WOOD SPECIES RECOGNITION BASED

ON PHASE - ONLY CORRELATION (POC)

TECHNIQUE

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WOOD SPECIES RECOGNITION BASED ON PHASE - ONLY CORRELATION (POC) TECHNIQUE

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Thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements

for the award of the degree of

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SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that I have checked this thesis and in my opinion, this thesis is adequate in terms of scope and quality for the award of the degree of Master of Science (Computer).



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STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work in this thesis is my own except for quotations and summaries which have been duly acknowledged. The thesis has not been accepted for any degree and is not concurrently submitted for award of other degree.

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:

Date

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This effort is dedicated to:

my dearest mother, Nik Nab Binti Nik Hassan

my dearest father, Nik Ismail Bin Nik Hussin

and

my motivation, my family members

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ABSTRACT

This research is was performed in order to determine the suitable methodology and techniques to indentify the wood species automatically, identify wood species. Traditional wood recognition requires skilled employees who are skilled in recognizing wood species. There are The two main problems in this with recognition, which are is the lack of skilled employees and the visually impaired employees. This will leadleads to the an interruption of the wood recognition process. Besides that, based on the previous researches there areresearch, two techniques applied are used to recognize wood species. These techniques are found that cannot to often do not give a high and clear accuracy to the of wood species recognition. According to this Accordingly, to improve the accuracy rate to the of wood species recognition, this research is was proposed. There are four main steps done performed to develop thea wood species recognition system which. These are; data acquisition, preprocessing, features extraction, and features analysis. The technique used is-was the Phase-Only Correlation (POC) technique. The POC technique involves three (3) steps during the feature extraction phase. The These steps are the 2D the 2D Discrete Fourier Transform (2D DFT), Cross Phase Spectrum, and 2D Inverse Fourier Transform (2D IFT). Each step contains specific calculation calculations and algorithm in order algorithms to get obtain details on woods the wood's features and match it them with the possible matching species. By applying all the three (3) steps, the testingtest image is found to be acither match or mismatch with not match the training data. ThenNext, the classification process is doneperformed with the help of the K-Neighbour Network (KNN) technique; where it helps to classify the wood images-into its classes. This technique is tested for 8 was used to test eight wood species which are, namely Balau, Ramin, Durian, Melunak, Mersawa Gajah, Rengas, and Sepetir. From the series of this testing done, it is was found that Balau and Ramin wood species arewere identified with 100% accurately.accuracy. Meanwhile, Melunak and Rengas wood species arewere identified in about approximately 98.5%. While for%; Mersawa wood species, the accuracy of the testing is about to 95%. For the %; and for both Durian and Sepetir wood species obtained, 93.75% accuracy- was obtained. Furthermore, for the Mersawa Gajah wood species there are, only 91.25% of the data tested wood species are successfully identified. Theaccuracy was obtained. These research results obtained from the research done, it showed that there are show that 96.4% of the wood species tested accurately and were recognized without error.

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Kajian ini dilakukan bertujuan untuk menentukan metodologi dan teknik yang bersesuaian bagi mengenalpasti spesis kayu secara automatik. Penentuan jenis kayu-kayan masih lagi dibuat berdasarkan pemerhatian mata kasar. Pengenalpastian jenis kayu secara tradisional ini memerlukan pekerja yang benar-benar mahir dalam mengenalpasti jenis kayu. Terdapat dua permasalahan utama dalam kaedah pengkelasan ini, jaitu kekurangan pekeria mahir dan pekerja mengalami masalah penglihatan. Keadaan ini mengakibatkan proses mengenalpasti jenis kayu terganggu. Selain itu, berdasarkan kajian-kajian terdahulu terdapat dua teknik yang telah digunakan bagi mengenalpasti spesis kayu. Teknik- teknik ini didapati tidak dapat memberi kadar ketepatan yang tinggi dan jelas bagi mengenalpasti spesis kayu. Sehubungan dengan itu, bagi meningkatkan lagi kadar ketepatan pengenalpastian spesis kayu kajian ini telah dijalankan. Terdapat empat langkah utama yang dijalankan untuk membangunkan sistem kenalpasti spesis kayu iaitu; perolehan data, pra-pemprosesan data, ekstrak data dan analisis data. Antara teknik yang digunakan adalah teknik 'phase-only correlation' (POC). Teknik POC melibatkan tiga langkah semasa fasa ekstrak data. Langkah-langkah ini adalah '2D Discrete Fourier Transform' (2D DFT), 'Cross Phase Spectrum', dan '2D Inverse Fourier Transform' (2D IFT). Setiap langkah mengandungi pengiraan dan algoritma khusus untuk mendapatkan maklumat mengenai ciri-ciri kayu dan dipadankan dengan spesies yang mungkin sepadan dengannya. Dengan menggunakan ketiga-tiga langkah, imej yang diuji didapati sama ada sepadan atau tidak sepadan dengan data. Seterusnya, proses klasifikasi dilakukan dengan bantuan K-Neighbour Network (KNN) teknik; di mana ia membantu untuk mengklasifikasikan imej kayu. Teknik ini telah diuji dalam 8 spesis kayu, antaranya ialah Balau, Ramin, Durian, Melunak, Mersawa, Mersawa Gajah, Rengas dan Sepetir. Daripada siri pengujian yang dijalankan, didapati bahawa kayu spesis Balau dan Ramin dapat dikenalpasti 100% dengan tepat. Manakala spesis kayu jenis Melunak dan Rengas dapat dikenalpasti sebanyak 98.5%. Bagi kayu spesis Mersawa jumlah ketepatan yang diuji adalah sebanyak 95%. Kayu spesis Durian dan Sepetir masing-masing memperolehi sebanyak 93.75%. Walau bagaimanapun bagi kayu spesis Mersawa Gajah hanya 91.25% yang didapati dari hasil pengujian yang dijalankan. Justeru, hasil dari kajian secara keseluruhan, di dapati 96.4% dari spesis kayu yang diuji berjaya di kenalpasti tanpa sebarang ralat.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

WBI	Wood Based Industry
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POC Phase - Only Correlation

- KDNK Keluaran Dalam Negara Kasar
- MTIB Malaysian Timber Industry Board
- K-NN K Nearest Neighbor
- GDP Gross Domestic Product
- MGR Malaysia Grading Rules

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INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER 1

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

Tropical rainforests in South-East Asia are blessed with more than 15,000 different plant species, of which about 3,000 species can be categorized categorised as timber species. Together they made up approximately 33% of the world's timber industry in year 2010 (Forestry Department, 2010). Currently, natural resources such as wood have become scarce and very expensive. Thus, maximizingmaximising the usage and reducing the rejection are great challenges for the wood industry (Cavalin et al. 2006). In economic history, wood was being conceived as a major factor in contributing largesttowards contribution of large income to the country.

Based on research from by Ariff (2005), the wood-based industry (WBI) had long been an important part of the manufacturing sector, the mainkey driver of economic growth for the country. Malaysia. The wood industry has undergone major changes over the years, with downstream activities becoming increasingly important.

In order the to sustain the strong competition, competitiveness, in highly demanding markets, producers must focus on the quality of their products and increase the efficiency of production process cluster (Baginski et al. 2007). In light of this, various studies have

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been <u>doneconducted</u> to develop a system <u>whichthat</u> is suitable and effective to <u>identifyin</u> <u>identifying</u> the species of wood that issued from time to time.

The three major categories of wood-types are softwood, hardwood and composite wood. Softwood is available directly from the wholesale and retail yards or lumber brokers. Whereas for hardwood areHardwood, on the other hand, is used in construction for flooring, architectural woodwork, interior woodwork and panelling. As the for composite wood-which, it is also known as engineered wood, which includes a range of derivative wood products.

Composite wood <u>is</u> manufactured by binding-together the strands, particles, fibres or veneer of wood together with adhesives from composite materials. In the construction industry, choosing and ensuring the right wood species to be used is very important. This is important, as different species of wood has different characteristic and features. The<u>These</u> differences-_might affect the result or products when they are used for different purposes (Tou et al. 2007).

In the wood industry, quality control makesis an important aspect to produce a product. Quality control is a procedure or set of procedures intended to ensure that a manufactured product or performed service adheres to a defined set of quality criteria or meets the requirements of the clients or customers. This is because the high quality of product would attract clients or customers interest to purchase and also increase the demand in local or international market. Therefore, wood industry needs an efficient and effective system to ensure the high quality of the product products produced.

Wood is valuable as an engineering material, <u>and manufacturing</u> and in many cases, technology advances have made it even more useful. The <u>One of the advantages of</u> computer vision system <u>is that it would indirectly make a process become</u> more effective where it is, as well as consistent and safe for the wood industry product. This will <u>As a</u> result-the, production of the wood product increased with a <u>highlybetter</u> quality and become potential tocould potentially, compete in <u>the international market</u>. Apart from that, it will

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<u>also</u> save cost and production time-<u>because</u>, <u>as</u> it does not require many expert workers. By using computer vision system, accurate result in brief periods can be attended.

At present, humans identify, classify and <u>recognizerecognise</u> most wood species in order to allow cut-up decision to be made. This operation is <u>laborlabour</u> intensive and costly (Buehlmann et al. 2007). <u>RecognizingRecognising</u> the type of species is <u>an</u> important problem in <u>the</u> wood industry process. Cost reduction in production and inspection process is also a crucial objective for wood manufacturers. This is because the quality of inspection process is manually performed by experts.

Unfortunately, experts cannot <u>recognize</u> more than 60 % of the overall category in the wood species. Like other inspection process, it is <u>dependeddependent</u> on workers' experience until now. <u>TheAs such</u>, the development of a flexible, efficient, reliable, and integrated real—_time system for industrial application is an essential issue in quality control process for wood manufacturers.

To develop a system for recognizing cognising and classifying the wood species, several important aspects should be studied and analyzed analyzed. Research based on the nature of the methods and data that form with the images of each type of species to be emphasized is identified. This is to facilitate the determination of the method that will be used in <u>developing the development of system later</u>.

One of available techniquetechniques that can be used to overcome and solve the problem is a computer vision. Computer vision is one of the ultimate unsolved problems in computer science, and solving it, or even small parts of it, creates exciting new possibilities in technology, engineering and even entertainment. Manufacturing sector areis growing quickly with computer vision and is now in food processing, pharmaceuticals, wood and paper, plastics, metal fabrication and other industries.

Computer vision is computer imaging where the application does not involve a human to begin in the visual loop. In other words, the images are examined and acted upon

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by the computer. Although <u>humanhumans</u> are involved in the development of the system, the final application requires a computer to use the visual information directly (Umbaugh 1998).

The field of computer vision aims to mimic human vision through automated analysis of images and video, using the output from a camera to <u>recognizerecognise</u> people and objects, and track moving things. Computer vision has applications in robotics, surveillance, remote sensing of the environment, and computer graphics (Bebis et al. 2003),

In fact of that, computer<u>Computer</u> vision for wood species recognition system in <u>within the</u> wood industry is greatly needed. Thus, wood<u>Wood</u> species recognition system <u>washas been</u> developed to identify the different species of Malaysian wood. This system, <u>which</u> used <u>capturecaptured</u> image as a sample for characteristic observation. Moreover, the wood species recognition system has a, has the capability to identify wood species effectively.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Traditionally, wood'sthe wood industry used human experts to identify the wood'swood species. It takes time to train a person to be competent in identifying the species with a high accuracy. However, by Nevertheless, using expert naked eyes to classify it-the species have led to several problems, such as inconsistence inconsistent recognition results, only workers who are very experienced are able to classify itmake the classification, and the process of wood species classification is very depended dependent on the experts' opinions.

By using the naked eyeseye, the process of standardizingstandardising the species of wood seems tocan be difficult. One of them is the such difficulty is in standardizingstandardising the decision from different a number of peoplespeople, especially in a subjective matter (Musa et al. 2007). Formatted: Font:

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In addition, manual examination of wood identification can <u>also</u> be <u>very</u> subjective. Besides that, the process of identification <u>whichthat</u> is <u>dependingdependent</u> on human experts <u>is</u>-always <u>having a problem especiallyhas issues</u> in managing resources. For example, if <u>a worker is retired, the expert retires, the company needswould need</u> to make another investment to train a new <u>expert person</u> in identifying the woods species. <u>Moreover, Furthermore, such</u> traditional method <u>needsrequires</u> a <u>hugelarge</u> number of workers and <u>much</u> time to <u>makecomplete</u> a process <u>done</u>.

Furthermore, the usage of aWhen large labor<u>labour</u> force will is used, this leads to increase <u>in cost of production</u>. This is because the employer had to pay, as more salaries to many workers. The increasementare paid out. Subsequently, the increment in production cost will directly <u>increaseraise</u> the price of goods in the market and lead to a lower demand from consumers.

Currently, there There are currently two studies for wood recognition. Both of proposed studies are based on the Grey Level Co-occuranceoccurrence Matrices (GLCM). According to the The result of thethese studies, show showed that the accuracy rate for the wood species recognition is not completely successful-with, as only low accuracy obtained. For the The first study-entitled, "Wood Species Recognition System" by Bremananth et al. 2009 the study, used on-10 Indian woods species, which are included Teak, Ebony, Jack, Oak, Padauk, Sal, Satin, Teak, White Oak and Zebra as the sample. While for Meanwhile, the second study-entitled, "Design of An Intelligent Wood Species Recognition System" by Khalid et al. (2008) used six Malaysian woods species which are Bintangor, Bintangor, Nyatoh, Sesendok, Ramin, Mersawa and Jelutong.

Based on those studies, there<u>There</u> are several problems found in these studies which in, partly due to the GLCM technique. Where the <u>As a result-can, the outcome could</u> only achieve up to 96 % of accuracy. The other problems are issues include the sensitivity of GLCM is sensitive by towards the change in brightness, and required more filtering techniques in order to remove the noise since, as the process in GLCM isdoes not really emphasize on-filtering stage.

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Since the Phase Only-Correlation (POC) technique <u>has been</u> found successful in <u>mostmany fields</u> of field of the studies <u>done</u>, especially in face recognition system <u>studies</u>, the researcher <u>has</u> decided to apply POC in order to <u>recognizerecognise</u> the wood species. By thenIn addition, there are certain techniques applied to enhance POC for a better result.

