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RECOGNITION OF SIMPLE 3-D OBJECTS BY THE

USE OF SYNTACTIC PATTERN RECOGNITION

by

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A Master's Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy of the Loughborough University of Technology

June 1982

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σε ολα τα μελη της οικογενειας μου για την ηθικη και υλικη τους συμπαρασταση και ειδικα

> στους γονεις μου ελενη και θαναση

> > στον κωστα

και στην θεια φροσω

ABSTRACT

This project is an attempt to supply the existing hardware with adequate software, in order to develop a system capable of recognizing 3-D objects, bounded by simple 2-D planes, which in turn are bounded by straight lines.

Chapter 1 contains an introduction to pattern recognition and a survey of 3-D recognizers. Chapter 2 describes the hardware and the process of feature extraction, by the techniques of averaging, edging and isolation. Chapter 3 deals with the tracing of boundaries and contains criteria for the detection of vertices. An introduction to syntactic pattern recognition is given in Chapter 4. The 3-D and 2-D recognizers together with an introduction to PROLOG (the programming language in which they are written) are presented in Chapter 5. Finally, conclusions, results and suggestions for further improvement are given in Chapter 6.

The whole procedure is divided into three parts i) preprocessing, ii) vertex-detection, iii) recognition. Preprocessing:- A T.V. camera pointed at the object to be recognized, takes a picture and sends it to a digitizer, which digitizes it and stores it in a frame-store. The digitized picture is then sent to a microcomputer system for further processing. The main figure of the picture is decomposed to its 2-D sides and every one of them is *averaged* and *edged*.

Vertex detection:- The boundary of every preprocessed side is traced by a follower and its vertices are detected and recorded according to a number of criteria. At the end of the tracing, a vertex-array is formed containing the vertex-coordinates for every 2-D side of the main object. This array is processed by a minicomputer, in order to verify the *realvertices* of each 2-D shape and eliminate all those caused by noise or distortion. Finally a number of clauses are prepared, for the next phase of recognition.

Recognition:- The 3-D recognizer is based on the principles of syntactic pattern recognition. The clauses formed in the previous phase, are lists of the main components - primitives - which compose three basic 2-D shapes. These lists are tested against the structure of the basic shapes, and if they are described by one of them, are classified as being: a triangle, a quadrilater or other. The structure of a 3-D object is considered to be a combination of triangles and quadrilaterals. Thus a figure is classified into one of ten classes if it is described by its corresponding structure. Otherwise the 3-D object is classified as other. A 2-D recognizer similarly, performs a further classification of 2-D shapes.

The procedure was tested, both as a whole, and with respect to each of its three main parts. As a whole it works perfectly in the case of 2-D figures, and it has satisfactory results in the case of 3-D objects. Although the last two parts, tested separately, cope perfectly with every

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2-D and 3-D object which they cover, there is some weakness in the isolating technique in use, to decompose the 3-D object into its actual 2-D sides. The latter requires very good lighting conditions and suitable camera settings in order to accomplish its task.

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Chapter

INTRODUCTION

1.1 PATTERN RECOGNITION

Pattern Recognition is a branch of a broader field called Artificial Intelligence. Although some people working on it prefer not to define it, a very simple definition⁽¹⁾ of Pattern Recognition is:-

1

Pattern Recognition is the categorization (or classification) of input data into identifiable classes via the extraction of significant features or attributes of the data, from a background of irrelevant detail.

By defining the very important term of Pattern Class as, a category determined by some given common attributes, an alternative definition of Pattern Recognition could be:-

Pattern Recognition is the process of classifying sensory information into mutually exclusive categories.⁽²⁾

Recognition is regarded as a basic attribute of human beings, as well as other living organisms. A pattern is the description of an object. Both are very important for learning which is one of the most significant functions leading towards development. During the second part of the 20th century there is a tendency in humans to employ *intelligent* machines, in order to relieve their brains from doing jobs tiresome and time consuming. On the other hand, the memory storage has been quite a problem, especially considering the increasing rate of information that is generated. The computer - taking into account its tremendous development - proved a very useful solution. Its ability to store and process huge quantities of information at a very high speed, opened new dimensions to human knowledge and pushed forward all the sciences. The next step for the computer was towards recognition and learning. This is why many sicences, irrelevant to computers at first sight like:- statistics, phychology, linguistics, biology, taxonomy, switching theory, communication theory, control theory, operational research etc. have contributed to the area of Pattern Recognition.

1.2 APPROACHES TO THE PROBLEM OF PATTERN RECOGNITION - APPLICATIONS

During the past twenty years there has been a considerable growth of interest in problems of Pattern Recognition. This interest has created an increasing need for methods and techniques for use, in the design of Pattern Recognition systems. Many different approaches have been proposed, most of which deal with the decision-theoretic or discriminant method. Recently, probably because of the picture recognition or scene analysis, the syntactic or structural approach has been proposed, and some preliminary results from applying it, have shown it to be quite promising. 7

The syntactic approach⁽³⁾ attempts to draw an analogy between the structure of patterns and the syntax of the language, by emphasising the structural description of the patterns. Mathematical linguistics constitute a very useful tool because of its syntactic nature. However the syntactic approach contains other non-linguistic methods. The description of patterns is based on class distribution or density functions in the decision-theoretic

approach, syntactic rules or grammars in the syntactic one. The effectiveness of each approach depends on the particular problem and often mixed approaches need to be applied. It is difficult sometimes to distinguish sharply between syntactic and non-syntactic pattern recognizers.

Another interesting point in most Pattern Recognition systems is the processes that preceed the manipulation of the information by the computer. An image which may be derived from any one of a number of sources, acoustic, light or electronic, is broken down into a binary sequence or matrix. For example a camera produces a two-dimensional image which gives rise to a matrix. The digitized information gained from that image constitutes the pattern to be examined. Once the digitized image has been produced, it is fed to a computer, which compares the incoming patterns with sets of stored information in its memory and classifies them accordingly. An alternative technique, derives the pattern into a number of main components, called *primitives*, which are sufficient for the description of the main pattern. This time the categorization of the pattern is achieved by comparing its structure to those of pre-specified models. Both techniques involve computer *learning* which can be achieved either manually or automatically.

The latest development of RAM's (Random Access Memory) and microprocessors increased both the learning ability of the system and the speed of data processing. The technique of parallel processing dedicates a single pixel to its own microprocessor.⁽⁴⁾

The applications of Pattern Recognition techniques are numerous. Some of them are:-

Design or program of machines that read printed or typewritten characters. Most of the banks use an automatic pattern classification system to read the code characters of ordinary bank cheques. Recognition of handwritten characters or words used by the Post Office of some countries.

General medical diagnosis by screening electrocardiograms and electroencephalograms. Identification of fingerprints and interpretation of photographs used by the police. Identification of faults and defects in mechanical devices and manufacturing processes. Automatic analysis and classification of chromosomes. Multispectral scanners located on aircrafts, satellites and space stations need to process and analyse the large volumes of information they receive. Some interesting applications are crop inventory, crop disease detection, forestry, geological and geographical studies, weather prediction, classification of seismic waves and scores of others. Sound recognition is also under development, moving towards recognition of spoken words and oral communication between computer and humans.

1.3 A SURVEY OF 3-D OBJECT RECOGNITION SYSTEMS

This paragraph refers to some of the work done on the recognition of 3-D objects by computer systems. Most of the algorithms and techniques given below are the first stage of a more sophisticated operation called scene analysis.

<u>Robert's program</u>:⁽⁵⁾ This program models objects in a scene as part of the recognition task, not as a separate process which has to be completed before recognition can begin. The basic mechanism of this system is to describe blocks in terms of unions of transformed primitive blocks (also called models). The primitive blocks he uses are a cube, a wedge and a hexagonal prism. There are two main parts to the system, entirely independent.

a) producing a line drawing from a photograph

b) producing a 3-D object list from a line drawing. A complete line drawing, in the form of lists of lines and end-points, provides the input for the modelling/recognition program. Each end-point has pointers indicating which lines it is connected to in order of angle.

The first step is to find the polygons which make up surfaces of objects, by tracking lines and jumping to adjacent lines at junctions. Convex polygons with 3,4 or 6 sides - approved polygons - are looked for because these occur in the 3 primitive blocks and thus could be used as starting points in the modelling process. The second step is to match transformed primitive blocks to part or whole scene blocks. The line drawing is searched for a number of topological features which are the basis for the transformation of primitive blocks. If a transformed model completely fits a group of connected lines then the model is assumed to represent the object. If not a compound object construction procedure is used.

Yoshiaki and Saburo's program: (6) This program is developed for the eye of a particular intelligent robot and achieves the extraction of the line drawing of 3-D objects. The procedure consists mainly of two processes. First four line drawings of the same objects illuminated from four different directions are sequentially obtained. Second, by applying 2-D logical operations to these line drawings, a complete one is extracted. This method is applicable to more than two polyhedrons in a scene which is difficult by usual methods to represent, because of too small difference of light intensities between the different planes or the effect of shadows. Yoshiaki and Motoi's program: (7) This is a recognition procedure with a range finder developed for the eye of the above mentioned robot. A range finder projects a light beam through a vertical slit on the polyhedrons. While the beam is moved in a field of view the picture of each instant is picked up by a TV camera. Based on the 3-D position of the slit image, the objects are recognised and their parameters are obtained. This method determines not only the boundary of the polyhedrons but also the 3-D position of their surface planes. Thus, recognition is reliable compared with one based on the line drawing of the objects. In addition, this range finder

may be used to measure the 3-D position of any point for input to the usual recognition methods. The recognition procedure is free from the effects of the arrangements and shadow of objects.

Tenenbaum's program: (8) This program deals with complex objects and is based on the idea that a robot will not have to describe a scene exhaustively but will have to find specific objects in order to carry out tasks. Vision is considered to be a problem solving process using knowledge about the robot's perceptual abilities and contextual knowledge about its world situation to recognize objects. Each model describes an object in terms of its distinguishing features. There are two classes of features used in the The first is obtained from the results of applying perceptual models. operators to instances of the object. This is performed by interactive fashion. A user outlines part of the image, using a light-pen and tells the program to use the result to update the model of the object. Colour features are recorded in this way. The second class of features describe the object in terms of simple shape characteristics, such as the ratio of height to base area. The system uses sensory inputs: brightness, colour and range. When the system is told to find an object in a scene it proceeds in two stages:-

- a) acquisition stage, where the scene image is sampled in a search for characteristic features of the object.
- b) validation stage, where each of the possible instances found at the acquisition stage is checked in more detail.

Popplestone and Ambler's program: ⁽⁹⁾ This program is designed to form body models automatically using range data. The input is provided by the striper, a triangulation ranging device which enables the 3-D position of all points visible to both camera and a light projector to be calculated. The object to be modelled is placed on a turntable and images are stored from views

at several angles of rotation. The construction of the models takes place in four stages:-

- a) inspection, which collects stripe data and information about the position and operation of the various parts of the striper system and then reduces the amount of stripe data by segmenting each stripe into a number of straight line segments.
- b) plane finding, where the information supplied by the segmenter is used to indicate smoothly joined planes.
- c) cylinder finding, which tries to fit cylinders to groups of smoothly joined planes.
- d) body model building, where a body model is formed by the union of intersections of two basic primitives. These two primitives are half-spaces and length cylinders. The planes found by the planefinder are represented by transformed half-spaces; cylindrical faces are represented by transformed infinite cylinders. It is

assumed that bodies will have only planar and cylindrical faces. <u>Shneier's program</u>: ⁽¹⁰⁾ This system also uses the striper to provide the input data. After finding plane and cylindrical faces it uses completely different representation for objects than the previous one. The models for individual objects do not exist as separate entities but are all part of a global data-base which is a semantic net. The nodes of the net represent faces of objects, and the links represent relations between faces. In addition surfaces which are of the same type and dimensions are represented by one node. The modelling operation is not totally automatic, the user supplies a name for the object and a list of relations to be used when constructing the model. The program creates the model, integrating it with the existing data-base. The recognition process proceeds in two parts:-

a) find interpretations for the fragments of a scene

b) find the best interpretation of the scene as a whole. A range map is processed to find some of the surfaces present in the scene. The surfaces found are matched to nodes in the net and the results of these matches are used to construct a scene graph which contains all the possible interpretations of each surface. In a second stage a special constraint analysis algorithm is used to find the best overall interpretation of the scene.

<u>Nevatia and Binford's program</u>:⁽¹¹⁾ This system also uses as input, only range data, obtained by using laser-based triangulation ranging. The basic principle is that bodies are segmented into simpler parts. Models are based on descriptions of these parts and on the connectivity relations between them. The domain of objects modelled included toy dolls and horses, and hand tools. Interestingly the same processing is used to generate the symbolic description of an object for both modelling and recognition. The main primitives used to describe objects are generalised cones. After a first stage of segmentation, the program generates a symbolic description of the object consisting of:-

- a) connectivity relations, which are in the form of a semantic net with nodes representing parts and links the relations between them.
- b) part descriptions, containing a summary of the size and gross shape of the part which is used for quick matching and more detailed description of the linear cone which is fitted to the part.
- c) junction description, consisting of a list of parts connected at the joint in cyclic order and a note of the widest piece at the joint.
- d) global properties which are the number of pieces, joints and descriptions of distinguished pieces (parts with special properties).

The recognition stage consists of the description codes of distinguished pieces in the scene, which are compared with those of stored models. Those compared successfully are taken on to the matching stage which is performed by growing the graph starting from distinguished pieces.

SUMMARY - CONCLUSIONS

- Pattern Recognition is the process of classifying sensory information into mutually exclusive categories.
- Many sciences have contributed to the area of Pattern Recognition.
- There are two main approaches to the problems of Pattern Recognitions, the decision-theoretic or discriminant method, and the syntactic or structural one.
- The applications of Pattern Recognition are numerous and spread over a large area. Some of them affect every-day life.
- A survey of 3-D object recognition systems reveals that they follow two basic stages:
 - a) modelling
 - b) recognition.

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Chapter 2

PREPROCESSING METHODS AND FEATURE EXTRACTION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Preprocessing is defined as a method of representing a scene by a set of numbers.⁽¹⁾ A visual scene might be divided into a raster of cells and then the light intensity of each cell, converted to an electrical signal. However an accurate representation of the complete scene, could well lead to a large set of numbers. Furthermore, the probability density functions needed to represent the scatter of a pattern set produced by such preprocessing, are likely to be very complex.

However, only the significant *features*, are extracted from the sensory information, provided by the mass of complex data resulting from such simple preprocessing schemes. These features would have either binary values indicating their absence (\emptyset) or presence (1), or any numerical value

indicating the *intensity* of the feature. The collection of feature values for a scheme is used as the numerical representation, X, for the scene. Feature extraction methods are a major element of the recognition process. Unfortunately there seems to be no general theory to guide the search of relevant features in any given recognition problem. The design of feature extractors is mainly empirical, following different ad-hoc rules, found to be useful in special situations.

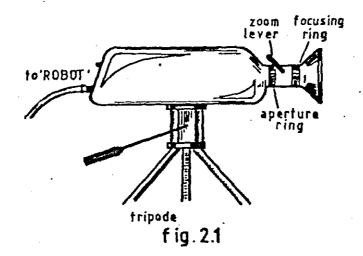
The primary input to a visual processor is a rectangular grid of cells, each one of which takes a value from \emptyset to 15. These values represent 16 gray levels from white to black respectively. Before any extraction of features takes place from the grid, some preliminary operations need to be done on the grid itself. Their main tasks include, speck removal, gapfilling, thickening, thining, edging and isolation. The first part of the following paragraphs gives a description of the used hardware. In the second part a detailed analysis of the averaging, edging and isolating operations, is attempted.

2.2 THE HARDWARE

The hardware consists of the following main devices: a T.V. camera, a T.V. monitor, a frame store digitizer and the appropriate interface, a microcomputer system, a lineprinter and a V.D.U.

2.2.1 The Camera

This is a SANYO video T.V. camera with a 12.5-75 mm zoom lense of aperture range 1.8-22f.



It is situated on a tripod and is pointed at the object that is to be recognized. The picture that is taken, is displayed on a T.V. monitor. If the digitizer is interposed between the camera and the monitor, the picture on the screen is a digitized representation of the actual picture.

2.2.2 The Digitizer ('Robot')

This is a device that digitizes the actual picture that is taken by the camera, and stores it in a 16K×4 bit memory frame store. There are 3 switches and 3 knobs on the front and two sockets on the back of the 'Robot!.

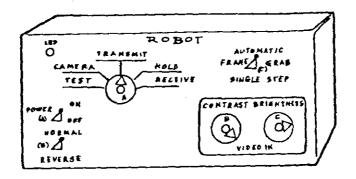


fig. 2.2

Switch A is an 'ON-OFF' switch. Switch B gives the actual (or digitized) picture in its normal form, when switched to 'NORMAL' and the negative

picture, when switched to 'REVERSE'. Switch C is a 'FRAME GRAB' switch; which means that it causes the device to split the actual picture into 218×128 cells, and stores it in the 16K memory, each time it is pressed down. Knob A can be set to one of five positions. At position 'TEST' a test pattern of four stripes of different gray levels (those corresponding to hex numbers \emptyset , 7, 8 and F). That helps adjusting the contrast and brightness by using knobs B and C respectively. At position 'CAMERA' the digitized picture of the object is displayed on the screen. At position 'TRANSMIT' the frozen digitized picture that is stored in the memory is displayed on the monitor. This setting has been designed to send the frame to a telephone line. At the next position 'HOLD' the digitized picture displayed on the screen is held. Finally position 'RECEIVE' has been designed to allow the device to receive a frame from a telephone line. The transmit and receive operations are not used at the moment, because the special circuitry for them does not exist. Hence the effect of the first on the screen, is the same as at 'HOLD' and that of the second, reception of random garbage that fills the picture. A block diagram of the 'Robot' is shown in



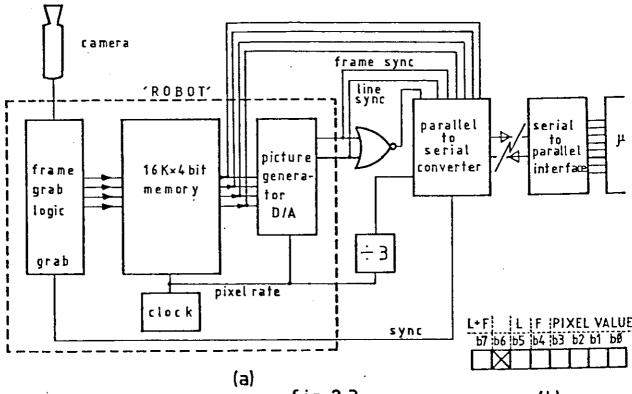


fig. 2.3

(b)

The picture taken by the camera, is passed to the 'Robot' (inside the dotted block). The analog signals which are received from the camera are given to a Frame Grab Logic. This converts the analog signals to digital ones and stores them in a 16K×4 bit memory frame, whenever the Frame Grab switch is pressed down. The memory is organized in an 128×128 byte matrix and each byte contains an integer in the range \emptyset -15 (or $\emptyset\emptyset$ - \emptyset F in hex). Each byte is called a *pixel* and the number that it contains *pixel value*. Every pixel value corresponds to one of 16 gray levels, which are used to represent the light intensity of that particular pixel. The whole of 128×128 pixels constitute the digitized picture. From the memory the picture is passed through a *Picture Generator*, which gives a visual representation on the monitor, by converting the digital signals back to analog ones.

The link between the 'Robot' and the microcomputer system is done by a Parallel to Serial Converter, that sends the bytes serially through a Serial to Parallel Interface to the micro. The format of each byte that arrives to the micro is shown in Fig. 2.3b and it is the following:-

- a) the four low order bits constitute the pixel value, which is an integer number from \emptyset to 15.
- b) the four high order bits are:-

bit four: the *Frame Sync*. It indicates a new frame when set (1). bit five: the *Line Sync*. It indicates a new line when set (1). bit six: is not used.

bit seven: the logic OR of bits four and five, $(b_7=b_4 \text{ OR } b_5)$ The pixel rate in which the Robot transmits the pixels to the micro is too fast and the picture can not be collected by program. So, a rate divider, that divides the pixel rate by 3, has been interposed between the clock and the parallel to serial converter. Thus every third pixel is transmitted and since 3 is comprised with 16,383 (=16K) the sequence is:

Р₃ ^Р6 P9 Pø ^P8 P 5 P₁₁ P2 P_{1Ø} P₇ Р<u>/</u> P1

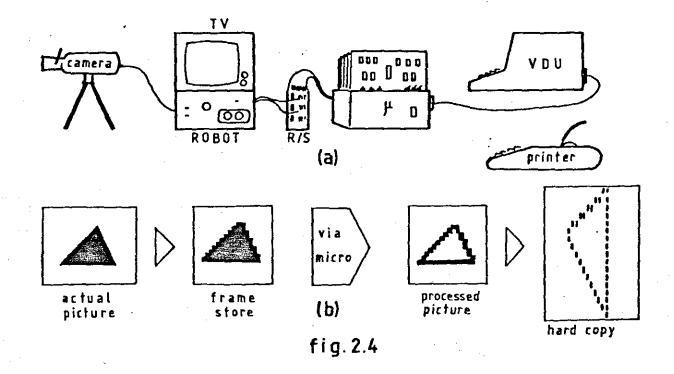
This covers the whole picture in exactly three passes. Every time a bit seven is checked to indicate a new frame or line.

2.2.3 The Microcomputer System the V.D.U. and the T.V. Monitor

This consists of a 2-80 microprocessor board with direct assembler and 2K of memory on it, two 16K static memory boards, one 16K EPROM memory board and one 8K dynamic memory board. There are also available, two 4K non-volotile memory boards which were used during the development of the programs and an EPROM programmer which was used to *blow* the programs into the 1K EPROM chips. All the boards are *slotted in* on a QUARNDON motherboard which offers power supply, reset and restart buttons, single step switches, and memory location and data LED's in HEX.

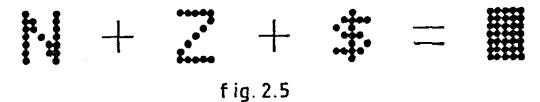
A special program⁽³⁾ (see Appendix 2) transfers the digitized picture to the two 16K memory boards. One of them is saved and the other is processed by the program, that is located in the 8K dynamic memory board. The program is loaded there from the 16K EPROM memory where it resides. This is done to allow the user to change the variables according to the circumstances of the problem. The language that is used is the 2-80 Assembly Language. The assembler offers a $\frac{1}{2}$ K memory for the label table but it does not allow forward references. Finally a number of function keys provide the user with elementary operations such as: accessing of memory locations and registers, and change of their contents, transfer and display of data blocks, and program execution. The arithmetic system used is the HEXadecimal. Fig. 2.4a shows the connection of the used equipment. The

The input unit is an ordinary Newbury V.D.U. which operates at $48\phi\phi$ c/s Baud rate. The T.V. monitor is a simple black and white CRT with brightness and contrast control knobs.



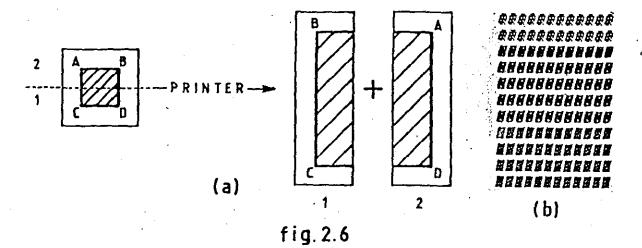
2.2.4 The Printer

This is a TPEND printer that operates at $3\phi\phi$ c/s Baud rate. Its moving head is a 5×7 dot matrix and it prints a maximum of 64 characters per single line. The printer is used to obtain a hard copy of the digitized picture. The idea is to give a visual representation by printing a character (or a number of overprinted characters) for every pixel relevant to its pixel value. The maximum of necessary overprints is 3 and thus every line is the result of 3 overprintings. For example the pixel value ϕ F which corresponds to gray level black is depicted by overwriting the characters N,Z and \$. The effect of this is shown in Fig. 2.5.



The problem of printing 128 characters, with only 64 possible in a single line, is solved by printing the picture sideways and in two halves; botton half and top half. The procedure is illustrated in Fig. 2.6a.

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Of course the result is to have a picture different (prolonged) from the one displayed on the monitor due to the fact that the characters are rectangular and the distance between adjacent characters of the same row are different from those of the same column (Fig. 2.6b). A detailed description of the combinations of characters used is given in Appendix 1.

2.3 AVERAGING

As it has been mentioned before, the primary input to the visual processor, is a rectangular grid of cells, each one of which has a pixel value between \emptyset and 15. The objective of preprocessing is to reduce this grid of numbers, to a manageable set of features, relevant to the class-ification of the scene.

The original picture could be divided into 3 main sets of pixels. The background pixels, which are all the pixels that do not represent any part of the main object. The latter are selected so that they all have the same pixel value (preferably all black -pix.val= ϕ - or all black -pix.val.15-) and they are of high contrast with the main object. The main object pixels, which are all the pixels that represent the studied object and they can take any pixel value in the range ϕ -15. And the noise, which are pixels caused by noise and can be found in any of the two previous sets. In this set can also be included pixels that have been caused some kind of distortion in the

picture. The elements of the first two sets are necessary for the recognition, while the elements of noise are not. The first of the preprocessing operations, has the task to remove the undesired noise pixels and if possible correct the pixels caused by distortion, leaving otherwise the background and main object unchanged.

Averaging⁽⁴⁾ is a simple operation, which can achieve gap filling, speck removal, thickening and thining. It does that, by modifying each cell of the grid representation accordingly, with respect to its neighbourhood.

2.3.1 How It Works

Every cell is made the centre of a number of surrounding cells, which are called *window*. The size and shape of the selected window, varies according to the requirements and the main purpose of the operation. Basically the window is a square or rectangle with sides formed by an odd number of cells. The cell in the middle of the window is the one that gets modified. Before getting into the complex case of 16 pixel values, the function of averaging is examined on a picture with only two pixel values i.e. black 1 and white \emptyset .

The number of pixels with value 1 within the window is summed up and the result is compared to a prespecified threshold. If the sum exceeds the threshold the middle cell is turned to black; otherwise it is turned to white, i.e. it is set to \emptyset .

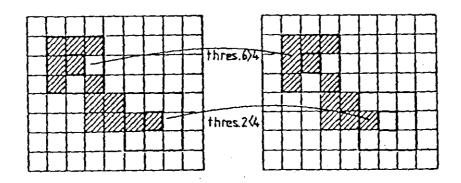


fig. 2.7

Fig. 2.7 gives an example of the effect of averaging using a 3×3 window with threshold 4.

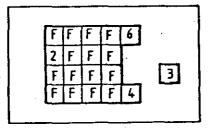
The window is shifted one cell across every time, so that it is centred on the next cell and the operation is repeated until the end of the row is reached. Then the window is moved one row below and the same routine is followed until the whole grid is covered. Assuming a black background, white specks surrounded by black neighbours are likely to be noise and they are removed by being turned to black. This operation is known as speck removal. The opposite operation is black spots on the main object are turned to white and thus removed. This is called gap filling. For low thresholds, white lines on a black background are thinned and black lines on a white background are thickened. For high thresholds the effect is exactly the opposite. The size of the window controls the extent of the filling and removing operations. Small windows produce little change in the scene, while larger ones destroy detail. By using different threshold settings and different window sizes optimum effects are obtained.

2.3.2 Averaging in Pictures with More Than 2 Gray Levels

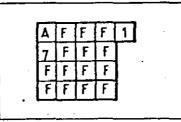
When the gray levels are more than two the technique has to be modified so that it copes with the larger range of pixel values.

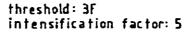
The sum of the window cells is similarly compared to a threshold θ . If the sum is greater than θ , then a *quantity* or *intensification factor* is added to the pixel value of the cell in the centre of the window. Likewise the same number is subtracted from it, if the sum is found less than the threshold θ . Small intensification factors cope with speckles of low pixel value near the main object or random noise. Larger intensification factors are more effective when high contrasted edges are sought. Sometimes

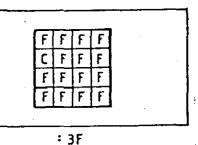
consecutive averagings with constant threshold can clear up pictures with great amount of noise and extract the main figure from a very grainy background (see application in Appendix 2).



actual picture







Δ

fig. 2.8

The example in Fig. 2.8 assumes 16 gray levels \emptyset -F hex and a threshold of 3F. In case b) with intensification factor 5 speckles 4 and 8 have been removed and the gap of 2 has been filled. Speckle 6 has been virtually removed, considering that the next operation deals with pixel values greater than 7. In case c) the results are more obvious at the expense of weakening the top-left corner.

It must be noted that if the value of the modified pixel becomes greater than F or less than \emptyset , then it is set to F and \emptyset respectively.

The above technique has very good results, when it is applied on pictures, where the main object consists of pixels with only one gray level. Once a suitable threshold has been selected, it remains constant throughout the procedure. The problems arise when 3-D objects are represented on a 2-D screen. Normally there are 2 or more areas with different gray levels. This means, that if the threshold was kept the same for all of these areas, important edges might be destroyed. Fig. 2.9 shows an example of constant threshold averaging with intensification factor 5 and threshold 3F. The

effect is that the front side goes from 5 to \emptyset , the top side goes from C to F and the right side remains unchanged. The effect is that edges xw and wz are intensified while edge wr completely disappears.

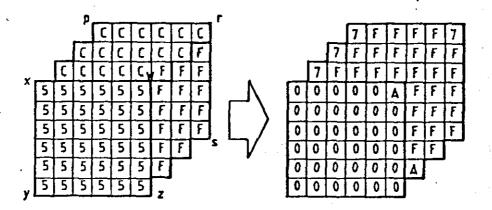


fig. 2.9

This indicates the need of changing the threshold according to the surrounding area. To get round this a new technique is adopted which is called *voting technique* or of *variable threshold*.

According to this method the mean of the surrounding cells in the window is taken as the value for the threshold and this is compared with the value of pixel at the centre of the window. An intensification factor is added to or subtracted from the pixel value of the centre pixel if it is found less than or greater than the threshold respectively. Otherwise its value remains as it is. The advantages of this method over the previous one are:-

- a) it removes the noise near the boundary of the object as before, but it does not change the main pattern of the different areas.
- b) it tends to set the pixel value of the centre cell to the gray value of its environment, rather than change it if that environment differs from a standard value. In Fig. 2.10 the voting technique is demonstrated on the example of Fig. 2.9.

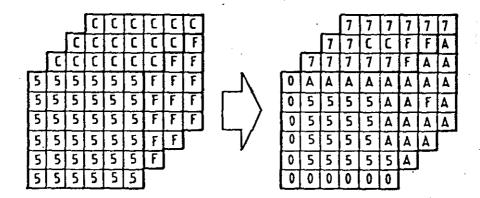


fig. 2.10

The main drawback of this method is that although it achieves its purpose in the middle of large areas, it alters strongly the pixel values of cells near areas with high contrast (i.e. edges). This gives rise to either thicker or double edges, which will certainly *confuse* the edging operator in the next stage.

As a result it is clear that averaging on a picture with a broader spectrum of gray levels is not as effective as it is in the two level system. This is because sometimes the neighbourhood of the centre pixel is misleading.

2.3.3 Masking the Main Object - Back to 2 Gray Levels

So far the averaging techniques that have been described could be called *intensification techniques*, because they average the scene by increasing or decreasing pixel values according to a constant or variable threshold. In this paragraph a new technique, which tries to use the two gray level operator is suggested.

As it has been mentioned before the representation of a 3-D object on a 2-D screen is a combination of two or more areas with different gray levels. The fact that the levels are more than two causes the problems that

were discussed in the previous methods. Thus the idea is to *isolate* each area every time and treat the rest of the picture as if it were background. Before proceeding to any operation the following assumptions are made:-

- a) a shape is considered as a 3-D shape if it consists of two or more areas with pixels, the values of which differ by a certain amodut.
- b) a number of pixels are considered to belong to the same side if their values lie between certain limits.
- c) a number of pixels less than a certain fraction of the whole number of pixels constituting the main object, are considered to be noise.
- d) pixels with the highest (lowest) pixel value, are considered as background pixels.

Thus before applying the averaging operator consecutive scannings search for pixels with the same value (other than that of the background). These are grouped together and their sum is stored in different locations for each of the gray levels. Then the total of the pixels of the main object is formed, by adding together all the partial sums. The pixel values, the partial sums of which are greater than a certain fraction of the main sum, are put in a special array. The others are simply turned to background pixels. The consecutive elements of this array are tested. If they differ by more than a certain limit then they are kept, otherwise they are replaced by the value below. Finally every element of the array indicates the pixel value of cells that belong to the same side. This area is turned to white and the rest is made black (background by convention). The averaging operator can be applied now with all the advantages of the 2 gray level scene. The same procedure is followed until the whole of the

array has been used. Thus every time the main object is masked, so that concentration is kept on one of its sides each time. Of course the contrast between the two sets, main object and background is the highest possible and this will make the edges easier to inspect. The main concern is on the selection of the limits, so that pixels that actually belong to different sides are not put in the same group and vice versa. Another point that needs to be considered carefully is the selection of the main sum fraction with which the partial sum are compared. This must be such that only the pixels, that are not many enough to be forming a side, are eliminated as noise.

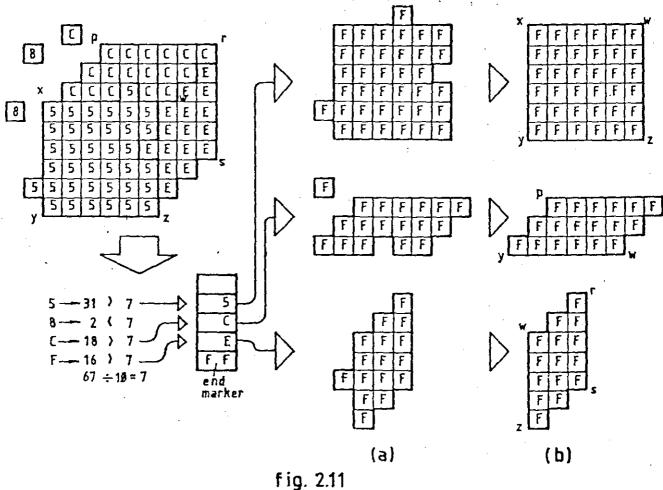
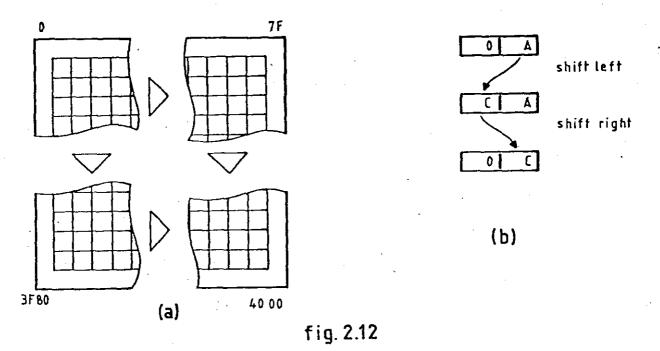


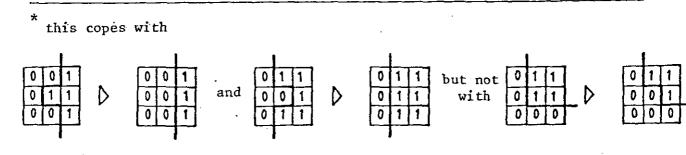
Fig. 2.11 demonstrates the method. In a) the result of the masking is shown and in b) the result of the averaging.

2.3.4 Averaging in Practice

The picture here is a 128×128 grid of bytes with 16 gray level resolution. Black is chosen to be the background (pix.val.ØF hex) in order to eliminate the shadow from the main object. The window is a 3×3 square and the threshold is taken equal to 5*. Because of the size of the window, the actual picture becomes 126×126 because the first and last row and the first and last columns are not used as centres of the window (Fig. 2.12a).



The first four bits of every byte contain information that is no longer useful, once the picture has been collected. So a considerable saving of storage (16K) is achieved by shifting the modified pixel value four places to the left. After the end of the averaging the first four bits are shifted



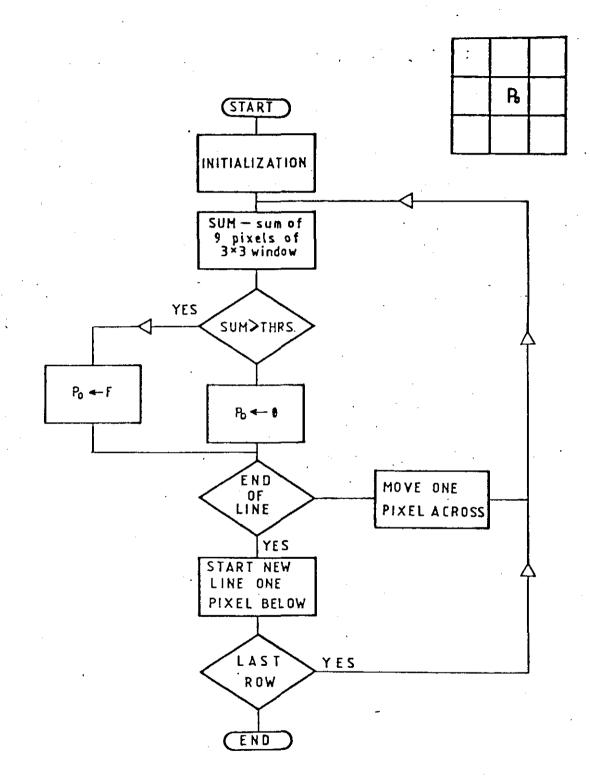


fig. 2.13

four places to the right. This means that the original picture is destroyed after every averaging. Thus a copy of the original picture is always kept in the second of the two 16K memory boards.

2.4 EDGING

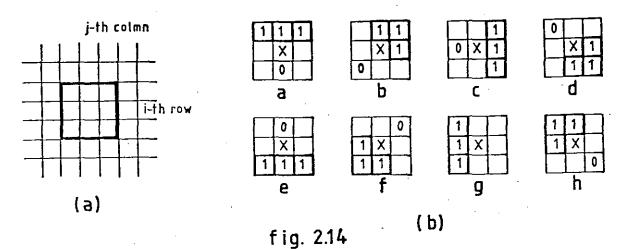
The previous operations of averaging and intensification remove the noise and present a picture the main characteristic of which is areas of cells with the same pixel value. As it has been mentioned before, assuming uniform illumination, each one of these areas represents a side of the object. Every one of these areas is separated from its adjacent areas or the background, by a single pixel line, which is the contour of the side. Considering every side as a separate 2-D shape, every 3-D shape consists of a number of 2-D shapes connected together. The contour of these sides is the feature that distinguishes them from others with different contour and groups them together with those of similar contour. Edging is the operation that extracts the contour of a shape. It preserves centres of asymmetry such as edges, corners, junctions and ends of lines. The edging operator sharpens differences and it could be seen as a two-dimensional derivative since changes about the centre element are counted.

Like in averaging, edging is examined separately on pictures with two and more than two gray levels.

2.4.1 How It Works

The edging operator⁽⁶⁾ is a square window, centered on each cell. After a number of tests have been performed, the window is centred on the next cell across until the end of the row is reached. Then the window moves to the next row below and the operation continues until the whole of the grid is covered. Considering a 3×3 window on a two gray level picture (Ø,1), the operation is as follows:-

The 9 cells of the window are numbered as in Fig. 2.14a. Next the following (Fig. 2.14b) eight tests are performed.



A one is scored if any of the combinations in Fig. 2.14b or the complentary ones (where $1 \rightarrow \emptyset$ and $\emptyset \rightarrow 1$) occurs and the number of occurrences is summed and stored in a *tally*. If the tally is greater than a threshold θ , then the pixel in the middle is set to be black (pix.val.=1), in the transformed scene. Otherwise it is turned to white (pix.val.= \emptyset). The threshold θ could be determined by first counting the total number of black cells in the window and then setting the threshold to some fraction of this number.

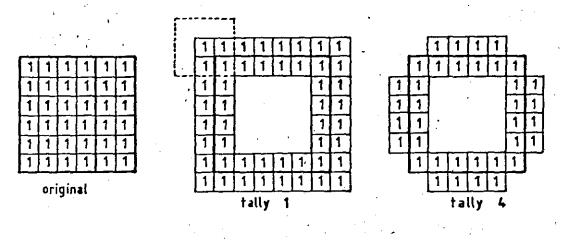


fig. 2.15

Fig. 2.15 demonstrates the effect of edging on a square, using different thresholds. The result is that a double edge is obtained. The inside one is the contour of the square and the outside one is caused by the background. This double edge will cause problems to the boundary follower (external loops) and as such needs to become single. This is achieved by centering the window on black cells only. Thus the white cells of the background that caused the outer edge, will no longer be used by the operator and the result will be a single edge. Fig. 2.16 shows the result of centering the window only on black cells.

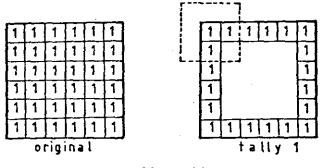


fig. 2.16

2.4.2 Edging in Pictures with More Than 2 Gray Levels

In the case of more than two gray levels, the algorithm is modified, in order to cope with the higher resolution picture. First of all, pixels with values smaller than a certain limit are considered to be noise. This

is reasonable, because pixels with relatively low value, will have been reduced to such by the previous averaging-intensification operation. This means that they were mainly noise and not elements of the main object. By introducing a threshold I, these pixels will be virtually eliminated from the scene if their values are below this threshold. In fact the operator will be centred only on pixels with value greater than threshold I.

After this first thresholding the algorithm performs the sequence of tests. This time however, a one is scored if the absolute difference between the value of the middle pixel and the value of each one of the three opposite cells is greater than a threshold II. When the above condition is satisfied for a certain number of times, the middle pixel is set to black (pix.val.=F, in case of 16 gray levels). Otherwise it is turned to background. When the whole picture has been covered the procedure ends. The result is a two level picture with white background and the boundary of the shape as a single pixel line of black cells.

The above have good results when a single 2-D shape is represented in the picture. In the case of 3-D objects the thresholds have to be altered otherwise some of the sides will be eliminated as noise. The solution to this is the masking operation which has been discussed in Section 2.3.3. The edging operator follows the averaging operator every time a new side is processed. Masking brings the problem back to two gray levels and everything described in Section 2.4.1 applies in this case too.

2.4.3 Edging in Practice

Like in averaging the picture becomes effectively 126×126 large, because of the size of the window. The same shifting left and right technique, to store the modified pixel value is used again.

Finally, a point that needs special consideration is that of the

selection of the tally. The sum will be an integer between \emptyset and 8, i.e. &tally 8. The problem is to find the lowest tally, below which the middle pixel will not be marked as a boundary cell. From various examples it is deduced that the higher the tally, the more the gaps in the final boundary. Fig. 2.17 demonstrates some of these results.

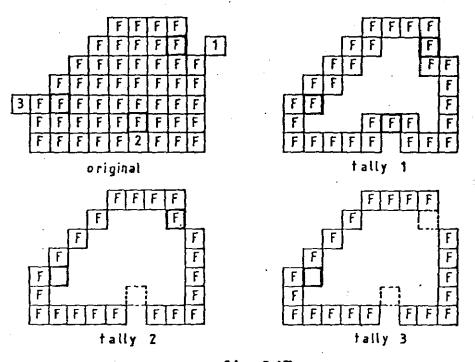
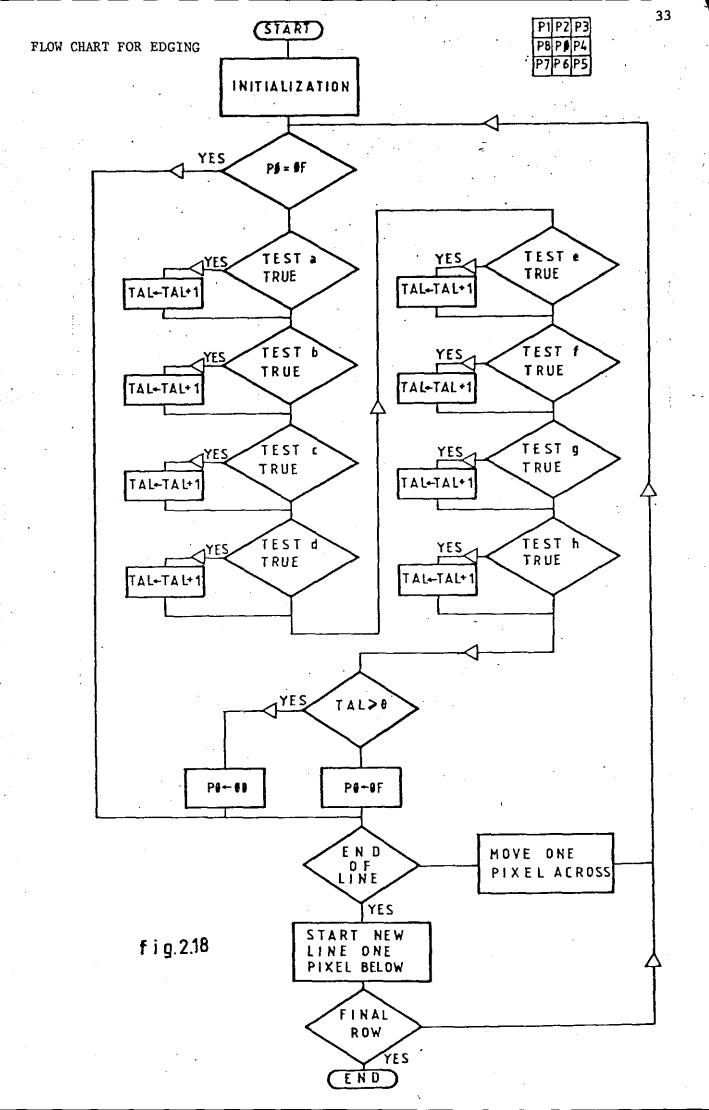


fig. 2.17

By concentrating on the three cells 1,2 and 3 it is seen that for tally=1, the contour is followed perfectly, but fails to give a single diagonal line, which is highly undesirable. For tally=2 a gap appears in the cell at position 2. For tally=3 another gap appears at position 3. In general since the operator is centred on black cells, if the number of white squares inside the 3×3 window is less than the used tally, there is discontinuity in the boundary of final picture.

