

## Pattern Recognition

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### **Abstract:**

Extensive research and development has taken place over the last 20 years in the areas of pattern recognition and image processing. These areas have applications include business (e.g., character recognition), medicine (diagnosis, abnormality detection), automation (robot vision), military intelligence, communications (data compression, speech recognition), and many others. This paper presents a very brief survey of recent developments in basic pattern recognition and image processing techniques.

**Keywords:** Image processing, pattern recognition, decision trees, segmentation.

### **Introduction:**

During the past twenty years, there has been a considerable growth of interest in problems of pattern recognition and image processing. This interest has created an increasing need for theoretical methods and experimental software and hardware for use in the design of pattern recognition and image processing systems. Although pattern recognition and image processing have developed as two separate disciplines, they are very closely related. The area of image processing consists not only of coding, filtering, enhancement, and restoration, but also analysis and recognition of images. On the other hand, the area of pattern recognition includes not only feature extraction and classification, but also preprocessing and description of patterns. It is true that image processing appears to consider only two-dimensional pictorial patterns and pattern recognition deals with one-dimensional, two-dimensional, and three-dimensional patterns in general.

However, in many cases, information about one dimensional and three-dimensional pattern is easily expressed as two-dimensional pictures, so that they are actually treated as pictorial patterns. Furthermore, many of the basic techniques used for pattern recognition and image processing are very similar in nature. Differences between the two disciplines do exist, but we also see an increasing overlap in interest and a sharing of methodologies between them in the future. Within the length limitations of this paper, we provide a very brief survey of recent developments in pattern recognition and image processing.

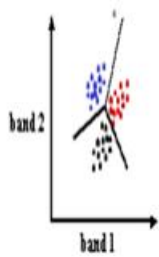
### **PATTERN RECOGNITION:**

#### **Pattern Recognition**

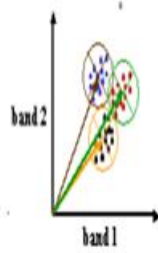
- Pattern recognition in remote sensing has been based on the intuitive notion that pixels belonging to the same class should have similar gray values in a given band. Given two spectral bands, pixels from the same class plotted in a two-dimensional histogram should appear as a localized cluster. o If  $n$  images, each in a different spectral band, are available, pixels from the same class should form a localized cluster in  $n$ -space.

#### **What is a pattern?**

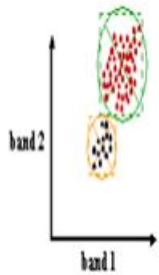
For the purpose of standard classification methods, a pattern is a cluster of data points in an  $n$ -dimensional feature space, and classification is the procedure for discriminating that cluster from other data sources in the feature space.



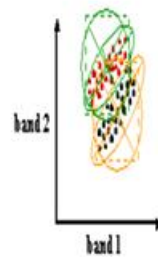
- Focus on distinguishing between pairs of clusters
- clusters separated by lines (or surfaces in n-dimensions)
- 1 line for each pair of clusters



- focus on fully describing each cluster
- each cluster is specified with
  - mean vector
  - distribution (e.g., circle, rectangle, etc.)

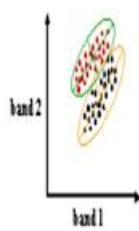


- clusters described by simple distributions
  1. mean vector & circle (variable radius)
  2. rectangle

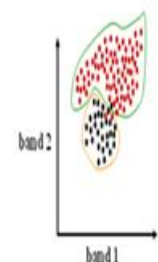


- simple shapes may not describe the actual geometry of cluster.
  - rectangle, circle, ellipse

Pattern Recognition & Classification



- Standard Max-Likelihood: cluster specified with
  - mean vector
  - ellipse



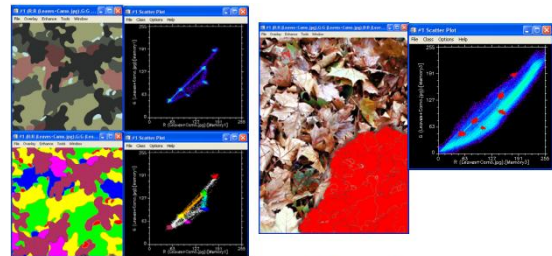
- More general: cluster adapted to sample distribution

Pattern recognition in remote sensing has been based on the intuitive notion that pixels belonging to the same class should have similar gray values in a given band.

- Variations in a cluster will occur even if the pattern is very well defined (e.g., quantization noise,

atmospheric variability, illumination differences, or any number of other "natural" and instrumental sources of variability (e.g., mixed pixels).

