Introduction to Digital Image Processing 数字图象处理

主讲老师: 张 荣

Purpose and effects of this course

- learn basic theories and methods of image processing
- easy to use image processing software and equipments
- can develop software and hard ware of image processing
- establish foundation for further research

References: Books

- 章毓晋《图象处理和分析》清华出版社
- 刘政凯《微型计算机图象处理技术》安徽科技
 出版社
- 《计算机图象处理技术》 浙江大学出版社
- K. R. Castleman 《Digital Image Processing》 清华出版社,中文版电子工业出版社发行
- R. C. Gonzales, 《 Digital Image Processing Second Edition》电子工业出版社

教材: R. C. Gonzales

- Chapter1: Introduction
- Chapter2: Fundaments of Image and Vision
- Chapter3: Image Transforms
- Chapter4: Image Enhancement
- Chapter5: Image Restoration and Reconstruction
- Chapter6: Image Coding
- Chapter7: Image Segmentation
- Chapter8: Object Representation and description

References: Journals

- 《电子学报》
- 《通信学报》
- 《自动化学报》
- 《遥感学报》
- 《中国图象图形学报》
- 《人工智能与模式识别》

References: Journal

• IEEE Transactions on

Image Processing Signal Processing Medical Image Geoscience and Remote Sensing Pattern analysis and machine intelligence

- Image and Vision Computing
- Computer Vision and Image Understanding

Chapter1 Introduction

- 1.1 What Is Digital Image Processing
- 1.2 The Origins of Digital Image Processing
- 1.3 Example of Fields that Use Digital Image Processing
- 1.4 Fundamental Steps in Digital Image Processing
- 1.5 Components of an Image Processing System

- 1.1.1 Terms
 - Picture(图片): A visual representation or image painted, drawn, photographed, or otherwise rendered on a flat surface
 - **Image**(图象): a two-dimensional function, f(x,y)
 - Digital image(数字图象): when *x*, *y*, and *f* are all discrete quantities.
 - Video(视频): sequence of image
 - Pixel(象素): the elements of digital image
 - Digital image processing(数字图象处理):
 processing *f*(*x*, *y*) by a digital computer.

162	161	159	161	162	160	158	156	156	161	
162	161	159	161	162	160	158	156	156	161	
163	158	159	159	160	158	155	155	156	158	
159	157	159	156	159	159	154	152	155	153	
155	157	156	156	158	157	156	155	154	156	
156	157	155	151	157	156	155	156	156	154	
157	156	156	156	156	156	154	156	155	155	
158	157	155	155	156	155	155	155	155	155	
156	155	156	153	156	155	156	155	154	156	
155	155	157	154	157	155	157	158	158	158	



gray image

The pixels in the top left corner (10*10)















video



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Eg1: Seismogram digitalization and database management system



后处理前后的图象比较 Eg2:Post-Processing of visual telephone



Scale enlargement

Bi-linear interpolation enlargement

Free scale enlargement

Eg3:Free-scale Enlargement of Handwriting Chinese Character



Eg4: Resource and Environment Dynamic Monitoring System of Anhui Province





Fig.1 543 band false

fig2 result map

color image

Eg4:Results of Adaptive cluster based on background database

43658 colors



35120 colors

55 colors



94 colors





Eg5: Color Quantization

1.1.2 contents in DIP

Digitizing	Restoration	Image database
Store	Reconstruction	Classification
Transmission	Segmentation	Recognition
Display	Object detecting	Image model
Enhancement	Feature extracting	Image marching
Transform	Object measurement	Image understanding
Coding		6

1.1.3 Three layers of DIP

- Low-level processing: inputs and outputs are images;
- Mid -level processing: inputs are images and outputs are attributes
- High -level processing:
 "making sense", performing cognitive functions





1.1.4 relationship between with other areas

Computer Graphics

Pattern recognition

Computer vision

They are based most same theories such as:

AI(Artificial Intelligent)

NN(Neural Network)

GA(Genetic Algorithm)

FL(Fuzzy Lagical)





1.2 The origins and development of DIP

- newspaper industry:
 - **≻ Time:** 1920s
 - System : Bartlane cable picture transmission system
 - Function: sent picture between Landon and New York
 - Image quality: 5~15 levels, halftone technique

1.2 The origins and development of DIP

- Space application:
 - **Time:** 1960s
 - System : Ranger 7
 - **Function:** enhance and restore images from moon, Mars, and others
- Medical application:
 - ➤ Time: 1970s
 - ➢ System: CT, X-ray

1.2 The origins and development of DIP

- Development history :
 - ➢ 50 years: born
 - ➤ 1964 good results for images from space
 - ➢ 70 years developing
 - \succ 80 years established theory
 - ➢ 90 years applications on wide areas
- The history in our university :
 - ➢ 80-83 go abroad to study image processing.
 - ➢ 83 established image processing lab.
 - ➢ 85 bought IIS image system
 - ➢ 88 Information Processing center



1.3 Examples of Fields that Use DIP



- Gamma-Ray Imaging
- X-Ray Imaging
- Imaging in the Ultraviolet Band
- Imaging in the Visible and Infrared Bands
- Imaging in the Microwave Band
- Imaging in the Radio Band
- Example in Which Other Modalities Are Used

Areas where DIP is used

- Multimedia technology and communication image compression VCD,DVD,HDTV,Video telephone
- Medicine
- Industrial
- Military
- Commercial
- Natural resource

1.4 Fundamental Step in DIP



1.4 Fundamental Step in DIP

Research directions:

image compression
wavelet transform
digital watermarking
image reconstruction
indexing by image content
image recognition
image understanding

1.5 Components of an Image Processing System

- Sensing and digitizer
- Specialized image processing hardware
- Computer
- Mass storage
- Image displays
- Hardcopy
- Networking
- Software



Diagram of Linear CCD

Diagram of Area CCD

Scanner



扫描仪基本组成框图



扫描仪工作原理示意图



彩色图象扫描方式之一



彩色图象扫描方式之二



扫描记录仪的结构示意图

Scanner



Mustek PowerPro

Scanner Type	flat color scanner		
Scan Mode:			
Color Mode	24 bits/pixel		
Gray Mode	8 bits/pixel		
Text/Line Art	1 bits/pixel		
Scan Area	216 x 356 mm 8.5" x 14"		
Resolution	600dpi x 1200dpi		
Scanning Data Buffer	1 MB		
Brightness Control	255 adjustable steps		
Contrast Control	255 adjustable steps		
Light Source	Cold Cathode lamp		

Digital Camera



Olympus u300

Price (street)	US\$400		
Max resolution	2048 x 1536		
Low resolution	1600 x 1200, 1280 x 960, 1024 x 768, 640 x 480		
Image ratio w:h	4:3		
Effective pixels	3.14 million		
Sensor size	1/2.5"		
Sensor type	CCD		
Colour filter array	G-R-G-B		
Max shutter	1/1000 sec		
- PCVION中的帧存板
- 实时图象处理板MVP-AT
- 实时图象处理卡Cobra/C6

PCVION中的帧存板

Look Up Table



实时图象处理板VP-AT



实时图象处理卡Cobra/C6



Diagram of the Cobra/C6 architecture

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实时图象处理卡Cobra/C6 Acquisition

- RS-170, CCIR, NTSC, PAL or Y/C acquisition
- Three Analog camera inputs
- Digital filtering improves color reproduction
- Pixel jitter less than 2 nSecs
- Video fidelity > 45dB
- RS-422 interface for digital acquisition to 100 Mbytes/sec, up to 12 bits/pixel.
- Expansion slot for additional acquisition module at rates up to 200 Mbytes/sec.

1.5.2 Specialized Image Processing Hardware 实时图象处理卡Cobra/C6

Image Gateway

- an extremely powerful transfer controller designed to deliver high I/O throughput to the Cobra/C6.
- Featuring seven I/O ports with a combined bandwidth of 1520 Mbytes/sec,
- can simultaneously interconnect any five ports for a maximum combined transfer rate of 720 Mbytes/sec.

实时图象处理卡Cobra/C6

Pixel Processing

- Image processing at rates up to 200 MB/sec.
- Neighborhood or point-to-point acceleration
- Real-time multiple imaging functions, i.e. unsharp, flatfield correction
- Reprogrammable imaging functions
- Image pre-processing or co-processing for the Cobra/C6
- Field-installed

实时图象处理卡Cobra/C6

	Category	Function	Speed
Pixel Processing	Point-to-Point	adding two images subtracting two images averaging unsharp mask flat-field correction	1.3 mSecs1.3 mSecs1.3 mSecs1.3 mSecs1.3 mSecs1.3 mSecs1.3 mSecs
512 x 512, 8-bit images.	Neighborhood operations	convolution (3x3) convolution (5x5) convolution (7x7) convolution (9x9) convolution (13x13) median Filter laplacian/sobel	 1.3 mSecs 2.6 mSecs 2.6 mSecs 5.2 mSecs 10.5 mSecs 2.6 mSecs 2.6 mSecs
	Statistical operations	histogram histogram equalization	1.3 mSecs 2.6 mSecs
	Morphology	erosion	1.0 mSecs

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实时图象处理卡Cobra/C6

TMS320C6201 DSP

- •200 MHz Operating Frequency
- •64k of high speed on-die cache memory
- •800 Mbytes/sec I/O bandwidth
- •1.6 Gigabyte/sec on-chip transfer rates
- •Executes up to eight instructions simultaneously
- •Integrated on-chip host port for control
- •Six 32/40 bit ALU's
- •Two 16 bit single cycle multipliers
- •VLIW simplifies parallel programming

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实时图象处理卡Cobra/C6

i960

•as an interface between the Cobra/C6 and the PCI bus.•manage the flow of data between the host computer and Image Gateway.

•controls the acquisition sub-system, Pixel Processor, Multi-Processing Bus and secondary PCI bus, leaving 100% of the processing power of the TMS320C6201 DSP available for image processing and analysis.

实时图象处理卡Cobra/C6



Key Features:

- •200 MHz Operating Frequency
- •64k of high speed on-die cache memory
- •800 Mbytes/sec I/O bandwidth
- •1.6 Gigabyte/sec on-chip transfer rates
- •Executes up to eight instructions simultaneously
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- •VLIW simplifies parallel programming

- CRT(Cathode-Ray Tube)
- Liquid-crystal displays
- Plasma panels

CRT



Frame Buffer



Liquid Crystal Display



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- Dot-matrix Printer
- Laser Printer
- Ink-jet Printer
- Thermal

Dot-matrix Printer





Dot Matrix of "I"

Dot Matrix of "R"

ŎŎŌ



Dither Technique

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Ink-jet Printer



1.5.5 Software

- Photoshop
- PhotoshImpact
- Corel Custom Photo
- MS PhotoDraw
- Fireworks
- ACDSee

Chapter2 Fundamentals of Image and Vision

- 2.1 General Introduction and Classification
- 2.2 Human Eye and Brightness Vision
- 2.3 Color Vision
- 2.4 Photometry and Imaging Model
- 2.5 Imaging Transformation
- 2.6 Sampling and Quantization
- 2.7 Relationships between Pixels
- 2.8 Arithmetic and logic Operations

2.1 General Introduction and Classification

- Fundament of Vision :eye and it's perception, color model
- **Fundament of Imaging**: imaging model, projection transformation, sampling and quantization
- **Fundament of image**: relationship between pixels, arithmetic and logic operations, coordinate transformation.

2.2.1 Structure of the Human Eye

- Shape: nearly a sphere, diameter=20mm
- Components: cornea(角膜), sclera(巩膜), choroid(脉络膜), retina(视网膜), lens, fovea(中央凹), blind spot(盲点), nerve (神经)and sheath(鞘).

2.2.2 Comparison of Cones and Rods



2.2.3 Log characteristic







2.2.3 Log characteristic

Explanation:

$d(\ln I) = dI / I$

Definitions of Contrast:

$$C_p = (I_1 - I) / I = \Delta I / I$$
$$C_I = I_{\text{max}} / I_{\text{min}}$$



Weber Ratio=0.02=2%

2.2.3 Log characteristic

Phenomena 2: Simultaneous contrast



Figure 2.8

• Although all the center squares have the same intensity, they appear to the eye to become darker as the background gets lighter.

2.2.3 Log characteristic



2.2.3 Log characteristic

Explanation: increment of brightness is defined as: $\Delta S = k' \Delta B / B$

after integral, S is: $S = k \ln B + k_0 = k \ln B + k_0$

Where k' and k_0 are constant, and k=k'=ln10

2.2.3 Log characteristic

Conclusion:

- Log transformation is usually used in preprocessing step of DIP system , in order to improve the visual results.
- The subjective brightness is relatived
- The discriminability of human eye is limited

2.2.4 Frequency characteristic

Visual model: Modulation Transfer Function





 $|H(u,v)|^2 = (1+0.05D^2) \exp[-(D/50)^2]$



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2.3 Color Vision

- **Color Fundament**: wavelengths of visible band, primary colors, second colors, CIE standards
- Color Model: RGB, CMY, HSI,

Experimental Curves of light absorption by the red, green and blue cones in the eye





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2.2.6 Image Formation in the Eye



If h is the height of that object in the retinal image,

$$\frac{15}{100} = \frac{h}{17} \Longrightarrow h = 2.55mm$$

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2.3.1 Color Fundament: CIE Standard

C = X [R] + Y [G] + Z [B]Eg: Red=1[R]+0[G]+0[B] Yellow=1[R]+1[G]+0[B] Cyan=0[R]+1[G]+1[B] Magenta=1[R]+0[G]+1[B] Black=0[R]+0[G]+0[B] White=1[R]+1[G]+1[B]

Hue 色调 Saturation饱和度 Intensity辉度 Chroma 色度

2.3.1 Color Fundament: CIE Standard

If the tristimulus values are denoted, X,Y and Z, then the trichromatic coefficients are defined as:



2.3.1 Color Fundament: CIE chromaticity diagram



2.3.2 Color Model: RGB model





6.8 RGB 24-bit color cube.



2.3.2 Color Model: HSI model

- **Hue:** associated with the dominant wavelength in a mixture of light waves
- **Saturation:** refer to the relative purity or the amount of white light mixed with hue.
- Intensity: brightness



Please guess the color of the monkey's nose



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The answer is:



2.3.2 Color Model: converting colors from RGB to HSI

$$I = \frac{1}{3}(R + G + B)$$
(2.3.5)

$$S = 1 - \frac{3}{(R+G+B)} [\min(R,G,B)]$$
(2.3.6)

$$\theta = \arccos \left\{ \frac{[(R-G) + (R-B)]/2}{[(R-G)^2 + (R-B)(G-B)]^{1/2}} \right\}$$
(2.3.7)

$$H = \begin{cases} \theta & B \le G \\ 360 - \theta & \text{others} \end{cases}$$

2.3.2 Color Model: converting colors from HSI to RGB RG Sector: $0^{\circ} \le H < 120^{\circ}$

$$B = I(1-S)$$
(2.3.8)

$$R = I \left[1 + \frac{S \cos H}{\cos(60^{\circ} - H)} \right]$$
(2.3.9)

$$G = 3I - (B+R)$$
(2.3.10)

