Binary Image Analysis I

- In many applications, binary images can be used as the input to algorithms that perform useful tasks
 - Document analysis
 - Industrial inspection

Mar. 20, 1986 HIE HIPPRSDAY REPORT Page .

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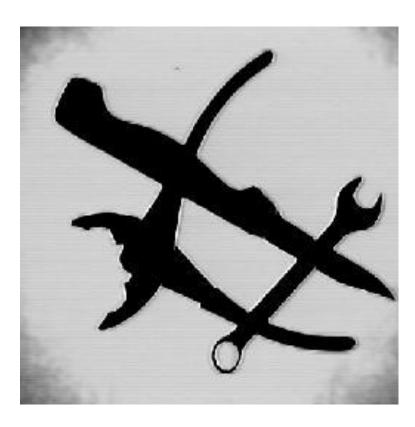
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Women's research institute announces grants, conference

- Research Grants-in-Aid: A small number of grants are being offered for projects that promote the advance-ment of women (\$2,000 each).

 The project must make a significant contribution to femnist research:
 - be non-serist in methodology and language;
 - take place in Canada or should concern Canada; . the research design and content must meet ap-
- Deadline is August 31, 1986
 The 10th CRIAW Conference, University of Moncton
- The 10th CRIAN Conference, University of Mon November 3-9, 1986. Call for Japens. Deadline for receipt of abstracts March 28, 1986. Address: Isabelle McKee-Allian Departement of sucologie Centre universitaire de Moncton Moncton, Nouveau-Bruatwick El A 159.



- These algorithms can handle a wide range of basic tasks in image analysis, including:
 - Simple counting tasks
 - Complex tasks :
 - recognition
 - localization
 - Inspection
- By studying binary image analysis before going on to gray-tone and color images, one can gain insight into the entire image analysis process

Binary Image Processing - Advantages

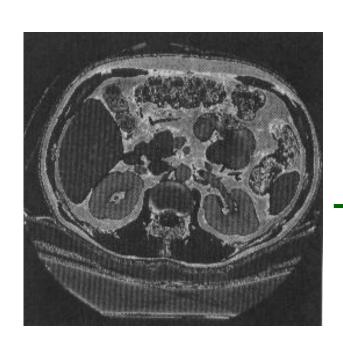
- Easy to acquire
- Low memory requirement
- Simple processing

Binary Image Processingdisadvantages

- Limited application
- Cannot extend to 3D
- Specialized lighting is required

1. Pixels and Neighborhoods

A binary image **B** can be obtained from a gray-scale or color image **I** through an operation that selects a subset of the image pixels as *foreground* pixels, the pixels of interest in an image analysis task, leaving the rest as *background* pixels to be ignored.



Thresholding



■ The pixels of a binary image **B** are **0**s and **1**s; The **1**s will be used to denote **foreground pixels**, and the **0**s **background pixels**.

- In many algorithms, not only the value of a particular pixel, but also the values of its neighbors are used when processing that pixel.
 - □ 4-neighbors
 - 8-neighbors of a pixel

	N	
W	*	E
	S	

NW	N	NE
W	*	E
SW	S	SE

4-neighbors

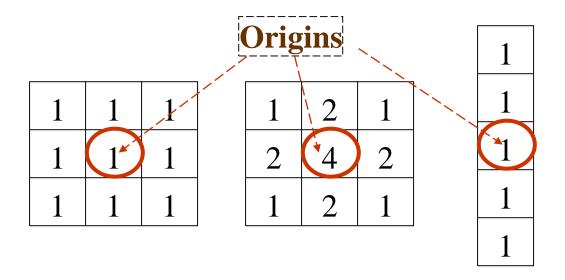
8-neighbors

■ The **4-neighborhood N4[r, c]** of pixel [r, c] includes pixels [r - 1, c], [r + 1, c], [r, c - 1], and [r, c + 1], which are often referred to, as its **north**, **south**, **west**, and **east** neighbors, respectively.

