



Topology and Image Analysis

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Abstract: - A wide-scope of mathematical approaches is being used to the greater value in the intelligent data analysis. The basic mathematical concept about the shapes is Topology. This article shows how topology is appropriately reformulated to be valuable in the activities of intelligent data analysis.

Keywords: Topology, data analysis, Image Analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

An ultimate expressive study of shapes is termed as Topology. Bringing these ideas into the realistic practice is fairly challenging, because the conventional topology is an inexhaustible -precision concept, where as actual information stands equally finite with in range as well as quantified in the dimension of time and space. The arena of computer-based topology grew from this encounter [3,7].

Among the doctrines, in the concept of variable-resolution topology the data characteristics (like the quantity of components, holes, as well as the respective dimensions with varied precisions) are analyzed, and from the restrictive characteristics of those curvatures the topology is construed. This framework [17,18,19] is superlative for intelligent data analysis.

From the work of Cantor, connectedness as well as components in a set of data is assessed.

Definition-1:

A pair of points is defined as 'ε-connected' provided $\exists$ a ε-chain linking that, and $\forall$ points in a ε-connected set is associated by a ε-chain.

Note-1:

The fundamental quantities [18] used to achieve this work are: $C(\epsilon)$ = | ε-connected components |, $D(\epsilon)$ = Max(diameter), and $I(\epsilon)$ = | ε-singleton points |.

From [17,19], all the above mentioned three dimensions for an array concerning ε values can be computed as well as the topological characteristics of the fundamental set S on the basis of their restrictive characteristics were deduced. The characteristics of C and D are evident when S is connected.

When $\epsilon \rightarrow \infty$, each and every point in S were ε-connected, also $C(\epsilon) = 1$ then $D(\epsilon)$ is the largest diameter of S until $\epsilon \rightarrow$ the largest spacing between any two points in S, where $C(\epsilon) = 2$ creating two subsets as well as $D(\epsilon)$ narrows toward the largest of their diameters etc.

If $\epsilon \rightarrow$ the minimum spacing between any two points in S, then each point is a ε-connected module, $I(\epsilon) = C(\epsilon)$, and $D(\epsilon) \rightarrow 0$.

For any disconnected fractal S, the characteristics are almost the same but C and D reveal a staircase pattern with varying ε due to the data gaps' scaling.

For instance, though $\epsilon \rightarrow$ the maximum gap size in the center one-third region of a Cantor set, $C(\epsilon)$ doubles also $D(\epsilon)$ reduces by means of one-third, and so on repeating the scaling when $\epsilon \rightarrow$ next-smallest gap size. The results of fractal dimensional relationships are derived, detailed, and demonstrated, and debated [18].

Pixelation also cause staircase effects as it quantifies spacing distances between any two points resulting in confusion that way the fundamental data set has severed fractal geometry.

Propositions of Discrete Geometry is used for the computer implementation of calculating these connectedness –The MST Fig.1(a) and (NNG) the Nearest Neighbor Graph.

For MST creation, Prim's Algorithm[5] is applied, start with some nearest nbd point in the set, add the immediate point, and repeat till all points fall under the tree.

A directional graph with an edge from neighbors $x_A \rightarrow x_B$, provided $\{x_B: |x_B - x_A| < \delta\}$ is a NNG. Towards creating it, start through the MST, preserve the fleeting edge originating from every point. Mutually these algorithms can be easily executed in R^d .

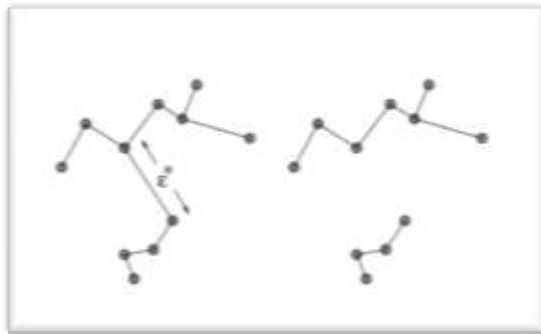
The computational complexity in MST is commonly $O(N^2)$, where as in the plane, it is $O(N \log N)$, whereby $N = |\text{data points}|$.

To calculate C and I, just count the boundaries.

$C(\epsilon) > 1 + |\text{MST boundaries}| > \epsilon$

$I(\epsilon) = |\text{NNG limits}| > \epsilon$.

