

# Identifying Salient Circular Arcs on Curves

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SPL-93-017

P93-00005

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April, 1992

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#### Abstract

This paper addresses the problem of identifying perceptually significant segments on general planar curvilinear contours. Lacking a formal definition for what constitutes perceptual salience, we develop subjective criteria for evaluating candidate segmentations (such as might be delivered by an algorithm), and formulate corresponding objective measures. An algorithm is presented attempting to meet these criteria. The segments delivered have the following properties: (1) each segment is well-approximated by a circular arc, (2) each pair of segments describe different sections of the contour, and (3) the curve either terminates or changes in orientation and/or curvature beyond each end of every segment. The result is a description of the contour at multiple scales in terms of circular arcs that may overlap one another.

### 1 Introduction

How many distinguished pieces or segments comprise the contour in figure 1? Under different interpretations, this figure can be viewed as a rectangle with *four* roughly straight sides, an encircling with *eight* segments (four sides and four rounded corners), or a figure with *fourteen* subsegments as shown in figure 1d. One is entitled to quibble with these counts on the basis of his own perceptual intuition and judgement, but no one would decompose this object in terms of the *seven* arbitrarily chosen parts shown in figure 1e. What are the ingredients leading to a natural partitioning of a planar contour into smaller, perceptually salient pieces?

This question is important to computer vision because vision algorithms typically operate by combining local measurements, e.g., edge features, into more global interpretations, e.g. object recognition by matching parts of a model object to features in the image. Effective interpretation of local measurements relies upon the identification of appropriate sized units in which to describe structure in the visual world [36]. When local edge or line features on intensity images have been linked into extended (chain coded) contours, the problem becomes one of breaking the contour into smaller pieces that are likely to correspond to useful units of later interpretation. For





example, in an industrial setting with rectilinear objects, it is natural to decompose visual contours into straight line segments (sides) and circles (holes) [3].



Figure 2: Straight line segments approximate curved sections of a contour but do not describe them as significant units in their own right.

While straight line segments can be used to approximate any contour e.g. [1, 7, 11, 15, 23], they do not lend themselves to the description of curving segments of contour as units unto themselves, as seen in figure 2. For this reason, workers in geometric modeling as well as computer vision have turned to more complex parametric models, including circular arcs [6, 10, 16, 24], more general conics [5, 27], and splines [12, 14, 19, 25]. In general, the analytic form selected for describing contour segments should be matched to the domain-dependent processes that generate the contours; for example, if all images for a given task are oblique views of circular objects, then elliptical models are appropriate for describing the contours which will be found in the resulting images. However, for general purpose image analysis tasks in which a priori knowledge about contour shape is not available, a domain-independent curve descriptor must be used. The present work explores curve segmentations in terms of circular arc models, which are in a sense the next most simple form beyond simple

straight line approximations by virtue of adding one degree of freedom (curvature).

Most previous work with curve segmentation, including segmentation in terms of circular arc approximations, treats the problem as one of finding some optimal set of "knot" points which decompose the contour into disjoint segments that meet end to end [1, 7, 10, 12, 15, 19, 30]. This approach is well suited to the problem of *reconstructing* the original contour from an information-compressed representation. However, for purposes of visual interpretation, it can be important to identify very different but equally perceptually significant segments that may overlap one another [2, 6, 11, 16, 18]. The right side of figure 1a can be viewed with equal validity in terms of a single approximately straight line, or in terms of a number of arcs and short oblique lines. Either of these decompositions might be important natural units for performing later visual tasks, for example, answering the questions, "Is this a square?," or responding to the command, "Count the wiggles."

Thus the problem we pose is to identify all segments of a contour that can be interpreted as a "natural" or "perceptually salient" section to approximate using a circular arc model. Unfortunately, what it means to be perceptually salient is not specified by any formal definition. Therefore, section 2 of this paper attempts first to articulate subjective criteria for what constitutes a perceptually natural contour segment by examining a number of prototypical situations that occur on curvilinear contours and appealing to the reader's own judgements. Objective formulations corresponding to these criteria are developed, and these may be applied in evaluating any algorithm that purports to decompose contours into salient segments. Next, section 3 presents an algorithm attempting to meet these criteria.