■ The 8-neighborhood N8 [r, c] of pixel [r, c] includes each pixel of the 4-neighborhood plus the diagonal neighbor pixels [r - 1, c - 1], [r - 1, c + 1], [r + 1, c - 1], and [r + 1, c + 1], which can be referred to as its northwest, northeast, southwest, and southeast neighbors, respectively.

2. Applying Masks to Images (filtering)

- Mask: A mask is a small matrix whose values are called weights
- Each mask has an *origin*, which is usually one of its positions.
 - □ The origins of symmetric masks are usually their center pixel position.
 - □ For non-symmetric masks, any pixel location may be chosen as the origin (depending on the intended use)

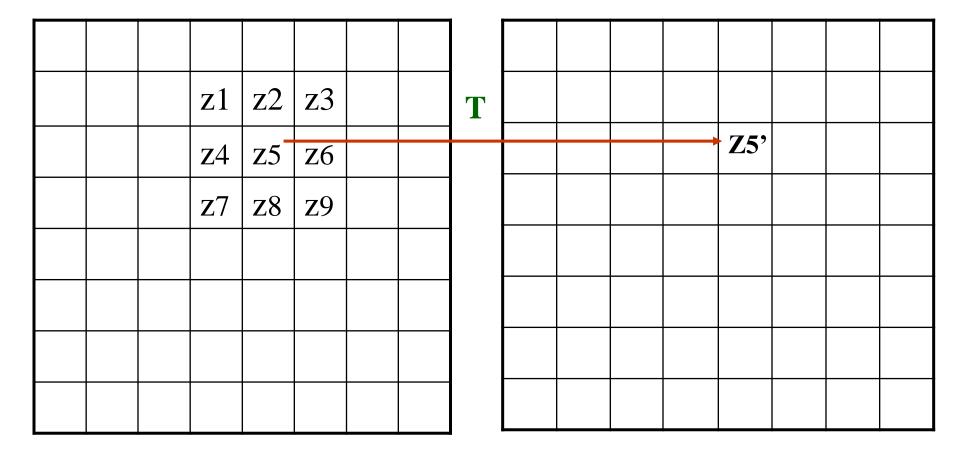


- Applying a mask to smooth an image
- The application of a mask to an input image produces an output image of the same size as the input.
 - For each pixel in the input image, the mask is conceptually placed on top of the image with its origin lying on that pixel
 - □ The values of each input image pixel under the mask is multiplied by the weight of the corresponding mask pixel

The results are summed together to yield a single output value that is placed in the output image at the location of the pixel being processed on the input

$$\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{T}[\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})]$$

