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VISUAL IDENTIFICATION OF PEOPLE BY COMPUTER

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER SCIENCE
AND THE COMMITTEE ON THE GRADUATE DIVISION
OF STANFORD UNIVERSITY
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By
Michael David Kelly
August 1970 ^{+P}

I certify that I have read this thesis and that in my opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Paddy

I certify that I have read this thesis and that in my opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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I dedicate this work to my wife Joan.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Most present day picture processing programs are unsuitable for the analysis of naturally occurring visual scenes. When presented with objects such as trees, cars, and people, these programs would become hopelessly confused. What is more, after looking at the structure of these programs, it becomes obvious that there are no simple generalizations of these techniques which will succeed. This thesis describes an attempt to develop a computer program which performs a complex picture processing task. The task is to choose, from a collection of pictures of people, those pictures that depict the same person.

In brief, the program works by finding the location of features such as eyes, nose, or shoulders in the pictures. Individuals are classified by measurements between such features. The interesting and difficult part of the work reported in this thesis is the detection of these features in digital pictures.

The methods of the program as well as the goals of the research are summarized in the next chapter. In general, the primary purpose of this research has been directed toward the development of new techniques for picture processing. The identification of people is only an interesting problem that can be used for this purpose. It

is an interesting problem because pictures of people are so complex, and there is great variation between pictures. This is in sharp contrast to the simple geometrical solids used so often in research in picture processing.

No one has previously dealt successfully with complex objects such as people in computer picture processing. The success of the program is due to and illustrates the heuristic use of context and structure. A new, widely useful, technique called planning has been applied to picture processing. Planning is a term which is drawn from artificial intelligence research in problem solving.

The bulk of the work of this thesis has been devoted to methods of finding low level features such as eyes or shoulders in digital pictures. Many of the methods developed by previous researchers have been applied to different parts of the problem. The large number of methods that are used can be indicated by summarizing the techniques used in recognizing each part of the picture. Each method is discussed more fully in the remainder of the thesis. The position of the body is located by subtraction of the background. The top of the head and the feet are identified by template matching. The edges of the head, neck, shoulders, and hips are found by edge detection operators. The outline of the head is obtained using planning to guide goal directed search after using edge detectors. The eyes are found by dynamic threshold setting followed by smoothing.

and template matching. The nose is located by dynamic threshold setting. The mouth is found with a line detection operator. All of these methods are applied heuristically in a goal directed manner which is based on an implicit model of the structure of the human body.

A large part of the success of this research is due to the availability of powerful interactive computer facilities for experimentation with the picture processing algorithms. Most often in devising algorithms for identifying particular features, it was found that intuition was faulty. The experimental procedure used to develop the final methods went somewhat as follows. For a particular feature a method for identification would be postulated. This method would be programmed and tried. Usually the method would fail. Using the display terminals available on the time-sharing system it was possible to watch the progress of the algorithm while it was running. Parameters could be varied interactively. This led to insight as to why the method failed and would suggest new methods or modifications. This "postulate-try-fail" loop usually had to be repeated many times before a satisfactory method was found. Once the method was found, "fine-tuning" was made feasible by the interactive facilities.

HISTORY.

My first interest in this problem began in a class project in the winter of 1967. A small amount of effort was devoted to this problem until the spring of 1968 when serious work began. The past two years have been devoted to this thesis research and to a study of basic picture processing procedures.

At first one of the goals was to recognize people on-line as they were standing in front of the TV camera. Eventually it turned out that the characteristics of the TV input system available prevented this. The chief problem is the inability of the system to provide detail over a wide range of light intensity values. If the entire video signal is digitized, very little detail is present. In order to get facial details, the video signal must be clipped top and bottom and the resulting narrow window digitized. This leads, however, to the necessity of adjusting external lighting, TV sensitivity, and clip levels for each person. This is time consuming and so error-prone as to be impractical. It demands too much of the patience of a volunteer subject. The work of J. M. Tenenbaum [1970], on automatic accommodation of visual parameters, promises improvement in this area.

As a consequence of the limitations on the quality of TV input, the following scheme was adopted for obtaining acceptable pictures. A number of pictures of people would

be taken in a picture taking session. Later these pictures would be examined visually by printing them on a line-printer using an approximate grey-scale (about 5 minutes per picture) or displaying them on a storage tube (about 20 minutes per picture). Those pictures which contained sufficient detail would be retained for processing. Minor faults did not cause a picture to be excluded; this was not a selection to fit the peculiarities of the recognition program.

ORGANIZATION.

This thesis is structured to discuss first the problem, next the solutions, and then the results. The next chapter will outline the goals of this research and relevant past work. Chapters 3 to 5 discuss the solutions in broad terms and in comparison with alternative approaches. Chapter 3 surveys picture analysis and description. Chapter 4 discusses goal-directed picture processing and the use of models. Chapter 5 covers the new technique, planning. Chapters 6, 7, and 8 examine the recognition algorithms in detail. Chapter 9 outlines the use of the nearest neighbor classification algorithm. The final chapter summarizes results and offers suggestions for further work.

CHAPTER 2

THE PROBLEM - RECOGNITION OF PEOPLE

This chapter will describe the overall goals and methods of the research described in this thesis. The method used for recognition will be outlined briefly to provide an overview of the structure of the program. In addition, past work on the recognition of people by computer will be summarized.

GOALS.

There is great potential for enhancing the usefulness of computers by the addition of visual input capabilities. The primary goal of the research reported here has been the development and improvement of techniques for computer picture processing.

The term "picture processing" is used in this thesis to mean the processing of a picture obtained from the outside world. It includes areas often called "pictorial pattern recognition" and "picture analysis and description". It excludes generation of pictures by computer, so-called "computer graphics". This corresponds to Rosenfeld's usage of "picture processing" [1969a]. (Miller and Shaw [1968] ascribe a wider meaning to the term.)

An effort has been made to apply heuristic methods, drawn from artificial intelligence research in problem

solving, to computer picture processing, "A heuristic is a rule of thumb, strategy, trick, simplification, or any other kind of device which drastically limits search for solutions in large problem spaces" (Feigenbaum and Feldman [1963], p. 6). The term artificial intelligence has been used with a wide variety of meanings by specialists in various fields. In this thesis artificial intelligence research is considered to be complex problem solving by computer (of problems which may require intelligence for their solution) using heuristic techniques. Examples of such research include the General Problem Solver of Newell, Shaw, and Simon [1959]; programs that play checkers and chess (Samuel [1967], Greenblatt et al. [1967]); and the Dendral program of Lederberg and Feigenbaum [1968] for inference in organic chemistry.

Effective computer picture processing will probably come about via the incorporation of heuristic methods. The problems to be solved are large, complex, and not well understood. Adaptation to picture processing of generally effective heuristics used by artificial intelligence workers appears to be the best way to attack these problems. Surprisingly, in the past there has been relatively little interaction between these two research areas.

Advancement of computer picture processing can come from work on a specific problem. Past experience is meager and generally useful concepts are few. The primitive state

of knowledge makes it appropriate to attempt a particular problem with hopes of generalizing the results. This is what has been done in the work reported here.

The problem which has been chosen is the following: develop a program which will identify people from pictures taken by a TV camera attached to a computer.

OUTLINE OF THE METHOD.

The general scheme of operation of the program can be summarized as follows. Two pictures of the individual to be recognized are read into the computer. One is a picture of the entire body, head to feet. The other is a close-up of the head. The program processes the pictures to locate feature points such as the irises of the eyes, nostrils, the top of the head. Once these points are found, measurements are derived from them such as height, distance between eyes, width of head, etc. These measurements are then used in a pattern classification algorithm to extract the identity of the person from a dictionary containing known individuals and their measurements.

The method outlined above appears quite straightforward: locate features, obtain measurements, classify pattern. Obviously, obtaining measurements once feature points are located is a trivial operation. The final stage of the method, pattern classification, has been well studied. Given a good set of features, there are standard

classification algorithms which may be used. However, the first step, locating the features in a digital picture, is a process about which very little is known.

This then is the main effort of this thesis research: accurately locating desired specific points on pictures of people. Such low level picture processing, called variously feature extraction, pre-processing, or characterization of the picture, is generally recognized as the most difficult part and the principal problem in pattern recognition. (See, for example, Ho and Agrawala [1968], p. 2102.) It is worthwhile emphasizing, in view of the fact that so much previous work in pattern recognition has been concerned with mathematical techniques for classification, that in this work classification has received only minor attention.

Measurements from the face and body should provide a good means of identifying people. The reason for this expectation is that physical measurements were the basis of the Bertillon system for identification of people, which had wide use in police work prior to the discovery of the usefulness of fingerprints (Thorwald [1965]). This expectation is confirmed by the results obtained by Bledsoe which are described later in this chapter.

The measurements which have been selected for use in this thesis are given in Figures 2-1 and 2-2. Each measurement is normalized by dividing it by the measured

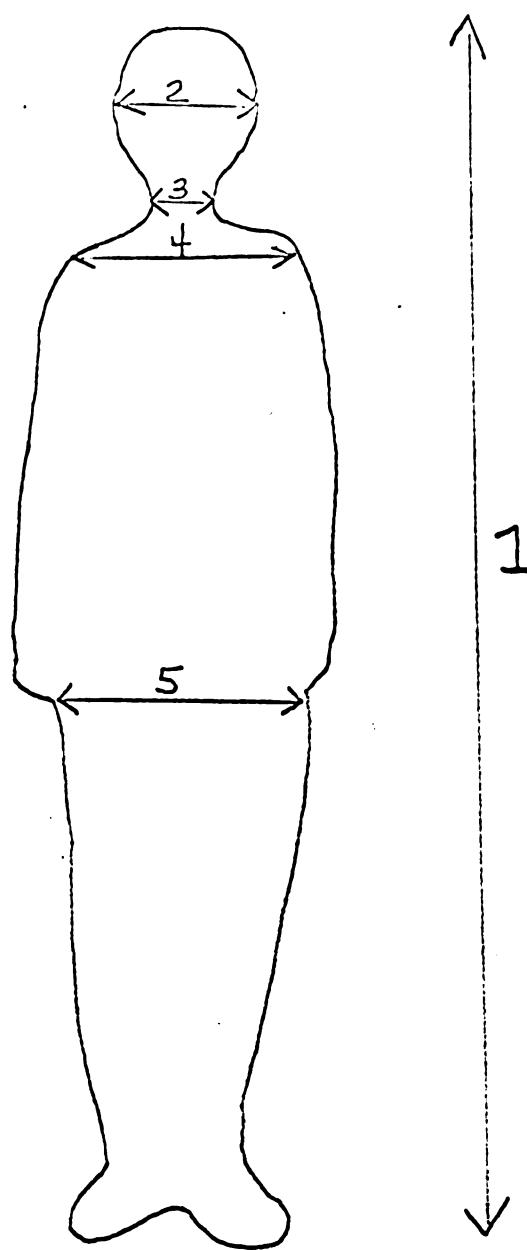


Figure 2-1. Measurements from the body.

1. Height.
2. Width of head.
3. Width of neck.
4. Width of shoulders.
5. Width of hips.

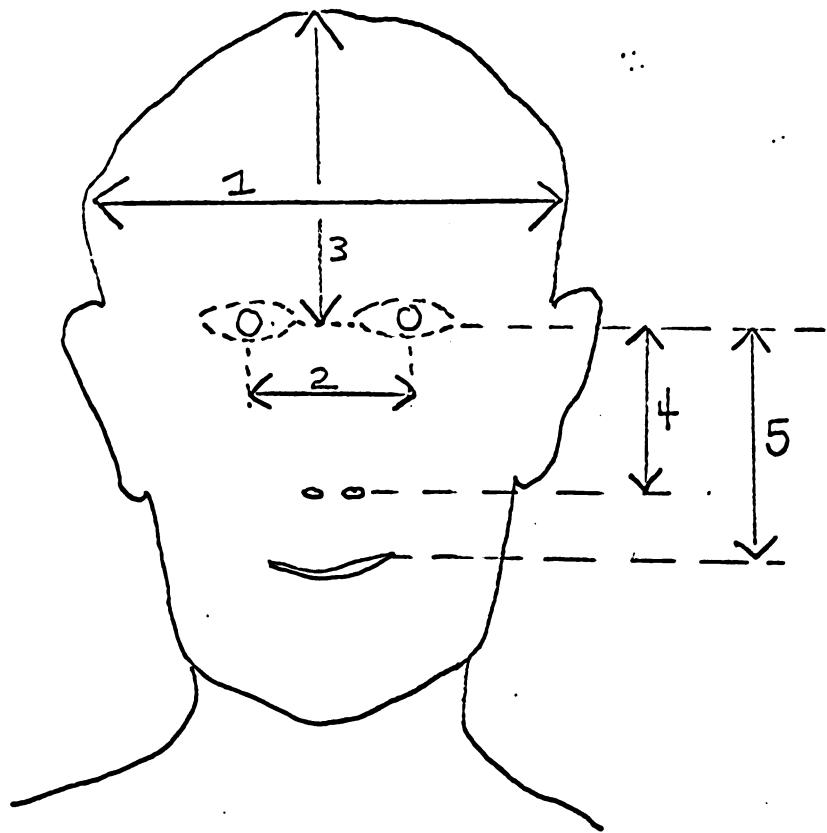


Figure 2-2. Measurements from the head.

1. Width of the head,
2. Distance between eyes,
3. Distance from top of head to eyes,
4. Distance from eyes to nose.
5. Distance from eyes to mouth.

height.

PREVIOUS WORK,

A number of papers have appeared in which pictures of faces have been partially processed by computer and the results displayed. Examples are the papers by Narasimhan and Forango [1964] and Hueckel [1969]. Both of these papers present computer produced line drawings of faces which were derived from grey scale input pictures. Such operations are fine for presenting faces to the human eye but represent only a very small step toward computer description and recognition.

The principal prior work on recognition of people by computer has been done by W.W. Bledsoe. This work was begun at Panoramic Research, Inc. and continued with P.E. Hart at Stanford Research Institute. (See Bledsoe [1964] and [1966]).

There are differences and similarities between the work of Bledsoe and the work reported here. The chief difference is that Bledsoe created a man-machine system in which a human operator, working with a face projected on a Grafacon or "Rand tablet", located the feature points on the face and manually pointed out their position for the computer to record. In contrast, my work consists primarily of an attempt to automate this feature location step. Bledsoe was concerned with recognition of photographs of faces; I

consider both body and face, Bledsoe permitted a wide variation in head rotation, tilt, lean, photograph quality, and light contrast; I require much more standardization of pose and can obtain it since I control the picture taking environment. In spite of these differences, the work reported here follows the basic idea for visual identification of people first laid out by Bledsoe: find the measurements and use them for identification. Another way of summarizing this is: automate the identification techniques of Bertillon.

Bledsoe's results verified that facial measurements made on photographs could be used effectively for facial recognition. In his work, measurements were obtained from 2000 photographs, 2 photographs for each person in the sample. Given a set of measurements for an unknown person, the classification system attempted to supply a name or a small list of names which included the unknown individual. Using various classification methods Bledsoe found that an average reduction in uncertainty of about 1/100 could be obtained.

Bledsoe's group was also concerned to a limited extent with finding features automatically (Bisson [1965a], [1965b]). The results of this were inconclusive; many problems were encountered trying to determine the location of feature points. Bledsoe's success with facial classification using measurements while leaving open the

problem of automatic feature location has been a stimulus for the work reported in this thesis.

Sakai, Nagao, and Fujibayashi [1969] have reported their work on finding faces in photographs. Their goal is to detect if a face or faces are present in a picture. They first produce a picture which contains the edges of the input picture. A large oval template corresponding to the head outline is then matched with the edge picture. All reasonable positions and sizes of the template are tried. In those positions where the oval template receives a high response, the head hypothesis is checked by further template matching that expects many edges in the eyes, nose, and mouth and few edges on the forehead. This method appears to be time consuming, and the result is only an approximate location for the head in the picture.

Three Russians, El'bur [1967], Yurans [1967], and Rastrigan [1967], have presented methods for identifying faces from photographs. The methods assume that a representation of a face as a set of points is available. The papers are mostly on projective geometry; there is very little mention of application. Hart [1969] has prepared a summary of the content of these papers.

CHAPTER 3

PICTURE ANALYSIS AND DESCRIPTION BY COMPUTER

This chapter will discuss past work in automatic picture analysis and description. Applications will be summarized briefly. Useful techniques which have been developed will then be described in some detail.

APPLICATIONS,

Applications of computer picture processing can be summarized as an area of much past work with little solid success. Many experiments have been performed which have used computers to process and identify visual images. In only one area has this work passed from the experimental to the practical. This area is optical character recognition (OCR). The methods used for OCR will be discussed. Following this some of the other application areas will be surveyed.

Character reading machines are a practical success. To quote a long time leader in the development of the field, "It is now possible to read with any desired accuracy any reasonably good printing whether done by typewriter, high-speed printer, or typesetter" (Rabinow [1968], p.24). In many ways, the problems encountered in reading characters are different from and simpler than the problems found in more general picture processing. Nevertheless, because of

the great success which has been achieved by OCR, it is appropriate to examine the methods which have been used to achieve this success so that their potential for other types of picture processing may be considered.

One method which has been used for successful OCR is special input, designed for recognition. The many character sets intended for machine reading are examples of this. Rabinow reports building a high resolution machine to read alphanumeric characters specifically designed for machine reading. "It read without error, that is, it has read several billion characters without a single error and the reject rate is something of the order of one character in 2 million" ([1968], p.7). Control of the input with recognition in mind must be considered in any general picture processing task.

Special character sets are not the only characters which can be read by reading machines. In general however it is the fact that printed characters are black against a contrasting background, with more or less sharp edges, that permits the use of straightforward recognition methods with success. A good discussion of the recognition methods used, the subject of the next several paragraphs, may be found in Character Recognition 1967 (British Computer Society [1967]).

Character readers generally recognize characters by template matching. The character "A" for instance is

compared with idealized specimens of "A", "B", . . . , "Z" to determine the best match. The matching is not however a straightforward cross-correlation, which ignores the fact that many characters have common areas and that some areas are nearly unique. Rather, a weighted mask is correlated with the unknown character. In particular, the unknown character is usually represented as grey values on a rectangular matrix A_{ij} . For each character, C , to be recognized there is a weight matrix W_{ij}^c . The score for character C is then $S^c = \sum W_{ij}^c A_{ij}$ (ignoring character positioning). The weights for particular characters are most often obtained heuristically and intuitively. This sort of weighted template matching can be useful in picture processing when the object to be found can be reliably characterized as to shape and relative grey values.

Another recognition method used in OCR is stroke analysis. In this method a character is classified by a group of characteristic properties and features. For instance a "T" might be required to consist of a long vertical stroke with a horizontal stroke at the top. The individual strokes may be found using weighted templates as before. This method is currently used on highly stylized characters. However, it is an example of the sort of two-stage method that is necessary when the input has wide variability.

In contrast to the success of optical character

recognition, applications in other areas are only partially successful or are experimental.

Recognition of blocks and simple geometrical solids has been the goal of much interesting recent research. The first work of this nature was done by Roberts in his work "Machine perception of three-dimensional solids" [1963]. This was a computer program which processed and recognized pictures of blocks and wedges. From a photograph, a line drawing of the scene was extracted. The line drawing was processed and a list of the three-dimensional objects in the scene was produced. Once the object list was obtained, various two-dimensional projections of the objects could be displayed. This work was particularly noteworthy in two respects. First, solutions were developed for the difficult problems encountered in going from the representation of a picture as a matrix of light intensities to the representation of a picture as a line drawing. Roberts' edge detection operator will be discussed in detail later in this chapter. Secondly, Roberts introduced the use of a four-dimensional, homogeneous coordinate system to handle perspective transformations.

The Stanford University Artificial Intelligence Project is attempting to develop visual and motor capabilities for computers. Building on the work of Roberts, several programs have been written which can recognize blocks on a tabletop. Work is currently in progress directed toward

recognizing more complicated geometrical solids, processing pictures of roads for a computer controlled car, accommodation of vision system parameters for enhanced visual perception, using texture to distinguish areas of interest in pictures, and developing models and data structures for the representation of scenes. (See McCarthy et al., [1968], Feldman et al., [1969], Falk [1969], and Paul et al., [1969])

At Stanford Research Institute a computer controlled robot is being developed (Raphael [1968], Nilsson [1969]). Vision programs are being supplied which can cope with the robot's environment, a room with large blocks, wedges, and platforms.

Guzman [1968], working at the M.I.T. Artificial Intelligence Project, has developed a program which decomposes a list of lines into a list of objects. Guzman's program can handle scenes of far greater complexity than the programs mentioned above. However, the input to this program is a symbolic and error-free list of the edges in the scene.

From the preceding paragraphs it may be seen that there is much work directed toward computer recognition of blocks and solids. In examining this work, however, the fact stands out that even for simple scenes the computer processing of visual images is difficult and not clearly understood.

Other application areas where computer picture processing techniques have been used with some success include the following of particle tracks in bubble, cloud, and spark chamber photographs; the processing of photomicrographs, particularly those of chromosomes; the processing of aerial photographs to obtain information on cloud types and terrain; and the visual processing of fingerprints.

EDGE DETECTION.

In picture processing one of the most important problems is edge detection.

Much work on edge detection in digital pictures has been reported. An "edge" is the boundary between two objects or between an object and the background. It is contrasted with "line" which denotes a thin stroke against a uniform background. (The lines in Figure 3-2 represents edges in Figure 3-1.)

Finding the edges in a picture is important, if the picture is to be analyzed and described by a computer. Much of the important information in a picture is contained in the edges. This may be seen in Figure 7-4 which shows the edges present in Figure 7-3. It is evident that most of the information of Figure 7-3 is retained.

Edge detection has received considerable attention as a part of computer picture processing. Roberts [1963], In

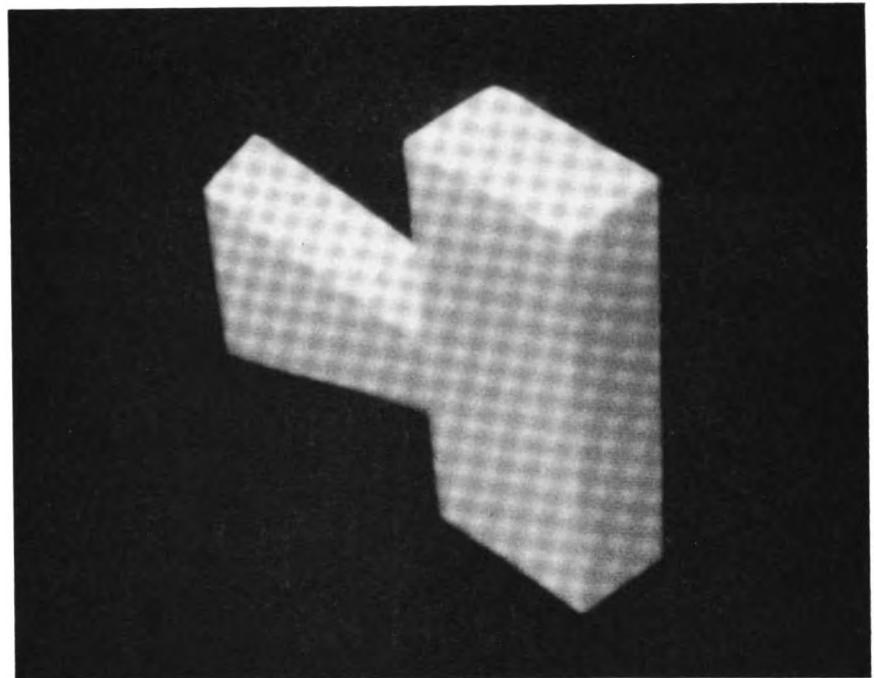


Figure 3-1. Grey scale picture of blocks.



Figure 3-2. Edges from Figure 3-1.

his pioneering work in machine perception, detected edges in the picture as the first step of processing, Narasimhan and Fornango [1964] emphasized the importance of edges in experiments with pictures of human faces. Guzman [1968], in his work on the analysis and description of scenes, assumed that all edges in the picture had been found accurately. Other research which illustrates the importance of edges in pictures includes the Stanford University Artificial Intelligence Project (Feldman et al. [1969]), the S.R.I. Robot project (Forsen [1968]), and Rosenfeld et al. [1969b].

Edge detection in pictures may be considered a high pass filtering operation. If the high spatial frequencies in a picture are emphasized, and the low spatial frequencies are suppressed, the result approximates a line drawing of the scene. This technique has been used to enhance contrast in lunar photographs (Billingsley [1967]).

Edges in digital pictures are usually detected, however, by the use of local operators. Such operators examine and compare intensity values within a small region of the picture. Most often this operator is some variant of the gradient, the derivative in the direction of the maximum change of intensity. Figure 7-4 is an example of the results of the application of a gradient operator to the picture of Figure 7-3. Mathematically the gradient of a function $f(x, y)$ of two variables is the vector given by

$$\overrightarrow{\text{grad}(x)} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \vec{j}$$

where \vec{i} and \vec{j} are unit vectors along the x and y axes. Many different approximations to the gradient have been used. Some of these are discussed below.

$z_{i,j}$	$z_{i+1,j}$	$z_{i+2,j}$	A	B	C
$z_{i,j+1}$	$z_{i+1,j+1}$	$z_{i+2,j+1}$	D	E	F
$z_{i,j+2}$	$z_{i+1,j+2}$	$z_{i+2,j+2}$	G	H	I

Figure 3-3, Notation for points used in describing gradient approximations.

Roberts [1963] used the following discrete approximation to the gradient. Let Z be the picture matrix and denote the intensity value at elements $z_{i,j}$, $z_{i+1,j}$, ... , $z_{i+2,j+2}$ with the letters A, B, ... , I as in Figure 3-3. Then the magnitude of the gradient at point $z_{i,j}$ is given by

$$|\vec{G}| = \sqrt{(E - A)^2 + (B - D)^2}.$$

Robert's gradient operator is quite sensitive to noise. To reduce this problem Sobel and Feldman developed a gradient operator which is described by Pingle [1969]. Their approach was to consider the nine points in a 3×3 square. The difference between the intensity at each outer point and the center is weighted by an appropriate vector. Using the notation of Figure 3-3, the gradient at point

$z_{i+1, j+1}$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{G} = & (A-E)[-1,1] + (B-E)[0,2] + (C-E)[1,1] \\ & + (D-E)[-2,0] + (F-E)[2,0] \\ & + (G-E)[-1,-1] + (H-E)[0,-2] + (I-E)[1,-1].\end{aligned}$$

This can be reduced to

$$\vec{G} = U[1,0] + V[0,1]$$

where

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \approx U = \frac{C + 2F + I - A - 2D - G}{8}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \approx V = \frac{A + 2B + C - G - 2H - I}{8}$$

It is interesting to note that the lack of sensitivity to noise of this operator is due to the fact that it is equivalent to smoothing and then differencing. Let the picture be smoothed by replacing the intensity at each point with the average intensity in a 2×2 square containing the point, e.g.

$$\begin{aligned}A' &= (A + B + D + E) / 4 \\ B' &= (B + C + E + F) / 4 \\ D' &= (D + E + G + H) / 4 \\ E' &= (E + F + H + I) / 4 \text{ etc.}\end{aligned}$$

Now let $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ be approximated simply by

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \approx U' = \frac{B' + E' - A' - D'}{2}$$

If the definitions of the primed variables are substituted

In this formula, the result

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \approx U' = \frac{C + 2F + I - A - 2D - G}{8}$$

is exactly the same as Sobel and Feldman's approximation.

Sakai et al. [1969] also use the nine points of a 3×3 square for their approximation to the gradient. Referring again to Figure 3-3, the magnitude of the gradient at point $Z_{i+1,j+1}$ is given by

$$|\vec{G}| = E = \min(A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I),$$

Rosenfeld and his associates (Rosenfeld et al. [1969b], Abbamonte et al. [1970]) noticed that an edge detector which considers only a few points is sensitive to noise. On the other hand, if an edge detector considers many points over a wider area, it will smooth out noise but it detects major edges in a wide range of positions around the actual position. They suggest that the product of the output of several small and large operators will combine the advantages of both.

The output of the product operator will only be high if all of the constituent operators have high output. Thus at an edge there will be a sharp peak along with noise suppression. To implement this idea, they suggest the use of the following approximation to the gradient. "Let H_k denote the absolute difference between averages taken over two vertically adjacent, non-overlapping k -by- k squares on opposite sides of a given point" [1970, p. 17]. Then at

that point

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \approx \prod H_{k_i} \quad k_i = 1, 2, 4, 8, 16$$

and

$$|G| \approx \max\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right).$$

Hueckel [1969] has developed an elaborate edge detection operator which considers all points in small circles of the picture. These circles contain from 32 to 177 picture points. Within these circles a set of functions $F(x, y)$ representing ideal edges are defined. The intensities found in an actual circle represent a function $E(x, y)$. Finding the edge in a circle then becomes the problem of finding the particular function $F(x, y)$ which minimizes the distance

$$L = [E(x, y) - F(x, y)]^2.$$

The size of L is a measure of how edge-like the edge is. By constraining the problem suitably, Hueckel has found a straight-forward algorithm for implementing this minimization. Hueckel's operator gives good results on circles which contain one edge or at most two edges. His algorithm is, of course, much slower than the operators mentioned earlier that use fewer points.

In addition to the gradient, it has been suggested that higher derivatives (Williams [1965]) or the Laplacian (Rosenfeld [1969a], Bell [1968]) should be used for finding edges. These methods seem unsatisfactory because of their tendency to amplify noise.

Edge followers are used to combine the edge information produced by a local operator into a line that represents the edge. An edge follower is an algorithm that searches for and follows an edge. It uses the direction and curvature of edges to connect adjacent short segments. Edge following is discussed by Rosenfeld [1969a, p. 136]. Descriptions of working edge followers are given by Pingle [1966], by Pingle et al. [1968], and by Greenblatt et al. [1966].

Besides edge detection one of the most common techniques encountered in picture processing is template matching. This method was mentioned briefly in the discussion of optical character recognition. In OCR this technique has been very useful. However, in more general picture processing problems the technique usually loses its effectiveness. The reason for this is that, except for very simple objects in constrained situations, it becomes almost impossible to develop an idealized prototype.

Another picture processing technique that is generally useful is smoothing. Smoothing is the modification of the grey level at a point in such a way as to make its value more similar to the values of its neighbors. Typically this is an averaging operation. The greatest value of smoothing is that it reduces the noise that is present in almost all pictorial input. It is also helpful in reducing minor surface variations caused by texture and shadow.

CHAPTER 4

GOAL-DIRECTED PICTURE PROCESSING

TOP-DOWN ANALYSIS.

The program described in this thesis uses top-down picture analysis. It is believed that the explicit use of this approach is one of the major reasons for the success of this program.

The use of the terms "top-down" and "bottom-up" to describe picture analysis methods was originated by Shaw [1968]. The names are derived from a loose analogy which can be drawn to methods with similar names which are used for syntax-directed analysis of programming languages. Such analysis or "parsing" is based on the structure of the programming language. The structure of the program is expressed by a set of "productions" or rewriting rules. The principal methods used are discussed in a paper by Feldman and Gries [1968]. A bottom-up parse of a program starts with the characters and symbols of the program and attempts to combine them together using the productions in reverse order until the whole assemblage represents a correct program. In contrast, a top-down parse works in the opposite direction. Starting from the highest level goal (a program) a search is made among the alternative constituents of each level of production until eventually a series is found which includes the characters of the input.

In discussing analysis of pictures, "top-down" and "bottom-up" are not used to describe formal mechanisms such as are used in programming language translators. Rather, bottom-up analysis will be used to describe schemes which first process the picture exhaustively at low levels. Top-down analysis will refer to goal oriented processing which searches for the constituent parts of the objects searched for in the program.

Bottom-up analysis has been used widely in picture analysis. It consists of a series of more or less independent processing steps which are applied sequentially in an attempt to transform an input picture into a description of the picture. Each stage of processing reduces the amount of information that will be passed on to the following stage. The idea is to first concentrate on the lowest level of detail and then to consider higher levels one at a time until finally the entire picture has been analyzed and described.

The schematic diagram given in figure 4-1 is an example of the typical organization of a bottom-up processor. The first stage is called region analysis. This usually consists of low level operations such as detecting edges or homogeneous areas. The output of this first stage would be a list of all of the edges or all of the regions. The second stage is called region description. This part of the program collects subsets of its input into recognizable

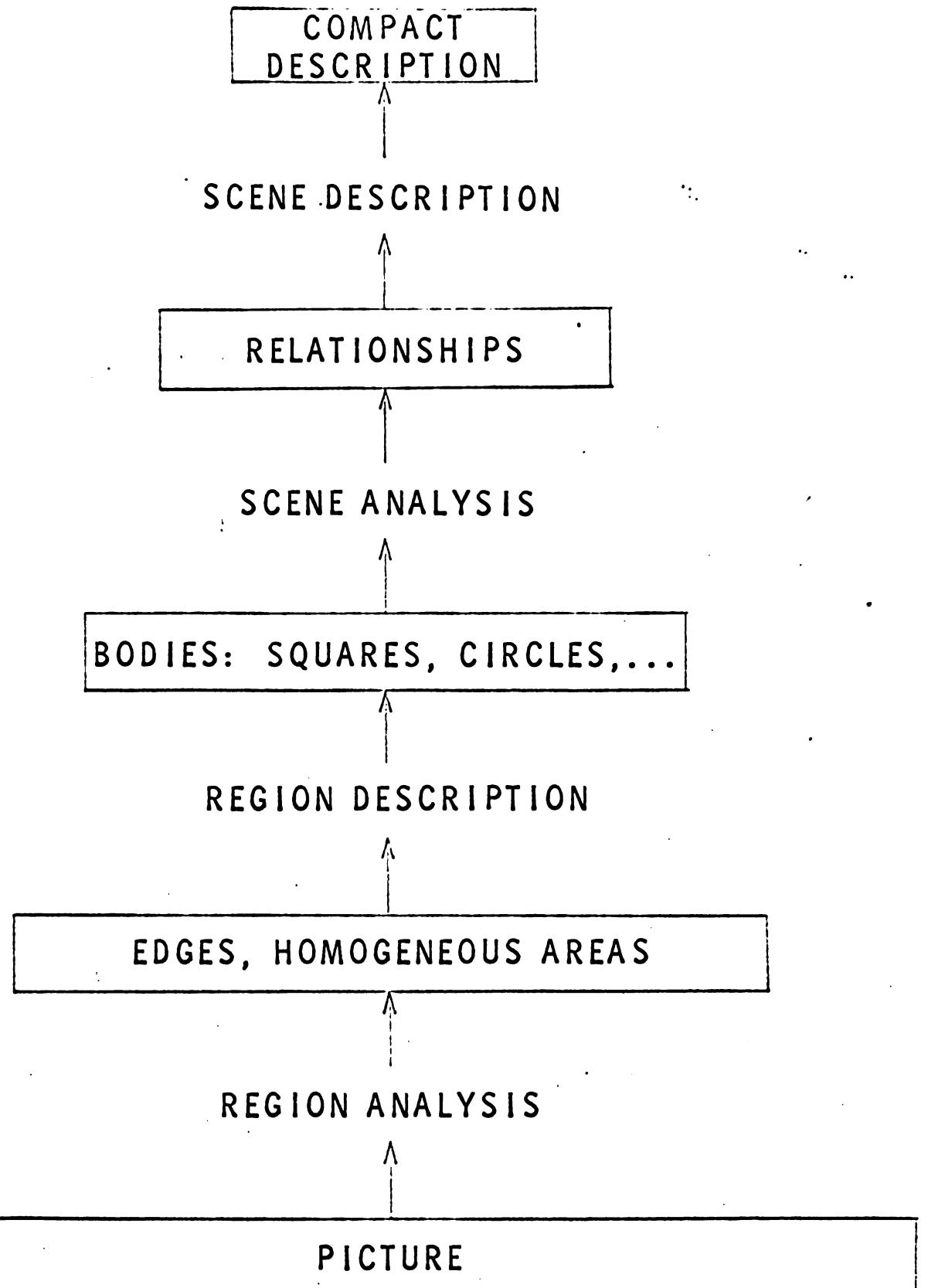


Figure 4-1. Logical flow of a bottom-up picture analyzer.

small pieces of the picture. For instance, the output of this stage might be a list of rectangles or ellipses or blobs of a certain shape along with their coordinates. The third stage is called scene analysis. In this stage relationships between regions are considered. Examples of such relationships are "next to", "above", "close to", or "within". Thus the output of this stage contains the relationships between the regions in the picture. The last stage is called scene description. Here the final description is obtained. For instance, a square adjacent to two parallelograms may represent a cube, or an oval which contains two circles, two dots, and a line may represent a face.

Most picture processing programs are organized along the lines of the bottom-up model described above (see Feldman et al. [1969]). However, for complex pictures the bottom-up method fails. The reason for this failure is that in cluttered pictures the program must know what it is looking for in order to find it. The bottom-up strategy would work if pictures were perfect and noiseless. However, real pictures contain much noise and irregularity. Accordingly, at each stage of processing the input contains false information as well as missing information.

To avoid the problems inherent in bottom-up organization, a top-down, goal directed approach should be taken. In such an approach the program knows of certain

classes of objects which may be present in a picture. The goal of the program is to try and find these objects if they are present. The constituent parts of each top level goal are known, as well as the parts of the parts down to the lowest level. The program searches for some of these basic parts, namely those that can be most reliably detected. If a particular low level part is found, then, because the structure of the object is known, some other known part should be present at an adjacent location. A specific routine can examine the area in question in detail to determine if such a part is present. In this way, for instance, the edge of a block might be detected once a corner is found, even though the edge might be too weak to be passed through the threshold of a gradient operation. As more and more adjacent constituent parts of a goal object are found, the confidence that an object has been found increases. Prediction of the location of the remaining parts of the object becomes easier and easier. Fairly straightforward methods can be used to verify whether these parts are indeed present. Thus, as recognition proceeds the amount of work to be done diminishes.

Top-down analysis is needed because it considers global information about the structures and interrelationships of the objects in the picture. It would be desirable for that part of the program which directs the search for the constituents of a goal object to be general purpose. To

such a general purpose program one could specify in some higher level notation or "language" the structure of objects. For instance, a "head" could be described as:

- round on top.
- somewhat flat on the sides.
- curving inward for the neck below the sides.
- etc.

The same program could then be used to identify cows or battleships (for instance) using a different structural description. Such high level descriptions are the goal of picture description languages.

Picture description languages have much promise as a tool for picture analysis. A number of descriptive notations and processing algorithms have been suggested for this purpose (Narasimhan [1966]; Lipkin, Watt, and Kirsch [1966]; Ledley [1965]; Miller and Shaw [1967]; Clowes [1969]; Pfaltz and Rosenfeld [1969]). Excellent discussions of these linguistic picture processing techniques can be found in the paper by Miller and Shaw [1968] and in Rosenfeld's book [1969a, Chapter 10].

In general, picture analysis using picture description languages proceeds as follows. A set P of "pieces" or "primitives" is defined; these are the basic elements from which a picture description can be built up. A set C of composition operations is defined. A set R of rules or "productions" specifies allowable combinations of elements

of P and C . Then F becomes a set of pictures that can be built up using R , P , and C . If x is an unknown picture belonging to F , then F can be recognized if we can recognize the elements of P in it and the way these primitives are combined.

This sort of analysis works for simple pictures but as the pictures become complex the method breaks down. For complex pictures a choice must be made. Very simple primitives may be chosen which are easy to recognize. In this case R , the allowable rules of combination, becomes so complex and unwieldy that recognition of these combinations becomes impossible. If instead, complex primitives are chosen, these become as difficult to recognize as the picture itself.

A possible solution to this problem is to provide hierarchies of structural descriptions. Straight-forward application of hierarchical decomposition leads back, however, to a bottom-up approach to processing where one loses sight at the lower levels of the top-level structure.

Analysis of complex pictures using picture description languages will not be possible unless powerful and systematic algorithms for processing elaborate and complicated picture descriptions can be developed.

The problems discussed above can be summarized as follows. Picture description languages are not sufficiently well developed to permit the specification of the numerous

heuristic tests and considerations of interrelated structure necessary to find objects in cluttered, grey-level pictures. Because of this a general purpose analysis program based on a picture description was not used.

The methods that are used to implement goal-oriented processing are "planning" and "models". Planning will be discussed in the next chapter. The use of models is discussed briefly below.

MODELS.

A model is a description which contains some of the structure of the thing which is represented. The idea of using models of objects to be recognized by computer seems to be implicitly present in most picture recognition programs. The idealized "A" represented by a resistor matrix in a character reader certainly is a model of an "A". It is only in recent years, however, that it has become evident that the model should be used to direct all levels of processing, not just a top level decision. Reddy [1969] discusses the explicit use of such models in his recent paper. Feldman and his associates at the Stanford Hand-Eye project are working on developing data structures and representations for models of geometrical objects. Bledsoe [1964] suggested using models of the face as a method of attacking the problem of locating facial features. If an object has been described in a picture description language,

the description is, of course, a model of the object.

Models of the structure of human bodies and faces are used throughout the processing programs discussed in later chapters and guide these programs. The form of these models varies widely. The matrix of average light intensities models the background of pictures of people. A table of average ratios between facial features models a face. A flow chart of the subroutine which distinguishes nostrils from noise models a "reasonable" nose. Because of the wide variety of uses of and needs for these models, no standard modeling formalism was used. Nevertheless, at every stage a conscious attempt has been made to incorporate goal-oriented processing directed by a model of the object desired.

CHAPTER 5

PICTURE PROCESSING USING "PLANNING"

This chapter discusses a method for performing goal-directed picture analysis. The method is an improvement on the most commonly used procedures because it considers global information more efficiently than traditional local techniques. The method is called "planning" in this paper, a term drawn from artificial intelligence research, for the method precisely fits the description of planning given by Minsky [1961]. It is believed that planning can be useful in many projects involving computer vision. In addition, it is helpful to relate the search for objects or features in pictures to the work on reduction of a given search space in the field of artificial intelligence.

