

# A Completed Modeling of Local Binary Pattern Operator for Texture Classification

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**Abstract**—In this paper, a completed modeling of the LBP operator is proposed and an associated completed LBP (CLBP) scheme is developed for texture classification. A local region is represented by its center pixel and a local difference sign-magnitude transform (LDSMT). The center pixels represent the image gray level and they are converted into a binary code, namely CLBP-Center (CLBP\_C), by global thresholding. LDSMT decomposes the image local differences into two complementary components: the signs and the magnitudes, and two operators, namely CLBP-Sign (CLBP\_S) and CLBP-Magnitude (CLBP\_M), are proposed to code them. The traditional LBP is equivalent to the CLBP\_S part of CLBP, and we show that CLBP\_S preserves more information of the local structure than CLBP\_M, which explains why the simple LBP operator can extract the texture features reasonably well. By combining CLBP\_S, CLBP\_M, and CLBP\_C features into joint or hybrid distributions, significant improvement can be made for rotation invariant texture classification.

**Index Terms**—Local Binary Pattern, Rotation Invariance, Texture Classification

## I. INTRODUCTION

Texture classification is an active research topic in computer vision and pattern recognition. Early texture classification methods focus on the statistical analysis of texture images. The representative ones include the co-occurrence matrix method [1] and the filtering based methods [2]. Kashyap and Khotanzad [3] were among the first researchers to study rotation-invariant texture classification by using a circular autoregressive model. In the early stage, many models were explored to study rotation invariance for texture classification, including hidden Markov model [4] and Gaussian Markov random field [5]. Recently, Varma and Zisserman [6] proposed to learn a rotation invariant texton dictionary from a training set, and then classify the texture image based on its texton distribution. Later, Varma and Zisserman [7-8] proposed another texton based algorithm by using the image local patch to represent features directly. Some works have been recently proposed for scale and affine invariant texture classification by using fractal analysis [9-10] and affine adaption [11-12].

In [13], Ojala *et al* proposed to use the Local Binary Pattern (LBP) histogram for rotation invariant texture classification. LBP is a simple yet efficient operator to describe local image pattern, and it has achieved impressive classification results on

representative texture databases [14]. LBP has also been adapted to many other applications, such as face recognition [15], dynamic texture recognition [16] and shape localization [17].

Despite the great success of LBP in computer vision and pattern recognition, its underlying working mechanism still needs more investigation. Before proposing LBP, Ojala *et al* [18] used the Absolute Gray Level Difference (AGLD) between a pixel and its neighbours to generate textons, and used the histogram of them to represent the image. Later, they proposed LBP [13] to use the sign, instead of magnitude, of the difference to represent the local pattern. Ojala *et al* [19] also proposed a multidimensional distribution of Signed Gray Level Difference (SGLD) and regarded LBP as a simplified operator of SGLD by keeping sign patterns only. Ahonen and Pietikäinen [20] analyzed LBP from a viewpoint of operator implementation. Tan and Triggs [21] proposed Local Ternary Pattern (LTP) to quantize the difference between a pixel and its neighbours into three levels. Although some variants of LBP, such as derivative-based LBP [17], dominant LBP [22] and center-symmetric LBP [23], have been proposed recently, there still remain some questions to be better answered for LBP. For example, why the simple LBP code could convey so much discriminant information of the local structure? What kind of information is missed in LBP code, and how to effectively represent the missing information in the LBP style so that better texture classification can be achieved?

This paper attempts to address these questions by proposing a new local feature extractor to generalize and complete LBP, and we name the proposed method completed LBP (CLBP). In CLBP, a local region is represented by its center pixel and a local difference sign-magnitude transform (LDSMT). The center pixel is simply coded by a binary code after global thresholding, and the binary map is named as CLBP\_Center (CLBP\_C). The LDSMT decomposes the image local structure into two complementary components: the difference signs and the difference magnitudes. Then two operators, CLBP-Sign (CLBP\_S) and CLBP-Magnitude (CLBP\_M), are proposed to code them. All the three code maps, CLBP\_C, CLBP\_S and CLBP\_M, are in binary format so that they can be readily combined to form the final CLBP histogram. The CLBP could achieve much better rotation invariant texture classification results than conventional LBP based schemes.

Several observations can be made for CLBP. First, LBP is a special case of CLBP by using only CLBP\_S. Second, we will show that the sign component preserves more image local structural information than the magnitude component. This explains why the simple LBP (i.e. CLBP\_S) operator works much better than CLBP\_M for texture classification. Third, the proposed CLBP\_S, CLBP\_M and CLBP\_C code maps have

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the same format so that they can be readily fused, and the texture classification accuracy can be significantly improved after fusion.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section II briefly reviews LBP. Section III presents the CLBP scheme. Section IV reports extensive experimental results and Section V concludes the paper.

