

# Machine Vision

Lecture Set – 04

Regions

Huei-Yung Lin

***Robot Vision Lab***

# Regions and Edges

---

- Ideally, regions are bounded by closed contours
  - We could “fill” closed contours to obtain **regions**
  - We could “trace” regions to obtain **edges**
- Unfortunately, these procedures rarely produce satisfactory results



# Region and Edges

---

- A **region** in an image is a group of connected pixels with similar properties
- Two approaches to partitioning an image into regions
  - *Region-based segmentation*
    - Value similarity and spatial proximity
    - Two pixels may be assigned to the same region if they have similar intensity values or if they are close to each other
  - *Boundary estimation using edge detection*
    - Edges are found based on differences between values of adjacent pixels
    - Most edge detectors use only intensity characteristics

# Region and Edges

---

- In principle, region segmentation and edge detection should yield identical results
  - Edges may be obtained from regions using **boundary-following**
  - Regions may be obtained from edges using **region-filling**
  - (See the previous chapter)

# Region Segmentation

---

- Region segmentation is a **partition**  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n$  such that
  - $\cup R_i = I$
  - $R_i \cap R_j = \emptyset$  if  $i \neq j$
  - $P(R_i) = \text{TRUE}$
  - $P(R_i \cup R_j) = \text{FALSE}$ ,  $i \neq j$ ,  $R_i$  adjacent  $R_j$
- $P$  is a function that evaluates similarities of the pixels in the region (or the **homogeneity predicate**)
- Gray-level to **binary image** conversion is a simple segmentation (partition to two sets)

# Segmentation Methods

---

- Thresholding
  - Global knowledge about an image or its part is usually represented by a histogram of image features
  - Also called histogram-based segmentation
- Edge-based
  - Based on the information about edges in the image
  - Use edge detecting operators
- Region-based
  - Construct the regions directly
  - Region-growing methods

# Automatic Thresholding

---

- **Automatic thresholding** uses knowledge to select a proper threshold value
  - Intensity characteristics of objects
  - Sizes of the objects
  - Fractions of an image occupied by the objects
  - Number of different types of objects appearing in an image
- Automatic thresholding analyzes the gray value distribution in an image
  - Using a histogram of the gray values

# Thresholding

---

- Gray-level thresholding is the simplest segmentation process
  - Objects or image regions are characterized by constant reflectivity of their surfaces
  - A brightness constant or threshold can be determined to segment objects and background
  - Computationally inexpensive and fast
- Thresholding is the transformation of an input image  $f$  to an output (segmented) binary image  $g$  as follows:

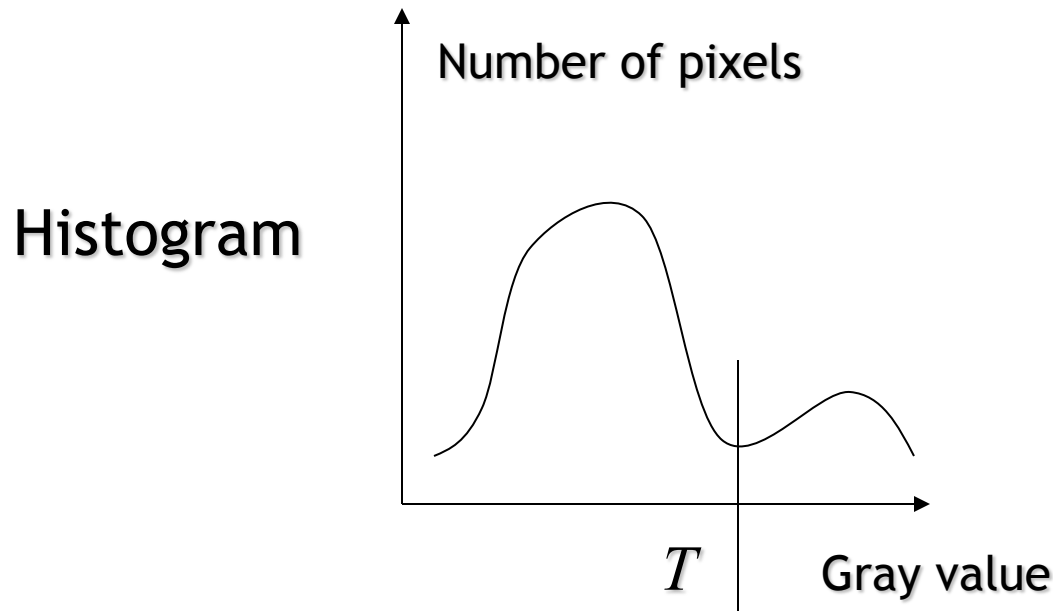
$$\begin{aligned}g(i, j) &= 1 \quad \text{for } f(i, j) \geq T \\ &= 0 \quad \text{for } f(i, j) \leq T\end{aligned}$$

where  $T$  is the threshold,  $g(i, j) = 1$  for elements of objects, and  $g(i, j) = 0$  for elements of background



# Thresholding

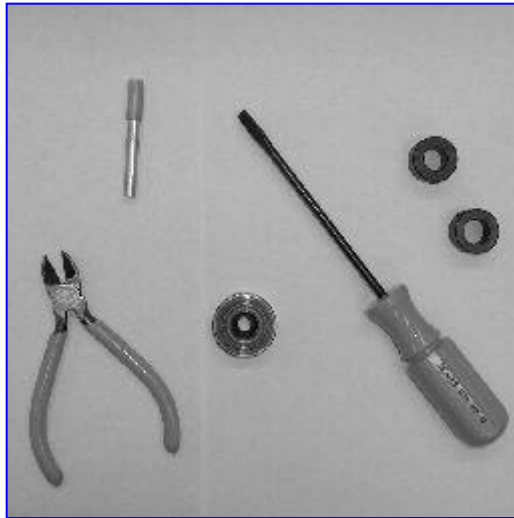
- Algorithm: Basic thresholding
  - Search all the pixels  $f(i, j)$  of the image  $f$
  - An image element  $g(i, j) = 1$  of the segmented image is an object pixel if  $f(i, j) \geq T$ , and is a background pixel otherwise



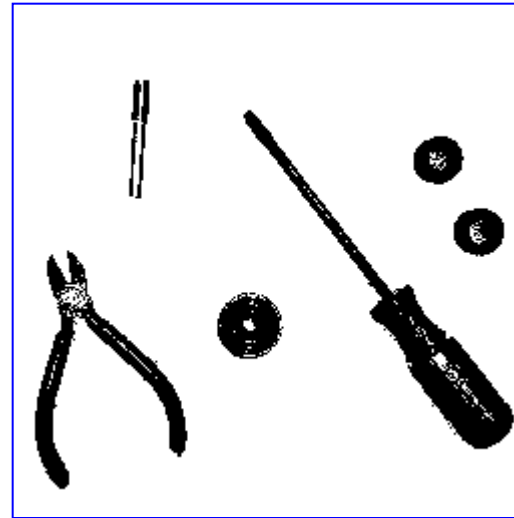
# Example

---

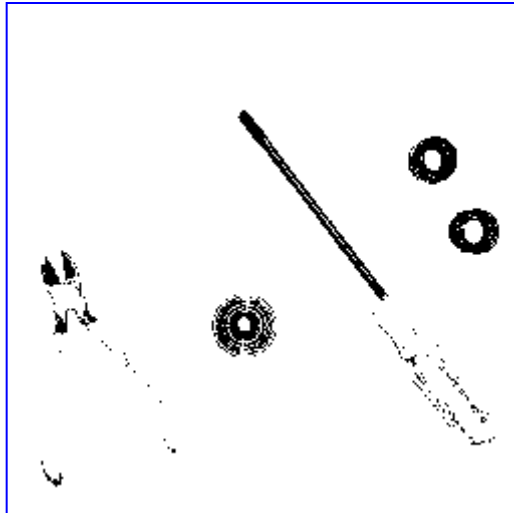
Original  
image



Threshold  
segmentation



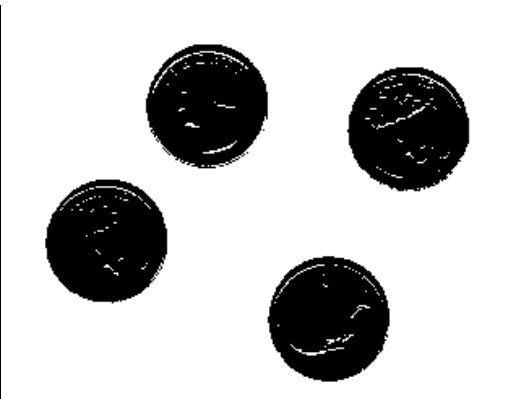
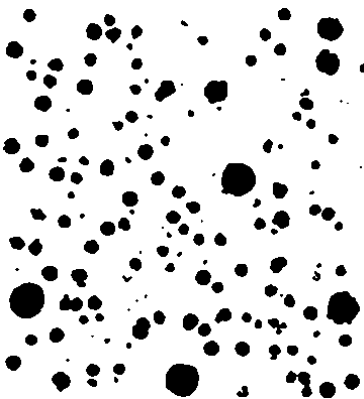
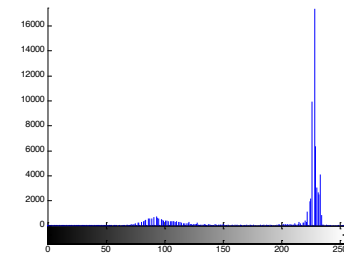
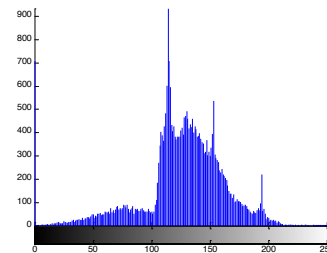
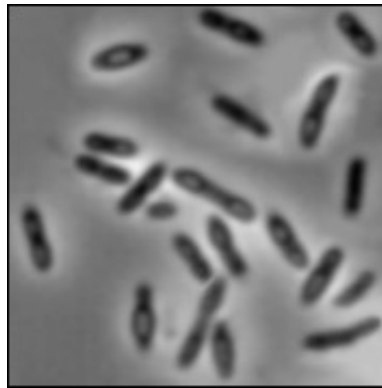
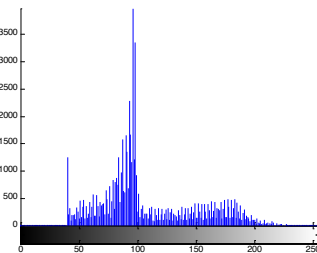
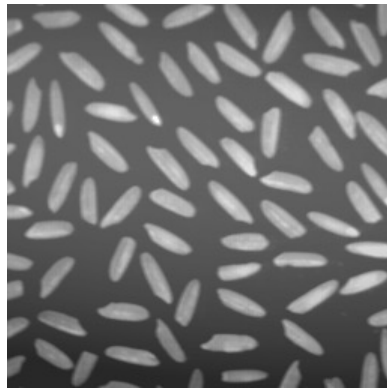
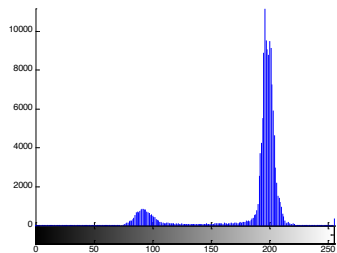
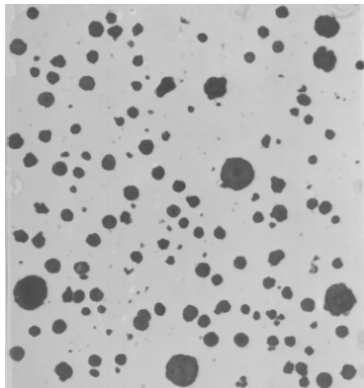
Threshold  
too low



