

# Focused Image Color Quantization using Magnitude Sensitive Competitive Learning Algorithm

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**Keywords:** Color, Quantization, Competitive Learning, Neural Networks, Saliency.

**Abstract:** This paper introduces the Magnitude Sensitive Competitive Learning (MSCL) algorithm for Color Quantization. MSCL is a neural competitive learning algorithm, including a magnitude function as a factor of the measure used for the neuron competition. This algorithm has the property of distributing color vector prototypes in certain data-distribution zones according to an arbitrary magnitude locally calculated for every unit. Therefore, it opens the possibility not only to distribute the codewords (colors of the palette) according to their frequency, but also to do it in function of any other data-dependent magnitude focused on a given task. This work shows some examples of focused Color Quantization where the objective is to represent with high detail certain regions of interest in the image (salient area, center of the image, etc.). The oriented behavior of MSCL permits to surpass other standard Color Quantization algorithms in these tasks.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

With the great development of the informatics in our society, large amount of scanned documents and images are being transmitted and stored. Therefore, some kind of image compression, to reduce the number of color patterns in the image, becomes necessary to reduce storage and transmission resources. This process is generally achieved by means of Vector Quantization (VQ) techniques. The idea behind VQ is the selection of a reduced number of prototypes that accurately represent the whole data set. When each data sample is a vector representing the color of a pixel, it is called Color Quantization (CQ). This type of algorithms are being widely used in certain applications related to segmentation, compression, and transmission of images.

A subset of VQ algorithms comprises Competitive Learning (CL) methods, where a neural network model is used to find an approach of VQ calculation in an unsupervised way. The main advantage over other VQ algorithms is that CL is simple and easily parallelizable. Well known CL approaches are K-means (Lloyd, 1982), including some of its variants as Weighted K-Means and improvements (Celebi, 2011), Frequency Sensitive Competitive Learning (FSCL) (Ahalt et al., 1990), Rival Penalized Controlled Competitive Learning (Xu et al., 1993), the Self-Organizing Map (SOM) (Kohonen,

2001), the Neural Gas (NG) (Martinetz et al., 1993), Elastic Net (EN) (Durbin and Willshaw, 1987) and Generative Topographic Mapping (GTM) (Bishop et al., 1998). Some of these methods, or variants, have already been used in CQ and Color Segmentation tasks. Uchiyama and Arbib (Uchiyama and Arbib, 1994) developed Adaptive Distributing Units (ADU), a CL algorithm used in Color Segmentation that is based on a simple cluster splitting rule. More recently, Celebi (Celebi, 2009) demonstrated that it outperforms other common algorithms in a CQ task. Fuzzy C-Means (FCM), is a well-known clustering method in which the allocation of data points to clusters is not hard, and each sample can belong to more than one cluster (Bezdek, 1981).

Celebi presented a relevant work using NG, (Celebi and Schaefer, 2010). SOM has also been used in color related applications: in binarization (Papamarkos, 2003), segmentation (Lazaro et al., 2006) and CQ (Dekker, 1994), (Nikolaou and Papamarkos, 2009), (Cheng et al., 2006) and (Chang et al., 2005) where author presents FS-SOM a frequency sensitive learning scheme including neighborhood adaptation that achieves similar results to SOM, but less sensitive to the training parameters. One variant of special interest is the neural network Self-Growing and Self-Organized Neural Gas (SGONG) (Atsalakis and Papamarkos, 2006), a hybrid algorithm using the GNG mechanism for growing the neural lattice and

the SOM leaning adaptation mechanism. Authors proved that it is one of the most efficient Color Reduction algorithms, closely followed by SOM and FCM.

Methods based in traditional competitive learning are focused on data density representation to be optimal from the point of view of reducing the Shannon's information entropy for the usage of codewords in a transmission task. However, a codebook representation with direct proportion between its codeword density and the data density are not always desirable. For example, in the human vision system, the attention is attracted to visually salient stimuli, and therefore only scene locations sufficiently different from their surroundings are processed in detail. A simple framework to think about how salience may be computed in biological brains has been developed over the past three decades (Treisman and Gelade, 1980), (Koch and Ullman, 1985), (Itti and Koch, 2001).