2.3.2 Color Model: converting colors from HSI to RGB GB Sector: $120^{\circ} \le H < 240^{\circ}$

$$R = I(1 - S) \tag{2.3.11}$$

$$G = I \left[1 + \frac{S \cos(H - 120^{\circ})}{\cos(180^{\circ} - H)} \right] \quad (2.3.12)$$
$$B = 3I - (R + G) \quad (2.3.13)$$

2.3.2 Color Model: converting colors from HSI to RGB BR Sector: $240^{\circ} \le H < 360^{\circ}$

 $G = I(1 - S) \tag{2.3.14}$

$$B = I \left[1 + \frac{S \cos(H - 240^{\circ})}{\cos(300^{\circ} - H)} \right]$$
(2.3.15)

 $R = 3I - (G + B) \tag{2.3.16}$

2.4 Photometry and Imaging Model

2.4.1 Point Source

点光源



2.4 Photometry and Imaging Model

2.4.2 Distributed light Source



2.4 Photometry and Imaging Model

2.4.3 Imaging Model

We denote images by 2-D functions of the form $0 < f(x, y) < \infty$

f(x,y) can be characterized by two components called the illumination and reflectance components which are denoted by i(x,y) and r(x,y).

$$f(x, y) = i(x, y)r(x, y)$$

where

$$0 < i(x, y) < \infty$$

$$0 < r(x, y) < 1$$

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图2.5.1 投影成象示意图



A point in Cartesian coordinates can be represented as a vector:

$$w = \begin{bmatrix} X & Y & Z \end{bmatrix}^T$$

it's homogeneous coordinates is

$$w_h = \begin{bmatrix} kX & kY & kZ & k \end{bmatrix}^T$$

If we define perspective projection transform matrix as:

$$p = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{\lambda} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

then

$$c_{h} = Pw_{h} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{\lambda} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} kX \\ kY \\ kZ \\ k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} kX \\ kY \\ kZ \\ -\frac{kZ}{\lambda + k} \end{bmatrix}$$

The coordinates of a point in camera coordinate are:

$$c = \begin{bmatrix} x & y & z \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\lambda X}{\lambda - Z} & \frac{\lambda Y}{\lambda - Z} & \frac{\lambda Z}{\lambda - Z} \end{bmatrix}^T$$

Inverse transformation can map a point in image into 3-D space: $w_h = P^{-1} c_h$

Where P⁻¹ is:

$$P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

If the coordinates of a point in image is(x',y',0), then it's homogeneous vector is:

$$c_h = \begin{bmatrix} kx' & ky' & 0 & k \end{bmatrix}^T$$

And it's homogeneous coordinates is

$$w_h = \begin{bmatrix} kx' & ky' & 0 & k \end{bmatrix}^T$$

Coordinate vector in Cartesian coordinates is

$$w = \begin{bmatrix} X & Y & Z \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} x' & y' & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$



In other words:



2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data presentation

Assume that an image f(x,y) is sampled so that the resulting digital image has M rows and N columns. We use integer values for those of the coordinates (x,y).

$$f(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} f(0,0) & f(0,1) & \cdots & f(0,N-1) \\ f(1,0) & f(1,1) & \cdots & f(1,N-1) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ f(M-1,0) & f(M-1,1) & \cdots & f(M-1,N-1) \end{bmatrix}$$

2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data presentation

We often use a more traditional matrix notation to denote a digital image and its elements.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{0,0} & a_{0,1} & \cdots & a_{0,N-1} \\ a_{1,0} & a_{1,1} & & a_{1,N-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{M-1,0} & a_{M-1,1} & \cdots & a_{M-1,N-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

• Clearly, $a_{ij} = f(i, j)$

2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data presentation

two dimensional array	A[M][N]
Image size	M*N
Pixel at point (i,j)	A[i][j]

2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image Types

Туре	Bits/pixel	color levers
Binary image	1	2
Gray Image	8	256
Color image	24	16777216
Multispectral Image	8*n	

2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image Types



Binary Image



Gray Image



Color Image

2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image statistic parameters

Max value: $ma_value = \max(A(i, j))$ Min value: $mi_value = \min(A(i, j))$ Mean value: $me_value = \frac{1}{M \times N} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} A(i, j)$ Variance: $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{M \times N} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} (A(i, j) - me_value)^2$ Where: $i = 0, 1, \dots M - 1$ $j = 0, 1, \dots N - 1$

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2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data file formats

Name	type	usage
raw data format	*.dat, *.raw	Dos, UNIX and Macintosh image
Bit-mapped format	*.bmp	Microsoft Windows format
Tagged file format	*.tif	Dos, UNIX and Macintosh image

2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data file formats

Raw data file: simple but no any attached information. If you don't know the width of image, then:



2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data file formats

Bit-mapped file:

File head	Bitmap head	Color map	data
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2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data file formats

Bit-mapped file: file head

Offset	Length	Name	Description
0	2	bfType	"BM"
2	4	bfSize	Size of file
6	2	bfReserved1	0
8	2	bfReserved2	0
10	4	bfOffBits	Offset after file head

2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data file formats

Bit-mapped file: bitmap head

Offset	Length	Name	Description
14	4	biSize	Size of bitmap head, 40
18	4	biWidth	Width of Image
22	4	biHeight	Height of Image
26	2	biPlanes	Always "1"
28	2	biBitCount	Bits/pixel, 1,4,8 or 24
30	4	biCompression	Size of compressed file
34	4	bfSizeImag	Offset after file head

2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data file formats

Bit-mapped file: bitmap head

Offset	Length	Name	Description
38	4	biXPelsPerMeter	Resolution in horizon direction
42	4	biYPelsPerMeter	Resolution in vertical direction
46	4	biClrUsed	Color number used
50	4	biClrImportant	Important color's number
54	4*N	bmiColors	Color Mapping table

2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data file formats

Bit-mapped file: Color map

Offset	Length	Name	Description
0	1	rgbBlue	Value of blue
1	1	rgbGreen	Value of green
2	1	rgbRed	Value of red
3	1	rgbReserved	0
2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data file formats

Bit-mapped file: example of Color map biBitCount=8

Number	rgbBlue	rgbGreen	rgbRed
0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1
		•	
•	•	•	•
255	255	255	255

2.6.1 Image Fundaments: Image data file formats

Tagged file format



IFD: image file directory

2.6.2 Spatial resolution

The number G of discrete gray levels and the size of image are typically integer power of 2. The range of values spanned by the gray levels is called the dynamic range of an image

$$G=2^k \qquad M=2^m \qquad N=2^n$$

The number b of bits required to store a digital image is :

$$b = M \times N \times k$$

When M=N:

$$b = N^2 k$$

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2.6.3 Gray level resolution :uniform quantization



2.6.3 Zooming and Shrinking Digital Images

Zooming requires two steps:

(1) the creation of new pixel locations

(2) the assignment of gray levels to those new locations.

Methods:

- (1) Nearest neighbor interpolation
- (2) Bilinear interpolation

2.7.1 Neighborhood of a pixel

A pixel p at coordinates (x, y) has four horizontal and vertical neighbors whose coordinates are given by This set of pixels, called the 4-neighbors of p, is denoted by $N_4(p)$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} 0 & (x, y-1) & 0 \\ \hline (x-1, y) & (x, y) & (x+1, y) \\ \hline 0 & (x, y+1) & 0 \\ \end{array}$$

2.7.1 Neighborhood of a pixel

The four *diagonal* neighbors of p have coordinates. and are denoted by $N_D(p)$

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc} (x-1, y-1) & 0 & (x+1, y-1) \\ \hline 0 & (x, y) & 0 \\ \hline (x-1, y+1) & 0 & (x+1, y+1) \end{array}$$

 $N_D(p)$ together with $N_4(p)$, are called the 8-*neighbors* of *p*, denoted by $N_8(p)$

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2.7.2 Connectivity

To establish if two pixels are connected, it must be determined if they are neighbors and if their gray levels satisfy a specified criterion of similarity. If V is defined as the set of gray levels, then

• *4-adjacency:* two pixels p and q with values from V are 4-adjacent if q is in the set $N_4(p)$

•8-*adjacency* : two pixels p and q with values from V are 8-adjacent if q is in the set $N_8(p)$

•*m*-*adjacency* : two pixels *p* and *q* with values from *V* are 4-adjacent if

(i) q is in $N_4(p)$, or

(ii) q is in $N_D(p)$ and the set $N_4(p) \cap N_4(q)$ has no pixels whose values are from V.



Figure 2.26 (a) Arrangement of pixels;(b) pixels that are 8-adjacent;(c)m-adjacent

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Problem: consider the two image subsets, *S* and *T* shown in the following figure. For *V*={1}, determine whether these Two subsets are (a) 4-adjacent, (b)8-adjacent or (c) m-adjacent

5	5						
1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0



Solution: Let p and q be as shown in the following figure. Then, (a) Sand T are not 4-connected because q is not in the set $N_4(p)$. (b) S and T are 8-connected because q is in the set $N_8(p)$. (c) S and T are mconnected because (i) q is in $N_D(p)$, and (ii) the set $N_4(p) \cap N_4(q)$ is empty.

2.7.3 Distance Measures: definitions

For pixels p,q and z, with coordinates (x,y),(s,t), and (u,v), respectively, D is a *distance function or metric* if

(a) $D(p,q) \ge 0$ (D(p,q) = 0, if p = q) (b) D(p,q) = D(q,p), and(c) $D(p,z) \le D(p,q) + D(q,z)$

2.7.3 Distance Measures: definitions

- The Euclidean distance is $D_e(p,q) = [(x-s)^2 + (y-t)^2]^{\frac{1}{2}}$
- And the city-block and chessboard distances are: $D_4(p,q) = |x-s| + |y-t|$ $D_8(p,q) = \max(|x-s|, |y-t|)$
- The D_m distance is defined as the shortest mpath between the points.

2.7.3 Distance Measures: example 1

City-block distance(D_4)			Chessboard distance (D_8)								
		2				2	2	2	2	2	
	2	1	2			2	1	1	1	2	
2	1	0	1	2		2	1	0	1	2	
	2	1	2			2	1	1	1	2	
		2				2	2	2	2	2	
		(a)						(b)			

图2.7.4 等距离轮廓实例

2.7.3 Distance Measures: example 2



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2.7.3 Distance Measures: example 3

Problem: consider the image segment shown Let V={0,1} and compute the lengths of the shortest 4-8- and m-path between p and q. if a particular path does not exist between these two points, explain why.



2.7.3 Distance Measures: example 3



a) When $V = \{0,1\}$, 4-path does not exist between *p* and *q* because it is impossible to get from *p* to *q* by traveling along points that are both 4adjacent and also have values from *V*.

 b) The shortest 8-path is shown in right Figure, its length (shown magenta) is 4. The length of shortest m-path (shown blue) is 5.



2.8.1 Arithmetic operation

Arithmetic operations between two pixels *p* and *q* include:

Addition:	p+q
Subtraction:	p-q
Multiplication:	p*q
Division:	<i>p/q</i>

2.8.2 Logical operation:

AND OR NOT



图2.8.1 二值图象的逻辑运算

2.8.3 Point operation and Local operation:

 $A(x,y) \longrightarrow B(x,y)$

Point Operation: B(x, y) = f(A(x, y))

Local Operation: $B(x, y) = f(A(x \pm s, y \pm t))$ Windows: s = 0, 1, ..., S - 1 t = 0, 1, ..., T - 1

Usually, *S*=*T*=1,3,5,7...

2.8.4 Local operation:



图2.8.2 模板运算示例

summary

- Basic idea of the eye in perceiving pictorial information
- Color fundamentals and color models
- Fundamentals of images, include presentation, read, write display, sampling and quantization, relationship between pixels, and so on.

Chapter3 Image Transforms

- 3.1General Introduction and Classification
- 3.2 The Fourier Transform and Properties
- 3.3 Other Separable Image Transforms
- 3.4 Hotelling Transform

Chapter3 Image Transforms



General steps of operation in frequency domain



3.1 General Introduction and Classification

3.1.1 introduction

- image transforms are the bases of image processing and analysis
- this chapter deals with two-dimensional transforms and their properties
- image transforms are used in image enhancement, restoration, reconstruction, encoding and description

3.1 General Introduction and Classification

3.1.1 classification



3.2 Fourier Transform and Properties3.2.2 definitions: 1-D CFT

The One-Dimensional Continuous Fourier Transform and its Inverse

$$F(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x)e^{-j2\pi ux} dx$$
$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} F(u)e^{j2\pi xu} du$$

3.2 Fourier Transform and Properties3.2.2 definitions:1-D DFT

The One-Dimensional Discrete Fourier Transform and its Inverse

$$F(u) = \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} f(x) e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}ux} \qquad u = 0, 1, \dots N-1$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} F(u) e^{j\frac{2\pi}{N}ux} \qquad x = 0, 1, \dots N - 1$$

1

3.2.2 definitions (2) :1-D DFT

Other expressions:

$$F(u) = R(u) + jI(u)$$

or

$$F(u) = |F(u)| \exp[j\phi(u)]$$

Euler's formula:

$$\exp[-j2\pi ux] = \cos 2\pi ux - j\sin 2\pi ux$$

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3.2.2 definitions:spectrum, Phase angle Power spectrum

Magnitude or spectrum
$$|F(u)| = [R^2(u) + I^2(u)]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Phase angle or phase spectrum $\phi(u) = \arctan[I(u)/R(u)]$

Power spectrum (Spectral density) $P(u) = |F(u)|^2 = R^2(u) + I^2(u)$

3.2.2 definitions:1-D DFT example

If a signal is expressed as $f(x) = \{2, 3, 4, 4\}$, its DFT are: $F(0) = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{x=0}^{3} f(x) \exp(0) = \frac{1}{4} [f(0) + f(1) + f(2) + f(3)] = 3.25$ $F(1) = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{x=0}^{3} f(x) \exp(-j2\pi x/4) = \frac{1}{4} [2e^{0} + 3e^{-j\pi/2} + 4e^{-j\pi} + 4e^{-j3\pi/2}] = \frac{1}{4} (-2+j)$ $F(2) = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{x=0}^{3} f(x) \exp(-j4\pi x/4) = \frac{1}{4} [2e^{0} + 3e^{-j\pi} + 4e^{-2j\pi} + 4e^{-j3\pi}] = -\frac{1}{4} (1+j0)$ $F(3) = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{x=0}^{3} f(x) \exp(-j6\pi x/4) = \frac{1}{4} [2a^{0} + 3e^{-j\pi/2} + 4e^{-j\pi} + 4e^{-j\pi}] = -\frac{1}{4} (1+j0)$

$$F(3) = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{x=0}^{3} f(x) \exp(-j6\pi x/4) = \frac{1}{4} [2e^{0} + 3e^{-j3\pi/2} + 4e^{-j3\pi} + 4e^{-j9\pi/2}] = -\frac{1}{4} (2+j)$$

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3.2.2 definitions:1-D DFT example

And the Fourier spectra are :

 $|F(0)| = 3.25 \qquad \phi(0) = 0$ $|F(1)| = [(2/4)^2 + (1/4)^2]^{1/2} = \sqrt{5}/4 \qquad \phi(1) = 0.85\pi$ $|F(2)| = [(1/4)^2 + (0/4)^2]^{1/2} = 1/4 \qquad \phi(3) = \pi$ $|F(3)| = [(2/4)^2 + (1/4)^2]^{1/2} = \sqrt{5}/4 \qquad \phi(3) = -0.85\pi$



3.2 Fourier Transform and Properties3.2.2 definitions: 2D-DFT

The Two-Dimensional Discrete Fourier Transform and its Inverse

$$F(u,v) = \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x,y) e^{-j2\pi(ux/M+vy/N)} \qquad u = 0, 1, \dots M-1$$

$$v = 0, 1, \dots N-1$$

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} F(u, v) e^{j2\pi(ux/M + vy/N)} \qquad x = 0, 1, \dots M - 1$$
$$y = 0, 1, \dots N - 1$$

3.2 Fourier Transform and Properties3.2.2 definitions: 2D-DFT

Magnitude or spectrum

$$|F(u,v)| = [R^2(u,v) + I^2(u,v)]^{1/2}$$

Phase angle or phase spectrum

$$\phi(u, v) = \arctan[I(u, v)/R(u, v)]$$

Power spectrum (Spectral density)

$$P(u,v) = |F(u,v)|^{2} = R^{2}(u,v) + I^{2}(u,v)$$

3.2.2 definitions: 2D-DFT


3.2.2 definitions: 2D-DFT

Typical images and their spectra



3.2.3 Properties: Display

- •Usually the Fourier spectra are displayed as intensity function.
- many image spectra decrease rather rapidly as a function of increasing frequency
- •their high-frequency terms have a tendency to become obscured when displayed in image.

