Stochastic geometric models for image analysis

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History

Infancy

- Besag (1986) and Geman and Geman (1984): seminal work on the restoration of pictures degraded by noise;
- `low level' tasks, e.g. de-noise, sharpen, segment, or classify; overview in Mardia and Kanji (1993).

Growing up

- 1990s: shift towards `high level' tasks of describing image content;
- early work includes Molina and Ripley (1989), Ripley and Sutherland (1990), Baddeley and Van Lieshout (1992, 1993), Grenander and Miller (1994).

Maturity

- challenges arising from data explosion;
- intermediate approach building on tessellation models, e.g. Nicholls (1998), Møller and Skare (2001), Kluszczyński *et al.* (2007), Van Lieshout (2013), Kieu *et al.* (2013).

Random fields: Example - Lattice gas

Non-overlapping black and white patches against a grey background.



Realisation of a lattice gas model. Black represents colour label '1', grey '0', and white '2'.





Random fields: Example - Potts

Patches of five different colours, no specific background.



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Realisation of a Potts model with five labels.



Random fields: Definition

Pixel array $S = (s_1, \ldots, s_m)$.

Label set Λ (categorical or related to intensity values).

A random field on S with values in L is a random vector

 $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_m),$

 X_i being the label in Λ assigned to pixel s_i .

The distribution of X is given by the joint pdf

$$\mathbf{P}\{X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_m = x_m\}; \quad x = (x_1, \dots, x_m) \in \Lambda^S.$$



Let \sim be a symmetric, reflexive relation on S.

The random field X is said to be **Markov with respect to** \sim if for all i = 1, ..., m the conditional distribution

 $\mathbf{P}\{X_i = x_i \mid X_j = x_j, j \neq i\} = \mathbf{P}\{X_i = x_i \mid X_j = x_j, s_i \sim s_j, j \neq i\}$

depends only on x_i and the labels at those pixels s_j that share an edge with s_i , provided $\mathbf{P}\{X_j = x_j, j \neq i\} > 0$.

Besag, 1974.

Note: Markov property has considerable computational advantages.



Potts model (Ising, 1924; Potts, 1951)

Set $\Lambda = \{1, \ldots, L\}$, $\beta > 0$, and

$$\mathbf{P}\{X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_m = x_m\} \propto \prod_{s_i \sim s_j, i < j} \exp\left[-\beta \mathbf{1}\{x_i \neq x_j\}\right].$$

Then

$$\mathbf{P}\{X_i = x_i \mid X_j = x_j, j \neq i\} = \frac{\exp\left[-\beta \sum_{s_j \sim s_i} \mathbf{1}\{x_i \neq x_j\}\right]}{\sum_{l \in \Lambda} \exp\left[-\beta \sum_{s_j \sim s_i, j \neq i} \mathbf{1}\{l \neq x_j\}\right]}.$$

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Note:

- $\beta < 0$: positive association;
- $\beta = 0$: independent labelling.



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Image segmentation (analysing dirty pictures)



Model: Given the `true' image $x = (x_1, ..., x_m)$, the observed pixel values $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ are i.i.d. with pdf $g(y_i|x_i)$.

Goal: Reconstruct x from $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_m)$.

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The likelihood reads

$$f(y|x) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} g(y_i|x_i)$$

and hence

$$\hat{x}_i = \operatorname{argmax}\{g(y_i|x_i) : x_i \in \Lambda\}.$$

For Gaussian white noise, \hat{x}_i is the label closest to y_i .



Conclusion: ignoring spatial coherence leads to rough solutions that are sensitive to noise.

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Image segmentation - Hierarchical approach

Idea: Use a Markov prior π_X to regularise the solutions towards smoother, more spatially coherent ones.

Besag, 1986; Geman and Geman, 1984.

The posterior pdf

$$f(x|y) \propto f(y|x)\pi_X(x) = \pi_X(x)\prod_{i=1}^m g(y_i|x_i)$$

leads to the MAP classifier

$$\hat{x} = \operatorname{argmax} \{ f(y|x) \pi_X(x) : x \in \Lambda^S \}$$

= argmax { log $f(y|x) + \log \pi_X(x) : x \in \Lambda^S \}$

Interpretation:

- The term $\log f(y|x)$ ensures goodness of fit to data;
- $\log \pi_X$ for a Potts or lattice gas model favours spatial coherence.