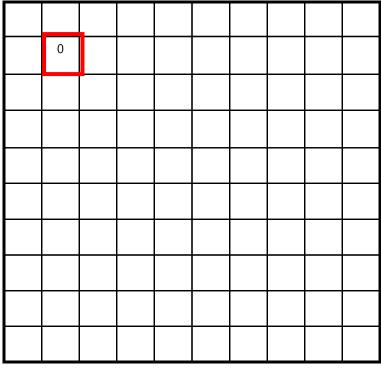
T operates on a neighborhood of pixels



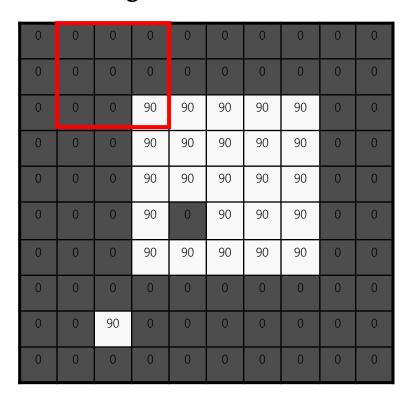
w1	w2	w3
w4	w5	w6
w7	w8	w9

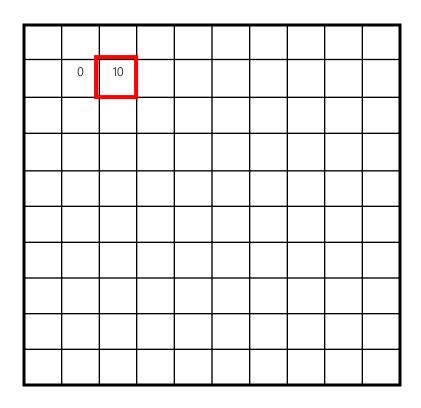
$$z5' = R = w1z1 + w2z2 + ... + z9w9$$

$$g[\cdot,\cdot]^{\frac{1}{9}}$$



$$g[\cdot,\cdot]^{\frac{1}{9}}$$

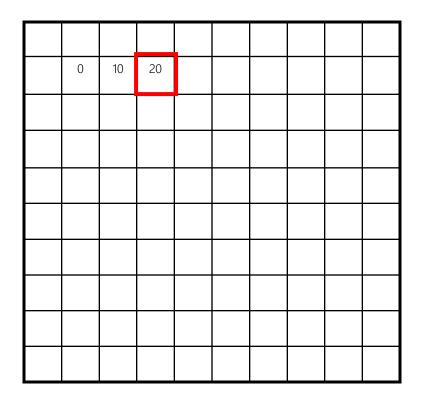




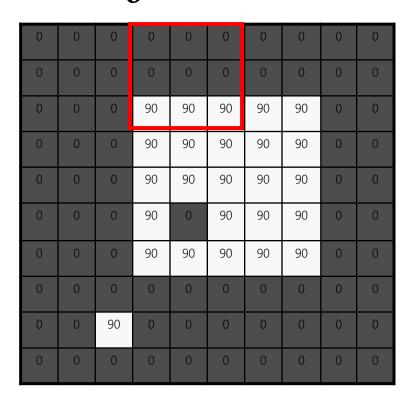
$$g[\cdot,\cdot]^{\frac{1}{9}}$$

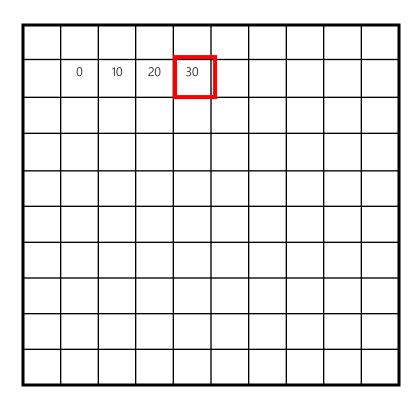
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	0	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

h[.,.]

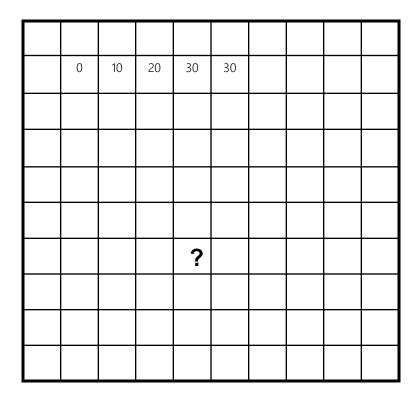


$$g[\cdot,\cdot]^{\frac{1}{9}}$$

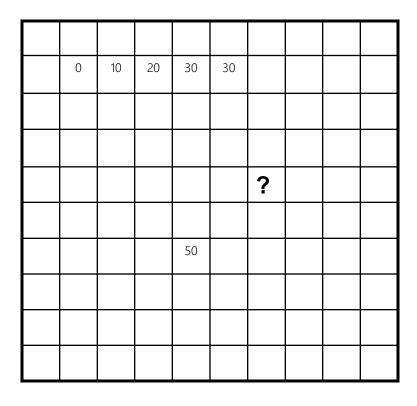




$$g[\cdot,\cdot]^{\frac{1}{9}}$$



$$g[\cdot,\cdot]^{\frac{1}{9}}$$



$$g[\cdot,\cdot]_{\frac{1}{9}}$$

0	10	20	30	30	30	20	10	
0	20	40	60	60	60	40	20	
0	30	60	90	90	90	60	30	
0	30	50	80	80	90	60	30	
0	30	50	80	80	90	60	30	
0	20	30	50	50	60	40	20	
10	20	30	30	30	30	20	10	
10	10	10	0	0	0	0	0	

- What does it do?
 - Replaces each pixel with an average of its neighborhood
 - □ Achieve smoothing effect (remove sharp features)





Practice with linear filters



Original

0	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	0

?



