Graph cut based image segmentation with connectivity priors

Technical report

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Abstract

Graph cut is a popular technique for interactive image segmentation. However, it has certain shortcomings. In particular, graph cut has problems with segmenting thin elongated objects due to the "shrinking bias". To overcome this problem, we propose to impose an additional connectivity prior, which is a very natural assumption about objects. We formulate several versions of the connectivity constraint and show that the corresponding optimization problems are all NP-hard.

For some of these versions we propose two optimization algorithms: (i) a practical heuristic technique which we call DijkstraGC, and (ii) a slow method based on problem decomposition which provides a lower bound on the problem. We use the second technique to verify that for some practical examples DijkstraGC is able to find the global minimum.

1. Introduction

The task of interactive image segmentation has attracted a significant attention in recent years [10, 3, 18, 6, 24, 21]. The ultimate goal is to extract an object with as few user interactions as possible. It is widely accepted that some prior on segmentations is needed for achieving this goal. Different priors have a preference towards different types of shapes, as we discuss next.

Graph cut A very popular approach, which we also use in this paper, is based on graph cut [7, 3, 18]. It minimizes an energy function consisting of a data term (computed using color likelihoods of foreground and background) and a spatial coherency term. The latter term is the length of the boundary modulated with the contrast in the image, therefore minimizing the energy with this term has a bias towards shorter boundaries. (This behavior is sometimes referred to as the "shrinking bias".) In particular, it is hard for the graph cut approach to segment thin elongated structures. Consider

Fig. 1. First the user constrains some pixels to be fore- and background using brushes (a). The segmentation by graph cut (b) cuts off some of the legs of the insect. If we reduce the influence of the coherency term then the legs get segmented but the overall quality of the the segmentation is decreased (c). This shows the trade-off between data terms and regularization, and it indicates that some form of coherency is crucial.

Alternative segmentation models One approach to overcome the shrinking bias is to add flux of some vector field to the model [10, 25, 12, 15]. It has been shown to be effective for segmenting thin objects such as blood vessels in grayscale images [25]. The vector field was taken as the image gradient, which corresponds to the assumption that the object is bright and the background is dark. However, extending this approach to arbitrary color images, which is the scenario considered in this paper, may be challenging. To our knowledge it was not addressed so far. The difficulty here is choosing the vector at each point and the sign of this vector. Imperfect vector field might lower the segmentation quality. The issue of choosing the sign can be overcome in the level set framework [12], but at the expense of losing global optimality.

One possible method to integrate flux into segmentation is to optimize the ratio of flux over boundary length [10, 16]. Thus, we are looking for the boundary with the highest average contrast. Arguably, this model has no bias towards any particular shape [10, 16]. However, the issue of choosing a good vector field for color images remains.

Other interesting approaches include the method in [21] which imposes a prior on the curvature of the boundary, spectral techniques [22] and the random walker algorithm [6]; results in [24] indicate that this method is slightly more robust towards the shrinking bias.

Our approach In this paper we propose a very different way to solve the task of segmenting challenging objects with very thin, elongated parts. We build the coherency prior in form of an **explicit connectivity prior** into the

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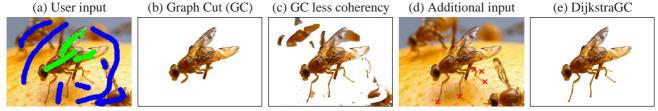


Figure 1. Image segmentation using graph cut with standard (b) and reduced coherency (c) based on input (a). Our new DijkstraGC method (e) with additional user input (d).

model. Assume that the user has already segmented a part of the object using graph cut [18] as in Fig. 1(b). In our interactive framework the user has to click only those pixels which must be connected to the main object. As Fig. 1(d) shows a few clicks are sufficient to obtain a satisfying result (e). We believe that this is a new and very powerful user interface for segmenting challenging objects.

We consider several versions of the connectivity constraint. Unfortunately, the corresponding optimization problems are all NP-hard, as we show. To enable the interface shown in Fig. 1 we propose a heuristic algorithm which we call *DijkstraGC*. On an abstract level it merges the Dijkstra algorithm and graph cut. Note that Dijkstra-like methods have already been used for extracting thin objects such as blood vessels [5], although without an explicit segmentation. (A fast marching technique was used in [5], which can be viewed as a continuous analogue of the Dijkstra algorithm for discrete graphs.) The key feature of our method that distinguishes it from [5] is the addition of the graph cut component. This allows to explicitly use the MAP-MRF formulation which proved to be very successful [3, 18].

We show that on some practical examples DijkstraGC is able to find the global minimum. In order to verify this, we developed a second (slow) technique based on *dual decomposition*, which provides a lower bound on the problem.

Related work Connectivity is automatically enforced in the classical "snakes" approach [11], since the segmentation is represented by a simple closed contour. Han et al. [9] proposed a topology preserving level set method which allows to specify more general topologies. A disadvantage of both techniques is that the objective is optimized via gradient descent, which can easily get stuck in a local minimum. Recently, Zeng et al. [28] followed a similar approach with a discrete graph-based formulation. After posing the problem the authors of [28] proved an NP-hardness result and proposed to modify the maxflow algorithm in [4] so that the topology of the segmentation is preserved. However, despite our best effort we were unable to compare it to our approach for the task of segmenting thin objects. (Note,

results in [28] are shown for very different types of objects.)

2. Problem formulation

We use an energy function of the form which is standard for graph cut based image segmentation approaches [3, 18]:

$$E(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{V}} E_p(x_p) + \sum_{(p,q) \in \mathcal{E}} E_{pq}(x_p, x_q)$$
 (1)

Here $(\mathcal{V},\mathcal{E})$ is an undirected graph whose nodes correspond to pixels. $x_p \in \{0,1\}$ is the segmentation label of pixel p, where 0 and 1 correspond to the background and the foreground, respectively. We assume that the pairwise terms E_{pq} are submodular, i.e. $E_{pq}(0,0) + E_{pq}(1,1) \leq E_{pq}(0,1) + E_{pq}(1,0)$.

As stated in the introduction, our goal is to minimize function E(x) under certain connectivity constraints on the segmentation x. Three possible constraints are formulated below. In all of them we assume that we are given an undirected graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{F})$ defining the "connectivity" relations between nodes in \mathcal{V} . This graph can be different from the graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ defining the structure of function E(x) in eq. (1). (In our experiments we usually take $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ to be an 8-connected 2D grid graph and $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{F})$ to be 4-connected.)

Perhaps, the most natural connectivity constraint is the following:

C0 The set [x] corresponding to segmentation x must form a single connected component in the graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{F})$.

