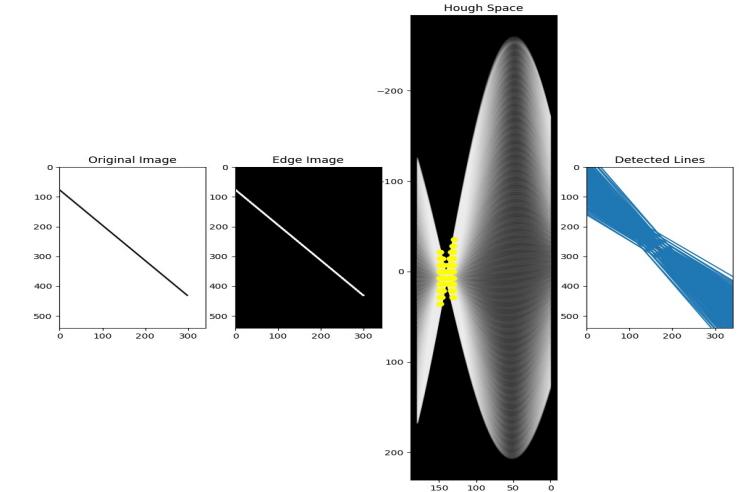
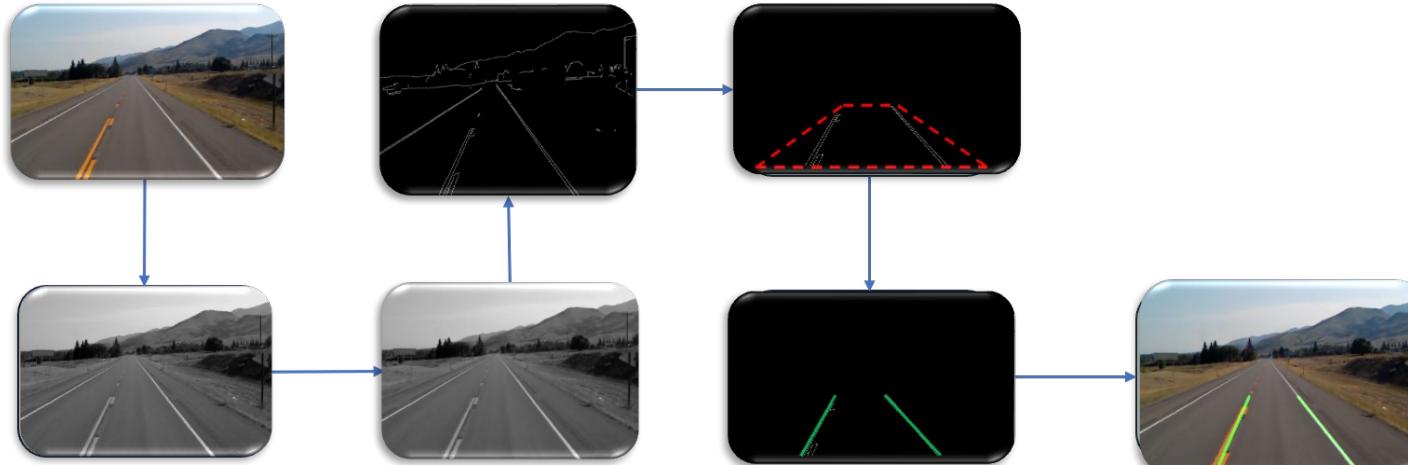


Lane Detection

(Computer Vision Foundation)



Vinh Dinh Nguyen
PhD in Computer Science

Outline

- **Background Subtraction Assignment: Review**
- **Grayscale Conversion**
- **Image Blurring Techniques**
- **Region of Interest (ROI)**
- **Line Detection based on Hough Transform**
- **Lane Detection Demo**

Outline

- **Background Subtraction Assignment: Review**
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Assignment 1 Review

AI VIET NAM – COURSE 2023

Background Subtraction (Computer Vision Foundation)