Original

0	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	0



Filtered (no change)



Original

0	0	0
0	0	1
0	0	0

?



Original

0	0	0
0	0	1
0	0	0



Shifted left By 1 pixel

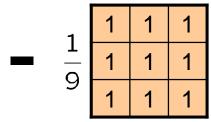


0	0	0
0	2	0
0	0	0

Original



0	0	0
0	2	0
0	0	0



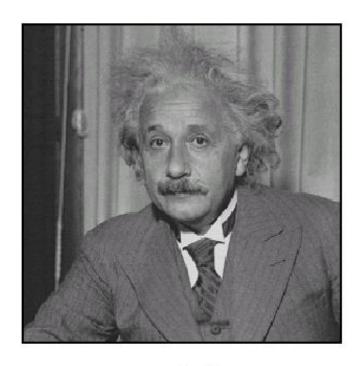


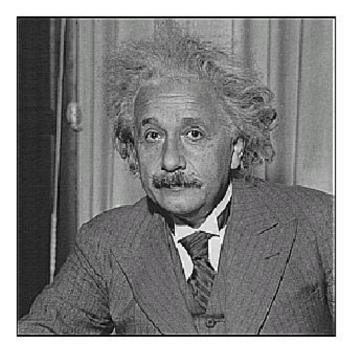
Original

Sharpening filter

- Accentuates differences with local average

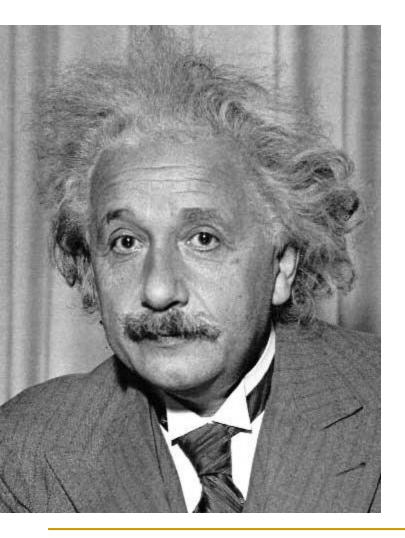
Sharpening





before after

Other filters

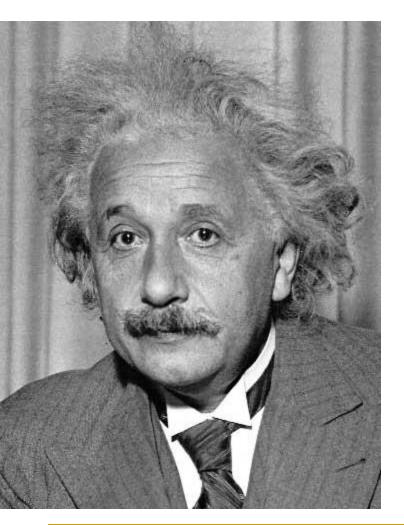


1	0	-1
2	0	-2
1	0	-1

Sobel

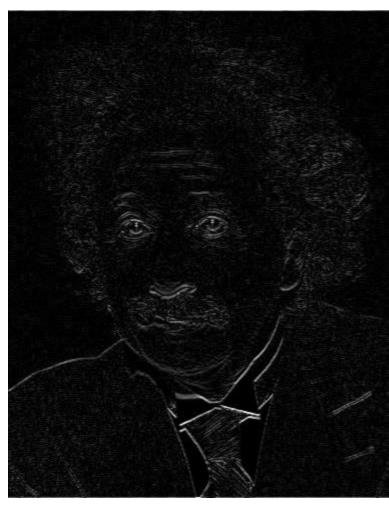


Vertical Edge (absolute value) 34



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

Sobel

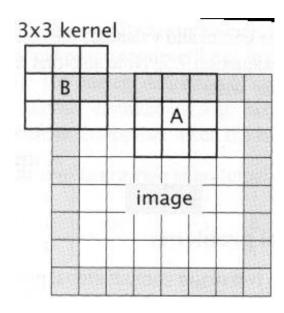


Horizontal Edge (absolute value) 35

Binary image analysis I

How to treat the image borders?