(We denoted [x] to be the set of nodes with label 1, i.e. $[x] = \{p \in \mathcal{V} \mid x_p = 1\}$.) This constraint seems to be very useful for solving problems discussed in the introduction. However, minimizing function (1) under the constraint **C0** appears to be a very challenging task. This problem can be shown to be NP-hard even if function (1) has only unary terms (see below).

In this paper we will focus on different constraints C1 and C2. We will assume that the user specified two nodes $s, t \in \mathcal{V}$. Constraint C1 is then formulated as follows:

C1 Nodes s, t must be connected in the segmentation set [x], i.e. there must exist a path in the graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{F})$ from s to t such that all nodes p in the path belong to the segmentation: $x_p = 1$.

We believe that C1 is very useful for interactive image segmentation. It suggests a natural user interface (Fig. 1). In

¹We downloaded the source code (ver. 0.9) but did not succeed in applying it to our examples: sometimes user-provided hard constraints were not satisfied, or the segmented thin structure was clearly incorrect. Reimplementing the algorithm in [28] did not look straightforward - we found that many details were missing.

this interface node s is assumed to lie in the largest connected component of the current segmentation. By clicking at pixel t the user would get a segmentation which connects t to the main object. We handle multiple clicks in an incremental fashion.

Unfortunately, minimizing (1) under C1 is an NP-hard problem as well (see below). However, it appears that it is easier to design good heuristic algorithms for C1 than for C0. In particular, if function E(x) has only unary terms then the problem with C1 can be reduced to a shortest path computation with a single source and a single sink and thus can be solved in polynomial time (see section 3).

Enforcing constraint C1 may result in a segmentation which has a "width" of one pixel in certain places, which may be undesirable (see Fig. 7). One way to fix this problem is to allow the user to specify a parameter δ which controls the minimum "width" of the segmentation. Formally, assume that for each node $p \in \mathcal{V}$ we have a subset $\mathcal{Q}_p \subseteq \mathcal{V}$. (This subset would depend on δ ; for example, for a grid graph \mathcal{Q}_p could be the set of all pixels q such that the distance from p to q does not exceed δ .) Using these subsets, we define the following connectivity constraint:

C2 There must exist a path in the graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{F})$ from s to t such that for all nodes p in the path the subset \mathcal{Q}_p belongs to [x], i.e. $x_q = 1$ for $q \in \mathcal{Q}_p$.

Clearly, C1 is a special case of C2 if we choose $Q_p = \{p\}$ for all nodes p.

Throughout the paper, we denote **P0**, **P1**, **P2** to be the problems of minimizing function (1) under constraints **C0**, **C1**, **C2**, respectively. The theorem below shows the difficulty of the problems; its proof is given in Appendix A.

Theorem 1. Problems **P0**, **P1**, **P2** are NP-hard. **P0** and **P2** remain NP-hard even if the set \mathcal{E} is empty, i.e. function (1) does not have pairwise terms.

Note, it was also shown in [28] that the following problem is NP-hard: minimize function (1) on a planar 2D grid so that the foreground is 4-connected and the background is 8-connected. It is straightforward to modify the argument in [28] to show that the problem is NP-hard if only the 4connectedness of the foreground is imposed (in other words, **P0** is NP-hard even for planar 2D grids).

To conclude this section, we will state some simple facts about the relationship of problems **P0-P2** and the problem of minimizing function E(x) without any constraints.

Theorem 2. Suppose that x is a global minimum of function (1) without any constraints.

(a) There exists an optimal solution x^* of P2 which includes x, i.e. $[x] \subseteq [x^*]$. The same holds for the problem P1 since the latter is a special case.

(b) Suppose that E ⊆ F. Let C₁,..., C_k ⊆ V be the connected components of the set [x] in the graph (V, F). Then there exists an optimal solution x* of P0 such that each component C_i is either entirely included in [x*] or entirely excluded. In other words, if C_i and [x*] intersect then C_i ⊆ [x*].

A proof is given in Appendix B. The theorem suggests that as a first step we could run the maxflow algorithm to minimize function (1) without any constraints and then contract connected components of the obtained set [x] to single nodes. However, it leaves open the most challenging question: what to do if a minimum of function (1) does not satisfy the desired connectivity constraint.

3. Algorithms

The main algorithmic contribution of this paper is a heuristic method for the problem **P2** (and thus for **P1** since the latter is a special case). This method, which we call *DijkstraGC*, is presented in section 3.1. Then in section 3.2 we propose an alternative method for a special case of problem **P1** based on the idea of *problem decomposition*. The main feature of the second technique is that it provides a lower bound on the optimal value of **P1**. We will use it for assessing the performance of DijkstraGC: in the experimental section it will help us to verify that for some instances DijkstraGC gives an optimal solution.

3.1. DijkstraGC: Merging Dijkstra and graph cuts

The idea of our first method is motivated by the Dijkstra algorithm [1]. Recall that the latter technique computes shortest distances d(p) in a directed graph with nonnegative weights from a specified "source" node s to all other nodes p.

Similar to the Dijkstra method, we will compute solutions to the problem **P2** for a fixed node s and all nodes $p \in \mathcal{V}$ (only now these solutions will not necessarily be global minima). The "distance" d(p) will now indicate the cost of the computed solution for the pair of nodes $\{s, p\}$.

The algorithm is shown in Fig. 2. During the algorithm, the current solution x^p for node p with $d(p) < +\infty$ can be obtained as follows: using PARENT pointers get path \mathcal{P} and corresponding set $\bar{\mathcal{P}} = \cup_{r \in \mathcal{P}} \mathcal{Q}_r$, and then compute a minimum of function (1) under the constraint $\bar{\mathcal{P}} \subseteq [x]$. Clearly, the obtained solution x^p satisfies the hard constraint $\mathbf{C2}$ for the pair of nodes $\{s, p\}$.

The set S contains "permanently labeled" nodes: once a node p has been added to S, its cost d(p) and the corresponding solution will not change anymore.

Let us list some of the invariants that are maintained during DijkstraGC (they follow directly from the description):

II If $d(p) = +\infty$ then $p \neq s$ and PARENT(p) = NULL.

initialize:
$$S = \varnothing$$
, $PARENT(p) = NULL$ for all nodes p , $d(s) = \min\{E(\boldsymbol{x}) \mid \mathcal{Q}_s \subseteq [\boldsymbol{x}]\}$, $d(p) = +\infty$ for $p \in \mathcal{V} - \{s\}$

while $t \notin S$ and V - S contains nodes p with $d(p) < +\infty$

- find node $p \in \mathcal{V} \mathcal{S}$ with the smallest distance d(p)
- add p to S
- for all nodes $q \in \mathcal{V} \mathcal{S}$ which are neighbors of p (i.e. $(p,q) \in \mathcal{F}$) do
 - using PARENT pointers, get path \mathcal{P} from s to q through p; compute corresponding set $\bar{\mathcal{P}} = \bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{P}} \mathcal{Q}_r$
 - compute a minimum x of function (1) under the constraint $\bar{\mathcal{P}} \subseteq [x]$
 - if $d(q) > E(\boldsymbol{x})$ set $d(q) := E(\boldsymbol{x})$, PARENT(q) := p

Figure 2. DijkstraGC algorithm.

