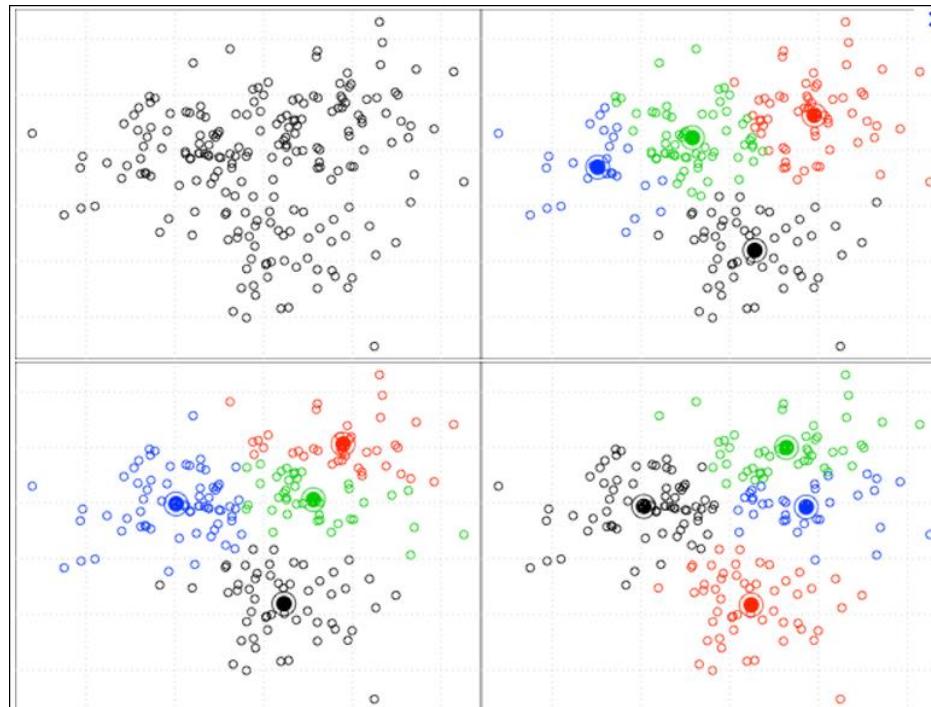
- No tagged data available  $\Rightarrow$  learning impossible
- We look for  $k$  classes starting from  $k$  centers ( $G_i$ )

**Objectif :** minimising the intra-class variance



### Algorithm:

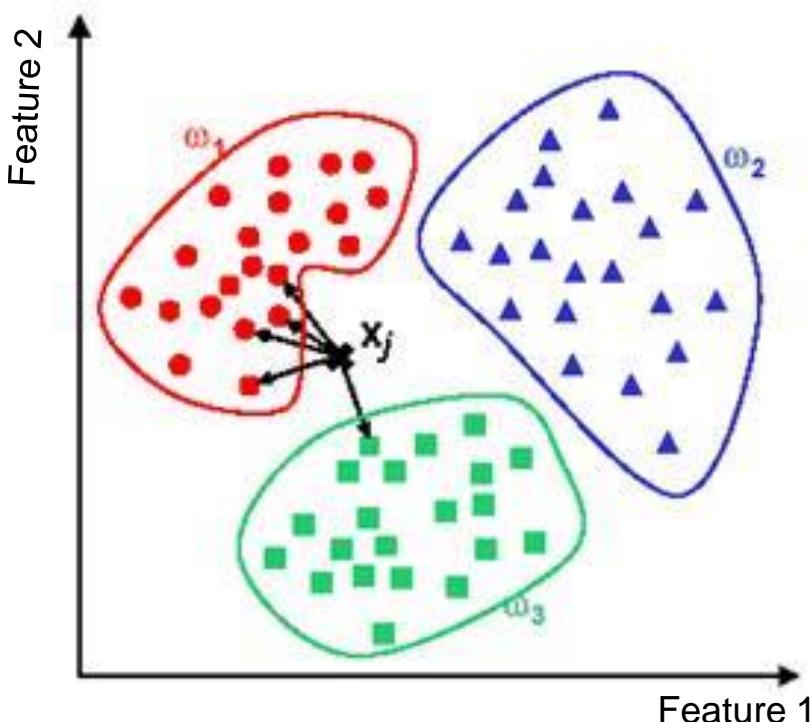
- 1 - choose  $K$  centers randomly
- 2 – repeat :
  - a/ Allocate each  $x$  to the closest center  $G_i$
  - b/ Compute the new  $G_i$  until stabilization



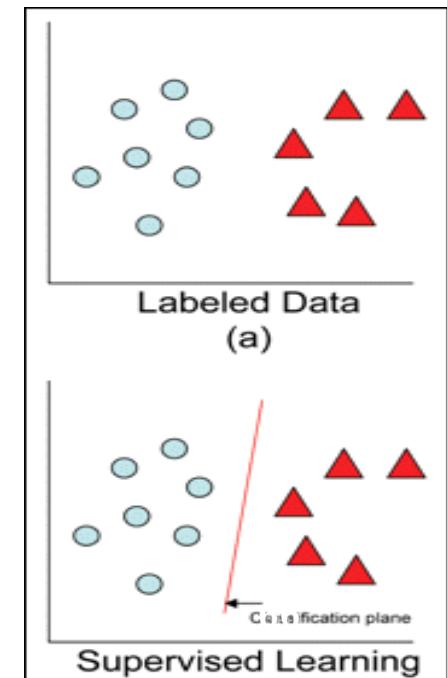
# Machine learning based approaches

## Supervised classification : k-Nearest-Neighbors (kNN)

- We have a training set with feature vectors tagged with the corresponding classes ( $w_i$ )
- The unknown vector  $X_j$  is classified with/inside the most represented class among its  $k$  nearest neighbors