Step 1: In order to make the output image come out the same size as the input image, we must add some virtual rows and columns to the input image around the edges.

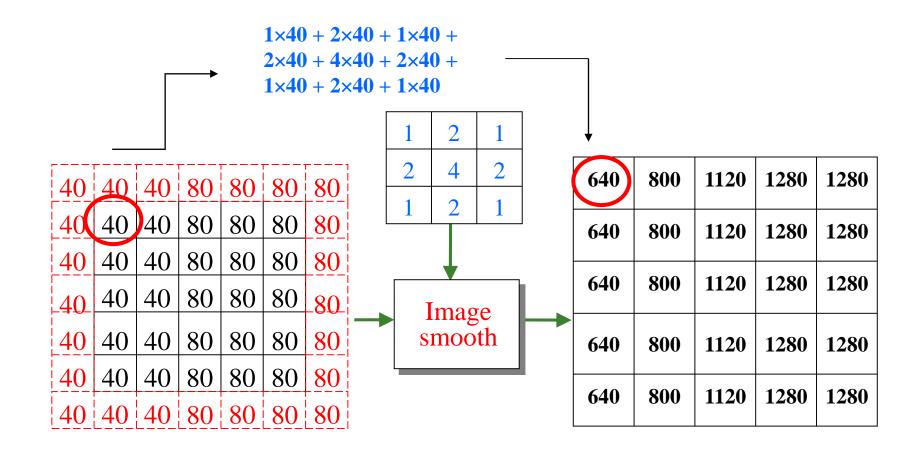


40	40	80	80	80	
40	40	80	80	80	
40	40	80	80	80	
40	40	80	80	80	
40	40	80	80	80	

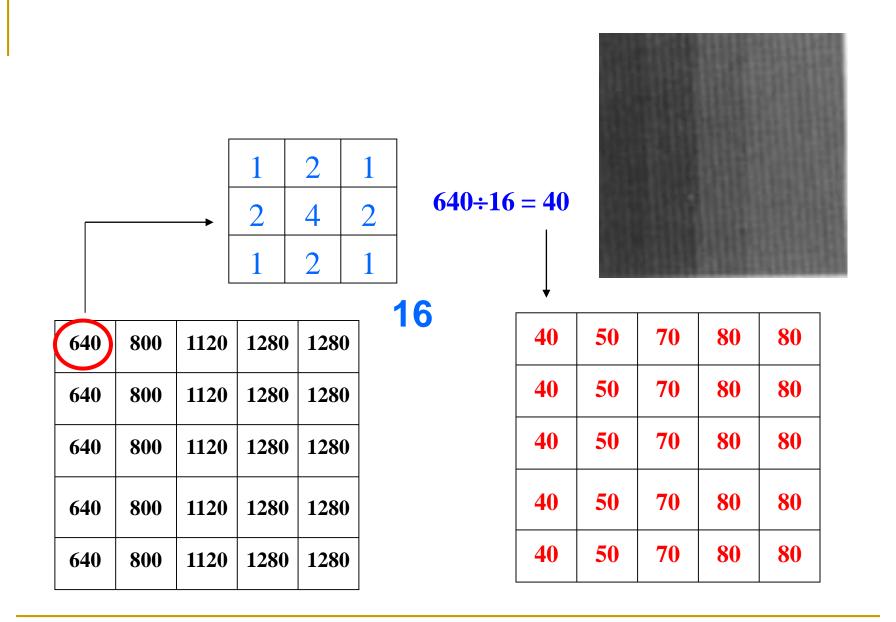
Step 2: The values in these virtual rows and columns can be set arbitrarily to zero or some other constant or, as has been done here, they can merely duplicate the closest row (or column) to them.

