

Image modeling Images and Discrete Geometry

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Topics of the lecture



Segmentation and Structural Pattern Recognition.

- How may we encode and build partitions
 - Basic properties,
 - Non hierarchical encoding,
 - Hierarchical encoding.
- How to relate two partitions
 - Algorithmic methods
 - Optimisation methods.

Discrete Geometry : Plan (1/2)



- **Discrete representation of \mathbb{R}^2**
 - Tessellations
 - Regular tessellations of the plane.
 - Recursive tessellation.
 - Tessellation and lattice of \mathbb{R}^2
 - Topological characterisation of lattices
- Discrete spaces
 - Neighborhood
 - Paths
 - Connected sets
 - Discrete paradoxes
 - Borders of a set in a discrete space
 - Convex set in a discrete space
 - Distances and discrete spaces.





- Kovalevsky's Topology.
 - Finite Topology,
 - Cellular Complex set
 - Theorem: Cellular complex sets and topology
 - Star
 - Paths, connectedness
 - adherence, interior
 - Border

Discrete modeling of \mathbb{R}^2

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- Tessellation methods A tessellation or tiling of the plane is a collection of plane figures that fills the plane with no overlaps and no gaps using isometry.
 - An isometry is a transformation of the space which keeps shape's lengths and angles. Rotations, translations, axial symmetry symmetry are the plane's isometry.





Tesselations et Sensors



■ Map to each sensor its set of closest points.







Triangular grid location

Random locations

Square grid location



Regular tesselation (2)



Only 3 possible solutions in \mathbb{R}^2 :





Triangular tessellation (3)

Square tessellationHexagonal tessellation(4)(6)

Regular tessellation : Demonstration (1)



- s : number of polygons incident to one vertex,
- sides of equal length: $\beta = \frac{2\pi}{n}$
- Sum of the angles of a triangle: $\beta + 2\alpha = \pi$

$$\to \alpha = \pi \left(\frac{n-2}{2n}\right)$$

• Turning around a vertex: $s.2\alpha = 2\pi$

$$\rightarrow s\alpha = \pi \Rightarrow s = \frac{2n}{n-2}$$



 α

 2α

S

Regular Tesselation : Démonstration (2)

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$$\rightarrow s\alpha = \pi \Rightarrow s = \frac{2n}{n-2}$$

For $n \ge 7, s < 3 \Rightarrow$ solutions only for n < 7.

Regular Polygons	Number of sides n	Nb polygons incident to one vertex S
Equilateral Triangle	3	6
Square	4	4
Hexagon	6	3

Recursive tesselations

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A recursive tesselation is a tesselation where each polygon may be decomposed into polygons of a same but with a lower size.



Square recursive Triangular recursive

Tesselations/Lattices

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- Given a tesselation, we build its associated lattice by locating one point in each polygon and by connecting any two points whose associated polygons share a side.







Square tesselationhexagonal tesselationtriangular tesselationSquare latticeTriangular latticeHexagonal lattice

This is a particular case of the notion of **Dual Graph**

Square tesselation and 8-connected lattice

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- Lattice defined for a square tesselation.
- Connect any two vertices of the lattice whose associated squares are incident by a side *or a vertex*.



Remark: The lattice is no more a planar graph.

Discret Spaces



- **Discretization** of the space \mathbb{R}^2
 - Tesselation methods,
 - Regular tessellation of the plane,
 - Recursive tessellation,
 - lattices of \mathbb{R}^2 ,
 - Topological characteristics of lattices.
- The discrete space
 - Neighborhoods,
 - Paths,
 - Connectedness,
 - Discrete paradoxes,
 - Border of a set in a discrete space
 - Convex sets is a discrete space,
 - Distances and discrete spaces.



4 connected lattice

$$V_4(i,j) = \{(i-1,j), (i,j), (i+1,j), (i,j+1)\}$$

$$V_4(i,j) = \{(i',j') \in \mathbb{N}^2 [|i-i'| + |j-j'| = 1\}$$

8 connected lattice

$$V_8(i,j) = \{(i-1,j-1), (i-1,j), (i-1,j+1), (i,j-1), (i,j), (i,j+1), (i+1,j-1), (i+1,j), (i+1,j+1)\}$$

$$V_8(i,j) = \{(i',j') \in \mathbb{N}^2 [max\{|i-i'|, |j-j'|\} = 1\}$$



Triangular Neighborhood



The indexes are relative to the parity of the lines:
If *j* is even:

$$V(i,j) = \{(i-1, j-1), (i, j-1), (i-1, j), (i+1, j), (i-1, j+1), (i, j+1)\}$$

• If j is odd:

 $V(i,j) = \{(i,j-1), (i+1,j-1), (i-1,j), (i+1,j), (i,j+1), (i+1,j+1)\}$



Hexagonal neighborhood



- $\blacksquare V_3$: sides
- $\blacksquare V_9$: Sides (2)
- \blacksquare V_{12} : Sides + vertices



A path is sequence of vertices of a lattice such that each vertex (except the last one) belongs to the neighborhood of the next vertex in the sequence:

 $P = P_1 \dots, P_n, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n-1\} P_i \in V(P_{i+1})$

- In graph theory the above definition corresponds to a *walk*. However, both definitions will coincide in the following since we will only consider *simple paths* which add the following additional constraint: each vertex (except the first and last one) appears only once.
- If the last point is equal to the first one the path is say to be closed.
- The notion of path is relative to the type of lattice and to the notion of connectedness defined on it. We will speak of:
 - 4 or 8 connected paths on a square lattice,
 - 6 connected paths on a triangular lattice,
 - 3,9 and 12 connected paths for an hexagonal lattice.