3.2.3 Properties: Display

• A useful processing technique which compensates for this difficulty consists of displaying the function

$$D_1(u, v) = \log(1 + |F(u, v)|)$$

Or

$$D_2(u,v) = \begin{cases} |F(u,v)| + 100\\ 255 & \text{if } |F(u,v)| + 100 > 255 \end{cases}$$

•instead of F(u,v)

3.2.3 Properties: separability

The DFT pair can be expressed in the separable forms:

$$F(u,v) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \exp\left[\frac{-j2\pi ux}{N}\right] \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x,y) \exp\left[\frac{-j2\pi vy}{N}\right]$$

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} \exp\left[\frac{j2\pi ux}{N}\right] \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} F(u, v) \exp\left[\frac{j2\pi vy}{N}\right]$$

3.2.3 Properties: separability

The principal of the separability property is that f(x,y) or F(u,v) can be obtained in two steps by successive applications of the 1-D Fourier transform or its inverse



3.2.3 Properties: separability

For a N*N image, it can be separated into 2N 1D-DFT



3.2.3 Properties: periodicity and conjugate symmetry

The discrete Fourier transform and its inverse are *periodic* with Period N

$$F(u, v) = F(u + N, v) = F(u, v + N) = F(u + N, v + N)$$

The Fourier transform also exhibits conjugate symmetry since

$$F(u,v) = F^*(-u,-v)$$

Or more interestingly,

$$\left|F(u,v)\right| = \left|F(-u,-v)\right|$$

3.2.3 Properties: translation

The translation properties of the Fourier transform pair are given by

$$f(x, y) \exp[j2\pi(u_0 x + v_0 y)/N] \Leftrightarrow F(u - u_0, v - v_0)$$

and

$$f(x-x_0, y-y_0) \Leftrightarrow F(u, v) \exp\left[-j2\pi(ux_0+vy_0)/N\right]$$

3.2.3 Properties: translation

A shift in f(x,y) does not affect the magnitude of its Fourier transform since

$$F(u,v)\exp[-j2\pi(ux_0+vy_0)/N] = |F(u,v)|$$

3.2.3 Properties: translation

Example: in the case $u_0 = v_0 = N/2$, it follows that

and

$$f(x, y)(-1)^{x+y} \Leftrightarrow F(u - N/2, v - N/2)$$

3.2.3 Properties: rotation

If we introduce the polar coordinates

$$x = r\cos(\theta)$$
 $y = r\sin(\theta)$ $u = \omega\cos(\phi)$ $v = \omega\sin(\phi)$

Then f(x,y) and F(u,v) become $f(r,\theta)$ and $F(\omega,\phi)$ respectively

 $f(r, \theta + \theta_0) \Leftrightarrow F(w, \phi + \theta_0)$

3.2.3 Properties: rotation



3.2.3 Properties: Distributivity

It follows directly from the definition of the transform pair that,

$$F\{f_1(x, y) + f_2(x, y)\} = F\{f_1(x, y)\} + F\{f_2(x, y)\}$$

And, in general that,

$$F\{f_1(x, y) \cdot f_2(x, y)\} \neq F\{f_1(x, y)\} \cdot \{f_2(x, y)\}$$

3.2.3 Properties: scaling

It is also easy to show that for two scalar *a* and *b*

 $af(x, y) \Leftrightarrow aF(u, v)$

and

$$f(ax, by) \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{|ab|} F\left(\frac{u}{a}, \frac{v}{b}\right)$$

3.2.3 Properties: average value

A widely-used definition of the average value of a 2D Discrete function is given by the expression

$$\tilde{f}(x, y) = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x, y)$$

Substitution of u-v-0 in definition of 2D DFT yields

$$F(0,0) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x,y) \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad \tilde{f}(x,y) = \frac{1}{N} F(0,0)$$

3.2.3 Properties: convolution

The convolution of two functions f(x) and g(x), denoted by f(x)*g(x), is defined by the integral:

$$f(x) * g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(z)g(x-z)dz$$

Where z is a dummy variable of integration

3.2.3 Properties: convolution

Example1: graphic illustration of convolution f(x)*g(x)



图3.2.3 1-D函数卷积示例

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3.2.3 Properties: convolution

Example2: graphic illustration of convolution f(x,y)*g(x,y)



3.2.3 Properties: convolution

Example2: graphic illustration of convolution f(x,y)*g(x,y)



3.2.3 Properties: convolution

If f(x,y) has the Fourier transform F(u,v) and g(x,y) has the Fourier Transform G(u,v), then f(x,y)*g(x,y) has the Fourier transform F(u,v)G(u,v). This result, formally stated as:

 $f(x, y) * g(x, y) \Leftrightarrow F(u, v)G(u, v)$

And the convolution in *frequency* domain reduces to multiplication In the *spatial*-domain

$$f(x, y)g(x, y) \Leftrightarrow F(u, v) * G(u, v)$$

3.2.3 Properties: convolution

Definition of 1D-discrete convolution

$$f_e(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & 0 \le x \le A - 1 \\ 0 & A \le x \le M - 1 \end{cases}$$

$$g_e(x) = \begin{cases} g(x) & 0 \le x \le B - 1 \\ 0 & B \le x \le M - 1 \end{cases}$$

$$f_e(x) * g_e(x) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} f_e(m) g_e(x-m)$$
 x=0,1,...,M-1

3.2.3 Properties: convolution

Definition of 2D-discrete convolution

$$f_e(x, y) = \begin{cases} f(x, y) & 0 \le x \le A - 1 \text{ and } 0 \le y \le B - 1 \\ 0 & A \le x \le M - 1 \text{ or } B \le y \le N - 1 \end{cases}$$

$$g_e(x, y) = \begin{cases} g(x, y) & 0 \le x \ge C - 1 \text{ and } 0 \le y \le D - 1 \\ 0 & C \le x \le M - 1 \text{ or } D \le y \le N - 1 \end{cases}$$

$$f_e(x, y) * g_e(x, y) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f_e(m, n) g_e(x-m, y-n) \qquad x = 0, 1, ..., M-1$$

$$y = 0, 1, ..., N-1$$

3.2.3 Properties: 1-D correlation

The correlation of two functions f(x) and g(x) is defined as:

$$f(x) \circ g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^*(z)g(x+z)dz$$

The discrete equivalent is defined as:

$$f_e(x) \circ g_e(x) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} f_e^*(m) g_e(x+m) \qquad x = 0, 1, \dots, M-1$$

3.2.3 Properties: 2-D correlation

The correlation of two functions f(x,y) and g(x,y) is defined as:

$$f(x, y) \circ g(x, y) = \int_{-\infty-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty-\infty}^{\infty} f^*(p, q)g(x + p, y + q)dpdq$$

The discrete equivalent is defined as:

$$f_e(x, y) \circ g_e(x, y) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f_e^*(m, n) g_e(x+m, y+n) \qquad \begin{array}{l} x = 0, 1, \dots, M-1 \\ y = 0, 1, \dots, N-1 \end{array}$$

3.2.3 Properties: 2-D correlation

It can be shown for both continuous and discrete cases That the following *correlation theorem* holds:

 $f(x, y) \circ g(x, y) \Leftrightarrow F^*(u, v)G(u, v)$

 $f^*(x, y)g(x, y) \Leftrightarrow F(u, v) \circ G(u, v)$

3.3.1 General formulations

Definition1: if X is an *N*-by-1 vector and T is an *N*-by-N matrix then:



3.3.1 General formulations

Definition2: inversion $X = T^{-1}Y$

If rank(T) = N then it is a *linear* transform If $T^{-1} = T^{*t}$ then it is a *Unitary* transform $TT^{*t} = TT^{-1} = I$ If $T^{-1} = T^{t}$ then it is a *orthogonal* transform $TT^{t} = TT^{-1} = I$

3.3.1 General formulations

Example: 1-D Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)



It is a Unitary transform

3.3.1 General formulations

Definition3: 2-D transformation

$$y_{m,n} = \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_{i,j} \Phi(i, j, m, n)$$

 $\Phi(i, j, m, n)$ Can be thought of as a *MN-by-MN* block matrix have *M* rows of *M* blocks, each of which is an *N-by-N* matrix

3.3.1 General formulations

Definition4: if $\Phi(i, j, m, n)$ can be separated into the product of rowwise and columnwise component function, that is

 $\Phi(i, j, m, n) = T_r(i, m)T_c(j, n)$

then the transformation is called *separable*

$$y_{m,n} = \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \left[\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_{i,j} T_c(j,n) \right] T_r(i,m)$$

3.3.1 General formulations

Definition5: if two component are identical:

 $\Phi(i, j, m, n) = T(i, m)T(j, n)$

then the transformation is called *symmetric*

$$y_{m,n} = \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \left[\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_{i,j} T(j,n) \right] T(i,m)$$

or
$$Y = TXT$$

3.3.1 General formulations

Example: 2-D Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)

Separable and Symmetric Unitary transform

$$F(u,v) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \exp\left[\frac{-j2\pi ux}{N}\right] \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x,y) \exp\left[\frac{-j2\pi vy}{N}\right]$$

lets

$$W_{M} = \exp(j2\pi / M)$$
$$W_{N} = \exp(j2\pi / N)$$

then

3.3.1 General formulations

Example: Matrix expression of 2-D DFT

$$\begin{bmatrix} F(0,0) & F(0,1) & \cdots & F(0,N-1) \\ F(1,0) & F(1,1) & \cdots & F(1,N-1) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ F(M-1,0) & F(M-1,1) & \cdots & F(M-1,N-1) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \begin{bmatrix} W_M^0 & W_M^0 & W_M^0 & \cdots & W_M^0 \\ W_M^0 & W_M^{-1} & W_M^{-2} & \cdots & W_M^{-(M-1)} \\ W_M^0 & W_M^{-2} & W_M^{-4} & \cdots & W_M^{-2(M-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W_M^0 & W_M^{-(M-1)} & W_M^{-2(M-1)} & \cdots & W_M^{-(M-1)^2} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\times \begin{bmatrix} f(0,0) & f(0,1) & \cdots & f(0,N-1) \\ f(1,0) & f(1,0) & \cdots & f(N-1,0) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ f(N-1,0) & f(N-1,0) & \cdots & f(N-1,N-1) \end{bmatrix} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{bmatrix} W_N^0 & W_N^0 & W_N^0 & \cdots & W_M^0 \\ W_N^0 & W_N^{-1} & W_N^{-2} & \cdots & W_N^{-(N-1)} \\ W_N^0 & W_N^{-2} & W_N^{-4} & \cdots & W_N^{-(N-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W_N^0 & W_N^{-2} & W_N^{-4} & \cdots & W_N^{-2(N-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W_N^0 & W_N^{-(N-1)} & W_N^{-2(N-1)} & \cdots & W_N^{-(N-1)^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

3.3.1 General formulations

Example: Matrix expression of 2-D DFT

It's denoted as

$$G = W_M F W_N$$

And the inverse is:

$$F = W_M^{-1} G W_N^{-1}$$

3.3.1 General formulations

Example: Matrix expression of 2-D DFT

Where: $W_{M}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \begin{bmatrix} W_{M}^{0} & W_{M}^{0} & W_{M}^{0} & \cdots & W_{M}^{0} \\ W_{M}^{0} & W_{M}^{1} & W_{M}^{2} & \cdots & W_{M}^{(M-1)} \\ W_{M}^{0} & W_{M}^{2} & W_{M}^{4} & \cdots & W_{M}^{2(M-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W_{M}^{0} & W_{M}^{(M-1)} & W_{M}^{2(M-1)} & \cdots & W_{M}^{(M-1)^{2}} \end{bmatrix}$ $W_{N}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{bmatrix} W_{N}^{0} & W_{N}^{0} & W_{N}^{0} & \cdots & W_{N}^{0} \\ W_{N}^{0} & W_{N}^{1} & W_{N}^{2} & \cdots & W_{N}^{(N-1)} \\ W_{N}^{0} & W_{N}^{2} & W_{N}^{4} & \cdots & W_{N}^{2(N-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W_{N}^{0} & W_{N}^{(N-1)} & W_{N}^{2(N-1)} & \cdots & W_{N}^{(N-1)^{2}} \end{bmatrix}$

3.3.2 Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

The 1-D DCT pair is given by the expression:

$$C(u) = a(u) \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} f(x) \cos\left[\frac{(2x+1)u\pi}{2N}\right] \qquad x=0,1,\dots N-1$$
$$f(x) = \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} a(u)C(u) \cos\left[\frac{(2x+1)u\pi}{2N}\right] \qquad u=0,1,\dots N-1$$

where

$$a(u) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{1/N} & \text{when } u = 0\\ \sqrt{2/N} & \text{when } u = 1, 2, \dots, N-1 \end{cases}$$
3.3.2 Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

Basis function matrix



3.3.2 Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

The 2-D DCT pair is given by the expression:

$$C(u,v) = a(u)a(v)\sum_{x=0}^{N-1}\sum_{y=0}^{N-1}f(x,y)\cos\left[\frac{(2x+1)u\pi}{2N}\right]\cos\left[\frac{(2y+1)v\pi}{2N}\right]$$
$$u,v=0,1,...N-1$$
$$f(x,y) = \sum_{u=0}^{N-1}\sum_{v=0}^{N-1}a(u)a(v)C(u,v)\cos\left[\frac{(2x+1)u\pi}{2N}\right]\cos\left[\frac{(2y+1)v\pi}{2N}\right]$$
$$x,y=0,1,...N-1$$