## II. BRIEF REVIEW OF LBP

Given a pixel in the image, an LBP [13] code is computed by comparing it with its neighbours:

$$LBP_{P,R} = \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} s(g_p - g_c) 2^p, \quad s(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \geq 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where  $g_c$  is the gray value of the central pixel,  $g_p$  is the value of its neighbors,  $P$  is the total number of involved neighbors and  $R$  is the radius of the neighborhood. Suppose the coordinate of  $g_c$  is  $(0, 0)$ , then the coordinates of  $g_p$  are  $(R \cos(2\pi p/P), R \sin(2\pi p/P))$ . The gray values of neighbours that are not in the image grids can be estimated by interpolation. Suppose the image is of size  $I \times J$ . After the LBP pattern of each pixel is identified, a histogram is built to represent the texture image:

$$H(k) = \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^J f(LBP_{P,R}(i, j), k), \quad k \in [0, K], \quad (2)$$

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1, & x = y \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where  $K$  is the maximal LBP pattern value. The  $U$  value of an LBP pattern is defined as the number of spatial transitions (bitwise 0/1 changes) in that pattern

$$U(LBP_{P,R}) = |s(g_{P-1} - g_c) - s(g_0 - g_c)| + \sum_{p=1}^{P-1} |s(g_p - g_c) - s(g_{p-1} - g_c)| \quad (3)$$

The uniform LBP patterns refer to the patterns which have limited transition or discontinuities ( $U \leq 2$ ) in the circular binary presentation [13]. In practice, the mapping from  $LBP_{P,R}$  to  $LBP_{P,R}^{u2}$  (superscript “u2” means uniform patterns with  $U \leq 2$ ), which has  $P \cdot (P-1) + 3$  distinct output values, is implemented with a lookup table of  $2^P$  elements.

To achieve rotation invariance, a locally rotation invariant pattern could be defined as:

$$LBP_{P,R}^{riu2} = \begin{cases} \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} s(g_p - g_c) & \text{if } U(LBP_{P,R}) \leq 2 \\ P+1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

The mapping from  $LBP_{P,R}$  to  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}$  (superscript “riu2” means rotation invariant “uniform” patterns with  $U \leq 2$ ), which has  $P+2$  distinct output values, can be implemented with a lookup table.

## III. COMPLETED LBP (CLBP)

### A. Local Difference Sign-Magnitude Transform

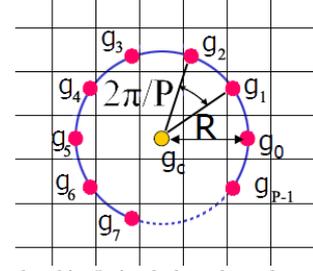


Figure 1: Central pixel and its  $P$  circularly and evenly spaced neighbours with radius  $R$ .

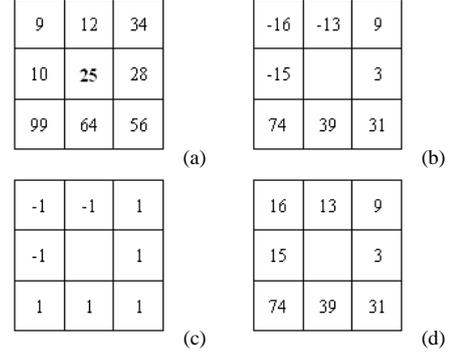


Figure 2: (a) A  $3 \times 3$  sample block; (b) the local differences; (c) the sign and (d) magnitude components.

Referring to Fig. 1, given a central pixel  $g_c$  and its  $P$  circularly and evenly spaced neighbours  $g_p, p=0,1,\dots,P-1$ , we can simply calculate the difference between  $g_c$  and  $g_p$  as  $d_p = g_p - g_c$ . The local difference vector  $[d_0, \dots, d_{P-1}]$  characterizes the image local structure at  $g_c$ . Because the central gray level  $g_c$  is removed,  $[d_0, \dots, d_{P-1}]$  is robust to illumination changes and they are more efficient than the original image in pattern matching.  $d_p$  can be further decomposed into two components:

$$d_p = s_p * m_p \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{cases} s_p = \text{sign}(d_p) \\ m_p = |d_p| \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where  $s_p = \begin{cases} 1, & d_p \geq 0 \\ -1, & d_p < 0 \end{cases}$  is the sign of  $d_p$  and  $m_p$  is the magnitude of  $d_p$ . With Eq. (5),  $[d_0, \dots, d_{P-1}]$  is transformed into a sign vector  $[s_0, \dots, s_{P-1}]$  and a magnitude vector  $[m_0, \dots, m_{P-1}]$ .

We call Eq. (5) the local difference sign-magnitude transform (LDSMT). Obviously,  $[s_0, \dots, s_{P-1}]$  and  $[m_0, \dots, m_{P-1}]$  are complementary and the original difference vector  $[d_0, \dots, d_{P-1}]$  can be perfectly reconstructed from them.