1.3 OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this research is to propose <u>the a</u> wood species recognition technique. This objective can be divided as <u>followsinto the following</u>:

- i) To develop wood species recognition based on phase only-correlation (POC) technique.
- ii) To classifies wood species using K--Nearest Neighbor Neighbour technique.
- iii) To evaluate and compare the proposed technique with against the GLCM technique method.

1.4 RESEARCH SCOPE AND APPROACH

This research is focused on the development of <u>an</u> automated recognition and classification system, which consists of image acquisition, image enhancement, image

segmentation, feature extraction and classification. The entire recognition and classification system is developed in MATLAB. The scopes of this research can be divided into four (4), they are:

- This project is developed to recognize and classify the wood species by using grayscalegrey scale image of 450 x 300 sizes.
- This project has been developed using MATLAB as a data-manipulation software package that allows data to be analyzed<u>analysed</u> and <u>visualized<u>visualised</u> using existing functions and used-designed programsprogrammes.
 </u>
- This project <u>has</u> used <u>on eight (8)</u> Malaysian woods species, which are Balau, Ramin, Durian, Melunak, Mersawa, Mersawa Gajah, Rengas and Sepetir.
- iv) <u>Numbers The number</u> of training and testing data <u>areis</u> eighty (80) images for each species.

1.5 DISSERTATION OUTLINE

This thesis is divided into five (5) Chapters and organizedorganised as follows.followed. Chapter 1 introduces the background of the wood industry, the problem statement, the objectives and the research scope and approach. The Chapter 2 presents the literature review on wood species classification and methods used to accomplish it, giveas well as provide knowledge on wood identification and techniques that are previously used in wood species identification is presented in Chapter 2., The detail of methodology, testing and prototype of research development is presented in Chapter 3, while Chapter 4 will be discussed discusses the result obtained and evaluate evaluates the proposed techniques. Finally, the summary of the thesis and conclusion to the work is presented in Chapter 5.

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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Malaysia, located in South-East Asia, is a federation of states. It spreads across two separate geographical regions they, which are Peninsular Malaysia and Borneo Island. Tropical The tropical rainforests in south-South East Asia are blessed with more than 15,000 different plant species, of which about 3,000 species can be eategorizedcategorised as timber species. The Malaysia's timber industry continues to be a major export earner for the nation. In 2009, Malaysia exported a total of RM 19.4 billion worth of timber products.

In the same year, the country's import <u>forof</u> timber product, excluding furniture, amounted to RM 1.1 billion. This indicates that Malaysia is not only a major exporter of timber products but is also becoming a significant importer to supply its domestic timber materials (Source: Malaysia Timber Industry Board, 2009).

The growth <u>was alsohas been</u> attributed to the structural transformation of the timber industry, shifting from primary to secondary processing <u>and</u> complemented by the development of synergetic industrial clusters. In line with <u>the industry's encouraging the</u> growth of the industry, the Federal Government has made an allocation of RM1 billion for a 15-year <u>programprogramme</u> to plant 375,000 <u>heetor-hectares of land with high-value</u> timber trees by 2020.

Nowadays, wood species recognition is widely used in various areas and environments. For examplesexample, it is used in the construction industry and manufacturing industry sector. Wood species recognition is an implementation on identifying the refers to the identification of different species of wood with through the capture of wood sample or the characteristics observed.

In the <u>wood</u> industry, wood <u>material</u> <u>materials</u> must be examined before <u>it is they are</u> selected to produce a product. This is important because <u>the</u> different species of wood has <u>the differentvaried</u> characteristics and features, <u>thesewhich</u> might affect the result or products if they are used for different purposes.

According to (Tou et al., 2007) According to Tou et al. (2007) in their study, Computer Vision-based Wood Recognition System has stated that in the construction industry, choosing and ensuring the right wood to be used is very important. Similarly, the manufacturing of wood products such as cupboards, tables and chairs must also be usinguse wood material of a certain quality. If <u>the</u> wood materials <u>which that</u> are not strong enough are used at critical areas such as the roof truss, part of the house may collapse after a period of time (Lew, 2005).

The safety issue of these products is important, <u>since collapsing house andhouses or</u> chairs that suddenly break might cause serious injuries or even ledlead to fatal results, therefore. As such, the types of wood used must be properly chosen and verified.

Traditionally, wood recognition has usesused human expert to identify the wood's species. It takes a long time to train a person to be competent in wood identification and to identify wood species with high accuracy. Furthermore, manual examination of wood identification can be very subjective.

Besides that, the process of identification <u>whichthat</u> is <u>dependingdependent</u> on human expert <u>are always tends to</u> have <u>a problemissues</u>, especially in managing resources. For example, if a worker <u>is retired, retires</u>, <u>the</u> company needs to make another investment to train a new expert to identify <u>the</u>-woods species. Moreover, traditional method needs a huge number of workers and <u>much</u> time to make a process done. In this chapter, several previous studies have been reviewed in order to <u>giveprovide</u> knowledge about the important aspects of developing a system for wood species recognition. Several aspects must be concerned in obtaining the more effective system, such as methods, techniques and algorithms <u>that are suitable</u> to <u>implement implemented</u> in wood recognition system.

2.2 CLASSIFICATION OF MALAYSIAN WOOD

In Malaysia, most of the timbers produced are hardwoods. From 3,000 species of treetrees in the forest_x only 12 species are softwoods. Of the 3,000 species, <u>a</u> total of 677 species can achieve girth of 1.2m at breast height. There These are the species that are being exploited for timber. The timbers that are known in the international market, totalingtotalling 480 species, have been introduced through the Malaysia Grading Rules (MGR) (Menon, 2004).

In the 1984 edition of the MGR, the timbers are divided into 100 timberstimber groups comprising that comprised the commercial timbers in Malaysia, and these include included the softwood timber group. Generally timber can be classified into:

- (i) Heavy hardwood (HHW)
- (ii) Medium hardwood_(MHW)
- (iii) Light hardwood_(LHW)
- (iv) Softwood

The <u>detailsdetailed</u> features such <u>as</u> density, uses, and durability of each classification can be referred to Table 2.1; while Table 2.2 shows the species for each classification of <u>MalaysiaMalaysian</u> timber.



Groups	Heavy Hard Woods	Medium Hardwood	Light Hardwood	Softwood
	Possess density above 880 kg	Moderately heavy -and range	Below 270 kg $/m^3$ at 15 %	Range from about 385 to 735
Density	$/m^3$ at 15% moisture content	in density from about 720 to	moisture content	kg $/m^3$
	and are naturally durable	880 kg /m ³ 15% moisture		
		content		
Uses	Construction timbers.	Construction purpose.	Furniture, decorative paneling,	Mainly as decorative plywood
			eet.panelling, etc.	and paneling.panelling.
	The durability of the timbers	Moderately durable timbers.	The timbers are not naturally	Softwood timbers are
	is due to the fact that most of	Some timbers in this class,	durable in tropical climate but	differentiated from hardwood
	them contain some toxic	such as kempas and tualang,	are generally quite durable in	timbers by the presence by
	materials within their tissues	are heavy and strong, but	temperate conditions. The	theof tracheids instead of
	such as alkaloids and other	under tropical conditions, their	timbers in this group require	vessels (pores). The <u>three (3)</u>
	substances abhorrent to wood	natural durability is	preservative treatment as	groups of softwood species are
	destroying agents. Such	insufficient for use in exposed	precaution agents against	dammar minyak, podo and
	timbers can be used in most	condition and in ground	wood destroying agents, such	sempilor. However, only
D 1 114	exposed conditions without	contact unless they are	as fungi and insects.	dammar minyak is of
Durability	undergoing preservative	properly treated with chemical		commercial <u>use</u> at the moment.
	treatment. However, the	preservatives. Under temperate		
	sapwood of these timbers	conditions most of the timbers		
	requires treatment as it is not	in this group are naturally		
	naturally durable.	durable as the climatic		
		conditions are likely to be less		
		conducive to the activity of		
		wood destroying agents.		
Species	14 species groups	36 species groups	47 species groups	3 species groups
	(See Table 2.2)	(See Table 2.2)	(See Table 2.2)	(See Table 2.2)

Source: Menon (2004)

Heavy Hardwood	Medium Hardwood	Light Hardwood	Softwood
Heavy Hardwood 1. Balau 2. Red Balau 3. Belian 4. Bitis 5. Chengal 6. Giam 7. Kekatong 8. Keranji 9. Malagangai 10. Merbau 11. Penaga 12. Penyau 13. Resak 14. Tembusu	Medium Hardwood 1. Alan Batu 2. Bekak 3. Derum 4. Entapuloh 5. Geriting/teruntum 6. Kandis 7. Kapur 8. Kasai 9. Kayu Malam 10. Kedang Belum/Tulang Daing 11. Kelat 12. Keledang 13. Kempas 14. Keruning 15. Keruntum 16. Kulim 17. Mata Ulat 18. Mempening 19. Mengkulang 20. Merassi 21. Merawan 22. Merbatu 23. Merpauh 24. Mertas 25. Nyalin (Minyak Berok) 26. Pauh Kijang 27. Perah 28. Petaling 9. Punah 30. Ranggu 31. Rengas	Light Hardwood1.Alan Bunga2.Ara3.Babai4.Bayur5.Berangan6.Bintangor7.Binuang8.Dedali9.Durian10.Geronggang11.Gerutu12.Jelutong13.Jongkong14.Kedondong15.Kelumpang16.Kembang semangkok17.Ketapang18.Kungkur19.Laran20.Machang21.Mahang22.Medang23.Melantai24.Melunak25.Mempisang26.Meranti, Light Red29.Meranti, Yellow31.Merbulan32.Melajau35.Penarahan36.Perupok37.Petai38.Pulai39.Ramin	1. Damar Minyak 2. Podo 3. Sempilor

Table 2.2: Species of each classification of Malaysia timbers

Source: Menon (2004)

2.3 GENERAL STRUCTURE OF WOOD

Wood is formed as a result of continuous secondary growth in cells. The complicated nature of its structure will be more readily understood by knowing how wood is formed in a growing tree. Figure 2.1 <u>illustratedillustrates</u> the structure of wood, which consists of sapwood, heartwood, pith, outer bark, inner bark and cambium elements. The description of each element <u>is</u> stated in Table 2.3.



cambium, and bark	h (U.K.)
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Table 2.3: Element of wood structure

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Туре	Description		
Pith	When the seed of a tree germinates, it forms a shoot consisting of thin		
	medulla of spongy tissue.		
Cambium	The pith completely enclosed within a thin meristematic tissue		
Bark	Which in turn is protected on the outside by a-tissues		
Inner Bark	Produces new cells of a different kind giving rise to the formation of new		
	phloem or inner bark.		
Heartwood	The <u>function functions</u> are :		
and	a. Conduction of water and dissolved mineral salt solutions from the roots		
Sapwood	to the leaves for the manufacture of plant food materials.		
	b. Storage and distribution of manufactured and reserved food materials.		
	c. Provision of mechanical strength to the tree as a whole.		

Source: Menon (2004)

Figure 2.2 illustrates the three-dimensional differences between hardwood and softwood cell structures. The similarities between hardwoods and softwood are in several structural elements such as ray cells, early wood and latewood. Hardwood structure, <u>nevertheless</u>, is more complex than softwood structure, and varies considerably between species.



 Figure 2.2: Three-dimensional cell level comparison between hardwood and
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 softwoodssoftwood
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Source: Bond et al. (2011)

The majority of hardwood volume is composed of <u>fiberfibre</u> cells that offer structural support to the stem. The major difference between hardwood and softwood is the presence of <u>fiberfibre</u> and vessel elements that exist in hardwoods only. The main function of vessel elements is water conduction. Vessel elements can vary greatly in size, number and spacing from one species to another, and from earlywood to latewood. The detailded description of hardwood and softwood are illustrated in Table 2.4.

<u>Common</u> in manual processes, the experts <u>willwould</u> combine the structure features together with physical features in order to identify the species of woods. The most important physical features used in wood identification are <u>colorcolour</u>, weight, hardness, texture, grain, Figure and smell. The <u>detaildetailed</u> descriptions of each physical feature are described in Table 2.5.



Table 2.4: Description of softwood and hardwood elements

Element		Features
Element	Softwood	Hardwood
Vessels	Not existexistence	The transverse section of wood are seem is seen as small, round or oval holes in the wood. On a longitudinal surface, they appear as small grooves or scratches, running parallel to the axis of the stem.
Thick- walled Tracheids	For more <u>More</u> than 90% of softwood elements, are long, tube-like cells with closed ends, numerous holes (pits) on the side walls.	Not exist<u>existence</u>
Early wood	Cells have large diameters and thin cell walls. Within each growth ring, a band of large earlywood vessels (pores) is clearly visible to the naked eye	
Latewood	Thick - walled, smaller diameter A band of latewood vessels appears much smaller and requires the use of a hand lens to see.	
Rays	Similar to those of hardwoods but due to lack of pronounced variation in ray structure between woods of different softwoods, their value, in differentiating between different kinds of wood, is almost nil.	
FibersFibres	Not <u>existexistence</u> The main function of the tissue is to provide mechanical strength and rigidity to the wood.	
Resin cells	Presence or absence of resin canals. Not <u>existexistence</u>	
Other Structure Features		
Parenchyma that the cells are comparatively materials sparse. i) Vert pare		parenchyma
		or parenchyma or as ray

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Source: Menon (2004)

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Physical Features	Description	
ColorColour	Each wood has a characteristic colorcolour of its own and this	
	helps identification to some extent.	
Weight	Made up of chemical compounds, which include cellulose,	
-	hemicelluloses and lignin.	
Hardness	DefineDefined as the degree of resistance of wood to cutting,	
	shaping, nailing, abrasion, etc.	
Texture	The term refers to the quality of wood, which is determined by the	
	relative sizes of the basic structure elements and their arrangement	
Grain	Often wrongly applied to refer to the texture of wood.	
Figure	Refers to the attractive designs in wood produced by the	
	arrangement of the elements or by uneven coloring.colouring.	
Smell	A few woods have a smell characteristic smell, which can be used	
	in identification. Some of these timbers are :	
	a. Keruing – resinous smell	
	b. Kapur – camphory smell	
	c. Kulim – garlic - like smell	

Table 2.5: Physical features of woods

Source: Menon (2004)

2.4 MANUAL EXAMINATION PROCESS OF WOOD IDENTIFICATION

Timber is generally examined in two ways, namely with the naked eye and then, with the aid of a magnifier. First is the examination of wood species with the naked eye. This examination uses the senses without the aid of any accessories. During this process, the examiner needs to consider both structure and physical elements of wood before naming the wood species. The structure and physical elements are already stated in the previous section and illustratejllustrated in Table 2.4.