Many sophisticated techniques for classifier definition

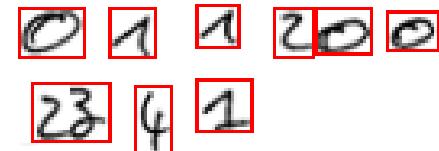


# A full sample (simplified)

1. Image acquisition

2. Pre-processing :

- Filtering, noise removal, scale selection, ...
- Segmentation of the ROI (objects)

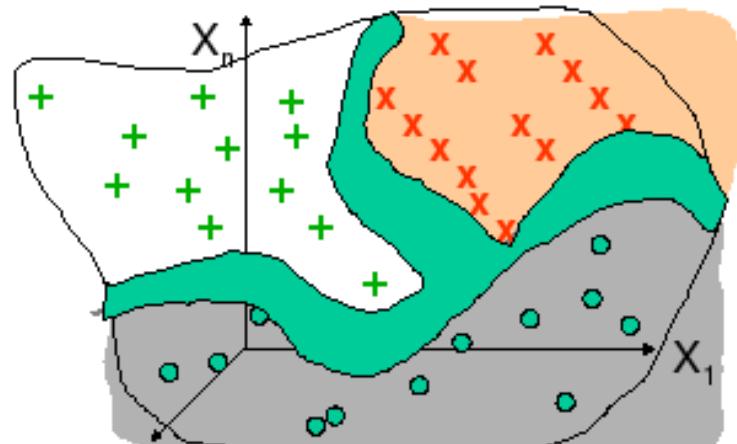


3. Feature extraction : building a vectorial representation of the objects

- $V(2:3; \square 2; 1000; 50; \dots; 45)$
- $V(\square 3; 10:2; 0; 20; \dots; \square 4; 5)$

4. Classification : select a label for each object from the vectorial representation

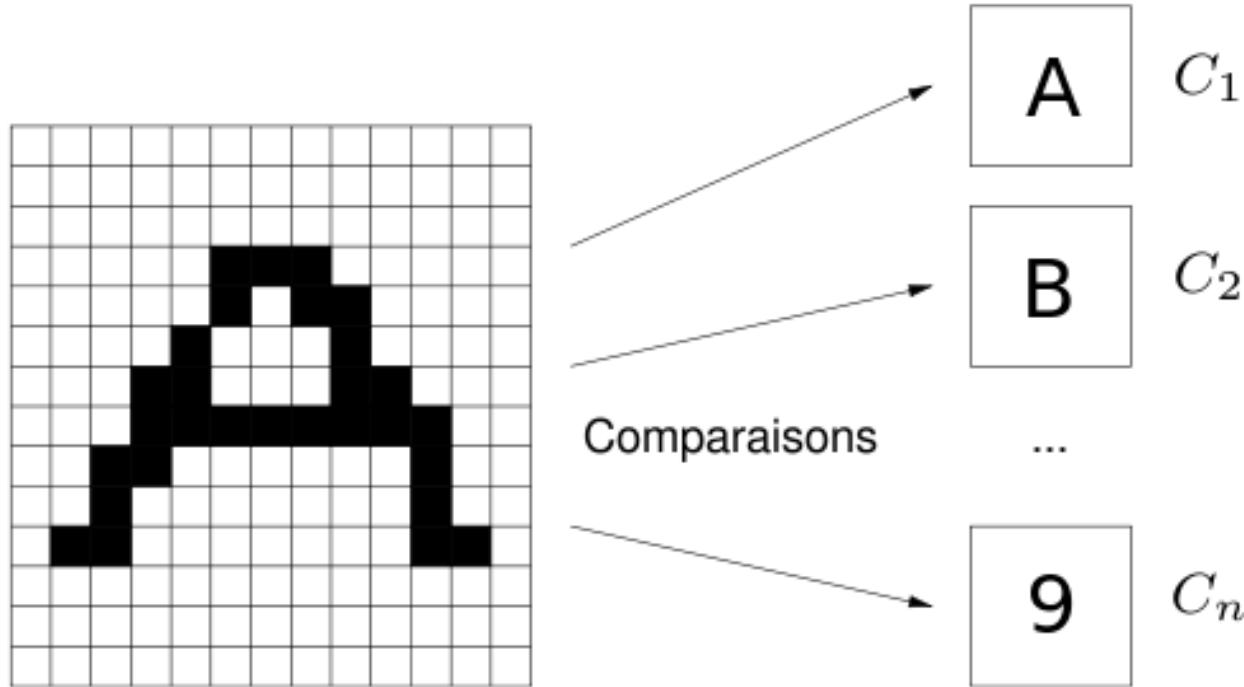
5. Post-processing : contextual verification to correct some errors



# Feature selection (simplified)

Pixels can be considered as features

- $\text{distance}(C; C_i) = \sum_{ij} |P(i; j) - P_i(i; j)|$



$C$  : Unknown object

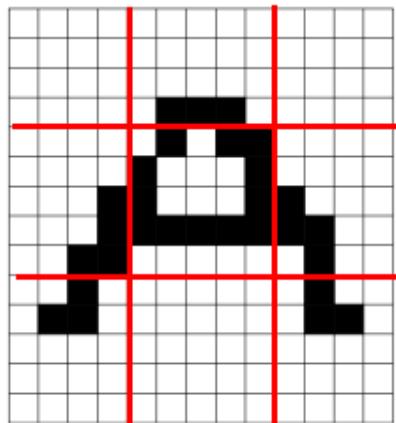
Training set (tagged models of object)

# Feature selection (simplified)

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## Zoning

- The image is splitted in n blocks
- For each block, some features are computed (number of black pixels)
- A new feature vector is obtained :  $V = (Nb_1; Nb_2; \dots; Nb_n)$



$$V=(0,3,0,4,12,4,3,0,3)$$

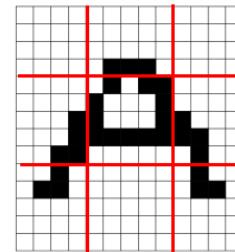
# Classification (simplified)

The unknown object ? is identified as a « A »  
because  $\min(D(A; ?); D(B; ?)) = D(A; ?)$

