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STATISTICAL GEOMETRICAL FEATURES FOR TEXTURE CLASSIFICATION

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Abstract—This paper proposes a novel set of 16 features based on the statistics of geometrical attributes of connected regions in a sequence of binary images obtained from a texture image. Systematic comparison using *all* the Brodatz textures shows that the new set achieves a higher correct classification rate than the well-known Statistical Gray Level Dependence Matrix method, the recently proposed Statistical Feature Matrix, and Liu's features. The deterioration in performance with the increase in the number of textures in the set is less with the new SGF features than with the other methods, indicating that SGF is capable of handling a larger texture population. The new method's performance under additive noise is also shown to be the best of the four.

Texture analysis
Additive noise

Feature extraction

Statistical features

Geometrical features

1. INTRODUCTION

Texture plays an important role in image analysis and understanding. Its potential applications range from remote sensing, quality control, to medical diagnosis etc. As a front end in a typical classification system, texture feature extraction is of key significance to the overall system performance. Many papers have been published in this area, proposing a number of various approaches.

Structural approaches^(1–3) are based on the theory of formal languages: a texture image is regarded as generated from a set of texture primitives using a set of placement rules. These approaches work well on “deterministic” textures but most natural textures, unfortunately, are not of this type.

From a statistical point of view, texture images are complicated pictorial patterns, on which, sets of statistics can be obtained to characterize these patterns. The most popularly used one is the Spatial Grey Level Dependence Matrix (SGLDM) method,^(4,5) which constructs matrices by counting the number of occurrences of pixel pairs of given gray levels at a given displacement. Statistics like contrast, energy, entropy and so forth are then applied to the matrices to obtain texture features. These statistics are largely heuristic, although Julesz's conjecture⁽⁶⁾ about the human eyes' inability to discriminate between textures differing only in third or higher order statistics is an indication of the appropriateness of the method. Other schemes include the Statistical Feature Matrix⁽⁷⁾ and the Texture Spectrum.^(8,9)

A two-dimensional power spectrum of a texture image often reveals the periodicity and directionality

of the texture. For example, a coarse texture tends to generate low frequency components in its spectrum while a fine texture will have high frequency components. Stripes in one direction cause the power spectrum to concentrate near the line through the origin and perpendicular to the direction. Fourier transform based methods^(10,11) usually perform well on textures showing strong periodicity, their performance significantly deteriorates, though, when the periodicity weakens.

Stochastic models such as two-dimensional ARMA, Markov random fields etc. can also be used for texture feature extraction via parameter estimation.^(12–15) These approaches consider textures as realizations of a random process. Structural and geometrical features appearing in textures are largely ignored. Other difficulties such as that in choosing an appropriate order for a model have also been reported.

This paper proposes a novel set of sixteen texture features based on the statistics of geometrical properties of connected regions in a sequence of binary images obtained from a texture image. The first step of the approach is to decompose a texture image into a stack of binary images. This decomposition has been proven to have the advantage of causing no information loss, and resulting in binary images that are easier to deal with geometrically. For each binary image, geometrical attributes such as the number of connected regions and their irregularity are statistically considered. Sixteen such statistical geometrical features are proposed in this paper.

2. THE STATISTICAL GEOMETRICAL FEATURES

An $n_x \times n_y$ digital image with n_l grey levels can be modelled by a 2D function $f(x, y)$, where $(x, y) \in$

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$\{0, 1, \dots, n_x - 1\} \times \{0, 1, \dots, n_y - 1\}$, and $f(x, y) \in \{0, 1, \dots, n_l - 1\}$. $f(x, y)$ is termed the intensity of the pixel at (x, y) .

When an image $f(x, y)$ is thresholded with a threshold value α , $\alpha \in \{1, \dots, n_l - 1\}$, a corresponding binary image is obtained, that is

$$f_b(x, y; \alpha) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(x, y) \geq \alpha \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where $f_b(x, y; \alpha)$ denotes the binary image obtained with threshold α .

For a given original image, there are $n_l - 1$ potentially different binary images, i.e. $f_b(x, y; 1), f_b(x, y; 2), \dots, f_b(x, y; n_l - 1)$. This set of binary images shall be termed a binary image stack. For images of a given size and of a given number of grey levels, the above defined mapping (of the space of images into the space of binary image stacks) is bijective (one-to-one and onto), which guarantees that no loss of information is entailed by this transform. This is true because

$$f(x, y) = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{n_l-1} f_b(x, y; \alpha)$$

$$\forall (x, y) \in \{0, 1, \dots, n_x - 1\} \times \{0, 1, \dots, n_y - 1\}. \quad (2)$$

For each binary image, all 1-valued pixels are grouped into a set of connected pixel groups termed connected regions. The same is done to all 0-valued pixels. (Appendix A presents formal definition and an algorithm.) Let the number of connected regions of 1-valued pixels in the binary image $f_b(x, y; \alpha)$ be denoted by $NOC_1(\alpha)$, and that of 0-valued pixels in the same binary image by $NOC_0(\alpha)$. Both $NOC_1(\alpha)$ and $NOC_0(\alpha)$ are functions of α , $\alpha \in \{1, \dots, n_l - 1\}$.

To each of the connected regions (of either 1-valued pixels or 0-valued pixels), a measure of irregularity (un-compactness) is applied, which is defined to be

$$irregularity = \frac{1 + \sqrt{\pi \cdot \max_{i \in I} \sqrt{(x_i - \bar{x})^2 + (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}}{\sqrt{|I|}} - 1, \quad (3)$$

where

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i \in I} x_i}{|I|}, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{\sum_{i \in I} y_i}{|I|}, \quad (4)$$

I is the set of indices to all pixels in the connected region concerned, $|I|$ denotes the cardinality of the set I (the number of elements in I). (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) Can be thought of as the centre of mass of the connected region under the assumption that all the pixels in the region are of equal weight.