I2 If $d(p) < +\infty$ then PARENT pointers give the unique path \mathcal{P} from s to p, and $d(p) = \min\{E(\boldsymbol{x}) \mid \bar{\mathcal{P}} \subseteq [\boldsymbol{x}]\}$ where $\bar{\mathcal{P}} = \bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{P}} \mathcal{Q}_r$.

I3 If PARENT(q) = p then $d(p) \le d(q) < +\infty$.

I4 $d(p) < +\infty$ for nodes $p \in \mathcal{S}$.

Theorem 3. If function E(x) does not have pairwise terms and $Q_p = \{p\}$ for all nodes p (i.e we have an instance of **P1**) then the algorithm in Fig. 2 produces an optimal solution.

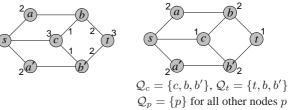
A proof is given in Appendix C.

We also conjecture that the following statement holds:

Conjecture 1. Suppose that $Q_p = \{p\}$ for all nodes p, graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{F})$ is planar, $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{F}$, all pairwise terms have the form $E_{pq}(x_p, x_q) = c_{pq}|x_q - x_p|$, $c_{pq} \geq 0$, and unary terms for "inner" nodes $p \in \mathcal{V}$ (i.e. nodes that do not border the outer face) have no bias or a bias towards label 1, i.e. $E_p(1) \leq E_p(0)$. Then the algorithm in Fig. 2 produces an optimal solution.

If the conditions of theorem 3 are relaxed then the problem may become NP-hard, as theorem 1 states. Not surprisingly, DijkstraGC may then produce a suboptimal solution. Two examples are shown in Fig. 3. Note that in these examples the "direction" of DijkstraGC matters: if we run it from s to t then we obtain a suboptimal solution, but running DijkstraGC from t to s will give an optimal segmentation.

We now turn to the question of efficient implementation. One computational component of the algorithm is finding a node $p \in \mathcal{V} - \mathcal{S}$ with the smallest value of d(p) (same as in the Dijkstra algorithm). We used a binary heap structure for implementing the priority queue which stores nodes $p \in \mathcal{V} - \mathcal{S}$ with $d(p) < +\infty$. The bottleneck, however, is maxflow computations: DijkstraGC requires many calls to



(a) Problem **P1** (b) Problem **P2**, no pairwise terms

Figure 3. **Suboptimality of DijkstraGC.** Examples of problems on which DijkstraGC give suboptimal results. Graphs shown in the pictures are the connectivity graphs (V, \mathcal{F}) . Number c_p at node p gives the unary term cx_p , number c_{pq} at edge (p,q) gives the pairwise term $c_{pq}|x_q-x_p|$. Both in (a) and (b) DijkstraGC will output solution $\{s,a,b,b',t\}$ or $\{s,a',b,b',t\}$ with cost 7, while the optimal solution $\{s,c,b,b',t\}$ has cost 6.

initialize:
$$S = \emptyset$$
, $PARENT(p) = NULL$ for all nodes p , $d(s) = \min\{E(x) \mid \mathcal{Q}_s \subseteq [x]\}$, $d(p) = +\infty$ for $p \in \mathcal{V} - \{s\}$

while $t \notin \mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{V} - \mathcal{S}$ contains nodes p with $d(p) < +\infty$

- find node $p \in \mathcal{V} \mathcal{S}$ with the smallest distance d(p)
- using PARENT pointers, get path \mathcal{P} from s to p; compute corresponding set $\bar{\mathcal{P}} = \cup_{r \in \mathcal{P}} \mathcal{Q}_r$
- ullet compute a minimum $oldsymbol{x}$ of function (1) under the constraint $ar{\mathcal{P}}\subseteq [oldsymbol{x}]$
- add p to S, set $A = \{p\}$, mark p as "unprocessed"
- while A has unprocessed nodes
 - pick unprocessed node $p' \in \mathcal{A}$
 - **for** all edges $(p',q) \in \mathcal{F}$ with $q \in \mathcal{V} \mathcal{S}$ **do** \diamond if $\mathcal{Q}_q \subseteq [x]$ set d(q) := E(x), PARENT(q) := p', add q to \mathcal{S} and to \mathcal{A} as an unprocessed node
 - mark p' as "processed"
- for all nodes $q \in \mathcal{V} \mathcal{S}$ which are neighbors of \mathcal{A} (i.e. $(p', q) \in \mathcal{F}$ for some node $p' \in \mathcal{A}$) do
 - pick node $p' \in \mathcal{A}$ with $(p', q) \in \mathcal{F}$
 - using PARENT pointers, get path \mathcal{P} from s to q through p'; compute corresponding set $\bar{\mathcal{P}} = \cup_{r \in \mathcal{P}} \mathcal{Q}_r$
 - compute a minimum x of function (1) under the constraint $\bar{\mathcal{P}}\subseteq [x]$
 - if $d(q) > E(\boldsymbol{x})$ set $d(q) := E(\boldsymbol{x})$, PARENT(q) := p'

 $\label{thm:prop:prop:sign} \mbox{Figure 4. } \mbox{\bf Optimized version of the DijkstraGC algorithm.}$

the maxflow algorithm for minimizing function (1) under the constraints $x_r=1$ for nodes $r\in \bar{\mathcal{P}}$. These computations are considered in the remainder of this section.

Optimized DijkstraGC First, we will describe a technique which allows to reduce the number of calls to maxflow. Consider the step that adds node p to the set of

permanently labeled nodes \mathcal{S} . Denote \mathcal{P} to be the path from s to p given by PARENT pointers, and let $\bar{\mathcal{P}} = \cup_{r \in \mathcal{P}} \mathcal{Q}_r$. Let us fix nodes in $\bar{\mathcal{P}}$ to 1 and compute a minimum x of function (1) under these constraints. The segmentation set [x] will contain $\bar{\mathcal{P}}$, but it may include many other nodes as well. Then it might be possible to add several nodes to \mathcal{S} using this single computation. Indeed, suppose p has a neighbor $q \in \mathcal{V} - \mathcal{S}$, $(p,q) \in \mathcal{F}$, such that $\mathcal{Q}_q \subseteq [x]$. The algorithm in Fig. 2 would set d(q) = d(p) = E(x) while exploring neighbors of p. This would make the distance d(q) to be the smallest among nodes in $\mathcal{V} - \mathcal{S}$, so the node q could be the next node to be added to \mathcal{S} . Therefore, we can add q to \mathcal{S} immediately.