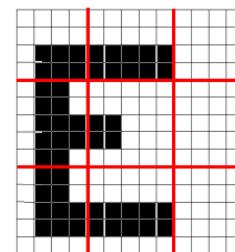
$$D(A, ?) = \sqrt{(0 - 0)^2 + (3 - 10)^2 + (0 - 0)^2 + (4 - 5)^2 + \dots + (3 - 2)^2}$$

$$D(A, ?) = 7,48 \text{ et } D(B, ?) = 19,05$$

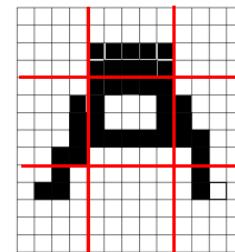
$$V=(0,3,0,4,12,4,3,0,3)$$



$$V=(6,10,0,12,4,0,10,10,0)$$



Forme inconnue



$$V=(0,10,0,5,14,5,3,0,2)$$

# That All for today...

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- Thank you

# Approche basée Graphes

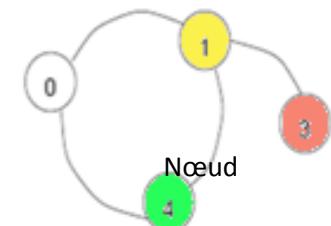
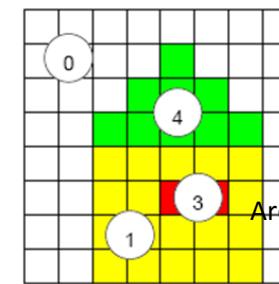
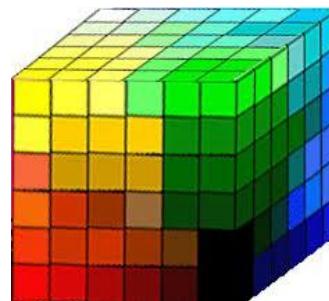
## Modélisation du contenu de l'image

⇒ Structuration des données à l'aide d'un graphe d'adjacence

### Nœud = Région

Attributs = Descripteurs de la région

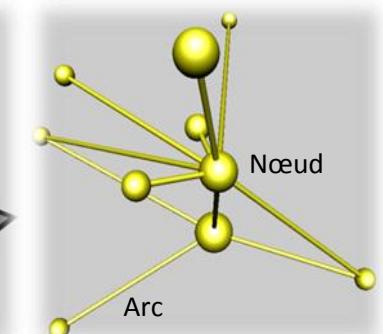
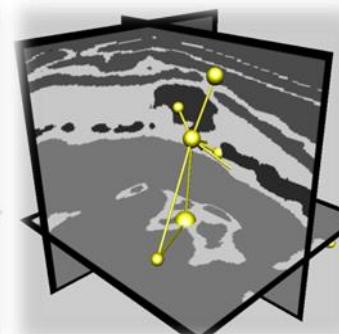
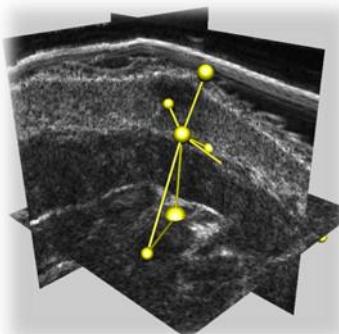
- Liste des voxels de la région
- Position :  $G(x,y,z)$
- Liste de caractéristiques  $F_j$  (les moyennes)
- Forme, couleur, modalités, ...
- Label, annotation, ...



### Arc = Relation entre Régions

Attributs = Descripteurs des relations

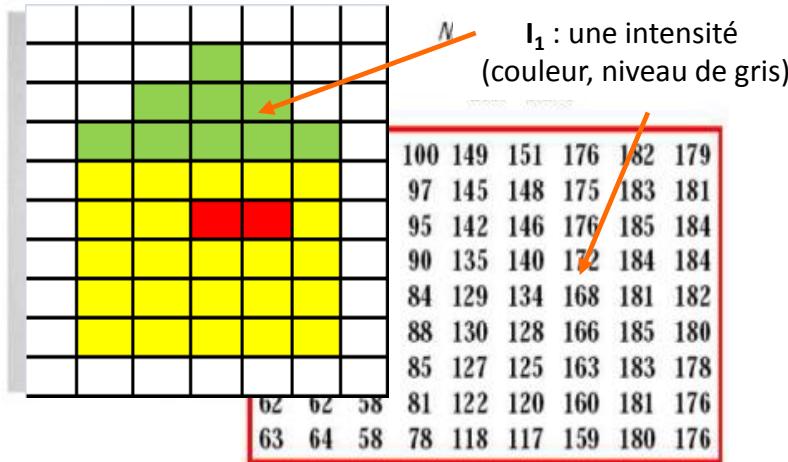
- Les 2 nœuds liés
- Aire de la surface de contact
- Type de relation, distance  $G_1, G_2$
- Taux de ressemblance, ...
- Label, annotation, ...



