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# **A Quality Consensus Strategy for Binarization of Neuronal Images**

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A thesis

submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the Degree of

**Master of Computer Application**

of

Jadavpur University

By

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**FACULTY OF ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY**

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**Declaration of Originality and Compliance of Academic Ethics**

I hereby declare that this thesis entitled “A Quality Consensus Strategy for Binarization of Neuronal Images” contains a literature survey and original research work by the undersigned candidate, as part of her degree in Master of Computer Application.

All information has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct.

I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all materials and results that are not original to this work.

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## **ABSTRACT**

In the field of neural processing, the dendritic spines are likely to be of major importance. The morphology of dendritic spines is very diverse and changes in spine size, as well as their density, are thought to reflect changes in the strength of the synaptic transmission. This paper presents a modified image binarization technique for the neuronal image. Binarization is often recognized to be one of the most important steps in most high-level image analysis systems, particularly for object recognition. Its precise functioning highly determines the performance of the entire system. Although so much research work has been done so far in the field of image binarization still there is a scope for improvement. All of those methods perform well to some extent but in every case, there are a lot of disconnected spines, deformities in dendritic shape and size, and a lot of manual work needs to be done. Image binarization is the process of converting a greyscale image to a black and white image. This image binarization technique is used as a pre-processing step of image analysis in various domains. Thresholding is a method that is used for binarization. In thresholding, an optimal threshold value is chosen and the pixels are classified as foreground or background by comparison with this threshold value. In this paper, we have used local thresholding. Locally adaptive image binarization with a sliding-window threshold can be an effective tool for various image processing tasks. The major focus of this thesis report is to provide a new technique for binarization of medical images using the classical method of Sauvola with some modifications. The experiment deals with the quality consensus that is if one of the decisions for a particular pixel says to be foreground and the other says to be background then foreground is taken of all the variable window sizes and the precision of the neuronal image is evaluated.

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# **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

The major goal behind studying and analyzing the medical image is to offer a huge potential to contribute to the advancement of medical treatment. Almost all the medical image processing techniques[1] need to produce a binary form of the original image and it plays an essential role in many medical image segmentation[2] techniques. Locally adaptive image binarization with a sliding window [3] threshold can be an effective tool for various image processing tasks. The advantages[4] of obtaining first a binary image are that it reduces the complexity of the data and simplifies the process of image segmentation. The threshold is one of the most powerful techniques for image segmentation[5]. The medical image [6] is converted to a binary image using the threshold value. Thresholding creates a binary image from grayscale images by turning all pixels[7] below the threshold to zero representing the background and all pixels about that threshold to one for foreground representation[8]. Finding the correct threshold value is a challenging process. Because of its efficiency in performance and its simplicity, thresholding techniques have been studied extensively and a large number of thresholding methods have been developed[9].

## **1.1 BINARIZATION AND THRESHOLDING**

*Binarization:* Image Binarization[10] is the technique of changing any grayscale photo right into a binary photo (Black & White photo). Grayscale images and Binary images are two important variations among digital images. In a grayscale image, a particular pixel takes an intensity value lying between 0 to 255 whereas in a binary image it could take only two values either 0 or 255. Therefore, only 1 bit is sufficient to represent one pixel. Image Binarization aims to segment the foreground text from the document background. A fast and accurate image binarization technique is important for the ensuing image processing tasks [11].

Binarization is the pre-processing step for image analysis and processing[12]. Binary images are used to represent basic shapes and line drawings. Binarization techniques are used to simplify the image.

*Thresholding:* Thresholding is one of the old, simple, and popular techniques for image segmentation. Thresholding can be done based on global information or it can be done using local information of the image [13].

The simplest thresholding methods replace each pixel in an image with a black pixel if the image intensity  $I_{i,j}$  is less than some fixed constant  $T$  (that is,  $I_{i,j} < T$ ), or a white pixel if the image intensity is greater than that constant[14].

Binarization technique can be grouped into two categories: Global and Local. Global binarization methods pick one threshold value for the entire document images which is often based on an estimation of the background level from the intensity histogram of the image. These methods are very fast and produce good results. These methods fail when there are nonuniform illuminated document images. The local (adaptive) binarization method uses different values for each pixel according to the local area information[15]. In most methods, the same threshold is applied to all the pixels of an image. However, in some cases, it can be advantageous to apply a different threshold to different parts of the image, based on the local information of the pixels. This category of methods is called local or adaptive thresholding[16]–[18]. In those cases, a user-defined neighborhood is defined and a threshold is computed for each pixel and its neighbourhood. Many global thresholding methods can be adapted to work locally, but there are also methods developed specifically for local thresholding.

## **1.2 BINARIZATION WITH RESPECT TO BIOMEDICAL IMAGES**

Medical image-breaking technologies[2] now offer a huge potential to contribute to the advancement of healthcare and medicine. Image-guided approaches have expanded to incorporate not just diagnostic but also therapeutic procedures. Healthcare is becoming increasingly reliant on information, research, networking, picture archiving and distribution, equipment, and treatment based on physical energies, in addition to traditional image viewing and analysis[19].

Binarization plays a crucial role in gaining a complete comprehension of image information. Segmented pictures are now frequently employed in a variety of applications, including diagnosis, treatment planning, pathology localization, anatomical structure investigation, and computer-integrated surgery. Particularly, medical images are often corrupted by noise and sampling artefacts, which can cause considerable difficulties when applying rigid methods[20].

### 1.3 NEURONAL AND DENDRITIC SPINE IMAGES

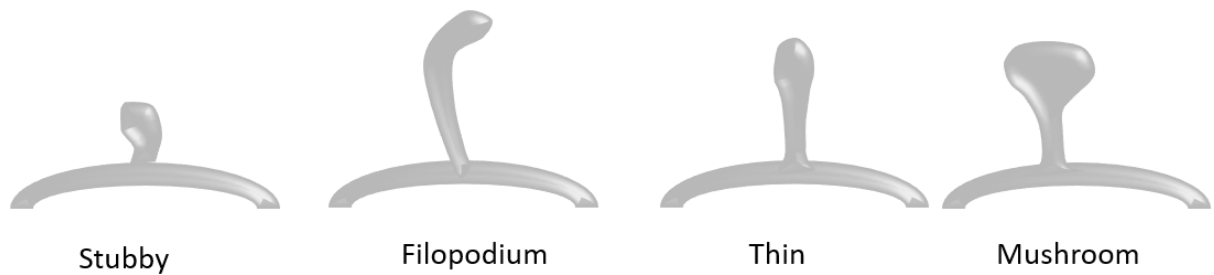


Figure 1: Different Spine Morphologies

Dendritic spines are morphological specializations that protrude from the main shaft of neuronal dendrites. Typically, 0.5–2  $\mu\text{m}$  in length (but up to 6  $\mu\text{m}$  in the CA3 region of the hippocampus)[21][22], dendritic spines are found at a linear density of 1–10 spines per  $\mu\text{m}$  of dendritic length in mature neurons[23]. Dendritic spines are actin-rich small protrusions on dendritic branches where most of the excitatory synapses are localized. During the spinogenesis process as the spine started to develop, they build a long thin thread-like form, called a filopodium.[24] Filopodium is usually witnessed during development. This type of spine has a long neck and no head. Over time filopodia is replaced by a thin i.e., spine with a long neck and small head, stubby i.e. spines with no neck or short neck, and relatively mature mushroom-shaped spines i.e. spines with a long neck and large bulbous head.[25] Spine morphology and stabilization are highly influenced by synaptic activity. Mushroom-shaped spines, consider to be mature spines are typically more stable and have an enlarged spine head containing neurotransmitter receptors and a postsynaptic density (PSD). In contrast, filopodium is an immature spine with a lack of synapses.[26]

It is used in controlling electrical and biochemical compartmentalization and plays a significant role in activity and signal transmission in neural networks [27]. The shape of dendritic spines changes either spontaneously, or in response to generated neuronal stimulation [28] [29]. These changes are related to learning, memory [30], and various neurodegenerative and neuropsychiatric diseases [31],[32],[33]e.g., Alzheimer’s disease [34], schizophrenia [35]. Many aspects of the existing structure-function relationship in dendritic spines are still unknown due to their complex morphology and plasticity [30], [33]. It should be emphasized that variability in spine shapes is expressed through a continuous spectrum, and therefore the use of the arbitrary classification of type is a simplification [36]. However, it is assumed that the strength of synaptic connections

correlates with the morphological features of spines, their turnover, or both. Therefore, for example, mushroom spines are known as mature spines that can create stable synaptic connections, while thin spines represent immature forms usually named learning spines, due to their high potential for plastic changes (for details see [37][38] Apart from mushroom and thin spines, there are also other distinguishable classes, such as stubby, filopodium, cup-shaped and spine-head protrusions, which also reveal specific electrophysiological properties of synapses located on the aforementioned spines [39], [40]. Spines may also undergo pathological plasticity in which transformations between immature to mature forms are disturbed. Thus, the knowledge of underlying structural plasticity in physiology is extremely important to understanding how the brain functions in pathological conditions ([37]; [41]). Due to the small size (up to a dozen  $\mu\text{m}$ ) of dendritic spines, and also the limitations related to microscopic imaging, the accurate structural analysis of spine morphometry remains a challenge.

