Computation of 2D Discrete Geometric Moments on Quadtrees

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Abstract: We address the problem of computing discrete geometric moments on 2D binary images encoded in the quadtree data structure. We do this by precomputing central moments of the squares of side length 2^k , and using the connection between ordinary and central moments. Compared with the state of the art for images encoded as quadtrees, our method considerably improves the efficiency of moment computation.

1 INTRODUCTION

Moments have been used in a wide spectrum of application domains, ranging from engineering and mechanics to image processing and pattern recognition, as they form a basis for defining shape descriptors invariant to similarity transformations (Hu, 1962). Moments computation is a well-studied field with long history (Flusser et al., 2016), with many existing algorithms based on different computational paradigms and image data structures. We propose another such algorithm, based on the quadtree data structure, which represents images of size $2^n \times 2^n$ as the union of squares of side length 2^k , $0 \le k \le n$. The algorithm precomputes the moments of such squares centered at the origin, and uses the well known connection between the ordinary and central moments to compute the moments of the object encoded in the image.

2 BACKGROUND NOTIONS

We consider a binary 2D world, where the object of interest O is black, and the background is white. This world can be continuous or digital. In the latter case, the world is an image, i.e., a raster of pixels, each either black or white.

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2.1 Geometric (Cartesian) Moments

For an object O in the continuous world, its geometric (p,q)-moment $m_{p,q}(O)$ of order p+q is defined as

$$m_{p,q}(O) = \int_{O} x^p y^q dx dy.$$

For a digital object *O*, the geometric moment is usually approximated by

$$m_{p,q}(O) = \sum_{(i,j)\in O} i^p j^q.$$
 (1)

The centroid (barycenter) of *O* is the point $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = (m_{1,0}/m_{0,0}, m_{0,1}/m_{0,0})$. Central moments are defined by

$$\mu_{p,q}(O) = \int_{O} (x - \bar{x})^p (y - \bar{y})^q dx dy.$$

and are approximated by

$$\mu_{p,q}(O) = \sum_{(i,j)\in O} (i-\bar{x})^p (j-\bar{y})^q.$$
 (2)

Central moments (of order up to three) can be expressed through ordinary moments, e.g., as

$$\mu_{0,0} = m_{0,0}$$

$$\mu_{1,0} = 0$$

$$\mu_{2,0} = m_{2,0} - \bar{x}m_{1,0}$$

$$\mu_{3,0} = m_{3,0} - 3\bar{x}m_{2,0} + 2\bar{x}^2m_{1,0}$$

$$\mu_{0,1} = 0$$

$$\mu_{1,1} = m_{1,1} - \bar{y}m_{1,0} = m_{1,1} - \bar{x}m_{0,1}$$

$$\mu_{2,1} = m_{2,1} - 2\bar{x}m_{1,1} - \bar{y}m_{2,0} + 2\bar{x}^2m_{0,1}$$

$$\mu_{0,2} = m_{0,2} - \bar{y}m_{0,1}$$

$$\mu_{1,2} = m_{1,2} - 2\bar{y}m_{1,1} - \bar{x}m_{0,2} + 2\bar{y}^2m_{1,0}$$

$$\mu_{0,3} = m_{0,3} - 3\bar{y}m_{0,2} + 2\bar{y}^2m_{0,1}$$
(3)

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The inverse expressions are

$$m_{0,0} = \mu_{0,0}$$

$$m_{1,0} = \bar{x}m_{0,0}$$

$$m_{2,0} = \mu_{2,0} + \bar{x}m_{1,0}$$

$$m_{3,0} = \mu_{3,0} + 3\bar{x}m_{2,0} - 2\bar{x}^2m_{1,0}$$

$$m_{0,1} = \bar{y}m_{0,0}$$

$$m_{1,1} = \mu_{1,1} + \bar{y}m_{1,0} = \mu_{1,1} + \bar{x}m_{0,1}$$

$$m_{2,1} = \mu_{2,1} + 2\bar{x}m_{1,1} + \bar{y}m_{2,0} - 2\bar{x}^2m_{0,1}$$

$$m_{0,2} = \mu_{0,2} + \bar{y}m_{0,1}$$

$$m_{1,2} = \mu_{1,2} + 2\bar{y}m_{1,1} + \bar{x}m_{0,2} - 2\bar{y}^2m_{1,0}$$

$$m_{0,3} = \mu_{0,3} + 3\bar{y}m_{0,2} + 2\bar{y}^2m_{0,1}$$
(4)