Tally=2 is the best selection because the gap in the original shape will be filled by the averaging operator (see §2.3.3) and consequently there will not be such a case.



2.5 ISOLATION⁽⁷⁾

In Section 2.3.2 a kind of isolation operator was mentioned. Below a more effective isolation operator is discussed.

This operator selects the connected figure in a scene and erases all other parts of the scene not connected to it. In this operation an assumption is made that the figure is made up of black (pix.val=1) and the background is made up of white (pix.val=Ø) cells. It begins by selecting an arbitrary black cell. A window is centred on this cell and all black cells (including the original one) inside the window are marked retained. The window is then centred on each *retained* cell in turn and new black cells are marked retained by the same criterion. This operation continues until no new retained cells are left to become window centres. Then each retained cell in the grid that has its corresponding cell in the transformed grid is set equal to 1. All other cells are set equal to \emptyset . Thus if the window is 3×3, only the black cells connected (diagonally or adjacently) to the original cell are preserved. All other block (figure) cells are converted to white (background) cells. Larger windows allow the process to hop across small gaps in an otherwise connected figure.

The above described operator can be modified to cope with more than two gray level pictures. In this case pixels will be marked *retained* if they lie within an upper and a lower threshold.

SUMMARY - CONCLUSIONS

- Preprocessing is a method of representing a scene by a set of numbers.
- A visual scene is divided into a grid of cells, the light intensity of which is converted to an electrical signal and represented by a four bit number.
- A T.V. camera takes a picture of an object that is digitized and stored in a 16K (128×128 pixel range) framestore. The picture is presented on a T.V. monitor and through a special routine a hard copy of it is obtained by a printer. A microcomputer system administers the previous routine as well as the following preliminary operations.
- Averaging-intensification: the middle cell of a 3×3 window is modified according to the relation of the sum of the 9 cells to a given threshold. The window operator scans the whole picture.
- It achieves gap filling, speck removal, thickening and thinning.
- Edging: the middle cell of a 3×3 window is turned to Ø (white) or
 1 (black), according to the difference of pixel values in a number of combinations between opposite lying cells.
- It sharpens differences and presents the contour of the figure.
- Isolation: it selects one connected figure in a scene.
- Careful selection of the various thresholds in averaging and edging provides better results.
- The preliminary operations *clean up* the scene leaving the dimensions of it unchanged.

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- 3,5. Suggestions by C.H.C. Machin, Department of Computer Studies, Loughborough University of Technology.

Chapter 3

EDGE FOLLOWER AND VERTEX DETECTOR

3.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the main problems on the digitized picture is the representation of straight lines. The latter are important, because they are the main components of the shapes to be recognized. Once the 2-D shape has been preprocessed, it is left with only its contour, which consists of straight lines connected together. The objective of the next process, is to follow this contour and identify the points at which the direction changes. In other words, locate the vertices of the shape. The coordinates of the vertices are stored in special memory locations and are given to the next process which will check which of these vertices are more likely to be true ones. The others, which could be called *pseudo-vertices*, will be dropped. So the result of the procedure is a two-dimensional array of vertices representing X and Y coordinates respectively - which are the set of vertices that determine the 2-D shape, to be recognized. This *true-vertex determination*

is written in C and its last task is to form the necessary PROLOG unit clauses, which will be used as data for the PROLOG recognition program.

The technique of this first part i.e. the vertex detection, is based on a series of special tests, which check the change of the pattern representing straight lines with different slopes. The second part, i.e. the verification of the true vertices is based on the check of the distances of the suspected or pseudo vertices from the equation of the straight lines.

3.2 BOUNDARY FOLLOWER

It is true from Analytical Geometry that the equation of the straight line is:-

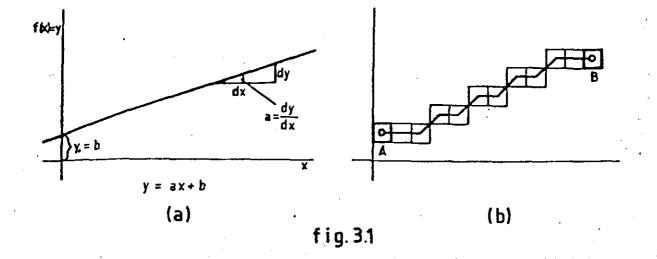
$$y = ax + b \tag{1}$$

with x taking values in \mathbb{R} , a is the slope of the straight line defined as $a=\frac{dy}{dx}$, and b is value of coordinate y for x=0, i.e. y₀. The equation of a line segment A B is given by (1), with x defined on the domain $(A,B) \in \mathbb{R}$ and taking values in \mathbb{R} . Hence, every root of the equation (1) on (A,B) is given by the function

$$y = f(x) = ax + b$$
 (2)

which is continuous.

In the digitized picture however, a different representation of straight lines takes place, because there is a definite number of points every pixel can be represented by its centre - and at fixed positions. Hence, although the end points of a straight line segment can be determined, they can not be joined together - generally - with a number of points that belong to the set of roots of the equation defined by them. This is illustrated in Fig. 3.1 a and b.



It is easy to see that the only cases when the digital representation coincides with the one given by the equation, defined by the two points, is horizontal, vertical and 45[°] lines (Fig. 32a,b,c).

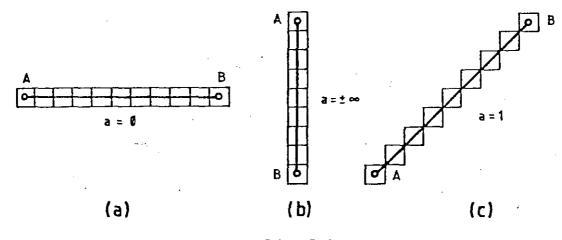


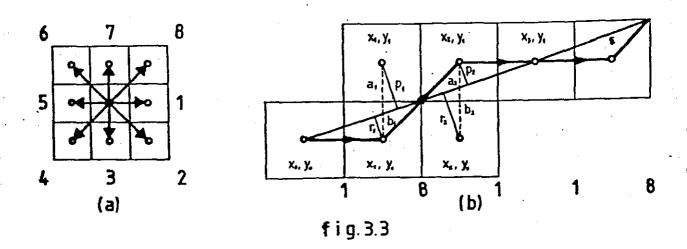
fig. 3.2

So, before starting discussions on the technique of the boundary follower, it would be wise, if a good study of different types of straight line representation in a digital picture was made.

.3.2.1 Straight Line Representation in Digital Form

From the above it is obvious that the best approximation of straight lines is by joining together horizontal or vertical segments which belong to adjacent rows or columns respectively. Supposing that each pixel is

represented by a point located at its centre; then by joining together this point with its 8 neighbouring centres eight directions are formed. These are the possible ways in which one can move in order to find the next adjacent point of a straight line (Fig. 3.3a).

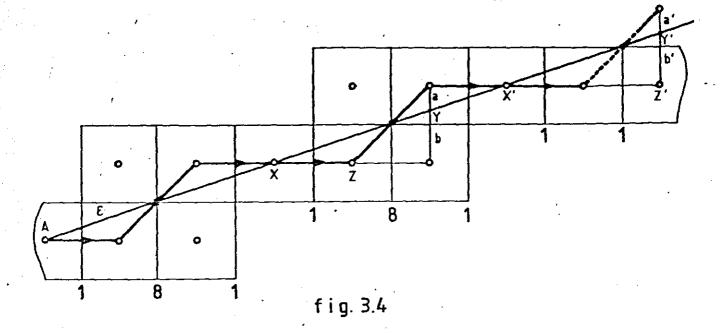


The procedure that generates the right direction is given by the rule of the least distance from the actual straight line.⁽¹⁾ For example, let (x_0,y_0) be the coordinates of a point that belongs to the straight line ε . The two points with the least distances from ε are (x_1,y_1) and (x_1,y_0) . From Fig. 3.3b it is true that, $r_1 < p_1$ or (because of the similar triangles) $b_1 < a_1$, and hence the point (x_1, y_0) will be preferred to (x_1, y_1) . At this point it is noticeable that, it would be convenient if a name was given to each of the 8 directions (Fig. 3.3a) so one could refer to that by it. The easiest way is to start by calling a certain direction number 1 (in the above the one across right was chosen) and continue clockwise, by increasing the numbers by 1. So in the above example the first move was a '1'. Then, because of $a_2 < b_2$, (x_2, y_1) is the next point, and this is obtained by using an '8' from the point (x_1, y_0) . Next a '1' comes up again, followed by another '1' and so on.

From the above it can be seen that the straight line ε is approximated

by a pattern of *unit lines* of standard direction of the form ...18118118... It will be proved now, that this pattern remains unchanged with respect to the same straight line (no distortion is assumed, case which will be examined later on).

The example examined above is considered again, assuming that the pattern does not remain the same:-



It is true that the slope s of the straight line is ct. An assumption is made that the pattern starts 18118118... and at the point Z' changes to 8111 (Fig. 3.4). This means that the distance a'>c' and thus a step '1' is taken instead of an '8'. From the equal triangles $X \ge Y$ and $X' \ge Y'$ (they have $X \ge Y = X' \ge Y' = 1$ L, $\overline{XZ} = \overline{X'Z'}$, and $\mathbb{Z} \times Y = Z' \times Y' = S$) it is deduced that $\overline{Y'Z'} = \overline{YZ}$ and b'=b. Similarly a'=a. But it is a'>b' and so it should be a>b, which contradicts the original assumption that the pattern at that point is ...118111.... Hence it was proved that the pattern, which represents a straight line remains unchanged through the line. Here it must be pointed out that at the two ends of a straight segment it looks as

if the pattern is slightly different. This is only due to the fact, that the pattern is *picked up* at some point and there is no interest in the pattern beyond these points, e.g. Fig. 3.5 shows this.

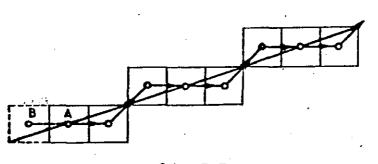


fig. 3.5

The pattern here is ...118118118... but because the main interest is in the part from A onwards, the first bit BA is dropped and it looks as if the pattern is 1811811811..... This will cause some problems later.

3.2.2 Different Kinds of Patterns - The Link

It was mentioned in previous paragraphs that the representation of a straight line on a digital picture is a sequence of horizontal and vertical line segments, joined together. Here an attempt is made to analyse the main features of this representation, in order to use them as key points for the location of the vertices.

First, the *length* of a straight line segment or *unit* is defined* as:the number of pixels in it minus one.

Length = no. of pixels -1

e.g.

3 4 5 6 7

has length 6 (7-1)

If a cell belongs to two different units counts for both in the calculation of the length.

42

There has also been shown that the pattern remains unchanged with respect to the same line. Next it is examined how the length of the straight segments, which comprise the line, is related to the slope of the segment.

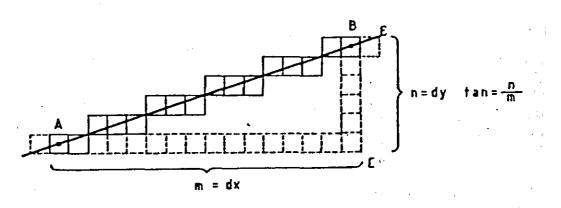
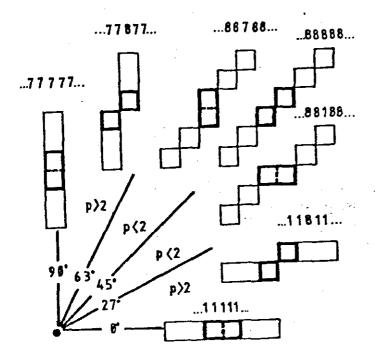


fig. 3.6

The slope s of the straight line ε is given by the quotient: $s = \frac{dx}{dv}$. In the above example, in order to find the slope of each line segment the right angled triangle ABC is formed (Fig. 3.6) and as dx and dy are used the lengths ln and lm of its two sides BC and AB respectively. By taking the max(lm,ln) and the min(lm,ln) and forming $p = \frac{\max(lm,ln)}{\min(lm,ln)}$, then [p] is the number of pixels in every straight segments - unit - of the straight line If p is an integer then the length of the units is constant lu=p-l AB. otherwise it varies from [p] to [p]+1. So the main pattern is a recurrence of units with length lu and lu+1. The units are connected with joints of length 1, which are called links. The links remain the same throughout the whole line, and this is the feature that distinguishes between parts - units of the same line and parts of another line (change of direction i.e. location of a vertex). So far the only units considered were horizontal ones connected with diagonal links. Let the first quadrant be taken to examine how the direction of the links and the units change, by moving from ${\it \phi}^{o}$ to $9\phi^{\circ}$ (Fig. 3.7).



		
6	7	8
5		1
4	3	2

fig. 3.7

At \emptyset° the link degenerates so the pattern is a single unit of ones (or fives) - the directions left to right and bottom to top are considered - Moving towards 45° p approaches 2 and so the length of the units decreases until it becomes \emptyset at 27° (p=1.94 \Rightarrow [p]=1 and ι u=[p]-1= \emptyset). The units from 27° to 45° are of length \emptyset and 1 and the length of the link starts increasing becoming maximum at 45° where the length of the units is \emptyset only. From 45° to 63° p is less than 2 and so there are some units of length one with the only difference that they are vertical this time. Finally from 63° to 9 \emptyset° one finds increasing vertical units connected with diagonal links. At 9 \emptyset° the pattern is again one single unit without any links. Thus it is clear that the three directions horizontal (\emptyset°), diagonal (45°) and vertical (9 \emptyset°) are the only ones, in which all the points of their digital representation lie on the same line. That means that the two representations digital and

real coincide. Inside the sector 27° to 63° there are units of length one only, so one could consider the sequence of links as units connected with horizontal or vertical links of length one. The three directions which determine more or less the direction of the units are called *dominant*. So the link can be defined as:- a unit of length one, that connects the main units which represent a straight line in a digitized frame.

3.2.3 Edge Following Operator

After the first three preprocessing operations, the only pattern in the frame store, will be that of the contour of the shape. On the screen this looks like a - rather - continuous sequence of white pixels in a black background. All that needs to be done now is to follow this contour and at the same time detect and locate the vertices of the shape.

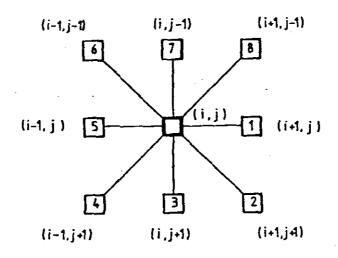


fig. 3.8

There are two main steps involved in the boundary following algorithm⁽²⁾ described below.

a) The search strategy.

The picture is scanned left-to-right, top-to-bottom until a white cell is found. Because of the averaging operation there will not

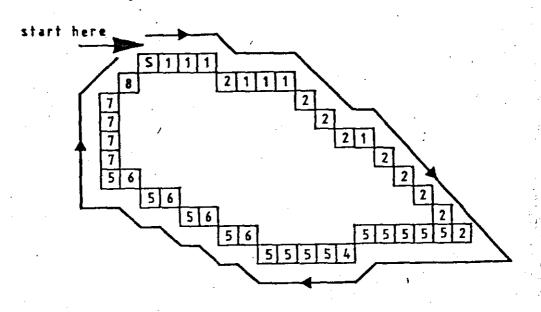
be any single white cells and, the ones met will belong to the boundary of our shape. This is considered as the starting boundary point, and the position of this cell (i_s, j_s) is saved in the first element of a boundary array.

b) The follow strategy.

The neighbours of a boundary cell are numbered as shown in the Fig. 3.8. From the starting point (i_s, j_s) found by the search strategy, the boundary of the shape is followed in such a manner, that the region within the boundary is kept always to the right of the path being followed.

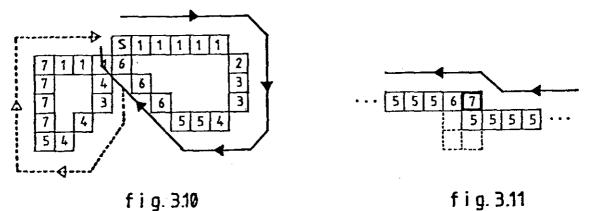
The neighbours of the currently considered boundary cell (i,j) are now checked for the next boundary-white-cell. The checking begins with neighbour n-2, with $1 \le n \le 8$. Where n is the number that indicates which of the neighbours of the preceding boundary cell, the currently considered cell is. Every new boundary cell is marked with a number indicating its direction. Thus all the white cells of the boundary are turned to n, $1 \le n \le 8$, apart from the ones being considered as vertices, which are marked differently. When a neighbouring boundary cell is found, it will become the next currently considered boundary cell.

This following strategy is repeated until the starting point (i_s, j_s) is again encountered. At this time it is likely that the complete boundary has been traced. In order to search for a second boundary in the picture, all the non-white cells are turned to black-background pixel value - and a new scanning is tried according to the search strategy. When the whole frame has been covered and there are not any white cells left, the following operation finishes. An example of the route of the follower and the result of the marked cells is given in Fig. 3.9.





The idea of starting the following strategy not at n but at n-2 is to cope with cases like the one below, where the n-follower would have missed part B of the boundary out (Fig. 3.10). The n-follower after the last sixlooks for a new six (same direction) and then for a *seven* which is in fact the starting cell. On the other hand the n-2-follower looks for a *four* and it finds it including part B in the boundary of the shape. The only case in which the follower does not quite follow the boundary is that shown in Fig. 3.11.



The leftmost '5' in the bottom row is not followed by any '3' (=5-2) neither any '4' nor '5', but by a '6' and a '7'. In this case '7' will remain white but such a case is prevented by the previous operator of edging so actually

47

there will be no such cell as the one at position '7'.

So far it has been assumed that the boundary to be followed is continuous. This means that there are no gaps-black cells - in the path. But what happens if one comes across such a gap, which occurred due to noise or inefficiency of the two previous operators? The problem can be solved by improving the follower, so that it copes with small gaps, within a circle of radius $2\sqrt{2}$ of the last boundary cell.

Supposing that (i,j) (Fig. 3.12), is the current boundary cell and after a complete round, none of the eight neighbouring cells belongs to the boundary. Now say that the previous direction was '7'. The operator is centred on the (i,j-1) cell and it is applied once more. By doing this, one checks if any of the A_1 cells is *white* - (i-1,j-1) and (i+1,j-1) have already been checked in the previous round - and if one is encountered

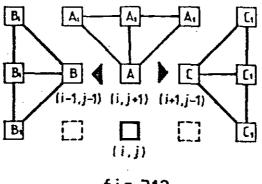


fig.3.12

continues from there. If not, cell B is the new centre and B₁ cells are checked. If it fails again a new attempt is tried on C by checking the C₁'s. If this last search does not retrieve the next boundary cell, the follower fails and the procedure stops there. A message 'FAIL' indicates that the system can not go any further, and the method can not recognize the shape.

After a successful application of the boundary follower the processor

halts and a message 'SEND' indicates that the array of data can be handed over to the VAX mini-computer for further calculations. If the reapplication of the search strategy finds single white cells the procedure goes on until a whole string of them is encountered. When no more shapes are left an 'END' message appears on the screen.

3.3 VERTEX DETECTION AND LOCATION

The definition of a 2-D shape vertex, which consists of straignt lines only is:-

the intersection of two sides. The coordinates of the vertex are given by the common solution of the equations of these two sides.

The objective of the vertex detector is to spot the vertices as the boundary follower continues its operation, by using certain criteria. From the definition, a vertex is the intersection of two straight lines, which implies that these two lines have different slopes. So the main criterion that indicates the presence of a vertex is the change of direction. The method that is used here is:-

- a) detect all the changes of direction and store the coordinates of the points, where the change happens, in a vertex-array.
- b) form the equations of every two adjacent points and check if the rest of them lie within certain limits.
- c) delete the vertices that are within the above limits and store the ones left in a new array, in order to use it for the next stage.

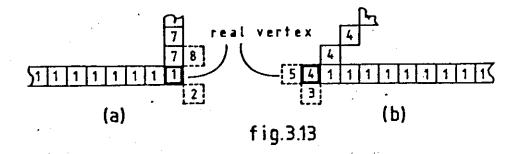
3.3.1 Change of Direction Criteria

As mentioned before, the digital representation of a straight line, is a sequence of equal length units, connected with links of length one.

So, it can be said that there are three main numbers which determine straight lines of the same direction. The number that shows the direction of the unit, the number that shows the direction of the link and the length of the unit. One can refer to them as N_U , N_L and L_U respectively. Whenever a change in any of these three is detected, a change of direction occurs and a vertex should be indicated.

The above is the main and general criterion for the indication of vertices. But before proceeding to the final expression of more specific criteria two other factors that might confuse the vertex detector must be taken into account. These are random noise and picture distortion, caused by the digitizer due to overheating of some chips, or caused by the camera. These make the straight lines look slightly curved. As a result of that, there are changes in the pattern, which in normal circumstances would suggest change of direction and existence of vertices. In order to overcome this ambiguous point, two kinds of vertices are introduced. The ones that occur due to definite change of direction, which are called Certain-Vertices or Real-Vertices, and the ones that occur due to change of direction, but not as clear as in the previous case, which are called Suspected-Vertices Pseudo-Vertices. The coordinates of the vertices of the first kind, are used to form the equations of the straight lines against which the vertices of the second kind will be checked. If their distance from the straight line is within a certain tolerance, the pseudo-vertices are dropped from the final vertex-array. Otherwise they become real-vertices themselves and new equations are formed to include them, according to the new rearrangement of the set of real-vertices.

The main criterion that indicates a real-vertex is that the current N_U and the next N_U differ by more than one direction numbers, i.e. they are not adjacent.



In the first example (Fig. 3.13a) N_U =1, so if the next cell is different to one and it is part of the same straight line there has got to be a link* i.e. one of the '8' or '2', which is not - seven here -. The result is that the last cell is marked as a real-vertex. Similar is the case demonstrated in Fig. 3.13b. The vertex detector looks always one cell ahead and at the same time saves the current N_U and N_L . It also saves the address of the last cell in case where a vertex is to be indicated. The coordinates of all the vertices which have been encountered are stored in a vertex-array. A second array points at the real-vertices and thus the next process uses only the vertices indicated by the pointers to form the equations of the sides of the shape.

The second criterion for real-vertices is:-

The N[']_U that follows the link is of direction different from that of the current N_U. If instead of the expected link a new unit occurs, with N[']_U=N_L but N[']_L \neq N_L then a real-vertex is indicated. A real-vertex is not confirmed before any of the new N[']_U or N[']_L is met. In the example in Fig. 3.14

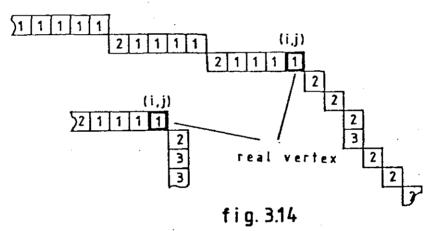
no such cells 5 5 5

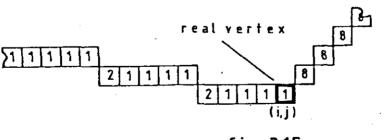
*

such a case as the one in the figure does not exist because of the way the edging operator works; see also edging §2.4.2. $N_U=1$ and $N_L=2$. Then instead of the normal $N_U'=1$, a $N_U'=2$ occurs and this indicates a new unit. The first '3' could be just the new link N_L' but the occurrance of the second one confirms the existence of a real-vertex. The same could have happened if instead of a new unit the expected link occurred, followed by the new unit. Of course it is assumed that $N_U \neq N_U'$.

The third criterion for real vertices is:-

Instead of the expected link a new unit occurs with $N_U^{*}=N_L$. In the example in Fig. 3.15 after the last '1' of the last unit a link '2' would be expected, but the occurrence of the new unit with $N_U^{*}=8$ ($\neq N_L=1$) marks the existence of a real vertex at cell (i,j). The last two criteria are slight variations of the main one and there is small difference between them and the following pseudo-vertex criteria.





fiq. 3.15

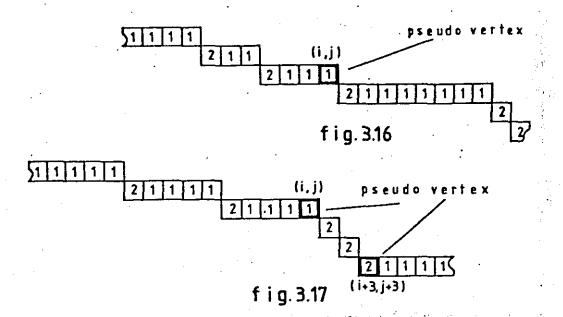
As it was mentioned before this type of vertices take their name from the fact that they may have been caused by distortion of the straight lines and not by actual change of direction. The first criterion for detection

of pseudo-vertices is based on the feature that units of the same straight line have lengths that differ by 1 at least. Thus if the length of the new unit is different from the expected one, a change of direction is detected and a pseudo-vertex is indicated. This is true with the assumption that $N_U=N_U'$ and $N_L=N_L'$. In a genuine case one would have two sets of units. In each of them the lengths of every two elements differ by one, while the difference between elements of the two sets is greater than one. In reality though, units of the same straight line can have lengths with difference more than one. This means that the criterion was to be modified to cope with the latter case. The modification is:-

when the link is met the length of the unit is compared to the average of the lengths of the previous units (of the same straight line of course). If the absolute difference is greater than the 1/4 of this average, the last cell of the previous unit is marked as a pseudo-vertex; otherwise the follower continues its path. In the example in Fig. 3.16, cell (i,j) is the pseudo-vertex because the length of the new unit is 7, the average 2.5 and |7-2.5|>2.5/4. Like the second criterion for real-vertices the vertex detector is always one unit, ahead.

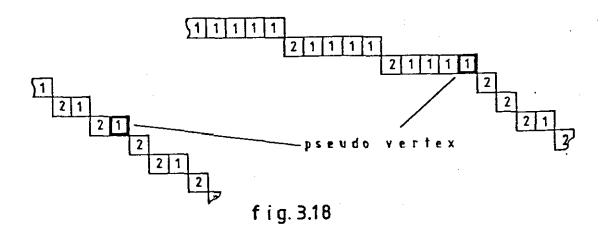
The second criterion for the pseudo-vertices is:-

the direction N_U' of the next unit is the same as the current link N_L and the direction N_U'' of the unit after the next is the same as the current, i.e. $N_U=N_U''$, and $N_L=N_U'$. This criterion copes with the case, where the link of the pattern changes slightly, or in other words a unit has taken the place of the link. Of course if N_U'' were different then N_U , cell (i,j) would be turned into a real-vertex. In the example in Fig. 3.17 cell (i,j) is deemed to be a pseudo-vertex since the link '2' has been extended to a new unit of '2's. The same applies to cell (i+3,j+3) because after $N_U'=2$ a new $N_U''=1$ occurs, instead of an expected link $N_L'=1$ or 3.



The third criterion for the pseudo-vertices is:-

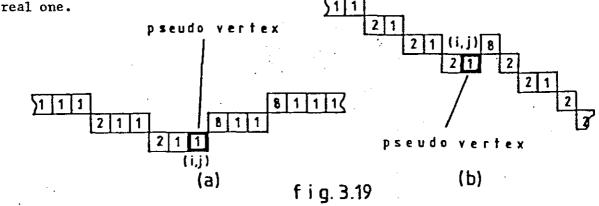
the direction N'_U of the new unit equals the link N_L of the current one, and the link N'_L of the new pattern equals the direction N_U of the current unit. This is slightly different from the previous one in that the cell (i,j) is the start of a straight line with a completely new direction from the previous line. That could be sufficient to mark (i,j) as a realvertex, but care is taken to make it cope with cases, where the unit length is only one and the slopes are very close indeed. In Fig. 3.18 the two cases are demonstrated clearly. It can be noticed that had the new link



 N_{L}^{\prime} been different from the current unit direction N_{U}^{\prime} , the cell (i,j) would have been a real-vertex according to the second criterion for the real-vertices.

The fourth criterion for pseudo-vertices is:-

the direction N_U' of the new unit is the same as the current one N_U , but the link N_L' is different from the current one N_L . The reason for not indicating a real-vertex here is, cases like the one in Fig. 3.19b. Here because of some unexpected distortion the difference in slope is not very clear and it is wiser to mark cell (i,j) as pseudo-vertex rather than as a



Finally by definition, the first and the last boundary cells met by the follower are marked as real-vertices. It will be seen later how a *virtual* first vertex can be eliminated from the vertex-array.

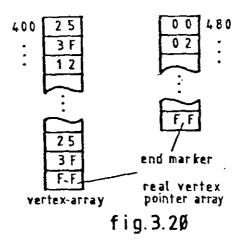
3.3.2 General Discussion on the Vertex Detector

The vertex detector is the main subroutine of the boundary follower, and consists of several shorter subroutines which perform the operation. Every time the follower finds a new cell that belongs to the boundary, the vertex detector is called to do the following jobs:-

- a) Mark every new boundary cell with its direction number N. This is done in order to be able to detect the change of direction by comparing the new direction number to the old one. Three cells of the same N constitute a unit and N becomes the direction number of the unit N_u.
- b) Save the current N_U in a special location, in order to compare it with the N_U' of any new unit. As new cells of the same N are met, a sum of them is formed. This represents the length $L_{_{II}}$ of the unit

which is saved too, for later comparisons. The first non-N_U cell which differs* by one from N_U is deemed to be the link direction or link N_r and it is saved.

- c) Mark the current vertex and save.it. Vertices unlike other common cells, which are marked with a one digit number from 1 to 8, are marked with two digit numbers. The very first vertex is marked by number 11 and then every real-vertex by adding 10 to the previous real-vertex. The pseudo-vertices are marked by adding 1 to the previous vertex number. The position of the previous pseudo-vertex is saved too, in case that it needs to be turned into a real-vertex due to consecutive changes of the $N_{\rm H}$ by more than one.
- d) Store the coordinates of the vertices and the pointers to the real ones into the vertex-array and pointer-array respectively. (Fig. 3.20).



The top-left pixel is taken as the \emptyset, \emptyset point and every cell is determined by two numbers from \emptyset to 7F (hex), that are the X and Y coordinates of the cell. At the end of every array an end marker is placed to indicate that there are no more elements left. FF hex (or -1 decimal) is the end marker used here. The coordinates of the first vertex are taken again as the last couple of elements in the vertex-array before the end marker. The memory locations $4\emptyset\emptyset-47F$

Here is meant positional difference and not arithmetic difference e.g. '8' differs by one from '7' and '1', '2' differs by two from '4' and '8' etc.

are kept for the real-vertex pointer-array. The whole program is written in Z-8Ø assembly language. A flow chart of the boundary follower and vertex detector is given in Figs. 3.21-3.23.

3.4 REAL-VERTEX VERIFICATION

The two arrays obtained by the previous operations are fed to a VAX mini-computer for further processing. The result of this process is the formation of unit clauses, which will be the data for the recognizer. The main objective of this phase is to eliminate all the excessive vertices, in order to be left with the genuine ones only. The whole procedure can be divided into three main parts:-

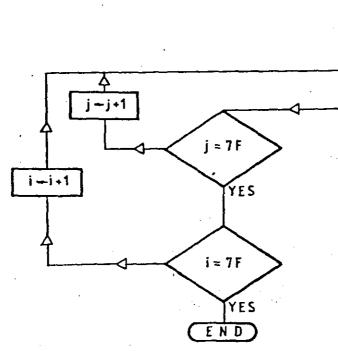
- a) the elimination of pseudo-vertices
- b) verification of real vertices
- c) formation of unit clauses.

3.4.1 The Elimination of Pseudo-Vertices

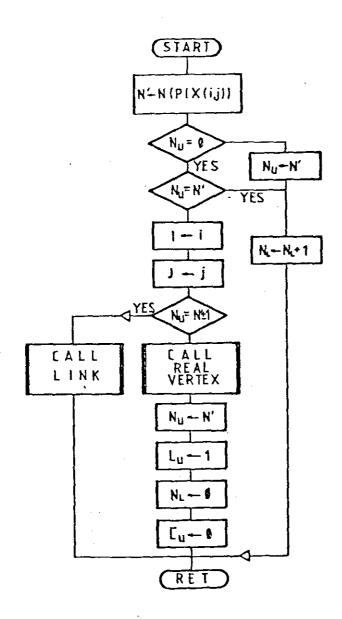
It was said before that the pseudo-vertices are caused by either change of direction or by distortion of the pattern. Those belonging to the first set need to be turned to real ones, while the vertices of the second set need to be eliminated from the final database.

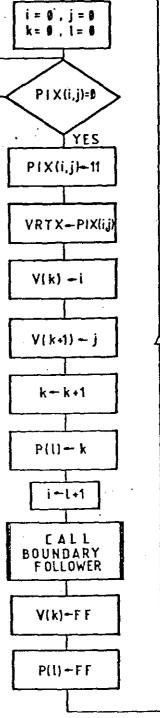
The two arrays of data which are given by the vertex detection phase are handed over to the new program of real-vertex verification and are stored in two new one-dimensional arrays. These are V[i] for the vertices and N[i] for the pointers. The dimensions of these two arrays vary according to the desirable maximum number of vertices, that can be allowed in the procedure. At the end of each array -1 is placed as an end marker. After the loading procedure, the elements of the pointer-array are checked,





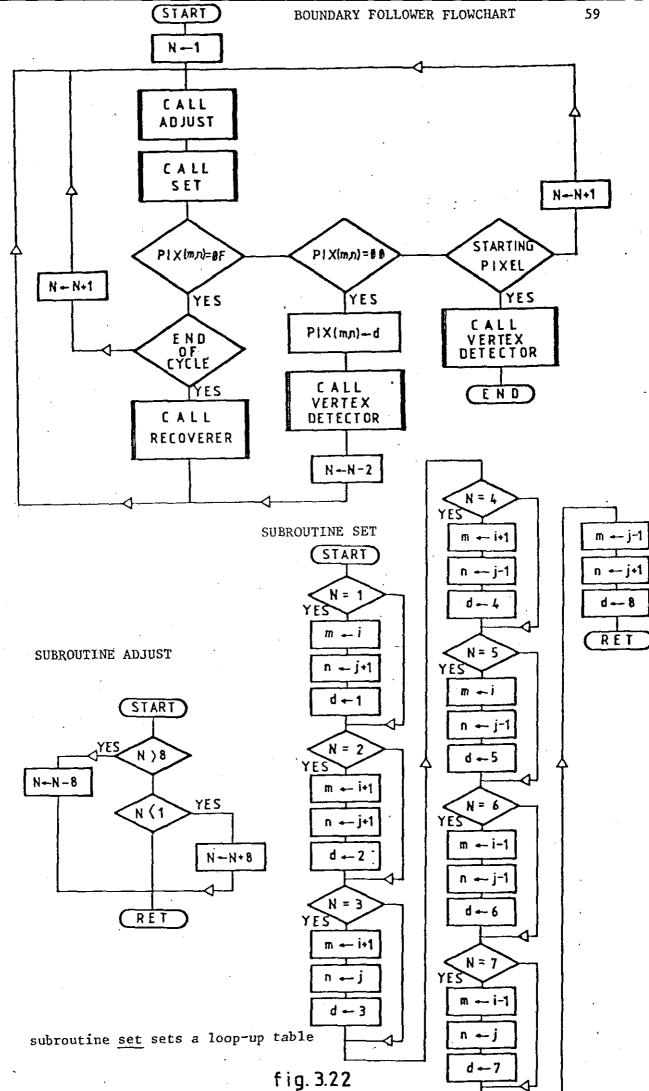
VERTEX DETECTOR FLOW CHART



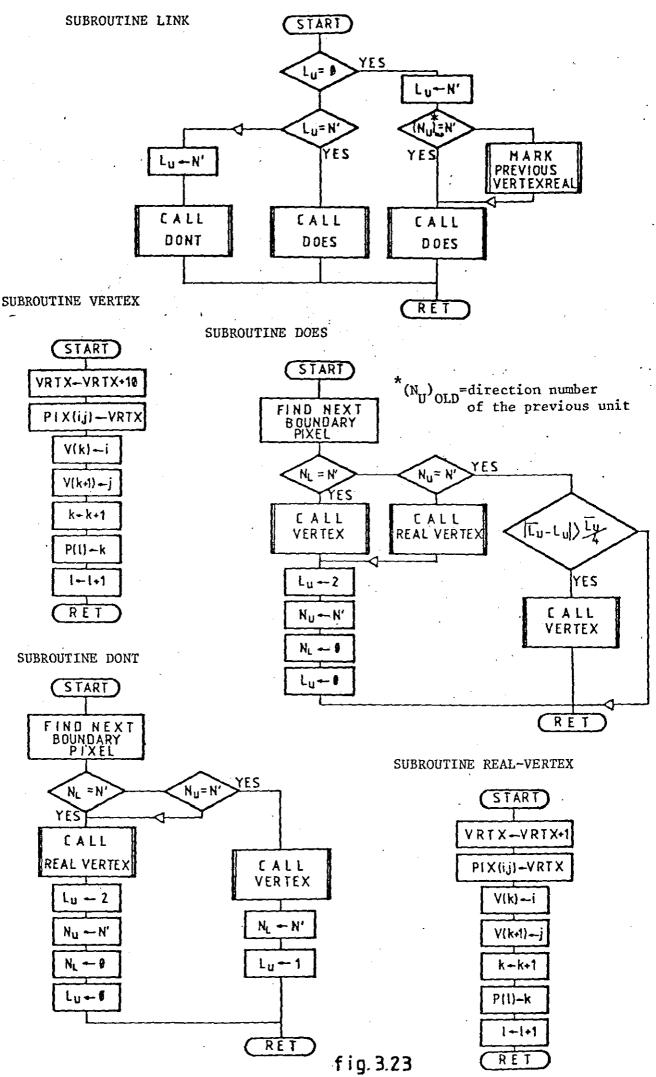


(START)

fig. 3.21



119.3.21



...

in order to examine if the end marker exists. If not the method fails and a message is returned to indicate that the 2-D shape has more vertices than the array elements. The shape is classified as *other* automatically by default, but if an answer is wanted by the recognizer, the dimension of N[i] has to be increased sufficiently.

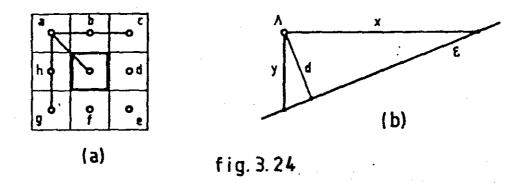
Next the coordinates of the first two real-vertices, pointed to by the first two elements of the pointer-array are used, to form the equation of the first side of the shape. The equations for these two vertices are:

 $y_{1} \approx \tan x_{1} + b \qquad (1), \qquad y_{2} = \tan x_{2} + b \qquad (2)$ and thus $\tan = (y_{2} - y_{1})(x_{2} - x_{1}) \qquad (3) \text{ and}$ $b = (x_{2} y_{1} - x_{1} y_{2})/(x_{2} - x_{1}) \qquad (4)$ with $x_{1} \neq x_{2}$

By calculating the slope and the constant factor of the equation for the straight line determined by the two real-vertices, every vertex between these two is checked to find out if it belongs to the same straight line or not. Here again because of the digitized picture, a tolerance has to be introduced, taking into account the idiomorphic structure of the quantized straight line. Since a vertex can be, practically, approximated by any of the nine pixels of a 3×3 square (Fig. 3.24a) and the largest distances from the middle is that of the diagonal, the tolerance chosen is $\sqrt{2}$. Pixels with distance greater than this from the straight, are eliminated. The distance of the point A from the straight line (Fig. 3.24b) is given by:

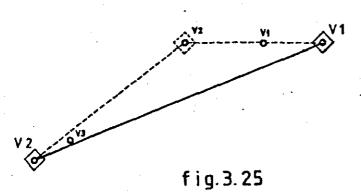
$$\frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{y^2} = \frac{1}{d^2}$$

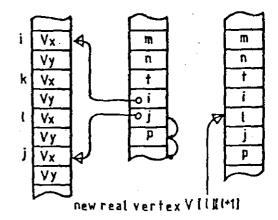
and a vertex is eliminated if $d > \sqrt{2}$ or if max(x,y) > 2. This is the condition which is used here. x and y are the values obtained by solving the equations $y=tan.x_n+b$, $x=\frac{y_n}{tan}-b$, with x_n and y_n being the coordinates of the nth pseudovertex between real-vertices 1 and 2 and tan and b, given from (3) and (4) respectively.



If the distance of some of the pseudo-vertices is greater than the given tolerance, it means that some of them are real-vertices and a new test should be tried according to the emerged new conditions. Supposing that there are n pseudo-vertices to be checked against the equation of the real-vertices V_{i} and V_{i+1} and m of them are found with distances greater than d_{\lim} from the straight $\overline{V_i, V_{i+1}}$. If V_{\max} is the pseudo-vertex with the maximum distance then, this is taken as a new real vertex and the original straight line $\overline{V_i, V_{i+1}}$ is changed to $\overline{V_i, V_{max}}$ and $\overline{V_{max}, V_{i+1}}$. The rest of the n-1 pseudo-vertices are checked against the equation of the real-vertices between which are included in the array. If their distances are within the allowed limit, they are ignored - effectively eliminated - otherwise the same procedure is followed until all of the vertices are checked. The new real vertex is marked as such by inserting an extra pointer to it in the pointer-array and moving the pointers below by one position downwards (Fig. The coordinates of every real-vertex met are stored in a new two-3.26). dimensional array A[i][j].

In the example of Fig. 3.25, v_2 and v_1 have distances greater than the limit with $d_2 > d_1$, while v_3 is within tolerance. Two new straight lines are formed $\overline{v_1 v_2}$ and $\overline{v_2 v_2}$ and the new tests show none of the remaining v_1 , v_3 is a new real vertex. Thus v_2 goes into the final vertex-array. When all the real-vertices have been used and all the pseudo-vertices have been checked, the procedure ends.





fiq. 3.26

3.4.2 Real-Vertex Verification

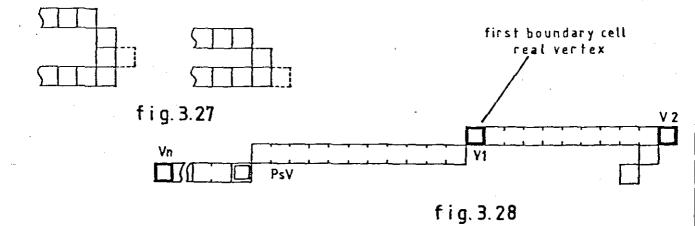
Before the array of real-vertices, produced by the previous procedure has reached its final form, two points must be examined. The existence of nearby vertices and the very first vertex.

It has been mentioned earlier that points within the same 3×3 square can be considered as one. This implies that vertices with distance less than $2\sqrt{2}$ - max distance across the diagonal of the 3×3 square - from each other should be considered as the same vertex. It is common that the vertex of some - mainly acute-angles are approximated by patterns like the ones in the Fig. 3.27. This happens because the averaging operator rounds the sharp parts by removing the odd pixels. This of course causes the existence of more than one real-vertex in a very small area due to abrupt changes of direction. A solution to this problem is, to check the distances of the

adjacent vertices against a certain maximum distance, within which the two vertices are considered to be one. This is obtained by moving the elements of the array one position upwards and eliminating - by overwriting - the first of the two neighbouring vertices. The above technique will take care of the first and last pixels which will be taken as one vertex - only one cell apart - although both are marked as real-vertices.