The second way to examine the wood species is using a magnifier. The This examination consists of three (3) steps, which require equipment and procedures as illustrated in Figure 2.3 to Figure 2.5.

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Figure 2.3: Step 1 for of the process of in identifying the wood sample by using a sharp pocket knife

The equipment required for the purpose of identification process is a sharp pocket knife and a hand lens of 10x magnification.

The first step is <u>usingto use</u> the knife (Figure 2.3). A sharp blade is required for good surface preparation. If the knife is not sharp, the section prepared will be rough and the finer details of <u>the</u> structure may be disturbed. A razor blade is best <u>tofor</u> use.

A good clean surface is when cells are cleanly cut rather than torn. It-<u>Nevertheless</u>, <u>it_should_also_not_tobe</u> cut it_too deep. <u>Deep_as_deep</u> cuts <u>willwould</u> resort in torn <u>fibersfibres</u> in the wood section and possible injury to examiner's hands and fingers. Wood samples should preferably be cut in such a way <u>as_to_exposethat_it_exposes</u> the true transverse (cross-_section), radial and tangential surfaces.

On the end surface (transverse section), which should be truly horizontal to the grain then, a clean cut is made. This is done by a single movement of the knife. Wetting the surface with water can be helpful in getting a good, clean section.

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(a) Hand lens of $\frac{10 \times 10x}{10 \times 10x}$ magnification used using to examine the wood structure. magnification.

(b) Process of identifying the wood

<u>a</u> hand lens 10 x magnifications of 10x

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Figure 2.4: Step 2 for of the process of in identifying the wood sample by using hand lens

The second (Figure 2.4) step involves the use of the hand lens. To view the cellular features of wood, it is very useful to have a 10x magnification hand lens to magnify the wood section. The most commonly used lens for identification is the folding type.

The transverse section is then examined by the aid of the hand lens in the way described above (Figure 2.4). If the initial examination shows that the features of <u>the wood</u> are not well defined, a little moisture is applied to the section with a moist finger. This, in most cases, improves the visibility of the wood features.

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Figure 2.5: Step 3 for process of identifying the wood sample

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Step 3 (Figure 2.5) engages the structure features considered to examine the wood sample. The elements of wood structure considered are rays, vessels and parenchyma. The details can be obtained from the-Table 2.3. By using a hand lens, the examiner can determine if vessel elements are present or not, thus separating hardwoods from softwoods.

In order to determine <u>the</u> sample of woods, some characteristics are considered. Those characteristics include, <u>including</u> sapwood, <u>heartwood</u>, <u>lusterlustre</u>, strip Figure, ring Figure, texture, grain and air dry density. Each characteristic distinguishes one wood species.

For example, to identify <u>the</u> Balau species, the general characteristic of its <u>lusterlustre</u> is considered. The <u>lusterlustre</u> of the Balau species should be medium and not too high. <u>In the meanwhileMeanwhile</u>, the heartwood of Ramin species should be creamwhite to pale straw in colour in order to distinguish it.
Other than the general characteristics, there are structures and other features of wood species <u>that</u> can be considered<u>-in order</u> to examine the wood species. The structures are growth ring, parenchyma, rays, ripple marks and intercellular. Table 2.6 and Table 2.7 giveprovide details on general characteristics of wood species and the structure and other features found in the wood species<u>accordingly</u>, which <u>are</u>usually used in determining the sample of woods.



General	Wood Species							
Characteristics	Balau	Ramin	Rengas	Melunak	Mersawa	Sepetir	Durian	Mersawa Gajah
Sapwood	Well defined	Not differential	Well defined, Pink- brown	Not well- defined, lighter- coloured	Not differential	Distinct Light- pink	Lighter, Coloured, Distinct	Not well-defined, Lighter- coloured
Heartwood	Yellow and red brown, brown	Cream- white to pale-straw	Blood-red, streaky	Pink- brown, or red- brown	Yellow- brown to straw- brown	Brown, gold and red brown	Pink- brown, red-brown	Yellow-brown to straw-brown
Luster	Medium	Not particularly	High	-	-	Not significant	-	-
Strip Figure	Subtle	-	-	Radial surface	Subtle	Radial surface	-	Subtle
Ring Figure	-	-	-	-		Tangential surface	-	-
Texture	Fine and even	Fine and even	Variable	Fine and even	Coarse and even	Fine and even	Coarse and uneven	Coarse and even
Grain	Interlocked	Shallowly interlocked	Interlocked	Interlocked	Interlocked	Shallowly interlocked	Slightly Interlocked	Interlocked
Air dry density	Over 800 kg/m ³ to < 1155 kg/m ³	Average of 640 kg/m ³	From 672 to 992 kg/m ³	Average of 656 kg/m ³	Average of 640 kg/m ³	Average of 672 kg/m ³	Average of 688 kg/m ³	Average of 640 kg/m ³

Source: Menon (2004)

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	Wood Species							
Structure	Balau	Ramin	Rengas	Melunak	Mersawa	Sepetir	Durian	Mersawa Gajah
Growth ring	-	-	Concentric	Concentric	-	Distinct	-	-
Vessels	Simple, medium- sized, few, filled with tyloses, no deposits	Simple, medium-sized, few, no tyloses and deposits	Simple, medium- sized, few, tyloses common no deposits	Simple, medium- sized, few or many, tyloses, deposits present	Simple, medium- sized, few ,no tyloses and deposits present	Simple, medium- sized, few ,no tyloses, deposits common	Simple, moderately large, few ,no tyloses and gum like deposits	Simple, medium- sized, few ,no tyloses and deposits present
Parenchyma	Apotracheal, paratracheal	Paratracheal	Apotracheal, paratracheal	Apotracheal, paratracheal	Apotracheal, paratracheal	Vasicentric, Apotracheal	Paratracheal	Apotracheal, paratracheal
Rays	Fine	Fine	Fine	Fine	Two sizes	Fine	Two sizes	Two sizes
Ripple marks	-	-	-	Distinct	-	-	Not always visible	-
Intercellular canals	Small, concentric formation, filled with white resin	-	Horizontal, colourless sap, black blotches on longitudinal surfaces	U	Vertical, smaller to as large as the vessels, resin canals in tangential series	Vertical, smaller than vessels	Traumatic type filled with gummy substances rarely present	Vertical, smaller to as large as the vessels, resin canals in tangential series
Other features								
Burning	Splinter	Splinter burns	Splinter burns	Splinter burns	Splinter burns	Splinter burns	Splinter burns	Splinter burns to
splinter test Froth test	burns to ash Negative	to ash Negative	to charcoal Negative	to ash Negative	to ash Negative	to ash Negative	to ash Negative	ash Negative

Source: Menon (2004)

2.5 PATTERN RECOGNITION

Recognition is regarded as a basic attribute of human beings, as well as other living organism. A pattern is the description of an object. <u>AThe</u> human being is a very sophisticated information system, partly because he posses a superior pattern recognition capability. <u>According to the The</u> nature of patterns recognition can be divided into two major types (Tou & Gonzalez, 1974)

i. Recognition of concrete items

This may be referred as the sensory recognition, which includes visual and aural pattern recognition. This recognition process involves the identification and classification of spatial and temporal patterns. Examples of spatial patterns are characters, fingerprints, physical objects, and image. Temporal patterns include speech waveforms, time series, electrocardiograms, and target signatures.

ii. Recognition of abstract items

On the other hand, an old argument, or a solution to a problem can be recognized.recognised. This process involves the recognition of abstract items and can be termed conceptual recognition. Recognition of concrete patterns by human beings may be considered as a physical stimulus.

Human recognition is in α -reality <u>a</u> question of estimating the relative odds that the input data can be associated with one of a set of known statistical populations, which depend on our past experience and which form the clues, and the prior information for recognition.

Thus, the problem of the pattern recognition may be regarded as one of <u>the</u> discriminating—the input data between populations via the search for features or invariant attributes among members of a population.

A pair containing an observation and a meaning is namely a pattern. InferringInferred meaning from observation is pattern recognition. Designing a pattern recognition system is establishing a mapping from measurement space into the space of potential meanings, whereby the different meanings are represented in this space as discrete target points- (Zheng & He, 2005).

In general, <u>computerised pattern computerized is a complex procedure which that</u> requires varieties of techniques that successively transform directly the iconic data into usable information for recognition system. During the past 30 years, pattern recognition was inversed greatly. The <u>needsneed</u> for theoretical methods and experimental software and hardware are increasing rapidly.

Nowadays, applications for pattern recognition <u>wasare</u> used in many areas such as character recognition, target detection, medical diagnosis, biomedical signal and image analysis, remote sensing, identification of human faces and of fingerprints, reliability analyses, socioeconomics, archaeology, speech recognition and understanding, machine part recognition, automatic inspection, and etc.

Recently, many methods of pattern recognition have been proposed. Those methods in general are not only used for objects in visual images but also applicable to other types of real world entity. Pattern recognition is often achieved using linear and quadratic discriminates (Fisher, 1936), the k-nearest neighbour classifier (Hodge & Austin, 2005) or the Parzen density estimator (Girolami, 2003), template matching (Meijer, 1992) and Neural Networks (Hush & Horne, 1993).

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Watanabe₇ (1985) said it is an entity, vaguely defined, that could be given a name e.g. fingerprints and handwritten word. Pattern recognition techniques are used to classify physical objects (2D or 3D) or abstract <u>multidimensional multi-dimensional</u> patterns known or unknown categories. Pattern recognition can be designed using the following main approaches <u>which are</u>____ Template Matching, Statistical methods, Syntactic methods and Neural networks (Shinde & Deshmukh 2011).

Table 2.8 shows the approach of pattern recognition according to its approach, representation, recognition function and typical criterion.

 Table 2.8: Approach in Pattern Recognition

_			
Approach	Representation	Recognition Function	Typical Criterion
Template Matching	Samples, pixels,	Correlation, distance	Classification error
	curves	measure	
Statistical	Features	Discriminant function	Classification error
Syntactic or Structural	Primitives	Rules, grammar	Acceptance error
Neural Network	Samples, pixels,	Network Function	Mean square error
	features		

Source: Shinde & Deshmukh (2011), Jain et al., (2000)

The interest in the area of Interest in pattern recognition has been renewed recently due to emerging applications, which are not only challenging but also computationally more demanding (see Table 2.9). These applications include data mining (identifying a pattern e.g., correlation, or an outlier in millions of multidimensional patterns), document classification (efficiently searching text documents), financial forecasting, organizationorganisation and retrieval of multimedia databases, and biometrics (personal identification based on various physical attributes, such as face and fingerprints).

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Jain et al. (2000) has identified a novel application of pattern recognition, called affective computing, which will givegives a computer the ability to recognizerecognise and express emotions, to respond intelligently to human emotionemotions, and to employ mechanisms of emotion that contribute to rational decision –making.

A<u>The</u> common characteristic of a number of these applications is that the available features (typically, in the thousands) are not usually suggested by domain experts, but must be extracted and optimized optimised by data-driven procedures.

The rapidly growing and available computing power, while enabling faster processing of huge data sets, has also facilitated the use of elaborate and diverse methods for data analysis and classification. At the same time, demands onfor automatic pattern recognition systems are is rising enormously due to the availability of large databases and stringent performance requirements such as speed, accuracy, and cost. In most existing research researches on application for of pattern recognition, they used a combination of multiple approaches and methods to achieve optimal result (Jain et al., 2000).

Pattern recognition <u>is_applied</u> in many areas such as machine learning, statistics, mathematics, computer science, biology and others. There are many problems <u>that</u> appeared while designing the application for pattern recognition. Many of these problems can indeed be solved. In order to solve these problems, more complex learning, searching and <u>optimizationoptimisation</u> algorithm are developed (Bezdek & Pal, 1992). Table 2.9 shows the details <u>forof</u> examples of pattern recognition applications comprising problem area, applications, input pattern and pattern classes, Formatted: Caption, Indent: First line: 1.25 cm

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 Table 2.9: Examples of Pattern Recognition Applications

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Problem Area	Applications	Input Pattern	Pattern Classes
Bioinformatics	Sequence Analysis	DNA/Protein sequence	Known types of genes or pattern
Data Mining	Searching for meaningful patterns	Points in multidimensional space	Compact and well separated clusters
Document classification	Internet search	Text document	Semantic categories
Document Image Analysis	Optical character recognition	Document image	Alphanumeric characters, word
Industrial Automation	Printed circuit board inspection	Intensity or range image	Defective/non- defective nature of product
Multimedia Database Retrieval	Internet search	Video clip	Video genres
Biometric Recognition	Personal identification	Face, iris, fingerprint	Authorized users for access control
Remote Sensing	Forecasting crop yield	Multi spectral image	Land use categories, growth patterns of crop

Speech Recognition	Telephone directory	Speech waveform	Spoken words
Medical	Computer aided	Microscopic image	
	diagnosis		
Military	Automatic target	Optical or infrared	Target type
	recognition	image	
Natural Language	Information extraction	Sentences	Parts of speech
Processing			

Source: Jain et al. (2000)

2.6 GENERAL PROCESS OF PATTERN RECOGNITION

In general process of pattern recognition can be divided into several phase.phases. As shown in Figure 2.6. It, <u>it</u> starts from data acquisition, pre-processing, feature extraction, feature selection, classification and post-processing.



Source: Shinde & Deshmukh (2011)

2.6.1 Data Acquisition

First<u>The first</u> phase in general process pattern recognition is data acquisition. During this phase, data collection is performed. Which, of which image in specific format such as JPEG, BMT, GIF, PNG, TIF etc. are is required as an input image. This image may <u>be</u> acquired through scanner, digital camera or any other suitable digital input device (Pradeep, 2010).

In order to process the input image, <u>onceone</u> should consider <u>measuremeasuring</u> physical variable such as bandwidth, resolution, sensitivity, distortion, latency and others (Jain et al., 2000). Before, a pattern vector is made up of a set of measurements, these <u>measurementmeasurements</u> need to be performed using some technical equipment and <u>be</u> converted into numerical form (Lampinen, 1997).

2.6.2 Pre - Processing

Pre-processing phase will enhance a document image, in order to prepare it for the next phase in a pattern recognition system. Pre-processing phase needs colour, grey-level or binary document images containing text or graphics to be processed. In pattern recognition systems, most of the applications use grey or binary images since processing colour images is computationally high (Alginahi, 2010). Thus, pre-processing phase usually involves noise filtering, smoothing and normalization_normalisation (Jain et al., 2000), (Shinde & Deshmukh, 2011), (Zheng & He, 2005).