2.2 Quadtrees

A quadtree (Samet, 1990) provides a compact hierarchical representation of an image. Assuming a square image of $2^n \times 2^n$ pixels for some natural *n*, a quadtree is a quaternary tree inductively defined as follows:

- if all pixels have the same color, the tree consists of a single node labelled with that color;
- otherwise the tree consists of a root node and four children, where each child is the quadtree representation of one of the four quadrants obtained by cutting the given image into half horizontally and vertically.

The worst case size for a quadtree occurs in a chessboard image, where the tree consists of n + 1 full levels, the last level having $2^n \times 2^n$ leaves (one for each pixel of the image). Instead, if the image presents large areas of uniform color, the quadtree may be much more compact than the original image. Figure 1 shows a quadtree representation of an image of size 8×8 .

Although a quadtree can be constructed top-down following the inductive definition, the efficient construction algorithm (Samet, 1990) works bottom-up by merging groups of four pixels (in the first iteration) or of four nodes (in the other ones) having the same color.

3 RELATED WORK

The algorithms for the computation of the geometric moments of 2D binary objects can broadly be classified as decomposition-based and boundary-based (Flusser et al., 2016). The algorithms in the first class decompose the image into non-overlapping simple shapes (rectangles) for which the moment computation is straightforward. The algorithms in the second class consider only the border black pixels (adjacent to a white pixel). We will review only decomposition based algorithms, as our algorithm falls into this category.

Decomposition-based algorithms algorithms work on a decomposition of the image into runs, rectangles or squares. A run (a maximal set of contiguous black pixels in one row of the image) is a rectangle with one side of length 1, and a square is a rectangle of equal sides. The algorithms are either based on a specific data structure used to encode the image (quadtree, run length or contour chain code), or they compute a decomposition of the image into rectangles or squares in a preprocessing step.

Shneier (Shneier, 1981) proposed an algorithm for computation of $m_{1,0}$ and $m_{0,1}$, based on the quadtree representation of the image. For each block, the coordinates of upper left pixel are determined (the size of the block is given by its level in the tree) and the moments of black blocks (leaves) are computed in O(1) time. Worst-case time complexity is $O(2^{2n})$ for chessboard image of size $2^n \times 2^n$. No discussion on other values of *p* and *q* has been provided.

Wu et al. (Wu et al., 2001) proposed an algorithm for computing moments of order up to three on a quadtree decomposition of the image. A detailed description of a parallel implementation is also given.

Zakaria et al. (Zakaria et al., 1987) proposed a method for computing the discrete low-order moments based on run-length encoding of a horizontally convex image (with at most one run in each row). Li (Li, 1993) generalized the algorithm by Zakaria et al. to the computation of low-order moments of nonconvex objects (Flusser and Suk, 1999). Spiliotis and Mertzios (Spiliotis and Mertzios, 1996; Spiliotis and Mertzios, 1998) proposed another extension of the algorithm of Zakaria et al., which first decomposes an image into disjoint rectangular blocks by merging consecutive runs of equal spread into rectangles and then computes the discrete moments of arbitrary order on the rectangles.

Sossa-Azuela et al. (Sossa-Azuela et al., 2001) proposed to use morphological erosion to decompose the image into a set of non-overlapping squares, whose moments are computed through closed form formulas. The squares are of odd side length, because the structuring element is of size 3×3 (but even side length could be obtained by using structuring element of size 2×2 (Suk and Flusser, 2010)). Many iterations of morphological erosion are needed to find all the squares of the decomposition, from the largest to the smallest ones (equal to one pixel). Sossa-Azuela and Flusser (Sossa-Azuela and Flusser, 2004) extended the above decomposition method to the computation of continuous moments.

Suk and Flusser (Suk and Flusser, 2010) proposed



Figure 1: An example of an image quadtree: the image decomposition (left) and the tree (right). Leaf nodes are black or white, internal nodes are called gray and shown with a pattern in the figure.

to use the distance transform instead of the morphological erosion to obtain the decomposition of the image into squares.