Iterated Conditional Modes (Besag, 1986)

- 1. Start with a reasonable initial guess, e.g. the MLE.
- 2. Scan the pixel grid in an arbitrary prefixed order. At pixel *i*, update its value taking the values of its neighbours into account:

 $\tilde{x}_i = \operatorname{argmax} \{ g(y_i | x_i) \pi_X(x_i | x_j, j \neq i) : x_i \in \Lambda \}.$

3. Repeat step 2 until convergence or for a predetermined number of scans.

Properties:

- ICM converges to a local maximum of the posterior;
- typically in very few cycles;
- for a Markov prior, the calculations are local, hence quick;
- since the prior cannot be expected to reflect the global data appearance, ICM tends to look better than the global optimum.



Results



From left to right: Truth, distortion by white noise ($\sigma = 10$), MLE and MAP classifiers (Potts with $\beta = 1.5$).

- For $\beta = 0$, MAP and MLE agree.
- For $\beta \to \infty$, MAP results in a single colour image, ICM carries out a recursive majority vote (data used to break ties).



In case of unknown parameters, the joint distribution is of the form

forward model(data | process, parameters) \times prior(process | parameters),

optionally complemented by a hyper prior distribution on the model parameters.

This framework is **extremely flexible**. Inference is based on the **posterior distribution** of the process and/or the parameters conditional on the observations, e.g.

- by Monte Carlo methods;
- a point estimate or optimal reconstruction of the process;
- histograms of any marginal of interest.

Banerjee, Carlin and Gelfand, 2015.



Object processes: Example - Penetrable spheres

Particles of different colour do not overlap.





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Object processes: Example - Strauss

Light balls tend to avoid being centred in darker ones.



Realisation of a Strauss density

$$\exp\left[\sum_{i} \left(\log(\beta) + \log(\gamma) \sum_{j < i} \mathbf{1}\{||d_i - d_j|| \le m_j\}\right)\right], \quad \beta > 0, \gamma \in [0, 1].$$

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Object processes: Definition

Bounded, open set $\emptyset \neq D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ with border ∂D .

Polish space Q for object attributes equipped with probability distribution \mathbb{Q} .

Examples:

- simple geometric shapes (Baddeley and Van Lieshout (1992), Van Lieshout (1994, 1995));
- deformable templates (Amit *et al.* (1991), Hansen *et al.* (2002), Hurn (1998), Mardia *et al.* (1997), Pievatolo and Green (1998), Rue and Hurn (1999), Rue and Husby (1998));
- ensembles of simple shapes (Lacoste *et al.* (2005), Ortner *et al.* (2007)).



Realisations $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and $x_i = (d_i, m_i) \in \overline{D} \times Q$, $i = 1, \dots, n$.

The distribution of X is given by its pdf f:

• the probability of n points is

$$\frac{e^{-\ell(D)}}{n!} \int_{\bar{D}\times Q} \cdots \int_{\bar{D}\times Q} f(\{x_1,\ldots,x_n\}) \, d\ell \times \mathbb{Q}(x_1) \cdots d\ell \times \mathbb{Q}(x_n);$$

• conditionally on having n points, they follow pdf (w.r.t. $(\ell \times \mathbb{Q})^n$)

$$\frac{f(\{x_1,\ldots,x_n\})}{\int_{\bar{D}\times Q}\cdots\int_{\bar{D}\times Q}f(\{z_1,\ldots,z_n\})\,d\ell\times\mathbb{Q}(z_1)\cdots d\ell\times\mathbb{Q}(z_n)},$$

writing ℓ for Lebesgue measure.

Let \sim be a symmetric, reflexive relation on $\bar{D} \times Q$.