3.3.2 Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)



The 2D-DCT basis images for N=4

3.3 Other Separable Transforms3.3.2 Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

An example of 2D-DCT





3.3.2 Walsh transform

When $N=2^n$, the kernel function is:

$$g(x,u) = \frac{1}{N} \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{b_i(x)b_{n-1-i}(u)}$$

the discrete Walsh transform of a function f(x), denote by W(u), is:

$$W(u) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} f(x) \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{b_i(x)b_{n-1-i}(u)}$$

Where $b_k(z)$ is the *k*th bit in the binary representation of *z*. Eg: n=3, z=6 (110 in binary), we have that $b_0(z)=0$, $b_1(z)=1$, and $b_2(z)=1$

3.3.2 Walsh transform: 1-D transform The values of g(x,u) are list in below



3.3.2 Walsh transform: 1-D transform

Inverse kernel and transform:

$$h(x,u) = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{b_i(x)b_{n-1-i}(u)}$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} W(u) \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{b_i(x)b_{n-1-i}(u)}$$

3.3.2 Walsh transform: 1-D matrix expression N=8

3.3.2 Walsh transform: 1-D transform

The values of g(x,u) are list in below for N=8



3.3.2 Walsh transform: 1-D ordered Walsh transform The values of g(x,u) are list in below for N=8



3.3.2 Walsh transform: 2-D transform

The direct and inverse kernel functions are expressed as: $g(x, y, u, v) = \frac{1}{N} \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{[b_i(x)b_{n-1-i}(u)+b_i(y)b_{n-1-i}(v)]}$ $h(x, y, u, v) = \frac{1}{N} \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{[b_i(x)b_{n-1-i}(u)+b_i(y)b_{n-1-i}(v)]}$

And the direct and inverse transforms are:

$$W(u,v) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x,y) \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{[b_i(x)b_{n-1-i}(u)+b_i(y)b_{n-1-i}(v)]}$$
$$f(x,y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} W(u,v) \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{[b_i(x)b_{n-1-i}(u)+b_i(y)b_{n-1-i}(v)]}$$

3.3.2 Walsh transform: 2-D transform

The direct and inverse kernel functions are *Separable* and *Symmetric*

 $g(x, y, u, v) = g_1(x, u)g_1(y, v) = h_1(x, u)h_1(y, v)$

So it can be implemented in two steps





3.3.2 Hadamard transform: 1-D transform

When $N=2^n$, the kernel function is:

$$g(x,u) = \frac{1}{N} (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i(x)b_i(u)}$$

Where the summation in the exponent is performed in modulo 2

1-D Hadamard transform of a function f(x), denote by H(u), is:

$$H(u) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} f(x) (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i(x)b_i(u)}$$

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3.3.2 Hadamard transform: 1-D inverse transform

Inverse kernel and transform:

$$h(x,u) = (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i(x)b_i(u)}$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} H(u)(-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i(x)b_i(u)}$$

3.3.4 hadamard transform: 1-D matrix expression N=8

3.3.2 Hadamard transform: 1-D transform The values of g(x,u) are list in below for N=8





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3.3.4 Hadamard transform: 1-D transform

Another way for generating kernel matrix

For the two-by-two case, the kernel matrix is

$$H_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

And for successively larger N, these can be generated from The block matrix from

$$\boldsymbol{H}_{2N} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{H}_{N} & \boldsymbol{H}_{N} \\ \boldsymbol{H}_{N} & -\boldsymbol{H}_{N} \end{bmatrix} = \boldsymbol{H}_{2} \otimes \boldsymbol{H}_{N}$$

3.3.4 Hadamard transform: 1-D transform

Another way for generating kernel matrix

For examples



3.3.4 Hadamard transform: 1-D ordered Hadamard transform

Lets kernel function:

$$g(x, u) = \frac{1}{N} (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i(x) p_i(u)}$$
where

$$p_0(u) = b_{n-1}(u)$$

$$p_1(u) = b_{n-1}(u) + b_{n-2}(u)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$p_{n-1}(u) = b_1(u) + b_0(u)$$

And inverse kernel function:

$$h(x,u) = (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i(x) p_i(u)}$$

3.3.4 Hadamard transform: 1-D ordered Hadamard transform The values of g(x,u) are list in below for N=8



3.3.4 Hadamard transform: 1-D ordered Hadamard transform Then the ordered Hadamard transform pair is

$$H(u) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} f(x) (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i(x) p_i(u)}$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} H(u)(-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i(x)p_i(u)}$$

3.3.4 Hadamard transform: 2-D transform

The kernel functions of 2-D Hadamard are: $h(x, y, u, v) = \frac{1}{N} (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} [b_i(x)b_i(u)+b_i(y)b_i(v)]}}$ $g(x, y, u, v) = \frac{1}{N} (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} [b_i(x)b_i(u)+b_i(y)b_i(v)]}}$

Both the direct and inverse kernel function are *Separable* and *Symmetric*, because

$$g(x, y, u, v) = g_1(x, u)g_1(y, v) = h_1(x, u)h_1(y, v)$$

3.3 Other Separable Transforms3.3.4 Hadamard transform: 2-D transform

And the 2-D Hadamard transform is defined as:

$$H(u,v) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x,y) (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} [b_i(x)b_i(u) + b_i(y)b_i(v)]}$$

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} H(u, y) (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} [b_i(x)b_i(u) + b_i(y)b_i(v)]}$$

3.3.2 Hadamard transform: 2-D transform



The Hadamard transform basis images for N=4

3.3.4 Hadamard transform: 2-D ordered transform

The direct and inverse kernel functions of 2-D ordered Hadamard are same as: $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} [b_i(x) p_i(u) + b_i(y) p_i(y)]$

$$g(x, y, u, v) = h(x, y, u, v) = \frac{1}{N} (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor b_i(x) p_i(u) + b_i(y) p_i(v) - b_i(y) p_i(v)}}$$

And the 2-D ordered Hadamard transform is defined as:

$$H(u,v) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x,y) (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} [b_i(x) p_i(u) + b_i(y) p_i(v)]}}$$
$$f(x,y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} H(u,v) (-1)^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} [b_i(x) p_i(u) + b_i(y) p_i(v)]}}$$

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3.3.4 Hadamard transform: 2-D ordered transform



Basis image of 2-D ordered Hadamard transform

3.3.5 Haar transform: definitions

1. Haar function

The Haar functions $h_k(z)$ are defined on the interval [0,1], and $k=0,1...N-1, N=2^n$. Let theInteger $0 \le k \le N-1$ be specified (uniquely) by two other integers, *p* and *q*, as

$$k = 2^p + q - 1$$

Where 2^p is the largest power of 2 such that $2^p \le k$ and q-1 is The remainder

For example,

$$k=1=2^{0}+1-1, \implies p=0, q=1$$

$$k=23=2^{4}+8-1, \implies p=4, q=8$$

$$k=100=2^{6}+37-1, \implies p=6, q=37$$

3.3.5 Haar transform: definitions

1. Haar function

The Haar functions are defined by

$$h_0(z) = h_{00}(z) = 1/\sqrt{N}$$
 $z \in [0,1]$



3.3.5 Haar transform: definitions

2. Haar transform matrix

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} h_0(0/N) & h_0(1/N) & \cdots & h_0(N-1/N) \\ h_1(0/N) & h_1(1/N) & \cdots & h_1(N-1/N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h_{N-1}(0/N) & h_{N-1}(1/N) & \cdots & h_{N-1}(N-1/N) \end{bmatrix}$$

3.3.5 Haar transform: definitions

2. Haar transform matrix

For example:
$$N=2$$

 $H_2 = \begin{bmatrix} h_0(0/2) & h_0(1/2) \\ h_1(0/2) & h_1(1/2) \end{bmatrix}$
 $h_0(1/2) = h_{00}(0/2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$
 $h_0(1/2) = h_{00}(1/2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$
 $h_1(0/2) = h_{01}(0/2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$
 $h_1(1/2) = h_{01}(1/2) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$
 $H_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

3.3.5 Haar transform: definitions

2. Haar transform matrix

3.3.5 Haar transform: definitions

2. Haar transform matrix



3.3.5 Haar transform: definitions

- 3. Haar transform
 - Direct transform:

G = HF

Inverse transform:

$$F = H^{-1}G$$



3.3.5 Haar transform: properties

3. Haar transform



The Haar transform basis images for N=4
3.3.5 Haar transform: example

Edge detecting ability of the Haar transform



3.3.6 Slant transform: definitions

Unitary kernel matrix starting with:

$$S_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

And iterating it according to the schema:

3.3.6 Slant transform: definitions

Where *I* is the identity matrix of order N/2-2 and

$$a_N = \left[\frac{3N^2}{4(N^2 - 1)}\right]^{1/2} \qquad b_N = \left[\frac{N^2 - 4}{4(N^2 - 1)}\right]^{1/2}$$

For example: *N*=4

$$S_4 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 3/\sqrt{5} & 1/\sqrt{5} & -1/\sqrt{5} & -3/\sqrt{5} \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1/\sqrt{5} & -3/\sqrt{5} & 3/\sqrt{5} & -1/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}$$

3.3.6 Slant transform: definitions

For example: *N*=8



3.3.6 Slant transform: 1-D basis functions



The 1-D Slant transform basis functions for *N*=8

3.3.6 Slant transform: 2-D basis images



The 2-D Slant transform basis functions for N=4

3.3.7 Hotelling transform: definitions

KLT: Karhunen-Loeve Transfrom PCA:Principal Components Analysis

The *kth* image in a image set can be expressed as a vector:

$$x^{k} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{0}^{k} & x_{1}^{k} & \cdots & x_{N-1}^{k} \end{bmatrix}^{T} \quad k = 0, 1, \dots M-1$$

The covariance matrix of the \mathbf{x} vector is defined as

$$C_x = E\{(x-m_x)(x-m_x)^T\}$$

where

. . .

$$m_x = E\{x\}$$

is the mean vector, E is the expected value

3.3.7 Hotelling transform: definitions

They can be approximated from the samples by using the relations

$$m_x = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} x^k$$

and

$$C_{x} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} (x^{k} - m_{x})(x^{k} - m_{x})^{T}$$
$$= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} x^{k} x^{kT} - m_{x} m_{x}^{T}$$

3.3.7 Hotelling transform: definitions

let
$$|C_x - \lambda I| = 0$$

Calculated *N* eigenvalues and arranged as $\lambda_0 \ge \lambda_1 \ge \cdots \ge \lambda_{N-1}$

let
$$\begin{bmatrix} C_x - \lambda_i I \end{bmatrix} T_i = 0$$

Calculated *N* eigenvectors T_i and arranged as

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} T_0^T \\ T_1^T \\ \vdots \\ T_{N-1}^T \end{bmatrix}$$

Inverse Hotelling transform X

Hotelling transform

$$Y = A(X - m_x)$$

$$X = A^T Y + m_x$$

3.3.7 Hotelling transform: properties

Relationship between the eigenvaluse and eigenvectors:



3.3.7 Hotelling transform: properties

mean vector of
$$\mathbf{y}$$
 $m_y = E\{y\} = E\{(Ax - Am_x)\} = AE\{x\} - Am_x$
 $m_y = 0$

The covariance matrix of the Y vector is given by

$$C_{y} = E\{(Y - m_{y})(Y - m_{y})^{T}\}$$
$$= E\{(AX - Am_{x})(AX - Am_{x})^{T}\}$$
$$= E\{A(X - m_{x})(X - m_{x})^{T}A^{T}\}$$
$$= AE\{(X - m_{x})(X - m_{x})^{T}\}A^{T}$$

3.3.7 Hotelling transform: properties

 C_y is a diagonal matrix with elements equal to the eigenvalues of C_x , that is

$$C_{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{1} & & 0 \\ & \lambda_{2} & \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_{N} \end{bmatrix}$$

That's means elements of *Y* are *uncorrelated*

3.3.7 Hotelling transform: inverse transform

Since Hotelling transform is *orthogonal*, so

$$A^{-1} = A^T$$
 and $X = A^T Y + m_x$

If we form A from K eigenvectors corresponding to the largest eigenvalues as A_K , the recovered vector will be

$$\hat{X} = A_K^T Y + m_{X}$$

It can be shown that the mean square error, e_{ms} , between X and \hat{X} is given by the expression

$$e_{ms} = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \lambda_j - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \lambda_j = \sum_{j=K}^{N-1} \lambda_j$$

3.3.7 Hotelling transform: example

Given the samples of 2-dimension vectors shown as below, calculate its Hotelling transform. N=2, M=27



 $1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6$

 x_0

3.3.7 Hotelling transform: example

Let

$$x^{k} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{0}^{k} & x_{1}^{k} \end{bmatrix}^{T} \qquad k = 0, 1, \dots 26$$

$$m_x = \frac{1}{27} \sum_{k=0}^{25} x_k = \begin{bmatrix} 4.444 & 4.2963 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C_{x} = \frac{1}{27} \sum_{k=0}^{25} (x_{i} - m_{x})(x_{i} - m_{x})^{T}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 3.4103 & 3.2479 \\ 3.2479 & 4.7550 \end{bmatrix}$$

3.3.7 Hotelling transform: example

$$\begin{aligned} |et | C_x - \lambda I| &= 0 \end{aligned} \qquad \boxed{3.4103 - \lambda \quad 3.2479} \\ 3.2479 \quad 4.7550 - \lambda| &= 0 \end{aligned}$$
$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_0 &= 7.3993 \quad \lambda_1 = 0.7659 \end{aligned}$$
$$let \left[C_x - \lambda_i I \right] T_i &= 0 \qquad \qquad T_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6314 \\ 0.7755 \end{bmatrix} \quad T_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -0.7755 \\ 0.6314 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6314 & 0.7755 \\ -0.7755 & 0.6314 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$y = A(x - m_x)$$

3.3.7 Hotelling transform: example

y =(-4.7309 0.5899) (-3.9555 1.2212) (-4.0996 -0.185	6) (-3.3241 0.4458) my =	= 1.0e-015 *
(-2.5486 1.0771) (-3.4682 -0.9611) (-2.6927 -0.32	97) (-1.9172 0.3017)	-0.6908 -0.1069
(-2.0613 -1.1052) (-1.2859 -0.4738) (-0.5104 0.157	76) (0.2651 0.7890)	
(1.0406 1.4203) (-0.6545 -1.2493) (0.1210 -0.617	$(0.8965 \ 0.0135)$ $cy =$	=
(1.6719 0.6449) (2.4474 1.2762) (0.7524 -1.3934	4) (1.5279 -0.7620 7.	.3993 0.0000
(2.3033 -0.1306) (3.0788 0.5008) (3.8543 1.1322)	0 (2.1592 -1.5375)	0000 0 7659
(2.9347 -0.9061) (3.7102 -0.2747) (4.4857 0.3567	7)	.0000 0.7039



corry =		
1.0000	0.0000	
0.0000	1.0000	

Summary

Sinusoidal transforms

- (a) Discrete Fourier Transform
- (b) Discrete Cosine Transform
- (c) Discrete Sine Transform
- (d) Hartly Transform

