Basics

CS 554 – Computer Vision
Pinar Duygulu
Bilkent University

Outline

- Image Representation
- Review some basics of linear algebra and geometrical transformations
 - Slides adapted from Octavia Camps, Penn State and Stefan Roth, Brown University
- Introduction to Matlab
- Handling Images in Matlab

Image Representation

- Digital Images are 2D arrays (matrices) of numbers
- Each pixel is a measure of the brightness (intensity of light)
 - that falls on an area of an sensor (typically a CCD chip)

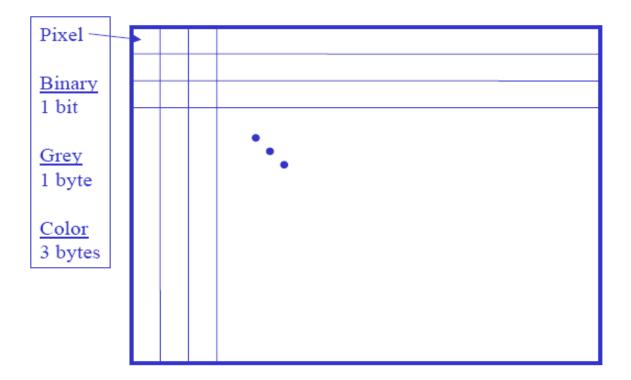
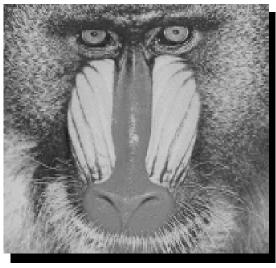
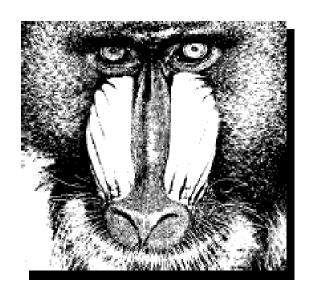


Image Representation





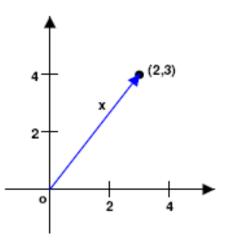


RGB Greyscale Binary

Ordered set of numbers

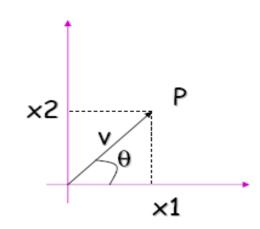
$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^\mathsf{T}$$

Example: coordinates of point



2D Vector

$$\mathbf{v} = (x_1, x_2)$$



Magnitude:
$$|| \mathbf{v} || = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$$

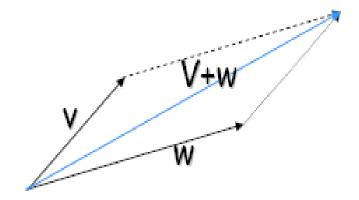
If $||\mathbf{v}||=1$, \mathbf{V} Is a UNIT vector

$$\frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} = \left(\frac{x_1}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}, \frac{x_2}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}\right)$$
 Is a unit vector

Orientation:
$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x_2}{x_1} \right)$$

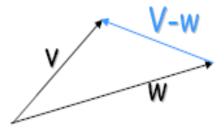
Vector addition:

$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = (x_1, x_2) + (y_1, y_2) = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2)$$



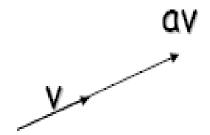
Vector subtraction:

$$\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w} = (x_1, x_2) - (y_1, y_2) = (x_1 - y_1, x_2 - y_2)$$

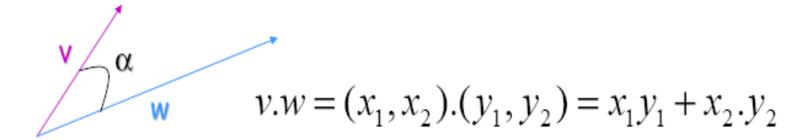


Scalar Product:

$$a\mathbf{v} = a(x_1, x_2) = (ax_1, ax_2)$$



Inner (dot) Product:

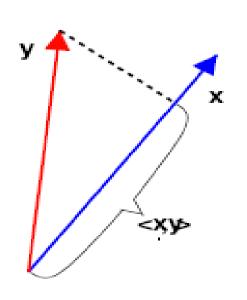


The inner product is a SCALAR!

$$v.w = (x_1, x_2).(y_1, y_2) = ||v|| \cdot ||w|| \cos \alpha$$

$$v.w = 0 \Leftrightarrow v \perp w$$

Projection of one point onto the other



Different notations

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$$

$$x y \text{ or } x \cdot y$$

The shown segment has length $\langle x,y \rangle$, if x and y are unit vectors

Linear Dependence

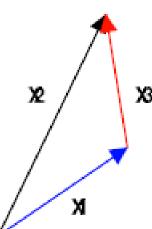
Linear combination of vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$:

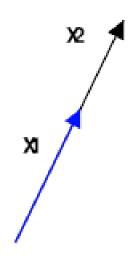
$$\alpha_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n \mathbf{x}_n$$

A set of vectors $X = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$ is linearly dependant if $\mathbf{x}_i \in X$ can be written as a linear combination of the rest, i.e., $X \setminus \{\mathbf{x}_i\}$.

In \mathbb{R}^n it holds that

- a set of 2 to n vectors can be linearly dependent





Basis

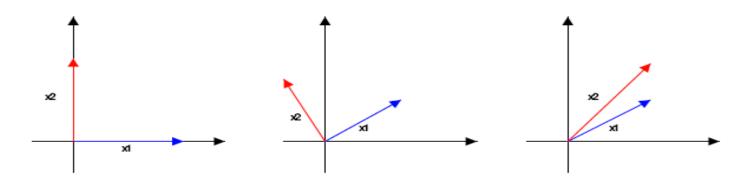
A basis is a linearly independent set of vectors that spans the "whole space". I.e., we can write every vector in our space as linear combination of vectors in that set.

Every set of n linearly independent vectors in \mathbb{R}^n is a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

Orthogonality: Two non-zero vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are orthogonal if $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$.

A basis is called

- orthogonal, if every basis vector is orthogonal to all other basis vectors
- orthonormal, if additionally all basis vectors have length 1.



Bases

Standard basis in \mathbb{R}^n (also called unit vectors):

$$\{\mathbf{e}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{e}_i = (\underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{i-1 \text{ times}}, 1, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{n-i-1 \text{ times}})\}$$

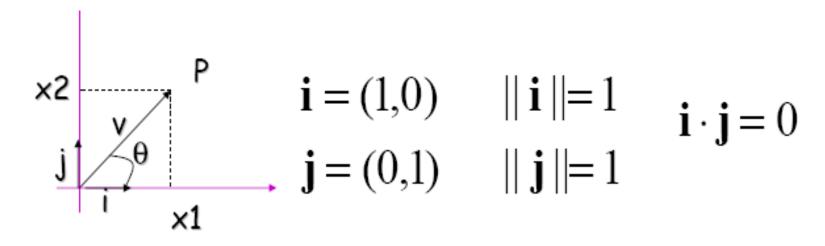
We can write a vector in terms of its standard basis, e.g.,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 7 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix} = 4 \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 + 7 \cdot \mathbf{e}_2 - 3 \cdot \mathbf{e}_3$$

Important observation: $x_i = \langle e_i, \mathbf{x} \rangle$, i. e., to find the coefficient for a particular basis vector, we project our vector onto it.

Bases

Orthonormal basis:

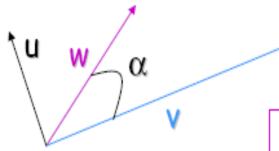


$$\mathbf{v} = (x_1, x_2) \qquad \mathbf{v} = x_1.\mathbf{i} + x_2.\mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{v}.\mathbf{i} = (x_1.\mathbf{i} + x_2.\mathbf{j}).\mathbf{i} = x_1.1 + x_2.0 = x_1$$

 $\mathbf{v}.\mathbf{j} = (x_1.\mathbf{i} + x_2.\mathbf{j}).\mathbf{j} = x_1.0 + x_2.1 = x_2$