Alternatively, the usual measure of compactness (circularity) can be used, which is defined as

$$compactness = \frac{4\sqrt{|I|}}{perimeter}, \quad (5)$$

where

$$perimeter = \sum_{i \in I} [f_b(x_i - 1, y_i) \oplus f_b(x_i, y_i) + f_b(x_i + 1, y_i) \oplus f_b(x_i, y_i) + f_b(x_i, y_i - 1) \oplus f_b(x_i, y_i) + f_b(x_i, y_i + 1) \oplus f_b(x_i, y_i)], \quad (6)$$

\oplus denotes the logic XOR operator, that is

$$x \oplus y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \neq y \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

(Appendix B discusses the properties of the irregularity measure and the compactness measure in detail.)

As stated, a digital image corresponds to $n_l - 1$ binary images, each of which, in turn, comprises a few connected regions (of 1-valued pixels and of 0-valued pixels). Let the irregularity of the i th connected region of 1-valued pixels (0-valued pixels, respectively) of the binary image $f_b(x, y; \alpha)$ be denoted by $IRGL_1(i, \alpha)$ [$IRGL_0(i, \alpha)$, respectively]. The average (weighted by size) of irregularity of the regions of 1-valued pixels in the binary image $f_b(x, y; \alpha)$ is defined to be

$$\overline{IRGL_1}(\alpha) = \frac{\sum_{i \in I} [NOP_1(i, \alpha) \cdot IRGL_1(i, \alpha)]}{\sum_{i \in I} NOP_1(i, \alpha)}, \quad (8)$$

where $NOP_1(i, \alpha)$ is the number of pixels in the i th connected region of 1-valued pixels of the binary image $f_b(x, y; \alpha)$. $\overline{IRGL_0}(\alpha)$ is similarly defined.

By now, four functions of α , i.e., $NOC_1(\alpha)$, $NOC_0(\alpha)$, $\overline{IRGL_1}(\alpha)$, $\overline{IRGL_0}(\alpha)$, have been obtained, each of which, is further characterized using the following four statistics

$$max\ value = \max_{1 \leq \alpha \leq n_l - 1} g(\alpha), \quad (9)$$

$$average\ value = \frac{1}{n_l - 1} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{n_l-1} g(\alpha), \quad (10)$$

$$sample\ mean = \frac{1}{\sum_{\alpha=1}^{n_l-1} g(\alpha)} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{n_l-1} \alpha \cdot g(\alpha) \quad (11)$$

$$sample\ S.D. = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\sum_{\alpha=1}^{n_l-1} g(\alpha)} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{n_l-1} (\alpha - sample\ mean)^2 \cdot g(\alpha)} \quad (12)$$

where $g(\alpha)$ is one of the four functions: $NOC_1(\alpha)$, $NOC_0(\alpha)$, $\overline{IRGL_1}(\alpha)$, $\overline{IRGL_0}(\alpha)$.

The same procedures apply if the alternative compactness measure is to be used. In all, there are 16 feature measures for a texture image, four obtained from $NOC_1(\alpha)$, four from $NOC_0(\alpha)$, four from $\overline{IRGL_1}(\alpha)$, and another four from $\overline{IRGL_0}(\alpha)$.

3. EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

3.1. The database

The set of all 112 texture pictures in the Brodatz's photographic atlas of textures was organized into three groups. The first group comprises four sets with each having 28 pictures, that is, the first set includes pictures D1 through D28, the second set includes pictures D29

through D56, and so on. The second group consists of two sets, the first set contains pictures D1 through D56, the second set contains pictures D57 through D112. The third group is made up of the whole set, namely, pictures D1 through D112. The database was arranged to ensure a systematic comparison of algorithms.

Each texture picture in the atlas was scanned by an HP flat bed scanner to produce a $256 \times 256 \times 8$ digital image, from which, sixteen $64 \times 64 \times 8$ sub-images were obtained using perfectly aligned 64×64 windows. Nine of them were then randomly chosen as samples. One sub-image for each texture is shown in Fig. C1 and C2 in appendix C.

3.2. Three other techniques for comparison

Three other methods along with the Statistical Geometrical Features (SGF) proposed in this paper were tested on the same aforementioned database under the same conditions for comparison.

(1) The Spatial Grey Level Dependence Matrix (SGLDM) approach (4) is popularly used for extracting texture features. Five commonly used features as suggested in (5): energy, entropy, correlation, local homogeneity and inertia were computed in our experiments.

(2) Liu's features (11) are one of the many methods based on the Fourier Transform. Eight optimal features (as proposed by the authors) $f_1, f_2, f_5, f_{17}, f_{20}, f_{21}, f_{25}, f_{26}$ were used.

(3) The recently proposed Statistical Feature Matrix (SFM) method (7) was claimed to have superior performance over SGLDM and Liu's features and therefore was considered in our experiments. The matrices M_{con} of size 4×4 and 8×8 were used.

There are 255 binary images obtainable from an 8-bit grey level digital image. To reduce computational costs, 63 binary images (evenly spaced thresholds, i.e. $\alpha = 4, 8, 12, \dots, 252$) were used in the experiments.

3.3. Feature normalization

All the features were standardized (normalized) by their sample means and S.D.'s which amounts to saying that every component was normalized using the following equation

$$f'_i = \frac{f_i - \mu}{\sigma}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad (13)$$

where

$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i, \quad (14)$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f_i - \mu)^2}, \quad (15)$$

n is the number of samples.

The k -nearest neighbour rule using the Euclidean distance and the "leave one out" estimate⁽¹⁶⁾ were then adopted for feature evaluation ($k = 3$). The k -nearest neighbour rule is popularly used in cases where the underlying probability distribution is unknown, and the "leave one out" estimate is unbiased and generally desirable when the number of available samples for each class is relatively small.

