Color Fundamentals

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Lecture Material

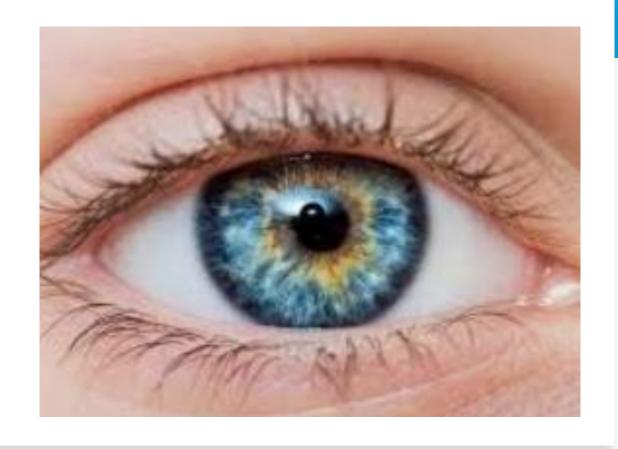
 Digital Image Processing Fourth Edition Rafael C. Gonzalez and Richard E. Woods

Digital Image Processing & Human Vision

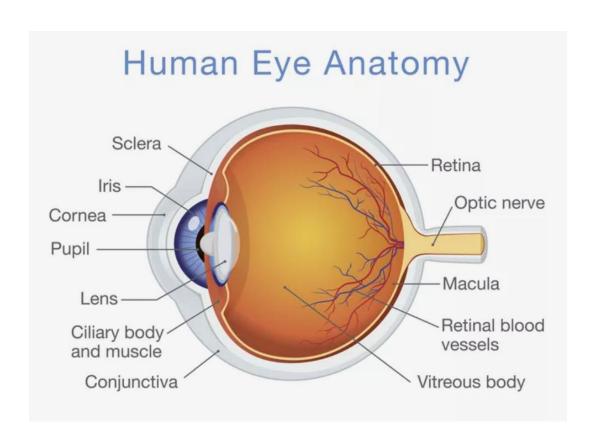
- Digital Image Processing is built on mathematics but often guided by human intuition and visual judgment.
- Understanding human visual perception is a key first step:
 - How images are formed and perceived by humans.
 - The limitations of human vision (resolution, adaptation to illumination).
 - Comparing human vision vs. electronic imaging devices:
- Helps design techniques aligned with what the human eye can perceive.

The Human Eye and Vision

- The eye provides us with the sense of sight.
- It allows us to see and interpret:
 - Shapes
 - Colors
 - Dimensions (size & depth)
- Works by processing the light reflected or emitted from objects.
- The eye can detect bright light and dim light, but it cannot see in the absence of light.



The Human Eye and Vision



- Light path: Cornea → Iris → Lens → Retina
- **Pupil**: Adjustable opening in the iris; regulates light (like a camera aperture).
- **Iris**: Colored part; controls pupil size and amount of incoming light.
- **Lens**: Focuses light rays onto the retina.
- **Retina**: Lining at the back of the eye; contains photoreceptors that send signals to the brain.

Photoreceptors in the Retina

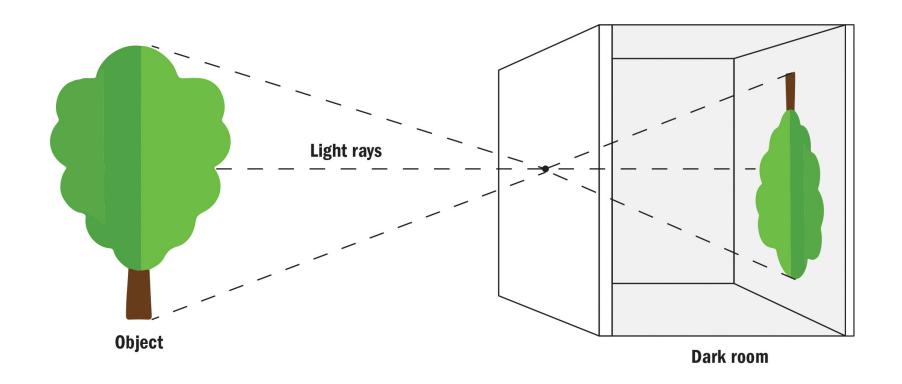
Rods

- Very sensitive to low light (night vision).
- Detect motion and intensity, but not color.
- Example: At night, colors fade and objects look gray.