Ngày 30 tháng 9 năm 2023

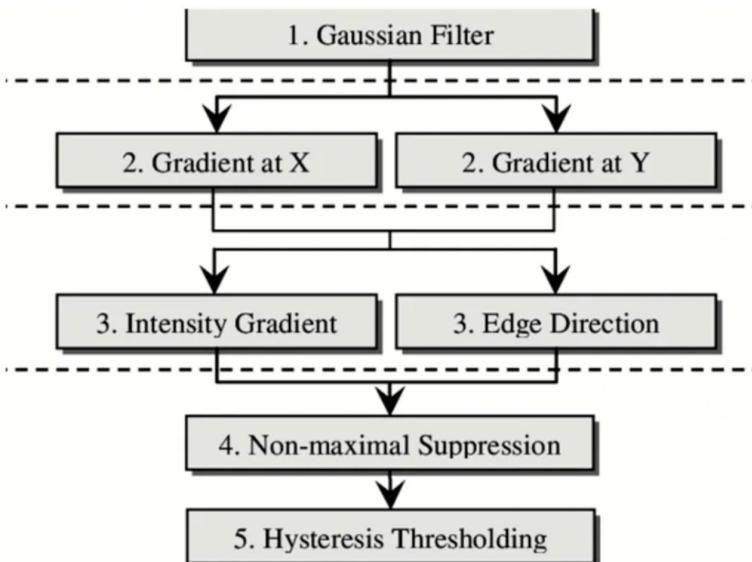
Giới thiệu về bài tập đếm số lượng người ra vào siêu thị trong ngày sử dụng giải thuật trừ nền (Background Subtraction) :

Cho trước thông tin hình ảnh lưu trữ khách hàng đến siêu thị được lưu trữ dưới dạng video file (dataset.mp4), hãy phát triển chương trình đếm tổng số người ra vào siêu thị bằng cách sử dụng các kỹ thuật computer vision cơ bản như background subtraction, contour detection, erosion và dilation. Hình 1 thể hiện dữ liệu mẫu của bài toán cần giải quyết.

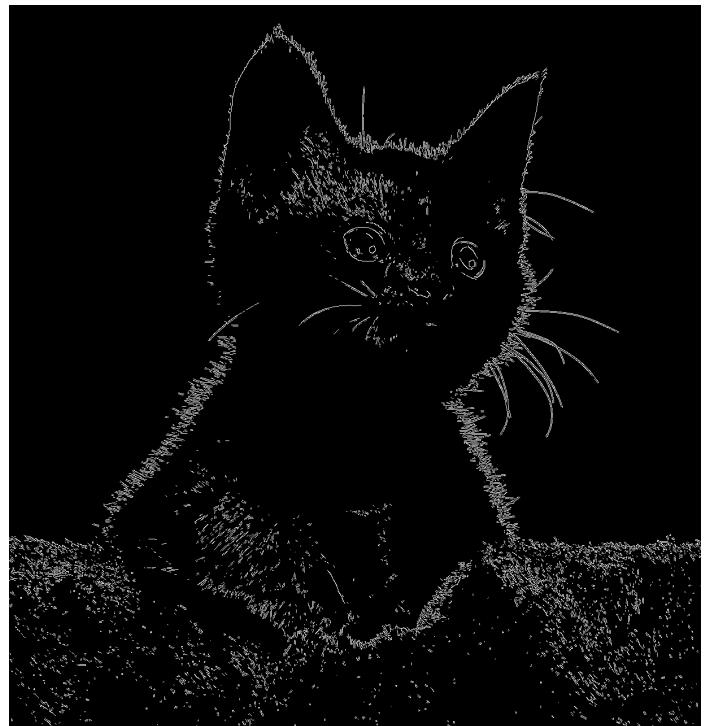


Edge Detection: Canny Algorithm

With edge detection, we can determine the objects on the image without other details



