exercise 2

superpixels and tiling effects

solutions due

until November 14, 2021 at 23:59 via ecampus

students handing in this solution set

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practical advice

The problem specifications you'll find below assume that you work with python / numpy / scipy. They also assume that you have imported

```
import imageio
import numpy as np
import numpy.random as rnd
```

To read- and write images from- and to disc, you may use these functions

```
def imageRead(imgname, pilmode='L', arrtype=np.float):
    return imageio.imread(imgname, pilmode=pilmode).astype(arrtype)

def imageWrite(arrF, imgname, arrtype=np.uint8):
    imageio.imwrite(imgname, arrF.astype(arrtype))
```

To display an intensity image on your screen, you could use the following

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
arrF = imageRead('portrait.png')
plt.imshow(arrF / 255, cmap='gray')
plt.show()
```

To display an (RGB) color image on your screen, you might want to use

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
arrF = imageRead('../exercise1/Data/asterixRGB.png', pilmode='RGB')
plt.imshow(arrF / 255)
plt.show()
```

(naïve) downsampling

A rather simple idea for how to reduce the resolution of a digital (intensity) image is to keep only every m-th row and every n-th column of its pixels. For example, the figure below shows the effect of downsampling by a factor of 2, i.e. downsampling by means of choosing m = n = 2.

Without using *for* loops, implement a function *downsample* with three parameters arrF, m, and n that realizes this manner of downsampling.

For $(m,n) \in \{(4,4),(8,8)\}$, apply your method to image portrait.png and enter your results here







 128×128



 64×64



Also, paste your code here

Kronecker products for (naïve) upsampling

The Kronecker product of an ordered pair of matrices (or 2D *numpy* arrays) A, B of sizes $k \times l$ and $m \times n$ respectively is defined as

$$oldsymbol{C} = oldsymbol{A} \otimes oldsymbol{B} = egin{bmatrix} a_{11}oldsymbol{B} & a_{12}oldsymbol{B} & \cdots & a_{1l}oldsymbol{B} \ a_{21}oldsymbol{B} & a_{22}oldsymbol{B} & \cdots & a_{2l}oldsymbol{B} \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ a_{k1}oldsymbol{B} & a_{k2}oldsymbol{B} & \cdots & a_{kl}oldsymbol{B} \end{bmatrix}$$

and therefore produces a matrix (or 2D array) C of size $k \cdot m \times l \cdot n$.

Conveniently, *numpy* provides the function np.kron() for the computation of Kronecker products. This allows us to realize a rather simple idea for *upsampling* a small (intensity) image: assuming that the given image is stored in an array F, we may simply compute

$$G = F \otimes O$$

where O denotes an $m \times n$ array of all ones.

Now, without using for loops, implement an appropriately parameterized function upsample. Then, load image portrait.png into arrF and compute

```
arrG = upsample(downsample(arrF, m, n), m, n)
```

Choose $(m,n) \in \{(2,2),(4,4)\}$ and enter your results here (the figure already shows how your result should look like for m=n=8)



m = n = 1 m = n = 2



m = n = 4



m = n = 8

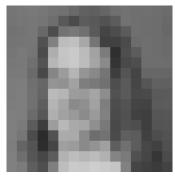
superpixels (part 1)

In the previous task, we have already seen examples of images composed of *superpixels*. These are images of size $M \times N$ whose content consists of uniformly colored tiles of size $m \times n$ where $m \ll M$ and $n \ll N$.

In the previous task, the superpixels resulted from (naïvely) upsampling a small image into a larger one. However, superpixels also arise in an image effect called *pixelize* (which is often used to render faces unrecognizable). In this effect, each pixel in each $m \times n$ tile of a given image is set to the average intensity value within the tile.







given image

 8×8 pixelize

 16×16 pixelize

As always, there are many ways for how to implement this effect. Here is an intuitive C-style implementation that involves four nested for loops

```
def meanSuperPixelV1(arrF, m, n):
    M, N = arrF.shape
    arrG = np.zeros((M, N))

for i in range(0, M, m):
    for j in range(0, N, n):
        intensity_sum = 0
        for k in range(m):
            for l in range(n):
                intensity_sum += arrF[i+k,j+l]
        intensity_avg = intensity_sum / (m*n)
        arrG[i:i+m,j:j+n] = intensity_avg

return arrG
```

We don have to be quite so naïve but can replace the two innermost for loops using the *numpy* function np.mean()

```
def meanSuperPixelV2(arrF, m, n):
    M, N = arrF.shape
    arrG = np.zeros((M, N))

for i in range(0, M, m):
    for j in range(0, N, n):
        arrG[i:i+m,j:j+n] = np.mean(arrF[i:i+m,j:j+n])

return arrG
```

As almost always, *numpy* allows us to get rid of *for* loops alltogether. Here is a solution inspired by the kind of (unfortunately often stupid) answers you will get when asking the **stackoverflow** community (we will not even bother discussing this messy mumble ...)

```
def meanSuperPixelV3(arrF, m, n):
    M, N = arrF.shape
    arrG = np.reshape(arrF, (M*N//n, n))
    arrG = np.mean(arrG, axis=1)
    arrG = np.reshape(arrG, (M,N//n))

arrH = np.reshape(arrG, (m, (M//m)*(N//n)), 'F')
    arrH = np.mean(arrH, axis=0)
    arrH = np.reshape(arrH, (M//m, N//n), 'F')

return np.kron(arrH, np.ones((m,n)))
```