Cones

- Active in bright light (day vision).
- Responsible for sharp details and color vision.
- 3 types:
 - L-cones → Red
 - M-cones → Green
 - S-cones → Blue

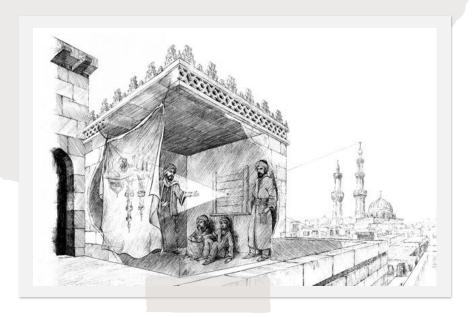
Camera obscuras



Camera obscura (pinhole camera)

- Camera Obscuras date back to 400 BC (and possibly earlier).
- Light passes through a small hole → projects an inverted image inside a dark room.
- Mozi (China, 400 BC)
 - Light from an illuminated object passing through a pinhole
 - Creates an **upside-down image** inside a dark chamber.
- Aristotle (Greece, 4th Century BC)
 - Discovered a way to view solar eclipses safely.
 - Saw crescent-shaped sun projections on the ground through gaps between tree leaves
 - Realized that light creates images without direct eye contact with the sun.

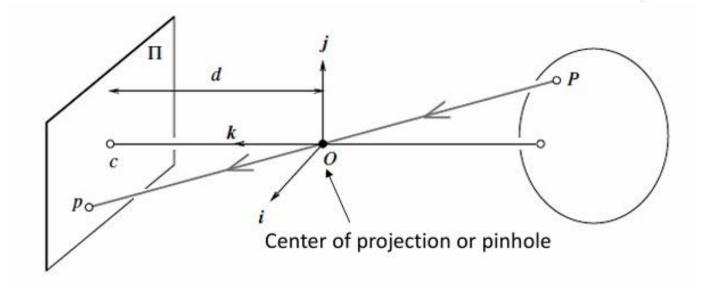
Camera obscura (pinhole camera)



- Ibn al-Haytham (11th Century)
 - First to use a **viewing screen** to clearly see the inverted image.
 - The actual inventor of the Camera
 Obscura
 - Conducted experiments with candles
- Leonardo da Vinci (1502)
 - Suggested the eye works like a camera obscura
- Giambattista della Porta (1535–1615)
 - Improved design by adding a concave lens at the pinhole.
 - Produced clearer, sharper images.
- Johannes Kepler (1604)
 - First to use the term "Camera Obscura".

Pinhole Camera Model

- **Light Rays:** Pass through the pinhole and form an inverted image on the image plane.
- Focal Length (f): Distance between the pinhole and the image plane.
- Optical Axis: A line perpendicular to the image plane (Π) that passes through the pinhole.
- Image Center (c): The point where the optical axis intersects the image plane.



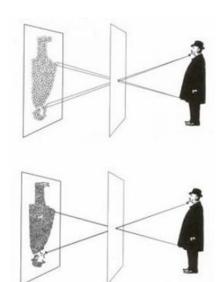
Effect of Pinhole Size

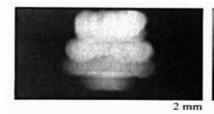
Large Aperture:

- Allows more light to enter.
- Light rays spread out → image becomes blurry (not well focused).