Fig.1. Computing Connectedness

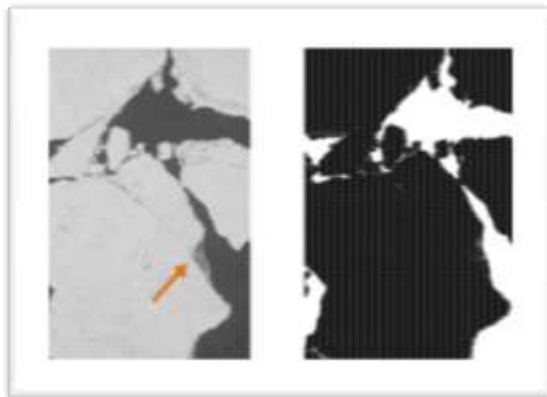


(a)

(b)

(a) The Minimal Spanning Tree (MST) connects the nearest neighbors in a dataset with its boundaries

(b) This set includes two ϵ -linked components if $\epsilon \lesssim \epsilon^*$



(c) (d)

(c) An in-flight representation of a piece of Ocean; the orange pointer implies a bay abounding small icebergs

(d) The MST of the iceberg pixels in (c)

Note-2:

- Count NNG edges with multiplicity.
- The reason for multiplicity is because x_A becomes x_B 's closest neighbor does not imply the reverse is true (i.e., provided some point $x_C \neq x_B$ and $x_C > x_A$).
- The NNG and MST are needed to be constructed only once.
- All of the I and C details for various ϵ values are in their edge dimensions.

Remove the edges $> \epsilon$ to spot the individual ϵ -elements. Normal computational geometry is used on ϵ -connected components to discover its diameter $D(\epsilon)$.

In intelligent data analysis, the trees and the statistics set in their edges are very valuable. Vertical jumps in $C(\epsilon)$ occurs at values corresponding to gaps' sizes in a dataset. Diameter $D(\epsilon)$ is of clear value for relating the objects' sizes, as well as $I(\epsilon)$ used to sort out the noise.

In Fig.1(c), the MST can structure out as a white and black patch of Arcticocean. The tiny bay pointed by the arrow is abounding small ice floes in the dominant wind appears as grey. In Fig.1(d), the MST appears white, is small pouches of ice and water. All these quantities were mesh well through the sea-ice image MST capturing exactly with the number of floes resolved with instrument of precisions 1m, 5m, 10m, etc.

TheChapter 2 illustrations extend these ideas. MSTs can consolidate points into structures, creating applicability in clustering errands in pattern recognition [2, 8].

MST's branching structure can also be used in various possibilities like identifying orbit kinds indynamical methods[24] or on the way todetect discontinuities in the bubble-chamber tracks[25].

Chapter 3 covers the applications ofMST include Clustering, coherent-structure extraction,transverse 'hairs' creation on trees, noise addition and filtering out points by pruning the associated edges.

Through homology, using algebraic groupsassociation of an object in every dimension, other vital topological propertieslike number, shape, and sizeof the gaps in an object can bebrandedarithmetically.

Definition-2:

If every homology group H_n provides various connected components at every order, n , and rank, k , then the Betti number, $b_n = k$ is represented as

$$H_n(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}^k, \text{ then } b_n(X) = k$$

Note-3:

Geometric indications ofthe addedBetti numbers depend upon the dimensions of the space, the subject belongs to.

- A wide array of holes is represented by b_1 in two dimensions.
- A numerous open-ended tunnels are represented by b_1 in 3D whereas enclosed voids in 3D are given by b_2 .

The object's homology groups can be definedbydistinct geometricalillustration[14]:

- In 2D, subsets' orienteering.
- In 3D or higher dimensions, a simplicial complex.

Computational practice of the holesusesEdelsbrunner's α -shape algorithm [10] thatcalculates the Bettinnumbers on the basis oftopologicaltriangulations of data at various resolutions. Primarily, thepresumption flattens data by creating the α -nbdthat is the union of balls $B_\alpha(\epsilon)$ or $B(\epsilon; r)$ centered at each data pointe.

When $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$, α -nbd is a uniquely connected B . Since α reduces, the α -nbddiminishesandresolves betteroutline details in the data.