- If several patterns (classes) appear as distinct clusters then the classes are discriminable.



Camouflage uses dyes with a very narrow color range, and the colors plot in narrowly defined regions in color space. The connecting lines in the scatterplot are due to mixed pixels on the boundary between two colors.

The distribution of natural materials (e.g., leaves) in color is much broader and may not exhibit distinct clusters

### Decision- Theoretic Methods:

A block diagram of a decision-theoretic pattern recognition system is shown in Fig. 1. The upper half of the diagram represents the recognition part and the lower half the analysis part. The process of preprocessing is usually treated in the area of signal and image processing. Our discussions are limited to the feature extraction and selection, and the classification and learning. Feature extraction and selection: Recent developments in feature extraction and selection fall into the following two major approaches. Feature space transformation: The purpose of this approach is to transform the original feature space into lower dimensional spaces for pattern representation and/or class discrimination. For pattern representation, least mean-square error and entropy criteria are often used as optimization criteria in determining the best transformation.

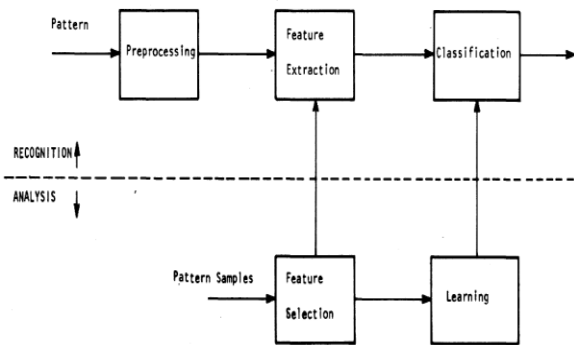


Fig. 1. Block diagram of a decision-theoretical pattern recognition system.

**Syntactic (or Structural) Methods:**

A block diagram of a syntactic pattern recognition system is shown in Fig. 2. Again, we divide the block diagram into the recognition part and the analysis part, where the recognition part consists of preprocessing, primitive extraction (including relations among primitives and subpatterns), and syntax (or structural) analysis, and the analysis part includes primitive selection and grammatical, (or structural) inference. In syntactic methods, a pattern is represented by a sentence in a language which is specified by a grammar. The language which provides the structural description of patterns, in terms of a set of pattern primitives and their composition relations, is sometimes called the "pattern description language." The rules governing the composition of primitives into patterns are specified by the so-called "pattern grammar." An alternative representation of the structural information of a pattern is to use a "relational graph," of which the nodes represent the subpatterns and the branches represent the relations between subpatterns.

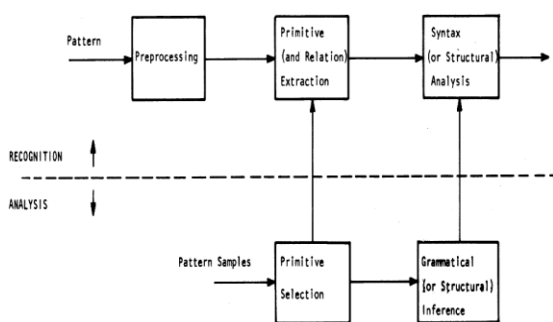


Fig. 2. Block diagram of a syntactic pattern recognition system.

**A. Image Processing:**

**Coding:** In order to acceptably approximate a standard television image digitally, one normally needs an array of about 500 X 500 samples, each quantized to about 50 discrete gray levels-i.e., a total of about 6 bits for each of the 250 000 samples, or 1.5 million bits in all. The goal of image compression (or, as it is more commonly called, image coding) is to represent the image acceptably using a much smaller number of bits. One basic approach to image coding is to apply an invertible transform to the given image, approximate the transform and then construct the approximated image by inverting the transform. The transform can be designed so that it can be approximated more economically than the original image, and so that errors in this approximation become less noticeable when an image is reconstructed from its transform. For example, if we use the Fourier transform, we can achieve economical approximations because many of the Fourier coefficients have negligible magnitudes, and so can be ignored or at least quantized very coarsely.

Moreover, errors in approximating the Fourier coefficients are generally hard to notice when the image is reconstructed, because their effects are distributed over the entire image. Image compressions of as much as 10:1 can be achieved using this "transform coding" approach. Many other approaches to image coding have been extensively investigated, but only a few of these can be mentioned here. One class of approaches takes differences between successive image samples; since these have a very non-uniform probability density (peaked at zero), they can be quantized acceptably using relatively few quantization levels. Note, however, that when the image is reconstructed from such difference images by summing them, errors in the differences will tend to propagate, so that care is needed in using this type of approach. The differences used can be either spatial (intra-frame) or temporal (inter-frame). The expected accuracy of an image coding system can be predicted theoretically if we assume a model for the class of images being encoded and a specific error criterion (usually, mean squared error).

