




Identification of Planarian Individuals by Spot Patterns in Texture

Nikita Lomov¹^a, Kharlampiy Tiras^{2,3}^b and Leonid Mestetskiy^{1,4}^c

¹Federal Research Center “Computer Science and Control” of the Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russia

²Institute of Theoretical and Experimental Biophysics of the Russian Academy of Sciences, Pushchino, Russia

³Pushchino State Institute of Natural Science, Pushchino, Russia

⁴Lomonosov Moscow State University, Moscow, Russia

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Abstract: Planarian flatworms are known for their abilities to regenerate and are a popular biological model. Identification of individual planarian individuals is useful for automating biological research and improving the accuracy of measurements in experiments. The article proposes a method for identifying planaria by their texture profile, characterized by a set, shape, and position of light spots on the worm’s body— areas without pigment. To make the comparison of planaria of different sizes and in different poses, the method of planarian texture normalization is suggested. It is based on the selection of a main branch in the skeleton of a segmented image and allows one to switch to a unified coordinate system. Also, a method for creating a generalized textural profile of a planarian, based on averaging sets of spots for multiple images, is proposed. Experiments were carried out to identify planaria for different types of observations—during one day, during several days and during several days of regeneration after decapitation. Experiments show that light spots are a temporally stable phenotypic trait.


1 INTRODUCTION


Freshwater flatworms planaria are one of those groups of animals that are recognized as classical biological models. The ability of adult planarians to morphogenesis, that is, regeneration and asexual reproduction (Baguña, 2012; Elliott and Alvarado, 2013; Karami et al., 2015), is the most pronounced in the animal kingdom. The only ones in the animal world, planaria are even capable of regenerating their central nervous system, the head ganglion, and this happens in a very short time, from one to three weeks. The development of digital technologies for the creation and analysis of images has made it possible to develop a quantitative description of the morphogenesis of planaria in vivo (Tiras et al., 2015; Tiras et al., 2021). Planarians are also one of the potentially promising objects in the study of the cellular basis of immunity, which in planarians proceeds by phagocytosis of food by all planarian cells, except for nerve and germ cells (Sheimann and Sakharova, 1974). Taking into account the current interest in various biological models


related to the problems of cellular immunity, planarians can become one of the promising models for the study of phagocytosis in vivo (Tiras et al., 2018; Peiris et al., 2014; Apyari et al., 2021).

However, the widespread use of planaria for solving various fundamental and applied problems is hindered by a number of unresolved objective problems, one of which is the problem of identifying planarian individuals in the course of an experiment. Thus, a feature of the biology of the asexual race of planaria *Girardia tigrina* is their preference for group habitation during experiments. In addition, when seated alone, planaria of this species tend to separate after 24 hours, which interferes with sufficiently long experiments, therefore, during the experiment, such planarians are kept in a group of 25-30 individuals in order to limit asexual reproduction (Sheimann and Sakharova, 1974; Tiras et al., 2018). However, with group keeping, it is impossible to distinguish planaria from each other, which limits the possibility of assessing the individual characteristics of the course of certain physiological processes over a number of days.

In this work, an attempt was made to identify planaria based on the features of their body surface texture. The species name of the planaria, *Girardia tigrina*

^a <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4286-1768>

^b <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1853-8285>

^c <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6387-167X>

rina, is due to the patchy structure of their surface, which is associated with the mosaic distribution of the pigment epithelium. This circumstance opens up the possibility of using the features of the body surface texture of individual planarians as the basis for their personal identification.

Such an opportunity will make it possible to assess the dynamics of morphogenesis and phagocytosis of planaria *in vivo*, which will open up the possibility of creating quantitative models of the course of these biological processes. Such models, in turn, will be useful in studying the possibilities of controlling complex biological processes at the level of the whole organism.

2 RELATED WORK

The identification of individuals is an important task for researchers in population ecology, ethology, biogeography and experimental biology. Although the fundamental possibility of perfectly accurate identification is provided by DNA analysis, as well as the use of chipping in combination with GPS tracking, it is more realistic to use cheaper and non-invasive methods, for example, based on photography and video surveillance. The rapid development of computer vision systems observed in the last decade and the strengthening of interdisciplinary interaction between fields of science expressed in diffusion of methods and approaches give hope for significant progress in this area. For example, popular methods of human face recognition, pose estimation, and keypoint detection, based on neural network models have been successfully adapted to process individuals of higher mammals of some species—brown bears (Clapham et al., 2020), Amur tigers (Liu et al., 2019), chimpanzees (Freytag et al., 2016).

A number of computer vision techniques using hand-designed features have also been developed. Depending on the particular species, the source of signs can be stripes on the body for zebras (Lahiri et al., 2011), dermal plates for turtles (Rao et al., 2021), shape of the fin for sharks (Hughes and Burghardt, 2017), etc. In these cases, the feature description can be presented in the form of various mathematical objects: graphs, trajectories, point clouds.