Vector (cross) product:



$$u = v \times w$$

The cross product is a **VECTOR!**

Magnitude:
$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \|v.w\| = \|v\| \|w\| \sin \alpha$$

Orientation:

$$u \perp v \Rightarrow u \cdot v = (v \times w) \cdot v = 0$$

$$u \perp w \Rightarrow u \cdot w = (v \times w) \cdot w = 0$$

Note that vXw is not equal to wXv

Vector product computation:

$$\mathbf{i} = (1,0,0) \quad ||\mathbf{i}|| = 1
\mathbf{j} = (0,1,0) \quad ||\mathbf{j}|| = 1 \quad \mathbf{i}.\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{i}.\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{j}.\mathbf{k} = 0
\mathbf{k} = (0,0,1) \quad ||\mathbf{k}|| = 1
\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w} = (x_1, x_2, x_3) \times (y_1, y_2, y_3)
\mathbf{i} \quad \mathbf{j} \quad \mathbf{k} \\
\mathbf{u} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ y_1 & y_2 & y_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (x_2 y_3 - x_3 y_2) \mathbf{i} + (x_3 y_1 - x_1 y_3) \mathbf{j} + (x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1) \mathbf{k}$$

$$A_{n \times m} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2m} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & \cdots & a_{3m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

Sum:
$$C_{n\times m} = A_{n\times m} + B_{n\times m}$$

$$c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}$$

A and B must have the same dimensions

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 \\ 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Product:

$$C_{n\times p}=A_{n\times p}B_{m\times p}$$

A and B must have compatible dimensions

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_{ik} b_{kj}$$

$$A_{n \times n} B_{n \times n} \neq B_{n \times n} A_{n \times n}$$

Examples:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 17 & 29 \\ 19 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 32 \\ 17 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

Transpose:

$$C_{m \times n} = A^{T}_{n \times m} \qquad (A+B)^{T} = A^{T} + B^{T}$$

$$c_{ij} = a_{ji} \qquad (AB)^{T} = B^{T} A^{T}$$

If
$$A^T = A$$

A is symmetric

Examples:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Determinant: A must be square

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{21}a_{12}$$

$$\det\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix}$$

Example:
$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 2 - 15 = -13$$

Inverse:

A must be square

$$A_{n \times n} A^{-1}_{n \times n} = A^{-1}_{n \times n} A_{n \times n} = I$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{a_{11} a_{22} - a_{21} a_{12}} \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{28} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 \\ -1 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{28} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 \\ -1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{28} \begin{bmatrix} 28 & 0 \\ 0 & 28 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The rank of a matrix is the number of linearly independent rows or columns.

Examples:
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 has rank 2, but $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ only has rank 1.

Equivalent to the dimension of the range of the linear transformation.

A matrix with full rank is called *non-singular*, otherwise it is singular.

For singular matrices determinant is 0

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

All non-zero vectors \mathbf{x} for which there is a $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ so that

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

are called *eigenvectors* of ${f A}$. λ are the associated *eigenvalues*.

If e is an eigenvector of A, then also $c \cdot e$ with $c \neq 0$.

Label eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_1 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_n$ with their eigenvectors e_1, \ldots, e_n (assumed to be unit vectors).

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Rewrite the definition as

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = 0$$

 $det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$ has to hold, because $\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}$ cannot have full rank.

This gives a polynomial in λ , the so-called *characteristic* polynomial.

Find the eigenvalues by finding the roots of that polynomial.

Find the associated eigenvector by solving linear equation system.

Eigendecomposition

Every real, square, symmetric matrix ${f A}$ can be decomposed as:

$$A = VDV^{\mathsf{T}},$$

where ${f V}$ is an orthonormal matrix of ${f A}$'s eigenvectors and ${f D}$ is a diagonal matrix of the associated eigenvalues.

The eigendecomposition is essentially a restricted variant of the Singular Value Decomposition.

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Suppose $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$. Then a $\lambda \geq 0$ is called a *singular value* of \mathbf{A} , if there exist $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{u}$$
 and $\mathbf{A}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{u} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$

We can decompose any matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m imes n}$ as

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}},$$

where $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ and $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ are orthonormal and Σ is a diagonal matrix of the singular values.

