Chan-Vese Image Segmentation

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1 Introduction

On a computer, images are represented using arrays of integers. Arrays for grayscale scale images have two dimensions, whereas for RGB images they have a 3rd dimension called *channel* as well, one for each of the colors Red, Green and Blue. The Image Segmentation problem is then to take such an array of integers and output a segmentation boundary that divides the image into the various objects it contains.

This is a very well researched problem and there exist various methods in literature for doing this. One of the most basic ones is thresholding - classifying pixels as *white* if they are above a threshold, and black instead. Canny edge detection is slightly more complicated - based on convolution against edge detection filters. Nowadays, deep neural network based techniques dominate the field.

In this report, we'll study the Chan-Vese model for image segmentation. It is a continuous model of the digital image, and the segmentation boundary is specified as the solution to a minimization problem. Level set methods can then be used to evolve an initial curve to a local minimum for the problem.

2 The Mumford Shah model

A given grayscale image is modeled as a function $f:\Omega\subset\mathbb{R}^2\to[0,\infty]$. The Mumford and Shah model [9] approximates f by a piecewise-smooth function u as the solution to the minimization problem

$$\underset{u,C}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \, \mu \operatorname{Length}(C) + \lambda \int_{\Omega} (f(x) - u(x))^2 dx + \int_{\Omega \setminus C} |\nabla u(x)|^2 dx, \tag{2.1}$$

where C is an edge set curve where u is allowed to be discontinuous. The first term ensures the regularity of C, the second term encourages u to be close to f, and the third term ensures that u is differentiable and has a small gradient on $\Omega \setminus C$.

This is a very natural way to pose segmentation, but algorithms for solving this minimization model tend to very complicated and computationally expensive. Thus as a simplification, Mumford and Shah also considered a piecewise constant formulation,

$$\underset{u.C}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \, \mu \operatorname{Length}(C) + \lambda \int_{\Omega} (f(x) - u(x))^2 dx \tag{2.2}$$

where u is required to be constant on each connected component of $\Omega \setminus C$.

3 The Chan-Vese Model

The Chan-Vese model [3] is a further simplification of the piecewise constant Mumford-Shah model. It restricts u to only have two values - c_1 inside C and c_2 outside C. It also adds an additional term penalizing the area inside C. Thus, the model becomes

$$\underset{c_{1},c_{2},C}{\operatorname{arg\,min}\mu\,\operatorname{Length}(C) + \nu\,\operatorname{Area}(inside(C))} + \lambda_{1} \int_{inside(C)} (f(x) - c_{1})^{2} dx + \lambda_{2} \int_{outside(C)} (f(x) - c_{2})^{2} dx.$$

$$(3.1)$$

 $\mu, \nu, \lambda_1, \lambda_2$ are hyper-parameters to be determined by experimentation.

4 A semi-implicit gradient algorithm for solving the Chan-Vese minimization problem

To actually solve the minimization problem, it's convenient to represent C as the zero-crossing of a level-set function ϕ such that

$$C = \{x \in \Omega : \phi(x) = 0\}$$

$$\tag{4.1}$$

and ϕ has different signs inside and outside C. Provided that ϕ is smooth enough and is indeed a distance function, the minimization problem can be rewritten as

$$\underset{c_{1},c_{2},\phi}{\arg\min} \, \mu \int_{\Omega} \delta(\phi(x)) |\nabla \phi(x)| dx + \nu \int_{\Omega} H(\phi(x)) dx
+ \lambda_{1} \int_{\Omega} (f(x) - c_{1})^{2} H(\phi(x)) dx + \lambda_{2} \int_{\Omega} (f(x) - c_{2})^{2} (1 - H(\phi(x))) dx, \tag{4.2}$$

where H is the heaviside function and δ the dirac delta distribution.

For a fixed ϕ , the optimal c_1 and c_2 are the region averages

$$c_1 = \frac{\int_{\Omega} f(x)H(\phi(x))dx}{\int_{\Omega} H(\phi(x))dx},$$
(4.3)

$$c_2 = \frac{\int_{\Omega} f(x)(1 - H(\phi(x)))dx}{\int_{\Omega} (1 - H(\phi(x)))dx}.$$
(4.4)

For solving the problem numerically, H is approximated by the smooth function

$$H_{\epsilon}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{2}{\pi} \arctan(\frac{t}{\epsilon}) \right) \tag{4.5}$$

and δ by its derivative

$$\delta_{\epsilon}(t) = \frac{d}{dt}H_{\epsilon}(t) = \frac{\epsilon}{\pi(\epsilon^2 + t^2)}.$$
(4.6)

This introduces another hyper-parameter ϵ .