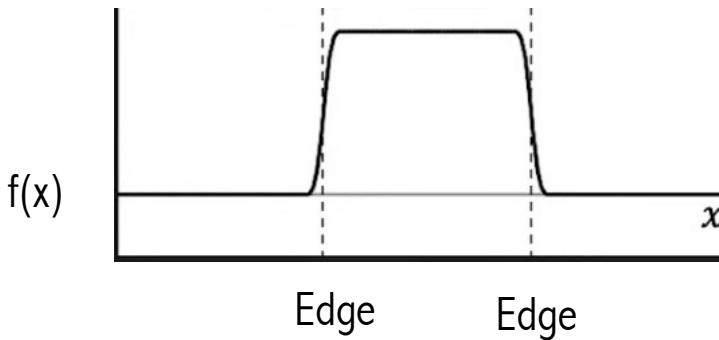
```
lower = 50 # Lower Threshold  
upper = 150 # Upper threshold
```



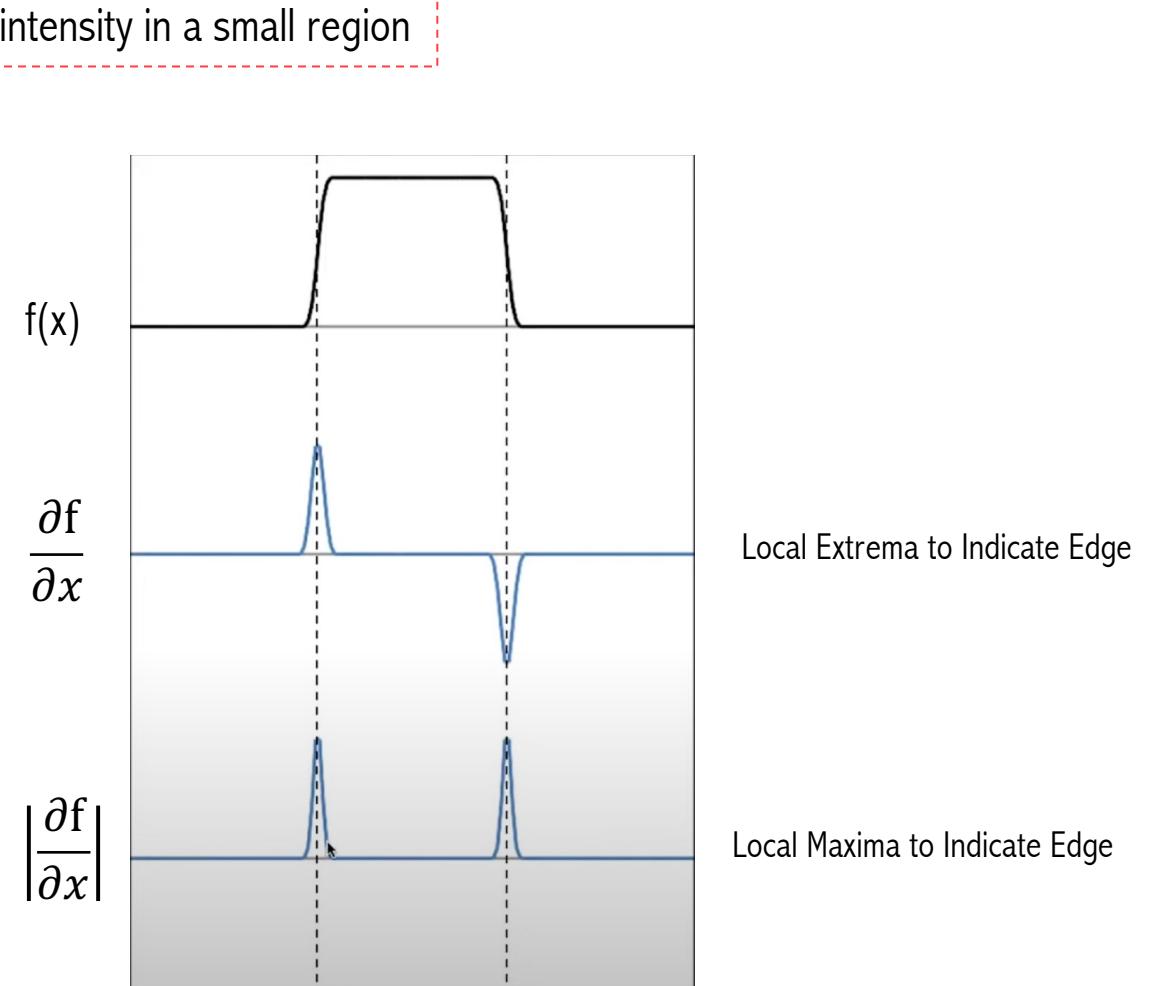
```
lower = 250 # Lower Threshold  
upper = 300 # Upper threshold
```

```
#Edge Detection Canny Algorithm  
# Setting parameter values  
t_lower = 250 # Lower Threshold  
t_upper = 300 # Upper threshold  
  
# Applying the Canny Edge filter  
edge_canny = cv2.Canny(gray_image, t_lower, t_upper)  
  
cv2_imshow(edge_canny)
```