4 THE NEW ALGORITHM

We suppose that the object O is contained in an image of size $2^n \times 2^n$ and encoded in a quadtree. If the image has a different size, it is completed with white (i.e., background) pixels to the nearest larger power of two. Therefore, O is a set of pixels and the leaves in the quadtree representing it are (black or white) squares of side equal to 2^k with $0 < k \le n$ or single pixels for k = 0.

4.1 Idea of the Method

The algorithm precomputes the moments of axisaligned black squares with edges equal to a power of two and centered in (0,0). Later, such moments will be used to obtain the moments of the black leaves of the quadtrees with a limited number of operations.

For a square *S* of (even) size $2^k \times 2^k$, $1 \le k \le n$, centered at the origin, $\mu_{p,q}(S) = m_{p,q}(S)$, and

$$m_{p,q}(S) = \sum_{i=-2^{k-1}}^{2^{k-1}-1} (i+\frac{1}{2})^p \sum_{j=-2^{k-1}}^{2^{k-1}-1} (j+\frac{1}{2})^q$$
(5)

and thus its moments of order p + q, with odd p or q, are equal to 0. Therefore only (central) moments $\mu_{0,0}, \mu_{0,2}$ and $\mu_{2,0}$ must be computed, with $\mu_{0,2} = \mu_{2,0}$ because of the symmetry of *S* w.r.t. the *x*- and *y*-axes.

Given any other square *R* with same side length as *S* and centered at any point (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) , the moments of *R* can be computed from its central moments, which are the same as the central moments of *S*, by using Formulas (4).

Taking into account that all central moments, with the exception of $\mu_{0.0}, \mu_{2.0}, \mu_{0.2}$, are null, the Formulas

(4) for the square *R* can be rewritten as:

$$m_{0,0} = \mu_{0,0}$$

$$m_{1,0} = \bar{x}m_{0,0}$$

$$m_{2,0} = \mu_{2,0} + \bar{x}m_{1,0}$$

$$m_{3,0} = 3\bar{x}m_{2,0} - 2\bar{x}^2m_{1,0}$$

$$m_{0,1} = \bar{y}m_{0,0}$$

$$m_{1,1} = \bar{y}m_{1,0}$$

$$m_{2,1} = \bar{y}m_{2,0}$$

$$m_{0,2} = \mu_{0,2} + \bar{y}m_{0,1}$$

$$m_{1,2} = \bar{x}m_{0,2}$$

$$m_{0,3} = 3\bar{y}m_{0,2} - 2\bar{y}^2m_{0,1}$$
(6)

4.2 Algorithm Description

The algorithm computes all the moments $m_{p,q}$ of the object *O* represented in the image encoded in the quadtree, for $p+q \leq 3$. It consists of three stages:

- 1. Compute all the central moments $\mu_{0,0}$ and $\mu_{0,2} = \mu_{2,0}$ for all the squares having side length equal to $1, 2, 4, \dots 2^n$ (i.e., for all the possible sizes of the quadtree nodes). Such values are stored in a table for later use.
- 2. Initialize all the moments of the object O to zero.
- 3. Traverse the quadtree. For each black node, covering a square *R*, compute the moments of the node from the central moments computed in step 1, by using the formulas (6). The moments of the node are added to the current moments.
- 4. At the end of the quadtree traversal, the moments of the object *O* have been computed.

5 EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

This section presents the experiments performed to compare our new algorithm with the state of the art. Our comparison is restricted to decompositionbased algorithms for computing image moments and, among them, to the ones using general-purpose decompositions. The quadtree, as well as the run-length encoding, are general compression schemes for images, so it is likely that an input image is already given in this format. Other decompositions (such as those from morphological erosion or distance transform) do not correspond to an image format, and they should be constructed ad-hoc for moment computation. Therefore, they are not considered in this comparison. Some preliminary experiments also showed that the quadtree-based approach is faster than the one based on runs, so we concentrate our comparison on methods working with quadtrees.

We compared our new algorithm with the algorithm by Wu et al. (Wu et al., 2001), the only one in the literature using a quadtree. We used a sequential implementation of both algorithms.