In this article we propose the use of the Magnitude Sensitive Competitive Learning (MSCL) algorithm (Pelayo et al., 2012) for Color Quantization. This algorithm has the property of distributing unit prototypes (unit weights, or codewords, or palette colors) in certain data-distribution zones according to any arbitrary user-defined magnitude to focus the CQ task on image zones of main interest, and not only to distribute the codewords according to the data density, as it will be shown in the applications section 3. Section 4 shows the conclusions of this work.

## 2 THE MSCL ALGORITHM

MSCL is an online algorithm, easily parallelizable, that follows the general *Competitive Learning* steps:

**Step 1. Selecting the Winner Prototype.** Given an input data vector, the competitive units compete each other to select the winner neuron comparing their prototypes with the input. This unit, also called Best Matching Unit (BMU) is selected in MSCL as the one that minimizes the product of a user-defined Magnitude Function and the distance of the unit prototypes to the input data vector. This differs from other usual competitive algorithms where BMU is determined only by distance. MSCL is implemented by a two-step competition: global and local, as it is explained in subsections 2.3 and 2.4.

**Step 2. Updating the Winner.** winner's weights are adjusted iteratively for each training sample, with a learning factor forced to decay with time.

Prototype of unit  $i$  ( $i = 1 \dots M$ ) is described by a vector of weights  $\mathbf{w}_i(t) = (w_{i1}, \dots, w_{id})$  in a  $d$ -dimensional space, and the magnitude value  $MF(i, t)$ . This function is a measure of any feature or property

of the data inside the Voronoi region of unit  $i$ , or a function of the unit parameters, for example the frequency of activation as in FSCL. The idea behind the use of this magnitude term is that, in the case of a sample placed at equal distance from two competing units, the winner will be the unit with lower magnitude value. So, the result of the training process is that units will be forced to move from data regions with low  $MF(i, t)$  to regions where this magnitude function is higher. It differs from other Competitive Learning algorithms using some kind of competitive factors in that the magnitude value in MSCL is used in the competition phase, while some of these algorithms, like Weighted K-Means, use certain weight values associated to every input pattern during the winner-update phase. So, they need to update units codewords in batch mode, not allowing online training.

The next subsections describe the algorithm, which flowchart is shown in figure 1.

### 2.1 Initialization

$M$  unit weights are initialized with data inputs randomly selected from the dataset (with  $N$  samples). Then the Magnitude Function  $MF(i, t)$  is calculated from this initial codeword.

### 2.2 Random Selection of Data Samples

A sample data  $\mathbf{x}(t) = (x_{t1}, \dots, x_{td}) \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is randomly selected at time  $t$  from the dataset. This process will be repeated until every data has been presented to the MSCL neural network. It is worth mentioning that it is recommended to retrain the neural network several cycles with the whole dataset to make results independent from data-presentation ordering.

### 2.3 Global Unit Competition

In the first step,  $K$  units ( $K = \min(d + 1, N)$ ) with minimum distance from their weights to the input data vector are selected. These units form the set:

$$S = \{\mathbf{w}_k\} \vee \|\mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{w}_k(t)\| < \|\mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{w}_i(t)\| \quad \forall i \notin S \quad (1)$$

### 2.4 Local Unit Competition

Next, the winner unit  $j$  belonging to  $S$  which minimizes the product of its Magnitude Function and the distance of its weights to input data vector is selected:

$$j = \underset{k}{\operatorname{argmin}}(MF(k, t)\|\mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{w}_k(t)\|) \quad \forall k \in S \quad (2)$$

## 2.5 Winner Updating

Only winner's weights are iteratively adjusted for each training sample as follows:

$$\mathbf{w}_j(t+1) = \mathbf{w}_j(t) + \alpha(t)(\mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{w}_j(t)) \quad (3)$$

where  $\alpha(t) = \alpha_{ini}(\alpha_{final}/\alpha)^{t/T}$  is the learning factor forced to decay with iteration time ( $t = \{1, \dots, T\}$ ), being  $\alpha_{ini}$  and  $\alpha_{final}$  constants.

Afterwards, the new magnitude function  $MF(j, t)$  is calculated from this codeword. It is important to avoid null values for the magnitude function otherwise the competition will be distorted. Although an on-line training is preferred, because it is more likely to avoid local minima in contrast to batch methods, when the cost of the magnitude calculation is high the processing time can be reduced by updating the magnitude only once per epoch.