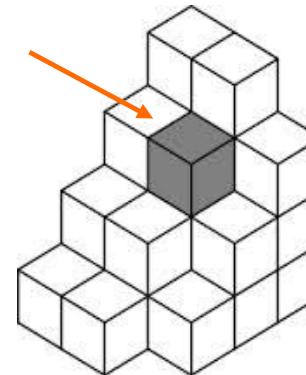
# Approche basée Graphes

## Modélisation du contenu des images

⇒ Caractérisation des contenus



Approche classique



1 voxel = 1 valeur

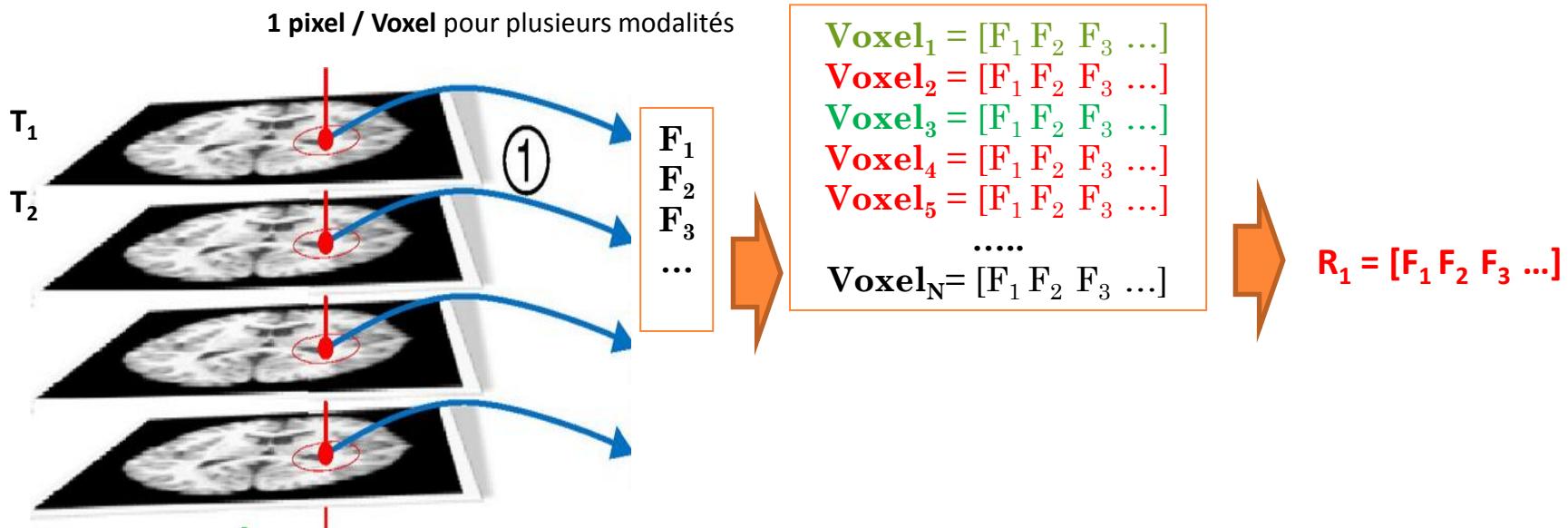
## Caractérisation des voxels

- Recalage des acquisitions multimodales ( T1, T2, ... )
- 1 voxel = 1 liste de caractéristiques  $F_j$  plutôt qu'une couleur
- 1 voxel = 1 individu ⇒ **Voxel<sub>i</sub> = [F<sub>1</sub> F<sub>2</sub> F<sub>3</sub> ...]**

# Approche basée Graphes

## Caractérisation des régions

- Segmentation = regroupement des individus similaires en classes
- Perte de l'information de connexité (vs approche région, contours)
- Caractéristiques Région = Moyenne des caractéristiques des Voxels appartenant à la région



# Approche basée Graphes

## Segmentation interactive du contenu de l'image

⇒ Transformation successive du graphe (RAG)

### Opération de Division

Fonction Seg correspond à un *K-means*

- Rapidité d'exécution
- Faible coût en mémoire
- Partitionnement efficace

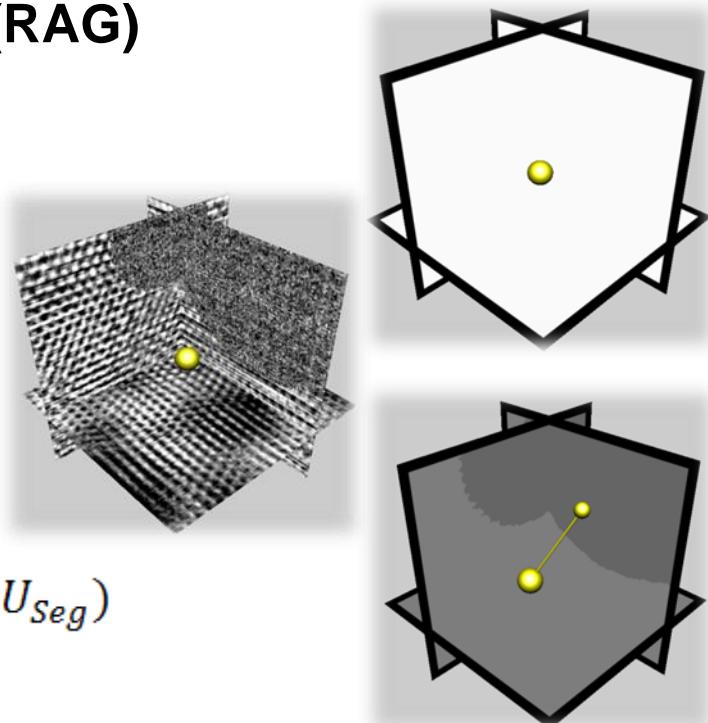
Nouveau graphe :

$$G_{k+1} = Kmeans(U_{op}.V, G_k, F, U_{Seg})$$

$U_{Seg}$  : nombre de régions

$F$  : caractéristiques choisies par l'utilisateur (attributs des nœuds)

$U_{op}.V$ : identifiant du nœud à diviser



# Approche basée Graphes

## Segmentation interactive du contenu de l'image

→ Transformations successives du graphe (RAG)

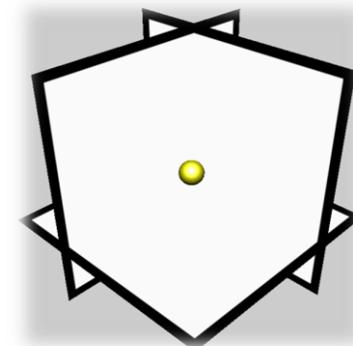
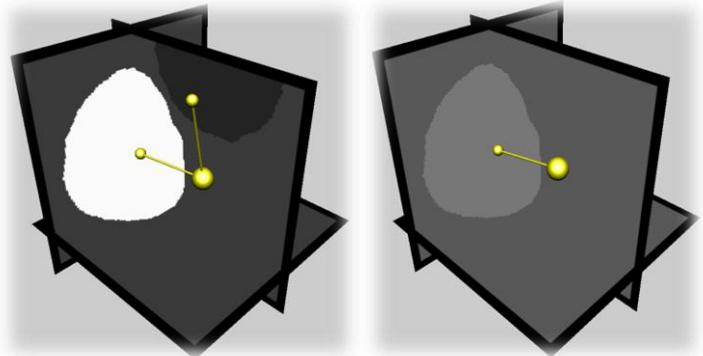
## Opération de Fusion