Threshold  
too high



# Example



# How to Find The Threshold Value?

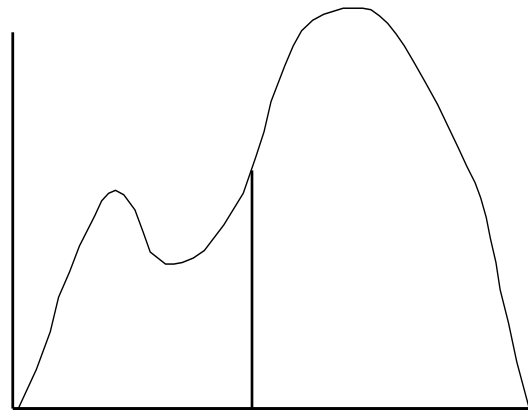
---

- Manual
  - User defines a threshold
- P-Tile
- Mode
- Peakiness detection
- Iterative algorithm
- Other automatic methods

# P-Tile Thresholding

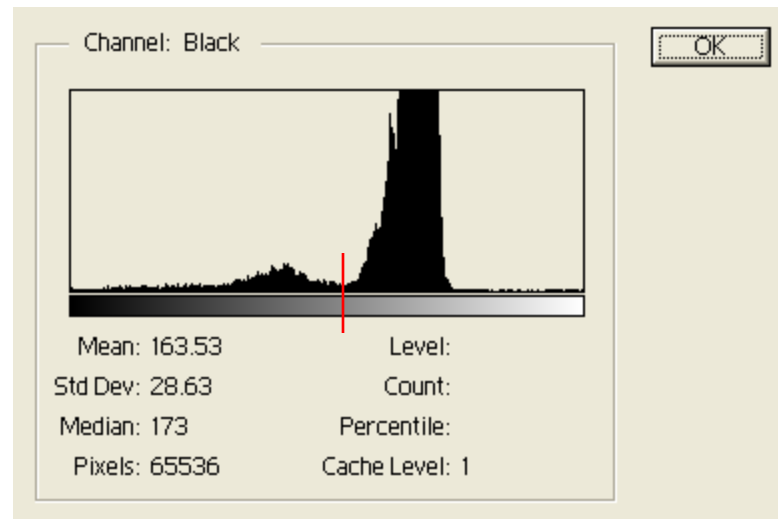
---

- If we know the proportion of the image that is object (i.e., the **size** of the object is known!), threshold the image to select this proportion of pixels
- A printed text sheet may be an example if we know that characters of the text cover  $1/p$  of the sheet area
- Choose a threshold  $T$  (based on the image histogram) such that  $1/p$  of the image area has gray values less than  $T$  and the rest has gray values larger than  $T$

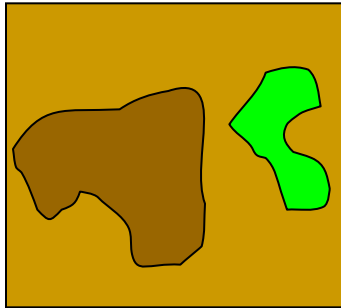


# Mode

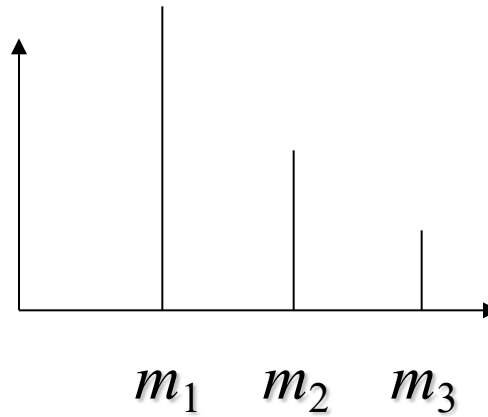
- Based on histogram shape analysis
- Threshold at the minimum between the histogram's peaks



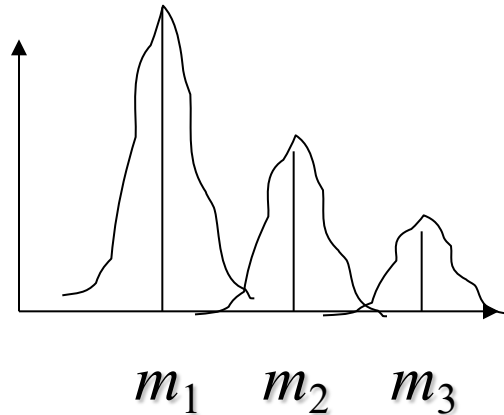
# Example



Ideal histogram:



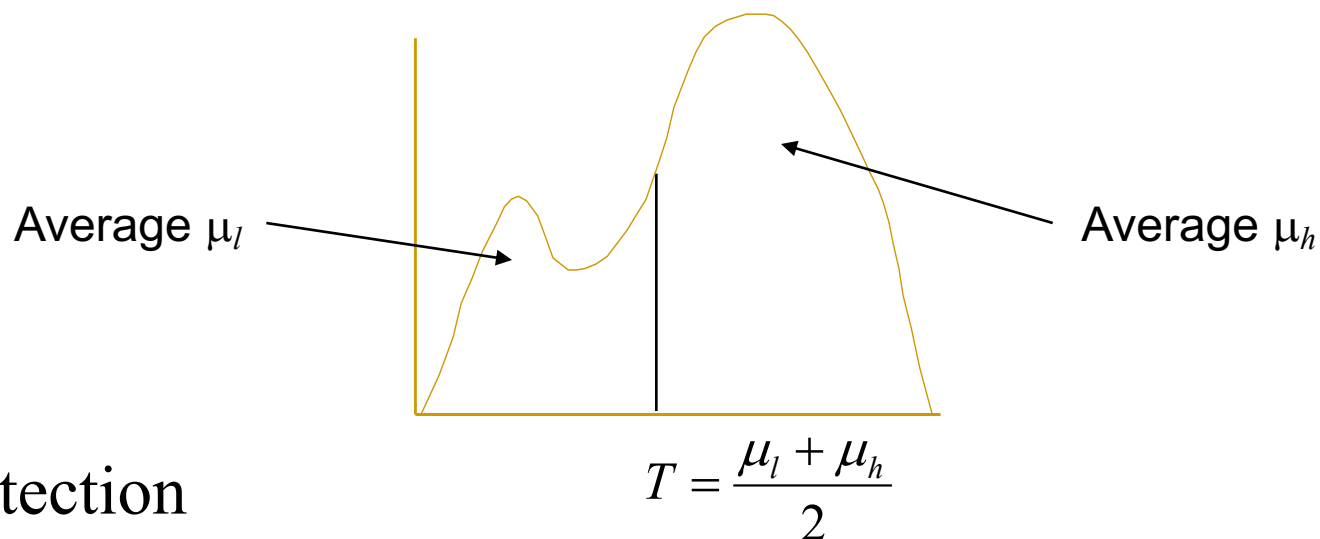
Add noise:



The valleys are good places for thresholding to separate regions

# Finding the Peaks and Valleys

- Find a threshold  $T$  such that

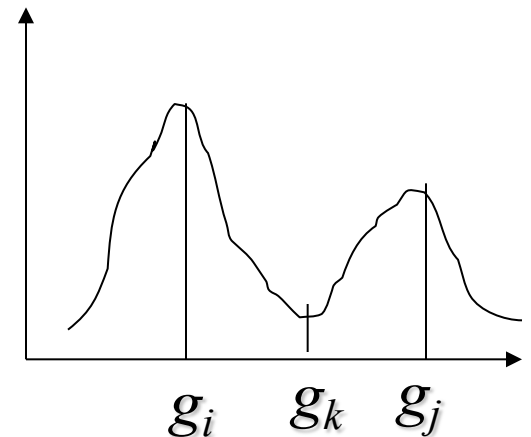


- Methods:
  - Peakiness detection
  - Iterative threshold selection
  - Adaptive thresholding
  - Variable thresholding
  - Double thresholding



# Peakiness Detection Algorithm

- Find the two highest **local** maxima in the histogram that are *at some minimum distance apart*
  - Suppose these occur at gray values  $g_i$  and  $g_j$
- Find the lowest point  $g_k$  in the histogram  $H$  between  $g_i$  and  $g_j$
- Find the **peakiness**, defined as  $\min(H(g_i), H(g_j))/H(g_k)$
- Use the combination  $(g_i, g_j, g_k)$  with highest peakiness to threshold the image
- The value  $g_k$  is a good threshold to separate objects corresponding to  $g_i$  and  $g_j$