Fig. 2 shows an example. Fig. 2a is the original  $3 \times 3$  local structure with central pixel being 25. The difference vector (Fig. 2b) is  $[3, 9, -13, -16, -15, 74, 39, 31]$ . After LDSMT, the sign vector (Fig. 2c) is  $[1, 1, -1, -1, -1, 1, 1, 1]$  and the magnitude vector (Fig. 2d) is  $[3, 9, 13, 16, 15, 74, 39, 31]$ . It is clearly seen that the original LBP uses only the sign vector to code the local pattern as an 8-bit string “11000111” (“-1” is coded as “0”).

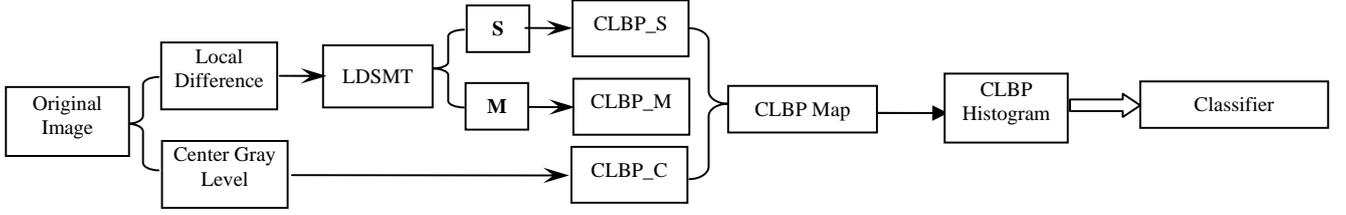


Figure 3: Framework of CLBP.

### B. Analysis on Sign & Magnitude Components

Vector  $[d_0, \dots, d_{p-1}]$  characterizes the image local structure. However, texture recognition by direct matching  $[d_0, \dots, d_{p-1}]$  is infeasible because it is sensitive to noise, translation and rotation, etc. Thus we need to extract the distinct and stable features from  $[d_0, \dots, d_{p-1}]$  to robustly recognize texture patterns. In Section III.A, we have seen that LBP actually uses only the sign component of  $[d_0, \dots, d_{p-1}]$  for pattern recognition. Apparently, this may lead to some incorrect matches. For example, the difference vectors  $[3, 9, -13, -16, -15, 74, 39, 31]$  and  $[150, 1, -150, -1, -100, 150, 1, 150]$  have the same sign vector  $[-1, -1, -1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1]$ . However, it is hard to say they have similar local structures.

Therefore, several issues need to be addressed for LBP based feature representation. First, why LBP works reasonably well by using only the sign components of the local difference vector? Second, how to exploit the remaining information existed in the magnitude component? Third, can we design a scheme to efficiently and conveniently fuse the sign-magnitude features? In this sub-section we focus on the first issue and the other two issues will be discussed in the next sub-section.

The local difference can be perfectly reconstructed from its sign-magnitude components by  $d_p = s_p * m_p$ . One intuitive question is that which component,  $s_p$  or  $m_p$ , is more informative to represent the original local difference  $d_p$ ? From a viewpoint of signal reconstruction, we can answer this question by reconstructing  $d_p$  using only  $s_p$  or  $m_p$ , and then checking which component can yield a smaller reconstruction error. Since  $d_p$  is the multiplication of  $s_p$  and  $m_p$ , we cannot directly reconstruct  $d_p$  by leaving one of  $s_p$  and  $m_p$  out. It is well accepted that the difference signal  $d_p$  can be well modeled by Laplace distribution  $Q(x) = \exp(-|x|/\lambda)/\lambda$  [24], where parameter  $\lambda$  depends on the image content. Here we apply some prior knowledge to the probability distribution of  $s_p$  and  $m_p$ . It can be observed that the sign component  $s_p$  follows a Bernoulli distribution  $Q(n) = b^{\frac{n+1}{2}}(1-b)^{\frac{1-n}{2}}$  with  $b=0.5$  and  $n \in \{-1, 1\}$ . Thus the local difference can be reconstructed by using only the magnitude component as

$$\hat{d}_p^m = m_p * s_p' \quad (6)$$

where variable  $s_p'$  follows Bernoulli distribution  $Q(n)$ . Since  $d_p$  follows Laplace distribution, its magnitude  $m_p$  will follow a single-side Laplace distribution  $Q(x) = \exp(-x/\lambda)/\lambda$ ,  $x \geq 0$ . Thus the local difference can be reconstructed by using only the sign component as

$$\hat{d}_p^s = m_p' * s_p \quad (7)$$

where  $m_p'$  can be set as the mean value of the magnitude component  $m_p$ .