Perceptual salience in image curves has been linked with contour curvature by many investigators. Curvature measures can be used either in ranking the "salience" of chain-coded segments themselves [6, 16, 33], or to establish breakpoints between segments [2, 8, 13, 17]. Alternatively, low curvature change is reflected directly in certain parametric models (most notably a circular arc), which have been sought by filter-based detection directly in the image [9], by Hough techniques [29], by iterative optimization [22, 37] or by token grouping [5, 21, 26, 31]. Although some techniques

distinguish between straight lines and circular arcs returned as output, any such technique is subsumed by pure circular arc detection because the amount of angular extent deemed to be a "straight" arc is simply a matter of setting an applicationspecific threshold. Detection of salient structure at multiple scales is facilitated in many approaches by incorporating a smoothing step using kernels of different widths [35]. By developing a more subtle candidate selection technique and elucidating the segment saliency criteria, this paper builds upon an overall strategy outlined by Lowe [16] which consists in assembling a set of candidate model fits to a contour and then pruning this set on some heuristic basis.

### 2 Criteria for Perceptually Salient Circular Arc Segments

Let us assume that a contour is specified by a linked list of points equally spaced in the plane<sup>1</sup>. Let us also assume that we are provided with means for approximating with a circular arc the segment between any two points on the contour. In practice, a standard method for fitting a circle to a set of points [4, 32] works well for smooth contours and for contours deeper than approximately 70° in angular extent, but breaks down for noisy shallow arcs as shown in figure 3b. In the latter case a good approximation can be found by fitting first a straight line, then simultaneously least-squares adjusting the y'-offset and curvature ( $x'^2$  coefficient  $a = \frac{\pi}{2}$  under Taylor expansion of a circle of radius =  $\frac{1}{\kappa}$  tangent to the x-axis at the origin) of a parabolic arc as shown in figure 3c.

For a contour of length N points, the number of possible segments is (1 of length N) + (2 of length N - 1) + ... + (N - 1 of length 1) = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}. The problem at hand is to select out a relatively small number of these, preferably without examining each of them explicitly. Because of the combinatorics, at the outset we exclude from consideration situations such as shown in figure 4 in which a good circular arc approximation is found by combining discontiguous sections of the contour; detection

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>An algorithm for conversion to this representation from a linked list of four-connected or eightconnected pixels sampled from a square grid is presented in Appendix A.

a





Figure 3: Standard circle fitting method [4, 32] on a deep arc (a) and a noisy shallow arc (b). (c) Parameters of a parabolic fit to the points in (b). (d) resulting circular arc fit.

d

of this kind of visual structure is envisioned as occurring at a later stage at which information arising from more than one contour is combined.



Figure 4: A single circular arc fits two discontiguous sections of this curve.

We now proceed to develop criteria useful in assessing the efficacy of any algorithm purporting to identify perceptually salient segments of a curvilinear contour. These criteria are first stated in subjective terms as motivated by telling prototypical examples, and are then expressed in terms of objective formulations engineered to reflect their respective subjective properties. The objective measures are applied either individually to a single contour segment approximated by a circular arc, or else pairwise. In general, these criteria permit a set of curve segments to be labeled with various properties indicating perceptual salience along a number of dimensions. After describing the properties, we will illustrate their use in evaluating hypothetical segmentations of an interesting test contour.

#### 2.1 Criterion 1: Goodness of Fit

One obvious property for any contour segment approximated by a parametric model is that the model should achieve a good fit to the curve. Figure 5 illustrates this

point with best-fit circular arcs for a number of equal length subsegments of a test contour. Clearly, segments A and C better correspond to natural subpleces of the contour than do B or D.

In seeking an objective measure of goodness of fit, at the outset we demand the property of self-similarity across scales: the goodness of fit measure for a given segment of a given contour must remain unchanged if the contour and segment are scaled uniformly in size. One convenient measure of goodness of fit, or *fit-quality*, that meets this criterion is the following ratio

$$fit-quality = \frac{l}{e} \tag{1}$$

where l is the circular arc's length and e is the maximum nearest distance between the arc and the curve, as depicted in figure 5b. This measure implements a tradeoff between two competing objectives found in many previous studies of contour segmentation: (a) maximize the size of parametric models returned while (b) minimizing the error between the the models and the contour itself. While we happen to judge expression (1) preferable to, say, the ratio of arc length to *average* distance between contour and arc model, variations in an objective measure of goodness of fit are not critical as long as they preserve its overall form, including the self-similarity property. The goodness of fit criterion comports with the notion that for a given curve, equally valid contour segments, as approximated by circular arcs, may be found to overlie one another at multiple scales, as shown in figure 5c.