Much of picture processing can be viewed as search. The space to be searched is the matrix of light intensities which represents the picture. The goal of scene analysis and description is locating the important objects in the picture. The intensity matrix must be searched to find an eye, a chromosome, or the corner of a cube. Many of the difficulties encountered in picture analysis are due to the large size of the search space. Truly, one cannot see the forest for the trees. If a processing algorithm attempts to detect features by considering local areas, as most

algorithms do, the great detail which is present in the picture obscures the larger features. A global strategy is needed.

In the field of artificial intelligence, global search is one of the central problems. Much research has been done on developing heuristics for reducing search in such fields as problem solving and game playing. A generally useful concept which has emerged is planning, first used by Newell, Shaw, and Simon in their General Problem Solver [1959].

Planning is discussed by Minsky in his paper "Steps toward Artificial Intelligence" [1961]. Artificial intelligence is considered to be mechanization of the problem solving process. Basic techniques for problem solving include search, pattern recognition, learning, planning, and induction. The following quotations from Minsky's paper define planning.

Planning is the analysis of problem structure in the large. "For really difficult problems, ... step-by-step heuristics ... will fail, and the machine must have resources for analyzing the problem structure in the large - in short, for 'planning'" [p. 21],

"Perhaps the most straightforward concept of planning is that of using a simplified model of the problem situation. Suppose that there is available, for a given problem, some other problem of essentially the same character with less detail and

complexity. Then we could proceed first to solve the simpler problem. Suppose, also, that this is done using a second set of methods, which are also simpler, but in some correspondence with those for the original. The solution of the simpler problem can then be used as a 'plan' for the harder one;" [p. 25]

The steps outlined in the preceding paragraph can be applied almost directly to the problem of finding desired objects in a picture. This represents an entirely new application for planning. It has not been used previously in picture processing.

In brief then, picture search using planning consists of three simple steps. A new digital picture is prepared from the original; the new picture is smaller and has less detail. Objects are tentatively identified in the reduced picture. The tentative analysis of the reduced picture, a list of the objects found and their locations, is used as a plan to verify the presence of edges in the original picture.

In a sense, the idea of using planning in picture analysis is not new. Kirsch et al, [1957] gave suggestions for possible use in processing pictorial information with a digital computer. One of the suggestions is that a defocused preliminary scan of a picture should be made. The averaging and size reduction in my implementation of

planning is very similar to defocusing and sampling. In spite of this early recommendation for a defocused scan, In the years since then the idea has been forgotten and ignored.

AN EXAMPLE: EDGE DETECTION USING PLANNING,

It was pointed out in Chapter 3 that edge detection is necessary for picture analysis and description. Many methods for detecting edges by computer were presented. In spite of much effort, the accurate selection by computer of "important" edges in fairly cluttered scenes has not been particularly successful. The methods given for edge detection are fine for presenting information to the human eye (as Figure 3-4 shows), but what is desired is scene analysis and description within the computer. In reaching for this latter goal problems of noise, disappearing edges, and false edges intrude. Brief comments about the limitations of these methods encountered at the Stanford Artificial Intelligence Project have appeared (Pingle et al. [1968], McCarthy et al. [1968], Paul et al. [1969]). Nilsson [1969] states the problems with local methods of edge detection from experience at the S.R.I. Robot project:

"The line drawing often contains flaws that seriously complicate its analysis. Some of these flaws could be corrected by more elaborate local processing. However, there is a limit to how well

local processing can perform, and when significant edges cannot be told from insignificant edges on the basis of local criteria, the goal of producing a perfect line drawing in this way must be abandoned." [p. 513]

Global information about the edges in the picture and the structure of the objects they represent is needed. This is the idea behind the application of linguistic techniques which was mentioned earlier. Another approach to incorporating global structure into edge detection is the decision tree in use at S.R.I. (Nilsson [1969]).

The global methods for edge detection also encounter problems. Here the program looks for specific edges in specific relationships. The search space is very large, tens of thousands of points in a picture, and the combinatorics of the problem force unacceptably long search times. In the picture there are just too many lines and there is too much looking to do.

The difficult problem of locating important edges in pictures may be approached by using the three steps of planning.

1. Extract a simplified problem from the given problem. To simplify the problem, a much smaller picture is prepared with the intensity at each point equal to the average intensity over an area of the original picture. The new problem: find the important edges in the new small

picture.

The new problem is much easier than the original problem. Many of the small features in the original picture are no longer present. The picture has been greatly reduced in size. Only the important features of the picture remain. Less detail means fewer edges, a smaller search space, and much faster processing. Because of the smoothing done while averaging intensities, the small picture will contain little noise. Faint and blurred edges of large objects will be enhanced.

2. Solve the simpler problem. The techniques for finding edges discussed in Chapter 3 can be applied to find the desired edges in the small picture. Since only the principal objects from the original picture now remain, only major edges will be detected. As short edges are collected to form shapes they may be tested as to their acceptability. This testing should incorporate knowledge of acceptable shapes for the objects to be recognized. Since there are few edges to consider, false paths are found relatively quickly. Backtracking is far less of a problem since the data structures which must be erased are much smaller.

3. Use the solution to the simpler problem as a guide (a plan) for solving the actual problem. Within the small picture, certain edges have been found. Now it is a fairly simple matter to return to the larger picture and find the desired edges accurately. For example, a straight line may

connect points P' and Q' in the small picture. P and Q are the corresponding points in the large picture. Therefore we know that in the large picture there is an approximately straight edge which runs from the vicinity of point P to the vicinity of point Q . Since the approximate location and direction of this edge is known, it is possible to detect it quite easily and accurately. The search for this edge can be confined to a narrow band between P and Q . It will be easy to detect a false path for it will soon diverge from this narrow band.

The remainder of this section will discuss briefly some observations about edge detection using planning.

Is "planning" merely the application of a large edge detection operator? Certainly the search for edges made in the small picture could be a search of the large picture using an operator which examines a 24×24 point square. In fact, the two steps, large picture to small picture and small picture to small edge matrix, could be one step, the application of a 24×24 point operator. Alternatively, the entire large picture could be heavily smoothed and the search for edges could be done in this smoothed picture. Planning, however, has two advantages over either of the approaches listed above. First, it is much easier to design and debug the program which searches for significant edges when using planning. This is because the reduced picture is so much smaller. The use of planning aids insight. While

designing a program to find the edges in a picture of 625 points (for instance), the designer can comprehend easily both the overall structure and the detailed structure of the picture. It is very difficult to obtain the same level of understanding when the picture contains 40,000 points. The second advantage of planning is speed. Planning is 40 to 80 times faster than the same search without planning. (This factor was obtained during tests described in detail in Chapter 7.) This increase of speed is particularly important when designing search programs on an interactive computer system.

If a program incorporated more elaborate structural knowledge of the object to be recognized, could planning in a picture of reduced size be eliminated? No, such a program must be less effective for the following reasons. The combinatorics of the large search space will require excessive time. The effect of noise and irregularities in the picture will be even worse. This is emphasized by the elaborate provisions for search that had to be built into the plan follower. Even when the direction and approximate location of an edge is known, its detection can be hard. For such edges, planning is essential.

An improvement on the planning technique presented in this paper would be recursive application of planning at varying size reductions. For instance, the original picture could be reduced in size twice, four times, and eight times.

The plan found in the 1/8 size picture could be used to find edges in the 1/4 size picture. This could then be used as a plan to find edges in the 1/2 size picture. Finally the accurate true edge would be found in the original picture. A hint of such a method was mentioned in the description of the plan follower. The local edge finding operator examined only alternate points. It could be considered to be using a 1/2 size picture. The program could decide itself how much size reduction and averaging to do. At each level, if there is too much detail, a smaller picture could be called for.

CHAPTER 6

LOCATING AND MEASURING THE BODY

This chapter describes the experimental environment in which this work was done, and explains the methods used to locate measurement points in a full length picture of the person to be identified.

EQUIPMENT, PROGRAMS, AND INPUT SPECIFICATIONS,

This work was performed using the facilities of the Stanford Artificial Intelligence Project. The system consists of two computers, a PDP-10 and a PDP-6, connected as dual-processors sharing 130,000 words of core memory; a very fast, head-per-track Librascope disk for swapping; and an IBM 2314 disk storage unit for program and data storage. Several types of display consoles as well as teletypes are available for use as terminals. A more detailed description of the computer system can be found in McCarthy et al. [1968]. All of the programs are written to run under the Stanford time-sharing monitor (Moorer [1969]).

Picture input is obtained from a standard vidicon TV camera. The video signal is digitized by a analog-to-digital converter and sent to memory via a high speed data channel. During one TV reading operation up to 333 samples can be taken from each video scan line and up to 256 of the alternating scan lines can be read. Thus the

maximum size picture which can be read is 256 x 333 points. Such a picture covers the entire field of view of the TV camera. Each point consists of a four bit light intensity value so that sixteen levels of grey are available. Zero indicates the darkest points; fifteen, the brightest.

The program is written almost entirely in Fortran. A few subroutines are coded in assembly language, such as those that handle input-output, list processing functions, dynamic storage allocation for picture buffers, and partial word operations. The programs occupy about 30,000 words of storage. Data storage, assigned dynamically, typically requires another 20,000 words, primarily for buffers for processed and unprocessed pictures.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PICTURE.

The person to be recognized stands in a standardized position against a normal room background. The person is told, "Stand in a relaxed position of 'attention', feet together, arms at your sides. Look directly at the TV camera." Figure 6-1, an input photograph of a person to be recognized, gives an example. Minor variations in position are permitted. It would, of course, be impossible to prevent such variations.

The background may vary. It normally consists of the objects in the computer room where these experiments were performed. There are several reasons for not requiring a

Figure 6-1.
Input photograph.
Subject in standard
recognition position.

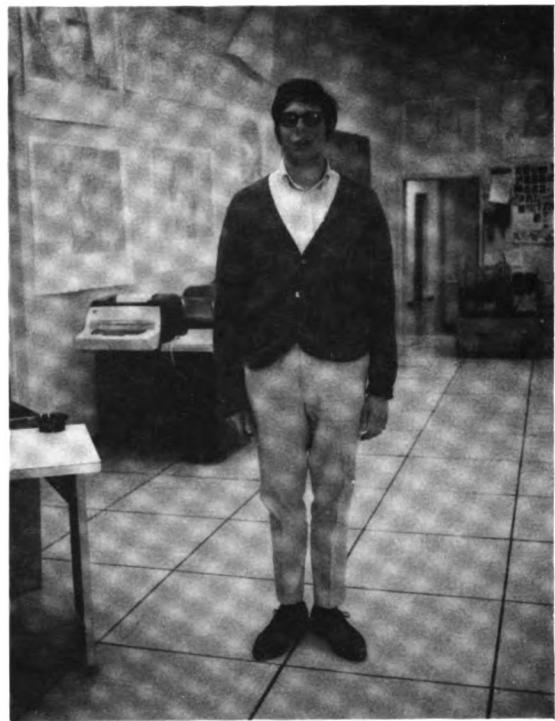


Figure 6-2.
S'. Binary valued,
smoothed, reduced size
picture used for
locating the body.



standard background. When this work was begun a door-size standard background was built. However, it was still difficult to find the outline of the person. Shadows from the individual being recognized and non-uniform lighting on the background presented new problems. The solution developed for these problems permits a wider variety of backgrounds. Since the more general case is easy to handle, it appeared worthwhile to do so. Another factor which helps in permitting various backgrounds is the small depth-of-field which is characteristic of the TV lenses which were used. Objects that are very far behind the person are out of focus, hence blurred and washed out.

APPROXIMATE LOCATION OF THE BODY.

The first step in processing is to determine the approximate location of the body. A flow chart of this process is given in Figure 6-3. Each of the steps is described in more detail below.

Before beginning identification, a picture M (model) is taken of the background with no person in the picture. This picture is saved until the picture B (body) of the person is taken. Thus when processing of the picture of the body begins there are two pictures available to the program; both have been taken from identical camera angles and are the same size. One is a picture of the background, the other contains a man in front of the background.

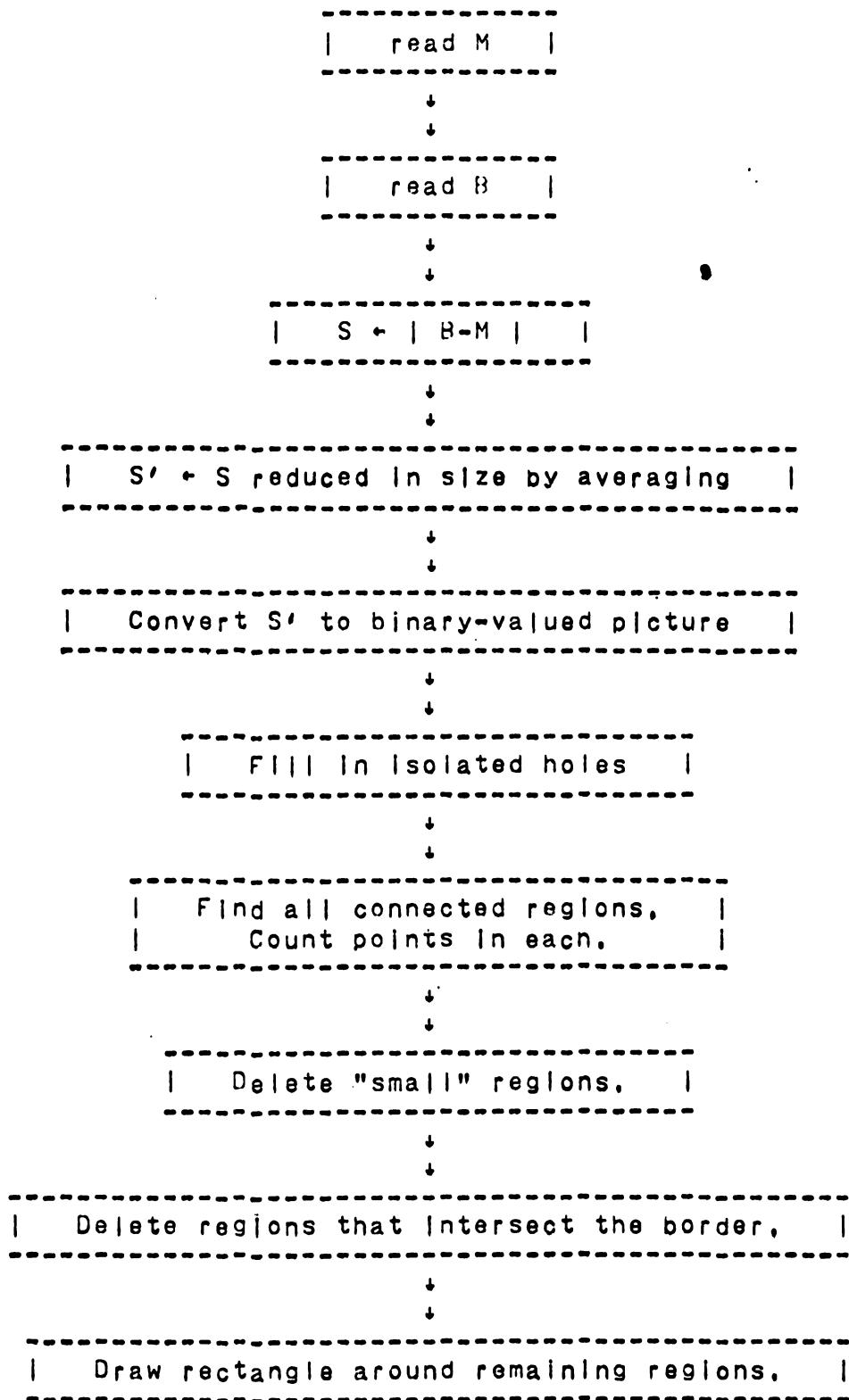


Figure 6-3,
FLOW CHART - APPROXIMATE LOCATION OF THE BODY.

In a very simple, yet very real sense, the picture M is a model of the background of picture B. If M and B are compared, those areas of B that are similar to M should be background. Those areas of B that do not match the model M are areas where a disturbance has entered the picture. These are the areas where the man is located.

The two pictures are subtracted. That is, a new picture S is formed with the intensity at each point of S equal to the absolute value of the difference of the intensities at corresponding points in M and B,

$$S_{ij} = |B_{ij} - M_{ij}|$$

In a simple world, S would be non-zero only at points on the man and at all of these points. In reality there are shadows and noise which produce false readings. In addition, some areas of the individual's clothes may be similar in intensity to the background and give no difference after subtraction. This may cause the non-zero areas of S to be subdivided into several parts or to contain holes. Therefore the first thing that must be done is to distinguish the blobs that make up the man from stray background blobs. This can be done using considerations of size and central location.

The subtracted picture S is reduced in size n times by averaging. The new picture is designated S'' . The intensity at each point S''_{ij} is the average intensity over an $n \times n$ square of S. The averaging reduces noise; the size

reduction speeds up subsequent processing. Various values of n were tried. A large n speeds up processing but leads to considerable uncertainty in the location of the blobs that are identified. An n of 6 or 8 seems to be the most satisfactory compromise.

S'' is now converted to a binary valued picture S' by thresholding.

$$\begin{aligned} S'_{ij} &= 1 && \text{if } S''_{ij} \text{ is greater than 1,} \\ &= 0 && \text{otherwise.} \end{aligned}$$

The threshold value which is used, 1, insures that most points set to zero are truly background. An example of S' as it appears at this stage is given in Figure 6-2.

Isolated holes in S' are filled. An isolated hole is a point with value 0 that is surrounded on 4 sides with 1's. The value of such a point is set to 1.

In the picture S' , connected regions (subsets of the picture) are identified and labeled. Two points, S'_i and S'_n are connected if there exists a sequence $S'_i, S'_2, S'_3, \dots, S'_n$ such that S'_i is a neighbor of S'_{i+1} . Two points are neighbors if they are immediately adjacent horizontally or vertically; i.e., the neighbors of S'_{ij} are $S'_{i,j-1}, S'_{i,j+1}, S'_{i+1,j}$, and $S'_{i-1,j}$. A subset of the points of S' is a connected region if all points in that subset are connected. Connectivity, as defined above, is often called 4-connectivity (Rosenfeld [1970]).

The program that determines the connectivity of the

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The program that determines the connectivity of the

picture is a procedure that is used several times in the processing described in subsequent chapters. It is an efficient procedure that determines the connectivity during one pass over the picture array. The labelling is given by a matrix of region numbers for each point and a table of equivalences. The algorithm is given in the form of an Algol procedure in Figure 6-4.

This algorithm was developed by the author. Subsequently, it was discovered that the underlying idea was first published in 1957 and has been re-invented several times since. (See the references in Rosenfeld [1969, p.138] as well as Lourie [1969]). However, none of these references give a detailed algorithm.

Now that connected regions in the picture are identified, it is easy to delete small regions and regions which intersect the border. A parameter, SM, determines what constitutes a small region. Four was found to be a satisfactory value for SM for the pictures in this thesis. This value of course depends on the resolution of the video input device.

At this point all that should remain in S' are those connected regions which make up the body of the man. The extremes of these regions, horizontally and vertically, define a rectangle in which the man is located. All further processing is done only within this rectangle. The rectangle gives a first approximation to the size of the


```
procedure CONNECTED (A, REGNR, REGTBL, NREG, M, N, P);  
  value M, N, P;  
  Boolean array A[0:M,0:N];  
  integer array REGNR[0:M,0:N];  
  integer array REGTBL[0:P];  
  integer NREG, M, N, P;  
  comment
```

This procedure labels connected regions in a binary valued picture. Four-connectedness is used. A is the picture matrix. To each "true" element of A a positive integer will be assigned such that all elements in a given connected region receive the same value, while elements in different connected regions receive different values. This positive integer is called the "region number". On exit from this procedure the region number for point A[I,J] is in REGTBL[REGNR[I,J]]. The region number for any "false" point will be zero.

Also on exit, NREG will contain the number of distinct connected regions in the picture.

P, the length of REGTBL, must be at least as great as NREG.

For clarity, some of the administration required is omitted from this routine. There is no checking to see if REGTBL overflows and the "garbage collection" necessary to handle this overflow is omitted. Special case treatment of the picture borders is not included. Instead, it is assumed that for all I,

A[0,I] = A[I,0] = false
and REGNR[0,I] = REGNR[I,0] = 0;

Figure 6-4,
PROCEDURE CONNECTED.


```

begin
  Integer I, J, K, L, N1, N2, SMALL, LARGE;
  comment
    I, J, K, are running indices,
    L is the index of the last element of REGTBL
    in use.
    N1 and N2 are used to contain the current
    region numbers of the picture elements
    immediately above and to the left of A[I,J].
    SMALL and LARGE are temporaries;
  L := Ø;
  REGTBL[Ø] := Ø;
  for J := 1 step 1 until N do
    for I := 1 step 1 until M do
      if A[I,J] then
        begin
          N1 := REGTBL[REGNR[I,J-1]];
          N2 := REGTBL[REGNR[I-1,J]];
          if N1 = Ø ^ N2 = Ø then
            begin
              comment Both neighbors are zero so
              assign a new region number;
              L := L+1;
              REGTBL[L] := L;
              REGNR[I,J] := L;
            end.
          else if N1 = Ø then REGNR[I,J] := N2
          else if N2 = Ø v N1 = N2 then REGNR[I,J] := N1
          else
            begin
              comment Both neighbors are non-zero.
              Set up an equivalence between their
              region numbers;
              SMALL := if N1 < N2 then N1 else N2;
              LARGE := if N1 < N2 then N2 else N1;
              for K := LARGE step 1 until L do
                if REGTBL[K] = LARGE then
                  REGTBL[K] := SMALL;
                REGNR[I,J] := SMALL;
            end;
          end;
        comment Count the regions;
        NREG := Ø;
        for K := 1 step 1 until L do
          if REGTBL[K] = K then NREG := NREG + 1;
        end;

```

Figure 6-4. (continued from previous page)

man. This size information indicates such things as the size of the head to be searched for.

MEASURING HEIGHT.

The height of the person in the original picture is now measured. This is done by locating the top of the head and the feet and measuring the distance between them.

The top of the head is found first. The approximate location of the head is known from the previous processing of the reduced picture. It is still necessary to examine closely an area of the original picture to pinpoint the location of the top of the head.

The top of the head is found by a template matching operation. The reason that template matching works at this point is because the search region has been narrowed down to a small area. If an attempt was made to pass a head template over the entire picture many false responses would be encountered. This problem is minimized when searching a limited area.

A curved template has been made by considering a number of pictures of heads. Figure 6-5 is an example of such an "ideal" top-of-the-head. The size of the template is varied according to the approximate height of the individual which was obtained during the approximate location step.

The template is represented in the computer as a matrix of 0's, +1's, and -1's. A typical template is shown in

Figure 6-5. Ideal top of head.
("," stands for "0" in the figures on this page.)

$$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccc}
 -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\
 -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\
 -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & +1 & +1 & +1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\
 -1 & -1 & -1 & \cdot & \cdot & +1 & +1 & +1 & \cdot & \cdot & +1 & +1 & +1 & \cdot & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\
 -1 & -1 & \cdot & +1 & +1 & +1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & +1 & +1 & +1 & \cdot & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\
 -1 & -1 & \cdot & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & \cdot & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\
 -1 & \cdot & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & \cdot & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\
 \cdot & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 & \cdot & -1 & -1 & -1
 \end{array}$$

Figure 6-6. Template for top of head.

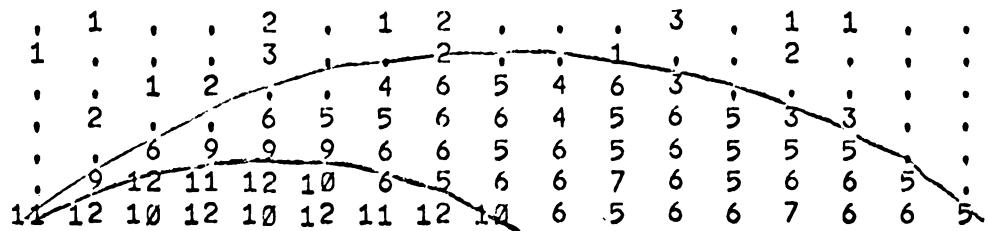


Figure 6-7. Actual top of head.

Figure 6-6, This template is cross-correlated, in the area where the head is located, with the picture S (mentioned earlier) which contains the absolute value of the difference in intensity between the picture of the man and the picture of the background. In S it is expected that the top of the head will be somewhat like Figure 6-5. Above the head the values should be zero or close to it. Within the head the values should be positive.

As in all picture processing, noise and imperfections make the simple become difficult. If the picture were noiseless one could look for the step from zero background to non-zero head. However, the background is noisy and the interior of the head has steps of intensity within it that may be greater than the steps from background to head. Figure 6-7 gives a stylized example of these problems. The background has an average intensity of about 1. Most of the head has an average intensity of about 5. Within the head there is a curved area with average intensity near 11. In a straight-forward cross-correlation the step from 5 to 11 would give a higher response than the step from 1 to 5. This would be undesirable.

What is desired is to find the step from "low" background values to higher head values. In practice, it is not effective to define "low" background with a threshold for there is no natural way to set this threshold. Instead, the cross-correlation is computed using logarithms

to emphasize low steps of intensity,

The template T is matched with a rectangular subset of S as follows.

$$V_{i,j} = \sum_{p,q} T_{p,q} \ln(S_{i+p, j+q} + 1)$$

This is easily implemented efficiently because S is limited to sixteen grey levels, 0 to 15. The logarithms can be computed once and stored in a table for easy access during cross-correlation.

$V_{i,j}$ is the value of the cross-correlation at a particular point. The maximum $V_{i,j}$ found gives the location of the top of the head and the coordinates of the point are recorded.

Finding the feet is quite similar to finding the top of the head. An examination of Figure 6-1 shows that in the "standard" position the subject stands with heels together and toes apart. In this position, the outer sides of the toes form a characteristic pattern on the floor. Thus the feet can be found by template matching in the area where they are known to be approximately located. The logarithmic cross-correlation is used as with the head. The coordinates of the feet are recorded.

The height of the person is now known in picture units (raster units). This value is stored as the first measurement which characterizes the person,

MEASURING WIDTHS.

The width of the head, the neck, the shoulders, and the hips are now measured. Figure 6-8 shows where each of these measurements is taken.

The determination of the best place to take these measurements (e.g., the widest part of the head, the narrowest part of the neck) can be difficult. This difficulty is avoided by measuring at standard positions.

Let the measurements for width of head, neck, shoulders, and hips be designated by m_1 , m_2 , m_3 , and m_4 . Assume that the height of the subject is h raster units. Assume further that the feet are located at $(0,0)$ and the head at $(0,h)$ as in Figure 6-9. Then on a "typical" person the "best" place for measuring m would be at $(-x_c, y_c)$ and (x_c, y_c) where $x_c = w_c h$ and $y_c = r_c h$. The values used for w_c and r_c are given in Table 6-1. These values were obtained by hand measurements on a number of pictures.

Unfortunately, often the position of the body is not vertical. The TV camera or the vidicon tube may be displaced in such a way that the body appears at an angle. Accordingly, the search positions $(-x_c, y_c)$ and (x_c, y_c) must be mapped into correct positions (x_L, y_L) and (x_R, y_R) . The straight-forward calculations needed for this mapping are given in Figure 6-10.

Now, at each end of the four widths to be measured an edge detection operator is used to find the vertical edge.

Figure 6-8.
Measurements
of width.

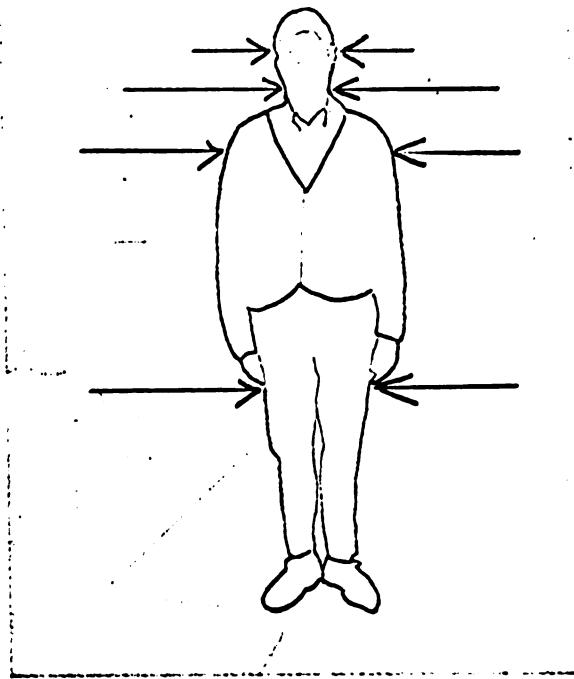


Figure 6-9.
Schematic diagram
of placement of
width measurements.

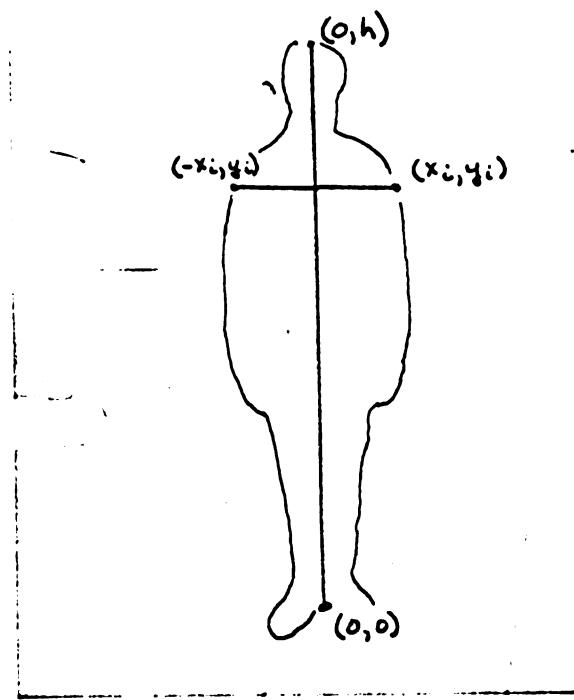
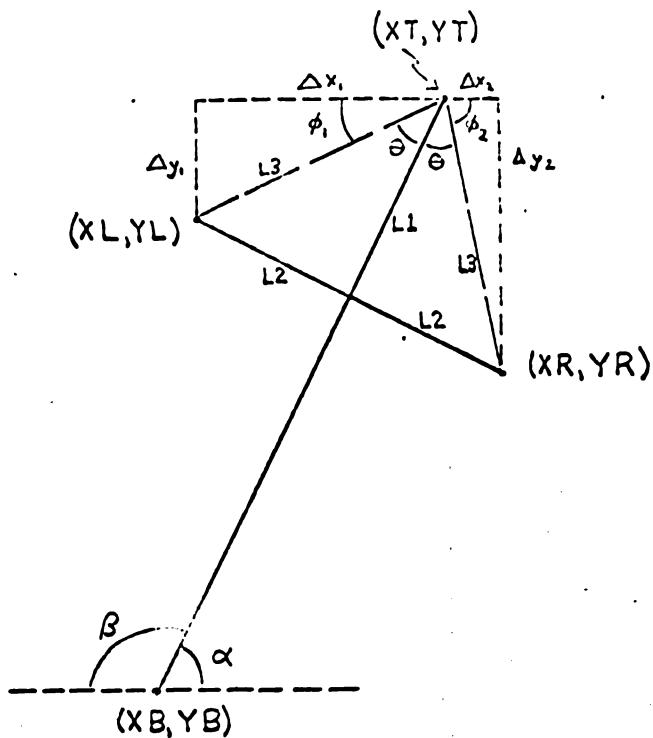


TABLE 6-1.
Standard positions for width measurements.

	$w = x/h$	$r = y/h$	operator height
1	.11	.93	.028
2	.067	.87	.017
3	.28	.76	.028
4	.21	.38	.028



$$\beta = \arctan ((YB - YT) / (XB - XT))$$

$$\alpha = \pi - \beta$$

$$\theta = \arctan (L2 / L1)$$

$$L3 = \sqrt{L2^2 + L1^2}$$

$$\phi_1 = \alpha - \theta$$

$$\phi_2 = \beta - \theta$$

$$\Delta x_1 = -L3 \cos \phi_1$$

$$\Delta x_2 = L3 \cos \phi_2$$

$$\Delta y_1 = L3 \sin \phi_1$$

$$\Delta y_2 = L3 \sin \phi_2$$

$$XL = XT + \Delta x_1$$

$$XR = XT + \Delta x_2$$

$$YL = YT + \Delta y_1$$

$$YR = YT + \Delta y_2$$

Figure 6-10
Allowance for the variance from vertical,

The height of the operator is given in Table 6-1 as a fraction of the height of the subject. When these edges are found they provide the width in raster units of each feature.

The measurements are now recorded for use in the classification step. This concludes the processing of the picture of the entire body.

CHAPTER 7

FINDING THE OUTLINE OF THE HEAD

This chapter describes the program which has been developed for extracting an accurate outline of a man's head from a digital picture. A typical input picture is shown in Figure 7-1. When the methods described in this chapter are applied to the input represented by Figure 7-1, the result is the outline of the man's head as shown in Figure 7-2.

In the preceding chapter the methods used to extract measurements from the picture of the body were described. The resolution of that picture is not adequate for measuring the position of facial features. Therefore a second picture is taken, a close-up of the head of the subject. This picture, like that taken of the body, contains the head of the subject in front view, looking at the TV camera, against a background of normal room objects.

It is necessary to find an accurate outline of the head so that dependable reference points can be found from which the width of the head can be measured. The location of the top of the head is also obtained from the outline. The position of the outline of the head is used in subsequent processing to determine where to search for smaller features such as eyes.

The details of this processing are described in the remainder of this chapter. The picture presented in Figure

Figure 7-1.

Unprocessed input picture
of a man's head.



Figure 7-2.

The outline of a head,
the result of processing
Figure 7-1



7-3 will be used as an example throughout the chapter. The size of this picture is 226 x 325 points. In general the size of the pictures of the head is variable. Since the programs which search for and find heads is complex and only described in general terms in this chapter, a complete listing of these programs is included as Appendix 3.

REDUCE IN SIZE,

A new small picture is produced from the original. Each point in the small picture is the average value of the 64 points in an 8 x 8 square in the original picture. Figure 7-5 is an example of a small picture. Only the shape of the head is clearly visible. Other details have been smoothed out. The size of Figure 7-5 is 28 x 40 points. The decision to reduce in size by the factor eight was somewhat arbitrary. In smaller pictures the head tended to disappear; in larger pictures some unwanted details were still present.

FIND ALL EDGES,

The small picture obtained in the preceding step is processed to produce a new matrix which contains information on the edges in the small picture. This matrix will be called the small edge matrix. Figure 7-6 is an example of the small edge matrix derived from Figure 7-5. Each element in the matrix contains four bits, representing the four

Figure 7-3.
Unprocessed input
picture used to
obtain Figures 7-4
through 7-8

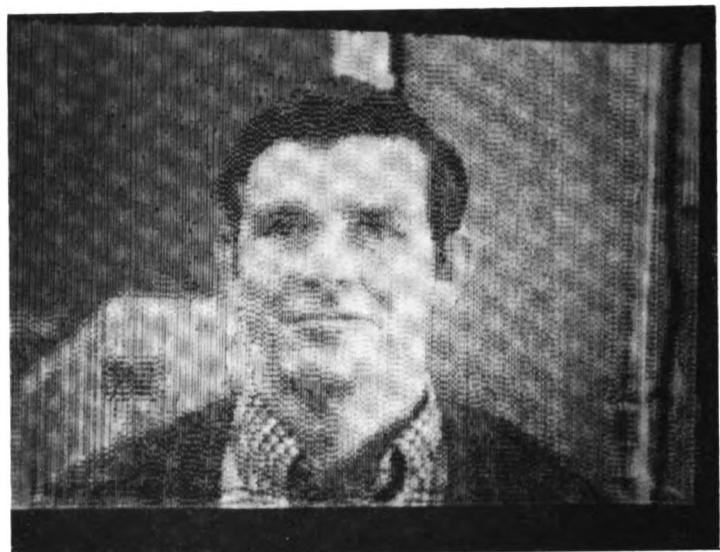


Figure 7-4.
The results of
applying a
gradient operator
to Figure 7-3



Figure 7-5.
The results of reducing
Figure 7-3 in size by averaging.



Figure 7-6
The results of applying
an edge-finding operator
to Figure 7-5.



Figure 7-7.
The "plan" extracted from
Figure 7-6 which will be used
to follow the head outline.

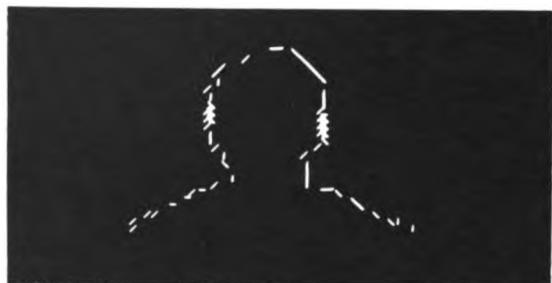


Figure 7-8.
The outline of the head
in Figure 7-3, obtained
using the plan of
Figure 7-7.



directions (horizontal, vertical, diagonal right, diagonal left) in which edges may be detected. All bits are zero if no edge was found at a point. A one in any bit indicates that an edge in that direction was found.

The local operator which is used to detect edges is described below. Many operators were candidates for this purpose, including those mentioned earlier in the section on edge detection. The choice of the particular operator used was made because of high confidence in its ability to reject false edges. Some edges may be missed but this is preferable to reporting false edges. A more straight-forward gradient operator was not used because they sometimes produce an edge indication in an uneven transition area of grey shades. In addition there is no natural cut-off threshold for the gradient operator. Hueckel's operator [1969], which can give very good results, was rejected because it was too large to be effectively used in the small picture. Most of the smoothing utilized by Hueckel's operator has already been done during averaging.

The edge operator used is applied to 3×3 squares of the picture. Let the points in this square be labeled as follows:

A B C
D E F
G H I.

The algorithm for detecting a horizontal edge is:

```
If B>H then
    If [min(A,B,C)-max(G,H,I)] > 1 then EDGE
        else NO-EDGE
    else if B<H then
        If [max(A,B,C)-min(G,H,I)] > 1 then EDGE
            else NO-EDGE
    else NO-EDGE.
```

The EDGE or NO-edge results apply to point E. This algorithm is also applied in the vertical direction (using points A,D,G and C,F,I) and along both diagonals (points A,B,D and F,H,I for one diagonal; points B,C,F and D,G,H for the other). Although this algorithm may appear to be time consuming, it may be programmed efficiently.

The small edge matrix is searched as described in the next step to find the small head outline. Because of

repeated search and backup during the search for the head, it is best to perform the local edge identification operation only once for each point. Since the picture is small, this does not consume excessive time.

FIND HEAD IN REDUCED PICTURE.

The search for the outline of the head is done in the small edge matrix. Various heuristics are included in the search program which define an acceptable head shape. The final result of the search is a list structure containing the coordinates of the points which constitute the outline of the head. Each entry in the list structure designates a point where an edge is present in a direction which is reasonable for that part of the head. An example of an unreasonable edge direction would be a vertical edge among a row of horizontal edges which have been labeled the top of the head. Figure 7-7 shows the edges of the head found in this step. The representation of acceptable head shapes is incorporated into program statements. There are searches, branches, and possible back-up as the outline of the head is built up. This process is similar in some ways to the S.R.I. decision tree search (Nilsson [1969]). If no head is present in the original picture, it is detected at this stage.

The details of the search for the head are as follows. Three short line segments are found which are candidates for

being part of the top and sides of the head. The spatial relationship between these lines must be reasonable (e.g., the top of the head must be above the sides). An attempt is made to connect these line segments to form a "head" shape. The program searches the region between them for edges which are part of the somewhat semicircular top of the head. If this cannot be done, other possible short line segments are tried as sides or tops. If the top half of the head is found, a search is made below it for the inward curves of the neck and then the curves outward toward the shoulders. When all of these requirements have been met, the head has been found. The sides of the head are then examined for indentations where the ears should be since the ears sometimes merge with the background. If indentations exist, these are filled in.

USE PLAN TO FIND OUTLINE IN ORIGINAL.

This part of the program is a plan follower. Its input is the full size intensity picture and the list structure containing the small head outline. The output of the plan follower will be a new list structure containing the coordinates of an accurate outline of the head. Between successive points in the plan, the plan follower searches a narrow band for an edge which connects the points. This band is sixteen points wide, since the plan was reduced in size by a factor of eight. Although this band is narrow

compared to the size of the picture, it is still wide enough to contain several edges. The proper edge is chosen primarily by direction. If there are two parallel edges running in the desired direction within the search band, that edge farthest from the center of the head is chosen. The reason for this choice is the assumption that edges within the head (in hair, ears, etc.) are more likely to follow the directions of the head outline than edges found on background objects.

The operator used to detect edges in the full sized picture is almost the same as that used in the small picture. In the small picture the operator was applied to the nine points of a 3×3 square. In the large picture the same operator is applied to the nine points at the corners, the center of the sides, and the center of a 5×5 square, e.g.

A - B - C
- - - - -
D - E - F
- - - - -
G - H - I

The reason for this change was to allow detection of faint edges in the large picture.

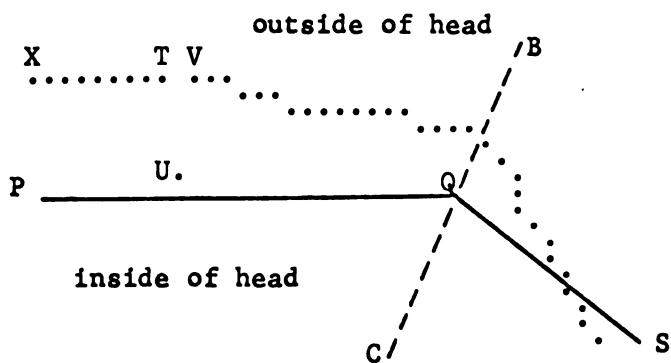


Figure 7-9. Operation of plan follower.