For fixed c_1, c_2 , we can use the Euler Lagrange equations to come up with a gradient descent for optimizing ϕ

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \delta_{\epsilon}(\phi) \left(\mu \operatorname{div} \left(\frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|} \right) - \nu - \lambda_1 (f - c_1)^2 + \lambda_2 (f - c_2)^2 \right) \text{ in } \Omega, \tag{4.7}$$

$$\frac{\delta_{\epsilon}(\phi)}{|\nabla \phi|} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \vec{n}} = 0 \text{ on } \partial \Omega, \tag{4.8}$$

where \vec{n} is the outward normal on the image boundary.

Now, we discretize the problem to solve it numerically. f is sampled on a regular grid $\Omega = \{0, \dots, M\} \prod \{0, \dots, M\}$. We discretize in space as (Method of Lines)

$$\frac{\partial \phi_{i,j}}{\partial t} = \delta_{\epsilon}(\phi_{i,j}) \left[\mu \left(\nabla_x^- \frac{\nabla_x^+ \phi_{i,j}}{\sqrt{\eta^2 + (\nabla_x^+ \phi_{i,j})^2 + (\nabla_y^0 \phi_{i,j})^2}} + \nabla_y^- \frac{\nabla_y^+ \phi_{i,j}}{\sqrt{\eta^2 + (\nabla_x^0 \phi_{i,j})^2 + (\nabla_y^+ \phi_{i,j})^2}} \right) \right]$$
(4.9)

$$-\nu - \lambda_1 (f_{i,j} - c_1)^2 + \lambda_2 (f_{i,j} - c_2)^2], \quad i, j = 1, \dots, M - 1,$$
(4.10)

where ∇_x^- denotes backward difference, ∇_x^+ denotes forward difference and ∇_x^0 denotes central difference in the x dimension. Note that we have introduced another hyper-parameter η to prevent division by 0. The reason for mixing ∇_x^- and ∇_x^+ is to center the combined difference at (i, j).

For convenience, we let

$$A_{i,j} = \frac{\mu}{\sqrt{\eta^2 + (\nabla_x^+ \phi_{i,j})^2 + (\nabla_y^0 \phi_{i,j})^2}}, B_{i,j} = \frac{\mu}{\sqrt{\eta^2 + (\nabla_x^0 \phi_{i,j})^2 + (\nabla_y^+ \phi_{i,j})^2}}$$
(4.11)

and use Forward Euler to discretize time. Then the fully discretized scheme looks like

$$\frac{\phi_{i,j}^{n+1} - \phi_{i,j}^{n}}{dt} = \delta_{\epsilon}(\phi_{i,j}) \left[(A_{i,j}(\phi_{i+1,j} - \phi_{i,j}) - A_{i-1,j}(\phi_{i,j} - \phi_{i-1,j})) + (B_{i,j}(\phi_{i,j+1} - \phi_{i,j}) - B_{i,j-1}(\phi_{i,j} - \phi_{i,j-1})) - \nu \lambda_{1} (f_{i,j} - c_{1})^{2} + \lambda_{2} (f_{i,j} - c_{2})^{2} \right].$$
(4.12) [fully discret

algo

Algorithm 1 A gradient descent based algorithm for Chan-Vese

```
Initialize \phi
for n = 1, 2, ... do
     Compute c_1, c_2 as region averages
    Evolve \phi using one Forward-Euler time step
          \frac{\left\|\phi^{n+1}-\phi^{n}\right\|_{2}}{\sqrt{|\Omega|}} < tol \text{ then }
    end if
end for
```

The boundary condition is enforced by creating ghost points so that

$$\phi_{-1,j} = \phi_{0,j}, \ \phi_{M,j} = \phi_{M-1,j}, \ \phi_{i,-1} = \phi_{i,0}, \ \phi_{i,M} = \phi_{i,M-1}.$$
 (4.13)

We terminate when $\frac{\left\|\phi^{n+1}-\phi^n\right\|_2}{\sqrt{|\Omega|}}$ is less than a prescribed tolerance tol.