Particular individuals of animals, simpler than mammals, are usually recognized insufficiently distinguishable, and the problem of recognizing various closely related species, for example, worms (Lu et al., 2021), is more often considered. It is one of the types of worms, planarian flatworms, that are object of our

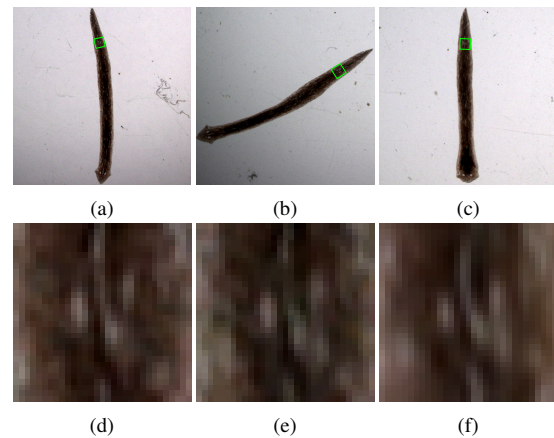


Figure 1: Planarian individual captured within a short period of time (a-c) and a stable fragment of its texture (d-f). The sources of this fragment are marked in (a-c) with green frames.

interest. Planaria are versatile and powerful model system for molecular studies of regeneration, adult stem cell regulation, aging, and behavior. The following features of the planaria can be noticed from the point of view of the task of visual recognition.

1. As their very name refers to, planaria are almost flat objects, and therefore their current appearance is described with sufficient completeness by a single two-dimensional image.
2. Planaria have a significant ability to bend, compress and stretch individual parts of the body, so that their shape can be considered relatively rigid only in the head region.
3. The coloration of planaria is very primitive and does not allow the use of complex color characteristics for the identification of individuals.
4. Planaria are very dependent on environmental conditions: the properties of the solution in which they live, the weather outside the window, the diet and the nature of the food they eat.
5. The body of a planarian is translucent, so the appearance in photographs is highly dependent on shooting conditions and lighting.

The influence of these factors is illustrated in Fig. 1 showing the same planarian, photographed at different times. The distribution of body width in these instances is very different: in Fig. 1a the thickness of the planarian changes relatively slightly from the tail to the head, in Fig. 1b the planarian has a strong thickening about halfway, in Fig. 1c—severe thickening in the neck-like region above the head. At the same time, on the body of the planarian, there are fragments of a characteristic texture, which are preserved from photograph to photograph—Fig. 1d-e.

These are the same constellation of light spots—areas marked by the absence of pigment. The idea of the algorithm is to describe the texture of the planarian by a set and location of the corresponding spots and to organize the comparison procedure in such a way as to include the search for mutual correspondence between spots in different photographs.

All these factors make the development of *significant* and *stable* feature of the appearance and shape of planaria an urgent and challenging task. On the other hand, like many other computer vision systems, our approach will include several classical customary, such as segmenting objects in an image, normalizing their shape, and finding points of interest. They will be discussed in the following sections.

3 OBJECT SEGMENTATION

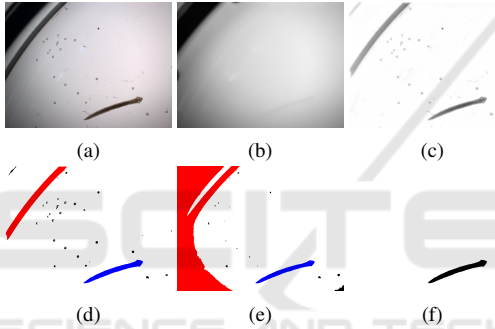


Figure 2: Binarization stages.

Despite the fact that it is natural for planaria to live in groups of 20-30 individuals, the quality of shooting provided by the available microscope was not enough to capture the entire group at once. Therefore, for photographing, the planaria were moved one by one into an intermediate vessel, and the segmentation task was reduced to finding a single individual in the image. Since most of the body of planaria is pigmented, and they themselves live in a transparent solution, the principle that planaria are darker than the background (Fig. 2a) can be taken as the basis for binarization. Nevertheless, it is necessary to take into account the following conditions of shooting: firstly, due to the distribution of light and optical effects, the brightness of the image decreases towards its edges, and secondly, the walls of the vessel, which are also dark, can get into the frame. Therefore, to normalize the background, the morphological operation of opening a grayscale image G with a disk of a fixed diameter, exceeding the width of the planarian, was performed (Fig. 2b). Then the original image was subtracted from the background and the negative of the result

was taken (Fig. 2c).

Next, the image was binarized using the Otsu method, the average intensity values for the object

$$\mu_{fg} = \frac{\sum_{ij} g_{ij} [g_{ij} < t]}{\sum_{ij} [g_{ij} < t]} \text{ and background } \mu_{bg} = \frac{\sum_{ij} g_{ij} [g_{ij} \geq t]}{\sum_{ij} [g_{ij} \geq t]}$$

and binarization is performed with the threshold $t' = \mu_{fg} + 0.7(\mu_{bg} - \mu_{fg})$.