The details of the plan follower are given below. Reference is made to Figure 7-9 which is a schematic diagram of the operation of the plan follower in a small region. Two non-parallel straight lines are identified in the plan, lines PQ and QS. Point X is the last previous point that has been found on the edge. The direction of search is generally from P to Q to S. The line BC is found which bisects the angle PQS. Corresponding to the line PQ in the plan, the plan follower will search from point X until the edge crosses line BC. Within this region the edge will be accepted if its direction is roughly parallel to PQ or to QS. The edge search is done by moving one unit in the direction of PQ from the last point found and applying the

edge detection operator along a line perpendicular to PQ. Normally the edge detection operator is only applied to five points immediately in front of the last point found. Under certain conditions however the edge detection operator is applied over all 16 points across the search band. These conditions are:

- a, The edge has just taken a sharp turn.
- b, The edge is lost.
- c, The intensity outside the head outline has changed abruptly.
- d, The edge zig-zags.

These measures are necessary to correctly track the edge when it is sharply curving. The three points most recently found are filtered to remove a single point which is far off the edge. For example, if U were the only edge point found between points T and V, point U would be rejected.

SPEED COMPARISON.

The search for the outline of the head could have been done without using planning, as pointed out in Chapter 5. Tests were made to determine the speed improvement obtained by using planning. The results of these tests are given in Table 7-1.

These results indicate that using planning is about 40 times faster than the same search without planning. The tests were performed as follows. First the program just

TABLE 7-1.
Planning speed comparison.

PLANNING

STEP		TIME
1.	Reduce in size.	2.5 sec.
2.	Find all edges.	.8 sec.
3.	Find plan (small outline),	.3 sec.
4.	Use plan (large outline),	2.6 sec.
	Total	6.2 sec.

WITHOUT PLANNING

STEP		TIME
1.	Smooth picture,	160. sec.
2.	Find all edges,	34. sec.
3.	Find head outline,	40. sec.
	Total	234. sec.

described which finds the head outline using planning was timed. The time to process a head picture from input to completion of the large outline was about 6.1 seconds. This time, as well as all others mentioned, was measured on the PDP-10 computer and is accurate to $\pm 20\%$. Then the program was modified to perform without planning.

The first step was to eliminate the fine detail of the picture by smoothing in a fashion similar to the averaging used in planning. The entire picture was smoothed using averages over 8×8 squares. This took 420 seconds. By optimizing the program, this time could be brought down to 64 times the speed without planning, namely 160 seconds. This latter time is used in Table 7-1.

All edges were found in the smoothed picture. This took 34 seconds.

Next the search program was used on the full sized smoothed picture to search for the outline of the head. Here is where planning really showed its speed. This search, in a reduced size picture, takes about 0.3 seconds. In the large picture, the search took about 40 seconds. The reason for this is that quite a sizeable incorrect data structure is built up when following false paths and many points must be processed before the error is detected.

In summary, the program without planning took 494 seconds, 80 times slower than the time using planning. By optimizing the program, this could be improved to about 234

seconds. This would still be 40 times slower than planning. This comparison cannot be complete without again stating the primary advantage that planning gives to the designer of a program which searches for edges or objects; a small picture that he can comprehend both locally and globally.

LOCATE MEASUREMENT POINTS.

Now that the outline of the head has been found it is necessary to locate the top of the head and the points on the sides from which the width of the head is measured. This is done using a sliding average to avoid single point errors which may be present in the outline.

The outline of the head is represented in the computer by a list structure. Each element of the list contains the two coordinates of a point in the outline as well as pointers to the list elements representing the adjacent points on both sides. Thus it is possible to traverse this list in either direction. There are also a number of pointers external to the list which mark approximate locations of key elements.

These key element pointers have been obtained in the following way. Originally a plan for the head was formed, as already described. This plan was created using the known structure of the head. So in creating the plan certain areas were identified as top of head, extremes of approximately vertical side of head, etc. This information

is carried forward to the plan following stage. When the plan follower passes one of these areas while creating the list structure for the true head outline it sets an appropriate pointer into the list structure.

Knowing the approximate location for the top of the head, it is straight-forward to search for the highest point in the outline in this area. A sliding average of five points is used. The highest value gives the coordinates of the top of the head.

In a similar way the widest part of the head is identified on both sides of the head. The difference between these values is recorded as the width of the head. The coordinates of the points which have been identified on the outline of the head are now used to guide the search for the features interior to the head.

CHAPTER 8

FINDING THE FEATURES OF THE FACE,

The previous chapter described how the outline of the head was located. Once this outline is found, approximate locations for the eyes, the nose, and the mouth can be predicted. In spite of the fact that the approximate location of these features is known, there is still considerable processing that must be done to locate them precisely so that measurements of position may be made. This chapter discusses the methods used for finding each feature.

It is appropriate here to describe the coordinate system used in processing pictures in this program, since much of the discussion which follows makes use of this coordinate system. A left-handed coordinate system is used with the origin at the upper left of the pictures. (See Figure 8-1.) There are two reasons for this. First, this is the method used by the system when setting the limits on a window to be read by the TV camera. Secondly, it provides a convenient notation for interchanging coordinates (x,y) of a point with matrix indices (i,j) for that point.

EYES.

The measurement that is desired from each eye is the location of the center of the iris, the dark circle in the

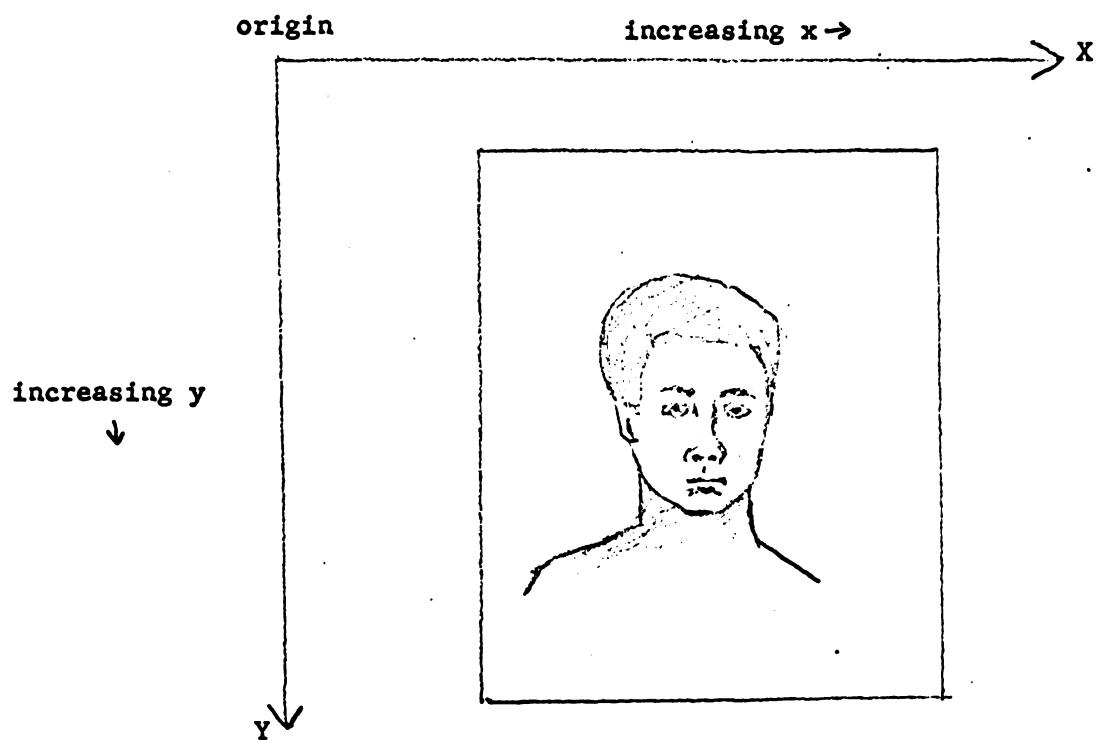


Figure 8-1.

Left-hand coordinate system used.

center of the eye. The iris is located by finding horizontal cross-sections which exhibit the characteristic shape shown in Figure 8-2. In essence, this is a template matching operation. The shape of Figure 8-2, when plotted as light intensity vs. x coordinate, possesses the following features. Outside the eye the skin has an irregular intensity of medium value. The white of the eye on both sides of the iris forms high peaks of light intensity. The iris itself is a dark valley between these two peaks.

The characteristic cross-section of the eye is elusive and difficult to find. The peaks and valley that are sought can be nothing more than anthills and a depression. To find them, one must know where to look. Pinning down just where to look for the iris and the whites of the eyes constitutes the bulk of the processing used on the eyes. The method used is called dynamic threshold setting.

Approximately locating the eye is also difficult. The detail in this area, as well as shadows around the eyes and nearby hair, can confuse the program. The one thing that can be found is a characteristic dark blob formed by the dark iris, eyebrow, and shadows under the overhanging brow. However, there is no natural threshold which defines the dark region. What is meant by dynamic threshold setting is the process of searching for a threshold that clearly shows this dark region.

The first thing that is done is to predict the location

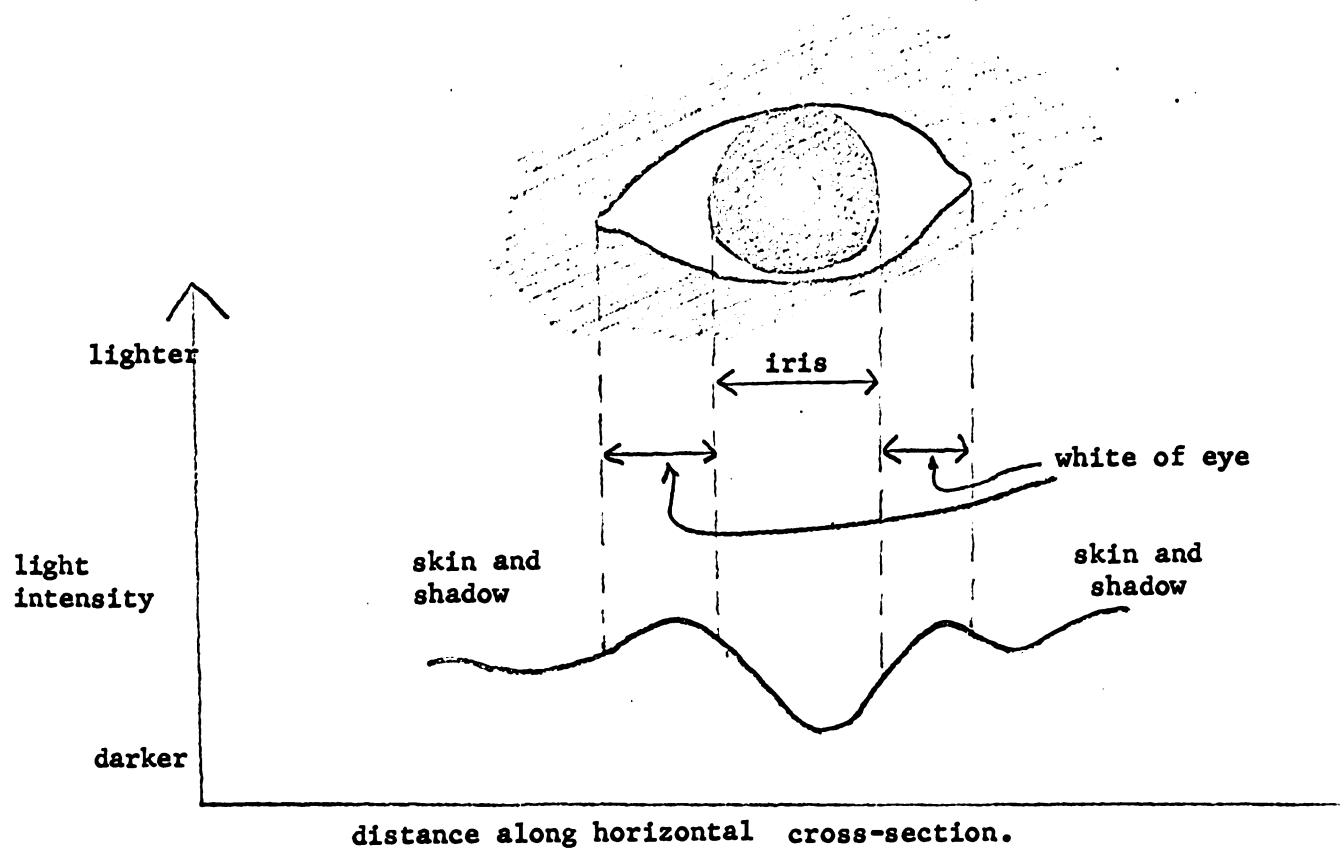


Figure 8-2. Horizontal cross-section which characterizes the eye.

of the eyes. This prediction is based on the average position of the eyes within the head. The predicted eye location will be used as the center of the area to be searched for the eye.

Figure 8-3 shows the model of the head and eyes on which the prediction is based. According to this model, if the top of the head is on the line $y=0$ and the sides are on the lines $x=0$ and $x=W$ (for width), then the eyes are located at

$$(FX(1)*W, FY(1)*HWRAT*W) \quad \text{and}$$
$$(FX(2)*W, FY(1)*HWRAT*W).$$

The experimentally obtained values of the parameters of this model are given in Figure 8-4.

Figure 8-5 shows how this model is used to predict eye location in an actual picture. From the previous processing it is known that the left and right sides of the head are at $X=XL$ and $X=XR$. The width of the head is therefore $W = XR - XL + 1$. Using the model, the x coordinates of the two eyes should be

$$X = FX(1)*W + XL \quad \text{for left eye}$$

and $X = FX(2)*W + XL \quad \text{for right eye.}$

The top of the head is known to be at $Y=YT$. So from the model, the y coordinate of the eyes can be predicted as

$$Y = FY(1)*HWRAT*W + YT.$$

The predicted eye location is only a rough first approximation to the actual location of the eyes. This

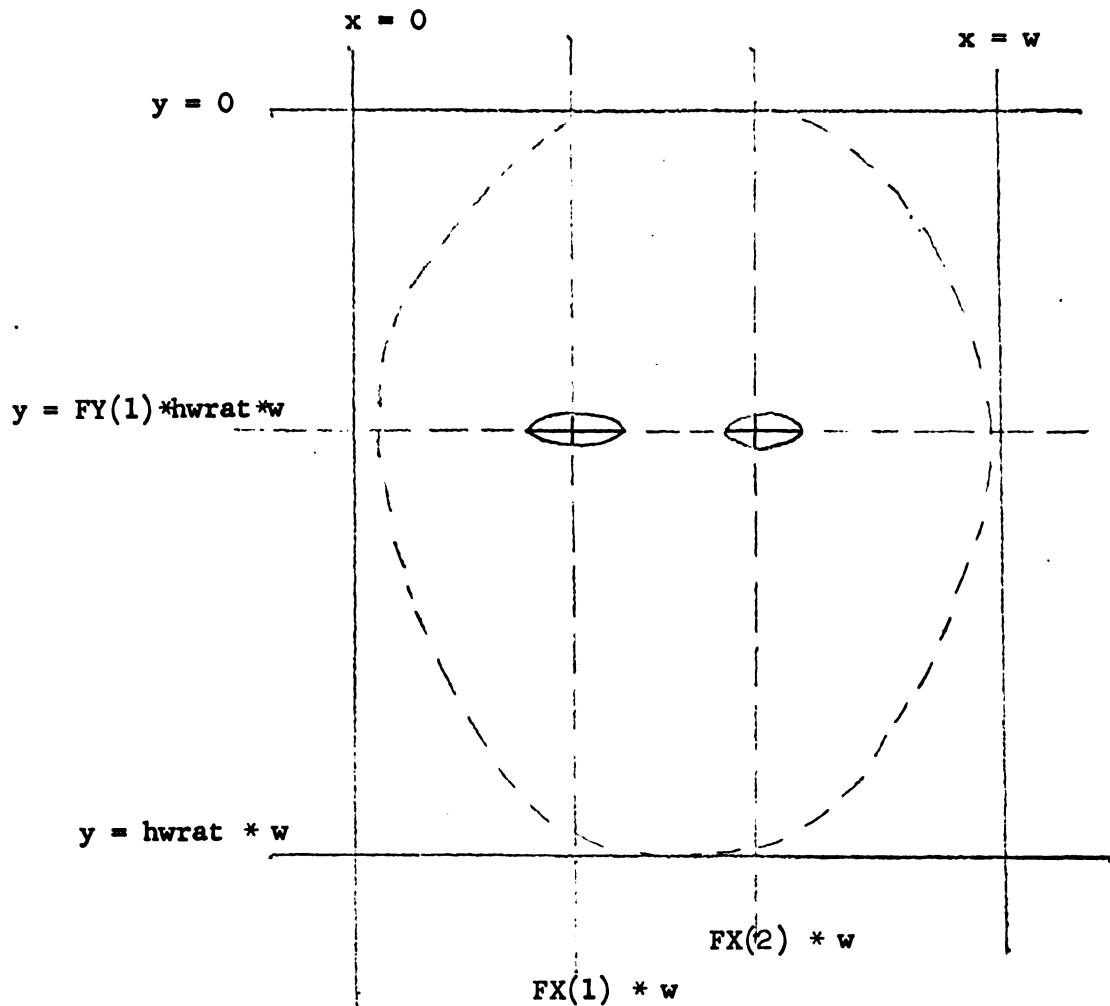


Figure 8-3. The model for eye location on an average head.

FX(1)	.329
FX(2)	.671
FY(1)	.494
HWRAT	1.2

Figure 8-4. Constants used in predicting the location of the eyes.

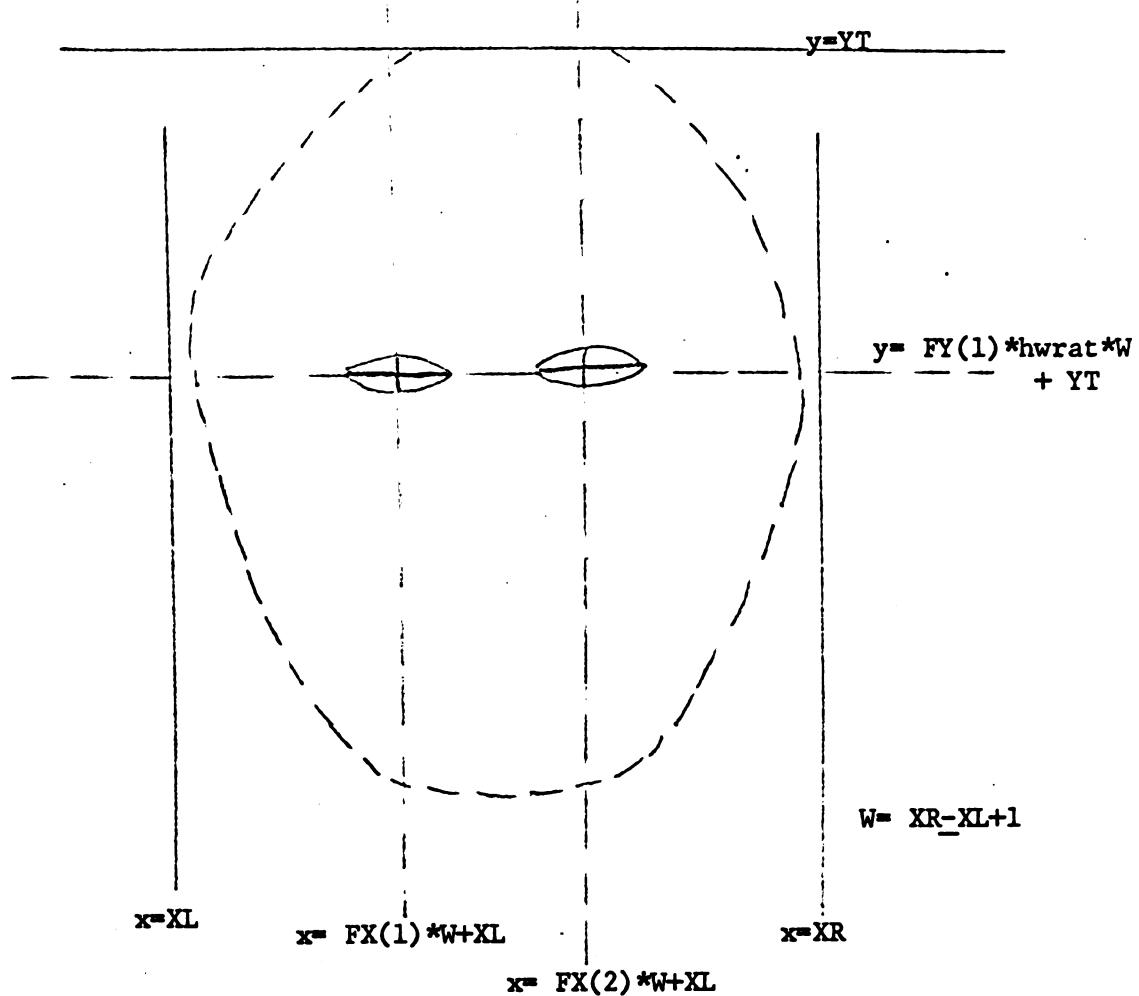


Figure 8-5. Predicting the location of the eyes on a given head.

approximation must be refined considerably before the search for the iris can be expected to work.

The area around the eye is found by looking for a dark blob. The iris, the lashes, the eyebrows, and especially the shadows under the overhanging eyebrow form an area that is darker than the surrounding skin. When this dark area is located, it will be possible to look within it for the iris. Locating this dark area is the next step in eye processing.

A search procedure that examines first a large area, then a small area, is used to home in on the dark blob that is the eye. The reasons for this two part search are given in the discussion of step A4 which follows. The flow chart of this search procedure is given in Figure 8-6. The steps of this procedure are discussed in detail in the following paragraphs.

A1. A square region to be searched for the eye is selected. This square is centered on the predicted eye location. It is large enough so that it will quite surely contain the eye even though the eye may be fairly far away from the predicted eye location. A suitable size for this square was determined experimentally. The size used is based on the measured width of the head W and is $.383 W$.

A2. Within this square, points which are dark and within large, centrally located, connected regions are identified by dynamic threshold setting. The procedure that identifies these points is fairly complex. It is used

A1, | Center large square on predicted eye location |

 ↓
 ↓

A2, | Identify centrally located dark area |
within large square,
 ↓
 ↓

A3, | Find center of gravity of dark area. |

 ↓
 ↓

A4, | Center small square on center of mass |
of previously found dark area.
 ↓
 ↓

A5, | Identify centrally located dark area |
within small square.
 ↓
 ↓

A6, | Characterize dark area by its center of gravity |
and mean radius,

Figure 8-6. Procedure for finding
the dark area around the eye.

at steps A2 and A5. It will be described in detail following the completion of the discussion of the flow chart given in Figure 8-6. In general, however, the procedure looks for a dark area that surrounds the eye. What is meant by "dark"? It is not an absolute measure. Rather, when examining the square under consideration, some points are darker; some are lighter. Some fraction of the points must be heuristically defined as "dark". This fraction is a parameter that was determined experimentally. The value used is .107. The procedure omits dark points which are isolated; it assumes these represent noise. It also omits all dark points which are part of connected regions which intersect the border of the square. These are assumed to be hair, the other eye, or shadows on the nose. Because the search square is large, these other features are sometimes present.

A3. The dark points found in the preceding step should be the points that make up the dark area around the eye. The center of this area is defined to be the centroid of these points. Let S be the set of "dark" points found. Let n_s be the number of points in S . For $\alpha \in S$ let the coordinates of α be x_α, y_α . Then the centroid (\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_i) is computed from

$$\bar{x}_i = \frac{\sum_{\alpha \in S} x_\alpha}{n_s}$$

$$\bar{y}_i = \frac{\sum_{\alpha \in S} y_\alpha}{n_s}$$

A4. It might be expected that the dark area found above is an acceptable approximation to the dark area around the eye. This is not the case. The extent of the area found is strongly dependent on the fraction used to define "dark" points. Since the square used must be quite large so that the eye will not be missed, the uncertainty in the value of this fraction is large. Another iteration of the dynamic threshold setting procedure is used. This time a smaller square will be searched so that the confidence in the value of the fraction is higher. The square will be centered on the centroid of the dark area which was found previously. The size of the square used is again based on a proportion of the width W of the head. The side of the square is .287 W .

A5. The centrally located dark area within the small square is identified. The procedure is the same as that used in step A2. The value of the fraction used to define dark points is .06.

A6. The dark points found in step A5 are characterized by their centroid as was done in step A3. The new centroid is denoted by \bar{x}_2, \bar{y}_2 . An additional parameter is measured which characterizes the dark region. This is the "mean radius", \bar{r} , of the dark region. Let S , n_s , α , x_α , and y_α be defined as in A3. Then the mean radius is given by

$$\bar{r} = \frac{\sum_{\alpha \in S} [(x_\alpha - \bar{x}_2)^2 + (y_\alpha - \bar{y}_2)^2]^{1/2}}{n_s}.$$

This completes the discussion of the general flow given in Figure 8-6. The dark area around the eye has been found and characterized by its centroid and its average radius. A picture of this characterization is given in Figure 8-8.

Before going on to discuss locating the iris, the details of the dynamic threshold setting procedure used in steps A2 and A5 will be given. A generalized flow chart of this procedure is given in Figure 8-7.

The procedure attempts to find a dark area that is central to a square subset of the picture. The dimensions of the square are input parameters to the procedure. Another input parameter is NDARK, the number of dark points expected. The values of these parameters were specified in the section which described the calls on these procedures.

An inspection of Figure 8-7 shows that there are several loops within this procedure. The looping may not be necessary in pictures where the eye region is clearly distinct from its surroundings. First, the flow of the procedure will be discussed assuming a straight, non-looping flow through the program. Following this, the reasons for allowing iteration and the loops will be discussed.

Let A_{ij} represent the grey-valued picture matrix which includes only the points in the square under consideration. The first step is to form a histogram of the intensities of S . The histogram is formed in the array $h[0:15]$. The value of the elements of h are

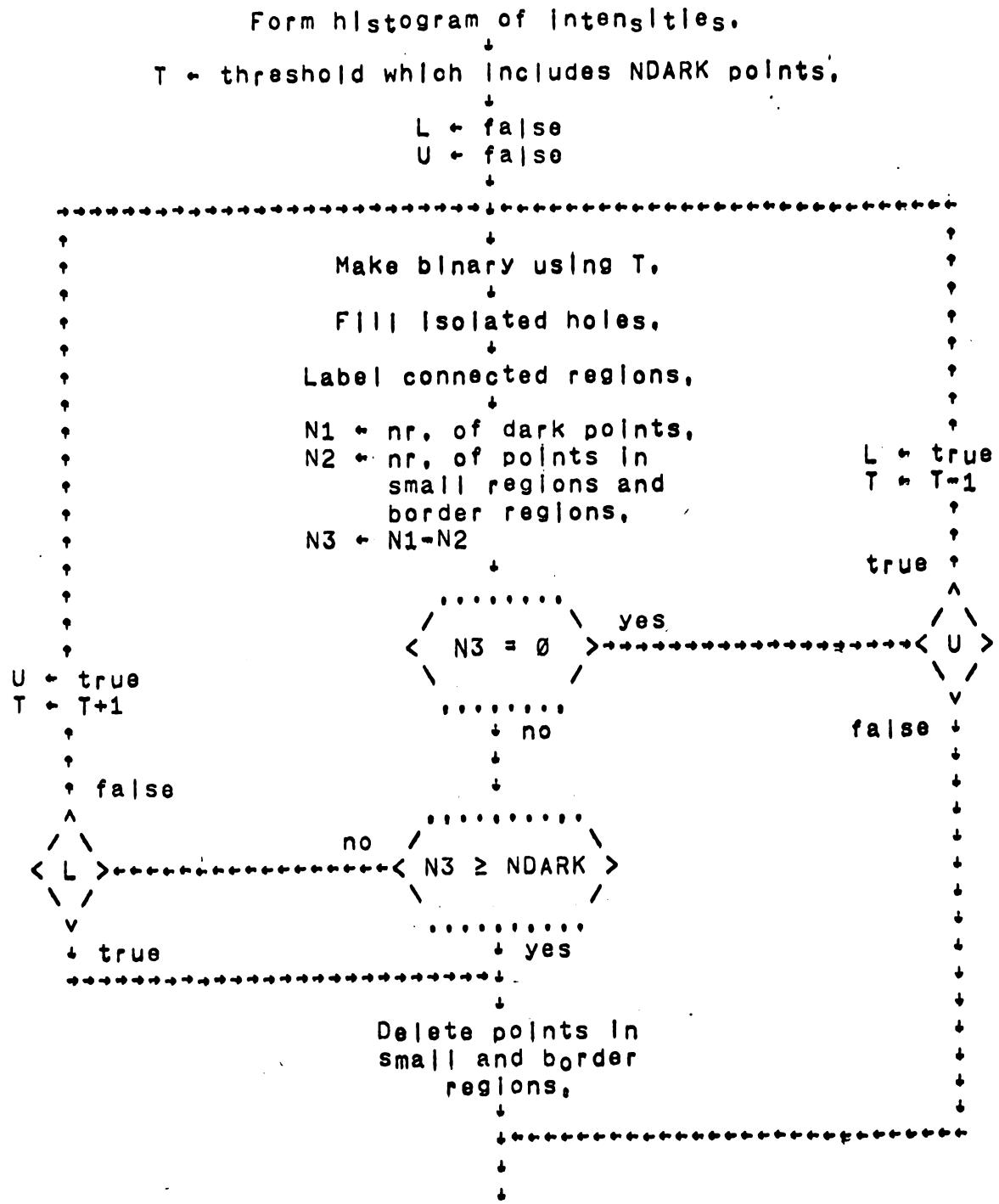


Figure 8-7. Dynamic threshold setting.
(Procedure for finding central dark areas.)

Figure 8-8. The dark region around the eye and characterizing parameters.

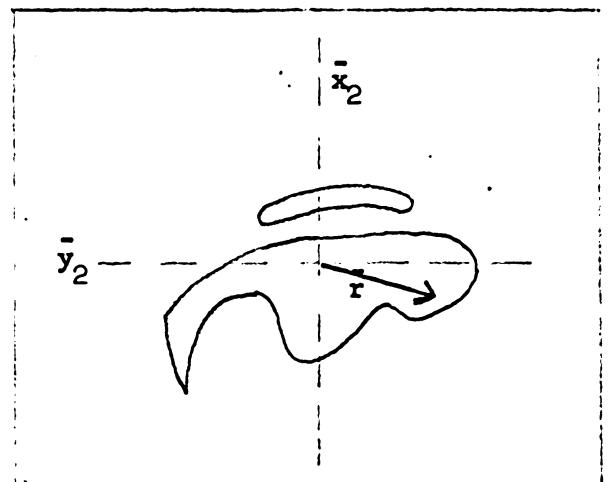
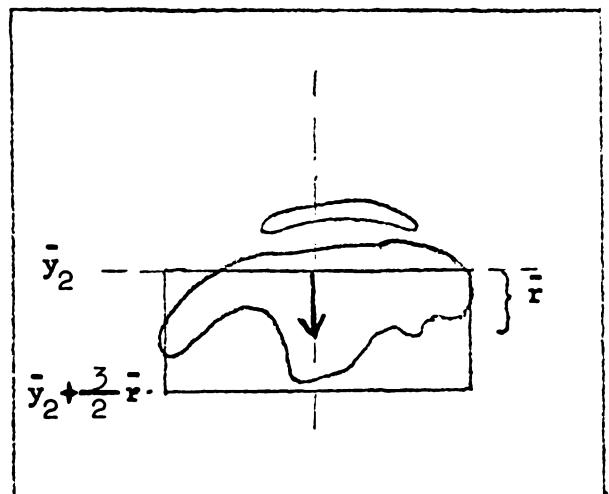


Figure 8-9. The area searched for the iris.



$$h_k = \sum_{i,j} [\text{if } A_{i,j} = k \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0].$$

The variable T is set to that threshold that includes NDARK points. More precisely, T is the minimum value such that

$$\sum_{k=0}^T h \geq \text{NDARK}.$$

It is clear that T divides the picture A into two sets of points: the dark points with $A_{i,j} \leq T$ and the lighter points with $A_{i,j} > T$.

Now two Boolean variables, L and U , are set to "false". These are only used if looping is necessary. This completes the initialization of the procedure.

The main body of the procedure begins with construction of a binary-valued picture B from A . The threshold T is used in this construction as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} B_{i,j} &= 1 \text{ if } A_{i,j} \leq T \\ &= 0 \text{ if } A_{i,j} > T. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the 1's in B represent the dark points of A .

The picture B is smoothed somewhat by filling in isolated holes. Points with value 0 are set to 1 if they are surrounded with 1's.

Connected regions of 1's in B are identified and labeled. This is done using the procedure "CONNECTED" which was discussed in detail in Chapter 6 (see Figure 6-4). Since each dark point of B is labeled with the region number of the connected region to which it belongs, it is easy to count the number of points in each connected dark region and

to identify those dark regions which intersect the border.

N_1 is set equal to the total number of dark points in B. N_2 is set equal to the number of points in B that are in small regions (< 4 points) or in regions that intersect the border. N_3 is set to $N_1 - N_2$. N_3 , then, is the number of points in connected dark regions that are reasonably large and somewhat central.

N_3 is tested to ensure that it is greater than $NDARK$. If it is, all is fine. Those points previously identified as being members of small regions or border regions are deleted from the binary picture B. When a point is deleted, its value is set to zero.

The procedure has completed its work. The binary picture B is available with 1's only in points that are central and dark. The centroid and mean radius can be computed using B.

Now, we must return to consider the cases where iteration is necessary in the procedure. This is necessary if fewer than $NDARK$ points would be left after deleting small regions and border regions. Recall that N_3 is the variable that is a measure of these points. There are four cases to consider.

Case 1. $0 < N_3 < NDARK$ and L is false. In this case the assumption is made that the threshold T was not set high enough. It was desired that $NDARK$ points should be present in the eye area. When much dark hair from the forehead or

temples enters the square under consideration, the threshold T , which was obtained from the histogram during the initialization of the procedure, is unreliable. The dark points from the hair are present in the histogram but then are deleted as border points. The solution is to raise the threshold T . Although more hair may be included it will be ignored since it always extends to the boundary of the area under consideration. T is increased by 1. The Boolean variable U is set to true to indicate that the threshold has been moved up. A transfer is made to the beginning of the body of the procedure.

Case 2, $N3 = \emptyset$ and U is false. If U is false, this is the first iteration of this procedure. At the first threshold setting, all points appear to be border points or in small regions. When this condition is reached, it indicates that the eye region possesses a strange connectivity in the picture under consideration. All dark points are kept in the matrix B and the program is allowed to proceed onward to the next stage of processing. Hopefully, the tolerance of the remaining routines will be able to handle this strange picture. (This case is included in the program only for completeness. It has never been encountered when processing normal pictures.)

Case 3, $N3 = \emptyset$ and U is true. In this case we have already encountered case 1 and have increased the threshold. In doing so the entire set of dark points has become

connected to the borders. This undesirable situation is remedied by lowering the threshold one notch and using those results as the best available. T is decreased by one. L is set to true. The program transfers to the beginning of the body of the procedure. Case 4 will occur on the next iteration.

Case 4, $0 < N3 < NDARK$ and L is true. The previous iteration encountered Case 3. T was raised too high. Accept the value of $N3$. Delete the small regions and border regions. The resulting matrix B is suitable for further processing.

This completes the description of the dynamic threshold setting procedure. We will now consider the routines which detect the iris.

Figure 8-8 shows the dark region around the eye and the parameters, \bar{x}_2 , \bar{y}_2 , and \bar{r} , which characterize the region. Now it is necessary to find the iris. In particular, we wish to find the characteristic horizontal cross-section that was shown in Figure 8-2. An effective procedure for doing this is the following.

First the area where the iris is expected to be found is heavily smoothed. This area is bounded above and below by the lines $y = \bar{y}_2$ and $y = \bar{y}_2 + \frac{3}{2}\bar{r}$ and on the ends by the maximum extent of the dark region. This area is illustrated in Figure 8-9. Within this area smoothing is done by replacing the intensity at each point with the average

intensity over a $p \times q$ rectangle centered at the point. The height of the rectangle, p , is equal to the mean radius \bar{r} . The width, q , is $\frac{1}{3}\bar{r}$. A typical value for \bar{r} is 7. Thus a typical size for the smoothing rectangle is 7x2.

Now, a horizontal cross-section is taken along each line in the rectangle in Figure 8-9. The characteristic shape (two mountains of eye white with a valley between for the iris) can be identified. The center of the iris is located, and its coordinates are recorded.

The positions of the eyes have been located. Therefore, processing of the eyes is complete.

NOSE.

The measurements that are obtained from the nose are the coordinates of the center of the two nostrils. In a front view of the face the nostrils are the only part of the nose that is reliably and consistently present.

The nostrils appear in the digital pictures as two small dark areas of roughly elliptical shape. A typical nose region may be seen in Figure 8-10.

The processing needed to locate the nostrils is similar in concept to that used in processing the eyes. First, a location for the nostrils is predicted, based on a model of the relationship of the eyes and nose. Then the area surrounding the predicted location is searched to determine the actual location.

Figure 8-10.
Nose region in
unprocessed picture.

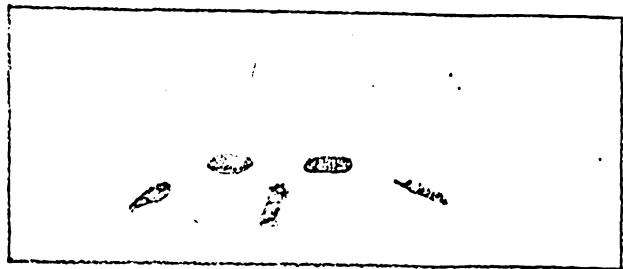


Figure 8-11.
Essentials of the
model of the eye-nose
relationship.

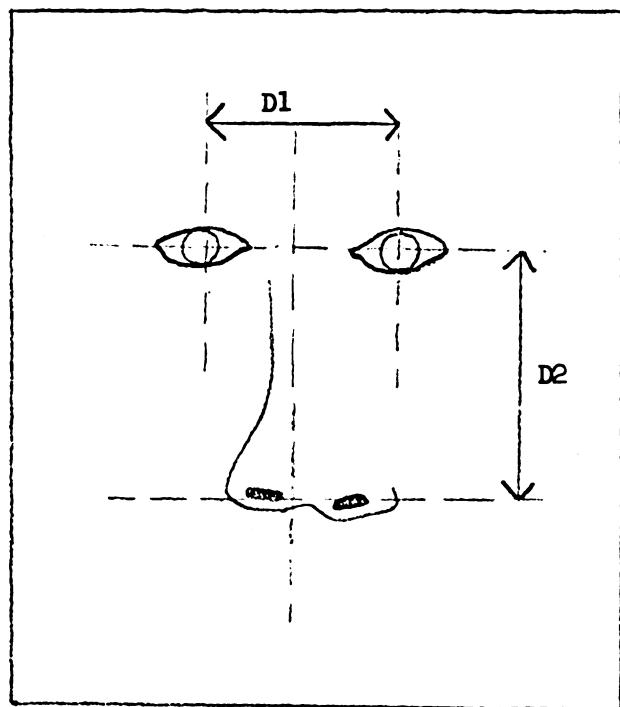


Figure 8-11 shows the essentials of the model that relates the positions of the eyes and the nose. The distance between the eyes is denoted by D_1 . The distance between parallel horizontal lines intersecting the eyes and intersecting the nostrils is denoted by D_2 . In the model D_2/D_1 is assumed to be a constant ratio. The experimental value used is .75. The model is used as follows. Let X_L, Y_L and X_R, Y_R be the previously measured eye locations. Then the predicted nostril locations X_P, Y_P are given by

$$X_P = \frac{1}{2}(X_L + X_R)$$

$$Y_P = \frac{1}{2}(Y_L + Y_R) + \left(\frac{D_2}{D_1}\right)(X_R - X_L).$$

These coordinates give a first approximation to the location of the nostrils. A square centered on X_P, Y_P will be searched for the nose. The sides of the square are .287 times the measured width of the head W .

A key point in locating the nose, as in finding almost every other feature, is preliminary smoothing. This tends to make prominent things prominent and to make the minor local variations have a smaller effect. The smoothing is done on the nose region by replacing the average intensity at each point in the square under consideration by the average intensity of the four points in a 2×2 square.

At the same time that this smoothing takes place, a histogram of intensity is made. This histogram is used for subsequent threshold setting.

The nostrils are located by a procedure which does

dynamic threshold setting. The broad outlines of the search for the nostrils is given by the flow chart in Figure 8-12. This flow chart is discussed in detail below. The general idea is as follows. A threshold T is gradually raised from lower to higher grey values. At the lowest value only the few darkest points are below the threshold. As the threshold is raised a little, several small dark areas will be below the threshold. These areas should include the two nostrils. There may also be dark areas for shadows under the nose or from the sides of the nose. A heuristic decision procedure is used to identify those dark areas which represent the nostrils.

The details of the procedure of Figure 8-12 are as follows.

C1. The first value of the threshold T is chosen as the minimum intensity in the nose region. This value is obtained from the previously prepared histogram.