Algorithm describes the full procedure.

To extend this algorithm to segment RGB images, we use the Chan-Sandberg-Vese model 4 instead. It just makes f, c_1, c_2 as d-dimensional, and the new minimization problem becomes

$$\underset{c_{1},c_{2},C}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \mu \operatorname{Length}(C) + \nu \operatorname{Area}(inside(C)) \\
+ \lambda_{1} \int_{inside(C)} \|f(x) - c_{1}\|_{2}^{2} dx + \lambda_{2} \int_{outside(C)} \|f(x) - c_{2}\|_{2}^{2} dx. \tag{4.14}$$

The overall algorithm remains the same.

5 Practical Implementation: The Code

The code written works for both grayscale and RGB images of any size.

First, we set the constants and create a function to display the images as shown in Figure 1.

Next, we create functions to compute the dirac delta and heaviside functions, integrate fig:Code 2 and compute the average of a function using a specified density as shown in Figure 2. The function **extend** will be used to extend ϕ by one row / column on each side of the image, using 0-Neumann boundary conditions. The **restrict** function will be used to restrict any function back to the image domain.

Next, we write functions for computing the forward, backward and central differences of a function in the row and column direction, as shown in Figure 3. The functions are designed so that the output is zero whenever calculating a difference involves indices outside the image bounds. So for example - the row backward difference along the first row of a function would be zero.

```
1 pkg load image;
 3 file = "apple.jpeg";
 4
 5
   % Set constants
 6 neta = 10^{(-8)};
   mu = 0.2;
 8 \text{ nu} = 0;
 9 lambda1 = 1; lamnda2 = 1;
10 dt = 0.5;
11 tol = 0.6*10^{(-2)};
12 global epsilon = 1;
13
14 $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
15
16 function display_image(f)
17
     figure(1); clf;
18
     if (length(size(f)) == 2)
19
       colormap(gray);
20
     endif
21
     imagesc(f);
22
     %imshow(f);
23
     caxis([0 1])
24
   endfunction
```

Figure 1: Setting constants and display-image function

```
25 L
26 function result = dirac_delta(A)
27
     global epsilon;
28
      result = epsilon ./ (pi * (epsilon^2 + A.^2));
29
   endfunction
30 l
31 function result = heaviside (A)
32
     global epsilon;
33
     result = (1 + (2 * atan(A / epsilon) / pi)) / 2;
   endfunction
35 L
36 function result = integrate (A)
37
    result = sum(sum(A));
38
   endfunction
39 l
40 pfunction result = average(f, density)
     result = integrate(f .* density) / integrate(density);
41
42 endfunction
43
44 %Extend f to outside the image boundary using 0 Neumann Boundary Condition
45 function result = extend(f)
46
     A = [f(:,1, :), f, f(:,end, :)];
47
     result = [A(1,:,:); A; A(end,:,:)];
48
   endfunction
49
50 ☐ function result = restrict(f)
51
     result = f(2:end-1, 2:end-1,:);
52
   endfunction
```

fig:Code 2

fig:Code 1

Figure 2: Some basic functions defined

Next in Figure 4, we actually read the image from file and then rescale it so that pixel

```
53 L
54 %%% Functions for various differences. Coded in such a way that the output
55 %% is 0 whenever a difference doesn't make sense
57 Efunction result = row forward diff(f)
58
    result = [f(2:end,:,:); f(end,:,:)] - f;
59
   endfunction
60 L
61 function result = row_backward_diff(f)
    result = f - [f(1,:,:); f(1:end-1,:,:)];
62
63
  endfunction
64 L
65 function result = row_central_diff(f)
     result = ([f(2:end, :,:); f(end-1,:,:)] - [f(2,:,:); f(1:end-1,:,:)]) / 2;
67
  endfunction
68 l
69 function result = col forward diff(f)
70
     result = [f(:, 2:end,:), f(:, end,:)] - f;
71 endfunction
72
73 Function result = col backward diff(f)
     result = f - [f(:, 1,:), f(:, 1:end-1,:)];
75 endfunction
76
77 pfunction result = col_central_diff(f)
78
     result = ([f(:, 2:end,:), f(:, end-1,:)] - [f(:, 2,:), f(:, 1:end-1,:)]) / 2;
79
   endfunction
80
```