Examples of paths

Path



Connected sets





Définition :

A set X of the lattice is called x-connected iff for any couple (P, Q) of points of X it exists one x-path within X which joins P and Q

$$\forall (P,Q) \in X^2 \exists P = P_1 \dots, P_n = Q \,|\, \forall i \in \{1,\dots,n\} P_i \in X$$

- The notion of connectedness is thus relative to the lattice and to the connectedness chosen on it. One will speak about 4, 6 or 8 connected sets.
- Within the image Processing/Analysis framework a connected set of pixels

Connected sets





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■ Within the image Processing/Analysis framework a connected set of pixels

Paradoxes of the 4 and 8 connectedness



4 connectedness



8 connectedness



- not connected Connexion of the complementary set
- Either two connected components for and the complementary,
- Either a single connected component for and its complementary.
- One usual convention consists to use one connectedness for the object and the other for the complementary. We then got:
 - Either 2 connected components for the object and one for the complementary,
 - Either one connected component for the object and 2 for the complementary.

border of a discrete space



- Using usual topological defs: $\partial X = \overline{X} \overset{\circ}{X}$
- Pb : we do not really have a topology. We thus say: One point belongs to the border of a set X p-connected iff it haves one neighbor in $\mathcal{C}_E(X)$.
- We do not have $\partial X = \partial C_E(X)$. We thus differentiate two notions: the Internal and the External borders.
 - P belongs to the internal border of X p-connected iff:

$$P \in X$$
 and $\exists P' \in V_q(P) \cap \mathcal{C}_E(X)$

where q is the connectedness of the complementary of X.

 \blacksquare *P* belongs to the external border of *X p*-connected iff:

 $P \in \mathcal{C}_E(X)$ and $\exists P' \in V_p(P) \cap X$

Jordan's Theorem



Any simple closed curve ∂X divide the whole space in two domains: one interior domain W and one external one $\mathcal{C}_E(X)$, each domain being connected.



Discrete Jordan theorem



Property :

- Within a square lattice any 4 connected path (resp. 8 connected path) closed and simple separate the space in two 8-connected (resp. 4 connected) components: the interior and the exterior.
- Within a triangular lattice, any 6 connected closed simple path separate the space in two 6 connected components: the interior and the exterior.

Donc :

Objet	Internal Border	External border
4 connected	4 connected	8 connected
8 connected	8 connected	4 connected
6 connected	6 connected	6 connected

Examples of borders

•

•



Internal Border External Border

4 connected 8 connected

•

•

•

8 connected 4 connected

•

•

6 connected6 connected

Convexity and discrete spaces



• The digitisation may involve a loss of the convexity defined within \mathbb{R}^2 .

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Discrete spaces and distances



- Within R² the distance between two points is the length of the line segment joining these two points.
- Within Z² the distance between two points of Z² is the minimal length of the paths joining the two points.
- Length of the path: Nb edges =Nb points (-1 if the path is open)
- Squared lattice
 - 4 connected lattice: vertical and horizontal edges,
 - 8 connected lattice: vertical and horizontal edges together with 45° edges.
- triangular lattice
 - 6 connected lattice: edges with an angle of 60° .

Distances : Examples



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Unicity of the discrete distance

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The distance is defined without ambiguity BUT the shortest path is usually not unique (Graph property).



Kovalevsky's Topology



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 - Topological characterisation of lattices
- Discrete spaces
- Kovalevsky's Topology
 - Topology,
 - Finite Topology,
 - Cellular Complexes,
 - Theorem : Cellular complexes and topology,
 - Star,
 - Paths, connectedness,



Let X be any set and let \mathcal{T} be a family of subsets of X. Then \mathcal{T} is a topology on X iff:

- 1. Both the empty set and X are elements of \mathcal{T} ,
- 2. Any union of arbitrarily many elements of \mathcal{T} is an element of \mathcal{T} ,
- 3. Any intersection of finitely many elements of \mathcal{T} is an element of \mathcal{T} .

If \mathcal{T} is a topology on X, then :

- the pair (X, \mathcal{T}) is called a topological space, and
- the elements of \mathcal{T} are called the open sets of (X, \mathcal{T}) .