The various tasks performed on the image in preprocessingpre-processing phase are shown in Figure 2.7. The prePre-processing is a series of operations performed on the scanned input image. It essentially enhances the input image to ease the next phase of pattern recognition. Noise removal process is aimed to improve the quality of input image.

Noise, such as salt- and <u>peperpepper</u> noise, in <u>image areimages is</u> usually removed by Average filtering technique, Minimum filtering technique and Maximum filtering techniques. Binarization process converts a graygrey scale image into a binary image using global thresholding technique (Nomura et al., 2009).

Detection of edges in the binarized image using <u>the</u> sobel technique, dilation <u>of</u> the image and filling <u>of</u> the holes present in it, are the operations performed in the last two stages to produce the <u>preprocessedpre-processed</u> image (Gonzalez et al., 2004) suitable for segmentation (Pradeep, 2010) (Pan, 2005).







 Figure 2.7: Processing Stage
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Source: Pradeep (2010)

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2.6.3 Feature Extraction

Feature extraction is one of the important steps in pattern recognition. It extracts a set of descriptors, various characteristics attributes, the relevant information associated to form a representation of input pattern (Ashoka, 2012). It also finds a new representation in terms of features (Shinde & Deshmukh, 2011).

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Features should be easily computed, robust, insensitive to <u>a</u> variety of distortions, and variations in the images. Two kinds of features are used in pattern recognition problems. The first one has clear physical meaning, such as geometric and statistical. Another kind of features has no physical meaning and it is called the mapping features (Zheng & He, 2005).

In feature extraction, most methods are supervised. These approaches need some prior knowledge and <u>labeled_labelled</u> training samples. There are two kinds of supervised methods <u>are-used</u>, which are Linear feature extraction and <u>nonlinearnon-linear</u> feature extraction (Jain et al. 2000).

Linear feature extraction techniques include Principal Component Analysis (PCA), GrayGrey level co-occurrence matrices (GLCM), Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA), projection pursuit, and Independent Component Analysis (ICA). <u>NonlinearNon-linear</u> feature extraction methods include kernel PCA, PCA network, <u>nonlinearnon-linear</u> PCA, nonlinearnon-linear auto-associative network, Multi-Dimensional Scaling (MDS) and Self-OrganizingOrganising Map (SOM), Phase-Only Correlation (POC) and etc. (Zheng & He, 2005).

The best known linear feature extractor is the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) or Karhunen-Loève expansion that computes the *m* largest eigenvectors of the *d* x *d* covariance matrix of the *n d*-dimensional patterns. PCA uses the most expressive features, approximates the data by a linear subspace using the mean squared error criterion (Jain et al. 2000). The disadvantage of PCA is it does not take into account the vector's classes, so it does not look at the separation of classes- (Pascual, 2010).

GrayGrey Level Co-occurrence Matrix (GLCM) has been used extensively in the field of image processing. It has been applied from a range of applications like texture analysis to synthesis including graygrey scale as well as colorcolour texture recognition. The GrayGrey level co-occurrence matrix (GLCM) computes the probability density function of image f (x,y) for all pair of pixels (i) and (j) in distance (d) with angular displacement (θ) = 0,45, 90 and 135 degree (Hawlick, 1979), the calculation will compute the frequency of graygrey tone occurrence for angular adjacent pixels.

The GLCM is used for two purposes, quantizing the ultrasound images to improve the filtration, and extraction of features descriptors (Abdelrahman & Hamid, 2012). GLCM only contains co-occurrence information between two pixels, and thus cannot capture the spatial relationship between three or more pixels in the image. When all 256 grey levels are used in generating a GLCM, it shows every possible pixel pairs obtained.

This is a disadvantage as the GLCM consumes computational time to generate the matrices. Furthermore, the calculations of textural features from the GLCMs involve the calculation on every element of the GLCMs. <u>HenceAs such</u>, a lot of computational steps are wasted in these calculations. By selecting a lower grey level, it will reduce the size of the GLCM and computational time accordingly (Tou et al., 2008).

<u>While Multidimensional Meanwhile the Multi-dimensional</u> Scaling (MDS) is a <u>nonlinearnon-linear</u> feature extraction technique. It aims to represent a

multidimensional<u>multi-dimensional</u> data set in two or three dimensions <u>suchso</u> that the distance matrix in the original *d*-dimensional feature space is preserved in the projected space (Borg & Groenen, 2005). <u>AThe</u> problem with MDS is that it does not give an explicit mapping function, so it is not possible to place a new pattern in a map which has been computed for a given training set without repeating the mapping (Klock et al., 1998).

For the Self-Organizing Map (SOM), or Kohonen Map, neurons are arranged in an m-dimensional grid, where m is usually 1, 2, or 3. Each neuron is connected to all the d input units. During training, patterns are usually presented in a random order. One major problem with SOM is when getting the right data (Shinde & Deshmukh, 2011).

Unfortunately, a value for each dimension of each member of samples is needed in order to generate a map. This is simply not possible and often it is very difficult to acquire all of this data, so this is a limiting feature of SOM (Honkela, 1997).

Another linear feature extraction is Independent Component Analysis (ICA). ICA has been successfully used for blind-source separation (Bingham, 2000). ICA is a statistical method for transforming an observed <u>multidimensionalmulti-dimensional</u> random vector into components that are mutually as independent as possible.

The main limitation of ICA is that the extracted components should be regularly updated. This is because when someone is only looking for the presence of one component, all the extracted components have to be inspected (De Vos et al., 2006).

The phase—only correlation technique also known as phase correlation function has been successfully applied to high-accuracy image registration task for computer vision application. The advantages of the phase-only correlation are their high discriminating power, numerical efficiency and robustness against noise (Zhang et al. 2006).

Whereas in biometric authentication tasks, POC shows an advantage since it is not influenced by image shift and brightness change (Ito, Aoki, Nakajima, et al., 2008)._The most outstanding property of POC compared to the ordinary correlation is its accuracy in image matching. POC can also be extended to the registration of translated, rotated and scaled images (Takita et al., 2003).

There are three possible conditions that are possibly observed, namely: (a) if POC peak value of two images is "1", the first <u>imagesimage</u> is a copy of the second one, indicating that the images are from the same person, (b) if POC value of two images is lower than "1", but the POC peak can be observed, the two images may be considered as originated from the same object, (c) if POC peak of two images is does not appear, the two images can be considered as originated from different object (Arnia & Pramita, 2011).

A recognition system based on POC should <u>recognizerecognise</u> images of the same classes with higher correlation values, which is indicated by a present of POC peak. In opposition, it should <u>recognizerecognise</u> them of difference classes with lower correlation values without any POC peak (Arnia & Pramita, 2011).

_____Table 2.10 <u>summarizessummarises</u> the <u>characterizationscharacterisations</u> of each⁴ feature extraction technique as discussed. Some <u>of the</u> other feature extraction techniques are also <u>statestated</u> in this table.

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Table 2.10: Feature Extraction Methods

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Techniques	Property	Characteristic
Principal Component	Linear map; fast;	Traditional, eigenvector based method, also
Analysis (PCA)	eigenvector-based	known as Karhunen-Loeve expansion, good
		for Gaussian data (Abdi & Williams, 2010)
GrayGrey level	Homogeneity, graygrey-	also <u>Also</u> known as <u>GrayGrey</u> level
co-occurrence	tone linear dependencies,	Dependency
matrices (GLCM)	contrast,	Matrix, identifying objects or regions of

1		naighbaningnaighbauning	interact in an image (Cadhari 2004)
		neighboringneighbouring	interest in an image. (Gadkari, 2004).
		co-occurrence matrix	
		elements	
	Independent	Linear map; iterative;	Blind source separation, used for
	Component Analysis	non-Gaussian.	de-mixing non-GuassianGaussian distributed
	(ICA)		features (Comon, 1994)
	Multidimensional	NonlinearNon-linear map;	Often poor generalizationgeneralisation;
	scaling (MDS), and	iterative	sample size limited; noise sensitive; mainly
	Sammon's projection		used for 2-dimensional
			visualizationvisualisation
			(Webb, 1995).
	Self-Organizing Map	NonlinearNon-linear;	Based on a grid of neurons in the feature
	(SOM)	iterative	space; suitable for extracting spaces of low
			dimensionality (Bullinaria, 2004).
	Phase-Only	NonlinearNon-linear;	Invariant to illumination, rotation, and
	Correlation (POC)	iterative	scaling (Ito et al., 2008),(Nakajima et al.,
			2008).

2.6.4 Feature Selection

The main purpose of this phase is to select the best subset from the input space. The aim is to select the optimal features subset that can achieve the highest accuracy results. Most of feature selection methods involve a combinatorial searchcombination of searches through the whole space. Other methods divide the feature space into several subspacessub-spaces which can be searched easily (Zheng & He, 2005).

Feature selection used in many application areas as a tool to remove irrelevant or redundant features. The choice of the feature selection method depends on various data set characteristics. The characteristics include, including the data types, data size and noise.

In the data type's characteristic, there are two elements considered. The elements, which are features and class labels. The feature values can be continuous (C), discrete (D), or nominal (N). WhileMeanwhile for the class label, some feature selection methods can handle only binary classes, and others can deal with multiple classes.

As <u>for</u> the data size, the feature selection deals with whether a method can perform well for small training set and whether it can handle large data size. Nowadays, <u>datasetsdata sets</u> are mostly large in size so the second criterion is more practical and of interest to the current. The typical noises encountered during the feature selection process are misclassification and conflicting date-(Dash & Liu 1997).

Basically, there are two types of feature selection methods. Which are_- filter and wrapper_(Neumann et al. 2004). Filters act as a preprocessingpre-processing step independentlyindependent of the classifier while wrappers take the classifier into account as a black box and embedded approaches that simultaneously determine features and classifier during the training process.

Table 2.11 lists most of the well-known feature selection methods. This table elaborates each method on their property and comments on the methods.

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Table 2.11: Feature Selection Methods

Techniques	Property	Characteristic	
Exhaustive search	Evaluate all $\left(\frac{d}{m}\right)$ possible subsets.	Guaranteed to find the optimal subset; not feasible for even moderately large values of $-m$ and d .	Fc
Branch-and-Bound Search	Uses the well-known branch- and-bound search method; only a fraction of all possible features subsets need to be enumerated to find the optimal subset.	Guaranteed to find the optimal subset provided the criterion function satisfies the monotonicity property; the worst-case complexity of this algorithm is exponential.	
Best Individual Features	Evaluate all the <i>m</i> features individually; select the best <i>m</i> individual features.	Computationally simple; not likely to lead to an optimal subset.	
Sequential Forward Selection (SFS)	Select the best single feature and then add one feature at a time which in combination with the selected features <u>maximizes maximises</u> the criterion function	Once a features feature is retained, it cannot be discarded; computationally attractive since to select a subset of size 2, it examines only $(d - 1)$ possible subset.	
Sequential Backward Selection (SBS)	Start with all the <i>d</i> features and successively delete one feature at a time.	Once a feature is deleted, it cannot be brought back into the optimal subset; requires more computation than sequential forward selection.	
"Plus l-take away r" Selection	First enlarge the features subset by l features using forward selection and then delete r features using backward selection.	<u>A voids Avoids</u> the problem of features subset "nesting" encountered in SFS and SBS method; need to select values of l and $r (l > r)$.	
Sequential Forward Floating Search (SFFS) and Sequential Backward Floating Search	A <u>generalizationgeneralisation</u> of " <i>Plus l-take away r</i> " method; the values of <i>l</i> and <i>r</i>	Provides close to optimal solution at an affordable computational cost.	

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(SBFS)	are determined automatically	
	and updated dynamically.	L

Source: Jain et al. (2000)

The first two methods in the table guarantee an optimal subset while the others are suboptimalsub-optimal caused by the fact that the best pair of features need not contain the best single feature. Generally, good, larger feature sets do not necessarily include good, small sets.

Sequential Forward Selection (SFS) and Sequential Backward Selection (SBS) operate by evaluating growing feature sets (forward selection) or by evaluating shrinking feature sets (backward selection). A simple sequential method like SFS and SBS, they add (SFS) and delete (SBS) one feature at a time.

The more sophisticated techniques are the "Plus l-take away <u>r</u>" Selection and Sequential Forward Floating Search (SFFS) and Sequential Backward Floating Search (SBFS). These methods backtrack as long as they find improvements compared to previous feature sets of the same size (Jain et al. 2000).

2.6.5 Classification

The <u>conceptualization_conceptualisation</u> of things, or objects, as belonging to classes is at the core of all knowledge. <u>ResearcherThe researcher's</u> concern, however, <u>is</u> that classes are in the mind of the beholder and that there are often many possible attributes and ways to classify a set of objects. Commonly agreed upon classifications for many objects used routinely are a part of human cultures.

Pattern recognition involves two processes: (1) classification, where a sample from a population of objects is divided into groups called classes; and (2) recognition, where a

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given unknown object from the same population is <u>recognizedrecognised</u> as belonging to one of the established classes. Recognition is sometimes divided into recognition and identification, which means that a particular individual object is <u>recognized.recognised</u>. The terms classification and recognition are sometimes used interchangeably in the literature (Looney, 2003).

A classification process examines a sample of objects that represents a population of objects and partitions it into subsets (the classes) according to similarity of the objects within classes and dissimilarity of the objects between classes. This type of process is called self-organizationorganisation, unsupervised learning, or clustering of the sample into clusters (classes or subclassessub-classes).

On the other hand, onceOnce a process has clustered the sample into classes and each object is assigned a class label, an index value (or codewordcode word) that designates the particular class, a recognizerrecogniser can be trained to assign a class label to any unknown object from the same population (pattern recognition). The training process is called supervised learning or training of the recognizer-recogniser. A trained recognizerrecogniser can perform pattern recognition online.

The classification stage is the decision making part of a recognition system and it uses the features extracted in the previous stage. The classifier component of a pattern recognition system has to be taught to identify certain feature vectors to belong to a certain class. This is because it is impossible to define the correct classes for all the possible feature vectors and the purpose of the system is to assign an object which that it has not seen previously to a correct class.

It is important to distinguish between the two types of machine learning when considering the pattern recognition systems. The main learning types are supervised

learning and unsupervised learning. We also use the terms supervised classification and unsupervised classification.

