

Classification of images based on textures

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Abstract

Textons are the micro-structures found in natural images that are considered the basis of human perception. In this work a texton dictionary was generated and two classification algorithms were trained to classify images in one of 25 categories of textures. The first algorithm, a KNN classifier, managed to have an ACA of 7.2%, while the bagged trees algorithm had an ACA of 2.0%. The performance of both algorithms was poor, and the conjecture made around this is that the dictionary was too small to cover the variance of each class of textures, so that the algorithms were not well trained for the incoming data. As future work, larger datasets are going to be processed with no subsampling or cropping of the images, so that more stiff data is obtained and the algorithms can achieve better performance.

1. Introduction

Texture is a concept common to humans but, unlike color or borders, is not easily described by a single value, like an intensity. In the same way, it can not be described by the result of a simple mathematical function, such as a convolution with a kernel or the selection of a threshold. Nevertheless, texture is very important for computer vision, since textures are quite characteristic of the object in which they appear and, therefore, if one can obtain information about the object's texture, one could, in principle, use this information to segment the object and classify it.

Given that texture is not easily described, the approach to study it is more of the exhaustive-search type. This means that trial and error with different textures will be applied to it, and a search for the texture that is closest to a part of the image will be run. That part of the image will be said to have the same texture as the texture that was closest to it. Obviously, like all trial and error algorithms, it would actually need to have a large amount of textures so that almost every possible texture appears at least once; additionally, this will demand very high computational power. The idea is to breakdown these textures into their basic components,

that is, the primary elements whose combination can make textures. These elements are called *textons*.

Textons refer to fundamental micro-structures in natural images and are considered as the atoms of pre-attentive human perception [1]. Again, unlike colors, the texture at a single pixel can not be determined just by the pixel's intensity, rather, it is a function of its neighborhood, regarding size, orientation, and color variation, among others.

In the present work a dictionary comprising different textons was created by computing the response a pixel, and its neighborhood, had to a given filter. Then, an unsupervised algorithm, namely *kmeans*, was run to generate clusters based on these responses. The image was transformed from pixels standing for grayscales, into pixels standing for the texton they 'belong' to. As is usual when classifying based on color, the histogram of the transformed image was taken and this representation, of a part of the dataset, was given to two classification algorithms: a *KNN* classifier and a *bagged trees* classifier. Whenever there was an incoming image, the response to each filter was computed, textons were assigned based on distance to previously computed textons and the histogram of this new image was given to each algorithm for classification.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Dataset

The dataset for this exercise was obtained from the Ponce group [2]. It was divided into two sets, *test* and *train*. Both sets had many orientations for 25 different textures, comprising things like wood, stripes, rectangular patterns, rocks, bricks, carpets, fur, among others. The *train* set had 30 instances of each texture, while the *test* set had 10 instances.

2.2. Obtaining texture

In order to obtain the texture of each pixel, a filter bank was used, consisting of bars in different orientations, and it was then applied over all the image. Each pixel could then be represented as a point in \mathbb{R}^n , where n is the number

of filters applied to the image. In this space every point corresponds to the response that a pixel had to a particular filter.

2.3. Generation of the texton dictionary

First, a subsampling of the *train* set was performed by cropping the images, to reduce size, and randomly selecting 5 images of each texture. As stated before, all the 32 filters were applied to each image of the set and then *kmeans* with $k = 64$, was run over the pixels to obtain their labels as well as the centroids of the clusters, which are the textons. This process has a high computational complexity due to the amount of points in \mathbb{R}^{32} , and took several hours to run on the server.

2.4. Classification based on textons

Once the texton dictionary was assembled, the images from the *train* set can be expressed as a matrix of the same size as the original image, but instead of an intensity at each pixel, it has the texton each pixel corresponds to. Then, a histogram of this matrix is computed, with as much bins as the number of textons, 64 in this case. Given that the class of each one of these images is known, a relationship between the histogram of the image and its class can be generated, in principle, through a supervised classification algorithm, such as *KNN* or *bagged trees*.

