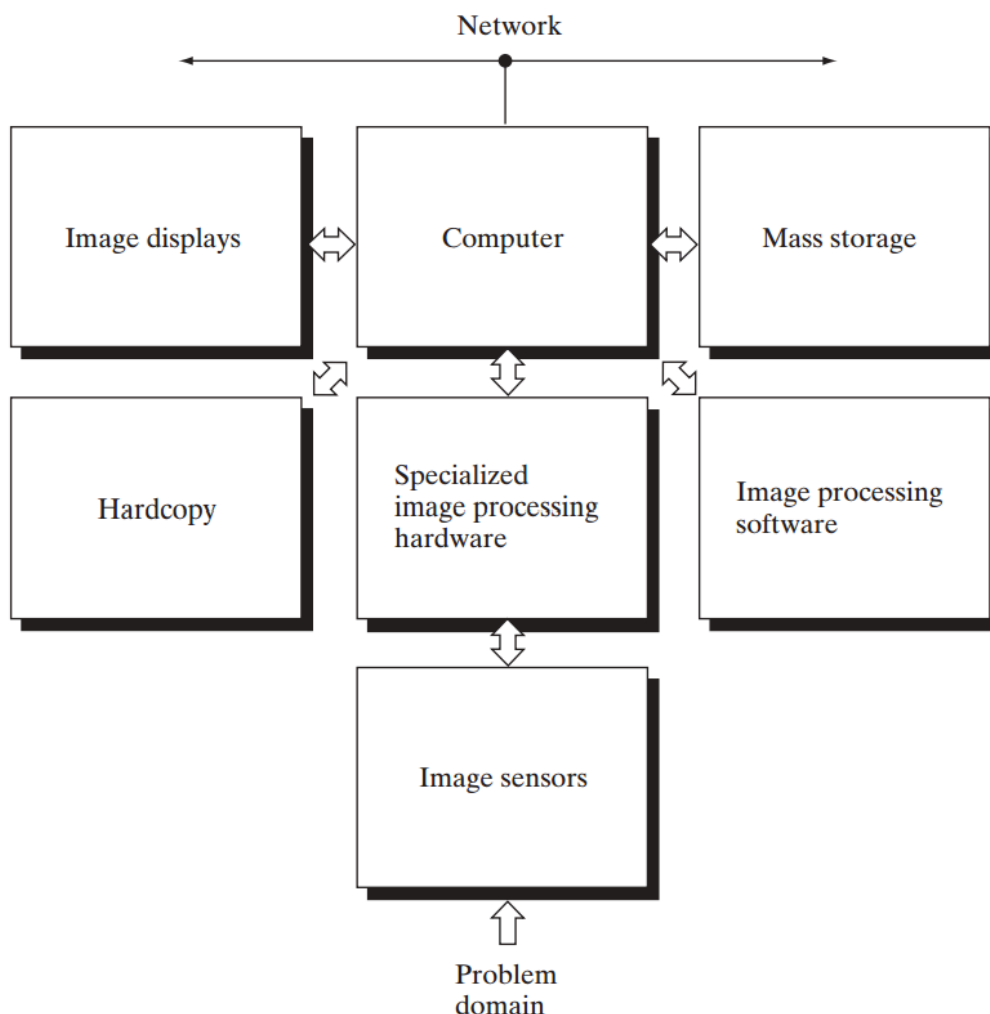


DIP IA1

M1Q1) Explain the components of an Image Processing System.



1. **Image Sensors:** These capture the image using devices that are sensitive to the energy emitted by the object. A digitizer then converts this data into digital form.
2. **Specialized Image Processing Hardware:** This includes components like Arithmetic Logic Units (ALUs) which perform operations like image averaging, primarily for noise reduction and real-time processing.
3. **Computer:** A general-purpose computer handles the main processing tasks. It can range from personal computers to supercomputers depending