3.4. Classification results and discussions

On the first group of the four sets D1–D28, D29–D56, D57–D84 and D85–D112, it is seen from Table 1 that SGF's average correct classification rate is 92.1%, which is substantially higher than that of the other three techniques. A further look at the contingency tables (confusion matrices) as shown in Tables 2–5 gives more detailed information:

On the first set D1–D28, classification with SGF is accurate with the exception of misclassification on some rock/stone textures (D2, D5, D7, D23, D27 and D28) and tree bark textures (D12, D13). This is understandable because these rock/stone/tree bark images are non-stationary and its texture properties vary considerably with the location of the window; see Figure C1 in appendix. SFM's correct classification rate is a little higher than that of SGF on this set but it misclassifies nine textures into 12 wrong classes as against SGF's misclassifying eight textures into nine wrong classes. SGLDM's performance is poorer than the previous two. Liu's features can only correctly classify D1, D4, D8, D11 and D21.

On the second set D29–D56, SGF correctly classifies the textures with the exception of some misclassification between two similar pebbles D30 and D31 one on D50, and some misclassification among D43, D44 and D45 which is also understandable since D43, D44 and D45 contain patterns much larger than the window hence information obtainable within the window is inadequate. SFM's performance is considerably worse. It misclassifies several textures that are considerably

Table 1. Correct classification rates of various algorithms on the first group (four sets of 28 texture pictures)

	D1–D28	D29–D56	D57–D84	D85–D112	Average
SGF	90.8	92.6	93.5	91.5	92.1
SFM (4×4)	93.5	78.3	83.7	72.5	82.0
SFM (8×8)	93.1	80.8	81.7	70.1	81.4
SGLDM	88.4	83.9	76.6	79.2	82.0
Liu's features	62.3	57.4	38.8	42.4	50.2

SGF: SGF with the irregularity measure.

Figure 1 displays four confusion matrices for different feature sets: SGF, SFM, SGLDM, and Liu's features. Each matrix shows the relationship between true classes (columns) and classified classes (rows). The rows are labeled 'classified as' and the columns are labeled 'true class'. The matrices are arranged in a 2x2 grid.

SGF (Top Left): The confusion matrix for SGF shows high classification accuracy for most classes, with some misclassifications between D30 and D31, D32 and D33, and D34 and D35. The diagonal elements are mostly 9, indicating high accuracy.

SFM (Top Right): The confusion matrix for SFM shows high classification accuracy for most classes, with some misclassifications between D30 and D31, D32 and D33, and D34 and D35. The diagonal elements are mostly 9, indicating high accuracy.

SGLDM (Bottom Left): The confusion matrix for SGLDM shows high classification accuracy for most classes, with some misclassifications between D30 and D31, D32 and D33, and D34 and D35. The diagonal elements are mostly 9, indicating high accuracy.

Liu's features (Bottom Right): The confusion matrix for Liu's features shows high classification accuracy for most classes, with some misclassifications between D30 and D31, D32 and D33, and D34 and D35. The diagonal elements are mostly 9, indicating high accuracy.

substantially better than the other techniques on the data sets.

3.5. Classification under additive noise

Classification under additive noise was also considered. Zero mean, uncorrelated, uniformly distributed noise was added to the testing images. From the results as shown in Tables 8–10, one naturally sees that the performance of all the methods deteriorates as the signal to noise ratio (SNR) decreases. On the first group of four sets of 28 textures, SGF’s performance under 30 dB SNR is substantially better than the others; under 20 dB and 10 dB SNRs, SFM 8×8 ’s performance is comparable to that of SGF’s whilst the others are considerably worse, showing that under severe noise, SFM 8×8 may perform as well as SGF. The same is true for the second and third group, illustrating that SGF’s performance under additive

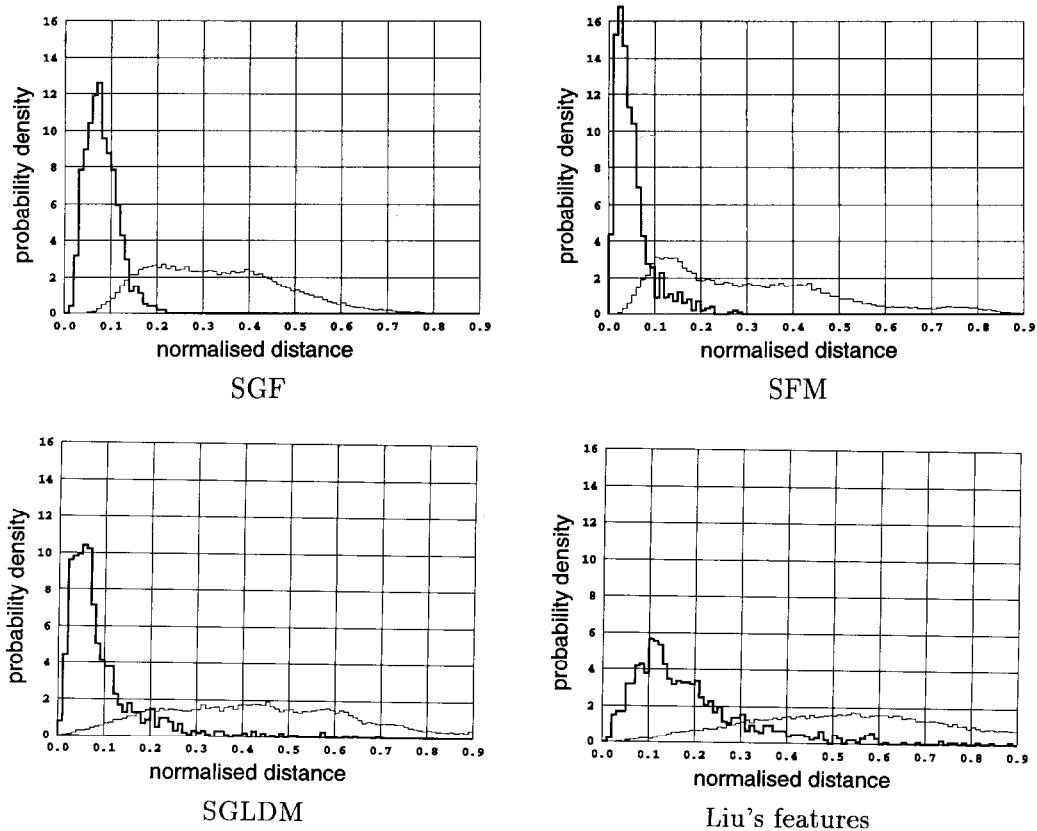


Fig. 1. Within-class (bold lines) and inter-class (fine lines) distance distributions on the first set D1–D28.
SGF: SGF with the irregularity measure. SFM: SFM M_{con} of size 4×4 .