After that, the connected component with the largest area is selected as the object mask. However, since the walls of the vessel can be similar to a planarian in size, color and shape, an additional check is carried out: the sought component cannot touch the edges of the image during Otsu binarization of the original (without background subtraction) image. For example, in Fig. 2d the red component will be assigned to the vessel walls, and the blue one will be assigned to the background as a result of checking the image in Fig. 2e. Also, to eliminate noise at the border with the final component, an operation of morphological opening is carried out, which gives us as a result Fig. 2f.

4 MAIN AXIS EXTRACTION

Shape standardization is an important stage in solving problems related to the recognition of flexible objects. It can be briefly described as follows. Let there be a segmented image B with an area $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ related to the object. It is required to find the transformation $T : D \rightarrow \Omega$, where $\Omega \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is a standard domain. Usually, additional requirements are imposed on the transformation, for example, injectivity or smoothness. Sometimes, if it is known that the form itself is segmented into several parts $\{D_i\}$, then the requirement $p \in D_i \rightarrow T(p) \in \Omega_i$ should be satisfied. For instance, this setting is used in (Qu and Peng, 2010) for standardizing confocal images of fruit fly nervous systems. As a rule, for standardization, a certain reference set is chosen, which is a curved axis of symmetry of an object or its part. So, this approach was discussed in (Duyck et al., 2015) for straightening species with strong bilateral symmetry such as marbled salamanders, skinks and geckos. At the same time, the situation with worms is relatively simple, since their shape, in fact, appears to be the vicinity of a single line.

Let this line be smooth and described by the equation $q(t) = (x(t), y(t))$, $t \in [0, l]$, and $x'(t)^2 + y'(t)^2 = 1$. The tangent to this curve has the direction $u(t) = (x'(t), y'(t))$, and the perpendicular is $v(t) = (y'(t), -x'(t))$. Let there also exist d , s.t. $\forall p \in D \exists t \in [0, l] : \|p - q(t)\| \leq d$, and $d < \frac{1}{\max_{t \in [0, l]} \sqrt{x''(t)^2 + y''(t)^2}}$.

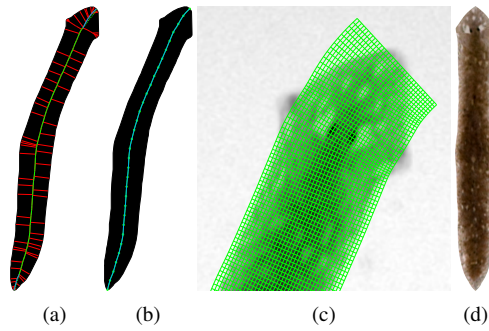


Figure 3: Stages of main axis extraction.

Then the mapping

$$T^*(t, s) = (x(t) + (s-d)y'(t), y(t) - (s-d)x'(t)) \quad (1)$$

is smooth, injective and maps the rectangle $M = [0, 2d] \times [0, l]$ to the domain $D^* \supset D$. Accordingly, the transformation $T = (T^*)^{-1}$ maps D to the subset of rectangle M , which, using scale transformations, allows you to get a texture of a fixed size.

To determine the desired main axis of the worm, in the work (Peng et al., 2007) an approach, based on dividing the border into nominally left and right parts, highlighting the middle line as a sequence of midpoints of segments when traversing the left and right parts and then refining the middle lines. Later this algorithm was developed in (Flygare et al., 2013) for better handling of worms of small eccentricity, i.e. insufficiently elongated, with a shape close to elliptic. To improve the algorithm, the coefficient of asymmetry was determined between the left and right regions of the worm's body, into which the medial axis divides the shapes. Note that since we are essentially dealing with the search for an extended curvilinear axis of symmetry of the worm, it is natural to use the model of continuous skeleton (or, synonymously, medial axis) of binary image (Mestetskiy and Semenov, 2008). The skeleton consists of lines equidistant from two or more sections of the boundary (all solid lines in Fig. 3a) and contains the required axis as a sub-graph. Obviously, the shape of the worm should be restored with sufficient completeness by the union of the inscribed circles lying on the main axis—in fact, we are talking about representing the worm's shape by a fat curve (Mestetskiy, 2000). Therefore, to select the base of the axis, the pruning of the skeleton is performed—all branches of the skeleton that do not make a significant contribution to the formation of the shape are removed (green line in Fig. 3a). On the other hand, the main axis should stretch from the top of the head to the tip of the tail. These points are defined as the points with the farthest projection on the tangent rays to the ends of the base (dashed lines in Fig. 3a), then the base is supplemented with paths in

the skeleton from the ends of the base to the found points (blue lines in Fig. 3a).

To smooth the main axis, m points are sampled evenly on it, which gives us a set of $\{x_k, y_k, r_k\}_{k=0}^{m-1}$, where r_k is the radius of the inscribed circle centered in (x_k, y_k) . Then, using piecewise cubic Hermitian interpolation (Fritsch and Carlson, 1980), we obtain the smoothed version of the main axis: $\{x(t), y(t), r(t)\}$, $t \in [0, m-1]$ (Fig. 3b). Let also the maximum radius of the inscribed circle on the curve be r_{max} . We set $d = r_{max}$, so that the normalized texture fits into the borders of the image. Then, for a texture of size $w \times h$, a pixel with coordinates (i, j) corresponds to a point of the original image with the coordinates $T^*(i, j) = T^*(\frac{i(m-1)}{h-1}, \frac{j(2d)}{w-1})$, according to formula 1. A fragment of the curvilinear grid is shown in Fig. 3c and the straightened texture is shown in Fig. 3d. To fill the texture, bilinear interpolation was used, and pixels in positions (i, j) for which $T^*(i, j) \notin D$ were unmasked by alpha channel.