The local difference reconstruction errors made by using  $s_p$  and  $m_p$  can be defined as

$$E_s = E\left[(d_p - \hat{d}_p^s)^2\right], \quad E_m = E\left[(d_p - \hat{d}_p^m)^2\right] \quad (8)$$

After some mathematical calculation, we can derive  $E_s = \lambda^2$  and  $E_m = 4\lambda^2$ . Obviously,  $E_s$  is only  $1/4$  of  $E_m$ . To further validate this conclusion, we calculated  $E_s$  and  $E_m$  for 864 texture images selected from the Outex database [14]. The average values of  $E_s$  and  $E_m$  are 98 and 403, respectively. This is exactly identical to the above mathematical derivation.

From the above analysis, we see that  $d_p$  can be more accurately approximated by using the sign component  $s_p$  than the magnitude component  $m_p$ . This implies that  $s_p$  will preserve more information of  $d_p$  than  $m_p$ , and hence it is more likely to result in better pattern recognition performance. This is identical to our experimental result in Section IV, where the texture classification using the sign features achieves much higher accuracy than using the magnitude features. It will also be seen that by coding both the sign features and magnitude features into rotation invariant binary codes and fusing them, much better texture classification results can be obtained than using only one of them.

### C. CLBP\_S, CLBP\_M, and CLBP\_C Operators

In Sub-section III.B, we illustrated that the sign component preserves much the information of local difference. This explains why the simple LBP technique can reasonably represent the image local features. Meanwhile, we see that the magnitude component may contribute additional discriminant information if it is properly used. In addition, the intensity value of the center pixel itself can also contribute useful information [7-8]. In this sub-section, we present a completed LBP (CLBP) framework to explore all the three types of features.

The CLBP framework is illustrated in Fig. 3. We first represent the original image as its center gray level (C) and the local difference. The local difference is then decomposed into the sign (S) and magnitude (M) components by the LDSMT defined in Eq. (5). Consequently, three operators, namely CLBP\_C, CLBP\_S and CLBP\_M, are proposed to code the C, S and M features, respectively. Then, the CLBP\_C, CLBP\_S and CLBP\_M codes are combined to form the CLBP feature map of the original image. Finally, a CLBP histogram can be built, and some classifier, such as the nearest neighbourhood classifier, can be used for texture classification.

The CLBP\_S operator is the same as the original LBP operator defined in Eq. (1). Since the M components are of continuous values instead of the binary "1" and "-1" values,

they cannot be directly coded as that of  $S$ . Inspired by the coding strategy of  $CLBP\_S$  (i.e. LBP) and in order to code  $M$  in a consistent format with that of  $S$ , we define the following  $CLBP\_M$  operator:

$$CLBP\_M_{P,R} = \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} t(m_p, c) 2^p, \quad t(x, c) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \geq c \\ 0, & x < c \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

where  $c$  is a threshold to be determined adaptively. Here we set it as the mean value of  $m_p$  from the whole image. Similar to  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}$ , the rotation invariant version of  $CLBP\_M_{P,R}$ , denoted by  $CLBP\_M_{P,R}^{riu2}$ , can also be defined to achieve rotation invariant classification.

Both  $CLBP\_S$  and  $CLBP\_M$  produce binary strings so that they can be conveniently used together for pattern classification. There are two ways to combine the  $CLBP\_S$  and  $CLBP\_M$  codes: in concatenation or jointly. In the first way, we calculate the histograms of the  $CLBP\_S$  and  $CLBP\_M$  codes separately, and then concatenate the two histograms together. This  $CLBP$  scheme can be represented as “ $CLBP\_S/M$ ”. In the second way, we calculate a joint 2D histogram of the  $CLBP\_S$  and  $CLBP\_M$  codes. This  $CLBP$  scheme is represented as “ $CLBP\_S/M$ ”.

The center pixel, which expresses the image local gray level, also has discriminant information. To make it consistent with  $CLBP\_S$  and  $CLBP\_M$ , we code it as:

$$CLBP\_C_{P,R} = t(g_c, c_l) \quad (10)$$

where  $t$  is defined in Eq. (9) and the threshold  $c_l$  is set as the average gray level of the whole image.

The three operators,  $CLBP\_S$ ,  $CLBP\_M$  and  $CLBP\_C$ , could be combined in two ways, jointly or hybridly. In the first way, similar to the 2D joint histogram, we can build a 3D joint histogram of them, denoted by “ $CLBP\_S/M/C$ ”. In the second way, a 2D joint histogram, “ $CLBP\_S/C$ ” or “ $CLBP\_M/C$ ” is built first, and then the histogram is converted to a 1D histogram, which is then concatenated with  $CLBP\_M$  or  $CLBP\_S$  to generate a joint histogram, denoted by “ $CLBP\_M\_S/C$ ” or “ $CLBP\_S\_M/C$ ”.