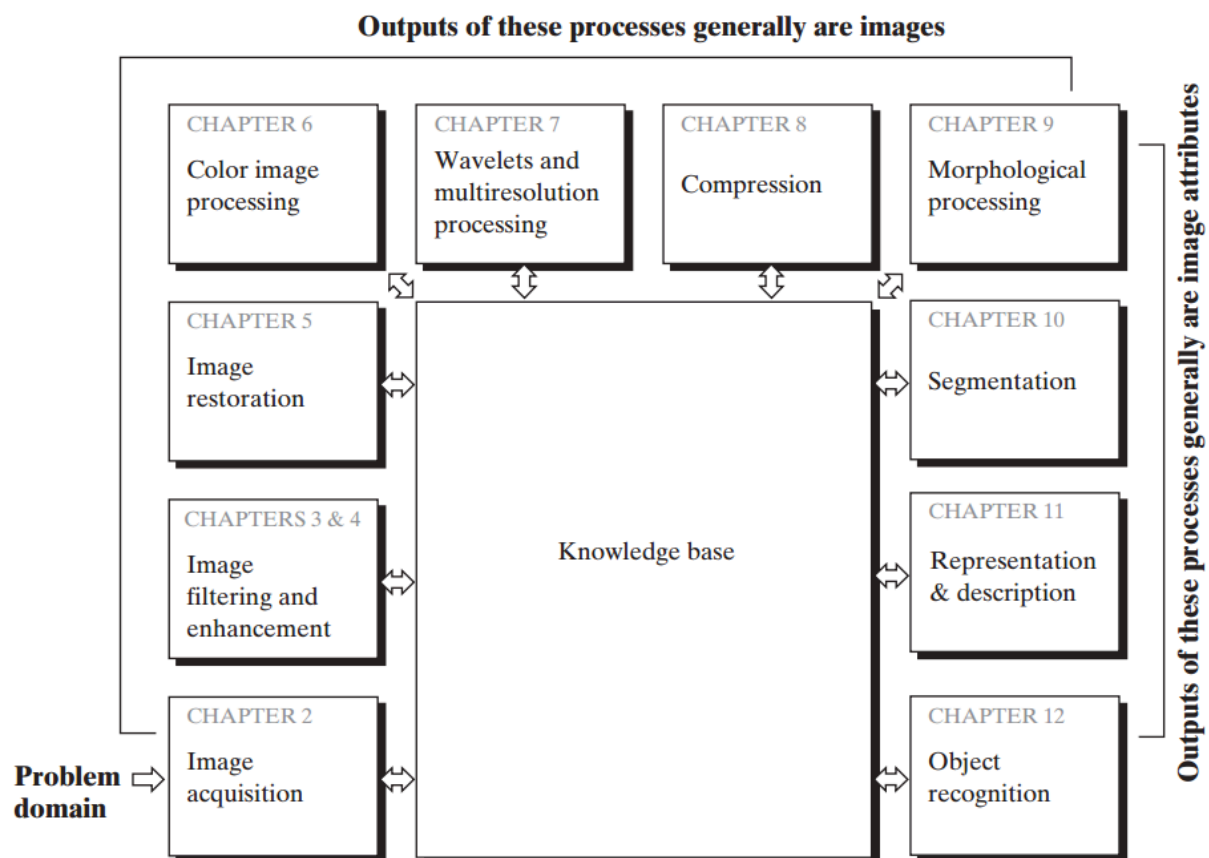
on the application.

4. **Image Processing Software:** These are specialized software modules used for performing various image processing tasks. Some software packages also allow users to write custom code.
 5. **Mass Storage:** Storage devices are required for storing image data. This can be short-term storage for ongoing tasks, online storage for easy access, or archival storage for long-term retention.
 6. **Image Displays:** Monitors or display units, typically color flat-screen TVs, are used for viewing the processed images.
 7. **Hardcopy Devices:** Devices like laser printers, inkjet printers, and film cameras are used to create physical copies of images.
 8. **Networking:** Networking capabilities allow image data to be transmitted to remote locations for further analysis or storage.
-

M1Q2) Explain the fundamental steps in Digital Image Processing.

1. **Image Acquisition:** It involves capturing an image using a sensor and converting it into a manageable digital format. This may also include preprocessing steps like scaling and noise reduction.
2. **Image Enhancement:** This step is used to improve the visual quality of an image, making it more suitable for further analysis or display. Enhancement techniques are subjective and application-specific.
3. **Image Restoration:** Unlike enhancement, restoration uses mathematical models to recover an image that has been degraded. It is objective and often applied in applications like medical imaging or satellite imagery.
4. **Color Image Processing:** Focuses on color spaces and manipulations, applying techniques for color correction, enhancement, and segmentation.
5. **Wavelets and Multiresolution Processing:** This involves the application of wavelet transforms for analyzing images at multiple resolutions, often used in image compression.
6. **Compression:** Reducing the size of an image for storage or transmission using techniques like JPEG or PNG.

7. **Morphological Processing:** Extracts image components useful in shape representation and description using techniques like dilation, erosion, and skeletonization.
8. **Segmentation:** This step partitions an image into meaningful regions or objects, which is often a crucial part of object recognition tasks.
9. **Representation and Description:** After segmentation, the shape and structure of the objects are described using boundary or region-based descriptors.
10. **Object Recognition:** Finally, recognition algorithms classify objects into categories based on their descriptors.



M1Q3) Explain formation of image in human eye with example.

The human eye works similarly to a camera, forming images using a lens and projecting them onto a light-sensitive surface called the **retina**. The key components involved in the image formation process are:

1. Cornea and Lens:

- Light enters the eye through the **cornea**, which provides most of the focusing power.
- The light then passes through the **aqueous humor** and reaches the **lens**, which further adjusts its shape to focus the light correctly onto the retina.