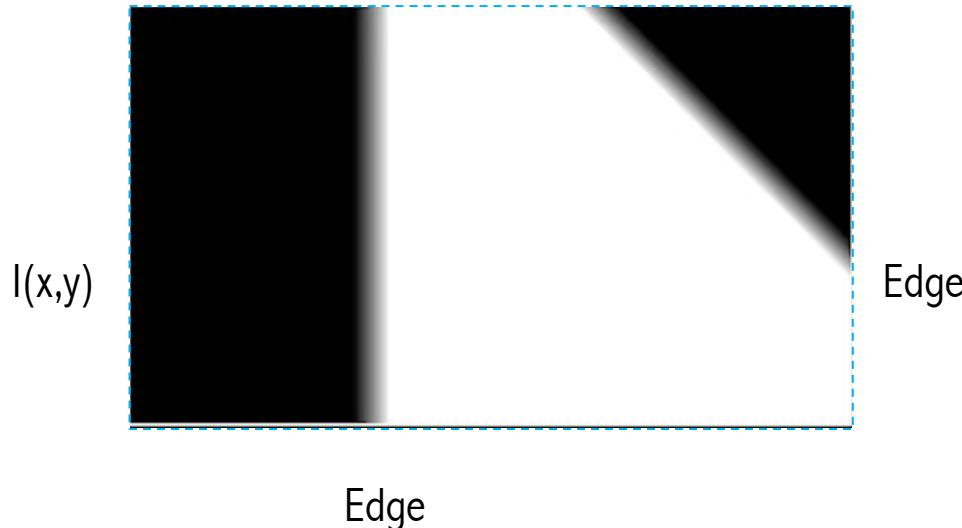
1D Edge Detection



Basic calculus: Derivative of a continuous functions represent the amount of changes in the function

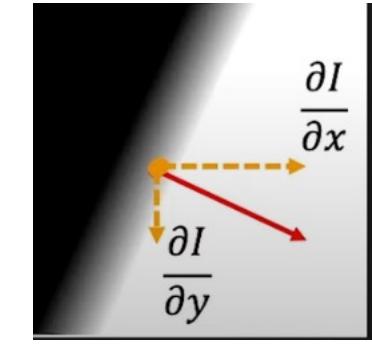
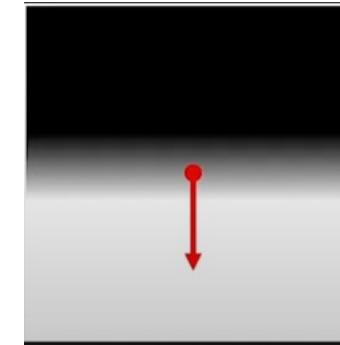
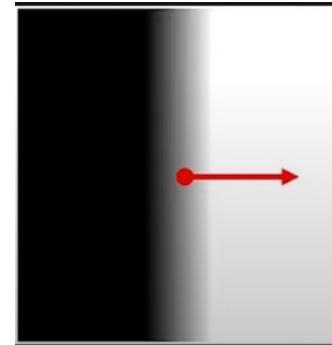


