



# **Machine Vision**

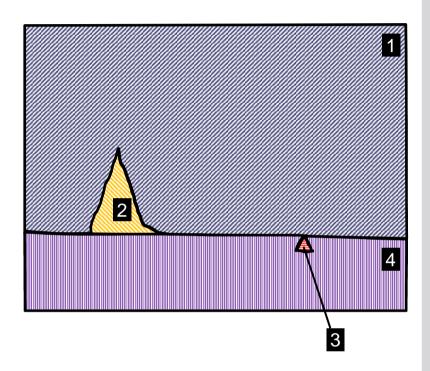
### **Chapter 6: Segmentation**

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### Segmentation

- partitioning the image into areas of similar color
  - image driven
  - no semantics for segments
- what we need for segmentation:
  - a criterion that defines which pixels belong to a segment and which don't
  - an algorithm that efficiently subdivides pixels into segments





- criteria for segmentation:
  - predefined color criterion
  - neighborhood criterion
  - homogeneity criterion
  - connectedness criterion
  - spatial criterion
  - boundary smoothness criterion
  - size criteria

- . . .



#### - predefined color criterion

pixel color belongs to a predefined set of "interesting" colors

- 1. specify which color values are relevant
- 2. check which pixels are colored

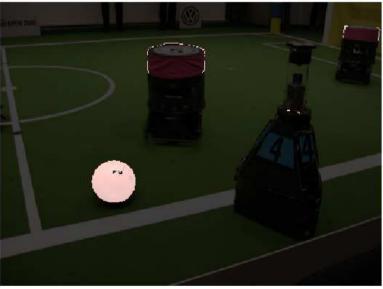
#### example:

find the orange ball on a soccer robot field orange pixels are those with HSV values in the interval:  $0^{\circ} \le H \le 24^{\circ}$ ,  $0.4 \le S \le 1$ ,  $0.4 \le V \le 1$ 

advantages and disadvantages:

- very simple, very fast
- can be applied if color of objects is known in advance and color is discriminative
- not applicable if different objects share the same colors
- finding appropriate color specification is often cumbersome







#### - neighborhood criterion

pixel color is similar to color of neighboring pixels

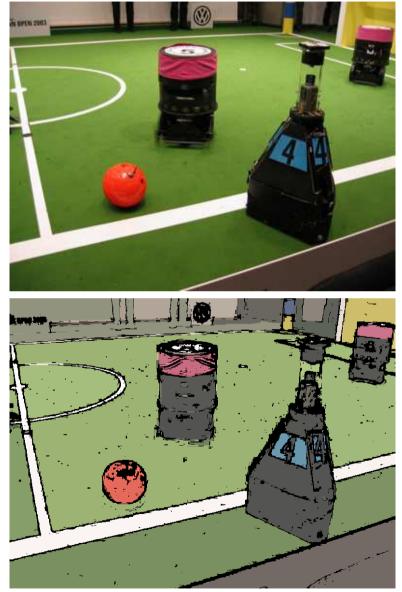
- 1. specify which colors are similar
- 2. group all pixels in one segment which have at least one similar neighbor which already belongs to the segment

#### example:

pixels are neighboring if Euclidean distance of RGB triplets is less than 7/255

advantages and disadvantages:

- simple
- objects colors don't need to be known
- object boundaries must be high-contrast, the inside must be low-contrast
- blurry images might lead to undersegmentation, noisy images to oversegmentation





#### - homogeneity criterion

pixel color is similar to the average color of a segment

- 1. specify how to compute the average color and decide whether two colors are similar
- 2. group all pixels in one segment which are similar to the average color of a segment

#### example:

pixels that are similar to the average ball color

advantages and disadvantages:

- objects colors don't need to be known
- objects must have similar color in all parts
- does not support low frequent color changes
- recurrent definition





#### - connectedness criterion

all pixels in the same segment must be connected, i.e. between two pixels of the segment there is a path which does not leave the segment

example

advantages and disadvantages:

· criterion is combined with other criteria

same color, but different segments





#### - spatial criterion

pixels which are surrounded by pixels of another segment should belong to that segment

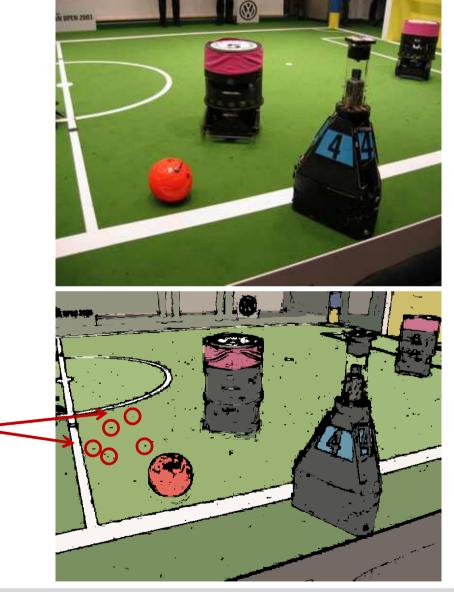
#### example

advantages and disadvantages:

· criterion is combined with other criteria

avoid/fill these gaps

• improves robustness w.r.t. noise





#### boundary smoothness criterion

the boundary of segments should be smooth, not ragged.

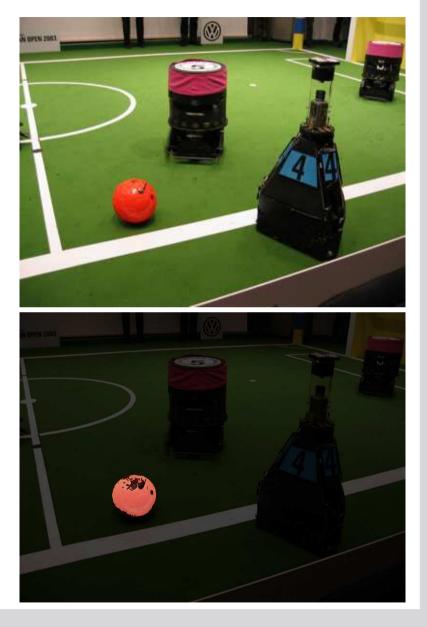
example

advantages and disadvantages:

- · criterion is combined with other criteria
- improves robustness w.r.t. noise

ragged boundary - bad

smooth boundary – better





#### - size criteria

the size of a segment should be within a range/not too small/not too large



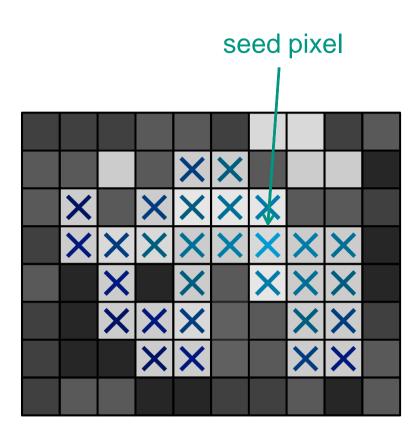
# **Segmentation Algorithms**

- basic segmentation algorithms:
  - region growing
  - connected components labeling
  - k-means and mean-shift algorithm
  - morphological operations
- more elaborated algorithms:
  - level set methods
  - random fields



### **Region Growing**

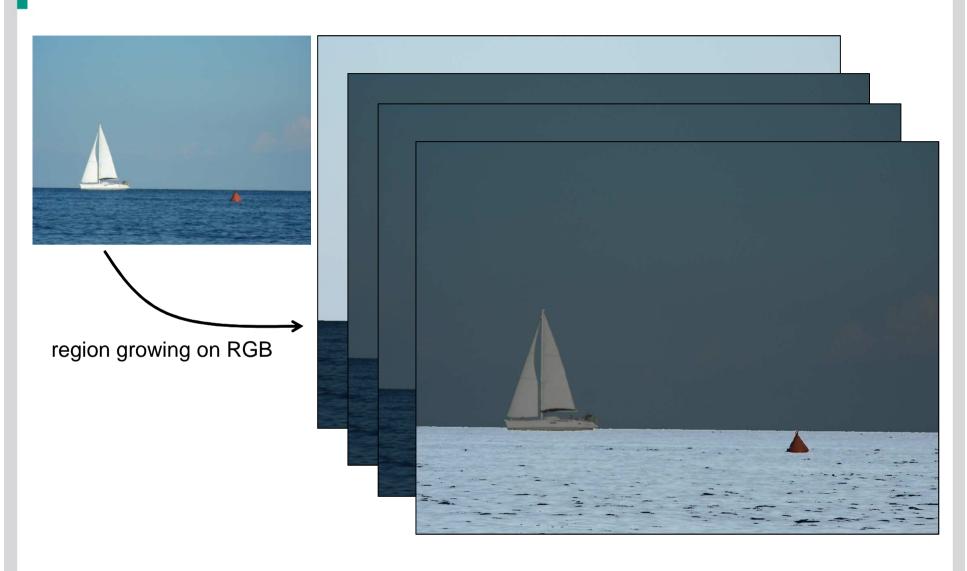
- key idea:
  - start from one/more seed points (seed points must be provided)
  - incrementally expand segment until any pixel can be added
  - implements connectedness criterion + homogeneity or neighborhood criterion
  - yields single segment
- advantages and disadvantages:
  - easy to implement (breadth-first-search)
  - requires one or more seed points



no more extension possible

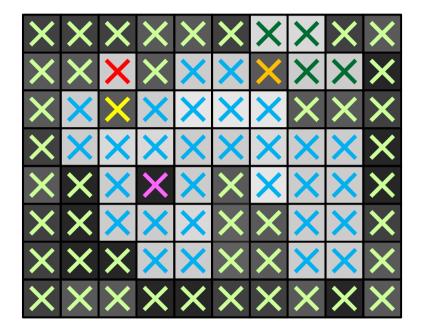


# **Region Growing cont.**





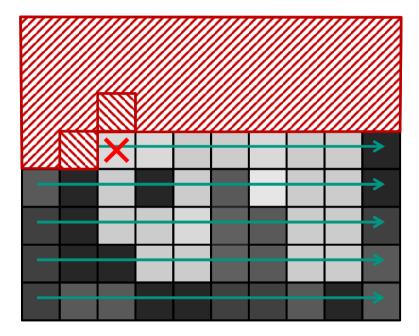
- key idea:
  - create a full segmentation of the image
  - implements connectedness criterion + neighborhood criterion
  - assign each pixel to segment only by determining similarity with two neighboring pixels