2. Iris and Pupil:

- The **iris** controls the size of the **pupil**, regulating the amount of light entering the eye.
- In bright light, the pupil contracts, and in dim light, it expands.

3. Retina and Photoreceptors:

- The retina contains millions of **photoreceptor cells** called **rods** and **cones**.
- **Rods** are highly sensitive to light and are responsible for **night vision**.
- **Cones** detect **color** and are concentrated in the central region called the **fovea**, providing sharp and detailed vision.

4. Optic Nerve and Visual Perception:

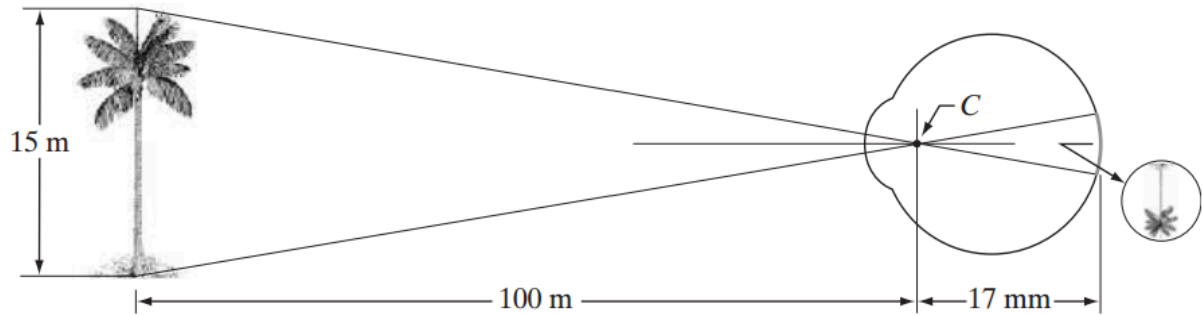
- The signals from the photoreceptors are converted into electrical impulses and sent to the brain via the **optic nerve**.
- The brain processes these signals to form the image we perceive.

Example of Image Formation

If a person looks at a **tree 15 meters high** from a distance of **100 meters**, the eye's lens focuses the light onto the retina. Using geometric optics, the height of the image formed on the retina can be calculated using the ratio of distances:

$$\frac{\text{Image Height}}{\text{Retinal Distance (17 mm)}} = \frac{15 \text{ m}}{100 \text{ m}}$$

$$\text{Image Height} = \frac{15 \text{ m} \times 17 \text{ mm}}{100 \text{ m}} = 2.55 \text{ mm}$$



M1Q4) Consider the two images subsets S_1 and S_2 shown in the figure. For $V=\{1\}$, determine whether the two subsets are:

- a) 4-adjacent**
- b) 8-adjacent**

Coordinates of S_1 and S_2 Pixels

- S_1 includes the block of pixels from the left part.
- S_2 includes the block of pixels from the right part.

a) 4-Adjacency Check

- In **4-adjacency**, two pixels are adjacent if they share a side (left, right, top, bottom).
- Examining the borders of S_1 and S_2 , no pixel from S_1 directly touches a pixel from S_2 .
- **Hence, they are not 4-adjacent.**

b) 8-Adjacency Check

- In **8-adjacency**, two pixels are adjacent if they share a side or a corner (diagonal).
- There are instances where pixels from S_1 and S_2 touch diagonally. Like the **(2,5)** pixel from S_1 and the **(2,6)** pixel from S_2 .
- **Therefore, S_1 and S_2 are 8-adjacent.**

Representative Diagram

```

      S1      S2
-----
0 | 0 0 0 0 | 0 0 1 1 | 0
1 | 0 0 1 0 | 0 1 0 0 | 1
1 | 0 0 1 0 | 1 1 0 0 | 0
0 | 0 1 1 1 | 0 0 0 0 | 0
  |-----|
0  0 1 1 1 | 0 0 1 1 1

```

- This confirms that S_1 and S_2 satisfy **8-adjacency** but not **4-adjacency**.

Brightness Adaptation

-
- The graph plots Subjective brightness against the Log of intensity (mL). The x-axis ranges from -6 to 4. The y-axis has markers for 'Glare limit' and 'Scotopic threshold'. Two curves are shown: 'Scotopic' (lower curve) and 'Photopic' (upper curve). The 'Adaptation range' is indicated by a vertical double-headed arrow between the 'Glare limit' and 'Scotopic threshold'. Two points on the curves are labeled B_a and B_b , with arrows pointing to them.

6

- Figure 2.4 in the textbook shows the adaptation curve, illustrating how the visual system transitions from **scotopic** (low-light) to **photopic** (bright-light) vision.