C2. Dark regions are identified. A dark point is a point with intensity less than or equal to T . A binary valued picture is formed with dark points having value 1, and light points having value 0. This is similar to the procedure used in locating the dark eye area. The procedure for identifying connected regions (CONNECTED, Figure 6-4) is applied to the binary valued picture; its methods were discussed previously in eye and body processing. Each dark point is associated with the region number of the connected

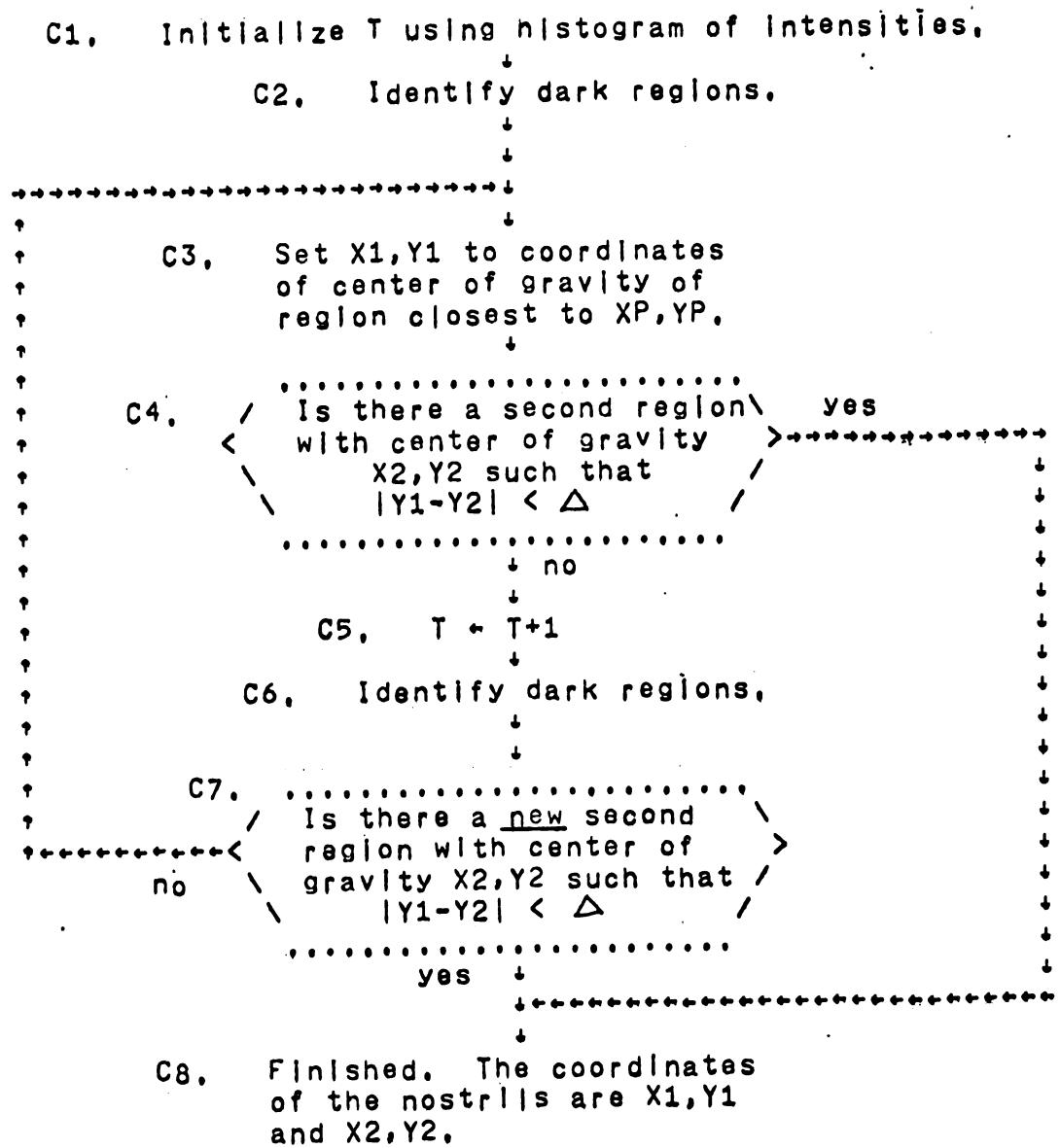


Figure 8-12. Locating the position
of the nostrils.

region to which it belongs. From this information the centroid of each dark, connected region is computed.

C3. XP, YP are the coordinates of the point predicted to be between the nostrils. The closest region to XP, YP is found. Here the distance from a point to a region is defined as the Euclidian distance from the point to the centroid of the region. $X1$ and $Y1$ are set equal to the centroid of the closest region.

C4. A check is made to see if there is a second region in the picture at approximately the same height as $X1, Y1$. In particular, what is sought is a centroid $X2, Y2$ such that

$$|Y1 - Y2| < \lambda_1 \quad \text{and} \quad |X1 - X2| > \lambda_2,$$

Satisfactory values for the parameters are $\lambda_1=4$ and $\lambda_2=8$. If such a region is found, the search for the nostrils is successful; the program transfers to C8. If such a region is not found, more regions are searched for at C5.

C5. The threshold T is increased by one. This will include more dark points in the next iteration of the procedure.

C6. Dark regions are identified in the area of the nose using the new value of T . This step is identical with step C2.

C7. Hopefully, new regions have been found in the preceding step. The coordinates $X1, Y1$ of the old closest

region (found in step C3) are still known. A check is made to see if a new region is present at approximately the same height as X1,Y1. The details of the test are the same as in step C4. If there is a new region which meets this criteria, the search for the nostrils is successful, and the program continues to step C8. If not, another iteration of the procedure is needed and a transfer is made to step C3,

C8. The procedure is finished. X1,Y1 and X2,Y2 represent the coordinates of the two nostrils.

This completes the processing of the nose. The locations of the nostrils are recorded for eventual use in the classification step.

MOUTH.

The mouth was a difficult feature to locate consistently. When work was first begun, it was anticipated that points of the mouth and lips could be found by edge detection operators. This did not work because of the great variability present in the mouth region. In a light intensity representation of the mouth and its surroundings, the things that stand out are the highlights and shadows caused by light falling on the recesses and protruding curves of the mouth. The lips and the mouth itself are much less prominent. These lights and shadows change greatly with various lighting arrangements.

Another problem in recognizing mouths is the

variability of position. There is no "standard" position that a subject can be instructed to assume with his mouth. Therefore, pictures of the same mouth look different from picture to picture.

The one characteristic of the mouth that is uniformly detectable is the dark thin horizontal line which the mouth forms. The program was written to detect the presence of this line and its location.

The principal component of this process is a line-finding operator. A great deal of experimentation was performed in an attempt to devise a good operator. The following procedure is the result.

The operator detects horizontal dark lines. It examines points in a 7×7 square of the picture. Let B_1 be the average intensity value in row 1 of the picture. If

$$B_1 \geq B_2 \geq B_3 \geq B_4 \leq B_5 \leq B_6 \leq B_7$$

and if

$$B_1 > B_4 < B_7$$

then the point at the center of the square is on a dark line. If the two relations above do not hold, the central point is not on a dark line.

Now the procedure for locating the mouth can be described.

Step 1. The area to be searched for the mouth is delimited. This area extends vertically from below the nose

to near the predicted chin. Horizontally, it extends from left to right just outside of the previously located eye centers.

Step 2. The mouth region is smoothed using 2×2 smoothing. Here as elsewhere, smoothing improves performance.

Step 3. Within the mouth region all points that are on dark horizontal lines are identified. The 7×7 line finding operator described above is used.

Step 4. A threshold is determined such that half of the points which are on dark horizontal lines are darker than this threshold. Points with values above this threshold are eliminated.

Step 5. The rows of the region under consideration are examined to find that row which contains the greatest number of the points remaining. At this point the mouth is easily identified as the string of remaining dark points on adjacent rows.

This completes the processing of the mouth, the final feature on the face to be determined. All measurements are now available. The classification algorithm can be applied to the measurements to identify the individual.

CHAPTER 9

PATTERN CLASSIFICATION

This chapter will describe the methods used to identify a subject once a set of measurements has been obtained from the picture. It is worthwhile to re-emphasize that the study of pattern classification methods does not represent a major part of this thesis. The location and identification of features in grey scale pictures is the concern of this thesis. Once the features are located and measurements obtained, it is necessary to use a classification algorithm for identification of the subject. For this purpose a standard and easily used classification method is used.

The pattern classification problem is an example of decision-making when there is uncertainty in the data on which the decision is based. It may be defined as follows. Given a real valued vector \vec{x} , which has been selected from one of the classes C_1, C_2, \dots, C_m , we wish to find which of the classes that \vec{x} represents. That is, we wish to find a decision function of the feature vector \vec{x} such that

$$f(\vec{x}) = i \quad \text{if } x \in C_i.$$

In this thesis, the components of \vec{x} are the measurements obtained from the picture, normalized by dividing each measurement by the measured height. The classes C_i each represent one person whose measurements are in the recognition dictionary.

This pattern classification problem may be separated from experimental pattern recognition and treated as a problem in mathematical statistics. There exists an extensive literature concerning this problem. Many classification algorithms have been described. Various algorithms are appropriate depending on the knowledge which is available about the probabilities of the classes and the probability distributions of the features for members of each class. The many methods which have been proposed and used are broadly surveyed and described in the recent papers by Nagy [1968] and Ho and Agrawala [1968]. Both papers contain lengthy bibliographies of the important literature dealing with pattern classification.

Identification of people, as Bledsoe and Hart have observed, is characterized by a small number of samples from each of a large number of classes. This contrasts with traditional pattern recognition problems where one has many samples from a few classes. Thus it is difficult to estimate probability distributions.

Accordingly, from the many classification schemes that are available, the nearest neighbor method (Cover and Hart [1967]) was chosen for this work in identification of people. The reason for this choice is that the nearest neighbor method is simple, easy to use, intuitively appealing, and requires no prior knowledge of underlying probability distributions.

The nearest neighbor method may be described as follows. For each person whose measurements are in the recognition dictionary, one or several n -component measurement vectors have been obtained. Each measurement vector may be considered as specifying a point in an n -dimensional space. A distance function $D(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$ is defined between any two points \vec{x} and \vec{y} in the space. When it is necessary to classify a new measurement vector \vec{x} , the distances between \vec{x} and each point in the dictionary are computed. The closest point to \vec{x} is that \vec{y}_i for which $D(\vec{x}, \vec{y}_i)$ is minimum, and \vec{x} is identified as representing the same person as \vec{y}_i .

With relatively few vectors for each person in the dictionary, this sort of classification will work well if the feature vectors for each person are nicely clustered in n -space. The success of the Bertillon system and Bledsoe's work with identification from measurements indicates that this is indeed the case for accurate measurements. In the recognition system studied here, the measurements contain measurement errors, but the nature of these errors is difficult to estimate. Nevertheless, the nearest neighbor classification method provides a simple way to test the feature detection that forms the principal effort in this thesis.

As stated before, the nearest neighbor procedure is simple and intuitively appealing. Its chief disadvantage,

the large memory required to store every previously encountered measurement, is not bothersome with the relatively small data sets used here. There is another feature of the nearest neighbor procedure which is worth mentioning. It is well known that when all the underlying probability structure of a classification problem is known and used, the optimum decision rule may be obtained using Bayes analysis and choosing the class C_i which maximizes

$$P(C_i | \vec{x}) = \frac{P(\vec{x} | C_i) P(C_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^m P(\vec{x} | C_j) P(C_j)},$$

Cover and Hart [1967] have shown that for large samples, the probability of error of the nearest neighbor rule is bounded above by twice the Bayes probability of error. (Minsky and Papert [1969, p. 197] give a clear example of a special case of this result.)

In choosing the distance function for use in the nearest neighbor algorithm, the metric which was used successfully by Bledsoe [1966] was selected. The distance from \vec{x} to \vec{y} is defined as

$$D(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{\sigma_j^2} (x_j - y_j)^2$$

where σ_j^2 is the intra-person difference variance for measurement j ; in other words, σ_j^2 is the variance of differences in measurement j between pictures of the same person. More precisely, let \vec{a} and \vec{b} be two measurement vectors for person i . Form the difference vector $\vec{a} - \vec{b}$

for person i as

$$a_{ij} = a_j - b_j.$$

Do the same for each person until a complete set of difference vectors $\vec{a_1}, \vec{a_2}, \dots, \vec{a_m}$ has been obtained.

Define σ_j^2 as the variance of the j th component of these difference vectors:

$$\sigma_j^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (a_{ij})^2 - \left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} \right]^2.$$

Clearly this distance measure is a Euclidean distance on a space in which each component has been weighted by a confidence level $\frac{1}{\sigma_j^2}$. This weight will be large on a measurement that is reliably repeatable. It will be small on an unreliable measurement.

It was mentioned above that this is the distance measure used by Bledsoe. To be precise, it should be mentioned that Bledsoe had many more measurements in his manually obtained data. These measurements were grouped according to the features. For instance, one group might be all the measurements on points of the mouth. The distance measure presented above is the measure used by Bledsoe for the distance between centroids of groups.

CHAPTER 10

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The principal positive result of this research is the use of goal-directed techniques to successfully locate features in cluttered digital pictures. This success has been verified by displaying the results of the feature finding algorithms and comparing these locations with the locations obtained by hand from digital printouts of the pictures. Successful performance in the task of identification of people provides further verification for the feature finding algorithms. The test of the performance of the program on identification of people is described below.

A collection of 72 digital pictures was used in this test. This collection comprised 24 sets of pictures. Each set consisted of 3 pictures for one individual: a picture of the body, a picture of the background which corresponded to the body picture, and a close-up of the head. Ten individuals were represented in the collection. For most, there were 2 sets of pictures. Three individuals had 3 or 4 pictures each in the collection. The pictures of the same individual were taken at various times over a two year period.

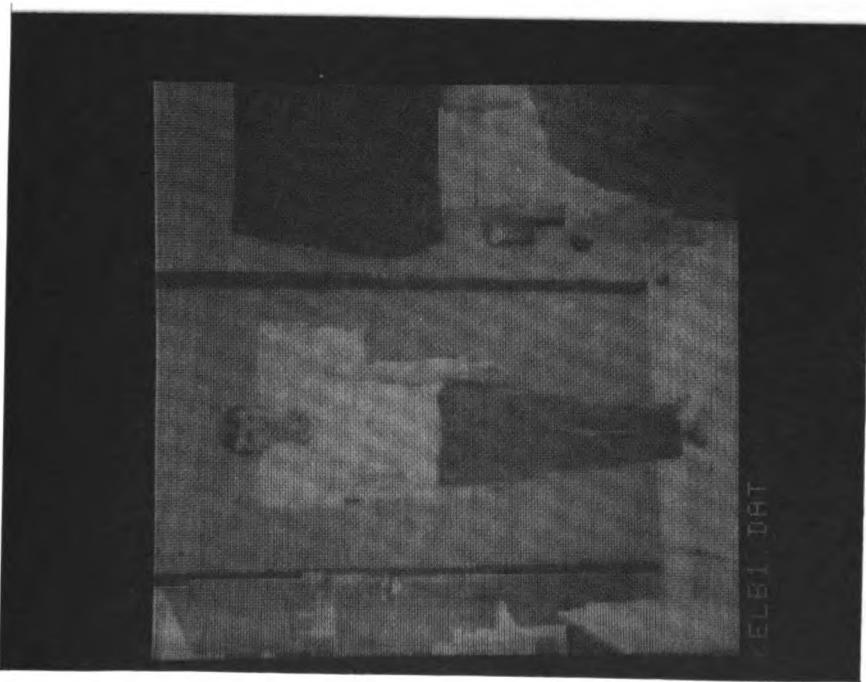
A large amount of information will be included in this chapter about the collection of pictures which was used in

the performance test. This is done in order to provide a clear indication of the quality of the input and the characteristics of the results. In addition this information could be used in comparison of alternate methods with the methods of this thesis. A full set of the data used to test this program is available from the author.

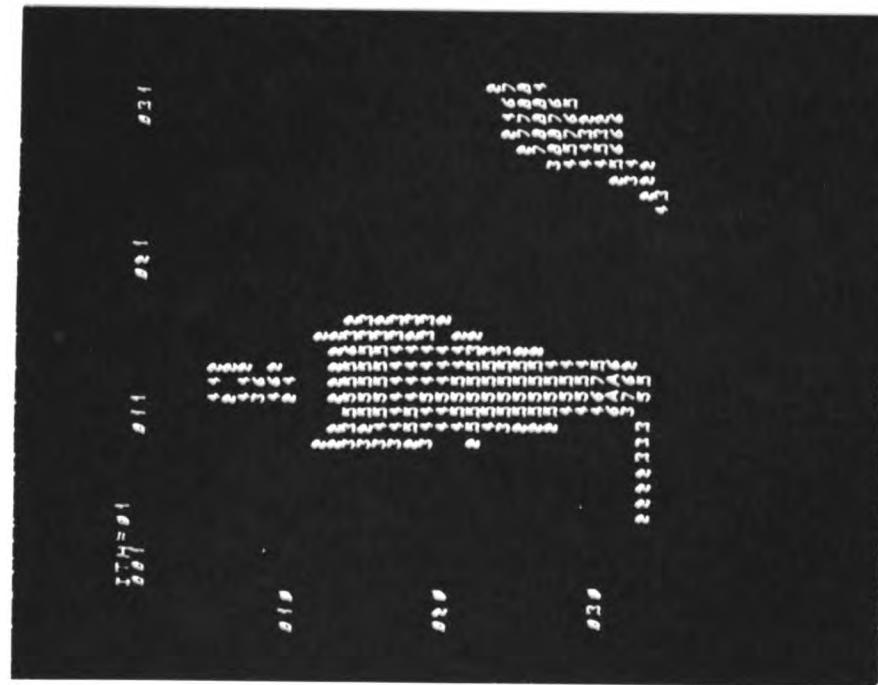
Detailed information on the pictures of the entire body will be provided for 4 pictures, 2 pictures each of 2 individuals.

The complete input data for 2 of these pictures is included as Appendix 1. For each picture several pages of computer printout are given. Taken together these pages completely specify the input picture. In the printouts in Appendix 1 (and also in Appendix 2, to be described later) the sixteen levels of light intensity are represented as follows. Each point contains a light intensity value which ranges from zero (the darkest points) to fifteen (the lightest points). Intensity values 0 through 9 are represented by the digits "0" through "9". Intensity value 10 is represented by the letter "A"; 11 by "B"; and 12, 13, and 14 by the letters "C", "D", and "E" respectively. Intensity value 15 is printed as a period.

Each of Figures 10-1 through 10-4 gives 4 photographs derived from the 4 example pictures of bodies. Part (a) gives a grey scale representation which was obtained by photographing a computer display terminal. Part (b) shows

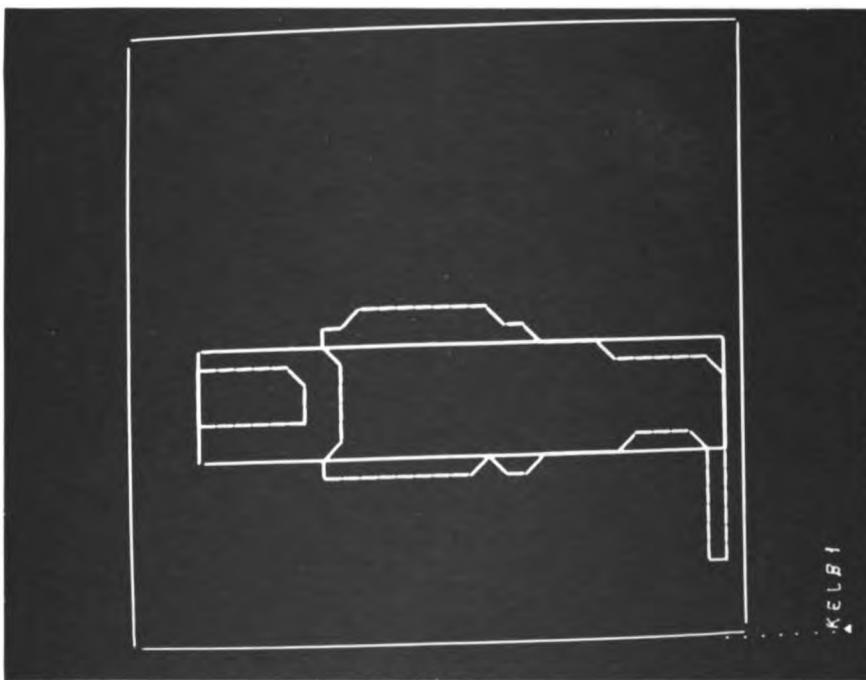


(a)

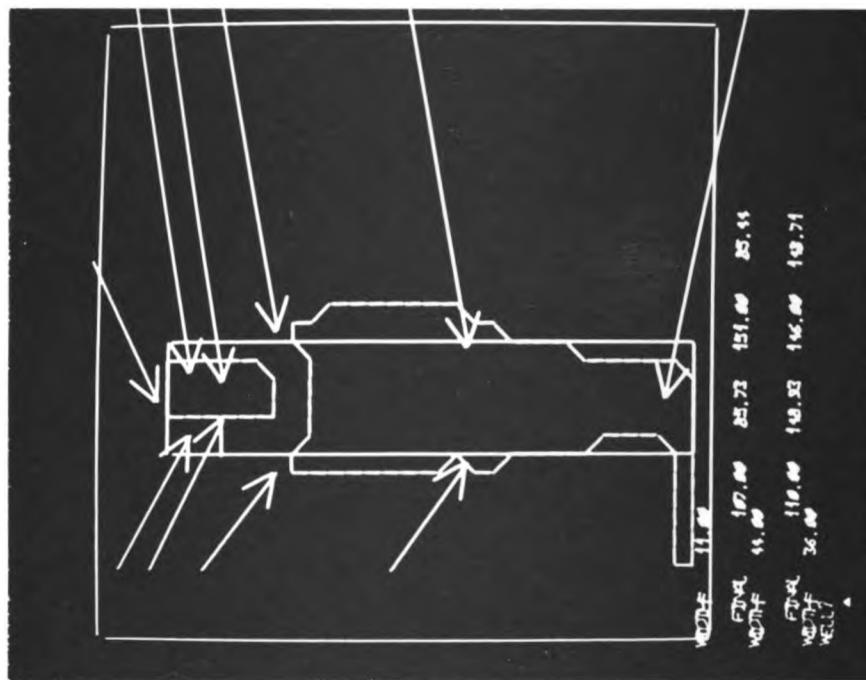


(b)

Figure 10-1. Picture KELBI



(c)



(d)

Figure 10-1 (continued)

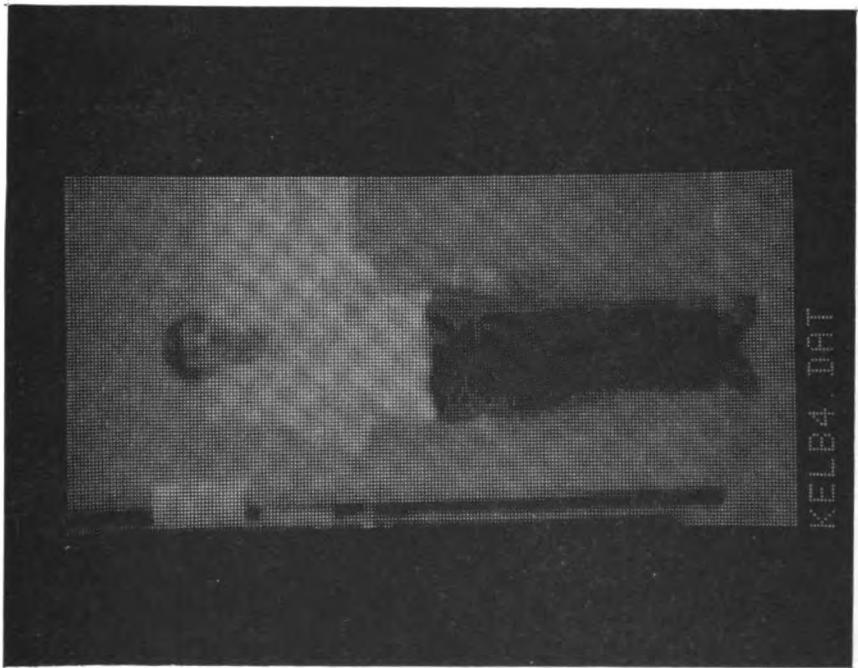
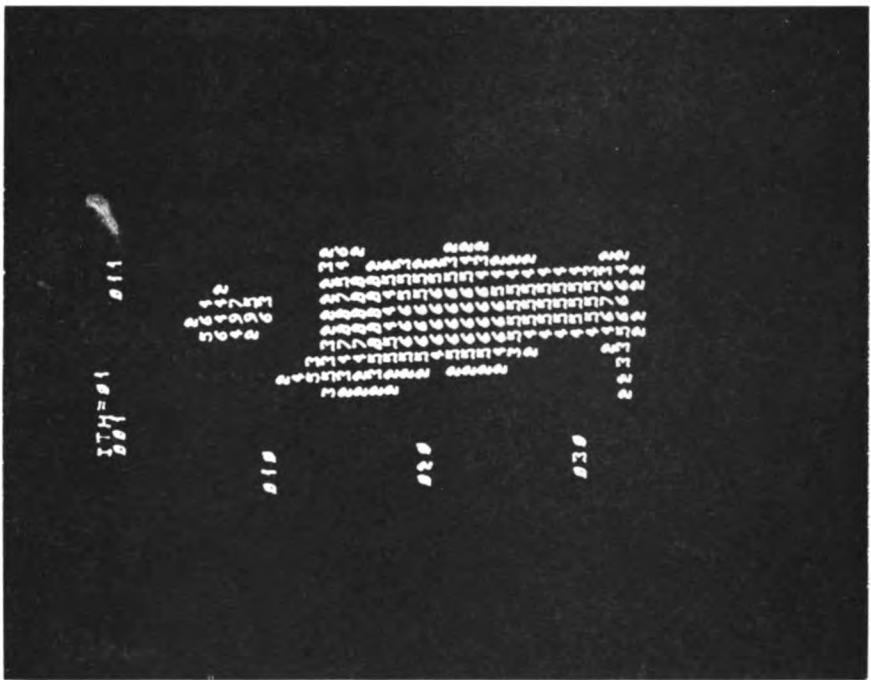
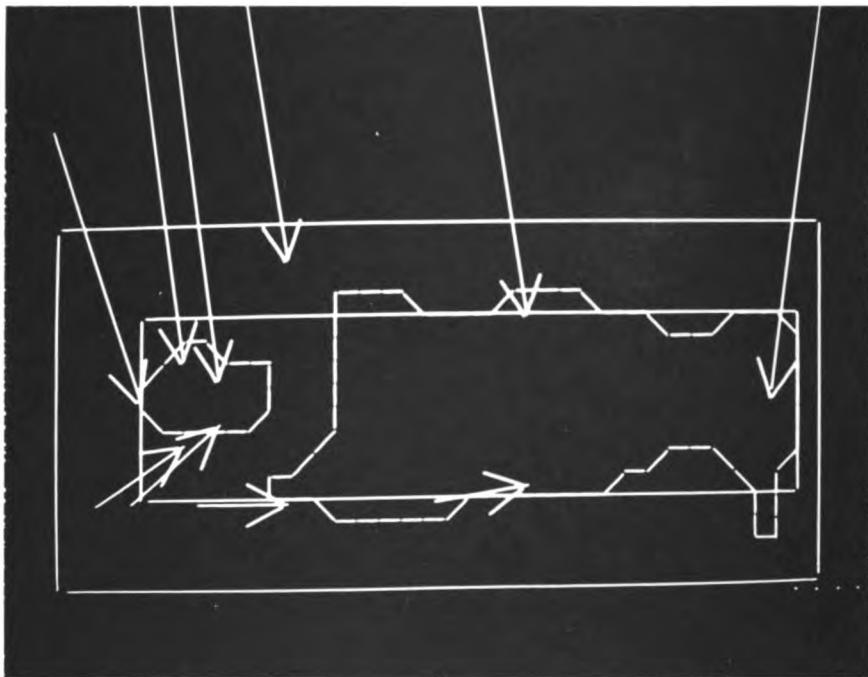


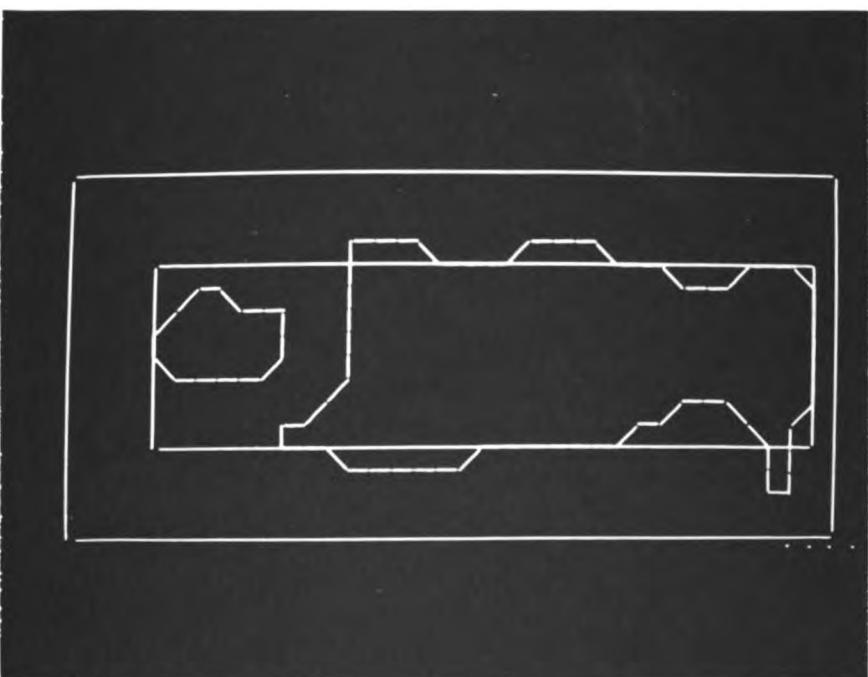
Figure 10-2. Picture KELB4

Figure 10-2 (continued)

(d)

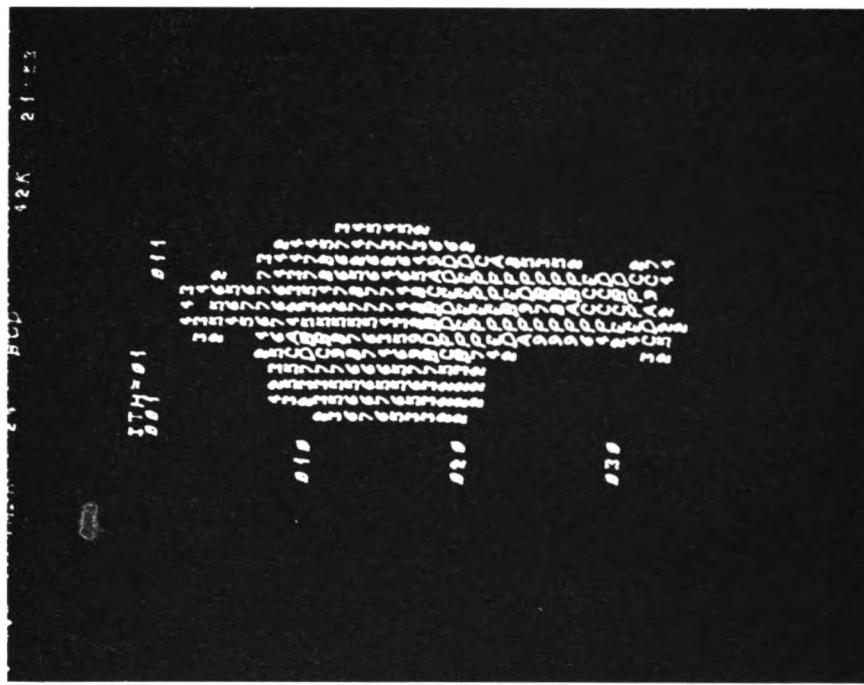


(c)





(a)



(b)

Figure 10-3. Picture JZCB1

(d)

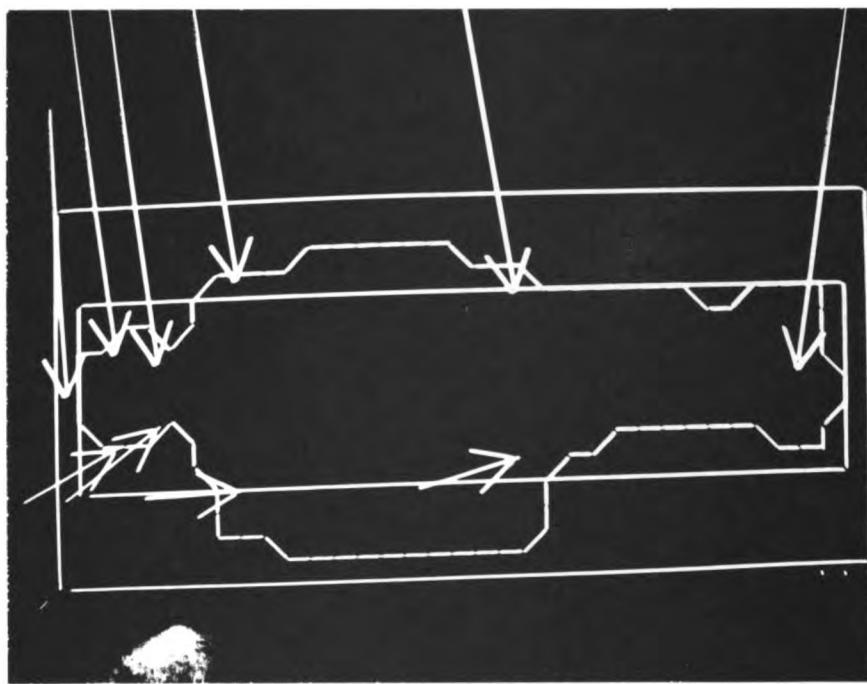
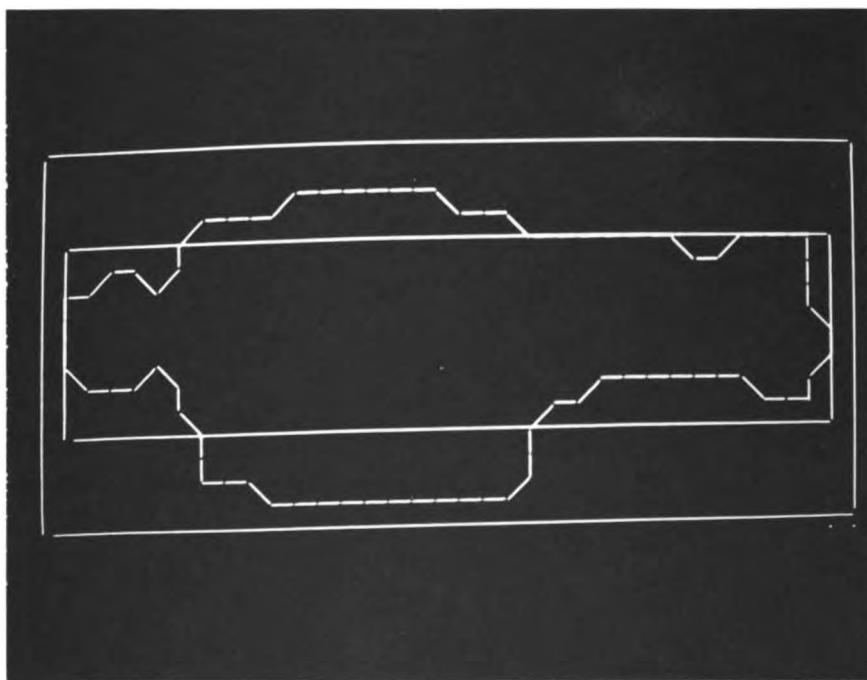


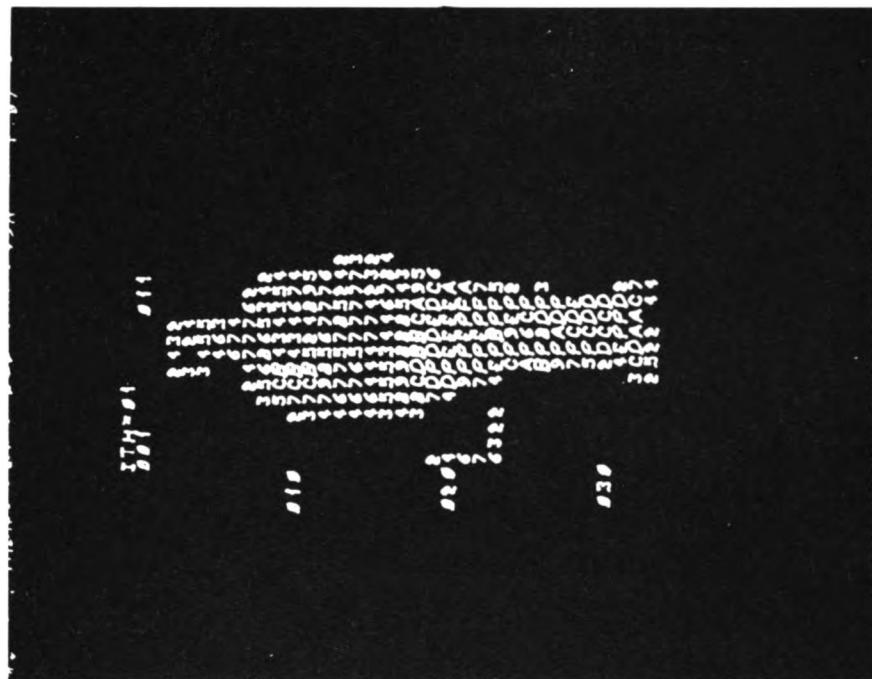
Figure 10-3 (continued)

(c)





(a)

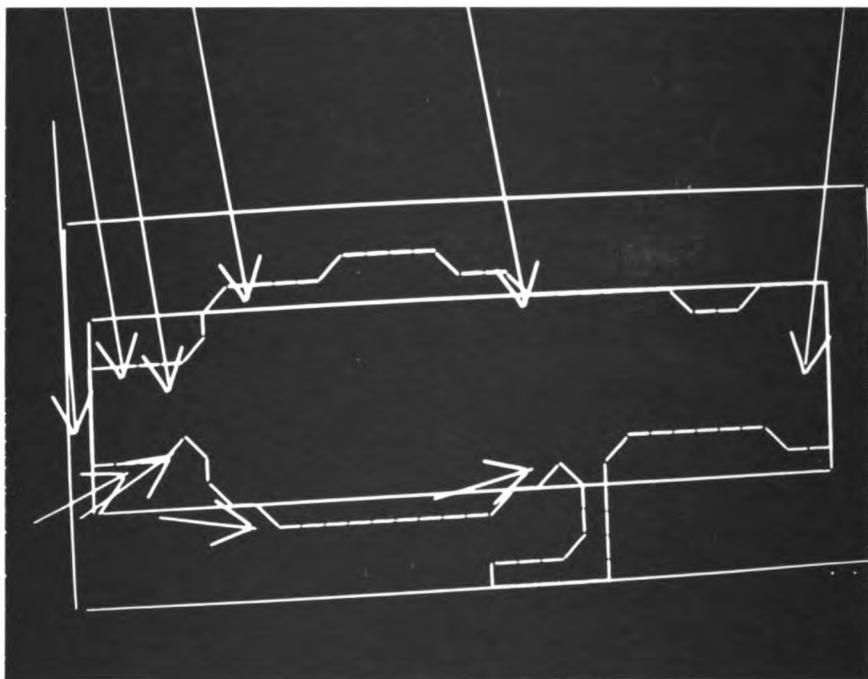


(b)

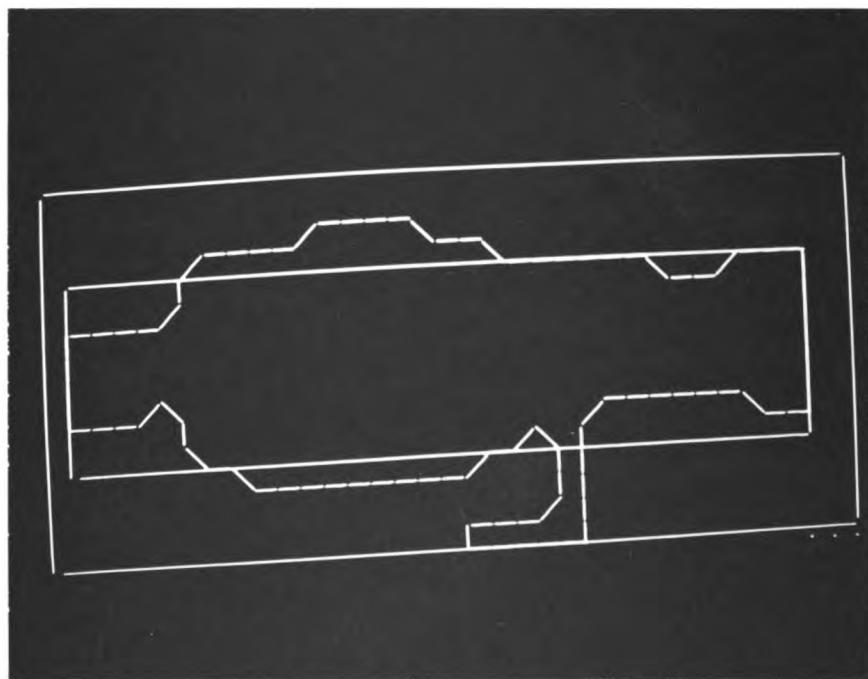
Figure 10-4. Picture JZCB2

Figure 10-4 (continued)

(d)



(c)



the results of processing the pictures after subtraction and reduction in size. The representation is the same as that used in Appendix 1 which was described above. Part (c) shows the outlines of the regions which remain after smoothing, noise elimination, and removal of the border regions. Part (d) shows the same outlines as part (c) with arrows superimposed which point to the locations of the measurement points.

Table 10-1 gives the coordinates of all of the measurement points located in the 4 example body pictures.

Appendix 2 consists of complete input data for 2 pictures of heads, both representing the same individual. The data representation is the same as that used in Appendix 1 and described above.

Figures 10-6 through 10-29 contain pictures of each of the 24 heads in the test collection. In each figure part (a) is a grey scale photograph from a computer display terminal. Part (b) shows the outline of the head, the features found, and coordinates of features located. The eyes are represented by an outline of the dark areas around the eyes. Similar outlines are given for the nostrils. The mouth is indicated roughly by horizontal lines. Around the nose and mouth some noise points have not been suppressed. On the right of the outline of the head the feature coordinates that are used in subsequent measurements are given. Figure 10-5 explains which numbers belong with

TABLE 10-1,
Coordinate measurements from 4 body pictures.

Picture KELB1

			x coord.	y coord.
Top of Head			129	45
Feet			130	213
Sides of head	left		119	56
	right		138	56
	Width=	19		
Sides of neck	left		124	67
	right		135	67
	Width=	11		
Sides of shoulders	left		107	86
	right		151	85
	Width=	44		
Sides of hips	left		110	149
	right		146	149
	Width=	36		

Picture KELB4

			x coord.	y coord.
Top of Head			143	46
Feet			142	219
Sides of head	left		132	58
	right		153	58
	Width=	21		
Sides of neck	left		137	68
	right		148	68
	Width=	11		
Sides of shoulders	left		116	88
	right		179	88
	Width=	63		
Sides of hips	left		120	153
	right		164	153
	Width=	44		

TABLE 10-1. (Continued)
Coordinate measurements from 4 body pictures.