In supervised classification, we present examples of the correct classification (a feature vector along with its correct class) to teach a classifier. Based on these examples, that are sometimes termed prototypes or training samples, the classifier then learns how to assign an unseen feature vector to a correct class.

The generation of the prototypes has to be done manually in most cases. This can mean <u>a</u> lot of work. After all, it was because we wanted to avoid the hand-<u>labelinglabelling</u> of objects that we decided to design a pattern recognition system in the first place. That is why the number of prototypes is usually very small compared to the number of possible inputs received by the pattern recognition system.

Based on these examples we would have to deduct the class of a never seen object. Therefore, the classifier design must be based on the assumptions made about the classification problem, in addition to prototypes used to teach the classifier. These assumptions can often be described best in the language of probability theory.

In unsupervised classification or clustering, there is no explicit teacher or training samples. The classification of the feature vectors must be based on similarity between them based on, from which they are divided into natural groupings. Whether or not any two feature vectors are similar depends on the application. Obviously, unsupervised classification is a more difficult problem than supervised classification and supervised classification is the preferable option if it is possible (Medlock & Briscoe, 2007), (Barbu, 2006).

In some cases, however, it is necessary to resort to unsupervised learning. For example, this is the case if the feature vector describing an object can be expected to change with time. There exists a third type of learning: reinforcement learning. In this learning type, the teacher does not provide the correct classes for feature vectors but the teacher provides feedback on whether the classification was correct or not (Tohka, 2011).

Designing a classifier is based on feature and models selected (Shinde & Deshmukh, 2011). If elassifier<u>the classifier</u>'s performance is not good, <u>the</u> model has to be changed. The classifier is evaluated with the testing data and error rate is determined.

<u>CriteriaThe criterion</u> for accepting or rejecting a classifier <u>areis</u> based on the performance of the classifier for the given set features. The feature vector obtained from the previous step is passed to a classifier that evaluates the evidence presented and assigns the object to a class (Verma & Raja, 2005).

After the optimal feature subset is selected, a classifier can be designed using various approaches. There are three different approaches involved. The first approach is the simplest and the most intuitive approach, which is based on the concept of similarity. The examples include Template matching and 1-Nearest Neighbor Neighbour Rule (1-NN) are the examples).

The most straightforward 1-Nearest <u>Neighbor Neighbour</u> Rule can be used as a benchmark for all the other <u>classifier_classifiers</u>, as it appears to always provide a reasonable classification performance in most applications. 1-NN classifier does not require any user-specified parameters and its classification results are implementation independent (Jain et al., 2000). As more invariants are considered, the dimensionality of <u>subspace correspondinglysub-space</u> increases<u>in tandem</u>. Template matching the nearest mean, classifier can be viewed as finding the nearest <u>subspace-sub-space</u>.

The second approach is a probabilistic approach. It includes methods based on Bayes decision rule, the maximum likelihood or density estimator. Two well-known are K-nearest neighbour (KNN) and Parzen window classifier (Jain et al. 2000)(Zheng & He 2007) (Zheng & He, 2005).

KNN is a typical instance-based prediction model. By KNN, where the class label of a new testing sample is decided by the majority class of its k closest neighbour based on their Euclidean distance (Dash & Liu, 1997). KNN classification is one type of lazy classification algorithm that offers many advantages.

The $\underline{k}\underline{K}$ -nearest neighbour (<u>k NNKNN</u>) technique is a classic, simple and appealing method to address classification problems. It has a very intuitive interpretation and its predictions are easily explained to domain experts. As a result, KNN has been applied for classification in many domains.

<u>K NNKNN</u> is a type of instance-based learning where the function is only approximated locally and all computation is computations are deferred until classification. In <u>K NNKNN</u>, an object is classified by a majority vote of its neighbours, with the object being assigned to the class most common amongst its k nearest neighbours (k is a positive integer, typically small). If k = 1, then the object is simply assigned to the class of its nearest neighbours. The neighbours are taken from a set of objects for which the correct classification is known. This can be thought of as the training set for the algorithm, though no explicit training step is required (Gnanasivam & Muttan, 2012).

The <u>neighborsneighbours</u> are taken from a set of samples for which the correct classification is known. It is <u>usualcommon</u> to use the Euclidean distance, though other distance measures, such as the City block, Cosine distances could be used instead (Guru et al., 2010). In pattern recognition, the <u>kK</u>-nearest neighbour algorithm (<u>K NNKNN</u>) is the generally used method for classifying objects based on closest training examples in the feature space.

The Parzen Window classifier is replacing the class—_conditional densities. Both <u>of</u> these classifiers require the computation of the distances between a test pattern and all the patterns in the training set (Jain et al., 2000).

The third approach is to construct decision boundaries directly by optimizing optimising certain error criterion. The examples are Fisher's Linear Discriminant, Multi-layer Perceptron (Feed-Forward Neural Network), and Binary Decision Tree (Zheng & He, 2005).

Fisher's Linear Discriminant minimizesminimises the mean squared error (MSE) between the classifier output and the desired labels. WhileMeanwhile the single--layer perceptron, where the separating hyperplane is iteratively updated as a function of the distances of the misclassified patterns from the hyperplane, if the sigmoid function is used in combination with the MSE criterion, as in feed-forward neural nets (also called Multi-layer Perceptron), the perceptron may show a behavior whichbehaviour that is similar to other linear classifiers.

A Naive Bayes classifier is a simple probabilistic classifier based on Bayes' theorem from Bayesian statistics with strong independence assumptions. A more descriptive term for the underlying probability model would be <u>an</u> independent feature model. Thus, the Naive Bayes independence model is based on estimation (Nilsson, 1965).

In simple terms, a naive Bayes classifier assumes that the presence or absence of a particular feature of a class is unrelated to the presence or absence of any other feature. Depending on the particular nature of the probability model, <u>the naive Bayes classifiers can</u> be trained very competently in a supervised learning setting.

The advantage of the naive Bayes classifier is <u>that</u> it has <u>a</u> short computational time for training. In addition, since the model has the form of a product, it can be converted into a sum through the use of logarithms with significant consequent computational advantages. If a feature is numerical, the usual procedure is to separate it during data pre-processing (Yang & Webb, 2001), although a researcher can use the normal distribution to calculate probabilities (Bouckaert, 2004).

Other than that, another special type of classifier is the decision tree, which is trained by an iterative selection of individual features that are most salient at each node of the tree. During classification, just those features are under considerations that are needed for the test pattern under consideration (Jain et al. 2000). The details of those classifiers are summarized summarized in Table 2.12.

Table 2.12: Classification Methods

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Techniques	Property	Characteristic
Nearest Mean Classifier Subspace Method	Assign patterns to the nearest class mean. Assign patterns to the nearest class subspace.	Almost no training needed; fast testing; scale (metric) dependent- (Looney, 2003). Instead of normalizing on invariants, the subspace of the invariants is used; scale (metric) dependent (Ho, 1998).
1-Nearest Neighbor <u>Neighbour</u> Rule	Assign patterns to the class of the nearest training pattern.	No training needed; robust performance; slow testing; scale (metric) dependent (Jain et al. 2000).
k-Nearest Neighbor<u>Neighbour</u> Rule	Assign pattern to the majority class among k nearest neighbor <u>neighbour</u> using a performance optimized value for k.	Asymptotically optimal; scale (metric) dependent; slow testing (Hawlick 1979).

Assign pattern to the class	Yields simple classifiers (linear or quadratic)
	for Gaussian distributions; sensitive to
estimated posterior probability.	density estimation errors (Jain et al. 2000).
Bayes plug-in rule for Parzen	Asymptotically optimal; scale (metric)
density estimates with	dependent; slow testing (Jain et al. 2000).
performance optimized kernel.	
Linear classifier using MSE	Asymptotically optimal; scale (metric)
optimization.	dependent; slow testing (Zheng & He 2005).
Finds a set of thresholds for a	Iterative training procedure; overtraining
pattern-dependent sequence of	sensitive; needs pruning; fast testing (Zheng
features.	& He, 2005).
Iterative optimization of a linear	Sensitive to training parameters; may
classifier.	produce confidence values (Zheng & He
	2005).
Iterative MSE optimization of	Sensitive to training parameters; slow
two or more layers of	training; nonlinear classification function;
perceptrons (neurons) using	may produce confidence values; overtraining
sigmoid transfer functions.	sensitive; needs regularization (Silva et al.
-	2011).
Maximized the margin between	Scale (metric) dependent; iterative; slow
the classes by selecting a	training; nonlinear; overtraining insensitive;
minimum number of support	good generalization performance (Michie et
vectors.	al. 1994).
Compare two probabilities -by	Short computational time for training,
using a product operation	converted into a sum through logarithms
	(Kotsiantis, 2007)
	which has the maximum estimated posterior probability. Bayes plug-in rule for Parzen density estimates with performance optimized kernel. Linear classifier using MSE optimization. Finds a set of thresholds for a pattern-dependent sequence of features. Iterative optimization of a linear classifier. Iterative MSE optimization of two or more layers of perceptrons (neurons) using sigmoid transfer functions. Maximized the margin between the classes by selecting a minimum number of support vectors. Compare two probabilities -by

2.6.6 Post – Processing

The final task of the pattern recognition system is to decide upon an action based on the classification result (Tohka, 2011). In most pattern recognition systems, some data processing is performed after the classification stage. These post processing such as the normalization processes, bring some prior information about the surrounding world into the system.

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These additional processes can be <u>utilizedutilised</u> in improving the overall classification accuracy. The processing phase is possible if the individual objects or segments form as-meaningful entities such as bank account number, words or sentences. The soundness or existence of these higher level objects can be examined and if an error is

indicated, further step can be taken to correct the misclassification. The post processing phase thus resolves interdependencies between individual classifications (Lampinen, 1997).

2.7 SUMMARY

Pattern Recognition plays a very vital role in Artificial intelligence. But recentlyIntelligence. Recently pattern recognition has become a routine in everyday'sdaily life. As human beingshumans have limitations in recognizingrecognising various items, the field of pattern recognition is becoming very popular. The goal of pattern recognition research is to clarify complicated decision making processes and automatedautomate these functionfunctions using computers forin our daily life.

Pattern recognition has various applications in numerous fields-as, including data mining, biometrics, sensors, speech recognition, medical, military, natural language processing etc. Statistical pattern recognition is used to cover all stages of an investigation, from problem formulation and data collection through discrimination and classification, to assessment of results and interpretation. Here each pattern is represented in terms of features and is viewed as a point in a d-dimensional space.

Currently, the timber industry is one of the major contributors to the national economy. To ensure that the industry <u>cancould</u> continue to <u>increasegrow</u>, the quality of wood used should be high and appropriate for its usage.

In this highly demanding timber industry, wood species recognition is widely used in various areas such as in construction industry and manufacturing industry. Each species of wood has its own characteristics and features, which fit the use in certain industries. For example, for construction, hardwood such as Balau, Chengal and other are preferably usedfor the construction sector. The misuse of wood might affect the result or products and ean allow danger to the consumer.could endanger consumers. Currently, recognition of wood species in Malaysia is done manually. There are two ways of <u>recognizing the recognising</u> wood species which are by_ using <u>the naked eyeseye</u> and with the aid of magnifier. When the The recognition process of the naked eyes, the recognition process is usually done without any aid of any accessories and it is manually done by only the experts.

While when recognizing Meanwhile, for the woods by recognition with the aid of a magnifier, it is compulsory to have a folding type 10x magnification magnifier. Besides that, the right cross section technique is required to make a good clean surface by using a sharp pocket knife. This is important to obtain well defined features of wood.

This research focused on Malaysian wood species recognition which purposed<u>aims</u> to <u>computerizecomputerise</u> the process of Malaysian wood species recognition. Several studies have been done to identify the suitable techniques to solve the research problems.

There are several techniques <u>that</u> may be used for pattern recognition such as Principle Component Analysis (PCA), Independent Component Analysis (ICA), Multidimensional Scaling (MDS), Phase-Only Correlation (POC) and others. From the studied techniques, POC has been chosen to be performed inselected for the feature extraction phase <u>forof</u> wood species recognition.

The selection is based on the advantages of POC as it is highly <u>powereffective</u> for discrimination, numerical efficiency, <u>robustnessrobust</u> against noise and not influenced by image shift and brightness change as compared to other techniques <u>statestated</u> in the literature review.

Meanwhile, for the classification technique, <u>the KNN technique ismethod has been</u> chosen as it is a statistical classifier. <u>TheyIt</u> can predict class membership probabilities, such as the probability that a given sample belongs to a particular class.

From the studies studied, when comparing the classification algorithms it is found that the KNN technique is more suitable in performance compare <u>withto</u> decision tree and selected neural network classifiers. <u>Besides thatFurthermore</u>, KNN have also exhibited high accuracy and speed when applied to large databases.





3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the methodology used in this research. In this chapter, four (4) phases have been used to develop wood species recognition system. The framework describes the detail of every phase in developing the wood species recognition system.

3.2 FRAMEWORK OF THE SYSTEM

In this study, the development of a prototype for wood species recognition system is divided into four main phases such as including image acquisition, pre-processing, feature extraction and features analysis. Whereby, eachEach of these phases will have theirits own module. Figure 3.1 illustrated illustrates the framework for the wood species recognition system.



Figure 3.1: Framework of wood species recognition system

Every phase in this system is divided into several small processes that perform an important role to ensure that application development's goals are achieved. The first process of this system is image acquisition phase where the input samples are captured using a camera. Generally, this phase is served to obtain images of the for applications purposes.

<u>PreThe pre-processing process will be applied after image acquisition process is</u> <u>finished.completed.</u> After the input image is captured, it will be <u>normalized_normalised</u> through the pre-processing process. The purpose of pre-processing is to improve the quality of the image processed. It makes the subsequent phase of image processing like recognition of wood species easier. Formatted: hps
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Whereas, feature extraction phase is intended for extracting the wood species image features. The normalized<u>normalised</u> input will be used for feature extraction where the important textural features are extracted here. The extracted features will be classified using <u>athe</u> phase analysis and produces an output as shown in Figure 3.1.

Phase analysis is the final phase in this system. This phase is the phase of the determinant, which is to determine whose role is to recognize recognise the types of woods species. Figure 3.1 shows a sketch of the whole process involved in the wood species recognition system.