• Small Aperture:

- Allows less light to enter.
- Reduces blurring → image appears sharper, but dimmer.









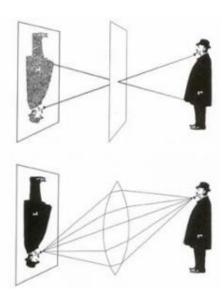


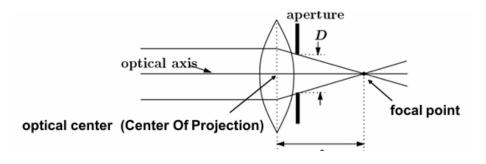
0.6mm

0.35mm

From Pinhole to Lens

- A lens replaces the pinhole.
- Lenses **improve image quality** → sharper and brighter images.
- Focal Point (F):
 - Point where parallel rays (to the optical axis) converge.
 - Located at a distance f from the lens.





Field of View

- The portion of scene space that actually projects onto the retina of the camera.
- Focal Length (f):
 - Distance from the lens to the image plane/sensor.
 - Small f → wide field of view.
 - Large f → narrow field of view.

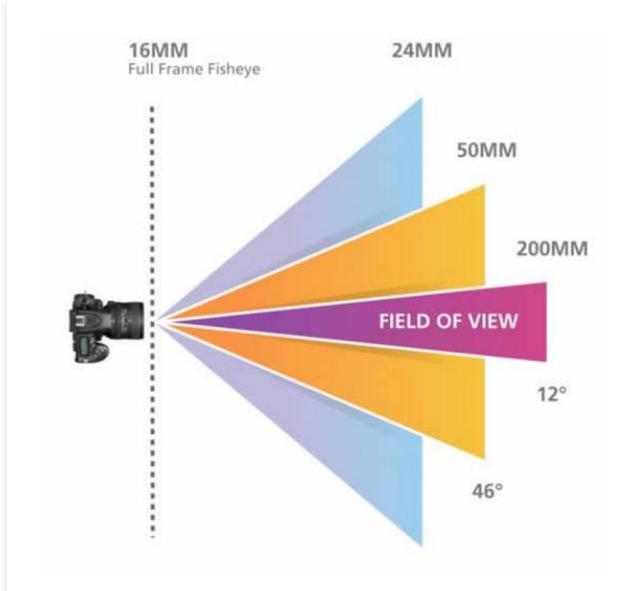
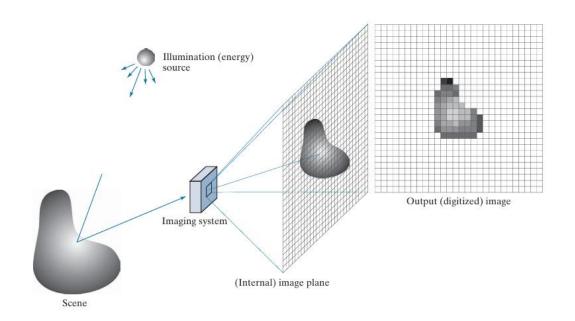


Image Acquisition using Sensor Arrays



- The sensor is a 2D grid of pixels.
- Each pixel is a light-sensitive element.
- A pixel measures the **intensity of light** falling on it.
- Pixels convert light into electrical signals.
- Camera circuitry translates signals into digital numbers.
- All pixel values together form the digital image.

Simple Image Formation Model

An image is represented as a function:

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

- Illumination i(x,y):
 - Amount of light falling on the scene.
 - Depends on the light source (sun, lamp, etc.).

Reflectance r(x,y):

- Proportion of light reflected by the surface.
- Depends on material properties (white paper vs. black cloth).

• Example:

- Bright light + white surface → high intensity (bright pixel).
- Low light + white surface → medium intensity (gray pixel).
- Bright light + black surface → low intensity (dark pixel).

Image Sampling And Quantization

Generate digital images from sensed data.