Simple fonction de fusion *Merge*

- Nouveau graphe :  $G_{k+1} = \text{Merge}(U_{op}, E, G_k)$
- Initialisation des attributs de  $V_{new}$  durant la fusion de  $V_1$  et  $V_2$

$$V_{new}.T_i = \frac{(V_1.T_i)(V_1.NV) + (V_2.T_i)(V_2.NV)}{V_1.NV + V_2.NV}$$

$NV$  : nombre de voxels identifié par un nœud  
 $T = \{\bar{F}, \bar{G}\}$



# Approche basée Graphes

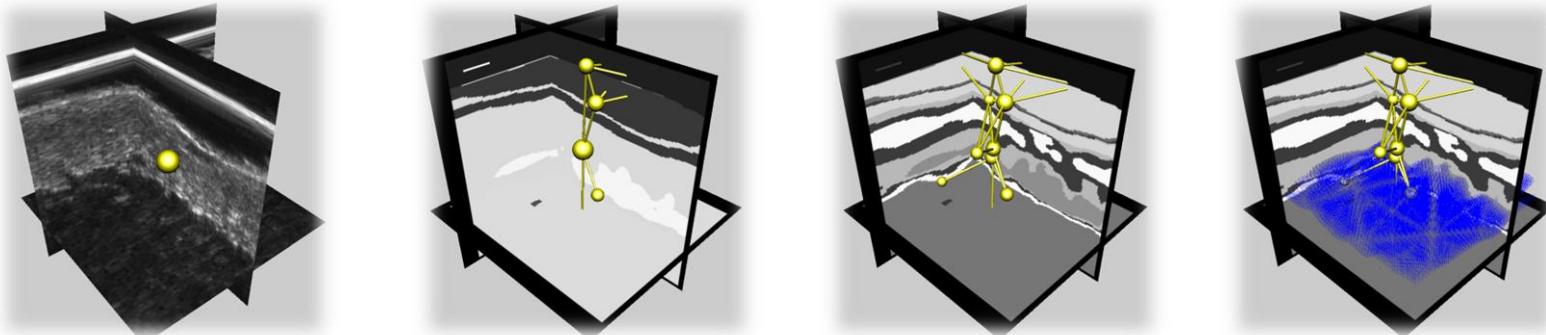
## Segmentation interactive du contenu de l'image

➔ Transformations successives du graphe (RAG)

### Initialisation

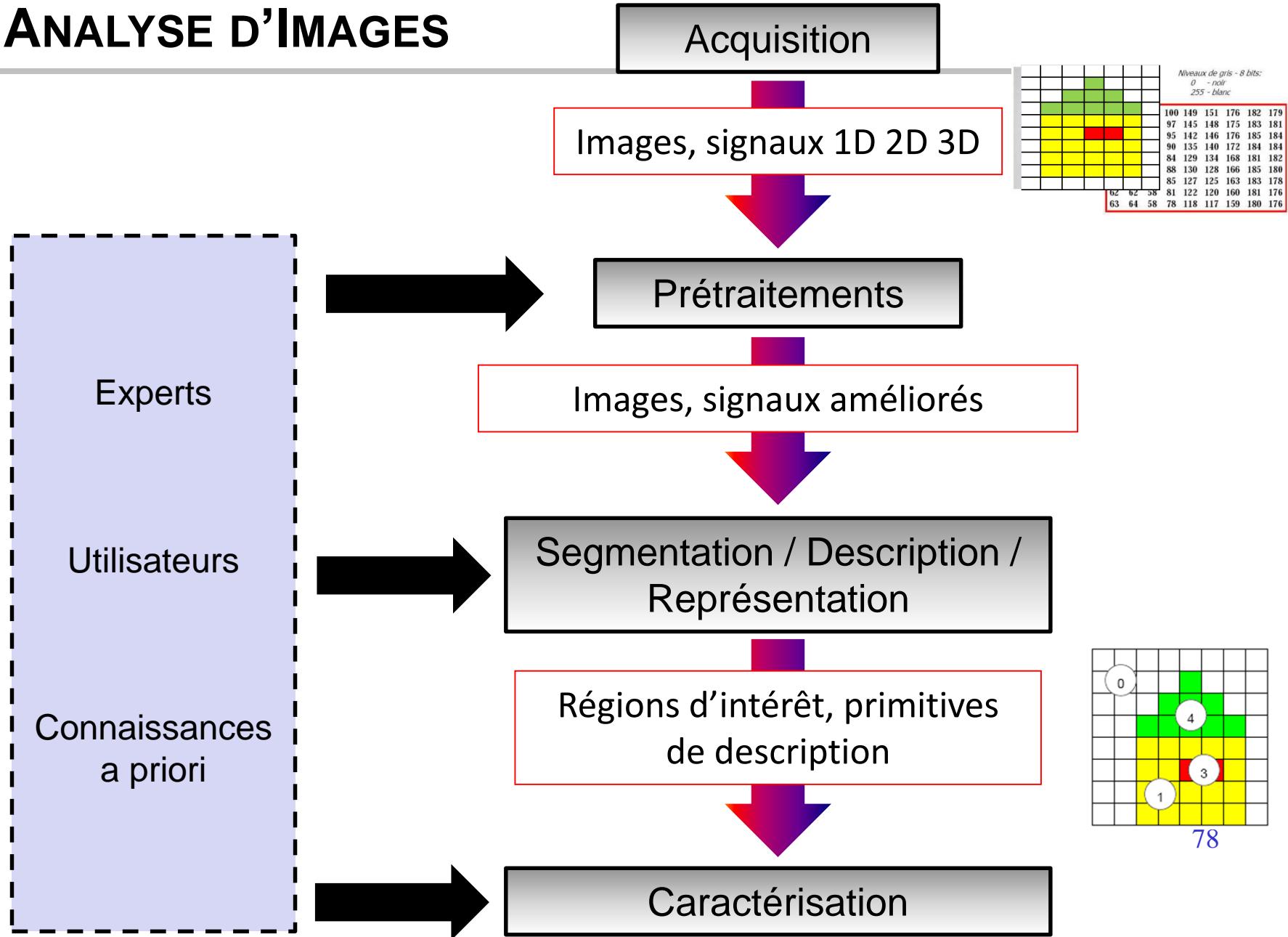
- GAR initialisé à partir d'un unique nœud = 1 région unique
- 1<sup>ère</sup> étape du processus de segmentation : Division
- Libre choix des opérations par la suite (Fusion, Division, Etiquetage, ...)