Picture JZCB1

			x coord.	y coord.
Top of Head			142	25
Feet			143	214
Sides of head	left		129	38
	right		152	38
	Width=	23		
Sides of neck	left		134	49
	right		149	49
	Width=	15		
Sides of shoulders	left		117	71
	right		169	71
	Width=	52		
Sides of hips	left		123	142
	right		164	142
	Width=	41		

Picture JZCB2

			x coord.	y coord.
Top of Head			137	24
Feet			142	214
Sides of head	left		127	37
	right		150	37
	Width=	23		
Sides of neck	left		131	49
	right		146	48
	Width=	15		
Sides of shoulders	left		112	71
	right		167	69
	Width=	55		
Sides of hips	left		122	142
	right		162	141
	Width=	40		

Figure 10-5,
Explanation of measurements in
Figures 10-6 through 10-29.

On the right side of each figure are ten values. The meaning of these values is defined by their position as follows:

<NAME OF PICTURE>

<TOP OF HEAD, Y COORD.>

<HEAD, LEFT SIDE X COORD.>

<HEAD, RIGHT SIDE X COORD.>

<LEFT EYE X COORD.>

<RIGHT EYE X COORD.>

<LEFT EYE Y COORD.>

<RIGHT EYE Y COORD.>

<NOSTRILS, Y COORD.>

<MOUTH, Y COORD.>

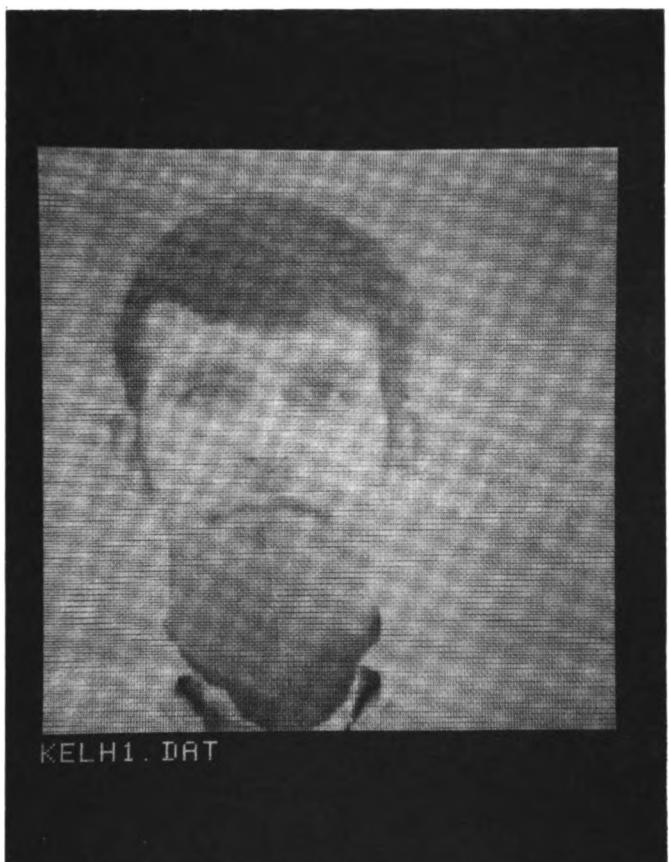
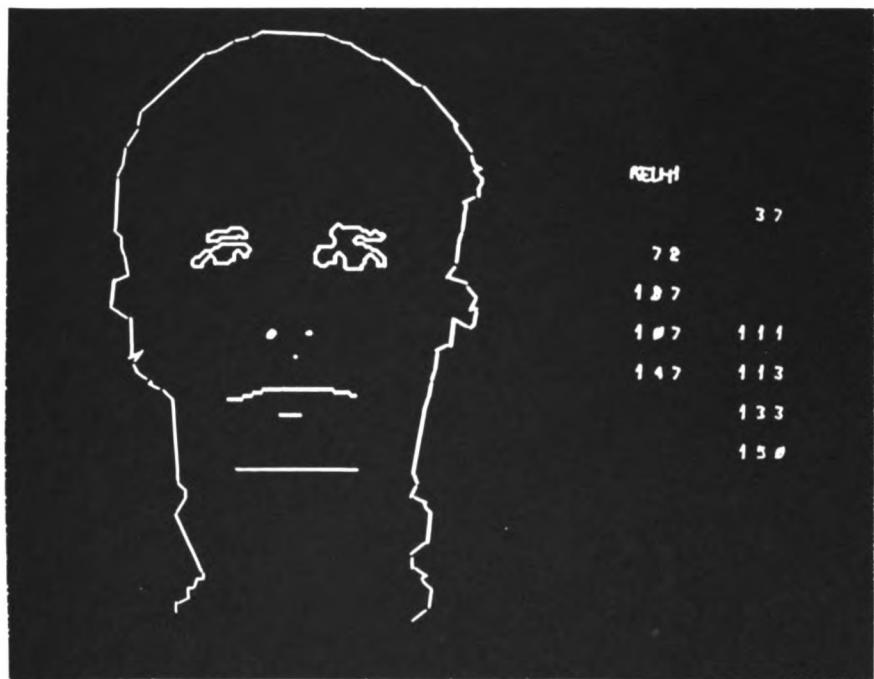
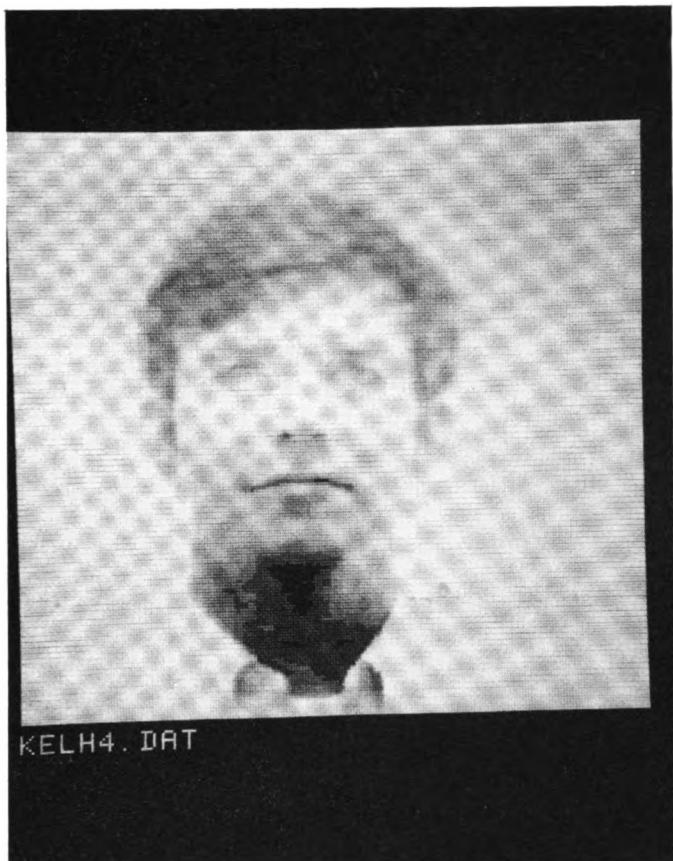


Figure 10-6

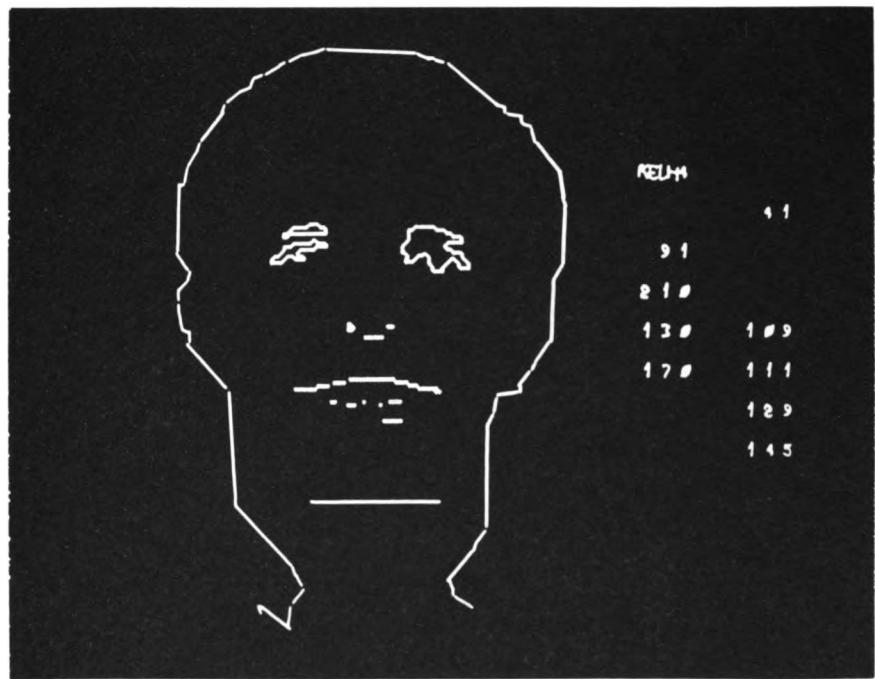


(b)

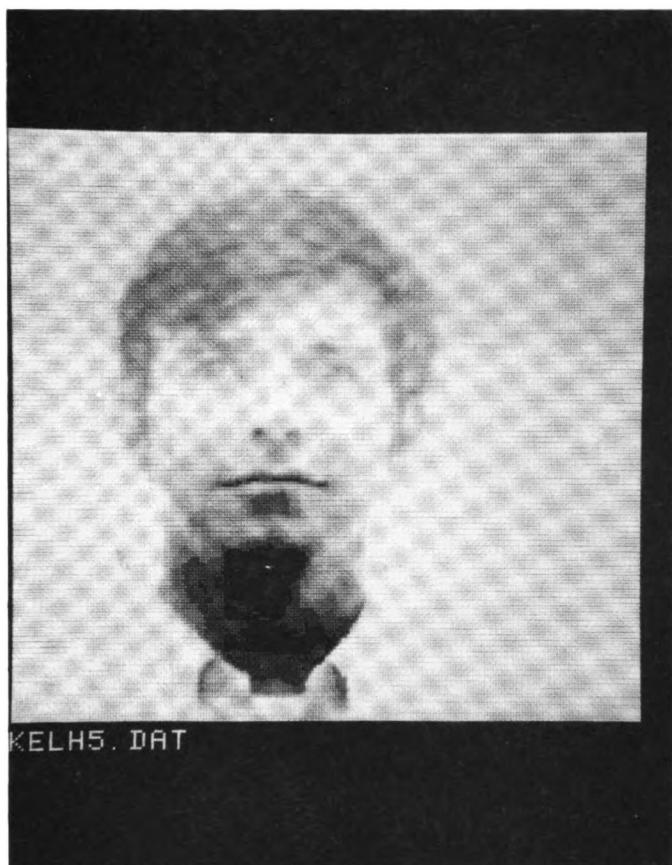


(a)

Figure 10-7

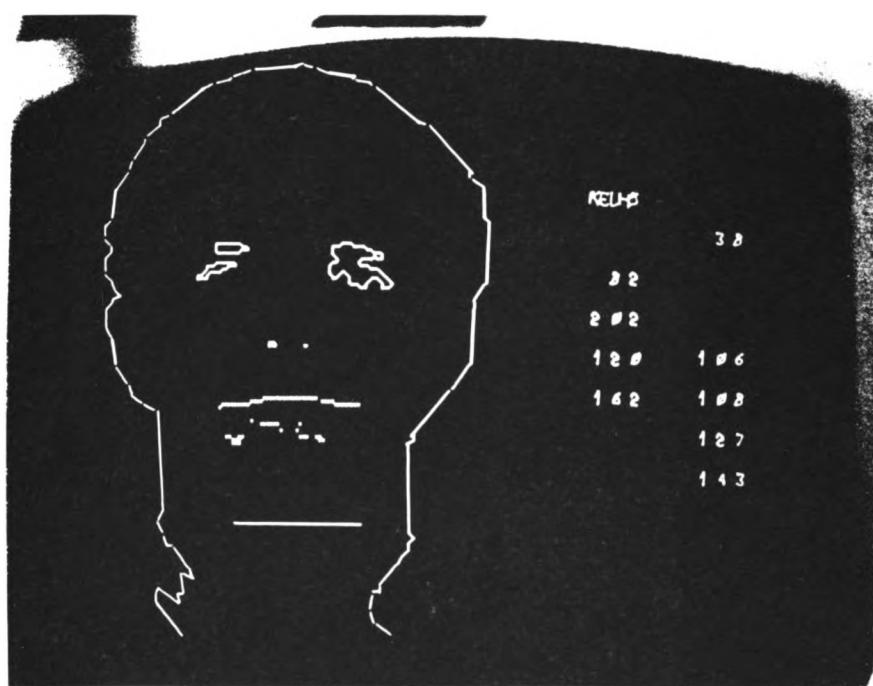


(b)



(a)

Figure 10-8



(b)

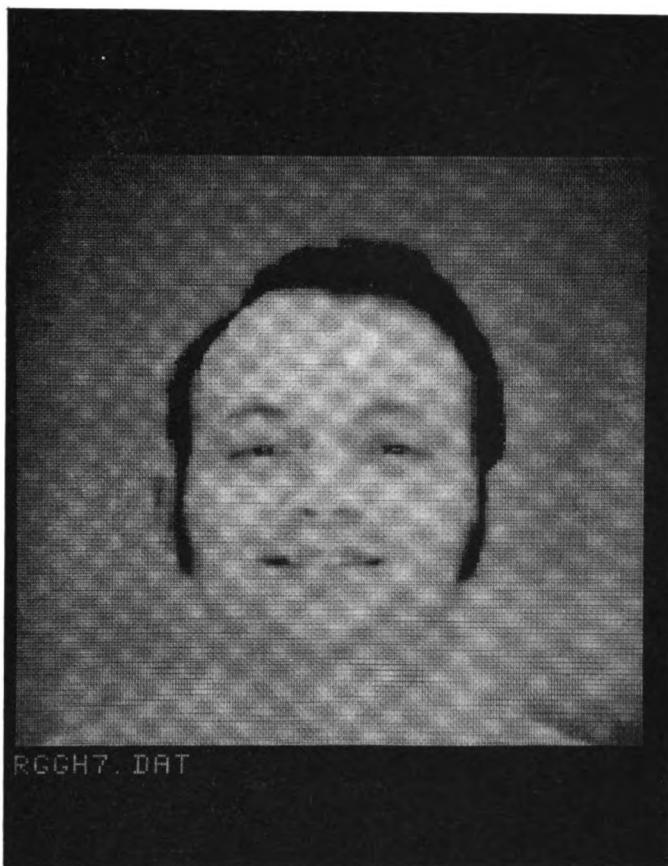


Figure 10-9

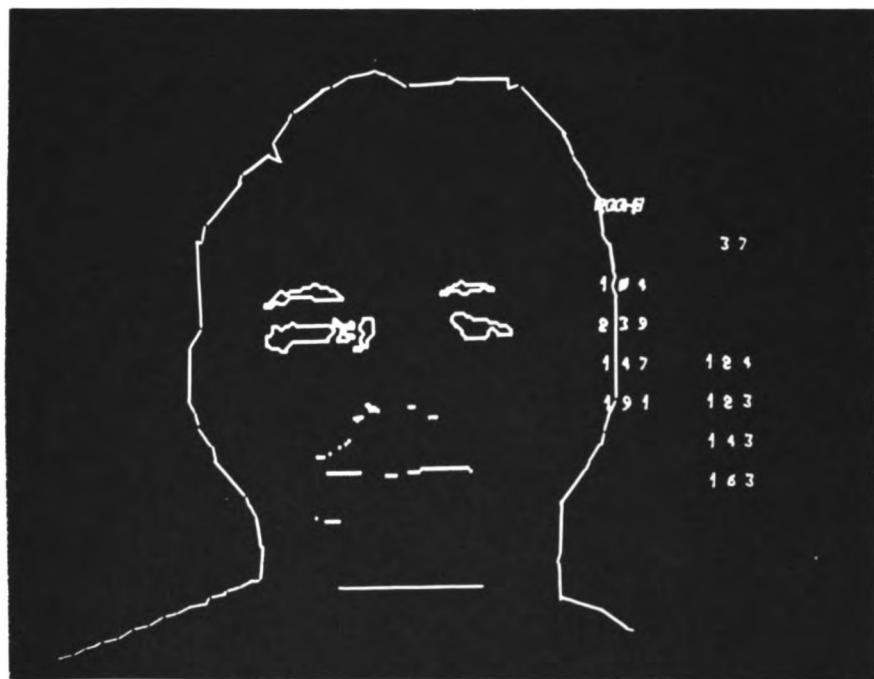




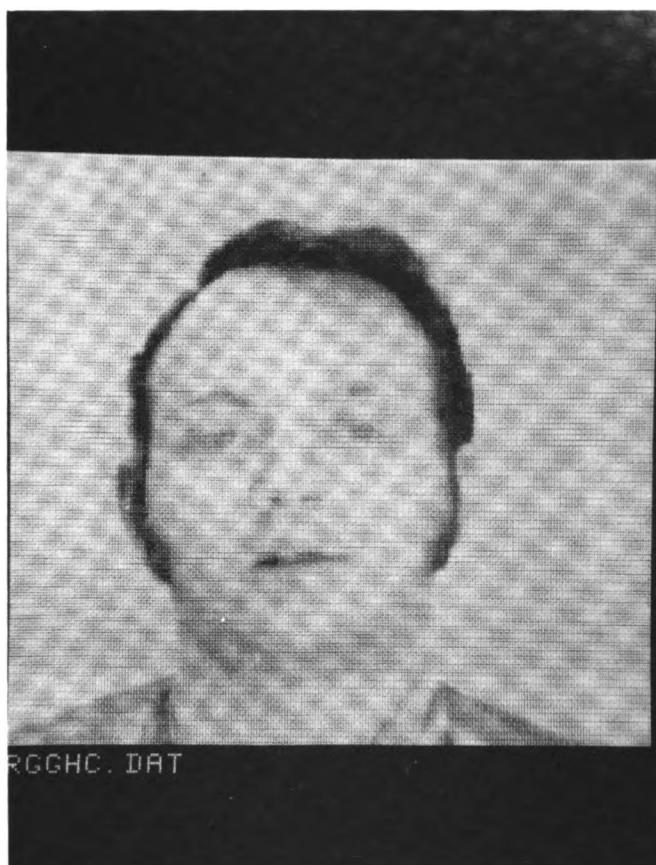
(a)

GGHB.DAT

Figure 10-10

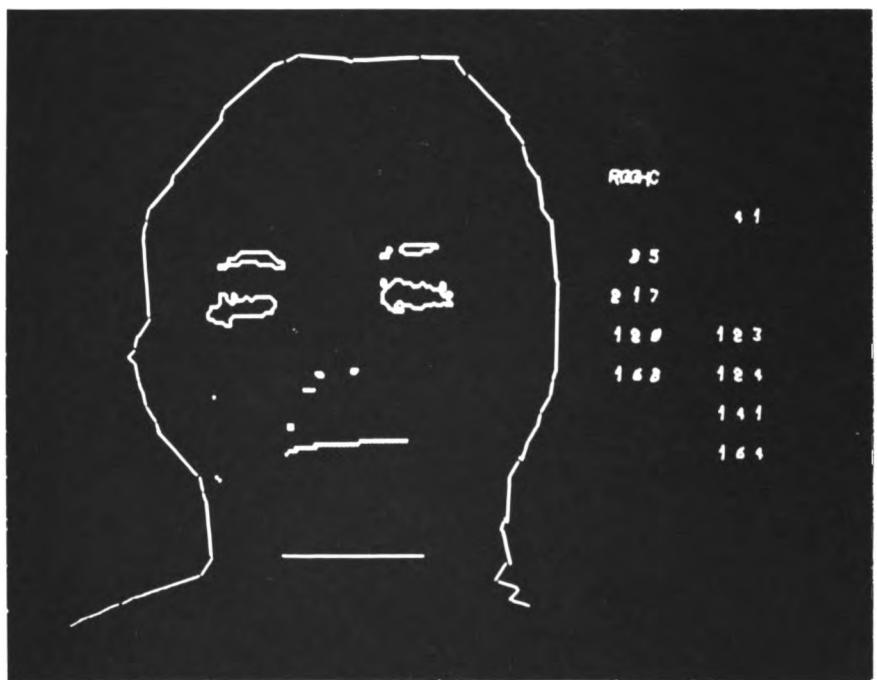


(b)



(a)

Figure 10-11

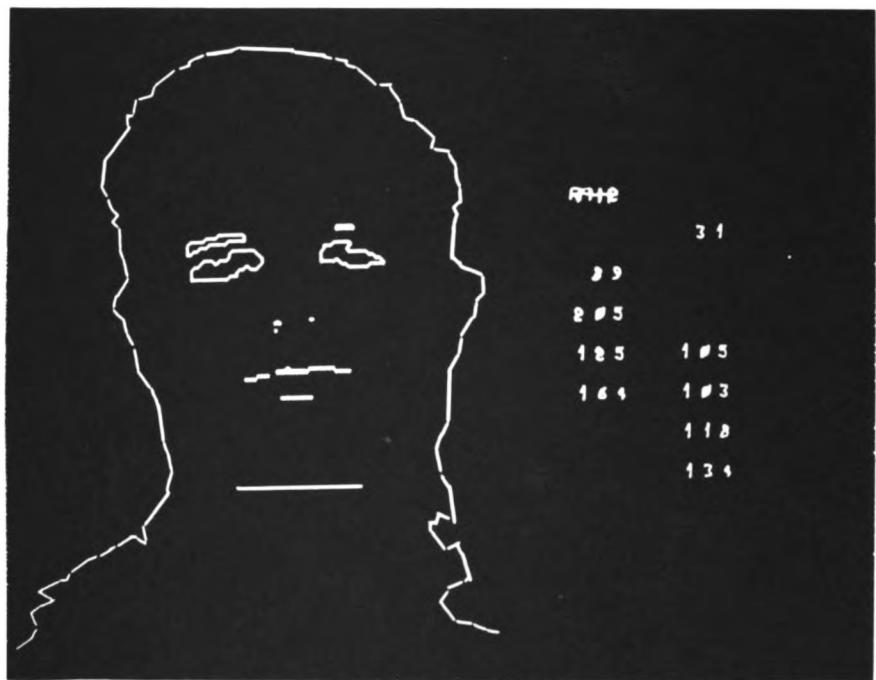


(b)

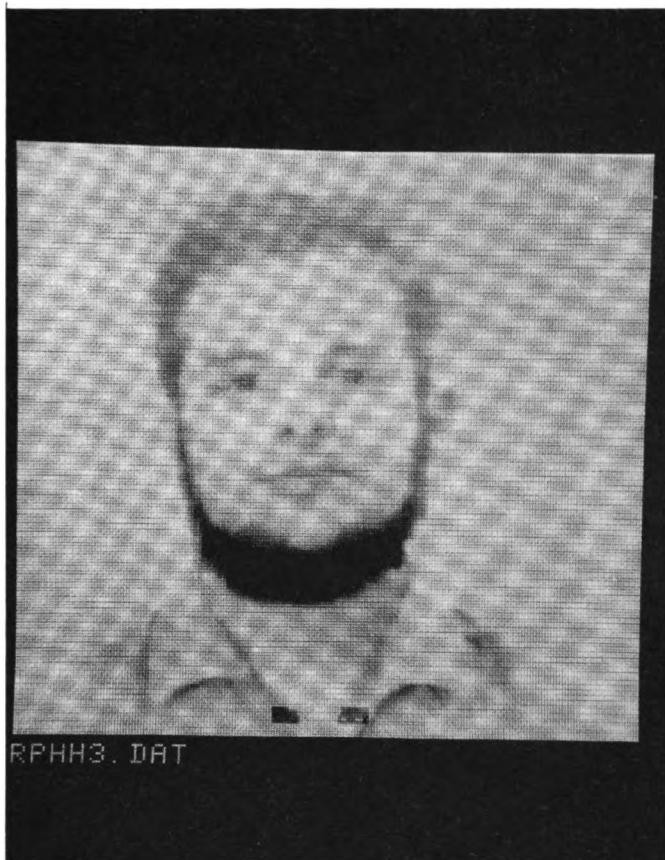


(a)

Figure 10-12

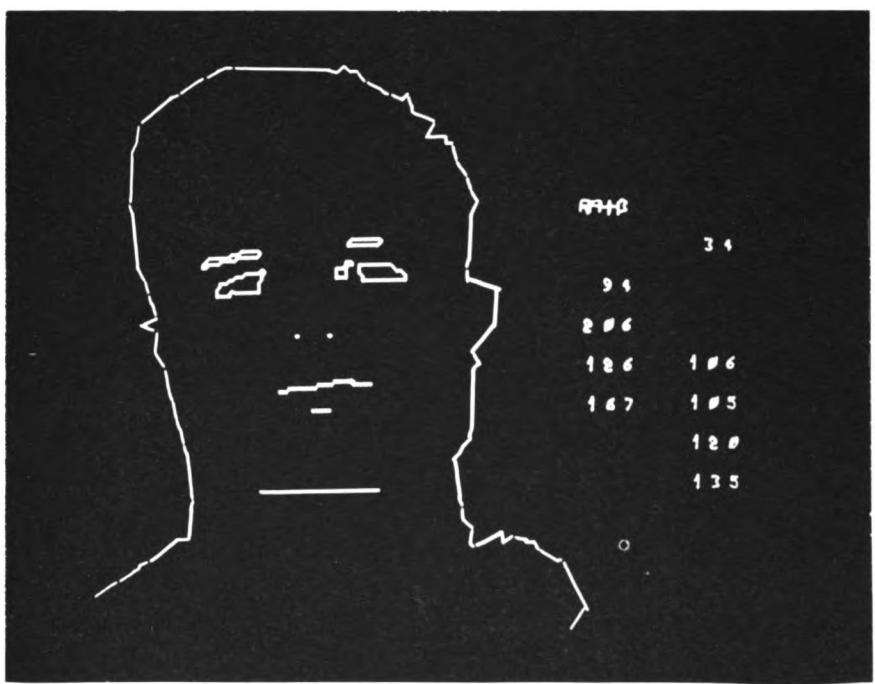


(b)

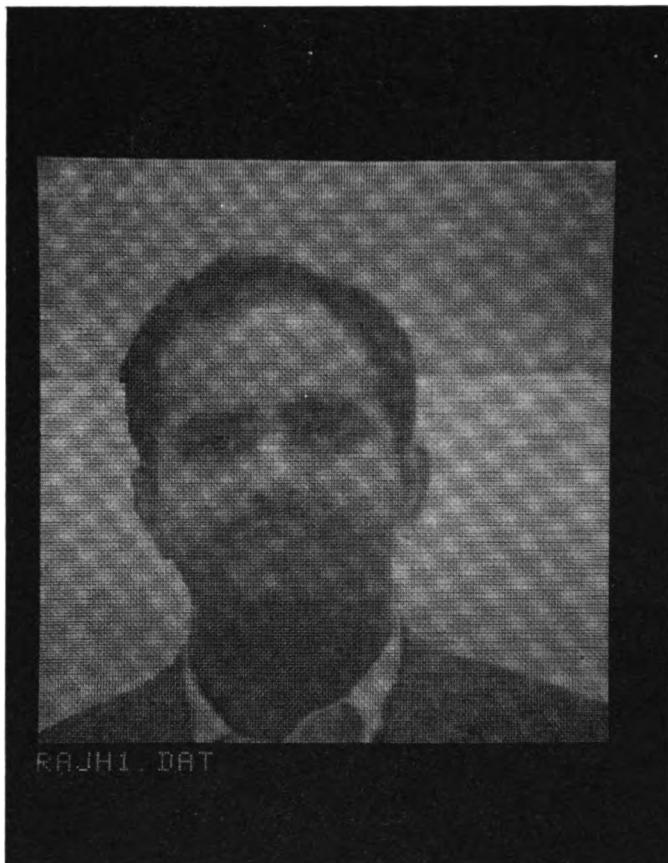


(a)

Figure 10-13

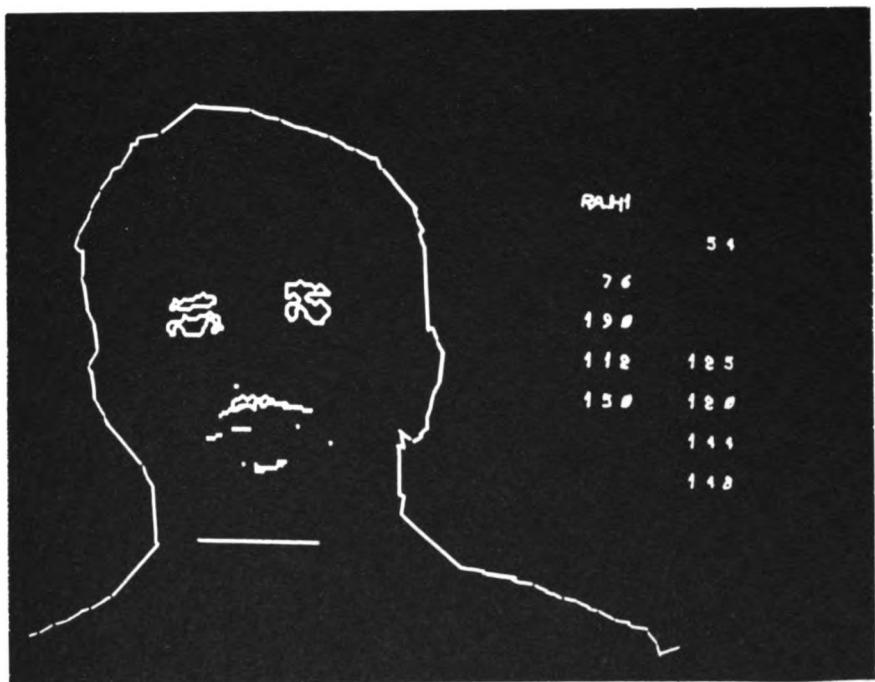


(b)

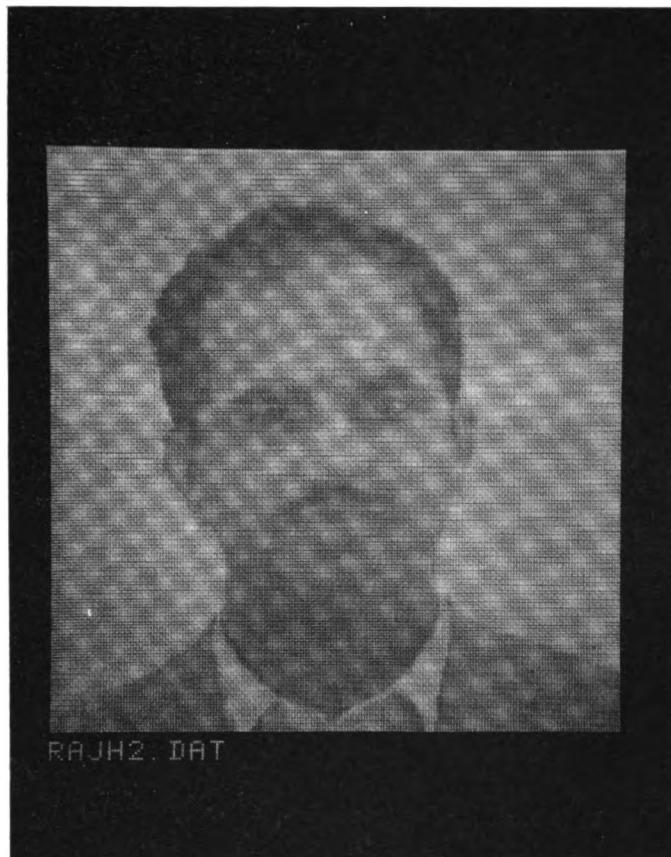


(a)

Figure 10-14

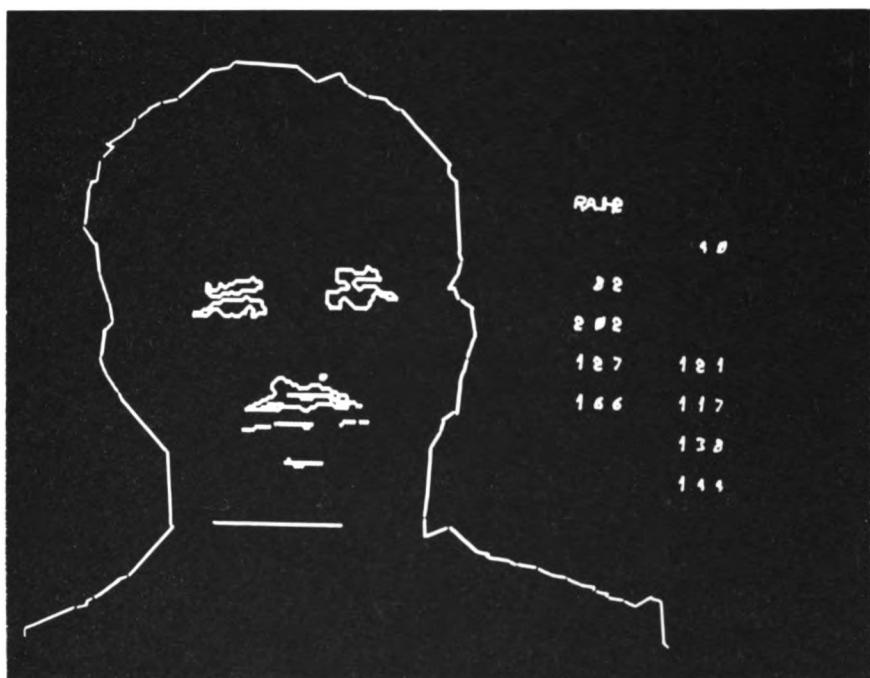


(b)

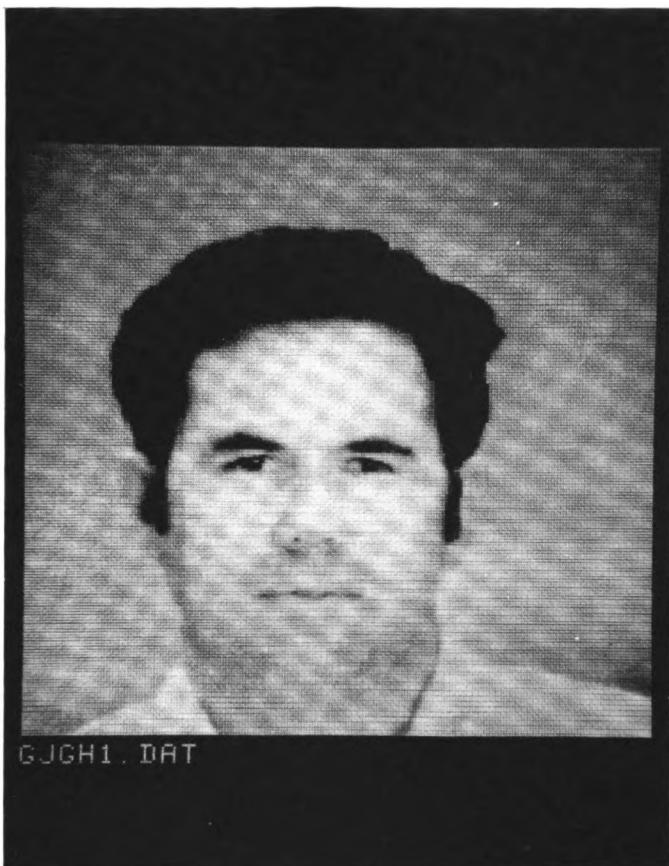


(a)

Figure 10-15

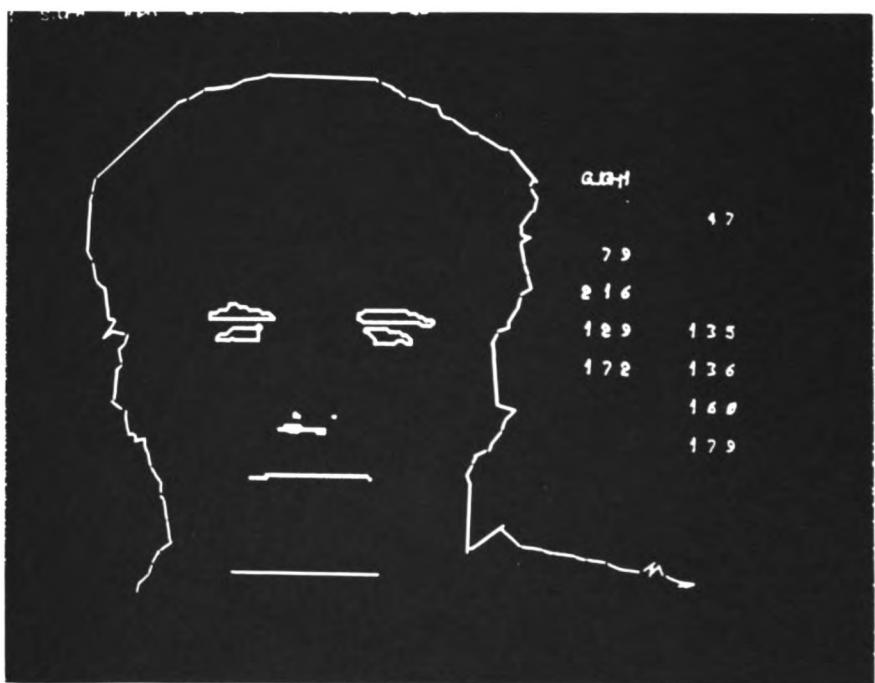


(b)



(a)

Figure 10-16



(b)

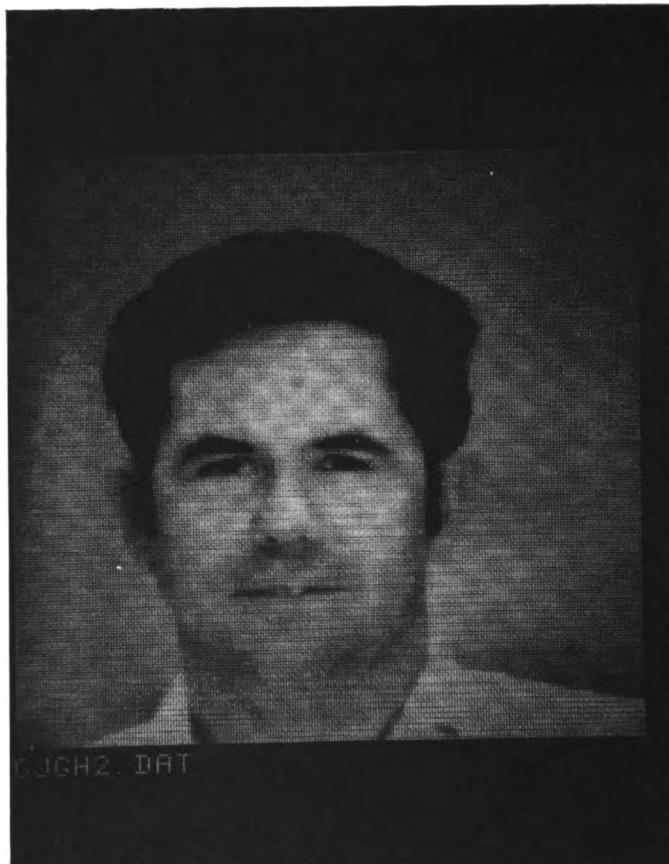
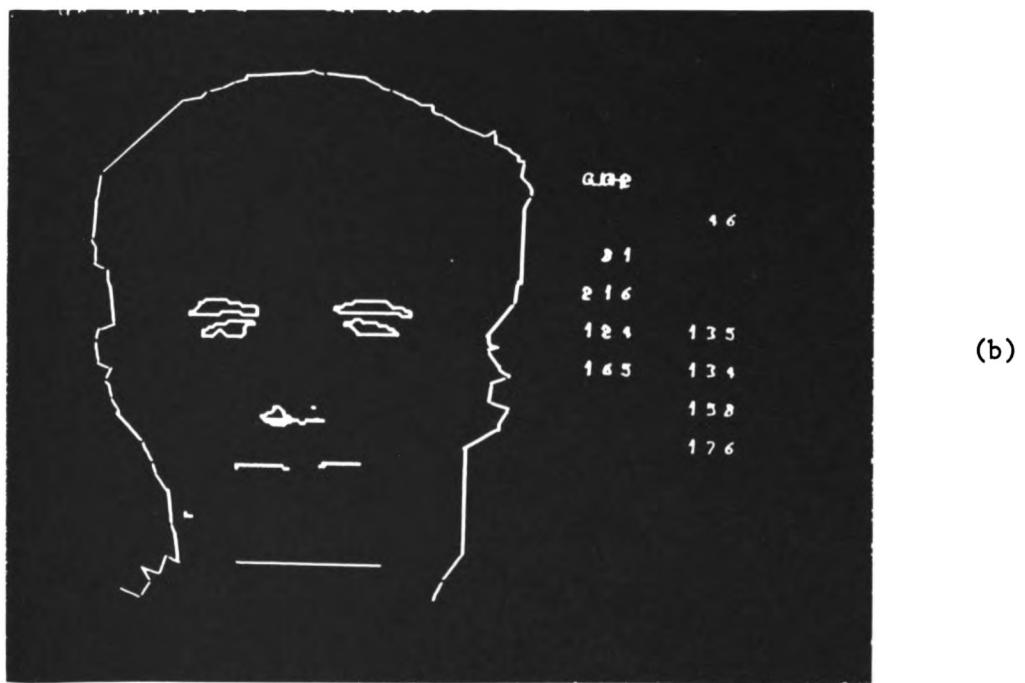
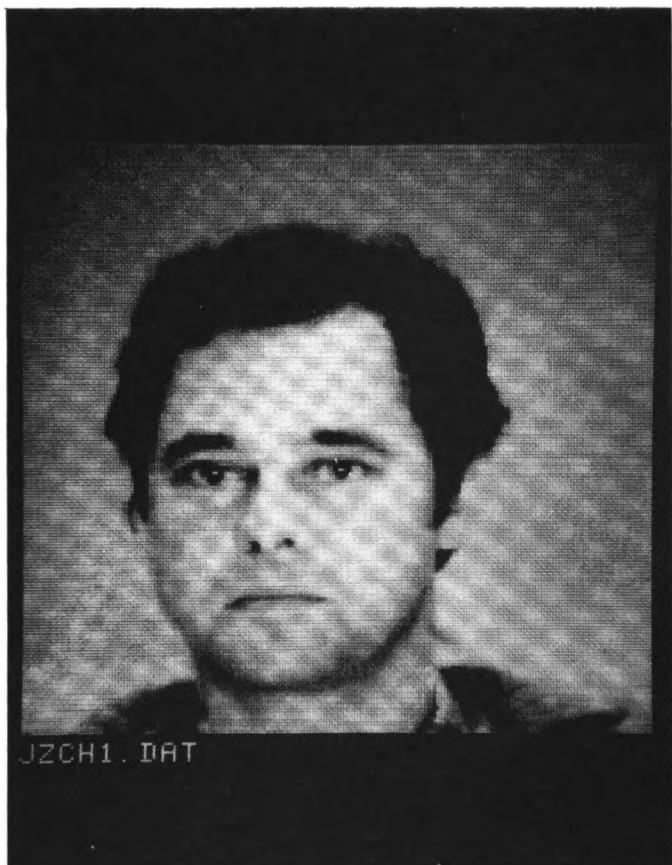