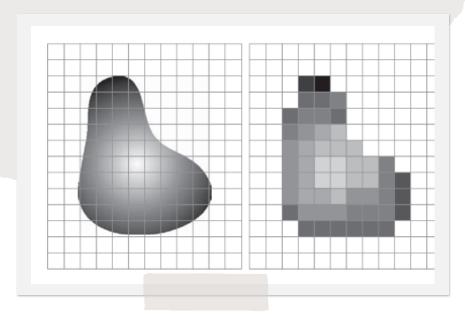
Sensor Output:

- Continuous voltage waveform.
- Amplitude & spatial behavior depend on physical phenomenon being sensed.
- To create a digital image, Continuous data must be converted to digital format.

Two key processes:

- Sampling → Discretize spatial coordinates (x, y).
- Quantization → Discretize amplitude (intensity values).

Image Sampling And Quantization



Sampling

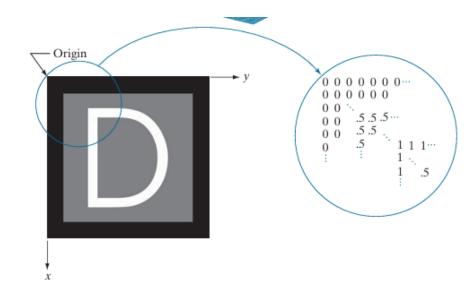
- Number of sensors determines sampling in both horizontal and vertical directions.
- Sampling provides discrete spatial locations, but intensity remains continuous.

Quantization

- Converts each sensor's continuous intensity value into a digital value.
- Intensity scale is divided into discrete levels.
- Example:
 - 8 levels from black → white.
 - Each level has a specific digital value.
 - Each sample is assigned to the nearest level.
- Quality depends on number of sensors and number of intensity levels.

Representing Digital Images

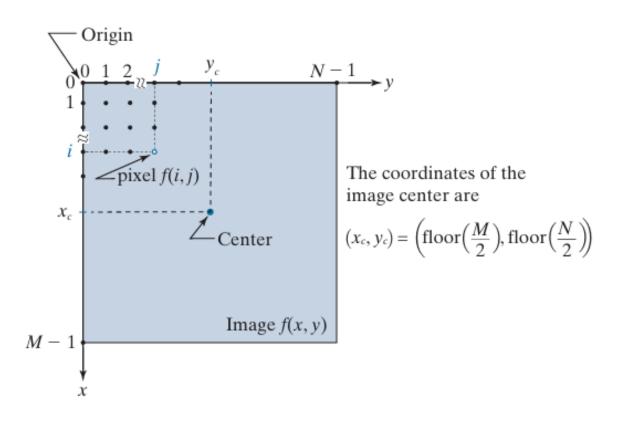
- Converting a continuous image into a digital form
- Digital image obtained via:
 - Sampling → discrete spatial locations
 - Quantization → convert intensity to discrete values
 - Digital image f(x,y) with: M rows and N columns
 - Top-left corner: f(0,0)



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

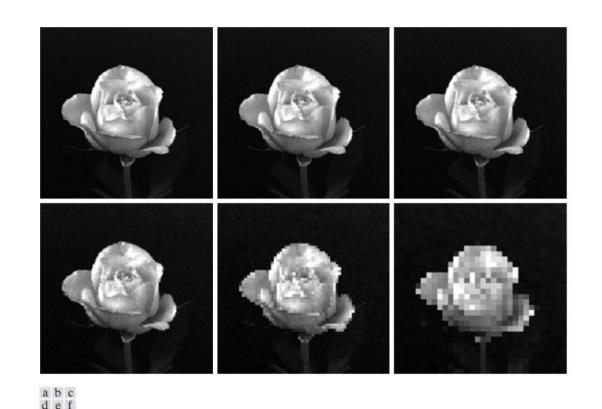
Representing Digital Images

- The origin (0,0) is defined at the top-left corner.
- Digital images are stored as 2D matrices.
- Center coordinates found by:
 - center=([M/2],[N/2])