The goal behind studying and analyzing the dendritic spine is to offer a huge potential to contribute to the advancement of medical treatment. Ketamine is an N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor antagonist that has gained wide attention as a potent antidepressant. It has also been recently reported to have prophylactic effects in animal models of depression and anxiety. Alterations of neuroplasticity in different brain regions; such as the hippocampus; prefrontal cortex; and amygdala; are a hallmark of stress-related disorders; and such changes may endure beyond the treatment of symptoms. The present study investigated whether a prophylactic injection of ketamine has effects on structural plasticity in the brain in mice that are subjected to chronic unpredictable stress followed by an 8-day recovery period. Ketamine administration (3 mg/kg body weight) 1 h before stress exposure increased the number of resilient animals immediately after the cessation of stress exposure and positively influenced the recovery of susceptible animals to hedonic deficits. At the end of the recovery period; ketamine-treated animals exhibited significant differences in dendritic spine density and dendritic spine morphology in brain regions associated with depression compared with saline-treated animals. These results confirm previous findings of the prophylactic effects of ketamine and provide further evidence of an association between the antidepressant-like effect of ketamine and alterations of structural plasticity in the brain[32]

## **1.4 MOTIVATION**

In the last few decades, so much research work has been done so far in the field of image binarization still there is a scope for improvement. All of those methods perform well to some extent but in every case, there are a lot of disconnected spines, deformities in dendritic shape and size, and a lot of manual work needs to be done. Most of the existing methods involve some serious manual intervention which needs a lot of time and effort from the researchers to binarize a single image. Therefore, we need to develop an automatic method that minimizes user intervention and also gives the desired result with better precision.

## **1.5 OBJECTIVE**

The major focus of this thesis report is to provide a new technique for binarization of medical images using the classical method of Sauvola with some modifications. Sauvola's method[42] used a local adaptive threshold for a fixed size of the window where a threshold is determined for each pixel based on statistics computed from a local window centered on the pixel of interest. In our proposed experiment we have taken variable window sizes. For each window, the pixel decision is taken whether the pixel is foreground or background, and based on the decision the consensus value is taken into consideration. The experiment deals with the quality (if one of the decisions for a particular pixel says to be foreground and the other says to be background then foreground is taken) consensus of all the variable window sizes and the precision of the neuronal image is evaluated. The experiment then is compared with the other classical method.

## **1.6 ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS**

In *Chapter 1*, we have discussed the basic introduction of binarization. A brief introduction to the utilization of binarization in the medical image. We have also discussed the neuronal images and dendritic spines and their importance in various areas of medical experiments.

In *Chapter 2*, a brief survey of different work that has been done so far to binarize the dendritic spine's shape and nature has been presented, and from this is how we get our motivation for work.

In *Chapter 3*, the proposed methodology that has been adopted is explained along with the appropriate algorithm. We selected the method described by Sauvola as our reference binarization method.

In *Chapter 4*, Several datasets for binarization of degraded neuronal images with ground truth pixel labelling have been proposed and used for evaluation in the literature. The primary way that binarization algorithms are currently evaluated is by comparison to reference ground truth (GT) binarizations.

In *Chapter 5*, The comparison results and experimental output images are then discussed with the success stories of the proposed methodology and also the error case.

In *Chapter 6*, an overall discussion of the work related to its advantage, shortcomings, and future scopes are also discussed and concluded.

## **CHAPTER 2: SURVEY**

### **2.1 OTSU'S METHOD**

Otsu method[43] is a global thresholding method that converts grayscale images into bi-level images. This technique divides the pixels into two classes one is foreground and the other is background. It chooses an optimal threshold that separates the image into two different classes. The threshold value is chosen such that the within-class variance is minimized and the between-class variance is maximized. The algorithm exhaustively searches for the threshold that minimizes the intra-class variance, defined as a weighted sum of variances of the two classes:

$$\sigma_w^2(t) = \omega_0(t)\sigma_0^2(t) + \omega_1(t)\sigma_1^2(t)$$

where weights  $\omega_0(t)$  and  $\omega_1(t)$  are the probabilities of the two classes separated by a threshold  $t$  and  $\sigma_0^2$  and  $\sigma_1^2$  are variances of these two classes.

Otsu method gives its best performance for only those images that have a clear bi-modal pattern. But neuronal and dendritic images normally don't have such a clear-cut pattern. Besides this, it does not perform well for images with uneven illumination and shadow.

### **2.2 NIBLACK'S METHOD**

Niblack's method [44] is a local thresholding method. In local thresholding methods, a different threshold value is calculated for each pixel. It uses local statistics of the image, such as variance, and range to calculate the threshold. In the Niblack method, a rectangular window is a slide over the grayscale image to estimate the threshold of the pixels. It uses the local statistics mean and standard deviation of the window to estimate the threshold. Threshold  $T(i,j)$  is estimated as shown in the below equation

$$T(i,j) = \mu + k \times \sigma$$

Where  $\mu$  represents the mean of the window and  $\sigma$  represents the standard deviation of the window. The value of  $k$  is a constant and it defines the size and quality of binarization. As this method is dependent upon the local features of the image, it gets affected by blank areas in the image and is also not efficient for the images with background noise.

## 2.3 SAUVOLA'S METHOD

The Sauvola method[42] is the improvement of the Niblack method. It is a local variance method that uses standard deviation. The threshold is calculated as shown in the equation:

$$T(i, j) = \mu \left[ 1 + k \left( \frac{\sigma}{R} - 1 \right) \right]$$

In the above equation,  $\mu$  is the mean and  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation of the window. Values suggested for  $k$  and  $R$  are 0.5 and 128. The window size and value of  $k$  will affect the quality of the image but  $R$  will have very little effect. This method is used for images having uneven illumination, light texture, and stained images. But Sauvola method thins the image after its application.

## 2.4 BERNSEN METHOD

Bernsen's method [45]uses the contrast of the image. Then threshold is estimated as the average of the highest and lowest intensity values in the window. The below equation calculates the local contrast of the window.

$$c(i, j) = I_{max} - I_{min}$$

The pixels are categorized as foreground or background by comparing the local contrast with a threshold value. The pixel will be classified as background if the local contrast is found to be less than the threshold and vice-versa. Bernsen's method doesn't perform well for the images having more complex backgrounds.

## 2.5 LOCAL MAXIMA AND MINIMA

This method[46] uses contrast which depends upon the local minimum and maximum. A normalization factor is introduced which will compensate for the effect of variation in the image background. Image contrast is calculated as shown in the below equation:

$$c(i, j) = \frac{I_{max} - I_{min}}{I_{max} + I_{min} + \epsilon}$$

High contrast image pixels are found from the contrast image. Then local thresholding is performed with a threshold value calculated from the found high contrast image pixels. It is not suitable for the bright text with a proper bright background.

## CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

In this section, the proposed algorithm for binarization is explained. We have implemented a simple and effective method for neuronal image binarization in the presence of various degradations of the dendritic spine.