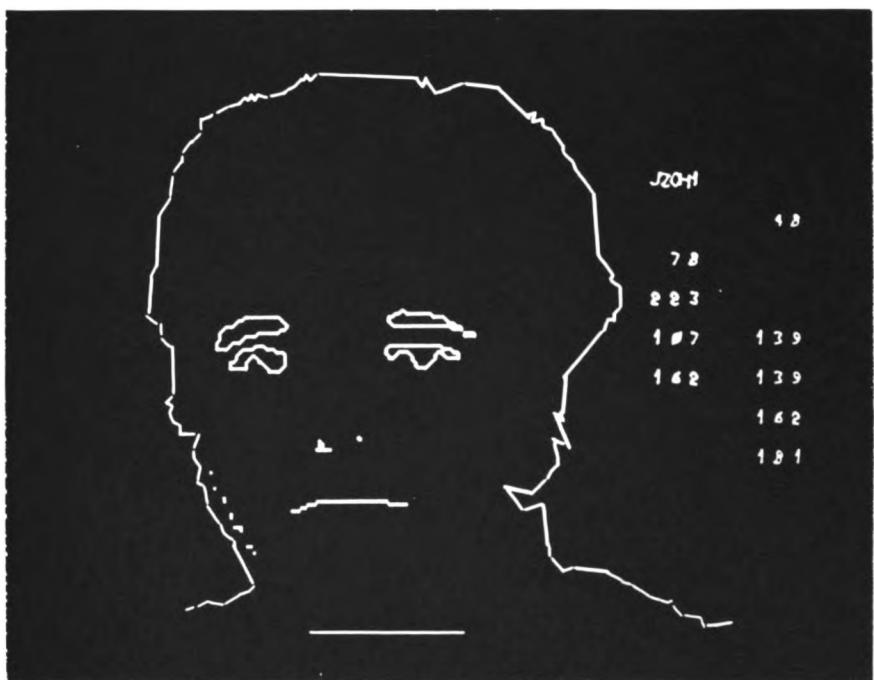
Figure 10-17



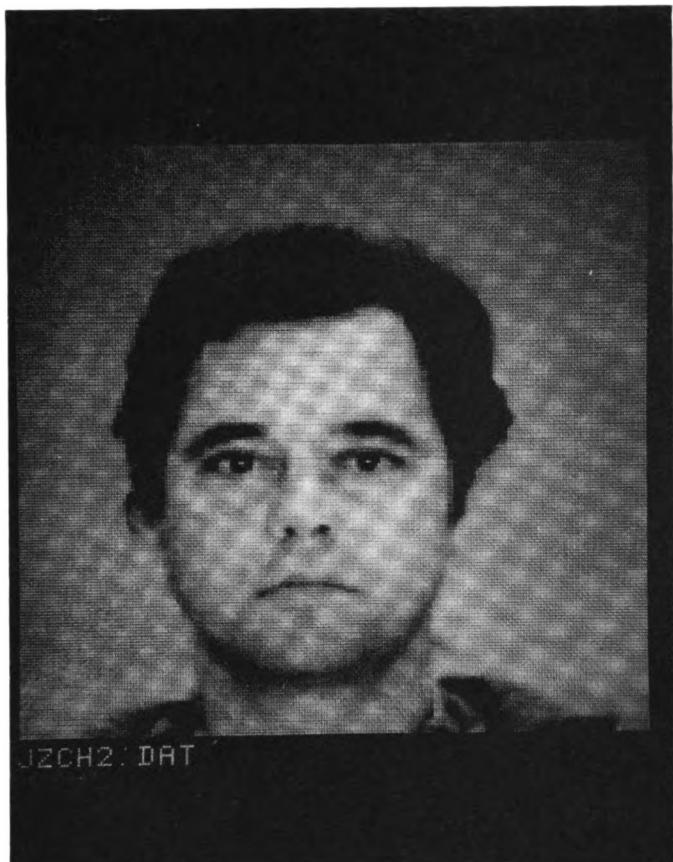


(a)

Figure 10-18

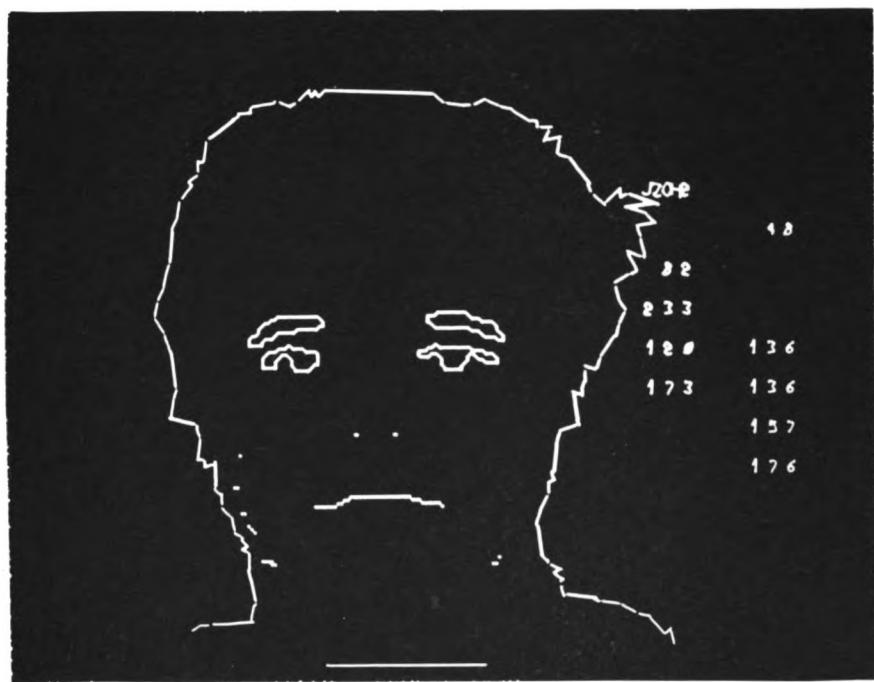


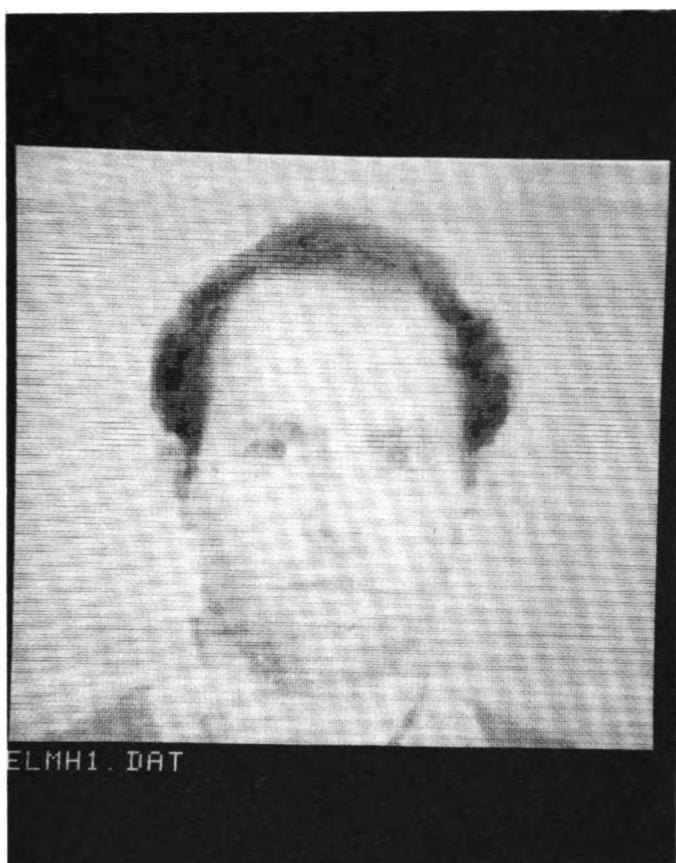
(b)



(a)

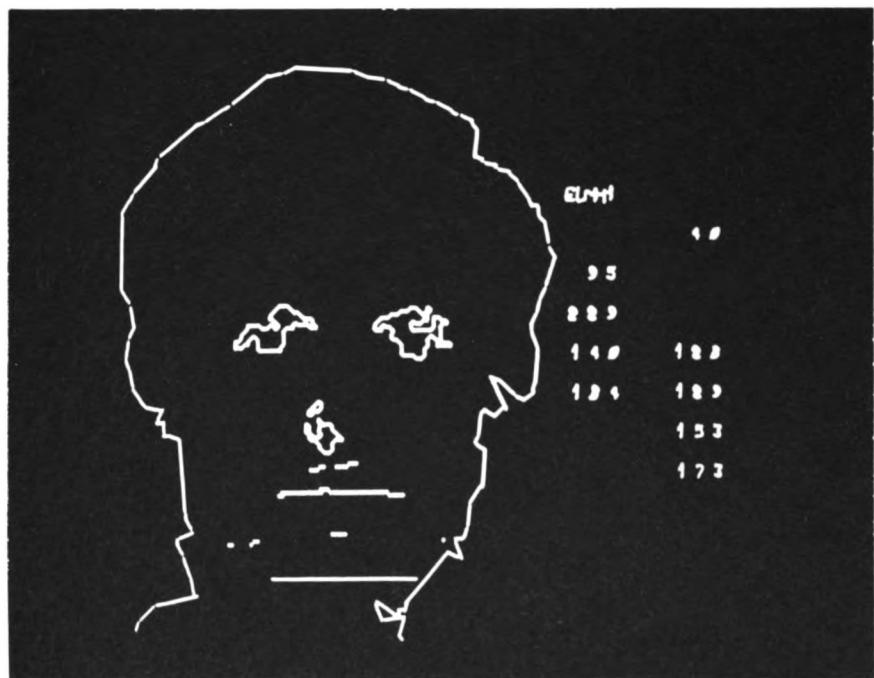
Figure 10-19



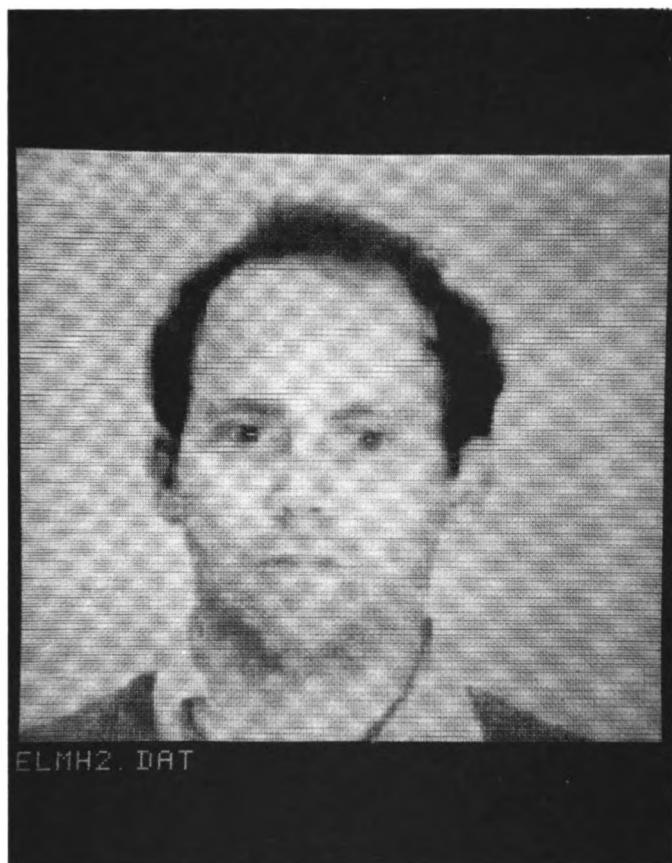


(a)

Figure 10-20

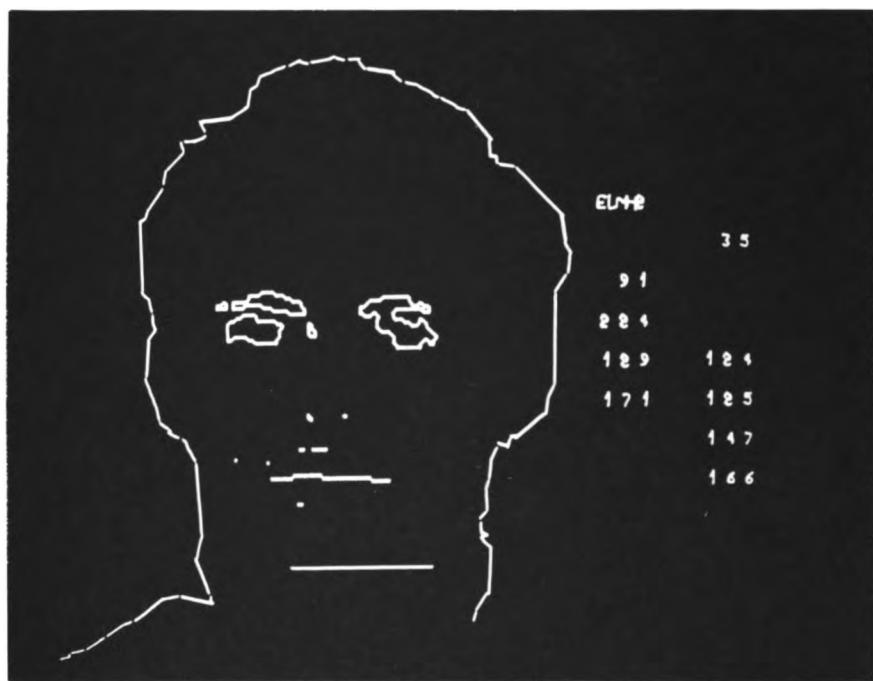


(b)

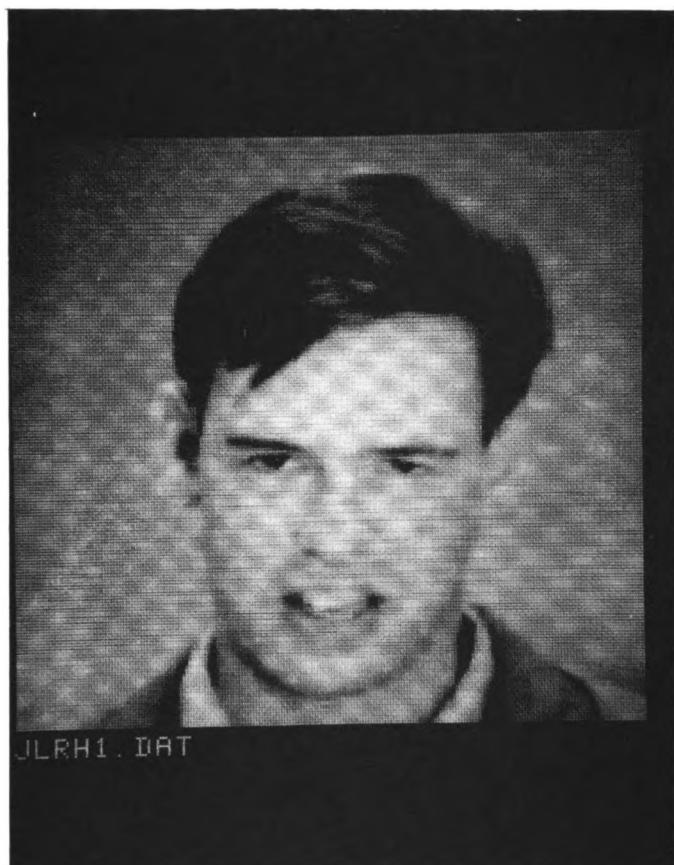


(a)

Figure 10-21

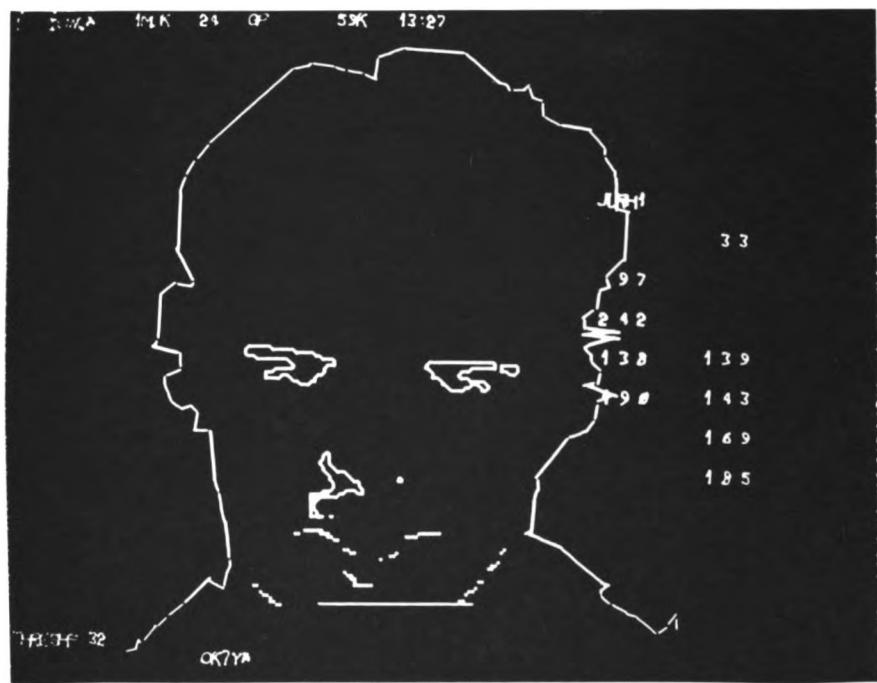


(b)



(a)

Figure 10-22



(b)

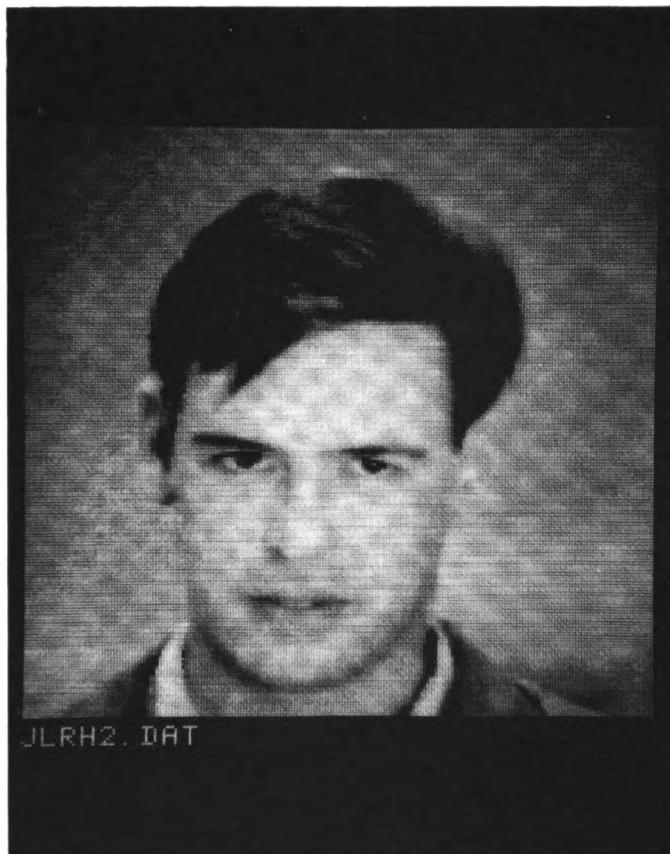
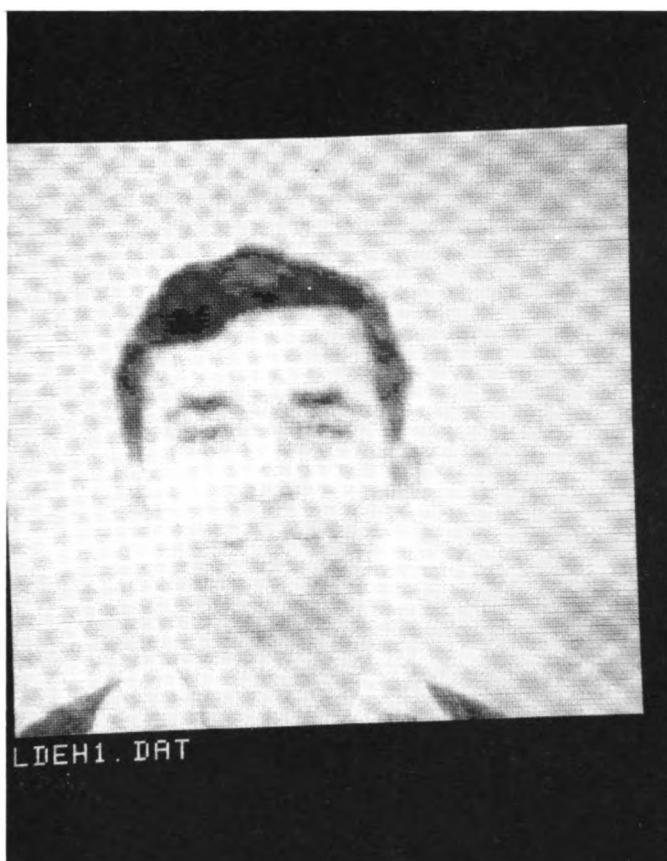


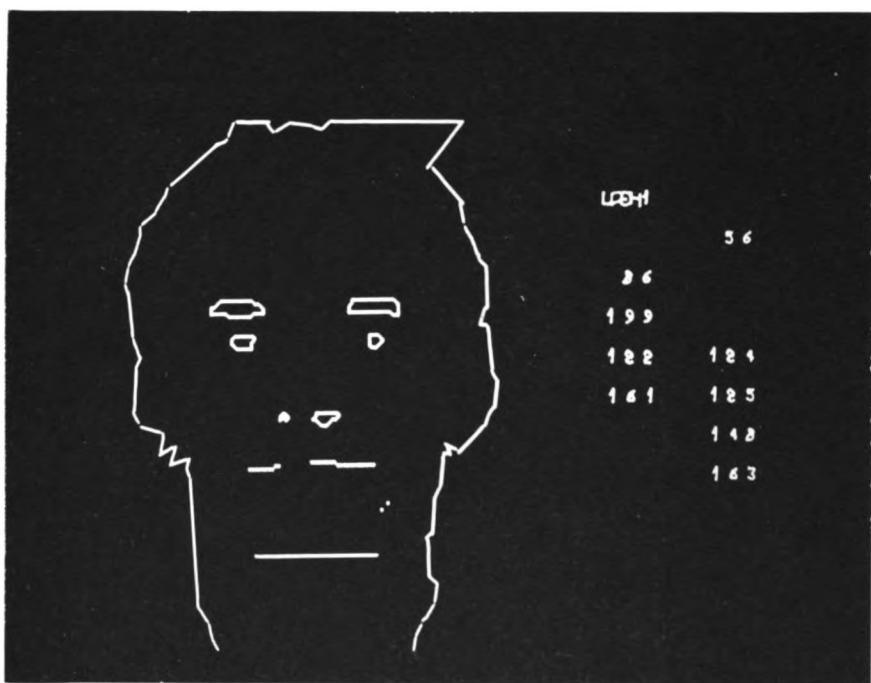
Figure 10-23



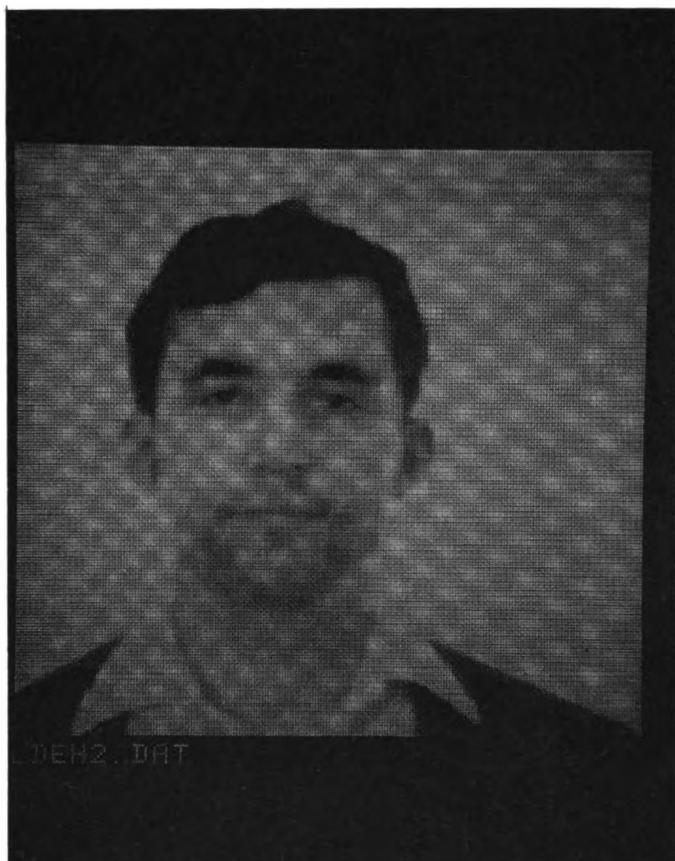


(a)

Figure 10-24

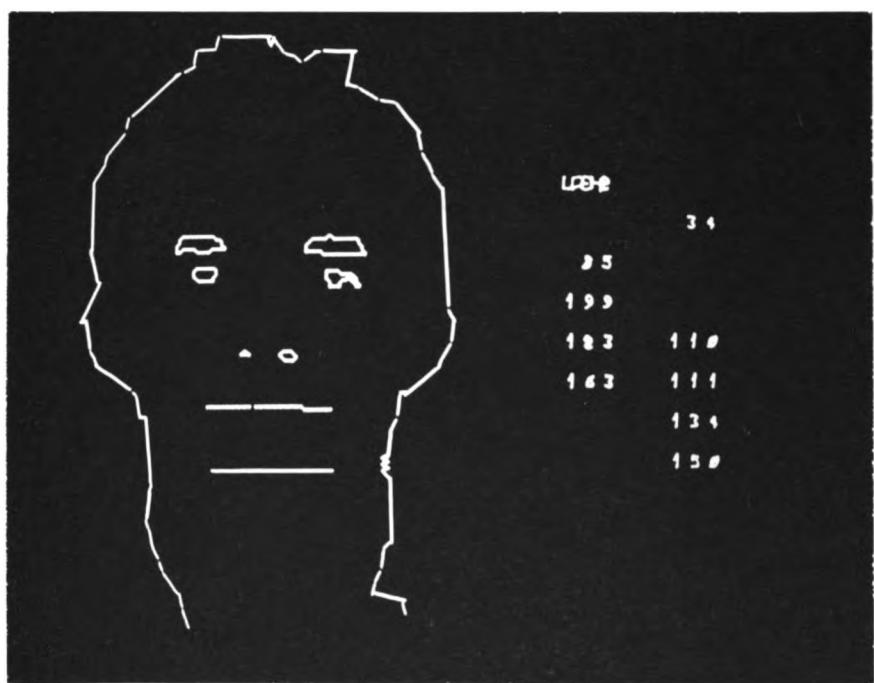


(b)

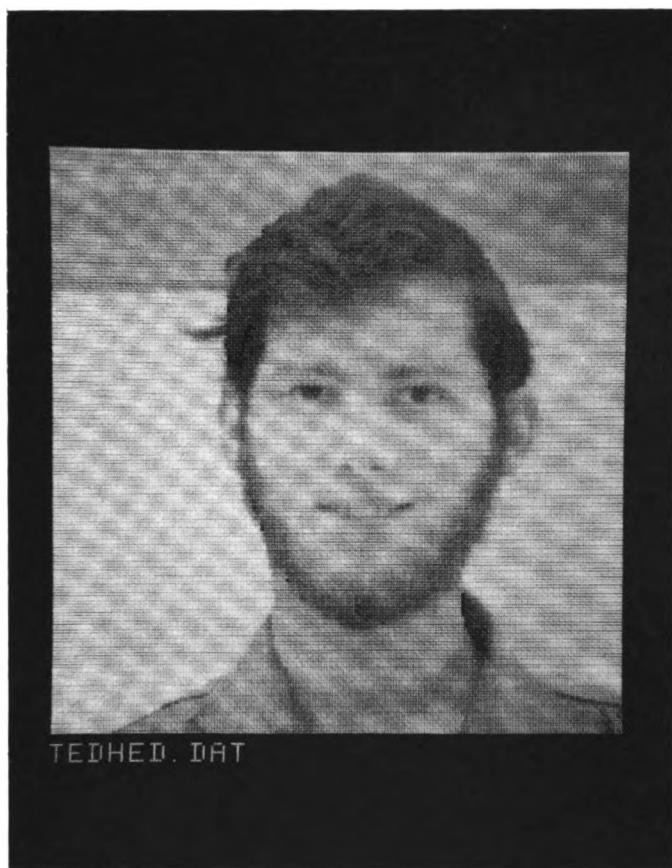


(a)

Figure 10-25

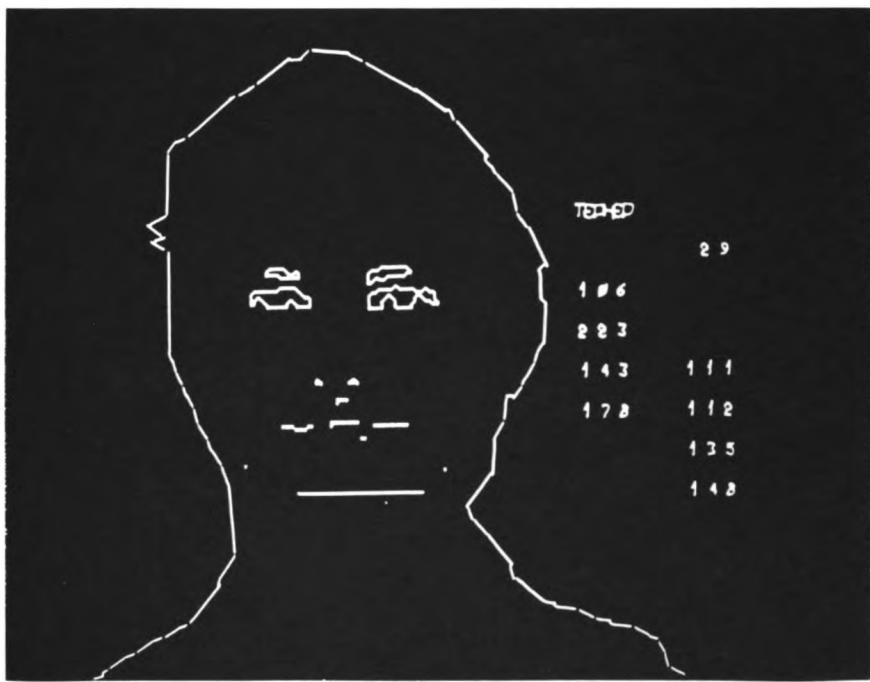


(b)

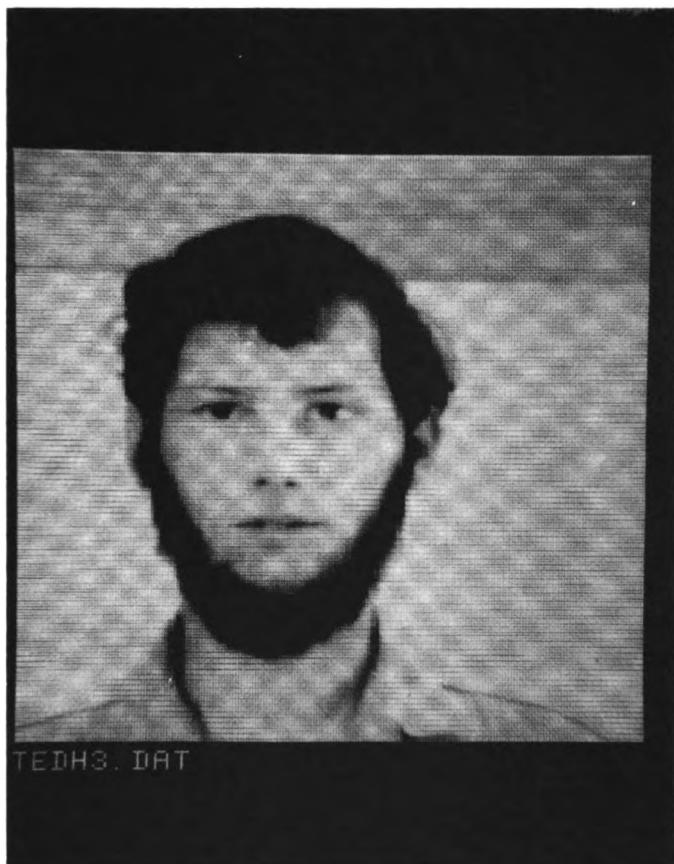


(a)

Figure 10-26

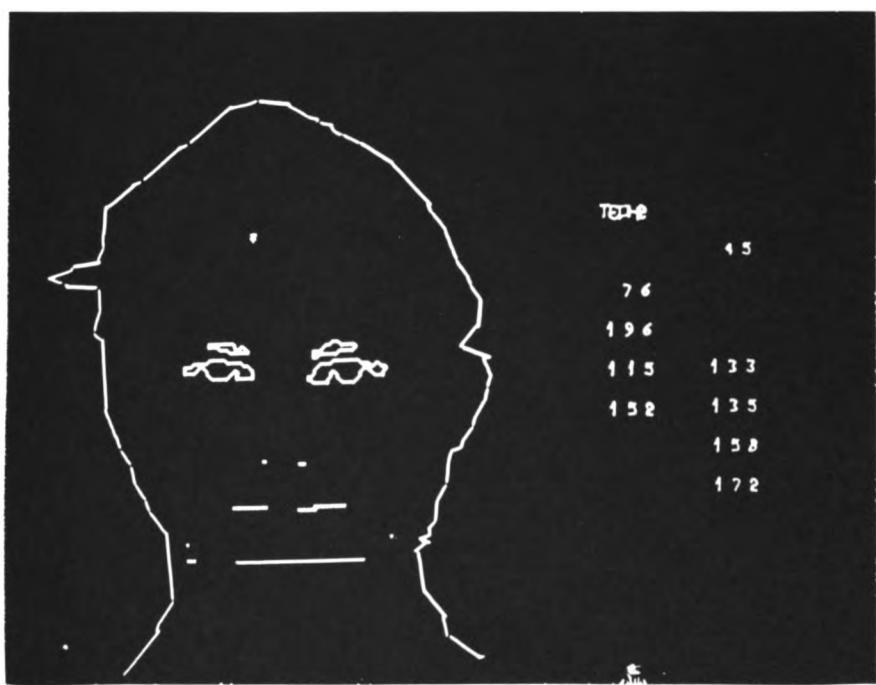


(b)



(a)

Figure 10-27



(b)

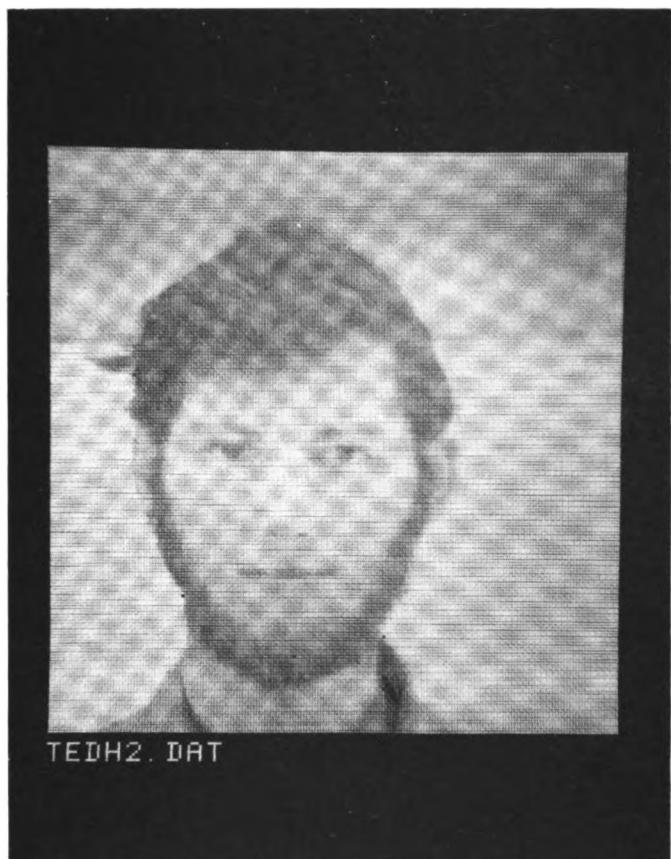


Figure 10-28

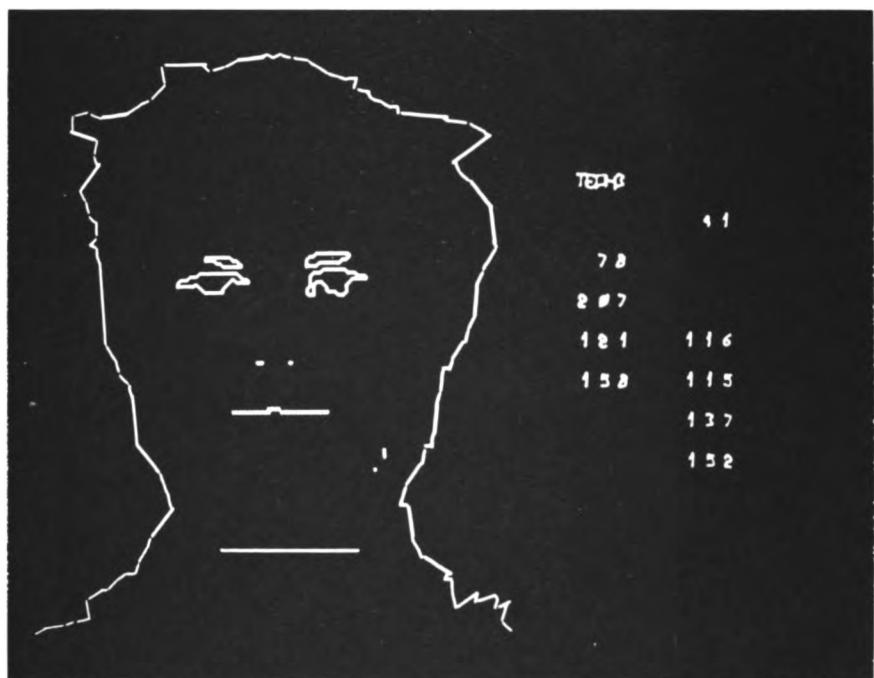
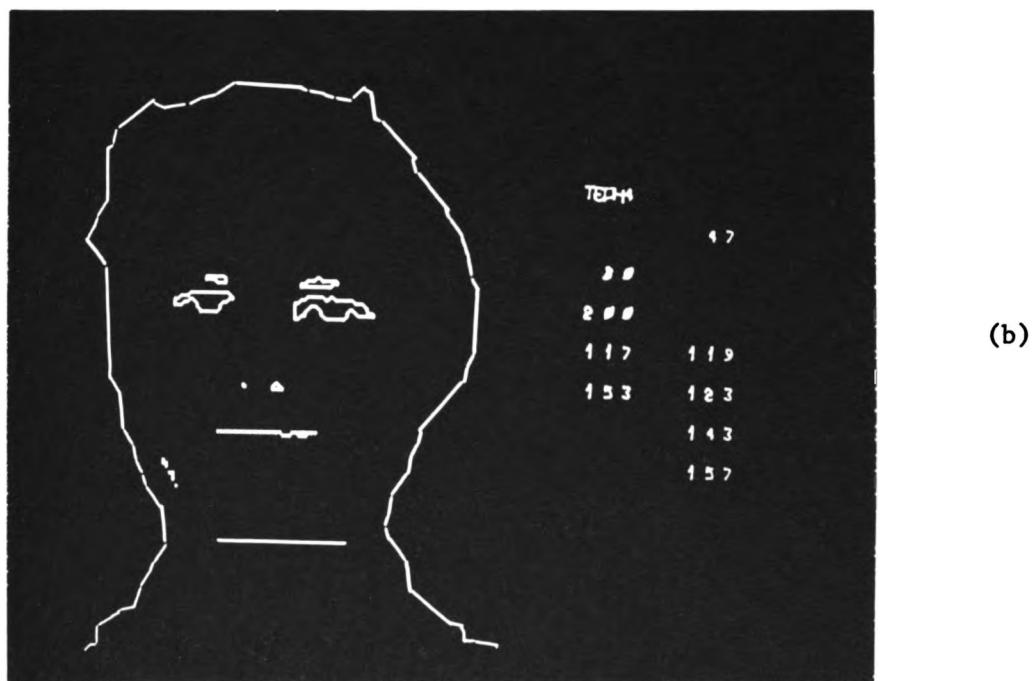




Figure 10-29



which features.

The test of identification of people was performed as follows. First, the complete collection of pictures was processed, and all of the measurements used for recognition were recorded. This produced 24 sets of measurements describing the 10 people. These measurements are given in Table 10-2. Recognition was attempted on these sets of measurements.