When $\alpha \rightarrow 0$, $B_\alpha(\emptyset)$ fitswithin the data devoid ofdata points creating gap in α -nbd[6].

A α -nbd of any data set can have numerous holes thatcan be computed by varying α , and infer the topological properties [16,17].

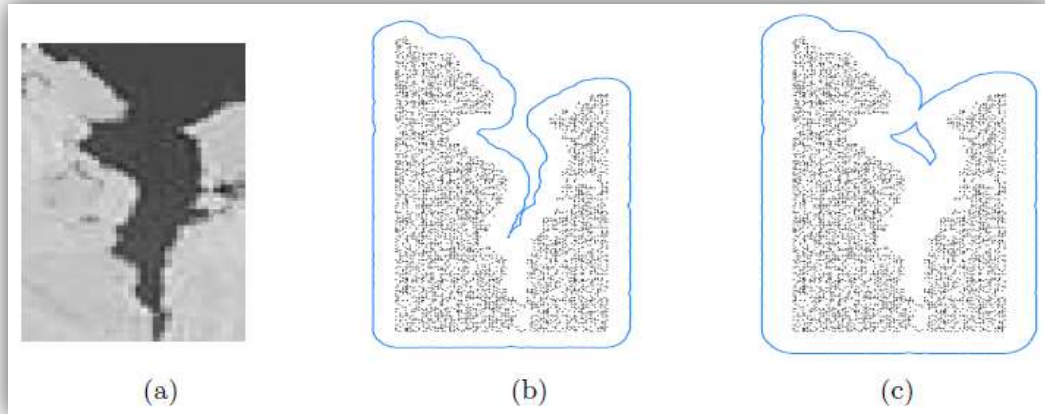
The Fig.2 shows thata set with no holes can end up having holes in the α -nbds caused by the geometry of the set. This fallacy can be resolved with a well-definedset-mapping of inside of its α -nbd.

Definition-3:

For all $\epsilon < \alpha$, $b_k(\epsilon, \alpha)$ is the holes' count in the α -nbdsuch that $\exists$ holes in the ϵ -nbd. These are Persistent BettiNumbers (PBN).

[9, 19] defines PBN for sequences ofcomplexes and for α -shapes, incrementally providing better approximations.

Fig.2. Holes Calculation



α -nbds can find if (a) includes a bay, also if true, how extensive its opening is (b) as well as (c) shows α -nbds of the icebergs in (a) for some of the α 's.

Note-4:

Anon-persistent holehindersperforming a spot-onvital topology diagnosis giving geometric information onSet embedded in the plane. This is vital in coherent structureextraction.

In Fig.2,

- $b_1(\alpha) = 0$ if $\alpha < \text{half the breadth of the bay's mouth}$,
- $b_1(\alpha) = 0$ if $\alpha > \text{the principal radius of the bay's interior}$, and
- $b_1(\alpha) = 1$ if α ball fits within the bay, and does not fit in the bay's opening.

Note-5:

The ' α ' value for the fake hole is exactly the half-the-width of bay's opening.

If the hole was in the iceberg instead of bay, then $b_1(\alpha)$ is a staircase function

- $b_1(\alpha) = 0$ when $\alpha > \text{the maximum hole radius}$, and
- $b_1(\alpha) = 1$ when $\alpha < \text{the maximum hole radius}$.

This coherent structure characterizing technique is pivot in intelligent data analysis of all gaps and holes of different shapes like channels, tunnels, ponds, peninsulas, etc.

II. EXTRACTION OF COHERENT STRUCTURE

In this chapter, three examples are used which demonstrate the adjustable-resolution topology approaches to discover coherent architectures in aerial footages of glaciated ocean with ice floes, melt pond, and openwater leads (Fig.3).

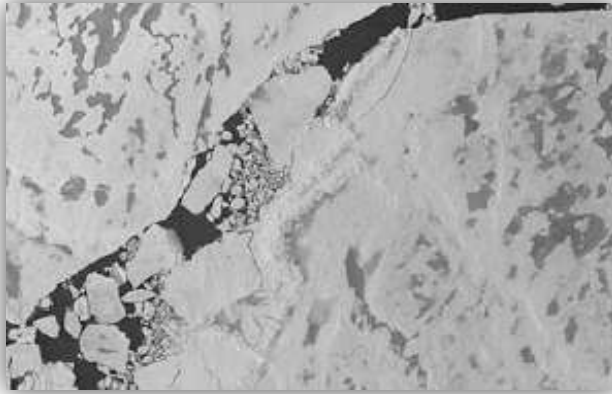


Fig.3. The arctic glacier is composed of ice floes, melt ponds and open water leads respectively shown as white, grey and black.