### 3.1 PROPOSED METHOD

Here we have tried to improve ‘Sauvola’s Method’[42] as it was recommended[10] for binarizing images having uneven illumination, light texture, and stained images. By original Sauvola’s method, there are two parameters named  $k$  and  $R$  and their recommended values are  $k=0.5$  and  $R=128$ . But applying these values to neuronal and dendritic images we did not get the desired result. By experimenting and after lots of trial and error we decided to use  $k=0.1$  and  $R=90$ .

After overcoming the issue of setting the correct value of this  $k$  and  $R$ , we gave attention to the precision of the output images with respect to the prepared ground truth. For this, we use the n-star quality consensus method, which means we are taking various window sizes (from 5 to 17) and applying the improved Sauvola’s Method to each window and taking a decision from these based on whether at least 1 window to all 7 windows say that the particular pixel is white or black.

### 3.2 ALGORITHM

The algorithm, for applying our proposed method, is as follows –

Step 1. Start the method by taking an image as grayscale. Let  $img[i, j]$  be the matrix representation of the input grayscale image and  $dx$  and  $dy$  be the height and width of that image.

Step 2. For each pixel  $[i, j]$  we select the window from  $5 \times 5$  to  $17 \times 17$  respectively and for each window, we calculate the mean and standard deviation. Then we calculate the threshold value of that particular window by using the following Eq. 6-

$$T(i, j) = \mu \left[ 1 + k \left( \frac{\sigma}{R} - 1 \right) \right] \quad Eq. 1$$

where,  $\mu = \text{mean}$ ,  $\sigma = \text{standard deviation}$ ,  $k = 0.1$ ,  $R = 90$

Step 3. We compare the threshold value with the pixel value as follows-

If  $img[i, j] < T[i, j]$  then **return** black otherwise, white.

Step 4. We count, whether the pixel is black or white for each window from  $5 \times 5$  to  $17 \times 17$  and store the count value for that pixel.

Step 5. Now we are deciding between each pixel if any one of the windows says that the pixel is white (if **white count**  $\geq 1$ ), then  $img[i, j]$  is white otherwise black. Similarly, we decide on at least 2 white counts for all the 7 white counts respectively.

Step 6. Then we apply the filter to all those 7 raw images. The filter is for removing all the background white noises by inspecting whether that pixel is surrounded by 8 or 7 or 6 black pixels. Then we apply the morphological close operation on those filtered images by choosing a  $3 \times 3$  window.

Step 7. Now save the output images.

## **CHAPTER 4: INPUT DATA DESCRIPTION & GROUND**

### **TRUTH PREPARATION**

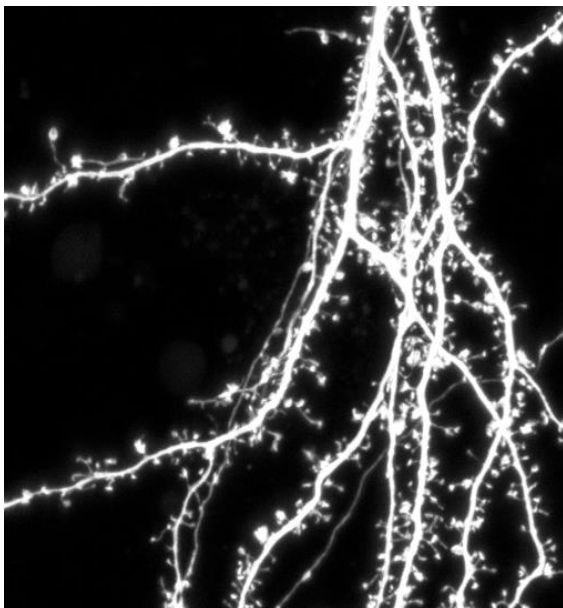
This study[41] was carried out in accordance with the Ethical Committee on Animal Research of the Nencki Institute, based on the Polish Act on Animal Welfare and other national laws that are in full agreement with the EU directive on animal experimentation. All effort was made to minimize animal suffering. Dissociated hippocampal cultures from postnatal day 0 Wistar rats were prepared as described below[48].

Brains were removed and hippocampi were isolated on ice in dissociation medium DM; 81.8 mM Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 30 mM K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 5.8mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.25 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 mM HEPES pH 7.4, 20 mM glucose; 1mM kynurenic acid; 0.001% Phenol Red. Next, hippocampi were incubated twice for 15 minutes at 37°C with 100 units of papain (Worthington, NY) in DM, then rinsed three times in DM and subsequently three times in plating medium [MEM, 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicilin-streptomycin]. Hippocampi were triturated in a plating medium, then centrifuged for 10 minutes at room temperature, at 208.5 g. The resulting cell pellet was suspended in a plating medium, cells were counted and plated at a density of 120,000 cells per 18-mm-diameter coverslip (Assistant, Germany) coated with 1 mg/ml poly-L-lysine (Sigma) and 2.5 µg/ml laminin (Roche). At 3 hours after plating medium was exchanged for maintenance medium (Neurobasal-A without Phenol Red, 2% B-27 supplement, 1% penicillin-streptomycin, 0.5 mM glutamine, 12.5µM glutamate, 25µM β-mercaptoethanol) and cells were kept at 37°C, under a humidified 5% CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. Cultured hippocampal neurons were transfected for 14 days in vitro (DIV) with Syn-GFP plasmid to visualize neuronal morphology. Live-cell imaging was performed on 20–22 DIV. Prior to the imaging, the cells were placed in an acquisition chamber with a controlled temperature (37 °C) and stable CO<sub>2</sub> (5%) concentration Dendritic segments that were decorated with dendritic spines were imaged at time 0, before stimulation, and then cLTP was induced by bath application of a mixture of 50µM forskolin, 50µM picrotoxin, and 0.1µM rolipram (each dissolved in dimethylsulfoxide [DMSO]) in maintenance media. Dendritic segments were imaged 10 min and 40 min after cLTP induction. Images were acquired using a Carl Zeiss LSM780 confocal microscope with a C-Apochromat 40×/1.2 NA water immersion objective using a 488 nm wavelength argon laser at 3% transmission and 70 nm/pixel resolution. A series of z-stacks were acquired at 0.2 µm steps. Nine different neurons from rat dissociated

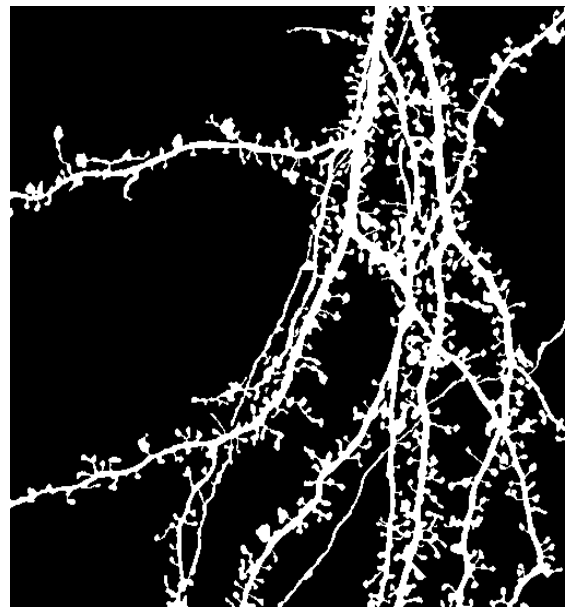
hippocampal cultures were imaged using a confocal light microscope, before and after chemically induced long-term potentiation (cLTP). All the images were captured twice, one at baseline (before cLTP stimulation) and the other after 10 minutes from cLTP induction. During image preprocessing, we took maximum intensity projection(MIP) of the confocal z-stack and perform Gaussian de-noising on the 2-D MIP image. The preprocessed MIP images at time 0 are labeled as T0 and the images captured after 10 minutes are labeled as T10. In this experiment, total of 459 dendritic spines are manually segmented and annotated by experimental biologists in both T0 and T10 images using an open-source image analysis software, Fiji [49] and ITKSnap[50].