### 2.2 Criterion 2: Uniqueness

While Criterion 1 applies to curve segments individually, Criterion 2 applies to a set of segments attempting to label all perceptually salient segments of a given curve. This criterion states that each member segment of such a set should be unique in the sense that no other segment in the set should describe essentially the same piece of contour. As illustrated in figure 6, circular arc models of segments whose endpoints are very near one another's will in general have very similar measures of fit-quality. Intuitively,



Figure 5. (a) Circular arc fits to equal length segments at different locations on a curve. Segments A and C are well fit by a circular arc, while B and D are not. (b) Geometry of a *fit-quality* measure based on the ratio of circular arc length l to the distance e between the arc and the point on the sample curve farthest from the arc. (c) A curve with similar structure at two different scales. Our *fit-quality* measure returns similar values for similarly shaped segments regardless of scale.

we are inclined to interpret the presence of but one unified "piece" or "chunk" of the curve between two roughly specified locations, not several. It is sufficient to label this section of the curve by returning only one of these segments' circular arc fit. From the standpoint of computational efficiency, some form of uniqueness criterion is necessary because, were the distance between sample points on the curve to decrease, the resulting multitude of essentially redundant segments would overwhelm any later processes.

Although the uniqueness criterion applies with respect to a set of curve segments, it is possible to formulate this condition in terms of a *pairwise* measure on the degree to which the portion of a curve described by one segment is already sufficiently described by another segment. In figure 6a, it is apparent that the circular arc fit to the segment  $P_2-P_3$  is completely subsumed by the circular arc fit to segment  $P_2-P_4$ . The pairwise measure is cast in these terms, assigning a number indicating the degree to which some curve segment, SEGMENT-A, modeled by circular arc, ARC-A, is subsumed by another segment, SEGMENT-B, modeled by circular arc, ARC-B. Figures 6b and 6c indicate that two factors must enter into this subsumedness measure. The first, an overlap factor, takes into account the degree to which SEGMENT-B covers the same section of the curve as does SEGMENT-A. If there is no overlap between the two segments, then SEGMENT-A cannot be at all subsumed by SEGMENT-B, and conversely, if SEGMENT-A is completely covered then it could potentially be interpreted as totally subsumed by SEGMENT-B. The overlap factor plays against a second, fit-quality factor. In 6c, SEGMENT-A is not subsumed by SEGMENT-B because SEGMENT-A fits the section of the curve between its endpoints much more closely than does SEGMENT-B. Even though SEGMENT-A is completely overlapped by SEGMENT-B, it provides information about a distinct and significant section of the curve that SEGMENT-B does not.

These considerations suggest that a numeric measure of subsumedness may be expressed as a product relation between a term expressing degree of overlap between two segments and a term expressing the relative *fit-quality*; both factors must be



Figure 6: (a) Six curve segments describing essentially the same section of contour have very similar measures of *fit-quality*. (b) A segment can be subsumed by another to the degree that its span is completely overlapped by it. (c) A segment is not subsumed by another segment, even if completely overlapped, if its fit quality is substantially greater.

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present for the degree of subsumedness to be considered high:

$$is-subsumed-by(\text{SEGMENT-A}, \text{SEGMENT-B}) = \max(0, \min(1, \frac{overlap-fraction(\text{SEGMENT-A}, \text{SEGMENT-B}) - \gamma_1}{1.0 - \gamma_1})) \quad (2) \\ \times \max(0, (\min 1, \frac{relative-fit-quality(\text{SEGMENT-A}, \text{SEGMENT-B}) - \gamma_2}{1.0 - \gamma_1}))$$

where overlap-fraction(SEGMENT-A,SEGMENT-B) is simply the proportion of the original curve within SEGMENT-A that is also within SEGMENT-B (a number between 0 and 1), and

$$relative-fit-quality(SEGMENT-A, SEGMENT-B) = \frac{fit-quality(SEGMENT-B) \times \frac{arc-length(ARC-A)}{arc-length(ARC-B)}}{fit-quality(SEGMENT-A)}.$$
 (3)

The quotients in expression (2) implement linear interpolations between points at which it is specified that each term supports total subsumedness of SEGMENT-A by SEGMENT-B (*is-subsumed-by* = 1) or no subsumedness (*is-subsumed-by* = 0). The parameters  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  control, respectively, the degree of overlap considered negligible, and the degree of *fit-quality* required to consider some segment which is totally overlapped, significant nonetheless. (Values for free parameters  $\gamma$  used in the current implementation are listed in Appendix B.) Lowe [16] mentions an analogous mechanism that addresses the uniqueness consideration but treats overlap categorically and does not trade this factor off against fit-quality.