# Iterative Threshold Selection

---

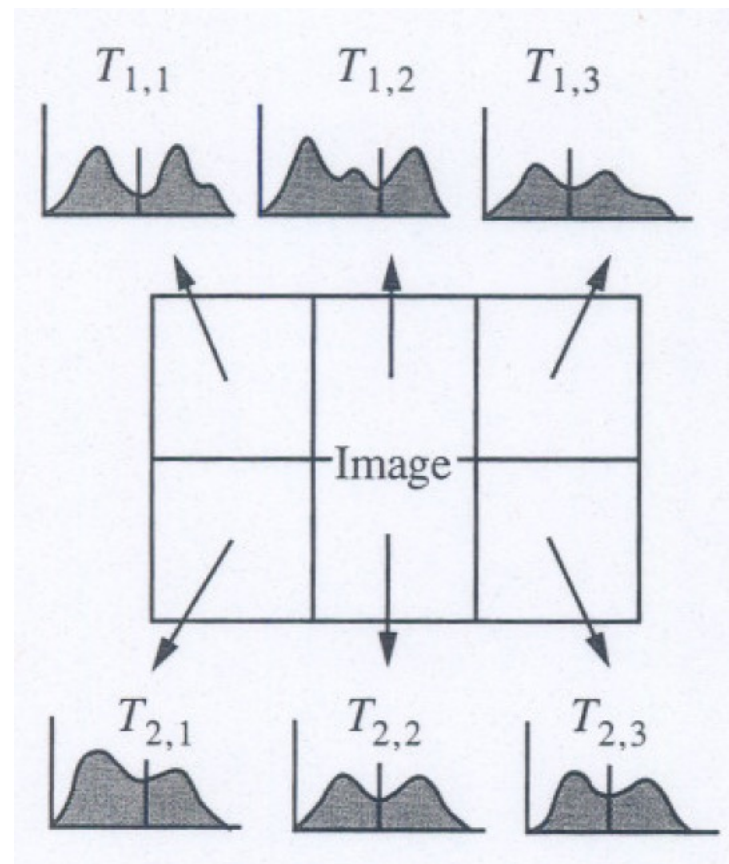
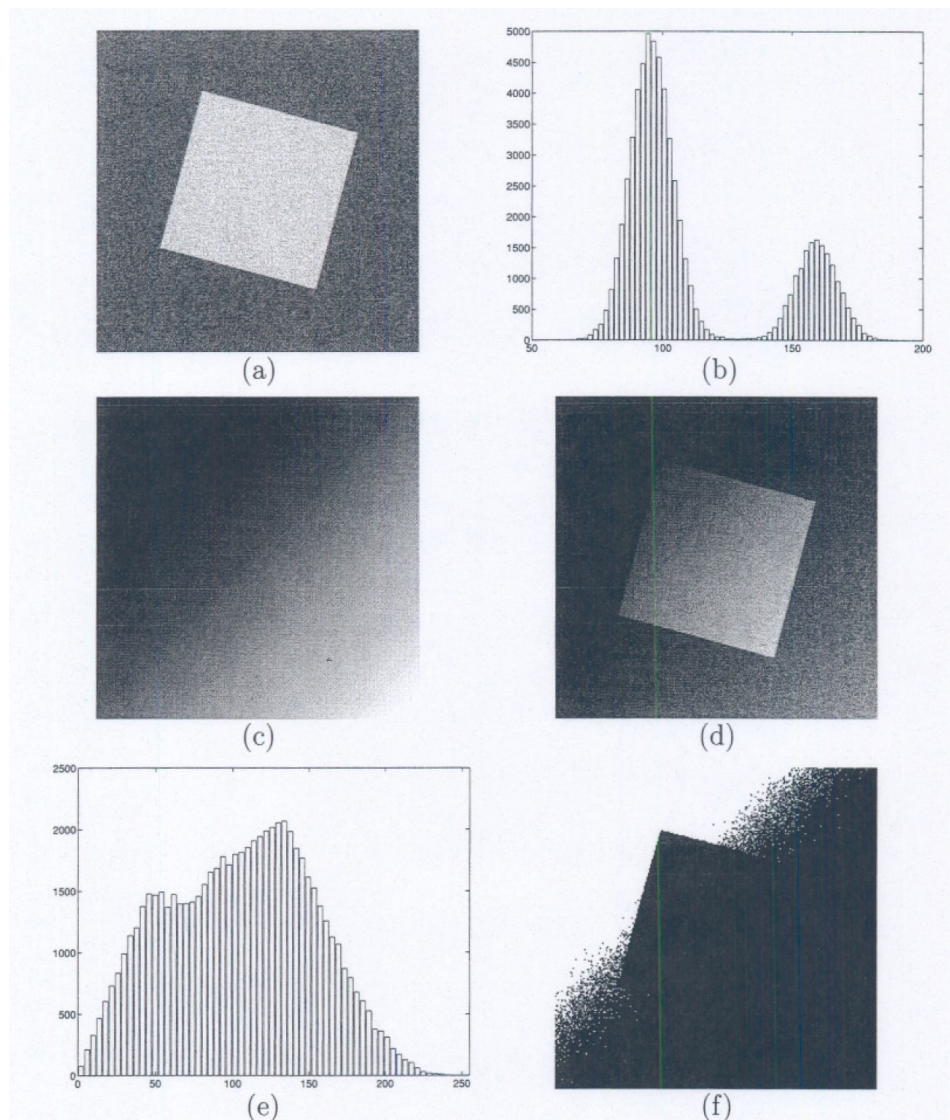
- Iterative threshold selection
  - It starts with an approximate threshold and then successively refines this estimate
- Algorithm: Iterative Threshold Selection
  - Select an initial estimate of the threshold  $T$   
*A good initial value is the average intensity of the image*
  - Partition image into two groups,  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ , using threshold  $T$
  - Calculate mean gray values  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  of the partition  $R_1$  and  $R_2$
  - Select a new threshold  $T = (\mu_1 + \mu_2)/2$
  - Repeat steps 2-4 until the mean value  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  converge

# Adaptive Thresholding

---

- Automatic thresholding scheme may fail if the illumination in a scene is uneven
- The same threshold value may not be usable throughout the complete image
- Solution:
  - Partition the image into subimages
  - Select (different) threshold for each subimage based on its histogram
  - The final segmentation is the union of the regions of those subimages

# Adaptive Thresholding



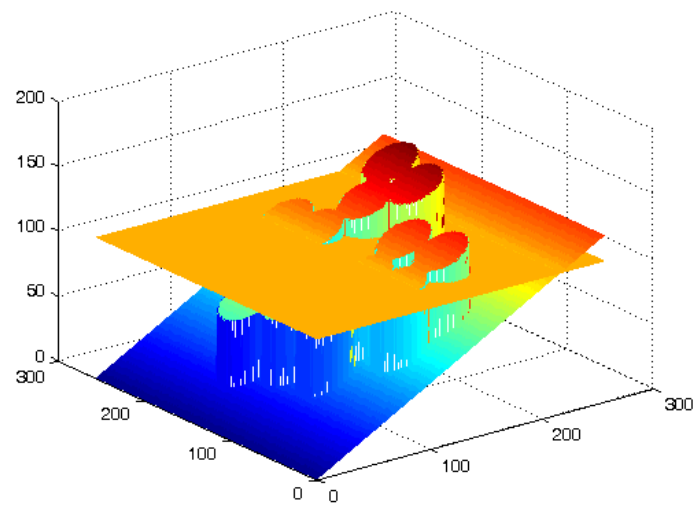
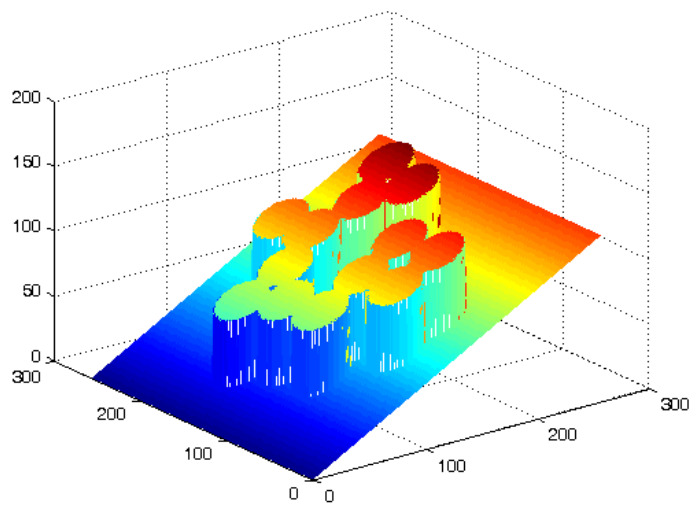
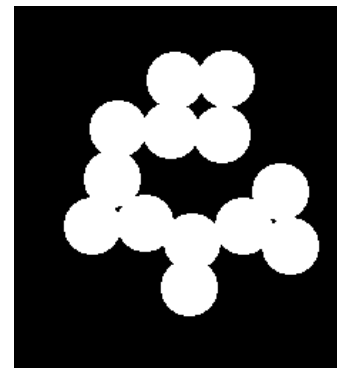
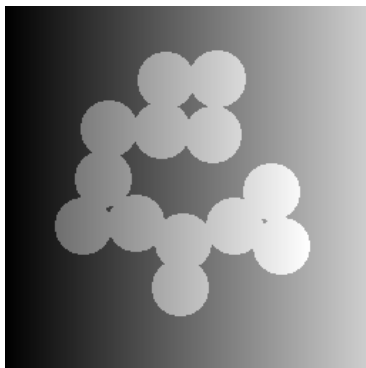
# Variable Thresholding

---

- Also used to deal with **uneven illumination**
- Approximate the (new) intensity values of the image by a simple function such as a plane
  - The function fit is determined in large part by the gray value of the background
  - Histogram and threshold are then selected based on the fitted function
- Also called **background normalization**

# Example

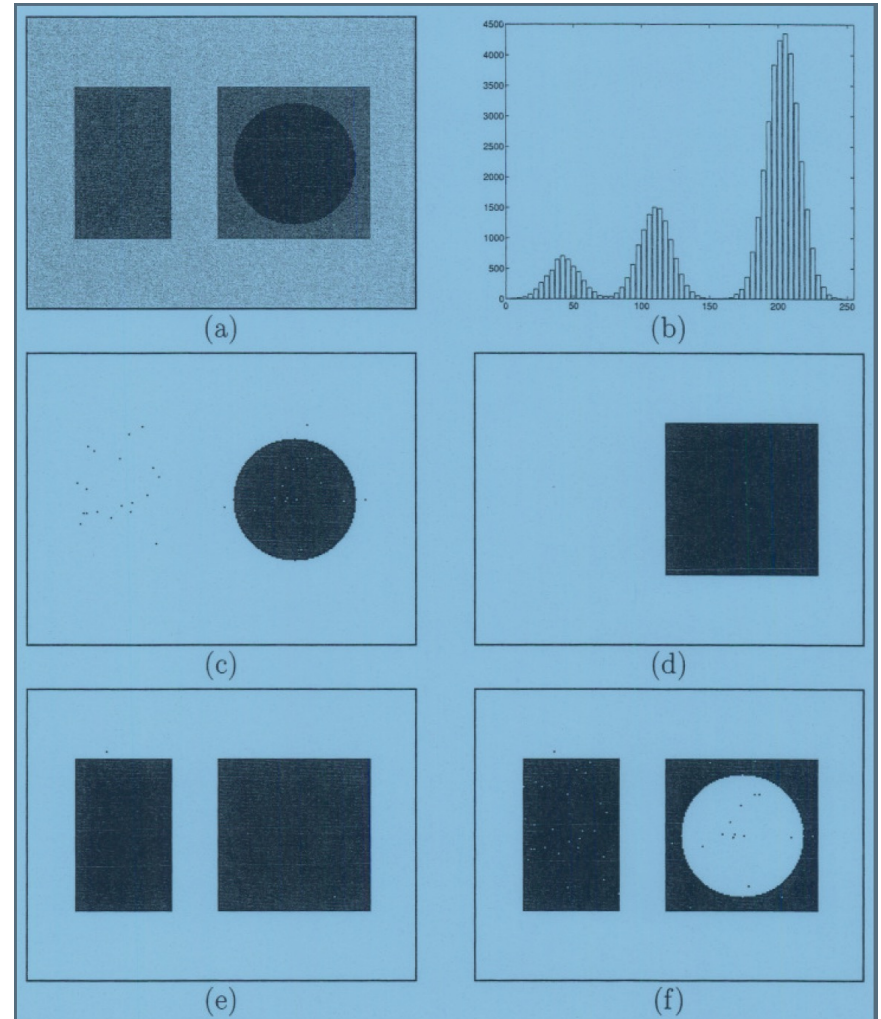
---





# Double Thresholding

- To segment an object region which is inside another object region
  - Use a conservative threshold to obtain the core of the object and then grow the object regions
  - Use the second threshold to segment the object and background regions