The very first boundary pixel is always a real-vertex except for one case. The proof is the following:-

Since the follower searches from left to right, top to bottom, the very first boundary pixel will be the end of an ascending line and the beginning of a descending - or an horizontal - one. Hence it is a real vertex. But it fails when the ascending line is very close to the horizontal.



To cope with this after the test of adjacent vertices has been completed, the equation of the straight line between the second and penultimate vertex is formed and the first one is checked against it. Since it belongs to that straight line it will be eliminated without causing any further problems.

The existence of a pseudo-vertex in the above case will not cause any problems if there are any pseudo-vertices between the first and the last

real-vertices. If there is such a vertex, it will be below the first otherwise it would have been the first -. The test for this PsV (Fig.3.28) will be between V_n and V_1 instead of V_n and V_2 , but since V_1 and V_2 belong to the same straight line, it will not make any difference to the final result.

3.4.3 Formation of Unit Clauses

This part prepares the data which will be consulted by the recognizer, to make the final classification of the shape. The unit clauses created in this phase are:- a) $\operatorname{conn}(c_1, c_2, c_2)$ b) $\operatorname{line}(c_1 c_2, n)$, c) $\operatorname{slope}(c_1 c_2, m)$, d) $\operatorname{sqrline}(c_1 c_2, l)$, and e) $\operatorname{angle}(c_1, k)$.

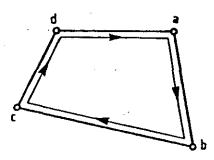
c1,c2,c3 are characters from the set ch={a,b,c,...,x,y,z}, and l,m,n are integer numbers.

a) conn(X, Y, Z):- The conn unit clause is the most important one because it indicates the connectivity between the vertices and hence the structure of the shape. The first and last variables refer to the vertices being connected, while the one in the middle refers to the line that joins them. For example 'conn(a,ab,b)' means that vertex a is connected to b by the side ab. The direction of the connectivity is important, so conn(a,ab,b) \neq conn(b,ba,a).

$$\begin{array}{c} A_{\phi\phi} \rightarrow ChA_{\phi} \\ A_{1\phi} \rightarrow ChA_{1} \end{array} \right\} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \operatorname{conn}(ChA_{\phi}, ChA_{\phi}ChA_{1}, ChA_{1}) \\ A_{2\phi} \rightarrow ChA_{2} \end{array} \right\} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \operatorname{conn}(ChA_{1}, ChA_{1}ChA_{2}, ChA_{2}) \\ \vdots \\ A_{n\phi} \rightarrow ChA_{n} \end{array} \right\} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \operatorname{conn}(ChA_{n-1}, ChA_{n-1}ChA_{\phi}, ChA_{\phi}) \qquad (A_{n\phi} \equiv A_{\phi\phi}) \end{array}$$

A character array is associated with every vertex, by using the same subscript. Successive vertices mean connected points and subsequently the

forming of *conn* unit clauses. The respective elements of the character array ChA fill the places of the variables as shown above. When a vertex equal to the first is met, the end of the procedure is marked. Of course the fact that the first and last vertices are the same, is deliberate to supply the connectivity between last and first vertex (which would not have been successive otherwise).



conn (a,ab,a). conn (b,bc,c). conn (c,cd,d). conn (d,da,a).

The example in Fig. 3.29 illustrates the order and direction of the connectivity that gives rise to the respective conn's.

b) <u>Line(X,n) and sqrline(X,m)</u>:- The first one is used to compare the sides of the shape when equality is demanded. X is the side concerned and n an integer number representing the length of the side. The second unit clause is similar to *line*, but m is n^2 and it is used when the theorem of Pythagoras is needed. n and m are calculated as the distances of consecutive vertices as shown below.

$$D_{1} = A[i][\emptyset] - A[i+1][\emptyset]$$
(1)

$$D_{2} = A[i][i] - A[i+1][1]$$
(2)

$$S[i] = \sqrt{D_{1}^{2} + D_{2}^{2}} + \emptyset.5$$

$$m = (s[i])^{2}$$

A[i][Ø], A[i+1][Ø]: the ordinates of vertices i and i+1
A[i][1], A[i+1][1]: the abscissae of vertices i and i+1

s[i] is an integer array and $\sqrt{D_1^2 + D_2^2}$ a real number, which means that s[i] will be assigned the integer part of the square root. To round the number correctly, \emptyset .5 is added to the square root. m is obtained by squaring n. Both m and n have to be integer because in PROLOG (the language in which the recognizer is written) only integers can be used. The X is filled in by the same method as variable Y in 'conn(X,Y,Z)'.

c) <u>Slope (X,θ) </u>:- Because of the use of a non-conventional system of coordinates the slope SL of straight line ϵ (Fig. 3.29) is given by:-

$$Sl = \tan \theta = \frac{dx}{dy}$$

The slope is calculated by using D_1 and D_2 from (1), (2) of the previous calculations of the line (X,n):-

$$T[i] = \frac{D_2}{D_1} \text{ with } D_1 \neq \emptyset \text{ and hence}$$

$$\theta[i] = \frac{18\emptyset}{3.1416} \text{ arctan } T[i] + \emptyset.5 \text{ when } D_1 \neq \emptyset$$

$$\theta[i] = 9\emptyset^0 \text{ when } D_1 \neq \emptyset$$

This is the angle θ in degrees that ε forms with the OX axis (clockwise is taken as positive). θ is also an integer and x is supplied as described above. The 'slope(X,k)' unit clauses are used to indicate parallel lines.

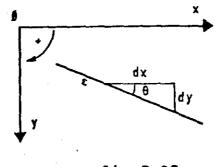
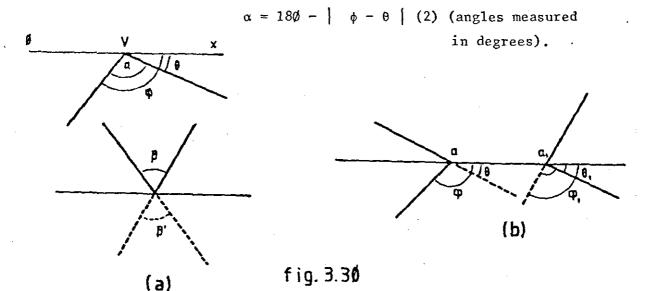


fig. 3.29

d) <u>angle(2, l)</u>:- This unit clause is used to indicate a non-convex quadrilateral. Since the equality of angles of a shape is implied by the equality of subtended sides, the *angle* unit clauses are of no other use.
Y is the character that determines the angle and l is an integer which gives the amplitude of the angle in degrees. The amplitude a of an angle that is left on one side of a line parallel to the OX axis and passing through its vertex V (Fig. 3.30a) is given by:

$$\alpha = |\phi - \theta| \qquad (1)$$

with ϕ and θ the *slopes* of the two lines of the angle as defined in the previous section. In case of angle β , the amplitude of β' is calculated by (1), which however is equal to β . The formula is different when the parallel to 0X intersects the angle (Fig. 3.30b):-

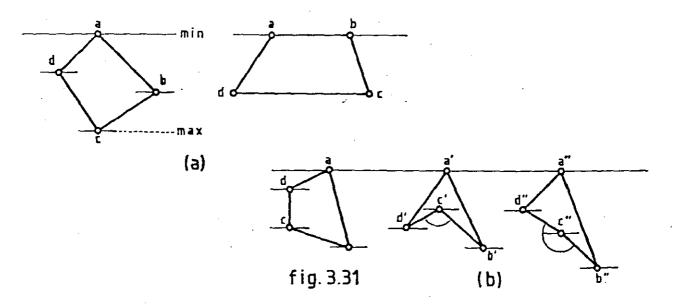


In a convex quadrilateral there are two angles that belong to the first category at least. These can be found by comparing the abscissae of their vertices. They are the ones with the minimum and maximum distance from OX respectively. Thus by finding the vertices with the smallest and biggest abscissae, the use of the adequate formula is chosen. In the case when there are two maxima and two minima the first and third angles are calculated by formula (1). In both of the shapes in the example of Fig. 3.31a, the

angles a and c are calculated by formula (1) and b and d by (2).

In a convex quadilateral (abcd) there is the following relation between the abscissae of the vertices.

If $V_y(1) = \min$ and $V_y(2) = \max$, then $V_y(3) > V_y(4)$ always. This does not happen in the case of non-convex quadrilaterals (a' b' c' d') and thus is the condition for using formula (1) only for all four angles. Both (1) and (2) calculate angles smaller than 180° , and so fail in the case of a non-convex quadrilateral, because they calculate the exterior of the real angle (e.g. c' and c"). However this is easy to be checked by using the known relation a'+b'+c'+d'= 360° (3). If the sum is less than 360° , a nonconvex-quadrilateral is indicated. In the case of a"b"c"d", which is a nonconvex quadrilateral with $V_y(3) > V_y(4)$ the formula for convex quadrilaterals is used, but the fact that (3) is not satisfied reveals it is non-convex.



SUMMARY - CONCLUSIONS

- The representation of straight lines on a grid is given by sequences of horizontal or vertical lines of pixels connected with diagonal joints called links.
- The pattern that represents a straight line on a digital grid remains unchanged throughout the line. Likewise the limit remains

the same with respect to the same line.

- The edge follower is a 3×3 square window centred on cells belonging to the boundary of a shape. The eight cells round the middle cell are checked for the next boundary cell using an n-2 sequence. A recovery operator takes care of small gaps in the boundary.
- The vertices of a shape are points at which a change of direction is observed. The change of direction is implied by a change in the pattern that represents the two sides of the particular vertex. Such genuine vertices are called *real-vertices*.
- Vertices caused by distortion of the picture due to noise, the camera, the screen or other reasons are called *pseudo-vertices*.
 These may become real in certain cases.
- A number of criteria checks the type of the vertices and forms two arrays with their coordinates. The real-vertices are used to form the equations of the sides of the shape. If any of the pseudovertices are farther than a limit distance from these sides they become real-vertices themselves.
- When all the real-vertices have been verified they form a final array with their coordinates, which is responsible for the formation of the data used by the next stage of recognition.
- The data used by the recognizer carry information about the structure of the shape - conn - or its special properties such as length of its sides, amplitude of its angles etc.
- If the number of vertices identified by the vertex detector is too large the method fails. In this case the shape is classified as other by default.

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Chapter

SYNTACTIC PATTERN RECOGNITION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines a relatively new and promising approach to pattern recognition, based on the utilization of concepts from formal language theory. This approach is frequently referred to as *Syntactic Pattern Recognition*, although terms such as linguistic pattern recognition, grammatical pattern recognition and structural pattern recognition are often found in the literature.

The basic difference between syntactic pattern recognition and the other approaches is that the former explicitly uses the structure of patterns in the recognition process. Analytical approaches, on the other hand, deal with patterns on a strictly quantitiative basis, thus ignoring interrelationships between the components of a pattern. From the viewpoint of pattern description or modelling, class distribution or density functions are used to describe patterns in each class in the decision-theoretic approach but syntactic rules or grammars are employed to describe patterns in the syntactic approach. The effectiveness of these approaches appears to be dependent upon the particular problem at hand. Often a mixed approach needs to be applied. As a matter of fact, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish sharply between syntactic and non-syntactic recognizers. Of course the existence of a recognizable *structure* is essential for the success of the syntactic approach. For this reason, syntactic pattern recognition research has been largely confined so far to pictorial patterns which are characterized by recognizable shapes, such as characters, chromosomes and particle collision photographs

The interest in syntactic pattern recognition may be traced to the early 1960's, although research in this area did not gain momentum until later in that decade. Even today, however, many of the major problems associated with the design of a syntactic pattern recognition system have been only partially solved.

In the following paragraphs a general model of a syntactic pattern recognition system is discussed, and some basic concepts of the formal language theory are given. The two main kinds of recognizer are analysed and some pattern recognition languages are mentioned.

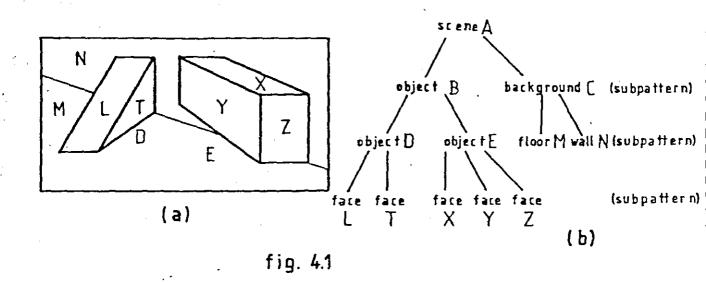
4.2 SYNTACTIC APPROACH TO PATTERN RECOGNITION

The many different mathematical techniques used to solve pattern recognition problems may be grouped in two general approaches:- the decisiontheoretic (or discriminant) approach and the syntactic (or structural) approach. In the decision-theoretic approach, a set of characteristic measurements, called features, are extracted from the patterns. The recognition of each pattern (assignment to a pattern class) is usually made by partitioning the feature space. In some pattern recognition problems,

the syntactic or structural approach has been proposed. This approach draws an analogy between the (hierarchical, or treelike) structure of patterns and the syntax of languages. Patterns are specified as being built up out of subpatterns in various ways of composition, just as phrases and sentences are built up by concatenating words, and words are built up by concatenating characters. Evidently, for this approach to be advantageous, the simplest subpatterns selected, called pattern primitives, should be much easier to recognize than the patterns themselves. The language that provides the structural description of patterns in terms of a set of primitives and their composition operations is sometimes called the pattern recognition language. The rules governing the composition of primitives into patterns are usually specified by the so-called grammar of the pattern description language. After each primitive within the pattern is identified, the recognition process is accomplished by performing a syntax analysis or parsing of the sentence describing the given pattern to determine whether or not it is syntactically (or grammatically) correct with respect to the specified grammar. In the meantime, the syntax analysis also produces a structural description of the sentence representing the given pattern (usually in the form of a tree structure).

The syntactic approach to pattern recognition provides a capability for describing a large set of complex patterns, by using small sets of simple pattern primitives and grammatical rules. One of the most essential aspects of this capability is the use of the recursive nature of a grammar. A grammar (rewriting) rule can be applied any number of times, so it is possible to express in a very compact way some basic structural characteristics of an infinite set of sentences. Of course, the practical utility of such an approach depends on our ability to recognize the simple pattern primitives and their relationships, represented by the composition operations.

the structural information which describes each pattern is important, and the recognition process includes not only the capability of assigning the pattern to a particular class (to classify it), but also the capacity to describe aspects of the pattern that make it ineligible for assignment to another class. A typical example of this class recognition problem is picture recognition or, more generally speaking, scene analysis. In this class of recognition problem, the patterns under consideration are usually quite complex and the number of features required is often very large. Thus the idea of describing a complex pattern in terms of a (hierarchical) composition of simpler patterns is adopted. Also, when the patterns are very complex and the number of possible descriptions is very large, it is impractical to regard each description as defining a class. Consequently, the requirement of recognition can only be satisfied by a description for each pattern rather than by the simple task of classification. Fig. 4.1b shows the structural description of scene 4.1a.



In order to represent the hierarchical (treelike) structure information of each pattern, that is, a pattern described in terms of simpler subpatterns

The various relations or composition operations defined among subpatterns can usually be expressed in terms of logical and/or mathematical operations. For example, if *concatenation* is chosen as the only relation (composition operation) used in describing patterns, then for the pattern primitives shown in Fig. 4.2a, the rectangle in Fig. 4.2b would be represented by the string aaaabbccccdd. More explicitly, if '+' is used for the *head-to-tail concatenation* operation, the rectangle in Fig. 4.2b would be represented by a+a+a+a+b+b+c+c+c+c+d+d, and its corresponding treelike structure would be that shown in Fig. 4.3.

An alternative representation of the structural information of a pattern is a relational graph.⁽³⁾ Fig. 4.4b shows a relational graph

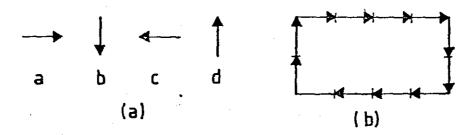


fig. 4.2

rectangle a + a + a + b + b + c + c + c + c + d + dfig. 4.3

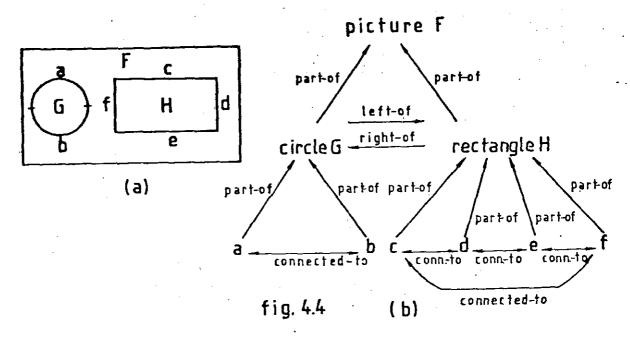
of picture F in Fig. 4.4a. Since there is a one-to-one corresponding relation between a linear graph and a matrix, a relational graph can also be expressed as a *relational matrix*. In using the relational graph for pattern description, the class of allowed relations can be broadened to

include any relation that can be conveniently determined from the pattern. It is worth noticing that:

a) the concatenation is the only natural operation for one-

dimensional languages

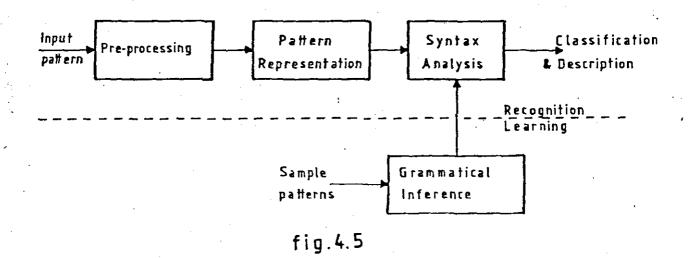
b) a graph, in general, contains closed loops, whereas a tree does not. With this generalization, richer descriptions can be expressed than with tree structures.



However, the use of tree structures provides a direct channel for adapting the techniques of formal language theory to the problem of compactly representing and analysing patterns containing a significant structural content. Because of the adaptation of techniques from formal language theory, the syntactic approach is also sometimes called the *linguistic approach*. Nevertheless, it is probably more appropriate to consider that the techniques of formal language theory are only tools for the syntactic approach rather than the approach itself.

4.3 SYNTACTIC PATTERN RECOGNITION SYSTEM

A syntactic pattern recognition system can be considered as consisting of three major parts, namely, preprocessing, pattern description or representation, and syntax analysis. Usually, the term syntactic pattern recognition refers primarily to the last two parts. A simple block diagram^(1a) of the system is shown in Fig. 4.5.



The functions of preprocessing include pattern encoding and approximation, and filtering, restoration and enhancement. An input pattern is first coded or approximated by some convenient form for further processing. For example, a black-and-white picture can be coded in terms of a grid (or a matrix) of \emptyset 's or l's, or a waveform can be approximated by its time samples. In order to make the processing in the later stages of the system more efficient, some sort of *data compression* is often applied at some stage. Then, techniques of filtering, restoration and/or enhancement are used to clean the noise, to restore the degradation and/or improve the quality of the coded (or approximated) patterns. The output of the preprocessor gives patterns of reasonably good quality. Each pattern is then represented by a language-like structure (e.g. a string).

The pattern representation process consists of pattern segmentation, and primitive (feature) extraction. In order to represent a pattern in terms of its subpatterns, the pattern must be segmented, and the primitives in it identified (or extracted). This means that, each preprocessed pattern is segmented into subpatterns and pattern primitives based on prespecified syntactic or composition operations. Then, in turn, each pattern is represented is identified with a given set of pattern primitives. At this point, each pattern is represented by a set of primitives with specified syntactic operations. For example, in terms of the concatenation operation each pattern is represented by a string of (concatenated) primitives. The decision whether or not the representation (pattern) is syntactically correct (i.e. belonges to the class of patterns described by the given syntax or grammar) will be made by the syntax analyser or parser. When performing the syntax analysis or parsing, the analyser can usually produce a complete syntactic description, in terms of a parse or parsing tree, of the pattern, provided that the latter is syntactically correct. Otherwise, the pattern is either rejected or analysed on the basis of other given grammars, which presumably describe other possible classes of patterns under consideration.

The simplest form of recognition is probably *template matching*. The string of primitives representing an input pattern is matched against strings of primitives representing each prototype or reference pattern. Based on a selected *matching* or *similarity* criterion, the input pattern is classified in the same class as the prototype pattern that is the *best* match to the input. The hierarchical structural information is essentially ignored. A complete parsing of the string representing an input pattern, on the other hand, explores the complete hierarchical structural description of the pattern. In between there are a number of intermediate approaches.

For example, a series of tests can be designed to test the occurrence or nonoccurrence of certain subpatterns (or primitives) or certain combinations of subpatterns or primitives. The result of the tests (e.g. through a table look-up, a decision tree, or a logical operation) is used for a classification decision. The selection of an appropriate approach for recognition usually depends on the problem requirements. If a complete pattern description is required for recognition, parsing is necessary. Otherwise, a complete parsing could be avoided by using other simpler approaches to improve the efficiency of the recognition process.

In order to have a grammar describing the structural information about the case class of patterns under study, a grammatical inference machine is required, that can infer a grammar from a given set of training patterns in language-like representation.^(1c) The function of this machine is analogous to the *learning* process in a decision-theoretic pattern recognition system. The structural description of the class of patterns under study is learnt from the actual sample patterns from the class. The learnt description, in the form of a grammar, is then used for pattern description and syntax analysis. A more general form of learning might include the capability of learning the best set of primitives and the corresponding structural description for the class of patterns concerned.

4.4 <u>CONCEPTS FROM FORMAL LANGUAGE THEORY</u> (15,2)

This section contains some essential ideas from formal language theory, as related to problems in syntactic pattern recognition.

An alphabet is any finite set of symbols.

Asentence over an alphabet is any string of finite length composed of symbols from the alphabet. For example, given the alphabet $\{\emptyset, 1\}$, the

following are valid sentences: $\{\emptyset, 1, \emptyset\emptyset, \emptyset1, 1\emptyset, \ldots\}$. The term string and word are also commonly used to denote a sentence.

The sentence with no symbols is called the *empty sentence*. The empty sentence will be denoted by s_0 . For any alphabet V, V* will be used to denote the set of all sentences composed of symbols from V, including the empty sentence. The symbol V⁺ will denote the set of sentences V*-s₀. For example, given the alphabet V={a,b}, V*={s₀,a,b,aa,ab,bb,...} and V⁺={a,b,aa,ab,bb,...}.

A language is any set (not necessarily finite) of sentences over an alphabet.

A grammar is defined as a fourtuple:

$$G = (V_N, V_T, P, S) .$$
 (1)

where: V_{N} is a set of *nonterminals* (variables);

 V_{π} is a set of *terminals* (constants);

P is a set of productions or rewriting rules;

S is the start or root symbol.

It is assumed that S belongs to the set V_N and that V_N and V_T are disjoint sets. The alphabet V is the union of sets V_N and V_T .

The language generated by G, denoted by L(G), is the set of strings which satisfy two conditions:

- a) each string is composed only of terminals (i.e. each string is a terminal sentence.
- b) each string can be derived from S by suitable applications of productions from the set P.

The following notation will be used. Nonterminals will be denoted by capital letters:- S,A,B,C,... Lower-case letters at the beginning of the alphabet will be used for terminals:- a,b,c,... Strings of terminals will be denoted by lower-case letters towards the end of the alphabet:- v,w,x,.... Strings of mixed terminals and nonterminals will be represented by lower-case Greek letters:- $\alpha,\beta,\gamma,\delta,\ldots$.

The set P of productions consists of expressions of the form $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ where α is a string in V^+ and β is a string in V^* . The symbol \rightarrow indicates replacement of the string α by the string β . The symbol \overrightarrow{G} will be used to indicate operations of the form $\gamma \alpha \delta \overrightarrow{G} \gamma \beta \delta$ in grammar G, that is, \overrightarrow{G} indicates the replacement of α by β by means of the production $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, γ and δ being left unchanged. It is customary to drop the G and simply use the symbol \Rightarrow when it is clear which grammar is being considered. For example considering the grammar G=(V_N, V_T, P, S), where V_N={S}, V_T={a,b}, and P={S + aSb, S + ab}, if the first production is applied m-1 times.

$$s \Rightarrow_{aSb} \Rightarrow_{aaSbb} \Rightarrow_{a}^{3}sb^{3} \Rightarrow \dots a^{m-1}sb^{m-1}$$

is obtained. Applying now the second production results in the string $a^{m-1}Sb^{m-1} \Rightarrow a^mb^m$

the language generated by this grammar consists of an infinite number of strings or sentences and can be expressed as $L(G)=\{a^{m}b^{m}|m\geq 1\}$.

4.4.1 Types of Grammars (1b,2)

The grammars considered in this section as specific examples of equation (1) of the previous paragraph. They are all of the general form $G=(V_N,V_T,P,S)$ differing only in the type of productions allowed in each.

An unrestricted grammar has productions of the form $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, where α is a string in V^+ and β is a string in V^* .

A context-sensitive grammar has productions of the form $\alpha_1^{A\alpha_2} + \alpha_1^{\beta\alpha_2}$, where α_1 and α_2 are in V*, β is in V⁺, and A is in V_N. This grammar allows replacement of the nonterminal A by the string of β only when A appears in the context $\alpha_1^{A\alpha_2}$ of strings α_1 and α_2 .

A context-free grammar has productions of the form $A \rightarrow \beta$, where A is in V_N and β is in V^+ . The name context free arises from the fact that the variable A may be replaced by a string β regardless of the context in which A appears.

A regular (or finite-state) grammar has productions of the form A+aB or A+a, where A and B are variables in V_N and a is a terminal in V_T . Alternative valid productions are A+Ba and A+a. However, once one of the two types has been chosen, the other set must be excluded.

These grammars are sometimes called type \emptyset , 1, 2 and 3 grammars, respectively. They are also often referred to as phrase structure grammars.

It is interesting to notice that all regular grammars are context-free all context-free grammars are context-sensitive and all context-sensitive grammars are unrestricted. As expected, unrestricted grammars are considerably more powerful than the other three types. However, their generality presents some serious difficulties in the theoretical and practical applications of the parameters. This is also true of contextsensitive grammars. There is also a major difference between type \emptyset , 1,2 and 3 grammars. A type 3 grammar is a finite machine and can be recognised by a *finite automaton*, while the others cannot. They are recognized though by other automata which can also recognize type 3 grammars. This is very important for grammatical inference.

4.5 FORMULATION OF THE SYNTACTIC PATTERN RECOGNITION PROBLEM⁽²⁾

Using the concepts of the previous sections, the problem of pattern recognition described in paragraph 3 can be regarded as follows. Suppose that two pattern classes ω_1 and ω_2 , are considered. Let the patterns of these classes be composed of features from some finite set. These features will be called *terminals* and denote the set of terminals by V_T . The term

primitives is also often used in syntactic pattern recognition terminology to denote terminals. Each pattern may be considered as a string or sentence, since it is composed of terminals from the set V_{π} . Assume that there exists a grammar G with the property that the language it generates consists of sentences (patterns) which belong exclusively to one of the pattern classes, say ω_1 . This grammar can clearly be used for pattern classification since a given pattern of unknown origin can be classified as belonging to ω_1 if it is a sentence of L(G). Otherwise the pattern is assigned to ω_2 . For example, the context-free grammar G=(V_N, V_T, P, S) with $V_N = \{S\}, V_T = \{a, b\}, and production set P = \{S \rightarrow aaSb, S \rightarrow aab\}, is capable of$ generating only sentences which contain twice as many a's and b's. Considering a hypothetical two-class pattern recognition problem in which the patterns of class ω_1 are strings of forms aab, aaaabb, etc., while the patterns of ω_2 contain equal numbers of a's and b's (i.e. ab, aabb, etc.), it is clear that classification of a given pattern string can be generated by the grammar G discussed above. If it can, the pattern belongs to ω_1 . If it can not, it is automatically assigned to ω_2 . The procedure used to determine whether or not a string represents a sentence which is grammatically correct with respect to a given language is called parsing.

The above classification scheme assigns a pattern into class ω_2 strictly by default. However, it is possible that the pattern does not belong to ω_2 either. It may represent a noisy or distorted string which is best rejected. In order to provide a rejection capability it is necessary to determine two grammars, G_1 and G_2 which generate languages $L(G_1)$ and $L(G_2)$. A pattern is assigned to the class over whose language it represents a grammatically correct sentence. If the pattern is found to belong to both classes it may be arbitrarily assigned to either class. If it is not a sentence of either $L(G_1)$ or $L(G_2)$, the pattern is rejected. Thus in the

M-class case M grammars and their associated languages $L(G_i)$, i=1,2,...,M. An unknown pattern is classified into class ω_i if and only if it is a sentence of $L(G_i)$. If the pattern belongs to more than one language, or if it does not belong to any of them, it may be arbitrarily assigned to one of the ambiguous classes or rejected, respectively. A block diagram^(1d) of the syntactic recognizer is shown in Fig. 4.6.

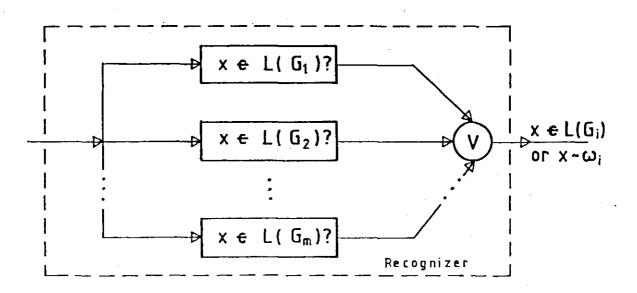


fig. 4.6

4.6 SYNTAX-DIRECTED RECOGNITION⁽²⁾

It has been indicated that formal grammars can be used for pattern recognition by determining whether a given pattern represents a terminal sentence which can be generated by any of the grammars under consideration for a specific problem. The procedure that determines whether or not a given pattern represents a valid sentence, in formal language theory, is

known as parsing. Basically, two main types of parsing techniques will be considered: top-down and bottom-up. By referring to a tree structure the following analogies can be drawn. The top or root of the (inverted) tree is the start symbol S. The terminal sentences (patterns) represent the bottom or leaves of the tree. The top-down⁽⁴⁾ technique starts with the root symbol S and, through repeated applications of the productions of the grammar, attempts to arrive at the given terminal sentence. The bottom-up approach, on the other hand, starts with the given sentence and attempts to arrive at the symbol S by applying the productions in reverse. In either case, if the parse fails, the given pattern represents an incorrect sentence and is therefore rejected.

It is evident that the parsing schemes described above are inherently inefficient since they involve essentially an exhaustive search in the applications of the productions of the grammar. However, it is seldom necessary to carry a sentence of productions all the way through, since partial results can be checked against the desired goal in order to determine whether a given sequence of productions has the potential to produce a successful parse.

The parsing process can be further improved by employing the rules of syntax of a grammar. Syntax is defined as the concatenation of objects. A rule of syntax states some permissible (or prohibited) relations between objects. For example the concatenation www never occurs in the English language. In this terminology, a grammar is nothing more than a set of rules of syntax which define the permissible or desired relations between objects. A syntax-directed parser, therefore, employs the syntax of the grammar in the parsing process.

4.6.1 <u>Recognition of Graph-Like Patterns</u>⁽²⁾

The problem with the previous approach is that, scanning for the primitives or substructures of interest in a two-dimensional situation could be a formidable task for a machine. Today, the most successful attempts in this area have involved patterns which can be reduced to graphlike structures.

An interesting application of linguisitic concepts to pattern recognition is the Picture Description Language (PDL).^(5,6) A primitive in PDL is any n-dimensional structure with two distinguished points, a *tail* and a *head*, as shown in Fig. 4.7a for two-dimensional structures. It is worth noticing that a fairly general structure can be abstracted as a directed line segment since there are only two points of definition.

A primitive can be linked to other primitives *only* at its tail and/or head. On the basis of this permissible form of concatenation, the structures of PDL are directed graphs, and can be handled by string grammars. The principal rules for the concatenation of abstracted primitives are shown in Fig. 4.7b. It is important to point out that *blank* primitives may be used to generate seemingly disjoint structures while preserving the rules of connectivity. Also, it is often useful to consider a *null point* primitive having identical head and tail.

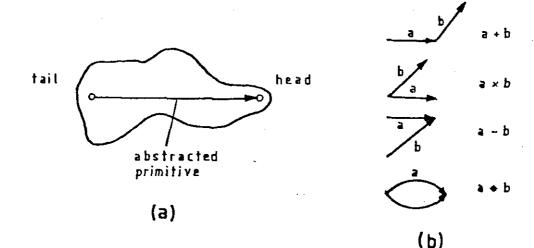


fig.4.7

When n-ary relations are involved, a graph-representable description can be obtained by transforming all relations into binary ones. A unary relation r(x) can be changed to a binary one $r'(X_1\lambda)$ where λ denotes the 'null' primitive. The relation $r(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ (n>2) can be transformed into a composition of binary relations, such as:

$$r_1(x_1, r_2(x_2, \dots, r_{n-1}(x_{n-1}, x_n)))$$

or into a conjunction of binary relations

$$r_1(x_{11}, x_{12}) \wedge r_2(x_{21}, x_{22}) \wedge \dots \wedge r_k(x_{k1}, x_{k2})$$

or into a combination of these. For example, the ternary relation TRIANGLE (a,b,c) would be transformed into either one of the following equivalent binary relations:-

$$CAT(a,b)ACAT(b,c)ACAT(c,a)$$
 or $\Delta(b,CAT(a,c))$

where CAT(x,y) means that head(X) is concatenated to tail(Y), that is, CAT(X,Y)=X+Y and $\Delta(X,Y)$ means that the line X is connected to form a triangle with the object Y consisting of two concatenated objects.

Another grammar, which generates languages with terminals having an arbitrary number of attaching points for connecting to other primitives or sub-patterns is the *PLEX* grammar.⁽⁸⁾ The primitives of the plex grammar are called *N-attaching point entities* (NAPEs). Each production of the plex grammar is in a context-free form in which connectivity of primitives or subpatterns is described by using explicit lists of labelled concatenation points (called joint lists). Sentences generated by a plex grammar can be transformed to directed graphs, by assigning labelled nodes to both primitives and concatenation points or by transforming primitives to nodes and concatenations to labelled branches.

An extension of the concept of string grammars to grammars for labelled graphs are the WEB grammars.⁽⁹⁾ Labelled node-oriented graphs are explicitly used in the productions. Each production describes the rewriting of graph α into another graph β and also contains an *embedding* rule E which specifies the connection of α to its surrounding graph (host web) when α is rewritten.

A further generalization of string grammars to graph grammars can be done by including non-terminal symbols which are not simple branches or nodes.(10) An mth-order non-terminal structure is defined as an entity that is connected to the rest of the graph by m nodes. In particular, a secondorder structure is called a branch structure and a first-order structure a node structure. Then an mth-order context-free grammar G_g is a quadruple $G_{p} = (V_{N}, V_{T}, P, S)$ where V_{N} is a set of mth-order non-terminal structures:nodes, branches, triangles,..., polygons with m vertices; V_{T} is a set of terminals: - nodes and branches; P is a finite set of productions of the form $A \rightarrow \alpha$, where A is a non-terminal structure and α a graph containing possibly both terminals and non-terminals (a is connected to the rest of the graph through exactly the same nodes as A); S is a set of initial graphs. The expression A*B denotes that the two graphs A and B are connected by a pair of nodes, and N(A+B+C) denotes that the graphs A,B and C are connected through a common node N. Finally ANB denotes a non-terminal subgraph consisting of a branch structure A with nodes X and Y connected to the node structure N through Y and a branch structure B with nodes Y and Z connected to N through Y. The subgraph is connected to the rest of the graph through the nodes X and Z. Fig. 4.8a,b and c illustrate the above.

Another interesting application of syntactic pattern recognition deals with automatic classification of chromosomes.⁽⁷⁾ A context-free grammar classifies a chromosome as being either *submedian* or *telocentric*. The primitives used in this application are shown in Fig. 4.9a; typical submedian and telocentric chromosomes are shown in Fig. 4.9b.

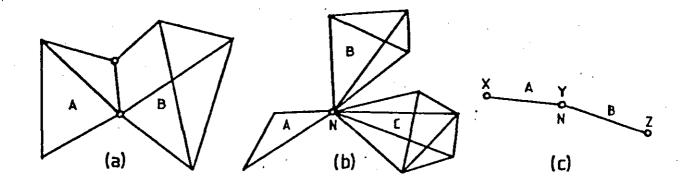
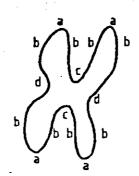


fig. 4.8

(a)



ebabcbab

abcbabdbcbabdb

fig. 4.9

(b)

In terms of these figures, operator '.' is interpreted as describing simple connectivity of parts as a chromosome boundary is tracked in the clockwise direction.

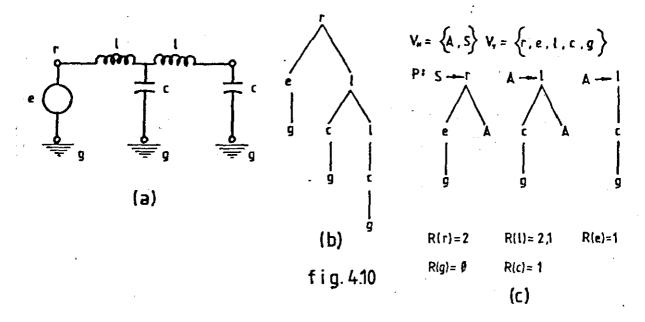
4.6.2 <u>Recognition of Tree Structures</u>⁽²⁾

In order to handle tree structures it is necessary to modify slightly the concept of a grammar. A *tree grammar* is defined as a quintuple

$$G=(V_N, V_T, P, R, S)$$
⁽²⁾

where V_N and V_T are, as before, sets of non-terminals and terminals, respectively; S is the start symbol which can, in general, be a tree; P is a set of productions of the form $\Omega \rightarrow \psi$, where Ω and ψ are trees; and

R is a *ranking function* which denotes the number of direct descendants of a node whose label is a terminal in the grammar. An example of a tree grammar is illustrated in Fig. 4.10.



4.7 <u>LEARNING AND GRAMMATICAL</u> INFERENCE (1e)

The use of formal linguistics in modelling natural and programming languages and in describing physical patterns and data structures has recently received increasing attention. Grammars or syntax rules are employed to describe the syntax of languages or the structural relations of patterns. In addition to the structural description, a grammar can also be used to characterize a syntactic source which generates all the sentences (finite or infinite) in a language, or the patterns belonging to a particular class. In order to model a language or to describe a class of patterns or data structures under study more realistically, it is hoped that the grammar used can be directly inferred from a set of sample sentences or a set of sample patterns. This problem of learning a grammar based on a set of sample sentences is called grammatical inference. The problem of grammatical inference is concerned mainly with the procedures that can be used to infer the syntactic rules of an unknown grammar G, based on a finite set of sentences or strings, S_t from L(G), the language generated by G, and possibly also on a finite set of strings from the complement of L(G). The inferred grammar is a set of rules for describing the given finite set of strings from L(G) and predicting other strings which in some sense are of the same nature as the given set. A basic block diagram of a grammatical inference machine is shown in Fig.4.11.

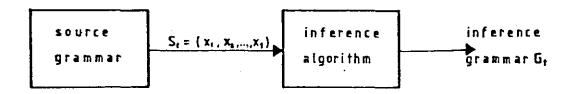


fig.4.11

The inferred grammar for S_t is considered to be *good* if it yields a satisfactory result. In recent years some measures of *goodness* have been defined in terms of complexity of the inferred grammar, and they have been applied to grammatical inference problems.

SUMMARY - CONCLUSIONS

- The syntactic approach to pattern recognition provides a capability for describing a large set of complex problems, by using small sets of simple pattern primitives and grammatical rules.
- A syntactic pattern recognition system consists of three major parts: preprocessing, pattern description or representation and syntax analysis.

- Preprocessing functions include pattern encoding, approximation filtering, restoration and enhancement. Pattern representation consists of pattern segmentation and feature extraction. Syntax analysis or parsing makes the decision whether or not the pattern belongs to the class described by the given syntax and grammar.
- A grammar is defined as:- G=(V_N,V_T,P,S) (V_N=nonterminals, V_T=terminals, P=productions, S=start symbol). The commonest grammars are the:unrestricted, contex-sensitive, contex-free and regular.
- An unknown pattern is classified into class ω, if and only if it is a sentence of language L(G_i), i=1,2,3,...,M. Otherwise it is rejected.
- The two main parsing techniques are top-down and bottom-up. Topdown starts with the start symbol S and attempts to reach the terminals with repeated applications of the productions P. Bottomup is the reverse procedure.
- A syntax directed parser employs the syntax of the grammar in the parsing process.
- Picture Description Language is implemented as an application of graph-like pattern recognition.
- In order to modify tree structures the ranking function, R is introduced to the fourtuple of grammar.
- Grammatical inference deals with the problem of learning a grammar, based on a set of sample sentences.

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d. Chapter 4

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Chapter

THE RECOGNIZER

5.1 INTRODUCTION

After the pattern has been preprocessed and its main features have been extracted, it is segmented into subpatterns called pattern primitives, which are easier to recognize than the pattern itself. Thus the structure of the pattern is described by a pattern recognition language that is based on the set of primitives and their composition operations. The rules governing the composition of the primitives into patterns is usually specified by the grammar of the pattern description language. After each primitive within the pattern is identified, the pattern is ready to be recognized. The recognition process is accomplished by performing a syntax analysis or parsing of the sentence describing the given pattern to determine whether or not it is syntactically (or grammatically) correct with respect to the specified grammar. Finally the pattern is classified, i.e. it is assigned to a particular class determined by the above mentioned grammar. The recognizer discussed in this chapter is capable of recognizing three-dimensional objects that consist of simple straight-line twodimensional shapes. It functions in two stages. In the first stage all the 2-D shapes, which are eventually the visible sides of the 3-D object to be recognized, are classified by a 2-D recognizer. Then, in the second stage, a 3-D recognizer is called to classify the 3-D object composed by the 2-D sides previously recognized. Both recognizers belong to the topdown type, i.e. they start with the start symbol (root of the tree) and attempt to arrive at the given terminal sentence, by repeatedly applying the productions of a certain grammar. The grammar used is a *string grammar* which means that the primitives or terminals are strings (of some special form because of the use of PROLOG), with concatenation as the main relation between them. Finally both recognizers are written in PROLOG.

The following sections attempt to analyse the function of the recognizer. First an introduction to PROLOG is given for better understanding of the special primitives used. Then the recognizer is examined in two parts, the 2-D recognizer and the 3-D recognizer.

5.2 AN INTRODUCTION TO PROLOG⁽¹⁾

PROLOG is a simple and powerful programming language for non-numeric applications. It was originally devised around 1972 for the purpose of implementing a natural language question-answering system at the University of Marseille. A PROLOG compiler/interpreter for the DEC-system-10 has been produced at the University of Edinburgh.

The basic idea of PROLOG is that a collection of logic statements of a restricted form (clauses) can be regarded simply as a program, and that the execution of such a program is nothing other than a suitably controlled

logical deduction from the clauses forming the program. A PROLOG program can be regarded as a collection of statements of fact - the *declarative view*. The program can also be understood as a number of procedure definitions - the *procedural view*. The different clauses in a procedure represent alternative *cases* of the procedure. The appropriate clause (or clauses) is selected by a *pattern matching* operation *(unification, explained* later on) according to the form of the procedure call. Pattern matching is the *sole* data manipulation operation. Data items in PROLOG are called *terms* and may be thought of as complex record structures written in a textual, machine independent form, not involving the notion of reference or pointer.

Procedures:- A PROLOG program consists of a sequence of statements called *clauses*. Here is a simple example, consisting of six clauses:

descendant(X,Y):- offspring(X,Y).
descendant(X,Y):- offspring(X,Y), descendant(Y,Z).
offspring(abraham,ishmael). offspring(abraham,isaac).
offspring(isaac,esau). offspring(isaac,jacob).

Clauses can be understood in two ways. Firstly, they can be interpreted as statements of fact. For instance the first clause says that, whatever may be the values of the *variables* X and Y, 'Y is a descendant of X if Y is one of the offspring of X'. And the last clause says that 'jacob is one of the offspring of isaac'. Note that the variables in different clauses are considered distinct, even if they have the same name. The second way to understand clauses is as pieces of program. Each clause corresponds to a *case* of a *procedure*. Looked at in this way, the first clause can be read as 'To find a Y that is a descendant of X, find a Y that is one of the offspring of X', and the last clause as 'When seeking an offspring of isaac, return the solution jacob'.