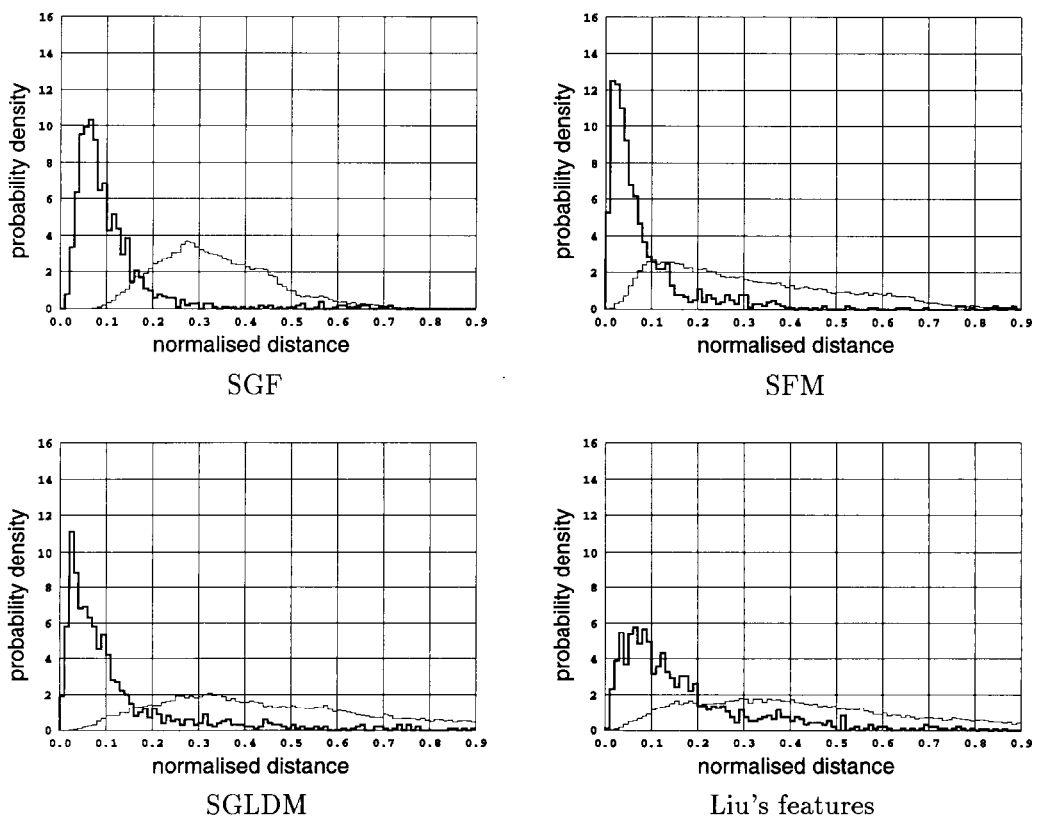


Fig. 2. Within-class (bold lines) and inter-class (fine lines) distance distributions on the second set D29–D56.
SGF: SGF with the irregularity measure. SFM: SFM M_{con} of size 4×4 .

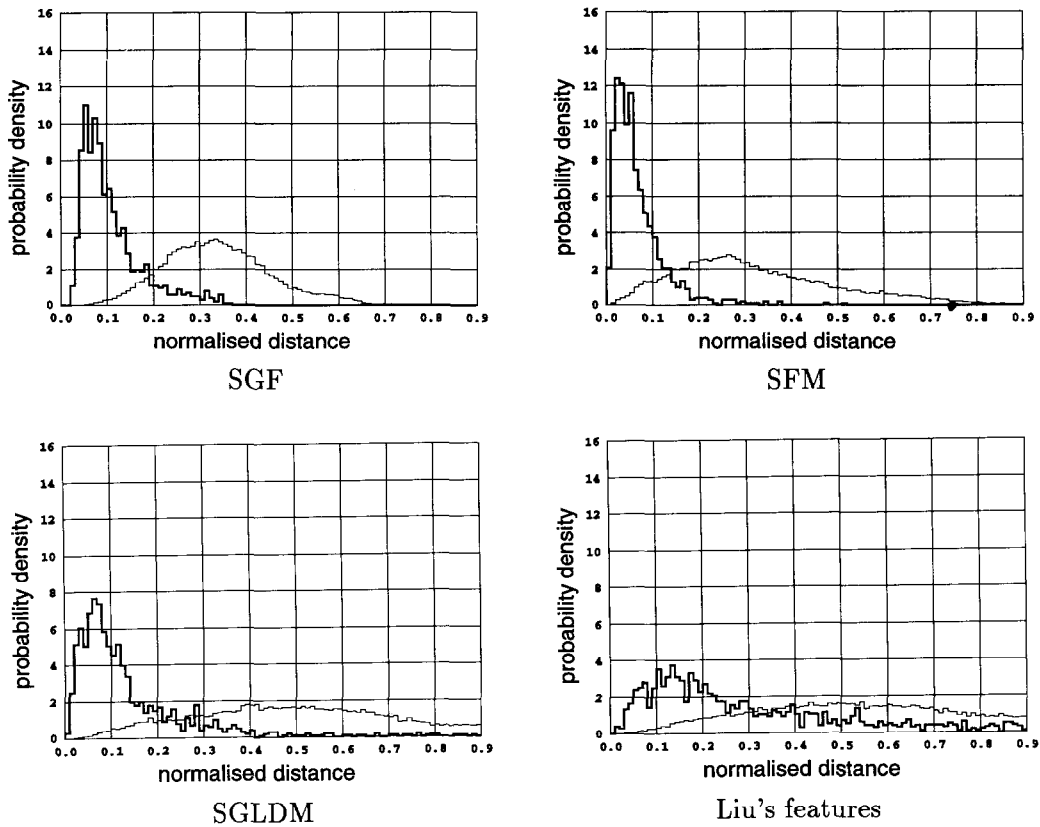


Fig. 3. Within-class (bold lines) and inter-class (fine lines) distance distributions on the third set D57-D84. SGF: SGF with the irregularity measure. SFM: SFM M_{con} of size 4×4 .