With the models obtained from these algorithms new images can be classified. When there is a new image, the response to each of the filters in the filter bank must be computed and, with these responses, the pixel can be given the same class as the texton closest to it, given some distance metric. That way, just like with the *train* set, the map of these labels is generated as a matrix and its histogram of textons can be computed. Now, this histogram can be given to the trained models, which will classify the new histogram into one of the classes of the *train* set.

The first parameter to be chosen is the number of textons. This must be selected taking into account that textons, as entities found in nature, must be continuous and that in the algorithm, naturally, this is discretized; therefore, textures found in pictures are probably some combination of the filters generated here, so that the number of textons are not likely the same number of filters. Here we supposed that one of the filters was an option (one out of 16) and that it could be combined with one of the filters from the other side of orientations and the other scale (one out of four), accordingly, the total number of textons must be $16 \times 4 = 64$. Regarding the machine learning algorithms, the parameter k , for the *KNN* algorithm, which is the number of neighbors to take into account, was chosen to be 10, and the distance metric was *euclidean*. The number of trees for the *bagged trees* algorithm was also 10.

When writing the algorithm, some differences to the re-

sponses of different filters was observed, namely, the bigger filters are more discriminative than the smaller ones. This is because bigger filters need bigger structures in the image so that some response occurs, while small ones are more likely to find structures to respond to. Nevertheless, all of this depends on the shapes found in the image and can not be generalized.

2.5. Evaluation

The previous process, of predicting the textures of the test images, requires a quantification of the classifier's ability and the steps before it have to do this correctly. This assessment is obtained by organizing the predicted labels (textures) into a matrix (confusion matrix) that for each test image identifies in what category (texture) it was classified. The diagonal of the matrix corresponds to the amount of images that were correctly classified according to the ground truth. Once normalized, the matrix can be resumed with the ACA, the average of the diagonal.

3. Results

From the two classifiers we obtained a prediction of the texture categories of the test images. According to the values of the ACAs, *KNN* was a better texture classifier with 6.8%, while for *bagged trees* it was 2.0% with the default parameters, 20 neighbors and 10 trees (Figures 1-2). Neither of these methods are what would be desired, that is, for them to classify correctly most images and fail in few of them, which would correspond to an ACA in the double digits. Nevertheless, the *KNN* classifier probably did classify, because it surpassed what would have been possibly classified by chance. This did not happen with *bagged trees*.

By examining closer the results, it can be said that the categories that caused more confusion were firstly different for each classification method as was expected. But particularly, for *KNN* it consistently classified most of the images of the categories from 14 to 25 as the first type of carpet. This could be because of the filters used, particularly their scale. The last textures are characterized by being composed of small elements, added to the fact that the filters had a small scale, they could have created textons that responded to this similarity, thus confusing them amongst themselves. Additionally, given that the result of *kmeans*, that is to say, the textons, depends on the initialization, the carpet as a confusing texture could have been any of the other textures composed of small patterns. On the other hand, for *bagged trees*, a similar confusion occurred, the second type of wood was confused with the final textures. This could have been caused by the easily identifiable orientation of the textures in the images. The confused images are clearly orientated similarly to the filters used, this response could have been what inclined the *bagged trees* classifier to assign them all the same texture.