Basic function $e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$ $\cos\theta$ $\sin\theta$ $\cos\theta + \sin\theta$

Summary

Rectangular wave transforms

- (a) Hadamard Transform
- (b) Walsh Transform
- (c) Slant Transform
- (d) Haar Transform

Summary

Eigenvector-based transforms

- (a) Hotelling Transform (K-LT)
- (b) SVD Transform

Chapter4 Image Enhancement

- 4.1 General introduction and Classification
- 4.2 Enhancement by Spatial Transforming(contrast enhancement)
- 4.3 Enhancement by Spatial Filtering (image smoothing)
- 4.4 Enhancement by Frequency Filtering (image sharpening)
- 4.5 Color Enhancement
- Summary

4.1 General Introduction and Classification

4.1.1 Purposes

- improve the visual effects
- easy to edge extracting
- 4.1.2 Methods
 - spatial domain: point operations, local operations
 - frequency domain: DFT \rightarrow Filter \rightarrow IDFT

4.1 General Introduction and Classification

4.1.3 contents

• contrast enhancement:	linear transform	
	non-linear transform,	
	histogram equalization	
	histogram matching	
	local enhancement	
• image smoothing:	averaging mask,	
	order-statistics filter	
	lowpass filter.	
• image sharpening:	derivatives,	
	highpass filter	
• color image enhancemen	hancement: pseudo color processing,	
	full color processing	

4.2.1. Introduction: General expression

$$f(x,y)$$

$$g(x,y)$$

$$g(x,y) = T[f(x \pm i, y \pm j)]$$

$$i, j = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2 \cdots$$

where *T* is a operator on *f*, defined over some neighborhood of (x, y) when the neighborhood is of size 1*1,(a single pixel), we define

$$r = f(x, y) \qquad s = g(x, y)$$

and
$$s = T(r)$$

Point operator

4.2.1. Introduction: Histogram

Histogram gives an estimate of the probability of the occurrence of gray levels

$$p(s_k) = n_k / n$$
 $k = 0, 1, \dots, L-1$

Where s_k is the the *k*th gray level and the n_k is the number of Pixels in the image having gray level s_k

apparently

$$\sum_{k=0}^{L-1} p(s_k) = 1$$

4.2.1. Introduction: Histogram

Horizontal axis: gray level values Vertical axis: probability of gray level values





4.2.1. Introduction: Classification

- Direct gray level transformations
- Histogram processing
- Operations among images

4.2.2 Direct gray level transformations: Linear transformations

Expression:
$$s = T(r) = ar + b$$
 $r \in [A, B]$ $s \in [C, D]$
Formulation: $s = \frac{D-C}{B-A}r + \frac{BC-AD}{B-A}$



4.2.2 Direct gray level transformations : Linear transformations

example: A = 69, B = 213, C = 0, $D = 255 \implies s = 1.7r - 122.2$



4.2.2 Direct gray level transformations : Piecewise-linear transformations



4.2.2 Direct gray level transformations : Log transformations

Formulation:
$$s = c \log(1+r)$$

c is a constant and it is assumed that $r \ge 0$

4.2.2 Direct gray level transformations : Power transformations

Formulation:
$$S = c r^{\gamma}$$

Where c and γ are positive constants.

4.2.3 Histogram processing : Histogram equalization

If a transform has the form:

$$s = T(r) \qquad 0 \le r \le 1$$

We hope the Probability Density Function (PDF) of s is



4.2.3 Histogram processing : Histogram equalization

Continuous condition s = T(r) $p_s(s) = p_r(r) \frac{dr}{ds}$ $\frac{ds}{dr} = \frac{p_r(r)}{p_s(s)}$ $p_s(s) = 1$ $s = \int_0^r p_r(x) dx$

namely
$$T(r) = \int_0^r p_r(x) dx$$

4.2.3 Histogram processing : Histogram equalization

Discrete condition

$$s_k = T(r_k) = \sum_{j=0}^k p_r(r_j) = \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{n_j}{n} \qquad k = 0, 1, 2, ..., L-1$$

In practice

$$s_k = T(r_k) = (L-1)\sum_{j=0}^k p_r(r_j)$$

4.2.3 Histogram processing : Histogram matching (specification)

Histogram equalization: $r \rightarrow s$

$$s_k = T(r_k) = \sum_{j=0}^k p_r(r_j)$$
 $k = 0, 1, 2 \cdots L - 1$

Histogram equalization: $z \rightarrow v$

$$v_k = G(z_k) = \sum_{i=0}^k p_z(z_i)$$
 $k = 0, 1, 2 \cdots L - 1$

let $v_k = s_k$ then $r \rightarrow z$

$$z_k = G^{-1}(v_k) = G^{-1}(s_k) = G^{-1}(T(r_k))$$
4.2 Contrast Enhancement

4.2.2 Direct gray level transformations : Bit-plane slicing



4.2 Contrast Enhancement

4.2.2 Direct gray level transformations : Bit-plane slicing



4.2 Contrast Enhancement

4.2.4 Operations among Images: Image averaging

Original image :
$$f(x, y)$$
 noise: $\eta(x, y)$
 $g(x, y) = f(x, y) + \eta(x, y)$
Averaging: $\overline{g}(x, y) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} g_i(x, y)$
Expected value: $E\{\overline{g}(x, y)\} = f(x, y)$
Variances: $\sigma_{\overline{g}(x, y)}^2 = \frac{1}{K} \sigma_{\eta(x, y)}^2$
Standard deviation: $\sigma_{\overline{g}(x, y)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} \sigma_{\eta(x, y)}$
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- Introduction
- Smoothing linear filters
- Order- statistic filters
- Low-pass filter in frequency domain

4.3.1 Introduction: Smoothing filters

(1) Smoothing linear filters: neighbor averaging out range pixel smoothing Maximum homogeneity smoothing

 (2)Order- statistic filters: Max filters Min filters Midpoint filters Median filters Alpha-trimmed mean filter
 (3)Low-pass filters: Idea low-pass filter (ILPF) Butterworth low-pass filter (BLPF) Gaussian low-pass filter (GLPF)



4.3.2 Smoothing linear filters: neighbor averaging

Spatial filter: operating steps: (page 83)

- (1) Moving the filter mask from point to point in an image
- (2) Multiplying the filter coefficient and the corresponding image pixels
- (3) Adding all the products
- (4) The sum is the response of the filter at a given point

$$g(x, y) = \sum_{i=-a}^{a} \sum_{j=-b}^{b} w(i, j) f(x+i, y+j)$$

4.3.2 Smoothing linear filters: neighbor averaging

Spatial filter: the sign of filter coefficients



4.3.2 Smoothing linear filters: neighbor averaging

Typical mask:



4.3.2 Smoothing linear filters: neighbor averaging Experimental results: different masks



4.3.2 Smoothing linear filters: neighbor averaging Experimental results: different sizes



4.3.2 Smoothing linear filters: out range pixel smoothing

formulate

$$g(x, y) = \sum_{i=-a}^{a} \sum_{j=-b}^{b} w(i, j) f(x+i, y+j)$$

$$\hat{g}(x, y) = \begin{cases} g(x, y) & |g(x, y) - f(x, y)| > T \\ f(x, y) & \text{others} \end{cases}$$

Advantage: keep details in the image with salt-pepper noise

4.3.2 Smoothing linear filters: out range pixel smoothing Experimental results





4.3 Image Smoothing 4.3.3 Order- statistic filters: Min filters formulate $g(x, y) = \min \{f(x+i, y+j)\}$





4.3.3 Order- statistic filters: Median filter

1-D: replace the signal value by the median value of neighborhood



4.3.3 Order- statistic filters: Median filter

Replaces the value of a pixel by the median of the gray levels in the neighborhood of that pixel

$$g(x, y) = median_{(i, j=0, \pm 1\cdots)} \{f(x+i, y+j)\}$$



Shapes of 2-D filter

4.3.3 Order- statistic filters: Median filter

Experiment result





4.3.3 Order- statistic filters: alpha-trimmed mean filter

Delete the α lowest and α highest gray-level values of a sub-image, averaging the remaining pixels as output

Let the pixels in a sub-image: $A_0 \le A_1 \dots \le A_{N-1}$

Then:

$$g(x, y) = \frac{1}{N - 2\alpha} \sum_{i=\alpha}^{N - \alpha} A_i$$

4.3 Image Smoothing

4.3.4 Low-pass filters: Idea low-pass filter (ILPF)

formulate

$$g(x, y) = h(x, y) * f(x, y)$$

$$G(u, v) = H(u, v)F(u, v)$$
where

$$H(u, v) = \begin{cases} 1 & if \quad D(u, v) \le D_0 \\ 0 & if \quad D(u, v) > D_0 \end{cases}$$

$$D(u, v) = [(u - M/2)^2 + (v - N/2)^2]^{1/2}$$

4.3.4 Low-pass filters: Idea low-pass filter (ILPF)

Properties: total image power

$$P_{T} = \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} P(u,v) = \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} \left| F(u,v) \right|^{2}$$

Power percent in a circle

$$\alpha = 100 \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} P(u,v) / P_T$$

4.3.4 Low-pass filters: Idea low-pass filter (ILPF)

Experiment result cutoff frequencies set at radii values of 5, 30, 80



4.3.4 Low-pass filters: Butterworth low-pass filter

formulate
$$H(u,v) = \frac{1}{1 + [D(u,v)/D_0]^{2n}}$$

where

$$D(u,v) = [(u - M/2)^{2} + (v - N/2)^{2}]^{1/2}$$

4.3.4 Low-pass filters: Butterworth low-pass filter

Experiment result cutoff frequencies set at radii values of 5, 30, 80



4.3.4 Low-pass filters: Gaussian low-pass filter

formulate

$$H(u,v) = e^{-D^2(u,v)/2D_0^2}$$

where

$$D(u,v) = [(u - M/2)^{2} + (v - N/2)^{2}]^{1/2}$$

4.3.4 Low-pass filters: Gaussian low-pass filter

Experiment result cutoff frequencies set at radii values of 5, 30, 80



4.3.4 Low-pass filters: Comparisons (cutoff 5)



4.3.4 Low-pass filters: Comparison (cutoff 30)



4.3.4 Low-pass filters: Comparison (cutoff 80)



- Introduction
- First-order derivative (in spatial domain)
- Second-order derivative (in spatial domain)
- High-pass filter in frequency domain

4.4.1 Introduction

Purposes: easy to detect edges highlight fine detail

Request: insensitive to noise

4.4.1 Introduction: Sharpening filters

(1) First-order derivative : RobertPrewitt SobelRobinson Kirsch

(2) Second-order derivative : Laplacian LoG

(3) High-pass filter in frequency domain : Idea high-pass filter (IHPF) Butterworth high-pass filter (BHPF) Gaussian high-pass filter (GHPF)

4.4.2 first-order derivative : foundation

The derivatives of a digital function are defined in terms of differences

For first derivative it must be

(1) zero in flat segment

(2) nonzero at the onset of a gray-level step or ramp

(3) nonzero along ramp

For second derivative it must be

(1) zero in flat segment

(2) nonzero at the onset and end of a gray-level step or ramp

(3) zero along ramp of constant slope

4.4.2 first-order derivative : foundation

A basic definition of the first-order derivative of a 1-D function f(x) is the difference

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f(x+1) - f(x)$$

Similarly, we define a second-order derivative as the difference

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = [f(x+1) - f(x)] - [f(x) - f(x-1)]$$
$$= f(x+1) + f(x-1) - 2f(x)$$

4.4.2 first-order derivative : foundation

First-order derivatives of a digital image are based on various approximations of the 2-D gradient. It is defined as the vector:

$$\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}^T$$


4.4.2 first-order derivative : foundation

where
$$G_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f(x+1, y) - f(x, y)$$

 $G_y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = f(x, y+1) - f(x, y)$
 x, i

These equations can be implemented using masks

$$G_{x} = \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \qquad \qquad G_{y} = \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

4.4.2 first-order derivative : foundation

Spatial filter: the sign of filter coefficients



4.4.2 first-order derivative : display



(1)
$$g(x, y) = |\nabla f|$$

(2) $g(x, y) = f(x, y) + |\nabla f|$
(3) Linear scaling $g(x, y)$
(4) $g(x, y) = \begin{cases} L_b & |\nabla f| < T \\ L_t & \text{othewise} \end{cases}$

4.4.2 first-order derivative : gradient operators

Roberts operator
$$G_{x} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \qquad G_{y} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

Prewitt operator

$$G_{x} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \quad G_{y} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix}$$

Sobel operator

$$G_{x} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \qquad G_{y} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix}$$

4.4.2 first-order derivative : gradient operators Robinson

$$G_{0} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \quad G_{1} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \quad G_{2} = \begin{vmatrix} -1 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \quad G_{3} = \begin{vmatrix} -2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$G_{4} = \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \qquad G_{5} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \qquad G_{6} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \qquad G_{7} = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \end{vmatrix}$$
$$|\nabla f| \approx \max_{i=0,1\dots7} \left\{ G_{i} \right\}$$

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4.4.2 first-order derivative : gradient operators Kirsch

$$G_{0} = \begin{vmatrix} 5 & -3 & -3 \\ 5 & 0 & -3 \\ 5 & -3 & -3 \end{vmatrix} \quad G_{1} = \begin{vmatrix} -3 & -3 & -3 \\ 5 & 0 & -3 \\ 5 & 5 & -3 \end{vmatrix} \quad G_{2} = \begin{vmatrix} -3 & -3 & -3 \\ -3 & 0 & -3 \\ 5 & 5 & 5 \end{vmatrix} \quad G_{3} = \begin{vmatrix} -3 & -3 & -3 \\ -3 & 0 & 5 \\ -3 & 5 & 5 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$G_4$$
 G_5 G_7 G_7 G_9 G_7 G_9 G_9

4.4.3 second-order derivative : definitions

The second-order derivative is defined as

$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

The
$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = f(x+1, y) + f(x-1, y) - 2f(x, y)$$
$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = f(x, y+1) + f(x, y-1) - 2f(x, y)$$

namely
$$\nabla^2 f = [f(x+1, y) + f(x-1, y) + f(x, y+1) + f(x, y-1) - 4f(x, y)]$$

4.4.3 second-order derivative : Laplacian

It is well known as *Laplacian* operator. It can be implemented as a mask

$$G = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

4.4.3 second-order derivative : Laplacian

Experiment result $g(x, y) = f(x, y) + \nabla^2 f(x, y)$





4.4.3 second-order derivative : LoG

Smoothing first

$$h(r) = -e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$
$$r = x^2 + y^2$$

Laplacian sharpening

$$\nabla^2 h(r) = -\left[\frac{r^2 - \sigma^2}{\sigma^4}\right] e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

4.4.3 second-order derivative : LoG



0	0	-1	0	0
0	-1	-2	-1	0
-1	-2	16	-2	-1
0	-1	-2	-1	0
0	0	-1	0	0

4.4.3 second-order derivative : LoG



4.4.3 High-pass filter: Ideal highpass filter (IHPF)

formula

$$H(u,v) = \begin{cases} 0 & if \quad D(u,v) \le D_0 \\ 1 & if \quad D(u,v) > D_0 \end{cases}$$



4.4 Image Sharpening 4.4.3 High-pass filter: Ideal highpass filter (IHPF) cutoff frequencies set at radii values of 15、30、80



4.4 Image Sharpening 4.4.3 High-pass filter: Butterworth highpass filter (BHPF)

formula

$$H(u,v) = \frac{1}{1 + [D_0 / D(u,v)]^{2n}}$$



4.4 Image Sharpening 4.4.3 High-pass filter: Butterworth highpass filter (BHPF) cutoff frequencies set at radii values of 15、30、80.