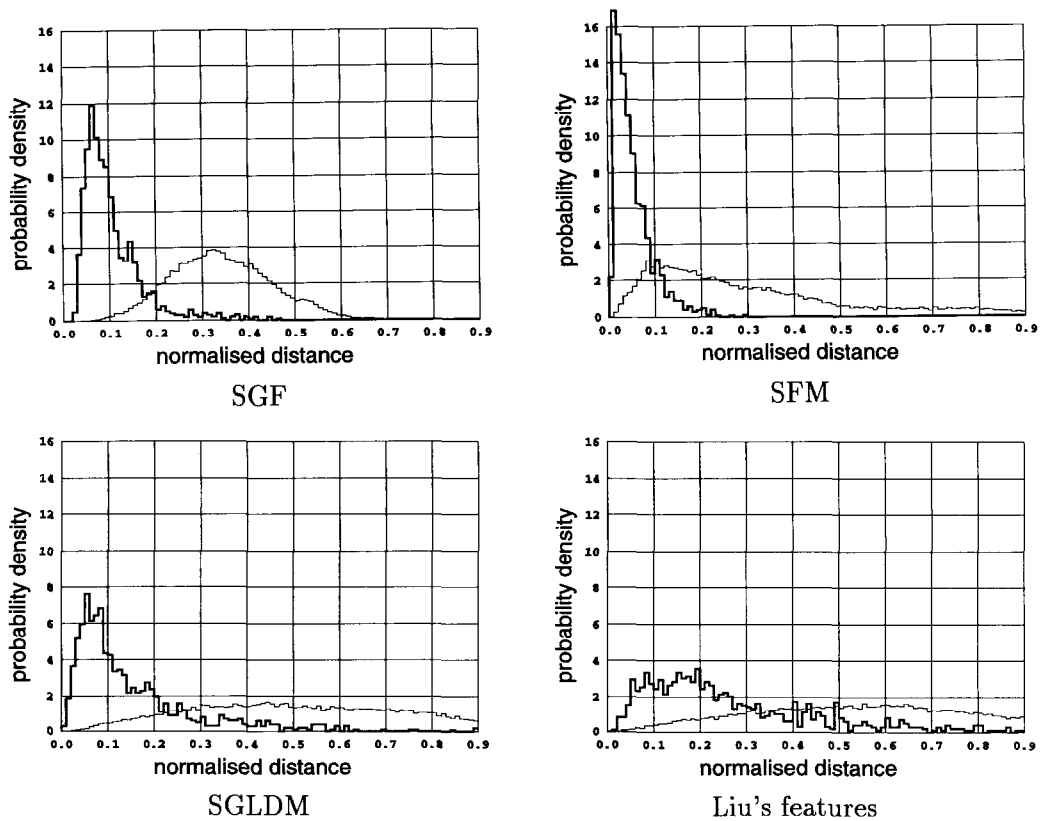


Fig. 4. Within-class (bold lines) and inter-class (fine lines) distance distributions on the fourth set D85-D112. SGF: SGF with the irregularity measure. SFM: SFM M_{con} of size 4×4 .

Table 7. Correct classification rates of various algorithms on the third group (one set of 112 texture pictures)

	D1–D112
SGF	85.6
SFM (4×4)	72.8
SFM (8×8)	72.4
SGLDM	64.6
Liu's features	32.7

SGF: SGF with the irregularity measure.

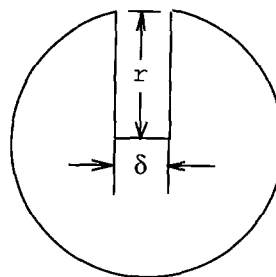


Fig. 5. A disk with a crack.

Table 8. Correct classification rates of various algorithms under additive noise on the first group (four sets of 28 texture pictures)

		D1–D28	D29–D56	D57–D84	D85–D112	Average
S/N = 30 (db)	SGF	91.1	91.1	92.0	90.8	91.3
	SFM (4×4)	93.1	78.3	82.4	72.1	81.5
	SFM (8×8)	92.6	80.8	82.4	71.0	81.7
	SGLDM	86.3	80.4	76.1	74.6	79.4
	Liu's features	61.8	54.7	37.9	39.5	48.5
S/N = 20 (db)	SGF	84.4	60.3	77.2	83.7	76.4
	SFM (4×4)	76.6	60.0	64.5	56.3	64.4
	SFM (8×8)	88.8	72.1	75.0	58.3	73.6
	SGLDM	57.1	45.5	55.1	39.1	49.2
	Liu's features	55.8	39.9	32.8	38.4	41.6
S/N = 10 (db)	SGF	24.6	8.3	22.1	35.9	22.7
	SFM (4×4)	20.5	16.1	14.3	10.9	15.5
	SFM (8×8)	24.1	23.0	17.4	17.0	20.4
	SGLDM	11.8	12.3	8.7	15.4	12.1
	Liu's features	11.8	10.3	10.9	8.4	10.3

SGF: SGF with the irregularity measure.

Table 9. Correct classification rates of various algorithms under additive noise on the second group (two sets of 56 texture pictures)

S/N = 30 (db)	SGF	89.1	86.6	87.9
	SFM (4×4)	82.3	73.5	77.9
	SFM (8×8)	83.5	72.0	77.8
	SGLDM	75.8	63.8	69.8
	Liu's features	49.0	31.3	40.2
S/N = 20 (db)	SGF	66.9	69.0	68.0
	SFM (4×4)	60.5	53.5	57.0
	SFM (8×8)	74.8	61.3	68.1
	SGLDM	42.2	37.5	39.9
	Liu's features	33.3	26.3	29.8
S/N = 10 (db)	SGF	14.4	20.8	17.6
	SFM (4×4)	16.4	5.7	11.1
	SFM (8×8)	20.5	11.0	15.8
	SGLDM	7.5	8.9	8.2
	Liu's features	5.7	3.9	4.8

SGF: SGF with the irregularity measure.