The object process X is said to be **Markov with respect to** \sim if

- f is hereditary: $f(\mathbf{x}) > 0$ implies $f(\mathbf{y}) > 0$ for all $\mathbf{y} \subseteq \mathbf{x}$;
- for all $u \in (\bar{D} \times Q) \setminus \mathbf{x}$, the conditional intensity

$$\lambda(u \mid \mathbf{x}) := \frac{f(\mathbf{x} \cup \{u\})}{f(\mathbf{x})},$$

depends only on u and $\{x_i \in \mathbf{x} \setminus \{u\} : u \sim x_i\}$, provided $f(\mathbf{x}) > 0$.

Ripley and Kelly, 1977.

Note: Markov property has considerable computational advantages.



Penetrable spheres (Widom and Rowlinson, 1970)

Set
$$Q = \{1, 2\}$$
, $\mathbb{Q}(1) = \mathbb{Q}(2) = 1/2$, $\beta > 0$, and consider
 $f(\mathbf{x}_1 \cup \mathbf{x}_2) \propto (2\beta)^{n(\mathbf{x}_1) + n(\mathbf{x}_2)} \mathbf{1}\{d(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) > R\}.$

Then, provided $f(\mathbf{x}_1 \cup \mathbf{x}_2) > 0$, e.g.

$$\lambda((u,1)|\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2) = 2\beta \,\mathbf{1}\{d((u,1),\mathbf{x}_2) > R\}.$$

Notes:

- Assign points of Poisson(2β)-process i.i.d. to each type wp 1/2, conditionally on respecting **hard core** distance R;
- The marginal distributions of X_i , i = 1, 2, are **area-interaction** processes (Baddeley and Van Lieshout (1995), Häggström *et al.* (1999)).



Object recognition



Forward model:

- object configuration x determines `true' image $\theta_i^{(x)}$, $s_i \in S$;
- given x, the observed pixel values $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ are i.i.d. with pdf $g(y_i | \theta_i^{(x)})$.

Goal: Reconstruct x from
$$y = (y_1, \ldots, y_m)$$
.

Object recognition - Hierarchical approach

Idea: Use a Markov overlapping object prior π_X to discourage multiple response, e.g. the **Strauss** pdf

 $\pi_X(x) \propto \beta^{n(x)} \gamma^{r(x)}$

for $\beta > 0$, $\gamma \in [0, 1]$, $n(\cdot)$ cardinality, $r(\cdot)$ number of overlapping pairs. Molina and Ripley, 1989; Baddeley and Van Lieshout, 1992.

The posterior pdf

$$f(x|y) \propto f(y|x)\pi_X(x) = \pi_X(x)\prod_{i=1}^m g(y_i|\theta_i^{(x)})$$

leads to the MAP classifier

 $\hat{x} = \arg\max\{\log f(y|x) + \log \pi_X(x)\}.$



Steepest ascent algorithm

- 1. Start with a reasonable initial guess $x^{(0)}$, e.g. the MLE.
- 2. Given $x^{(k-1)}$, determine

$$a = \max_{u \in \bar{D} \times Q} \left\{ \log \frac{f(y|x^{(k-1)} \cup \{u\}) \pi_X(x^{(k-1)} \cup \{u\})}{f(y|x^{(k-1)}) \pi_X(x^{(k-1)})} \right\}$$

and

$$b = \max_{x_i \in x^{(k-1)}} \left\{ \log \frac{f(y|x^{(k-1)} \setminus \{x_i\}) \pi_X(x^{(k-1)} \setminus \{x_i\})}{f(y|x^{(k-1)}) \pi_X(x^{(k-1)})} \right\}.$$

- 3. If $\max\{a, b\} \ge w$, implement the best change to get $x^{(k)}$.
- 4. Repeat step 2 until convergence.

Baddeley and Van Lieshout, 1992.



Results: counting pellets



Model: discs (radius 4), blurred by 3×3 linear filter (weights 4, 2, 1) and distorted by white noise ($\sigma^2 = 83.1$).

From left to right: Data, MLE and MAP classifiers (w = 0, Strauss prior with $\log \beta = \log \gamma = -1000$).





Remarks and extensions

- Markov object processes cannot model depth;
- nor non-symmetric neighbour relations.