#### D. Dissimilarity Metric and Multi-scale CLBP

There are various metrics to evaluate the goodness between two histograms, such as histogram intersection, log-likelihood ratio, and chi-square statistic [13]. In this study, a test sample  $T$  is assigned to the class of model  $L$  that minimizes the chi-square distance:

$$D(T, L) = \sum_{x=1}^X (T_x - L_x)^2 / (T_x + L_x) \quad (11)$$

where  $X$  is the number of bins, and  $T_x$  and  $L_x$  are respectively the values of the sample and the model image at the  $x^{\text{th}}$  bin. In this paper, the nearest neighborhood classifier with the chi-square distance is used to measure the dissimilarity between two histograms.

Multiresolution analysis could be used to improve the classification accuracy, that is, by employing multiple operators of various  $(P, R)$ . In this study, we use a straightforward multiresolution analysis that measures the dissimilarity as the sum of chi-square distances from all operators [13]:

$$D_Y = \sum_{y=1}^Y D(S^y, Z^y) \quad (12)$$

where  $Y$  is the number of operators, and  $S^y$  and  $Z^y$  are respectively the sample and model histograms extracted from the  $y^{\text{th}}$  ( $y=1,2,\dots,Y$ ) operator.

## IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

To evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed method, we carried out a series of experiments on two large and comprehensive texture databases: the Outex database [14], which includes 24 classes of textures collected under three illuminations and at nine angles, and the Columbia-Utrecht Reflection and Texture (CURET) database, which contains 61 classes of real-world textures, each imaged under different combinations of illumination and viewing angle [25]. As in [6-8], we chose 92 sufficiently large images for each class with a viewing angle less than  $60^\circ$  in the experiments.

### A. The methods in comparison

As an LBP based scheme, the proposed  $CLBP$  is compared with the representative LBP schemes in [13], and the LTP algorithm in [21]. We also compare  $CLBP$  with two state-of-the-art rotation invariant texture classification algorithms, the  $VZ\_MR8$  in [6] and the  $VZ\_Joint$  in [7-8].

There are three LBP operators in [13]:  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}$ ,  $VAR_{P,R}$  and the joint  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2} / VAR_{P,R} \cdot VAR_{P,R}$  is the local intensity invariant:  $VAR_{P,R} = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} (g_p - u)^2$ , where  $u = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} g_p$ . However,  $VAR_{P,R}$  has continuous values and it needs to be quantized. In our experiments, the quantization levels for  $VAR_{P,R}$  and  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2} / VAR_{P,R}$  are respectively set as 128 and 16 bins according to [13].

Different from LBP, LTP quantizes local difference into three levels by a threshold. For computation simplicity, the ternary pattern is spitted into two LBPs, positive LBP and negative LBP. Then two histograms are built and concatenated into one histogram [21].

In  $VZ\_MR8$  [6], 40 textons are clustered from each of the  $n$  classes using the training samples, and then a histogram based on the  $n \times 40$  textons is computed for each model and sample image. Similarly, the  $VZ\_Joint$  algorithm [7-8] learns 40 textons from each texture class and builds a histogram for each image. Here, the  $7 \times 7$  local patch is used as that in [7-8].

In the experiments we evaluate different combinations of the three operators proposed, including  $CLBP\_S_{P,R}^{riu2}$  (it is the same as  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}$ ),  $CLBP\_M_{P,R}^{riu2}$ ,  $CLBP\_M_{P,R}^{riu2} / C$ ,  $CLBP\_S_{P,R}^{riu2} - M_{P,R}^{riu2} / C$ ,  $CLBP\_S_{P,R}^{riu2} / M_{P,R}^{riu2}$ , and  $CLBP\_S_{P,R}^{riu2} / M_{P,R}^{riu2} / C$  (refer to Section III.B for the notation of  $CLBP$ ).

Please note that  $VZ\_MR8$ ,  $VZ\_Joint$ ,  $VAR_{P,R}$  and  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2} / VAR_{P,R}$  are training based methods (in feature extraction), while LTP and the proposed  $CLBP$  are training free. In the following experiments, except for  $VZ\_MR8$  and  $VZ\_Joint$ , each texture sample was normalized to have an

average intensity 128 and a standard deviation 20 [13]. For the VZ\_MR8 and VZ\_Joint methods, the image sample was normalized to have an average intensity of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 [6-8]. This is to remove global intensity and contrast [6-8, 13]. The Chi-square dissimilarity defined in

Section III.D and the nearest neighbourhood classifier were used for all methods here. The source codes of the proposed algorithm can be downloaded from <http://www.comp.polyu.edu.hk/~cslzhang/code/CLBP.rar>.

Table 1. Classification rate (%) on TC10 and TC12 using different schemes.