Finally, here is how *numpy* black belts implement the pixelize effect (we will discuss this coding pattern later in the course)

```
def meanSuperPixelV4(arrF, m, n):
    M, N = arrF.shape
    arrA = np.add.reduceat(arrF, np.arange(0,N,n), axis=1) / n
    arrB = np.add.reduceat(arrA, np.arange(0,M,m), axis=0) / m
    arrC = np.repeat(arrB, n, axis=1)
    arrD = np.repeat(arrC, m, axis=0)
```

Here is your task: letting m=n=8, perform runtime measurements for the above four methods on portrait.png and enter your results here enter your result here ...

superpixels (part 2)

Instead of working with the *mean* intensity value in each $m \times n$ tile of an image, we can also pixelize by using *median* intensities.

Implement a function medianSuperPixel simply by replacing np.mean () in meanSuperPixelV2 with np.median ().

For $(m,n) \in \{(4,4),(32,32),(16,32),(32,16)\}$, run meanSuperPixelV2 and medianSuperPixel on portrait.png and paste your results here

put your figure here	put your figure here	put your figure here	put your figure here
put your figure here			

why do we always work with small images?

Some of you may wonder why the example images we consider in these exercises are always rather small (say of resultion 256×256 pixels) . . . To make a long story short, this is in order not to tax you patience. We already saw that large images take longer to process. Just for the fun it, let us therefore test your patience and pixelize a larger color image.

In the Data folder for this exercise, you will find the image

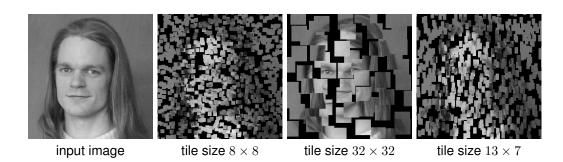
bauckhage.jpg

This image has a resolution of 4068×2712 pixels and is therefore still of moderate size given present day standards. Read this color image into a numpy array arrF, run medianSuperPixel on each of its color layers, and write your result as a PNG image. Experiment with different tile sizes $m \times n$ and paste one of your results here

put your figure here

"simple" tiling effects

Speaking of tiles of size $m \times n$, can you think of a piece of code that creates images like these where tiles have been moved around randomly?



Note: the example with the 13×7 tiles is just to show off ... for your own solution, you may simply focus on square input images and square tiles whose side lengths are proper divisors of the side lengths of the image.

Note: *numpy* code for the above effect can again be realized without any *for* loops ... However, this requires truly advanced insights into the capabilities of *numpy* and has nothing to do with understanding how image processing works. You can therefore devise an intuitive solution with as many *for* loops as you deem necessary. (But brace yourself for likely slow execution times.)

Paste your code here

paste your code here

outer products

The outer product of an ordered pair of vectors (or 1D *numpy* arrays) x, y of sizes m and n respectively is the Kronecker product of x and y^{T}

$$oldsymbol{Z} = oldsymbol{x} \otimes oldsymbol{y}^\intercal = egin{bmatrix} x_1 oldsymbol{y}^\intercal \ x_2 oldsymbol{y}^\intercal \ dots \ x_m oldsymbol{y}^\intercal \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} x_1 y_1 & x_1 y_2 & \cdots & x_1 y_n \ x_2 y_1 & x_2 y_2 & \cdots & x_2 y_n \ dots & dots & dots & dots \ x_m y_1 & x_m y_2 & \cdots & dots \ x_m y_1 & x_m y_2 & \cdots & x_m y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

and therefore produces a matrix (or 2D array) \boldsymbol{Z} of size $m \times n$.

Note that we typically write the vector outer product $x \otimes y^{\mathsf{T}}$ as xy^{T} and that the entries of Z are given by $z_{ij} = x_i y_j$.

Conveniently, *numpy* provides the function *np.outer()* for the computation of outer products of vectors (or 1D arrays). This will come in handy later in this course. For now, execute the following snippet

```
sigma = 5.
msize = int(np.ceil(sigma * 2.575) * 2 + 1)

xs = np.arange(msize)
vecG = np.exp(-0.5 * ((xs-msize/2) / sigma)**2).reshape(msize,1)
vecG /= np.sum(vecG)
```

determine the size of array vecG and enter your result here enter your result here ...

Next, execute the following snippet

```
matG = np.outer(vecG, vecG)
matG /= np.sum(matG)
```

determine the size of array matG and enter your result here enter your result here ...

Note: There is a difference between the outer product of two vectors and the Kronecker product of two vectors. To see this difference for yourself, execute the following snippet

```
vecH = np.kron(vecG, vecG)
vecH /= np.sum(vecH)
```

determine the size of array vecH and enter your result here enter your result here ...

Finally, turn the two arrays <code>vecG</code> and <code>matG</code> into two arrays <code>arrg</code> and <code>arrG</code> which you can save as PNG images. To this end, execute the following snippet

```
arrg = np.interp(vecG, (vecG.min(), vecG.max()), (0, 255))
arrG = np.interp(matG, (matG.min(), matG.max()), (0, 255))
```

then write the resulting images to disc and have a look at them.

Can you "see" what you just computed? That is, do you recognize what the two images visualize?

enter your discussion here ...