Singular Value Decomposition

The determinant of a square matrix is the product of its eigenvalues: $det(\mathbf{A}) = \lambda_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot \lambda_n$.

A square matrix is singular if it has some eigenvalues of value 0.

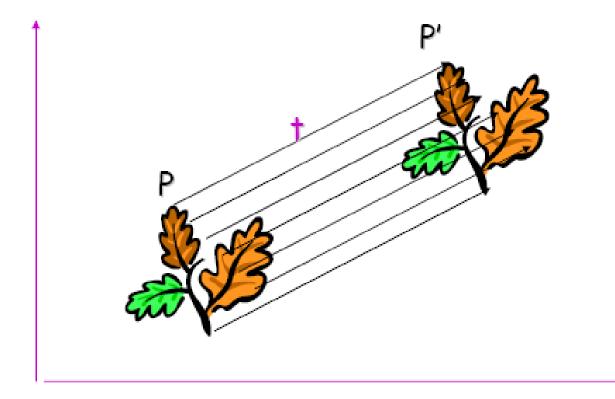
A square matrix ${\bf A}$ is called positive (semi-)definite if all of its eigenvalues are positive (non-negative). Equivalent criterion:

$$\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0 \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \quad (\geq \text{if semi-definite}).$$

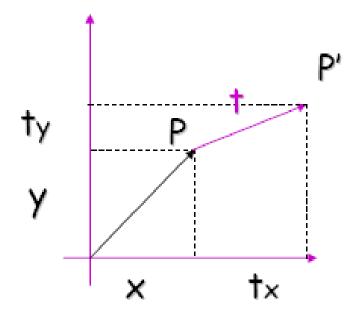
Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

The columns of U are the eigenvectors of AA^T and the (non-zero) singular values of A are the square roots of the (non-zero) eigenvalues of AA^T

2D Translation:



2D Translation Equation:

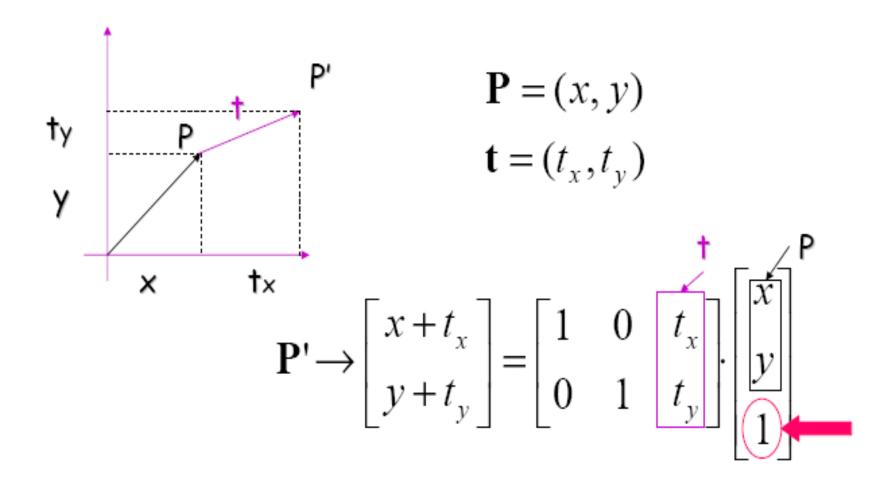


$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y)$$

$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y)$$
$$\mathbf{t} = (t_x, t_y)$$

$$P' = (x + t_x, y + t_y) = P + t$$

2D Translation using matrices:



Homogeneous Coordinates

Multiply the coordinates by a non-zero scalar and add an extra coordinate equal to that scalar. For example,