40	400	40	80	80	80	80
400	40	40	80	80	80	80
40	40	40	80	80	80	80
40	40	40	80	80	80	80
40	40	40	80	80	80	80
40	40	40	80	80	80	80
40	40	40	80	80	80	80

1	2	1
2	4	2
1	2	1

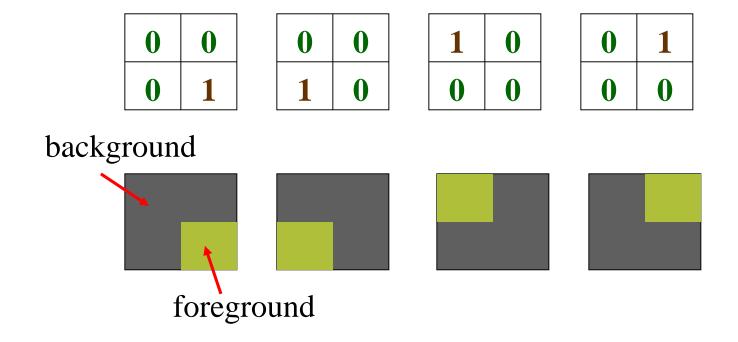


Step3: To normalize, we can divide the value obtained for each pixel by the sum of the weights in the mask, in this case 16, obtaining the final image



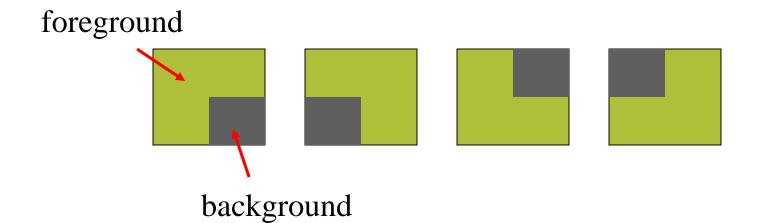
3. Counting the Objects in an Images

- Counting the number of background objects is an equivalent problem that can be performed with the same algorithm by merely swapping the roles of the two sets: E and I.
- E --- the external corner patterns are 2×2 masks that have three 0s and one 1-pixel.



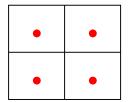
■ I --- the internal corner patterns are 2×2 masks that have three 1s and one 0-pixel.

							1	
1 0 0 1 1 1	1	1 1	1	1	1	0	0	1



Algorithm: Counting foreground objects

- Compute the number of foreground objects of binary image B.
- Objects are 4-connected and simply connected.



- **Step1**: Counting the number of external corners (E) in region of 2×2 sub-images
- Step2: Counting the number of internal corners (I) in region of 2×2 sub-images
- Step3: Counting the number of foreground objects in whole image:

The number of foreground objects =
$$|\frac{I-E}{4}|$$

Algorithm: Counting foreground objects

```
procedure count-objects(B);
      E := 0;
      I := 0;
      for L:= 0 to MaxRow - 1
         for P:= 0 to MaxCol - 1
          if external-match(L, P) then E:= E + 1;
          if internal-match(L, P) then I:= I + 1;
      return ((I - E) / 4);
```

Function external-match(L, P)

It sequences through the four external masks and returns *true* if the sub-image with top left pixel [L, P] matches one of them, *false* otherwise.

0	0
0	1

0	0
1	0

1	0
0	0

0	1
0	0

Function internal-match(L, P)

Similarly, the function internal-match(L, P) returns *true* if the subimage with top left pixel [L, P] matches one of the four internal masks, and *false* otherwise.