	$(P, R) = (8, 1)$				$(P, R) = (16, 2)$				$(P, R) = (24, 3)$			
	TC10	TC12		Aver -age	TC10	TC12		Aver -age	TC10	TC12		Aver -age
		"t"	"h"			"t"	"h"			"t"	"h"	
LTP	76.06	62.56	63.42	67.34	96.11	85.20	85.87	89.06	98.64	92.59	91.52	94.25
$VAR_{P,R}$	90.00	62.93	64.35	72.42	86.71	63.47	67.26	72.48	81.66	58.98	65.18	68.60
$LBP_{P,R}^{riu2} / VAR_{P,R}$	96.56	79.31	78.08	84.65	97.84	85.76	84.54	89.38	98.15	87.13	87.08	90.79
$CLBP\_S_{P,R}^{riu2}$	84.81	65.46	63.68	71.31	89.40	82.26	75.20	82.28	95.07	85.04	80.78	86.96
$CLBP\_M_{P,R}^{riu2}$	81.74	59.30	62.77	67.93	93.67	73.79	72.40	79.95	95.52	81.18	78.65	85.11
$CLBP\_M_{P,R}^{riu2} / C$	90.36	72.38	76.66	79.80	97.44	86.94	90.97	91.78	98.02	90.74	90.69	93.15
$CLBP\_S_{P,R}^{riu2} - M_{P,R}^{riu2} / C$	94.53	81.87	82.52	86.30	98.02	90.99	91.08	93.36	98.33	94.05	92.40	94.92
$CLBP\_S_{P,R}^{riu2} / M_{P,R}^{riu2}$	94.66	82.75	83.14	86.85	97.89	90.55	91.11	93.18	99.32	93.58	93.35	95.41
$CLBP\_S_{P,R}^{riu2} / M_{P,R}^{riu2} / C$	96.56	90.30	92.29	93.05	98.72	93.54	93.91	95.39	98.93	95.32	94.53	96.26
VZ_MR8	93.59 (TC10), 92.55 (TC12, "t"), 92.82 (TC12, "h") (Average 92.99)											
VZ_Joint	92.00 (TC10), 91.41 (TC12, "t"), 92.06 (TC12, "h") (Average 91.82)											

### B. Experimental results on the Outex Database

The Outex database includes two test suites: Outex\_TC\_00010 (TC10) and Outex\_TC\_00012 (TC12). The two test suites contain the same 24 classes of textures, which were collected under 3 different illuminants ("horizon", "inca", and "t184") and 9 different rotation angles ( $0^0$ ,  $5^0$ ,  $10^0$ ,  $15^0$ ,  $30^0$ ,  $45^0$ ,  $60^0$ ,  $75^0$  and  $90^0$ ). There are 20 non-overlapping  $128 \times 128$  texture samples for each class under each situation. The experiment setups are as follows:

Table 1 lists the experimental results by different schemes. Under TC12, "t" represents the test setup of illuminant "t184" and "h" represents "horizon". We could make the following findings.

First,  $CLBP\_S$  achieves much better result than  $CLBP\_M$  in most cases. It is in accordance with our analysis in Section III.B that the sign component is more informative than the magnitude component. Second, the center pixel, which represents the gray level of the local patch, contains additional discriminant information as  $CLBP\_M/C$  could get much better results than  $CLBP\_M$ , and  $CLBP\_S/M/C$  gets better results than  $CLBP\_S/M$ . Third, because  $CLBP\_S$  and  $CLBP\_M/C$  contain complementary features, the classification accuracy could be much improved by fusing them either in concatenation or jointly. Between the two types of fusing methods, " $CLBP\_S/M/C$ " has better results than " $CLBP\_S\_M/C$ ". However, the latter has one advantage over the former: its feature dimension is much smaller. Take  $P=24$  as an example, the feature sizes of " $CLBP\_S_{P,R}^{riu2} / M_{P,R}^{riu2} / C$ " and " $CLBP\_S_{P,R}^{riu2} - M_{P,R}^{riu2} / C$ " are 1352 ( $26 \times 26 \times 2$ ) and 78 ( $26 + 26 \times 2$ ), respectively. How to reduce the feature dimension of " $CLBP\_S/M/C$ " will be explored in our future research. Fortunately, a feature size of 1352 is not a big problem for implementation. Fourth, LTP has better results than  $CLBP\_S$

1. For TC10, samples of illuminant "inca" and angle  $0^0$  in each class were used for classifier training and the other 8 rotation angles with the same illuminant were used for testing. Hence, there are 480 ( $24 \times 20$ ) models and 3,840 ( $24 \times 8 \times 20$ ) validation samples.
2. For TC12, the classifier was trained with the same training samples as TC10, and it was tested with all samples captured under illuminant "t184" or "horizon". Hence, there are 480 ( $24 \times 20$ ) models and 4,320 ( $24 \times 20 \times 9$ ) validation samples for each illuminant.