All of the measurements were normalized to compensate for the varying distances of the subjects from the camera as described earlier. This normalization was performed by dividing all of the measurements in each picture by the height measured in that picture. Normalized measurements are given in Table 10-3.

Weights for use in the classification procedure were obtained as described in chapter 9. These weights are listed in Table 10-4.

For each set of measurements, the remainder of the collection of measurements was considered to be a dictionary of known individuals. Thus, the following experiment was repeated 24 times. An unknown measurement vector was selected, and an attempt was made to identify the person to whom these measurements belonged from the dictionary which contained 23 entries.

In this recognition experiment only two errors were made. The correct individual was identified in 91% of the

TABLE 10-2.
Measurements for identification test.

Each entry consists of a 3 letter code for the individual followed by an identifying letter or digit. The ten measurements which follow are the ten measurements listed in Figures 2-1 and 2-2.

ELM1					
185.	21.0	14.0	52.0	46.0	134.
44.0	88.0	25.0	45.0		
ELM2					
185.	20.0	14.0	51.0	38.0	133.
42.0	89.0	23.0	42.0		
GJG1					
184.	21.0	16.0	59.1	41.0	137.
43.0	88.0	25.0	44.0		
GJG2					
182.	24.0	15.0	41.0	40.0	135.
41.0	88.0	24.0	42.0		
JLR1					
195.	23.0	14.0	58.0	42.0	145.
52.2	108.	28.0	44.0		
JLR2					
194.	23.0	16.0	57.0	42.0	138.
51.1	108.	29.0	46.0		
JZC1					
189.	23.0	15.0	52.0	41.0	145.
55.0	91.0	23.0	42.0		
JZC2					
190.	23.0	15.0	55.0	40.0	151.
53.0	88.0	21.0	40.0		
KEL1					
168.	19.0	11.0	44.0	36.0	115.
40.0	75.0	21.0	38.0		
KEL4					
173.	21.0	11.0	63.0	44.0	119.
40.0	69.0	19.0	35.0		
KEL5					
172.	20.0	11.0	47.0	43.0	120.
42.0	69.0	20.0	36.0		
LDE1					
154.	17.0	10.0	47.0	50.0	113.
39.0	68.0	24.0	39.0		
LDE2					
156.	17.0	11.0	47.0	45.0	114.
40.0	76.0	24.0	40.0		

TABLE 10-2, (Continued)
Measurements for Identification test.

RAJ1					
174.	18.0	13.0	50.0	27.0	114.
38.3	68.0	22.0	26.0		
RAJ2					
177.	18.0	12.0	50.0	28.0	120.
39.2	79.0	19.0	25.0		
RGG7					
183.	22.0	16.0	45.0	39.0	129.
46.0	80.0	18.0	36.0		
RGG8					
190.	21.0	16.0	58.0	40.0	135.
44.0	86.0	20.0	40.0		
RGGC					
190.	21.0	15.0	55.0	40.0	132.
48.0	82.0	18.0	41.0		
RPH2					
174.	20.0	13.0	46.0	47.0	116.
39.1	73.0	14.0	30.0		
RPH3					
172.	19.0	14.0	52.0	48.0	112.
41.0	71.0	15.0	30.0		
TED1					
162.	20.0	13.0	42.0	34.0	117.
35.0	82.0	24.0	37.0		
TED2					
163.	20.0	13.0	43.1	33.1	120.
37.1	89.0	24.0	38.0		
TED3					
163.	19.0	13.0	39.0	50.0	129.
37.0	74.0	22.0	37.0		
TED5					
154.	18.0	12.0	39.0	31.0	120.
36.2	74.0	22.0	36.0		

TABLE 10-3,
Normalized measurements,

The format is the same as Table 10-2.

ELM1					
1.00	0.114	0.757E-01	0.281	0.249	0.724
0.238	0.476	0.135	0.243		
ELM2					
1.00	0.108	0.757E-01	0.276	0.205	0.719
0.227	0.481	0.124	0.227		
GJG1					
1.00	0.114	0.870E-01	0.321	0.223	0.745
0.234	0.478	0.136	0.239		
GJG2					
1.00	0.132	0.824E-01	0.225	0.220	0.742
0.225	0.484	0.132	0.231		
JLR1					
1.00	0.118	0.718E-01	0.297	0.215	0.744
0.268	0.554	0.144	0.226		
JLR2					
1.00	0.119	0.825E-01	0.294	0.216	0.711
0.263	0.557	0.149	0.237		
JZC1					
1.00	0.122	0.794E-01	0.275	0.217	0.767
0.291	0.481	0.122	0.222		
JZC2					
1.00	0.121	0.789E-01	0.289	0.211	0.795
0.279	0.463	0.111	0.211		
KEL1					
1.00	0.113	0.655E-01	0.262	0.214	0.685
0.238	0.446	0.125	0.226		
KEL4					
1.00	0.121	0.636E-01	0.364	0.254	0.688
0.231	0.399	0.110	0.202		
KEL5					
1.00	0.116	0.640E-01	0.273	0.250	0.698
0.244	0.401	0.116	0.209		
LDE1					
1.00	0.110	0.649E-01	0.305	0.325	0.734
0.253	0.442	0.156	0.253		
LDE2					
1.00	0.109	0.705E-01	0.301	0.288	0.731
0.256	0.487	0.154	0.256		

TABLE 10-3. (Continued)

Normalized measurements,

RAJ1					
1.00	0.103	0.747E-01	0.287	0.155	0.655
0.220	0.391	0.126	0.149		
RAJ2					
1.00	0.102	0.678E-01	0.282	0.158	0.678
0.221	0.446	0.107	0.141		
RGG7					
1.00	0.120	0.874E-01	0.246	0.213	0.705
0.251	0.437	0.984E-01	0.197		
RGGB					
1.00	0.111	0.842E-01	0.305	0.211	0.711
0.232	0.453	0.105	0.211		
RGGC					
1.00	0.111	0.789E-01	0.289	0.211	0.695
0.253	0.432	0.947E-01	0.216		
RPH2					
1.00	0.115	0.747E-01	0.264	0.270	0.667
0.225	0.420	0.805E-01	0.172		
RPH3					
1.00	0.110	0.814E-01	0.302	0.279	0.651
0.238	0.413	0.872E-01	0.174		
TED1					
1.00	0.123	0.802E-01	0.259	0.210	0.722
0.216	0.506	0.148	0.228		
TED2					
1.00	0.123	0.798E-01	0.264	0.203	0.736
0.228	0.546	0.147	0.233		
TED3					
1.00	0.117	0.798E-01	0.239	0.307	0.791
0.227	0.454	0.135	0.227		
TED5					
1.00	0.117	0.779E-01	0.253	0.201	0.779
0.235	0.481	0.143	0.234		

TABLE 10-4, Weights.

<u>Measurement</u>	<u>σ^2</u>	<u>σ</u>
From body picture:		
Head width	0.0000402	0.0063405
Neck width	0.0000197	0.0044354
Shoulder width	0.0019402	0.0440476
Hip width	0.0019666	0.0443458
From head picture:		
Head width	0.0007326	0.0270665
Distance between eyes	0.0001170	0.0108170
Top of head to eyes	0.0014393	0.0379384
Eyes to nose	0.0000663	0.0081423
Eyes to mouth	0.0001208	0.0109927

cases involved. The distance in the recognition space between each pair of measurements was tabulated and is given in Table 10-5. This test indicates that the identification of people is possible relying solely on measurements obtained by a computer.

The two errors in the recognition tests occurred when one individual was misidentified twice. The reason for this mistake was faulty measurements of the width of the shoulders and neck in the picture of the body. The faulty measurements were caused by low contrast with the background.

An example of this sort of problem can be seen in Figure 10-1(a) where there is very little contrast between the subjects shirt and the window behind him.

FUTURE WORK.

The recognition procedures described in this thesis are elaborate and complex. It would be worthwhile to examine these procedures in detail and attempt to determine the key heuristics on which success or failure of the algorithms really depends. In isolation they could be examined more effectively to determine the range of their usefulness and applicability. Statistical data could be obtained on the success rates of particular heuristics. This could then be used to obtain meaningful evaluations. Unfortunately, such testing and evaluation is a problem which is comparable. In

TABLE 10-5. RECOGNITION DISTANCES.

the effort required, to the original design and development of the system.

The work reported in this thesis could be extended to deal with larger sets of people. One way in which this could be done would be to use absolute measurements of people rather than measurements which have been normalized by height. Absolute measurements can be obtained from the pictures in a straight-forward way if the distance from camera to subject is known. Alternatively, if the geometry of the camera position is known, the distance from the camera to the individual may be calculated using the ground plane assumption (Sobel [1970]). In the pictures that were processed, the height of the people could be correctly measured to within 2 raster units. This corresponds to about a half of an inch when considered as a fraction of a person's height. Thus, a preliminary reduction in the fraction of the dictionary to be searched could be done using the absolute height of the person. The rest of the measurements obtained from the pictures could be used to distinguish people of almost the same height. In this way the number of people that a recognition system could handle could be greatly expanded.

Another valuable extension of this work would be to attempt to develop a formal structure that would permit high-level specification of the model and the heuristics which are buried in the program that has been described.

Possible lines of approach could be found in the attempts at linguistic description of pictures and formalization of models which were discussed in Chapter 4. Such a high-level specification, if successful in reproducing the effect of the algorithms so far described, could be applied to other areas of picture processing to test its generality.

It would be useful to attempt to overcome the obstacles that prevented this program from performing on-line recognition. What is needed is a picture input system with the ability to digitize a wider range of light intensities. Also needed in an effective on-line system is a quick-response picture output device for digital pictures that can provide visual feedback to the operator while setting input parameters.

It is clear that this heuristic program is nowhere near the final solution to the problem of visual identification of people. Nevertheless, the success that has been achieved indicates that the methods used are worthwhile. The research which has been done here provides useful procedures for further work in processing very complex scenes.

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APPENDIX A

Two pictures of bodies: Input data

APPENDIX B

Two pictures of heads: Input data

E
80
99
98
95E
750
19063A
639E
539
549
44A
540
550
55
68
6
200

E
9E
49
33E
43D
23A
34A
25B
55C
56D
79
9A
220AD
DE
EE
A9C
D6EAC
0ECD
E.DE
•D.EE
•DE
•EE
E
230E

17-JUL-70 15:31

KEL 4

267 257 247 237 227 217 207 197 187 167

55555555555567894..

180555555555556789A..

555555555556689A..

554554555555679A..

443554445555679A..

53455555555689E..

334445544555689C..

334444555556789B..

334345555556789A..

333323455556688A..

3332334455566678A..

33332333444456668A..

3332323455555658..

3332223555445449..

32222133334443AB..

222223233343338..

2222223223325C..

2222222222249..

1111222222228D..

111121111115A..

11111111111A..

2001111111124D..

11111111228..

0111111AA0..

01111115AA..

11111129..

1111128E..

1111119C..

11015R..

11115B..

1129E..

21011768A..

1A86459E..

2A86533A..

AC654324B3..

BC75532388D..

DC965422318..

CA67653222B..

CB766432225..

BR766542224..

B966542224..

2229755432222..

865554422220..

86555543334D..

8656654334D..

7666654444D..

66666655445E..

66776665556..

66889867668..

78999988669..

799AAA9889..

230998BBB8AAAB..

APPENDIX C

Programs for locating the outline of the head


```

00100  C  SURROUNTING HAIN
00222  C  MAIN CONTROL FOR HEAD PROCESSING.
00322  C  IMPLICIT INTEGER (A-Z)
00422  C  COMMON /HEDMES/ XL,XR,YT,MEASX(4),MEASY(4)
00522  C  COMMON /CONV/ ADUM(3),BITS,IWID,LINLEN,FLINE,LLINE,LSIDE,RSIDE,
00622  C  1, TYPNTR,TVSIZ,NFERWD,ILEN,BDUM(8),ITEXT(10),
00722  C  INTEGER BITS,FLINE,RSIDE,TVPNTR,TVSIZ
00822  C  COMMON /PTRS/ KPTR,NPTR,IPTR(20)
00922  C  COMMON /FLAGS/ NUTH1,PICNA1,INVERT,NUTN2,KEEPPLP,NUTN3(3),
01022  C  1
01122  C  COMMON /OUTFGS/ IFDTTY,IFDLPT,IFDDPY,IFYRN
01222  C  DATA OUTLINEONLY/.FALSE./
01322  C  CALL GIVEUP(-1)
01422  C  CALL KILLLL
01522
01622
01722
01822  C  READ IN PICTURE OF HEAD.
01922  C  IF (USETV.NE.0) GO TO 100
02022  C  IF (PICNA1.NE.0) PICNA1=3
02122  C  JP=INCAT(0)
02222  C  GO TO 222
02330  100  CALL TVSET(LENPB)
02432  C  CALL GIVEUP(-1)
02522  C  JP=INTV(2)
02622  C  CALL DECDMX(IPTR(JP))
02722  C  JP IS ORIGINAL HEAD.
02822
02922  C  INITIALIZE G1 AND G2.
03022  C  CALL FILCON(JP,ADUM)
03122  C  KG1G2=-1
03222  C  CALL G1(LSIDE)
03322  C  CALL G2(FLINE)
03422  C  KG1G2=1
03522
03622  C  JP2=IRED3(JP,8)
03722  C  JP2 IS JP REDUCED IN SIZE BY A FACTOR OF 8.
03822  C  KEEPPLP=-1
03922  C  IF (KRAPPE.NE.0) CALL PRTPIC(0)
04022
04122
04222  C  JP3=JSURE3(JP2)
04322  C  JP3 IS ALL OF THE EDGES FROM JP2.
04422  C  IF (IFDDPY.EQ.0) GO TO 330
04522  C  PLNPOG=IADPST(1000)
04622  C  CALL DSLINS(JP3,250,450,PLNPOG)
04722  C  INVERT=-1
04822  C  IF (KRAPPE.NE.0) CALL PRTPIC(JP3)
04922
05022  C  JP4=IHEDED(JP3)
05122  C  JP4 IS THE EDGES FROM JP3 WHICH FORM THE BORDER OF THE

```



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17-JUL-70      0738      HAIN4      1,MDK

25122      C      HEAD.
25223      C      IF (IFDDPY.EQ.0) GO TO 430
25323      C      CALL SETPOG(PLNPOG)
25422      C      CALL DSLINS(JP4,250,250,PLNPOG)
25520      430      INVERT=-1
25622      C      IF (KRAPPE.NE.0) CALL PRTPIC(JP4)

25722      C      JP5=JBIGHE(JP,HEDPOG)
25823      C      JP5 CONTAINS THE EDGES IN THE ORIGINAL PICTURE WHICH
25920      C      FORM THE BORDER OF THE HEAD.
26023      C      IF (IFDDPY.NE.0) CALL DFOYOUT(HEDPOG)
26122      C      CALL PRTPIC(JP)
26223      C      CALL PRTPIC(JP5)
26322      C      CALL PRTPIC(JP5)
26422      C      INVERT=0

26522      C      IDENTIFY BOUNDARIES OF THE HEAD.
26622      C      CALL ISIL(XL,XR,YT,DUMMY)

26722      C      RELEASE BUFFERS.
26822      C      CALL IGIVEU(JP5)
26922      C      CALL IGIVEU(JP4)
27022      C      IF (IFDDPY.EQ.0) GO TO 730
27122      C      CALL HYDPOG(PLNPOG)
27222      C      CALL IGIVEX(PLNPOG)
27322      C      CALL IGIVEU(JP3)
27422      C      CALL IGIVEU(JP2)
27522      730      IF (OUTLINEONLY) RETURN
27622      C      FIND FACIAL FEATURES.
27722      C      KPTR=JP
27822      C      CALL FDFEAT(HEDPOG)
27922      C      END
28022      C
28122      C
28222      C

```



```

20122      FUNCTION JSURE3(LSPTR)
20222      IMPLICIT INTEGER (A-Z)
20322      COMMON /CON/ ADUM(3),BITS,IWID,LINLEN,FLINE,LLINE,LSIDE,RSIDE,
20422      1
20522      INTEGER BITS,FLINE,RSIDE,TVPNTR,TVSIZ
20622
20722      IF (SWITCH) IDPTR=INITOP(LSPTR,3,'J SURE 3')
20822      IF (.NOT.SWITCH) IDPTR=INITOP(LSPTR,2,'2X2 MARS')
20922
21022      T=1
21122
21222      DO 500 J=FLINE,LLINE
21322      DO 500 I=LSIDE,RSIDE
21352      IF (.NOT.SWITCH) GO TO 100
21420      IVAL=JEDGE3(I,J,-1)
21452      GO TO 460
21520
21622      C   1   1   2   -   4   /   8   \
21722      C   A   B
21822      C   C   D
21922
22022
22122      100   A=LOAD(I,J)
22222      B=LOAD(I+1,J)
22322      C=LOAD(I,J+1)
22420      D=LOAD(I+1,J+1)
22522      IF (A-B) 140,200,120
22622      A,GT,B
22722      IF (MIN(A,C)-MAX(B,D),GT,T) GO TO 401
22822      GO TO 200
22922      140   IF (MIN(B,D)-MAX(A,C),GT,T) GO TO 401
23022      200   IF (A-C) 240,300,220
23122      A,GT,C
23222      IF (MIN(A,B)-MAX(C,D),GT,T) GO TO 402
23322      GO TO 300
23422      240   IF (MIN(C,D)-MAX(A,B),GT,T) GO TO 402
23522      300   CONTINUE
23622      A:D
23722      IF (IABS(A-D),LE,T) GO TO 350
23822      IF (A-D) 330,350,310
23920      C,A,GT,D
24020      310   IF (A-MAX(B,C,D),GT,T) GO TO 404
24120      IF (MIN(A,B,C)-D,GT,T) GO TO 404
24220      GO TO 350
24322      C,A,LT,D
24420      330   IF (D-MAX(A,B,C),GT,T) GO TO 404
24520      IF (MIN(B,C,D)-A,GT,T) GO TO 404
24620      C,B,C
24720      350   IF (IABS(B-C),LE,T) GO TO 450
24820      IF (B-C) 380,450,360
24920      C,B,GT,C
25020      360   IF (B-MAX(A,C,D),GT,T) GO TO 408

```



```

17-JUL-70    0833      B0R34      1,MDK
25102      IF (MIN0(A,B,D)=C,GT,T) GO TO 408
25202      GO TO 450
05300      C      B,L,T,C
25402      380      IF (C-MAX0(A,B,D),GT,T) GO TO 408
25522      IF (MIN0(A,C,D)-B,GT,T) GO TO 408
05622      GOTO 450
25702      401      IVAL=1
05802      GO TO 460
25902      402      IVAL=2
26022      GO TO 460
26122      404      IVAL=4
26222      GO TO 460
26322      408      IVAL=8
26422      GO TO 460
06520      IVAL=0
26600      450      CALL STORE(I,J,IVAL)
26700      460      CONTINUE
26822      500
26922
27020
27100
JSURE3*IDPTR
END

```



```

17-JUL-70 0833      BGR34   1,MDK

00102      FUNCTION INITOP(SPTR,N,NAME)
00222      C      INITIALIZE FOR N=1 OPERATOR.
00322      IMPLICIT INTEGER (A-Z)
00422      DIMENSION NAME(2)
00503      COMMON /CON/ A(3),BITS,IWID,LINLEN,FLINE,LLINE,LSIDE,RSIDE,
1          TVPNTR,TVSIZ,NPERWD,ILEN,B(8),ITEXT(10),
00622      DIMENSION Z(32)

00702      CALL FILCON(SPTR,A(1))
00822      CALL INLOAD(SPTR)
00922      DO 100 I=1,32
01022      Z(I)=A(I)
01122      C      ALLOCATE 1 WORD PICTURE BUFFER.
01222      DPTR=1 ALLOC(1)
01302      CALL FILCON(DPTR,A(1))
01402      CALL FILCON(DPTR,A(1))
01503      BITS=Z(4)
01603      IWID=Z(5)-(N-1)
01703      NPERWD=Z(13)
01802      LINLEN=(IWID+NPERWD-1)/NPERWD
01900      FLINF=Z(7)+(N-1)/2
02002      LLINE=Z(8)-N/2
02102      LSIDE=Z(9)+(N-1)/2
02202      RSIDE=Z(10)-N/2
02302      ILEN=Z(14)-(N-1)
02402      ITEXT(1)=Z(23)
02502      ITEXT(2)=Z(24)
02602      ITEXT(3)=NAME(1)
02702      ITEXT(4)=NAME(2)
02800      CALL PUTCON(DPTR,A(1))
02902      C      NOW ALLOCATE NEEDED LENGTH.
03002      CALL ALLOC(DPTR,LINLEN*ILEN)
03122      CALL INSTOR(DPTR)
03222      CALL FILCON(DPTR,A(1))
03302      INITOP=DPTR
03402      END
03500

```



```

FUNCTION IHEDED((ISPTR)
  IMPLICIT INTEGER(A-Z)
  COMMON /CON/ A(3),BITS,IWID,LINLEN,FLINE,LLINE,LSIDE,RSIDE,
  1 TPNTR,TVSIZ,NPERWD,ILEN,B(8),ITEXT(10)
  COMMON /LSENTS/ VBL,VLSB,VLST,VTL,VTR,VRST,VRSB,VBR

  LIST STRUCTURE ENTRIES:
  20722 C
  20822 C
  20922 C
  21022 C
  21122 C
  21222 C
  21322 C
  21422 C
  21522 C
  21622 C
  21722 C
  21822 C
  21922 C
  22022 C
  22122 C
  22222 C
  22322 C
  22422 C
  22522 C
  22622 C
  22722 C
  22822 C
  22922 C
  23022 C
  23122 C
  23222 C
  23322 C
  23422 C
  23522 C
  23622 C
  23722 C
  23822 C
  23922 C
  24022 C
  24122 C
  24222 C
  24322 C
  24422 C
  24522 C
  24622 C
  24722 C
  24822 C
  24922 C
  25022 C
  25122 C
  25222 C

  C      FUNCTION IHEDED((ISPTR)
  C      IMPLICIT INTEGER(A-Z)
  C      COMMON /CON/ A(3),BITS,IWID,LINLEN,FLINE,LLINE,LSIDE,RSIDE,
  C      1 TPNTR,TVSIZ,NPERWD,ILEN,B(8),ITEXT(10)
  C      COMMON /LSENTS/ VBL,VLSB,VLST,VTL,VTR,VRST,VRSB,VBR

  C      ALLOCATE NEW BUFFER.
  C      IDPTR=INITTOP((ISPTR),1,'HEAD EDGES')
  C
  C      INITIALIZE FAIL DPY BUFFER.
  C      CALL IFAILB((IDPTR))
  C
  C      ZERO NEW BUFFER.
  C      CALL ZROBUF((IDPTR))
  C      IF FAIL('THEDED')
  C      CALL DELINE(-1,ISPTR, IDPTR)
  C      CALL FILCON((ISPTR,A(1))
  C      CALL INLOAD((ISPTR))

  C      LIMIT=LLINE-ILLEN/5
  C
  C      FROM LEFT, LOOK FOR VERTICAL LINE.
  C      DO 1100 1=LSIDE,RSIDE
  C      COUNT=0
  C      DO 11120 J=FLINE,LLIMIT
  C      IF ((LOAD(1,J).AND.1).EQ.0) GO TO 1050
  C      COUNT=COUNT+1
  C      GO TO 1100
  C
  C      1050  IF ((COUNT.GE.1) GO TO 1200
  C      COUNT=3
  C      CONTINUE
  C
  C-----CONSTRAINT: THERE MUST BE A VERTICAL LINE REPRESENTING THE LEFT
  C-----SIDE OF THE HEAD.
  C-----IF NOT, FAILURE.
  C-----CALL FAIL('1100')
  C
  C      FOUND: LEFT SIDE OF HEAD.
  C      LSX=1
  C      LSYT=J-KOUNT
  C      LSYB=J-1
  C
  C-----
```



```

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25322      VLST=LESTAB(LSX,LSYT)
25422      V=VLST
25522      DO 1220 J=LSYT,LSYB
25622      IF (J.NE.LSYT) V=LLINS(V,LSX,J)
25722      CALL STORE(LSX,J,LOAD(LSX,J))
25822      VLSB=V

25922      C      FROM RIGHT, LOOK FOR VERTICAL LINE.
26022      DO 1330 I=RSIDE,LSX,-1
26122      KOUNT=0
26222      DO 1300 J=FLINE,LLIMIT
26322      IF ((LOAD(I,J).AND.1).EQ.0) GO TO 1250
26422      KOUNT=KOUNT+1
26522      GO TO 1300
26622      IF (KOUNT.GE.1) GO TO 1400
26722      KOUNT=0
26822      CONTINUE
26922      C      CONSTRAINT: THERE MUST BE A VERTICAL LINE REPRESENTING THE RIGHT
27022      C      SINE OF THE HEAD.
27122      C      IF NOT, FAILURE.
27222      C      CALL FAIL('1300')
27322
27422
27522
27622
27722      C      FOUND: RIGHT SIDE OF HEAD.
27822      RSX=1
27922      RSYT=J-KOUNT
28022      RSYB=J-1
28122      VRST=LESTAB(RSX,RSYT)
28222      V=VRST
28322      DO 1420 J=RSYT,RSYB
28422      IF (J.NE.RSYT) V=LRINS(V,RSX,J)
28522      CALL STORE(RSX,J,LOAD(RSX,J))
28622      VRSB=V

28722
28822
28922      C      CONSTRAINT: THE LEFT AND RIGHT SIDES OF THE HEAD MUST BE SEPARATED.
29022      C      IF NOT, FAILURE.
29122
29222
29322      C      ARE THEY LEFT AND RIGHT?
29422      IF (RSX-LSX.LT.4) CALL FAIL('1500')
29522      C      FROM TOP, BETWEEN LSX AND RSX, LOOK FOR
29622      C      HORIZONTAL LINE.
29722      DO 1620 I=LSX,RSX
29822      KOUNT=1
29922      DO 1600 J=FLINE,LSYT
30022      IF ((LOAD(I,J).AND.2).EQ.0) GO TO 1550
30122      KOUNT=KOUNT+1
30222      GO TO 1600
30322      IF (KOUNT.GE.1) GO TO 1700
30422      KOUNT=0

```



```

17502 1602  CONTINUE
17620
C----- CONSTRAINT: THERE MUST BE A HORIZONTAL LINE REPRESENTING THE TOP
17720  C OF THE HEAD.
17820  C IF NOT, FAILURE.
C----- C
11120  CALL FAIL('16000')
11200
11300  C FOUND: TOP OF HEAD
11400  1700  TLX=1-KOUNT
11500  TRX=1-1
11600  TY=J
11700  VTL=LESTAB(TLX,TY)
11800  V=VTL
11900  DO 1720 I=TLX,TRX
12000  IF (I,NE,TLX) V=LRINS(V,I,TY)
12100  CALL STORE(I,TY,LOAD(I,TY))
12200  VTR=V
12300
12400
12500  C----- CONSTRAINT: THE TOP OF THE HEAD MUST BE ABOVE THE SIDES OF THE
12600  HEAD.
12700  C----- IF NOT, THE SIDE(S) IS(ARE) IN ERROR. DELETE SIDE(S).
12800  C----- AND TRY AGAIN.
12900
13000  KABOVE CHANGED FROM 3 TO 2 ON 8 JUN 70 WHILE DEBUGGING RPHH1
13100  KAROVE=2
13200  IF (LSYT-TY.GT.KABOVE) GO TO 17320
13300  CALL NFATAL
13400  CALL FAIL('17320')
13500  CALL YFATAL
13600  CALL DELINE(0,VLSB,VLSB)
13700  IF (RSYT-TY.GT.KABOVE) GO TO 17330
13800  GO TO 17325
13900  IF (RSYT-TY.GT.KABOVE) GO TO 17340
14000  CALL NFATAL
14100  CALL FAIL('17320')
14200  CALL YFATAL
14300  CALL DELINE(0,VRST,VRST)
14400  CALL KILLL
14500  GO TO 50
14600
14700  C----- CONSTRAINT: THE TOP OF THE HEAD MUST BE BETWEEN THE SIDES OF THE
14800  HEAD.
14900  C----- IF NOT, THE TOP IS IN ERROR. DELETE THE TOP AND
15000  TRY AGAIN.
15100
15200  17340  IF (LSX.LT.TLX-2,AND,RSX.GT,TRX+2) GO TO 1738
15300  CALL NFATAL
15400  CALL FAIL('17340')
15500  CALL YFATAL

```



```

14702 CALL DELINE(0, VTL, VTR)
14822 CALL KILLLL
14922 GO TO 50

15222 C ASSERT: TENTATIVE SIDES AND TOP OF HEAD HAVE BEEN LOCATED.
15222 C LEFT LSX,LSYT,LSYB VLST,VLSB
15222 C RIGHT RSX,RSYT,RSYB VRST,VRSB
15322 C TOP TLX,TRX, TY VTL,VTR
15422 C SEARCH FOR LONG, FAIRLY STRAIGHT, SIDES OF THE HEAD.
15522 C LONG AND FAIRLY STRAIGHT ARE DEFINED IN TERMS OF
15622 C HEAD WIDTH AND Y COORDINATE OF TOP.
15722 C HEADWID=RSX-LSX
15822 C FAIRLY STRAIGHT! MUST BE IN BAND FSBAND WIDE.
15922 C FSAND=2+(HEADWID/10)
16022 C ININC=FSBAND/2
16122 C OUTINC=FSBAND-ININC-1
16222 C LONG! SEARCH BAND FROM BNDTOP TO BNDBOT.
16322 C BNDBOT=TY+HEADWID-FSBAND
16422 C BNDTOP=TY+FSAND
16522 C -----
16622 C CONSTRAINT: BAND MUST BE ENTIRELY WITHIN PICTURE.
16722 C IF NOT, SIDE CLOSEST TO EDGE IS IN ERROR. DELETE
16822 C IT AND TRY AGAIN.
16922 C -----
17022 C IF (BNDBOT.LT.LLINE-2) GO TO 1740
17122 C CALL NFATAL
17222 C CALL FAIL('1739')
17322 C CALL YFATAL
17422 C LDIST=LSX-LSIDE
17522 C RDIST=RSIDE-RSX
17622 C IF (LDIST-RDIST) 1830,1870,1870
17722 C -----
17822 C -----
17922 C RIGHT=1
18022 C LEFT=-1
18122 C LEFT TOP.
18222 C IF (BNDTOP.GE.LSYT) GO TO 1741
18322 C CALL SIDSRC(VLST,RIGHT,LSX-OUTINC,LSX+ININC,LSYT-1,BNDTOP)
18422 C LSYT=LYCOR(VLST)
18522 C RIGHT TOP.
18622 C IF (BNDTOP.GE.RSYT) GO TO 1742
18722 C CALL SIDSRC(VRST,LEFT,RSX+OUTINC,RSX-ININC,RSYT-1,BNDTOP)
18822 C RSYT=LYCOR(VRST)
18922 C LEFT BOTTOM.
19022 C IF (BNDBOT.LE.LSYB) GO TO 1743
19122 C CALL SIDSRC(VLSB,LEFT,LSX-OUTINC,LSX+ININC,LSYT+1,BNDBOT)
19222 C LSYB=LYCOR(VLSB)
19322 C RIGHT BOTTOM.
19422 C IF (BNDBOT.LE.RSYB) GO TO 1758
19522 C CALL SIDSRC(VRSB,RIGHT,RSX+OUTINC,RSX-ININC,RSYT+1,BNDBOT)
19622 C RSYB=LYCOR(VRSB)
19722 C -----
19800 C FOLLOW EDGES FROM SIDE TO TOP OF HEAD.

```



```

19920 1758 V=VLST
20032     CALL UHEF(1,LXCOR(VLST),LSYT,TLX,TY,V,FAILSW)
20122     IF (FAILSW, EQ, 0) GO TO 1760
20220 C----- UHEF FAILED, LEFT SIDE OF HEAD MUST BE IN ERROR.
20300 C----- REMOVE "LEFT SIDE LINE" FROM SOURCE PICTURE AND TRY AGAIN.
20422 C----- GO TO 1830
20522
20622
20702 1760 CALL LLINK(V, VTL)
20922 V=VRST
21022 CALL UHEF(-1,LXCOR(VRST),RSYT,TRX,TY,V,FAILSW)
21122 IF (FAILSW, EQ, 0) GO TO 1760
21222 C----- UHEF FAILED, RIGHT SIDE OF HEAD MUST BE IN ERROR.
21322 C----- REMOVE "RIGHT SIDE LINE" FROM SOURCE PICTURE AND TRY AGAIN.
21422 C----- GO TO 1870
21522
21622
21702 1780 CALL LLINK(VTR,V)
21822 C----- FOLLOW EDGES FROM SIDE TO BOTTOM OF PICTURE.
21922 V=VLSB
22122 CALL LHEF(1,LXCOR(VLSB),LSYB,LLINE,V,FAILSW)
22222 VBL=V
22322 VBL=V
22422 IF (FAILSW, EQ, 0) GO TO 1850
22522
22622 C----- UHEF FAILED, LEFT SIDE OF HEAD MUST BE IN ERROR.
22722 C----- REMOVE "LEFT SIDE LINE" FROM SOURCE PICTURE AND TRY AGAIN.
22822 C----- GO TO 1830
22922 CALL DELINE(0,VLSB,VLST),
23022 CALL KILLLL
23122 GO TO 50
23222 V=VRSB
23322 CALL LHEF(-1,LXCOR(VRSB),RSYB,LLINE,V,FAILSW)
23422 VBR=V
23522 IF (FAILSW, EQ, 0) GO TO 1900
23622
23722 C----- UHEF FAILED, DO AS ABOVE.
23822
23922 CALL DELINE(0,VRST,VRSB)
24022 CALL KILLLL
24122 GO TO 50
24222
24322 C----- REMOVE CONCAVITIES IN SIDES.
24422 1900 CALL REMOCC(VLSB,VLST,1)
24522 CALL REMOCC(VRST,VRSB,-1)
24622
24722 C----- RELEASE FAIL DPY BUFFER.
24822 CALL RFAIL
24922
25022 IHEDED=10PTR

```


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END

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20102 SUBROUTINE SIDSRC (VPTR,LORR,XSTART,XEND,YSTART,YEND)
 00226 IMPLICIT INTEGER (A-Z)
 C SIDE SEARCH.

20323 XSTEP=1
 20423 IF (XEND.LT.XSTART) XSTEP=-1
 20523 YSTEP=1
 20622 IF (YEND.LT.YSTART) YSTEP=-1
 20722 IF (YEND.GT.YSTART) YEND=YEND+YSTEP
 20822 DO 209 J=YSTART,YEND,YSTEP
 20922 DO 100 I=XSTART,XEND,XSTEP
 21022 L=LOAD(I,J)
 21122 IF ((L.AND.13).NE.0) GO TO 150
 21222 CONTINUE
 21322 GO TO 200
 21422 VPTR=LPINS(LORR,VPTR,I,J)
 21522 CONTINUE
 21622 CALL STORE(I,J,L)
 21722 CONTINUE
 21822 RETURN
 21922 END
 22022
 02122 SUBROUTINE REMOCC (V1,V2,WHERE)
 02222 IMPLICIT INTEGER (A-Z)
 02322 V=V1
 02422 X1=LXCOR(V)
 02522 V=LRSIB(V)
 02622 V=LRSIB(V)
 02722 10 IF (V.EQ.V2) RETURN
 02822 20 X2=LXCOR(V)
 02922 X2=LXCOR(V)
 03022 IF (((X2-X1)*WHERE) 30,30,40
 03122 X1=X2
 03222 GO TO 20
 03322 C X2 IS INWARD OF X1.
 03422 K=1
 03522 V=LRSIB(V)
 03622 IF (V.EQ.V2) RETURN
 03722 X2=LXCOR(V)
 03822 IF (((X2-X1)*WHERE) 100,100,60
 03922 C STILL INWARD.
 04022 IF (K,GT,4) GO TO 10
 04122 K=K+1
 04222 GO TO 50
 04322 C FIX UP K OF THEM.
 04422 40 W=V
 04522 100 W=LRSIB(W)
 04622 TX=LXCOR(W)
 04722 TY=LYCOR(W)
 04822 CALL LSETXY(W,TX-WHERE,TY)
 04922 CALL STORE(TX,TY,0)
 05022 CALL STORE(TX-WHERE,TY,15)
 05122 K=K-1
 05222 IF (K,GT,0) GO TO 110

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GO TO 10
END

05300
05400

00100	00333	B0R34	1,MDK	PAGE 5-1
20222	SUBROUTINE DLINE(SH,P1,P2)			
00320	IMPLICIT INTEGER(A-Z)			
00400	IF (SH) 100,200,200			
00520	C	SH=-1. P1 AND P2 ARE PICTURE POINTERS. THIS IS AN		
00620	C	INITIALIZATION CALL.		
00722	C	PTR1=P1		
00823	100	PTR2=P2		
00922	RETURN			
01022	C	SH=0 P1 AND P2 ARE LIST POINTERS. P2 ON RIGHT.		
01120	C	DELETE POINTS IN PICTURE WHICH ARE ON LIST, INCLUDING		
01220	C	END POINTS.		
01322	C	CALL INSTOR(PTR1)		
01422	C	J=P1		
01522	200	X=LXCOR(J)		
01622	C	Y=LYCOR(J)		
01720	250	CALL STORE(X,Y,0)		
01822	C	IF (J.EQ.P2) GOTO 300		
01922	C	J=LRSIB(J)		
02022	C	GO TO 250		
02120	C	CALL INSTOR(PTR2)		
02222	C	RETURN		
02322	300	END		
02422	C			
02522	C			
02600	C			


```

20120 0833      B0R34      1,MDK
20220      SUBROUTINE UHEF(WHERE,SX,SY,TX,TY,V,FAILSW)
20300      C      IMPLICIT INTEGER (A-Z)
20400      C      UPPER HEAD EDGE FOLLOWER.
20500      C      FOLLOWS A CURVING EDGE FROM THE TOP OF THE SIDE OF
20600      C      THE HEAD (SX,SY) TO THE TOP OF THE HEAD (TX,TY).
20700      C      WHERE = 1 : UPPER LEFT CURVE OF HEAD.
20800      C      WHERE = -1 : UPPER RIGHT CURVE OF HEAD.
20900      C      CBRACKETED COMMENTS APPLY TO WHERE=-1.
21000      C      COMMON /CON/A(3),BITS,IWID,LINLEN,FLINE,LLINE,LSIDE,RSIDE,
21100      C      1      TVPNTR,TVSIZE,NPERWD,ILEN,B(8),ITEXT(10)

21200      CALL NFATAL
21300      FX=SX
21400      FY=SY
21500      FD=LOAD(FX,FY)
21600      IF (WHERE.LT.0) GO TO 120
21700      OKDIRS=1+2+4
21800      OKSIDE=1+4
21900      OKTOPS=2+4
22000      GO TO 3002
22100      OKDIRS=1+2+8
22200      OKSIDE=1+8
22300      OKTOPS=2+8

22400      FX = LAST X FOUND
22500      FY = LAST Y FOUND
22600      FD = DIRECTION AT FX,FY
22700
22800      IF FY=TY, TOP HAS BEEN REACHED.
22900      IF (FY.LE.TY) GO TO 4000
23000      3000
23100
23200      C      DOES FD INCLUDE VERTICAL EDGE?
23300      IF ((FD.AND.1).EQ.0) GO TO 3500
23400
23500      C      YES.
23600      DO 3100 KOUNT=1,5
23700      IF (FY-KOUNT.LT.TY) GO TO 3200
23800      IF (KOUNT.GT.1) GO TO 3070
23900      ILIM=FX+WHERE
24000      GO TO 3075
24100      ILIM=FX+2*WHERE
24200      DO 3100 I=FX+WHERE,ILIM,WHERE
24300      IF (I.LT.LSIDE.OR.I.GT.RSIDE) GO TO 3100
24400      P=LOAD(I,FY-KOUNT)
24500      C      I OR / ? [ OR \ ? ]
24600      IF ((P.AND.OKSIDE).NE.0) GO TO 3800
24700      CONTINUE
24800      CALL FAIL('3100')
24900      C      CANNOT FIND EDGE ABOVE FX,FY. TRY FOR EDGE AS IF FD HAS A SLANT.
25000      GO TO 3500
25100      CALL FAIL('3020')
25200      GO TO 5300

```