The six clauses of the example serve to define two procedures, named 'descendant' and 'offspring'. Each clause consists of a *head* or *procedure entry point*, followed by a (possibly empty) *body*. A clause with an empty body is called a unit clause. A PROLOG program works as follows:-

To run the program, one provides an initial goal such as:-

descendant (abraham, X).

The result of executing this goal will be to enumerate descendants of abraham and return them, one by one, as values of the variable X. In order to execute such a goal, the PROLOG system matches it against the head of some clause and then executes the goals (if any) in the body of that clause, in left-to-right order. In seeking a match, PROLOG tries the clauses of procedure concerned, in the order they appear in the program text. The matching process, known technically as unification, succeeds if the goal and the clause head can be made identical by filling in suitable values for the variables. For example the goal 'offspring(X,ishmael)' matches the first clause for 'offspring' if X is given the value 'abraham'. The variable X is then said to be instantiated to abraham. When one solution to a goal has been finished with, or when no match can be found for a goal, the PROLOG system backtracks. That is, it goes back to the most recently executed goals, and looks for an alternative match. If backtracking generates more than one solution to a goal, the corresponding procedure is said to be non-determinate.

In the example above suppose that the initial goal 'descendant(abraham,X)' is executed. Through matching the goal against the first clause for 'descendant', PROLOG starts off by looking for the immediate offspring of abraham, and returns successively X='ishmael' and X='isaac'. Then backtracking causes the second clause for 'descendant' to be used. This results in the 'descendant' procedure being called recursively for each of the

abraham's offspring, giving further descendants, esau and jacob.

Structures:- PROLOG data objects are called terms. Variables and unstructured constants are terms called atoms. PROLOG also provides for structured data objects called complex terms. An example is the binary tree data type. The following procedure checks whether a particular item is present in an ordinary binary tree

in(X, tree(T1, X, T2)).

in(X, tree(T1, Y, T2)):- before(X, Y), in(X, T1). in(X, tree(T1, Y, T2)):- before(Y, X), in(X, T2).

Here 'tree' is a *function* of 3 *arguments*. It can be thought of as a record type with 3 fields. The arguments stand for the left subtree, the item at the root node, and the right subtree. The first clause says that X is present in the ordered binary tree <T1,X,T2>, for any values of X,T1 and T2. The last clause says that X is present in the ordered binary tree <T1,Y,T2> if Y is before X and X is present in T2, for any values of X,Y,T1 and T2.

Another, very commonly used data type is the *list*. For example, the PROLOG procedure for concatenating lists is:-

concatenate([], L, L).

concatenate([X|L1], L2, [X|L3]):- concatenate(L1, L2, L3).

From a practical point of view, PROLOG enables the programmers to write clearer, more concise programs, with less effort, and with less likelihood of error. The language could perhaps be summed up as *pointer* manipulation made easy.

PROLOG has been put to practical use in a number of areas outside pure research. Examples include a package for doing algebraic symbol crunching, an architectural design aid to assist in planning the layout of a building, a system to help predict the properties of organic compounds, and the implementation of a compiler (DEC-10 PROLOG). Applications within Artificial Intelligence research include programs for plan generation, equation solving, natural language analysis, and solving mechanics problems. All the above are large and complex programs which would probably never have got written at all with the available manpower, were it not for the relative ease of writing them in PROLOG.

5.3 THE 2-D RECOGNIZER

Although this is basically part of the recognizer of 3-D objects, it could also be viewed as a separate program capable of recognizing 2-D shapes. The 2-D recognizer has as its input sets of primitives representing 2-D shapes and classifies them into one of the following three classes:-

- a) triangle
- b) quadrilateral
- c) other

Once the shape has been assigned to one of the first two classes a further classification is obtained by using relations between the features of the studied shape. For example a triangle with two equal sides is an isoscelestriangle or a quadrilateral with two pairs of parallel sides is a parallelogram etc. Each of these primary or secondary classes is considered as a separate goal and is subject to a different grammar. In Fig. 5.1 the function of the 2-D recognizer is shown, in the form of a tree structure.

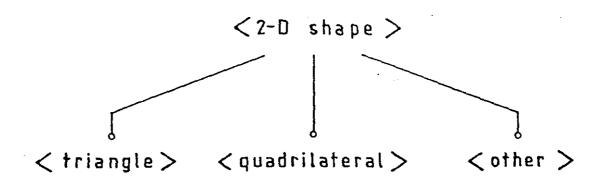


fig. 5.1

5.3.1 Triangle

A triangle is defined by three straight line segments connecting together three points which are not in the same straight line. The three straight line segments are called the *sides* of the triangle and the points are called the *vertices* of the triangle. From the definition of the triangle it is obvious that sides are its main components. These can be represented by predicates of the form:- conn(A, AB, B). Where A and B are the two vertices connected by the side AB and *conn* stands for *connect*, which is the relation between A and B. Thus a triangle is considered as the structure that consists of the conjunction of three *conn* predicates, expressing the relation between its three vertices and three sides. For example triangle (a,b,c) is given by the following clause:-

triangle(A, AB, B, BC, C, CA):-conn(A, AB, B), conn(B, BC, C), conn(C, CA, A). by substituting variables A, B, C with a, b, and c respectively.

Predicate *conn* is considered as directed and thus $conn(a,ab,b) \neq conn(b,ba,a)$. By convention the clockwise rotation order is used, because that is the direction in which the boundary follower works. The purpose of keeping a certain direction is to cope with ambiguous situations where two 2-D shapes have common sides (more in the 3-D recognizer).

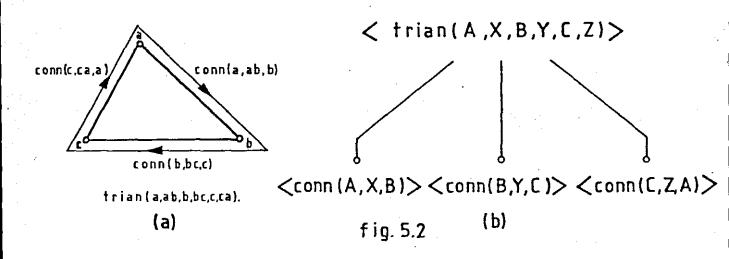
Every triangle is considered with respect to one of its vertices as a point of reference. Thus if for example the data is:- conn(a,ab,b)., conn(b,bc,c)., conn(c,ca,a)., the question 'shape(b,X)'. will be answered by 'shape(b, triangle)'., which means that 'there is only one shape connected to vertex b, and this is a triangle'. If other alternatives are sought, the answer will be that 'there are not any'. However, if the question is

^{*&#}x27;,' is the symbol for logic AND and ';' the symbol for logic OR in PROLOG⁽²⁾

put more generally 'shape(Y, X)', that is 'name all the triangles connected to any of the vertices' the answer will be 'shape(a, triangle)', with 'shape(b,triangle)' and 'shape(c,triangle)' as the alternatives of the The actual triangle is one and the two alternatives represent first answer. the same triangle with respect to a different vertex each time. This of course may prove confusing when the data represent more than one triangle (or shape in general) connected with common vertices or even sides (3-D In the last case it is undesirable that a triangle once identified case). as such, is taken under consideration again within the same frame. This is achieved by using the predicate $assert(a \ triangle(A, X, B, Y, C, Z))$,⁽²⁾ which adds the unit clause a triangle(A, X, B, Y, C, Z) at the end of the database. By modifying the definition of the triangle as follows the two previously mentioned problems are solved.

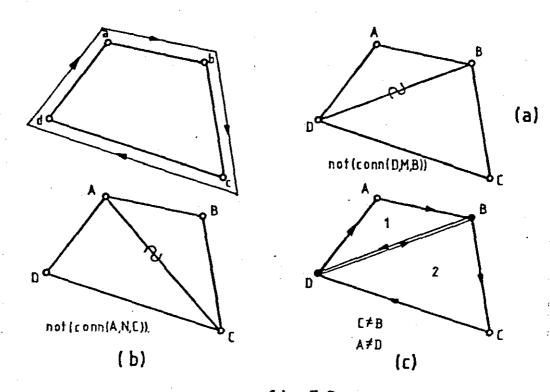
Referring to the same example mentioned above, the assert predicate will add to the data the unit clause atrian(a,ab,b,bc,c,ca), which will effectively remove trian(a,ab,b,bc,c,ca) from the data (since not(atrian(a,ab,b,bc,c,ca))will become false) and hence the same triangle will not be taken into account when alternatives are asked for. The extra two not(atrian(...))predicates will prevent any recycling, and so to the original question 'shape(Y,X)' will be given only one answer, 'shape(a,triangle)'. (it is 'a' because conn(a,ab,b) happens to be the first unit clause in the data). After the recognition of the same frame has been completed a special clause called *init* 2D (see Section 5.4) will retract all atrian's from the data

to allow the next frame to be recognized correctly. Fig. 5.2b shows the tree-like structure of the definition for the triangle, and a illustrates the example of 5.3.1.



5.3.2 Quadrilateral

A quadrilateral is defined by four co-planar points every three of which are not in the same line, connected together by four straight line segments. In other words a quadrilateral consists of four vertices and four sides. By using arguments similar to the ones in the case of the triangle the definition of the quadrilateral could well be, a sequence of four consecutive conn's with the appropriate not (aquadril(...))'s and an assert(aquadril(...)) at the end. This is correct, apart from the fact that, since the 2-D recognizer is deemed as a part of the 3-D one, two more things must be taken into account. Fig. 5.3 explains these two cases.



f ig. 5.3

Since a quadrilateral is considered as a 2-D shape, there should not be any straight line segment representing either of its diagonals. This implies that such clauses as conn(A, N, C) or conn(D, M, B) or the symmetric ones conn(C, L, A) or conn(B, K, C), should not exist in the database. Thus if any of the above cases exists then the shape will be interpreted as two triangles connected by a common side rather than a quadrilateral. Supposing now that the following clauses exist in the database:-

- 1) conn(a,ab,b). 2) conn(b,bc,c). 3) conn(c,ca,a).
- 4) conn(b, bd, d). 5) conn(d, dc, c). 6) conn(c, cb, b).

Considering the suggested definition of the four *conn's*, there should not be any quadrilateral because of the *conn's* no.2 and 6. But the following combination may give rise to a *false* quadrilateral:-

which is a quadrilateral according to the definition (1), since there is neither conn(a, aa, a) nor conn(b, bb, b). Thus care must be taken that A \neq C and B \neq D.

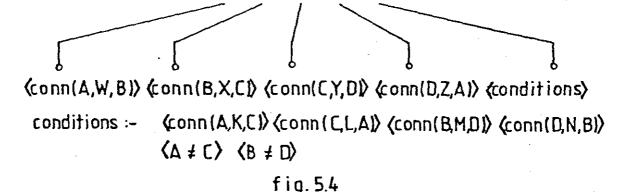
After this discussion the definition of the quadrilateral becomes:-

quadril(A, W, B, X, C, Y, D, Z):= conn(A, W, B), conn(B, X, C), conn(C, Y, D), conn(D, Z, A).

not(conn(A, K, C)), not(conn(C, L, A)), (A ==C), not(conn(B, M, D)), not(conn(D, N, B)), (B ==D), not(aquadril(A, W, B, X, C, Y, D, Z)), not(aquadril(B, X, C, Y, D, Z, A, W)), not(aquadril(C, Y, D, Z, A, W, B, X)), not(aquadril(D, Z, A, W, B, X, C, Y)),assert(aquadril(A, W, B, X, C, Y, D, Z)).

The tree-like structure of the definition for the quadrilateral is illustrated in Fig. 5.4.

<quadril(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z)>



As in the case of triangle, the operation init 2D will clear all the aquadril

[★]A≠C can be expressed in PROLOG by 'A=\=C' which means that integer expressions A and C are not equal, and 'A\==C' which means that A and C are not identical. Here the second expression is used to denote that vertex A and vertex C are not identical or in other words they do not coincide. Obviously the second expression is stronger than the first one.

clauses, preparing the 2-D recognizer for the next application.

5.3.3 Secondary Classes for the Quadrilateral

So far the only unit clauses used were the *conn's*, denoting the basic structure of the main figure. These are enough to make a *first* classification of the 2-D shape to one of the *primary* classes, that is triangle or quadrilateral. If a further classification is required, then the other unit clauses related to the 2-D shape supplied by one of the previous procedures (Section 3.4.3), must be used. These unit clauses are:- line(X,K), sqrline(X,L), slope(X,M) and angle(X,N). The comparison of unit clauses of the same type for a quadrilateral can reveal equal sides and angles, parallel sides, and right angles. Before examining each secondary class in detail the definition of some of the operations between the unit clause is given.

equalline(X,Y):- line(X,M), line(Y,N), equal1(M,N).

This says that two lines are equal if the integer numbers M and N that represent their length satisfy the clause equall(M,N). The latter is true if the absolute difference of the two numbers is smaller than two. Similarly equal2(M1,N1) is true if the absolute difference between the two numbers (which in this case are the squares of the previous ones M and N) is smaller than four.

paral(X, Y):- slope(X, M), slope(Y, N), equalslope(M, N).

Two sides are parallel if their slopes (defined by 3.4.3c), satisfy the clause, equalslope(M,N). This is true if the absolute difference between M and N (in degrees) is less than three degrees.

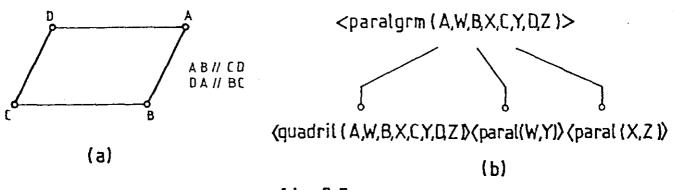
rect(X,Y):- slope(X,M),slope(Y,N),right(M,N).
Finally two lines are perpendicular if right(M,N) is true, i.e. if the

absolute difference of the two slopes differs in absolute value from ninety degrees less than three degrees.

The secondary classes have in common the fact that they are all quadrilaterals in the first place and then, depending on the relations between their sides and angles are one of: a) parallelogram, b) rectangle, c) square, and d) rhombus.

a) parallelogram:- A parallelogram is a quadrilateral with its opposite sides parallel to each other in pairs. Thus the definition of a parallelogram is:-

paralgrm(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z):- quadril(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z), paral(W,Y), paral(X,Z). A parallelogram and its tree-like structure is given in Fig. 5.5.





b) rectangle: - A rectangle is a parallelogram with two of its sides perpendicular, i.e. forming a right angle. The definition of a rectangle is given by:-

rectan(A, W, B, X, C, Y, D, Z):- paralgrm(A, W, B, X, C, Y, D, Z), rect(W, X). Fig. 5.6 illustrates a rectangle and its tree-like structure.

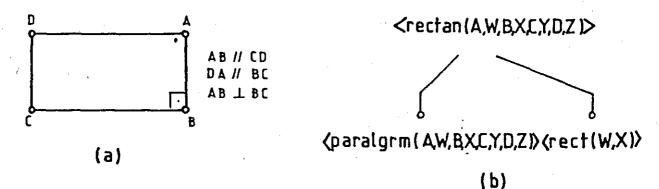


fig. 5.6

c) square:- A square is a rectangle with two adjacent sides equal. Its definition is:-

square(A, W, B, X, C, Y, D, Z):- rectan(A, W, B, X, C, Y, D, Z), equalline(W, X). A square and its tree-like structure is shown in Fig. 5.7.

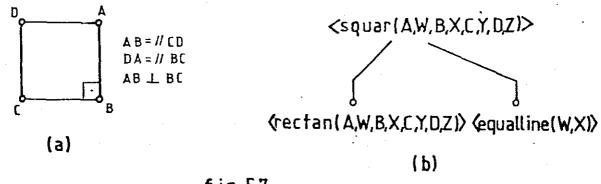
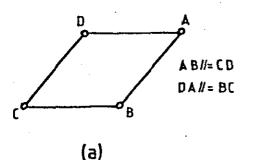
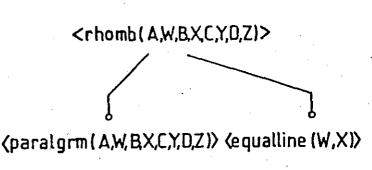


fig. 5.7

d) rhombus: - A rhombus is a parallelogram with two adjacent sides equal. The definition of the rhombus is:-

rhomb(A, W, B, X, C, Y, D, Z):- paralgrm(A, W, B, X, C, Y, D, Z), equalline(W, X).
Fig. 5.8 illustrates the rhombus and its tree-like structure.





(b)

fig.5.8

This was the 2-D recognizer examined as part of the 3-D recognizer. At the end of this chapter there will be a section examining the 2-D recognizer as an autonomous system, capable of recognizing single (unconnected) 2-D shapes.

5.4 THE 3-D RECOGNIZER

This is the second part of the recognizer, and its task is to recognize simple objects composed of sides which the 2-D recognizer can identify. Before attempting to describe how the 3-D recognizer works, it would be helpful if the representation of 3-D objects on a 2-D picture was examined first.

It was said in the previous sections that a 2-D shape is a combination of a number of sides and vertices (three and four respectively) connected together in a particular way. Since the shapes are considered to be planar, a 2-D representation of them would be sufficient to describe exactly their structure. In other words a 2-D shape is by definition whatever its structure tells that it is and nothing else.

On the other hand a 3-D shape is a composition of 2-D shapes (in this case triangles and quadrilaterals) joined together by common sides - edges -.

Thus if a one-to-one correspondence was tried between a 2-D and a 3-D shape this would be:

It is obvious that the best space for a perfect representation of 3-D shapes would be the three dimensional space. But even in this case the fact that some 2-D sides prevent the observer from having a direct view of all the other sides, makes it difficult for him to categorically identify the object. Actually he may need to either move or move the object itself in order to give a definite answer. The difficulties increase when an answer is attempted from a 2-D representation of a 3-D shape. Actually the 2-D representation of a 3-D object looks like a combination of 2-D shapes connected together by common sides. The difference is that these 2-D shapes are not what they appear to be, but they represent the visible sides of the 3-D object as these are seen from a particular angle. Taking into account the factor of perspective, things become more complicated. For example a 3-D shape composed by a triangle ABC and a trapezium ADEB could well represent a prism or a square-pyramid (Fig. 5.9). Depending on the angle of view, perspective

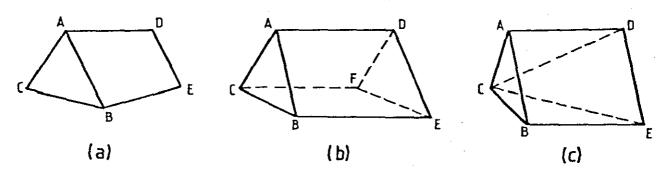


fig. 5.9

could make the actual parallelogram ADEB (Fig. 5.9b) look like a trapezium (Fig. 5.9a). On the other hand since there is no clue about the invisible side of the particular shape two possible solutions could be the ones shown by Fig. 5.9b and c. Considering all these possibilities, the 3-D recognizer tries to classify the given representation making a number of assumptions each time. These assumptions will be seen in detail when every class is examined.

Another interesting point is that the question given to the recognizer is:- 'shape(a, X)', that is the given object is examined with respect to its vertex (3D-vertex) 'a'. Since the way the vertices of the 2-D shapes are marked depends on the order that they are met in the picture, many possibilities can occur for each 3-D shape. The idea is that the first triangle met is marked as ABC then the second one is marked DEF. Now if BC and EF are the common sides of the two triangles then EF is substituted by BC and the whole 3-D shape becomes ABCD (Fig. 5.1¢). The two triangles

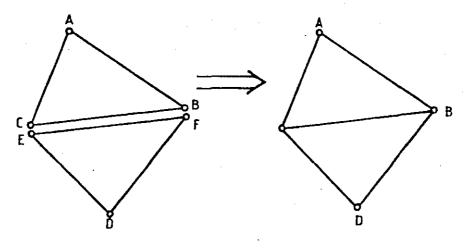


fig.5.10

are now ABC and BDC. The condition that checks if two points are near enough to represent the same vertex is their distance to be less than three (units of length). If this happens the letter that represents the vertex

111 .

of the second shape is replaced by the one representing the vertex of the first one. In the example above F becomes B and E becomes C.

The classes that will be discussed in the following sections can be grouped into three larger groups. The first group contains 3-D shapes consisting of triangles only, the second group examines 3-D shapes consisting of both triangles and quadrilaterals and the third one looks at 3-D shapes consisting of quadrilaterals only. A main assumption for all three groups is that all the existant 2-D shapes comprising the 3-D object have at least one common vertex.

Finally every time a new alternative is tried the clause *init* 2D clears all the *atrain's* and *aquadril's*. This is defined :-

init 2D:- retractall(atrian(A,B,C,D,E,F)),rectractall(aquadril(G,H,I,J, K,L,M,N)).

5.4.1 Definitions

a) tetrahedron:- is the 3-D shape that consists of four 2-D sides each one being a triangle (Fig. 5.11a).

b) square-pyramid:- is the 3-D shape that consists of five 2-D sides four of them being triangles and the fifth - called basis - being a square (quadrilateral in general). (Fig. 5.11b).

c) truncated-triangular-pyramid:- is the 3-D shape that consists of two triangular bases and three quadrilaterals (Fig. 5.11c). It is basically a tetrahedron with a small tetrahedron missing from its top.

d) triangular-prism:- is the 3-D shape that consists of two triangular bases and three parallelograms (Fig. 5.11d).

e) truncated-square-pyramid:- is the 3-D shape that consists of two quadrilaterals as bases and four more quadrilaterals (Fig. 5.11e). It is a square pyramid with its top being cut off. f) square-prism:- is the 3-D shape that consists of two quadrilaterals as bases and four parallelograms for the rest of its sides (Fig. 5.11f).

g) parallelepiped:- is the 3-D shape that consists of eight sides all of them being parallelograms (Fig. 5.11g).

h) rectangular-parallelepiped:- is a parallelepiped with all six sides being rectangles (Fig. 5.11h).

i) rhomboid:- is parallelepiped with its six sides being rhombuses Fig. 5.11i).

j) cube:- is the rectangular-parallelepiped with all of its six sides being squares (Fig. 5.11j).

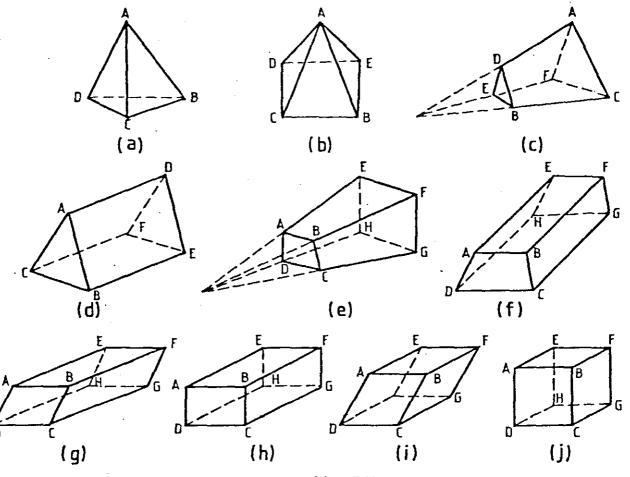


fig. 5.11

5.4.1 Group A (triangle-triangle)

The first member of this group consists of two triangles joined by a

common side. This combination is most likely to represent a tetrahedron, but it could possibly be a square-pyramid, or something else. There are three different cases in this type of connection which give rise to the following definition:-

$$shape 3D(A, tetrahedron): - tetra(A, B, C, D).$$

$$tetra(A, B, C, D): - init2D, trian(A, B, C) * \begin{cases} , trian(C, B, D), \\ , trian(A, C, D), \\ , trian(A, D, B), \end{cases} ;, not shape, not (other1(A, B, C, D)).$$

$$shape 3D(A, square-pyramid) \\ shape 3D(A, other) \end{cases} : - tetra(A, B, C, D).$$

The three cases are illustrated in Fig. 5.12a.

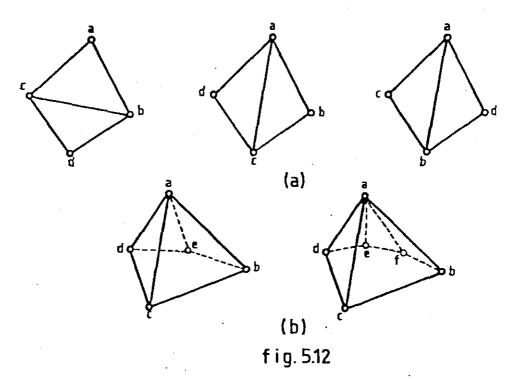


Fig. 5.12b shows the cases of square-pyramid and other respectively. Clause notshape is defined as:-

notshape: - not(trian(A, B, C)), not(quadril(D, E, F, G)).

and makes sure that no other triangle or quadrilateral is connected to the two original triangles.

"Here, a shorter form for the predicate 'trian' is used instead of trian (A,X,B,Y,C,Z) for simplicity reasons. A similar simpler form is used for 'quadril' too. Clause other1 ensures that the two shapes are not connected to anything other than each other, and its definition is:-

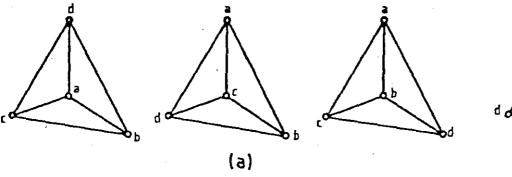
other1(A, B, C, D):-
$$conn(I, J, K), (K ==A), (K ==B), K ==C), (K ==D).$$

The use of '!' (cut operator)⁽¹⁾ is to prevent other alternatives to be sought if the goal before it fails.

The next three cases define again a tetrahedron or an other.

 $tetra1(A, B, C, D):=init2D, trian(A, B, C), \begin{cases} trian(A, D, B), trian(A, C, D) \\ trian(A, C, D), trian(A, B, D), trian(C, B, D) \\ B, D) \\ trian(A, D, B), trian(A, D, C), trian(B, D, C) \end{cases}$

notshape,not(other1(A,B,C,D)). shape3D(A,tetrahedron) shape3D(A,other) }:- tetra1(A,B,C,D).



(b)

fig. 5.13

Fig. 5.13a illustrates the three cases and 5.13b the other. In the last two cases of tetral the extra triangle stands for the base of the tetrahedron. For example the conn's in the last case will be:-

1) conn(a,b) 4) conn(b,d) *7) conn(a,d)

2) conn(b,c) *5) conn(d,c) 8) conn(d,b)

*3) conn(c,a) 6) conn(c,b) 9) conn(b,a)

1,2 and 3 constitute trian(a,b,c), 4,5 and 6 constitute trian(b,d,c)

7,8 and 9 constitute trian(a,d,b) and 7,5 and 3 constitute an extra trian(a,d,c), which would not give a tetral because of the notshape clause.

The last member of this group is the combination of three triangles

one next to the other, with the one in the middle having one side in common with the outside ones. This can be a square-pyramid or something else according to the following definition:-

notshape, other2(A, B, C, D, E).

shape 3D(A, square-pyramid)shape 3D(A, other)other 2(A, B, C, D, E):- conn(I, J, K), (A ==K), (B ==K), (C ==K), (D ==K), (E ==K).

The nine cases are illustrated in Fig. 5.14a and the case for other in Fig.14b.

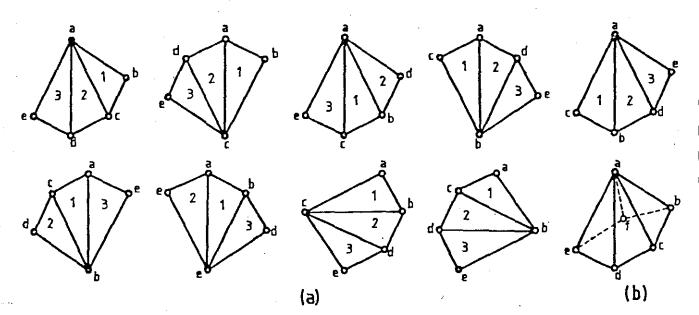


fig. 5.14

5.4.2 Group B (triangle-quadrilateral)

The first member of this group consists of square-pyramids according to the definition:-

$$pyram1(A, B, C, D, E):-init2D, trian(A, B, C), \begin{cases} trian(A, C, D), trian(A, D, E), trian \\ (A, E, B), \\ trian(C, B, D), trian(C, D, E), trian \\ (E, A, C), \\ trian(B, A, D), trian(B, D, E), trian \\ (B, E, C), \end{cases}$$

quadril(B,C,D,E)
quadril(E,A,B,D)
quadril(A,D,E,C)

, notshape,not(other2(A,B,C,D,E)).

shape3D(A, square-pyramid)
shape3D(A, other)

The quadril stands for the base of the square-pyramid. Fig. 5.15a shows the three cases and 5.15b the other.

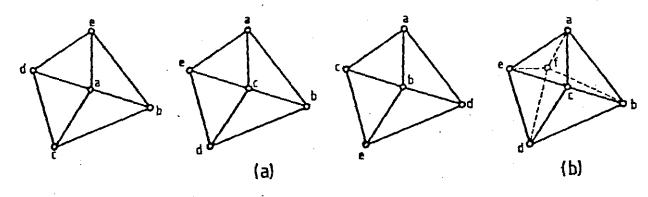


fig. 5.15

The second member contains the combination of a triangle connected with a quadrilateral by a common side. This can be a truncated-triangularprism or a square pyramid or something else defined as:-

$$truntripyr(A, B, C, D, E):= init 2D, \begin{cases} trian(A, B, C), !, \\ quadril(A, D, E, B) \\ quadril(B, D, E, C) \\ quadril(B, D, E, C) \\ quadril(A, B, C, D), !, \\ trian(D, C, E) \\ trian(B, E, C) \end{cases}, inot shape,$$

$$not(other2(A, B, C, D, E)).$$

shape 3D(A, truncated-triangular-pyramid)
shape 3D(A, square-pyramid)
shape 3D(A, other)

Fig. 5.16a shows the 5 cases of the truntripyr and Fig. 5.16b the two alternatives square-pyramid and other.

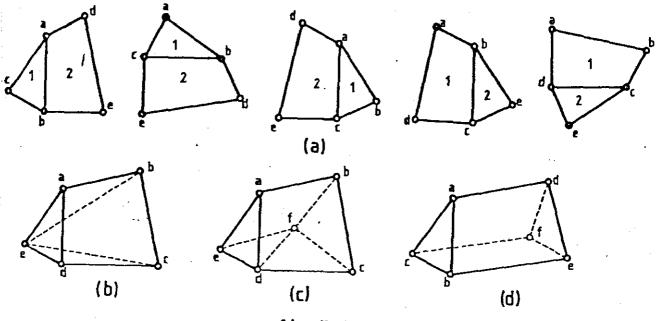


fig. 5.16

If instead of quadril, paralgrm is used in the above definition similarly the 3-D shape triangular-prism, is formed,

shape3D(A, triangular-prism):- triprism(A, B, C, D, E). as shown in Fig. 5.16c.

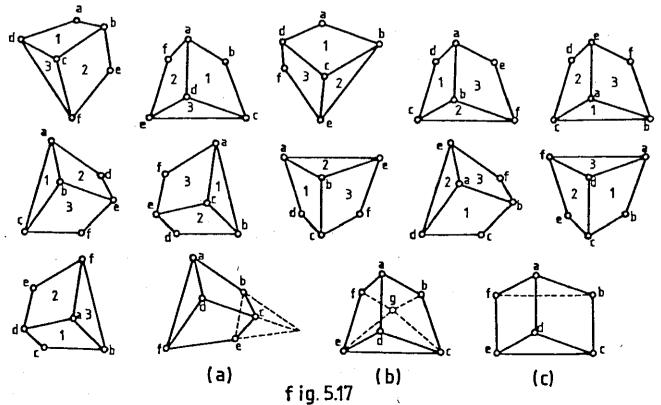
The second member of this group contains combinations consisting of two quadrilaterals and a triangle. The result is interpreted as a truncated-triangular-pyramid according to the definition:-

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} quadril(C,B,E,F), trian \\ (D,C,F), \\ quadril(A,D,E,F), trian \\ (D,C,E), \\ quadril(D,C,E,F), trian \\ (C,B,E), \\ quadril(D,C,E,F), trian \\ (C,B,F), \\ quadril(B,A,E,F), trian \\ (B,A,E), \\ quadril(C,B,E,F), trian \\ (B,A,F), \\ quadril(D,C,E,F), trian \\ (A,D,F), \\ quadril(B,A,E,F), trian \\ (A,D,E), \\ quadril(B,A,E,F), trian \\ (A,D,E), \\ quadril(B,A,E,F), trian \\ (A,D,E), \\ quadril(B,A,D,E), quadril \\ (B,A,E,F), \\ quadril(B,A,D,E), quadril \\ (C,B,E,F), \\ quadril(C,B,D,E), quadril \\ (A,C,E,F), \\ \end{array} \right\}$$

truntripyr1(A, B, C, D, E, F):- init2D,

not shape, not (other3(A, B, C, D, E, F)). $other3(A, B, C, D, E, F):= conn(I, J, K), (A^{=K}), (B^{=K}), (C^{=K}), (D^{=K}), (E^{=K}), (F^{=K})$ shape3D(A, truncated-triangular-pyramid) shape3D(A, other) := truntripyr1(A, B, C, D, E, F).

The 11 cases of truntripyr1 are shown in Fig. 5.17a and other in 5.17b.



If in the place of quadril, paralgrm is used, another class is defined by:shape3D(A, triangular-prism):- triprism1(A, B, C, C, D, F).

shown in Fig. 5.17c.

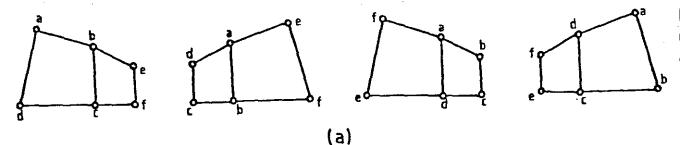
For the classes triprism and triprism1 definition for other is not necessary since these are special cases of truntripyr and truntripyr1 respectively, which include a definition for other.

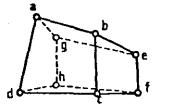
5.4.3 Group C (quadrilateral-quadrilateral)

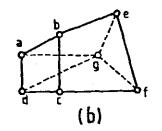
The first member of this group contains combinations of two quadrilaterals connected by a common side. The result is class *truncated-square-pyramid* to be formed, which is defined by:-

 $trunsqrpyr(A, B, C, D, E, F):= init2D, quadril(A, B, C, D), \begin{cases} quadril(C, B, E, F) \\ quadril(B, A, E, F) \\ quadril(A, D, E, F) \\ quadril(D, C, E, F) \end{cases}, ', \\not shape, not(other3(A, B, C, D, E, F)).$ $shape3D(A, truncated-square-pyramid) \\ shape3D(A, other) \end{cases} := truntripyr(A, B, C, D, E).$

Fig. 5.18a shows the four cases and 5.18b the other.





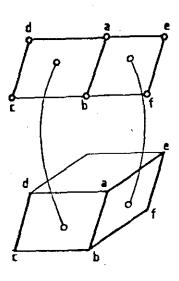


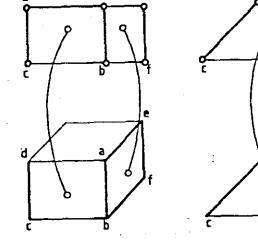


By substituting the quadril's with paralgrm's, rectan's, rhomb's and squar's the following classes arise respectively:-

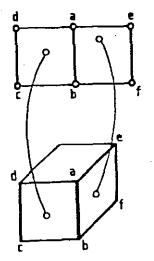
shape3D(A, square-prism)
shape3D(A, triangular-prism)
shape3D(A, triangular-prism)
shape3D(A, parallelepiped)
shape3D(A, rectangular-parallelepiped):- rectparalgrm(A, B, C, D, E, F).
shape3D(A, rhomboid):- rhomboid(A, B, C, D, E, F).
shape3D(A, cube):- cube(A, B, C, D, E, F).

These six new classes are illustrated in Fig. 5.19.





6



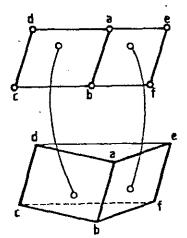


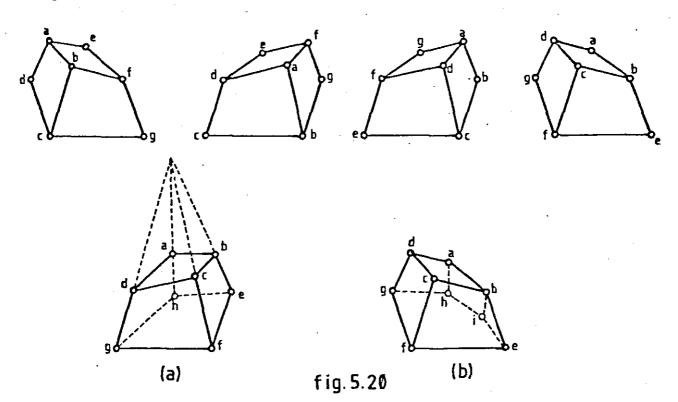
fig. 5.19

Finally the last member of this group is three quadrilaterals connected according to the definition:-

notshape, not(other4(A, B, C, C, E, F, G)). other4(A, B, C, D, E, F, G):= conn(I, J, K), (A ==K), (B ==K), (C ==K), (D ==K), (E ==K), (F ==K), (G ==K).

shape3D(A, truncated-square-pyramid) shape3D(A, other) :- trunsqrpyr1(A, B, C, D, E, F, G).

Fig. 5.20a shows the four cases of trunsqrpyr1 and 5.20b of the other.



If instead of quadril, paralm and rhomb is used respectively in the above definition, four more classes are formed:-

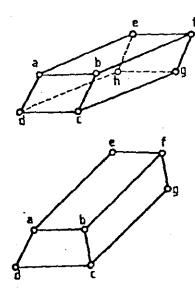
shape3D(A, parallelepiped):- parallelepiped1(A, B, C, D, E, F, G).
shape3D(A, rhomboid)
shape3D(A, rectangular-parallelepiped)
shape3D(A, cube)

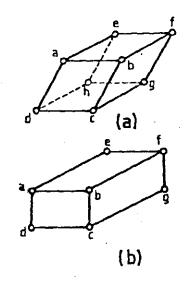
Fig. 5.21a illustrates these classes.

A combination of one quadril and two paralgrm's defines a square-prism. A combination of one rectan and two paralgrm's defines a rectangularparallepiped.

And a combination of one squar and two rhomb's defines a cube. In all of these definitions it is important in what order the different types of quadrilaterals appear and thus there are 12 cases instead of 4 of the original definition.

Fig. 5.21b illustrates a representative of each case.





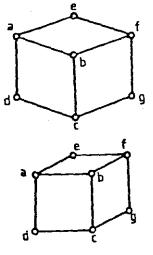


fig. 5.21

As in the previous group B, every one of the combinations just mentioned will be interpreted as other since they are subcases of the general forms trunsqrpyr and trunsqrpyr? which include the interpretation other in their definitions.

Finally any combination that does not belong to the classes examined by the three groups, is classified as other.

5.5 THE 2-D RECOGNIZER AS AN AUTONOMOUS SYSTEM

As an autonomous system the 2-D recognizer can recognize single or unconnected 2-D shapes and classify them into one of the following classes:triangle, quadrilateral, and other. Its main difference from the 2-D recognizer as part of the 3-D recognizer is, that the former can produce some further classifications in the case of triangle and a few extra ones in the case of a quadrilateral. Another main difference is the use of *init2D* in the definitions of the secondary classes. This is necessary because, for example a triangle after its identification is effectively removed from the data by use of the assert predicate, and thus a second use of it is impossible. This means that a definition such as:- shape(A,isosceles):trian(A,X,B,Y,C,Z), equal pair(X,Y,Z), would fail. This is because a trian(a,ab,b,bc,c,ca) has already been met, and since atrian(a,ab,b,bc,c,ca) has been asserted to the data, the first goal of the body would fail.

According to this 2-D recognizer, a triangle is *isosceles* if it has a pair of equal sides:-

shape(A, isosceles):- init2D, trian(A, X, B, Y, C, Z), equal pair(X, Y, Z).
or it is equilateral if it has all its three sides equal:-

shape(A, equilateral):- init2D, trian(A, X, B, Y, C, 2), equalline(X, Y), equalline (X, 2) or it has a right angle if the theorem of Pythagoras is applied among the length of its sides:-

shape(A, right angled):- init2D, trian(A, X, B, Y, C, Z), right(X, Y, Z). or finally it has an obtuse angle if the theorem of the obtuse angle is applied among its sides:-

shape(A, obtuse angled):- init2D, trian(A, X, B, Y, C, Z), obtuse(X, Y, Z). On the other hand a quadrilateral is non-convex if the sum of its angles is less than $36\phi^{0}$ (see also 3.4.3d),

shape(A, non-convex):- init2D, quadril(A, B, C, D), non-convex(A, B, C, D).

or it is a trapezium if it has one pair of opposite sides parallel:

or finally it is an *isosceles trapezium* if it is a trapezium with equal non-parallel sides.

shape(A, trapezium):- trapez(A, W, B, X, C, Y, D, Z), ((equaline(X, Z), not equalline(W, Y)); (equalline(W, Y), not (equalline(X, Z)))).

As other is classified any shape that is neither a triangle nor a quadrilateral:-

shape(A, other):- init2D, not(trian(A, B, C)), not(quadril(D, E, F, G)).

5.6 A COMPARISON OF THE 2-D AND THE 3-D RECOGNIZER

The 2-D recognizer examines combinations of 1-D sides to define its .

The *conn* predicates in the 2-D recognizer correspond to a single 2-D shape, while in the 3-D one they correspond to more than one 2-D shape.

A shape recognized by the 2-D recognizer is classified as *other* if it does not belong to any of the other classes. In the 3-D one, every 3-D shape can be classified as *other* because there are invisible sides.

The question 'shape(A,X)' refers to any of the vertices of the shape in the 2-D recognizer, while in the 3-D one 'a' is preferred to 'A'. This is because there is more than one way of connection between the 2-D shapes.

In the 3-D recognizer 4 types of *other* are used to prevent 2-D shapes, non-recognizable by the 2-D recognizer, to be taken as *noshape*. Every one of them corresponds to a different number of *visible* vertices of the 3-D object.

The 3-D recognizer allows multiple classifications, because of the ambiguity in the interpretation of some 3-D shapes.

The complete recognizer written in PROLOG is presented in Appendix 4.

SUMMARY - CONCLUSIONS

- The recognizer can be split into two interrelated parts, the 2-D recognizer and the 3-D recognizer.
- The 2-D recognizer examines the structure of 2-D shapes, consisting of 1-D side combinations and classifies them into *one* of the classes:*triangle*, *quadrilateral*, *other*.
- The 3-D recognizer examines the structure of 3-D shapes, consisting of 2-D side combinations and classifies them in some of the classes:tetrahedron, square-pyramid, truncated-triangular-pyramid, truncated-square-pyramid.
- By using relations among the main components of the 2-D shapes further secondary classifications are made:triangle (isosceles, equilateral, right angled, obtuse angled) quadrilateral (non-convex, trapezium, isosceles-trapezium,

parallelogram, rectangle, rhombus, square).

- These give rise to further classifications of the 3-D shapes:triangular-prism, square-prism, parallelepiped, rectangular-parallelepiped, rhomboid, cube.
- The 2-D recognizer is mainly part of the 3-D one but it can be used on its own with some minor modifications.

REFERENCES

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 5, University of Edinburgh, 1980, Section 4.

Chapter

6

CONCLUSION - DISCUSSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters the successive stages leading towards the recognition of 3-D shapes have been examined separately. This chapter attempts to describe how the whole process works and to draw some conclusions from it. The process is divided into four parts:- the function of the hardware, the preprocessing programs, the real-vertex verification programs and the recognition programs. The effectiveness of each one of them is examined and a number of suggestions for further development is made. Finally, the last paragraph contains figures and photographs which illustrate some results of the project.