### Construction de scénarios de segmentation interactive

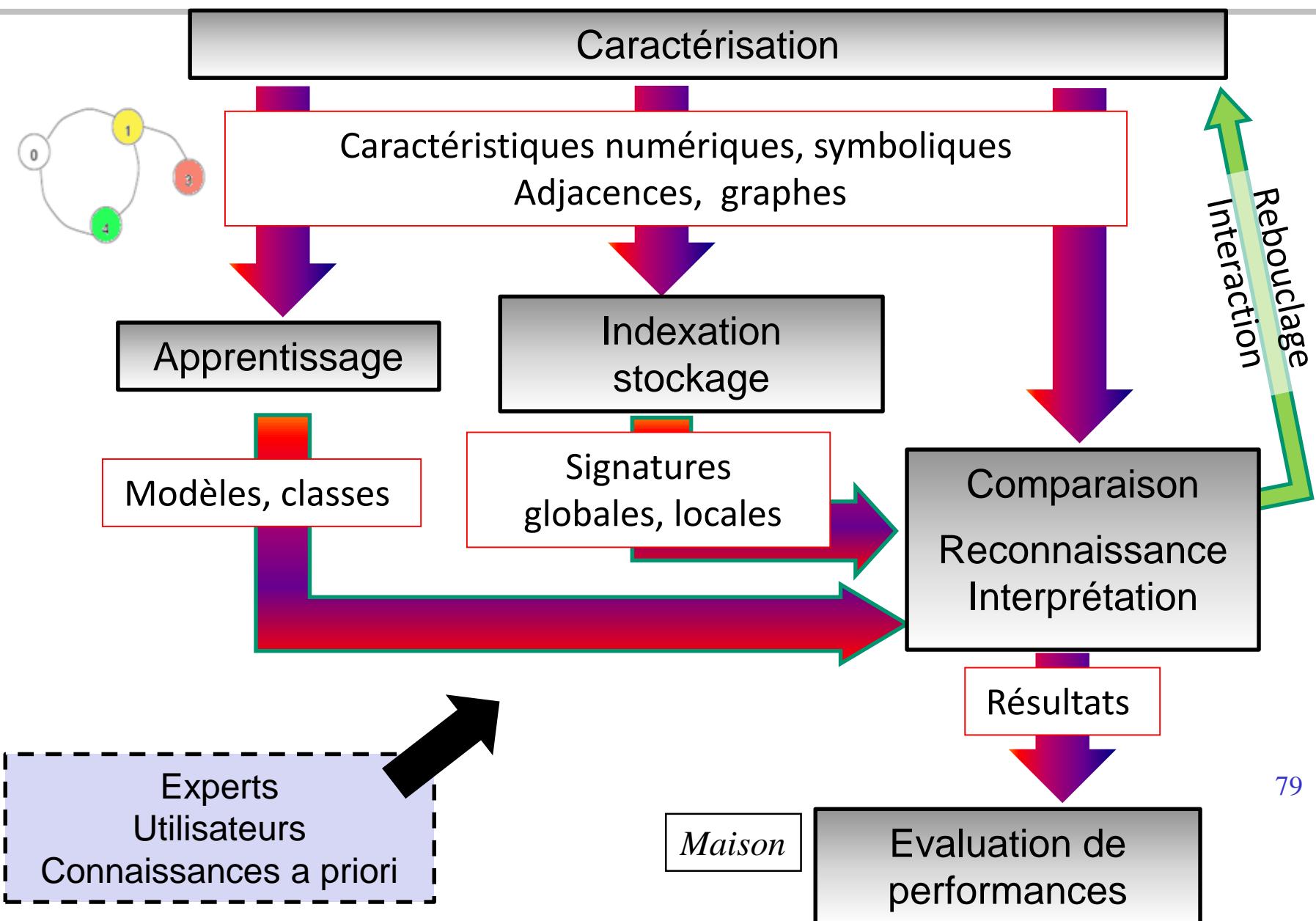


Autres opérations possibles : Etiquetage, simplification, suppression, ...