Figure 7 demonstrates our *is-subsumed-by* measure for a number of pairs of curve segments. Note that this measure is not commutative: in general *is-subsumed-by*(SEGMENT-A, SEGMENT-B)  $\neq$  *is-subsumed-by*(SEGMENT-B, SEGMENT-A). Given an ensemble of segments, any segment can be compared against nearby segments to determine the degree to which it is subsumed by another, and may therefore be considered superfluous. Since this is a continuous-valued measure, different applications may tailor the use of the *is-subsumed-by* measure to particular ends, e.g. by choosing a threshold on when to remove segments from a set as discussed in Section 3.3.



Figure 7: Examples of the subsumed-by measure.

### 2.3 Criterion 3: End Abruptness

A third criterion governing the apparent perceptual significance of a curve segment as modeled by a circular arc is motivated in figure 8. This factor takes account of the locus of the curve extending beyond the segment's ends. Roughly speaking, if the curve proceeds in a continuation of the circular arc fit to the segment in question, then that segment is seen as less salient than when the curve changes abruptly in direction or curvature immediately beyond the segment's bounds. This end-abruptness factor applies independently to each of the two ends of a curve segment. The End-abruptness factor is necessarily high if the segment boundary occurs at a termination of the curve, as shown in figure 8c.

Based on these considerations, we may formulate an expression for overall-endabruptness as the minimum of the independent measures of end-abruptness at each of the ends of a segment, where end-abruptness = 0 indicates perfect continuation of the arc model and is considered not at all salient, and end-abruptness = 1 indicates severe change in direction and/or curvature and is considered maximally salient. In other words, smooth continuation of the circular arc model beyond either end of a curve segment is sufficient to veto that segment's overall salience.

For the measure of *end-abruptness* at one end of a segment (not coinciding with a curve termination), an initial heuristic formulation consists in tracing points (x, y) along the curve for some extension distance, h,  $(h = \frac{segment-length}{2}$  proves satisfactory) beyond the end of the segment, recording the maximum, *end-abruptness<sub>c,max</sub>*, of the expression (see figure 9a):

$$end-abruptness_{c}(x,y) = \max(0,\min(1,\frac{\max(0,(|y'|-e))}{e+x'\tan\gamma_{3}}))$$
(4)

where e is the maximum deviation between the curve segment and the circular arc model (as in (1)). In practice it is advantageous for this purpose to employ an arc fit not to the entire segment but to the half of the curve segment containing this end. Expression (4) implements a linear interpolation between end-abruptness = 0 occurring when curve point (x, y) on the extension of the curve lies on the curve



Figure 8: The perceptual salience of a segment depends not only on the properties of the curve within that segment but also on the locus of the curve beyond the segment's endpoints.

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0

segment's circular arc model, and end-abruptness = 1.0 occurring when the curve veers off sharply to the left or right of the arc. The term e in this expression is introduced to permit more tolerance in deviating from a low *fit-quality* circular arc approximation than a perfectly fitting model.

The geometric simplicity of this formulation notwithstanding, empirical observation of many curves indicates that an additional factor must be taken into account in developing an expression adequately capturing the intent of *end-abruptness*. Figure 9b shows that rather shallow arcing curve segments appear to merge smoothly, without large apparent change in direction or curvature, with certain appropriately oriented nearly straight (very low curvature) curve extensions. We model this effect by introducing a second auxiliary term (see figure 9c):

$$end-abruptness_{o}(x,y) = \min(1, (v + (1.0 - v) \mid \frac{y'}{e + x' \tan w} \mid))$$
(5)

where v and w represent the center value and angular width, respectively, of a "trough" centered on the linear extension of the circular arc in the direction indicated in the figure.

$$v = \begin{cases} \gamma_4 & \text{if } w < \gamma_5 \\ 1.0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(6)

 $\gamma_5$  is set so that the auxiliary term only takes effect for small w. As with endabruptness<sub>c,max</sub>, the value end-abruptness<sub>s,max</sub>, is taken as the maximum of endabruptness<sub>s</sub> over all points (x, y) on the curve out to distance, h, beyond the end of the segment. Finally,

$$end-abruptness = \min(end-abruptness_{c,max}, end-abruptness_{s,max}).$$
(7)

Figure 10 illustrates end-abruptness measures for a number of representative curves/curvesegments by displaying the points where end-abruptness<sub>c,max</sub> and end-abruptness<sub>s,max</sub> occur. As with the fit-quality salience criterion, end-abruptness is a unary property on individual curve segments that can be used, for example, to rank curve segments in order of significance along this dimension.



Figure 9: (a) Geometry of the basic *end-abruptness* measure, which assess the rapidity with which the sampled contour (open circles) deviates from a circular arc model beyond the end of a fit segment. (b) Under some conditions a curve can deviate strongly from continuation of a segment's circular arc fit (segment A) without that segment appearing to end abruptly. (c) An auxiliary measurement accounts for this effect by estimating the curve's deviation from a straight line (centerline notation) with orientation as shown.