4.4.3 High-pass filter: Gaussian highpass filter (GHPF)

formula

$$H(u,v) = 1 - e^{-D^2(u,v)/2D_0^2}$$



4.4 Image Sharpening 4.4.3 High-pass filter: Gaussian highpass filter (GHPF) cutoff frequencies set at radii values of 15、30、80.







4.4.3 High-pass filter: Homomorphic filter

An image f(x,y) can be expressed as the product of illumination and reflectance components

f(x, y) = i(x, y)r(x, y)

let

$$z(x, y) = \ln f(x, y) = \ln i(x, y) + \ln r(x, y)$$

4.4.3 High-pass filter: Homomorphic filter



FIGURE 4.31 Homomorphic filtering approach for image enhancement.



- Introduction
- Pseudo color image processing
- Full color enhancement
- Noise in color image

4.5 Color Image Enhancement 4.5.2 Pseudo color image processing : Intensity Slicing formula

 \mathbf{a}

$$f(x, y) = c_k \quad \text{if} \quad f(x, y) \in V_k$$



FIGURE 6.18 Geometric interpretation of the intensity-slicing technique.

4.5.2 Pseudo color image processing : Gray level to color

Combine several monochrome images into a single color composite



4.5.2 Pseudo color image processing : Gray level to color



band1







band1,2,3 false color



band5



band4



band3



band5,4,3 false color

4.5.3 Full color enhancement : Fundamentals

A full color image can be expressed as

$$c(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} c_R(x, y) \\ c_G(x, y) \\ c_B(x, y) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R(x, y) \\ G(x, y) \\ B(x, y) \end{bmatrix}$$

A pixel in color image interpreted as vector

$$c = \begin{bmatrix} c_R \\ c_G \\ c_B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R \\ G \\ B \end{bmatrix}$$

4.5.3 Full color enhancement : Fundamentals

Mask operation in color image



4.5 Color Image Enhancement 4.5.3 Full color enhancement : Color transformations Adjusting the intensity of an image:

in RGB color space three components must be transformed:

$$s_i = kr_i$$
 $i = 1, 2, 3$ $0 < k < 1$

in HSI color space only intensity components is modified:

$$s_3 = kr_3$$
$$s_1 = r_1$$
$$s_2 = r_2$$

4.5 Color Image Enhancement 4.5.3 Full color enhancement : Color transformations

cde FIGURE 6.31 Adjusting the intensity of an image using color transformations. (a) Original image. (b) Result of decreasing its intensity by 30% (i.e., letting k = 0.7). (c)-(e) The required RGB, CMY, and HSI transformation functions. (Original image courtesy of MedData Interactive.)

a b



S

HI

4.5 Color Image Enhancement 4.5.3 Full color enhancement : Color Complement

in RGB color space three components must be transformed:

$$s_i = 1 - r_i$$
 $i = 1, 2, 3$ $0 < k < 1$

in HSI color space only intensity components is modified:



4.5.3 Full color enhancement : color corrections

In RGB and CMY(K) space, map all tree (or four) color components with the same transform function





R.C.B

4.5 Color Image Enhancement 4.5.3 Full color enhancement : color corrections example



4.5.3 Full color enhancement : color corrections

example





Chapter5 Image Restoration

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Diagonalization
- 5.3 Unconstrained Restoration(inverse filtering)
- 5.4 Constrained Restoration(wiener filtering)
- 5.5 Estimating the Degradation Function
- 5.6 Geometric Distortion Correction
- 5.7 image inpaiting

5.1 Introduction

5.1.1 Purpose

"compensate for" or "undo" defects which degrade an image.

5.1.2 Degrade Causes

- (1) atmospheric turbulence
- (2) sampling, quantization
- (3) motion blur
- (4) camera misfocus
- (5) noise

5.1 Introduction

5.1.3 degradation model



Assume it is a linear, position- invariant system, We can model a blurred image by

$$g(x, y) = f(x, y) * h(x, y) + n(x, y)$$

Where h(x,y) is called as Point Spread Function (PSF)

5.1 Introduction

5.1.4 Methods

Unconstrained Restoration: inverse filtering Constrained Restoration: wiener filtering

5.1.5 problem expression

Estimate a true image f(x,y) from a degraded image g(x,y)based on prior knowledge of PSF h(x,y) and the statistical properties of noise n(x,y)
5.2.1 Matrix expression of degradation model: 1-D

$$g(x) = f(x) * h(x)$$

$$f_e(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & 0 \le x \le A - 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$h_e(x) = \begin{cases} h(x) & 0 \le x \le B - 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

5.2.1 Matrix expression of degradation model: 1-D

$$g_e(x) = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} f_e(m)h_e(x-m) + n_e(x) \qquad M = A + B$$

x=0,1,...,M-1

$$g = Hf + n = \begin{bmatrix} g_e(0) \\ g_e(1) \\ \vdots \\ g_e(M-1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} h_e(0) & h_e(-1) & \cdots & h_e(-M+1) \\ h_e(1) & h_e(0) & \cdots & h_e(-M+2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h_e(M-1) & h_e(M-2) & \cdots & h_e(0) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_e(0) \\ f_e(1) \\ \vdots \\ f_e(M-1) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} n_e(0) \\ n_e(1) \\ \vdots \\ n_e(M-1) \end{bmatrix}$$

5.2.1 Matrix expression of degradation model: 1-D

$$h_{e}(x) = h_{e}(x + M)$$

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} h_{e}(0) & h_{e}(M - 1) & \cdots & h_{e}(1) \\ h_{e}(1) & h_{e}(0) & \cdots & h_{e}(2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h_{e}(M - 1) & h_{e}(M - 2) & \cdots & h_{e}(0) \end{bmatrix}$$
H is circulant

5.2.1 Matrix expression of degradation model: 2-D

$$f_e(x) = \begin{cases} f(x, y) & 0 \le x \le A - 1 \text{ and } 0 \le y \le B - 1 \\ 0 & A \le x \le M - 1 \text{ or } B \le y \le N - 1 \end{cases}$$

$$h_{e}(x) = \begin{cases} h(x, y) & 0 \le x \le C - 1 \text{ and } 0 \le y \le D - 1 \\ 0 & A \le x \le M - 1 \text{ or } B \le y \le N - 1 \end{cases}$$

5.2.1 Matrix expression of degradation model: 2-D

$$g_e(x, y) = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f_e(m, n) h_e(x - m, y - n) \qquad \begin{array}{l} x = 0, 1, \dots, M-1 \\ y = 0, 1, \dots, N-1 \end{array}$$

$$g = Hf + n = \begin{bmatrix} H_0 & H_{M-1} & \cdots & H_1 \\ H_1 & H_0 & \cdots & H_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ H_{M-1} & H_{M-2} & \cdots & H_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_e(0) \\ f_e(1) \\ \vdots \\ f_e(MN-1) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} n_e(0) \\ n_e(1) \\ \vdots \\ n_e(MN-1) \end{bmatrix}$$

H is block-circulant
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5.2.1 Matrix expression of degradation model: 2-D

where

$$H_{i} = \begin{bmatrix} h_{e}(i,0) & h_{e}(i,N-1) & \cdots & h_{e}(i,1) \\ h_{e}(i,1) & h_{e}(i,0) & \cdots & h_{e}(i,2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h_{e}(i,N-1) & h_{e}(i,N-2) & \cdots & h_{e}(i,0) \end{bmatrix}$$

5.2.2 Diagonliztion: 1-D

The eigenvector and eigenvalue of a circulant matrix H are

$$w(k) = \left[1 \quad \exp\left(j\frac{2\pi}{M}k\right) \quad \cdots \quad \exp\left(j\frac{2\pi}{M}(M-1)k\right)\right]^{T}$$

$$\lambda(k) = h_e(0) + h_e(M-1)\exp\left(j\frac{2\pi}{M}k\right) + \dots + h_e(1)\exp\left(j\frac{2\pi}{M}(M-1)k\right)$$

Combine the M eigenvectors to a matrix

$$W = [w(0) \quad w(1) \quad \cdots \quad w(M-1)]$$

then the H can be expressed as

$$H = WDW^{-1}$$
 where $D(k,k) = \lambda(k)$

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5.2.2 Diagonliztion: 1-D

for g = Hf + n $W^{-1}g = W^{-1}Hf + W^{-1}n$ $= W^{-1}WDW^{-1}f + W^{-1}n$ $= DW^{-1}f + W^{-1}n$ G(u) = H(u)F(u) + N(u)

5.2.2 Diagonliztion: 2-D

$$W(i,m) = \exp\left(j\frac{2\pi}{M}im\right)W_{N}$$

$$W_{N}(k,n) = \exp\left(j\frac{2\pi}{N}kn\right)$$

$$H = WDW^{-1} \longrightarrow G(u,v) = H(u,v)F(u,v) + N(u,v)$$

$$g(x,y) = f(x,y)*h(x,y) + n(x,y) \quad \text{in Spatial Coordinates}$$

$$G(u,v) = F(u,v)H(u,v) + N(u,v) \quad \text{in frequency domain}$$

$$g = Hf + n \quad \text{in vector form}$$

5.3 Inverse Filtering 5.3.1 assumption

H is given, and the noise is negligible

5.3.2 degradation model

$$F(u,v) \longrightarrow H \longrightarrow G(u,v)$$

G(u,v) = H(u,v)F(u,v)

5.3.3 restoration

$$\hat{F}(u,v) = \frac{G(u,v)}{H(u,v)} = G(u,v)H_I(u,v)$$
$$H_I(u,v) = \frac{1}{H(u,v)}$$

5.3.4 properties

$$\hat{F}(u,v) = \frac{G(u,v)}{H(u,v)}$$
$$= \frac{H(u,v)F(u,v) + N(u,v)}{H(u,v)}$$
$$= F(u,v) + \frac{N(u,v)}{H(u,v)}$$

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5.3.4 properties

sensitive to additive noise: if H(u,v) has zero or very small value, the N(u,v)/H(u,v) could easily dominate the estimate

5.3.5 improvements



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5.3.4 examples: without noise



Original image

Blurred image

Restored image

5.3.4 examples: with noise



Blurred and noised image

Restored image

5.4.1 assumption

H is given, and consider the image and noise as random processes

5.4.2 request

The mean square error between uncorrupted image and estimated image is minimized. This error measure is given by

$$e^2 = E\left\{ (f - \hat{f})^2 \right\}$$

5.4.3 restoration

 $\hat{F}(u,v) = G(u,v)H_{W}(u,v)$ $H_{W}(u,v) = \frac{1}{H(u,v)} \times \frac{|H(u,v)|^{2}}{|H(u,v)|^{2} + S_{n}(u,v) / S_{f}(u,v)}$ Wiener filter, 1942 $= \frac{H(u,v)^{*}}{|H(u,v)|^{2} + S_{n}(u,v) / S_{f}(u,v)}$

where

 $S_n(u,v) = |N(u,v)|^2$ Power spectrum of the noise

 $S_f(u,v) = |F(u,v)|^2$ Power spectrum of the undegraded image

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5.4.5 estimate the power spectrum

$$S_{g}(u,v) = |H(u,v)|^{2} S_{f}(u,v) + S_{n}(u,v)$$



5.4.4 properties

•optimal in terms of the mean square error

•When H(u,v) = 0, $H_w(u,v) = 0$

5.4.5 experimental results:



The first raw:

Image corrupted by motion blur and additive noise

The second raw: Results of inverse filtering

The third raw: Results of Wiener filtering

5.5Estimating the Degradation Function (blind deconvolution)

- 5.5.1 Estimation by image observation
 - (1) Choose observed sub-image $g_s(x, y)$
 - (2) Denote the constructed sub-image as $\hat{f}_s(x, y)$
 - (3) Assume noise is negligible

then

$$H_s(u,v) = \frac{G_s(u,v)}{\hat{F}_s(u,v)}$$

5.5.2 Estimation by experimentation



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5.5.3 Estimation by modeling

An atmospheric turbulence model based on the physical characteristics Hufnagel and

$$H(u,v) = e^{-k(u^2+v^2)^{5/6}}$$
 Stanley, 1964

where k is a constant

it has the same form as the Gaussian lowpass filter

5.5.3 Estimation by modeling :restoration of uniform linear motion

If *T* is the duration of the exposure, the effect of image motion follows that

$$g(x, y) = \int_0^T f[x - x_0(t), y - y_0(t)]dt$$

where $x_0(t)$ and $y_0(t)$ are the time varying components of motion in the *x*-direction and *y*-direction. Its Fourier transform is

$$G(u,v) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x,y) e^{-2\pi j(ux+vy)} dx dy$$

= $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{0}^{T} f[x - x_{0}(t), y - y_{0}(t)] dt \right] e^{-2\pi j(ux+vy)} dx dy$

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5.5Estimating the Degradation Function 5.5.3 Estimation by modeling :restoration of uniform linear motion

Reversing the order of integration:

$$G(u,v) = \int_0^T \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f[x - x_0(t), y - y_0(t)] e^{-2\pi j(ux + vy)} dx dy \right] dt$$

Using the translation Properties of Fourier transformation, then

$$G(u,v) = \int_0^T F(u,v) e^{-2\pi j [ux_0(t) + vy_0(t)]} dt$$
$$= F(u,v) \int_0^T e^{-2\pi j [ux_0(t) + vy_0(t)]} dt$$

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5.5.3 Estimation by modeling :restoration of uniform linear motion

By defining
$$H(u,v) = \int_0^T e^{-2\pi j[ux_0(t)+vy_0(t)]} dt$$

then
$$G(u,v) = H(u,v)F(u,v)$$

Suppose that the image in question undergoes uniform linear motion in the *x*-direction only, at a rate given by $x_0(t) = at/T$

$$H(u,v) = \int_0^T e^{-2\pi j [ux_0(t) + vy_0(t)]} dt$$
$$= \int_0^T e^{-2\pi j uat/T} dt$$
$$= \frac{T}{\pi ua} \sin(\pi ua) e^{-j\pi ua}$$

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5.5.3 Estimation by modeling :restoration of uniform linear motion

If we allow the y-component to wary as well with the motion given by $y_0(t) = bt/T$ then the degradation function becomes

$$H(u,v) = \frac{T}{\pi(ua+vb)} \sin[\pi(ua+vb)]e^{-j\pi(ua+vb)}$$



a b

FIGURE 5.26 (a) Original image. (b) Result of blurring using the function in Eq. (5.6-11) with a = b = 0.1 and T = 1.