fig:Code 3

Figure 3: Functions for calculating various differences

```
82
 83
    %% Read an image from a file
 84 f = imread(file);
 85 info = imfinfo(file);
 86
 87
    % convert image to double and scale to [0,1]
 88
    f = double(f);
 89
    f = f / 2^{(info.BitDepth)};
 90
 91
    [n1, n2, n3] = size(f)
 92
    LargestPixel = norm(reshape(f, n1*n2*n3, 1), inf)
 93
 94
 95
 96 % Initialize phi
 97 x = 1:n2; y = (1:n1);
 98 [xx, yy] = meshgrid(x, y);
 99 phi = sin(pi * 10* x / n2) .* sin(pi * 10* y / n1);
100
101 display_image(f);
```

fig:Code 4

Figure 4: Reading the image from file and initializing ϕ

values lie between 0 and 1. ϕ is initialized using a scaled version of $sin(\pi x)sin(\pi y)$ as suggested in [3] because it leads to fast convergence.

Finally in Figure 5, we come to the Forward Euler time stepping. ϕ is first extended by one unit on each side of the image, and all the computations are carried out with this extended version to ϕ , so that boundary conditions are respected. The computations

```
103 step = 1;
104 -while (1)
105
106
       phi_extended = extend(phi); % Extend using 0 neumann bdd condns
107
108
       phi i plus = row forward diff(phi extended);
109
       phi i minus = row backward diff(phi extended);
       phi_i_zero = row_central_diff(phi_extended);
110
111
       phi_j_plus = col_forward_diff(phi_extended);
112
113
       phi_j_minus = col_backward_diff(phi_extended);
       phi j zero = col central diff(phi extended);
114
115
       A = mu . / ((neta^2 + phi_i_plus.^2 + phi_j_zero.^2).^(0.5));
116
117
       B = mu . / ((neta^2 + phi_i_zero.^2 + phi_j_plus.^2).^(0.5));
118
       d = heaviside(phi);
119
120
       c1 = average(f, d);
121
       c2 = average(f, 1 - d);
122
123
       % Do all difference computations using phi_extended to enforce 0 Neumann bdd condns
124
       Dphi = restrict(row_backward_diff(A .* phi_i_plus) + col_backward_diff(B .* phi_j_plus));
       Dphi = Dphi - nu - lambda1 * sum((f - c1).^2,3) + lamnda2 * sum((f - c2).^2, 3);
125
126
       Dphi = Dphi .* dirac delta(phi);
127
128
       phi new = phi + Dphi * dt;
129
130
       if (rem(step, 100) == 0)
131
         step
132
         display image(f);
133
         hold on;
134
         contour(x, y, phi new, [0,0], 'r');
135
         drawnow
136
         pause (0.001);
137
         if (norm(reshape(phi_new - phi, n1*n2, 1), 2) / sqrt(n1*n2) < tol)
138
           printf("Converged\n");
139
         endif
140
141
       endif
142
143
       phi = phi new;
144
       step += 1;
145
146
     endwhile
147
```

fig:Code 5

Figure 5: Forward Euler time stepping

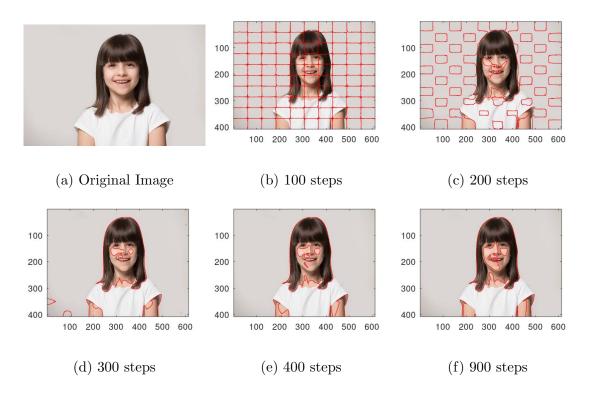
carried out are just a fully vectorized version of those described in (4.12). At every 100 steps, we display the contour on the image and also check to see if we satisfy the convergence criteria.

6 Examples

In all the examples, we use the parameters given in Figure I unless stated otherwise. It's also important to note that the algorithm's runtime is very sensitive to the chosen values

Figure 6: Chan-Vese Segmentation on an RGB image

_girl orig



of dt, initial condition of ϕ and the image size itself.