$$(x, y) \rightarrow (x \cdot z, y \cdot z, z) \quad z \neq 0$$

 $(x, y, z) \rightarrow (x \cdot w, y \cdot w, z \cdot w, w) \quad w \neq 0$

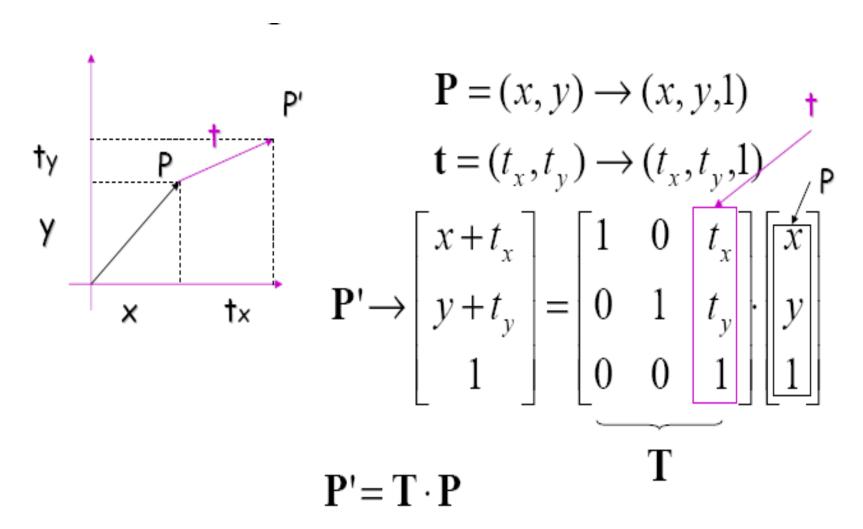
NOTE: If the scalar is 1, there is no need for the multiplication!

Back to Cartesian Coordinates

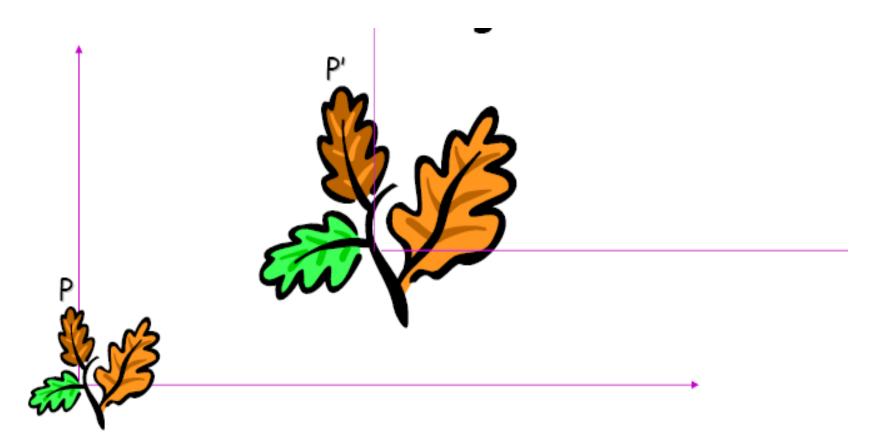
Divide by the last coordinate and eliminate it. For example,

$$(x, y, z) \quad z \neq 0 \rightarrow (x/z, y/z)$$
$$(x, y, z, w) \quad w \neq 0 \rightarrow (x/w, y/w, z/w)$$

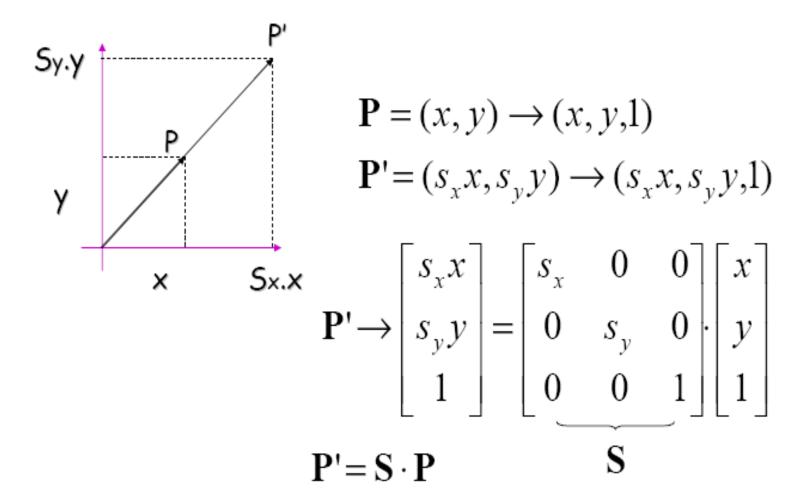
2D Translation using Homogeneous Coordinates