Spatial Resolution

- Each pixel records a small portion of the scene.
- More pixels → can distinguish smaller details → higher spatial resolution.
- Same lens and same distance:
 - 20 Megapixel Camera → more pixels covering the same scene → finer details visible
 - 8 Megapixel Camera → fewer pixels → less detailed image



Intensity Resolution (Depth)

- Intensity resolution = smallest discernible change in intensity/brightness.
- Determines how finely we can distinguish shades or brightness levels in an image.
- Typically, an integer power of 2:
 - 8 bits → 256 levels (2⁸) → most common

Grey-level resolution 21



Grey-level resolution 2²



Grey-level resolution



Grey-level resolution 2⁴



Grey-level resolution 2⁵



Grey-level resolutio



Grey-level resolution 2⁷



Grey-level resolution 2⁸



Why Use Color?

There is a rabbit in this image.

- Powerful descriptor → simplifies object identification and extraction.
- Human visual perception → can distinguish thousands of colors, vs ~24 shades of gray

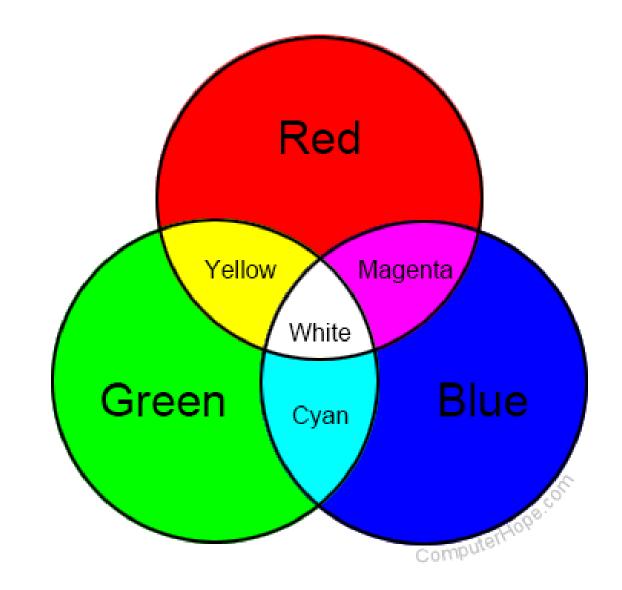


Cones and Color Vision in the Human Eye

- Cones are sensors in the eye responsible for color vision.
- Cones are divided into three main types:
 - Red-sensitive cones → ~65%
 - Green-sensitive cones → ~33%
 - Blue-sensitive cones → ~2%
- Human eye perceives colors as combinations of the primary colors: Red (R), Green (G), Blue (B)

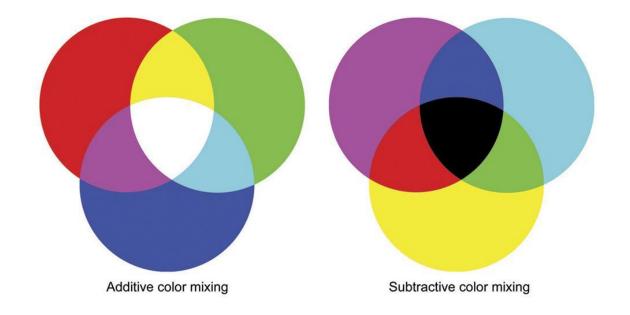
Primary and Secondary Colors of Light

- **Primary Colors:** Red (R), Green (G), Blue (B)
- Mixing all three primary colors in the correct intensities → White
- Secondary Colors: Produced by adding two primary colors:
 - Magenta (Red + Blue)
 - Cyan (Green + Blue)
 - Yellow (Red + Green)
- Mixing a secondary color with its opposite primary color → White
- Pure Green → R=0, G=255, B=0