5 SEARCH FOR POINTS OF INTEREST

5.1 Spot Extraction

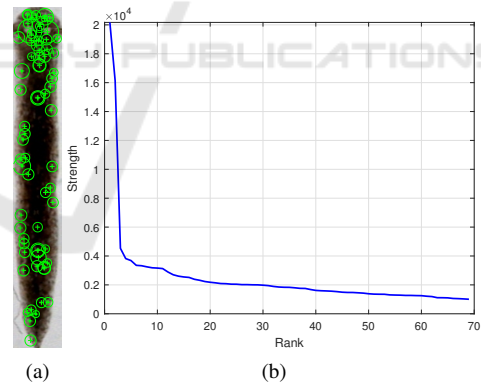


Figure 4: SURF points with negative Laplacian value: location (a) and strength sorted in descending order (b).

The surface of a planarian individual has a characteristic pattern of light spots, that are the areas without pigment. These spots are small in size and of primitive, moreover, not always stable, shape. Although one is able to match areas related to the same spots, in different photographs of the same planaria, and also it is intuitively clear what can be understood by “more spotty” and “less spotty” planarians and parts of their bodies, it is not possible to give an exact answer to the question of how many spots are located on the body

Algorithm 1: Extraction of spots in texture.

Require: Grayscale image G , number of spots n , minimum spot area s_{min} , threshold step h

Ensure: Binary image B with spots

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 $t = 1$ 
 $B \leftarrow (G * \text{LoG}_\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{t}$ 
 $m \leftarrow \#\{CC(B, s_{min})\} \triangleright m \leftarrow$  the number of conn.comp. of  $B$  that are greater than  $s_{min}$ 
if  $m = n$  then
    Return
else if  $m < n$  then
    while  $m < n$  do
         $t \leftarrow t + h$ 
         $B \leftarrow (G * \text{LoG}_\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{t}$ 
         $m \leftarrow \#\{CC(B, s_{min})\}$ 
    end while
else
    while  $m > n$  do
         $t \leftarrow t - h$ 
         $B \leftarrow (G * \text{LoG}_\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{t}$ 
         $m \leftarrow \#\{CC(B, s_{min})\}$ 
    end while
     $B \leftarrow (G * \text{LoG}_\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{t+h}$ 
end if
    Leave in  $B$   $n$  largest connected components
    