3.3 IMAGE ACQUISITION

Image acquisition is the first step in image processing. It<u>is</u> intended for wood images to be used as unprocessed data for <u>the</u> wood species recognition system. In addition, this process aims to convert images from digital <u>image</u> to <u>computerizecomputerised</u> image.

For the wood species recognition system, wood images are taken by the author using a Canon IXY 200F digital camera. There are 1,280 images are taken with each size of it has a 450 x 300 pixels and they are saved as JPEG files. The JPEG file format is used in this system because it is appropriate to use compared to other formats. JPEG algorithm can provide a good image quality for the image file size and bitcan be deficient if a small image is used (Umbaugh 1998).

Other than that, grayscalegrey scale image are is also used in this study. Grayscale image representation used by the appropriateness of the as it provides appropriate wood image usedfor use as unprocessed data for the wood species recognition system. Thus, grayscaleGrey scale image has only one color colour or monochrome. Therefore, it is easily processed and analyzed analyzed rather than image colour coloured images which, as

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they require more work to <u>analyzeanalyse</u> the three basic <u>colors that there arecolours</u> - red, blue and green.

For the development of the whole system, the input images are captured using the camera. Wood<u>The wood</u> image data must be identified and analyzed prior<u>analysed</u> before it was tested. Knowledge of the form features for each type of wood species should be obtained. So so that, the wood image species can be determined. This is important to determine whether each of the data will get the results they deserved. In this study, eight (8) wood species are used as the unprocessed data. Figure 3.2 shows samples of wood species.

Wood samples of eight (8) wood species were collected from <u>the</u> Malaysian Timber Industry Board in Indera Mahkota Pahang, namely Balau,_Mersawa, Ramin, Mersawa Gajah, Durian, Rengas, Melunak and Sepetir. Basically, wood species can <u>recognizebe</u> <u>recognised</u> based on two kinds of features, which are physical features-and anatomical features.

In For physical features, wood species are recognized recognised based on the colour, texture and appearance of specimens, and touch was used to determine whether the wood grains are rough, smooth, dull, lustrous or glossy, whether the wood is light or heavy and also the kind of smell produced by the wood species.

Meanwhile, anatomical feature <u>useduses</u> three key elements of wood structure to <u>recognizerecognise</u> the wood species. The three key elements are rays, vessels and parenchyma. Figure 3.3 to Figure 3.10 <u>illustrates sample of wood illustrate the</u> anatomical features-<u>of the wood samples.</u>

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Figure 3.2: Eight Wood Species (a) Balau, (b) Mersawa, (c) Ramin, (d) Mersawa Gajah, (e) Durian, (f) Rengas, (g) Melunak and (h) Sepetir.

Each species has different type of vessels, rays and parenchyma. The elements-are differed according to the species. Figure 3.3 shows an image of Balau species and its rays, parenchyma and vessels. Balau appears with simple perforation and mostly solitary vessels while <u>itits</u> parenchyma_is usually diffuse strand and mostly incomplete vasicentric. The rays for Balau are fine and visible to the naked eyes.



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Figure 3.3: Wood elements for Balau

While<u>Meanwhile</u> Figure 3.4 shows an image of <u>the</u> Ramin species. <u>Ramin</u>, which consists of generally medium-sized and solitary vessels. The parenchyma is exclusively aliform with extended wings and its rays are fine but not visible to the naked eye. In Figure 3.5, Durian shows an interesting vessel when the vessels are mostly large and it-is solitary and <u>has</u> multiple pores. Its parenchyma is diffuse strands or occasionally in closely spaced. The rays of Durian species consist of two distinct sizes, <u>of</u> which are the finer rays are not visible to the naked eye while the broader medium-sized rays are distinct.



Figure 3.4: Wood elements for Ramin

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Figure 3.5 shows an image of <u>the Melunak species</u> and its vessels, parenchyma and rays pattern. For the vessels, Melunak appears with medium-sized, solitary and occasionally <u>elustersclustered</u> vessels and the parenchyma is occasionally aliform or locally confluent. The rays of Melunak species are moderately fined, just visible for the naked eye on cross section.

Figure 3.6 shows an image of <u>the Mersawa wood species</u>. For Mersawa, the<u>Its</u> vessels are medium-sized or moderately large with solitary vessels. Its while its parenchyma is vasicentric in pattern. The rays—are exist in two sizes; the broader rays medium-sized are distinct to the naked eye in cross section while the interspersed very fine rays <u>are only</u> visible-only with a hand lens.



Figure 3.5: Wood elements for Durian

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Figure 3.6.: Wood elements for Melunak



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Different with<u>from</u> Mersawa gajah in Figure 3.7, the vessels are medium-sized or moderately large with solitary vessels but the parenchyma is mostly in diffuse strands. The rays-are also exist in two sizes; the broader rays medium-sized are distinct to the naked eye in cross section while the interspersed very fine rays <u>are only visible-only</u> with a hand lens.

Figure 3.8 shows an image of <u>the Rengas species</u>. The vessels of Rengas species are moderately large, <u>have</u> solitary pores and diffused strands without any arrangement. While, <u>while</u> the parenchyma <u>is</u> banded. The rays are fine but generally not visible to the naked eye. In Figure 3.9, an image of <u>the Sepetir</u> species shows that the vessels of Sepetir are mostly moderately large in size, <u>have</u> solitary pores and diffused strands in pattern. The parenchyma is vasicentric and <u>tending totends</u> towards the aliform type. The rays are moderately fine and generally visible to the naked eye.



Figure 3.10: Wood elements for Sepetir

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3.4 PRE - PROCESSING IMAGE

The second phase of <u>the wood</u> species recognition system is image enhancement, which <u>is</u> known as <u>the pre</u>__processing phase. Image enhancement improves the quality of images for human perception by removing noise, reducing <u>blurringblurriness</u>, increasing contras and providing more detail. This process is important to produce a more effective input to the feature extraction phase. Figure 3.11 <u>illustrateillustrates</u> the processes that occur in pre__processing image phase for wood species recognition system.

Firstly-, the wood images are taken by using a digital camera. Therefore, <u>, which</u> often caused some of the side effects often to occur. Sometimes, uneven light effectlighting occurred in the image caused the image seemscausing it to be partly dark and partly clear. This situation will causelead to the density of the-different colorscolours of pixels in the resulting image. As a solution ofto the problem, image enhancement is used to remove noise or correct the contrast in the image (Alginahi, 2010).

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Figure 3.11: Pre - Processing for Wood Species Recognition System

In order to enhance the image, average filtering has been used to remove the noise of the image. The <u>detailsdetailed</u> examination <u>abouton</u> these techniques will be discussed in the following sections.

3.4.1 Average Filtering

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Generally, the basic approach used for filtering technique is the sum of window coefficients and the density of pixel values inside the window at an image location method (Dzulkifli, 1997).

Assume the <u>The size assumed of the common window is 3 x 3 images as shown in</u> Figure 3.12 (c). The values of the graygrey levels are expressed as P_1 , P_2 ... P_9 and coefficients window specified as M_1 , M_2 ... M_9 . By the action of the window linear spatial, S is:

$$S = P_1 M_1 + P_2 M_2 + \dots + P_9 M_9 \tag{3.1}$$

Generally The average filtering technique is considering generally considers the average derived from $N \ge N$ window (Figure 3.12 (b)). It uses the concept of window's changing to process the entire image. This is the average filtering arithmetic obtained from this Equation (Umbaugh, 1998):

$$s = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{(r,c) \in W} d(r,c) \tag{3.2}$$

with <u>With</u> N^2 is the number of pixels in the window $N \ge N$ of W. The first step collects the original image <u>graygrey</u> level (Figure 3.12 (a)) after image acquisition done. <u>GrayGrey</u> level pixel obtains through original <u>graygrey</u> level image (Figure 3.12 (b)).

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Figure 3.12: <u>HlustrateIllustrates the</u> image enhancement process for Average filtering technique-: (a) <u>graygrey</u> level image, (b) <u>graygrey</u> level pixel, (c) windows 3 x 3 pixel

<u>While for</u> <u>Meanwhile, the</u> 3 x 3 window is scanned from left to right and top to bottom in overall image. Finally, each value of the pixel in the window 3 x 3 is converted to by the calculation of a new value, *S* as Figure 3.12 (c). The example of calculation is-:

$$S = M_1 + M_2 + M_3 + M_4 + M_5 + M_6 + M_7 + M_8 + M_9 / 9$$

= 123 + 123 + 124 + 110 + 190 + 142 + 180 + 167 + 133 / 9
= 143.556

The calculation above is repeated for every pixel in the original image to generate the smoothed image.

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3.5 FEATURE EXTRACTION

The next phase for wood species recognition system is feature extraction. Generally, the purpose of image extraction phase in this study is to extract the features that are available in <u>the wood image</u>. <u>ExtractionThe extraction</u> process will produce features of different images for different species.

This process reduces the input values by ignoring the raw pixel values of the whole input images and <u>focus</u> only on useful values that <u>represents</u> the features or properties of the image. In this research, phase—only correlation (POC) <u>werewas</u> used to extract the feature of every wood species.

3.5.1 Phase—Only Correlation (POC)

Phase—Only Correlation principal, (POC) principally has three steps that are directly involved in the process, namely 2D Discrete Fourier Transform (2D DFT), cross—phase spectrum or normalized normalised spectrum and 2D Inverse Discrete Fourier Transform (2D IDFT). All of the techniques are important process in the phase—only_sonly correlation function. Figure 3.13 illustrateillustrates the processes that occur in phase—only correlation method for the wood species recognition system.



Figure 3.13: Diagram for Implementation of Phase - Only Correlation (POC)

Source : Rao et al. (2010)

Step 1: 2D Discrete Fourier Transforms (2D DFT)

Step 1 used 2D Discrete Fourier Transforms (2D DFT) .The purpose of 2D Discrete Fourier Transforms (2D DFT) is to calculate the frequency of images. Consider two (2) images $N_1 \times N_2$ which are training image as $f(n_1,n_2)$ and test image as $g(n_1,n_2)$. Meanwhile, forthe 2D Discrete Fourier Transforms (2D DFT) declare<u>is</u> declared as $F(k_1, k_2)$ and $G(k_1, k_2)$.

For training, <u>grayscalegrey scale</u> images with 256 bins are used. Firstly, frequency of every bin is computed and stored in vectors for further processing. Secondly, <u>the mean</u> of <u>the consecutive nine</u> (9) frequencies as $f(n_1, n_2, ..., n_9)$ from <u>the stored vectors</u> is <u>calculated</u> and stored in another vectors for later use in <u>the testing phase</u>. Equation 3.3 define of total frequencies of the nine (9) consecutive bin in the histogram to the

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Figure 3.15: Training process histogram

The peak of each bin shows the frequency of that particular bin. To get the training data for this system, <u>the mean of nine (9)</u> frequencies of bins for each wood species is computed. Once the data is computed, it <u>is</u> stored in <u>the database as the</u> training data. The example mean of <u>the consecutive nine frequencies calculation is shown</u> below:

$$Y = 0 + 1 + 0 + 0 + 451 + 0 + 14 + 211 + 0 / 9$$

= 75.222

Figure 3.16 illustrates the chunk of bins found from training data. Figure 3.16-(a) shows the frequencies of 256 bins used and thewhile Figure 3.16(b) shows the mean of nine frequencies of training images computed. This mean vector is used for calculating the absolute differences among the mean of trained images and test image. Finally the minimum differencedifferences found identifies identified the matched class with test image.

Similarly, the preliminary steps of testing are the same as training. Furthermore the POC values between test image and images of predicted class are computed for match or mismatch. The propose algorithmalgorithms used for testing are shown in Figure 3.17 respectively.

0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
 0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
11	36	62	220
0	0	0	0
2306	317	2411	1645
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
6208	12091	7324	14866
0	0	0	0
332	13	277	87
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0

257.4444	39.22222	274.7778	207.2222
726.6667	1344.889	844.5556	1661.444
13.55556	62.66667	22.44444	36.11111
8.333333	0.777778	1.666667	0.222222
4618.333	4230.556	4358.111	4358.556
41.77778	44.44444	48	36.88889
0	0.444444	0.222222	0.222222

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Step 2: Cross - Phase Spectrum

In step 2, two (2) images are used namely training image and test image, <u>with the</u> cross-phase spectrum technique <u>measuresmeasuring</u> the similarity <u>forof</u> each translation in

an image patch. The correlation must be <u>normalized</u> to avoid contributions from local image.

The cross-phase spectrum $R_{FG}(k_1, k_2)$ (Eq. (3.4)) implies that the calculation of POC emphasizes <u>on</u> the high frequency component. <u>Then The</u> cross—_phase spectrum R_{FG} is <u>define then defined</u> as the conjugate of $G(k_1, k_2)$ multiplied by $F(k_1, k_2)$ divided by its absolute value as follows.(refer to the following).

$$R_{FG}(k_1, k_2) = \frac{F(k_1, k_2) \overline{G(k_1, k_2)}}{\left| F(k_1, k_2) \overline{G(k_1, k_2)} \right|}$$

= $e_1^{j\theta(k_1, k_2)}$

Step 3: 2D Inverse Fourier Transform (2D IFT)

<u>The 2D</u> Inverse Fourier Transform (2D IFT) is to eliminate meaningless high frequency components in the calculation of cross-phase spectrum $R_{FG}(k_1, k_2)$ depending on the frequency spectrum of the given wood images—. When the 2D IFT is applied on into the Equation (3.5), the POC function is generated as follows.

$$r_{fg}(n_1, n_2) = \frac{1}{N_1 N_2} \sum_{k_1, k_2} R_{FG}(k_1, k_2)$$
(3.5)

Where $\sum k_1, k_2$ denotes $\sum_{n_1}^{M_1} = -M_1, \sum_{n_2}^{M_2} = -M_2$. When two images are similar, their POC function gives a distinct sharp peak. When Similarly, when two images are not similar, the peak drops significantly. The height of the peak gives a good similarity measure for imagesimage matching, and the location of the peak shows the translation displacement between the images (Ito et al., 2008, Arnia & Pramita, 2011).

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(3.4)

3.6 FEATURE ANALYSIS

Feature analysis is the final phase of the wood species recognition system. This phase involves the process of analyzinganalysing the characteristics of the resulting image after the feature extraction process. The aim is to find every kind of species tested with precise image using techniques that have been identified.