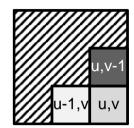
#### – procedure:

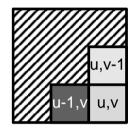
- we visit pixels row-by-row from the left upper corner to the right lower corner and immediately assign them to a segment
- when we visit a pixel (u,v) we already visited (u-1,v) and (u,v-1)
- we compare color(u,v) with color(u-1,v), color(u,v-1). Five cases

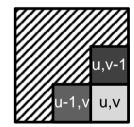


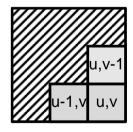


- pixel colors at (u,v) and (u-1,v) are similar pixel colors at (u,v) and (u,v-1) are dissimilar
  - $\rightarrow$  pixel (u,v) and (u-1,v) belong to the same segment
  - $\rightarrow$  we assign pixel (u,v) to the segment of pixel (u-1,v)
- 2. pixel colors at (u,v) and (u-1,v) are dissimilar pixel colors at (u,v) and (u,v-1) are similar
  - $\rightarrow$  pixel (u,v) and (u,v-1) belong to the same segment
  - $\rightarrow$  we assign pixel (u,v) to the segment of pixel (u,v-1)
- 3. pixel colors at (u,v) and (u-1,v) are dissimilar pixel colors at (u,v) and (u,v-1) are dissimilar
  - $\rightarrow$  why should pixel (u,v) belong to the segments of (u-1,v) or (u,v-1)?
  - $\rightarrow$  we create a new segment and assign pixel (u,v) to it
- pixel colors at (u,v) and (u-1,v) are similar
  pixel colors at (u,v) and (u,v-1) are similar
  pixels (u-1,v) and (u,v-1) belong to the same segment
  - $\rightarrow$  pixel (u,v) also belongs to that segment
  - $\rightarrow$  we assign pixel (u,v) to that segment









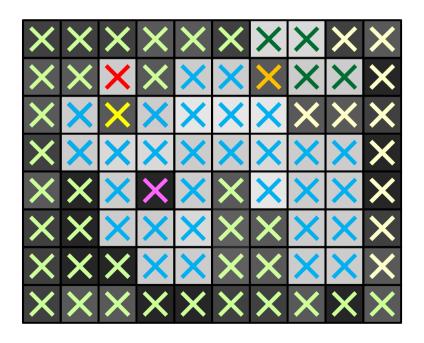




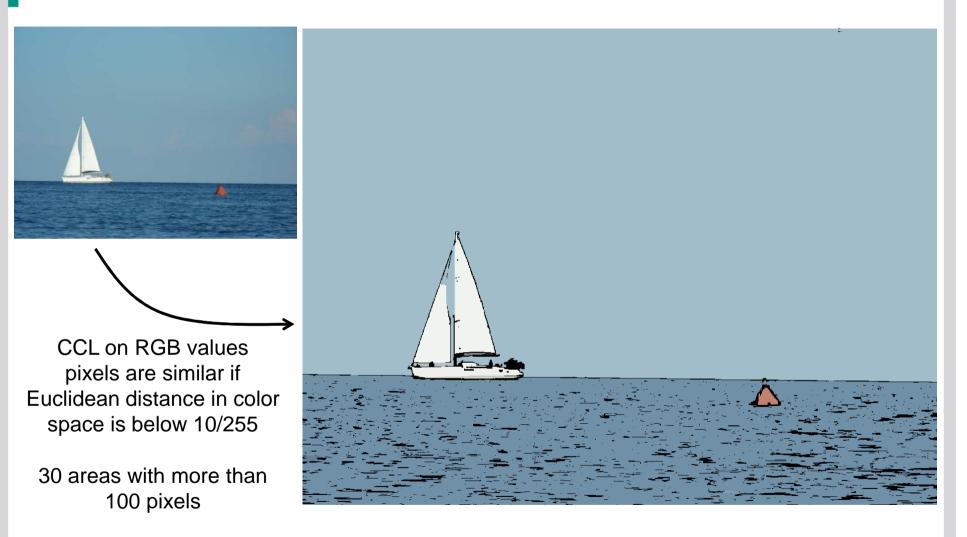
- pixel colors at (u,v) and (u-1,v) are similar
   pixel colors at (u,v) and (u,v-1) are similar
   pixels (u-1,v) and (u,v-1) do not belong to the same segment
  - $\rightarrow$  pixel (u,v) belongs to the segments of both neighbors



- $\rightarrow$  we merge the two neighboring segments and assign pixel (u,v) to the merged segment
- Example







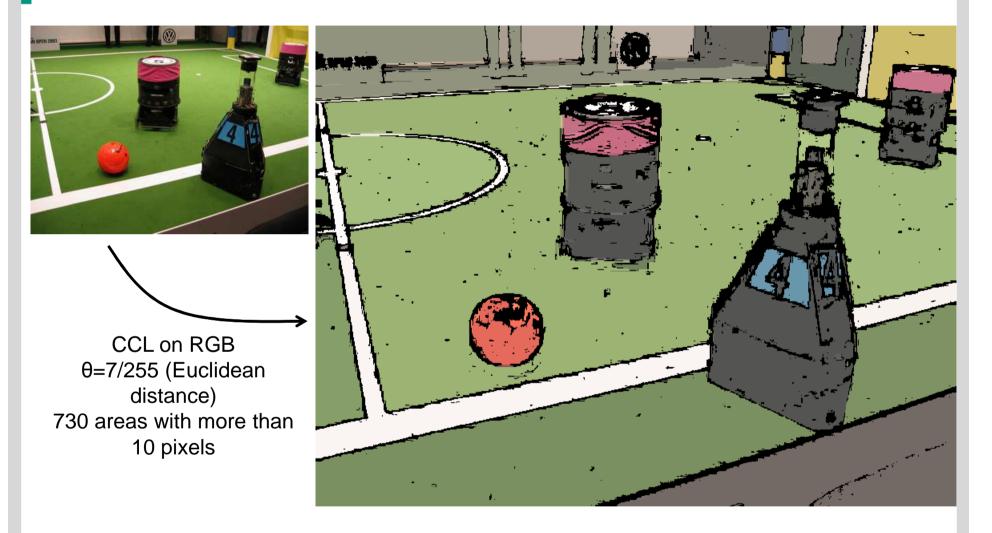




CCL on RGB θ=2/255 (Euclidean distance) 2418 areas with more than 10 pixels













#### – key idea:

- image is composed out of areas of similar color
- find clusters of color
- assign each pixel to its color cluster
- implements homogeneity criterion
- creates full segmentation

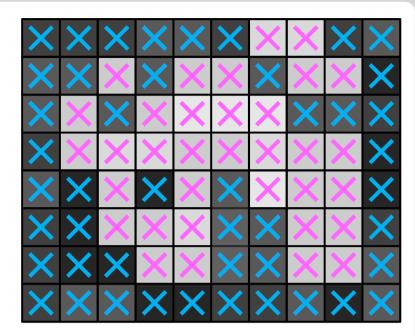


color clusters in the robot soccer picture:

- green
- white
- orange
- black
- magenta
- blue
- yellow
- gray



- how can we find color clusters?
- if we know the number of clusters
  - $\rightarrow$  k-means algorithm
  - 1. initialize *k* prototype colors  $c_1, c_2, ..., c_k$ randomly (e.g. by randomly picking pixels from image)
  - 2. assign each pixel to the prototype color that is most similar
  - 3. recalculate prototype colors by averaging over colors of pixel which have been assigned in step 2
  - repeat steps 2 and 3 until convergence (i.e. the assignments in step 2 do not change any more)



example: *k*=2 step 1: randomly pick colors from two pixels step 2: assign pixels to most similar cluster step 3: recalculate prototype colors step 2: reassign pixels step 3: recalculate prototype colors step 2: reassign pixels → convergence