```

of a particular planarian. The situation is illustrated by Fig. 4, where SURF points of interest (Bay et al., 2008), which are lighter than the neighborhood, detected in the texture, are shown, along with the plot of their saliency depending on the rank. The graph shows that, with the exception of a few first points, the saliency changes very smoothly, which does not allow setting an effective threshold rule due to a strong decrease in saliency. Moreover, the scalar products of the feature vectors of these points are stably greater than 0.5, and in more than half of the cases, exceed 0.9. This indicates that the main feature of spots is their location, not their appearance, and also leads to the idea of extracting a fixed number of spots from an arbitrary texture. For this purpose, we use the Laplacian Gaussian filter:

$$\text{LoG}_\sigma(x, y) = -\frac{1}{\pi\sigma^2} \left[1 - \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2} \right] \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right). \quad (2)$$

The spots will be defined as connective components in the binary image $B = (G * \text{LoG}_\sigma) \leq t$, with more than half of the pixels belonging to the foreground. If the image is too blurry, not enough contrast, or does not contain a sufficient number of obvious spots, we will use the linearity and stability ($\sum_x \sum_y \text{LoG}_\sigma(x, y) = 0$) of the filter:

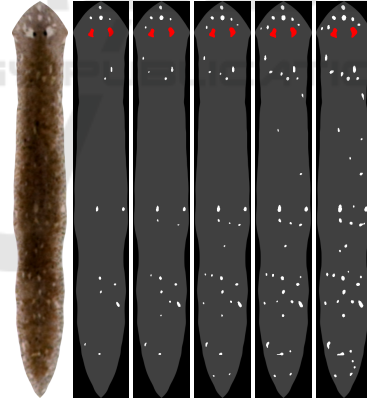
$$(aG + b) * \text{LoG}_\sigma = a(G * \text{LoG}_\sigma),$$

and we will select the binarization threshold instead of increasing the contrast of the image itself. An algorithm based on this principle is presented as Algorithm 1.

5.2 Localization of Eyes

Light spots can occur in arbitrary places on the body of a planarian, from head to tail. However, there are two areas, which are also marked by the absence of pigment and stand out as spots, but which are invariably present in specific places—these are the eyes of the planarian. The selection of eyes is important for several purposes, the main one of which is the orientation of the planarian texture (determining the head end by the presence of eyes in it is a more reliable criterion than, say, a wider head end as compared to the tail end). We will determine the eyes as the best, in some sense, pair of spots extracted at the previous stage. Let (a_i, x_i, y_i) be the area, abscissa and ordinate of the center of the i -th spot found in the texture of size $w \times h$. We use the following geometric properties of the eyes:

- the area of the eye is usually larger than the area of the regular spot;
- the eyes are located close to the border of the texture vertically;
- are located approximately at the same vertical level;
- are located symmetrically about the vertical line dividing the texture in half.



Texture $n = 16$ $n = 24$ $n = 32$ $n = 40$ $n = 48$

Figure 5: Extracting a different number of spots from a texture. Eye spots are highlighted in red.

For the spots with numbers (i, j) , $i \neq j$ we construct the feature vector \mathbf{f}_{ij} containing the values $\{a_i, a_j, \min(y_i, h - 1 - y_1), \min(y_j, h - 1 - y_1), y_i - y_j, \min(x_i, w - 1 - x_i), \min(x_j, w - 1 - x_j), (x_i + x_j - w + 1)\}$ and the monomes formed by them of order up to 3. Then form a training sample from vectors of the form $\mathbf{f}_{kl} - \mathbf{f}_{ij}$ with label 1 and $\mathbf{f}_{ij} - \mathbf{f}_{kl}$ with label -1 , where k and l refer to a pair of spots that are the eyes, and i and j refer to the pair, marking no more than one eye.

SVM with a linear kernel is used for classification and when for the resulting model with weights \mathbf{w} the pair (t, s) maximizing $\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{f}_{ts} \rangle$ is taken as the eyes. The results of the extraction of the spots and the selection of the eyes are shown in Fig. 5.

6 COMPARISON OF SPOT PATTERNS

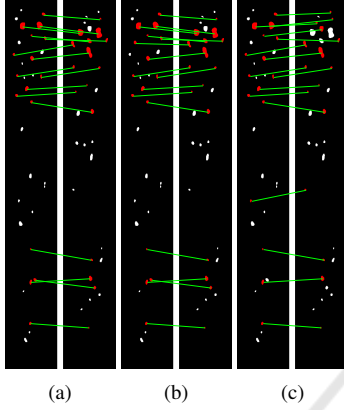


Figure 6: Assignment problem solutions for (a) pure matching (task 3) (b) matching with L_1 -term with $\alpha = 15$ used (task 4) (c) matching of ordered sets (rule 5 involved).

Due to differences in lighting, bending, and living conditions of planaria, it is rarely possible to isolate completely coincident sets of spots. Therefore, when looking for a match one need to take into account that part of the spots is the noise. In (Qu and Peng, 2010) this problem arises when comparing skin marks in the evaluation of soft biometrics and is solved by leaving in the list of matches only top-50% of the best pairs. It is also possible to draw an analogy with the point registration task, which is to find the best match between two point clouds—fixed \mathbf{X} and moving \mathbf{Y} . In one of the most popular methods for solving it, coherent point drift (Myronenko and Song, 2010), the problem is reduced to maximizing the likelihood

$$\prod_{i=1}^n p(\mathbf{x}_i), \quad p(\mathbf{x}) = w \frac{1}{N} + (1-w) \sum_{m=1}^M \frac{1}{M} p(\mathbf{x}|m),$$