In the first dataset, three different neurons from rat dissociated hippocampal cultures were imaged using a confocal light microscope, before and after cLTP induction. All of the images were captured three times: at baseline (before cLTP) and 10 and 40 min after cLTP induction. In the second dataset, three different neurons from rat dissociated hippocampal cultures were similarly imaged at baseline and 10 and 40 min after mock cLTP induction (i.e., only the solvent, DMSO, was used). During image pre-processing, we took the confocal z-stack and performed Gaussian de-noising on the 3-D image stack. The pre-processed images at time 0 are labelled as T0, and the images that were captured at 10 and 40 min are labeled as T10 and T40, respectively. The preparation of the brain slices was based on [51]. For the visualization of changes in the shape of dendritic spines, 1,1'-Dioctadecyl-3,3,3',3'-Tetramethylindocarbocyanine Perchlorate (DiI) staining in stressed and control mice was performed. The mice were anesthetized and the trans cardinal perfusion with 1,5% paraformaldehyde was performed. Then the brains were dissected and sliced using a vibratome. Slices (140 $\mu$ m thick) that contained the different brain structures recovered for at least 1.5 h at RT. Random dendrite labelling was performed using 1.6 $\mu$ m tungsten particles (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) coated with a propelled lipophilic fluorescent dye (DiI; Invitrogen) that were delivered to the cells by gene gun (Bio-Rad) bombardment. Images of dendrites were acquired under 561 nm fluorescent illumination using a confocal microscope (63 $\times$ objective, 1.4NA) at a pixel resolution of 1024  $\times$  1024 with a 3.43 zoom, resulting in a 0.07 $\mu$ m pixel size. A series of z-stacks were acquired at 0.2 $\mu$ m steps.

For *Ground Truth* preparation, we use Microsoft Paint. By putting the input grayscale image and a rough binarized version of that input grayscale image (obtained by applying normal Sauvola's method) side by side, we observed this pixel by pixel and correct the rough binarized image manually so that it can be used as a ground truth. While creating the ground truth we have taken care of all the disconnected spines, any sort of shape deformities, background noises, any unwanted lone pixels, etc.



(a)



(b)

Figure 2 A dendritic spine image (a) Grayscale image of the dendritic spine (b) ground truth of the same image prepared using Microsoft paint

## **CHAPTER 5: RESULTS**

After applying our method to these input images, we compare our result to the prepared ground truth. Here we use three parameters to judge our result, the metrics that are suitable for the comparison of the performance of different binarization algorithms are F-measure, Recall, and Precision respectively.

### **5.1 PRECISION**

Precision is true pixels extracted divided by total pixels extracted[52]. Precision is given as shown in the below equation:

$$Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

TP denotes true positive i.e. the pixels that are foreground in both ground truth and binarized image. FP denotes false positive i.e. pixels identified as foreground in the binarized image but are actually background in the ground truth image.

### **5.2 RECALL**

Recall is the true pixels extracted divided by the total number of true pixels[53]. Recall is given as shown in the below equation:

$$Recall = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

TP denotes true positive i.e. the pixels that are foreground in both ground truth and binarized image. FN denotes false-negative i.e. the pixels identified as background in the binarized image but are actually foreground in the ground truth image.

### **5.3 F- MEASURE**

F-Measure is given as shown in the below equation:

$$F - Measure = \frac{2 \times Precision \times Recall}{(Precision + Recall)}$$

F-Measure is the harmonic mean of Precision and Recall. Its value should be high for better results.

## **5.4 EXPERIMENTAL IMAGES & TABLE OF RESULTS**

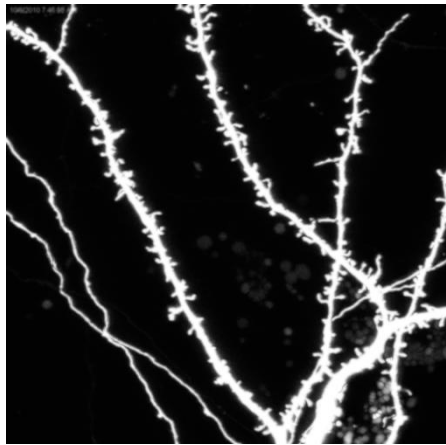
The result of the different algorithms is included for comparison in this section. Here we are including all the input and output images obtained through the various known method as well as through our proposed method along with the table of comparison of F-Measure, Recall, and Precision for quantitative evaluation [54].

### **5.4.1 COMPARISON OF THE DATASET WITH OTSU, NIBLACK, SAUVOLA, AND THE PROPOSED METHOD**

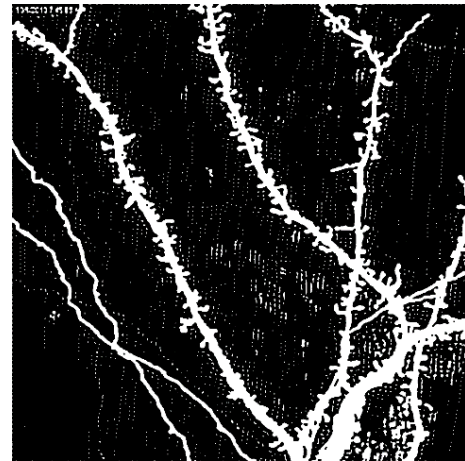
#### ***5.4.1.1 First Data sample0\_1 (1024×1024)***

We first take one of the 1024×1024 images (Fig: 2(a)) collected as mentioned in the data description chapter previously. Then we apply Otsu's method, Niblack's method, and Sauvola's method (Here in the figure we have shown a window size of 11 but for the experiment we have taken windows of variable sizes ranging from 5 to 17, the result is shown in the below table) and our proposed algorithm (Here in the figure we have shown quality consensus for at least 7 pixels but for the experiment, we have shown all consensus data) on the same image respectively.

In the proposed algorithm we have also applied the noise filter to get rid of unwanted lone white pixels from the output image.



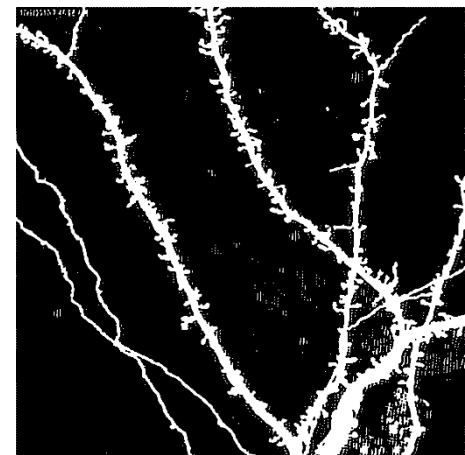
(a)



(d)



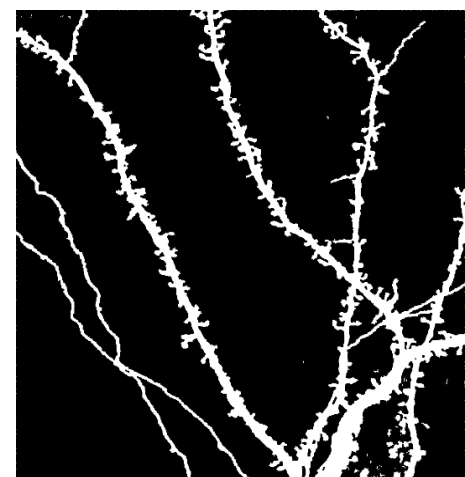
(b)



(e)



(c)



(f)

Figure 3: sample0\_1 (a) Input Grayscale Image, (b) Prepared Ground Truth, (c) Otsu's Method, (d) Niblack's Method, (e) Sauvola's Method with Window Size =11 (f) Sauvola Ensemble (Quality consensus- at least 7)

After storing all the outputs, we calculated the quality comparison parameter which is F-measure, Recall, and Precision using the formula stated previously. In the below table we can see the comparisons.