Table 10. Correct classification rates of various algorithms under additive noise on the third group (one set of 112 texture pictures)

D1-D112		
S/N = 30(db)	SGF	84.0
	SFM (4 × 4)	71.4
	SFM (8 × 8)	72.3
	SGLDM	58.6
	Liu's features	31.3
S/N = 20(db)	SGF	57.4
	SFM (4 × 4)	51.7
	SFM (8 × 8)	56.9
	SGLDM	28.7
	Liu's features	20.9
S/N = 10(db)	SGF	13.6
	SFM (4 × 4)	9.1
	SFM (8 × 8)	13.6
	SGLDM	5.5
	Liu's features	3.1

SGF: SGF with the irregularity measure.

Table 13. Computation time of various algorithms

Time(s)	
SGF	1.5
SFM (4 × 4)	0.5
SFM (8 × 8)	1.0
SGLDM	0.3
Liu's features	2.5

SGF: SGF with the irregularity measure.

the Statistical Feature Matrix method and Liu's features—shows that the correct classification rate achieved by SGF proposed in the paper is substantially higher than that by the other three approaches, and that the reduction in performance with the increase in the number of textures in the set is slower with SGF than with the other three, indicating that SGF can handle a

Table 11. SGF features from D15, D31 and D101

	$NOC_1(\alpha)$				$IRGL_1(\alpha)$			
	av	max	mean	S.D.	av	max	mean	S.D.
D15	51.6	136.0	33.6	9.2	0.78	1.76	31.4	12.5
D31	10.2	25.0	29.1	11.7	0.56	1.03	27.2	13.0
D101	56.3	93.0	27.7	12.6	0.24	0.99	25.4	15.7

Av, Average; S.D., standard deviation

Table 12. SGF features from D09, D49 and D102

Texture	$NOC_1(\alpha)$				$IRGL_1(\alpha)$			
	av	max	mean	S.D.	av	max	mean	S.D.
D09	59.6	240.0	20.9	6.50	0.38	1.06	32.3	13.4
D49	13.9	112.0	12.0	9.51	1.56	5.18	17.6	11.2
D102	62.3	101.0	30.6	12.7	0.26	0.57	32.5	17.9

Av, Average; S.D., standard deviation

its superior performance (with respect to correct classification rates), SGF's computational costs may well be warranted.

4. CONCLUSIONS

A set of sixteen novel Statistical Geometrical Features (SGF) for texture analysis has been developed, which is based on the statistics of geometrical properties of connected regions in a sequence of binary images obtained from an original texture image. Systematic comparison using contingency tables of a k -nearest classifier and class distance distributions with the popularly-used Statistical Grey Level Dependence Matrix technique and two recently proposed methods—

larger texture population. SGF's performance under additive noise also compares favourably with the other three methods.

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APPENDIX A CONNECTIVITY

Definition 1. For a given coordinate pair (x, y) , the 4-neighbourhood is defined to be the set $N_4(x, y) = \{(x+1, y), (x-1, y), (x, y+1), (x, y-1)\}$.

Definition 2. A pixel p_1 at (x_1, y_1) is said to be a 4-neighbour of p_2 at (x_2, y_2) if and only if $(x_1, y_1) \in N_4(x_2, y_2)$.

Definition 3. Two pixels p and p' are 4-connected if and only if p is a 4-neighbour of p' and both the grey level l of p and the grey level l' satisfy some condition. e.g. they should be equal.

Definition 4. A 4-connecting path between p_1 and p_n is a sequence of pixels $(p_i)_{i=1}^n$ such that p_i and p_{i+1} for $1 \leq i \leq n-1$ are 4-connected.

Definition 5. A 4-connected region is a set of pixels such that there is at least one 4-connecting path for each pair of pixels in this set.

A recursive algorithm for traversing a 4-connected region of gl-valued ($gl = 0$ or $gl = 1$) pixels around (x, y) is given as follows:

```

getConnectedRegion(int x, int y)
{
    if (imageArray[x][y] != gl) return;
    imageArray[x][y] = 1 - gl;
    addPixel(x, y);
    getConnectedRegion(x + 1, y);
    getConnectedRegion(x - 1, y);
    getConnectedRegion(x, y + 1);
    getConnectedRegion(x, y - 1);
    return;
}

```

where imageArray $\square \square$ is a two dimensional image array, addPixel(int, int) is a function to store the pixels in a connected region for analysis.

To obtain all the connected regions from a binary image, one simply need to sequentially apply the above algorithm to every pixel of the image. It is easy to see that the computational complexity for obtaining all the connected regions in an image is $O(n)$ where n is the number of pixels in the image. In fact, no more than $6 \times n$ times accesses to $f(x, y)$ (an element of a two-dimensional array), arithmetic comparisons, and function calls are needed.

APPENDIX B. SHAPE MEASURES

Given a connected region A in the plane, the extent of its irregularity can be measured by the ratio of its maximum radius to the square root of its area, where the maximum radius is defined to be

$$r_{\max} = \sup_{(x,y) \in A} \sqrt{(x - \bar{x})^2 + (y - \bar{y})^2}, \quad (B1)$$

$$\bar{x} = \int_A x dx, \quad \bar{y} = \int_A y dy. \quad (B2)$$

where \sup is supremum (the least upper bound).