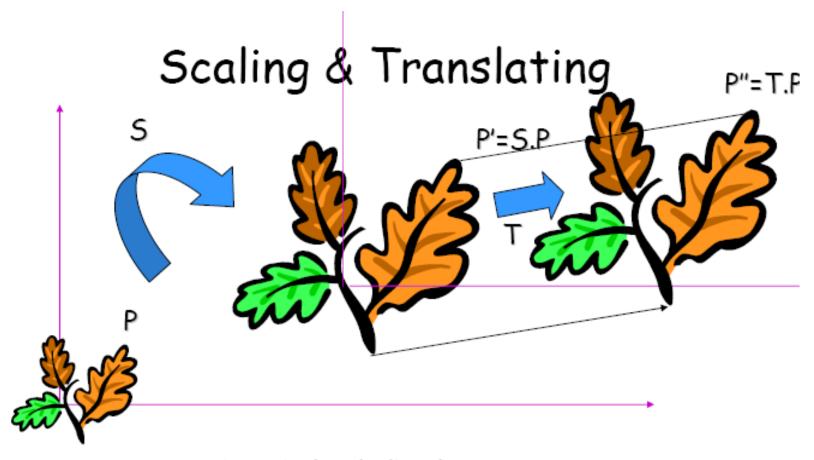


Scaling



Scaling Equation





P''=T.P'=T.(S.P)=(T.S).P

Scaling & Translating

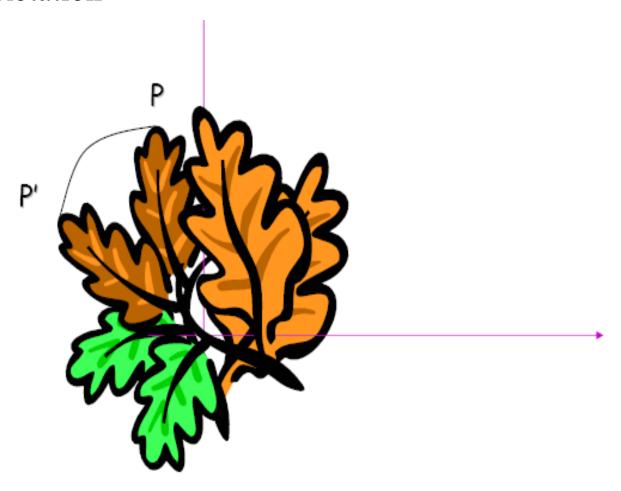
$$\mathbf{P}'' = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{T} \cdot (\mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{P}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & s_y & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x x + t_x \\ s_y y + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P''=S.P'=S.(T.P)=(S.T).P$$

$$\mathbf{P''} = \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{P''} = \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{P''} = \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{P''} = \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{P''} = \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_x & s_y \\ s_y & s_y \\ s_y & s_y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_x & s_y \\ s_y & s_y \\ s_y & s_y \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{P$$

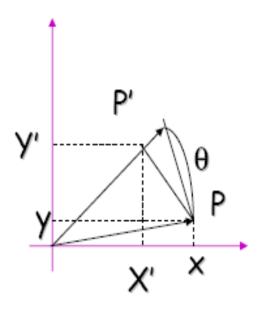
$$= \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & s_x t_x \\ 0 & s_y & s_y t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x x + s_x t_x \\ s_y y + s_y t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rotation



Rotation Equations:

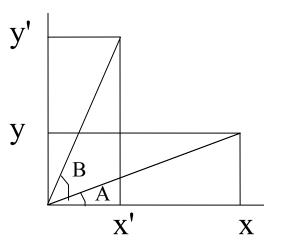
Counter-clockwise rotation by an angle θ



$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P' = R.P$$

Rotation Equations:



$$\sin (A + B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B$$

 $\cos (A + B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B$

Scaling, Translating & Rotating:

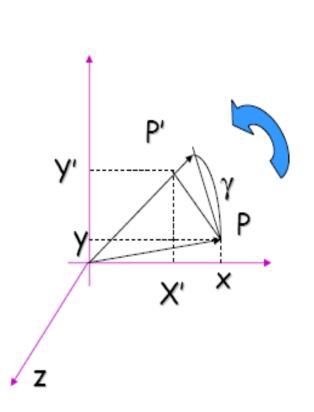


Order matters!