# Double Thresholding

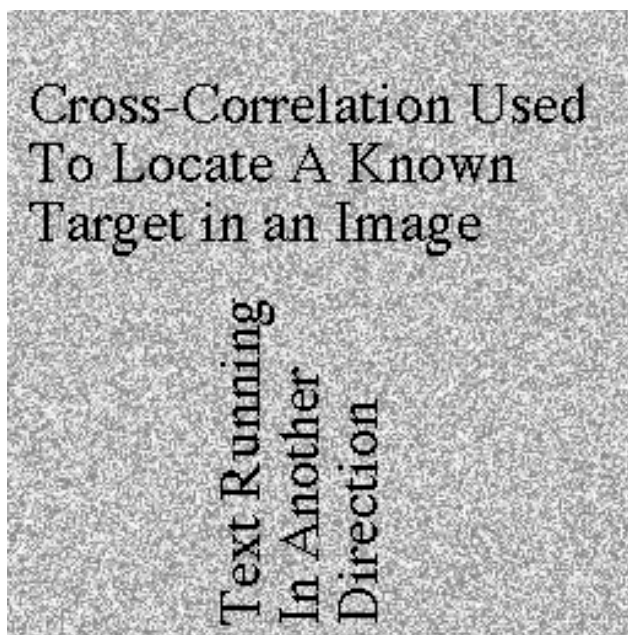
---

- Double Thresholding for Region Growing
  - Select two thresholds  $T_1$  and  $T_2$
  - Partition the image into three regions:
    - $R_1$ : all pixels with gray values below  $T_1$
    - $R_2$  : all pixels with gray values between  $T_1$  and  $T_2$
    - $R_3$  : all pixels with gray values above  $T_2$
  - Visit each pixel assigned to region  $R_2$   
If the pixel has a neighbor in region  $R_1$ , then reassign the pixel to region  $R_1$
  - Repeat step 3 till no pixels are reassigned
  - Reassign any pixel left in region  $R_2$  to region  $R_3$



# Example - Applications

---



Cross-Correlation Used  
To Locate A Known  
Target in an Image

Text Running  
In Another  
Direction

# Limitations of Histogram Methods

---

- The most basic limitations
  - Use **global** information
  - Ignore **spatial** relationships among pixels
    - Use histogram, which contains no spatial information
    - Different patterns may have the same histogram!
- Other limitations
  - Constant illumination

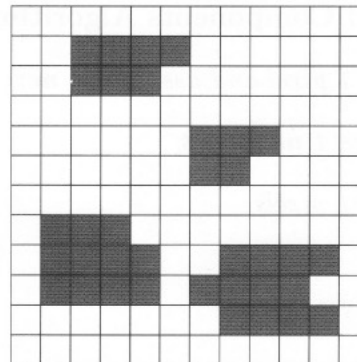
# 4/10/2024

---

- Homework assignment #3 will be given later.

# Region Representation

- Classification of region representation
  - *Array representation*
  - *Hierarchical representation*
  - *Symbolic representation*
- Array representation
  - Use a same size array as the original image with entries indicating the region to which a pixel belongs
  - If an element of the array has value  $\alpha$ , then the corresponding pixel in the image belongs to region  $\alpha$
  - For binary image
    - 0 : background
    - 1 : foreground



		1	1	1	1				
		1	1	1					
						2	2	2	
						2	2		
		3	3	3					
		3	3	3	3		4	4	4
		3	3	3	3		4	4	4
							4	4	4

# Hierarchical Representation

---

- An image can be represented at different resolutions
  - *Lower resolution*: small array size, data loss
  - *Lower resolution*: less memory and computing requirements
- Hierarchical representation of images allows representation at multiple resolutions
  - Compute properties of image first at low resolution
  - Perform additional computations over a selected area at higher resolution
- Two different representations
  - “Pyramids” and “Quad trees”

# Pyramids

---

- An **image pyramid** is a collection of representations of an image – the name comes from a visual analogy
  - Each layer of the pyramid is half the width and half the height of the previous layer (referred to as *coarse scale* version)
  - A pyramid is made by stacking the layers on top of each other
  - Pyramids are most convenient if the image dimension is power of two
- Common image pyramids
  - **Gaussian pyramid** (Gaussian \* Gaussian = Gaussian)
  - **Laplacian pyramid**

# The Gaussian Pyramid

---

- In a **Gaussian pyramid**, each layer is smoothed by a *symmetric Gaussian kernel* and resampled to get the next layer
- Let  $S\downarrow$  denote downsample of an image,  $P(I)_n$  denote the  $n$ th level of a pyramid  $P(I)$ , then

$$P_{\text{Gaussian}}(I)_{n+1} = S\downarrow (G_{\sigma} * P_{\text{Gaussian}}(I)_n) = S\downarrow G_{\sigma}(P_{\text{Gaussian}}(I)_n)$$

$$P_{\text{Gaussian}}(I)_1 = I$$

# The Gaussian Pyramid

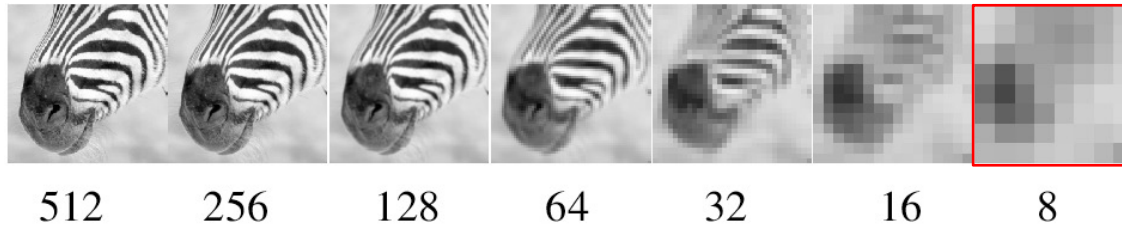
---

- The Gaussian pyramid is an example of image analysis by *a bank of filters* (smoothing filters)
  - It is a highly redundant representation because each layer is a low pass filtered version of the previous layer
    - we are representing the lowest spatial frequencies many times
  - A layer of the Gaussian is a prediction of the appearance of the next finer scale layer



# The Gaussian Pyramid

---



# The Laplacian Pyramid

---

- *A coarse layer of the Gaussian pyramid predicts the appearance of the next finer layer*
  - The coarsest scale layer of a **Laplacian pyramid** is the same as the coarsest scale of a Gaussian pyramid
  - Each of the finer scale layers of a L.P. is a difference between a layer of the G.P. and a prediction obtained by upsampling the next coarsest layer of the G.P.

$$P_{Laplacian}(I)_m = P_{Gaussian}(I)_m$$

$$P_{Laplacian}(I)_k = P_{Gaussian}(I)_k - S \uparrow (P_{Gaussian}(I)_{k+1})$$

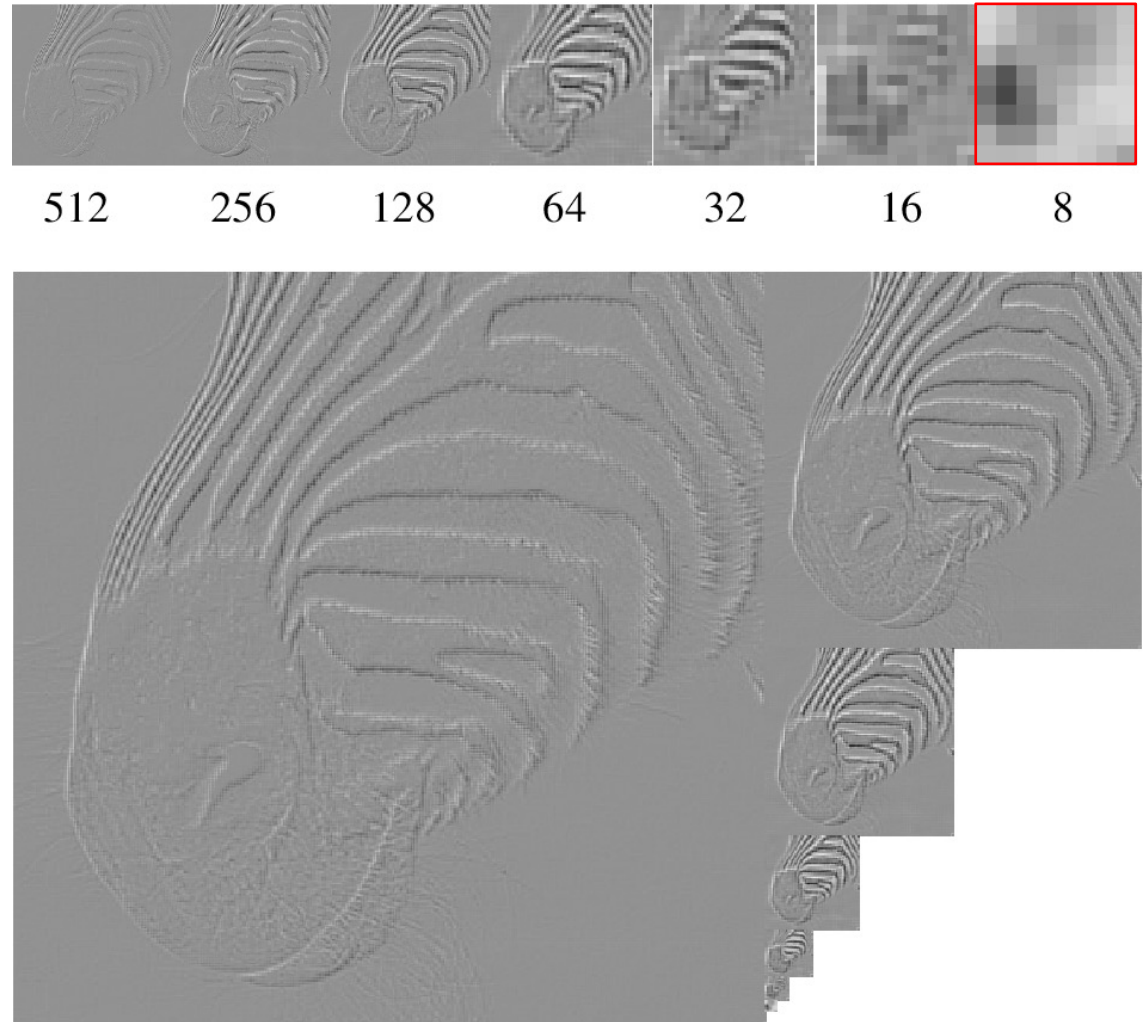
# The Laplacian Pyramid

---

- Each layer of the Laplacian pyramid can be thought of as the response of a *band-pass filter*
  - Low spatial frequencies being subtracted
- The L.P. can be used as an effective *image compression* scheme
  - Different level of the pyramid represent different spatial frequencies