Topology (2/2)

Neighborhood filter:

 $\mathbf{V}(x) \in \mathcal{P}(E)$ is a neighborhood filter of x iff:

1. Any over set of a neighborhood of x is a neighborhood of x.

 $\forall (V, W), V \in \mathcal{V}(x), V \subset W \Rightarrow W \in \mathcal{V}(x)$

2. The intersection of two neighborhood of x is a neighborhood of x

 $\forall (V, W) V \in \mathcal{V}(x), W \in \mathcal{V}(x) \Rightarrow V \cap W \in \mathcal{V}(x)$

- 3. Any neighborhood of x contains $x: \forall V \in \mathcal{V}(x) \Rightarrow x \in V$
- 4. For any $V \in \mathcal{V}(x)$, it exists $U \in \mathcal{V}(x), U \subset V$ such that V is a neighborhood of any point in U.

 $\forall V \in \mathcal{V}(x), \exists U \in \mathcal{V}(x), U \subset V; \forall y \in U, V \in \mathcal{V}(y)$

Both definitions of a topology are compatibles.

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Finite Topology :

- A finite topological space (E, \mathcal{T}) has a finite number of open sets.
- Remark: Within a finite topological space any intersection or union of open sets is finite. Therefore, any intersection or union of open sets defines an open set.

Neighborhood :

The intersection of all open sets containing $e \in E$ is an open set. It's the smallest neighborhood containing e (let us note it V(e))

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Cellular Complexes



A cellular complex C = (F, B, dim) is defined by a set F and:

• A partial order relationship B included in $F \times F$ and called the bordering (or face) relationship.

 $(e_1, e_2) \in B$ reads e_1 is a border (or a face) of e_2 .

• One function \dim from F to N such that: If $(e_1, e_2) \in B$ then $\dim(e_1) < \dim(e_2)$.

Idea: We take into account all the elements of a tessellation.







Image modeling - p. 33/41

Notations (Jean Françon)



- Elements of dimension 2 are called *pixels*
- Elements of dimension 1 are called *lignels*
- Elements of dimension 0 are called *pointels*



Theorem (1)



A topological space (E, \mathcal{T}) is a T_0 space iff:

 $\forall (x,y) \in E^2 \exists U \in \mathcal{T} \mid (x \in U \text{ and } y \notin U) \text{ or } (x \notin U \text{ and } y \in U)$

Any T_0 finite topological space (E, \mathcal{T}) is a cellular complex

- Idea of the proof:
 we consider C = (E, B, dim)
- $(e_1, e_2) \in B$ iff:

$$e_2 \neq e_1, e_2 \in V(e_1)$$
 and $e_1 \notin V(e_2)$

The function dim is defined by:

$$dim(e) = (\max_{e' \in E} |V(e')|) - |V(e)|$$

Theorem (2)

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- for any finite cellular complex C = (E, B, dim), one may define a topology \mathcal{T} compatible with C.
 - Idea of the proof:

$$S \subset E \in \mathcal{T} \Leftrightarrow \forall e \in S, \forall e', (e, e') \in B e' \in S$$

One open set contains all the elements that it borders.

 $\blacksquare - \bullet - is not.$



Let C = (E, B, dim) a cellular complex, the open star of one element $e \in E$ (denoted by St(e, C)) is the set of elements bordered by e.

 $e' \in St(e, C) \Leftrightarrow (e, e') \in B$

• we got St(e, C) = V(e) (smallest neighborhood containing e))

Using a squared tessellation:

$$St(\mathbf{I}, C) = \mathbf{I};$$

$$St(\mathbf{I}, C) = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\bullet St(\bullet, C) = - \bullet -$$

Paths, connectedness



Paths :

A sequence $P = e_1, \ldots, e_n$ within a cellular complex C = (E, B, dim) is called a path iff:

$$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n-1\} \qquad (e_i, e_{i+1}) \in B \text{ or } (e_{i+1}, e_i) \in B \Leftrightarrow e_i \in St(e_{i+1}, C) \text{ or } e_{i+1} \in St(e_i, C)$$

- P will be called closed iff $e_1 = e_n$.
- Connectedness :

One set X of a cellular complex is said to be connected iff any couple pf elements e, e' in X may be connected by a path included in X.



Adherence, Interior

Adherence : The adherence of X is the set of elements $e \in E$ whose star intersect X

$$e \in \overline{X} \Leftrightarrow St(e, C) \cap X \neq \emptyset$$

Interior :

The interior of X is the set of elements whose star is included in X.

$$e \in \overset{\circ}{X} \Leftrightarrow St(e, C) \subset X$$



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Boundary

• *e* is called a border point iff his star intersect simultaneously X and $C_E(X)$.

 $e \in \partial X \Leftrightarrow St(e, C) \cap X \neq \emptyset \text{ and } St(e, C) \cap \mathcal{C}_E(X) \neq \emptyset$

Remark: We have,

$$\partial X = \overline{X} \cap \overline{\mathcal{C}_E(X)} = \overline{X} - \overset{\circ}{X}$$



Boundaries : Example





Definition of regions of a single pixel,

Encoding of the lignels of an $n \times m$ image by an $(n+1) \times (m+1)$ array.