Equation (3) (in main text) is for measuring the irregularity of a connected region in a digital image, where the factor $\sqrt{\pi}$ and two additive 1's are introduced to make the measure approximate to zero when the region is a disk (the most compact and hence least irregular region in the usual sense). This can be seen as

(1) If there is only one pixel in the region, equation (3) becomes

$$\text{irregularity} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{\pi} \cdot 0}{1} - 1 = 0 \quad (B3)$$

(2) As the space ε of the sampling grid [at spacing $(\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$] approaches 0 the irregularity of a disk becomes

$$\text{irregularity} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{\pi} \cdot \max_{i \in I} \sqrt{(x_i - \bar{x})^2 + (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}{\sqrt{|I|}} - 1 \right) \quad (B4)$$

$$= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{|I|}} + \sqrt{\pi} \cdot \frac{\max_{i \in I} \sqrt{(x_i - \bar{x})^2 + (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}{\sqrt{|I|}} - 1 \right) = 0$$

($|I|$ approaches infinity as ε approaches 0.)

An alternative shape measure of a connected region in the plane is the ratio of the square root of its area to its perimeter, termed compactness or circularity. (The reciprocal of this measure constitutes a regularity measure that has the same properties to be discussed later.) Equation 5 (in main text) is given for measuring the compactness of a region in a digital image.

It is observed that the two measures, when applied to digital images, have their respective advantages and disadvantages as follows

(1) The irregularity measure is invariant to rotation while the compactness measure is not.

Proof. For a connected region A in the plane, a spatial sampling process using a grid of spacing $(\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ gives rise to a corresponding region A_ε in a digital image. With moderate conditions upon A that are satisfied by most natural images, it is easy to see that as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ the following independent of the rotation of A . (The area of a pixel is ε^2 , the height and width is ε .)

Table B1. Correct classification rates of SGF with the irregularity measure and that of SGF with the compactness measure on the first group (four sets of 28 texture pictures)

	D1–D28	D29–D56	D57–D84	D85–D112	Average
SGF (irregularity)	90.8	92.6	93.5	91.5	92.1
SGF (compactness)	91.3	89.7	92.9	92.4	91.6

(1a) The area of A_ε by counting the pixels in it approaches the area of A ;

(1b) the centre of mass of A_ε by using equation (4) approaches the centre of mass of A ;

(1c) the maximum radius of A_ε in equation (3) approaches the maximum radius of A .

Therefore the irregularity measure defined by equation (3) is independent of rotation.

The perimeter as measured using equation (7) for regions of some shape, however, is dependent on the angle of rotation. In fact, as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, the measured perimeter approaches 4 for a unit square with sides parallel to the axes whilst the measured perimeter approaches $4\sqrt{2}$ for a unit square with diagonals parallel to the axes (rotated 45 degrees). As the measured area of A_ε approaches that of A as stated in (1a), the compactness measure gives a result $\sqrt{2}$ times larger for the original unit square than for the rotated square—a significant difference. \square

(2) The irregularity measure of a square is $(\sqrt{2\pi}/2) - 1 = 0.25$ while that of a disk is 0 as expected since a square is more irregular than a disk in the usual sense. However, the compactness measure of a square parallel to the axes is 1 while that of a disk is $(\sqrt{\pi}/2) = 0.89$, suggesting a square is more compact than a disk which is not usually acceptable.

(3) The compactness measure is more sensitive to a narrow crack in a region. The fact is demonstrated by considering a disk with a narrow crack as illustrated in Fig. 5. As δ tends to 0, the irregularity measure of the region converges to that of the same disk without the crack while the compactness measure converges to $(2/5)\sqrt{\pi} = 0.71$ —a value significantly different from the compactness measure of the same disk without the crack which is $(\sqrt{2}/2) = 0.89$. This suggests that

Table B2. Correct classification rates of SGF with the irregularity measure and that of SGF with the compactness measure on the second group (two sets of 56 texture pictures)

	D1–D56	D56–D112	Average
SGF (irregularity)	90.2	87.3	88.8
SGF (compactness)	90.1	87.9	89.0

Table B3. Correct classification rates of SGF with the irregularity measure and that of SGF with the compactness measure on the third group (one set of 112 texture pictures)

	D1–D112
SGF (irregularity)	85.6
SGF (compactness)	85.2

the irregularity measure tends to ignore narrow cracks whilst the compactness measure will register them—a potential advantage of the compactness measure.

Experimental results as shown in Tables B1–B3 are basically consistent with the theoretical analysis: the irregularity measure and the compactness measure give approximately the same performance as each has its own merits and shortcomings.