## 2.6 Stopping Condition

Training is stopped when a termination condition is reached. It may be the situation when all data samples have been presented to the MSCL neural network along certain number of cycles (if a limited number of samples is used), or the condition of low mean change in unit weights, or any other function that could measure the training stabilization.

## 3 APPLICATIONS

In the following examples, data samples are 3D vectors corresponding to the RGB components of the image pixels. We have used the RGB space in order to have comparable results to other works. The general purpose is to get a reduced color palette to represent the colors in the image paying attention to different objectives. The next five examples show that, adequately selecting the magnitude function, it is possible to get an optimal palette according to the desired application.

### 3.1 Homogeneous Color Quantization

First example shows the case we call Homogeneous Color Quantization. The mean quantization error ( $Q_{err}$ ) for all samples within the Voronoi region of unit  $i$  is used as magnitude function. The  $Q_{err}$  for sample  $x$  is the distance between  $x$  and its corresponding best matching unit. This Magnitude forces the palette colors to be uniformly distributed over the data distribution in the RGB space independently of its

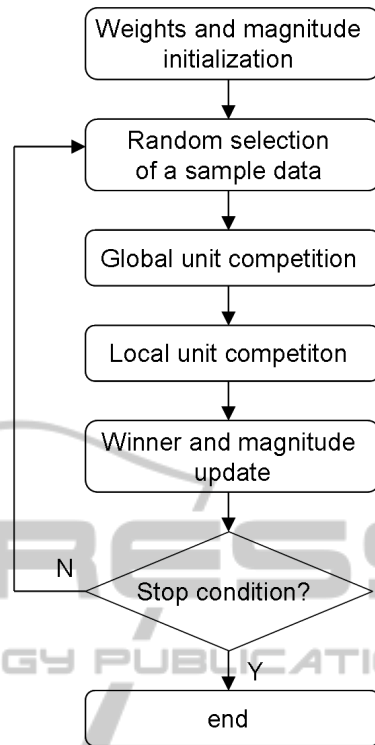


Figure 1: MSCL flowchart.

data density. We use the known Tiger, Lena and Baboon images for performance comparison in CQ tasks (marked in tables as  $T^*$ ,  $L^*$  and  $B^*$ , where  $*$  is the number of colors). Homogeneous MSCL (M-h) and Centered MSCL (M-c, explained in subsection 3.2) are compared against the most successful neural models used in different papers: SOM, FSCL, FCM, FS-SOM, ADU and SGONG. The number of units is the desired color-palette size. Training process applied learning rates between (0.7-0.01) along three cycles, except in ADU which algorithm parameters selection follows (Uchiyama and Arbib, 1994). The threshold for adding/removing a neuron used in SGONG was (0.1/0.05).

Figure 2 shows the color reduction effects for tiger image with ADU, Homogeneous MSCL and Centered MSCL (Only Tiger image is represented due to space limitation). Table 1 shows the average Mean Squared Error (MSE) for ten trials with different number of palette colors (8, 16 and 32). Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR) measure can be easily calculated from MSE value. In general, ADU outperforms all other models, closely followed by SOM and FS-SOM. However, it is clear that ADU (top-right image in figure 2) paints the tiger skin with greenish color as an effect of the over-representation of green colors. Both MSCL results (bottom images in figure 2) tend

Table 1: MSE calculated in the whole image (ex. 1 and 2).

Image	Som	FSCL	M-h	FCM	FSSom	ADU	M-c	Sgong
T8	987	1016	1037	1005	<b>985</b>	990	1095	987
T16	566	596	577	606	564	<b>562</b>	667	570
T32	334	343	341	357	328.1	<b>327.8</b>	409	574
L8	401	416	424	451	<b>400.2</b>	406	406	400.9
L16	216	234	215	234	216	<b>214</b>	217	218
L32	121	126	122	141	120	<b>119</b>	125	222
B8	1120	1126	1138	1151	<b>1117</b>	1126	1227	1121
B16	633	641	633	693	<b>632.4</b>	632.8	751	635
B32	380	389	380	440	<b>375.2</b>	375.9	479	442

to maintain orange colors in the tiger skin, as they are not focused on data density representation.



Figure 2: Original Tiger image (*top-left*) and its reconstruction using 8 colors applying: ADU (*top-right*), Homogeneous MSCL (*bottom-left*) and Centered MSCL (*bottom-right*).