**Table 1: Comparison results of F-Measure, Recall, and Precision between Otsu, Niblack, Sauvola and proposed method for sample0\_1(1024×1024)**

| Method                         | F- Measure   | Recall | Precision    |
|--------------------------------|--------------|--------|--------------|
| Otsu                           | 0.891        | 0.992  | 0.808        |
| Niblack                        | 0.868        | 0.978  | 0.78         |
| Sauvola (WS = 5)               | 0.894        | 0.95   | 0.844        |
| Sauvola (WS = 7)               | 0.915        | 0.965  | 0.869        |
| Sauvola (WS = 9)               | 0.933        | 0.972  | 0.896        |
| Sauvola (WS = 11)              | 0.935        | 0.973  | 0.9          |
| Sauvola (WS = 13)              | 0.927        | 0.992  | 0.89         |
| Sauvola (WS = 15)              | 0.919        | 0.965  | 0.877        |
| Sauvola (WS = 17)              | 0.912        | 0.962  | 0.866        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 1) | 0.911        | 0.975  | 0.855        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 2) | 0.93         | 0.978  | 0.887        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 3) | 0.947        | 0.981  | 0.916        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 4) | 0.954        | 0.977  | 0.933        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 5) | <b>0.956</b> | 0.968  | 0.945        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 6) | 0.954        | 0.959  | 0.95         |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 7) | 0.95         | 0.946  | <b>0.954</b> |

Where *WS* means *Selected Window Size*, *QC  $\geq n$*  means *Quality Consensus with at least n window gives the decision*.

#### 5.4.1.2 Second Data sample0\_2 (1024×1024)

Similarly, as stated in the first dataset we have again performed the same task and shown the comparison of each method with figures and tables.

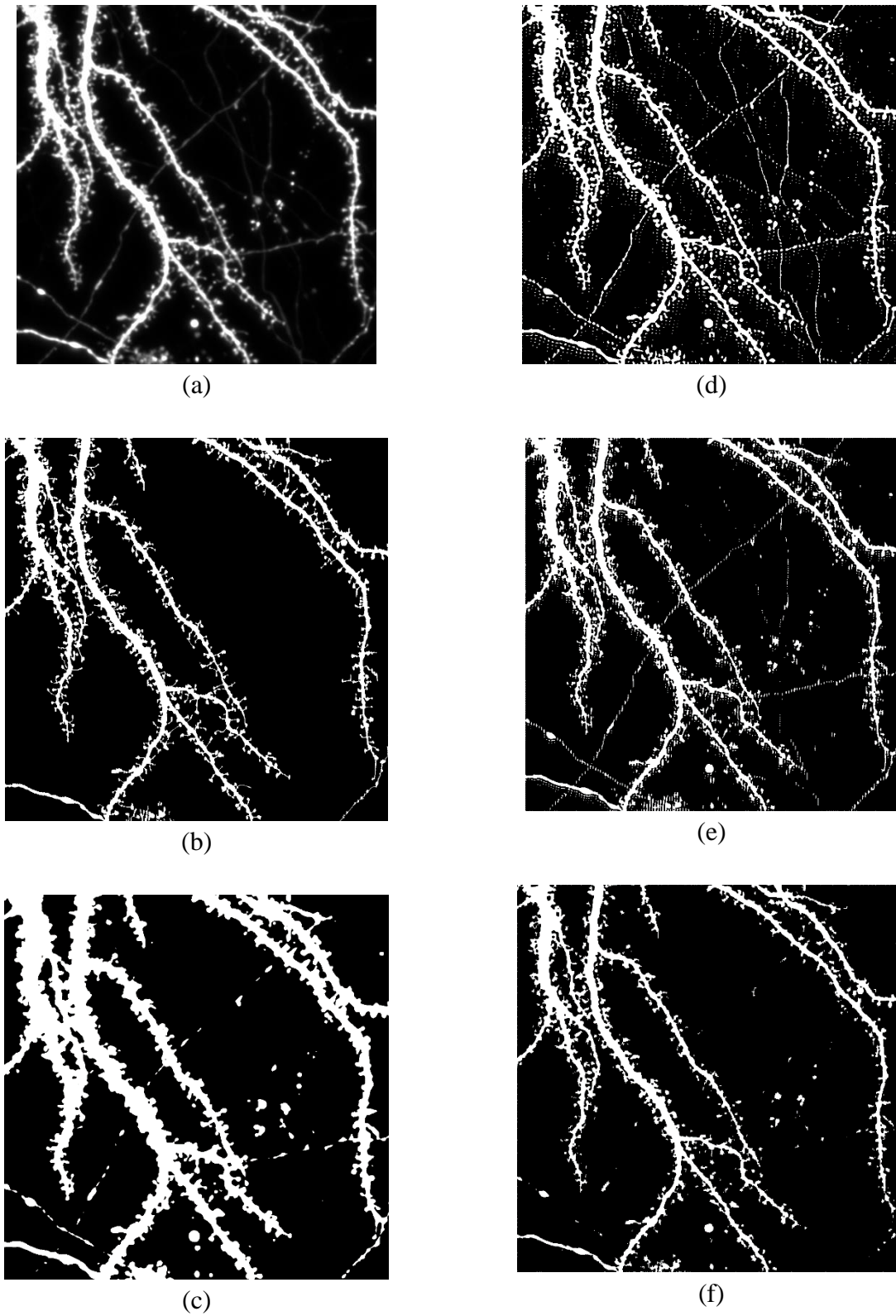


Figure 4: sample0\_2 (a) Input Grayscale Image, (b) Prepared Ground Truth, (c) Otsu's Method, (d) Niblack's Method, (e) Sauvola's Method with Window Size =11 (f) Sauvola Ensemble (Quality consensus- at least 7)

**Table 2: Comparison results of F-Measure, Recall, and Precision between Otsu, Niblack, Sauvola, and proposed method for sample0\_2 (1024×1024)**

| <b>Method</b>                  | <b>F- Measure</b> | <b>Recall</b> | <b>Precision</b> |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|---------------|------------------|
| Otsu                           | 0.719             | 0.989         | 0.565            |
| Niblack                        | 0.804             | 0.952         | 0.695            |
| Sauvola (WS = 5)               | 0.805             | 0.864         | 0.753            |
| Sauvola (WS = 7)               | 0.821             | 0.903         | 0.752            |
| Sauvola (WS = 9)               | 0.846             | 0.903         | 0.796            |
| Sauvola (WS = 11)              | 0.869             | 0.931         | 0.815            |
| Sauvola (WS = 13)              | 0.863             | 0.935         | 0.801            |
| Sauvola (WS = 15)              | 0.851             | 0.933         | 0.782            |
| Sauvola (WS = 17)              | 0.839             | 0.93          | 0.764            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 1) | 0.849             | 0.928         | 0.782            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 2) | 0.86              | 0.937         | 0.794            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 3) | 0.89              | 0.94          | 0.845            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 4) | <b>0.906</b>      | 0.939         | 0.875            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 5) | 0.904             | 0.918         | 0.89             |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 6) | 0.89              | 0.896         | 0.884            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 7) | 0.875             | 0.853         | <b>0.898</b>     |

Where *WS* means Selected Window Size, *QC*  $\geq n$  means Quality Consensus with at least n window gives the decision.