as it is more robust to noise [21]. However, it could not compete with the fusion of  $CLBP\_S$  and  $CLBP\_M$ . One reason is that the local difference is quantized into three levels in LTP while it is quantized into four levels in CLBP. The other reason is that LTP is decomposed into one positive LBP and one negative LBP, which are however not totally independent of each other. On the contrary, the proposed  $CLBP\_S$  and  $CLBP\_M$  are independent and contain complementary information. Fifth,  $CLBP\_M_{P,R}^{riu2}$  works better than  $VAR_{P,R}$ . This is because  $VAR_{P,R}$  only measures the local intensity variance but neglects the local spatial structure, which is useful for texture discrimination. In contrast, the proposed  $CLBP\_M$  operator exploits such information using binary coding.

Sixth,  $CLBP\_S_{P,R}^{riu2} / M_{P,R}^{riu2} / C$  works better than VZ\_Joint. For example,  $CLBP\_S_{24,3}^{riu2} / M_{24,3}^{riu2} / C$  can get 4% improvement over VZ\_Joint. VZ-MRF, a variation of VZ\_Joint, could improve a little the recognition accuracy but with much more cost on feature extraction and matching [7-8]. Both VZ\_Joint and VZ-MRF use original local patch as the feature to learn the texton. They are simple to implement; however, it is time consuming to build the feature histogram. For example, VZ\_Joint will spend more than 3.5 seconds on a  $128 \times 128$

image by 7\*7 patch (49 dimensions) to build the feature histogram (using a PC with Intel Dual Core E6550, 4G RAM, Windows XP and Matlab 7.6). The proposed CLBP scheme is much more efficient. It spends less than 0.1 second on a 128\*128 image with  $(P, R)=(24,3)$ , which is more than 35 times faster than VZ\_Joint. Furthermore, CLBP is training free on feature extraction, and can still get good results when the training samples are limited.

Finally,  $CLBP\_S/M/C_{P,R}^{riu2}/M_{P,R}^{riu2}/C$  achieves better and more robust results than the state-of-the-art methods  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}/VAR_{P,R}$  and VZ\_MR8. Particularly, it can have about 5% improvement over  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}/VAR_{P,R}$  and 3% improvement over VZ\_MR8 with  $(P,R)=(24,3)$ . The improvement for TC12 is more obvious because  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}/VAR_{P,R}$  is sensitive to illumination changes. When the illuminations for training and test sets are different, the quantization of VAR based on training set could not represent test set well, so the accuracy of  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}/VAR_{P,R}$  drops quickly, by 11% for  $LBP_{24,3}^{riu2}/VAR_{24,3}$  from TC10 to TC12. CLBP is training free and it is robust to illumination changes. For example,  $CLBP\_S/M/C_{24,3}^{riu2}/M_{24,3}^{riu2}/C$

only drops 5% in classification accuracy from TC10 to TC12. This is a very important advantage in real applications because it is common for illumination variations.

By applying the multi-scale scheme defined in Section III.D, better results could be obtained. For example,  $CLBP\_S/M/C_{8,1+16,2+24,3}$  could achieve 99.14%, 95.18% and 95.55% for TC10, TC12 “t” and TC12 “h” respectively. The proposed multi-scale scheme could be regarded as a simple sum fusion. Better performance can be expected if more advanced fusion techniques are used [26].

The proposed multi-scale CLBP is simple and fast to build the feature histogram; however, its feature size is a little higher than that of VZ\_MR8. For example, the dimension of multi-scale  $CLBP\_S/M/C_{8,1+16,2+24,3}$ , which is the maximal dimension of CLBP in this section, is 2200 ( $26*26*2+18*18*2+10*10*2$ ), while the size of VZ\_MR8 is 960 ( $24*40$ ). There are methods to reduce the number of models of each texture class, such as the greedy algorithm [6]. Usually, it is possible to get better accuracy by removing some outlier models [6].

Table 2. Classification rate (%) on CURET using different schemes.