An algorithm which implements this idea is shown in Fig. 4. Before exploring neighbors of q, we check which nodes can be added to \mathcal{S} for "free". The set of these nodes is denoted as \mathcal{A} ; clearly, it includes p. After adding nodes in \mathcal{A} to \mathcal{S} , we explore neighbors of \mathcal{A} which are still in $\mathcal{V} - \mathcal{S}$.

Note that there is a certain freedom in implementing the DijkstraGC algorithm: it does not specify which node $p \in \mathcal{V} - \mathcal{S}$ with the minimum distance to choose if there are several such nodes. It is not difficult to see that under a certain selection rule DijkstraGC becomes equivalent to the algorithm in Fig. 4.

Flow and search tree recycling We used the maxflow algorithm in [4], and reused flows and search trees as described in [13].

In DijkstraGC we often need to fix/unfix nodes in different parts of the graph in a rather chaotic order. We believe that this significantly reduces the effectiveness of flow and search tree recycling. Two ideas could potentially be used to overcome this drawback. The first one is based on the observation that different "branches" are often independent in a certain sense. This could allow to reorder maxflow computations. To get the same type of result as DijkstraGC we would need to redo computations if we detect an inconsistency, as in the Bellman-Ford label-correcting algorithm. The second idea is to maintain multiple graphs for performing computations in different parts of the image, so that changes in each graph would be more "local". It could also be feasible to store a small subset of the nodes for each graph, increasing it "on demand". Reduced memory requirements could then allow to use a larger number of graphs. Exploring these ideas is left as a future work.

3.2. Problem decomposition approach

In this section we propose a different technique for a special case of problem **P1**; we will use it for assessing the performance of DijkstraGC.

Overview On the high level, the idea is to decompose the original problem into several "easier" subproblems, for which we can compute efficiently a global minimum (or obtain a good lower bound). Combining the lower bounds for individual subproblems will then provide a lower bound

for the original problem. The decomposition and the corresponding lower bound will depend on a parameter vector θ ; we will then try to find a vector θ that maximizes the bound.

This approach is well-known in combinatorial optimization; sometimes it is referred to as "dual decomposition" [2]. In vision the decomposition approach is probably best known in the context of the MAP-MRF inference task. It was introduced by Wainwright et al. [26] who decomposed the problem into a convex combination of trees and proposed message passing techniques for optimizing vector θ . These techniques do not necessarily find the best lower bound (see [14] or review article [27]). Schlesinger and Giginyak [19, 20] and Komodakis et al. [17] proposed to use subgradient techniques [23, 2] for MRF optimization, which guarantee to converge to a vector θ yielding the best possible lower bound.

Solving P1 via problem decomposition We now apply this approach to P1. To get tractable subproblems, we impose the following simplifying assumptions. First, we assume that the graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{F})$ is planar, and $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{F}$. Second, we assume that pixels on the image boundary are constrained to be background, i.e. their label is 0. These assumptions are illustrated in Fig. 5. We argue that they represent an important practical subclass of the image segmentation task, and thus can be used for assessing the performance of DijkstraGC for real problems. Note that the second assumption encodes the prior knowledge that the object lies entirely inside the image, which is very often the case in practice.

We denote C(x) to be the hard constraint term which is 0 if the segmentation x satisfies the connectivity constraint $\mathbf{C1}$ and the background boundary condition described above, and otherwise C(x) is $+\infty$. Some of these hard constraints will also be included in function E(x) as unary terms, namely the background boundary constraints and foreground constraints $x_s = x_t = 1$, which follow from $\mathbf{C1}$. Our parameter vector θ will have two parts: $\theta = (\theta^1, \theta^2)$ where vectors θ^1 and θ^2 correspond to nodes and edges of the graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$, respectively $(\theta^1 \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{V}}, \theta^2 \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{E}})$. Given labeling x, let $\phi(x) \in \{0,1\}^{\mathcal{E}}$ be the vector of indicator variables showing discontinuities of x, i.e. $\phi_{pq}(x) = |x_q - x_p|$ for an edge $(p,q) \in \mathcal{E}$. We will use the following decomposition:

$$E(\mathbf{x}) + C(\mathbf{x}) = E^{0}(\mathbf{x} \mid \theta) + E^{1}(\mathbf{x} \mid \theta) + E^{2}(\mathbf{x} \mid \theta)$$
 (2)

where

$$E^0(\boldsymbol{x}\mid\boldsymbol{\theta}) = E(\boldsymbol{x}) - \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^1 \rangle - \langle \phi(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{\theta}^2 \rangle$$
 (2a)

$$E^{1}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) = C(\boldsymbol{x}) + \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{1} \rangle$$
 (2b)

$$E^{2}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) = C(\boldsymbol{x}) + \langle \phi(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{\theta}^{2} \rangle$$
 (2c)

Let us discuss each subproblem in more detail.

Subproblem 0 Function $E^0(x \mid \theta)$ consists of unary and pairwise terms. We will require this function to be submod-

ular; this is equivalent to specifying upper bounds on components θ_{pq}^2 . Since there are no connectivity constraints, we can compute the global minimum $\Phi^0(\theta) = \min_{\boldsymbol{x}} E^0(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \theta)$ using a maxflow algorithm².

Subproblem 1 Function $E^1(\boldsymbol{x}\mid\boldsymbol{\theta})$ has only unary terms and the connectivity constraint C1. As discussed in the previous section, we can compute the global minimum $\Phi^1(\theta) = \min_{\boldsymbol{x}} E^1(\boldsymbol{x}\mid\boldsymbol{\theta})$ using, e.g. DijkstraGC algorithm. Note, in this case it is essentially equivalent to the Dijkstra algorithm.

Subproblem 2 We will require vector θ^2 to be nonnegative. Instead, we compute a lower bound $\Phi^2(\theta)$ on $E^2(x \mid \theta^2)$ using the following very fast technique. The graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ is planar; thus, we can construct the dual graph $\mathcal{G}^* = (\mathcal{V}^*, \mathcal{E}^*)$ whose nodes are the faces of $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$. Graph \mathcal{G}^* will be weighted: for each edge $(p,q) \in \mathcal{E}$ in the original graph there will be an edge $(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}^*$ with weight $c_{ij} = \theta_{pq}^2$ where $i,j \in \mathcal{V}^*$ are the two faces that border the edge (p,q).

We can assume without loss of generality that an optimal segmentation is connected in \mathcal{G} . (If not, we could remove all connected components except for the one containing s and t; the hard constraints would still be satisfied, and the cost would not increase.) Any connected segmentation x satisfying the hard constraints (C(x) = 0) defines an edge-disjoint closed contour in \mathcal{G}^* whose interior contains s and t (Fig. 5). Furthermore, the cost of edges in the contour equals $E^2(x)$. Note that the contour cannot cross the image border, therefore we can remove the outer face and incident edges.