Both algorithms have been implemented in Python and share the same module for the management of the quadtree. They differ in the main procedure used for computing the moments. The used quadtree implementation maintains a list of all the leaves, therefore it is not necessary to descend the tree from the root in order to process all the leaves. The programs were run on a PC equipped with an Intel CPU i7-2600K CPU at 3.4 Gigahertz with 32 Gigabytes of RAM.

We tested algorithms the on 80 imthe MPEG7 set available ages from at https://dabi.temple.edu/external/shape/ MPEG7/MPEG7dataset.zip and featuring different object shapes and sizes. This set contains 70 classes of object types with 20 elements each. We selected the first four elements of twenty classes. Figure 2 shows an element for each selected class.

Note that each class contains semantically the same object (e.g., an apple or a camel), but the image sizes, the size of the object inside the image, the thickness of the set of black pixels, may be very different. The given images present a white object on a black background, and the colors have been inverted to meet our convention. Figure 3 shows the four selected images in the "beetle" class.

The total running time of the two algorithms has the same order of magnitude, and ranges from 0.04 to to 12.7 seconds depending on the size of the image and on the size of the object contained in the image. As Python is an interpreted language, it is easy to obtain the running time of each executed function separately. The execution time is dominated by the construction of the quadtree, which takes from 87% to 99% of the total time. Figure 4 shows the plot of the times for building the quadtree (the graph of the total running time would be almost superimposed to this). In the figure we note three clusters of running times around 0.6, 3 and 12 seconds, respectively. These clusters correspond to three different ranges of image sizes. For example, among the four images of class "beetle" (see Figure 3), beetle-1 takes 12.171 seconds (first cluster from top), beetle-2 and beetle-4 take 2.886 and 2.882 seconds, respectively (second cluster), and beetle-3 takes 0.637 seconds (third cluster).

Disregarding the time for building the quadtree, the remaining time is the one actually used for computing the moments, and is specific of each of the two algorithms. Figure 5 provides a graphic comparison of the times for computing the moments by our algorithm (on the x-axis) and the algorithm by Wu et al. (on the y-axis). Each point corresponds to a test image. Our algorithm is faster where the point lies over the bisector of the first quadrant. This happens for all the test images, the ratio of our execution time over that by Wu et. al. being on average 36% and at most 69%. Indeed in Figure 5 we find three clusters of dots, all aligned on a line of the form y = cx + dwhere $c \simeq 5$ and d is different in each cluster. As the clusters of Figure 4, also these clusters correspond to the three different ranges of image sizes. Finally, we note that the time for computing the central moments of squares in our algorithm is negligible (less than one millisecond).

6 SUMMARY AND FUTURE WORK

We proposed an algorithm for the computation of discrete geometric moments of 2D binary objects encoded in the quadtree data structure. It is based on precomputing the moments of the squares centered at the origin, and using the connection between central and ordinary moments to compute the moments of the given object. Our algorithm improves the running time of the previous quadtree-based algorithm for moments computation by Wu et al. (Wu et al., 2001) in its sequential form. Both the construction of the quadtree and the computation of the moments from it could benefit from a parallel implementation, as in Wu et al. (Wu et al., 2001).

This work has several possible extensions. It can be extended to the computation of geometric moments of

- 3D objects encoded in the octree data structure;
- greyscale images by decomposing the image into a binary image for each grey level, as done in (Pa-pakostas et al., 2008);



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Figure 4: Running times for building the quadtree on the 80 test images, sorted from the one giving the least to the one giving the largest time. This is a common task in both considered algorithms.



Figure 5: Comparison of running times for computing the moments (total running time minus quadtree construction). The *x*-axis represents the running time of our algorithm and the *y*-axis that of the algorithm by Wu et al.

• moments of higher order by taking into account that, for any p,q, we can express each $\mu_{p,q}$ through $m_{i,j}, 0 \le i \le p, 0 \le j \le q$ as

$$\mu_{p,q} = \sum_{i=0}^{p} \sum_{j=0}^{q} {p \choose i} {q \choose j} m_{1,0}^{p-i} m_{0,1}^{q-j} (-m_{0,0})^{p+q-i-j} m_{i,j}$$

and conversely
$$m_{p,q} = \sum_{i=0}^{p} \sum_{j=0}^{q} {p \choose i} {q \choose j} m_{1,0}^{p-i} m_{0,1}^{q-j} m_{0,0}^{p+q-i-j} \mu_{i,j}.$$

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