N	$(P, R) = (8, 1)$				$(P, R) = (16, 3)$				$(P, R) = (24, 5)$			
	46	23	12	6	46	23	12	6	46	23	12	6
LTP	85.13	79.25	72.04	63.09	92.66	87.30	80.22	70.50	91.81	85.78	77.88	67.77
$VAR_{P,R}$	68.60	60.99	52.78	43.50	61.87	54.40	46.61	38.39	58.17	50.73	43.49	35.83
$LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}/VAR_{P,R}$	93.87	88.76	81.59	71.03	94.20	89.12	81.64	71.81	91.87	85.58	77.13	66.04
$CLBP\_S/M/C_{P,R}^{riu2}$	80.63	74.81	67.84	58.70	86.37	81.05	74.62	66.17	86.37	81.21	74.71	66.55
$CLBP\_M_{P,R}^{riu2}$	75.20	67.96	60.27	51.49	85.48	79.01	71.24	61.59	82.16	76.23	69.22	60.45
$CLBP\_M_{P,R}^{riu2}/C$	83.26	75.58	66.91	56.45	91.42	85.73	78.05	68.14	89.48	83.54	75.96	66.41
$CLBP\_S/M/C_{P,R}^{riu2}/M_{P,R}^{riu2}/C$	90.34	84.52	76.42	66.31	93.87	89.05	82.46	72.51	93.22	88.37	81.44	72.01
$CLBP\_S/M/C_{P,R}^{riu2}/M_{P,R}^{riu2}$	93.52	88.67	81.95	72.30	94.45	90.40	84.17	75.39	93.63	89.14	82.47	73.26
$CLBP\_S/M/C_{P,R}^{riu2}/M_{P,R}^{riu2}/C$	95.59	91.35	84.92	74.80	95.86	92.13	86.15	77.04	94.74	90.33	83.82	74.46
VZ_MR8	97.79 (46), 95.03 (23), 90.48 (12), 82.90 (6)											
VZ_Joint	97.66 (46), 94.58 (23), 89.40 (12), 81.06 (6)											

### C. Experimental results on the CURET Database

The CURET database contains 61 texture classes, each having 205 images acquired at different viewpoints and illumination orientations. There are 118 images shot from a viewing angle of less than  $60^\circ$ . Of these 118 images, we selected 92 images, from which a sufficiently large region could be cropped ( $200*200$ ) across all texture classes [6]. We converted all the cropped regions to grey scale.

To get statistically significant experimental results [10-11],  $N$  training images were randomly chosen from each class while the remaining  $92-N$  images per class were used as the test set. The partition is implemented 1000 times independently. The average accuracy over 1000 random splits is listed in Table 2. The first 23 images of each class were used to learn the cut values for VAR, and were used to learn the texon dictionary for VZ\_MR8 and VZ\_Joint.

Similar conclusions to those in Section IV.B can be made from the experimental results on the CURET dataset. The proposed  $CLBP\_S/M/C_{P,R}^{riu2}/M_{P,R}^{riu2}/C$  gets better results than  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}/VAR_{P,R}$  for all cases. Especially, when the number of training samples is small, bigger improvement is achieved. For example,  $CLBP\_S/M/C_{24,5}^{riu2}/M_{24,5}^{riu2}/C$  has 3% higher accuracy than  $LBP_{24,5}^{riu2}/VAR_{24,5}$  when  $N=46$ , while the difference is more than 8% when  $N=6$ . Again, the multi-scale scheme could improve the CLBP accuracy. For example,  $CLBP\_S/M/C_{8,1+16,3+24,5}$  can get 97.39%, 94.19%, 88.72% and 79.88% for 46, 23, 12 and 6 training samples respectively. However, the performance of CLBP is not better than that of VZ\_MR8 and VZ\_Joint on this database. This is mainly because there are scale and affine variations in the CURET database, while CLBP is an operator proposed for rotation and gray level invariance and it has limited capability to address

scale and affine invariance. Meanwhile, VZ\_MR8 and VZ\_Joint are learning based algorithms, and large amount of training samples are necessary to construct the representative texton dictionary. When the training samples are not enough, the accuracy will drop. Table 3 shows the classification rate of VZ\_MR8 under different number of training samples. We see that when the training samples are not enough, its performance is worse than the proposed CLBP operator. Similar finding could be found for the VZ\_Joint algorithm.

As a completed operator of original LBP, the proposed framework could be applied to different LBP variants, such as derivative-based LBP [17], Dominant LBP [22], and center-symmetric LBP [23]. For example, apart from extracting dominant CLBP\_S, dominant CLBP\_M could be extracted as complementary information and concatenated with the dominant CLBP\_S for classification.

Table 3. Classification rate (%) of VZ\_MR8 using different number of training samples.

$N$	46	23	12	6
$n=61$	97.79	95.03	90.48	82.90
$n=20$	96.65	93.45	88.40	80.35
$n=10$	95.82	92.32	86.92	78.65

## V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we analyzed LBP from a viewpoint of local difference sign-magnitude transform (LDSMT), and consequently a new scheme, namely completed LBP (CLBP), was proposed. Three operators, CLBP\_C, CLBP\_S and CLBP\_M, were defined to extract the image local gray level, the sign and magnitude features of local difference, respectively. We demonstrated that the sign component is more important than the magnitude component in preserving the local difference information, which can explain why the CLBP\_S (i.e. conventional LBP) features are more effective than the CLBP\_M features. Finally, by fusing the CLBP\_S, CLBP\_M and CLBP\_C codes, all of which are in binary string format, either in a joint or in a hybrid way, much better texture classification accuracy than the state-of-the-arts LBP algorithms were obtained.

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