6.1 Effect of Noise

Figure 6 demonstrates the algorithm run on an RGB image. It takes 900 steps to converge.

Now, we add a random amount of noise to the image with strengths of 0.2, 0.5 and 1 respectively, and see how the algorithm performs. Figure 7 shows that the number of steps needed for convergence and the predicted contour remain largely unaffected, thus showing that the algorithm is fairly robust to noise.

6.2 Effect of μ

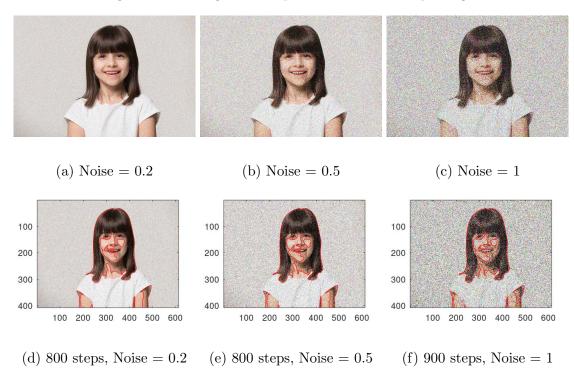
Figure shows the effect of varying the length parameter μ . We see that as μ increases, the contour output becomes smoother as expected. However, the number of steps required by the algorithm to converge also increase considerably.

6.3 Effect of ν

Figure 9 shows the effect of varying the area parameter ν . For a negative ν , a bigger area inside the contour is rewarded, whereas for a positive ν it's penalized. We see that for

girl noisy

Figure 7: The algorithm's performance on noisy images



galaxy

Figure 8: The effect of μ

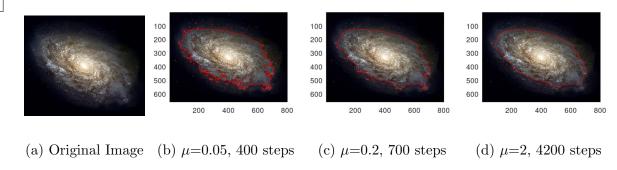


Figure 9: The effect of ν

oisy apple

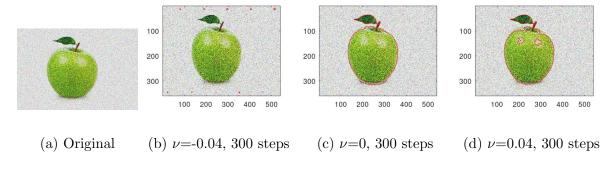
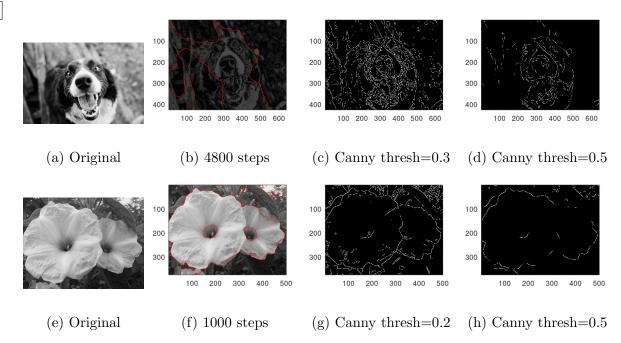


Figure 10: Chan-Vese vs Canny

canny



 $\nu = -0.04$, the contour almost covers the entire image to maximize the area reward. For $\nu = 0.04$, we see an additional contour boundary inside the apple that decreases the area.

6.4 Comparison against Canny

We compare the method against Canny-Edge detection on grayscale images, using Octave's edge function from the *image* package. We note that Canny Edge detection is always much faster than Chan-Vese, with Chan-Vese requiring several minutes of computation compared to Canny outputting in less than a second each time. Figure 10 shows the results.

7 Improvement Directions

One disadvantage of Chan-Vese is that it only segments the image into two phases. An extension of Chan-Vese for nested segmentation is 5 and multiphase segmentation is 10, 8. Note that by the 3 color theorem, we only need at most 3 phases in general to segment any image.

Another disadvantage is that the gradient descent based algorithm above runs slowly. Other approaches include 7 based on the topological derivative, 1 based on the multigrid method and 6, 2 based on graph cuts.

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