Primary Colors of Light vs Primary Colors of Pigments

- Light colors (RGB) are additive → mixing produces white
- Pigment colors (CMY) are subtractive
 → mixing absorbs light and can produce
 black



Primary pigment colors

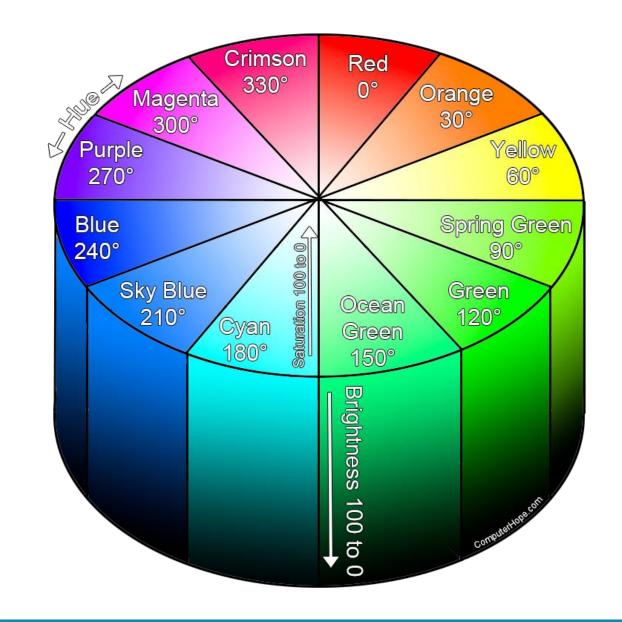
- A primary pigment absorbs (subtracts) one primary color of light and reflects or transmits the other two colors
- Primary pigment colors:
 - Cyan (absorbs Red, reflects Green + Blue)
 - Magenta (absorbs Green, reflects Red + Blue)
 - Yellow (absorbs Blue, reflects Red + Green)

Secondary Colors of Pigments

- Produced by mixing two primary pigments:
 - **Red** ← Magenta + Yellow
 - Green ← Cyan + Yellow
 - Blue ← Cyan + Magenta
- Mixing all three primary pigments (Cyan, Magenta, Yellow) → Black
- Or mixing a secondary pigment with its opposite primary → Black

Main Characteristics of Colors

- All colors can be defined using Hue, Saturation, and Brightness (HSB), an alternative to RGB, describing a color's type, intensity, and brightness
 - Brightness
 - Hue
 - Saturation



Brightness

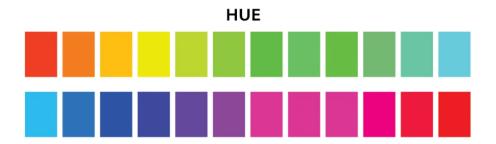
Brightness (Lightness / Luminance)

- Represents intensity (lightness or darkness)
- Measures how light or dark a color appears.
- Adjusting brightness does not change the hue, only how light or dark it looks.



Hue

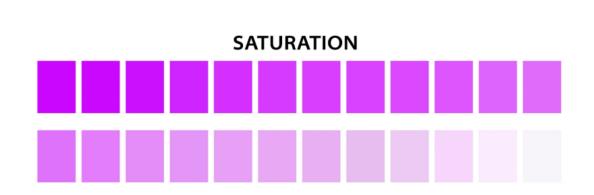
- Defined by the dominant wavelength of light
- Determines the perceived color (e.g., red, orange, yellow)
- When we say, "the object is red," we are describing its hue
- Represented on a 360° color wheel:
 - 0° = Red
 - 120° = Green
 - 240° = Blue
 - 360° = Red (loop)





Saturation

- Refers to the purity of a color
- Pure spectrum colors → fully saturated
- Adding white light → reduces saturation
- Example:
 - Pure Purple → Saturated
 - lavender (Purple + White) → Less Saturated