1	1
1	0

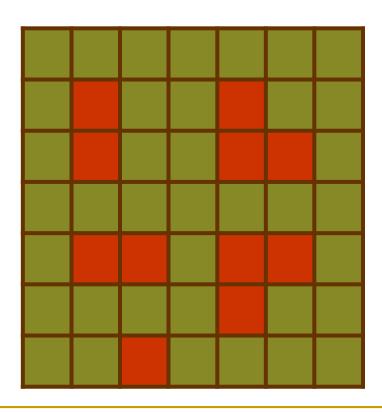
1	1
0	1

1	0
1	1

0	1
1	1

Example





$$E = 4$$

$$E = 1, I = 1$$

$$E = 4$$

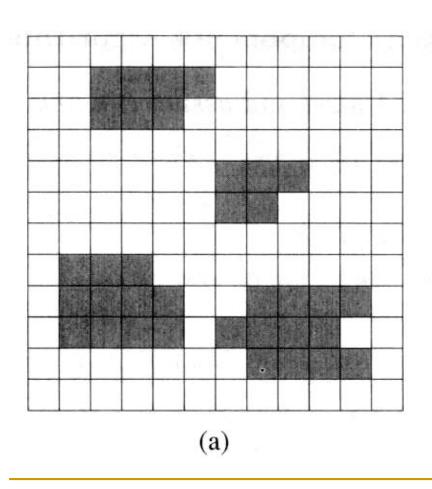
$$|(I - E) / 4| = |(2 - 20) / 4| \approx 4 \text{ objects}$$

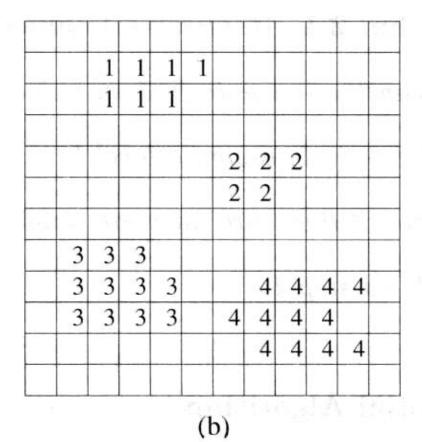
$$E = 4$$

$$E = 3, I = 1$$

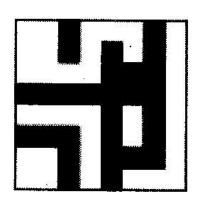
$$E = 4$$

4. Connected Components Labeling





- **Definition** --- A *connected components labeling* of a binary image **B** is a labeled image **LB** in which the value of each pixel is the label of its connected component
- A label is a symbol that uniquely names an entity. While character labels are possible, positive integers are more convenient and are most often used to label the connected components.



1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1

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

- There are a number of different algorithms for the connected components labeling operation.
- Some algorithms assume that the entire image can fit in memory and employ a simple, *recursive algorithm* that works on one component at a time, but can move all over the image while doing so.

Other algorithms were designed for larger images that may not fit in memory and work on only two rows of the image at a time.

- Two different algorithms are commonly used:
 - □ The *recursive* search algorithm
 - □ A *row-by-row* algorithm that uses a special union-find data structure to keep track of components

Recursive Labeling Algorithm

- Suppose that **B** is a binary image with
 MaxRow + 1 rows and MaxCol + 1 columns.
- We wish to find the connected components of the 1-pixels and produce a labeled output image LB in which every pixel is assigned the label of its connected component

- 1: To negate the binary image, so that all the "1" pixels become "-1"s.
 - □ This is needed to distinguish unprocessed pixels (-1) from those of component label 1.
 - □ This is accomplished with a function called *negate* that inputs the binary image **B** and outputs the negated image **LB**, which will become the labeled image.

- 2: Finding the connected components becomes one of
 - □ finding a pixel whose value is -1 in LB,
 - assigning it a new label 1, and
 - □ calling **procedure** *search* to find its neighbors that have value -1 and recursively repeat the process for these neighbors

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

B: Binary image

LB: Negated image



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

Recursive Algorithm

- 1.Scan the image to find an unlabeled -1 pixel and assign it a new label L.
- 2.Recursively assign a label L to all its -1 neighbors.
- 3.Stop of there are no unlabeled -1 pixels
- 4.Go to step 1

Features

- -Inefficient for sequential processors/general purpose computers
- -Commonly used on parallel machines.

■ Function *neighbors* (L, P):

- □ The utility **function** *neighbors* (**L**, **P**) is given a pixel position defined by L and P.
- It returns the set of pixel positions of all of its neighbors, using either the 4-neighborhood or 8-neighborhood definition.
- Only neighbors that represent legal positions on the binary image are returned.
- □ The neighbors are returned in scan-line order

	1	
2		3
	4	

1	2	3
4		5
6	7	8

Attention

- The type of neighborhood you choose affects the number of objects found in an image and the boundaries of those objects. For this reason, the results of many morphology operations often differ depending upon the type of connectivity you specify.
- For example, if you specify a 4-connected neighborhood, this binary image contains two objects; if you specify an 8-connected neighborhood, the image has one object.