#### • Examples:

original image



k=5, iteration=10

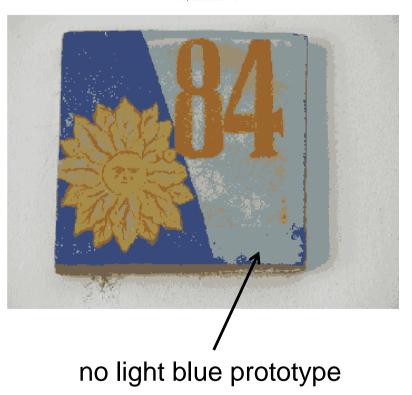




• Examples:



k=10, iteration=10





#### • Examples:



k=10, iteration=10

suboptimal prototype colors: only one prototype for yellow+orange



Lecture in Machine Vision - 26

original image



#### **Mean-Shift**

#### - k-means algorithm

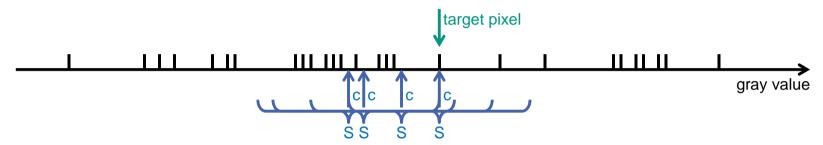
- advantage:
  - simple, easy to implement
- disadvantages:
  - number of clusters (k) must be known
  - often converges into suboptimal clustering (depending on initial prototype colors)
- improvement for unknown number of clusters  $\rightarrow$  mean-shift
  - requires a similarity measure for colors
  - · for each pixel proceed as follows
  - 1. determine color *c* of this pixel
  - 2. find the set *S* of all pixels which are similar to *c*
  - 3. calculate the average color of *S* and assign it to *c*
  - 4. repeat steps 2 and 3 until convergence (i.e. until S remains unchanged in step 2)
  - 5. finally, c is the prototype color of the segment which the pixel belongs to



#### **Mean-shift**

- example

arranged all pixel colors (gray values) along one axis



step 1: pick color of target pixel *c* 

step 2: find the set of similar pixels S

step 3: calculate average color of S and assign it to c

step 2: recalculate S

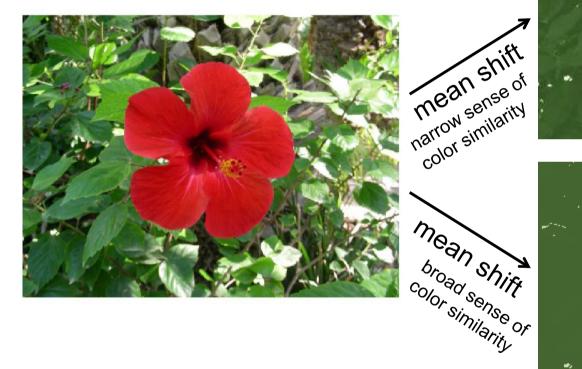
step 3: recalculate average color of S and assign it to c

- step 2: recalculate S
- step 3: recalculate average color of S and assign it to c
- step 2: recalculate  $S \rightarrow$  convergence



# Mean-shift

• Examples:









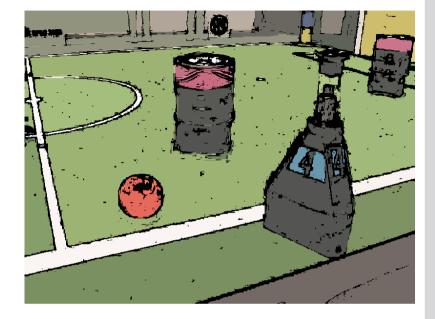
# **Morphological Operations**

- problems:
  - holes
  - ragged contours
  - -gaps
  - tiny areas
- extend/shrink areas
  - erosion: shrink area by one pixel
  - dilation: extend area by one pixel

#### assumption

- background pixels are encoded with 0
- foreground pixels are encoded with numbers ≥1





• Erosion:

 $erode\{g\}(u,v) = \min\{g(u,v),$ 

$$g(u+1,v), g(u+1,v+1),$$
  

$$g(u,v+1), g(u-1,v+1),$$
  

$$g(u-1,v), g(u-1,v-1),$$
  

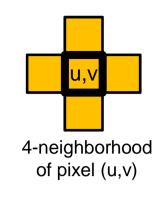
$$g(u,v-1), g(u+1,v-1)\}$$

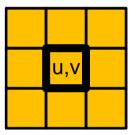


• Dilation:

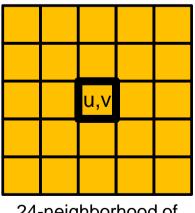
 $dilate\{g\}(u,v) = \max\{g(u,v), \\g(u+1,v), g(u+1,v+1), \\g(u,v+1), g(u-1,v+1), \\g(u-1,v), g(u-1,v-1), \\g(u,v-1), g(u+1,v-1)\}$ 

"take the maximal value of neighbors"



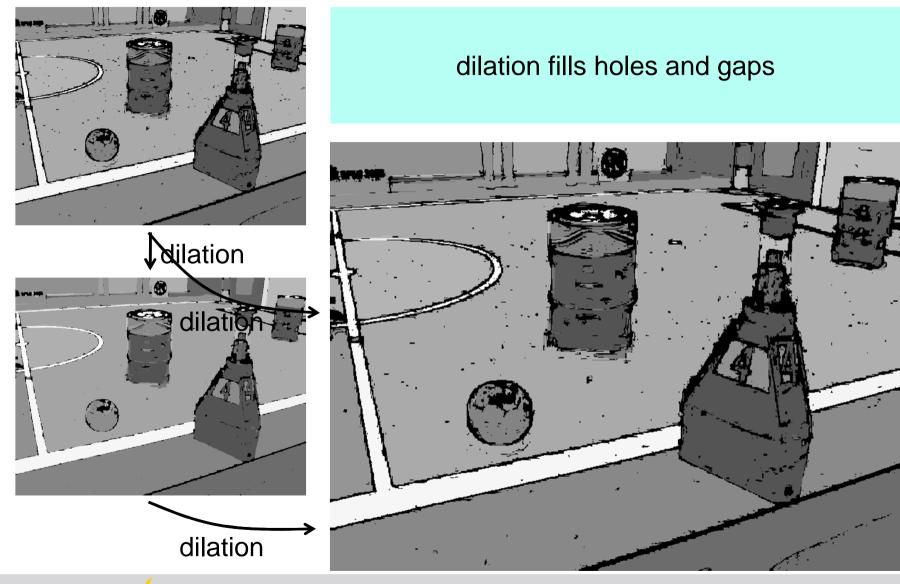


8-neighborhood of pixel (u,v)

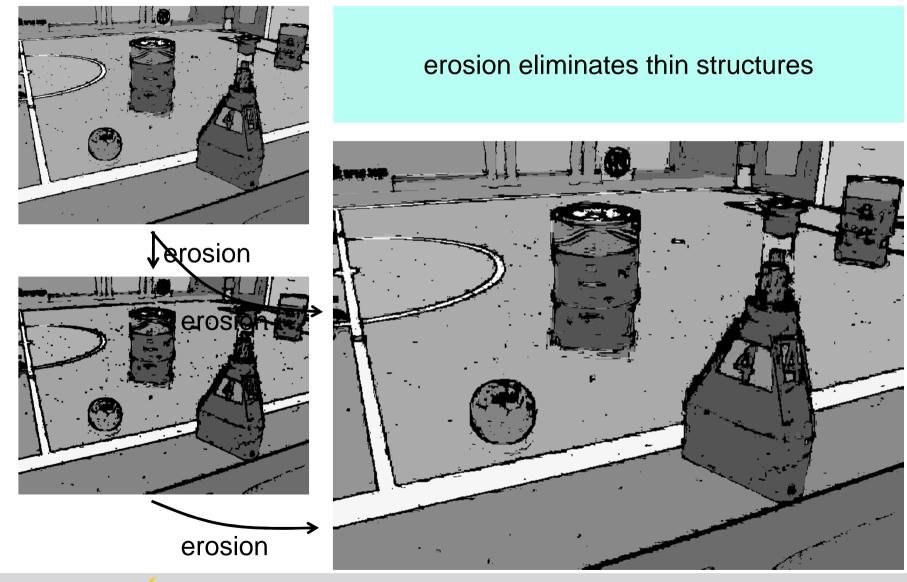


24-neighborhood of pixel (u,v)









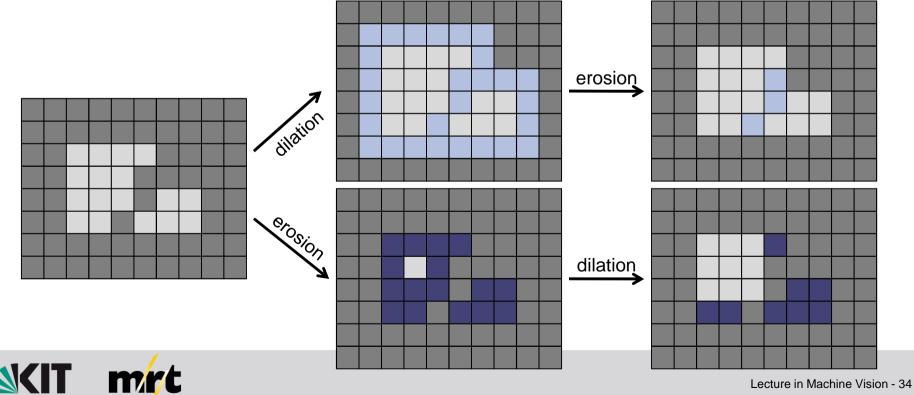


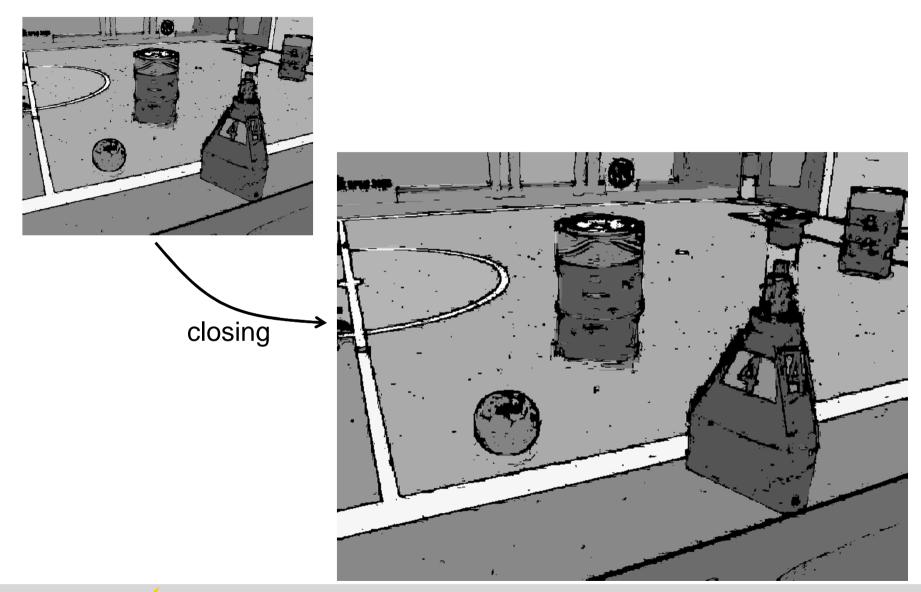
- erosion and dilation can be combined:
  - closing: first dilation, then erosion