3.6.1 K---Nearest <u>NeighborsNeighbours</u>

In pattern recognition, the kK_{-} -nearest neighbour algorithm (K-NNKNN) is generally used for classifying objects based on closest training examples in the feature space. K—_nearest <u>neighborsneighbours</u> is a simple algorithm that stores all available cases and classifies new cases based on a similarity measure (Hassan et al., 2008).

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<u>K NNKNN</u> is a type of instance-based learning where the function is only approximated locally and all computation is deferred until classification. Training process for this algorithm only consists of storing feature vectors and labels of the training images. In the classification process, the unlabelled query point is simply assigned to the label of its k nearest <u>neighborsneighbours</u>.

The idea in k-Nearest Neighbor methods<u>KNN</u> is to identify k samples in the training set whose independent variables x_r are similar to x_s , and to use these k samples to classify this new sample into a class, v. If all we are prepared to assume is that f is a smooth function, a reasonable idea is to look for samples in our training data that are near it and then to compute v from the values of y for these samples. Before we get into the details of the <u>K-NNKNN</u> algorithm we need to define the Euclidean distance between two input vectors x_r and x_s .

Let's consider the two input variable case since it is easy to represent in twodimensional space. See the two vectors $x_r = (x_{rl}, x_{r2})$ and $x_s = (x_{sl}, x_{s2})$ represented in Figure 3.19. -The distance between these two vectors is computed as the length of the difference vector, denoted by

$$d(x_{r_1}, x_s) = |x_{r_{1,s}}, x_{s_1}| = \sqrt{(x_{r_{1,s}}, x_{s_1})^2 + (x_{r_{1,s}}, x_{s_1})^2}$$
(3.6)

The simplest case is k = 1 where the sample in the training set that is closest to u and set v = y where y is the class of the nearest neighboringneighbouring sample.



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Figure 3.19.: The Euclidean Distance between two vectors x_r and x_s

To get started on how the <u>K-NNKNN</u> method works, consider the representation in Figure 3.20. On the <u>The</u> left-hand-side-are represented four separate points in the training data set, namely,

$X_1 = (x_{11}, x_{12}), X_2 = (x_{21}, x_{22}), X_3 = (x_{31}, x_{32}), X_4 = (x_{41}, x_{42})$

with <u>With</u> their associated output values, respectively, y_1, y_2, y_3 and y_4 . -Figure 3.20 (a), (b), (c) and (d) shownshow the first input vector in the validation data set $x_0 = (x_{01}, x_{02})$. That is the wanted to use a method to predict the associated output value, y_0 .



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(3.7)



data set

In-Figure 3.20 shows the positioned x_0 so that its closest <u>neighborneighbour</u> is x_{I_1} that is distance $d_1 = d(x_0, x_1)$ from x_0 . The <u>nestnext</u> closest <u>neighborneighbour</u> is x_2 that is distance $d_2 > d_1$ and the similarly for other points x_3 and x_4 , in training data set such $d_4 > d_3 > d_2 > d_1$. The propose algorithmalgorithms used for classification are shown in figureFigure 3.21 respectively.



Figure 3.21: Classification algorithm

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3.7 SUMMARY

As the<u>In</u> conclusion, <u>chapterChapter</u> 3 is explained about the methodology of the wood species recognition system. In this system, there are four (4) phases included. They are image acquisition phase, pre-processing phase, feature extraction phase and feature analysis phase.

Each phase has its own objectives and interests. The most important phase in order to recognizerecognise the wood species is feature extraction phase, where this phase is implemented the Phase-only Correlation (POC) technique is implemented during the process. During this phase, the wood is recognizedrecognised and then it is classified according to the species. The classification process is done with the help of the K-Neighbour Network (KNN)- technique where it helps to classify the wood images into its classes.

<u>The POC involves three (3) steps during the feature extraction phase. The steps are the 2D Discrete Fourier Transform (2D DFT) steps)</u>. Cross Phase Spectrum step and 2D Inverse Fourier Transform (2D IFT) steps). Each step contains specific calculation and algorithm in order to get details on woods features and match it with the possible matching species. By applying all the three (3) steps, the testing image is found to be <u>a</u> match or mismatch with the training data. Then, KNN takes place <u>onin</u> the process.

The results on each phase are discussed on the next chapter. The chapter is discussed on the detail results obtained from the experiments and algorithms used on each phase-, are discussed in the next chapter.

UMP

CHAPTER 4

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Once the prototype is developed, all eight (8) Malaysian wood species identified were tested using four (4) main phases for the wood recognition species system. Each phase in this system— produces its own output. This chapter will discuss in detail the result for each phase including the outputs and the analysis of the outputs.

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4.2 RESULTS

For the result of this system, it has a main page which that is the interface of the system. Actually, while using the MATLAB software, there is only one interface in the system and all the processes are done in the same interface but with different functionality. For this system, the recognition process is done step by step from image training till image testing to obtain the result. Through this The system, the is user just has friendly, as users only have to click the buttons in the system. The recognition and classification of the wood species process started with the entering theof training images and testing images. The testing image is the image that the user wants to test and it displays displayed in the box that is provided in the system.

4.2.1 Acquisition Phase

The row <u>of data for the research is taken from the Malaysian Timber Industry Board</u> (MTIB). The database consists of 1,280_(in one thousand two hundred and eighty rows) wood images with 160 images per wood species. Out of 1,280 images, 640 images were used for training and while the remaining 640 were used for testing purpose. In Figure 4.1 sample shown, it shows the sample of wood images in the database. The full sample_as shown (see *Appendix A*).



Figure 4.1: Sample database

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4.2.2 **Pre - processing Phase**

During the pre-processing phase, the input image from the acquisition phase is taken. The input <u>color_colour</u> images are then processed for grayscale transformation processes. In-grey scale transformation-process, where the colour image is converted into grey scale image. After the grayscalegrey scale transformation process, the images then have undergone another process which is image enhancement process. For<u>undergo</u> the image enhancement process, noise is phase, which removed from the image.

4.2.2.1 Result of Gray Scale Greyscale Transformation

A graygrey scale digital image is an image in which that the value of each pixel is as a single sample, that is, it carries only intensity information. Images of this sort, also known as black-and-white, which are composed exclusively of shades of gray, are varyinggrey, varied from black at the weakest intensity to white as the strongest intensity.

GrayGrey scale, images contain the entire pixel values R, G, B values to be the same. The codes for the transformation are default code from the MATLAB software tools, The result conversion of some of the given wood images into graygrey images is shown in Figure 4.2. The full sample shown (see *Appendix B*).

4.2.2.2 Result of Image Enhancement

After the grey scale transformation process, the wood species are then enhanced by the average filtering forof the image enhancement process. The aim of this process is to remove the noise from the images. Figure 4.2 shows the results of the process-From the results, we know, which indicated that the average filtering technique givesoffers significant images with less noise found in the images. The full sample as shown (see Appendix B),

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image, (c) average filtering image

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4.2.3 Result of Feature Extraction Phase

This is the third main phase <u>in-of</u> this system. In this phase, the features of the woods are extracted. This is <u>an</u>-important <u>phase sinceas</u> its effective functioning improves the recognition rate and reduces the misclassification. This phase <u>only</u> involves <u>phase only</u> the correlation technique, which <u>includeincludes</u> three steps <u>ofnamely</u> the technique. They are-2D Discrete Fourier Transform (2D DFT), Cross--phase spectrum and 2D Inverse Fourier transform (2D IFT).

During the 2D DFT step, the images are transformed into 256 bins where the frequency of each bin is calculated and then the mean frequency of each nine (9) consecutive bin is calculated. In this step, all the images training and testing images are involved.

Then, the cross phase spectrum took over the process. The cross phase spectrum transforms the data obtained from the previous step into a line graph. During this step, two (2) images from training images and testing images are compared. The aim of this step is to form a specific pattern of the-image and compare it to another image. The data from 29 mean frequencies is converted into a pattern for each image.

Figure 4.3 <u>tillto</u> Figure 4.10 show the sample of the pattern for each wood species where it is defined from the data obtained from 2D DFT (Step 1). Figure 4.3 shows the sample pattern of <u>the</u> Balau species. This sample is taken from the training images. From Figure 4.3 <u>till figureto</u> Figure 4.10, it is found that the pattern of each species and each image is genuinely different.



Figure 4.3: Pattern of the Ramin species training image

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Figure 4.4: Pattern of the Melunak species training image

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Figure 4.5: Pattern of the Mersawa species training images

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Figure 4.6: Pattern of the Durian species training images

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Figure 4.7: Pattern of the Mersawa Gajah species training images

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Figure 4.8: Pattern of the Rengas species training images

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Figure 4.9: Pattern of the Sepetir species training images

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Figure 4.10: Pattern of the Balau species training images

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When <u>pattern-the patterns</u> of <u>two (2)</u> images are found to be matched, <u>the-a</u> third step is involved. The 2D IFT then compared the two (2) patterns and find the closest match value of the two (2) images and performed the algorithm. Through the algorithm, the unrelated frequencies of the two (2) images are then eliminated and the distinct high peak frequency is then formed.

When two (2) images are compared and after the third step is performed, during this step,the 2D IFT eliminates all meaningless high mean frequencies obtained from the cross phase spectrum step.phase. It leads to the existences existence of a distinct sharp peak if the two (2) images (training image and testing image) are found to be the same. Meanwhile if they are dissimilar, the peak drops significantly.

Figure 4.11 shows two (2) images of the Durian species that are compared and they are-found similar, so the POC function gives a distinct sharp peak. On the other hand, Figure 4.12 shows no distinct peak found when the Ramin species image (testing image) is compared to the Durian species image (training image). The height of the top peak is the good measurement to judge the similarity between two (2) images. Thus, the POC function exhibits much higher discrimination capability than ordinary correlation function.



Figure 4.11: POC Function distinct sharp peak at centre for the same image types

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Figure 4.12: POC Function - no distinct peak for two difference(2) different images

4.2.4 Feature Analysis Phase

Feature analysis is the last phase of the wood species recognition system where it prepares the output of the system. This phase used <u>the K-nearest neighbourNearest</u> <u>Neighbour (KNN)</u> technique in order to classify the images according to their species. The analysis phase is the decision making part of a recognition system and it uses the data obtained from the features extraction in the previous phase.

Table 4.1 shows the classification of wood species using the K--Nearest Neighbour (KNN). This) technique, which is normally used for classifying objects. KNN is used after the POC process where the process involved the mean frequency of the vector value for each wood species. It computed the vector values of each wood species and found the nearest or minimum differences of the vector values between the data and the matched image.

KNN is worked<u>works</u> when the two (2) images are matched after the process of POC during the previous phase. The KNN compares the vector value of the matched image with the vector value of all wood species. During the process, the minimum or nearest differences between them is found.

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Table 4.1: Wood species classification

	-		
Vector Value	Class	Wood Species	
4190	C ₁	Balau	
8100	C2	Ramin	-
5560	C ₃	Durian	-
5440	C_4	Melunak	-
5420	C5	Mersawa	
5740	C ₆	Mersawa Gajah	
4080	C ₇	Rengas	
6220	C_8	Sepetir	-
		<u> </u>	J

From Table 4.1, it is found that the Balau's vector value is 4190. While while for rengas<u>Rengas</u> and Sepetir, the vector values are 4080 and 6220. respectively. For Mersawa Gajah, Durian and Mersawa, the values are <u>each</u> 5740, 5560 and 5240.

The vector value for Melunak and Ramin, on the vector valuesother hand, are 5440 and 8100. During the KNN process, the vector value of the matched image and all the vector values of all species are plotted on a graph. Then the differences between the value of all species and the matched image isare calculated. The nearest or minimum differences between the values are considered as the same class.

For example, when two (2) images are considered as matched in the POC process, and its vector value is 6213. The KNN computes the different difference of this image's vector value with all the species. After the calculation, it is found that the minimum differences difference is with the Sepetir wood species with about only seven (7), differences rather than with compared to the Mersawa Gajah with almost 473 differences. Then the matched image is classified as the Sepetir wood species.

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But when the vector value of the matched image is larger than 9100 vector value and smaller than 3080, the KNN cannot compute the minimum differences and the matched image is classified as <u>unrecognized</u>. Besides that<u>unrecognised</u>. In addition, when the minimum differences of two (2) species are the same or two (2) wood species share the same minimum differences, the matched image is also classified as unrecognized.

For example, the matched image's vector value is 5490. After the KNN computed the differences between all <u>the species</u>, it is found that Mersawa and Mersawa Gajah share the same differences withat 250 differences. Then, the, The, matched image is <u>then</u> considered as <u>unrecognized</u><u>unrecognised</u>.

4.3 RESULT FOR IMAGE TESTING EXPERIMENT

From all the <u>resultresults</u> obtained from each phase<u>included</u>, there are certain elements valued in order to show the effectiveness of the system and whether the system is able to achieve the objectives of the research.

For each experiment, <u>the</u> research used the percentage of correct classification (PCC) to evaluate the classification accuracy<u>, which is</u> defined as:

$$PCC = \frac{number of testing images correctly classified}{total number of testing images classified} \times 100$$
(4.1)

The results of <u>the experiments are summarizedsummarised</u> in <u>TablesTable</u> 4.2 and Figure 4.11 with each wood species <u>useusing</u> the same 640 training data and are exactly evaluated on the same amount of testing data.

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Table 4.2: Experiments result of wood species recognition

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Wood Species	Testing Data	Correct Result	Incorrect Result	Percentage (%)
Balau	80	80	0	100
Ramin	80	80	0	100
Durian	80	75	5	93.75
Melunak	80	79	1	98.5
Mersawa	80	76	4	95
Mersawa Gajah	80	73	7	91.25
Rengas	80	79	1	98.5
Sepetir	80	75	5	93.75

Based on Table 4.2, there <u>about eighty (80)</u> sample images for each species were tested. The experiment shows that all samples tested for <u>the Balau</u> and Ramin species are correctly identified. Meanwhile, for <u>the Melunak</u> and Rengas species, there is only <u>one (1)</u> incorrect image data is identified.

Furthermore, <u>the Mersawa species obtained four (4) identified incorrect image data</u> identified. Otherwise. Likewise, both <u>the Durian and Sepetir species</u> are incorrectly identified for <u>five (5)</u> image data. Lastly, the highest incorrect image data identified is <u>the</u> Sepetir species with <u>seven (7 image data)</u> unsuccessful identified.image data. The percentage for the results of <u>the wood</u> sample test shows that the recognition accuracy obtained is 96.4%.