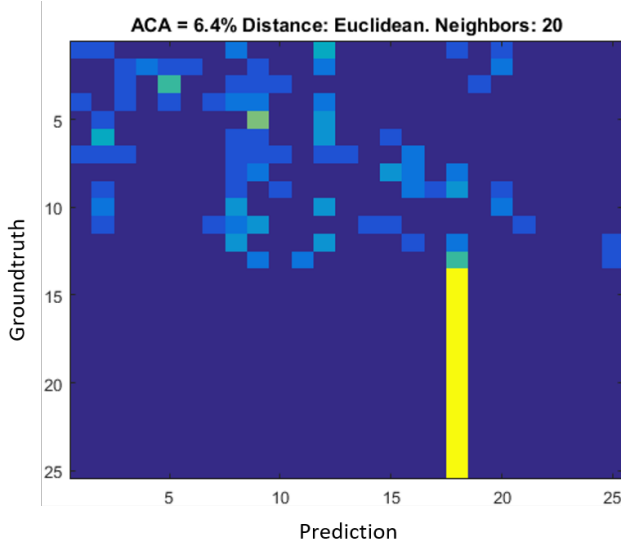


Figure 1. Confusion matrix resulting from the classification by KNN. The rows are the groundtruth and the columns the predictions. Normalizing this matrix gives an ACA of 6.8%

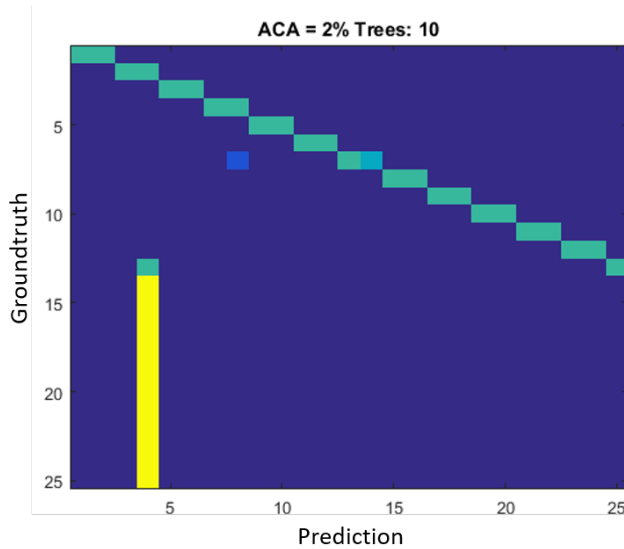


Figure 2. Confusion matrix resulting from the classification by Bagged Trees. The rows are the groundtruth and the columns the predictions. Normalizing this matrix gives an ACA of 2.0%

After attempting to execute the identification of textons on several occasions, it was particularly important to choose a proper k for *kmeans*. That is, not only because the result of *kmeans* depends on it, but because as the number of clusters increases, so does the computational complexity, and thus the time in which the texton dictionary can be obtained. This is explained by the algorithm of *kmeans* in which there is a constant re-organization of the points, that leads to a recomputation of the clusters, until conversion or a maximum number of iterations is reached.

Training both classifiers took almost no time -less than 10 seconds- even in regular computers, not servers. Applying the classifiers took not more than one second per instance in both classifiers. Nevertheless, the problem with applying classifiers is the preprocessing needed to feed the algorithm, since it requires passing various filters (16 in this case), assigning a texton to each pixel in the image, and computing the resulting histogram. All of this adds up to a very large amount of computations which, for the entire *test* set, had to be run on the server. For this reason, several experiments were executed taking as the starting point the texton dictionary. In particular, for *bagged trees*, we varied the number of trees in the forest working under the assumption that a larger forest lead to a more varied model. Nevertheless, as can be seen in Figure 3 even when applying this modification, the outcome of the classifier does not change. This could be due to a strong dependence of this method on the texton dictionary, if it were to represent better the data in the textures, then this classifier could improve.