 $R.T.S \neq R.S.T \neq T.S.R...$

3D Rotation of Points:

Rotation around the coordinate axes, counter-clockwise:



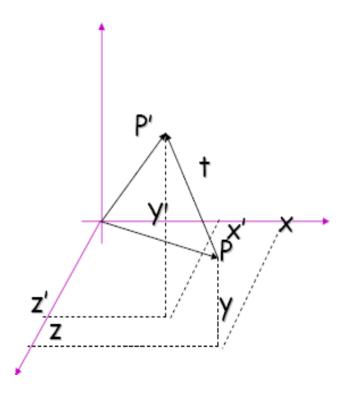
$$R_{x}(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ 0 & \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{y}(\beta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \beta & 0 & \sin \beta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin \beta & 0 & \cos \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{z}(\gamma) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \gamma & -\sin \gamma & 0 \\ \sin \gamma & \cos \gamma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

3D Translation of Points:

Translate by a vector $t=(t_x,t_y,t_x)^T$:



$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & t_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

One kind of object – a rectangular numerical matrix

Scalars: 1x1 matrices

Vectors: matrices with only one row or one column

```
a 3x3 matrix

A = [1 2 3; 4 5 6; 7 8 9]

is equal to

A = [1 2 3

4 5 6

7 8 9]
```

```
A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2; & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} % creates a 2x2 matrix

N = 5 % a scalar

v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} % a row vector

V = \begin{bmatrix} 1; & 2; & 3 \end{bmatrix} % a column vector

v = v' % transpose of a vector

v = 1:2:7 % [start:stepsize:end] v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix}

v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} % empty vector
```

```
    m = zeros(2,3) % creates a 2x3 matrix of zeros
    v = ones(1,3) % creates a 1x3 matrix (row vector) of ones
    m = eye(3) % identity matrix
    v = rand(3,1) % randomly filled matrix
    m = zeros(3) % 3x3 matrix of zeros
```

% diagonal of matrix a

d = diag(a)

```
v = [1 \ 2 \ 3]
                 % access a vector element
v(3)
m = [1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4; 5 \ 6 \ 7 \ 8; 9 \ 10 \ 11 \ 12; 13 \ 14 \ 15 \ 16]
m(1,3) % access a matrix element (row #, column #)
m(2,:) % access a whole matrix row
m(:,1) % access a whole matrix column
m(1,1:3) % access elements 1 through 3 of 1<sup>st</sup> row
m(2:end, 3)
```

```
m = [1 \ 2 \ 3; 4 \ 5 \ 6]
size(m)
                      % returns the size of a matrix
m1 = zeros(size(m))
a = [1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4]'
2 * a
a / 4
b = [5 6 7 8]'
a + b
a - b
a .^2
```

 $a = [1 \ 4 \ 6 \ 3]$

```
% sum of vector elements
sum(a)
mean(a)
       % mean
var(a)
        % variance
        % standard deviation
std(a)
       % maximum
max(a)
         % minimum
min(a)
a = [1 \ 2 \ 3; 4 \ 5 \ 6]
mean(a)
              % mean of each column
mean(a,2) % mean of each row
max(max(a)) % maximum value of the matrix
```

```
a = [1 2 3; 4 5 6; 7 8 9]
inv(a) % matrix inverse
eig(a) % vector of eigenvalues of a
[V, D] = eig(a)
% D:eigenvalues on diagonal
%V :matrix of eigenvectors
```

```
B = zeros(m,n)
for i=1:m
for j=1:n
if A(i,j) > 0
B(i,j) = A(i,j)
end
end
end
```

```
B = zeros(m,n)
ind = find(A>0)
B(ind) = A(ind)
```

```
x = [0 1 2 3 4]
plot(x, 2*x)
xlabel('x')
ylabel('2*x')
title('dummy')
bar(x)
```

myfunction.m

function y = myfunction(x)

$$a = [-2 -1 \ 0 \ 1]$$

$$y = a + x$$
;

I = imread('img.jpg');
imshow(I)
imwrite(I, filename)