5.4.1.3 Third Data sample10\_3 (1024×1024)

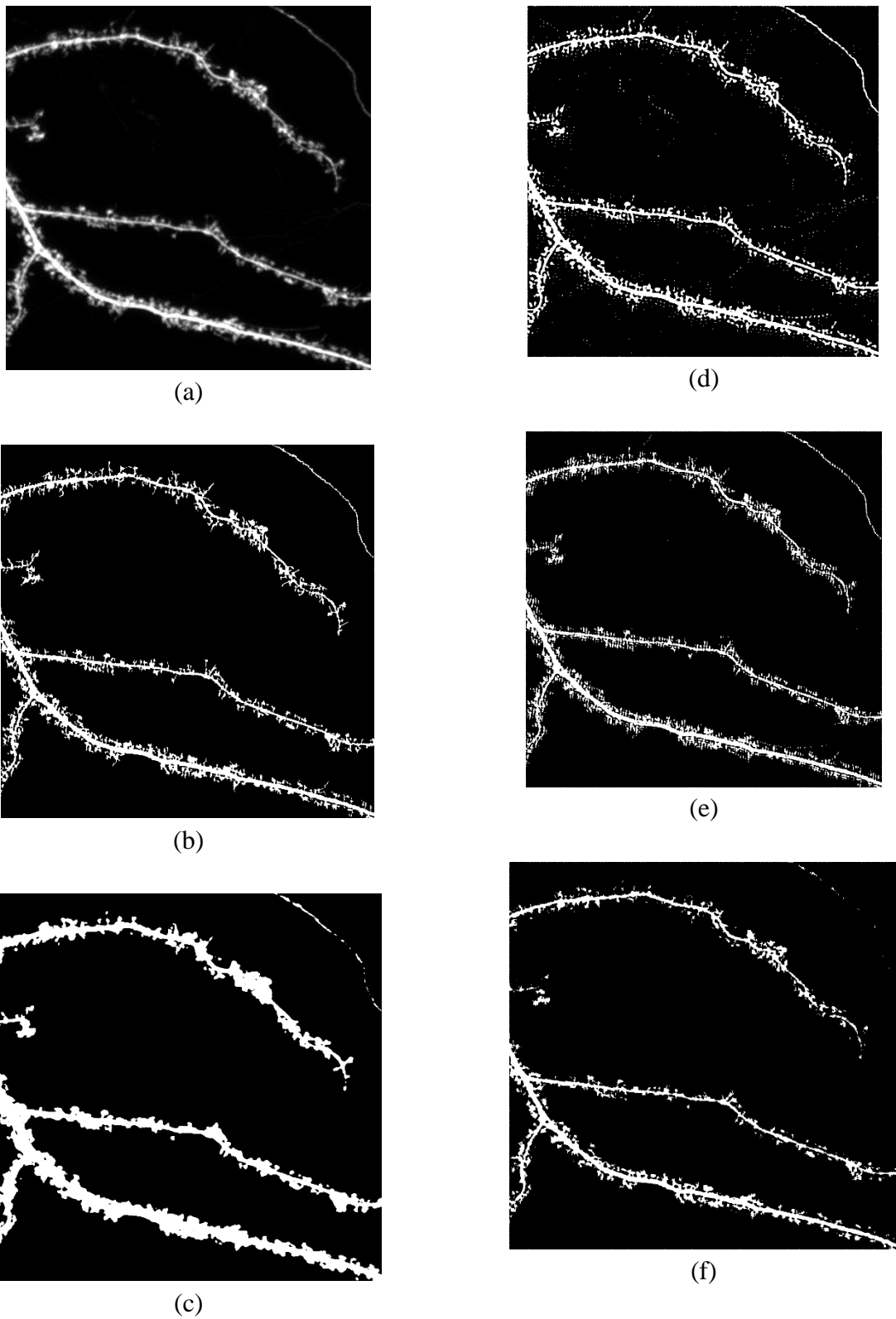


Figure 5:sample10\_3 (a) Input Grayscale Image, (b) Prepared Ground Truth, (c) Otsu's Method, (d) Niblack's Method, (e) Sauvola's Method with Window Size =11 (f) Sauvola Ensemble (Quality consensus- at least 7)

**Table 3: Comparison results of F-Measure, Recall, and Precision between Otsu, Niblack, Sauvola, and proposed method for sample10\_3(1024X1024)**

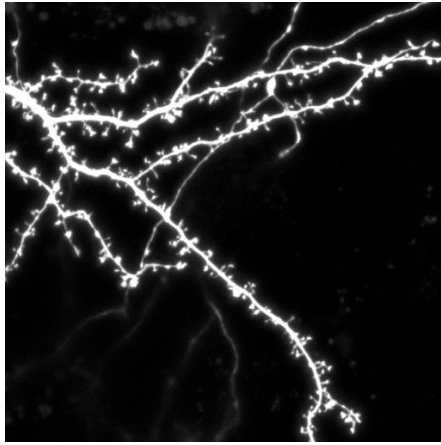
| <b>Method</b>                  | <b>F- Measure</b> | <b>Recall</b> | <b>Precision</b> |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|---------------|------------------|
| Otsu                           | 0.751             | 0.95          | 0.621            |
| Niblack                        | 0.829             | 0.907         | 0.763            |
| Sauvola (WS =5)                | 0.756             | 0.76          | 0.752            |
| Sauvola (WS =7)                | 0.792             | 0.837         | 0.751            |
| Sauvola (WS =9)                | 0.819             | 0.829         | 0.809            |
| Sauvola (WS =11)               | 0.886             | 0.892         | 0.881            |
| Sauvola (WS =13)               | 0.879             | 0.888         | 0.871            |
| Sauvola (WS =15)               | 0.865             | 0.879         | 0.851            |
| Sauvola (WS =17)               | 0.851             | 0.871         | 0.831            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 1) | 0.821             | 0.893         | 0.76             |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 2) | 0.857             | 0.902         | 0.817            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 3) | 0.899             | 0.909         | 0.89             |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 4) | <b>0.978</b>      | 0.965         | <b>0.991</b>     |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 5) | 0.889             | 0.86          | 0.919            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 6) | 0.856             | 0.815         | 0.901            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 7) | 0.816             | 0.737         | 0.915            |

Where *WS* means Selected Window Size, *QC*  $\geq$  *n* means Quality Consensus with at least *n* window gives the decision.

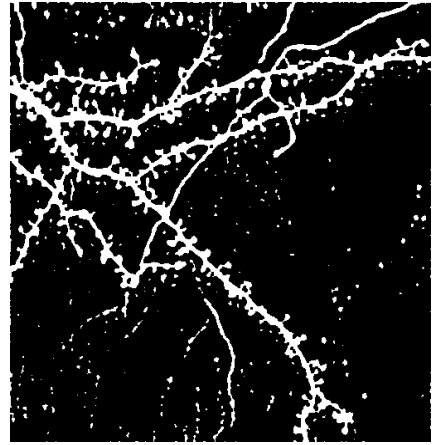
#### ***5.4.4 Forth Data sample1\_4 (508×512)***

Similarly, we do the same for 508X512 images (Fig: 4(a)) collected as mentioned in the data description chapter previously. Then we apply Otsu's method, Niblack's method, and Sauvola's method (Here in the figure we have shown a window size of 11 but for the experiment we have taken windows of variable sizes ranging from 5 to 17, the result is shown in the below table) and our proposed algorithm (Here in the figure we have shown quality consensus for at least 7 pixels but for the experiment, we have shown all consensus data) on the same image respectively.

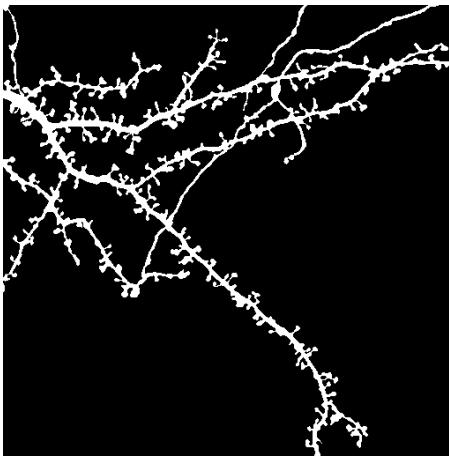
In the proposed algorithm we have also applied the noise filter to get rid of unwanted lone white pixels from the output image.