### 3.2 CQ Focused in the Image Center

Previous example provides a CQ task giving equal importance to every pixel of the image, and not distinguishing between pixels of the foreground or the background. However the more interesting image regions usually are located in the foreground center. Using MSCL with the adequate magnitude function is possible to get a palette with colors mainly adapted to pixels located in the foreground. In this example we use the following magnitude function:

$$MF(i,t) = \frac{\sum_{V_i} (1 - d(\mathbf{x}_{V_i}(t)))}{V_i(t)} \quad (4)$$

Where  $\mathbf{x}_{V_i}(t)$  are the data samples belonging to the Voronoi region  $V_i(t)$  of unit  $i$  at time  $t$ , and  $d(\mathbf{x}_{V_i}(t))$  is the normalized distance, in the plane of the image, calculated from the corresponding pixel position to the center of the image. We compare the performance of Centered MSCL (focused on image center),

Table 2: MSE calculated in the image center (ex. 1 and 2).

Image	Som	FSCL	M-h	FCM	FSSom	ADU	M-c	Sgong
T8	1223	1311	1207	1263	1214	1244	<b>1151</b>	1226
T16	626	710	596	735	631	608	<b>485</b>	655
T32	361	381	356	408	353	355	<b>283</b>	407
L8	445	472	436	552	440	447	<b>423</b>	447
L16	265	294	273	301	262	266	<b>254</b>	267
L32	161	167	160	187	159	159	<b>149</b>	163
B8	1346	1354	1210	1421	1343	1338	<b>1062</b>	1321
B16	708	740	683	833	705	689	<b>602</b>	714
B32	381	412	387	515	372	374	<b>354</b>	539

with the same methods used in previous example. The number of colors and training parameters were also the same.

*M-c* column of *Table 1* shows the resulting average MSE using Centered MSCL for the whole images. Prototypes tend to focus on colors in the central part of the image so, the MSE for the whole image is worse than those obtained using other methods since the background is under-represented. However, when repeating the measures in the central area of the image (150x170 pixels), this algorithm outperforms the others because its color palette models mainly the central region of the image. *Table 2* shows the resulting MSE values in central image area for all methods.

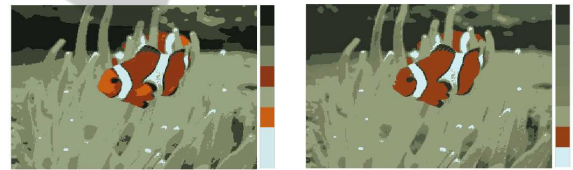


Figure 3: Fish example using MSCL (*left*) and FSCL (*right*) with 8-color palette.

### 3.3 CQ Avoiding Mean Color

Some images present dominant background colors with a few very different colors appearing in little details. The magnitude function defined in this example forces units to avoid the greyish mean color of the whole image ( $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ ), so other color regions are represented in more detail:

$$MF(i,t) = \|\mathbf{w}_i(t) - \bar{\mathbf{x}}(t)\| \quad (5)$$

*Figure 3* represents the image with the reduced color palette for MSCL (*left*) and FSCL (*right*), and their corresponding color palettes. MSCL obtained a more vivid color representation that includes three greyish greens, two orange colors, two clear colors and one stronger black, while FSCL tends to concentrate the units in the most common colors, showing five greyish greens.

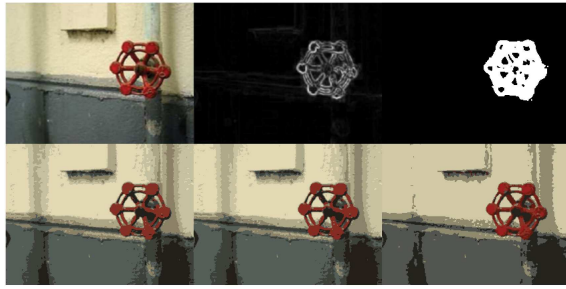


Figure 4: Saliency example. *Top row, from left to right:* Original image, saliency map (clearer values for high saliency), the mask binary image used for MSE measurement and (*bottom row, from left to right*) the reconstructed image with an 8-colors palette from: SOM, FS-SOM and MSCL focused on the saliency.