One of the application areas of topology is climatology, which studies the seasonal development of the coherent structures of Arctic ocean. Hence to process large number of images with terabytes of total data, automating topology-supported solutioning methods are enhanced.

The three examples and contents of this chapter explains

- discovering open water leads throughout an ice pack,
- differentiating parts of various frost and water concentrations, also
- learning the distribution of the size and number of the melt ponds in ocean glaciers.

Identifying the size, position, and shape of ice floes and open water leads in the polar zone help the ships in finding a way through an intricate glacier part of the ocean. The adjustable-resolution computational topology approaches from Chapter-1 are helpful in resolving the issue.

Considering an n -Meter-wide (nMw) ship which must navigate the patch from the right towards the left is revealed in Fig.4(a).

Fig.4. The α -shapes used to discover a way through the ice pack.



(a)

(b)

(c)

(d)

The three α -nbds concerning iceberg meant by white pixels within (a) are (b), (c), and (d).

Resolving this situation by applying α shape procedure, with $\alpha = n/2$, involves assessment of the ice holes, hence brink the data as well as shed the water (dark pixels).

Fig.4(b) identifies all holes $\geq nMw$, resulting into two holes highlighted with orange arrow. Then using computational geometric methods, determine the shortest hole that reaches from one end to the other end.

Fig.4(c) and (d) show, for $\alpha > (n/2)M$, the channel shape as well as the holes relationship in that α -nbd, consecutively determining some water regions $\geq \alpha M$ from ice.

Holistically, α -shapes evaluate the water and ice mix in all regions. It also determines

- the distribution of regions' sizes
- discover and illustrate regions of diverse ice concentration.
- holes that are water leads either in the water or the ice pixels.

Fig.5(a) depicts when the ice $\rightarrow$ solid, the water channel is narrow and determined as a minute α -hole in those ice pixels.

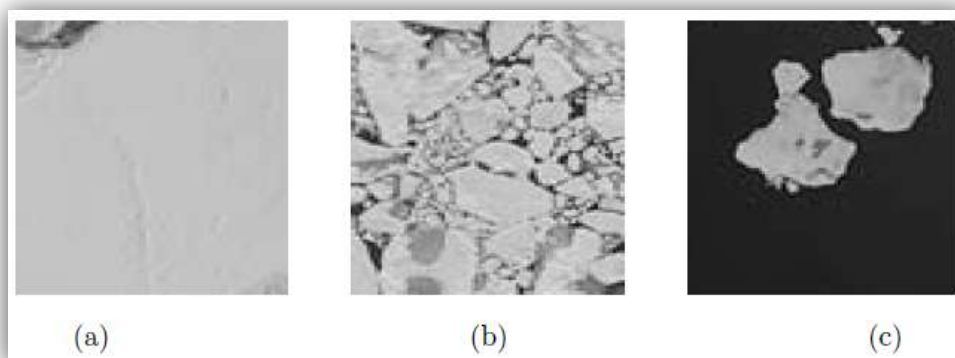
Fig.5(c) depicts when open water area is large and only a few ice-floes, α shape study of pixels representing water identifies huge holes for a considerable number of α values.

Note-6:

For a group of lesser α values, those α -nbds fills the gaps in the ice-floes resulting in fake holes.

Fig.5(b) depicts the ice-floes distribution with a wide α variety where a minute change identifies new holes in the water pixels of the ice-floes.

Fig.5. α shape study to differentiate diverse degree of morphology of the water and ice.



(a) mostly-solidified ice (b) water with different sized icebergs (c) water with a few large icebergs

The temporal transformation of aforementioned albedo¹ of sea ice is a pivotal factor that governs the power-law [15] distribution of the melt ponds' size.

α -shapes help in calculating the distributions by thresholding the data to mark the 'non-pond' ice or 'non-pond' water points black, and detecting holes in that data.