Let \mathcal{P}_s and \mathcal{P}_t be paths from s and t, respectively, to the image border (Fig. 5). \mathcal{P}_s and \mathcal{P}_t will be viewed as subsets of edges of \mathcal{E} . Clearly, the contour corresponding to x intersects both \mathcal{P}_s and \mathcal{P}_t at least once. Thus, the contour passes through one of the nodes in \mathcal{P}_s^* and through one of the nodes in \mathcal{P}_t^* , where \mathcal{P}_s^* and \mathcal{P}_t^* are respectively the subsets of faces in \mathcal{V}^* that border edges in P_s and P_t on a particular side, say left. Thus, we can obtain a lower bound on $E^2(x \mid \theta)$ by computing the minimum cost of two edge-disjoint paths from \mathcal{P}_s^* to \mathcal{P}_t^* .

To solve the latter problem, we use a standard reduction to the minimum cost network flow problem [1]. We construct a graph with nodes $\mathcal{V}^* \cup \{s,t\}$ where s^* , t^* are two new nodes. We add directed arcs from s^* to the nodes in \mathcal{P}_s^* with capacity 2 and cost 0, and arcs from the nodes in \mathcal{P}_t^* to t^* with the same capacity and cost. For each edge $(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}^*$ we add two directed arcs $(i \to j)$, $(j \to i)$ with capacity 1 and cost c_{ij} . Finally, we set the flow excess of

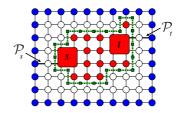


Figure 5. Solving P1 via problem decomposition. Blue pixels at the image border have hard background constraints, nodes s, t have hard foreground constraints. Note that s, t cover several pixels since before starting the algorithm we compute a minimum of function (1) without the connectivity constraint and contract pixels connected to s and to t to single nodes. (This is justified by theorem 2.)

A possible segmentation satisfying all hard constraints is shown in red. Its boundary in the dual graph $(\mathcal{V}^*, \mathcal{E}^*)$ is a simple closed contour (shown in green) passing through faces in \mathcal{V}^* .

 s^* and t^* to be +2 and -2, respectively. Clearly, any integer flow that sends two units from s to t defines two paths from \mathcal{P}_s^* to \mathcal{P}_t^* (an edge belongs to one of the paths iff it carries some flow).

To compute a minimum cost flow, we used the successive shortest path algorithm [1]. It works by iteratively running the Dijkstra algorithm in a certain graph. Each iteration sends one unit of flow, therefore there will be two Dijkstra computations.

One possible extension of this framework is to allow directed edges in subproblem 2, i.e. pairwise terms of the form $E_{pq}^2(x_p,x_q)=\theta_{pq}^2(1-x_p)x_q+\theta_{qp}^2x_p(1-x_q),$ $\theta_{pq}^2,\theta_{pq}^2\geq 0.$ (The size of vector θ^2 would be doubled.) This is left as a future work.

Maximizing the lower bound We described a lower bound on problem **P1** which can be written as

$$\Phi(\theta) = \Phi^{0}(\theta) + \Phi^{1}(\theta) + \Phi^{2}(\theta) \le E(x) + C(x)$$

where θ belongs to a convex set $\Omega = \{(\theta^1, \theta^2 \mid 0 \leq \theta_{pq}^2 \leq \theta_{pq}^{2\,\mathrm{max}}\}$. Clearly, Φ is a concave function of θ . Similar to [19, 20, 17], we used a projected subgradient method [23, 2] for maximizing $\Phi(\theta)$. One iteration is given by

$$\theta := \mathcal{P}_{\Omega}(\theta + \lambda g)$$

where \mathcal{P}_{Ω} is the operator that projects a vector to Ω and g is a subgradient of $\Phi(\theta)$ computed as follows: $g_p = \boldsymbol{x}^1 - \boldsymbol{x}^0$ for components of vector θ^1 and $g_{pq} = \boldsymbol{z}^2 - \phi(\boldsymbol{x}^0)$ for components of vector θ^2 . Here we denoted \boldsymbol{x}^0 to be a global minimum of function $E^0(\cdot)$, \boldsymbol{x}^1 to be a global minimum of function $E^1(\cdot)$ and $\boldsymbol{z}^2 \in \{0,1\}^{\mathcal{E}}$ to be the following vector: $z_{pq}^2 = 1$ iff the two shortest paths from \mathcal{P}_s^* to \mathcal{P}_t^* that we computed contain the edge $(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}^*$ corresponding to the edge $(p,q) \in \mathcal{E}$.

An important issue in the subgradient method is the choice of the step size λ . We used an adaptive technique

 $^{^2}$ Instead of restricting function E^0 to be submodular, one could use the roof duality approach [8] to get a lower bound on $E^0(\boldsymbol{x}\mid\theta)$. For submodular functions this lower bound coincides with the global minimum, therefore the best lower bound on the original function can only become better. We have not implemented this yet.

mentioned in [2]. We set $\lambda = \alpha(\Phi(\theta^*) + \delta - \Phi(\theta))/||\mathbf{g}||^2$ where α is a constant (1 in our experiments), θ^* is the best vector found so far (i.e. the vector giving the best lower bound), and δ is a positive number which is updated as follows: if the last iteration improved the best lower bound $\Phi(\theta^*)$ then then δ is increased by a certain factor (2 in our experiments), otherwise it is decreased by a certain factor (0.95).

To conclude the description of the method, it remains to specify how to extract solutions x from the subgradient method. In each iteration we used the minimum x^1 of subproblem 1 since it is guaranteed to satisfy the connectivity constraint C1. We maintain the solution with the smallest energy computed so far, and output it as a result of the method.

4. Experimental results

In the previous section we presented DijkstraGC, a new algorithm that minimizes energy (1) under certain connectivity constraints on the segmentation x. In this section we first discuss the advantages of including this algorithm in an interactive system for image segmentation and second consider the optimality properties of the algorithm.

4.1. DijkstraGC for interactive segmentation

The form of the energy (1) follows the approach of previous energy minimization techniques for interactive image segmentation [3, 18]. We define $E_p(x_p)$ as a data likelihood term and $E_{pq}(x_p,x_q)$ as a contrast-dependent coherency term, which are defined as follows.