where $p(\mathbf{x}|m) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{D/2}} \exp \frac{-\|\mathbf{x}-\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{y}_m, \theta)\|^2}{2\sigma^2}$, and $\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{Y}, \theta)$ is a transformation \mathcal{T} applied to $\mathbf{Y} = (\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_M)$ and parameterized by θ . The method provides a soft assignment of points to the components of a mixture of Gaussians with centers in \mathbf{X} , and the weight w of the uniform distribution actually sets the proportion of noise in the data. We will look for a strict match between the spots of textures, but some of the points will not be match at

all.

For two textures characterized by the sets $\mathbf{p} = \{p_i\}$ and $\mathbf{q} = \{q_j\}$, we define the matrix $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$: $c_{ij} = d(p_i, q_j)$, where $d(p, q)$ is the dissimilarity measure between spots. Let us define the dissimilarity between sets as the minimum total dissimilarity between spots in a one-to-one comparison, if only $m \leq n$ spots are involved, which leads to the following task:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} \quad \sum_{i,j=1}^n c_{ij} a_{ij} \\ & \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} \leq 1 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n, \\ & \quad \quad \quad \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \leq 1 \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, n, \\ & \quad \quad \quad \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} = m, \\ & \quad \quad \quad a_{ij} \in \{0, 1\} \text{ for } i = 1 \leq i, j \leq n. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

This formulation is a variation of the classical assignment problem, which can be solved by one of the integer linear programming methods, for example, the branch and cut method.

Let us pay attention to the fact that the situation when the residual vectors $(x(p_i) - x(q_j), y(p_i) - y(q_j))$ between the matched spots are similar to each other is much more natural than the strong scatter in these vectors. For example, when the tail of a planarian is squeezed, all spots should move downward in relative texture coordinates. Thus, a term can be added to the functional that takes into account the total deviation from the mean of the residual vectors. In order not to go beyond the scope of the linear programming problem, we will act in the L_1 -metric. Let $X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $x_{ij} = x(p_i) - x(q_j)$, and $y_{ij} = y(p_i) - y(q_j)$. Then, for example, the deviation from the average along the Y -axis takes the form:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \left| y_{ij} - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} y_{ij} \right|.$$

Using the relaxing variables $\delta_i, \gamma_t \in \mathbb{R}, i = 1, \dots, n$, the problem can be rewritten as:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} \quad \sum_{i,j=1}^n c_{ij} a_{ij} + \alpha \sum_{s=1}^n \delta_s + \beta \sum_{t=1}^n \gamma_t \\ & \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} \leq 1 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n, \\ & \quad \quad \quad \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \leq 1 \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, n, \\ & \quad \quad \quad \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} = m, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij}x_{ij} - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij}x_{ij} - \delta_i &\leq 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n, \\
 \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij}y_{ij} - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij}y_{ij} - \gamma_i &\leq 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n, \\
 a_{ij} &\in \{0, 1\} \text{ for } i = 1 \leq i, j \leq n, \\
 \delta_i \geq 0, \gamma_i &\geq 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n,
 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

It can also be noted that, under possible deformations of the planarian, the ordering of spots along the Y -axis in the texture as a whole should be preserved. This property can be used in the formulation of the functional, considering the ordered sets \mathbf{p} and \mathbf{q} : $i < j \Rightarrow y(p_i) \leq y(p_j)$ & $y(q_i) \leq y(q_j)$ and adding the following requirement to the 3 statement:

$$a_{ij} = 1 \ \& \ a_{st} = 1 \ \& \ i < s \Rightarrow j < t. \tag{5}$$

The corresponding problem can be solved by dynamic programming methods with recursive search for optimal matching k from l bottom spots. Visualization of various methods of comparison for $d(p, q) = 9(x(d) - x(q))^2 + (y(d) - y(q))^2$ is shown in Fig. 6.

7 GENERATION OF STANDARD PATTERNS

Algorithm 2: Standard spot pattern calculation.

Require: Set of k sets of spots $\{\mathbf{p}_i = \{p_{ij}\}_{j=1}^n\}_{i=1}^k$

Ensure: Set of standard spots $\mathbf{q} = \{q_i\}_{i=1}^n$

Construct graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$, where V is a set of all spots in \mathbf{B} and E is a set of all matches between spots in all pairs in \mathbf{B}

for $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** n **do**

$V' \leftarrow \{v'\}$, $v' = \arg \max_{v \in V} \#\{e \in E : v \in e\}$

repeat

$V'' \leftarrow \{v \in V \setminus V' \mid \exists e = (v, v') \in E : v' \in V'\}$

$V' \leftarrow V' \cup V''$

until $|V'| \geq k$ or $V'' = \emptyset$

while $|V'| > k$ **do**

$v'' \leftarrow \arg \min_{v \in V'} \#\{e = (v, v') \in E : v' \in V'\}$

$V' \leftarrow V' \setminus \{v''\}$

end while