Figure 10: Numbers indicate end-abruptness measure at each end of the segment shown. End-abruptness ranges from 0 (not at all abrupt) to 1.0 (very abrupt). Circles indicate points on the curve where maximum end-abruptness occurs.

### 2.4 Usage and Examples

It is important to consider the above mathematical expressions in an appropriate context. These are not strict derivations, nor are they fits to sampled data, but they are merely attempts to engineer formal counterparts to subjective criteria judged important to assessing three dimensions of perceptual salience of curve segments. The effectiveness of these devices must be assessed ultimately by the builders of systems relying on the identification of significant segmentations of planar curves found in images. It lies beyond the scope of this paper to delve into issues of shape recognition or other particular applications using these segments, so for the time being it must be left for the reader to judge the degree to which the formal measures correspond with his or her perceptual intuition.

In order to see how these three criteria may be deployed, consider figure 11. Here, a test curve is presented along with four sets of segments (displayed as their associated circular arc fits) that might be selected to describe the curve. For each set, the figure indicates values of *fit-quality* and *end-abruptness* independently for each segment, plus degree of *is-subsumed-by* factor for pairs of overlapping segments. Segments in figure 11b were chosen such that each segment has high *fit-quality* and large *endabruptness*, and so that no segment significantly subsumes any other. Segments in figure 11c may be viewed as slightly sloppy versions of the segments in 11b; *fit-quality* or *end-abruptness* are degraded, but pairwise *is-subsumed-by* factors are relatively unaffected. Figure 11d can be seen as an overly redundant representation of the original curve; extra segments are present that display strong *is-subsumed-by* factors with one another. Finally 11e is a too-sparse depiction of the curve; certain sections of the curve are not identified by circular arcs that, if they were, would have high degree of *fit-quality* and *end-abruptness* and low subsumedness with other segments.

A formal test of a candidate set of curve-segments thus amounts to using expressions (1), (2), and (7), to assess where there are redundant segments, where "good" segments are missing, and where segments are present but could be better positioned. None of these is an all-or-none decision; on the contrary, by supplying continuous val-



Figure 11: (a) Test curve from [8]. (b) through (e) Sets of curve segments (indicated by their circular arc fits) that could be selected to describe the curve. Tables present *fit-quality* and *end-abruptness* measures for each segment, plus the name and subsumed-by measure for the most strongly subsuming other segment. Fit-quality < 15.0 may be considered poor, and fit-quality > 40.0 is good. *end-abruptness* = 1.0 is high, and *end-abruptness* < .5 is low. subsumed-by measure < .5 indicates low redundancy, subsumed-by measure > .8 indicates high redundancy. Segments are presented in order proceeding clockwise around the curve. (c), (d), and (e) are, respectively, sloppy, redundant, and overly sparse versions of the segments in (b).



ued measures of their respective properties they reflect the ambiguity resultant from applying idealized models. Even so, they serve as effective guidelines for developing algorithms intended to pick out segments of curves that stand out clearly to any human observer yet to which machines have heretofore been oblivious.

### 3 Algorithm

A computer algorithm attempting to return a set of curve segments with high *fit-quality*, high *end-abruptness*, and low pairwise *is-subsumed-by* factors must be designed to optimize not only quality of results, but also computational efficiency in time and memory. The algorithm presented here reflects this tradeoff by first preselecting, then further pruning, a set of candidate segments that is typically several times larger than the number of segments finally returned, but very much smaller than the  $\frac{N(N+1)}{2}$  segments potentially available to check. The basic procedure is outlined here, elaboration follows below:

- 1. Derive smoothed and subsampled versions of the original curve, forming representations suited to analysis at all spatial scales.
- 2. Discover candidate segments by fitting straight lines to the orientation vs. arclength representations at all scales; calculate *fit-quality* parameter for each of the candidate segments.
- 3. Compare overlapping candidate segments pairwise and remove segments in order of the degree to which they are subsumed by another candidate, up to a chosen threshold degree of subsumedness.
- 4. Remove remaining segments falling below threshold values of *fit-quality* and/or *end-abruptness*. Return all surviving candidates.

Two crucial considerations guide the design of this algorithm. First, in order detect circular arcs of all lengths and radii in curves of any magnification, the algorithm must prefer no spatial scale, but instead operate uniformly across all scales. Thus motivates the scale-space [35] computation of step 1. Second, as much work as possible is done in the orientation vs. arc-length representation. Since a circular arc in the plane corresponds to a straight line in this representation, the algorithm can search for a particularly simple type of structure in this signal; furthermore, it is computationally much less work to deal with a single one-dimensional array than the geometry of curves and circular arcs in two dimensions.