5.6 Geometric Transformation

5.6.introduction

$$f(x,y) \longrightarrow T \longrightarrow g(x,y)$$

$$g(x, y) = T[(f(x, y)] = f(x', y')$$

where

$$x' = r(x, y) \quad y' = s(x, y)$$

for example: zoom out x' = x/2 y' = y/2

zoom in
$$x'=2x y'=2y$$

5.6 Geometric Distortion Correction 5.6.1 introduction

A geometric transformation consists of two basic operations: (1) Spatial transformation

(2) Gray-level interpolation





Direct transform

Inverse transform

5.6 Geometric Distortion Correction

5.6.2 spatial transformations

Linear correction

$$r(x, y) = a_1 x + a_2 y + a_3$$
$$s(x, y) = b_1 x + b_2 y + b_3$$

Quadratic correction

$$r(x, y) = a_1 x^2 + a_2 y^2 + a_3 xy + a_4 x + a_5 y + a_6$$
$$s(x, y) = b_1 x^2 + b_2 y^2 + b_3 xy + b_4 x + b_5 y + b_6$$

5.6 Geometric Distortion Correction

5.6.3 gray-level interpolation

•Nearest neighbor interpolation

$$g(x, y) = f(x', y')$$

= $f(i+u, j+v)$
 $u, v \in (0,1)$ $i, j \in Z$



x' = round(x') y' = round(y')



5.6 Geometric Distortion Correction

5.6.3 gray-level interpolation

Rotation in 2D plane



 $x' = r\cos(\alpha + \theta) = r\cos\alpha\cos\theta - r\sin\alpha\sin\theta$ $y' = r\sin(\alpha + \theta) = r\cos\alpha\sin\theta + r\sin\alpha\cos\theta$

The original coordinated of the point in polar coordinates are:

 $x = r \cos \alpha$ $y = r \sin \alpha$

Summary

• Inverse filtering is a very easy and accurate way to restore an image provided that we know what the blurring filter is and that we have no noise

•Wiener filtering is the optimal tradeoff between the inverse filtering and noise smoothing

• It is possible to restore an image without having specific knowledge of degradation filter and additive noise. However, not knowing the degradation filter **h** imposes the strictest limitations on our restoration capabilities.

Chapter6 Image Reconstruction

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Reconstruction by Fourier Inversion
- 6.3 Reconstruction by convolution and backprojection
- 6.4 Finite series-expansion

Preview

CT reconstruction



CT machine



TCT



MRI

Preview CT reconstruction



SPECT

projections

3D reconstruction

6.1 Introduction

6.1.1 Overview of Computed Tomography (CT)


6.1.2 Classification

(1) Transmission Computed Tomography TCT
 (2) Emission Computed Tomography, ECT
 (3) Reflection Computed Tomography, RCT
 (4) Magnetic resonance imaging, MRI

6.1.3 Physical basis of projection

Let us consider the simplest case, a single block of *homogeneous* tissue and a monochromatic beam of X-rays. The linear attenuation coefficient μ is defined by

$$I = I_0 e^{-\mu L}$$

where

L is the length of the block

I and I_0 are incident and attenuated intensities of the X-ray, respectively

6.1.3 Physical basis of projection

Let $\mu(x,y)$ denote the sectional attenuation variation. For an infinitely thin beam of monochromatic X-rays, the detected intensity of the X-ray along a straight line *L* is expressed as

$$I = I_0 e^{-\int_L \mu(x, y) dl}$$

$$I = I_0 e^{-\int_L \mu(x, y) dl}$$

$$-\ln \frac{I}{I_0} = \int_L \mu(x, y) dl$$

6.1.4 Purpose

Reconstruction $\mu(x,y)$ from its projections

6.1.5 Methods

Fourier Inversion (frequency domain)convolution and backprojection (spatial domain)Finite series-expansion (spatial domain)

6.2.1 Mathematical expression of projection

Projection in x- and y-axial

$$p(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$$

$$p(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx$$





Projection in arbitrary direction

$$p_{\theta}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) ds$$



6.2.1 Mathematical expression of projection

where
$$t = y \sin \theta + x \cos \theta$$

 $s = y \cos \theta - x \sin \theta$
 $x = t \cos \theta - s \sin \theta$
 $y = t \sin \theta + s \cos \theta$



$$p_{\theta}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) ds$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t \cos \theta - s \sin \theta, t \sin \theta + s \cos \theta) ds$$

6.2.2 Fourier Slice Theorem

If F(u,v) is the Fourier Transform of f(x,y), $p_{\theta}(t)$ is the projection of f(x,y) in θ -direction, and the $S_{\theta}(\omega)$ is the Fourier transform of $p_{\theta}(t)$ then, $S_{\theta}(\omega)$ is a slice of F(u,v) in the θ -direction

$$S_{\theta}(\omega) = F(\omega, \theta)$$

where $F(\omega, \theta)$ is the polar coordinate expression of F(u,v)

6.2.2 Fourier Slice Theorem: proof

When
$$\theta = 0$$

$$p(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy \implies P(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) \exp(-2\pi jux) dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy \exp(-2\pi jux) dx$$

$$F(u, v) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) \exp[-2\pi j(ux + vy)] dx dy$$
Let $v=0 \implies F(u, 0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) \exp(-2\pi jux) dx dy$

$$F(u, 0) = P(u)$$

In other words, the Fourier transform of the vertical projection of an image is the horizontal radial profile of the 2D Fourier transform of the image.

6.2.2 Fourier Slice Theorem :proof

In general

By the nature of the Fourier transform, if an image f(x,y) is rotated by an angle with respect to the x axis, the Fourier transform F(u,v) will be correspondingly rotated by the same angle with respect to the u axis.

$$S_{\theta}(\omega) = F(\omega, \theta)$$

6.2.2 Fourier Slice Theorem



6.2.3 Arithmetic of Fourier inversion

Step1: calculate the projection's DFT $S_{\theta}(\omega)$ in θ_m -direction, m=0,1, M-1

Step2: combine $S_{\theta}(\omega)$ into $F(\omega, \theta)$

Step3: interpolation

Step4: 2D-IDFT

6.3 Reconstruction by convolution and backprojection6.3.1 Parallel-Beam Reconstruction

With the inverse Fourier transform, an image f(x, y) can be expressed as

$$f(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(u, v) \exp\left[2\pi j(ux + vy)\right] du dv$$

Let
$$u = \omega \cos \theta$$
 $v = \omega \sin \theta$

we have

$$f(x, y) = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\infty F(\theta, \omega) \exp\left[2\pi j(x\cos\theta + y\sin\theta)\omega\right] \omega d\omega d\theta$$

Because $F(\theta + \pi, \omega) = F(\theta, -\omega)$

we have

$$f(x, y) = \int_0^{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\theta, \omega) |\omega| \exp\left[2\pi j(x\cos\theta + y\sin\theta)\omega\right] d\omega d\theta$$

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6.3 Reconstruction by convolution and backprojection6.3.1 Parallel-Beam Reconstruction

Using the Fourier slice theorem, we have

$$f(x, y) = \int_{0}^{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_{\theta}(w) |\omega| \exp[2\pi j(x\cos\theta + y\sin\theta)\omega] d\omega d\theta$$

let $t = x\cos\theta + y\sin\theta$
 $f(x, y) = \int_{0}^{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_{\theta}(w) |\omega| \exp[2\pi j\omega t] d\omega d\theta$
 $S_{\theta}(\omega) |\omega| \longrightarrow p_{\theta}(t) * h(t)$
where
 $h(t) = F^{-1}(|\omega|) \longrightarrow f(x, y) = \int_{0}^{\pi} d\theta \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_{\theta}(t) h(t - \tau) d\tau$

6.3 Reconstruction by convolution and backprojection6.3.1 Parallel-Beam Reconstruction

Note that h(t) does not exist in an ordinary sense, but $S_{\theta}(\omega)$ is essentially bandlimited, h(t) can be accurately evaluated within the maximum bandwidth of $S_{\theta}(\omega)$.



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6.3 Reconstruction by convolution and backprojection6.3.2 Arithmetic of Fourier inversion

Step1: applying the filter h(t) to $p_{\theta}(t)$, get $p'_{\theta}(t)$,

Step2: calculate the integration

$$f(x, y) = \int_0^{\pi} p_{\theta}'(t) d\theta$$

6.3 Reconstruction by convolution and backprojection

6.3.3 Experimental results

original reconstructed image projection backprojection ramp filter sinogram Filtered sinogram

6.3 Reconstruction by convolution and backprojection6.3.4 Practical problems: Aliasing - Insufficient angular sampling



reducing scanning timereducing patient dose

6.3 Reconstruction by convolution and backprojection6.3.4 Practical problems: Aliasing - Insufficient radial samplingoccurs when there is a sharp intensity change caused by,for example, bones.



6.3 Reconstruction by convolution and backprojection6.3.4 Practical problems: Motion artifact

caused by patient motion, such as respiration and heart beat, during data acquistion



6.4.1 Expression of Discrete projection

A 2-D array can be expressed as a vector

$$f(x, y) = \{f_0, f_1 \cdots f_{N-1}\}$$

The projection of *i*-th ray is

$$p_{i} = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} w_{i,j} f_{j} \qquad i = 0, 1, \dots M - 1$$

where
$$w_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the } i\text{-th ray cross the } j\text{-th point} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

6.4.1 Expression of Discrete projection



$$w_{(M-1)0}f_0 + w_{(M-1)1}f_1 + \dots + w_{(M-1)(N-1)}f_{N-1} = p_{M-1}$$

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6.4.2 Solution by iteration

f(x,y) can be seen as a point in a *N*-D space, each projection equation is a super-plane of this *N*-D space. If that equation set has a unique solution, then all the super-planes intersect in a point







6.4.2 Solution by iteration

$$f^{(1)} = f^{(0)} - \frac{w_0 f^{(0)} - p_0}{w_0 \bullet w_0} w_0$$

$$f^{(k+1)} = f^{(k)} - \frac{w_k f^{(k)} - p_k}{w_k \bullet w_k} w_k$$

~ ~ `

6.4.3 Arithmetic of finite series-expansion

Step1: given an initial estimation $f^{(0)}$, k=0

Step2: adjust $f^{(k)}$ by a projection equation to get $f^{(k+1),k} = k+1$

Step3: repeat step2 until the adjust value less than δ

Chapter7 Image Compression

- Preview
- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories
- 7.3 Basic coding methods
- 7.4 Predictive coding
- 7.5 Transform coding
- 7.6 Introduction to international standards

7.1.1 why code data?

- To reduce storage volume
- To reduce transmission time
 - One colour image
 - 760 by 580 pixels
 - 3 channels, each 8 bits
 - 1.3 Mbyte
 - Video data
 - same resolution
 - 25 frames per second
 - 33 Mbyte/second

7.1.2 Classification

Lossless compression: reversible

Lossy compression: irreversible

7.1.3 Compression methods

•Entropy coding: Huffman coding, arithmetic coding

•Run length coding: G3, G4

- •LZW coding: arj(DOS), zip(Windows), compress(UNIX)
- •Predictive coding: linear prediction, non-linear prediction
- •Transform coding: DCT, KLT, Walsh-T, WT(wavelet)
- •Others: vector quantization (VQ), Fractal coding the second generation coding

7.2.1 Data redundancy

If n_1 denote the original data number, and n_2 denote the compressed data number, then the *data redundancy* can be defined as

$$R_D = 1 - \frac{1}{C_R}$$

where C_R , commonly called the *compression ratio*, is

$$C_{R} = \frac{n_{1}}{n_{2}}$$

For example $n_{2} = n_{1} \implies R_{D} = 0$
 $n_{2} \square n_{1} \implies C_{R} \rightarrow \infty, R_{D} \rightarrow 1$

7.2.1 Data redundancy

•Other expression of *compression ratio*

$$C_R = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$
 or $\overline{L} = \frac{n_2}{M \times N}$ bits / pixel, $C_R = \frac{8bits / pixel}{\overline{L}}$

•Three basic image redundancy

Coding redundancy Interpixle redundancy psychovisual redundancy

7.2.1 Data redundancy: coding redundancy

If r_k represents the gray levels of an image and each r_k occurs with probability $p_r(r_k)$, then

$$p_r(r_k) = \frac{n_k}{n}, k = 0, 1, \dots L - 1$$

where L is the number of gray levels, n_k is number of times that the *k*th gray level appears in the image, and n is the total number of pixels in the image

7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.1 Data redundancy: coding redundancy

If the number of bits used to represent each value of r_k is $l(r_k)$, then the average number of bits required to represent each pixel is

$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} l(r_k) p_r(r_k)$$

r_k	$P_r(r_k)$	Code1	$l_{I}(r_{k})$	Code2	$l_2(r_k)$
r_0	0.19	000	3	11	2
r_1	0.25	001	3	01	2
r_2	0.21	010	3	10	2
r_3	0.16	011	3	001	3
r_4	0.08	100	3	0001	4
r_5	0.06	101	3	00001	5
R_6	0.03	110	3	000001	6
r ₇	0.02	111	3	000000	7

For example

7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.1 Data redundancy: coding redundancy

$$\begin{split} L_{avg} &= \sum_{k=0}^{7} l_2(r_k) p_r(r_k) \\ &= 2(0.19) + 2(0.25) + 2(0.21) + 3(0.16) \\ &+ 4(0.08) + 5(0.06) + 6(0.03) + 6(0.02) \\ &= 2.7 bits \end{split}$$



7.2.1 Data redundancy: interpixel redundancy



300

250

7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.1 Data redundancy: interpixel redundancy

Autocorrelation coefficients

$$\gamma(\Delta n) = \frac{A(\Delta n)}{A(0)}$$

where

$$A(\Delta n) = \frac{1}{N - \Delta n} \sum_{y=0}^{N - 1 - \Delta n} f(x, y) f(x, y + \Delta n)$$

7.2.1 Data redundancy: interpixel redundancy



7.2.1 Data redundancy: psychovisual redundancy

•Psychovisual redundancy is associated with real or quantifiable visual information. The information itself is not essential for normal visual processing



8bits/pixel

4bits/pixel



2bits/pixel

7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.2 Fidelity criteria: objective Let f(x, y) represent an input image $\operatorname{and}_{f(x, y)}$ denote the Decompressed image. For any value *x* and *y*, the error e(x, y) bewteen f(x, y) and $\hat{f}(x, y)$ can be defined as

$$e(x, y) = f(x, y) - f(x, y)$$

So that the *total error* between the two images is

Λ

$$\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} [\hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y)]$$
7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.2 Fidelity criteria: objective

The root-mean-square error, e_{ems} , between f(x, y) and $\hat{f}(x, y)$ is

$$e_{rms} = \{\frac{1}{MN} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} [\hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y)]^2 \}^{1/2}$$

The *mean-square signal noise ratio* is defined as

$$SNR_{rms} = 101g \frac{\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \hat{f}(x, y)^{2}}{\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} [\hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y)]^{2}}$$

7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.2 Fidelity criteria: objective

The *signal noise ratio* is defined as

$$SNR = 10 \lg \frac{\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \left[\hat{f}(x, y) - \overline{f}(x, y) \right]^2}{\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \left[\hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y) \right]^2}$$