Fig.6. The Computational topology as well as melt ponds

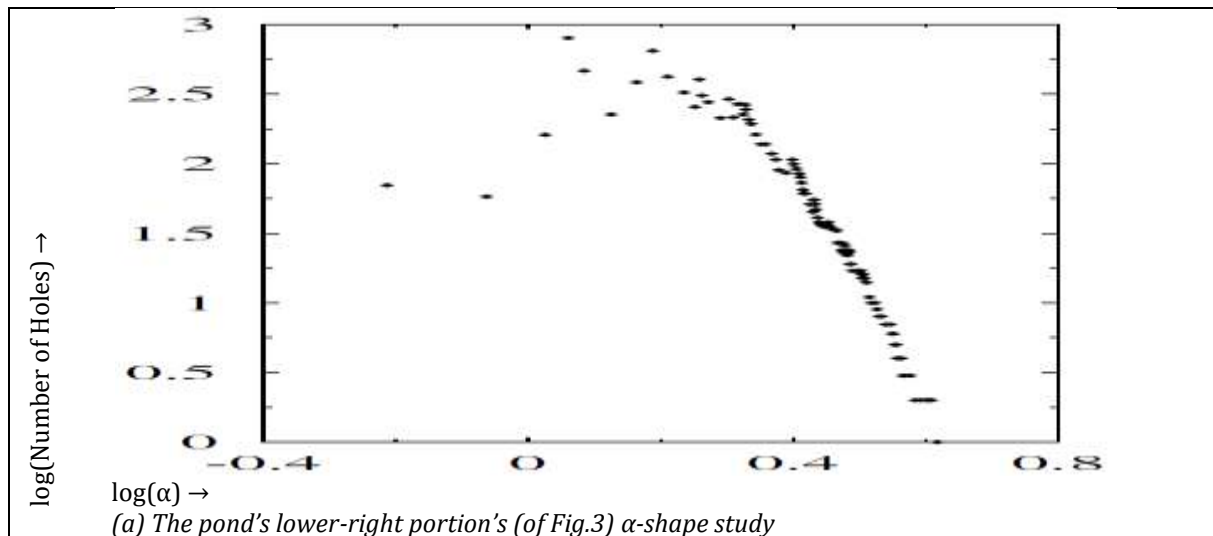


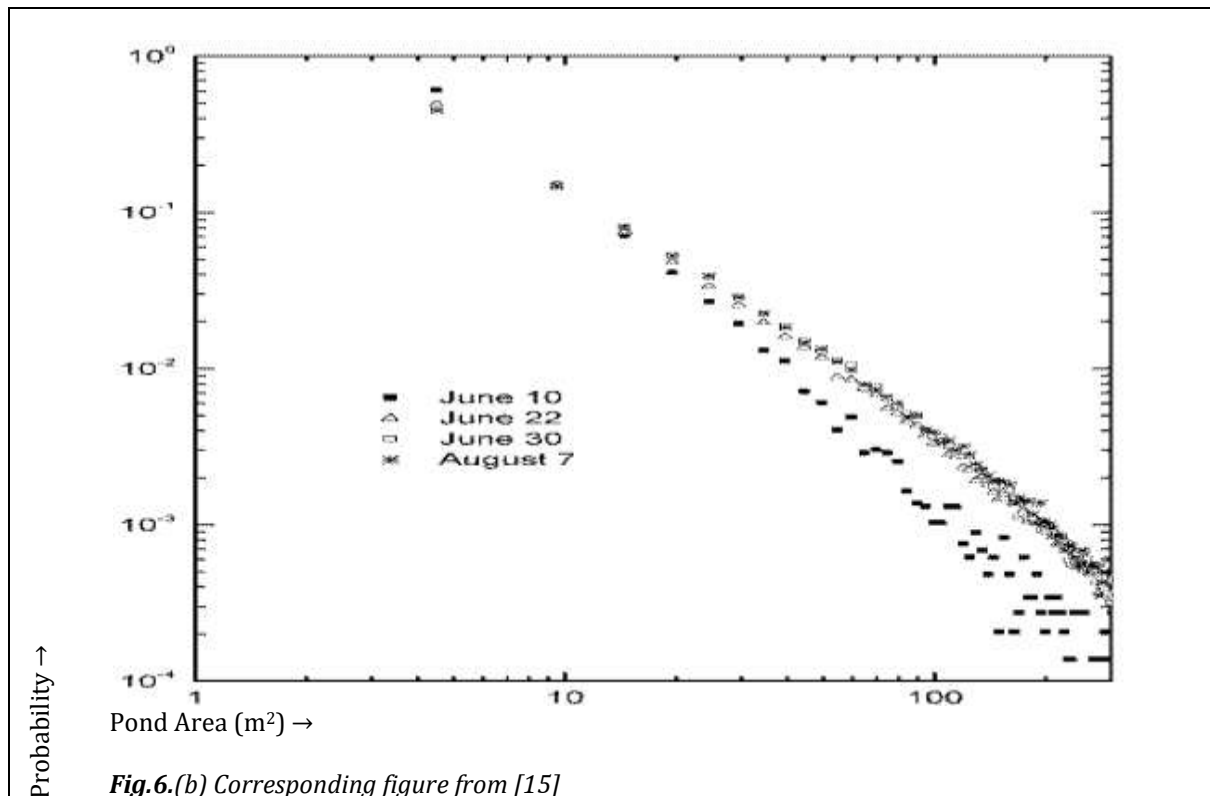
Fig.6(a) shows the results that substantiates the power-law distribution hypothesis absolutely. For the initial region $\log \alpha < 0.3$, changes to resolve headlands as well as bays in that melt-ponds, and graphical design is impartially undeviating.