#### 3.1 Step 1: Smooth and Subsample the Curve

After preprocessing by the algorithm in Appendix A to remove any city block pixel sampling effects, the original curve is smoothed with a truncated Gaussian kernel  $(\sigma = \gamma_6)$ . We employ Lowe's [17] methods for performing smoothing out to the end of a curve and for correcting for curve shrinkage, although straight Gaussian smoothing in lieu of the latter seems not to impact the results a great deal. The result is labeled as the Scale 0 signal and stored for later use, and is then subsampled by a factor of two to yield the input for another Gaussian smoothing pass (identical kernel as above) which in turn yields a Scale 1 signal. Subsampling and smoothing steps alternate until the number of samples remaining in the signal is less than the kernel width of the truncated Gaussian. This procedure results in a scale-space representing the original curve at different resolutions. The tangent direction between successive points is computed to yield orientation vs. arc-length  $\theta$ -S representations at all scales. See figure 12.

The subsampling step serves two functions. First, it greatly reduces processing load compared to applying increasingly large Gaussians to the original signal (for an input curve of 1000 points the entire procedure takes only about 3 times as long as the first Gaussian smoothing pass). Second, it serves to normalize first difference in orientation (curvature) so that different magnifications of the same contour give rise to virtually identical representations that vary only by a shift along the scale index of the contents of the orientation vs. arc-length arrays. This allows the remaining processing steps to operate essentially uniformly across all scales.





b



### 3.2 Step 2: Fit Straight Lines in Orientation vs. Arc Length

For every scale orientation vs. arc-length array, a two-step process is used to identify locally straight lines which will correspond to circular arcs in the original curve. These are (see figure 13):

- 2a. Perform split-and-merge segmentation [23] to locate initial candidates for endpoints of straight lines in  $\theta$ -S space as first suggested by Grimson [10]. This is done with a very tight error tolerance  $\epsilon = \gamma_7$  so as to ensure that every conceivable line break point is found. These segments are combined (union operation) with a second set of segments delivered by next performing just the merge step of the split-and-merge algorithm, this time backing off to a somewhat looser tolerance  $\epsilon = \gamma_8$  so as to detect longer, more imperfectly straight lines. Each resulting segment is adjusted by least-squares to optimally fit its section of the  $\theta$ -S space curve. A final merge step detects pairs of segments forming a shallow upright or inverted "v," corresponding to inflections in the 2D input curve.
- 2b. For each line segment in  $\theta$ -S space, a segment-growing procedure is performed. First, an estimate is made of the degree of match or fit between between the straight line segment and the corresponding segment of the  $\theta$ -S signal. From this match estimate is derived an adaptive threshold, t. The segment is tentatively extended one point to the left, and one point to the right, and, after updating the least-squares fit including these tentative extensions, the match estimates are recomputed. If both the left-extended and right-extended match estimates exceed the threshold t, then the segment-growing procedure terminates. Otherwise, the segment is extended permanently in the direction of best match estimate, and the procedure repeats. Finally, all segments longer than a threshold ( $2\gamma_6$ ) number of (subsampled) points are returned.

The result is a set of line segments in  $\theta$ -S space, each of which delimits a candidate segment in the input curve, and each of which is computed so as to correspond to an approximately circular arc in this curve. Because this procedure is performed



Figure 13: (a) Line segments in  $\theta$ -S space after split-and-merge segmentation (b) Least-squares fit to  $\theta$ -S curve for one of these segments, and corresponding circular arc on the 2D test curve. (c) This segment after segment-growing.

independently at all scales of  $\theta$ -S, a given approximately circular arc section of an input curve will quite often give rise to several more or less equivalent candidate segments. For rather precise circular arcs, the segments found by finer scales of analysis will typically deliver the best estimates for the endpoints of the segments, while roughly formed arcs will be detected only at the larger scales.

It is worth considering why it is necessary to perform candidate segment detection on the  $\theta$ -S spaces at different resolutions of the input curve in scale-space, and not, say, simply to smooth the finest scale  $\theta$ -S representation with different size kernels. Figure 14a shows that spatially small blips in a curve can nonetheless give rise to large bumps in  $\theta$ -S space that obscure true large scale spatial events such as gradual changes in curvature. A different shortcut might consist in attempting to bypass the split-and-merge step by detecting sudden changes in orientation or curvature directly in  $\theta$ -S space. While this strategy cannot be completely ruled out, we point out the difficulty it faces in detecting segments such as figure 14b, for which one end is delimited by change in curvature at a coarse scale while the other end is defined by a change in orientation at a fine scale which is absent in the coarse scale signal. Both the smooth and noisy versions of this type of segment score highly on all three perceptual salience criteria developed in Section 1, but to identify both is beyond the capacity of all previously reported algorithms we are aware of.