fill gaps and holes without changing the overall extension of areas

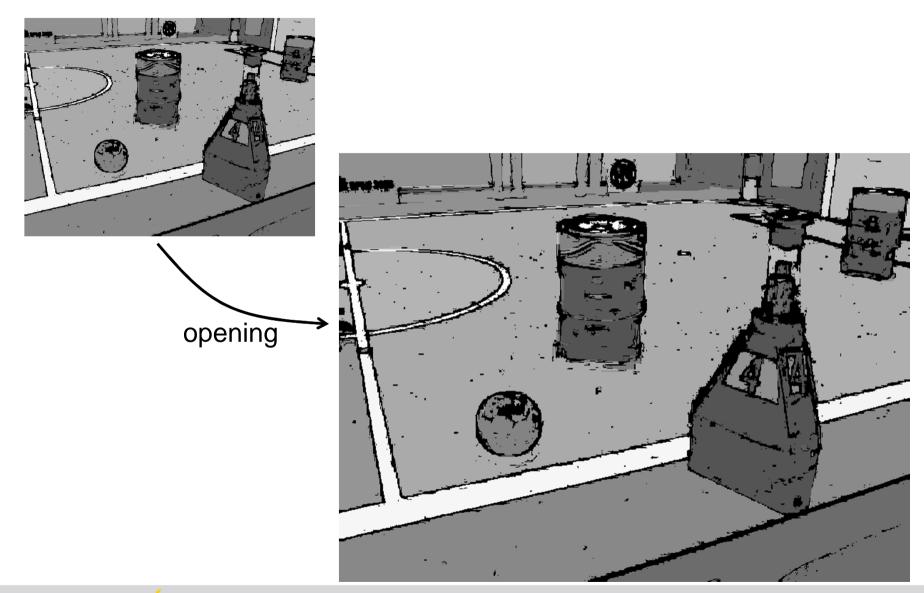
- opening: first erosion, then dilation

remove thin areas without changing the overall extension of large areas



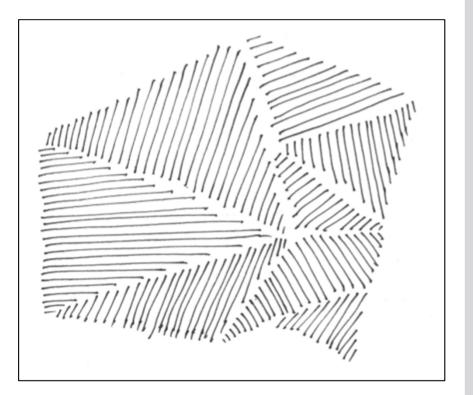








- So far:
  - segmentation was based on color (gray values)
  - different representation of color and different similarity measures
- Question:
  - how can we segment images in which colors are not salient?
- Example:
  - segment image into areas of same hatching



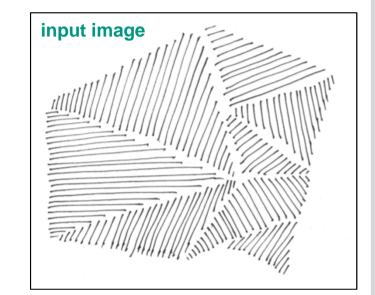


- What do we need for image segmentation?
  - for every pixel: a description of the pixel (image features)
    - e.g. color
    - e.g. texture information
    - e.g. depth of point (3d scanner/stereo vision)
    - e.g. motion of pixel (optical flow)
    - e.g. features which characterize whether pixel belongs to certain object categories
    - e.g. a combination of those features
  - a measure of similarity of different pixels
    - e.g. Euclidean distance between feature vectors
    - e.g. other metric
  - one/more segmentation criteria
    - $\rightarrow$  cf. slide 3
  - an efficient algorithm that implements the segmentation criteria
    - $\rightarrow$  cf. methods presented on previous slides

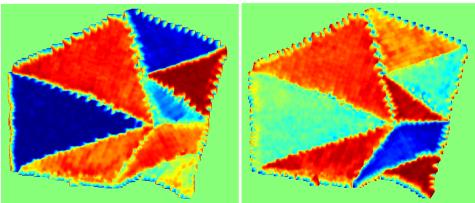


- Example:
  - segment image into areas of same hatching
  - image features:
    - color and gray level is not salient
    - · orientation of lines is salient
    - e.g.
      - calculate gray level gradient
      - determine the dominant gradient direction in local environment around pixel
      - represent direction as 2d vector
      - length of vector is proportional to average gradient length
  - criteria and algorithm:
    - neighborhood criterion
    - minimal segment size
    - · connected components labeling



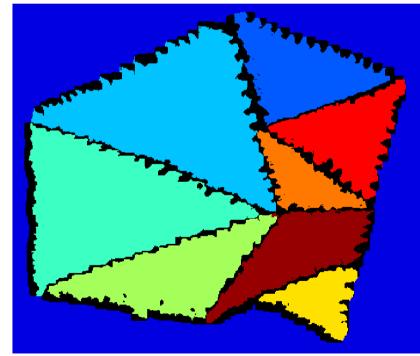


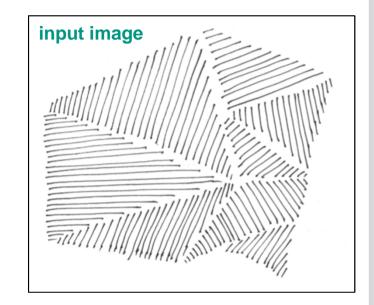
#### image features (illustrated as color images)



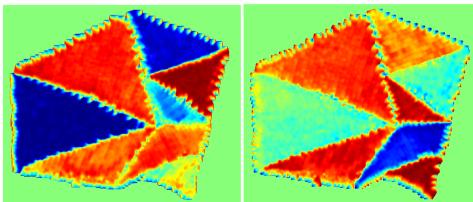
- Example:
  - segment image into areas of same hatching

segmentation result with CCL (one color per segment)





#### image features (illustrated as color images)





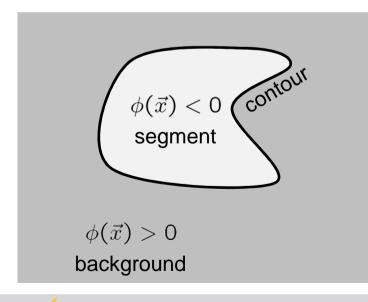
# LEVEL SET METHODS



## **Level Set Representation**

- two-class-segmentation can be represented by:
  - collection of all pixels that belong to segment
  - indicator function  $\phi(\vec{x}) \begin{cases} < 0 & \text{if pixel } \vec{x} \text{ belongs to segment} \\ > 0 & \text{if pixel } \vec{x} \text{ belongs to background} \end{cases}$
  - contour

- signed distance function

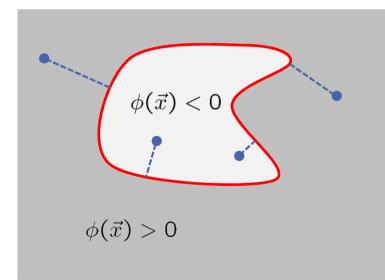




## Level Set Representation cont.

- signed distance function
  - $\phi(\vec{x}) \begin{cases} < 0 & \text{if pixel } \vec{x} \text{ belongs to segment} \\ > 0 & \text{if pixel } \vec{x} \text{ belongs to background} \\ |\phi(\vec{x})| = \text{ distance of } \vec{x} \text{ from contour} \end{cases}$
- contourpoints:

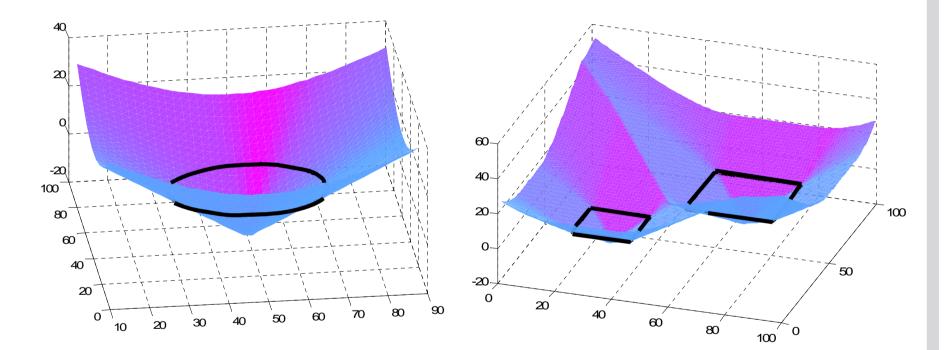
 $\phi(\vec{x}) = 0$ 





## Level Set Representation cont.

- signed distance function



example: circlular contour

example: two rectangular contours



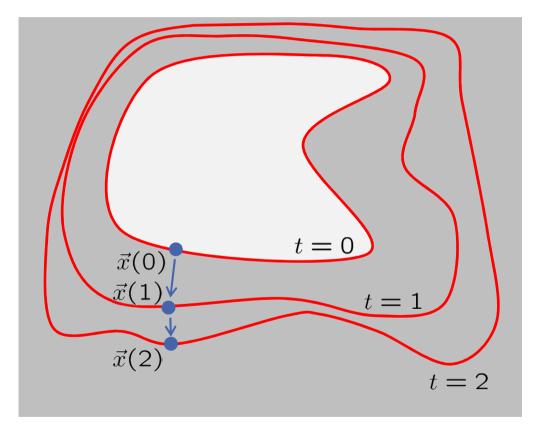
## **Level Set Evolution**

- modeling temporal evolution of signed distance function  $\phi(\vec{x},t)$ 
  - tracking a point on the boundary over time  $\vec{x}(t)$

```
-obviously:

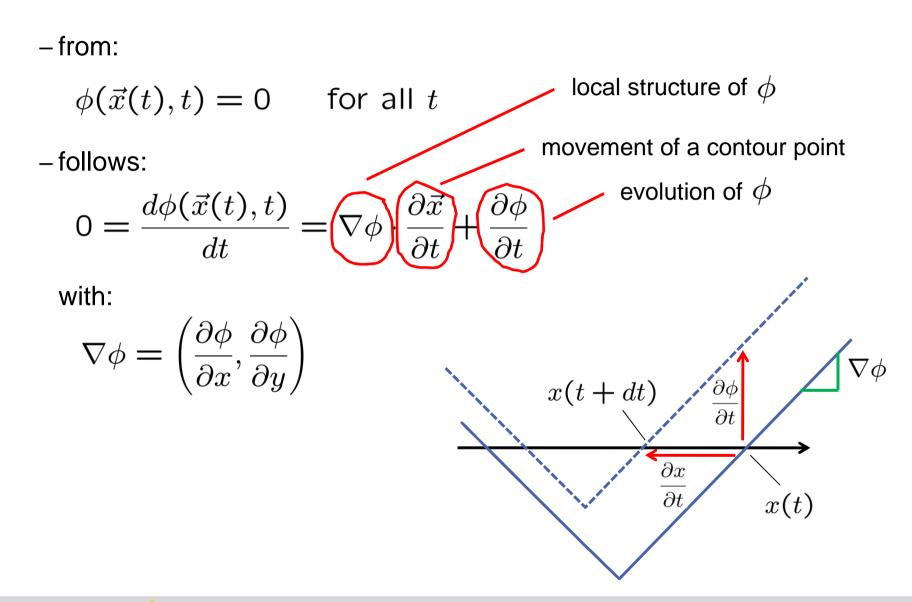
\phi(\vec{x}(t), t) = 0

for all t
```





## Level Set Evolution cont.





## Level Set Evolution cont.

- resolving w.r.t. 
$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t}$$
:  
 $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = -\nabla \phi \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{x}}{\partial t}$ 

- Basic idea of level set methods:
  - start with initial  $\phi(\cdot, 0)$

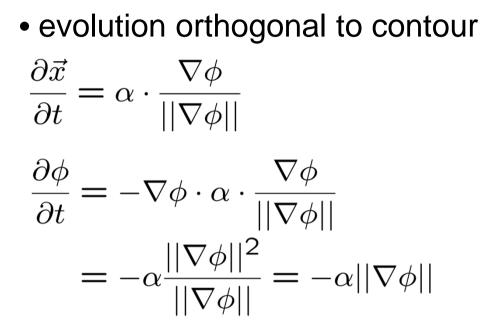
– assume reasonable  $\frac{\partial \vec{x}}{\partial t}$ 

 $-\operatorname{track} \phi(\cdot,t)$  over time

• Implementation using numerical integration, e.g. Euler's approach (tricky!)

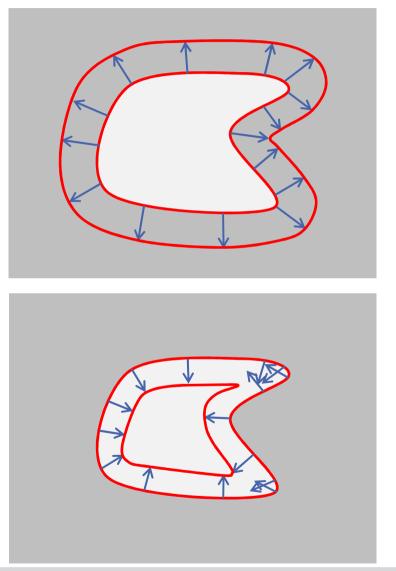


## **Expanding and Shrinking**

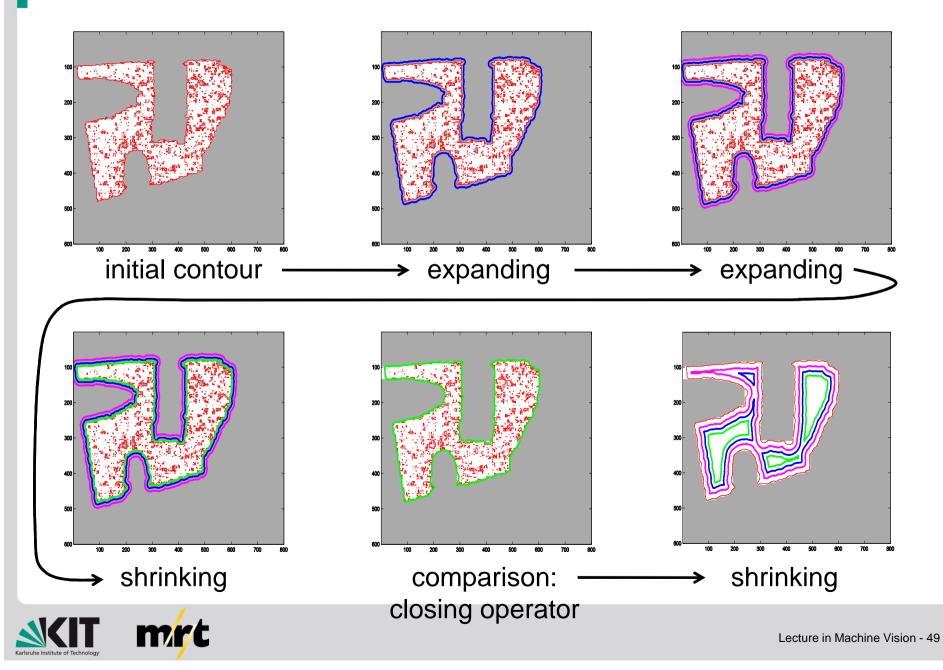


- -1. case  $\alpha > 0$  contour expands
- -2. case  $\alpha < 0$  contour shrinks





## **Expanding and Shrinking cont.**



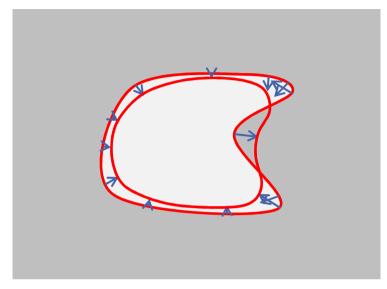
## **Expanding and Shrinking cont.**

- level set evolution can be used to implement morphological operators:
  - dilation = expanding
  - erosion = shrinking
  - closing = shrinking after expanding
  - opening = expanding after shrinking



## **Contour Rectification**

- making the contour smoother
  - expanding in concave areas
  - shrinking in convex areas
- evolving the level set
  - orthogonal to contour
  - -depending on local curvature  $\kappa$





## **Contour Rectification cont.**

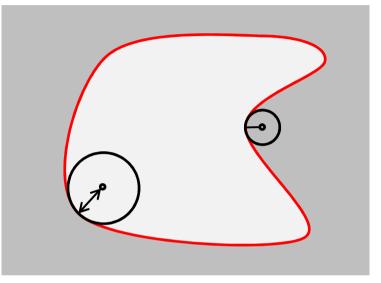
- $\bullet$  curvature  ${\cal K}$ 
  - in convex areas  $\kappa = 1/r$  of circle that locally approximates contour
  - in concave areas:  $\kappa = -1/r$  of circle that locally approximates contour

– in general: 
$$\kappa = 
abla \left( rac{
abla \phi}{||
abla \phi||} 
ight)$$

• level set update:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \vec{x}}{\partial t} &= -\beta \kappa \frac{\nabla \phi}{||\nabla \phi||} \\ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} &= \beta \kappa ||\nabla \phi|| \end{aligned}$$





## **Contour Rectification cont.**

• Example:





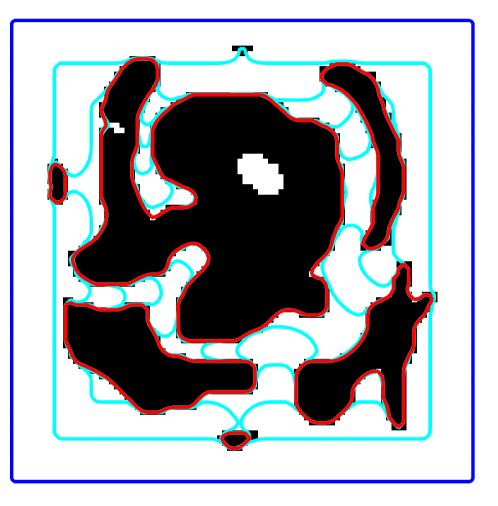
- very simple idea for black/white images:
  - start with a very large contour
  - shrink contour at white pixels
  - don't shrink at black pixels
  - $\rightarrow$  contour enwraps black areas

$$\frac{\partial \vec{x}}{\partial t} = \begin{cases} \gamma \cdot \frac{\nabla \phi}{||\nabla \phi|} \\ 0 \end{cases}$$

if white pixel if black pixel



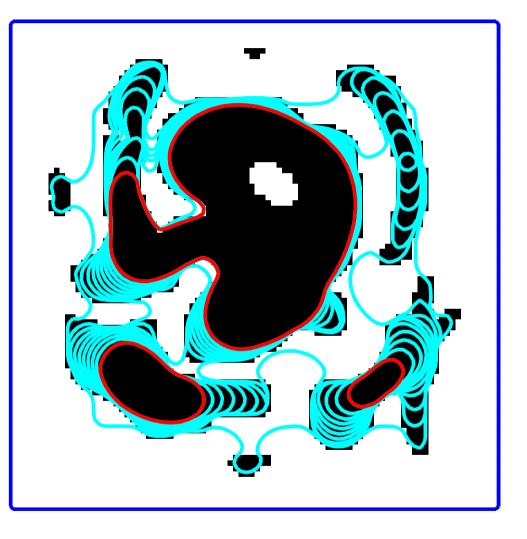
• Example:





• Example:

combining segmentation with contour rectification



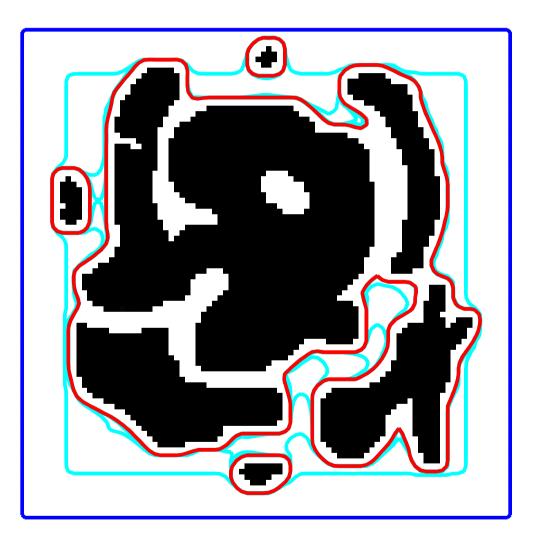


- gradient based approach for image segmentation:
  - start with a very large contour
  - shrink contour at pixels with small gradient length
  - don't shrink at pixels with large gradient length (edge pixels)
  - $\rightarrow$  contour enwraps areas bordered by edges

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \vec{x}}{\partial t} &= -\epsilon(g) \cdot \frac{\nabla \phi}{||\nabla \phi||} \\ \epsilon(g) &= \frac{\gamma}{\gamma + |Gauss * \nabla g|^p} \\ \text{with appropriate } \gamma > 0, p \geq 1 \\ g \text{ denotes gray level image} \end{split}$$



• Example:





• Example:





• Example:

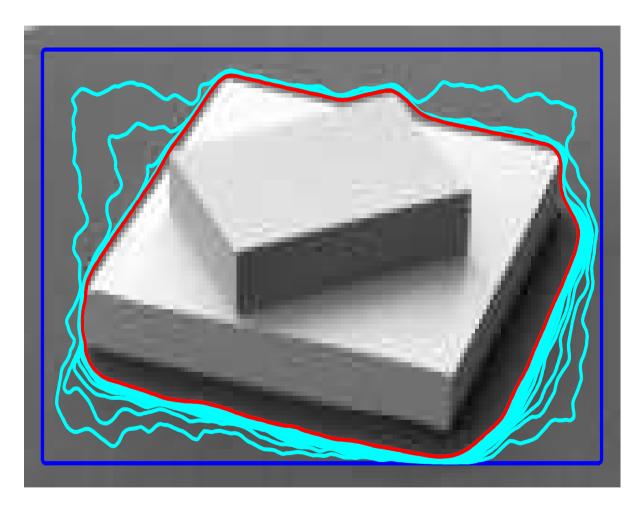
same as before, but with contour rectification







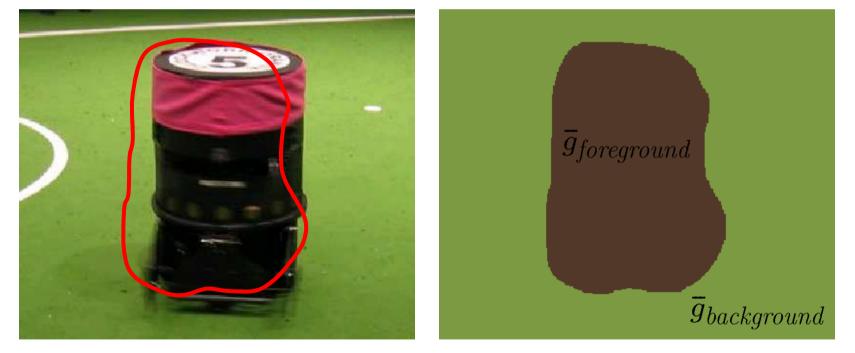
• Example:





- Mumford-Shah based segmentation
  - idea: pixels should be assigned to the segment with the most similar grey values (color values)

 $\overline{g}_{foreground}$  : average grey value (color) of pixels in foreground segment  $\overline{g}_{background}$  : average grey value (color) of pixels in background segment

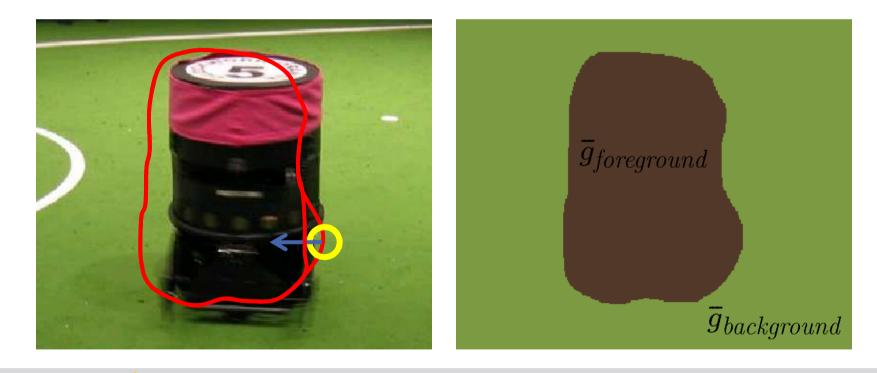




- check for pixels on boundary with grey (color) value I
  - pixel more similar to area outside

$$(g - \bar{g}_{foreground})^2 > (g - \bar{g}_{background})^2$$

 $\rightarrow$  shrink contour

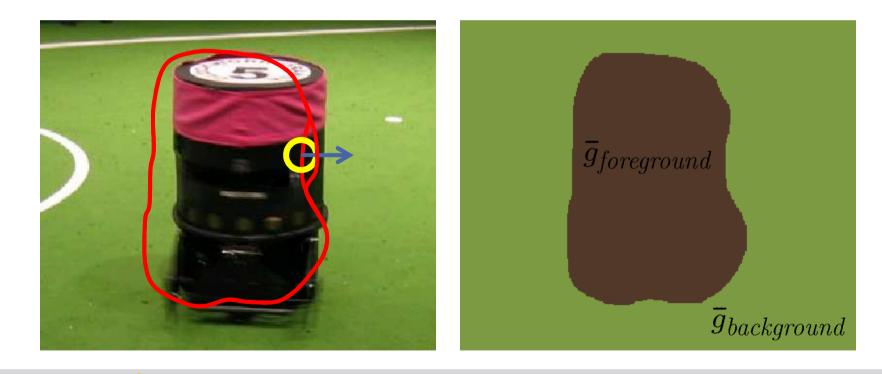




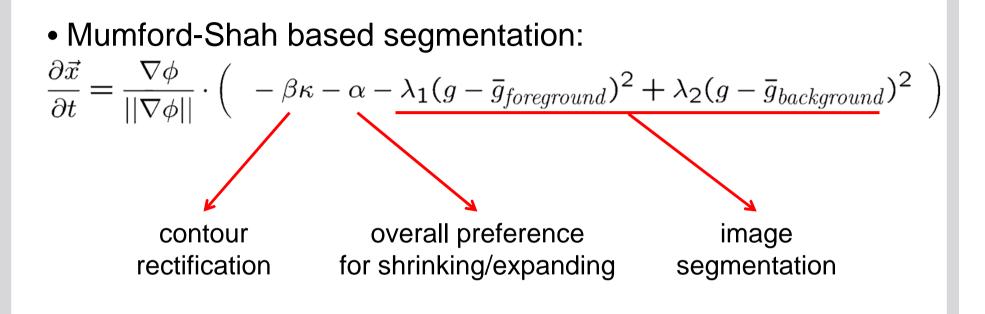
- check for pixels on boundary with grey (color) value I
  - pixel more similar to area inside