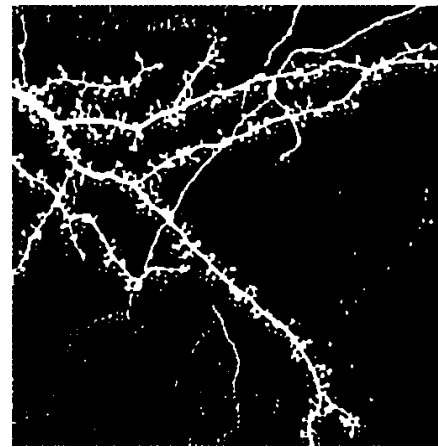
(a)



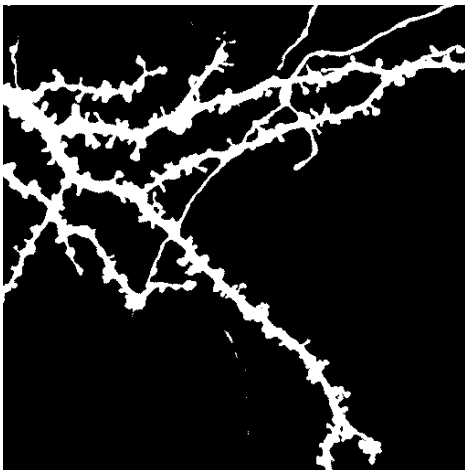
(d)



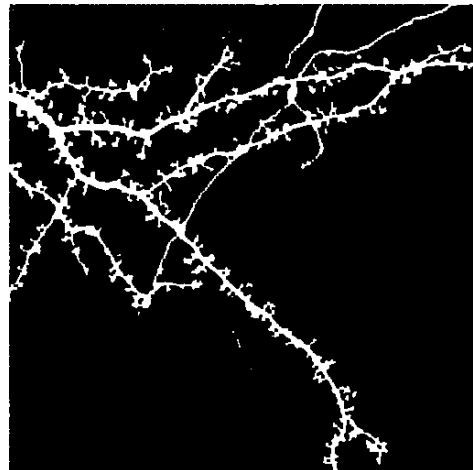
(b)



(e)



(c)



(f)

Figure 6:sample1\_4 (a) Input Grayscale Image, (b) Prepared Ground Truth, (c) Otsu's Method, (d) Niblack's Method, (e) Sauvola's Method with Window Size =11 (f) Sauvola Ensemble (Quality consensus- at least 7)

After storing all the outputs, we calculated the quality comparison parameter which is F-measure, Recall, and Precision using the formula stated previously. In the below table we can see the comparisons.

**Table 4: Comparison results of F-Measure, Recall, and Precision between Otsu, Niblack, Sauvola, and proposed method for sample1\_4 (508X512)**

| Method                         | F- Measure  | Recall | Precision    |
|--------------------------------|-------------|--------|--------------|
| Otsu                           | 0.801       | 0.976  | 0.679        |
| Niblack                        | 0.810       | 0.982  | 0.69         |
| Sauvola (WS =5)                | 0.852       | 0.968  | 0.761        |
| Sauvola (WS =7)                | 0.896       | 0.918  | 0.874        |
| Sauvola (WS =9)                | 0.908       | 0.952  | 0.867        |
| Sauvola (WS =11)               | 0.903       | 0.965  | 0.849        |
| Sauvola (WS =13)               | 0.886       | 0.97   | 0.815        |
| Sauvola (WS =15)               | 0.87        | 0.97   | 0.789        |
| Sauvola (WS =17)               | 0.852       | 0.968  | 0.761        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 1) | 0.872       | 0.969  | 0.793        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 2) | 0.891       | 0.976  | 0.819        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 3) | 0.903       | 0.975  | 0.841        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 4) | 0.92        | 0.968  | 0.876        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 5) | <b>0.93</b> | 0.952  | 0.908        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 6) | 0.924       | 0.919  | 0.929        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 7) | 0.912       | 0.878  | <b>0.948</b> |

Where *WS* means Selected Window Size, *QC*  $\geq$  *n* means Quality Consensus with at least *n* window gives the decision.

5.4.5 Fifth Data sample7\_1 (508×512)



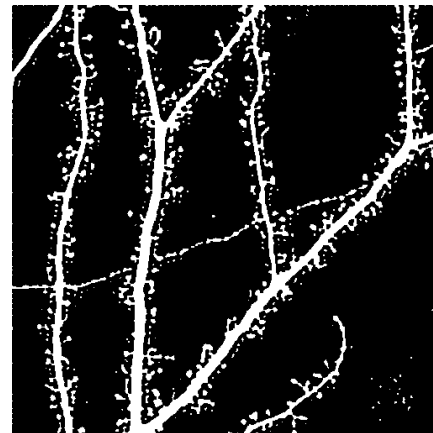
(a)



(d)



(b)



(e)



(c)



(f)

Figure 7:sample7\_1 (a) Input Grayscale Image, (b) Prepared Ground Truth, (c) Otsu's Method, (d) Niblack's Method, (e) Sauvola's Method with Window Size =11 (f) Sauvola Ensemble (Quality consensus- at least 7)

**Table 5: Comparison results of F-Measure, Recall, and Precision between Otsu, Niblack, Sauvola, and proposed method for sample7\_1(508X512)**

| <b>Method</b>                  | <b>F- Measure</b> | <b>Recall</b> | <b>Precision</b> |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|---------------|------------------|
| Otsu                           | 0.726             | 0.989         | 0.574            |
| Niblack                        | 0.838             | 0.956         | 0.746            |
| Sauvola (WS =5)                | 0.865             | 0.868         | 0.863            |
| Sauvola (WS =7)                | 0.882             | 0.91          | 0.855            |
| Sauvola (WS =9)                | 0.899             | 0.936         | 0.865            |
| Sauvola (WS =11)               | 0.902             | 0.949         | 0.858            |
| Sauvola (WS =13)               | 0.89              | 0.947         | 0.839            |
| Sauvola (WS =15)               | 0.877             | 0.943         | 0.82             |
| Sauvola (WS =17)               | 0.866             | 0.939         | 0.804            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 1) | 0.875             | 0.951         | 0.809            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 2) | 0.894             | 0.956         | 0.84             |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 3) | 0.909             | 0.955         | 0.867            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 4) | 0.92              | 0.949         | 0.893            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 5) | <b>0.924</b>      | 0.933         | 0.914            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 6) | 0.917             | 0.905         | 0.929            |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq$ 7) | 0.905             | 0.867         | <b>0.946</b>     |

Where WS means Selected Window Size, QC $\geq$ n means Quality Consensus with at least n window gives the decision.

Here we are including the table of average measurements of F-measure, Recall, and Precision of the above-mentioned five data set images based on the following methods:

**Table 6: Comparison results of average F-measure, Recall, and Precision between Otsu, Niblack, Sauvola, and proposed method for taking five datasets**

| Method                          | F- Measure   | Recall | Precision    |
|---------------------------------|--------------|--------|--------------|
| Otsu                            | 0.778        | 0.979  | 0.649        |
| Niblack                         | 0.829        | 0.955  | 0.735        |
| Sauvola (WS = 11)               | 0.899        | 0.942  | 0.861        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq 5$ ) | <b>0.921</b> | 0.926  | 0.915        |
| Sauvola Ensemble (QC $\geq 7$ ) | 0.892        | 0.856  | <b>0.932</b> |

After calculating the F-measure, recall, and precision it is obvious that the proposed method is giving more accurate results than Otsu's method, Niblack's method, and Sauvola's method. In our proposed algorithm we can see that quality consensus with at least 5 windows having the same decision value provides better F-measure than other algorithms and we can also see that the precision for the output images generated through the proposed method from the comparison that at least 7 windows with the same decision provide better precision. Also by using this method, the shape of the actual image is being preserved quite well.

Despite getting a good f-measure and better precision, our proposed method can't give the output images where all the spine and dendritic mushrooms are connected. After observing it is clear that there exist a few spines that are not connected to the dendrite. Also, our proposed algorithm and implemented python code are time-consuming i.e., the time complexity is a bit high. These methods are often slow since the computation of image features from the local neighbourhood is to be done for each image pixel[15].

## CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

This thesis introduces an improved version of Sauvola's method suitable for binarizing neuronal and dendritic images. Our proposed method is completely automated from reading the grayscale image to storing the output image.

Here we are selecting the window starting from  $5 \times 5$  to  $17 \times 17$  for local thresholding and then decide whether the pixel is going to be white or black according to the quality consensus starting from at least 1 window to all the 7 windows. After binarizing through the proposed method, we have seen that the precision of the output images is increasing depending on how many windows we are going to be considered as shown in the previous chapter. Also, the overall quality and shape of the images are kept intact as shown in the (Fig:7).