### 3.3 Step 3: Prune Redundant Segments

At this stage all candidate segments found through analysis of  $\theta$ -S space are transformed into circular arc fits of the original input curve. Curve fitting is performed as as discussed in section 2, and the *fit-quality* parameter is measured. In practice, because of pixel quantization effects in images it is not uncommon to encounter perfectly straight curve segments. To avoid complications due to the corresponding interpretation that these have infinite *fit-quality*, we compute this parameter using the following



Figure 14: (a) Curve for which a spatially small feature gives rise to a large feature in  $\theta$ -S space. (b) Curves containing salient segments (indicated by arrows) bounded by a purely large scale feature (smooth join) on one end and a purely small scale feature (ramp step) on the other. (c) Segments returned by the algorithm. For the wiggly curve, circular arcs representing small scale and large scale segments are displayed separately for clarity.

modification of expression (1):

$$fit-quality = \frac{l}{\max(\gamma_9, e)}$$
(8)

Next, overlapping segments are detected after sorting by location from one end of the input curve, for efficiency. For each pair of overlapping segments, *is-subsumed-by* factors are computed as described in Section 2.2. All segments are removed that are completely subsumed by another segment (*is-subsumed-by* factor = 1). Remaining segments are rank-ordered by the maximum amount they are subsumed by some other segment. Segments are removed in order of decreasing max(*is-subsumed-by*) factor, taking care to note that any segment removed from consideration can no longer subsume any other segment still under consideration. Segment removal proceeds until some threshold  $\gamma_{10}$  on subsumedness is reached, at which point no remaining segment is subsumed by any other to a degree greater than this threshold.

### 3.4 Step 4: Remove Poor Quality Segments

End-abruptness is measured as described in Section 2.3, with one minor modification. In executing expressions (4) and (5), we sample points (x, y) not from the input curve, but instead from the smoothed version of the input curve in which the segment was detected. This modification removes artifacts in the estimate of *end-abruptness* that arise on very wiggly or noisy curves. The smoothed input curve also supports computation of a *smoothed-fit-quality* parameter, analogous to the previously described *fit-quality* measure, that is useful later in assessing the degree to which the segment's gross shape fits a circular arc independent of small scale wiggles or noise it may possess. Finally, a coarse thresholding step removes curve segments whose *fit-quality* or *end-abruptness* falls below respective thresholds  $\gamma_{11}$  and  $\gamma_{12}$ .

### 4 Results

Because curve segments possess graded values of *fit-quality*, *end-abruptness*, and *subsumed-by* factors, the algorithm is liberal in returning nearly all conceivably salient

segments. Alternate ways are possible of further refining these. For example, in figure 15 the full cadre of 130 even minimally salient curve segments returned by the algorithm are reduced to the 42 shown in 15b and 15c by applying a threshold on a *composite-salience* measure:

### $composite-salience = smoothed-fit-quality \times end-abruptness$ (9)

It is characteristic of heuristic algorithms such as this one that results are affected by parameters whose settings are adjusted in a seat-of-the-pants fashion. What seems to work well on one image may yield suboptimal results on another. Furthermore, because of the intuitive nature of "perceptual salience," judgment of the quality of results may differ from person to person. All results presented in the paper employ the same fixed internal parameter settings for the algorithm. Figures 16 through 20 are presented for the reader to judge the degree to which the results match his or her perceptual intuition.

Failures of the algorithm can be of two types. First, the algorithm can fail to identify curve segments that would be considered qualified with regard to *fit-quality*, *end-adjustment*, and *subsumed-by* measures. This occurs for example at the location indicated by the arrow in figure 16. In this case the algorithm for finding candidate segments by locating straight lines in orientation space delivers the segment shown in figure 16c, whose endpoints extend not quite far enough to bring *fit-quality* above the threshold which was set on the basis of testing the algorithm on other images. One could change the threshold or further tweak the segment-growing module of the algorithm, but it is impossible to ensure that other failures will not occur in other marginal situations.