$$(g - \bar{g}_{foreground})^2 < (g - \bar{g}_{background})^2$$

 $\rightarrow$  expand contour



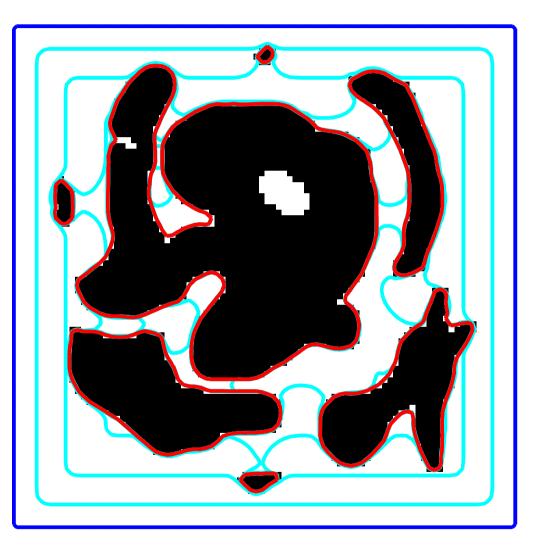




–  $\alpha, \beta, \lambda_1, \lambda_2$  can be used to tune approach



• Example:



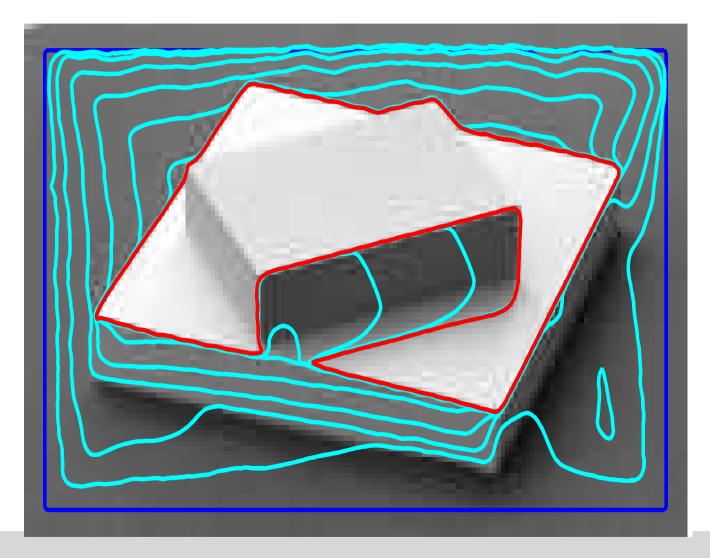


• Example:





• Example:





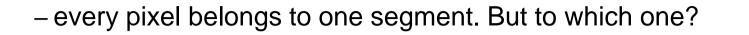


# **RANDOM FIELDS**



## **Random Fields**

l(u, v)



- the segment label of each pixel is seen as a variable
- the feature vector of a pixel is related to its label

feature vector, known

label induces feature, feature allows conclusions about label

• feature vectors of pixels are also seen as variables, however, its value is observed

label is a priori unknown

label at pixel position, i.e. the number of the segment

• the relationship is modeled by potential functions

u, v

$$\phi_f(l(u,v), f(u,v)) \begin{cases} \text{is small} & \text{if } f(u,v) \text{ supports label } l(u,v) \\ \text{is large} & \text{if } f(u,v) \text{ does not support label } l(u,v) \end{cases}$$



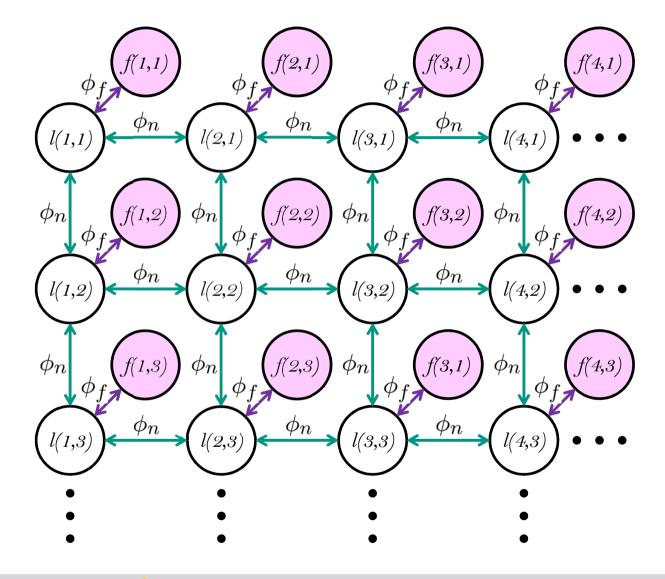
## **Random Fields**

- -labels of neighboring pixels are also related  $l(u, v) \iff l(u + 1, v)$  $l(u, v) \iff l(u, v + 1)$ 
  - the relationship is again modeled by potential functions  $\phi_n(l(u,v), l(u+1,v))$  $\phi_n(l(u,v), l(u,v+1))$

$$\phi_n(l(u,v), l(u+1,v)) \begin{cases} \text{is small} \\ \text{if } l(u,v) \text{ and } l(u+1,v) \text{ are similar} \\ \text{is large} \\ \text{if } l(u,v) \text{ and } l(u+1,v) \text{ are dissimilar} \end{cases}$$



## **Random Fields**





• Goal:

– find labels l(u,v) so that the potential functions are minimized

$$\begin{array}{ll} \begin{array}{ll} \textit{minimize} & \alpha_f \cdot \sum_{u,v} \phi_f(l(u,v), f(u,v)) \\ & + \alpha_n \cdot \sum_{u,v} \phi_n(l(u,v), l(u+1,v)) \\ & + \alpha_n \cdot \sum_{u,v} \phi_n(l(u,v), l(u,v+1)) \end{array}$$

- with weighting factors  $\alpha_f, \alpha_n > 0$
- solution of optimization problem
  - exact  $\rightarrow$  hard (in general, exceptions exist)
  - approximative



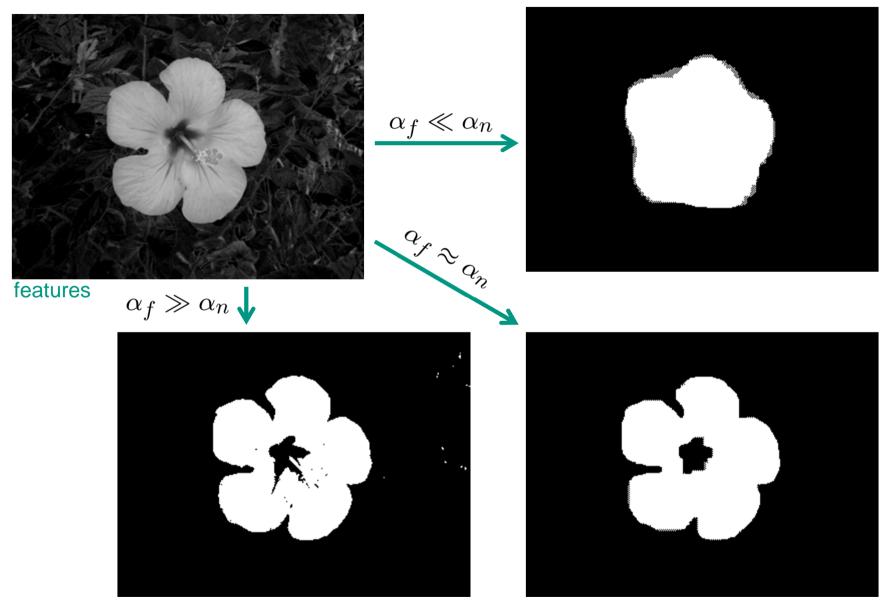
- Example:
  - extract bright foreground object from dark background
    - *l=0* background
    - *l*=1 foreground
    - f gray value  $0 \le f \le 255$

$$\phi_f(l, f) = (l - \frac{1}{255}f)^2$$
  
 $\phi_n(l, l') = (l - l')^2$ 

implements segmentation criteria:

- predefined color criterion
- spatial criterion







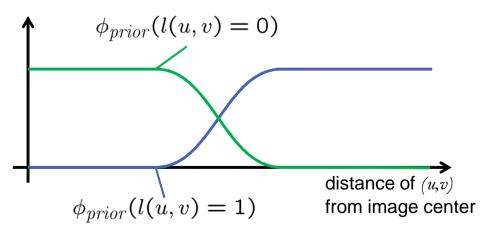
- Advantage of random field modeling:
  - segmentation problem is formulated as optimization problem
  - potential functions allow to model many segmentation criteria, e.g.
    - seed points

keep label function constant for seed points

• general preferences for certain segment labels (a priori)

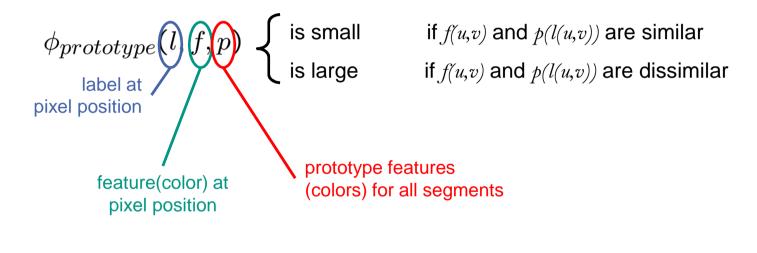
ightarrow add unary potential function  $\phi_{prior}(l)$ 

e.g. to specify that the foreground object is expected to be in the center of the image