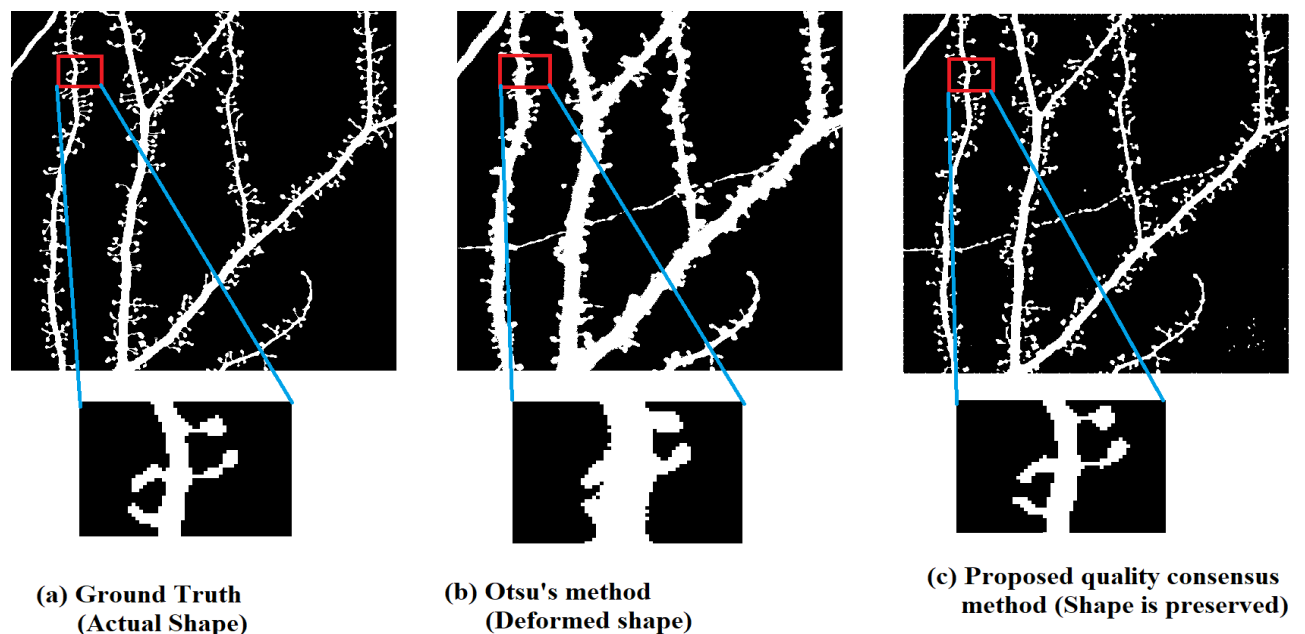


Figure 8: Comparison of a grayscale image, ground truth image, and different output of that particular image for analysing the shape intact quality of the proposed method

Besides these, after applying the morphological close operation on a  $3 \times 3$  neighbourhood we have seen that a lot of disconnected spine's necks get connected to the dendrite. Here (Fig:8) we are including such an output image's detailed view.

Although we are getting an overall good result, there are still exist a few disconnected spines which can't be joined (Fig: 9) to the dendrite by using a higher neighbourhood considering a morphological closing operation. Besides these, we have prepared only 10 ground truth images because we don't have enough resources.

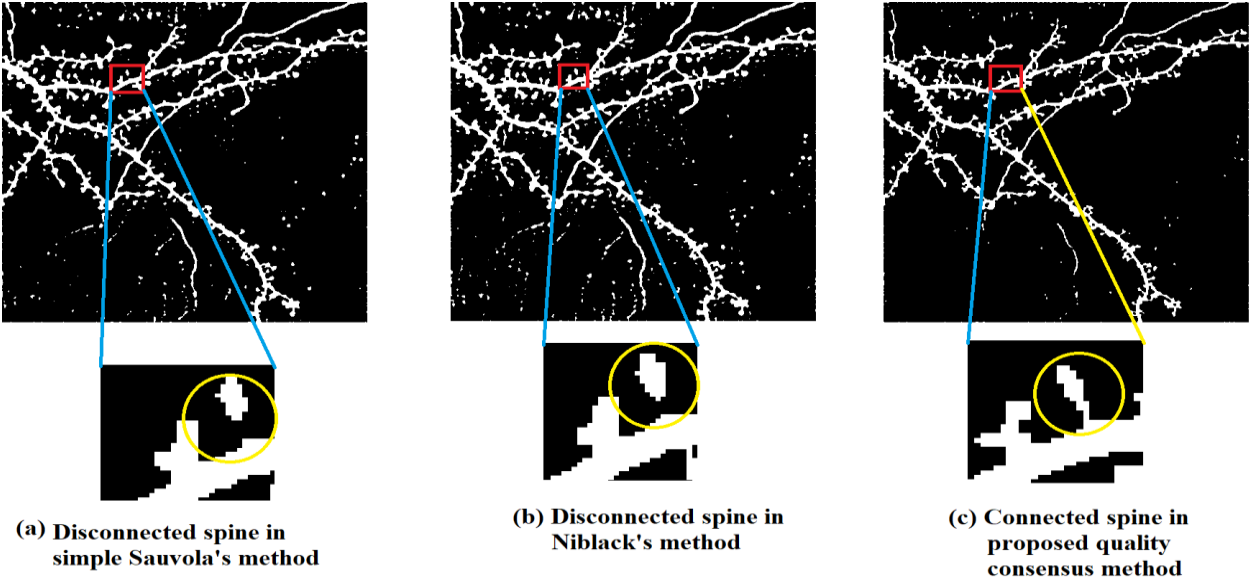


Figure 9: Connected Spines with the dendrite after binarization and closing operation of this image by our proposed method.

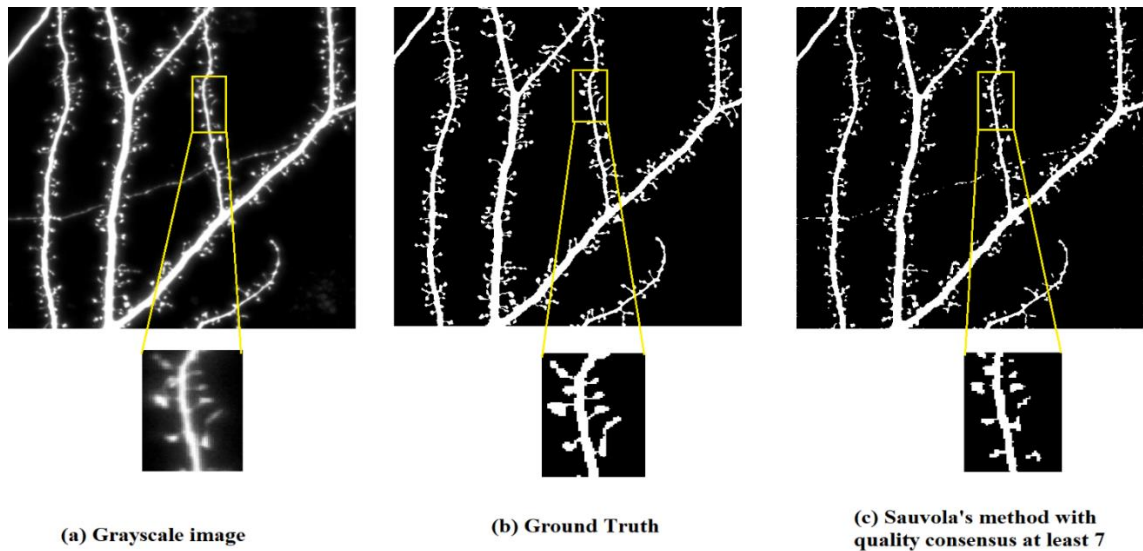


Figure 10: Disconnected Spines from the dendrite after binarization of this image by our proposed method.

By altering the process of choosing the window from the images, this work can be expanded in the future. We can choose the window using quality consensus after using hierarchical quad-tree partitioning, quin tree partitioning, and C.G.-based partitioning. Along with this, the loops utilised here can be examined to reduce the temporal complexity of the implemented Python code and increase performance. Additionally, more real-world data can be collected for better comparisons that would aid in evaluating the suggested approach.

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