# ANALYSE D'IMAGES



# RECONNAISSANCE DES FORMES



# Contours et composantes connexes

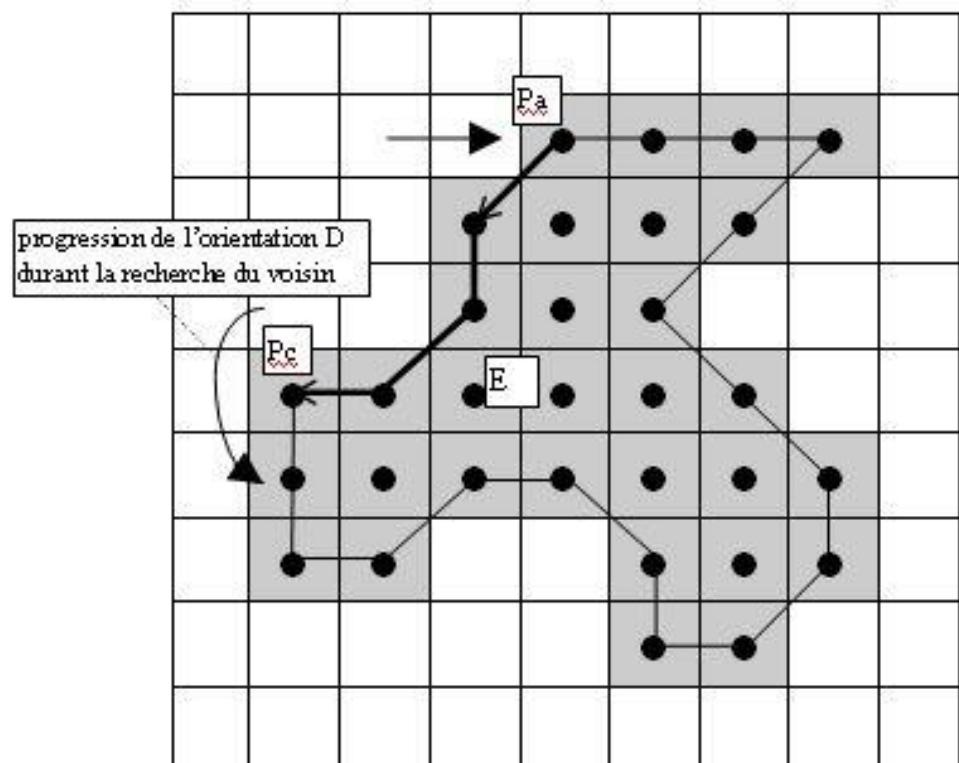
- Suivi de contour →

3	2	1
4	Pc	0
5	6	7

Image naturelle (NdG) !!!

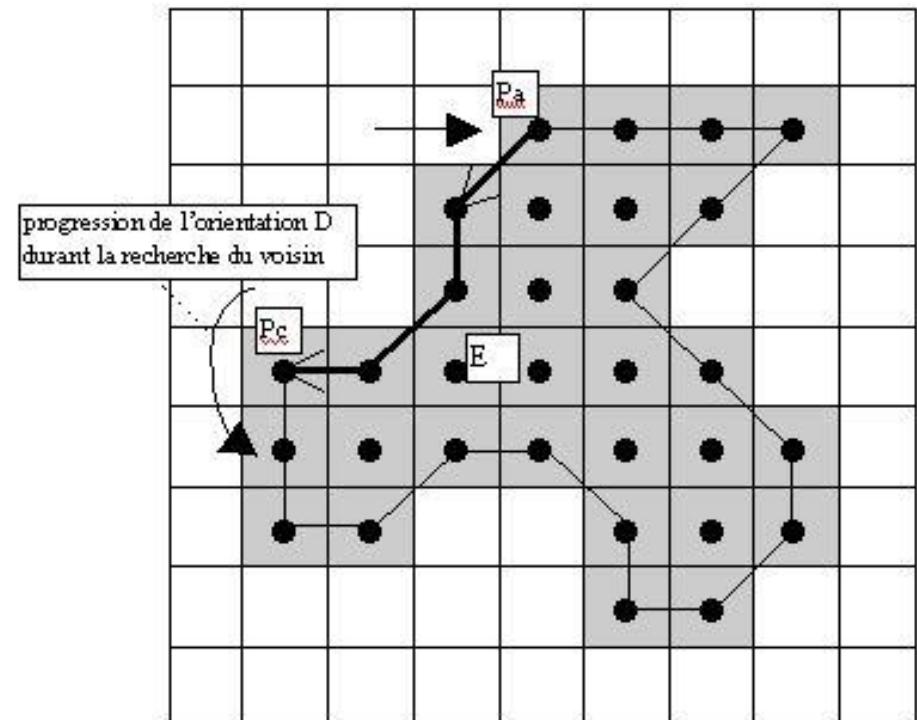
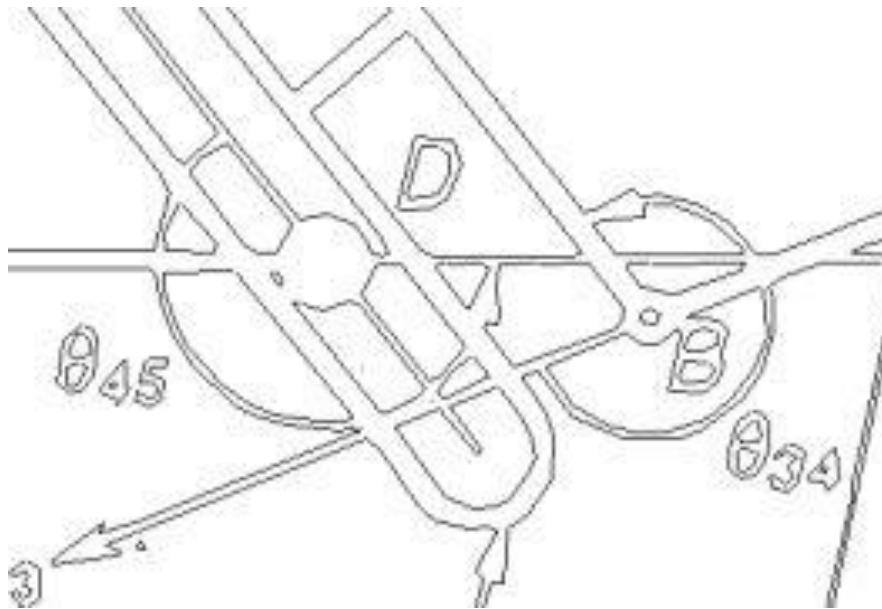