Albedo is a measure of an extent of light which hits a surface being reflected even though it is not absorbed. White color has maximum Albedo, whereas darker colors have less albedo.

Fig.6(b) replicates the resultant graph [15] for the contrast.

Note-7:

- The power-law gradients in Fig.6(a) as well as (b) differ as the horizontal axis for plots are pond radius and pond area respectively.
- When the additional power of 2 is considered, the power-law slopes of Fig.6(a) and (b) match with a deviation $< 8\%$ because not all ponds are flawlessly circular.



Calculating the Pond's MST as shown in Fig.6(c) demonstrates similar curves followed by an excerpt, the connected component parts for their areas as well as diameters.

To handle the vagueness, and identify spatial and temporal patterns of real coherent structures, the concepts of multiple-resolution topology, spatial statistics and artificial intelligence are syndicated.

Note-8:

- Computational topology generates cumulative measurements on the full dataset. Using spatial statistics alongside, with topospacial analysis sub-regions with different measurements are distinguished.
- Artificial intelligence (AI) approaches help in recognizing coherent facilities with a wide range of representations and techniques harmonized with topospacial study.

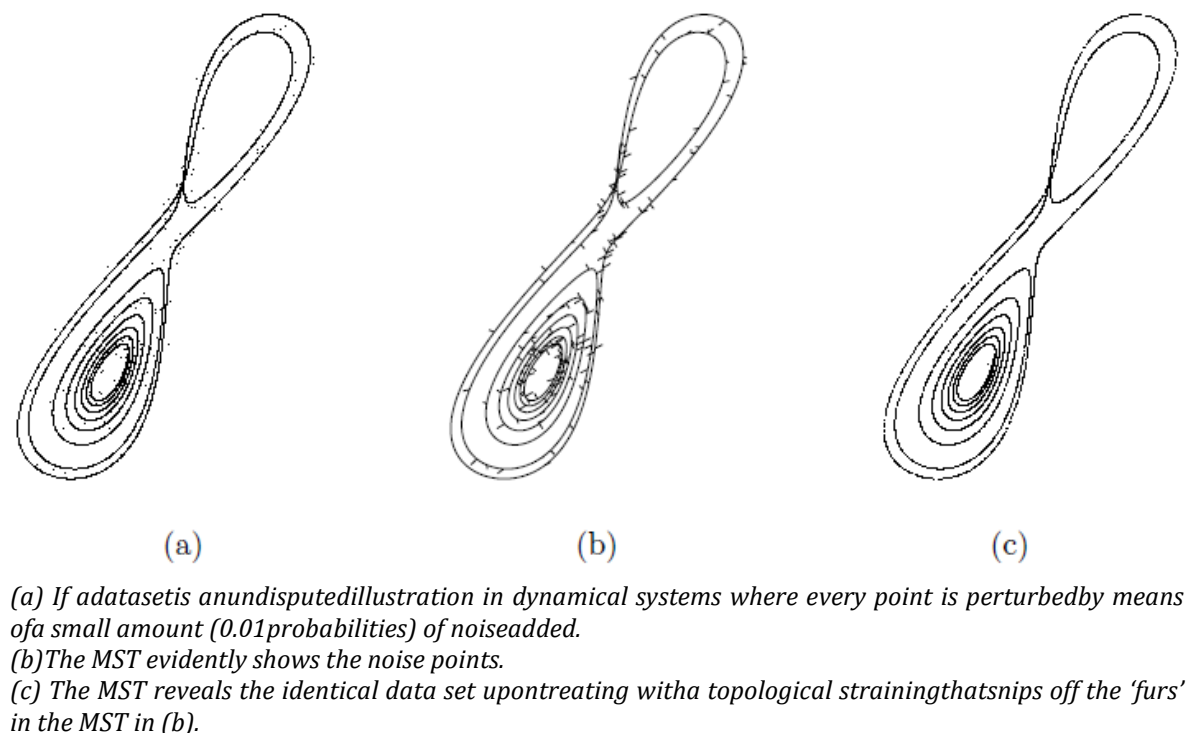
III. FILTERING

In reality, the data habitually includes some form of noise.

- Traditional linear filters can remove some of the noise excluding all due to ahectic behavior.
- Fourier-based filters can remove all the signals in a few noise-band considerably [23].

Topology-based filters are better in removing almost all noises of all bands. This filter treats noise as isolated points, and these points are identified by variable-resolution topology. Fig.7 establishes the fundamental ideas.

Fig.7. The impacts of noise on data topology



The spanning tree fetches a shift in the direction as well as in the edge-length of those noise points in the orbit.

- If $|\text{noise}| \gg$ the spacing between any two noise points, then the connecting MST edges $>$ original edge lengths.
- If $|\text{noise}| \ll$ the spacing between any two noise points, then the connecting MST edges are shorter, and the noise points are unclear.

This kind of scale separation happens when two processes work on the data. So variable-resolution topology can be used to find and eliminate the noise points with the following steps:

- i. Meticulously look for $I(\epsilon)$, i.e., first and second peaks, in the distribution of edge-length of MST
- ii. The longest edge of MST of the noiseless data $\in I(\epsilon)$ breakpoint, where almost all noise points, and very few non-noise points are ϵ -singletons.