### 3.4 CQ Focused in Salient Colors

The aim of salient feature detection is to find distinctive local events in images. Some works exploit the possibilities of color distinctiveness in salient detection, (Vazquez et al., 2010). This example shows the MSCL algorithm generating a color palette focused on those salient regions. The chosen magnitude function is the mean computational global saliency as defined in (Vazquez et al., 2010). The magnitude is normalized by the maximum, and varies from one to values close to zero in zones with low saliency (see image in *Figure 4* in the middle of the top row). We used 8 colors with decreasing learning rates between 0.7 and 0.01 for every algorithm.

*Figure 4* shows the results. The first two algorithms (SOM, FS-SOM) only obtain a red color and present higher MSE values (SOM: 103.21 and FS-SOM: 103.07) in those pixels belonging to the white mask region of saliency (third top image of figure 4). However, using the global saliency (second top image of figure 4) as the magnitude for MSCL, the resulting image shows three red variants and the MSE error is lower (87.5). It is worth noticing that some other colors are under-represented, which constitutes a minor problem if the goal is to highlight the salient regions of the image.

### 3.5 Image Binarization

The binarization of a text grey-scale image is a process where each pixel in a image is converted into one bit '1' or '0' depending upon whether the pixel corresponds to the text or the background. First row of *Figure 5a* shows the image of a badly illuminated document (image a), and the results of applying classical binarization algorithms: Otsu method (b), filtering of original image with Laplacian operator (c) and its bi-

narization with Otsu (d). Otsu Method definitely fails to get an adequate binarization because of the dark grey values in the right margin of the paper. Filtering with Laplacian operator provides a better result, because it is an edge extraction mask. However, this method does not fill the letters. Competitive learning can be used for this application by training 2 units to represent two levels of gray-scale, which should correspond to the background and foreground classes. Second row of *figure 5* shows the results with: (e) SOM, (f) MSCL in homogeneous grey quantization, (g) MSCL with two features (further explained), and (h) Otsu binarization of last example. The application of MSCL with only two neurons, as shown in (f), is equivalent to the Otsu Method because when using as mean of the data the unit weights representing the class, the mean quantization error for each unit is proportional to the standard deviation of the class.

The quantization result can be improved by using as input a combination of the gray-level values and the result of Laplace filtering. Therefore data samples will be two dimensional vectors combining the values of both features. So, if we apply MSCL using homogeneous quantization we will get the two-level image (g) and the corresponding binarized image (h). This result is better than those achieved by other classical methods.

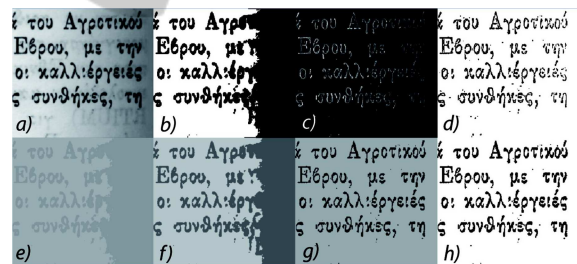


Figure 5: Binarization example: in *top row* (a) original image, (b) Otsu method, (c) filtering with Laplacian operator, and (d) its binarization with Otsu; in *bottom row* (e) SOM, (f) MSCL in homogeneous grey quantization, (g) MSCL with two features, and (h) Otsu binarization of (g).

## 4 CONCLUSIONS

This paper has shown the capabilities of the MSCL algorithm for Color Quantization. MSCL is a neural competitive learning algorithm including a magnitude function as a factor of the measure used for the unit competition. The magnitude factor is a unit parameter calculated from any user-defined function dealing with the unit parameters or the data that it captures. The competitive process is executed in a two-step comparison, first step is as usual a competitive

learning method using distances to selected K winners, and in the second step those K units compare their distances factorized by their magnitude values. The model is parallel and can be executed on-line.

MSCL is compared with other VQ approaches in four examples of image color quantization with different goals: focused on image foreground, avoiding mean color, focused on saliency and text image binarization. The results show that MSCL is more versatile than other competitive learning algorithms mainly focused on density representations. MSCL forces the units to distribute their color prototypes following any desired property expressed by the appropriate magnitude of the data image. So, MSCL selects more colors in the palette to accurately represent certain interesting zones of the image, or generates palettes focused on less represented, but interesting colors.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work is partially supported by Spanish Grant TIN2010-20177 (MICINN) and FEDER and by the regional government DGA-FSE.

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