Image binaire



# Approximation polygonale → Vectorisation

- Des contours/squelettes aux vecteurs



# Contours actifs

- **Contour actif** : un ensemble de **n points mobiles**
- **Initialisation manuelle du contour**
- **Approche itérative** cherchant à repositionner les points de contours “le mieux possible”
- “Le mieux possible” → minimisation d’une fonction d’énergie
- Tous le problème est de définir la **bonne fonction** à minimiser
- **Souvent,**

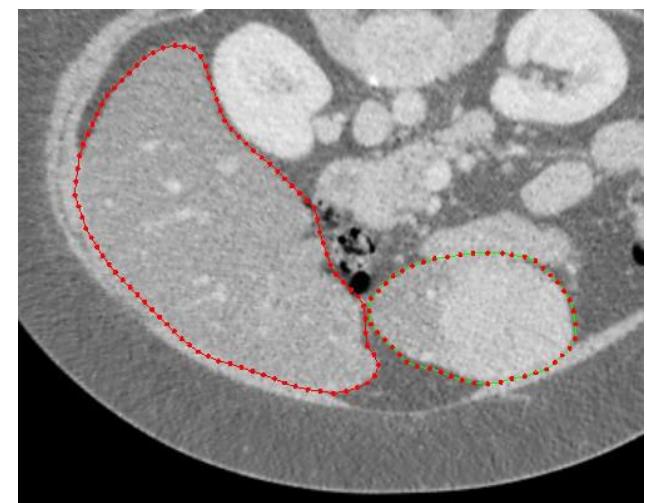
$$E_T = E_{interne} + E_{externe} \rightarrow E_{Totale} = \underbrace{-\int |\nabla I(p(s))|^2 ds}_{E_{externe}} + \underbrace{\int (\alpha(s)|p'(s)|^2 + \beta(s)|p''(s)|^2) ds}_{E_{interne}}$$

- $E_{externe}$  est minimale quand le contour est bien positionné sur le contour (fort gradient)

$$E_{Externe}(p_{n,k}) = \left| \underbrace{\nabla G_\sigma}_{\text{Gradient: Canny edge detector}} * I(p_{n,k}) \right|$$

- $E_{interne}$  est minimale quand le contour a une forme adaptée (lisse)

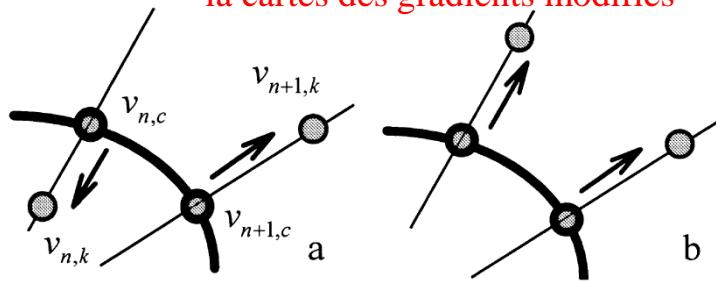
$$E_{Interne}(p_i) = \frac{1}{2} (\alpha_i |p_i - p_{i-1}|^2 + \beta_i |p_{i+1} - 2p_i + p_{i+2}|^2)$$



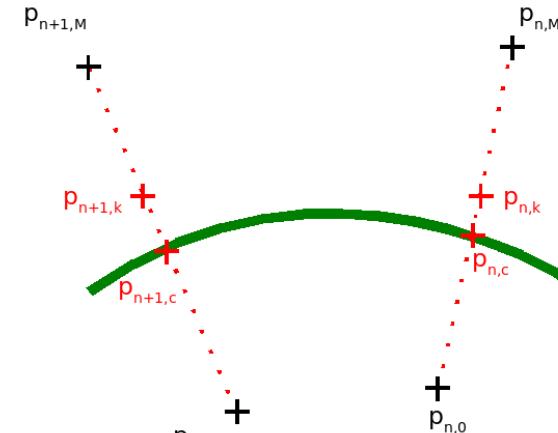
# Contours actifs

- Evolution du contour...

Comparaison des différences d'intensités dans la cartes des gradients modifiés



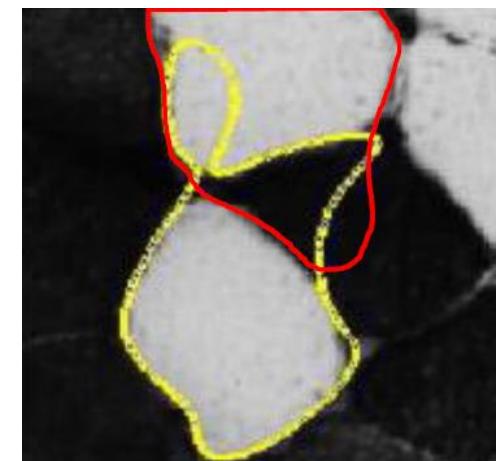
$$E_{Externe}(p_{n,k}) = \gamma \left| \underbrace{\nabla G_\sigma}_{\text{Gradient: Canny edgedetector}} * I(p_{n,k}) \right|$$



$$E_{Interne} = \alpha \left| (p_{n+1,k} - p_{n+1,c}) - (p_{n,k} - p_{n,c}) \right|$$

Comparaison des déplacements

- De nombreuses propositions d'améliorations
  - Surfaces actives 3D, levelset, ...
  - Incorporation de mécanisme **d'apprentissage et classification (RF)**
  - Ajout d'autres énergies (a priori de **forme, texture, ...**)
- Limitations
  - Choix des paramètres, initialisation manuelle, ...
  - Changement de topologie (nombre de contours)
  - Temps de calcul



# Contours actifs : modèle explicite

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- Avantages
  - Adaptation aux déformations des objets (tissus biologiques)
  - Quelques itérations suffisent
- Désavantages du modèle classique :
  - Le contour initial ne peut pas être sélectionné automatiquement (sauf cas simple)
  - Le contour initial doit être proche du contour final
  - Le modèle classique n'est pas utilisable dans le cas de la présence de texture
  - Le modèle classique peut être perturbé en présence de bruit
  - La minimisation d'énergie demande l'inversion de matrices de grandes tailles à chaque itération