- iii. Trim each and every MST edge which exceed that range by eliminating the points upon their limits as in Fig.7(c)

3.1. EXPERIMENTAL DATA ANALYSIS AND METRICS

The filter based on topology removed 1068 out of the 1090 noise points (= 98.0% success) also 300 out of 15712 non-noisy points (which is 1.9% false positive).

- Those results were better than some noise-reduction or linear filter techniques [1].
- Increasing the pruning length decreases the false-positive rate.

- These success and false-positive rates can vary to some extent for various types as well as quantities of noise; however, they persist close to the 100% as well as 0% [20] respectively.
- This filter will not perturb the aggressive Lyapunov exponent [20].

Note-9:

- This method just removes noise points without inferring where each point should be and move it in that direction. This issue can be sorted out by using arithmetic average of the points on both sides of the main edge linking the inaccessible point to the remaining orbit.
- In rasterized descriptions noise does not move points instead shades individual pixels.
- The MST is more effective in detecting distortion type noise [4].

IV. CONCLUSION

The mutable-resolution topology framework has unmatched vista for an intellectual data analysis (automated discovery and illustration of orderly structures). Fig.6(b) was plotted by means of processing manually the 1000 images, that required roughly 25 man-days. Fig.6(a) was plotted through automation in a few minutes time. From the experimental analysis, the topological straining recognized almost 100% of the noise points and with a very-low false-positive rate. Few other topology-based filtering approaches [13] utilize algebraic topology to hypothesize a coarsely-grained illustration of data as a filter to reduce the noise issue. Instead of algebraic topology, geometric topology is used to remove noise points to get the finer-grained results.

Only a very few papers came out on straining the orderly frames' topology in the data [12, 21], and are restricted to 2D or 3D. Many of the current commercial off-the-shelf tools that deal with geographic data systems [22] as well as computer digital image processing [4] are designed with an uncomplicated topological process like connectedness or adjacency which could work merely with 2D latticed data, also not an unreliable resolution. The variable-resolution topology framework is algorithmically generic and computationally precise, and it works in all dimensions that include fractal dimensions as well.

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