# The Laplacian Pyramid

- Each layer corresponds to the output of a band-pass filter
- The stripes give stronger responses at particular scales

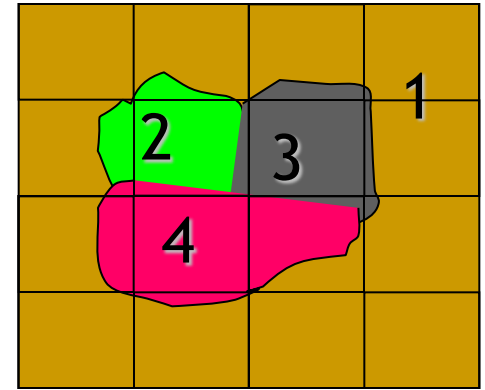
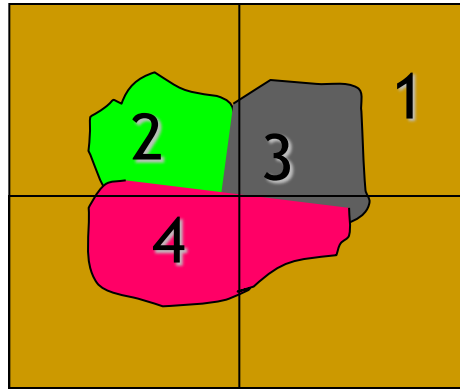
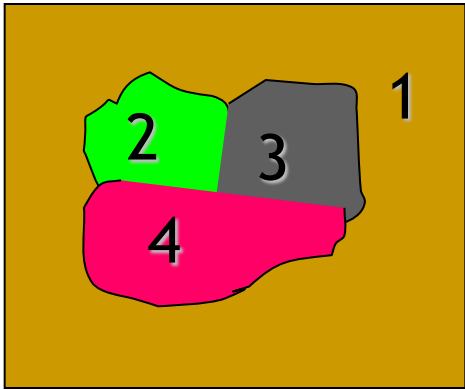


# Quadtrees

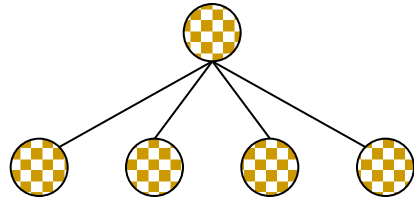
---

- Quadtrees
  - Trees where nodes have 4 children
  - Obtained by recursive splitting of an image
- Build quadtree:
  - Nodes represent regions
  - Every time a region is split, its node gives birth to 4 children
  - *Leaves* are nodes for uniform regions
- Merging:
  - Siblings that are “similar” can be merged

# Quadtree Representation

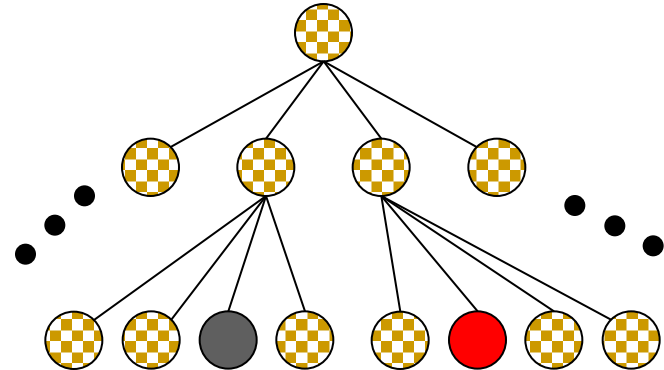


not uniform



not uniform

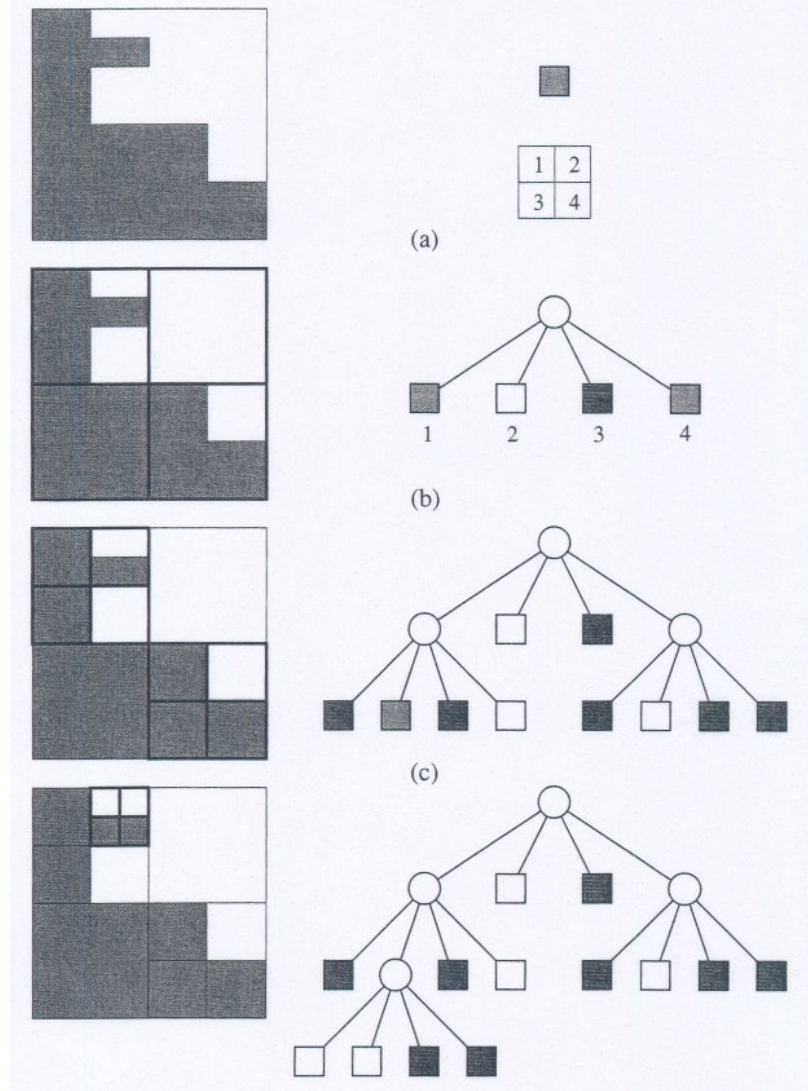
1	2
3	4



uniform uniform

# Quadtree for “Binary Image”

- Contains three types of nodes:
  - white, black and gray
- A region in an image is split into four subregions of identical size
  - If all points in that region are either black or white – no more splitting
  - If that region contains both black and white, called gray region – further splitting required
  - The splitting process continues until no gray regions



# Symbolic Representation

---

- A region can be represented using symbolic characteristics
  - Enclosing rectangle
  - Centroid
  - Moments
  - Euler number
- Other non-symbolic representation
  - Mean and variance of intensities



# Split and Merge

---

- After the initial intensity-based region segmentation, the regions need to be *refined* and *reformed*
- Why?
  - Simple intensity algorithms usually result in too many regions
- Due to
  - High frequency noise
  - Gradual transitions between regions
- Methods:
  - Interactively or automatically
  - May use domain and/or image processing knowledge

# Split and Merge

---

- All pixels belong to region
  - Object
  - Part of object
  - Background
- Automatic refinement is done using a combination of split and merge operations
  - **Eliminate false boundaries** and spurious regions by merging adjacent regions that belong to the same object
  - **Add missing boundaries** by splitting regions that contain parts of different objects

# Region Merging

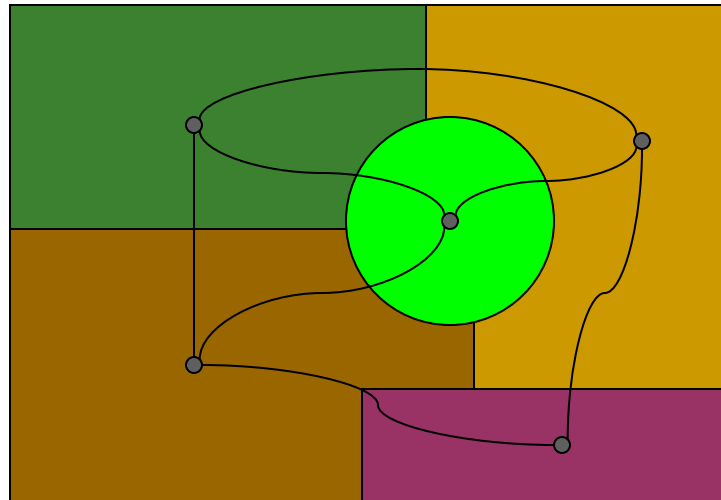
---

- Merge **adjacent, similar** regions
- What does “similar” mean?
  - Examples:
    - “similar” average values :  $|m_i - m_j| < T$
    - “small” spread of gray values:  $|g_{\max} - g_{\min}| < T$ 
      - $g_{\max} = \max \{g(x,y) \mid (x,y) \in R_i \cup R_j\}$
      - $g_{\min} = \min \{g(x,y) \mid (x,y) \in R_i \cup R_j\}$
  - Other “similarity”:
    - luminance, statistical properties (mean, variance), color, texture, histogram shape, etc.
- Note:
  - $A$  similar to  $B$ , and  $B$  similar to  $C$  does not imply that  $A$  is similar to  $C$
  - Similar to some human behavior!!!