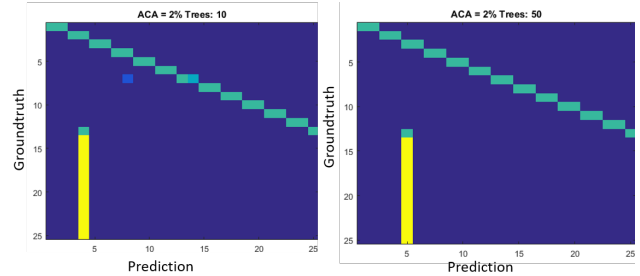


Figure 3. Confusion matrix resulting from the classification by Bagged Trees. The number of trees in the forest was varied, but the ACA remained at 2.0%

For *KNN* we varied two parameters the distance (Figure 4) and the number of neighbors (Figure 5). The distance affects significantly the outcome of the classifier. The default distance was *euclidean*, but many space representation spaces do not have spherical clusters as this distance assumes. This texton space is better suited to other distances such as *Chebyshev* which had the best ACA at 7.2%. Nonetheless, even though the ACA improved, in general *KNN* still confused strongly one category, which can be because of inadequate representation of the texton dictionary. Additionally, within a distance, the number of neighbors is critical for the model's performance. Figure 5 depicts the importance of finding a proper number of neighbors, for the best distance, *Chebyshev*, an increase in the number of neighbors diminished the classification capacity. In contrast, the worst distance, *Seuclidean*, performed better when increasing the number of neighbors. All of this reinforces the intuitive idea that a classification model must be tweaked in order to perform correctly on any given problem, but the most important factor remains the features chosen for the representation.

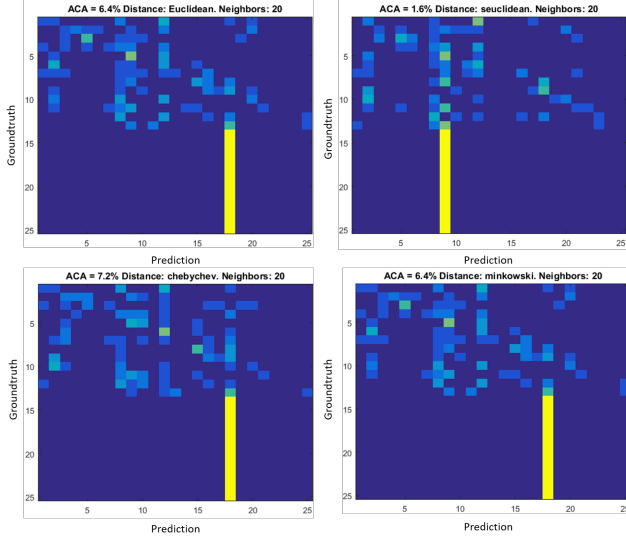


Figure 4. Confusion matrix resulting from the classification by KNN. Maintaining 20 neighbors, the distances were changed. Those shown here are *Euclidean* (ACA of 6.4%), *Seclidean* (ACA of 1.6%), *Chebyshev* (ACA of 7.2%) and *Minkowski* (ACA of 6.4%)

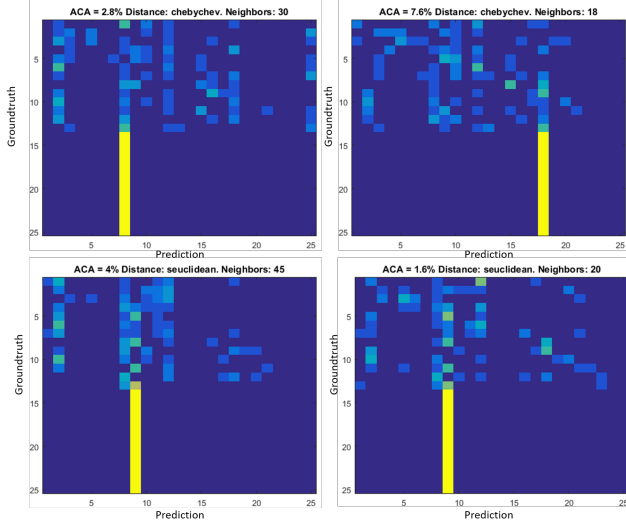


Figure 5. Confusion matrix resulting from the classification by Bagged Trees. The rows are the groundtruth and the columns are the predictions. Normalizing this matrix gives an ACA of 2.0%