Hard constraints for background and foreground are specified in the form of brush strokes. Based on this input a probabilistic model is computed for the colors of background (G_B) and foreground (G_F) using two different Gaussian Mixture Models. $E_p(x_p)$ is then computed as $E_p(0) = -\log(\Pr(z_p|G_B))$ and $E_p(1) = -\log(\Pr(z_p|G_F))$ where z_p contains the three color channels of site p (see details in [18]). The coherency term incorporates both an Ising prior and a contrast-dependent component and is computed as

$$E_{pq}(x_p, x_q) = \frac{|x_q - x_p|}{\text{dist}(p, q)} \left(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 \exp{-\beta ||z_p - z_q||^2} \right)$$

where λ_1 and λ_2 are weights for the Ising and contrast-dependent prior respectively, and $\beta = \left(2\left\langle (z_p-z_q)^2\right\rangle\right)^{-1}$, where $\langle\cdot\rangle$ denotes expectation over an image sample (as motivated in [18]). A term of this form encourages coherence in regions of similar color and also prevents isolated pixels to appear in the segmentation (see [3, 18]). In our experiments the number of components used for G_B and G_F were 5, we fixed $\lambda_1=2.5$ and $\lambda_2=47.5$ (which sums up to 50, as in [18]). We used an 8-neighborhood system for E.

We now discuss how to integrate the DijkstraGC algorithm in an interactive system for image segmentation. After the user has provided scribbles a segmentation is computed with graph cut. As in [18] we iterate this process to further minimize the energy, where the segmentation of a previous run is used to update color models. It can happen that part of the foreground is missing or that the foreground region is disconnected. Then the user can specify with one click such a site that should be connected with the current result. DijkstraGC algorithm is used to compute the new segmentation. In this way the user only has to specify one node (from the two nodes necessary to run DijkstraGC) since the other node is assumed to be contained within the largest connected component of the graph cut segmentation.

We have tested this approach on 15 images with in total 40 connectivity problems, i.e. additional clicks for DijkstraGC. Fig. 1 and 6 show some results, where we compare graph cut, using scribbles only, with DijkstraGC, where the user set additional clicks after obtaining the graph cut result. We see that usually graph cut based algorithms tend to cut off thin elongated structures in the image. To retrieve these thin structures using brush strokes can be very difficult since they may only be 1-2 pixel wide. To obtain a satisfying result with DijkstraGC the user only needs some additional clicks and the selection of a width parameter δ , which is a considerable reduction in the amount of user interactions needed. For the last example in Fig. 6 the number of clicks necessary to extract the segmentation was 11 since the thin structures we want to segment (the legs of the spider) intersect each other and the path that DijkstraGC computes goes throw the already segmented leg.

The running time presented in the last column of Fig. 6 includes all the clicks in the image, and it is, as to be expected, related to the number of clicks and image size. The optimized version of DijkstraGC (Fig. 4) improved the runtime over the simple version (Fig. 2) from, e.g. 28.4 to 14.8 seconds for the last image in Fig. 6.

The width parameter δ provides the possibility of specifying a minimum desired width of the connection between the two components. This parameter is not included directly in the formulation of the DijkstraGC algorithm. Instead we define for all nodes p a set \mathcal{Q}_p according to δ . For $\delta=1$, $\mathcal{Q}_p=\{p\}$; for $\delta=2$, \mathcal{Q}_p is the set of 4 nodes in a 2×2 square that includes node p and for $\delta=3$, \mathcal{Q}_p contains p and its neighbors in a 4-connected grid. Fig. 7 shows that this parameter can be important in a practical system to avoid that the connectivity constraint is satisfied by a segmentation with a one pixel width only. Please note that in general δ does not have to be the exact width of the structure we want to segment. In fig. 7 setting the width parameter to $\delta=2$ was sufficient to recover the thin leg which has a larger width than 5 pixels.

Direction of DijkstraGC. Swapping the nodes s and t,

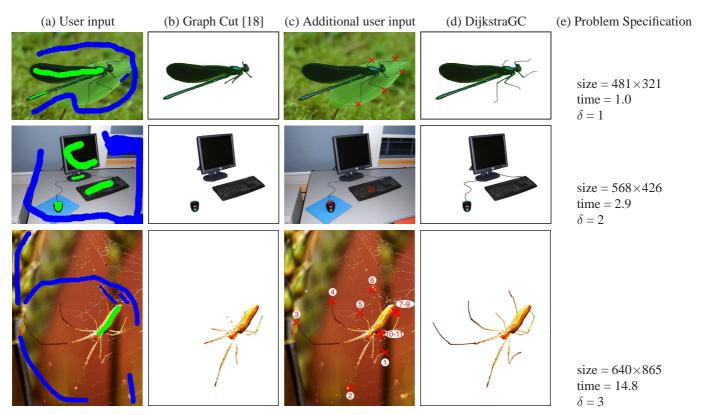


Figure 6. **Results of the DijkstraGC algorithm.** (a) original images with user scribbles (blue background; green foreground); (b) Graph Cut results using [18]; (c) Selection of sites for connectivity, where numbers present the input order; (d) DijkstraGC results; (e) Problem specification: image size, running time for DijkstraGC (on 2.16 GHz CPU with 2GB RAM), and minimum width specified by the user.

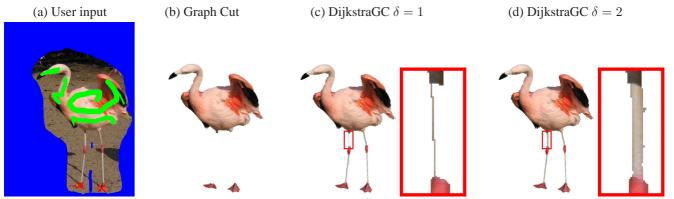


Figure 7. Width parameter δ . Two different results obtained with DijkstraGC algorithm for different values of δ (minimum width).

i.e. changing the direction of DijkstraGC, may lead to two different segmentations as seen in the example of fig. 3. However we observed that the two segmentations usually only differ by a small number of pixels (on average less than 1% of the number of pixels in set [x]) and the difference is often not visually significant.

In contrast, the difference in speed can be substantial. In our examples the running time was on average reduced by half if the "source" node s was in the smaller component (out of the two components that we want to connect). Accordingly, we chose it as the default option and used it for

the results presented in Fig. 6 and 7.

4.2. Optimality of DijkstraGC

The dual decomposition algorithm, described in section 3.2, gives both a solution for a special case of **P1** and a lower bound on the optimal value of **P1**. Although this technique is not useful for a practical system, since the running time is on average 3 hours, it can be used to assess the optimality of DijkstraGC.

We considered 40 connectivity problems (i.e. user clicks) where the dual decomposition approach is applicable, i.e. all pixels at the image boundary are background. Another

restriction for this approach is that we have to use a planar graph (4-connected 2D grid) for maxflow computations. For 12 out of the 40 problems the dual decomposition algorithm gave the global optimum. It is a positive result that for all these 12 cases also DijkstraGC returned the global optimum. One of such example is shown in Fig. 8. Another example is the first image in Fig. 6; we obtained the global optimum for all the connectivity constraints. (Note that in the latter case the result was slightly different from Fig. 6, since for this optimality experiment we had to choose the graph to be planar, i.e. 4-connected.) For all the other problems we observed that the result provided by DijkstraGC was always better in terms of energy value than the result of the dual decomposition method.