% read a jpg image

% shows an image

% writes an image to file

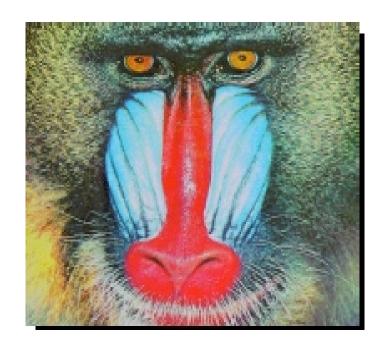
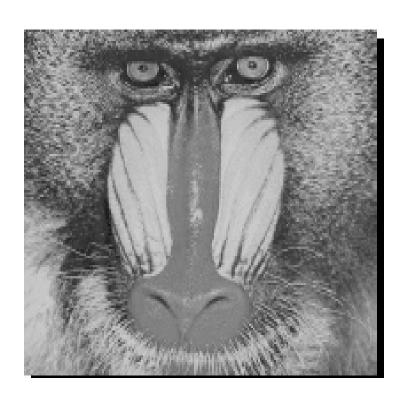
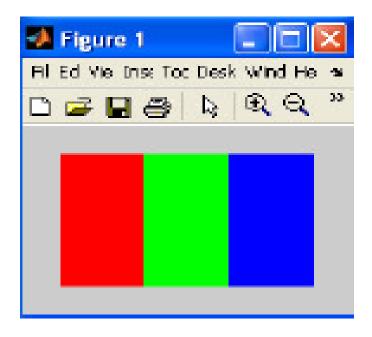


figure imagesc(I) colormap gray;

% display it as gray level image





size(img) 90 150 3

```
R = img(:,:,1)
```

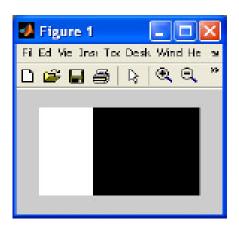
G = img(:,:,2)

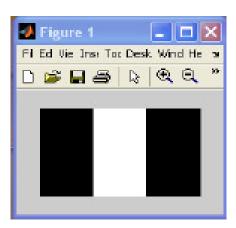
B = img(:,:,3)

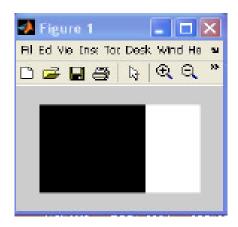
imshow(R)

imshow(G)

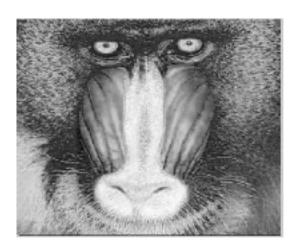
imshow(B)

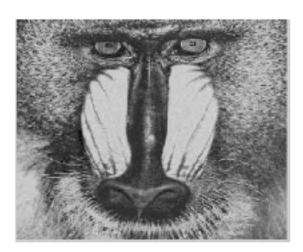


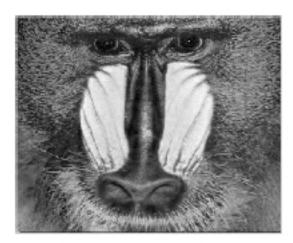




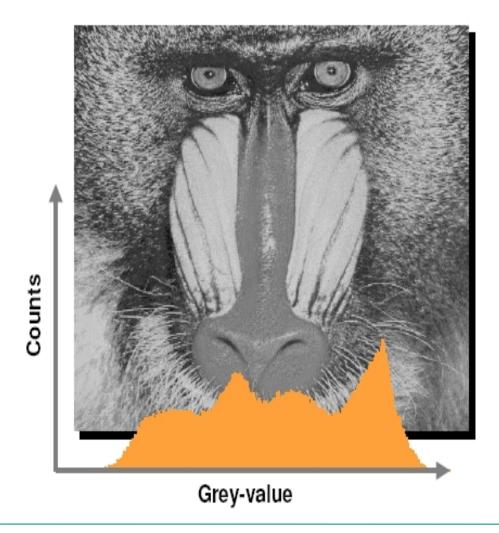




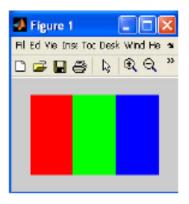




Histograms



Histograms



h = imhist(R)bar(h)