6.2 THE PROCESS AS A WHOLE

The process starts by pointing the camera at the object which is to be recognized. The object is normally white (or of some light colour) and is placed against a black background. Once in focus, the brightness and contrast knobs are adjusted until a satisfactory picture appears on the T.V. monitor. If the object is very small, the zoom facility of the camera is used to magnify it appropriately. A spot light, illuminates the object from one side or above, in such a way that its shadow disappears and the different faces (sides) of it, have different gray level representations on the screen. This is very important, since a successful recognition is very much dependent on the condition that different sides are represented by pixels of different gray values (normally two levels apart, although this depends on the parameters of the isolation procedure). With all the above adjustments carefully made, a frame is grabbed by pressing the 'FRAME GRAB' switch of the ROBOT. From this point the programs are ready to run. By giving the appropriate commands ('MAIN\$G' for the micro and 'a.out' for the VAX) the two programs start and do the following:-

The micro transfers the digitized picture into locations 4000-7FFF and starts the preprocessing operations. First it saves a copy of the original picture in locations A0000-DFFF in order to use it later. The first transfer lasts about 30 seconds. Then the picture is scanned and all the pixels of different pixel values, are summed up and stored in locations 300-31D(every sum is stored in two bytes). The pixels of the background are not taken into account. The above found sums are added together to form the number of pixels which constitute the main object, and this value is stored in location 320. The next process selects the gray levels with partial sum over 6% of the entire number of the main object pixels, which are saved in locations 160 onwards. However there is a condition, that a gray level is saved, only if it differs by two at least from the previous saved gray level. At the end of this procedure an end marker FF is placed at the end of the array of significant gray levels. For every one of these values until FF is

reached the following sequence of operations is performed. The original frame is masked so that the current significant gray level value is turned to white (\emptyset) and all the other pixels to black (\emptyset F). The obtained picture (which is an isolated face of the object) is then averaged and edged and the edge is followed. If the following is successful, two arrays are formed, one for the coordinates of the detected vertices $(4\phi\phi-47F)$, and one of the pointers to those of the previous addresses that contain real vertices (480-4FF). If the procedure of edge-following fails and the recoverer can not pick up the edge again, then the procedure is ended with a message FAIL on the screen. In this case the object can not be recognized and is by default classified as other. After a successful edge-following a message SEND appears on the screens and it signals that the two arrays for one side of the object are ready to be handed to the VAX minicomputer for the verification phase. At this point it should be mentioned that all the just traced cells of the boundary (all different from ϕ) become black, except for those being white. This copes with the case of two disjoint sides with the same pixel values. After this the follower is called again, and this is continued until no more white cells exist on the picture (single pixels are not taken into account). Next the original picture is loaded back to $4\phi\phi\phi$ -7FFF and it is masked according to the new significant gray level. The same sequence as before is then followed until FF is met. This is signalled with an END message on the screen.

On the other side, the program in VAX is waiting for data, i.e. the values of the arrays which determine the vertices of each side of the object. When that data has been received two new arrays are created V[51] for the vertices and N[16] for the pointers. The end of these two arrays is marked by the end marker -1. If there is no end marker at the end of the pointer array N[16] the procedure fails and a message: '2-D shape with more than 15

vertices, algorithm fails' is given on the screen. This suggests automatically that the 3-D object is classified as other. On the other hand if V[51] has got no end marker, a message: 'too many vertices, augment dimension of V[]' indicates that V[51] is not enough to contain all the coordinates and needs enlargement before the procedure is resumed. Finally, every time a new set of arrays arrive, a counter is kept and when more than 5 are received, a message:- 'solid with more than 5 sides, algorithm fails' is printed on the screen. This means again that the object is classified as other. For each one set of arrays a corresponding set of clauses is formed and are written in a file named data which is created in the first round. It is obvious that before every application of the whole process this file needs to be deleted, so it does not contain any old clauses. When the first value of N[51] is the end marker the end of the procedure is signalled by a message:-'end of procedure'.

The final phase, is the phase of recognition. This is done by *entering* PROLOG first. Then the two recognizers 2D and 3D, and file *data* are consulted. Finally a goal 'shape 3D(a, X)' is given. If the object is described by any of existing structures then a message:- '**(top)PROVED: shape 3D(a, cube)' will be a possible answer. By typing ';' each time at the end of every answer, all the alternatives will be obtained. When there is no alternative an answer 'no' signals the end of the procedure. If the first answer is other then the 2-D recognizer can be tried by typing:- 'shape(A, X)'. If the shape is a recognizable 2-D one, the correct answer will appear on the screen, otherwise a message:- '**(top)PROVED: shape(a, other)' will be the end of the recognition phase. Of course alternatives can be sought in this case too by the use of ';'. Fig. 6.1 presents a flowchart of the whole process.

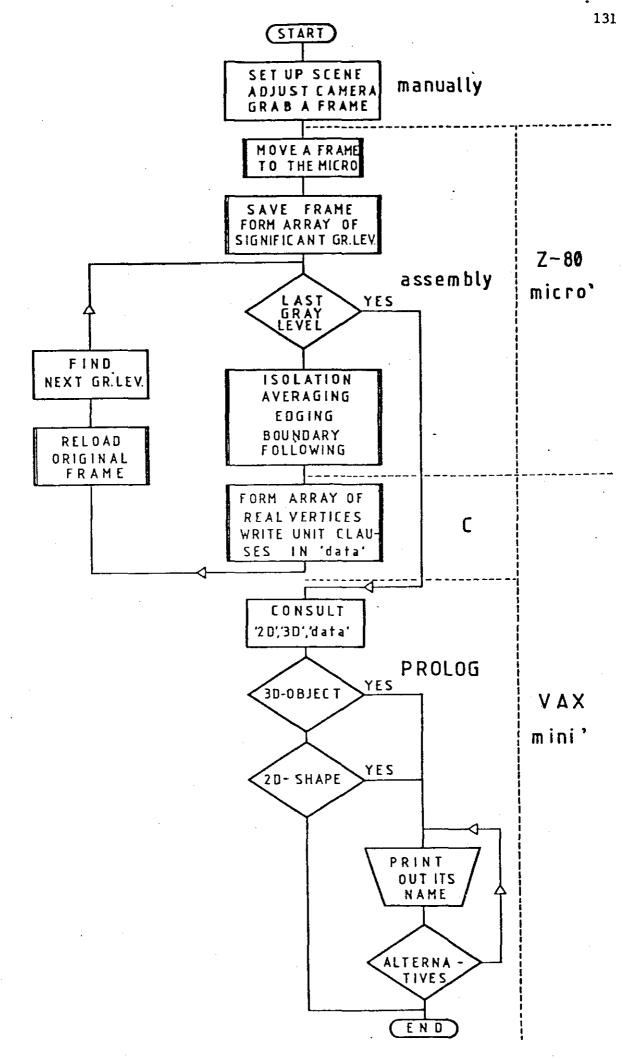


fig. 6.1

6.3 DISCUSSION

First of all, it should be pointed out that the objective of this project is the development of a system that recognizes simple 3-D objects, by combining efficiently the developed software with the existing hardware. The latter consists mainly of a number of elementary, unsophisticated and relatively inexpensive equipment, which often need the support of the software to perform their tasks. In the following discussion the function of the main phases of the system is examined with respect to their further development and improvement, keeping the cost as low as possible.

The hardware, as it stands, is quite inflexible because there is no communication between the processor and the camera or the lighting. This means that once set, no further adjustments can be made to the scene to obtain different views of the object or more detailed shots of some ambiguous parts of it. Basically, a great deal of human factor is involved in the setting up of the scene, and there is no automation in the various adjustments. What it is suggested in this case is a mechanical arm with pan and tilt facilities which is directed from the processor itself. This can move the camera so that shots from different angles are taken and they are either combined or the most descriptive is kept. When ambiguous areas exist, where the detection of an edge is not very easy, the mechanism should be able to move the camera closer to these areas, so that a clearer shot be taken. An automatic zoom control could do that. The information of the different shots will be processed so that a more perspective image of the object be obtained. This could be the first part of a modelling process that gives a very descriptive model of the object with even the hidden parts of it. A more sophisticated technique could perhaps involve two cameras taking a stereoscopic view of the object. The quantization of the picture into 128×128 pixels, could be increased to 256×256 or 512×512 for better quality of picture. The

resolution (16 gray levels) is sufficient. The ROBOT should be modified so that the processed image is transmitted to the T.V. monitor for a faster and more precise representation of it. The EPROM of the printer can be reprogrammed so that a special set of 16 characters represent the 16 gray levels of resolution. That saves time by avoiding multiple overprintings and at the same time gives a better visual impression to the human eye.

The main advantage of using the microcomputer system is that the programs can be written into EPROMs and occupy very little space. For example, a microcomputer system adequately programmed could be part of the visual system of a robot. On the other hand there are drawbacks, such as limitations in memory and slower processing. It takes 30 seconds for the micro to transfer a frame from the ROBOT to its own memory. The longest of the preprocessing operations is the edging; it takes about $3\frac{1}{2}$ minutes to be completed! Finally the programming is done in Assembly, which is a low level language. The latter has the only advantage that it copes easily and efficiently with bit manipulation, but in general it has limited capabilities. Arithmetic operations are performed in the Hexadecimal numerical system (not very familiar) and multiplication and division have to be written by the programmer as separate routines. There are no array facilities and no trigonometric and other common functions. Finally the code is not very clear for everyone to follow. A weakness of the preprocessing phase is that its effectiveness depends very much on a good original picture. The different sides of the object have to be very distinct from each other and This this means perfect illumination and sufficient contrast between them. weakness can be overcome by introducing a spatial differentiation i.e. an operation in which the 2-D difference of light intensity at each pixel and the direction of the gradient are calculated by a special 3×3 array.

This involves some trigonometric functions and thus a more powerful language is required.

The program in C is a transit phase between the use of the micro and the final phase of recognition. Basically it deals with some operations which would take a very long time for the micro to perform. Thus they speed up the process and prepare the unit clauses which will be the *data* for PROLOG. A further development of this phase could be to supply the program with a routine capable of drawing lines. This would give the process the advantage of drawing the figures, that would act as more precise models extracted from the original picture. The latter combined with the mechanical arm facility mentioned earlier, could cope with the invisible sides of the object and their representation on the drawn figure.

Both the 2-D and 3-D recognizer are written in PROLOG. A major advantage of this is that the structure of PROLOG makes easy further modifications so that more specific classifications can be obtained. Ωn the other hand the programs can be made capable of recognizing more complicated objects. This is achieved by simply adding the necessary clauses that cope with the new figures at the end of the program. Minor alterations have to be made though, in order to make the two programs compatible. The 2-D recognizer copes with all the possible straight line shapes with maximum number of vertices four apart from the shape in Fig. 6.2a (which is taken as two triangles with a common vertex). The 3-D recognizer, deals with most of the objects that are combinations of recognizable 2-D shapes. Every object consists of four triangles or three quadrilaterals at most. This leaves out the cases of Fig. 6.2b and c. The effect of perspective view and the invisible sides make the task of the 3-D recognizer more difficult. Thus the last alternative of every case is other.

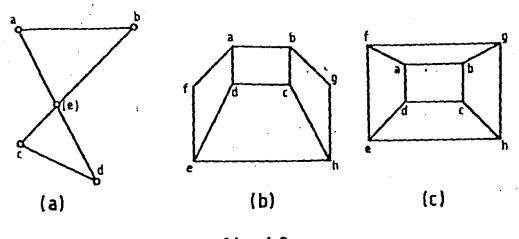


fig. 6.2

Of course that could be avoided if the mechanical arm was used to move the camera round the object in order to see all its sides.

A very interesting point arises from the comparison of the present grammar with the PLEX grammars. The latter use as primitives entities (line segments) with N-attaching points, i.e. they treat the 3-D shapes as a set of interconnected line segments, according to their rules. The present grammar gets round this by treating the 3-D shapes as combinations of interconnected 2-D shapes. In other words it interprets a concatenation of 2-D shapes as a 3-D object. The advantage of this is that the only primitives it uses are the *conn*'s, which are the same for both 2-D and 3-D, while a plex grammar would use _napes with 2 and 3 attaching points respectively.

6.4 RESULTS

This section contains some results from a number of applications on 2-D and 3-D shapes.

a) a square:- The actual frame (the gray levels are in reverse order) as is shown in Fig.3. Some noise can be observed above the top-left corner and near the left-hand side of the shape, in the form of two white stripes parallel to it. Finally there is some distortion near the bottom-right corner. Fig. 4 shows the shape after the averaging-intensification operator

.................

FIGURE

IGURE /

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has been applied on the original picture. The results are obvious. The noise has been eliminated, the white gaps have been filled and the rough part of the right-hand side has been smoothened-up. The edge operator leaves the boundary of the shape as shown in Fig. 5.

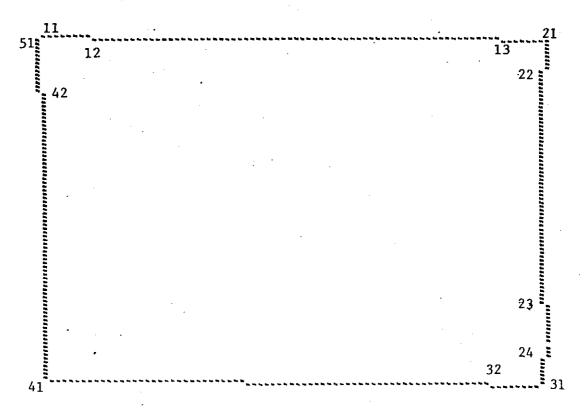


FIGURE 5

The explanation of the little gap near the botton of the right-hand side is given in 2.4.3. The follower marks the 11,21,31,41,51 as realvertices and 12,13,22,23,24,32,42 as pseudo-vertices. It also copes with the gap of the boundary between 23 and 24. All the pseudo-vertices are eliminated because they are within the prespecified tolerance and 51 is also eliminated for being too close to 11. In more detail the vertexdetector marks 11 as the first rear-vertex and continues until *it* comes across 13. At this point 12 was not marked as anything because it was just the link of two units. By applying the first criterion for pseudovertices both 12 and 13 are marked as such. 21 is marked as a real-vertex

according to the first criterion for real-vertices. 22,32,42 are marked as pseudo-vertices for the same reason as 12 and 13, and, 23 and 24 according to the fourth criterion (§3.3.1). Finally, 51 is the last boundary cell and as such is a real-vertex. These four real-vertices give rise to the following list of unit clauses and answers from the recognizer:-

conn(a,ab,b). line(ab,89). slope(ab,91). sqrline(ab,7921).

conn(b,bc,c). line(bc,78). slope(bc,1). sqrline(bc,6Ø84).

conn(c,cd,d). line(cd,89). slope(cd,89). sqrline(cd,7921).

conn(d,da,a). line(da,81). slope(da,1). sqrline(da,6561).

angle(a,9Ø). angle(b,9Ø). angle(c,92). angle(d,88).

shape 3D(a,X).
no.
shape(A,X).
** (top) PROVED : shape(a,quadrilateral);
** (top) PROVED : shape(a,parallelogram);
** (top) PROVED : shape(a,rectangle);
no.

The actual shape is a square but because of some distortion in the digitized picture adjacent sides ab and bc are not equal (within the tolerance of equal1) and thus the final classification is: rectangle.

b) a triangle:- The picture of the shape is given in Fig.6. The procedure is similar to the previous case and the unit clauses with the answers of the recognizer are given below:-

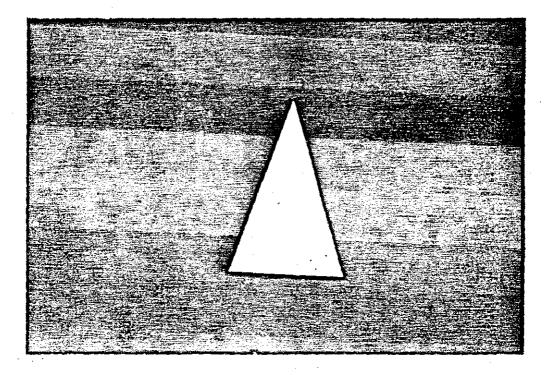


FIGURE 6

conn(a,ab,b). line(ab,106). slope(ab,76). sqrline(ab,11236).

conn(b,bc,c). line(bc,62). slope(bc,6). sqrline(bc,3844).

conn(c,ca,a). line(ca,102). slope(ca,110). sqrline(ca,10404).

angle(a,34). angle(b,7Ø). angle(c,76).

shape 3D(a,X).
no.
shape(A,X).
** (top) PROVED : shape(a,triangle);
no.

The lengths of ab and ca are not quite equal and thus it is not an isosceles-triangle.

c) a non-convex-quadrilateral: - Fig.7 shows the actual picture of the shape and the answers of the recognizer are given below: -

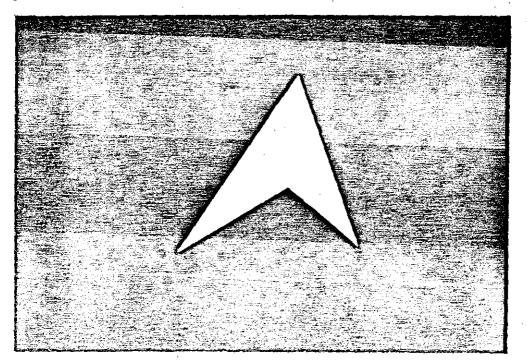


FIGURE 7

conn(a,ab,b). line(ab,1Ø3). slope(ab,71). sqrline(ab,106Ø9).

conn(b,bc,c). line(bc,49). slope(bc,43). sqrline(bc,24Ø1).

conn(c,cd,d). line(cd,67). slope(cd,148). sqrline(cd,4489).

conn(d,da,a). line(da,116). slope(da,12Ø). sqrline(da,13456).

angle(a,49). angle(b,28). angle(c,1Ø5). angle(d,28).

shape 3D(a,X).
no.
shape(A,X).
** (top) PROVED : shape(a,quadrilateral) ;
** (top) PROVED : shape(a,non-convex-quadrilateral) ;
no.

Here the fact that the sum of its four angles is less than $36\emptyset$ classifies it as *non-convex*.

d) a tetrahedron:- The picture of the object is shown in Fig. 8. First the left-hand side is preserved and the other is masked to background (Fig. 9a). Then the right-hand side is processed (Fig. 9b). Finally the unit clauses obtained and the answers of the recognizer are given below:-

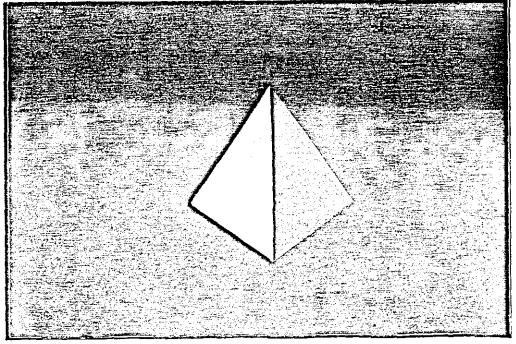
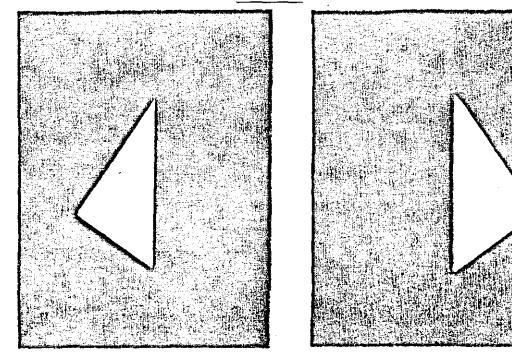


FIGURE 8



(a)

FIGURE 9

conn((a,ab,b). line(ab,8Ø). slope(ab,89). sqrline(ab,64ØØ).

conn(b,bc,c). line(bc,51). slope(bc,22). sqrline(bc,26Ø1).

conn(c,ca,a). line(ca,76). slope(ca,126). sqrline(ca,5776).

angle(a,37). angle(b,67). angle(c,76). conn(a,ae,e). line(ae,61). slope(ae,55). sqrline(ae,2721).

conn(e,eb,b). line(eb,45). slope(eb,138). sqrline(eb,2025).

conn(b,ba,a). line(ba,8Ø). slope(ba,89). sqrline(ba,64ØØ).

angle(a,34). angle(e,97). angle(b,49).

shape 3D(a,X).
** (top) PROVED : shape 3D(a,tetrahedron) ;
** (top) PROVED : shape 3D(a,other) ;
no.

e) a triangular-prism: - The object is shown in Fig. 10 and the answers of

the recognizer are as follows:-

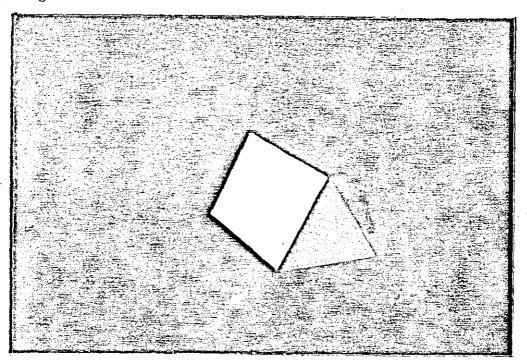


FIGURE 10

conn(a,ab,b).	conn(b,bf,f).
line(ab,52).	line(bf,52).
slope(ab,25).	slope(bf,64).
sqrline(ab,27Ø4).	sqrline(bf,27Ø4).
conn(b,bc,c).	conn(f,fc,c).
line(bc,58).	line(fc,5Ø).
slope(bc,118).	slope(fc,175).
sqrline(bc,3364).	sqrline(fc,25ØØ).
conn(c,cd,d).	conn(c,cb,b).
line(cd,5Ø).	line(cb,58).
slope(cd,42).	slope(cb,118).
sqrline(cd,25ØØ).	sqrline(cb,3364).
conn(d,da,a).	angle(b,54).
line(da,43).	angle(f,69).
slope(da,113).	angle(c,57).
angle(a,88). angle(b,87). angle(c,76). angle(d,1Ø9).	
	3D(a, square-pyramid) ; 3D(a, truncated-triangular-pyramid) ; 3D(a, other) ;

Because of the perception, parallelogram (abcd) is not represented as such on the 2-D picture and thus the object is not classified as a *triangular*prism.

d) a truncated-square-pyramid:- Fig. 11 shows the actual object and the answers of the recognizer are given below.

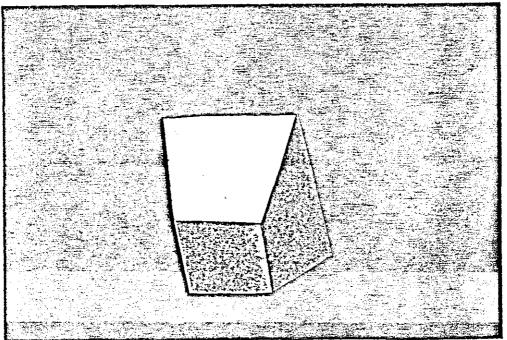


FIGURE 12

conn(a,ab,b).	conn(d,dc,d).	conn(b,bf,f).
line(ab,9Ø).	line(dc,5Ø).	line(bf,91).
slope(ab,Ø).	slope(dc,Ø).	slope(bf,83).
sqrline(ab,64ØØ).	sqrline(dc,25ØØ).	sqrline(bf,8281).
conn(b,bc,c).	conn(c,cg,g).	conn(j,jg,g).
line(bc,67).	line(cg,42).	line(jg,32).
slope(bc,117).	slope(cg,75).	slope(jg,16Ø).
sqrline(bc,4489).	sqrline(cg,1764).	sqr(jg,1Ø24).
conn(c,cd,d).	conn(g,gh,h).	conn(g,gc,c).
line(cd,5Ø).	line(gh,5Ø).	line(gc,42).
slope(cd,Ø).	slope(gh,Ø).	slope(gc,75).
sqrline(cd,25ØØ).	sqrline(gh,25ØØ).	sqrline(gc,1764).
conn(d,da,a).	conn(h,hd,d).	conn(c,cb,b).
line(da,6Ø).	line(hd,42).	line(cb,67).
slope(da,9Ø).	slope(hd,75).	slope(cb,117).
sqrline(da,36ØØ).	sqrline(hd,1764).	sqrline(cb,4489).
angle(a,9Ø).	angle(c,?5).	angle(b,34).
angle(b,63).	angle(g,1Ø5).	angle(j,1Ø3).
angle(c,117).	angle(h,?5).	angle(g,85).
angle(d,9Ø).	angle(d,1Ø5).	angle(c,138).
	e 3D(a,truncated-square-p e 3D(a,other) ;	yramid);

From various attempts to recognize 2-D and 3-D shapes the following general conclusions can be drawn:-

no.

- a) The 2-D shapes are easier to recognize (because of the high contrast between the main figure and the background) and unless there is slight distortion in the digitized picture, the results are perfect (within the limits of the 2-D recognizer).
- b) The 3-D objects are harder to recognize if the lighting conditions are not absolutely right. A common feature of the digitized picture is that the same side may be represented by more than two gray colours, which means that it is taken as two different sides (because sides with gray levels differing by two are considered as different).
- c) Objects with fewer sides are easier to recognize than those with more

sides. For example a *tetra* with 2 sides is easier to be recognized than a *pyram* (3 sides) or a *pyram1* (4 sides).

SUMMARY - CONCLUSIONS

- The whole process consists of the following procedures:
 - a) Manual set up of the scene and adjustment of hardware.
 - b) Programs in Assembly run on the micro, including selection of significant gray levels, isolation of faces, averaging, edging, boundary following and vertex detection.
 - c) Programs in C run on the VAX, including verification of real vertices and formation of unit clauses.
 - d) Programs in PROLOG run on the VAX, including the 2-D and 3-D recognizers.
- Some suggestions for further development corresponding to the four phases above are:
 - a) Introduction of a *mechanican arm* with *pan* and *tilt* facilities, larger frame, reception of the processed image on the T.V. monitor and modification of the printer's character EPROM.
 - b) Spatial differentiation of the picture.
 - c) A line drawing routine.
 - d) Additional clauses for further classification.
- Compared with PLEX grammars the 3-D recognizer merits in the fact that it uses the same primitives for both 3-D and 2-D shapes.

Appendix

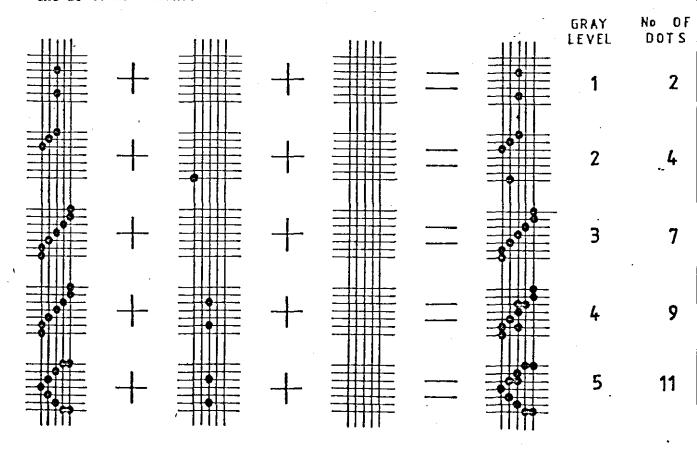
CHARACTER SELECTION FOR IMAGE PRINTING

The visual representation of the 16 gray levels of each pixel-value, is obtained by three successive overprintings of characters taken from the printer's character set. TREND's printing head uses a 5×7 dot matrix, and its character set consists of 64 elements, including *space*. These are 10 numerals, 26 letters and 28 symbols. The number of overprintings arises from the fact that 3 is the minimum number of the existing characters that are necessary to be printed one on top of the other in order to obtain the last gray level, which is *black*. This corresponds to a matrix full of dots. Conventionally the first gray level is *white* for space or blank and takes value \emptyset . The above makes obvious the way the other intermediate levels are obtained. The principle is to fill the grid with enough dots to give the human eye the right impression, according to the gray level that they represent. Another constraint is that the number of dots has to be between \emptyset and 35 (=5×7):

1

 $\emptyset \leq \text{no of dots} \leq 35$

The list of 64 alphanumericals and symbols is given in Fig. A1.2. first examination shows that some characters are more suitable than others due to their properties of symmetry. For example '+' has four axes and a centre of symmetry while 'F' has none. An obvious method to set up the list would be to find every new combination by adding a constant step to the no. of dots which represents the previous one. Since $35 \div 15 = 2.3$ the step is determined to be between 2 and 3. This is more or less followed although some times step 1 or 4 is used instead. This is due to the fact that combinations with dots more symmetrically and equally spaced are preferred to others with the same number of dots but less symmetric. For example, for no. 6, represented by 14 dots a combination of '(', ')' and ':' was preferred to say 'K' and two spaces. Finally in very close cases a personal decision was made by placing stripes of different combinations one next to the other. The combination that gave the best impression to a smooth transition from one level to another was preferred. Fig. Al.1 illustrates the 16 combinations.



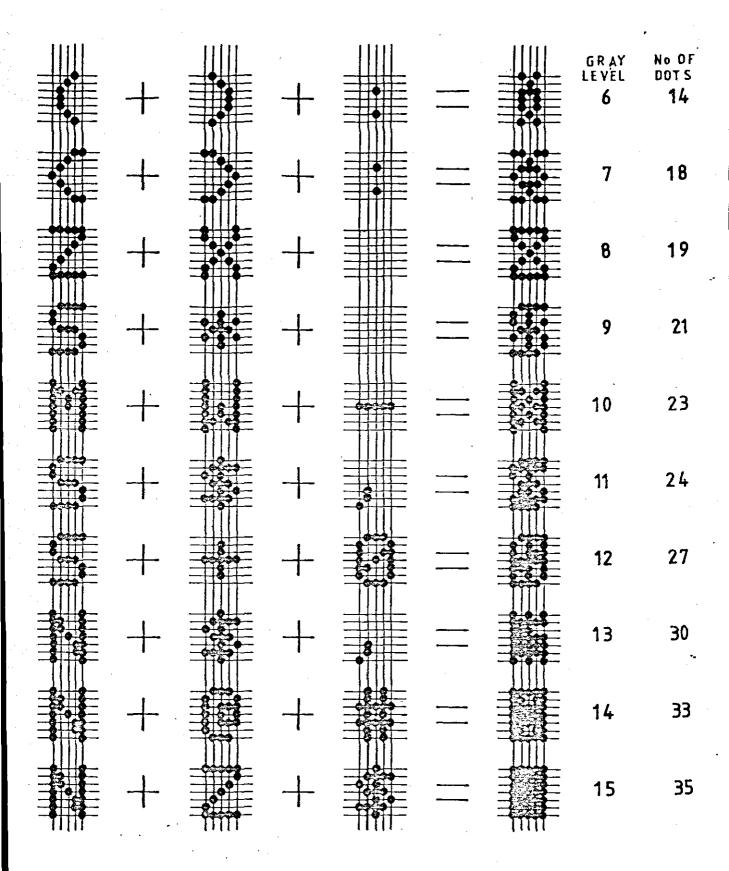


fig. A 1.1

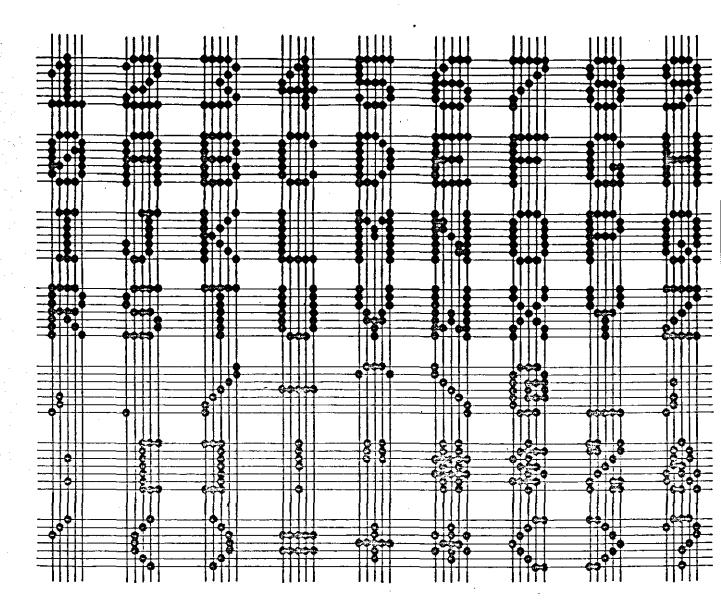


fig. A1.2

Appendix

2

PROGRAMS IN 'ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE' (Z-8Ø)

These consist of the following programs:-

MAIN:- This program calls 4 subroutines to perform the preprocessing operations on the digitized picture.

COLL:- This transfers the picture from the framestore of the ROBOT to the memory locations $4000-7FFF^*$ of the microcomputer system. It first initializes the serial interface by loading its status word with 43 (master reset) and 52 (clockrate divided by 64) and prepares the micro to receive start receiving data by setting the data word (FF0B) to 1. Then subroutine INPUT is called to start inputting data into the micro. The data are not stored at consecutive locations because of the difference in rates discussed in 2.2.2. Thus the first pixel is stored in 4001 the next in 4003 etc. until the end of the frame is met (location 8000). Then the next pixel

All the addresses and data values mentioned in this chapter are in the hexadecimal numerical system.

goes to 4002, the other to 4005 and so on. When the whole frame has been transferred the procedure stops.

INPUT:- This is the subroutine, which loads the pixels into the micro. It first tests the last bit of status word FFØA to see if it is set and if yes, it loads accumulator A with a byte from the data word FFØB.

RCTF:- This subroutine corrects a hardware fault in the *ROBOT*, which reverses the pixel-values from \emptyset 8 to \emptyset F, i.e. gives pixel-value \emptyset 8 for black and vice versa.

PRGM:- This subroutine calls all the procedures responsible for the preprocessing and boundary following, which will be discussed later.

TRND:- This subroutine prints the equivalent of the digitized picture on the TREND printer. First it forms a set-up table with the limit values of the picture to be printed at locations 40 and 42 and the base address of the character-set (representing the 16 pixel values) at location 43. Then it calls *PICT* to print the picture. Since this is done in two parts, bottom and top respectively, a new look-up table with limit values is formed. *CRLF* subroutine leaves two blank lines between the two parts.

PICT:- This subroutine performs the three over-printings that form the final visual representation of the digitized picture on a piece of paper. Basically it compares the pixel-value of each pixel with a number between \emptyset and \emptyset F and calls *OUTP* to print out the appropriate character from the special set stored at locations 8B \emptyset Ø-8B2F. Before the second and third pass, an offset of 1 \emptyset is added to the location of the first pass so that each time a new character (actually the second and third of the set for this level) is printed. After the third pass, a new line starts and the procedure continues until the whole picture is printed out. The procedure can be modified to print the average of two lines in order to

give a more or less square picture (because the height of the character $\approx 2 \times \text{its width}$).

OUTP:- This subroutine outputs one character on the printer everytime it is called. It first tests the first bit of the serial interface status byte if it is set, i.e. a character can be output. If the character is different to control S (13 ASCII) then it outputs it via register B.

A detailed form of the above is given in Listing A.

At this point it should be mentioned that subroutine PRGM is chosen in such a way that can be supplied with additional calls of more than one subroutine. At present it calls only PROG, which performs all the preprocessing operations on the picture. The subroutines called by PROC follow a general form, which is :- At first they are divided into major or primary and minor or secondary subroutines. The primary subroutines are longer and call a number of secondary ones to perform their tasks. The latter are generally shorter and can be divided into two categories too. In the first belong those that perform minor operations such as comparisons, additions etc. and they are used to make the primary subroutines easier to follow. In the second belong subroutines that are crucial because they perform major operations such as detection of vertices, determination of coordinates etc. In the following the function of the primary subroutines will be discussed with emphasis only on the important secondary subroutines. It must be made clear that due to four character labels, the same labels have been used more than once. In case of confusing labels the real address can be used as a lead to the right subroutine. In the meanwhile care has been taken that all the subroutines called by the same primary subroutine are grouped together. Finally, apart from the labels of main subroutines AVRG and EDGE, labels within the range 2000-2FFF and 3000-3FFF are irrelevant.

PROC:- This subroutine first calls WORD which stores the message 'SEND' in locations 50-53. Then it calls PRCG which finds the sums of pixel values different than the background (0F) and stores them in locations 300-31D. These locations have been previously zeroized by calling ZERO from WORD. Next, SUM is called to form the sum of all non-background pixels and store it in location 320. Then subroutine SLCT is called.

SLCT:- This divides the sum in $32\emptyset$ by 16, i.e. finds the 6% of the main object pixels and stores it at $32\emptyset$. Then it checks every partial sum of the pixel-values against the value in $32\emptyset$ (TEST) to find out how many of them exceed the 6% of the main object pixels. The ones that satisfy this and differ by two at least are stored in locations 16 \emptyset onwards. The end marker FF is placed at the end of this list.

Then *PROC* calls *MOVE* to save the frame in locations $A\emptyset\emptyset\emptyset$ -DFFF. It looks for the first pixel-value at 16 \emptyset saves it at 15 \emptyset and if it is not FF in which case it stops by giving a message '*END*' on the screen (*OUTB*) - it calls the following subroutines:-

ISLT:- This scans the frame and turns to ØF (black) every pixel with values different than the current value at 150 or that plus one. The result is to isolate an area of cells with pixel-values the same or one apart.

LOAD:- This reloads the frame into $4\phi\phi\phi$ -7FFF and calls DATA to set a look-up table of values used by subroutine EDGE. These are loaded into locations $1\phi\phi$ -14F. Listing B presents all the subroutines discussed above.

AVRG:- This subroutine performs the averaging operation. It calls INTL to set the starting address of the operation (in $2\phi\phi$) the starting value of the index register IY (in $2\phi2$) the final value of IY (in $2\phi4$) the step for the first address in a new row (in $2\phi6$) and the step for the last address in a new row (in $2\phi8$). Finally it calls *OLD* which initializes *EDGE*

(will be discussed later) and zeroizes IV. IY is used as a row index of the two dimensional array. Then FRST sets the top left pixel of the 3x3 window (in 21Ø), the test value for the top right pixel of the window (in 212), the test value for moving the window one row down (in 218), and the test value for the bottom right pixel of the window (in 21A). The above mentioned locations are used to keep the new values of the window as it scans the picture. Then UPDA loads register HL (2 bytes) with the current test top right pixel address index register IX with the top left pixel address and IY with the new row value, before the window moves another row down. A little loop finds the sum of the 9 pixels of the window (SUM). Subroutines LOOP and STEP check the limit values of the window against the test values and DO makes the appropriate settings to move to the next row (within the window). Then MAIN is called to do the main task. It compares the above found sum with a value decided by the user (here 4B). If the sum is greater than it, ØF is added to the current pixel-value, if it is less then the same quantity is subtracted from the pixel-value. Finally in case of equality the current pixel-value remains unchanged. It can be seen that this routine works in both 2 gray level and 16 gray level occasions, because in the second case the intensification factor can be changed accordingly. Subroutine SHFL shifts the pixel-value four places to the left for reasons mentioned in 2.3.3. Subroutine ONE checks if the end of a row is reached and if not ROW does the appropriate settings to move to the next pixel across. Subroutine TWO checks if the end of the frame is reached and if not CLMN does the appropriate settings to move the window to the next row. Finally when the end condition is reached subroutine SHFT shifts the pixelvalue back, four places to the right (2.3.3).

EDGE:- In this a 3×3 window is used like in AVRG and thus INTL is the same as before. This procedure performs 8 tests in order to find the

boundary pixels, thus 8 sets of 5 key values are loaded into locations $1\phi\phi-14F$ (see LOAD of listing B). These 5 key values are:- the first pixel of the window, the test value to the last of the 3 pixels in each test, the pixel opposite to the 3 in the test, the step (if necessary) to find the last of the 3 pixels, and finally the test value for the starting of a new row. INIT saves the address of the first key value $(1\phi\phi)$ at 21A and 21E, the operand of the first instruction of STRT at 21C and the address that contains the address of the first key value at 220. Finally zeroizes pointer 240. NEW loads the first 5 addresses of the first set of key value into 210-218, to be used as indirect addressings to the first set of key values (STRT). ZERO looks for the first ϕ pixel value, masks it (MASK) and performs the first test 1,2,3:6 (numbering of pixels in 3×3 window as in Fig. 2.17) via PIX (which finds the minimum distance between the pixel values of each of 1,2 and 3 and 6 respectively) and LOPA (which determines the sequence of the cells for the first test). THLD is used only in the case of 16 pixel value edging. PNTR counts the successful tests and in case of two of them the window is moved for another try. MODF modifies the pixel, if needed, and TWIG does the second test 7,6,5:2. The next two tests are made by substituting LOPB in place of LOPA and changing the JP, IB by JP, IIA respectively. These are 1,8,7:4 and 3,4,5:8. The rest are combinations of LOPA and LOPC (1,2,8,:5 and 2,3,4:7) and LOPA and LOPC (8,7,6:3 and 4,5,6:1) respectively. TSTA checks if the end of a row is reached. WNDA shifts the window one cell across and WNDB a row below. REPT uses a number of known subroutines and CHNG in order to update the table of key values in the case that not all the tests need to be performed. TEST checks if the whole of the tests has been performed. OLDA and OLDB use OLD in order to put EDGE back into its original form before a new column, or row starts respectively. LAST increases the row index IY by 1 and, SHFT is the same as in AVRG.

FOLW:- This subroutine follows the boundary of the shape and saves the coordinates of the detected vertices. First it calls INT for the usual initializations. The address of the first pixel to be examined is stored at 200, the address of the last pixel in a row is stored at 202, the step for the first pixel of a new row is stored at 204, the last value of the row index IY goes to 206, the step for the last pixel in a row is kept in $2\phi A$, and the test address for the end of the procedure is stored at 212. Finally the initial addresses for the vertex array $(4\phi\phi)$ and the pointer to real-vertex array (48 ϕ) are kept in 322 and 324 respectively. The first boundary pixel met is marked by placing 11 in it and NAI calls CORD to find its coordinates and ADRS to place a pointer on it. ZERO zeroizes addresses 300-320 which will be used by the next subroutines. CYCL follows the boundary and will be examined in detail later on. Subroutine FF places an end marker FF at the end of the two arrays mentioned above and calls to printout an 'END' message. AAA calls UNIC which turns to ØF every marked boundary cell and calls FOLW again looking for a new boundary. TESA and TESB look for the end of a row and the end of the procedure respectively. WINA moves the search a pixel across and WINB one row below. The procedure ends if no boundary pixel is met.

CYCL:- First of all, locations $3\phi\phi-31\phi$ are dedicated to:- $3\phi\phi$: direction of unit (N_U), 3ϕ 1: length of the unit (L_U), 3ϕ 2: direction of link (N_L), 3ϕ 3: mean of length ($\overline{L_U}$), 3ϕ 5: a flag used in *LINK* (indicates whether the last vertex was real or not), 3ϕ 8: direction of last vertex, 3ϕ A: address of previous vertex, 31ϕ : address of current vertex. *CYCL* performs the circular search of 3.2.3b. First looks for a boundary cell (*BLAC*). *RA* to *RH* perform the circular displacement of the pixel. *CYCL* is also called by *DOES* and *DONT* for a look ahead search. In this case a flag is set (reg.C) to indicate a simple exit (*CMPR*). If the very

first vertex is met (MET) and the flag is not set the cycle ends, marking the last pixel as a vertex (CHCK). If no boundary value is met after a complete cycle, a recovery operation (RCVR) is called. The latter works as in 3.2.3b. In normal cases (flag=Ø), vertex detector is called (YES). The main subroutine VXDT is illustrated in Fig. 3.23 together with LINK, SAVE saves the current $N_{\rm H}$ in 3ØA, and calls LNTH. The DONT and DOES. latter calls CHSL, which compares the new L_U with $\overline{L_U}$ and if $|L_U - \overline{L_U}| > \overline{L_U}/4$ the end of the last unit is marked as a vertex (PREV). AJST subtracts 8 from values greater than 8 and adds 9 to negative values of $N_{_{\rm II}}$ so that the cycle is kept. VRTX marks a pseudo-vertex by adding 1 to the previous one (stored in 35\$) and saves its coordinates (CORD). CRTV marks a certain vertex by adding 11 to the previous one, and saves both (BOTH) its coordinates and a pointer to it. Finally PRVC marks the previous pseudovertex as a certain-vertex when two successive changes of the link occur. Subroutine FAIL prints out a message 'FAIL' when the recovery operator fails to find the best boundary cell.

Listing C contains all the above mentioned subroutines.