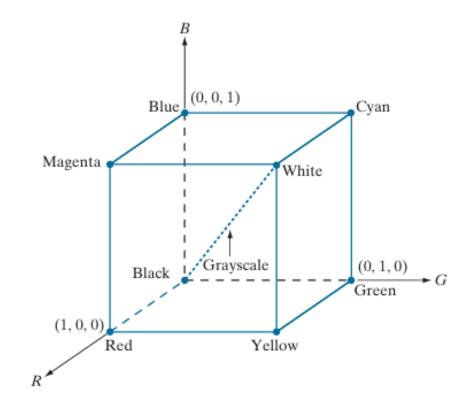


Color Models (Color Spaces / Color Systems)

- Provide a standard way to specify colors
- Allow communication of colors using **numbers**, not just names
- Hardware-Oriented Models or Application-Oriented Models
- Examples of Color Models:
 - RGB Model
 - CMY/CMYK model
 - HSV Model

RGB Color Model

- Colors are represented by 3 primary components:
 - R = Red, G = Green, B = Blue
 - Each color = a combination of R, G, and B
- RGB is represented in a 3D cube
- Each color = a point inside or on the cube

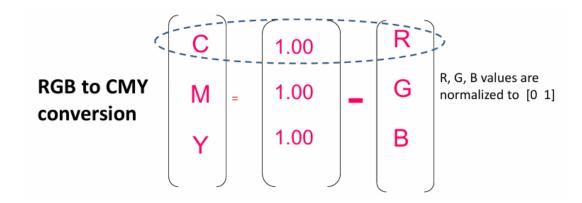


RGB Image Representation

- In digital images, we specify the levels of R, G and B with 8-bit integers
- RGB color pixel is a triplet of values (R, G, B)
- Each RGB color pixel has a depth of 24 bits.

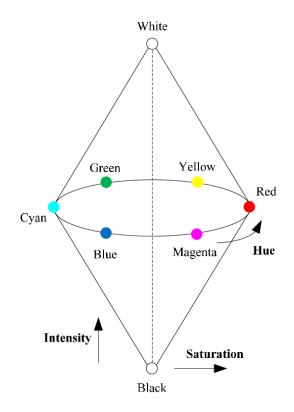
CMY and CMYK Color Models

- CMY = Cyan, Magenta, Yellow
 - Secondary colors of light (RGB)
 - Primary colors of pigments/printing
- Each pigment removes one primary color of light
 - Cyan pigment absorbs Red, reflects (Green + Blue = Cyan)
 - Magenta pigment absorbs Green, reflects (Red + Blue = Magenta)
 - Yellow pigment absorbs Blue, reflects (Red + Green = Yellow)

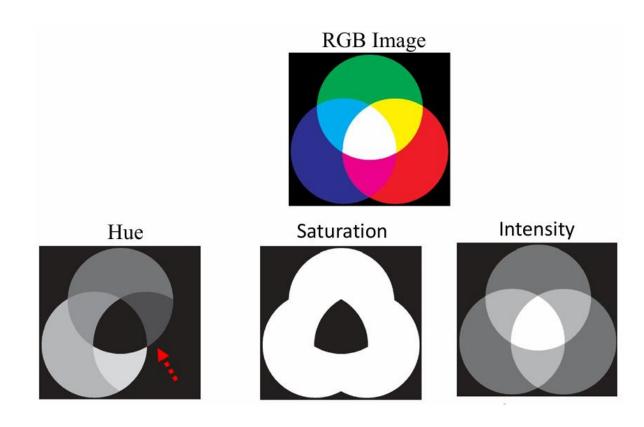


HSI Color Model

- RGB and CMYK is not practical for human interpretation.
- HSI = Hue + Saturation + Intensity
 - **Hue**: the actual color (red, blue, green...)
 - Saturation: purity of the color (dull ↔ vivid)
 - Intensity: brightness/lightness (dark ↔ bright)



HSI Component Images



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

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

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

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