- prototype segment color. Pixels should be assigned to segment with most similar prototype feature
  - $\rightarrow$  add prototype variables to random field, one for each segment
  - $\rightarrow$  add potential functions that model similarity of prototype feature and pixel feature f



implements homogeneity criterion



- Example:
  - subdivide foreground and background assuming that
    - foreground object is located in the center of the image
    - · foreground object and background object have distinctive colors
    - uses pixel colors (e.g. in RGB) as features

$$\phi_{prior}(l(u,v)) = \begin{cases} \max\left\{\frac{|2u-width|}{width}, \frac{|2v-height|}{height}\right\} & \text{if } l(u,v) = 1\\ 1 - \max\left\{\frac{|2u-width|}{width}, \frac{|2v-height|}{height}\right\} & \text{if } l(u,v) = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\phi_{prototype}(l,f,p) = ||f-p(l)||^2$$

$$\phi_n(l,l') = (l-l')^2$$



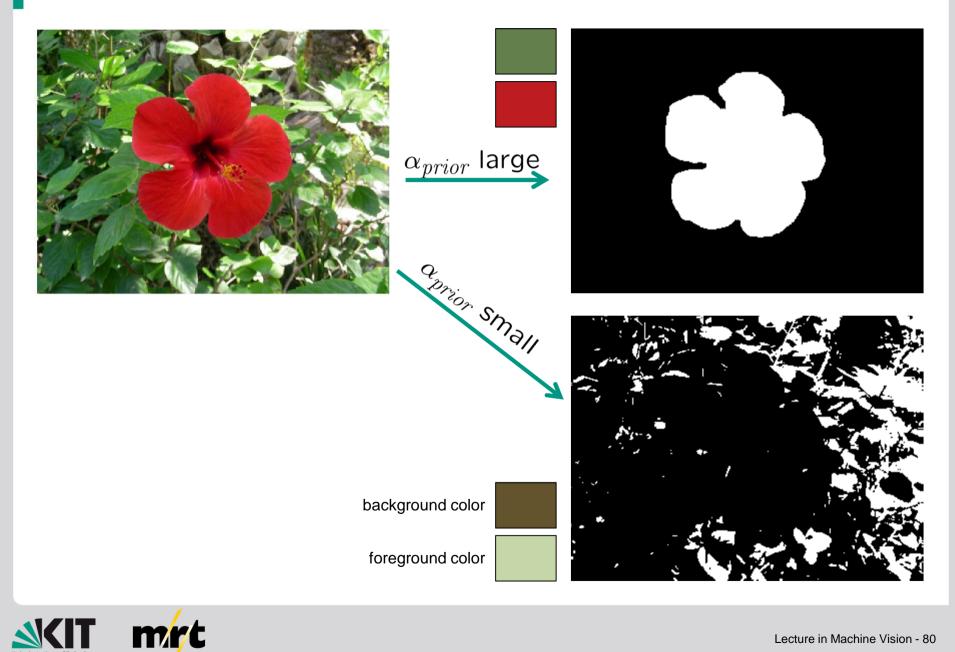
$$\phi_{prior}(l(u,v)) = \begin{cases} \max\left\{\frac{|2u-width|}{width}, \frac{|2v-height|}{height}\right\} & \text{if } l(u,v) = 1\\ 1 - \max\left\{\frac{|2u-width|}{width}, \frac{|2v-height|}{height}\right\} & \text{if } l(u,v) = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\phi_{prototype}(l,f,p) = ||f-p(l)||^2$$

$$\phi_n(l,l') = (l-l')^2$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \begin{array}{l} \mbox{minimize} & \alpha_{prior} \cdot \sum_{u,v} \phi_{prior}(l(u,v)) \\ & + \alpha_f \cdot \sum_{u,v} \phi_{prototype}(l(u,v), f(u,v), p) \\ & + \alpha_n \cdot \sum_{u,v} \phi_n(l(u,v), l(u+1,v)) \\ & + \alpha_n \cdot \sum_{u,v} \phi_n(l(u,v), l(u,v+1)) \end{array} \end{array}$$



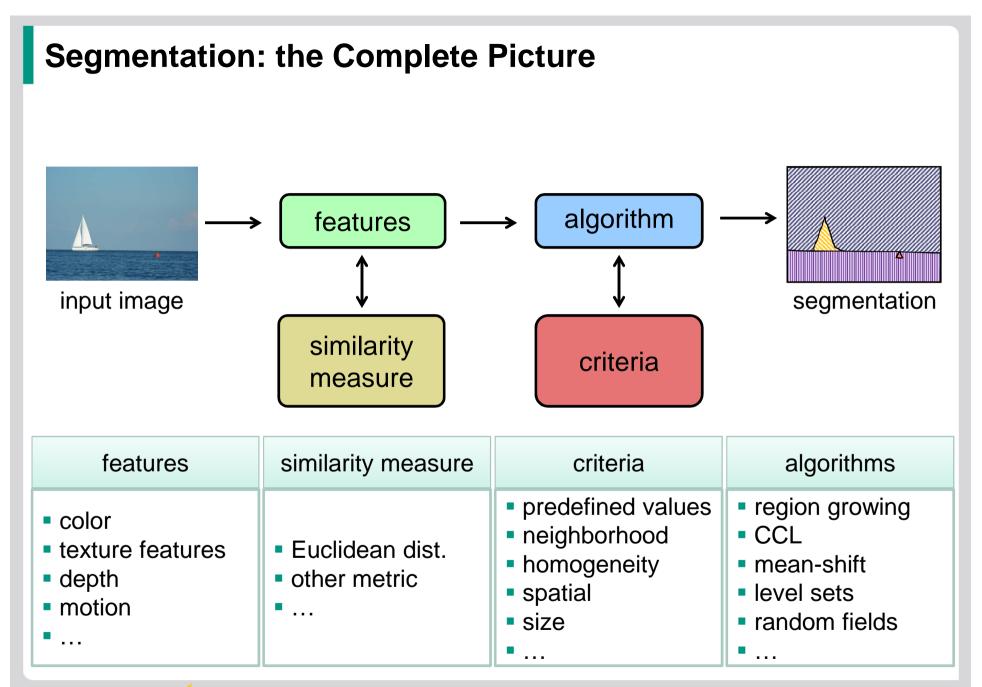


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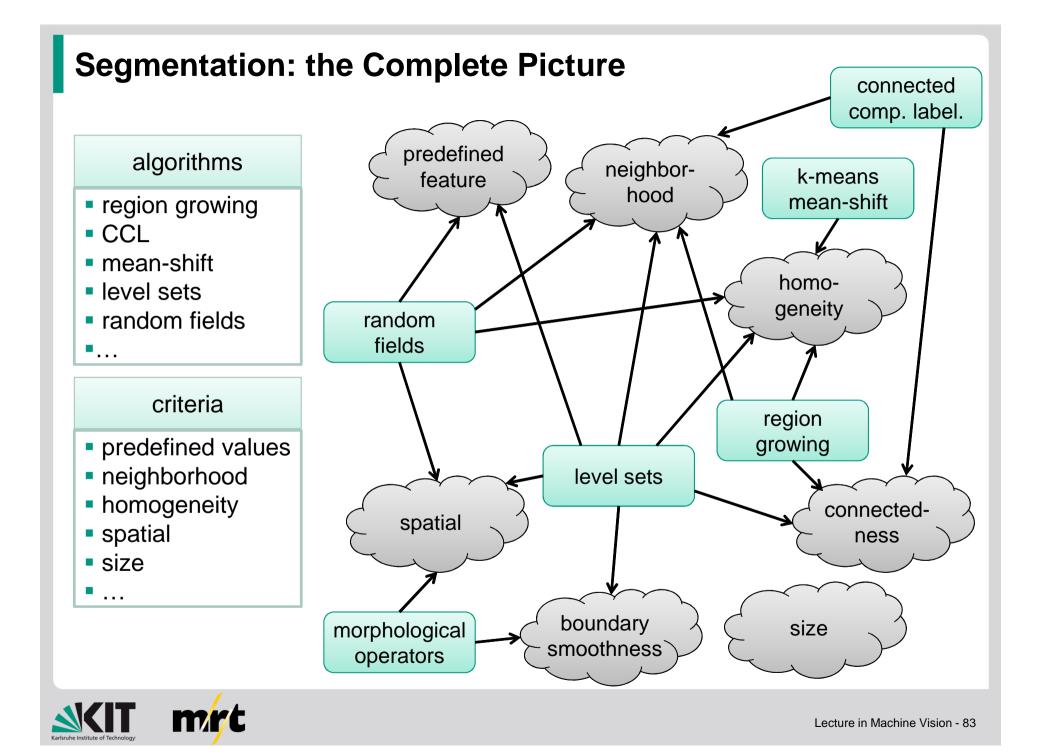
# **SUMMARY: SEGMENTATION**



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#### **Segmentation: the Complete Picture**

features

- color
- texture features
- depth
- motion
- ...
- similarity measure
- Euclidean dist.
- other metric

• . . .

- which features are salient and discriminative?
  - color
  - texture
  - depth
  - motion
  - ...
- which representation is appropriate?
  - color space
  - various texture features
  - histograms
  - ...
- how can we compare feature vectors?
  - similarity measures