Both of these assumptions are questionable. Images usually consist of distinct parts, so that a homogeneous random field model is inappropriate. On the other hand, the human visual system's sensitivity to errors is highly context-dependent, so that an integrated squared error criterion is inadequate. Work is needed on image coding techniques which segment the image into significant parts before attempting to approximate it; some image segmentation methods will be discussed here under Segmentation. At the same time, increased understanding of human visual capabilities is needed so that better error criteria for image coding systems can be developed. Enhancement and restoration: There has been increasing interest in recent years in techniques for designing two-dimensional digital filters. At the same time, much work is being done on digital methods of enhancing or restoring degraded images. Some enhancement techniques are conceptually very simple, and involve only pointwise modification of the image's grayscale. For example, one can analyze the gray levels in a neighborhood of each image point, determine a grayscale transformation that stretches these levels over the full displayable range, and apply this transformation to the given point (and the points in its immediate vicinity); this and similar techniques tend to give very good enhancement results.

A more sophisticated class of image enhancement techniques are designed to undo the effects of degradations on the image. It is customary to model these degradations as additive combinations of blurring and noise operations, where the blurring takes the form of a weighted sum or integral operation applied to the ideal image, and the noise is uncorrelated with the ideal image. A variety of methods have been developed for inverting the effects of the blurring operator; for example, pseudoinverse techniques can be used to define a de-blurring operator which yields the best approximation to the ideal image in the expected least squares sense. Other classes of methods, e.g., based on Kalman filtering, have been devised to yield least squares estimates of an ideal image corrupted by additive noise. As in the case of image coding, these approaches have usually been

based on homogeneous random field models for the images (and noise), and on least squares error criteria, both of which are questionable assumptions. Here too, image models based on segmentation of the image, and success criteria more closely related to human perceptual abilities, would be highly desirable. A problem closely related to image restoration is that of reconstructing images; or three-dimensional objects, from sets of projections, e.g., from X-ray views taken from many angles. (The gray levels on a projection are linear combinations of the ideal gray levels, just like the gray levels on a blurred image.) Much work has been done in this area in the past few years, especially in connection with medical radiographic applications.

## **B. Image Recognition:**

The goal of image recognition is the classification or structural description of images. Image classification involves feature detection and property measurement; image description involves, in addition, segmentation and relational structure extraction. Some significant ideas in each of these areas are reviewed in the following paragraphs. Historically, the techniques used have usually been developed on heuristic grounds, but there is increasing interest in deriving optimum techniques based on models for the classes of images to be analyzed. Matching and feature detection: Detecting the presence of a specified pattern (such as an edge, a line, a particular shape, etc.) in an image requires matching the image with a "template," or standardized version of the pattern.

This is a computationally costly process, but techniques have been developed for reducing its expected cost. For example, one can match a sub-template (or a reduced-resolution "coarse template") with the image at every point, and use the remainder of the template (or the full-resolution template) only at points where the initial match value is above some threshold. The sub-template size, or the degree of coarseness, can be chosen to minimize the expected cost of this process. In computing these matches, one should first check parts of the template that have large expected mismatch values (with a randomly chosen part of the picture), in

order to minimize the expected amount of comparison that must be done before the possibility of a match at the given point is rejected. Of course, the savings in computational cost must be weighed against the possible increased costs of false alarms or dismissals. Template matching is often implemented as a linear operation in which the degree of match at a point is measured by a linear combination of image gray levels in a neighborhood of the point. However, the result of such a linear operation is generally ambiguous; for example, it may have the same value for a high-contrast partial match as it does for a lower contrast, but more complete match. Such ambiguities can often be eliminated by breaking the template up into parts and requiring that specified match conditions be satisfied for each part, or for the most of the parts.

This approach has been used to detect curves in noise; it needs to be extended to other types of image matching problems. The use of template parts can also help overcome the sensitivity of template matching to geometrical distortion. Rather than matching the entire template with the image, one can match the parts, and then look for combinations of positions. Optimal combinations can be determined by mathematical programming techniques, or by simultaneous iterated reinforcement of the partial matches based on the presence of the other needed matches. Research on these approaches is still at an exploratory stage.