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S800.				•			
8800	CD		' 89	- Mi	FIN:	CALL	_ COLL
8603	° CD		- 29			CALL	. RCTF
8806		10	00			·CALL	. FRGM
8809	CD	- 40	. 88	•		· CALL	. TRND
880C	FF			•		RST	38 *
8900,) <i>\$K</i>			•		
8900	·11	00	40	CC)LL:	LD	DE 4000
8903	21	ØA	FF		•	LD	HL FFØA
8906	36	43				LD	(HL) 43
8908	36	51		•		.LD	(HL) 51
890A	23		•			INC	HL
890B	36	ŨŨ				LD	(HL) 00
- 890D	CD	НÒ	- 88		LA:	CALL	
8910	4F					LD	C A
8911	E6	10		•		AND	10
8913	ĈÃ	ΘD	89		*	JP	ZCOLA
8916	C3	2D	89			JF	COLE
8919	ĈD	ΠØ	88	· co	LD:	CALL	
891C	4F		00		<u> </u>	LD	
: 891D	Ë6	FØ					
891F	CA	2D	89			ÂND JP	FØ
· 8922	E6	10	02				Z COLB
8924	$\tilde{c}2$	3E	89			-AND	10
8927	7B	36	07			JP LD	NZ_COLC
0721 8928	E6	7F				.LD	A E
			00			AND	7F
892A 2020	C2. 70	19	- 89			JF .	NZ_COLD
892D 0005	79			<u>E</u> U	LB:	LD	A C
892E 2005	12					LD	$\langle DE \rangle A$
892F	13					INC	DE
8930 8930	13				÷	INC	DE
<u>9931</u>	<u>1</u> 3	•				INC	DE
8932	7 <u>8</u>					LD	R D
8933	FE	80 55				CP	80
8935	62 -		89			JF	NZ COLE
8938	ЗE	40		•		LD	A 40
893A	57	•		\mathcal{CO}_{i}	LE:	LD	D A
893B	CZ	19	89			JF	COLD
893E	7B			$\hat{U}\bar{U}_{i}$	LC:	LD	R E
893F	ЗC					INC	Ħ
8940	ЗD			•		DEC	R
8941	$\mathcal{C}2$	47	89		•	JF	NZ COLF
8944	7 <i>R</i>	•				LD	A D
8945.	FE	4 <i>0</i>				CP	4B
8947	11	<i>80</i>	40	CDi	LF:	LD	DE 4000
894R	$\mathcal{C}\mathcal{Z}$	2D	59			JP	NZ COLB
894D	65					RET	* .
28A0,							
33A0	22	ĒĤ	FF	IN	PT:	LD	HL FF0A
85A3	7E					LD	A (HL)
88 84	1F					RRA	
88A5	D2	R3	SS			JP	NC 88A3
88A8	23					INC	HL
8889	7E					Ĺ₽	R (HL)
SEAA	CЭ			•		RET	* .
2900.		‡K					-
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2903	21	00	40	N 6 4	· · ·	LD	HL 4000
2906	21 7E	00	· • •	RL ()P ·	LD	R (HL)
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2920 77 29 100 (HL) R 2928 C2 33 29 JP RTST. 2928 C2 33 29 JP NZ RC 2928 C2 33 29 JP NZ RC 2928 C6 80 RD AD 2928 C6 80 RD AD 2929 C3 71 29 JP NZ RC 2930 C3 71 29 JP NZ RD 2933 FE 0B RC : CP 0B 2933 FE 0B RC : CP 0B 2933 FE 0B RD RD RD RD 2933 FE 0C RD RD RD RD RD 2930 C3 71 29 JP RZ RE RD	2915 2916 2919 2918 2918 291E	77 C3 FE C2 E6	71 09 26 F0	29 29		RП	:	LD JP CF JP AND	(HL) A RTST 09 NZ RB F0
2930 C3 71 29 JP RTST 2933 FE 0B RC : CF 0B 2935 C2 40 29 JP MZ RD 2935 C2 40 29 JP MZ RD 2937 C6 0C RDD A 0C 2938 C6 0C RD HND F0 2937 C6 0C RD JP RTST 2930 C3 71 29 JP RTST 2940 FE 0C RD A 0C 2947 C6 0B RD F0 JP 2947 C6 0B RE<:	2922 2923 2926 2928 2928 292B 292D	77 03 FE 02 E6 06	71 0A 33 0F		· . ·	RB	:	LD JP CP JP AND.	(HL) R RTST 0R NZ RC 0F
293D C3 71 29 JP RTST 2940 FE 8C RD CP 9C 2942 C2 4D 29 JP MZ RE 2945 F6 F0 JP MZ RE 2947 C6 0B HD A 0B 2947 C6 0B HD A 0B 2947 C6 0B RE CF 8D 2947 C6 0B RD A 8A 2957 C3 71 29 JP RTST 2957 C3 71 29 JF NZ RG 2957 C3 71 29 JF NZ RTST	2930 2933 2935 2938 2938 2938	C3 FE C2 E6 C6	08 40 F0			RC	•	JP CF JP AND ADD	RTST 0B NZ RD F0 A 0C
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2964 C3 71 29 JF RTST 2967 FE 0F R0 CF 0F 2969 C2 71 29 JF NZ RTST 2960 C2 71 29 JF NZ RTST 2960 C6 08 ADD A 08 2976 C6 08 ADD A 08 2974 C6 00 RTST LD (020C) HI 2974 C6 00 RTST LD (020C) HI 2974 C6 00 SBC HL DE 297 2976 ED 52 SBC HL DE 297 Z END RET ND HL 020C) 297 297 Z D HL (020C) 10 HL 297 Z INC HL 297 INC HL 297 Z INC HL 297 Z INC HL 297 Z INC HL 297 <td>2957 235A 2950 2957 2961</td> <td>03 FE 28 66</td> <td>0E 67 F0</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>RF</td> <td>•</td> <td>JP CP JF RND RDD</td> <td>RTST BE NZ RG FØ R Ø9</td>	2957 235A 2950 2957 2961	03 FE 28 66	0E 67 F0			RF	•	JP CP JF RND RDD	RTST BE NZ RG FØ R Ø9
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8859 8850 885F	CD CD CD	D0 D0 00	88 88 87			CALL CALL CALL		
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8A0F 8A10	00 00			•,		NOP NOP	۰.	
SA11	00		•	,	•	NOP		
8A12 8A13	00 00	•				NOP NOP		
8A14 8A15	00 00		• .		-	NOP NOP	· •	
8A16	21°	- 43	00	•		LD	HL 00	
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erei Sre4	62 68					LD LD	H D L E	
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SA30						ĈF JP	(HL) NZ PI	
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884P 884D	3F 57	47 E /	2.6			LD	D R	-751-
erke Srif	7E FS	88				LD OR	8 E 88	
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eror Srer	5785F36008E857	80	55		`	CALL LP	OUTP A E	
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845D 8755 8453		(<u> </u>	25			LD	Z FIN B (00	48)
8853 8851	57 7E					L D L D	d a A E	
2455	L C	<u>.</u>				FIND	FF	

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8 <i>869</i>	F6	80				\overline{OR}	នទ
8A6B	5F					LD	ĒÃ
8AEC	63	89	SH `	-		JP	' PASS
8 <i>R6</i> F	CD	DØ	88		FIN :	CALL	CRLF -
8872 	- 691					RET	*
8880, 9979			er 1-				
8880 8880	21	02	FF		OUTP:	LD	HL FF02
8883 8884	7E 1F				OULP:	LD	R (HL)
8885 8	15 D2	<i>C2</i>	88			RRA JP	No surs
8888	23	للله ما	00			INC	NC OUTB HL
8889.	7Ē				OUTA:	ĹD	R (HL)
8 <i>88A</i>	ΕĞ	7F				AND	ZF .
88BC	FE	13			•	CΡ	13
SSBE,	ÊĤ	B9	. 88			JP	Z OUTA 🕔
8801	2B			-		DEC	HL 1
8802	7E				OUTB:	LD	A (HL) 🗇
8803	E6	02				RHD	02
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8908" 8809	23 70	-				INC	HL .
SSCA SSCA	70 CS					LD RET	(HL) B *
580E,		\$ {{		•		RE I	· T · ·
8800.	- 85. - 85	- SD			CRLF.	LD	B SD.
8502	ΰĐ-	5e	33			CALL	DUTE
<u>ocr.5</u>	ε_{c}	$B\vec{r}$			•	LD	E CA
EBD7	CD	EØ	82 -			CALL	OUTP
890-	СЭ				•	RET	*
							×.

3688,363						11000
3600 CD	<i>B8</i>	35		PRUC:	CALL	
3603 ° CD 3606 ° CD	А <u>9</u> 4Е	3E 36			CALL CALL	
3609 CD	180 180	- 36 - 37	1		CALL	
3605 CD	• F4.	- 35 .	•		CALL	MOVE
360F 21	60	01	- -		LD	HL 0160
3612 22	FE	. 84		FA :	ΪD	(04FE) HL
3615 7E	, r - -		. •,	• • • •	ĨD -	A (HL)
3616 32	50	01		-	ĒD	.(0150) A
3619 FE	ĒĒ				CP	FF '
3618 CA	.38	36			JP	ZEND
361E CD	30	36			CALL	LOAD
3621 <i>3</i> 8	-50	- Ø1			LD 👘	A (0150)
3624 47					LD	BA
3625 CD	7,8	36			CALL	
3628 CD		21			CALL	
3628 CD	00	20			CALL	
362E CD		30			CALL	
3631 2A	FE	04	· .			HL (04FE) HL
3634 23 3635 CA	12	36				Z FH
3638 CD	E9	35		END :	CALL	
3638 FF	^	- -	• *	1. / L. /	RST	38 *
- 363C, 364A	$\pm k$			•		
3630 21	00	คิยี		LORD;	LD	HL ADDD
363F 11	ยิยิ	40			ĒD.	DE 4000
3642 01	ŪŪ	40			LD	BC 4000 .
3645 EU	ΕØ			·	LDIR	· · ·
3647 CD	BD	39			CALL	DATA
364A C9					RET	*
364E-3679			•	_		
364E 21	90	80 		SUM :	LD	HL 0000
-3651 11	80	03		<i></i>	LD.	DE 0300 8 (DÉ)
3654 1A				.SU :	LD	
3655 4F 2656 42					LD INC -	C A DE
3656 <u>1</u> 3 36 5 7 1 8					LD	A (DE)
. 3658 47					LD	BA
3659 22	ÐC	$\overline{\theta}2$			LD -	(0200) HL
365C ED	53	ΘĒ	62		ΪD	(020E) DE
3860 21	10	63			LD	HL -031D
3663 06	ĒĒ				ĦDD	Ĥ 00
3665 ED	52			•	SEC	HL DE
3567 - 26	θC	62	-		LD	HL (8286)
366A ED	$5\bar{E}$	ΘE	82	•	LD	DE (020E)
3655 CR	76	36			JP	Z L57
3671 09				•	ADD THC	HL BC
3672 13	= +	36			INC JP	DE SU
- 3072 - 53 - 7272 - 77	54 20	20 03		LST::		-30 -(0320) HL (-
2070 PQ	2.64	5-12	•		RET	alian an a
3672 13 3673 C3 3676 22 3679 C9 3678,3688 3678 21 3670 11	₹£				,. <u> </u>	•
- 7678 '24	- <i>80</i>	48		ISLT:	LD	HL 4880
367D 11	-7F	7F	1 A	158 :	ĒΡ.	DE 7F7F
3680 22	- ØC				LD	(020C) HL
-3683 -06	96				RDD	A 00
3585 ED	52°	,			SBC	HL DE
3687 - CA	68	ЗĒ			JP	Z FKS
3688 - 28	ŪŪ.	<u>92</u>			LD	HL (PERC)
3680 23		. .			INC	HL.
366E CD	58	52			CALL	BLAC
3691 (CA	7D	36			JP CP	Z ISA P
3634 - 58 3635 - Jua	a:	35			JP.	B Z 15C
ುರ್ವರ್ ಮಿಗ	<u></u>	.≻ ⊺			Ų +°+	£ 4

3698 3699 3690 3697 3697 3693 3693 3693 3693 3693 3908 3908 3900	36 C3 C9	7D	36 39 36 36 36	ο <i>≠ν</i>	ISE ISC FNS ISD	••••	INC CP JP LD JP DEC LD JP RET JP DEC JP	E B 2 ISB (HL) OF ISD B (HL) OO ISA * B ISA *
3689 3680	· 21 11	SD	4й 7F	204A	FRG	5:	LD LD	HL 4080 DE 7F7F
368F 36B2	22 06	0C 00	.02		ĞĦ	:	LD - CRDD	(020C) HL A BQ :
36E4 36B6	ED CR	52 98	37			,	SRC JP	HL DE Z FIN
36B9	2 H	0C .	02	•	•••••			HL (020C) HL
36BC 36BD	723. CD	.58 	31				CALL	BLAC
36QØ 36C3	CH FE	AF 00	36			•	· JP: CP	, 2. GR . (1997) 100 (1997)
) 3605 - 3608	- C2 ED	D1 48	36 86	83		•	JP LD	N2 68) BC (0300)
3600 3600	03 ED	43	66	<i>63</i>	•	•	INC LD	'BC '(0300) BC
36D1 36D3	FE CŻ	81 DF	36	•	ĞΕ	:	CP - JP	61 NZ GC
3605	E₽	$\frac{1}{4B}$	<u>82</u>	<i>6</i> 3			LD INC	8C (0302) 8C
36DA 26DE	63 - E2-	43	<i>9</i> 2	63			LD	(0382) BC
BEDE Beei	- FE - C2	82 EC	ΞĒ	•	GC .	:	CP JP	02 NZ GD
36E4 36E8	ED BIS-	÷Ξ	64	07			LD - INC	- RC (8384) - BC
36E9 36ED	ED FE	43 83	<i>04</i> .	<u>83</u> 1	GD		LD DP	(0364) BC BS
36EF 36F2	02 ED	- F8 48	36 06	- 63	•	•	. JF - LD	NZ GE BC (0306)
3676	ÐΞ	•		•			INC LD	BC (8306) BC
36F7 36FB	ED FE	43 64	<i>ЕЕ</i>	87.	ĠĒ	:	CP	B4
- 36FD 3700	C2 ED	69 43	37 88	83			JP LD	NZ GF BC (0503),
3704 R705	63 - ED	4]]	. Ø2	63			INC LD	EC (2305) BC
2739	FE	85 47	27		5 <i>F</i>	•	CP . JF	05 NZ GG
3788 3788 3788 3782 3742 3742 3742 3742 3742 3742 3742 374	ED 27	4 <u>5</u>	ġЯ	03			Ë D Inc	BC (030A) BC
3722 3743	83 ED	43	ΞP	03			LD CP	(030A) 50 06
3717 3719	FE C2	86 25.	27		<u>86</u>	٠	JP	NZ GP
		45	30	RS .	F.		LD INC	BC (030C) BC
3720 3721 3725	` ED : FF	43 87	ĒC	<i>8</i> 7	ĠН	;	LD · CP	ē7
. 2727			27 85	35			JP LD	NZ GI BC (030E)
3729 2729 3729	1				•		INC LD	BC (030E) BC
2+25 2732 2733			. <u></u>		GI	:	CP JP	08 NZ GJ
2735 2735	5 <i>E2</i> 5 <u>E</u> 0	-1 <u>-1</u> 1 E	- 1				·LD	EC (8310)

3741 FE 00 3743 C2 4F 37 3746 ED 45 12 03 3746 ED 43 12 03 3746 ED 43 12 03 3746 ED 43 12 03 3747 FE 06 . . 3751 C2 5D 37 3754 ED 46 14 03 3758 03 . . . 3759 ED 45 14 03 3759 ED 45 14 03	6.1 : C 	P 09 P NZ BK D BC (0312) NC BC D (0312) RC P 0R R NZ GL D 8C (0314) NC BC D (0314) BC P 0B TP 0B TP NZ GM
375F C2 6B 37 3762 ED 4B 16 63 3766 63 43 16 63 3767 ED 43 16 63 3768 FE 0C 37 3760 C2 79 37 3770 ED 4B 18 03 37774 63 3775 ED 42 18 03 37779 FE 0D 37 37 37 37 3778 C2 87 37 37 37 37 3778 FE 0D 37 37 37 37 3778 FE 0D 37 37 37 37 3778 FE 0A 1R 63 37 63 3782 83 83 83 83 83 83	GM	b BC (0316) INC BC LD (0316) RC JP NZ GN JP NZ GN JP NZ GN JP NZ GN LD BC (0318) LD (0318) BC LD (0318) BC JP NZ GO JP NZ GO LD BC (0318) INC BC (0318) INC BC (0318)
3783 ED 43 18 03 3783 FE 0E 3705 C2 RF 36 3780 ED 48 10 00 3790 03 3791 ED 43 10 03 3795 C3 9F 36 3795 C9 3980, 3908\$K 3980, 21 00 22 3900 11 00 01 3903 01 50 00 3906 ED 80	go Fin Data:	CP 0E JP NZ 0B JD BC 031C> INC 5C LD (031C) BC JF 0B JF 0B JF 0B JF 0B JF 0B JF 0B LD HL LD DE LD DE LD BC LD BC LD BC LD BC LD BC
3908 09 35F4,35FF±N 35F4 21 00 40 25F7 11 00 80 35F0 ED 80 35FD ED 80 35FF 09 35FF 09	MOVE:	RET * LD HL 4000 LD DE ROOG LD BC 4000 LDIR EET *
NOBEL 2012 3579 21 50 00 2589 32 53 3580 77 2558 23 3587 32 45 3501 77 3502 23 2502 23 2503 32 48 3506 23 3506 23 3506 23 3508 87 3508 87 3508 77 3508 77 3508 87 3508 77 3508 77 350	UDRD -	LD HL 8058 LD A 53 LD GHL) A TNO HL LD A 45 LD GHL) A INC HL LD A 4E LD GHL) A INC HL LD GHL) A INC HL LD GHL) A TNO HL LD GHL) A TNO HL LD GHL FF CFLL FFRO RET *

	27. 27. 29. 27. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29	F 2 37 2 37 5 37 4	1D 3C 1D 20 4B 99 37 4B 99 37 4B 99 37 4B 99 37 55 37	#F 60 0.1 FF 20 03 30 1D 30 -1D 50
2 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	<i>93</i> 		Ø3 83	
SBI : SBII: SC- : SCI :	5411 35	SRI	SH :	SLCT:

384 R . 384C 384F	CA DE	04	38.			CP FF JF Z SDT LD B 04 CALL ONE
3857 3858	CA 13 3E		37 38		SDI :	JF Z SDII INC DE LD A 04 LD (DE)A
385A 385B 385E 3861 3865	ED CD	4E 99	37	Ø3	SDII: SE :	JP SE CALL STOR LD BC (030A) CALL TEST JP P SF
3868 3868 386C 386E 3871		83 FF 78 05	<u>3</u> 8			LD A (DE) CP FF JP Z SEI LD B 05
3873 3876 3879 3879 3878	CD CR 13 3E	AB 80 05	37 38		SEI :	CALL ONE JP Z SEII INC DE LD A 05
387C 387D 3880 3883 3883	12 C3 CD ED CD	83	38 ,37 0C 37 38	03	SEII: SF	LD (DE) A JP SF CALL STOR LD BC (030C) CALL TEST JP P SG
383A 389D 388E 3890 3893 3893 3895	F2 18 FE 06 00	FF 90 86 86	38		-	LD A (DE) CP FF JP Z SFI LD B 06 CALL ONE
2898 2898 2898 2898	CA 13 3E 12	82 86	7.9 - 9	•	5F1	JF Z SFJJ JNC DE LD R 06 LD (DE) R
389F 38R2 38R5 38R5 - 38R5	- 83 CD ED DD F2	85 84 48 97 87	787 197 197 197 197 197 197	03	5FJI: 5G :	JE SG CALL STOR LD BC (030E) CALL TEST JP F SH LD R (DE)
2887 2888 2888 2888 2888 2887 3887	ED DD FE FE FE CR CD CD	: FF BE	38 37	• • •		JP Z SGI
3887 3887 3887 3887 5		C∢ 07	38	. •	SOF -	LP D F CELL ONE JP Z SEIT INC PE LD R BT LD (DE) R
F2590F8?5795583377785239477193795 988988888888937795375319777 888888888888893777785777777777777777777 88888888888888			년 1월 24 81 1년 1911년 - 12 1년 1년 1911년 - 12 1년 1년	.83	5611. 74 :	
		E E C E E C			•	JF F 51 LD A (DEV CF FF JF T FHI LD B DB CHLL ONE JF Z 5451 THC DE 1.0 E 26 1.0 E 26
		2 			SH1	140 DE 140 DE 10 P DA 10 (CE) P JP 51

3828 3829 3820 3820	CD × F2	۵F	37 12 C 37 39		SHII ST	CALI LD CALI OJP CLD	EC L TE: P H	16 (631) ST SJ (DE)	· · ·
38FB 38FE	ŪR.	FF 02 09 AB 08	29 27 29			CP JP LD CAL JP JNC	L ON Z	รม ติจ รมม	•
3901 3902	13 3E	09	• •	, , ,	511 :	LD LD	Ĥ	09 E) A	• • •
3936 390F 3912	12 C3 CD ED CD F2	84	297 2747 1179 39	Ø3	SIII: SJ	JF CAL LD CAL JP LD	50 1 51 - 80 1 70 - 80	TOR TOR TOR TOR TOR TOR TOR SK SK (DE)	4)
3915 3916 3918 3918 3918 3910 3920	CA	FF 24 0A AB 2A	39 37 39			CP JP LD CA JP JP	FI Z B L L Z	SJI 0A NE SJII E	
3923 3924	13 75	ŪĤ		- ·	SJI .	: ' [[] [] []	₿ 	0A PE> A	
	12 03 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	20 84 89 45 47	39 37 167 39	្រុះរិ	SJ I J SK	JF CA LE CA JF LE) 5 LL 5 LL 7 LL 7	K TOR C (031 EST S S S C (DE) F	(6)
252 2528 2538 2538 2538 2538 2542	FE CE	- 4E .	37			$ \begin{bmatrix} i \\ J_1 \\ J_1 \end{bmatrix} $	P) 1 D 1 RLL U P 1 NC 1	E SKI 3'0B DNE E SKIJ DE	
3945 3946	1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 -		. ·		SKJ .	· L	Di D	R ØB (DE) R	•
	8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	4F 04 04 04 04 04 04 04 04 04 04 04 04 04	ia sa ta	83	SKJ SL	, J]: `C : L	P FLL ()	SL STOR BC (03 TEST P SM R (DE)	
		- E FF E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E	 39 5 37 8 37				IP IP IP IP IP IP INC	TEST P SM R (DE) FF Z SLJ B RC GNE Z SMT DE R DC (DE) SM	Ī
796 396	57 - 1 58 - 3 70 - 4	E B			Si I	: 1		81.00 (252)	F
)			C.	5L: 5M	Ī	19) 0611 10 - 0611 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	STOP EC (P TEST E SN R (PF TE SN SN SN	(7 (8)) 18
29 39 1 - 1	78 - 91 - 05	18 - 5 95 - 6 75 - 6			-		LD GELa		

TF Z SHII 39 CA 190 386 DE · · JNC. . . 13 3039 $B = \emptyset \mathbb{D}$ LD SMI .3E Ø₽ 398A LD (DE) A 93 298Ũ 12 JĖ SN -39 $\mathcal{C}\mathcal{I}$ 398D CALL STOR SMII: 37 A4 CD'. 3990 BC (0310 LD SN -1C03 -4E 3993 ΕD TEST 99 CRLL 37 3997 ...CD P 50 JF 1 39 F2 · 85. 399A. A (DE), LD 1H- : 399D €₽ FF FF FΕ 399E Z SNI B ØE JPRC 39 CR3980 LD • ΰE . $B\bar{B}$ 3983 CALL ONE 37 39 ĤΒ CD3995 Z SNÌJ JP ... 82 CRINC DE LD R DE LD (DE) A JP SO 39*ĤŜ* 13 : ⊇9AB SNI ÷ ЗE 9E 39AC 12 39AE 85 39 63 <u>39AF</u> CALL STOR SNII: 37 $\mathbf{H4}$ CD 3982 INC DE 50 13 3985 LD A FF FF 7985 ЗE LD (DE) B 3988 12 PET 4 39*59* **C** 5 3788\$4 7799 LDHL (0:20) 25 TEST: 39 \bar{e}] A 66' 300 Ē 10 HL BC 550 42 4 PET 12 788 3767\$K 17 7-4 R (DE) S702: LD 744 NCP -3785 3785 ĒĒ Ĥ (DE) LÐ 12 RET *3787 - C9 3786, 376F\$K A (DE) LD -ÛNE : .18 3783 8 Stac Stac SUB 90 FE ĊP RET FF 2.2 CP 179F

2000, 30324	· <u>·</u> ·	LISTING B	
"SPGC CD 3001 28 3005 22	5E - 3C 00 - 02 12 - C2	FOLW : AR :	LD (ML (M280) LD (0212) HL
3009 7E 300A E6 300C FE 300E C2	25 ± 36		LD A (HL) AND OF DP EB JP NZ BB
	11 78 30 40 31		RDD \R 11 LD (HL) R CRLL NRI CRLL ZERD
301A 06 301C CD 301F \ CD	00 12 34 AE 33 53 3E		LD B 00 CALL CYCL CALL FF JP AAA
-3025 CD 3028 CA 3028 CD	55 SE BD 33 31 30 CC 33 03 30 D9 33 3D 30	<i>BB</i> :	GRLL TESA JP Z CC CALL WINA JP AR
-3031 CD 3034 ,CP 3037 CD	EL 33	ĊC ;	CALL TESB JP Z FINS CALL MINB
.303A C3 303D C9 303E,30764		FINS:	JP AA RET *
303E 21 2041 22 3044 21 3047 22 3047 22 3048 21 -	81 45 85 702 FE 140 82 82 83 86	INT::	LD HL 4081 LD (0200) HL LD HL 40FE LD (0202) HL LD HL 0003
3840 22 3858 21 3853 22 3856 21	64 -02 75 00 05 02 80 00	· · ·	LD (0204) HL LD HL'007D LD (0206) HL LD HL 0030
3059 22 3050 21 305F 22 305F 22	.0A 02 75 7F 12 02 21 00	65	LD (0208) HL (0208) LD HL 7F7E LD (0212) HL LD IY 0600 LD E-00
3059 22 3050 21 3055 22 3055 22 3062 FD 3068 21 3068 21 3068 21 3068 22 3068 21 3068 22 3074 08 3074 08 3075 21 3076 32 3076 22 3079 21 3076 22 3075 21	00 04 00 03 20 03 20 04 21 03 00		LD HL 0400 LD (0322) HL LD HL 0480 LD (0324) HL LD C 00
- 3076 - 69 - 3076, 31054 - 3070 - 32	K 30 02	INIT:	257 LD (0230) A
D2F3 21 30F6 22 30F9 21 30FC 22 30FF 21 3102 22 3105 C9	08 40 64 02 7F 00 69 02 7F 00 62 02	· · ·	LP HL 4000 LD (0264) HL LD HL 007F LC (0260) HL LD HL 007F LD (0262) HL RET *
5100 09 3078, 30848 3078, 32 3078, 32 3078, 32 3074, 20 3088, 30889 3088, 30889 3088, 30889 3088, 30889 3088, 30889 3088, 50889 3088, 50889	ik 80 82 81 83 88 38 86 82	NRI ;	LE (8200) HL LS (8351) R (5411 E0TH LP HL (8230) (857 -
3088,30854 2059 - CO - 3090 - CM 3035 - CS	92 - 28 92 - 28 97 - 34	RGTH;	CALL CORD CALL ADRS TET S

	ΕD		33	82 82	CORD.		(8271) BC (8233) IY
309D 30A1 30A5	ED FD DD	21	30 64 00 00	02 00 00	AGIN: ONE :	CRLL LD LD LD LD	INIT EC (0264) IY 0000 IX 0000 R (EC)
зөнн		50	03 ·	•	- UIAL	LD CF ·	HL 0350 (HL)
30AE 3081 3084 3088 3088 3088 3088	2R ED	84 89 22 88 58 58 52	30 31 0E 02 60	02 02	TEST:	JP CALL LD LD LD ADD SBC	NZ TEST STOR (020E) IX HL (020E) DE (0260) A 00 HL DE
3003			30			JF INC	Z NEWL BC
30C7 30C9 30CC	03 DD C3 FD 20 ED C5 ED 03	23 A9 22 58 80 52 E4	30 22 02 62 30	02 02	NEWL		IX ONE
200F 30E1 30E4 30E8 30E8 30E2	FD 02 ED FD 09	23 85 48 29	30 31 33	82 82	END	INC JP LD LD RET	IY AGIN BC (0231) IY (0233) *
3109,3 3109 3100 3100 3110 3113	5125 2A DD 11 1A	22 22	03 06 03	- 03	STOR:	LD LD LD LD LD	HL (0322) (0306) IX DE 0306 R (DE) (HL) R
3114 3115	77 22	28	03	•	•	LD	
3118 3119 3110 3120 3121	23 FD 11 18 77	22 06	86 83	83	•	INC LD LD LD LD	(0306) IY DE 0306 A (DE) (HL) A
3122 3123	23 - 22 -	. 22	03	. ,	•	INC LD D	(0322) HL
3126 3120 3120 3130 3133 3134 3135	69]\$Kj		03	ADRS:	LD LD NOP NOP	* DE (0324) HL 0328 R (HL) (DE) R
3136 3137 3138 3138 3130	12 13 ED 09	53	24	83		LD INC LD RET	DE (0324) DE
3140 3140 3142 3145 3145 3149 3149 3146 3146	35 22 36 F8		: 02 5 03 9 1		ZERO CR	LD LD LD CP JP	(0206) HL HL 0300 (HL) 00 21 Z ZB
			-				l x∄ _

3157 C9	ŪĈ	31 02		28	:	INC JP LD RET	HL ZA HL (020C) *
3158,316 3158 7E 3150 E6 3155 FE 3160 C9	0F ØF			. ELA	-	LD AND CP RET	A (HL) OF OF *
3164,316; 3164 7E 3165 FE 3167 C9 3168,317,	11			<i>МЕТ</i>	•	LD CP RET	A <hl> 11 *</hl>
3168 32 316E 78 316F FE 3171 38 3174 09	08 30	02 02	• • •	CHEI		LD LD CP LD RET	(0230) A A B 08 A (0230). *
3178,3171 3178 79 3179 FE 3178 C9 317F,319	9\$K 00		•	CMFI	₹: 	LD CP , RET	Á C 80 *
317F 79 3180 FE 3182 C2 3185 78 3186 32	00. 90		-	YES		LD CF JP LD	A C 00 NZ YE A B
3189 CD 319C 3R 318F 47 3196 22	D4 35	02 31 02 02		YE	:	LD CRLL LD LD .LD	(0235) A VXDT A (0235) B A (0212) HL
3193 C9 3197,31D0 -3197 28 3196 23 3196 C9	12 -			FR		RET LD INC RET	* HL (0212) HL
3190 ,26 ,3195 ,11 3162 ,19 3163 ,09 3164 ,26	12 81 12	.82 88	• ,	RB		LD LD ADD RET	HL (0212) DE 0081 HL DE
3184 28 3187 11 3188 19 3188 09 3180 28	12 80 12	82 88 		RD RD	•	LD LD -RDD -RET LD	HL (0212) DE 8080 HL DE HL (8212)
318F 11 3152 19 3183 C9 3184 28	7F 12	88 82.	,	RE	•	LD APD RET LD	DE 007F ML DE HL (0212)
3167 28 3188 09 3189 28 3160 11 3160 11 3166 19	12 7F	02 FF		RF ,		DEC * RET LD LD RDD	HL HL (0212) DE FF7F HL DE
3108 09 3101 28 3104 11 3107 19	12 80	ē≥ FF		FG	:	RET LD LD RDD	HL (0212) DE FF80 HL DE
3108 09 3109 2A 3100 11 3106 19 3100 09	12 81	82 FF		55		RET LP LP HPD PET	HL (OPIE) DE FE81 HL DE (

3412,35914 3412 CD 3415 CD	.97 56	31 31	CYCL:	CALL RA CALL PLAC
3418 CA 3418 FE 3410 CA 3420 CD 3423 CA 3423 CA 3426 C3	3A 00 55 64 8D 3A	34 3E 31 35 34		JP Z IĮIA CP ĐĐ JP Z CA CALL MET JP Z FIN JP IIIA
3428 - CS 3429 - C6 3428 - 774	01		IIA.	ADD A 01 LD (HL) A
342C CD 342F 06 3431 CD 3434 C2 3437 C3	7F 90 78 90 20	31 31 35 35		CALL YES LD B'00 CALL CMPR JP NZ LAST JP IG
343A CD 343D CA	6B 91	31 35	IIJĤ:	CALL CHEC JP Z FINL
3440 04 3441 CD 3444 CD 3447 CA	90 58 69	31 31 34	IB :	INC B CALL RB CALL BLAC JP Z IIJB
344A · FE 344C · CA	00 88	3E		CP 00 JP Z CB CRLL MET
344F CD 3452 CA 3455 C3 3458 CE	64 8D 69 82	31 35 34	IIB :	JF Z FIN JF IIIB RDD R 02
2458 77 3458 CD	7 <i>E</i>	31	- `	LD (HL) A CALL YES
345E - 06 3460 - CD 3463 - C2+ 3466 - C2+	00 . 78 190 55	34. 35 35	· ·	LD B-OB CALL CMPR JP NZ LAST JP IH
3469 CD 3460 CR	65 - 91	35	, IIIB: "	CELL CHEC' JP: Z FINL
346F 04 3470 CD 3473 CD	84 58	34 34 34		'INC B CALL RC CALL BLAC JP Z IIIC
3476 CA 3479 FE 3478 CA	-98 80 64	3E		CP 00 JP Z CC
347E CD 3481 CA 3484 CJ 3487 C6 3489 77 3488 CD 3488 CD 3488 CD 3487 CD 3487 CD 3487 CD 3487 CD 3485 CJ 3495 CJ	- 64 - 80 99			-JP. Z FIN JP. INC
3481 CA 3484 C3 3487 C6 3489 77	67		IIC :	HDD - F B3 LD - (PL) A
3488 CD 3480 86 7495 PD	7F 80 78 98	31 31	ć	CALL YES () LD R 00 CALL CMPR
348F DD 3492 D2 3495 D3 3498 DD	10 98 12 68	45 45 88 8 8 8	· · ·	JP - NE LAST JP - CYCL
3498 CD 3498 CR	68 91	31 35	IIIC:	-CALL CHEC -JP · Z FINL INC B
349E 04 349F 0D 3482 0D	5E	31 31 34	ID :	CALL FD CALL BLAC
2405 60	. CZ.			JP 7 IIID CF 00 JF 7 CD
3488 FE 3488 CA 3488 CA 3480 CD 3486 CB 3483 C3 3485 C3 3485 C5	U7 64 80			- CALL MET - FF - E FIN
2453 C3 3485 C5 2485 77	07	17. 16.	232	07 - 11110 200 - 6-04 10 - 2410 - 61

.34BC 34BE 34C1 34C4 34C4 34C7-	00 02 03 00	00 75 90 41 68	31 35 34 31	•	IIID:	LD CALI JP JP CALI	L CKPR NZ LAST IB L CHEC	
3404		84 58 F6	31 31 34 3E 31		IE	CALL JP CP JP	E RE ELAC Z IIIE OO Z'CE MET	
.34E2 34E5 34E7 34E8 34E8 34ED 34ED 34F0	C3 C6 77 CD Ø6 CD	F6 05 7F 00 78	34 31 ⁻		IIE	JP, HDD LD CRLL LD	IIIE A OS	
. 34F9 34FC 34FD 3500	-CD [†] CA	70 68 91	34 31 35 31 35 31 35		IIIE: IF	IF	IC CHEC Z FINL B RF	
3509 3505 350E 3511 3514		00 D3 64 80 25 06			IIF :	CP JF CALL JP JP RDP LD	GØ Z CF	· .
351A 1351C 351F	CD - 06 - 02 - 02 - 03 - 03 - 04 -	75 68 98 98 88 81	. 31 	,	JIJF	CALL LD CALL JP JP CALL JF	YES B QQ	•
222380722577908259825722222222222222222222222222222222	64 CD CD CA CA CA CA CA CA CA	00000000000000000000000000000000000000	balbalba balbalta Albalta (4.6415a		IG :	INC RALL CALL JP CP JF RALL	B RG ELEC Z IIJG GB Z CG	
253D 2540 2542 2545 2545 2546 2549 2549	77 88 96	7 <i>F</i>	35 34	•	JĪŞ	JF JF ADS LD CALL LD CFLL	NET I FIN IIIG A G7 (KL) R YES B 00 GMPR	۰.
354E (3551 (3554 (3557 (3557 (3557 (3557 (3557 (3557 (00 02 02 02 02 02 02 02	STREEN SE	a na ana an Ana ana an	•	1116. 17	JF JF DFLL JF IMC DFLL JF JF	NŽ LAST IE CHEG Z FIKL B RŘ t BLAC	
3561 - (ิ.ศั	83	25			JF	T. III	

3564 2565 3569 3560 3567 3572 3574 3577	FE CA CD CA C3 C6 77 CD	00 DF 64 83 83 88 7F	SE 31 35 35 - 31		IIH :	CP JF CALL JP JP ADD LD CALL	00. Z CH MET Z FIN IIIH A 08 (HL) I YE5 B 00	
3578 3578 3570 3580 3588 3586 3586	<u></u> E4	00 78 90 FD 68 91	31 35 34 31 35		IIIH:	LD CALL JP JP CALL JP INC	CMPR NZ LA. IF CHEC Z FIN B,	
3590 3591 3EB5, 3EB5	$CD_{\rm c}$	R3	34 39 3F 3E		FIN LAST: FINL: CA	JP CALL RET JP CALL	CYCL CHCK RCVR STRA	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
3EB8 3EB8 3EB8 3EC1 3EC1 3EC4 3EC7 3EC7 3EC7		A3 58 83 83 83 83 83 83 83 83 83 83	3E 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34		CB CC : CC : CD : CE :	JP CHLL JP CALL JP CALL JP CALL JP	IIA STRA IIB STRA IJC STRA IJD STRA IIE	
3E00 3E00 3E00 3E00 3E00 3E00 3E00 3E07 3E07	03 00 02 02 03 03 35 21		<u></u>	•	СГ : СС : СН :	CALL JP CALL JP EALL JF	STRA JJF STRA JIG STRA JIH	*
3EA3 3EA5 3EA8 3EA8 3EA8 3EA8 3EA8 3EA8 3505,	282 282 282 29 299 299	00 00 55 65 00 1::!!	85 83 85 85	•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	STRA:	LD LD LD LD LD FET	*	> ∈'
3902 3902 3902 3902 3902 3902 3907 3907 3907 3907 3907 3907 3907 3907	75888552097 75888522097 7588	81. 104 53 88	34 83 30		CHCK:	LD CP EET CBLL LD LD CALL RET	A C 01 Z VXDT K 11 (0358 BOTH) <u>8</u>
7525 7525 7525 7525 7555 7555 7555 7555		•		•	0UTF: 0UTS:	LD LD END TP TNC LD ED	C A HL FF R (H: 02 Z OUT HL (HL) R C Y	х - -

3502.	7500	$\mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{k}^{T}$						
135D2	$\partial \epsilon$	SU^{*}			CRLF:		8 80 S	
-3504			35				OUTE Æ ØA	•
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35DF,	35E8				, 			.'
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35EF		86 R6				CALL		
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	3584	\$K		· · · ·	SEND:	LD .	A (DE)	
- 3586 - 3587	•1A 47	•				LD :	BR	•
3568	• FE	FF				् <i>CP</i>	FF	
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zzeł		77	··· ·		1, .	. <u></u> L.D	(HL),FF	
<u> III</u>	2F.	24	23			7.P	- <u>HL_</u> (0324.	
3356		FF DF				LD CALL	(HL) FF DUTB	
3388. 3385		1. F.,				- <u>R5</u> T	38 -	
338C	C9					RET	· •	•
	-3368		80	ab	TESA:	LÐ	DE (0202	2
- 33ED - 33C1			02 . 02 .	UZ .	: C 287 .	LD -	HE (0200.	
		09 09				ADD -	A 00_	· ·
13304 2305	E	52				SBC RET	HEDE	
3308 3300.	. CS , 3305	541'				751		•
3300	- <u>-</u>	5F	ĒĒ	\overline{U}	#178E	LĐ	DE (0200,	<u>)</u>
3308	13	-			• '	INC LD	-DE (0200) D	C,
- 20191 - 7705	13 ED 25	53	ŁE	182.		RET	್ ಲಿಜಲಾರ್ ಗ. ಹ	<u>.</u>
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104 107	FE	60 00	ØS.		VSD T; :	L D CP	8 (8300) 00
109 100	C2 7E	ES	- 31			JF	NZ VR
100. 100.		00	ΰЗ	•	• • •	LD LD	- A (HL) (0300) R
1E0	63	E7	31			JF	V5
1E3 1E4	BE C2	ËF	31	•	VA ;	CP	(HL)
167	3A		- 93 - 193		VB ;	JP LD.	NZ VC A=(0301)
1ER	30					INC	Ĥ.
1EB 1EE	32 09	01	03			LD - RET-	(0301) A'
1EF	CD	33	32	-	VC :	CALL	
1F2	30	-0-0	50			INC	
1F3 1F5	CD EE	20	- 32			CALI CP	_ AJST =
1F7	C2	FE			• •	ĴP	NZ VD
1FA 1FD	CD C9	84	32		•	- CALL	LINK
1FE 15E	20 30				VD	RET. DEC	Ħ
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200 203		20	321			CALL	
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20- 20-	- 22 7E -		C2	•	<i>!×</i> ⊑₩ .	LD	A (HL)
210	22	$\bar{e}\bar{c}$	J.			LD	(836A) A
213 235		. 62 02	03			LD LD	A 83 (8362) A
228	32	63 63	<u></u> .			LD	(0:02) A
₹1Ē	D S	~ /	". — —	·		FET	
elle Ite	CO CÊ	24			VE :	CHLL RET	. LINK *
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222 225 -	CF. F2	28 28	32 32	••		JP JP	Z JA
228	Ū6	<u>4</u> 8			$J\ddot{H}$:	, ADD	P JB A 68
228	09			•	· · ·	RET	
228 220	FE FR	89 32	32		\sqrt{E}	LP JP	09 .NJC`
236	$D \epsilon$	$\theta \varepsilon$				SUE.	- n 88
232	29				ЛĹ	RET	*
233) 233	3246 ED	÷K 55	10	<i>ò</i> 3	SAVE ;	LD	DE (0310)
233 237 237 238 238	ED	53	5F	Ø3		LD -	(030A) DE.
23E 557	ED	58 53	12	82	í	LD	DE_(0212)
243	ED CD	53 85	10 34	ĘΖ		- LD ' CALL	(0310) DE LNTH
246	69					RET	*
405. 405	3410: CD		70		1 61-711		·
+85 188 -		F9 01	32		LNTH:	LD .	CHSL
19 <u>6</u>	32	01	03			LD	(0301) A
10D 110	3A C9	ēØ	ØΣ			LD	A_(0300)
	09 3264:	ŧK			,	RET	*
-45	ЗE	ΘB			CETV	LD	A 88
	32	85) 20	82 82			LD LD	(8385) R'- (8260) HL
		A 1 4				·	5 F 5 F 1 5 F 1 7
-1	22 38	80 58	다고 란고			ΕD	B (0350)