There is a gigantic limitation of this method and it is because it relies on the output of *kmeans* for the rest of the conjectures that are made. First, the input k will determine the amount of possible textons, if it is below the 'actual' number of textons it will cause textons to be merged as one, so that differentiation will not be possible; if, on the other side, k is above that number, textons will be broken even when they are the 'same'. Second, the inherent randomness coming from *kmeans* may cause small errors when assign-

ing the labels for each pixel that will then be considered to be the *truth* when classifying incoming images. Third, there is no order between textons when creating the histograms, as opposed to histograms generated from gray intensities; this represents a problem because the way *kmeans* generates the seeds with different labels is random, therefore, there is no sense of *closeness* between, say, cluster 5 and 6, and there will be nothing that can fix the possible misclassification between adjacent bins. In the representation of each image in \mathbb{R}^n this can lead to mis-classification from the generated models. Fourth, there is a limitation coming from the 'discretization' made on textures, since there is an assumption being made on the fact that textons can be represented as some sort of linear combination of the filters generated here, which may not be true, or may be partially true if the discretization is not enough for this to be a good model. Finally, scale becomes an issue that could partially be solved by generating a lot of filters looking out for these, but this will increase significantly the computational complexity, so that there is probably an optimum to be found but it will depend on the images being processed, so that the only way to find it is trial and error.

Additionally to the proposed evaluation of the classification used here (ACA and confusion matrix), the evaluation of multiclass classification problems can be interpreted as a binary classification among the classes *class X* and *not class X*, hence, precision and recall can be computed for each class and be a way of evaluating the algorithm's performance. This computation is equivalent to making sums over the confusion matrix [3]:

$$Precision_i = \frac{M_{i,i}}{\sum_j M_{j,i}}$$

$$Recall_i = \frac{M_{i,i}}{\sum_j M_{i,j}}$$

4. Conclusions

The classifier that worked best was *KNN*. This could be due to its intrinsic simplicity that may adjust better to this type of problem. But, additionally, its functionality is analogous to a mean filter, each pixel it takes into account the results of its neighbors to decide on its value. This process could help to reduce the amount of noise existing from the output of *kmeans*, the calculation of the textons.

Results were not satisfactory for either algorithm, and this is thought to be a result of having a very small dictionary of textons that does not comprehend the whole variation a texture may have. This was due to the lack of time for performing *kmeans*, that only allowed to have 5 samples of each texture, while 10 instances of each texture were classified during the evaluation of the algorithm. In future works more time will be planned for running the algorithm, so that this will not represent an obstacle for the performance.

It can be said by seeing the results that there is significant room for improvement, specially by solving the confusion of the last categories with *wood2* for *bagged trees* and *carpet1* for *KNN*. This could be accomplished by having a wider variety of scales of the filters used, because after all, they are the building blocks of more complex algorithms.

The simplest way to improve the algorithm would be to generate a gigantic texton dictionary, based on a large dataset, and a high k that contemplates all the combinations between the filters that will likely generate the textons. This, obviously, will increase computational complexity greatly, since it is close to a brute-force search. Another process that could be added to the algorithm would be to not assign textons to incoming pixels based only on the textons themselves, the centroids, but on all the data, that is, train a classifier, so that this classification is more accurate than just computing distances to single points one of each class. But, it is relevant to mention that the algorithms used here, the classifiers, *k-means* and also the filters, were not optimized properly as can be seen by the classification accuracy.

References

- [1] S. Zhu, C. Guo, Y. Wang and Z. Xu, "What are Textons?", International Journal of Computer Vision, vol. 62, no. 1-2, pp. 121-143, 2005.
- [2] "Ponce Research Group: Datasets", [Www-cvr.ai.uiuc.edu](http://www-cvr.ai.uiuc.edu), 2017. [Online]. Available: http://www-cvr.ai.uiuc.edu/ponce_grp/data/. [Accessed: 02- Mar- 2017].
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