### Segmentation:

Images are often composed of regions that have different ranges of gray levels, or of the values of some other local property. Such an image can be segmented by examining its gray level (or local property) histogram for the presence of peaks corresponding to the ranges, and using thresholds to single out individual peaks. Detection of the peaks can be facilitated by histograms of only a selected set of image points, e.g. Points where the local property value is a local maximum, or points that lie on or near region boundaries (which can be identified by the presence of high values of a derivative

operator). Parallel methods of region extraction based on thresholding are potentially less flexible than sequential methods, which can "learn as they go" about the geometrical, textural, and gray level properties of the region being extracted, and can compare them with any available information about the types of regions or objects that are supposed to be present in the image. Such information can be used to control merging and splitting processes with the aim of creating an acceptable partition of the image into regions. An important special case of sequential region growing is tracking, which extracts regions (or region boundaries) in the form of thin curves. This technique can be regarded as a type of piecewise template matching, where the pieces are short line or curve segments, and a curve is any combination of these that smoothly continue one another; thus, here again, curves can be extracted by mathematical programming or iterated reinforcement techniques. The same is true for a wide variety of problems involving the selection of image parts that satisfy given sets of constraints.

### Properties:

Once regions have been extracted from an image, it becomes possible to describe the image in terms of properties of these regions. Much work has been done on regions in a digitized image, such as connectedness, convexity, compactness, etc. Describing the shape of a region involves not only global properties such as those just listed, but also a hierarchically structured description in terms of "angles" and "sides" (i.e., polygonal approximation, of varying degrees of coarseness), symmetries, and so on. Two "dual" methods of describing a region involve its boundary and its "skeleton." A region is determined by specifying the equations of its boundary curves; and it is also determined by specifying the centers and radii of the maximal disks that it contains [14]. These disks define a sort of minimal piecewise approximation to the shape; such approximations can also be defined for grayscale images composed of regions that are approximately piecewise constant. Skeleton descriptions can also be used in three dimensions, where a shape can be constructed

out of "generalized cylinders," each of which is specified by a locus of centers and an associated radius function. Grayscale, as well as geometrical, properties of regions are of importance in image description. Of particular importance are textural properties (e.g., coarseness and directionality), which can be measured in terms of certain statistics of the second-order probability density of gray levels in the region - or equivalently, statistics of the first-order probability density of gray level differences (or other local property values). Textures can be modeled as distorted periodic patterns, as two-dimensional "seasonal time series", or in terms of random geometry; such models can be used to predict the values of the property measures for real-world textures. Image and scene analysis: Image descriptions can usually be expressed in the form of relational structures which represent relationships among, and properties of, image parts. A major area of artificial intelligence research has been the study of how knowledge about the given class of scenes can be used to control the process of extracting such descriptions from an image.

In addition to the study of control structures for image analysis, there has also been recent interest in special data structures for image processing and description, e.g., "cone" or "pyramid" structures for variable-resolution image analysis and "fuzzy" structures for representing incompletely specified image parts. The term "scene analysis" is generally used in connection with the description of images of three-dimensional objects seen from nearby, so that perspective and occlusion play major roles in the description. (Note that the images being analyzed in applications such as document processing, photomicrography, radiology, and remote sensing are all basically two-dimensional.) Much work has been done on the extraction of three-dimensional depth information about scenes, using range sensors, stereo pairs of images, or single-image depth cues such as shading and texture gradients. These techniques are beginning to be applied to the analysis of various types of real-world indoor and outdoor scenes.

Another approach to image analysis involves the use of formal models derived from the theory of multidimensional formal languages.

#### IV. CONCLUSIONS:

It has been felt that in the past there was an unbalanced development between theory and practice in pattern recognition. Many theoretical results, especially in connection with the decision-theoretic approach, have been published. Practical applications have been gradually emphasized during the last five years, particularly in medical and remote sensing areas. Most of the practical results are considered inconclusive and require further refinement. Implementation of a practical system is often on a general-purpose computer facility rather than on special purpose hardware. There is no doubt that, though heavily motivated by practical applications, pattern recognition is still very much an active research area. In the decision-theoretic approach, we are still looking for effective and efficient feature extraction and selection techniques, particularly in nonparametric and small sample situations. The computational complexity of pattern recognition systems, in terms of time and memory, should be an interesting subject for investigation. In the syntactic approach, the problem of primitive extraction and selection certainly needs further attention.

An appropriate selection of the pattern grammar directly affects the computational complexity or analysis efficiency of the resulting recognition system. Grammatical inference algorithms which are computationally feasible are still highly in demand. In image processing, better image models are needed for user (the human visual system). Image models should also be used more extensively in the design of optimal image segmentation and feature extraction procedures. Thus image and visual models need further development in both image processing and recognition.

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