3255 C6 11 3257 32 50 3258 28 10	03 07		ADD 1 D 1 D	A 11 (8358) A HL (8318)
325D 77 325E CD 88 3261 28 0C 3264 C9	30 02	- - -	LD_{1}	
3267,3280\$K	02 03	VRTX:		(020C) HL HL-(0310) A (HL)
	03 03 03		LD LD ADD LD	(0308) A ; A (0350) A 01 (0350) A
3279 77 3278 CD 92 3270 28 0C 3280 C9	30 02		LD	(HĽ) A CORD
3284,321 3284 0E 01 3286 47	3 <i>Ħ≢Ŕ</i> ∙G3	LINK,	LD LD	C 01 B A
3288 FE 00 3280 C2 A7 3285 78	32	•	LD CF JF LD	A (0302) 00 NZ LA. A B
3290 32 02 3293 3R. 05 3296 FE 00 3256 CR AB 3258 CD AT	03 03 32 33		LE CF JF	(0302) R R (0305) A0 Z LB
3295 .CA A5 7261 CD 53 3284 C3 A8			CALL JP CALL JP	OLP Z LB PRVC LB
3287 68 3288 62 81 3288 60 40 3288 62 88 3281 78 3281 78 3282 32 82	32 37 32	LA : LE ;	CP JP CALL JP	B NZ LC DOES
3282 70 3282 32 02 3285 CD 78 3288 0E 00 3288 0E 00	03 33	LC ₁ : LE + 1	LD LD CRLL LD RET	P 8 (0302) R DONT C 00 *
3201 05 00 3203 -00 12	02 34 83	SPME	LD 1.0	(A212) HL 8 88 CYCL 8 (8382) (HL) *
32F3-3340\$X 32F9-38-03-0 32F0-FE-00 32FE-02-08-1	33 32	CH5L ·	LD ; FF	5 (0303) 86 V7 56
32FC FE 08 32FE D2 08 1 3301 38 01 1 3304 32 03 1 3307 03 35 1 3308 47 3308 28 81 1 3308 90 13308 90 13308 90 13308 90 13308 90 13308 90 13318 47		SA :	LD LD JP	7 (8581) (8282) e 30
- 2008 - 26 - 01 - 1 - 2308 - 98 - 2008 - FE - 00 - 1 - 2014 - 08 - 19 - 2 - 2014 - 08 - 19 - 3 - 3317 - EE - 44		· ,	45 10 10 508 77 17 17 17	9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9
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331F CA CB 33 JP Z SE 3322 CB 3F SE SRL A 3324 CB 3F SE SRL A 3326 B8 SF SE SRL A 3327 CA 3F 33 JP Z SD 3320 CD CD 32 CALL FREV 3330 C3 3F 33 JP SD 3333 00 NOP NOP NOP 3334 00 SD LD R' (0303) 3342 47 SD SD LD B' (0303) 3342 47 CB SF SRL A 3342 3F 03 SF SRL A 3347 CB SF SRL </th <th></th>	
3327 CA 3F, 33 JP Z SD 3320 CD CD-32 JP P SD 3320 C3 3F 33 JP SD 3330 C3 3F 33 JP SD 3330 C3 3F 33 JP SD 3330 C3 3F 33 JP SD 3333 00 NOP NOP NOP 3334 00 SC RET NOP 3337 SP SSD LD B' (0303) 3342 47 LD SP SD 3342 3F 01 03 LD A' (0301) 3342 3F 02 03 LD A' (0301) 3342 3F 04 03 LD A' (0301) 3347 CB 3F SRL A LD (0303) 3349 32 02 03 LD (0303) A' 3340 C9 C9 RET	
1335 C9 SC RET 333F 3R 03 03 SD LD B'(0303) 3342 47 LD 5 R 3342 47 LD 5 R 3343 3R 01 03 LD R (0301) 3346 80 ADD R B 3347 CB 3F SRL R 3349 32 03 03 LD (0303) A'' 3346 C9 RET * SRL R	
3343 3A 01 03 LD A (0301) 3346 80 ADD A B 3347 CB 3F SRL A 3349 32 03 03 LD (0303) A 3340 C9 RET * * * *	:
3349 32 03 03 LD (0303) A 3340 C9 RET *	•
334D CD BE 32 DOES: CALL SAME 3350 CA 67 33 JP Z DB 3353 ZA 00 03 LD A (0300)	
3356 BE CP (HL) 3357 CR 63 33 JP Z DR 3558 3E 02 LD R 02	
3350 DD 00 32 CALL NEW 3357 DD 48 32 CALL CRTV	
2767 DR : NDP 2264 PP NDP 2365 DR NDP	
3266 CS RET 2367 3E 01 DB : LD R 01 3365 32 65 03 LD (0305) R	
3366 3E 62 3366 CD 0C 3E CALL NEN 3271 CD 67 32 CALL VETX 3374 CF RET *	•
3365 CD 8C 32 CALL NEN. 3374 CA SZ CALL VRTX 3374 CA RET * 3374 CA RET * 3374 CA RET * 3375 CD DE 32 DONT: CHLL SAME 3375 CD DE 32 JF Z NR 3375 CD DE GE JF Z NR 3381 BE DE JF NA LD A (B306) A 3382 DE 01 DE LD A (B300) A 3382 DE 02 RET DE CALL NE NE LD A CALL NE NE LD	
1381 DE JE JE NZ NA 1382 D2 SE JE NZ NA 2385 JE 01 LD R 01 3387 32 01 02 LE (8361) R 7788 76 LD R (PL)	
- 2164, 76 - 2385, 32, 00, 03 - 3395, 05, 67, 32 - 5795, 05, 67, 32 - 5795, 08 - 5795, 0	•
3378 CD BE' 32 JDONT: CHLL SAME 3378 CP 92 33 JF Z NR 3277 34 60 93 LD A (63062) 3284 BE CF (HL) JF NR 3281 BE DF NR LD R 63 3383 JF BE DF NR LD R 64 3384 DF BE BE CF VETN SET SET CRLL VETN 3384 CF AG SE CRLL NFL CF VETN 3387 CF CF SE CF DF GF SE 3387 CF CF SE CF CF CF GF SE CF CF	
11555 (25) (27) 22557 (25) (26) (25) (26) (26) 23567 (25) (26) (27) (26) 23567 (26) (48) (35) (26) (26) (26) 23573 (25) (26) (26) (26) (26) (26) (26) (26) (26	
DZAR STREØN IZAR BR BR ST OLD : LD A (03081 I3ar be I2ar op (hl) I2ar op Ret *	

8 21 6 3E	60 46	ยย		FHIL:	•	A 46	
D 77 E 23,				•	LD.	(HL) A	
F 3E	41		•		, INC' LD'	`HL`` `A_41	
1 77		•		•	LD	(HL) R	•
2 23 3 3E	49			· .	/INC	HL . A 49	
5 77					LD		,
6 23		:		•	INC	· HL	
7 <u>3</u> E 9 77	4C		•		LD LD	A 40 . (HL) A	
A 23		-	-	· ·	INC		
B 3E	FF		•		ĹD	A FF	
) 77 E CD	D2	35			LD	(HL) A CRLF	
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	Ĥ5	35		,	CALL	SEND	
7	ŧν				RST	38 *	
9,3FCF 9 06				RCVR:	LD	E 00 ·	· .
<u> </u>	-	03			LD	A (0365)	
F. FE 1 C2	00 97	3F	•	*	`СР. то .	00 NZ RONE	•
1 2A		3F 02		•	LD	HL (0212)	
7 22	12	05 [°]			LD	(0512) HL	
	00 00	83 85 - 1	-	000	LD	A (0300)	
se 3R	88 55	03 03		_RCA ∶	LD LD	(0500) A A (0355)	
\mathbb{C}					INC	- <i>H</i>	
32 3E	55 oz	Ø3			LD	:(0355) A	
	01 65	93		· · ·	LD LD	A 01: (0355) A	
ΞĒ	$\bar{\mathcal{O}}\bar{\mathcal{O}}$	85		1. A.	LD	A (8508)	
FE	00	· -		•	<u>CP</u> -		•
ĈĤ FE	53 01	∃E ,			JP CP	2.888 01	
CZ	42	3F		•	JF	NZ RCB	
CD		31			CALL	RA	
22	12 19	02 34			$\frac{LI}{JF}$ +	(0212).HL CYCL	
FĒ	02			RCE .	CF	82	
Ū2	58	SF Da			JP \sim	NZ RCC	
CD 22	50 12	31 82			CALL LD	ŘB (0212) HĽ	
22 03	4 <u>1</u>	34			JP	JB	
F <u>E</u>	83			200 :	CP.	03	
CZ = CD	⊃£ H⊿	SF 31			JR GALL	NZ RCD RC	
		54 62 (LD	(0212) HL	-
<u>23</u>	70	34		.	dP	IC	
トヒ でつ	H4 SE	3F		RCD :	CP JP	04 NE RCE	
ĊŌ	ĤC	31 j			CALL	RD RUE	
22	12	Ū2			LÐ	(0217) HL	
L3 EE	95 07	34		not .	JP en	ID Det s	
с <u>е</u> С 2	оо 7А	ЗF	٠	RCE 1	05° J7	05 - NZ ECF	-
ē.	E4	31			CRLL	RE	
223E20223E2023E20 CC2025E2023E20 CC2025E20205E200 CC205E200205E200	12 r=	02 _4			CALL 15 37	(8212) HL	•
LS FE	υ <i>Ξ</i> ΕΞ			PSF :	er Cr	IE	
				• • • •			

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3F88 FE 3F8A C2 3F8D CD 3F90 22 3F93 C3 3F96 CD 3F99 22 3F96 C3 3F96 C3 3F97 3A 3F97 3A	96 3F 12 02 20 31 12 02 12 02 55 03 01 35 12 02 36 37 97 37 98 32 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 12 03 13 04 14 05 15 03 16 05 17 05 18 05 19 05 10 32 10 32 10 32		RCH RCH RONE:	LD JP CF JP CRLL LD JF CRLL LD JF CRLL LD CF LD CP LD CRLL LD DEC CRLL LD LD LD LD LD LD LD LD LD LD LD LD L	(0212) HL IG RH (0212) HL IH A (0355) 01 NZ RTMO A (0300) H
3FGC C3 3FGF CD 3E53,3E56	1D 3F ES 3E \$K	-	rend:	JP CALL	RCA FAIL * S
.3653 CD 3656 C3 3628,364F	28 38 00 30 \$K		RAA :	CRLL JP	UNIC FOLW *
3E2B 21 3E2E 11 3E31 22 3E34 C6 3E36 ED 3E38 CR 3E38 2R 3E38 CR 3E42 CR 3E45 FE 3E47 CR	88 40 7F 7F 80 82 52 4F 3E 80 82 58 31 2E 3E 88		UNIC: UR : UFIN:	LD LD LD RDD SBC JF LD INC CALL JF CF JP LD JP RET	HL 4080 DE 7F7F (020C) HL A 00 HL DE Z UFIN HL (020C) HL BLAC Z UR 00 Z UR (HL) 0F UR *

				LISTI	ING C			_
2100-1 1100	CP –	00	25		AVR8.	CALL		
2103 2105	CD CD	87 39	27 28		RGIN:	CALL CALL	FRST UPDA	
2102	: 0E	90			pceN-	LD		
210E 210E	CD CD		27 27		BEGN:		LÕŨP	
2111	CĤ	17	21	• .		JP TD	Z IIIA REGN	
2114 2117		0E 4F	21 28	· · ·	JIIĤ:	CALL	STEP	•
211A	ĈĤ	23	21	- -		JP CALL	Z MAKE DO	
211D 2120		65 0E	28 21	•	•.	JF	BEGN	
2123	$\mathcal{C}\mathcal{D}$	F4	27		MAKE		NAIN ONE	•
2126 12129	CD CR	78 32	28 21			٦F	ZIIIE	• .
2120	CD	99	28 .		, 		RON 'Ágin	
212F 2132 -		06 SR	21 > 28 :		IIIB:	CALL	THO	•.
2135	ĒĤ	44	21	• •			ZÉIN CLMNSS	
2138 . 2138		87 23	28	• • *	• •	INC	(IV) set at	-
2130	$\cdot FD \cdot$	22 -		Ū2		$, LP \rightarrow$	(0202) IY Agin	
	°CD	06 8Ř	. 21 27	••	FIN	EALL	SHFT	
<u>21</u> 47 2767,	69	•	• .			' RET	寺	
2787 2787	21	ទ្រីជ	49		FRST		HL SOAD	
278A	22 21	10 03	02 40			LD LD	(6210) HL HL 4203	
27BD 2700		، بسر و بلغ ند	62			LD	(6212) FL	
2703: 	21 22		40 160		/	L D L D	HL 4080 (0218) HL	
2706 2709	2.4 2.4 2.4	85	43			LD	HL 4183	
2700 270F	22 · ra	10	ĒĹ			LD RET	(0218) HL *	
2703,	2700	:\$K	· .		- / / * *	15	A (IX+80)	
27D2 27D6	DD E6	7E : @F	00		SUM :	ld And	8 (IX+80) 9F	
270\$	47 79		-			LD LD	8 A A C	
27D9 27DA					•	ADC	FIE	
270E 2700	4F	•				LD RET	С. А *	
ETPU 27DE:	627	11K						
2702	Ξŵ	23 22	ØË -	62	. L <i>oof:</i>	- INC LD	IX S(828E) IX	
27E0 27E4	DD 22 ED	22 80 52	62			10	(OSBC) HE	
27E4 27E7 27E7 27E8 27E8 27E8 27E8 27E8	ED oc	52 63	йE	62		LD ADD	- DE (022E) F 00	
2012 2012 - 2012	-05 -EC 28	66 52		-		SEC	HL DE	
27EF Ster	2A CP	ÐĴ	ē£			- LD RET	HL (620C) *	,
2114.	المراجع و	927\$#	< .		•			
		67 58	ÐÐ	62	MAIN:	- LD- LD-	-C 0F PE (0200)	
27F8 27F8	FE	12				CF	45	
27F0 1755	FA CS	<u>1</u> 1	25			UP PET LP	N TT. Z	•
1 - 7 - 7 2838	15					LF	R (DE)	
2821 7277	EF St	<u>_</u>				END SOL	M TT 2 A (DE) AF 3 C 27	
		문문				0.5 0.5		
	E- (3. 25	 			ः - इन्हरः		
		-						

2817 91 2818 FE 2818 FA 2810 CD 2820 C9 2821 1A 2822 E6 2824 C6 2826 12	0F F0 0F 21 29 00	28 28		55 TT :	RUD	BF C DO M UU SHFL R (DE) AF	
283F DD 2843 DD 2847 FD 2846 CF	12 16 28 28 28	62 62 16 14 62	82 82 82 82	UPDA:		HL (0212) (0216) HL]% (0210) (0214) I% IY (0202) *	
234F, 2381 284F 32 2855 20 2856 20 2856 20 2857 ED 2857 ED 2857 ED 2851 CP	KRE 2010 TEC2	A2 0E 32 1P	02 62	step:	LP LB LD ED ED ED ED ED ET	(0200) HL (0200) IV HL (0200) DE (0216) HL 00 HL 00 1 *	
2365,2877 2865 28 2868 ED 2860 19 2860 DD 2871 DD 2873 DD		07 08 14 14	82 82 82	58 t	LD LD BDD LD RDD LD RET	HL (0200) DE (0208) HL DE IX (0214) IX DE (0214) IX *	
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-28CE	19		0.2		•	' ADD	HL DE
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2508 2509 2609 2613 2614 2614 2614 2614 2622 2622 2622 2622	2608 79 79 2627 2627 37 2627 37 2627 37 2627 2647 2647 2647 2647 2647 2647	\$\$K \$\$F \$\$K_{001304} \$\$2002_430 \$\$3045 \$\$\$\$\$ \$\$\$\$\$ \$\$\$\$\$ \$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$ \$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$	82 82 26 25 82 26 26 26		CNTR: FF : GG : MODF: LORD:	RET LD CP RET LD LD LD LD LD RET CRLL RET LD RET LD RET	* A C OF * (0230) A A (0240) 01 NZ FF A B0 GG A (0240) A A (0230) * LOAD A 00 STOR * DE (0200) A (DE) OF	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
2508 2509 2609 2613 2614 2613 2613 2613 2613 2613 2613 2613 2613	2608 79 79 2627 2627 37 2627 2627 2627 2627 2627 2	\$\$K \$\$F \$\$K_{001304} \$\$2002_430 \$\$3045 \$\$\$\$\$ \$\$\$\$\$ \$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$ \$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$	82 82 26 25 82 26 26 26		CNTR: FF : GG : MODF: LORD:	RET LD CP RET LD LD JP LD JP LD LD RET LD RET LD RET LD RET LD	* A C OF * (0230) A A (0240) 01 NZ FF A 00 GG A (0240) A A (0230) * LOAD A 00 STOR * DE (0200) A (DE) OF	•

•

266F DD 22 0E 02 LD 2673 22 0C 02 LD 2676 ED 5B 0E 02 LD 2676 ED 5B 0E 02 LD 2677 C6 00 ADD 262 LD 2677 ED 52 SEC SEC 262 LD 2681 C9 RET 2685 ED 5B 16 02 LOPC: LD 2685 ED 5B 16 02 LOPC: LD 2687 2686 RET 2687 ED 5B 18 02 TSTA: LD 2693 2A 12 D 2696 2C LD 2697 2E 10 26 260 RET 2698 2A 12 D 26 26 10 26 26	(8230) A A (8255) 81 NZ HH A 88 JJ A (8258) A A (8238)	* DE (0208) IX DE (020E) IX (020C)'HL DE (020E) R 00 HL DE HL (020C) *	IX DE * DE (0218) HL (0212)	(0210) HL HL (0212) HL (0212) HL HL (0214) HL (0214) HL	L NEN L STRT L NNDR L CHNG	A 00 DE (0220) HL (021R) B A R (DE) (HL) A A B 09 Z NN	DE HL R MM
2651 3H 50 02 2654 FE 01 2656 C2 5E 26 2659 3E 00 2655 3C HH 2657 32 50 02 2665 37 30 02 2665 C9 2669 2657 2665 C9 2667 20 2667 DD 19 2667 DD 19 2667 DD 19 2667 DD 22 00 2677 22 00 02 2677 C6 00 22 2677 C8 00 02 2677 C8 00 02 2677 C8 00 02 2677 C8 02 L0PC: 2689 DD 19 26 2689 C9 2 2 2689 C9 2 2 2693 C9 14 02 <th>LU A CP 01 JP NI LD A JP JC INC A LD (0</th> <th>RET LD DI ADD I) LD (1 LD (1 LD DI ADD A SBC HI LD HI RET</th> <th>ADD: I RET LD D LD H ADD A SEC H</th> <th>INC H LD (LD H INC H LD (LD H INC H LD (</th> <th>CALL N CALL S CALL S CALL W CALL C CALL T JP Z JP K</th> <th>LD D LD H LD E LD R LD R LD R LD R CP 0</th> <th>INC C INC F INC F JP / M</th>	LU A CP 01 JP NI LD A JP JC INC A LD (0	RET LD DI ADD I) LD (1 LD (1 LD DI ADD A SBC HI LD HI RET	ADD: I RET LD D LD H ADD A SEC H	INC H LD (LD H INC H LD (LD H INC H LD (CALL N CALL S CALL S CALL W CALL C CALL T JP Z JP K	LD D LD H LD E LD R LD R LD R LD R CP 0	INC C INC F INC F JP / M
2651 3A 50 02 2654 FE 01 2656 C2 5E 26 2659 3E 00 2657 32 50 02 2657 32 50 02 2657 32 50 02 2657 32 50 02 2657 32 50 02 2667 DD 19 2 2667 DD 22 02 2673 22 0C 02 2676 ED 5B 08 02 2677 2A 0C 02 2 2676 ED 5B 06 02 2677 2A 0C 02 2 2685 2B 5B 18 02 2687 2A 19 02 2 2688 C9 2 2 02 2698 2A 18 02 2 2698 2A 10 <t< td=""><td>НН</td><td></td><td></td><td>UNDR :</td><td>KK</td><td>•</td><td>- </td></t<>	НН			UNDR :	KK	•	-
2651 3A 50 02 2654 FE 01 2656 C2 5E 26 2659 3E 00 2658 C3 5F 26 2658 C3 5F 26 2652 3C 02 2655 C9 2662 3A 30 02 2665 C9 26 267 22 02 2666 DD 19 266 02 2667 DD 22 02 02 2667 DD 22 02 02 2676 ED 5B 08 02 2677 22 0C 02 2677 2681 C9 20 02 268 2685 ED 5B 16 26 2686 C9 22 02 26 2687 26 98 4B 18 26 2698 26 52 26 26 2698 26 60 26 26 </td <td>-</td> <td>02 02</td> <td></td> <td>•</td> <td></td> <td>22 </td> <td></td>	-	02 02		•		22 	
2651 3A 50 2654 FE 01 2656 C2 5E 2659 3E 00 2658 C3 5F 2655 3C 50 2657 32 50 2657 32 50 2657 32 50 2658 C3 5F 2657 32 50 2665 C9 20 2667 DD 19 2687 ED 5B 2677 CB 00 2676 ED 5B 2687 C9 19 2688 C9 19 2687 C9 52 2698 2A 12 2698 2A 12	82 26 26 02 /	08 02 02 02	18	82 82 82 82 82	2556666 22286666	02	14
2651 3A 2654 FE 2654 FE 2655 C2 2656 C2 2657 32 2658 C3 2657 32 2658 C9 2657 32 2658 C9 2657 32 2658 C9 2657 C9 2658 C9 2657 C9 2669 ED 2669 ED 2667 C9 2667 C9 2667 C9 2667 C9 2687 2698 2688 C9 2688 C9 2698 C9 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 2698 C0 26	50 01 5E 00 5F 50	₩ 58 19 22 0C 58 00 52 0C	19 ‡K 58', 12 00 52	10 10 12 12 14 14	467.5.88207 86.88207 86.88207	98 58 18	<u>P</u> P
2654 26556 26556 26556 26557 26557 26557 26657 26667 26667 26677 266877 26687 26687 26687 26687 26687 26687 26687 26687	3A FE C2 C3E C3C C3C C3C C3C	C9 2681: ED DD 22 ED 22 ED 268 268 5	DD C9 2698. ED 28 C6 C5 C9	402432 4 329 222222 4 329 202222222	CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD CD C	3ED 28 47 18 78 78 56	13 23 20 20
	2651 2654 2656 2659 2658 265E 265E	2665 2669, 2669 2660 2667 2673 2676 2676 2676 2672 2681 2685,	2689 2688, 2687, 2687 2693 2696 2698, 2698,	2698 2695 2697 2682 2685 2685 2685 2685 2680 2680	2684 2687 2688 2680 2603 2603 2605 2609 2609 2600	26D0 26D2 26D6 26D9 26D9 26D8 26D8 26D8 26D0 26D0	2652 2652 2654 2655

26F2, 2707 26F2 ED 26F6 22 26F9 11 26FC C6 26FE ED 2700 ED 2704 28 2707 C9 2708, 2729	53 00 50 52 58 00	0A 02- 01 0A 02	· · ·	TEST:	LD LD LD ADD SBC LD LD RET	(020R) DE (020C) HL DE 0150 - A 00 HL DE DE (020R) HL (020C)
270B 21 270E 22 2711 22 2714 21 2717 22 2717 22 2718 21		25 20 20 20 20 20 20 20		OLD :	LD LD LD LD LD	HL IF
2720 ED 2724 3E 2726 32 2729 C9	58 00 50	02	82		LD LD	
. 2720, 2737: 2720 CD 2730 2A 2733 23 2734 22 2737 C9	¥К 08, 00 00,	27 82 82	•	OLDA:	CALL LD INC LD RET	0LD HL (0260) HL (0200) HL
2738,2746, 2738 28 2738 60 2742 66 2744 60 2746 69	82 58 58 52	02 04	02	TSTB:	LD LD ADD SBC RET	HL (8282) DE (8284) R 88 HL DE +
2748-27601 2748 ED 2740 2R 2746 19	5 E	66 02	02	WNGE:	LD LD ADD '	DE (0206) HL (0210) HL DE
2750 22 2753 2A 2756 19 2757 22	18 12 12	92 - 92 82		•	LD LD ADD LD	(0210) HL HL (0212) HL DE (0212) HL
2758 28 2750 19 275E 22 2761 ED 2765 28 2768 19 2768 19 2769 22 2760 09	14 14 18 18 18	82 82 82 82 82	ÐÐ	•	LD ADD LD LD ED ADD ED RET	HL (0214) HL DE (0214) HL DE (0208) HL (0218) HL DE (0218) HL
2770 - 09	88 88 -	27 36 02 02	<i>82</i>	OLRE.	CALL LD LD ADD LD RET	OLD DE (8205) HL (020P) HL 9E (0206) HL
2788,27864 2788 FD 2782 FD 2788 CD	97 22 22	22	ē2	LAST	INC LD RET	14 162033-14 *

Appendix

3

PROGRAMS IN 'C'

These include two main operations:-

a) the Real Vertex Verification and

b) the Formation of Unit Clauses.

The whole program consists of a *main* routine and 16 subroutines. Nine of the subroutines are called by the *main* and the rest of them from other subroutines. In the following, the function of every subroutine is described in brief with special emphasis on their difficult points.

main:- This is the main routine of the program, which basically is responsible for printing out messages according to the various results, and calls the nine primary subroutines that do the two operations mentioned at the beginning. The nine subroutines, according to the order they are called are:-

init:- This initializes the character arrays $ChA[2\emptyset], ChB[2\emptyset], ..., ChE[2\emptyset], by loading them with 'z', and the final Real Vertex Co-ordinate$

Arrays $A[2\emptyset][2], B[2\emptyset][2], \ldots, E[2\emptyset][2]$ by setting them to \emptyset . Finally it zeroizes some pointers and flags.

move:- This moves the vertex-array from locations $A[2\emptyset][2]$ to locations $B[2\emptyset][2]$ to $C[2\emptyset][2]$ and so on. This is necessary because locations $A[2\emptyset][2]$ are always loaded by the vertex-array of the new array. The old one has to be stored for later comparisons. A flag f indicates which case to be used.

Load:- This loads the new vertex-array into V[51] and sets pointer f accordingly for the next call of move.

check: This checks if the vertex-array V[51] and the pointer-array N[16] have got an end marker -1, and sets flags F1 and F2 accordingly.

truvert:- This is the subroutine that checks the distance of every vertex from the equation formed by the real-vertices and accordingly eliminates the ones with distance greater than a certain limit. In doing this it calls three subroutines which are:-

equat:- This forms the equation using the coordinates of the realvertices, by calculating tang and b:-

$$\begin{array}{l} tang = y_2 - y_1 / x_2 - x_1 \\ b = (x_2 + y_1 - x_1 + y_2) / (x_2 - x_1) \end{array} \quad \text{with } x_2 \neq 1$$

When $x_2 = x_1$ then tang is set to 1 because it can not be set to infinity and it should not be set to zero by default.

tolernce:- This checks if the distance of every one of the pseudovertices is within the prespecified limits. If both $x_2 \neq x_1$ and $tang \neq \emptyset$ the tolerance is given by the maximum of the absolute differences between the co-ordinates given by the equation and those of the pseudo-vertex. If $x_2 = x_1$ and $tang = \pm \infty$, then the tolerance is given by the absolute difference of the abscissae. Finally if $tang \neq \emptyset$, the tolerance is given by the absolute value of the two ordinates. This is why tang was set to 1 in the previous subroutine. store:- This stores the coordinates of the verified real-vertices into the new vertex-array A[20][2].

newlist:- This creates a new list of pointers N[i], by inserting in the old list pointers to the pseudo-vertices with distance from the equation greater than the limit.

adjacent:- This checks if two adjacent true-vertices within the vertex-array A[2Ø][2]: are near enough to be considered as one.

first: This decides if the first real vertex is to be eliminated due to the case discussed in Section 3.4.2.

classify:- This calculates the primary elements of the 2-D shapes such as angles, lengths of sides etc., and uses the following four subroutines to prepare the unit clauses for the procedure of recognition.

angle:- This calculates the angles of the 2-D shape according to the formulae of paragraph 3.4.3d.

vertex:- This loads the character array ChA[i] with the appropriate lower-case alphabetic character from c[i].

predicate:- This forms the unit-clauses which are to be used by the PROLOG program and writes them into file 'data'.

commvert:- This uses subroutine *doit* to check if the 2-D shapes that are faces of a 3-D one have common vertices or not.

doit:- This checks if the distances of every vertex of each 2-D shape from those of everyone of the others are near enough to be considered as common. If so, it uses the same alphabetic character to represent them.

The 'C' programs are presented in the following listing.

```
Stincture (etdicab)
 1
 \mathbb{Z}
    .
    double Fits() (sgrt() + atar();
    int abacht
 4
 5
    int Af203123,81203123.00203123.950001(2),81203123;
    int f,j,j,k,F1,F2,R,I,An[14]+S(15]+S2(14],S1(14],N[14],
 6
    char c[26]={'a','b','c','d','a','f','g',',h','i','j','k','l','m',
 7
                'n','o','p'+'q','r','s','t','u','v','w','x','y','z');
 З
 9
    char ChAC201, ChBC201, ChCC201, ChOC201, ChEC201;
    main()
10
11
    £
           int laws
12
           init();
33
    for(i=0;i(20;i++)
    begin: if(f!=0) move();
1\mathcal{L}
15
           if(f)(4)
1.6
                  printf("solid with more than 5 sides ,
           Ł
17
                           algorithm Fails\n");
1 \le
                  goto and;
1\Im
            3
20
           load();
11
            if(f==-1) goto end;
    printf("f=%d\n",f);
22
23
           check();
24
           if(F1 == 1)
25
                  printf("2D-shape with more than 15 vertices ,
            £
27
                           algorithe fails\n");
27
                  goto stop;
2 \oplus
            }
25
           if(F2==1)
30
                  printf("too wany vertices , augment dimension
            £
                           of VEDAn"):
Ξ1
                  qota step;
33
            3
24
           x1=V[0];
35
           v1=V[1];
           x2=VENE133;
36
37
           y2=VEN[1]+1];
38
           I=05
39
           for(j=1;(NEj]!=-1);j++)
40
                  truvert();
           store();
41
42
           A[1][0] = -1;
43
           adjacent();
44
           first();
45
           classify();
46
            for(1=0;1(=16;1++)
47
           £
                   for(m=0;m(=1;m++))
                          printf("AE%d]E%d]
48
                                                  %d\n",1,m,A[1][m]);
                                               =
44
           }
50
         gato begini
51
    end: printf("end of real vertex verification phase ,
52.
                  unit clauses in (data)\n");
    stop: printf("end of procedure\n");
53
54
    }
55
56
    init()
57
           For(i=0;i(20;i++)
    £
58
                 ChAlil=ChBlil=ChCl(l=ChDlil=ChElil='z';
           £
57
                 for(j=0;j(2;j++)
άQ
                      ∩[\][]=H[\](]+H[\](]+C[[][]=D[[][]]=D[[][]]=O;
c +
            }
- 2
            [1, 1, 1, 1]
. 1
              \{i\}
              1. 13 A. 1.
1.1
```

		193
65	}	
66 67		
>∕ ⊳S	move() { if(f==4)	
	<pre>{ for(i=0;i(20;i++))</pre>	
	{ ChE[i]=ChD[i];	
	ChDCil=ChCCil; ChCCil=ChBCil;	
	ChB[i]=ChA[i];	
	for(j=0;j(2;j++)	
	{	
	C[i][j]=B[i][j];	
	B[i][j]=A[i][j];	
	}	
	} }	
	else if($f==3$)	
	{ for(i=0;i(20;i++)	
	{ ChD[i]=ChC[i]; ChC[i]=ChB[i];	, -
	ChB[i]=ChA[i];	
	for(j=0;j(2;j++)	
	{ D[i][]]=C[i][]]; C[i][]=B[i][]];	
	BCi][J]⇒ACi][J];	
	}	·
	ት በመጠረ እስከ 10 ዓ. እ	
	} else if(f==2)	
	<pre>for(i=0;i(20;i++)</pre>	
	{ ChC[i]=ChB[i]; ChB[i]=ChA[i];	
	for(j=0;j(2;j++)	
	{ C[i][j]≈8[i][j];	
	· B[i][j]≈A[i][j]; }	
	}	
	}	
	else if(f==1) {	
	{ ChB[i]=ChA[i];	·
	for(j=0;j(2;j++)	•
	B[i][j]=A[i][j]; }	
	}	
	returni	
	}	
	load()	
	<pre>{ int ivv[51];</pre>	
	printf("type coordinates of vertices now\n") scanf("%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x	ī
	<pre>scanf("XxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXx</pre>	
	&v[0], \$v[1], &v[2], &v[3], &v[4], &v[5], &v[6], &v[7], &v[6]	
	&v[10],&v[11],&v[12],&v[13],&v[14],&v[15],&v[16],&v	
	&v[19],&v[20],&v[21],&v[22],&v[23],&v[24],&v[25],&v scanf("%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x%x	
	&v[28],&v[29],&v[30],&v[31],&v[32],&v[33],&v[34],&v	[35],&v[36],
	$4 \vee [37], 8 \vee [38], 8 \vee [39], 8 \vee [40], 8 \vee [41], 8 \vee [42], 8 \vee [43], 8 \vee$	[44],&v[45],
	<pre>_Av[46],Av[47],&v[48],&v[49],&v[50]); </pre>	u\ +> "`) :
	by intert type pointers to dertain vertices non beanf("XxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXxXx	********
	SNEAR AND A	<u>[6133][7]3</u>

```
SME83, SME93, SME103, SME113, SME121, SME133, SME143, SME153);
129
             for(i=0;i(51;i++) V[i]=v[i];
130
             for(i=0;i<51;i++)
131
                                                            %5,2f\n",i,V[i]);
                       if(VEi]!=0.0) printf("VE%d1
                                                         =
132
              if(NEO]==0) printF("NEO]
                                           = %d\n"→NEOD);
133
              for(i=0;i(16;i++)
134
                                                          %d\n",i,N[i]);
                       if(NEil!=0) priotf("NEZd]
                                                      =
135
              if(V[0]!=-1) f=f+1;
136
              else f = -1;
137
138
              returni
139
     }
140
     check(\cdot)
141
            F1=1:
142
     £
            for(i=0;i(16;i++)
143
                  if(N[i]==-1) F1=0;
            £
144
145
            }
            F2=13
146
            For(i=0$i(51;i++)
147
148
            £
                  if(V[i]==-1) F2=0;
149
            3
150
            raturni
151
     }
152
153
     equat()
             X=x2-x1;
154
     £
             Y=y2-y1;
155
             if(X!=0)
156
             £
                     tang=Y/Xi
157
                     b=(x2*y1-x1*y2)/(x2-x1);
158
159
             }
160
             else
                     tang=1;
161
             £
                     b=0;
162
163
             }
164
             returni
165
      }
166
167
     newlist()
             int L;
168
      £
167
             L=1;
              for( ;N[j]!=-1;j++);
170
              for( ij)Lij--)
171
                    N[j+1]=N[j];
172
             N[j+1]=N[j];
173
174
             N[j]=R;
175
              returni
      }
176
177
178
      store()
              int Ki
179
      £
             K=1;
130
             AEK][0]=x1;
181
182
             A(K)[1]=y1;
.183
              1=K+1;
184
              returni
185
      }
186
      tolernce()
187
              double Dx+Dy;
188
              if((X!=0)&&(tang!=0))
187
                      y≕tang*V[i]+b;
190
              £
                      x=(VEi+1]-b)/tang*
191
```

```
173
                     Dy=fabs(y-VLi+1]);
                     to1=(Dx(=Dy?Dx;Dy))
174
     printf("Dx=%5.2f,Dy=%5.2f,to1=%5.2F\n",Dx,Dy,to1);
195
196
             }
             else if(X==0)
197
                    tol=fabs(V[i]-x1);
193
199
             else if(tang=≈0)
                    tol=fabs(V[i+1]-y1);
200
201
             returni
202
     }
203
204
     trovert()
205
     £
             int flag;
206
             double max;
207
     start: equat();
208
             max=0.0;
209
             i=N[j-1]+2;
             if(i(Ntj])
210
     loopt
             £
                     tolernce();
211
                      if(to1(=2.0)
212
213
                     {one:
                                  i=i+2;
                                  goto loopi
214
                      }
215
                     flag=1;
216
217
                     if(tol)=max)
                            max=tol;
213
                      £
                            x2=V[i];
219
                            y2=V[i+1];
220
                            R=i;
221
                     }
222
                     goto one;
223
224
             }
225
             =148 1F(V[i]==-1)
226
                    returni
             else if(flag!=1)
227
228
             £
                    store();
                    x1=x2;
229
                    y1≈y2i
230
                    x2=V[N[]+1]];
231
232
                    y2=V[N[j+1]+1];
                    returni
233
234
             }
             alse
235
236
             {
                    newlist();
237
                    flag=0;
238
                    goto start;
239
              }
240
     }
241
242
     adjacent()
             double K1,K2,L1,L2;
243
      £
             int lymi
244
              for(1=0;AC1+1](0]!=-1;1++)
245
                     K1=A[]][0]-A[]+1][0];
              {
246
                     K2=AE1]E1]-AE1+1]E1];
247
                     L1=K1*K1;
248
                     L2=K2+K23
249
                      if(sgrt(L1+L2)(=2.0*sgrt(2.0))
250
                              For(m=1;A[m+1][0]!=-1;m++)
251
                      £
                                      A[m][0]=A[m+1][0];
                              {
252
                                      A \in [m] \in [1] = A \in [m+1] \in [1];
253
                              3
254
```

A[m][0]= ~1;

255

```
257
             3
258
             returni
259
     }
260
     first()
261
262
     £
           int Noi
           for(i=0;A[i][0]!=-1;i++);
263
264
           No=i-2;
265
     printf("No=%d\n";No);
266
           x1=AE1][0]; y1=AE1]E1];
           x2=A[No][0]; y2=A[No][1];
267
268
     printf('x1=%5,2f+x2=%5,2f+y1=%5,2f+y2=%5,2f\n"+x1+x2+y1+y2);
269
           equat();
270
           i=0;
           V[i]=A[0][0]; V[i+1]=A[0][i];
271
           tolernce();
272
273
     printf("x=x5.2f;y=x5.2f;VE%d]=x5.2f;VE%d+1]=x5.2f\n";x;y;i;VEi];i;
     printf("tol=%5.2F\n";tol);
274
           if(to1(=2.0)
275
276
           £
                  for(i=0;A[i][0]!=-1;i++)
277
                  {
                      A[i][0]=A[i+1][0];
                      A[i][1]=A[i+1][1];
278
279
                  A[i-2][0]=A[0][0];
280
281
                  A[i-2][1]=A[0][1];
282
           }
283
           else returni
284
     3
285
286
     classify()
287
          double D1+D2;
     €
288
          far(i=0;(AEi+1][0]!=-1);i++)
289
          £
               D1=A[i][0]-A[i+1][0];
290
               D2=A[i][1]-A[i+1][1];
291
               SEi]=sqrt(D1*D1+D2*D2)+0.5;
               TEil=(D1!=0?(360/(2*3.1416)*(atan(D2/D1))):90);
292
293
               if(T[i](0) T[i]=T[i]+180;
               S1[i]=T[i]+0.5;
294
               S2[i]=S[i]*S[i];
275
296
          }
297
          R=i,
298
          angle();
277
          vertex();
300
          commvert();
301
          predicate();
302
          returni
303
     }
304
305
     angle()
306
     £
         int maxA;
307
           maxA=A[1][1];
308
           for(i=1;i(R-1;i++)
                  maxA=(maxA)=A[i+1][1]?maxA:A[i+1][1]);
309
            An[0]=abs(S1[0]-S1[R-1]);
310
311
            for(i=1;i(R;i++))
312
           £
                 if((R)3)&&((ACi]C1](=ACi-1]C1])&&(ACi]C1](=ACi+1]C1]))
313
                            ::((A[i][1])=A[i-1])&&(A[i][1])=A[i+1][1])))
                       An[i]=abs(S1[i-1]-S1[i]);
314
315
                   else if(A[i][1]==maxA)
316
                       An[i]=abs(SI[i-1]-S1[i]);
                   else Antil=180-abs(S1til-51ti-1]);
317
318
           }
319
          returni
320
```

321322 vertex() for(i=0;A[i+1][0]!=-1;i++) 323 £ 324£ ChACil=cEk]; 325 k≈k+15 } 326 327 } 328 329 predicate() FILE *out; 330 • out=fopen("data","a"); 331 for(i=0;A[i+1][0]!=-1;i++) 332 if((A[i+1][0]!=A[0][0])标(A[i+1][1]!=A[0][1])) 333 fprintf(out,"conn(%c,%c%c,%c).\n", 334 £ ChA[i], ChA[i], ChA[i+1], ChA[i+1]); 335 fprintf(out,"line(%c%c,%d).\n", 336 ChACil, ChACi+1J, SCil); 337 fprintf(out,"slope(%c%c,%d).\n", 338 ChACil, ChACi+11, S1Cil); 339 340 fprintf(out,"sqrline(%c%c,%d).\n", ChA(i),ChA(i+1),S2(i)); 341 342 } else 343 344 £ fprintf(out,"conn(%c,%c%c,%c).\n", ChAtil.ChAtil.ChAt01.ChAt01); 345 fprintf(out,"line(%c%c,%d).\n", 346 ChAEil+ChAE01+SEil); 347 fprintf(out, "slope(%c%c,%d).\n", 348 ChAtil, ChAt01, S1[i]); 349 fprintf(out,"sqrline(%c%c,%d).\n", 350 ChAtil, ChAt01, S2(i); 351 352 } 353 7 for(i=0;i(R;i++) 354 fprintf(out,"angle(%c,%d).\n",ChA[i],An[i]); 355 fclose(out); 356 357 raturn; 358 } 359 360 commvert() if(E[0][0]!=0) 361 £ £ doit(A,B,ChA,ChB); 362 363 doit(A,C,ChA,ChC); doit(A,D,ChA,ChD); 364 365 doit(A,E,ChA,ChE); doit(B,C,ChB,ChC); 366 367 doit(B,D,ChB,ChD); doit(B,E,ChB,ChE); 368 doit(C,D,ChC,ChD); 369 370 doit(C,E,ChC,ChE); 371 returni } 372 else if(D[0][0]!=0) 373 374 £ doit(A,B,ChA,ChB); doit(A,C,ChA,ChC); 375 376 doit(A,D,ChA,ChD); doit(B,C,ChB,ChC); 377 doit(B+D+ChB+ChD); 378 doit(C,D,ChC,ChD); 379 380 returni 381 else if(C[0][0]'=0) 382232 doit/B.C.ChB.ChC); Ł $\pi \cap A$ dott (), B. CHA, ChEO (

385	doit(A,C,ChA,ChC);
386	return;
337	}
388	else if(B[0][0]!=0)
339	<pre>{ doit(A,B,ChA,ChB);</pre>
390	return;
391	ана на у ла на селото
392	else returni
393	}
394	
395	doit(W,U,ChW,ChU)
396	int W[20][2],U[20][2];
397	char *ChW,*ChU;
398	<pre>{ int K1+K2+L1+L2;</pre>
399	for(j=0;U[j+1][0]!=+1;j++)
400	<pre>for(i=0;W[i+1][0]!=-1;i++)</pre>
401	<pre>{ K1=W[i3[0]-U[]][0];</pre>
402	K2=WEi][1]-U[]][1];
403	L1=K1*K1;
404	L2=K2*K2;
405	if(sqrt(L1+L2)(=2.0*sqrt(2.0))
406	ChW[i]=ChU[j];
407	<u>}</u>
408	}
409	returns
410	}

Appendix

4

PROGRAMS IN 'PROLOG'