5. Conclusions and Future Work

In this paper we proposed to overcome the "shrinking bias" of graph cut methods by imposing connectivity constraints in the segmentation. We presented a new algorithm DijkstraGC that computes a segmentation satisfying those constraints and we showed that integrating this algorithm in an interactive system for image segmentation reduces considerably the amount of user interaction necessary to segment thin structures in the image.

Although in general DijkstraGC is not guaranteed to compute the global minimum of our NP-hard optimization problem, we believe that in practice it is not an issue. This claim is supported by two facts: (i) running DijkstraGC in different directions gives almost the same result, and (ii) DijkstraGC computes the optimal solution for some particular instances (see sec. 4.2).

Currently, the speed of DijkstraGC is perhaps the main drawback for a practical interactive segmentation system. However, we believe that there is a large scope for improvement via rearrangement of the order in which nodes are visited during the algorithm, or the use of multiple graphs for maxflow computations (sec. 3.1). We intend to explore these ideas in the future.

Appendix A: proof of theorem 1

NP-hardness of P0 without pairwise terms Let us show that the minimum Steiner tree problem (ST), which is known to be NP-hard, can be reduced to **P0** with a function E(x) containing only unary terms. An instance of ST is given by an undirected weighted graph $(\mathcal{V}^{\circ}, \mathcal{E}^{\circ}, c)$ with non-negative weights $c: \mathcal{E}^{\circ} \to \mathbb{N}$ and a subset of nodes $\mathcal{S}^{\circ} \subseteq \mathcal{V}^{\circ}$. The goal is to find a subset of edges $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{E}^{\circ}$ of minimum cost such that the set \mathcal{S}° is connected in $(\mathcal{V}^{\circ}, \mathcal{X})$. (Clearly, there exists a minimum subset which is a tree.)

We construct an instance of $\mathbf{P0}$ as follows. We start with the graph $(\mathcal{V},\mathcal{F})=(\mathcal{V}^\circ,\varnothing)$ and the function $E(x)=\sum_{p\in\mathcal{S}^\circ}C(1-x_p)$ where C is a sufficiently large constant, e.g. $C>\sum_{e\in\mathcal{E}^\circ}c_e$. Then for every edge $(p,q)\in\mathcal{E}^\circ$ we

add a new node e=(p,q) to $\mathcal V$ and two edges (p,e), (e,q) to $\mathcal F$. We also add a unary term $c_{pq}x_e$ for the new node.

Let us call a labeling $x \in \{0,1\}^{\mathcal{V}}$ "feasible" if (i) it satisfies $\mathbf{C0}$, (ii) E(x) < C, i.e. $x_p = 1$ for all nodes $p \in \mathcal{S}^{\circ}$, and (iii) $e \in [x]$ implies $p, q \in [x]$ for nodes $e = (p, q) \in \mathcal{E}^{\circ}$. We can make any labeling x satisfying (i) and (ii) feasible by removing nodes e = (p, q) from [x] for which $x_p = 0$ or $x_q = 0$. This operation preserves the connectivity of [x] and does not increase the cost E(x). Thus, $\mathbf{P0}$ has an optimal feasible solution.

There is a one-to-one mapping between feasible solutions and subsets $\mathcal{X}\subseteq\mathcal{E}^\circ$ which form a single connected components and cover all nodes in \mathcal{S}° . Furthermore, E(x) equals the cost of \mathcal{X} for such solutions. Thus, solving problem $\mathbf{P1}$ will also solve \mathbf{VC} .

NP-hardness of P1 Let us show that the minimum vertex cover problem (**VC**), which is known to be NP-hard, can be reduced to **P1**. An instance of **VC** is specified by an undirected graph ($\mathcal{V}^{\circ}, \mathcal{E}^{\circ}$). (We assume that $\mathcal{V}^{\circ} = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ where $n = |\mathcal{V}^{\circ}|$.) The goal is to find a subset $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ of minimum cardinality such that for each edge $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}^{\circ}$ at least one of the nodes i, j is in \mathcal{X} .

We construct an instance of **P1** as follows. For each node $i \in \mathcal{V}^{\circ}$ we add two nodes i, \bar{i} to \mathcal{V} . We say that solution \boldsymbol{x} specifies subset $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ as follows: $i \in \mathcal{X}$ iff $x_i = 1$. We also add the "source" s and the "sink" t to \mathcal{V} . Thus, $|\mathcal{V}| = 2n + 2$. For each pair of consecutive nodes $i,j = i+1, 1 \leq i \leq n-1$ we add four edges $(i,j), (i,\bar{j}), (\bar{i},j), (\bar{i},\bar{j})$ to the connectivity graph $(\mathcal{V},\mathcal{F})$. We also add edges $(s,1), (s,\bar{1}), (n,t), (\bar{n},t)$ to $(\mathcal{V},\mathcal{F})$. Thus, $|\mathcal{F}| = 4n$. The connectivity constraint **C1** for the pair of nodes $\{s,t\}$ is equivalent to the following: for each node $i \in \mathcal{V}^{\circ}$ at least one of the nodes $i,\bar{i} \in \mathcal{V}$ must have label 1. The function $E(\boldsymbol{x})$ is constructed as follows:

- Add unary terms Cx_p for all nodes $p \in \mathcal{V} \{s,t\}$ where C is a sufficiently large constant, e.g. C > n. (These terms will ensure that in the optimal solution exactly one of the nodes i, \bar{i} has label 1.)
- Add pairwise terms $C(1-x_i)x_{\bar{j}}$ for all edges $(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}^{\circ}$. (These terms will ensure that subset \mathcal{X} corresponding to x satisfies the constraint of the VC problem.)
- Add unary terms $1 \cdot x_i$ for all nodes $i \in \mathcal{V}^{\circ}$. (These terms will "count" the cardinality of \mathcal{X} .)

Let us call solution \boldsymbol{x} "feasible" if it satisfies the connectivity constraint $\mathbf{C1}$ and $E(\boldsymbol{x}) < nC + C$. It is easy to see that there is a one-to-one mapping between feasible solutions \boldsymbol{x} and subsets $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ satisfying the constraint of the \mathbf{VC} problem, and $E(\boldsymbol{x}) = nC + |\mathcal{X}|$ for such solutions. Thus, solving problem $\mathbf{P1}$ will also solve \mathbf{VC} .