This type of mistake can be considered a failure in *implementation* of a "theory" of perceptual salience reflected in the three criteria of section 2. The second type of failure is due to weakness of this theory itself; cases may be found where the *fit-quality*, *end-abruptness* and *subsumed-by* measures do not correspond with perceptual intuition. Such a situation occurs in figure 17, which illustrates the fact that sometimes curve segments are made salient due to their "texture," which is not accounted



Figure 15: (a) Circular arcs depicting the 130 curve segments returned by the algorithm on the test shape of figure 12. (b) and (c) Arcs depicting smaller and larger scale segments, respectively, resulting from thresholding the segments in (a) at a level of 30.0 in *composite-salience* (see text).



Figure 16: (a) Test curve used by Teh and Chin (see figure 6 of [30]). (b) Circular arcs depicting curve segments with *end-abruptness* > .5 returned by the present algorithm. Small, medium, and large scale segments are shown separately to highlight significant structure found at different scales. (c) Magnified section of the curve where the algorithm rejected the potentially salient segment shown because its *fit-quality* fell below a previously set threshold.



for by our criteria. Perhaps another criterion could be added to account for this phenomenon, but we do not attempt to do so here.



Figure 17: The three criteria of Section 2 do not account for segments made perceptually salient due to their contour texture properties.

Figure 18 illustrates the algorithm's self-similarity with respect to scale; arcs are found in comparable places on ellipses of all sizes. Finally, figures 19 and 20 show curve segments found on edge maps derived from real images.

The algorithm's computational requirements are dominated by the effort required to fit circular arcs to candidate curve segments and compute their *fit-quality* and *endabruptness* measures. Total compute time is 70 seconds for the test curve of figure 12 (1270 image curve points) on a mid-1980's era workstation running Lisp.



Figure 18: (a) "Ellipses" test image due to A. Etemadi. (b) Circular arcs depicting curve segments with overall-salience > 15.0 returned by the algorithm. Note similarity of results for ellipses of different sizes.



Figure 19: (a) "Phone" test image due to A. Etemadi. (b) Circular arcs depicting all curve segments returned by the algorithm (312 segments).



Figure 20: (a) Test image due to Lowe [17]. (b) and (c) Circular arcs depicting salient curve segments with *end-abruptness*> .5 at smaller and larger scales, respectively (769 segments).

### 5 Appendix A: Curve Preprocessing Algorithm

This algorithm converts a linked list of points spaced unevenly along a plane curve into a list of evenly spaced points approximating the original curve. This preprocessing step removes city block pixel quantization effects of four-connected or eight-connected curves prior to working with the  $\theta$ -S representation. See figure 21.

```
initialize output-curve(0) \leftarrow input-curve(0)
                                                                         ;first point of output curve
initialize i \leftarrow 1
                                                                         ;input curve index
initialize o \leftarrow 0
                                                                         ;output curve index
initialize d \leftarrow euclidian-distance(output-curve(o), input-curve(i))
loop until (i > curve-length) doing
     loop until ((d > \gamma_{13}) \text{ or } (i > curve-length)) doing
           i \leftarrow (i+1)
           d \leftarrow euclidian-distance(output-curve(o), input-curve(i))
     endloop
     loop until (d < 1.0) doing
           output-curve(o+1) \leftarrow [unit-step from output-curve(o) in direction from
                                                       output-curve(o) to input-curve(i)]
           d \leftarrow euclidian-distance(output-curve(o+1), input-curve(i))
           o \leftarrow o + 1
     endloop
```

endloop



Figure 21: X's: sample points on a test curve. Open circles: points returned by the curve preprocessing algorithm.

# 6 Appendix B: Values of Free Parameters

The following are values of the free parameters of the perceptual salience criteria and curve segment identification algorithm used in the current implementation.

| parameter     | value | use                             |
|---------------|-------|---------------------------------|
| $\gamma_1$    | .5    | subsumed-by measure             |
| $\gamma_2$    | .1    | subsumed-by measure             |
| $\gamma_3$    | 30°   | end-abruptness measure          |
| $\gamma_4$    | .2    | end-abruptness measure          |
| $\gamma_5$    | 20°   | end-abruptness measure          |
| $\gamma_6$    | .2    | Gaussian smoothing kernel width |
| $\gamma_7$    | .15   | candidate segment generation    |
| $\gamma_8$    | .4    | candidate segment generation    |
| <b>7</b> 9    | .25   | fit-quality measure             |
| $\gamma_{10}$ | .6    | subsumed-by threshold for       |
|               |       | pruning candidate segments      |
| $\gamma_{11}$ | 15.0  | fit-quality threshold for       |
|               |       | pruning candidate segments      |
| $\gamma_{12}$ | .1    | end-abruptness threshold for    |
|               |       | pruning candidate segments      |
| $\gamma_{13}$ | 1.3   | curve preprocessing             |

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