APPENDIX C. THE TEXTURE DATABASE

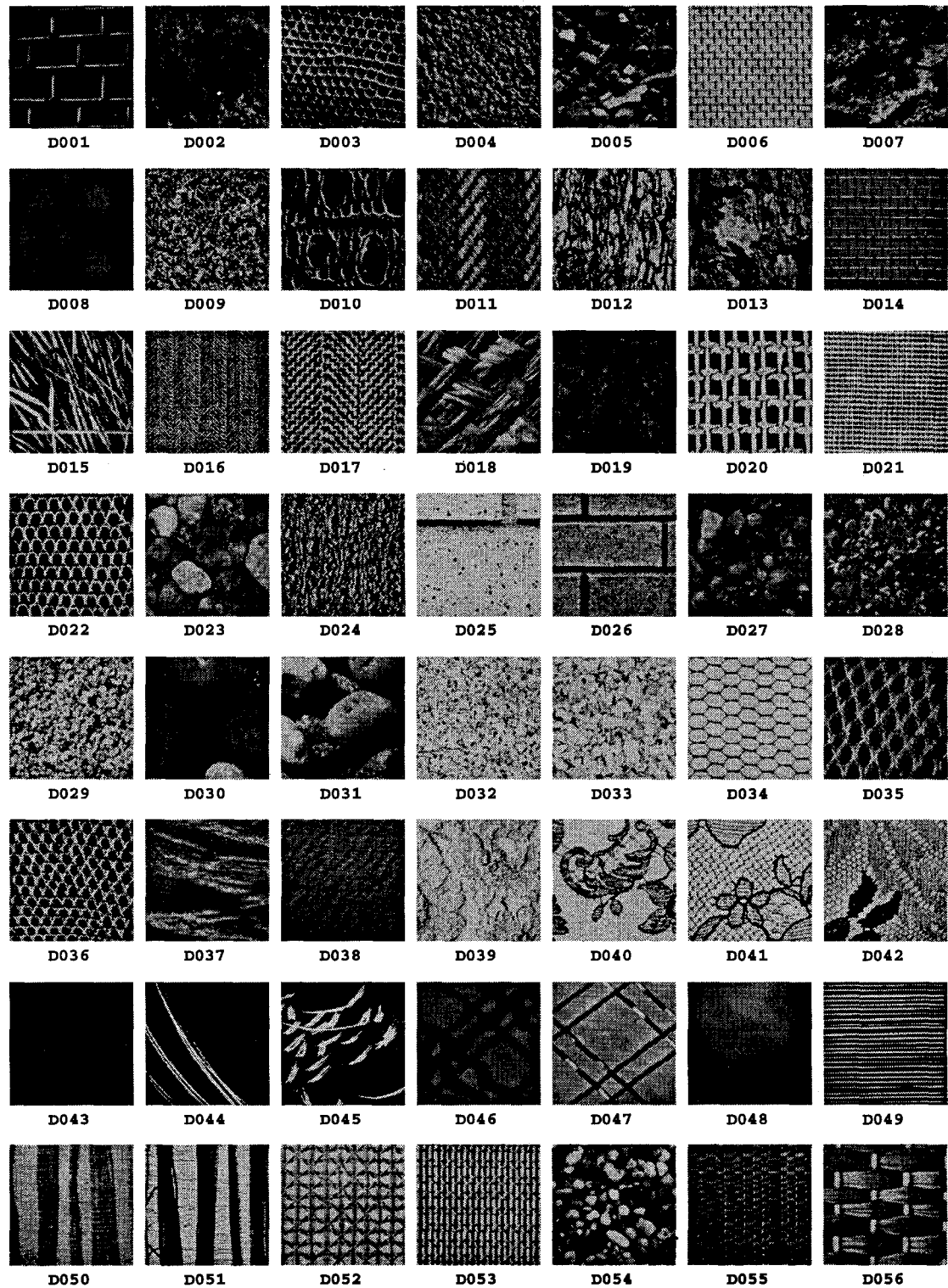


Fig. C1. Textures D1–D56.

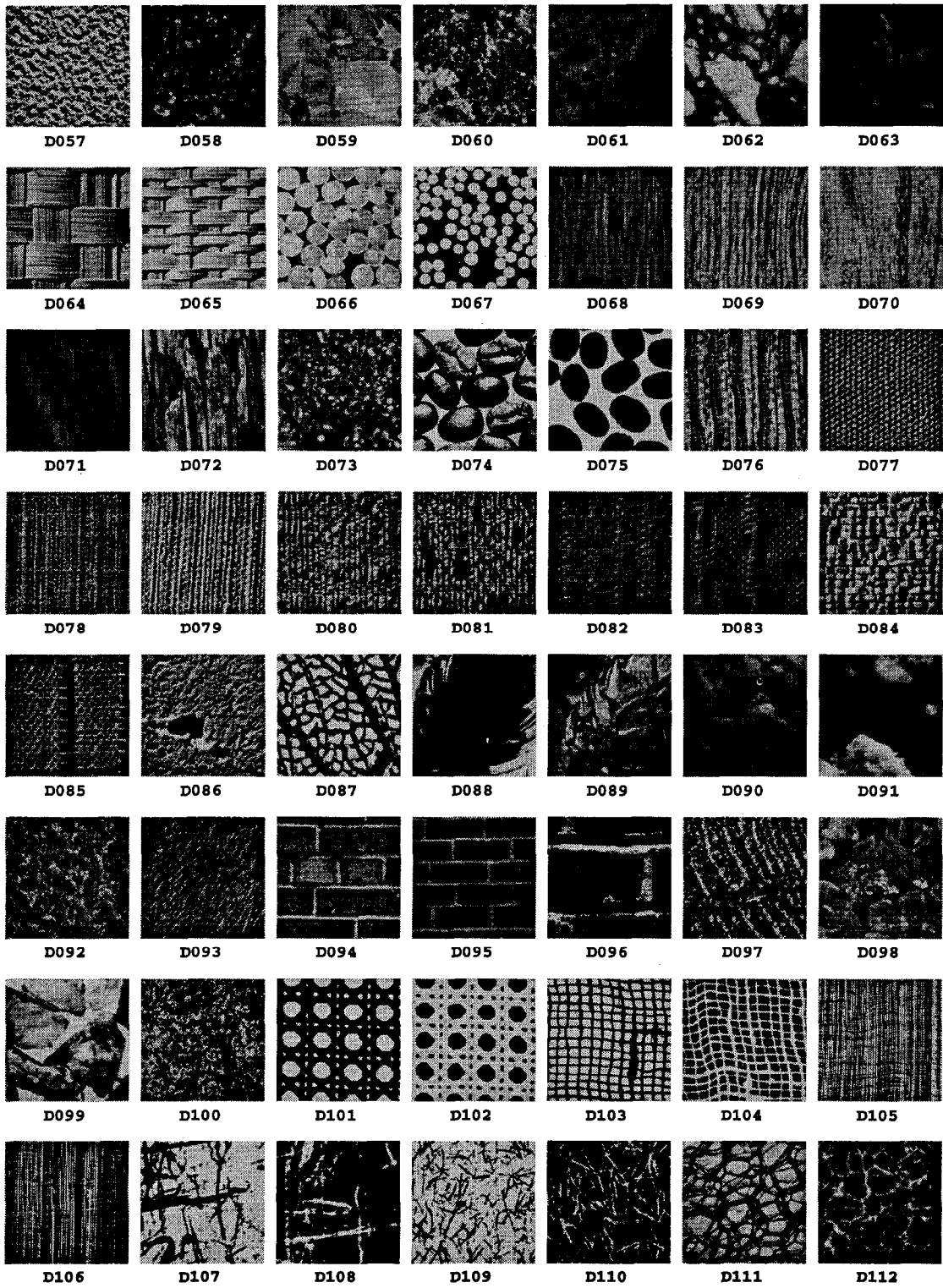


Fig. C2. Textures D57–D112.

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