These are the two recognition programs 2-D Recognizer and 3-D Recognizer. The following is a listing of the two programs, which have been presented in detail in Chapter 5.

```
1 init2D:-retractall(atrian(A,B,C,D,E,F)),retractall(aguadril(G,H,I,J,K,L,M,N)).
  2
  3.
        shape(Xitriangle)=trian(XiSiYiTiZiU).
       trian(X:S:Y:T:Z:U)=conn(X:S:Y):conn(Y:T:Z):conn(Z:U:X):not(atrian(X:S:Y:T:Z:U)):not(atrian(Y:T:Z:U,X:S));
  Δ.
                                                 not(atrian(Z_{1}U_{1}X_{1}S_{1}Y_{1}T))_{assert(atrian(X_{1}S_{1}Y_{1}T_{1}Z_{1}U)).
  5
  6 .
        shape(X,isosceles):-init2D,trian(X,S,Y,T,Z,U),equalpair(S,T,U).
  7
        equalpair(X,Y,Z):-equalline(X,Y).
  8
  9
        equalpair(X:Y:Z):=equalline(Y:Z).
10 equalpair(X,Y,Z):-equalline(X,Z).
        equalline(X:Y):=line(X:M):line(Y:N):equal1(M:N).
11
12 equal1(X,Y):-N is X:M is Y:N=M:
13 equal1(X,Y):-(X)Y): 1N is X-Y:N=(2.)
14 equal1(X,Y):-(X(Y),!:N is Y-X:N=(2.
15
16 shape(X,equilateral):-init2D,trian(X,S,Y,T,Z,U),equalline(T,U),equalline(S,T).
17
18 shape(X,right-angled):-init2D,trian(X,S,Y,T,Z,U),right(S,T,U),
19
        right(X+Y+Z):-sgrline(X+L)+sgrline(Y+M)+sgrline(Z+N)+pythag(L+M+N),
20
        pythag(X,Y,Z):~equal2(X,Y+Z).
21
        pythag(X,Y,Z):=equal2(Y,Z+X).
22 pythag(X,Y,Z):-equal2(Z,X+Y).
23 equal2(X,Y):-N is X:M is Y:N=M:!.
24
        equal2(X+Y):=X)Y+!+N is X-Y+N=(4.
25 equal2(X:Y):-X(Y:!:N is Y-X:N=(4.
26
27 shape(X:obtuse-angled):-init2D:trian(X:S:Y:T:Z:U):obtuse(S:T:U).
        obtuse(X,Y+Z):=sgrline(X+L).sgrline(Y+M).sgrline(Z+N).obttheor(L+M+N).
23
29
        obttheor(X_1Y_1Z):-N is X_1M is Y+Z_1N)Milt is N-MiP)4.
        obttheor(X,Y,Z):-N is Y,M is X+Z,N)M, ! P is N-M,P)4.
20
        obttheor(X,Y,Z):-N is Z,M is X+Y,N)M+!+P is N-M+P)4.
31
32
33
        shape(W+quadrilateral) = quadril(W+R+X+S+Y+T+Z+U).
        guadril(W+R_1X_1S+Y+T_1Z_1U) = conn(W+R_1X) + conn(X+S+Y) + conn(Y+T_1Z) + conn(Z+U+W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = W) + (X \land z = Z) + (Y \land z = 
34
35
                                                             not(conn(W,O;Y))))not(conn(X;Q;Z)))not(conn(U;P;W))))not(conn(Z;V;X)))
36
                                                             not(aquadril(W+R+X+S+Y+T+Z+U))+not(aquadril(X+S+T+Y+Z+U+W+R));
37
                                                             not(aquadril(Y,T,Z,U,W,R,X,S)),not(aquadril(Z,U,W,R,X,S,Y,T)),
38
                                                             assert(aquadril(W+R+X+S+Y+T+Z+U)).
39
40
        shape(W+non-convex-quadrilateral):-nonconvquad(W+R+X+S+Y+T+Z+U).
        nonconvguad(W_1R_1X_1S_1Y_1T_1Z_1U):-init2D:quadril(W_1R_1S_1Y_1T_1Z_1U):nonconvex(W_1X_1Y_1Z_1.))
41
        nonconvex(W:X:Y:Z):-angle(W:K):angle(X:L):angle(Y:M):angle(Z:N):two180(K:L:M:N).
42
43
        \pm wa180(W_{1}X_{1}Y_{1}Z) = N \text{ is } W^{+}X^{+}Y^{+}Z_{1}N(360) = N = 360^{-}N + R = 3.5
44
45
        shape(Witrapezium):-trapez(WiRiXiSiYiTiZiU).~
        trapez(W+R+X+S+Y+T+Z+U):=init2D+quadril(W+R+X+S+Y+T+Z+U)+((paral(R+T)+not(paral(S+U)));
46
47
                                                           (paral(S,U) not(paral(R,T))).
43
        paral(X:Y):=slope(X:M):slope(Y:N):equalslope(M:N).
        equalslope(X+Y):=X)Y+!+N is X=Y+N=(3.
49
        equalsicge(X:Y):-X(Y:!+N is Y-X:N=(3.
50
 51
        equalslope(X:Y):-N is X:M is Y:N=M:!.
52
 53
        shape(isosceles-trapezium):-trapez(W:R:X:S:Y:T:Z:U):((equalline(R:T):not(paral(S:U)));
 54
                                                                 (equalline(S(U)(not(paral(R(T)))).
```

shape(Wiparallelogram):-paralgrm(W,R,X,S,Y,T,Z,U). 56 57 paralorm(WyRyXySyYyTyZyU); -init2D; pugdril(WyRyXySyYyTyZyU); paral(RyT); paral(SyU); 53 59 shape(W,rectangle):-rectan(W,R,X,S,Y,T,Z,U). 60 rectan(W+R+X+S+Y+T+Z+U):-paralgrow(W+R+X+S+Y+T+Z+U)+rect(R+S). 61 rect(X:Y):=slope(X:L):slope(Y:M):right(L:M). 62 Ficht(X,Y):-X)Y, IN is X-Y,90=N. 63 right(X,Y):~X(Y,!)N is Y-X,90=N. 54 right(X,Y):-X)Y, !, N is X-Y, N(90, !, R is 90-N, R= (3. 65 right(X,Y):-X(Y,!,N is Y-X,N(90)!,R is 90-N,R=(3. 66 right(X,Y):-X)Y, !, N is X-Y,N)90, !, R is N-90, R=(3. 67 right(X,Y):-X(Y,!,N is Y-X,N)90,!,R is N-90,R=(3. 68 right(X;Y):-X=Y:!:R is 90. 69 70 shape(Wisquare):-squar(WiRiXiSiYiTiZiU). souar(W,R,X,S,Y,T,Z,U):-rectan(W,R,X,S,Y,T,Z,U),equalline(R,S). 71 72 73 shape(Wirhombus):-rhomb(WiRiXiSiYiTiZiU). 74 $rhomb(W_1R_1X_1S_1Y_1T_1Z_1U):=paralorn(W_1R_1X_1S_1Y_1T_1Z_1U):=qualline(R_1S).$ 75

76 shape(N:other):-init2D:not(trian(A:X:B:Y:C:Z)):not(guadril(R:S:T:U:V:W:Q:P)).

init2D:-retractall(atrian(A:B:C:D:E:F)):retractall(aquadril(G:H:I:J:K:L:M:N)). $trian(X_1S_1Y_1T_1Z_2U)$:-conn(X_1S_1Y),conn(Y_1T_1Z),conn(Z_1U_1X),not(atrian(X_1S_1Y_1T_1Z_1U)),not(atrian(Y_1T_1Z_1U),X_1S)), not(atrian(Z,U,X,S,Y,T)) (assert(atrian(X,S,Y,T,Z,U)). equalline(X,Y):-line(X,M),line(Y:N),equal1(M:N). equal1(X.Y):-N is X.M is Y.N=M. !. 6 Equal1(X,Y):-(X)Y), N is X-Y,N=(2. equal1(X,Y):-(X(Y):!:N is Y-X:N=(2. я Ŷ auadril(W;R;X;5;Y;T;Z;U):~conn(W;R;X);conn(X;5;Y);conn(Y;T;Z);conn(Z;U;W);(X)=~Z);(Y)*=W); 10 not(conn(W, D, Y)), not(conn(X, Q, Z)), not(conn(U, P, W)), not(conn(Z, V, X)), 11 not(apuadril(W,R,X,S,Y,T,Z,U)),not(apuadril(X,S,T,Y,Z,U,W,R)), 12 13 not(acuadril(Y,T,Z,U,W,R,X,S)),not(acuadril(Z,U,W,R,X,S,Y,T)), assert(acuadril(W,R)X,S,Y),Z,U)). 14 15 16 paralgrm(W,R,X,S,Y,T,Z,U):-init2D,quadril(W,R,X,S,Y,T,Z,U),paral(R,T),paral(S,U). 17 $paral(X_1Y)$ t-slope(X_1M) is lope(Y_1N) ieouals lope(M_1N). 18 equalslope(X:Y):-X)Y::+N is X-Y:N=(3. 19 equalslope(X:Y):-X(Y:1:N is Y-X:N=(3. 20 equalslope(X:Y):-N is X:M is Y:N=M:1. 21 22 rectan(W:R:X:S:Y:T:Z:U):-paralgrm(W:R:X:S:Y:T:Z:U):rect(R:S). 23 rect(X:Y):-slope(X:L):slope(Y:M):right(L:M). 24 right(X:Y):-X)Y.!.N is X-Y:90=N. 25 right(X,Y):-X(Y+!+N is Y-X:90=N. 26 right(X;Y):-X)Y;!:N is X-Y:N(90:!:R is 90-N:R=(3. 27 right(X:Y):-X(Y:!:N is Y-X:N(90:!:R is 90-N:R=(3. 28 right(X:Y):-X)Y.1.N is X-Y.N)90.1.R is N-90.R=(3. right(X,Y):-X(Y+!+N is Y-X+N) 90+!+R is N-90+R=(3. 29 30 richt(X,Y):-X=Y,!,R is 90. 31 32 squar(W,R,X,S,Y,T,Z,U):-rectan(W,R,X,S,Y,T+Z+U);equalline(R,S). 33 $34 = rhomb(W_1R_1X_1S_1Y_1T_1Z_1U):=paralgrm(W_1R_1X_1S_1Y_1T_1Z_1U):=qualline(R_1S).$ 35 36 notshape:-not(trian(A:B:C:D:E:F)),not(quadri)(B:H:I:J:K:L:M:N)). 37 38 shape3D(Astetrahedron):-tetra(AsBsC,D). 39 tetra(A,B,C,D):~init2D,trian(A,X,B,Y,C,Z),trian(C,V,B,W,D,U),tinotshape:not(other1(A,B,C,D)), 40 tetra(A,B,C,D):-init2D,trian(A,X,B,Y,C,Z),trian(A,V,C,U,D,W),!notshape+not(other1(A,B,C,D)). 41 tetra(A,B,C,D):-init2D,trian(A,X,B,Y,C,Z),trian(A,Y,D,U,B,W):!inotshape(not(other1(A,B,C,D)). 42 shapeJD(A,tetrahedron):-tetral(A,B,C,D). 43 $\Delta \Delta = tetral(A,F,C,D):=init2Ditrian(A,X,B,Y,C,Z)+trian(A,R,D)+5+B+T)+trian(A,U,C+V+D+U)+(+notshape+not(other)(A+E+C+D))$ 45 tetrai(A,B,C,D):-init2Ditrian(A+X+B+Y+C+Z)+trian(A+R+C+S+D+T)+trian(A+E+C+F+D+G)+trian(C+U+B+V+D+W)+!+ notshape, not(other1(A:B:C:D)). 46 49 notshape:not(other1(A:B:C:D)). 49 50 = other1(A)B,C(D):=conn(1,J(K),(K)=A),(K)=B),(K)=C),(K)=D).

shape3D(A, square~pyramid):-pyram(A, B, C, D, E). 52 53 pyram(A,B,C,D,E):-init2D,trian(A,R,B,S,C,T),trian(A,W,C,U,D,V),trian(A,X,D,Y,E);),(E)==B), (, 54 notshape+not(other2(A+B+C+D+E)). 55 Dvram(A+B+C+D+E)!=init2D+trian(A+R+B+S+C+T)+trian(A+U+D+V+B+W)+trian(A+X+C+Y+E+Z)++D+==E)+!+ 56 notshape:not(other2(A:B:C:D:E)). 57 pvram(A,B,C,D,E):-init2D,trian(A,R,B,S,C,T),trian(A,U,D,V,B,W),trian(A,X,E,Y,D,Z),(C)==E),: 58 notshape;not(other2(A:B:C:D:E)). 59 60 notshape:not(other2(A:B:C:D:E)). pyram(A+B+C+D+E)+-init2D+trian(A+R+B+S+C+T)+trian(A+U+D+V+B+W)+trian(C+X+B+Y+E+2)+(E+=D)+++ ć-1 62 notshape:not(other2(A,B,C,D,E)). pyram(A)E,C:D:E):=init2D:trian(A,R:B:S:C:T):trian(C:U:B:V:D:W).trian(A:X:C:Y:E:Z):(C:x=D):", 63 64 notshape.not(other2(A+B+C+D+E)). pyram(A+B+C+D+E) == init2D+trian(A+R+B+S+C+T)+trian(A+U+C+V+D+W)+trian(D+X+C+Y+E+Z)+(B)==E+++ 65 6.5 notshape:not(other2(A:B:C:D:E)). pyram(A+B+C+D+E):-init2D+trian(A+R+B+S+C+T)+trian(A+U+D+V+B+W)+trian(D+X+E+Y+B+Z)+(C)==E)+!+ 57 63 notshape:not(other2(A;B;C;D;E)). ovram(A,B,C,D,E):-init2D,trian(A,R,B,S,C,T),trian(C,V,B,U,D,W),trian(B,X,E,Y,D,Z),(A)==E),;, 69 70 notshape:not(other2(A:B:C:D:E)). 71 72 shape3D(A,square-pyramid):-pyram1(A,B,C,D,E). pyram1(A,B,C,D,E):-init2D,trian(A,S,B,T,C,U),trian(A,I,C,J,D,K),trian(A,L,D,M,E,N),trian(A,P,E,Q,B,R), 73 74 quadril(B:W:C:X:D:Y:E:Z):!:notshape:not(ather2(A:B:C:D:E)); 75 pyraml(A+B+C+D+E):=init2D+trian(A+S+B+T+C+U)+trian(C+I+B+J+D+K)+trian(C+L+D+M+E+N)+trian(E+P+A+C+C+R)+ 75 ouadril(E:W:A:X:B:Y:D:Z):!:notshape:not(other2(A:B:C:D:E)). pyrami(A,B,C,D,E):-init2D,trian(A,S,B,T,C,U),trian(B,I,A,J,D,K),trian(B,L,D,M,E,N),trian(B,P,E,Q,C,R), 77 73 quadril(A,W,D,X,E,Y,C,Z),!.notshape.not(other2(A,B,C,D,E)). 77 80 shape3D(A, square-pyramid):-tetra(A, B, C, D). 81 82 ather2(A,B,C,D,E):-conn(I,J,K),(K\==A),(K\==B),(K\==C),(K\==E). 93 84 shape3D(A,square-pyramid):-truntripyr(A,B,C,D,E), 55 86 shape3D(A,triangular-prism):-sqrprism(A,B,C,D,E,F), 87 83 shape3D(Aitruncated-triangular-pyramid):-truntripyr(AiBiC:DiE). 89 truntripyr(A;B;C;D;E):=init2D;trian(A;X;B;Y;C;Z):!:quadril(A;R;D;S;E;T;B;U):!:notsnape:not(other2(A;B;C;D;E)). 90 truntripyr(A;B;C;D;E):-init2D;trian(A;X;B;Y;C;Z)::quadril(A;R;C;S;E;T;D;U)::notshape;not(other2(A;B;C;D;E)). 91 truntripyr(A:B:C:D:E):=init2D:trian(A:X:B:Y:C:Z):!:quadril(B:U:D:R:E:S:C:T):!:notshape:not(other2(A:B:C:D:E)). 92 truntripyr(A,B,D,C,E):=init2D,quadril(A,R;B,S;C,T,D,U),!,trian(D,X,C,Y,E,Z),!,notsnape,not(other2(A,B,C,D,E)). truntripyr(A:B:C:D:E):-init2D:quadril(A:R:B:S:C:T:D:U):!:trian(B:X:E:Y:C:Z)::notshape:not(other2(A:B:C:D:E)). 93 94 95 ather3(A+B+C+D+E+F); conn(I+J+K); (K = A); (K = A); (K = C); (K = D); (K = C); (K =46 shape3D(Aitruncated-triangular-pyramid):-truntripyr1(A,B,C,D,E,F). 97 truntripyr1(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,quadri1(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),!quadri1(C,W,B,X,E,Y,F,Z),cclan(D,K,C,L,F,M)); 93 99 notshape,not(other3(A,B,C,D,E,F)). 100 truntripyr1(A;B;C;D;E;F):=init2D;quadri1(A;R;B;S;C;T;D;U);:quadri1(A;W;D;X;E;Y;F;Z);trian(D;K;C;L;E;M);; 101 notshape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)). truntripyr1(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D;quadri1(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U);!quadri1(D,W,C,X,E,Y,F,Z),trian(C,K,B,L,E,M);!; 102 103 notshape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)). 104 truntripyr1(A,B,C,D,E,F);=init2D;quadri1(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U);!;quadri1(B,W,A,X,E,Y,F,Z);trian(C,K,B,L,F,M);!; 105 notshape:not(other3(A,B,C,D,E,F)).

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105 truntripyr1(A:B,C,D,E);+init2D;quadri1(A;R,B;S;C;T,D;U);;quadri1(C;W,B;X;E;Y)F;Z);trian(B;K;A;L;E;M);; 107 notshape;not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)). 103 truntriovrl(A,B,C,D,E,F):=init2D,quadril(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),!,quadril(A,W,D,X,E,Y,F,Z),trian(B,K,A,L,F,M),!, notshape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)). 107 110 truntripyr1(A,B;C,D,E,F):-init2D,guadril(A,R,B;S;C,T,D,U),!guadril(D,W;C,X,E,Y,F,Z),trian(A,K,D,L,F,M),! notshape;not(other3(A;B;C;D;E;F)). 111 112 truntrigyr1(A;B;C;D;E;F):-init2D;guadril(A;R;B;S;C;T;D;U);!;guadril(B;W;A;X;E;Y;F;Z);trian(A;K;D;L;E;M);!; notshape,not(other3(A,B,C,D,E,F)). 113 114 truntripyr1(A,B,C,D,E,F);-init2D,trian(A,R,B,S,C,T);;quadril(A,W,C,X,D,Y,E,Z);quadril(B,K,A,L,E,M,F,N);; 115 notshape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)). truntripyr1(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init20,trian(A,R,B,S,C,T),!,quadri1(B,W,A,X,D,Y,E,Z),quadri1(C,K,B,L,E,M,F,N),!, 116 117 notshape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)). 113 truntripyr1(A,B,C,D,E,F);-init2D,trian(A,R,B,S,C,T),;,quadri1(C,W,B,X,D,Y,E,Z),quadri1(A,K,C,L,E,M,F,N),;, 119 notshape,not(other3(A,B,C(D,E,F)). 120 121 shape3D(A,triangular-prism):-triprism(A,B,C,D,E). 122 triorism(A:B:C:D:E):-init2D:trian(A:X:B:Y:C:Z)::paralgrm(A:R:D:S:E:T:B:U)::notshape:not(other2(A:B:C:D:E)). 123 triprism(A,B,C,D,E):-init2D,trian(A,X,B,Y,C,Z),!,paralgrm(A,R,C,S,E,T,D,U),!,notshape,not(other2(A,B,C,D,E)). 124 triprism(A,B,C,D,E):-init2D,trian(A,X,B,Y,C,Z),!,paralgrm(B,U,D,R,E,S,C,T),!,notshape,not(other2(A,B,C,D,E)), ! 125 triprism(A,B,D,C,E):-init2D,paralgrm(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),!,trian(D,X,C,Y,E,Z),!,notshape,not(other2(A,B,C,D,E)). 126 triprism(A,B,C,D,E);-init2D,paralgrm(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U);:trian(B,X,E,Y,C,Z);;notshape,not(other2(A,B,C,D,E)). 127 shape3D(A,triangular-prism):-trirpism1(A,B,C,D,E,F). 123 129 trirpism1(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,paralgrm(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),;paralgrm(C,W,B,X,E,Y,F,Z),trian(D,K,C,L,F,M)); notshape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)), 130 131 trirpism1(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,paralgrm(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),!,paralgrm(A,W,D,X,E,Y,F,Z),trian(D,K,C,L,E,M),!, notshape;not(other3(A;B;C;D;E;F)). 132 133 trippismi(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,paralgrm(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),!,paralgrm(D,W,C,X,E,Y,F,Z),trian(C,K,B,L,E,M),!, notshape;not(other3(A;B;C;D;E;F)). 134 trirpismi(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,paralgrm(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),;paralgrm(B,W,A,X,E,Y,F,Z),trian(C,K,B,L,F,M),; 135 notshape, not(other3(A,B,C,D,E,F)). 136 trirpism1(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,paralgrm(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),!paralgrm(C,W,B,X,E,Y,F,Z),trian(B,K,A,L,E,M),! 137 notshape, not(other3(A,B,C,D,E,F)). 138 trirpism1(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,paralgrm(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),!paralgrm(A,W,D,X,E,Y,F,Z),trian(B,K,A,L,F,M),! 139 notshape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)). 140 trippismi(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,paralgrm(A,R,D,S,C,T,D,U),!,paralgrm(D)W,C,X,E,Y,F,Z),trian(A,K,D,L,F,M),!, 141 notshape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)). 142 trirpism1(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,paralgrm(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),!,paralgrm(B,W,A,X,E,Y,F,Z),trian(A,K,D,L,E,M),!, 143 notshape, not(other3(A,B,C,D,E,F)). 144 trirpism1(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,trian(A,R,B,S,C,T),!;paralgrm(A,W,C,X,D,Y,E,Z),paralgrm(B,K,A,L,E,M,F,N),!; 145 notshape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)). 146 trirpism1(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,trian(A,R,B,S,C,T),!;paralgrm(B,W,A,X,D,Y,E,Z),paralgrm(C,K,B,L,E,M,F,N))! 147 notshape,not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)). 148 trirpism1(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,trian(A,R,B,S,C,T),!:paralgrm(C,W,B,X,D,Y,E,Z):paralgrm(A,K,C,L,E,M,F,N):: 149 notshape:not(other3(A;B;C;D;E;F)). 150 151 152 shape3D(Astruncated-square-pyramid):-trunsqrpyr(AsBsCsDsEsF). trunsgrpyr(A:B:C:D:E:F):-init2D:quadril(A:R:B:S:C:T:D:U):quadril(C:W:B:X:E:Y:F:2):::notshape:not(otne:::(A:I:C:D:E:F:); 153 trunsgrpyr(A:B:C:D:E:F):=init2D:quadril(A:R:B:S:C:T:D:U):quadril(B:W:A:X:E:Y:F:Z):!:not:hape:not(othe:3(A:D:C:D:E:F)): 154 trunsgrpyr(A+B+C+D+E+F):=init2D+quadril(A+R+B+S+C+T+D+U)+quadril(A+W+D+X+E+Y+F+7)+'+notehape+not(othe+C(A+C+L+C+E+F)). 155 156 157 158 other4(A;B;C;D;E;F;G);-conn(I;J;K);(K\==A);(K\==B);(K\==C);(K\==D);(K\==E);(K\==F);(K\==G); 159

shape3D(A,truncated-square-pyramid):-trunsqrpyr1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G). 160 trunsgrpyr1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):=init2D:guadri1(A,W,B+X;C,Y,D+Z):guadri1(B,K;A+L,E,M,F+N):guadri1(C:R+B:S:F+T+G+U)+) 161 notshape:not(other4(A:B:C:D:E:F:G)). 162 trunsgrpyr1(A)B+C+D+E+F+G)=-init2D+guadri1(A+W+B+X+C+Y+D+Z)+guadri1(A+K+D+L+E+M+F+N)+guadri1(B+R+A+S+F+T+G+U)+)+ 163 notshape,not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 164 trunsgrpyr1(A,B,C,D)E,F)G)1-init2D;guadri1(A,W,B,X)C)Y;D)Z);guadri1(D,K)C;L,E;M)F,N);guadri1(A,R;D;S+F;T;G+U); 165 notshape,not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 166 trunsgrpyr1(A;B;C;D;E;F;B):-init2D;quadril(A;W;B;X;C;Y;D;Z);quadril(C;K;B;L;E;M;F;N);quadril(D;R;C;S;F;T;G;U);:; 167 notshape, not (otherA(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 169 169 170 shape3D(A,square-prism);-sqrprism(A,B,C,D,E,F). sororism(A,B,C,D,E,F):=init2D:paralgrm(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U):paralgrm(C,W,B,X,E,Y,F,Z):"inotshape:not(other3:A,B,C,D,E,F)).171 $172 = \text{sorprism}(A_1B_1C_1B_1E_1F):= \text{init2D_1Daralgrm}(A_1R_1B_1S_1C_1T_1D_1U) + \text{Daralgrm}(B_1W_1A_1X_1E_1Y_1F_2Z) + (not shape + not (other 3(A_1B_1C_1F_1F_2Z))).$ sorprism(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,paralgrm(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),paralgrm(A,W,D,X,E,Y,F,Z),!,notshape,not(other3(A,3,C,D,E,F)). 173 sorprism(A+B+C+D+E+F):=init2D+paralorm(A+B+B+S+C+T+D+U)+paralorm(D+W+C+X+E+Y+F+Z)+!+notshape+not(other3(A+B+C+D+E+F)).174 175 176 shape3D(A,square-prism):=sqrprism1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G).177 sorprism1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):=init2D,quadril(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),paralgrm(B,K,A,L,E,M,F,N),paralgrm(C,R,B,S,F,T,G,U),:+ 178 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 179 - Sqfprisw1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):-init2D,quadril(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),paraIgrw(A,K,D,L,E,M,F,N),paraIgrw(B,R,A,S,F,T,G,U,+), 180 notshape+not(other4(A+B+C+D+E+F+G)). sqrprism1(A+B+C+D+E+F+G)==init2D+quadri1(A+W+B+X+C+Y+D+Z)+paralgrm(D+K+C+L+E+M+F+N)+caralgrm(A+R+D+S+F+T+C+U)+(+ 181 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 182 sororism1(A)B+C,D)E+F,B):=init2D;quadril(A+W;B+X+C+Y+D+Z)+paralgrm(C+K+B+L+E+M+F+N)+paralgrm(D+R+C+S+F+1+G+U)+!+ 183 184 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). sorprism1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):-init2D,paralorm(A,W,E,X,C,Y,D,Z),quadril(B,K,A,L,E,M,F,N),paralorm(C,R,B,S,F,T,G,U),!, 185 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 186 sorprisml(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):~init2D,paralorm(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z);quadril(A,K,D,L,E,M,F,N),paralorm(B,R,A,S,F,T,G,U,,', 187 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 188 sarprisml(A;B;C;D;E;F;G):=inlt2D;paralorm(A;W;B;X;C;Y;D;Z);quadril(D;K;C;L;E;M;F;N);paralorm(A;R;D;S;F;T;G;L);); 189 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 190 $191 = scrprism1(A_1B_1C_1D_1E_1F_1G) = init2D_1garalgrm(A_1W_1E_1X_1C_1Y_1D_1Z) + guadril(C_1K_1E_1K_1E_1M_1F_1N_1) + garalgrm(D_1R_1C_1E_1F_1G_1U) + 1 + garalgrm(D_1R_1C_1$ notshape, not(otherA(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 192 sqrbrism1(A;B+C+D+E+F+G):-init2D+paralgrm(A+W+B+X+C+Y+D+Z)+paralgrm(B+K+A+L+E+M+F+N)+quadri1(C+R+B+S+F+T+G+U++++ 193 194 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). sqrprism1(A+B+C+D+E+F+G):-init2D+paralgrm(A+W+B+X+C+Y+D+Z)+paralgrm(A+K+D+L+E+M+F+N)+quadril(B+R+A+S+F+T+G+U)+++ 195 196 notshape+not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,B)). sgrbrism1(A+B+C+D+E+F+B);-imit2D+paralgrm(A+W+B+X+C+Y+D+Z)+paralgrm(D+K+C+L+E+M+F+N)+quadri1(A+R+D+S+F+T+G+U)+;+ 197 198 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 199 sqrprism1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G))=init2D,paralgrm(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),paralgrm(C,K,B,L,E,M,F,N),quadril(D,R,C,S,F,T,G,U),) 200 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,B)), 201 202 shape3D(A,parallelepiped) -sqrprism(A,B,C,D,E,F). 203 204 $shape3D(A_{1}parallelepiped) = paralepd1(A_{1}B_{1}C_{1}D_{1}E_{1}F_{1}G)$. paralepdi(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):-init2D,paralgrm(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z);paralgrm(B,K,A,L,E,M,F,N);paralgrm(C,R,B,S,F,T,G,U);; 205 206 notshape:not(other4(A:B:C:D:E:F:B)). paralepd1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G);=init2D;paralgrm(A,W,B,X;C,Y,D,Z);paralgrm(A,K,D,L,E,M,F,N);paralgrm(B,R,A,S,F,T,G,U);;; 207 208 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). paralepd1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):=init2D,paralgrm(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),paralgrm(D,K,C,L,E,M,F,N),paralgrm(A,R,D,S,F,T,G,U), (, 209 210 notshape:not(other4(A;B;C;D;E;F;G)). 211 paralepd1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):=init2D,paralgrm(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),paralgrm(C,K,B,L,E,M,F,N),paralgrm(D,R,C,S,F,T,G,U,,!, 212 notshape;not(other4(A;B;C;D;E;F;G)). 213

214 shape3D(A, rhomboid) (-rhombid(A, B, C, D, E, F). rhombid(A,B,C,D,E,F)1-init2D,rhomb(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),rhomb(C,W,B,X,E,Y,F,Z),!,notshape,not(other3(A,B,C,D,E,F)). 215 rhowbid(A,B,C,D,E,F):-init2D,rhomb(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U),rhomb(B,W,A,X,E,Y,F,Z),',notshape,not(other3(A,B,C,D,C,F)). 218 rhombid(A+B+C+D+E+F):=init2D+rhomb(A+R+B+S+C+T+D+U)+rhomb(A+W+D+X+E+Y+F+Z)+'+notshape+not(other3(A+B+C+D+E+F)). 217 rhombid(A:B:C:D:E:F):-init2D:rhomb(A:R:B:S:C:T:D:U):rhomb(D:W:C:X:E:Y:F:Z):!:nctshape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:F:F)). 218 219 220 shape3D(A, rhomboid) :- rhombid1(A, B, C, D, E, F, G). rhombid1(A+B+C+D+E+F+G):-init2D+rhomb(A+W+B+X+C+Y+D+Z)+rhomb(B+K+A+L+E+M+F+N)+rhomb(C+R+B+S+F+T+G+U)+!+ 221 222 notshape,not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). rhowbid1(A,B)C,D)E,F,G):-Init2D,chowb(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),rhowb(A,K,D,L,E,M,F,N),rhowb(B,R,A,S,F,T,G,U),(, 223 224 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 225 rbombidi(A:B:C:D:E:F:G):-init2D:rhomb(A:W:B:X:C:Y:D:Z);rhomb(D:K:C:L:E:M:F:N::rhomb(A:K:D:S:F:T:G:U):::; 226 notshape:not(other4(A;B;C;D;E;F;G)). rhombid1(A+B+C+D+E+F+D):-init2D+rhomb(A+W+B+X+C+Y+D+Z)+rhomb(C+K+B+L+E+M+F+N)+rhomb(D+R+C+S+F+T+G+U)+!+ 227 228 notshape:not(other4(A:B:C:D:E:F:G)). 229 shape3D(A;rectangular-parallelepiped):-rectparalep(A;B;C;D;E;F). 230 231 232 rectoaralep(A)B+C+D+E+F):=init2D+rectan(A+R+B+S+C+T+D+U)+rectan(B+W+A+X+E+Y+F+Z)+!+notshape+not(other3(A+E+C+D+E+F)). rectparalep(A)B+C+D+E+F)I=init2D+rectan(A+R+B+S+C+T+D+U)+rectan(A+W+D+X+E+Y+F+Z)+!+notshape+not(other3(A+B+C+D+E+F)). 233 rectparalep(A:B:C:D:E:F):=init2D:rectan(A:R:B:S:C:T:D:U):rectan(D:W:C:X:E:Y:F:Z)::notsnape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)). 234 235 236 shape3D(A, rectangular-parallelepiped):-rectparalep1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G). rectparalep1(A)BiC:D)E+F+G):-init2D:rectan(A+W+B+X+C+Y+D+Z):paralgrm(B+K+A+L+E+M+F+N):paralgrm(C+R+B+S+F+T+G-U)+!; 237 228 notshape, not (other 4(A, B, C, D, E, F, G)). 239 rectoarales: (A:B:C:D:E:F:G):-init2D:rectan(A:W:B:X:C:Y:D:Z):paralgrm(A:K:D:L:E:M:F:N):paralgrm(B:R:A:S:F:T:G.U.:: 240 notshape:not(other4(A:B:C:D:E:F:G:). rectDaralep1(AxBxCxDxExFxG):=init2D:rectan(A:W:B:X:C:Y:D:Z):paralgrm(D:K:C:L:E:M:F:R):paralgrm(A:R:D:S:F:T:C:U);: 241 242 notshape, not (other4(A, B, C, D, E, F, G)). 243 rectparalep1(A+B+C+D+E+F+G)==init2D+rectan(A+W+B+X+C+Y+D+Z)+paralgrm(C+K+D+L+E+M+F+N)+paralgrm(D+R+C+S+F+T+C+1));. 244 notshape(not(other4(A)8,C,D,E,F,G)). 245 rectparalep1(A+B+C+D+E+F+G):-init2D+paralgrm(A+W+B+X+C+Y+D+Z)+rectan(B+K+A+L+E+M+F+N)+paralorm(C+R+B+S+F+T+G+U)+++ 246 notshape, not (other4(A, B, C, D, E, F, G)). rectDaraleD1(A,B,C,D,E,F,D):=init2D, paralgrm(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z), rectan(A,K,D,L,E,M,F,N), paralgrm(B,R,A,S,F,T,C,U), !, 247 248 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). rectparalep1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):-init2D,paralgrm(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),rectan(D,K,C,L,E,M,F,N),paralgrm(A,R,D,S,F,T,G,Z),: 249 250 notshape:not(other4(A;B;C;D;E;F;G)). 251 rectparalep1(A:B:C:D:E:F:G):-init2D:paralgrm(A:W:B:X:C:Y:D:Z):rectan(C:K:B:L:E:M:F:N):paralgrm(D:R:C:S:F:T:G:U)::; 252 notshape;not(pther4(A;B;C;D;E;F;G)). rectparalep1(A:B:C:D:E:F:G):-init2D:paralgrm(A:W:B:X:C:Y:D:2):paralgrm(B:K:A+L:E:M:F:N):rectan(C:R:E:S:F:(C:C:U):): 253 254 notshapeinot(other4(A)B)C)D(E)F(G)). rectparalep1(A)B)C(D)E)F)G):=init2D)paralgrs(A+W)B)X(C)Y)D)Z))ptralgrs(A)K)D(L)E,M)F)N)rectan(B)R)A)S)F)T)G(U)); 255 256 notshape, not; other4(A, B, C, D, E, F, G)). 257 rectparalep1(A:B:C:D:E:F:0):-init2D:paralgrm(A:W:B:X:C:Y:D:Z):paralgrm(D:K:C:L:E:M:F:N):rectan(A:R:D:5:F:T:G:U):: 258 notshape,not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 259 rectparalepi(A,B,C,D)E,F,G);-in)t2D,paralgrm(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),paralgrm(C,K,B,L,E,M,F,N),rectan(D,R,C,S,F,7,G,U),;, 260 notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)). 261 262 shape3D(A, rectangular-parallelepiped):-rhombid1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G). 263

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		요즘 사람이 있는 것은 것은 것이 가지 않는 것이 같은 것이 있는 것이 같이 많은 것이 같이 많이 많이 많이 많이 같이 않는 것이 같이 많이 많이 많이 했다.	÷.
	- 1 - L - L	그는 것에 가지 않는 것이 같아요. 이렇게 하는 것이 같아요. 이렇게 가지 않는 것이 같아요. 이렇게 하는 것이 같아요. 이렇게 하는 것이 같아요. 이렇게 하는 것이 같아요. 이렇게 하는 것이 같아요.	ч. т.
		사이가 있는 것을 하는 것이다. 이렇게 이렇게 있는 것은 것은 것이다. 이렇게 가지 않는 것이다. 이렇게 가지 않는 것이다. 이렇게 가지 않는 것이다. 이렇게 가지 않는 것을 바라고 있다. 이렇게 나 그는 것은	
*		وتحسمت ومعادمته فالمناصب سأستنك المتعادي فتعدده المتعاد المتعاد المتعاد المتعادي والمتعادي والمتعاد والم	
		shape3D(A;cube):-cube(A;B;C;D;E;F). cube(A;B;C;D;E;F):-init2D;squar(A;R;B;S;C;T;D;U);squar(C;W;B;X;E;Y;F;Z);!;notshape;not(other3(A;B;C;D;E;F)).	
1	. 265 266	cube(A)B)C)D)E)F);-init2D)squar(A)R)B)S)C)F)D)U);squar(B)W(A)X)E;Y)F)Z); (notshape(not(other3(A)B)C)D)E)F)).	
	267	cube(A:B:C:D:E:F):-init2D:squar(A:R:B:S:C:T:D:U):squar(A:W:D:X:E:Y:F:Z)::notshape:not(other3(A:B:C:D:E:F)).	
	268	cube(A,B,C,D):=init2D;squar(A,R,B,S,C,T,D,U);squar(D,W,C,X,E,Y,F,Z),(notshape,not(other3(A,B,C,D,E,F)).	
	269		
	270	shape3D(A,cube):-cube1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G).	
	271	cube1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)==init2D;squar(A,W,B;X,C,Y,D;Z);rhomb(B,K,A,L,E,M,F,N);rhomb(C,R,B,S,F,T,G,U););	
	272	not shape not (other4(A)B(C)D(E)F(G)).	
	273 -	cube1(A:B:C:D:E:F:G):=init2D:squar(A:W:B:X:C:Y:D:Z):rhomb(A:K:D:L:E:M:F:N):rhomb(B:R:A:S:F:T:C:U):: notshape:not(other4(A:B:C:D:E:F:G)).	
	275	cube1(A;B;C;D;E;F;G)==init2D;squar(A;W;B;X;C;Y;D;Z);rhomb(D;K;C;L;E;M;F;N);rhomb(A;R;D;S;F;T;G;U);;	
	276	notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)).	
	277	cube1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):-init2D,squar(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),rhamb(C,K,B,L,E,M,F,N),rhamb(D,R,C,S,F,T,G,U),!,	
:	278	notshape,not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)).	
	279	cube1(A:B:C:D:E)F:G):-init2D:rhomb(A:W:B:X:C:Y:D:Z):squar(B:K:A:L:E:M:F:N):rhomb(C:R:B:S:F:T:G:U):!:	
	280	notshape:not(other4(A,B;C;D;E;F;G)),	
:	281	cube1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):-init2D,phomb(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),squar(A,K,D,L,E,M,F,N),phomb(B,R,A,S,F,T,G,U),!,	
	282 283	notshape,not(other4(A,B,C,O)). cube1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):=init2D,rhomb(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),squar(D,K,C,L,E,M,F,N),rhomb(A,H,D,S,F,T,G,U),',	
1	283	not shape in at (other 4 (A i R i C , D i E i F i G)).	
	285	cube1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)=init2D,rhomb(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),squar(C,K,B,L,E,M,F,N),rhomb(D,R,C,S,F,T,G,U),!	
:	286	notshape, not(other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)),	
	287	cube1(A:B:C:D:E:F:G):-init2D:rhomb(A:W:B:X:C:Y:D:Z);rhomb(B:K:A+L:E:M:F:N);squar(C:R:B:S:F:T:G:U);!;	
	288	notshape, not (other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)).	
•	289	cube1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G):-init2D,rhomb(A,W,B,X,C,Y,D,Z),rhomb(A,K,D,L,E,M,F,N),squar(B,R,A,S,F,T,G,U),!,	
	290 291	notshape:not(other4(A;B;C;D;E;F;G)). cube1(A;B;C;D;E;F;G):-init2D;rhomb(A;W;B;X;C;Y;D;Z);rhomb(D;K;C;L;E;M;F;N);squar(A;R;D;S;F;T;G;U);!;	
•	292	not shape i not (other 4 (A + B + C + D + E + F + G)).	
	293	cube1(A+B+C+D+E+F+G)=-init2D+rhomb(A+W+B+X+C+Y+D+Z)+rhomb(C+K+B+L+E+M+F+N)+squar(D+R+C+S+F+T+G+U)+!+	
-	294	hotshape, not (other4(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)).	
	295		
	296	shape3D(A,cube):-rhombid1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G).	
	297 298	shape3D(A,other):-tetra(A,B,C,D),	
	299	snapesberidener//-certaembicity/	
	300	shape3D(A, pther):-tetral(A, B, C, D).	
	301		
	302	shape3D(A,pther):~pyram(A,B,C,D,E).	
	303		
	304 305	shape3D(A;other):-pyram1(A;B;C;D;E).	
	305	shape3D(A:pther):-truntripyr(A:B:C:D:E).	
	307		
	308	shape3D(A; other):-truntripyr1(A; B; C; D; E; F).	
	309		
	310	shape3D(A,other):-triprism(A,B,C,D,E).	
	311	shape3D(A, pther):-triprism1(A, B, C, D, E, F).	
	312 313	snapeov(Hipkner/+=uriprismi(Hipiu/pic/r/,	
	314	shape3D(A; other):-trunsgrpyr(A; B;C; D; E; F).	
	315		
	316	shapeSD(A+other):-trunsqrpyr1(A+B+C+D+E+F+G).	
,	317	المودن والا منهم المحمد معالم منهم المسوح المحادية المالة المحمد المحمد المحمد والمحال المحمد المحمد المحمد الم المودن والا منهم المحمد معالم محمد محمد المحمد ال	

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shape3D(A+other):-not(tetra(A+B+C+D))+not(tetral(A+B+C+D))+
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
not(truntripyr(A,B,C,D,E)), not(truntripyr)(A,B,C,D,E,F)),
not(triprism(A,B,C,D,E)),not(triprism1(A,B,C,D,E,F)),
not(trunsgrpyr(A,B,C,D,E,F)),
not(trunsgrpyr1(A,B;C,D;E,F;G));
not(sqrprism(A,B,C,D,E,F)),not(sqrprism1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G)),
not(paralepd1(A;B;C;D,E;F;G));
nat(rhowbid(A:B:C:D:E:F));not(rhowbid1(A:B:C:D:E:F:G));
not(rectparalep(A;B;C;D;E;F));
not(rectparalep1(A:B:C:D:E:F:G));
not(cube(A:B:C:D=E:F));not(cube1(A:B:C:D=E:F:G)).

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Appendix

5

AN APPLICATION OF THE AVERAGING-INTENSIFICATION OPERATOR

A spin-off of this project was the application of the averagingintensification operator on digitized pictures. The Department of Mechanical Engineering working on digitized pictures taken from vibrating surfaces, needed a technique to obtain a clearer picture showing the fringes caused by vibration. The equipment that they used was similar to this described in Chapter 2 of this project, i.e. a camera to take the picture, a digitizer, and a tele-screen for projection. The only difference was that the result of the processed picture could be seen on the same screep.

So far the technique used was the *voting* technique in a 16×16 window. The results were not very satisfactory, because the window was very large and the middle pixel was modified according to a rather ununiform area of a not very clear - grainy - picture. Actually the modified picture turned out to be as grainy as the original. Of course the main objective was to distinguish the 'dark' fringes from the rest of the picture, in order to illustrate the effect of the vibration. The suggested method was that of intensification with constant threshold in a 3×3 window. This time the result was slightly better but not very encouraging, because the fringes were still not distinctly shown. But after a second and third successive intensifications with the same threshold, the dark fringes started appearing due to the fact that the gray levels were pushed towards the two extremes. Eventually after a number of applications only *black* and *white* pixels remained. A simple two level - averaging then was enough to smoothen the picture.

Fig. A5.1 shows the original digitized picture. The fringes are easy for a human to detect but not for a computer. Fig. A5.2, the picture has been intensified with a constant threshold 7. The *black* area of the fringes and the bolt in the middle are more distinct now. Fig. A5.3, the picture after some successive intensifications show clearly now the existance of the fringes (upper half) compared with the original (bottom half).

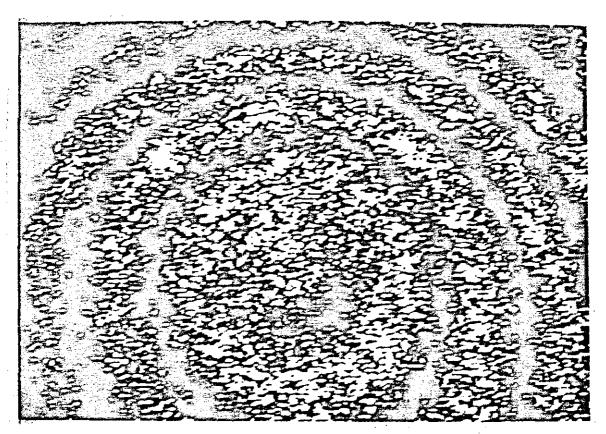


FIG. A5.1

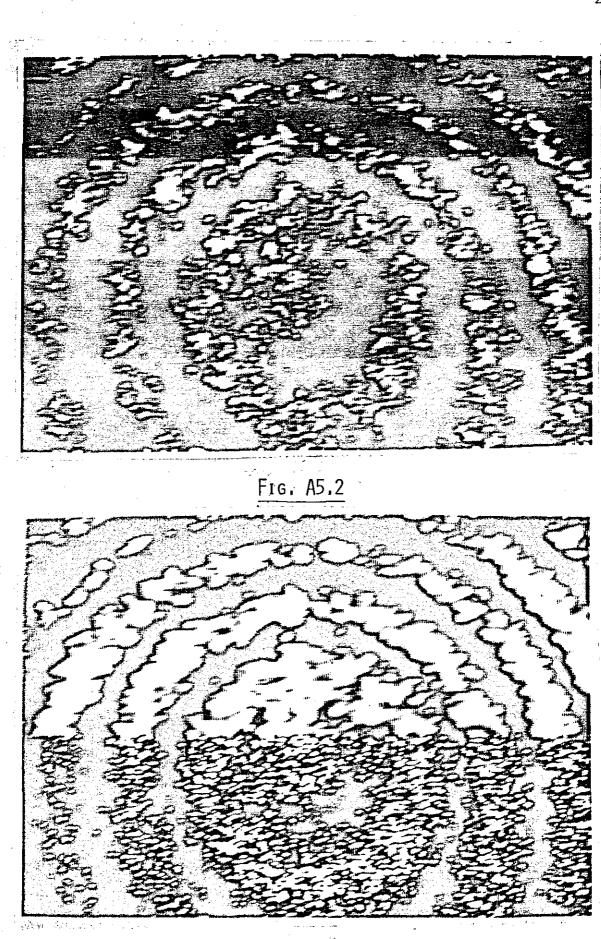


Fig. 45.3

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