```

05400 C NO.
05520 C THEREFORE FD HAS / OR - EDGE. C \ OR - EDGE J
05600 35000 13500=0
05700 DO 3600 KOUNT=1,5
05800 IF (FY-KOUNT-TY) 3700,3520,3520
05920 C SEARCH FROM VERTICALLY ABOVE FX,FY INWARD TO
06020 C LINE BETWEEN FX,FY AND TX,TY.
06100 C RATIOS: NRSTEPS / COUNT = TX-FX / FY-TY
06220 NNUM=(TX-FX)*WHERE*KOUNT
06320 NDEN=FY-TY
06420 NRSTEP=NNUM/NDEN
06520 ROUND UP.
06620 IF (MOD(NNUM,NDEN).NE.0) NRSTEP=NRSTEP+1
06720 T3530=FX+NRSTEP*WHERE
06800 DO 3600 I=FX,T3530,WHERE
06920 IF (I.LT.LSIDE.OR.I.GT.RSIDE) GO TO 3600
07020 P=LOAD(I,FY-KOUNT)
07122 C I OR / OR -? (I.E. ANYTHING BUT \ ONLY.)
07220 C IF ((P,AND,OKDIRS).NE.0) GO TO 3800
07302 C CONTINUE
07420 3600
07520 CALL FAIL('3600')
07602 GO TO 5300
07702 CALL FAIL('3520')
07800 GO TO 5300
07902 FOUND
08022 FX=1
08100 FY=FY-KOUNT
08202 FD=P
08320 IF (FX.EQ.TX.AND.FY.EQ.TY) GO TO 5000
08422 CALL STORE(FX,FY,P)
08520 V=LPINS(WHERE,V,FX,FY)
08622 GO TO 3000
08720
08820 C TOP HAS BEEN REACHED. INCLUDE ANY - OR / C - OR \ J
08920 C OVER TO PREVIOUS TOP LINE.
09020 DO 4100 I=FX+WHERE,FX+3*WHERE,WHERE
09120 IF ((TX-1)*WHERE.LE.0) GO TO 5000
09200 P=LOAD(I,TY)
09320 IF ((P,AND,OKTOPS).EQ.0) GO TO 4100
09422 CALL STORE(I,TY,P)
09522 V=LPINS(WHERE,V,FX,FY)
09622 FX=1
09722 GO TO 4000
09800 CONTINUE
09900 4100 C A GAP OF MORE THAN TWO POINTS HAS BEEN FOUND
10022 C IN THE TOP OF THE HEAD. FAILURE.
10102 CALL FAIL('4100')
10222 GO TO 5300
10302 10420

```


10520 5000 FAILSW=0
10620 5000 GO TO 5600
10720 5300 FAILSW=1
10820 5600 CALL YFATAL
10920 RETURN
11020 END

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25322 C If new is close to vertical starting line continue
C with Stage 1.
05420 IF (FAILCM.EQ.1) GO TO 6990
05522 IF (FY.GE.BY) GO TO 6150
25620 IF ((FX-SAVEX)*WHERE.LT.1) GO TO 6000
25720 NEXT STMTH NICE FOR KOC72. IS IT GENERALLY USEFUL TO
C OMIT STAGE 2?
C?????
C GO TO 6300
C 8 JUNE 72 - NO FOR LDEH2
C GO TO 6200
C 26232 26232 - NO FOR LDEH2
C GO TO 6200
C 26222 CALL FAIL('6150')
C GO TO 6990
C #####
C ##### Stage 2, going down.
26620 IF (FY.GE.RY) GO TO 7000
26720 IF ((FD.AND.SLNOT).EQ.0) GO TO 6210
C 26920 STAGE=2
C 27020 GO TO 6303
C 27122 CALL SEARCH(FX-WHERE,FX+WHERE,WHERE,1+4*B,'6205',-1)
C 27222 Stage 2, going down.
C 27322 C OK, new edge.
C 27422 If not back under vertical edge, continue with Stage 2.
C 27522 IF (FAILCM.EQ.1) GO TO 6990
C 27622 IF ((FX-SAVEX)*WHERE.GT.0) GO TO 6200
C 27722 #####
C 27822 Stage 3, going out.
C 27922 IF (FY.GE.BY) GO TO 7200
C 28022 STAGE=3
C 28122 Does FD include a slant edge?
C 28222 IF ((FD.AND.SLNOT).EQ.0) GO TO 6310
C 28322 C Yes.
C 28422 IF POINT BELOW IS NOT A 2,
C 28522 FIRST TRY TO FOLLOW OUTWARD.
C 28622 TFD=LOAD(FX,FY+1)
C 28722 IF ((TFD.AND.2).NE.0) GO TO 6307
C 28822 TFD=LOAD(FX-WHERE,FY)
C 28922 IF ((TFD.AND.DNNOT).EQ.0) GO TO 6307
C 29022 FX=FX-WHERE
C 29122 FD=TFD
C 29222 CALL STORE(FX,FY,FD)
C 29322 VCM=LPINS(L,OR,R,VCM,FX,FY)
C 29422 IF (STAGE.EQ.2) GO TO 6200
C 29522 GO TO 6300
C 29622 TEMPFX=FX
C 29722 CALL SEARCH(FX-2*WHERE,TEMPFX,WHERE,DWNOUT,'6305',-1)
C 29822 GO TO 6315
C 29922 No. FD IS 1.
C 30022 CALL SEARCH(FX-2*WHERE,FX+WHERE,WHERE,DWNOUT,'6310',-1)
C 30122 6310 IF (FAILCM.EQ.1) GO TO 6990
C 30222 IF (STAGE.EQ.2) GO TO 6200

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10320	GO TO 6300		
10422	FAILSW=1		
10520	6990		
10622	GO TO 7010		
10720	FAILSW=0		
10820	7000		
10920	CALL YFATAL		
11020	V=VCM		
11120	RETURN		
	END		


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00120      SUBROUTINE SEARCH(FROMP,TO,STEP,DIRS,FLABEL,WIDEN)
00200      IMPLICIT INTEGER (A-Z)
00320      COMMON /LHEFCM/ BY,FX,FY,FD,FAILCM,VCM,L OR R
00400      FROM=FROMP
00520      DO 120 KOUNT=1,5
00620      FY=FY+1
00720      IF (FY.GT.RY) RETURN
00820      DO 100 FX=FROM,TO,STEP
00920      FD=LOAD(FX,FY)
01020      IF ((FD.AND.DIRS).NE.0) GO TO 200
01120      CONTINUE
01220      IF (WIDEN.NE.0) FROM=FROM-STEP
01320      CONTINUE
01420      CALL FAIL(FLABEL)
01520      FAILCM=1
01600      RETURN
01720
01820      CALL STORE(FX,FY,FD)
01900      VCMZLPINS(L OR R,VCM,FX,FY)
02000      END

```


SUBROUTINE DSLINS(PTR,X,Y,POG)

IMPLICIT INTEGER (A-Z)
COMMON /CON/ A(3),BITS,INID,LINLEN,FLINE,LLINE,LSIDE,RSIDE,
1 TVPNTR,TVSIZE,NPERWD,ILEN,B(8),ITEXT(10)CALL FILCON(PTR,A(1))
CALL INLOAD(PTR)DO 5000 J=FLINE,LLINE
DO 5020 I=LSIDE,RSIDE
P=LOAD(I,J)
IF (P,EQ.0) GO TO 5000C 1
IF (MOD(P,2).NE.1) GO TO 3200
IF (J.EQ.FLINE) GO TO 3110
IF (MOD(LOAD(I,J-1),2).EQ.1) GO TO 3200
IF (J.EQ.LLINE) GO TO 3125
DO 3120 J=J+1,LLINE
IF (MOD(LOAD(I,JJ),2).NE.1) GO TO 3130
IF (MOD(LOAD(I,JJ),2).NE.1) GO TO 3130
CONTINUE
JJ=LLINE+1
JJ=JJ-1
CALL ALINE(X+6*(I-LSIDE),Y+3-6*(JJ-FLINE),
1 X+6*(I-LSIDE),Y-3-6*(JJ-FLINE))C 2
IF (MOD(P/2,2).NE.1) GO TO 3300
IF (I,EQ.LSIDE) GO TO 3210
IF (MOD(LOAD(I-1,J)/2,2).EQ.1) GO TO 3300
IF (I,EQ.RSIDE) GO TO 3225
DO 3220 I=I+1,RSIDE
IF (MOD(LOAD(I,J)/2,2).NE.1) GO TO 3230
CONTINUE
II=RSIDE+1
II=II-1
CALL ALINE(X-3+6*(I-LSIDE),Y-6*(J-FLINE),
1 X+3+6*(II-LSIDE),Y-6*(J-FLINE))C 3
4
IF (MOD(P/4,2).NE.1) GO TO 3400
IF (I,EQ.RSIDE,OR,J.EQ.FLINE) GO TO 3310
IF (MOD(LOAD(I+1,J-1)/4,2).EQ.1) GO TO 3400
KK=MIN(I-LSIDE,LLINE-J)
IF (KK.EQ.0) GO TO 3325
DO 3320 K=1,KK
IF (MOD(LOAD(I-K,J+K)/4,2).NE.1) GO TO 3330
CONTINUE
K=KK+1
K=K-1
CALL ALINE(X+3+6*(I-LSIDE),Y+3-6*(J-FLINE),
1 X-3+6*(I-K-LSIDE),Y-3-6*(J+K-FLINE))


```

25320 06333
25420 C      \      8
25502 3400   IF (MOD(P/8,2).NE.1) GO TO 5000
25600 25600   IF (I.EQ.LSIDE.OR.J.EQ.FLINE) GO TO 3410
25700 3410   IF (MOD(LOAD(I-1,J-1)/8,2).EQ.1) GO TO 5000
25800 25800   KK=MIND(LSIDE-I,LLINE-J)
25900 3420   IF (KK.EQ.0) GO TO 3425
26000 26000   DO 3420 K=1,KK
26103 26103   IF (MOD(LOAD(I+K,J+K)/8,2).NE.1) GO TO 3430
26200 3420   CONTINUE
26300 3425   K=KK+1
26402 3430   K=K-1
26502 26502   CALL ALINE(X-3+6*(I-LSIDE),Y+3-6*(J-FLINE),
26602 26602   1 X+3+6*(I+K-LSIDE),Y-3-6*(J+K-FLINE)),
26722 26722   CONTINUE
26802 5000   5000
26902 5500   5500
27000 07100   CALL DPYOUT(POG)
27100

```



```

22120  FUNCTION JRIGHE(BIGPT,HEDPOG)
22222  INTEGER BIGPT,HEDPOG
22320  COMMON /CON/ A(3),RITS,IWID,LINLEN,FLINE,LLINE,LSIDE,RSIDE,
22420  1      TVPNTR,TVSIZE,NPERWD,ILEN,B(8),ITEXT(10)
22520  INTEGER A,RITS,FLINE,RSIDE,TPVNTR,TVSIZE,B
22620  COMMON /LENTS/ VBL,VLSB,VLST,VTL,VRST,VRSB,VBR
22720  INTEGER VBL,VLSB,VLST,VTL,VTR,VRST,VRSB,VBR
22820  COMMON /FOLCOM/ IP1,JP1,IP2,JP2,JP3,JP3,1Q,JO,MPOG,
22922  1      WSTART,WFIN
23020  INTEGER WSTART,WFIN
23100  EXTERNAL JEDGES
23102

231220 C      MAPPING FROM REDUCED POINTS TO BIG POINTS.
231225 C      *** BEWARE *** THESE ASF'S ARE IMPLICITLY IN INV FIX AT
231227 C      STATEMENTS 40 AND 140.
231228 C
231212 C      IMAP(I)=8*I+LSIDE
231215 C      JMAP(J)=8*I+FLINE
231222 C      OLD MAPPING.
231225 C      IMAP(I)=8*I+LSIDE-4
231230 C      JMAP(J)=8*I+FLINE-4
231235 C      ALLOCATE AND ZERO NEW BUFFER.
231232 C      NEWPTR=INITOP(BIGPT,1,'BIG EDGES')
231420 C      MPOG=HEDPOG
231522 C      CALL ZROBUF(NEWPTR)
231622 C      INITIALIZE DPY STUFF
231722 C      CALL FOLLOW(1,NUTN)
231822 C
231922 C
232722 C      START PROCESSING
232122 C      LIN=VBL
232220 C      IL1=LXCOR(LIN)
232320 C      JL1=LYCOR(LIN)
232420 C      IP1=IMAP(IL1)
232520 C      JP1=JMAP(JL1)
232622 C      IO=IP1
232723 C      JQ=JP1
232823 C      LIN=LRSIB(LIN)
232922 C      IL2=LXCOR(LIN)
233022 C      JL2=LYCOR(LIN)
233122 C      RTEMP=IL2-IL1
233223 C      IF (RTEMP) 120,110,120
233323 C      SLOP12=99.
233423 C      GO TO 130
233523 C      SLOP12=(JL2-JL1)/RTEMP
233623 C      LIN=LRSIB(LIN)
233722 C      IF (LIN.EQ.0) GO TO 180
233822 C      IL3=LXCOR(LIN)
233922 C      JL3=LYCOR(LIN)
234022 C      RTEMP=IL3-IL2
234122 C      IF (RTEMP) 150,140,150
234222 C      SLOP23=99.

```



```

24420      GO TO 160
24522      150      SLOP23*(JL3-JL2)/RTEMP
24622      160      IF (SLOP12-SLOP23) 200,170,200
24722      C        SLOPES ARE EQUAL
04822      170      JL2=JL3
04922      JL2=JL3
25020      GO TO 130

05122      C        END OF LIST. SET UP DUMMY P3.
05220      180      SLOPES NOT EQUAL. P1,P2, AND P3 FOUND.
05322      1P2=IMAP(1L2)
05422      JP2=JMAP(JL2)
05522      1P3=2*IP2-1P1
05622      JP3=2*JP2-JP1
05720      GO TO 250

05822      C        SECTION PROCESSED. ON TO NEXT. DUM-DI-DUMP-DUMP.
05922      200      CALL FOLLOW(0,JEDGE5)
06022      26122      SLOP12SLOP23
06122      26220      IP1=IP2
06222      26322      JP1=JP2
06322      26420      GO TO 170

06420      C        NOW PROCESS SECTION FROM P1 TO P2.
06522      26522      CALL FOLLOW(0,JEDGE5)
06620      26622      IF (LIN.EQ.0) GO TO 400
06720      26720      SLOP12SLOP23
06820      26820      IP1=IP2
06920      26920      JP1=JP2
07020      27020      GO TO 170

07122      C        ALL FINISHED.
07222      27122      CALL FOLLOW(-1,NUTN)
07322      27220      JBIGHE=NEWPTR
07420      27320      VBL=NEWSTART
07520      27420      PUT NEW LIST ENTRIES IN.
07620      27520      VLSB=IVFIX(VBL,VLSB,1)
07720      27620      VLST=IVFIX(VLSB,VLST,1)
07820      27720      VTL=IVFIX(VLST,VTL,-2)
07920      27820      VTR=IVFIX(VTL,VTR,-2)
08020      27920      VRST=IVFIX(VTR,VRST,-1)
08120      28020      VRSB=IVFIX(VRST,VRSB,-1)
08220      28120      VBR=WFIN
08320      28220      RETURN
08420      28320      END
08520      28420
08620      28520
08720      28620
08820      28720
08920      28820
09020      28920

```


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```

00120      FUNCTION IVFIX(V1,V2,ISIGN)
00200      IMPLICIT INTEGER (A-Z)
00300      C      ISIGNI = 1 : TEST Y
00400      C      ISIGNI = 2 : TEST X
00500      COMMON /CONV/ A(3),BITS,IWID,LINLEN,FLINE,LLINE,LSIDE,RSIDE,
00600      1      TVPNTR,TVSIZ,NPERWD,ILEN,B(8),ITEXT(10),
00700      2      INTEGER A,RITS,FLINE,RSIDE,TVPNTR,TVSIZ,B
00800      C      IF (IARSI(SIGN).EQ.1) GO TO 140
00900      C      *** BEWARE *** NEXT STMT IS ASF IMAP FROM JBIGHE.
01000      40      I=LSIDE+B*LXCOR(V2)
01100      40      J=V1
01200      100     J=LRS1B(J)
01300      100     ITEST=LXCOR(J)
01350      C      IF (ISIGN*(I-ITEST).EQ.0) 200,200,200
01400      C      *** BEWARE *** NEXT STMT IS ASF IMAP FROM JBIGHE.
01420      140     I=FLINE+B*LXCOR(V2)
01520      140     J=V1
01620      160     J=LRS1B(J)
01720      160     ITEST=LYCOR(J)
01800      200     IF (ISIGN*(I-ITEST).EQ.0) 160,200,200
01900      200     IVFIX=J
02000      END

```



```
FUNCTION MSD(SLOPE)
C MAIN SLANT DIRECTION.
C IF (SLOPE) 1140,1110,1120
MDIRS=2
ORIGINALLY 14
GO TO 1200
IF (SLOPE<-1.) 1135,1130,1133
MDIRS=4
ORIGINALLY 7
GO TO 1200
IF (SLOPE>1.) 1155,1150,1153
MDIRS=5
GO TO 1200
MDIRS=6
GO TO 1200
GO TO 1200
IF (SLOPE<-1.) 1135,1130,1133
MDIRS=5
GO TO 1200
MDIRS=6
GO TO 1200
GO TO 1200
IF (SLOPE>1.) 1155,1150,1153
MDIRS=8
MDIRS=11
ORIGINALLY 11
GO TO 1200
MDIRS=10
GO TO 1200
MDIRS=9
GO TO 1200
GO TO 1200
MSD=MDIRS
END
```



```

0825      SUBROUTINE FOLLOW(LISW,JFUNC)
COMMON /FOLCOM/ IP1,JP1,IP2,JP2,IP3,JP3,IO,JO,MPOG,
1      WSTART,WFIN
      INTEGER WSTART,WFIN
20420      DPY STUFF -----
C      INTEGER G1,G2
20620      REAL GCONST
20720      DATA GCONST/6.0/
22820      DATA GCONST/6.0/
      INTEGER TPOG,UPOG,SPOG,SFLAG
C1122      DATA LSBUF/40/
      LOGICAL NODPY,ANYM,ANYN,ANYS
01222      DATA NODPY/TRUE./
      DATA ANYM/ANYN/ANYS/
21320      C      PIECE OF GLASS
21420      C      TPOG
21520      C      UPUG
21620      C      SPOG
21720      C      MPOG
21820      C      NPOG
C1922      C      -----
      LOGICAL HORIZ,WIDE,NXTWID,ANYLIS
22102      DIMENSION I1(-4/11),J1(-4/11),ISTOP(-4/11),JSTOP(-4/11)
22222      DATA NB1/-4/,NB2/11/
      COMMON /OUTFGS/ IFDTTY,IFDPT,IFDDPY
C24C2      IF (LISW) 400,1200,100
22502
22622      C      INITIALIZE
22723      C      100
22822      IF (IFDDPY.EQ.0) NODPY=,TRUE.
      ANYM=.FALSE.
      SFLAG=2
22922      ANYSE=.FALSE.
      WIDE=.TRUE.
      ANYLIS=.FALSE.
23122      WIDE=.TRUE.
      ANYLIS=.FALSE.
23222      IF (NODPY) RETURN
      TPOG=IADPST(25)
      UPOG=IADPST(50)
      NPOG=IADPST(200)
      RETURN
23322
23420
23520
23620
23720
23822
23922
24020      C      ALL FINISHED.
      WFIN=JLISPT
      IF(IFDDPY.EQ.0) RETURN
24220      IF (NODPY) RETURN
      CALL OUTD('DIS OK?&')
      NUTN=YORN(-1)
      CALL HYDPOG(TPOG)
      CALL HYDPOG(UPOG)
      CALL HYDPOG(NPOG)
      IF (.NOT. ANYS) GO TO 430
      CALL HYDPOG(SPOG)
      CALL IGIVEX(SPOG)
24320
24420
24520
24620
24722
24820
24922
25020
25120
25220      CALL IGIVEX(NPOG)
400
430

```



```

CALL IGIVEX(UPOG)
CALL IGIVEX(TPOG)
RETURN
C **** PROCESS SECTION FROM P1 TO P2 ****
C **** INPUT TO THIS PART OF CODE IS:
C **** COORDINATES OF P1,P2,P3, AND Q WHICH ARE
C **** IP1,JP1
C **** IP2,JP2
C **** IP3,JP3
C **** IQ,JO
C
C DRAW LINES CONNECTING THE 3 POINTS
C
C 1000 IF (NODY) GO TO 1010
C CALL CLRPOG(TPOG)
C CALL ALINE(G1(IP1),G2(JP1),G1(IP2),G2(JP2))
C CALL AVECT(G1(IP3),G2(JP3))
C CALL DPYOUT(TPOG)
C
C DETERMINE LINE L WHICH BISECTS ANGLE BETWEEN P1P2 AND P1P3
C
C 1010 X3=IP3-IP2
C Y3=JP3-JP2
C DIST3=SQRT(X3**2+Y3**2)
C X1=IP1-IP2
C Y1=JP1-JP2
C DIST1=SQRT(X1**2+Y1**2)
C R IS POINT ON LINE L. CONSIDERING P2R, P2P3, AND P2P1
C VECTORS VR, V3, AND V1; R IS DEFINED BY:
C VR=(Y3/ABS(V3)) + (V1/ABS(V1))
C RELATIVE COORDINATES FOR POINT R ARE CALCULATED.  TRUE
C WOULD BE IP2+VR AND JP2+YR.J
C XR=(X3/DIST3)+(X1/DIST1)
C YR=(Y3/DIST3)+(Y1/DIST1)
C
C 1020 IF (NODY) GO TO 1100
C DISPLAY LINE IN DIRECTION OF R OF LENGTH 8.
C DISTR=SQRT(XR**2+YR**2)
C IR8=IP2+IFIX(8.*XR/DISTR+0.5)
C JR8=JP2+IFIX(8.*YR/DISTR+0.5)
C CALL ALINE(G1(IP2),G2(JP2),G1(IR8),G2(JR8))
C CALL DPYOUT(TPOG)
C
C DETERMINE MAIN SEARCH DIRECTIONS FOR P1P2.
C 1=I 4=/
C 2=- 8=\_
C 1100 IF (X1,E3,0) GO TO 1175
C SLOPE=-Y1/X1
C MDIRS=MSD(SLOPE)
C GO TO 1180
C
C 1175 MDIRS=1
C ORIGINALLY 13

```



```

10522 C DETERMINE SECONDARY SEARCH DIRECTIONS FROM P2P3.
10600 1180 C IF (X3.EQ.0) GO TO 1190
10800 EPOL3=-Y3/X3
10902 MDIRS=MDIRS .OR. MSD(EPOL3)
11000 GO TO 1200
11120 MDIRS=MDIRS .OR. 1

11200
113C0 C If the search angle changes greatly (more than 45 degrees)
11400 C at P2, set flag to force a wide search at P2.
11520 C COS a = (-V1.V3) / (|V1|*|V3|)
11600 COSALF=(-X1*X3-Y1*Y3)/(DIST1*DIST3)
11722 NXTWID=FALSE.
11822 IF (COSALF.LT.0.707) NXTWID=.TRUE.

11900
12100 C IS P1P2 MOSTLY HORIZONTAL?
12102 C IF (ABS(X1).LT.ABS(Y1)) GO TO 1400
12200 C YES
123C0 C HORIZ=.TRUE.
12400 C IN GOING FROM P1 TO P2, THE X INCREMENT WILL BE +1 OR -1.
12520 C IINC=ISIGN(1,IP2-IP1)
12622 C THE Y INCREMENT.
12722 C YINC=-Y1/ABS(X1)
12822 C THE INCREMENTS FOR SCANNING ACROSS TO LOOK FOR AN EDGE.
12922 XSCNIN=YINC
13022 JSCNIN=IINC
13120 C FILL IN OFFSET TABLE FOR SCANNING
13220 DO 1310 K=N81,NB2
13322 I1(K)=K*XSCNIN+0.5
13420 1310 JJ(K)=K*JSCNIN
13522 C FILL IN STOPPING TABLE
13600 QSCRD=XSCNIN**2+JSCNIN**2
13700 QDOTV=XSCNIN*XK+JSCNIN*YR
13800 XHZERO=XR*QSCRD/QDOTV
13922 DO 1332 K=N81,NB2
14022 1332 ISTCP(K)=IP2+K*XHZERO+2.5
14100 DETERMINE STOPPING SIGN,
14202 IF (IP1-ISTOP(0)) 1350,1350,1360
14302 1350 ISTPSC=1
14400 1360 GO TO 1370
14502 ISTPSC=-1
14600 C SET Q AND P.
14700 C FIND POINT Q RELATIVE TO NEW SEARCH COORDINATES.
14800 C START SEARCH THERE,
14900 1370 IP=IP1
15000 YP1=JP1
15100 IF (SLOPE.NE.0) GO TO 1380
15200 IODIST=(IQ-IP1)*IINC
15300 GO TO 1383
15400 C Let point Q0 be the intersection of line P1P2 and
15500 C a line perpendicular to P1P2 which passes through Q.
15600 C calculate the x coordinate of Q0.

```



```

15722 1380      X00=(YP1-J0+SLOPE*IP1+(1./SLOPE)*J0)
15822      1      1/Q0=XQ0+0.5
15922      1/Q0=(1Q0-IP1)*JINC
16022      1/QDIST=(1Q0-IP1)*JINC
16122      1/QDIST 1385,1390,1390
16222      N=0
16322      KQ=0
16422      WIDE=.TRUE.
16522      GO TO 13960
16622      NE=1QDIST
16722      IP=IP1+N*JINC
16822      JP=YP1+N*YINC+0.5
16922      KQ=(JQ-JP)*JSCNIN
17022      IF ((10.NE.122SAV.OR.JQ.NE.J22SAV) GO TO 13963
17122      IF ((12DIST.LT.0) GO TO 13962
17222      LASTKQ=KQ
17322      GO TO 1500
17422      IF (SLOPE.EQ.0) GO TO 13964
17522      1/QDIST=1QDIST
17622      GO TO 13960
17722      IF (SLOPE.NE.0) GO TO 13966
17822      LASTKQ=(J22SAV-JP1)*JSCNIN
17922      GO TO 1500
18022      XSS=(YP1-J22SAV+SLOPE*IP1+(1./SLOPE)*J22SAV)
18122      1      / (SLOPE+(1./SLOPE))
18222      ISS=XSS+0.5
18322      1/QDIST=(ISS-IP1)*JINC
18422      JP=S=YP1+1/QDIST*YINC+0.5
18522      LASTKQ=(J22SAV-JPS)*JSCNIN
18622      GO TO 1500
18722      C      MOSTLY VERTICAL.
18822      1/Q220 1400      HORIZONTAL, FALSE.
18922      XINC=-X1/ABS(Y1)
19022      JINC=ISIGN(1,JP2-JP1)
19122      1/QINC
19222      YSCNIN=XINC
19322      DO 1410 K=N81,NB2
19422      11(K)=K*ISCNIN
19522      J(J(K))=K*YSCNIN+0.5
19622      OSCRD=ISCNIN*2+YSCNIN*2
19722      QD0TV=ISCNIN*XR+YSCNIN*YR
19822      YHZERO=YR*QSQRD/QD0TV
19922      DO 1430 K=N81,NB2
20022      JSTOP(K)=JP2+K*YHZERO+0.5
20122      IF (JP1-JSTOP(0)) 1450,1450,1460
20222      JSTOP=1
20322      1450      GO TO 1470
20422      JSTOP=-1
20522      XP1=IP1
20622      JP=JP1
20722      IF (X1.NE.0) GO TO 1480
20822

```


17-JUL-70 0825 IF (ISTPSG*(J-ISTOP(KQ))) 1650,1650,3000

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26100 1610 IF (ISTPSG*(J-ISTOP(KQ))) 1650,1650,3000
26200 26300 C SEARCH
26400 1650 N=N+1
26500 IP=IP+1INC
26600 JP=YP1+N*YINC+0.5
26700 GO TO 1680
26800 N=N+1
26900 IP=XP1+N*XINC+0.5
27000 JP=JP+JINC
27100 1680 IF (NODPY) GO TO 1690
27200 27300 CALL CLRPG(UPRG)
27400 27500 C SEARCH ALONG S FROM S1 TO S2 FOR EDGE.
27600 1690 DO 1720 K=KS1,KS2
27700 I=IP+1(K).
27800 J=JP+J(K)
27900 1695 IF (NODPY) GO TO 1695
28000 CALL APOINT(G1(I),G2(J))
28100 CALL DPYOUT(UPRG)
28200 ISEDGE=JFUNC(I,J,MDIRS)
28300 IF (ISEDGE) 1900,1700,1900
28400 1700 CONTINUE
28500 C NO EDGE FOUND
28600 IBACK1=102
28700 IBACK2=102
28800 28822 C IF (WIDE) GO TO 1840
28900 C SEARCH ALONG S FROM B1 TO S1-1 AND FROM S2+1 TO B2 FOR EDGE.
29000 DO 1820 K=NB1,NB2
29100 IF (K,GE,KS1,AND,K,LE,KS2) GO TO 1800
29200 I=IP+1(K)
29300 J=JP+J(K)
29400 1795 IF (NODPY) GO TO 1795
29500 CALL APOINT(G1(I),G2(J))
29600 CALL DPYOUT(UPRG)
29700 ISEDGE=JFUNC(I,J,MDIRS)
29800 IF (ISEDGE) 1810,1800,1810
29900 1800 CONTINUE
30000 WIDE=.TRUE.,
30100 KS1=NB1
30200 KS2=NB2
30300 1820 IF (ISEDGE) 1820,1840,1820
30400 C EDGE FOUND DURING WIDE SEARCH.
30500 1820 KQ=K
30600 GO TO 2200
30700 C NO EDGE FOUND.
30800 KQ=4*K0/5
30900 I=IP+1(KQ)
31000 J=JP+J(KQ)
31100 GO TO 1670
31200 C EDGE FOUND DURING NARROW SEARCH.

```



```

1900      KQ=K
31302      IF (KQ.LT.NB1+2) GO TO 2000
31400      IBACK=LOAD(IP+II(KQ-2),JP+JJ(KQ-2))
31500      IF (IBACK2.EQ.100) GO TO 1925
31600      IF (IARS(1BACK-IBACK1).GT.1.OR.
31700      1     IARS(1BACK-IBACK2).GT.1) GO TO 2000
31800      C     OK FOR NARROW SEARCH.
31900      C     GO TO 2000
32000      WIDE=.FALSE.
32100      IBACK2=IBACK1
32200      IBACK1=IBACK
32300      KS1=MAX0(K0-4,NB1)
32400      KS2=MIN0(K0+4,NB2)
32500      GO TO 2200
32600      IBACK2=IBACK1
32700      IBACK1=IBACK
32800      GO TO 2200
32900      C     SET FOR WIDE SEARCH.
33000      2000
33100      C     WIDE=.TRUE.
33200      IBACK2=100
33300      IBACK1=100
33400      KS1=NB1
33500      KS2=NB2
33600      GO TO 2200
33700      C     RUN SIMPLE FILTER ON POINTS FOUND.
33800      2200      IF (SFLAG) 2250,2210,2220
33900      C     LASTKQ IS UNDEFINED. SET IT UP.
34000      2210      ASSIGN 1600 TO LABSP
34100      SFLAG=1
34200      LASTKQ=KQ
34300      C     NEXT TWO VALUES USED ONLY IF DIRECTION IS CHANGED BETWEEN POINTS.
34400      2230      I22SAV=1
34500      C     J22SAV=J
34600      2240      GO TO 2400
34700      C     NORMAL SITUATION. TEST KQ.
34800      2220      IF (IARS(KQ-LASTKQ).GT.3) GO TO 2230
34900      C     NO BIG CHANGE IN KQ.
35000      C     ASSERT! SFLAG=1, LABSP=1600.
35100      C     LASTKQ=KQ
35200      C     NEXT TWO VALUES USED ONLY IF DIRECTION IS CHANGED BETWEEN POINTS.
35300      2250      I22SAV=1
35400      C     J22SAV=J
35500      2260      GO TO 2400
35600      C     A BIG CHANGE IN KQ. HOLD I,J FOR A TEST ON THE NEXT POINT.
35700      2230      I22SAV=1
35800      C     J22SAV=J
35900      2235      KQ22SV=KQ-LASTKQ
36000      C     ASSERT: LABSP=1600.
36100      SFLAG=-1
36200      LASTKQ=KQ
36300      GO TO 1600

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FOL10.SAV

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0825      C Previous I,J is being held. Test new I,J to see what to do.
36402      C IF (IABS(K0-LASTK0).GT.3) GO TO 2260
36502      C No big change in new K0.
36602      C Store previous I,J. Then new I,J.
36700      C ASSIGN 2255 TO LABSP
36802      C GO TO 2350
36902      C Now for new I,J.
37022      C I=122SAV
37120      C J=J22SAV
37200      C ASSIGN 1600 TO LABSP
37302      C ASSIGN 1600 TO LABSP
37402      C SFLAG=1
37502      C LASTK0=K0
37602      C GO TO 2400
37720      C A big change in new K0. Compare signs of this change and
37820      C the previous change (which was also big).
37920      C IF (KG2SV*(K0-LASTK0) 2280,2265,2265
38020      C Signs are the same. Therefore previous I,J is okay
38100      C and should be stored. New I,J should be held as at
38200      C 2232 above.
38302      C ASSIGN 2270 TO LABSP
38423      C GO TO 2350
38522      C ASSIGN 1600 TO LABSP
38620      C ASSERT: 122SAV,J22SAV = NEW COORDINATES.
38700      C I=122SAV
38802      C J=J22SAV
38902      C GO TO 2235
39020      C SIGNS OF TWO CONSECUTIVE BIG CHANGES ARE DIFFERENT.
39100      C DELETE PREVIOUS POINT. DISPLAY A "D" AT PREVIOUS POINT
39222      C IF DESIRED.
39302      C IF (NODY) GO TO 2290
39422      C DISPLAY "D" AT 122SAV,J22SAV.
39522      C IF (ANYS) GO TO 2285
39602      C ANYS= TRUE.
39700      C SPOG=IADPST(LSBUF)
39802      C GO TO 2288
39903      C CALL SETPOG(SPOG)
40022      C CALL DPYXT(G1((122SAV),G2(J22SAV),'D',1)
40122      C CALL DPYOUT(SPOG)
40200      C NOW STORE NEW I,J.
40300      C ASSERT: LABSP=1600.
40402      C SFLAG=1
40500      C LASTK0=K0
40600      C NEXT TWO VALUES USED ONLY IF DIRECTION IS CHANGED BETWEEN POINTS.
40702      C I22SAV=1
40802      C J22SAV=J
40902      C GO TO 2400
41020      C STORE PREVIOUS I,J.
41100      C ASSERT: LABSP contains proper exit.
41200      C ITEMP=1
41320      C I=122SAV
41400      C I22SAV=ITEMP
41500

```



```

41622          J22SAV=ITEMP
41722          J22SAV=ITEMP
41822          GO TO 2400
41922
42022          C STORE POINT (AND DISPLAY).
42122          CALL STORE(I,J,1)
42222          IF (ANYLIS) GOTO 2410
42322          ANYLIS=TRUE.
42422          JLISPT=ESTAB(I,J)
42522          WSTART=JLISPT
42622          GO TO 2422
42722          JLISPT=LIRINS(JLISPT,I,J)
42822          2410  IF (IFDOPY.EQ.0) GO TO LABSP
42922          C COMPUTE DPY COORDS. OF POINT.
43022          NINEW=G1(1)
43102          NINEW=G2(J)
43222          C INITIALIZE MPOG.
43322          IF (ANYM) GO TO 2450
43422          ANYM=TRUE.
43522          NI=NJNEW
43622          NJ=NJNEW
43722          CALL SETPOG(MPOG)
43822          CALL AVECT(NI,NJ)
43922          C INITIALIZE NPOG.
44022          IF (NODPY) GO TO 2445
43952          CALL SETPOG(NPOG)
44122          CALL AVECT(NI,NJ)
44102          ANYN=FALSE.
44222          GO TO LABSP
44322          C COMPUTE NEW SLOPE.
44422          DXNEW=NJNEW-NI
44522          2450  IF (DXNEW.EQ.0) GO TO 2453
44622          SLONEW=(NJNEW-NJ)/DXNEW
44722          GO TO 2455
44822          SLONEW=9999.
44922          C IS SLOPE INITIALIZED?
45022          2453  IF (ANYN) GO TO 2460
45122          ANYN=TRUE.
45222          GO TO 2483
45322          C TEST NEW SLOPE.
45422          2460  IF ((SLONEW.EQ.SLOOPEN) GO TO 2465
45522          TDIST=(TSLOPE*NINNEW-NJNEW+TB)/TDENOM
45622          C GCONST = 1.5 * DISPLAY SCALE FACTOR.
45722          IF (ABS(TDIST).GE.GCONST) GO TO 2470
45822          C SET UP OLD NPOG.
45922          2465  IF (NODPY) GO TO 2485
46022          CALL SETPOG(NPOG)
46122          GO TO 2485
46222          C ERASE OLD NPOG.
46322          2470  IF (NODPY) GO TO 2473
46422          CALL HYDPOG(NPOG)
46500          C DISPLAY NEW MPOG.

```



```

46622 2473 CALL SETPOG(MPOG)
46722 CALL AVECT(N1,NJ)
46822 IF (NOPY) GO TO 2480
46922 CALL DPYOUT(MPOG)
47020 C SET UP NEW NPOG.
47120 CALL CLRPOG(NPOG)
47222 CALL AVECT(N1,NJ)
47322 C SET UP SLOPE PARAMETERS.
47422 2480 SLOPE=SLOPENEW
47522 TSLOPE=SLONEW
47622 TB=NJ-TSLOPE*N1
47722 TDENOM=SOR(TSLOPE**2+1)
47822 2485 NI=NINEW
47922 NJ=NJNEW
48022 IF (NOPY) GO TO 2490
48122 C DISPLAY NEW NPOG.
48222 CALL AVECT(N1,NJ)
48322 CALL DPYOUT(NPOG)
48422 2490 GO TO LABSP
48522 46622 C FINISHED WITH THIS P1 TO P2 SECTION.
48622 32000 1 G=1
48722 48822 JQ=J
48822 WIDE=NXTWID,OR,WIDE
48922 RETURN
49022
49122
49222 END

```



```

221022 TITLE JEDGOP; (I,J,MDIRS)
220222 ! MDIRS: 4 low bits choose which directions to use.
220322 ! Sign means: + quilt after one success.
220422 - try all.
222523 ! JEDGES FOR ****
222622 ! ****
222722 ! ****
222822 ! ****
222922 ! ****
223022 ! ****
223122 ! ****
223222 ! ****
223322 ! ****
223422 ! ****
223522 ! ****
223622 ! ****
223722 ! ****
223822 ! ****
223922 ! ****
224022 ! ****
224122 ! ****
224222 ! ****
224322 ! ****
224422 ! ****
224522 ! ****
224622 ! ****
224722 ! *****NEW
224822 ! *****NEW
224922 ! ****
225022 ! ****
225122 ! ****
225222 ! *****NEW

```


0841 DOJNE (N4,N5,N1,N2,N3)>

```

25323
25422   M1 M2 M3
05522   M4 M5
25622   M6 M7 M8
25722
25822
25922   INTERN JEDGE3
26022   JEDGE3: SETM TFLAG# *****NEW
26122   MOVEI 0,TEMP
26222   BLT 0,TEMP+LASTAC
06322   JSA 17,SPLOAD ;RETURNS WITH A1=POINTER TO I-1,J
06422   EXTERN SPLOAD ;
06522   LDR 0,CPOINT 6,1,5J
06622   CAIE 0,44 ;DOES POINTER IN AC1=44BB00,,A ?
06722   JRST PNTOK
06822   NO.
06922   TLZ 1,7700000. ;YES. SET TO 00BB00,,A-1
07022   SOS 1
07122   PNTOK: MOVE 0,1
07222   SUB 0,2 ;PREVIOUS LINE A0=A1-LINLEN
07322   LDS M1,0
07422   ILDB M2,0
07522   ILDB M3,0
07622   MOVE 2,1
07722   LDB M4,0
07822   IBP 0
07922   ILDS M5,0
08022   ADD 1,2 ;NEXT LINE A1=A1+LINLEN
08122   LDB M6,1
08222   ILDS M7,1
08322   ILDB M8,1
08422   SKIPN NEWWAY
08522   JRST X99
08622   JRST NEK99
08722   NEWWAY: 0
08822
08922   INTERN JEDGES
09022   JEDGE5: 0
09120   INEWER***** SETM TFLAG *****NEW
09222   MOVEI 2,TEMP
09322   BLT 0,TEMP+LASTAC
09422   JSA 17,SPLOAD ;RETURNS WITH A1=POINTER TO I-1,J
09522   EXTERN SPLOAD ;
09622   JUPL 1,X69
09750   ADD 1,[240000000000] ;BYTE POSITION IS 4 TO 34(OCTAL)
09622   JRST PNTOK5 ;ADD 4 TO IT.
09850   X69:   TLZ 1,7000000
09950   SOS 1 ;BYTE POSITION IS 40 OR 44(OCTAL). SET TO
10022   PNTOK5: MOVE 0,1
10122   SUB 0,2 ;PREVIOUS LINE A0=A1-LINLEN
10222   SUB 0,2
10322   LDB M1,0
10422

```



```

10520      1BP 0
12622      ILDS M2,0
10722      1BP 0
12622      ILDB M3,0
11223      MOVE R,1
11222      LDB M4,0
11122      1BP 0
11222      1BP 0
11222      1BP 0
11323      1BP 0
11423      ILDS M5,0
11523      ADD 1,2,NEXT LINE  #1=A1+LINLEN
11622      ADD 1,2
11722      LDB M6,1
11822      1BP 1
11922      ILDS M7,1
12022      1BP 1
12122      ILDB M8,1
12222      MOVE MDIIRS, #2(16)
X99:      SETM VALUE
12322
12422
12522
12623      TRNE MDIIRS,1
12722      JRST D01
12822      TRNE MDIIRS,2
12923      JRST D02
13023      TRNE MDIIRS,4
13123      JRST D04
13223      TRNE MDIIRS,1D8
13223      JRST D08
13323      MCVSI LASTAC,TEMP+1
13422      HRR1 LASTAC,1
13522      BLT LASTAC,LASTAC
13622      JRA 16,3(16)
13722
13923      D01:  DOIT (1,M1,M4,M6,M3,M5,M8,TEST2)
13922      D02:  DOIT (2,M1,M2,M3,M6,M7,M8,TEST4)
14123      D04:  DOIT (4,M1,M2,M4,M5,M7,M8,TEST8)
14123      D08:  DOIT (*D8,M2,M3,M5,M4,M6,M7,EXIT)
14222      TEMP1      BLOCK 22
14422      TDS=2      ! THRESHOLD FOR DOSIM
14622      DEFINE DOSIM (B1,N1,N2,NEXT)
14722      <MOVE K1,N1
14822      SUB K1,N2
14922      MOVMS K1
15222      CAIG K1,TDS
15122      JRST NEXT
15222      ORI VALUE,BIT
15322      JUMPL MDIIRS,NEXT
15422      JRST EXIT>
15522
15622      NEW99:  MOVE MDIIRS, #2(16)

```



```

      SETZM VALUE
15700
15820      TRNE MD1RS,1
15900      JRST DO1S
16020      TEST2S! TRNE MD1RS,2
16122      JRST DO2S
16220      TEST4S! TRNE MD1RS,4
16320      JRST DO4S
16422      TEST8S! TRNE MD1RS,•D8
16523      JRST DO8S
16623
16723
16822      DO1S! DOSIM (1,M4,M5,TEST2S)
16923      DO2S! DOSIM (2,M2,M7,TEST4S)
17020      DO4S! DOSIM (4,M1,M8,TEST8S)
17122      DO8S! DOSIM (*D8,M3,M6,EXIT)
17222
17323
17420      END

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