# Region Adjacent Graph (RAG)

---

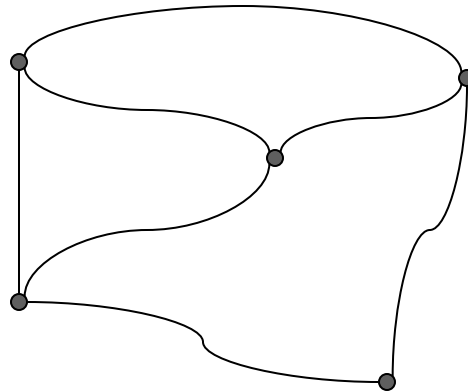
- A **region adjacent graph (RAG)** is used to represent regions and relationships among them in an image
- **Nodes** are used to represent regions, arc between nodes represent a common boundary between regions



# Region Adjacent Graph (RAG)

---

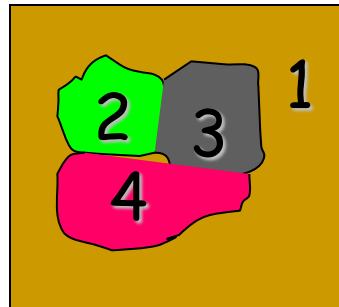
- A **region adjacent graph (RAG)** is used to represent regions and relationships among them in an image.
- **Nodes** are used to represent regions, arc between nodes represent a common boundary between regions



# Region Merging Algorithm

---

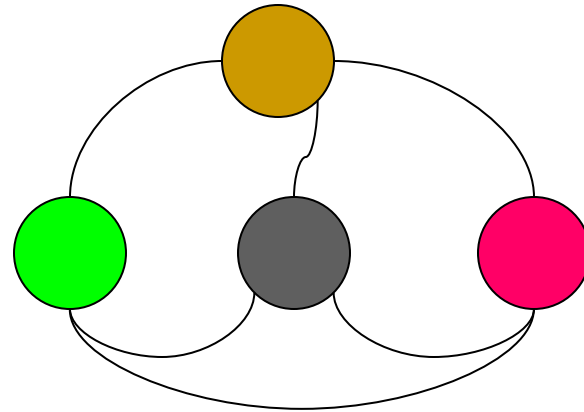
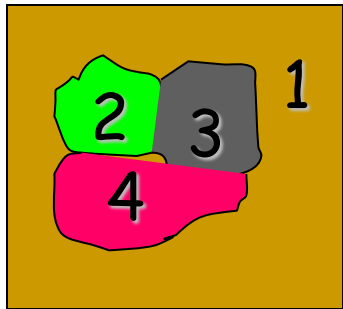
- From initial regions in the image using **thresholding** (on  $n \times n$  regions, or manual selection) followed by **component labeling**



# Region Merging Algorithm

---

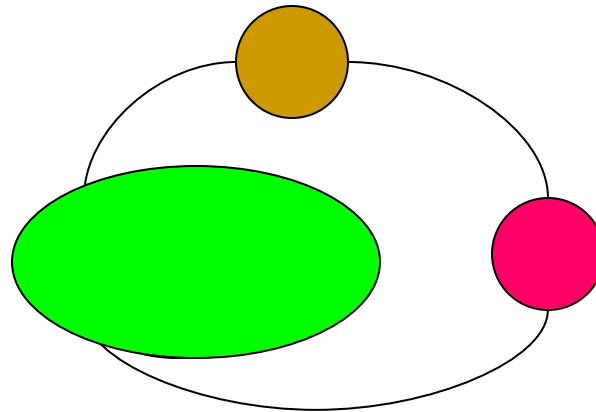
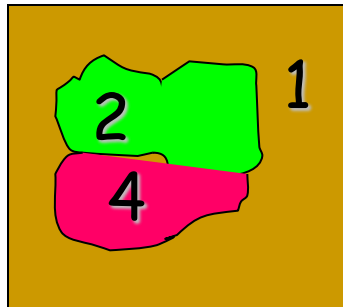
- Prepare a RAG for the image
  - Regions are the **nodes**
  - Adjacency relations are the **links**



# Region Merging Algorithm

---

- For each region in an image:
  - Consider its adjacent region and test to see if they are similar
    - Compare their mean intensities
    - Statistical characteristics (similar statistical distribution of intensity values)
    - Remove weak edges (common boundaries between regions)
  - If they are similar, merge them and modify the RAG

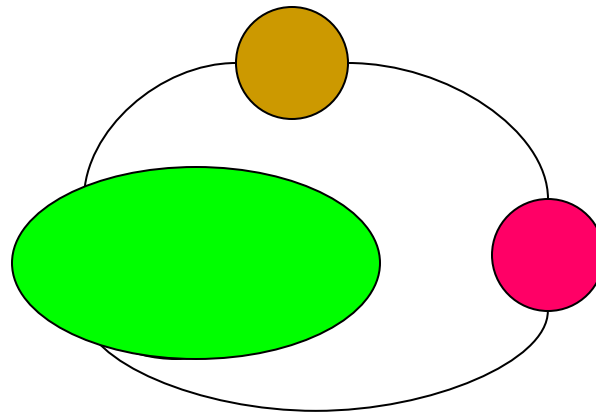
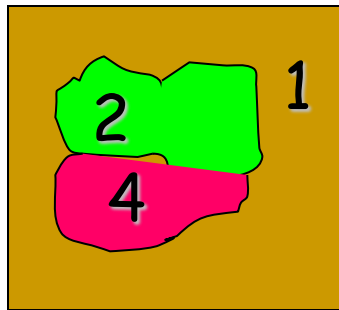




# Region Merging Algorithm

---

- Repeat the previous step till no regions are merged



# Using Similarity Measures

---

- Compare mean intensities (zero order model)
  - If the mean intensities do not differ by more than some predetermined value, the regions are considered similar
- Compare surface fitting (higher order model)
  - Model regions as polynomial surfaces
  - (e.g., take the gradual intensity changes into account)
  - Compute the fitting error
  - Merge regions if it decreases the fitting error

# Using Statistics

---

- Model pixels as drawn from probability distributions
- Different regions have different distributions
- Assume the regions in an image have constant gray value corrupted by statistically independent, additive, zero-mean Gaussian noise
- Merge regions if their pixels came from the same distribution

# Merge by Removing Weak Edges

---

- If the boundary between two regions is weak, then it can be removed and a large region can be obtained
- The “weak edge” can be specified by
  - *The intensity characteristics*
  - *The length of the common boundary*
- The common boundary is dissolved if the boundary is weak and the resulting boundary does not change gray value too quickly



# Region Splitting

---

- If some property of a region is not constant, the region should be split
- Algorithm: **Region Splitting**
  - From initial regions in the image
  - For each region in an image, recursively perform the following steps:
    - Compute the *variance* in the gray value of the region
    - If the variance is above a threshold, split the region along the appropriate boundary
- Region splitting is generally more difficult than region merging

# Split and Merge

---

- Split and merge are often used together
- All of the pixels in a region is homogeneous according to a predicate  $H$ , i.e.,  $H(R)$
- Suppose an image is partitioned into a set of regions  $\{R_i\}$  and

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n R_i = P \quad H(R_i) = \text{True} \quad H(R_i \cup R_j) = \text{False}$$

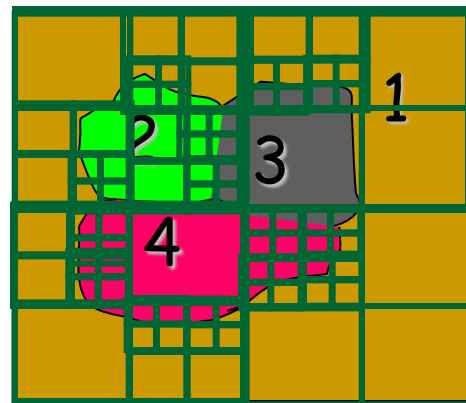
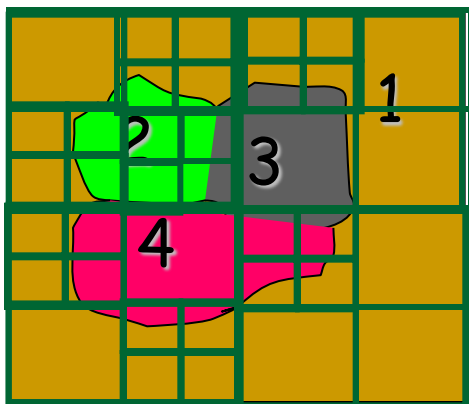
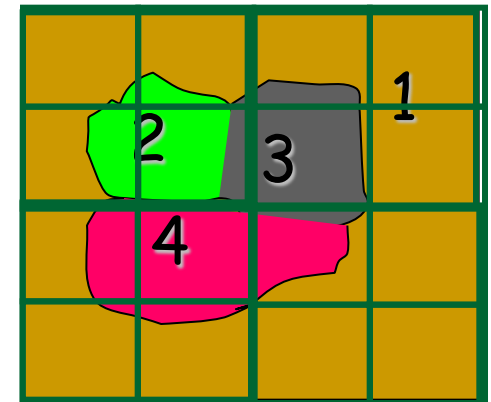
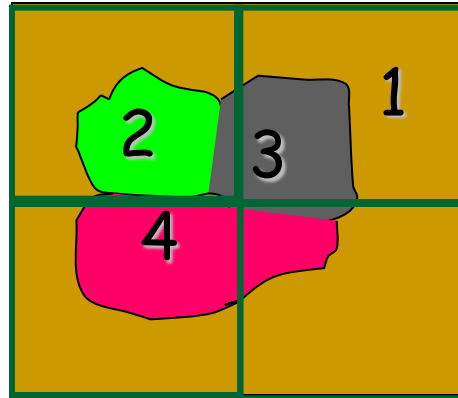
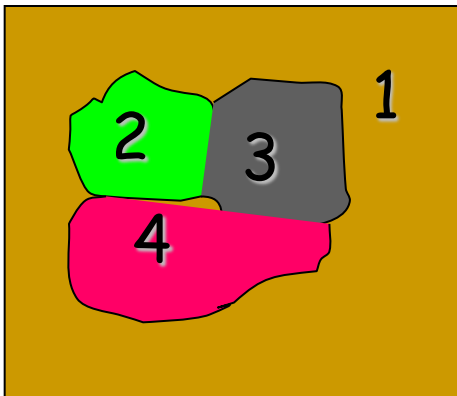
# Split and Merge Algorithm

---

- Start with the entire image as a single region
- Pick a region  $R$ 
  - If  $R$  is false, then split the region into four sub-regions
- Consider any two or more neighboring sub-regions,  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n$ , in the image
  - If  $H(R_1 \cup R_2 \cup \dots \cup R_n)$  is true, merge the  $n$  regions into a single region
- Repeat these steps till no further splits or merges take place

# Split

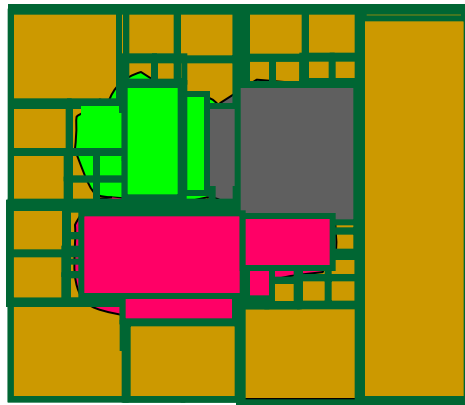
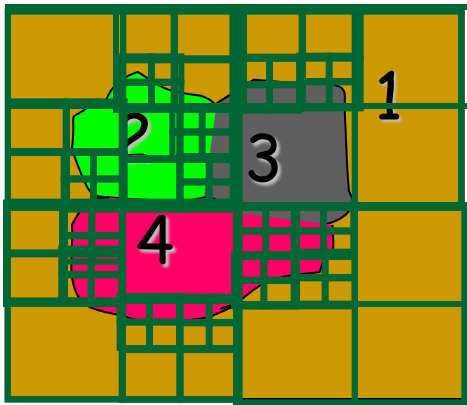
---





# Merge

---



# Region Growing

---

- A set of algorithms to group pixels with similar attributes together
- The basic idea is to grow from a **seed pixel**
  - At a labeled pixel, check its neighbors
    - If the attributes of its neighbor is similar to the attributes of the labeled pixel, label the neighbor
    - Repeat until there is no pixel that can be labeled
- A simple case
  - The attribute of a pixel is its pixel value
  - The similarity given by the difference between two pixel values
    - If the difference is smaller than a threshold, then they are similar
    - Otherwise they are not