The *peak signal noise ratio* is defined as

$$PSNR = 101g \frac{\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f_{max}^{2}}{\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} [\hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y)]^{2}} = 101g \frac{f_{max}^{2}}{e_{rms}^{2}}$$

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7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.3 image compression models

Source encoder model



7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories

7.2.4 Elements of information theory: terms

1948, Cloude Shannon, A mathematical theory of communication

News: data information: contents Information source: symbols

Memoryless source

Markov source

7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.4 Elements of information theory: Self-information

A random event E that occurs with probability P(E) is said to contain I(E) units of information.

$$I(E) = \log \frac{1}{P(E)} = -\log P(E)$$

For example P(E) = 0, $I(E) = \infty$ P(E) = 1, I(E) = 0Unit: Base=2, bits (binary digits) Base=e, nats (nature digits) Base=10, Hartly

7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.4 Elements of information theory: Entropy of the source

definition

Suppose $X = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{N-1}\}$ is a discrete random variable, and the probability of x_i is $P(x_i)$, namely

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ P(X) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 & x_1 & \cdots & x_{N-1} \\ p(x_0) & p(x_1) & \cdots & p(x_1) \end{bmatrix}$$

then
$$H(X) = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} p(x_j) \log \frac{1}{p(x_j)} = -\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} p(x_j) \log p(x_j)$$

7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories
7.2.4 Elements of information theory: Entropy of the source
properties

(1)
$$H(X) \ge 0$$

(2) $H(X) = H(1, 0, \dots 0) = H(0, 1, \dots 0) = \dots = H(0, 0, \dots 1) = 0$

(3)
$$H(X) = H(x_0, x_1 \cdots x_{N-1}) \le \log N$$

When $P(x_i) = 1/N$ for all j_i , H(X) = logN

example $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}, p_j = 1/8$ for each j $H(X) = \sum_{j=1}^{8} \frac{1}{8} \log_2 8 = 3bits / symbol$

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7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.4 Elements of information theory: Conditional entropy

definitions

$$H_{0}(X) = \sum_{i} p(x_{i}) \log \frac{1}{p(x_{i})}$$

$$H_{1}(X) = \sum_{i} p(x_{i}) \sum_{i} p(x_{i} | x_{i-1}) \log \frac{1}{p(x_{i} | x_{i-1})}$$

$$H_{2}(X) = \sum_{i} p(x_{i}) \sum_{i} p(x_{i} | x_{i-1}x_{i-2}) \log \frac{1}{p(x_{i} | x_{i-1}x_{i-2})}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$H_{m}(X) = \sum_{i} p(x_{i}) \sum_{i} p(x_{i} | x_{i-1} \cdots x_{i-m}) \log \frac{1}{p(x_{i} | x_{i-1} \cdots x_{i-m})}$$

$$H_{\infty} = \dots = H_m < H_{m-1} < \dots < H_2 < H_1 < H_0$$

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7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.4 Elements of information theory: using information theory

A simple 8-bits image:

21	21	21	95	169	243	243	243
21	21	21	95	169	243	243	243
21	21	21	95	169	243	243	243
21	21	21	95	169	243	243	243

Probability of the source symbols:

Zero-order entropy:

$$H_0(X) = \sum_i p(x_i) \log \frac{1}{p(x_i)}$$

=1.81*bits / pixel*

Gray-levelGa	Count	probability
21	12	3/8
95	4	1/8
169	4	1/8
243	12	3/8

7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories

7.2.4 Elements of information theory: using information theory

Relative frequency of pairs of pixels:

Gray-level	Count	probability
(21,21)	8	2/8
(21,95)	4	1/8
(95,169)	4	1/8
(169,243)	4	1/8
(243,243)	8	2/8
(243,21)	4	1/8

First-order entropy:

$$H_{1}(X) = \sum_{i} p(x_{i}) \sum_{i} p(x_{i} | x_{i-1}) \log \frac{1}{p(x_{i} | x_{i-1})}$$

= 1.25 bits / pixel

7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories7.2.4 Elements of information theory: Noiseless coding theorem

Also called *Shannon first theorem*. Defines the minimum average code word length per source symbol that can be achieved

 $H(X) \leq L_{avg}$

For memoryless (zero-memory) source:

$$H(X) = \sum_{i} p(x_i) \log \frac{1}{p(x_i)}$$

But, the image data usually are Markov source, how to code?

7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories

7.2.4 Elements of information theory: Noiseless coding theorem



7.2 Fundamental concepts and theories 7.2.4 Elements of information theory: Noise coding theorem

For a given rate distortion *D*, the rate distortion function R(D) is less than H(X), and R(D) is the minimum of coding length L_{avg}



7.3.1 Huffman coding

Huffman, 1952

- code the low probabilities symbols with long word code the high probabilities symbols with short word
- smallest possible number of code symbols per source symbol
- the source symbols must be coded *one at a time*

7.3.1 Huffman coding

step1:create a series of source reduction by ordering the probabilities
step2:combine the lowest probability symbols into a single symbol
 that replaces them in the next source reduction
step3:repeat step2 until the lowest probability is 1



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7.3.1 Huffman coding

step4:code each reduced source with 0 and 1, staring with the smallest source and working back to the original source



7.3.2 Arithmetic coding

- •An entire sequence of source symbols(or message) is assigned as a single arithmetic code word
- the code word itself defines an interval of real numbers between 0 and 1

The encoding process of an arithmetic coding can be explained through the following example

7.3 Basic coding methods 7.3.2 Arithmetic coding: example encoding

- •Let us assume that the source symbols are $\{a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4\}$ and the probabilities of these symbols are $\{0.2, 0.2, 0.4, 0.2\}$
- •To encode a message of a sequence: $a_1 a_2 a_3 a_3 a_4$
 - •The interval [0,1) can be divided as four sub-intervals: [0.0, 0.2), [0.2, 0.4), [0.4, 0.8), [0.8, 1.0),

symbols	probabilites	Initial intervals
<i>a</i> ₁	0.2	[0.0,0.2)
<i>a</i> ₂	0.2	[0.2,0.4)
<i>a</i> ₃	0.4	[0.4,0.8)
<i>a</i> ₄	0.2	[0.8,1.0)

7.3.2 Arithmetic coding: example

- •We take the first symbol a_1 from the message and find its encoding range is [0.0, 0.2).
- •The second symbol a^2 is encoded by taking the 20th-40th of interval [0.0, 0.2) as the new interval [0.02,0.04).
 - •And so on. Visually, we can use the figure:



•Finally, choose a number from the interval of [0.0688,0.06752) as the output: 0.06800

7.3.2 Arithmetic coding : example

decoding

7.3.4 Binary image coding: constant area coding



- •The most probable category is coded with 1-bit code word 0
- •The other two category is coded with 2-bit code word 10 and 11
- •The code assigned to the mixed intensity category is used as a prefix

- 7.3.4 Binary image coding: run length coding
 - •Represent each row of a image by a sequence of lengths that describe runs of black and white pixels
 - the standard compression approach in facsimile (FAX) coding. CCITT, G3,G4.



7.3.4 Binary image coding: contour tracing and coding

- ∆'is the difference between the starting coordinates of the front contours adjacent lines
- △ "is the difference between the front-to-back contour lengths contours adjacent lines
- code: new start, Δ' and Δ''



But for gray image...

162	161	159	161	162	160	158	156	156	161
162	161	159	161	162	160	158	156	156	161
163	158	159	159	160	158	155	155	156	158
159	157	159	156	159	159	154	152	155	153
155	157	156	156	158	157	156	155	154	156
156	157	155	151	157	156	155	156	156	154
157	156	156	156	156	156	154	156	155	155
158	157	155	155	156	155	155	155	155	155
156	155	156	153	156	155	156	155	154	156
155	155	157	154	157	155	157	158	158	158



7.4.1 lossless coding



7.4.1 lossless coding

In most case, the prediction is formed by a linear combination of m previous pixels. That is,

$$\hat{f}_n = round\left[\sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i f_{n-i}\right]$$

where *m* is the order of the linear predictor a_i are prediction coefficients

For example, 1-D linear predictive can be written

$$\hat{f}(x, y) = round\left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i f(x, y-i)\right]$$

7.4.1 lossless coding: Experimental result

$$m=1, a=1 \qquad \hat{f}(x, y) = round \left[f(x, y-1) \right]$$



Original image

Residual image (128 represents 0)



Histogram of original image

Histogram of residual image

7.4.1 lossless coding: JPEG lossless compression standard

с	b
a	x

Location of pixels

Prediction Scheme	Prediction value
0	Null
1	а
2	b
3	С
4	a+b-c
5	a+(b-c)/2
6	b + (a - c)/2
7	(a+b)/2

Prediction schemes

7.4.1 lossless coding: predictive tree



2

-1

7.4.1 lossless coding: predictive tree



7.4.1 lossless coding: predictive tree



7.4.1 lossless coding: predictive tree

波段	Orignal (bits/pixel)	Best JPEG MAW预测树 (bits/pixel) ER(bits/pixel) T(s)		SNMAW预测树 ER(bits/pixel) T(s)	
1	5.74	3.39	2.24 0.99	1.66 0.09	
2	5.19	2.96	1.89 0.78	1.36 0.09	
3	6.24	3.71	2.49 0.97	1.91 0.09	
4	6.04	3.71	2.53 1.04	1.96 0.09	
5	6.48	4.20	2.91 1.22	2.32 0.09	
6	6.02	3.58	2.40 0.91	1.83 0.09	
平均	6.04	3.59	2.41 0.99	1.84 0.09	

7.4.2 lossy coding: model

encoder

 $\dot{f}_n = \dot{e}_n + \hat{f}_n$





7.4.2 lossy coding: Optimal predictors

differential pulse code modulation(**DPCM**)

•Minimizes the encoder's mean-square prediction error

$$E\{e_n^2\} = E\{[f_n - \hat{f}_n]^2\}$$

Subject to the constraint that

$$\hat{f}_n = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i f_{n-i}$$

$$E\{e_n^2\} = E\left\{ \left[f_n - \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i f_{n-1} \right]^2 \right\}$$

7.4.2 lossy coding: Optimal predictors

Experiment: four predictors:

(1)
$$\hat{f}(x, y) = 0.97 f(x, y-1)$$

(2) $\hat{f}(x, y) = 0.5 f(x, y-1) + 0.5 f(x-1, y)$
(3) $\hat{f}(x, y) = 0.75 f(x, y-1) + 0.75 f(x-1, y) - 0.5 f(x-1, y-1)$
(4) $\hat{f}(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0.97 f(x, y-1) & \text{if } \Delta h \leq \Delta v \\ 0.97 f(x-1, y) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
where $\Delta h = |f(x-1, y) - f(x-1, y-1)|$
 $\Delta v = |f(x, y-1) - f(x-1, y-1)|$
 $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} f(x-1, y) & f(x-1, y) \\ f(x, y) & f(x-1, y) \\ f(x, y) & f(x-1, y) \end{cases}$
7.4 Predictive coding

7.4.2 lossy coding: Optimal predictors

Experiment



original



7.4 Predictive coding

7.4.2 lossy coding: Optimal predictors



Conclusion:Error decreases as the order of the predictor increases Digital Image Processing Dr.Rong Zhang 434

7.4 Predictive coding

7.4.2 lossy coding: Optimal quantization

The staircase quantization function t=q(s) is shown as



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7.5.1 Review of image transform: definitions

 $\mathbf{X} \implies T \implies \mathbf{Y}$



Question: why transformation can compress data?

M = 1 M = 1

7.5.1 review of image transform: properties

- Entropy keeping: H(X) = H(Y)
- Energy keeping:
- decorrelation:

$$\sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |X(m,n)|^2 = \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} |Y(k,l)|^2$$
$$H_{\infty} = \dots = H_m < H_{m-1} < \dots < H_2 < H_1 < H_0$$

M = 1 M = 1

 $H(Y) = H_0(Y)$ $H(X) = H_m(X)$ $H_0(X) > H_0(Y)$

• Energy re-assigned:



original



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7.5.2 Transform coding system



7.5.3 Transform selection

Information packing ability: Computational complexity:

- 7.5.4 sub-image size selection
 - •Computational complexity increase as the subimage size increase
- •Correlation decrease as the subimage size increase
- •The most popular subimage size are 8*8, and 16*16

KLT>DCT>DFT>WHT WHT<DCT<DFT<KLT



7.5.5 bit allocation: zonal coding

• transform coefficients of maximum variance carry the most information and should be retained

1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

8	7	6	4	3	2	1	0
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
6	5	4	3	3	1	1	0
4	4	3	3	2	1	0	0
3	3	3	2	1	1	0	0
2	2	1	1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Zonal mask

Bit allocation

7.5.5 bit allocation: threshold coding



Zig-zag

threshold mask

7.5.5 bit allocation: threshold coding

There are three basic ways to threshold a transformed coefficients

- •A single *global threshold* can be applied to all subimages
- •A *different threshold* can be used for each subimage
- •The threshold can be varied as a *function* of the location of each coefficient within the subimage

$$\hat{T}(u,v) = round\left[\frac{T(u,v)}{Z(u,v)}\right]$$

where T(u,v): transform coefficients

Z(*u*,*v*): quantization matrix

7.5.5 bit allocation: threshold coding

Z(u,v) is assigned a particular value c



Z(u,v) used in JPEG stardard

16	11	10	16	24	40	51	61
12	12	14	19	26	58	60	55
14	13	16	24	40	57	69	56
14	17	22	29	51	87	80	62
18	22	37	56	68	109	103	77
24	35	55	64	81	104	113	92
49	64	78	87	103	121	120	101
72	92	95	98	112	100	103	99

7.5.5 bit allocation: threshold coding

Experiment results

Left column: quantize with Z(u,v)

Right column: quantize with 4*Z(u,v)



7.5.3 JEPG lossy compression standard



Question: why there are mosaics in JEPG images?



7.6 Introduction to international standards

- Image compression standards:
 -JPEG,
 - -JPEG2000
- Video compression standards: -MPEG-1,MPEG-2,MPEG-4,
 -H.261,H.263,H.263+,H.264
 -H.264/AVC

Video compression standards

ITU-T Video Coding Experts Group (VCEG)

- H.261 (1990) \rightarrow H.263 (1995) \rightarrow H.263+ (1998) \rightarrow H.26L

ISO Motion Picture Experts Group (MPEG)

- MPEG1(1991) \rightarrow MPEG2 (1994) \rightarrow MPEG4 (1999)

Joint Video Team (JVT) (VCEG/MPEG) 2001

- H.264/MPEG4 part 10. Official title: Advanced Video Coding (AVC)
- International standard: December 2002





Figure 2-1 AVC Encoder

ME



Prediction of inter Macroblocks –tree structured MC



These partition and sub-partition give rise to a large mumber of possible combinations within a macroblock

Example:



Figure 2-3 Residual (without MC) showing optimum choice of partitions

quantization



QP=5, 15, 25, 35, 50

deblocking





fig6 the comparing of deblocking and non-deblocking (QP=36)



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