Figure 4.13: Histogram of the Wood Species Recognition Result

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Therefore, based<u>Based</u> on Table 4.2, the histogram of <u>the</u> overall result wood species image data, which has been showed in Figure 4.11, has been plotted to <u>summarizesummarise</u> the table. From the histogram, the result illustrates that <u>the</u> Balau and Ramin species have <u>athe</u> same result with all <u>eighty (80) correct</u> image data-is correct.

Meanwhile, for <u>the_Melunak and Rengas species</u>, there are 79 image data are correctly identified. Furthermore, the resultAs for <u>the Mersawa species</u>, <u>it</u> obtained 76 image data identified correctly. Otherwise, while both the Durian and Sepetir species are correctly identified for 75 image data. Lastly, the lowest correct image data identified is <u>the</u> Sepetir species with only 73 image data are identified correctly.

4.4 COMPARISON AMONG RESEARCHES

Wood Species Recognition	Design of an Intelligent Wood	Wood Species Recognition
System	Species Recognition System	System Based on Phase
By (Bremananth et al. 2009) By (Khalid et al. 2008)	Only-Correlation (POC)
Using GLCM approach	Using GLCM and Multilayer	Using Bin Based Histogram and
	Perceptron Artification Neural	POC
	Network	
Involves 2 steps:	Involves 2 steps:	Involves 3 steps:
1. Pre-processing	1. Pre-processing	1. Pre-processing
2. Feature Extraction	2. Feature Extraction	2. Feature Extraction
		3. Feature Analysis
200 train images	1753 train images	640 train images
200 test images	196 test images	640 test images
Accuracy percentage:	Accuracy percentage:	Accuracy percentage:
Not stated	95%	96.4%

 Table 4.3: Comparison among researches in wood species recognition system

According to the-Table 4.3 above, this research is compared to two (2-researches) separate studies in wood species recognition field. They are Wood Species Recognition System by Bremananth R et al. and Design of an Intelligent Wood Species Recognition System by Khalid Marzuki et al. Those both systemsBoth the researches used GLCM as the basicbasis of their system.

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For <u>Wood Species Recognition System (by</u> Bremananth et al. 2009)-system, he implemented his research on ten (10) Indian woods species which areincluding Teak, Ebony, Jack, Oak, Padauk, Sal, Satin, Teak, White Oak and Zebra. He used only the GLCM approach and involves involved two (2) steps during the process. The steps arewere pre-processing and feature extraction. During the pre-processing step, the images obtained arewere resized to 256 x 256 and the images arewere converted into the graygrey images. For the feature extraction, after considering the several textural analysis methods, the GrayGrey Level Co-occurrence Matrix (GLCM) seemswas deemed as appropriate.

In other wayscontrast, the second research, (Khalid et al. 2008) implemented their research on twenty (20) Malaysian woods species, which are Bintangor, Nyatoh, Sesendok, Ramin, Mersawa, Jelutong and others. They used the GLCM and Multilayer Perceptron (MLP) Artificial Neural Network (ANN). It involves-involved two (2) steps during the process, which are were pre-processing and feature extraction.

In the pre-processing step, the image enhancement used two procedures of the Visual System Development Platform (VSDP) Image Library. They arewere image sharpening using high-pass filter-and, as well as contrast enhancement using histogram equalization. While for For the feature extraction step, he used GLCM as the feature extractor and Multilayer Perceptron (MLP) Artificial Neural Network (ANN) as the wood species classification. From the 20 Malaysian wood species, he used 1753 traintraining images and 196 test images. As thea result, the accuracy percentage obtained iswas 95%.

Different with <u>Compared to this research</u>, the <u>research</u> used eight (8) Malaysian woods species to implement the POC method. This research involved <u>three (3)</u> steps during the process, which <u>arewere</u> pre—processing, feature extraction, and feature analysis. This research also enhanced the POC technique by adding <u>the KNN</u> techniquemethod in order to attain better results compared to other <u>research</u>.<u>research</u>.<u>research</u>.<u>A</u>

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Formatted: Font: English (U.K.) the<u>a</u> result, the accuracy percentage obtained is<u>amounted to</u> 96.4% and the researcher believed that this advanced POC technique attained better results from than other technique. Formatted: Font: English (U.K.) Formatted: Font: English (U.K.) Formatted: Font: English (U.K.)

4.5 SUMMARY

This research <u>containscomprised</u> of three (3) phases<u>which are, including</u> preprocessing, feature extraction and feature analysis. In <u>the pre-processing</u> phase, there are two (2) processes involved<u>which are, namely the</u> grey scale transformation process and image enhancement process. In <u>the</u> grey scale transformation process, the colour image is converted into grey scale image. While for <u>the</u> image enhancement process, <u>image</u> noise is removed from the image by using the average filtering technique.

The next phase is feature extraction where the enhanced <u>grayscalegrey scale</u> image is computed by the phase only correlation (POC) technique. During this phase, the frequency of each bin is calculated and the sharp peak formed meant that the test image is matched with the train image.

In order to achieve the objectives of this research, the last phase is performed. In this last phase, the K nearest neighbor-Nearest Neighbour (KNN) technique is implemented. The objective of this phase is to identify the name of the matched test image. When the POC found that the test image is matched with the train image, the KNN helped to identify the wood species name usingby calculating the feature vector values-calculated.

As the<u>In</u> conclusion, the incorrect results happened because of some factors and the first factor is the lighting problem. During the photography session, the light factor needs to be considered <u>soto ensure</u> that the image that has been taken is not too dark or not-too light. If this happened, then it causes difficulty in deciding the wood species. Next₇ is the way of the-images are taken. Actually, there<u>There</u> are <u>a fewseveral</u> steps that must be followed during the photography session.

The camera position must not <u>be</u> too <u>far</u> <u>near</u> or too <u>close tofar from</u> the image. <u>BesidesIn addition</u>, the position should always be maintained and static for the next sample. <u>In addition, the The camera must also must be placed facefacing</u> towards the object <u>onof</u> the image and not <u>slantingbe slanted</u> away from the image.

The next factor is <u>athe</u> technique of cross section cutting. The rough or uneven cross section cutting might caused problems while testing the image. In fact, this condition <u>may caused the might result in</u> error or incorrect of the data identification.





5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to determine the most suitable methodology and techniques for the-wood species recognition. In this research there are four (4) main phases used which are the_ image acquisition phase, the, pre-_processing phase, feature extraction phase and feature analysis phase. Based on the research questions and results discussed in Chapter 4, fewseveral conclusions have been made and they are as follows follow:

5.2 **OBJECTIVES ACHIEVEMENT**

In order to achieve the objectives of the research, there are certain phases that should take places.place. The first phase-is image acquisition. The image is, where images are collected from the data of provided by the Malaysian Timber Industry Board (MTIB). There are 1280 images consist of eight (8) wood species collected, with 160 images collected for aeach wood species. During the image capturing, the researcher used an ordinary digital camera. When the image is captured, the image is converted from an analog imageanalogue to a digital image.

The second phase is pre-processing. The aim of this phase, which is <u>aimed</u> to enhance the image. During this step, the colour image is converted into the grayscale image. Besides that grey scale. In addition, the noise is removed by using the average filtering technique.

After that, <u>Next is</u> the third phase is took place. The step, which is feature extraction. During the feature extraction <u>In this</u> phase, histogram and the Phase Only Correlation (POC) method is used to determine the wood species pattern. Histogram is used for processing to define the frequency of each graygrey level present in the image while the POC willwould value between the test image and the image of predicted class. At this phase, the image is recognized recognised whether it is a match or mismatch.

The <u>nextsubsequent</u> phase is feature analysis. During this phase, , where the K-Nearest Neighbour technique is implemented. The aim of this technique is to <u>recognizerecognise</u> the wood species and classify it by their species. <u>The KNN is</u> functioningfunctions by calculating the feature vector of the testing image and compare it with the training image stored in the database. The minimum difference of the feature vector's value between <u>the</u> testing data and training data <u>issis</u> considered as matched.

After completing all the <u>phasephases</u>, the result of each phase is collected and presented. It is found that the percentage for the accuracy of <u>the wood</u> species recognition system based on <u>the POC</u> obtained is 96.4%. From <u>the this percentage</u>, it <u>is shown</u> that the system <u>ishas</u> fulfilled the objectives of this research.

5.3 CONTRIBUTION

The main contributions<u>contribution</u> of this research are the research is proposed in order<u>is</u> to produce <u>a</u> new technique in enhancing the wood species recognition system based on <u>the</u> Phase Only—Correlation (POC) technique in contrast of the <u>with</u> previous researches which that used the Grey Level Co-occurance Matrices (GLCM) technique.

<u>SinceThis research is motivated by</u> the <u>unsuccessful</u> results obtained from the previous research found unsuccessful, it is motivated to propose this research.study. This new technique obtained good results with <u>highhigher</u> percentage of identification. It also achieves the most significant features in identifying the wood species.

In addition, in order to achieve a better result, this research enhances the POC process by applying <u>the K-Nearest Neighbour technique</u>. Based on the process of POC in the previous study on other field, the KNN technique is <u>decidedselected</u> to be applied into the <u>POC process of POC</u>. By applying this technique, the wood species <u>eancould</u> be <u>recognizedrecognised</u> according to their species.

Besides that<u>Furthermore</u>, this system willwould be able to replace the wood inspectors who usually take <u>more</u> time in <u>recognizing therecognising</u> wood species by using conventional techniques. By usingThe technique recommended by this, it research takes only <u>a</u> short time to <u>recognizerecognise</u> the wood species.

5.4 FURTHER RESEARCH

From the research done, it shows that<u>Nevertheless</u>, this research has several weaknesses. Thus, there are, which require some improvement is suggested to be done to improvise the system so that the resultresults obtained willwould be much better.

i. The technique used to <u>recognizerecognise</u> the Mersawa and Mersawa Gajah species, which the characteristics are look like the samelooked similar, should be thoroughly investigated. It is suggested that theto <u>have continuous</u> research is <u>continuously done in order</u> to attain a better methodology and techniques.

ii. The testing is only tested on <u>eight (8)</u> wood species. It is hoped that it will be doneproposed to conduct testing on more wood species so that the efficiency of the wood species recognition system <u>cancould</u> be improved and it <u>maywould</u> reduce errors while applying the wood species recognition system.

iii. The process of capturing the wood species images becomes so hard<u>is a challenge</u> because of the lack of <u>a</u>_systematic system in capturing the wood images in Malaysia. It is suggested that other researcher should<u>in another research to</u> develop a system to make this process easier. Besides that, various images in <u>differencedifferent</u> forms could be used to identify more <u>situation of the situations</u>, so <u>that</u> recognition of wood species to get<u>can secure</u> more impressive <u>resultresults</u>.

iv. The effort in improvising the methodology and techniques in wood species recognition system should be continuedcontinue to obtain a better result in the future. There are a lot of techniques that had been applied nowadays and in the future.
 <u>a</u> new system <u>cancould</u> be developed by applying other techniques and algorithm to

produce <u>the a better</u> result and <u>to apply it with a lot of more</u> images <u>based on for wood</u> recognition <u>and wood</u> species.

<u>This project can also be applied in the wood industry because it can help to recognize recognise and classify wood species in a short time. The new developer can develop it using other technique and apply it to the wood industry.</u>

5.5 SUMMARY

Thus<u>This research has developed</u> a visual inspection system for the recognition of wood is <u>developed.species</u>. The system was objectively designed to be cost-effective and as a means to replace wood inspectors due to <u>the</u> difficulty in recruiting them as workers which is rather laborious.recruitment. The system shows an <u>effectual visualization effective</u> <u>visualisation</u> of the application. The image processing techniques are applied to improve the image excellence. In this design we have applied <u>the</u> POC approach to extract the features from the digital wood images.

As a result, the recognition process of this system become smoothly rehearses because of the steps that used in this system.becomes smoother. Even though this system could givehas several advantages to the user, but this system was<u>it will</u> still take time in the recognition process. Formatted: Indent: First line: 0 cm



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SAMPLE OF WOOD SPECIES IMAGE



UMP DATABASE: 5 IMAGES OF BALAU WOOD SPECIES







UMP DATABASE: 5 IMAGES OF RAMIN WOOD SPECIES







UMP DATABASE: 5 IMAGES OF MELUNAK WOOD SPECIES



APPENDIX A5

UMP DATABASE: 5 IMAGES OF MERSAWA WOOD SPECIES





UMP DATABASE: 5 IMAGES OF MERSAWA GAJAH WOOD SPECIES







UMP DATABASE: 5 IMAGES OF SEPETIR WOOD SPECIES





RESULT OF IMAGE ENHANCEMENT



Original Image



Grayscale Image



Average Filtering Image

APPENDIX B2

WOOS SPECIES: RAMIN





Original Image



Grayscale Image



Average Filtering Image

APPENDIX B4

WOOD SPECIE: MELUNAK













Average Filtering Image

APPENDIX C

USER MANUAL

UMP

- 1. This system is started when the user open the MATLAB version 7.10.0 and above. The user will find the main interface of MATLAB. See Figure C - 1.
- 2. Then choose the project folder of the system.



Figure C-1: Main interface of MATLAB 7.10.0

3. Open the SystemWoodRec folder and type "Wood_Species_Recognition" in the command windows in the Figure see Figure C-2 or press button F5 and the program "Wood Species Recognition System " has display in windows.



Figure C-2: Select the file path of the project

4. Main interface of the system has appeared. See Figure C-3.

Wood_Species_Recognition	
TRAIN	WELCOME TO WOOD SPECIES RECOGNITION
TESTING IMAGE	
INPUTIMAGE	
TESTING	
]
EXIT	

Figure C-3: Main interface for system

5. When the main interface of the system appeared, the user need to click at the "TRAIN" button to train the images. See Figure C-4.

Wood_Species_Recognition	
TRAIN TESTING IMAGE INPUT IMAGE TESTING EXIT	WELCOME TO WOOD SPECIES RECOGNITION
6. Click "INPUT I	Figure C-4: Train image from database MAGE" button to select wood species. See Figure C-5
Wood_Species_Recognition	
TRAIN TESTING IMAGE INPUT IMAGE TESTING	WELCOME TO WOOD SPECIES RECOGNITION

Figure C-5: Select image from file

- 7. When the wood species image selected is appeared on the main interface of the system, the user needs to click at "TESTING" button to process the image that have been selected before.
- 8. The image will be processed. When all the process is done the result will be appeared on the main interface of the system. See Figure C-6.



Figure C-6: Interface for process and result