# Region Growing

---

- Algorithm:
  - Generate initial seeds
  - Select a region
  - Add pixels to region
  - If growth stops, go back to step 2
- Efficient implementation
  - Based on **scan-line algorithm** in graphics
  - Each time we label a line instead of a pixel
  - This procedure is much more efficient than the recursive version

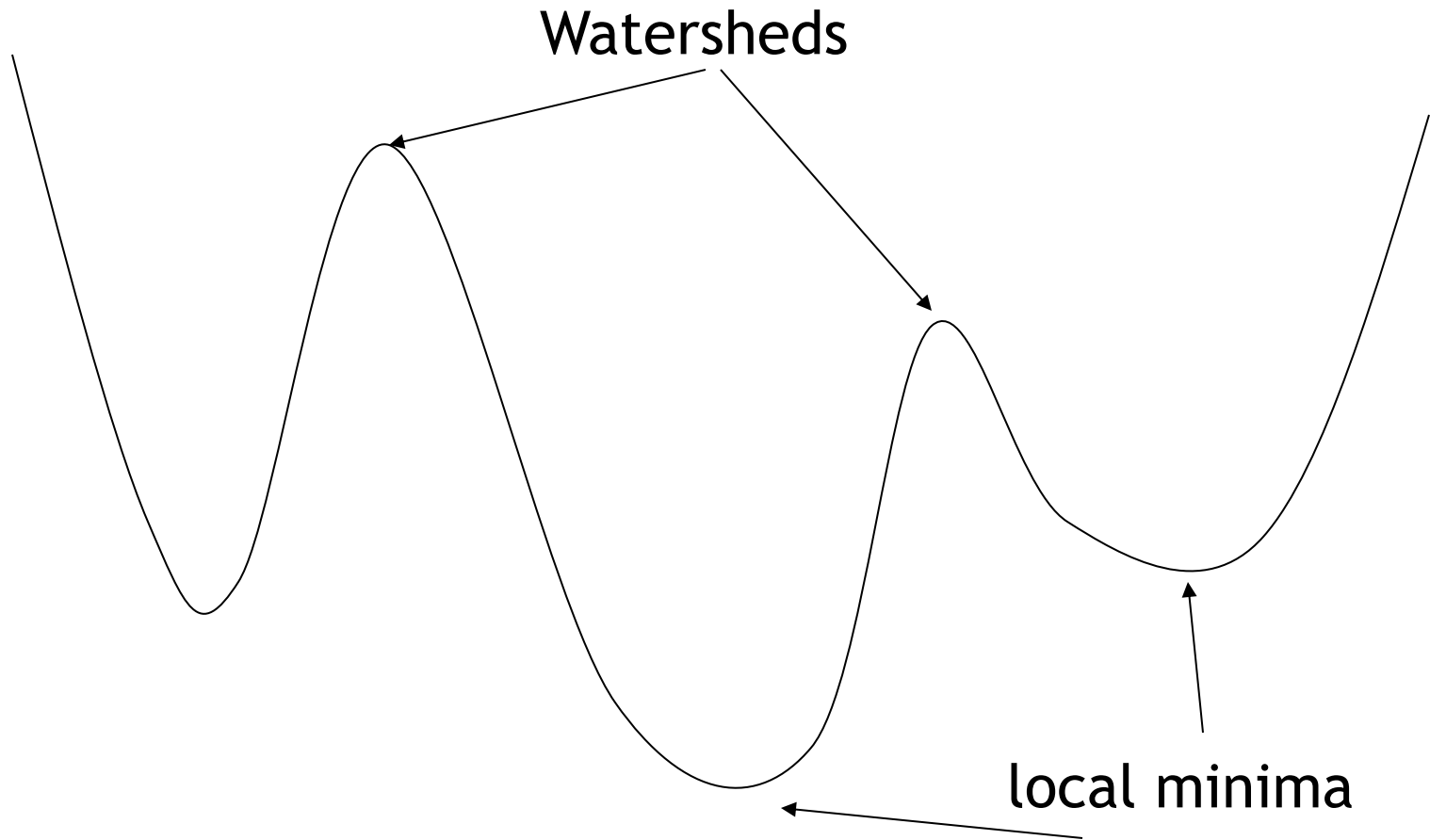
# Watershed Segmentation

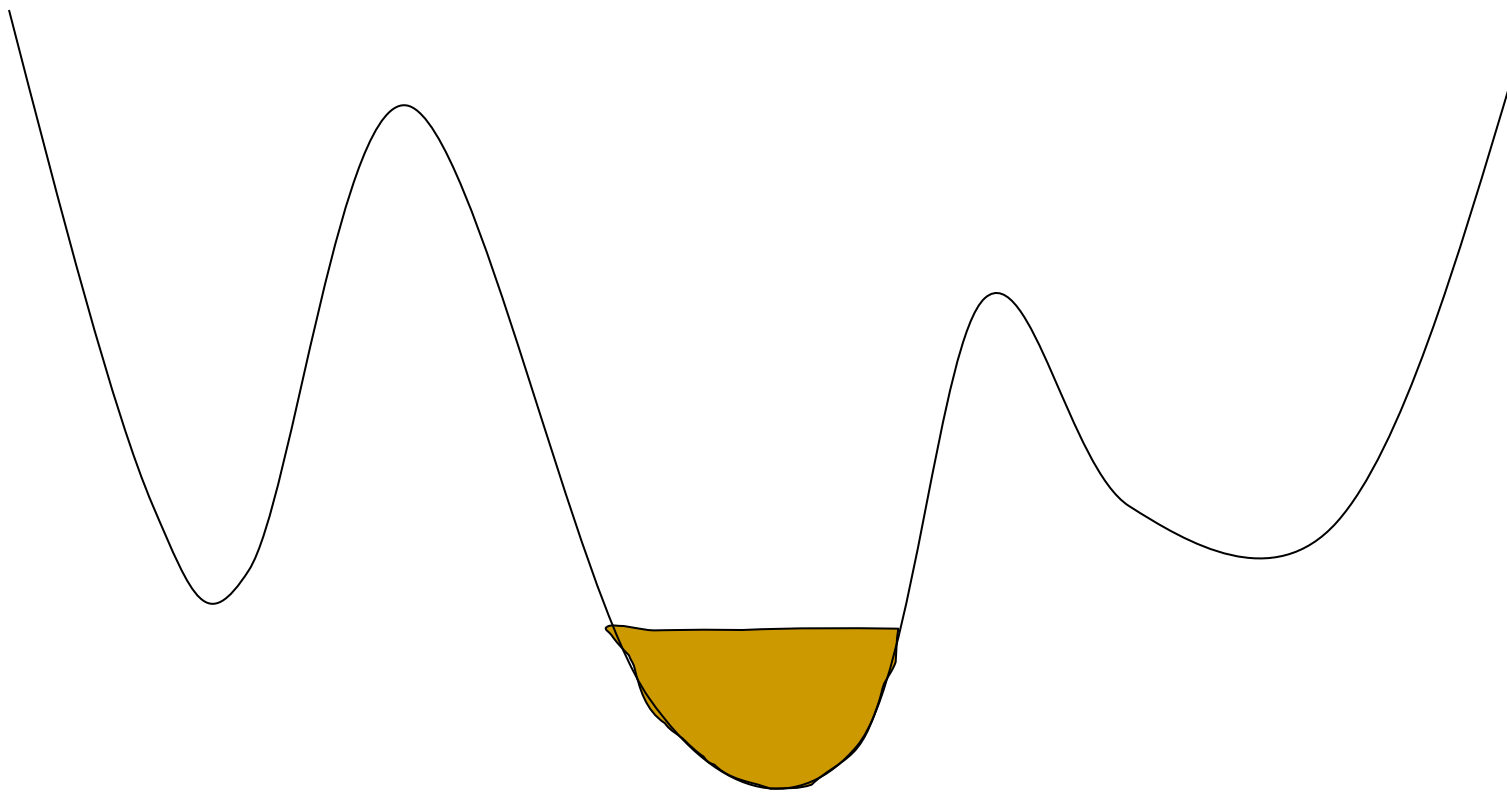
---

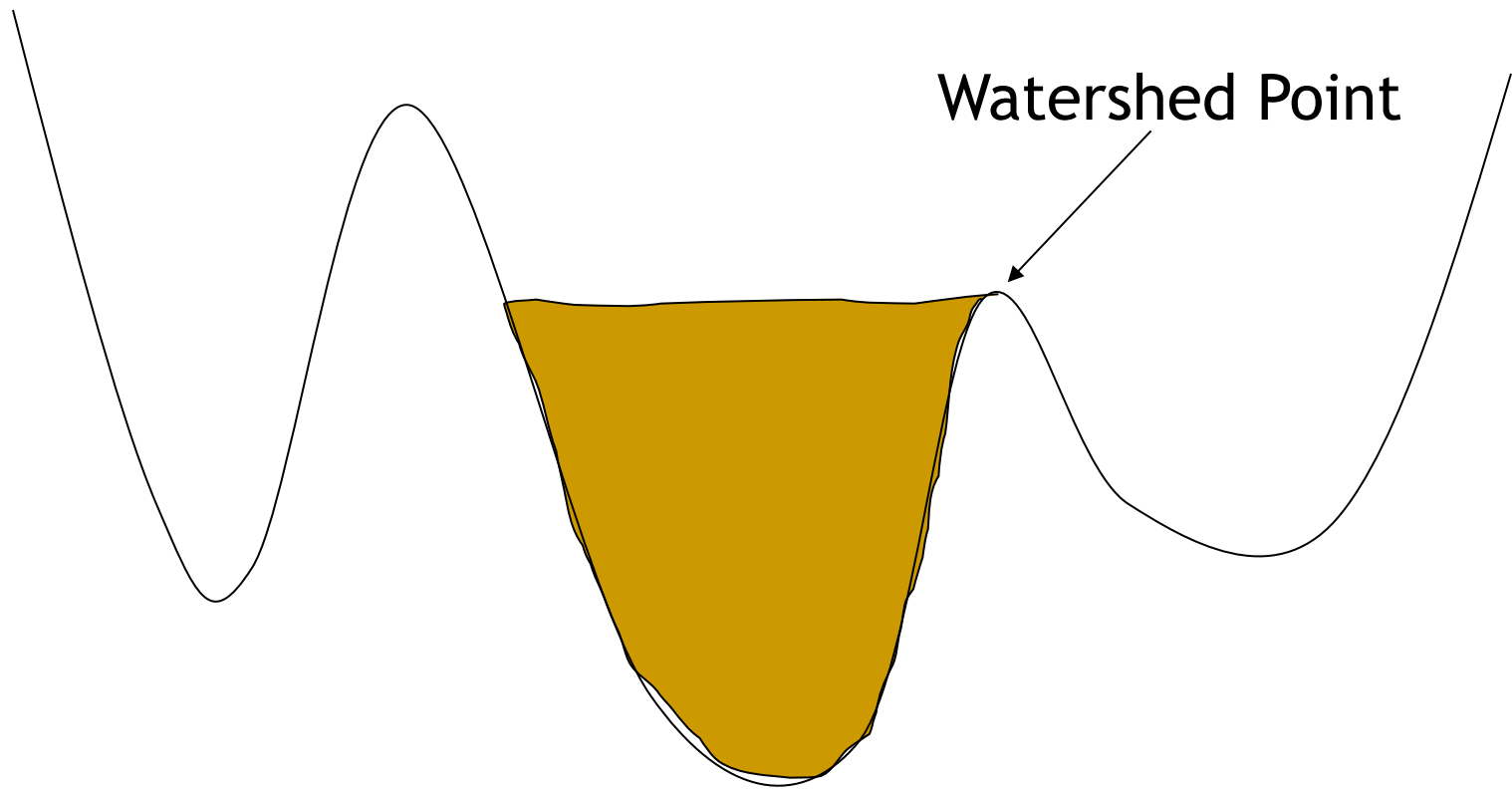
- Compare geographical watersheds
  - Divide landscape into catchment basins
- Edges correspond to watersheds
- Algorithm:
  - Locate local minima
  - Flood image from these points
  - When two floods meet
    - identify a watershed pixel
    - build a dam
    - continue flooding