NP-hardness of P2 without pairwise terms We will use a reduction from the minimum vertex cover problem similar

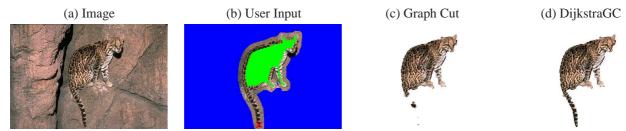


Figure 8. **Optimality of DijkstraGC.** An example of a problem for which both DijkstraGC and the decomposition method give the optimal result

to the one described above. Given an instance $(\mathcal{V}^{\circ}, \mathcal{E}^{\circ})$ of \mathbf{VC} we start constructing the graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{F})$ and the function $E(\boldsymbol{x})$ as before, except that instead of adding a pairwise term $C(1-x_p)x_q$ where $p=i, q=\bar{i}$ we do the following. First, we add a new node r to the graph. Second, we add this node to the sets \mathcal{Q}_p and \mathcal{Q}_q . (We assume that in the beginning $\mathcal{Q}_p=\{p\}$ for all nodes p.) Finally, we add unary terms $C(x_r-x_p)$ to the function.

We claim that these operations "simulate" the pairwise term $C(1-x_p)x_q$. Indeed, if $x_p=x_q=0$ then the connectivity constraint ${\bf C2}$ does not affect the node r, therefore the contribution of the new term will be $\min_{x_r\in\{0,1\}}C(x_r-0)=0$. If $x_p=1$ or $x_q=1$ then the connectivity constraint ${\bf C2}$ will imply $x_r=1$, so the contribution of the new term will be $C(1-x_p)$ which equals $C(1-x_p)x_q$ if x_p,x_q are binary and $(x_p,x_q)\neq (0,0)$.

Appendix B: proof of theorem 2

Part (a) Let y be a global minimum of problem **P2**. Consider solution $x^* = y \vee x$, with $[x^*] = [y] \cup [x]$. It is a global minimum of **P2** since it satisfies the connectivity constraint **C2** and

$$E(\boldsymbol{x}^*) \leq E(\boldsymbol{y}) + [E(\boldsymbol{x}) - E(\boldsymbol{y} \wedge \boldsymbol{x})] \leq E(\boldsymbol{y}).$$

(The first inequality follows from submodularity of function E, and the second inequality holds since x is a global minimum of E.) It remains to notice that $[x] \subseteq [x^*]$.

Part (b) Let y be a global minimum of P0, C_1, \ldots, C_j be all connected components of the set C = [x] that intersect [y], and C_{j+1}, \ldots, C_k be the connected components of C that do not intersect [y]. We denote x' and x'' to be respectively the labelings corresponding to the sets $C' = C_1 \cup \ldots C_j$ and C'' = C - C', i.e. [x'] = C' and [x''] = C''.

Consider solution $x^* = y \lor x'$, and denote $z' = y \land x'$, $z = z' \lor x''$. We claim that x^* is a global minimum of **P0**. Indeed, the set $[x^*] = [y] \cup \mathcal{C}_1 \cup \ldots \cup \mathcal{C}_j$ is connected and

$$E(\boldsymbol{x}^*) \leq E(\boldsymbol{y}) + [E(\boldsymbol{x}') - E(\boldsymbol{z}')]$$

= $E(\boldsymbol{y}) + [E(\boldsymbol{x}) - E(\boldsymbol{z})] \leq E(\boldsymbol{y}).$

(The first inequality follows from submodularity of function E, and the last inequality holds since \boldsymbol{x} is a global minimum of E. Let us show the equality in the middle. We

can assume without loss of generality that unary and pairwise terms of function E satisfy $D_p(0) = 0$, $V_{pq}(0,0) = 0$. Then E(x) = E(x') + E(x'') since the sets [x] and [x'] are disconnected in the graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{F})$ and $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. Similarly, E(z) = E(z') + E(x''). This implies the desired result.)

It remains to notice that $C_1, \ldots, C_j \subseteq [x^*]$ and C_{j+1}, \ldots, C_k do not intersect $[x^*]$.

Appendix C: proof of theorem 3

Suppose that function (1) has only unary terms, i.e. the set $\mathcal E$ is empty. We can write it as

$$E(\boldsymbol{x}) = const + \sum_{p \in \mathcal{V}} c_p x_p$$

For the purpose of the proof the constant can be chosen arbitrarily. Let us set it as follows:

$$E(\boldsymbol{x}) = -c^{-} + \sum_{p \in \mathcal{V}} c_p x_p$$

where $c^-=\sum_{p\in\mathcal{V}}\min\{c_p,0\}$. Clearly, for any subset $\mathcal{P}\subseteq\mathcal{V}$ we have

$$\min\{E(\boldsymbol{x}) \mid \mathcal{P} \subseteq [\boldsymbol{x}]\} = -c^{-} + \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P} \ \lor \ c_{p} < 0} c_{p} = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} c_{p}^{+}$$

where we denoted $c_p^+ = \max\{c_p, 0\}.$

Let us prove by induction on the number of steps that $d(p) = d^*(p)$ for all nodes $p \in \mathcal{S}$ where $d^*(p)$ is the optimal solution of problem **P1** for nodes $\{s,p\}$. It is clear that this property holds after initialization. Consider the step that adds a new node p° to \mathcal{S} . Let \mathcal{P}^* be an optimal path from s to p° , then $d^*(p^\circ) = \sum_{r \in \mathcal{P}^*} c_r^+$. Let (p,q) be an edge in this path such that $p \in \mathcal{S}$ and $q \notin \mathcal{S}$. Let \mathcal{P}_p^* be the subset of the path \mathcal{P}^* which goes from s to p. We can write

$$d(p^{\circ}) \stackrel{\text{(1)}}{\leq} d(q) \stackrel{\text{(2)}}{\leq} d(p) + c_q^{+} \stackrel{\text{(3)}}{=} d^{*}(p) + c_q^{+}$$

$$\stackrel{\text{(4)}}{\leq} \sum_{r \in \mathcal{P}_p^{*}} c_r^{+} + c_q^{+} \stackrel{\text{(5)}}{\leq} \sum_{r \in \mathcal{P}^{*}} c_r^{+} = d^{*}(p^{\circ})$$

(1) holds since node p° was to added to S rather than q. (2) holds since the edge (p,q) was explored when node p was

added to \mathcal{S} , and the cost of the proposed solution for node q was $d(p)+c_q^+$. (3) holds by the induction hypothesis. (4) holds since $d^*(p)$ is the optimal distance for node p. (5) holds since path \mathcal{P}^* contains $\mathcal{P}_p^* \cup \{q\}$. Therefore, $d(p^\circ) = d^*(p^\circ)$, as claimed.

Note that if $c_p \geq 0$ for all nodes p then DijkstraGC is equivalent to the standard Dijkstra algorithm which looks for minimum paths from s to all other nodes, if we define the length of edge $(p \rightarrow q)$ to be c_p .

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