Brightness Discrimination

- **Brightness discrimination** refers to the eye's ability to detect small differences in light intensity.
- The **Weber Ratio** is used to measure discrimination and is defined as:



$$\text{Weber Ratio} = \frac{\Delta I}{I}$$

Where:

- I = Background illumination
- ΔI = Minimum detectable intensity difference
- A small Weber ratio implies good discrimination, while a large ratio indicates poor discrimination. The eye is more sensitive to changes in intensity at higher illumination levels.

M2Q1) Explain the 2D DFT Properties.

1. Symmetric and Unitary

The 2D DFT is symmetric and unitary, meaning it preserves energy. In matrix notation:

$$\mathcal{F}^{-1} = \mathcal{F}^* = F^* \otimes F^*$$

Where:

- \mathcal{F} is the DFT matrix
- \mathcal{F}^{-1} is its inverse
- F^* denotes the conjugate transpose of the 1D DFT matrix
- \otimes denotes the Kronecker product.

2. Periodic Extensions

Both the image and its transform are treated as periodic functions:

$$v(k + N, l + N) = v(k, l) \quad \text{all } k, l$$

$$u(m + N, n + N) = u(m, n) \quad \text{all } m, n$$

3. Sampled Fourier Spectrum

The 2D DFT samples the continuous Fourier transform of the image:

$$V(k, l) = \text{DFT}\{u(m, n)\} = v(k, l)$$

Where $V(k, l)$ is the sampled transform at discrete frequencies.

4. Fast Transform

The separability of the 2D DFT allows it to be efficiently computed using the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT):

$$\text{Total Operations} = O(N^2 \log_2 N)$$

This is done using two 1D FFTs applied row-wise and then column-wise.

5. Conjugate Symmetry

For real images, the 2D DFT exhibits conjugate symmetry:

$$v(k, l) = v^*(N - k, N - l), \quad 0 \leq k, l \leq N - 1$$

This reduces the storage requirement to half of the transform coefficients.

M2Q2) State and explain properties unitary transforms.

1. Energy Conservation and Rotation

- A unitary transformation preserves the energy of the signal or the length of the vector in the N-dimensional space.
- Mathematically:

$$||v||^2 = ||u||^2 \quad \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} |v(k)|^2 = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |u(n)|^2$$

- This implies that a unitary transform is a rotation in the vector space.

2. Energy Compaction and Variance of Transform Coefficients

- Most unitary transforms tend to pack a significant fraction of the image's energy into a few transform coefficients.
- Given the mean μ_u and covariance R_u of a vector u , the corresponding mean and covariance for the transformed vector v are:

$$\mu_v = A\mu_u$$

$$R_v = AR_uA^*$$

- Variance of transform coefficients:

$$\sigma_v^2(k) = [R_v]_{k,k} = [AR_uA^*]_{k,k}$$

3. Decorrelation

- When input vector elements are correlated, the transform coefficients tend to become uncorrelated.
- The off-diagonal elements of the covariance matrix R_v become small, making the matrix nearly diagonal.
- The Karhunen-Loève Transform (KLT) is optimal in this regard.

4. Other Properties

- **Determinant and Eigenvalues:** The magnitude of the determinant of a unitary matrix is unity. All eigenvalues also have a magnitude of one.

$$|\det(A)| = 1$$

- **Entropy Preservation:** The entropy of a random vector is preserved under a unitary transform, meaning no information is lost.

M2Q3) Define and explain Image Transforms.

An **image transform** refers to a mathematical operation that converts an image from its spatial domain to a different domain, often the frequency domain, to facilitate further processing such as compression, enhancement, and analysis.

Explanation:

1. Basis Images and Series Representation

- Similar to representing one-dimensional signals using orthogonal series expansions, images can be expanded using a discrete set of basis images.

- Mathematically, a unitary transformation for a 1D sequence $u(n)$ of size N is given by:

$$v(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} a(k, n)u(n)$$

where $a(k, n)$ are the transform coefficients.

- The inverse transform is expressed as:

$$u(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} v(k)a^*(k, n)$$

Here, $a^*(k, n)$ represents the complex conjugate of the matrix.

2. Two-Dimensional Image Transforms

- For a 2D image $u(m, n)$ of size $N \times N$, the transform and inverse transform are given by:

$$v(k, l) = \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} u(m, n)a(k, l, m, n)$$

$$u(m, n) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} v(k, l)a^*(k, l, m, n)$$

- The basis functions $a(k, l, m, n)$ form a complete orthonormal set that can represent any image.

3. Applications of Image Transforms

- Filtering:** Unwanted noise or features can be removed by manipulating the transform coefficients.
- Compression:** Transforms like the Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) are widely used in image compression algorithms such as JPEG.
- Feature Extraction:** Key image features can be extracted using transforms like the Fourier Transform.

***** EOF *****