# Example

---



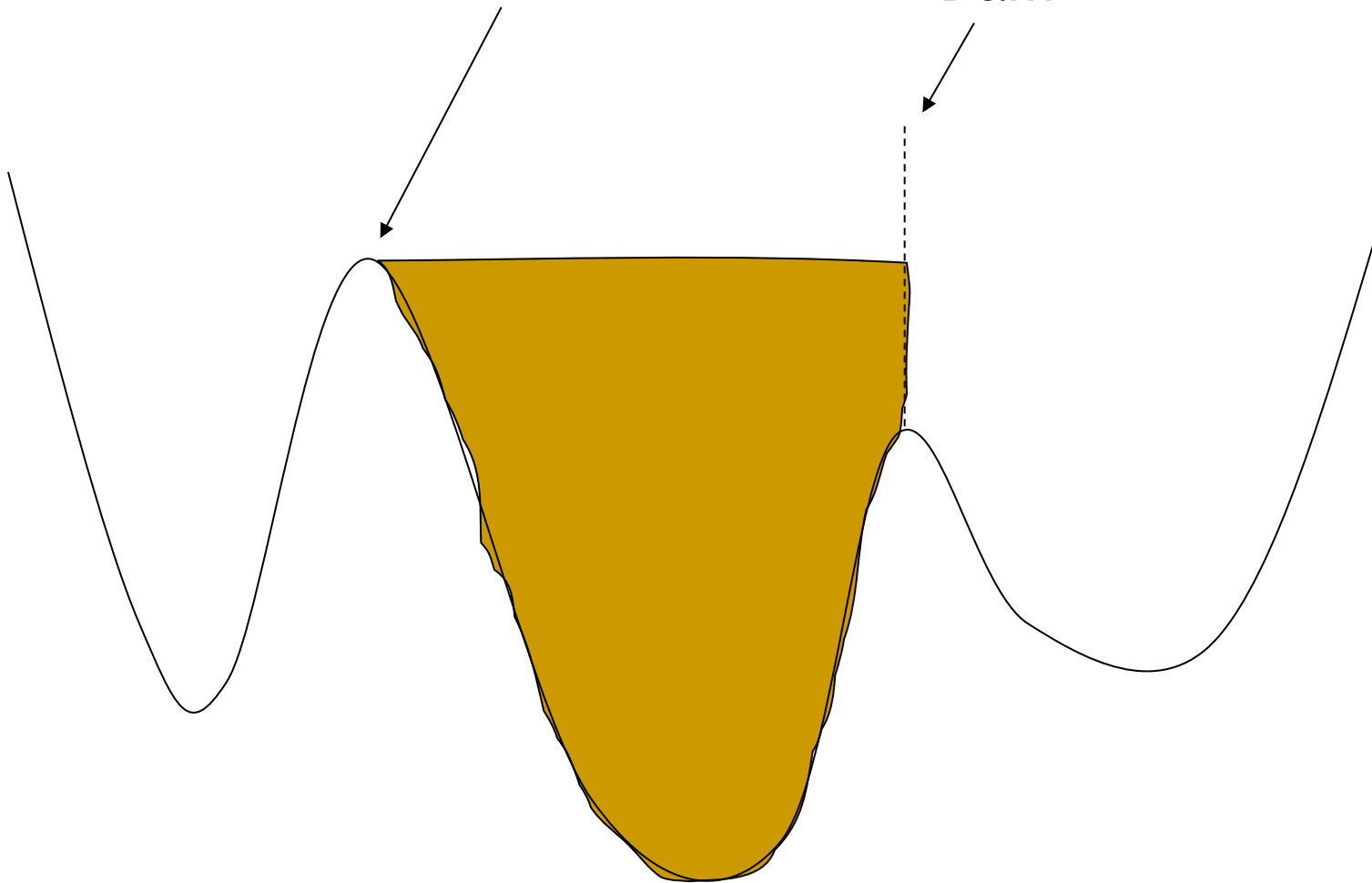




---

Watershed Point

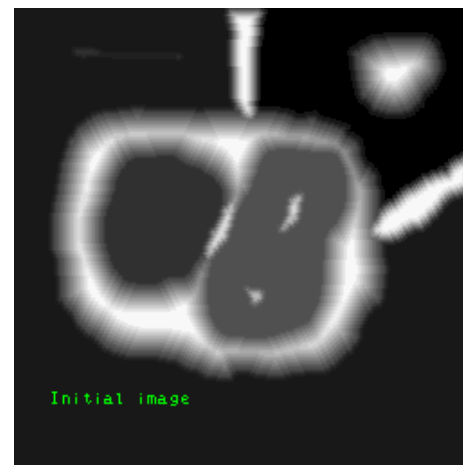
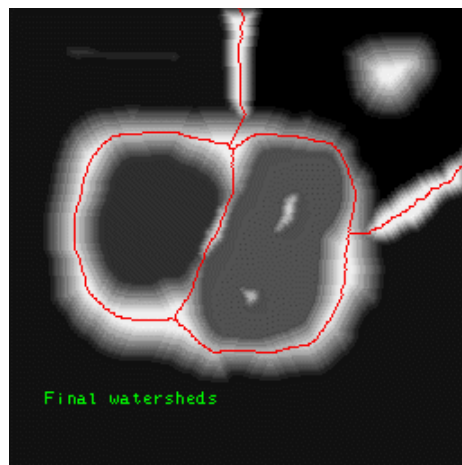
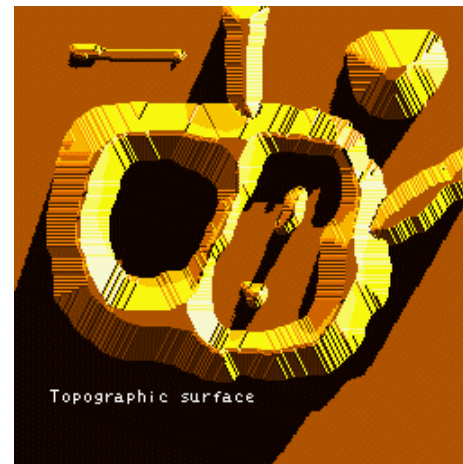
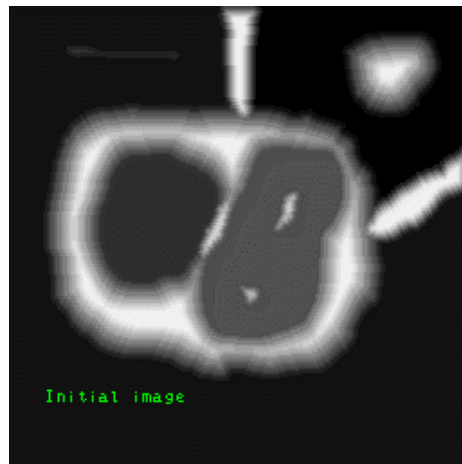
Dam





# Example

---



# Marker-Controlled Watershed

---



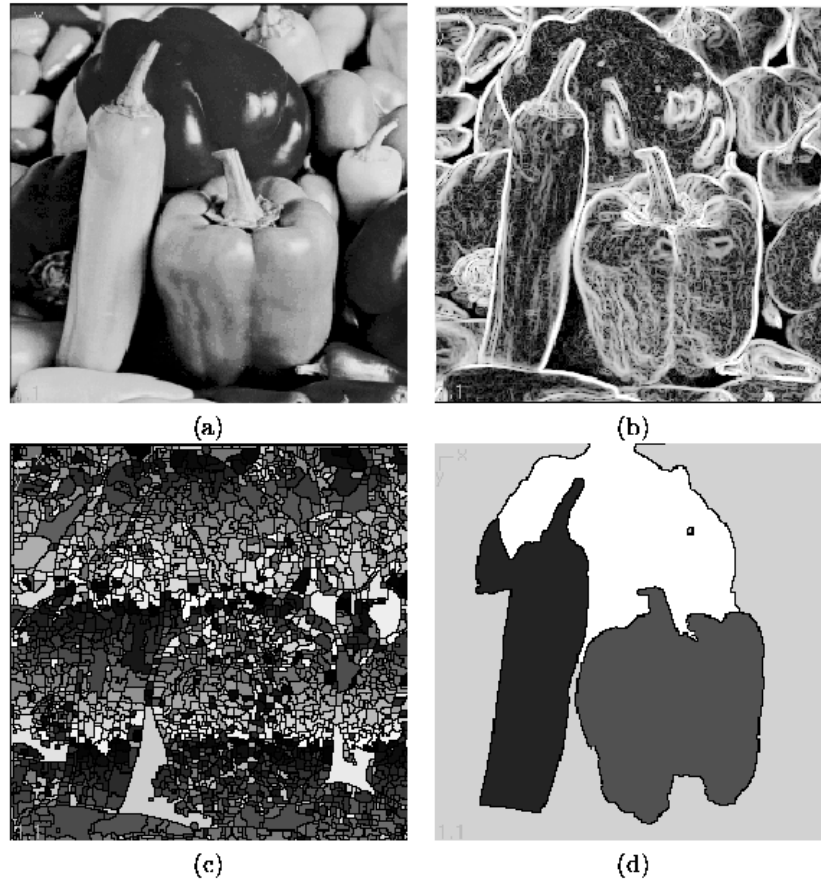


Figure 5.51: *Watershed segmentation: (a) original; (b) gradient image,  $3 \times 3$  Sobel edge detection, histogram equalized; (c) raw watershed segmentation; (d) watershed segmentation using region markers to control oversegmentation. Courtesy W. Higgins, Penn State University.*