In such cases, use **finite sequential spatial processes** (Van Lieshout 2006a, 2006b) with realisations

$$\vec{\mathbf{x}} = (x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad x_i \in \bar{D} \times Q$$

and drop the symmetry requirement on \sim . Useful in motion tracking.





Intermediate level modelling

Idea: Regard an image scene as a (coloured) tessellation. Thus,

- global aspects of the image are captured;
- no need to model all objects in the image.



Left: STIT (Nagel and Weiss, 2003); Right: Voronoi and Delaunay.



Poisson line tessellation: Definition



A Poisson point process has intensity $\lambda > 0$ w.r.t. $dpd\theta$. Equivalently, the heads of the perpendiculars form a Poisson point process in \mathbb{R}^2 with intensity function

$$\lambda/||(x,y)||.$$



Poisson line tessellation - Properties

The Poisson line process is

- well-defined: Any bounded set *B* is hit by finitely many lines;
- isotropic and consistent.
- independent: Conditionally on n lines hitting B, they are i.i.d.

Line transects: The intersection with a fixed line ℓ

- is a Poisson point process on l with rate 2λ ,
- the intersection angles are i.i.d. with pdf

 $\sin \theta/2, \quad \theta \in [0,\pi).$

George, 1987.

Polygonal Markov field: Definition

Note: Many line tessellations yield **convex** polygonal cells.

Idea: To obtain other shapes, draw polygonal contours γ on a Poisson line process **using each line only once** (hence no X- or T-shapes) and give weight proportional to

$$\exp\left[-2 \operatorname{length}(\gamma)\right],$$
 Arak, 1982

Polygonal Markov field: Properties

The Arak model \mathcal{A}_D on $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is

• isotropic;

- consistent: for $D' \subseteq D$, $\mathcal{A}_{\Phi_D} \cap D' =^d \mathcal{A}_{\Phi_{D'}}$;
- admits two equally likely colourings such that no adjacent regions share the same colour;
- there is a dynamic representation that allows for easy simulation.

Line transects: The intersection with a fixed line ℓ is a Poisson point process on l with rate 2λ and

- the two feasible colourings are equally likely,
- the intersection angles are i.i.d. with pdf $\sin \theta/2$, $\theta \in [0, \pi)$.

Markov: the conditional behaviour in an open bounded domain depends on the exterior configuration only through arbitrarily close neighbourhoods of the boundary.

Arak and Surgailis, 1989.



Foreground/background segmentation

Hierarchical approach: regularise towards short lengths. Then the MAP classifier is

$$\hat{\gamma} = \operatorname{argmax} \{-\beta \operatorname{length}(\gamma) - \sum_{i=1}^{m} |y_i - \theta(\gamma)_i|\}$$

where $\theta(\gamma)$ is the segmentation image defined by γ .



Kluszczyński, Van Lieshout and Schreiber, 2007.



Remarks and extensions

- More than two colours;
- Draw polygonal contours on **fixed** finite collection of lines \mathcal{T} (Schreiber and Van Lieshout, 2010; Van Lieshout, 2013);

Note: The discrete Arak mosaic is dual to a Markov random field.



Realisations with three colours. Left: no V-junctions; Right: no X-junctions.



Network extraction



Goal: Reconstruct the network of tracks that run between adjacent fields.



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Network extraction - Hierarchical approach

Reference model: Arak mosaic with four colours.

Regularised goodness of fit:

$$\beta \sum_{e \in E(\gamma)} \left[f(e) - c(e) \right],$$

with $\beta > 0$, and

• f(e): integrated absolute gradient flux along edge e:

$$f(e) = \int_{e} |\nabla(\vec{\mathbf{y}})_{1}(p)n_{1}(p) + \nabla(\vec{\mathbf{y}})_{2}(p)n_{2}(p)|dp$$

where (n_1, n_2) is the unit normal to e;

 c(e): twice the number of segments along the edge to discourage spurious edges.

Van Lieshout, 2013.



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Results



Left: extracted network; Right: gradient image. \mathcal{T} : lines of big gradient.