for $v \in V'$ **do**

$w(v) = \#\{e = (v, v') \in E : v' \in V'\}$

$\mathbf{f}(v)$ is the feature vector of v

end for

$q_i \leftarrow \frac{\sum_{v \in V'} w(v) \mathbf{f}(v)}{\sum_{v \in V'} w(v)}$

$V \leftarrow V \setminus V'$

$E \leftarrow E \setminus \{e \in E \mid e \cap V' \neq \emptyset\}$

end for

When solving the classification problem by searching for the most similar texture among the standards, it is necessary to carry out a comparison procedure with

each of the class samples in the database, which can turn out to be a time-consuming task. Naturally, the need arises to create a generalized set of spots that would best characterize the entire class and would be similar to all available samples at once. Obviously, this set should consist of spots that are stably detected from image to image, and such spots in different images will most likely be matched to each other. If we represent the structure of correspondence of points in textures in the form of a graph, then due to the absence of connections between points of the same image, the task will become similar to analyzing a k -partite graph in order to find a clique (Dawande et al., 2001; Barber et al., 2017) or a dense subgraph (Lee et al., 2010).

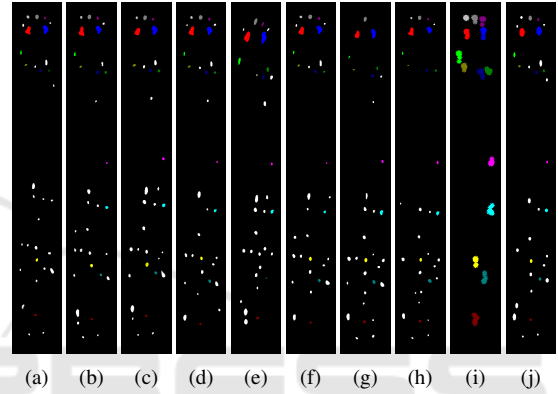


Figure 7: Standard spot pattern generation. (a-h) Source images, (i) locations of matched spots and (j) the resulting standard. Some groups of matched spots are shown in specific colors.

To achieve a high speed of the procedure, a heuristic algorithm of searching for a dense subgraph is proposed based on expanding the neighborhood of a vertex with a large number of connections and calculating the feature vector of a standard spot by averaging the features of the vertices in the neighborhood. The course of the procedure is described as Algorithm 2, and its results are shown in Fig. 7.

8 EXPERIMENTS

8.1 Parameter Selection

The experiments were carried out with the following parameters:

- number of points for main axis interpolation $m = 64$;
- texture height $h = 1024$;
- texture width $w = 144$;
- Gaussian filter deviation $\sigma = 5$;

- minimum spot area $s_{min} = 10$;
- spot dissimilarity $d(p, q) = 9(x(d) - x(q))^2 + (y(d) - y(q))^2$.

For the experiments, the original datasets collected in the laboratory of Pushchino State Institute of Natural Science were used. Datasets are collections of images of size 1388×1080 obtained from photographs taken with a Zeiss Stemi2000 binocular microscope equipped with an AxioCam MRc video camera. The first set (“Day”) consists of images of entire planarians, each of which was captured multiple times over a limited period of time, not exceeding an hour. The dataset contains a total of 1,764 images, with 28 sample classes, ranging from 16 to 113 images. The distribution of the length, understood as the length of the main axis, and the area of the instances of the first 15 classes from the dataset are shown in Fig. 8. The graphs show that the ability of a planarian to shrink, stretch and bend leads to a standard deviation of up to 10% of the mean in length, and up to 8% in area. For this reason, even the dimensions of a planarian are difficult to consider as a stable and discriminative feature of the individual.

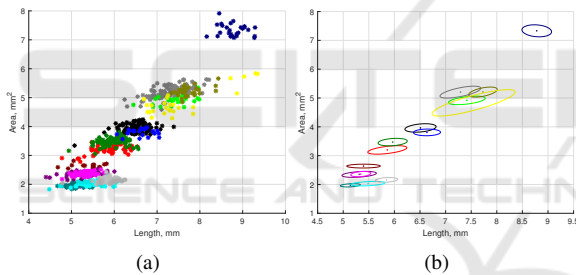


Figure 8: Distribution of sizes in the “Day” dataset: (a) individual instances and (b) standard deviations along to the axis of PCA.

In order to investigate the influence of the number of spots—total and matched—on the identification accuracy, a part of this dataset was taken, consisting of 16 images per class. The four earliest images from the class formed a training set, the 12 most recent were used for testing. The nearest neighbor algorithm was utilized for identification, and the correspondence of the points was established according to formula 3, since the procedure it defines provides the highest speed. The experimental results for a different number of selected spots n and matched spots k are shown in Table 1 and allow us to conclude that the quality of the method depends rather on the proportion of the compared spots than on their absolute number. In what follows, we set $n = 24$ and $k = 12$ as the parameters that showed the best quality.

Table 1: Classification accuracy for the “Day” dataset with a different number of selected and matched spots.

Matched	6	8	10	12	16	20	24	28
Total								
16	90.48%	95.83%	95.83%	91.96%	33.33%	—	—	—
20	91.96%	96.43%	98.51%	98.81%	91.07%	39.29%	—	—
24	91.07%	95.83%	97.32%	98.81%	97.32%	88.69%	42.86%	—
28	89.29%	96.13%	97.62%	98.81%	98.51%	97.32%	84.82%	45.24%
32	86.01%	91.96%	95.24%	96.73%	98.21%	98.51%	96.73%	83.93%
36	84.82%	90.18%	94.05%	96.43%	98.21%	98.21%	97.62%	95.54%
40	80.95%	87.50%	91.67%	94.35%	96.73%	98.51%	97.92%	97.32%

8.2 Comparison of Matching Methods

The full “Day” dataset was considered, 10% of the images of each class were used as training, the rest were used as test. The following spot matching methods discussed in the Section 6 were compared:

- assignment problem solution without additional terms (formula 3)—AP (plain);
- assignment problem solution with L_1 -norm on the deviation from the mean (formula 4, $\alpha = 15$, $\beta = 5$)—AP (L_1 -norm);
- assignment problem solution with y -ordering preserved (formula 5)—AP (y -ordered);
- coherent point drift (Myronenko and Song, 2010)—CPD.