0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	1	0
0	0	0	1	1	0

- Compute the connected components of a binary image.
- This algorithm is a set of five procedures: recursive-connected-components,
 - (1) negate,
 - (2) find-components,
 - (3) search,
 - (4) neighbors
 - (5) print

```
procedure recursive-connected-components (B, LB);
LB := negate (B);
label := 0;
find-components (LB, label);
print (LB);
procedure find-components (LB, label);
for L:= 0 to MaxRow
       for P:= 0 to MaxCol
               if LB[L,P] == -1 then
               label:= label + 1;
               search (LB, label, L, P);
```

```
procedure search (LB, label, L, P);
LB[L,P] := label;
Nset:= neighbors (L, P);
for each [L', P'] in Nset
        if LB[L', P'] == -1
        then search (LB, label, L', P');
```

A Row-by-Row Labeling Algorithm

- The classical algorithm
- The algorithm makes two passes over the image:
 - One pass to record equivalences and assign temporary labels.
 - □ The second pass to replace each temporary label by the label of its equivalence class.

- 1.Scan the image from left to right, top to bottom; if the pixel is *1* then
 - a) if only one of the upper *or* left pixels has a label, copy this label to current pixel
 - b) if both have the same label, copy this label
 - c) if they have different labels, copy one label and mark these two labels as equivalent
 - d) if there are no labeled neighbors, assign it a new label
- 2.Scan the labeled image and replace all equivalent labels with a common label
- 3.If there are no neighbors, go to 1

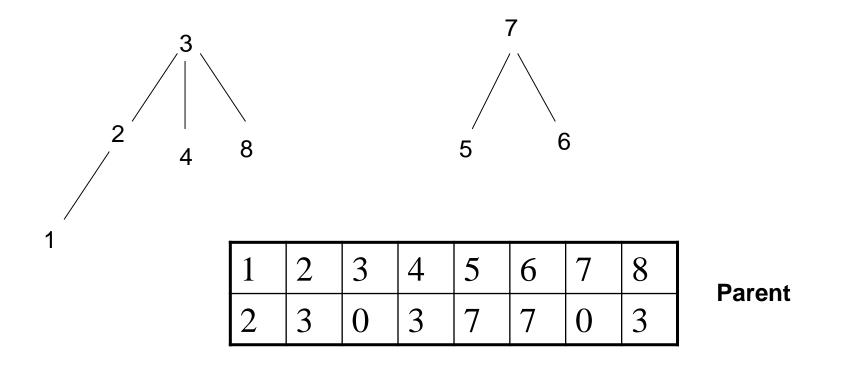
Union-Find Structure

Union: merging two sets into one

Find: determining which set a particular element is in

Each set is stored as a tree structure

The union-find data structure for two sets of labels. For each integer Label i, the value of **Parent[i]** is the label of the parent of i or zero if i is a root node and has no parent.



- If the roots are not the same, one label is made the parent of the other.
- It is also possible to keep track of the set sizes and to attach the smaller set to the root of the larger set. This has the effect of keeping the tree depths down.

- The first pass of the algorithm performs label propagation (傳播) to propagate a pixel's label to its neighbors to the right and below it.
- Whenever a situation arises in which two different labels can propagate to the same pixel, the smaller label propagate and each such equivalence found is entered in the union-find structure

3. A second pass through the image then performs a translation, assigning to each pixel the label of its equivalence class.

Example

1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1

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

1	1	0	1	1	1	0	3
1	1	0	1	0	1	0	3
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	3
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
4	4	4	4	0	5	0	3
0	0	0	4	0	5	0	3
6	6	0	4	0	0	0	3
6	6	0	4	0	3	3	3

After Pass 1

After Pass 2

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

Parent