Also, the same number of SURF points was highlighted as points of interest. To be consistent with all matching methods in use, only point positions were taken, not feature vectors. The results are shown in Table 2 and indicate the superiority of the proposed method of spot extraction, as well as the benefit from the use of non-trivial matching methods. Note also that using the standard spot pattern built from training class subsample as the only class instance either does not lead to a significant decrease in the quality of the classification, or even slightly improves it.

Table 2: Accuracy of classification with various methods of matching and extracting points of interest.

Method	AP (plain)	AP (L_1 -norm)	AP (y -ordered)	CPD
LoG	98.17%	98.30%	98.51%	88.97%
SURF	86.90%	87.86%	89.36%	76.19%
LoG (standards)	95.95%	96.21%	96.67%	86.55%
SURF (standards)	88.45%	89.30%	90.60%	78.00%

8.3 Observation for Several Days

To test the consistency of the proposed texture description over time, the “Week” dataset was collected, containing photographs of 24 planaria taken on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday and Monday of the next week. At the same time, on Wednesday, Friday and Monday the planaria were captured twice—before and after noon. The dataset consists of 166

images, and the attribution of the photographs to specific individuals was established manually.

Table 3: Classification accuracy for the "Day" dataset with a different number of selected and matched spots.

Test day	Train day								
	Tu, a.m.	We, a.m.	We, p.m.	Th, a.m.	Fr, a.m.	Fr, p.m.	Mo, a.m.	Mo, p.m.	
Tu, a.m.	—	68.18%	77.27%	72.72%	76.47%	58.82%	35.29%	47.06%	
We, a.m.	81.82%	—	95.65%	82.61%	76.47%	76.47%	52.94%	47.06%	
We, p.m.	81.82%	91.30%	—	95.65%	76.47%	76.47%	58.82%	52.94%	
Th, a.m.	68.18%	82.61%	95.65%	—	70.59%	88.24%	47.06%	29.41%	
Fr, a.m.	70.59%	70.59%	76.47%	70.59%	—	94.19%	58.82%	52.94%	
Fr, p.m.	58.82%	70.59%	82.35%	82.35%	94.19%	—	58.82%	64.71%	
Mo, a.m.	47.06%	64.70%	70.59%	52.94%	64.71%	70.59%	—	70.59%	
Mo, p.m.	29.41%	47.06%	47.06%	35.29%	47.06%	64.71%	70.59%	—	

The results of the experiments are shown in Table 3 and indicate a decrease in similarity between spot patterns over time. However, the use of time-distant images helps to improve the quality of the classification, which reaches the value of 92.50%, when comparing the test image with images taken on all other days.

8.4 Regenerating Planaria

The "Regeneration" dataset consists of 579 images capturing 20 planarians in the process of regeneration after cutting off the head. Images were taken on the first, second, third, fourth, sixth and tenth days after decapitation, and images of whole planarians before decapitation are considered as a training sample. Also, 392 images of severed heads and organisms evolved from them were obtained, but since they have a small length and a small number of spots, they do not fit into the proposed model and their analysis was left for further research. The process of regeneration of a single planarian is shown in Fig. 9 and demonstrates a very unpredictable shape change during the process. It can be noted that the planarian as a whole tends to restore its proportions, but the new spots that have appeared in the head region do not coincide with the old ones.

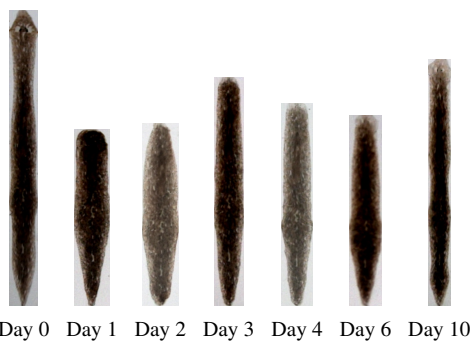


Figure 9: Regeneration of planaria after cutting off the head.

To simulate the decapitation, eyes in the images from the training sample were identified, and an as-

sumed cutting line was drawn at a level of 20 pixels below eye level (Fig. 10ab). Further, the part of the texture lying below this line was used for spot extraction (Fig. 10c) and the resulting pattern was stretched in height (Fig. 10d). Such images were compared with standards, which were considered to be the images of whole planarians before decapitation. As the predicted cutting line may differ from the actual, the stretching was carried out in the range from 80% to 120% of the texture height of a full planarian. The final quality of the classification was 72.84%, the mistakes are explained by the instability of the planarian morphology after decapitation and the need to predict the dissection line.

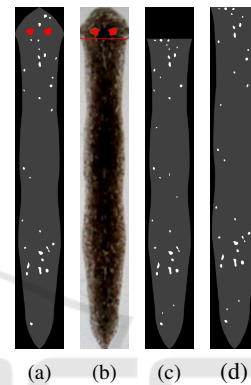


Figure 10: Processing the planarian after decapitation.

9 CONCLUSION

This study shows the fundamental possibility of identifying individual planarian flatworms and makes it possible to supplement observations of groups of individuals in biological experiments by tracking individual characteristics of development and regeneration. The problems of detecting and segmentation of an individual planarian in the image, approximating its shape with a fat curve based on the medial representation and extracting the texture of the planarian in the form of a rectangle of standard size are solved. It was shown that the texture of a planarian is described with sufficient completeness by a set and arrangement of light spots, which, on the one hand, are quite steadily different between individuals, and, on the other hand, are stable enough to persist for a rather long period of time associated with the experiment. As directions for further work, we can specify the processing of images containing several animals and prediction

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