2D Edge Detection



Basic calculus: Partial derivatives of 2D continuous function represents the amount of changes along each dimension.

$$\nabla I = \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial I}{\partial y} \right)$$



$$\nabla I = \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x}, 0 \right)$$

$$\nabla I = \left(0, \frac{\partial I}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$\nabla I = \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial I}{\partial y} \right)$$

Continuous case

$$\frac{\partial I(x, y)}{\partial x} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{I(x + \Delta x, y) - I(x, y)}{\Delta x}$$

Discrete case

$$\frac{\partial I(x, y)}{\partial x} \approx \frac{I(x+1, y) - I(x-1, y)}{2}$$

$$\frac{\partial I(x, y)}{\partial y} \approx \frac{I(x, y+1) - I(x, y-1)}{2}$$

Can be implemented as Convolution

Gaussian Filter



$$G(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

```
def gaussian_kernel(size, sigma):
    if size % 2 == 0:
        size = size + 1

    max_point = size // 2 # both directions (x,y) maximum cell start point
    min_point = -max_point # both directions (x,y) minimum cell start point

    K = np.zeros((size, size)) # kernel matrix
    for x in range(min_point, max_point + 1):
        for y in range(min_point, max_point + 1):
            value = (1 / (2 * np.pi * (sigma ** 2))) * np.exp((- (x ** 2 + y ** 2))
                                                               / (2 * (sigma ** 2)))
            K[x - min_point, y - min_point] = value

    return K

kernel = gaussian_kernel(5, 1.4)
img = cv2.imread("/Users/nguyendinhvinh2004@gmail.com/Downloads/canny_edge_detector-m")
img_gaussian = cv2.filter2D(img, -1, kernel)

cv2.imshow("img", img)
cv2.imshow("img_gaussian", img_gaussian)

cv2.waitKey(0)

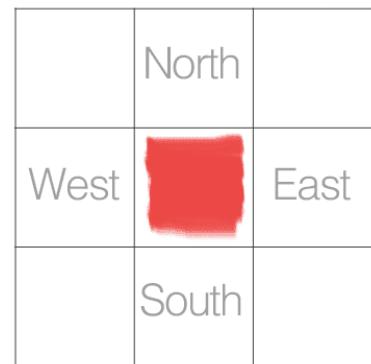
close_window_os()
```

Image Gradient

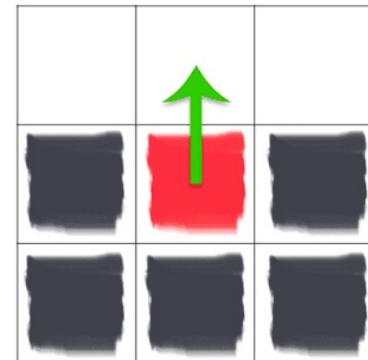
131	162	232	84	91	207
164	93	139	101	237	109
243	26	252	196	135	126
185	135	230	48	61	225
157	124	25	14	102	108
5	155	116	218	232	249



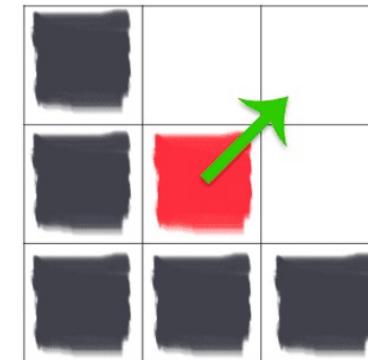
An image gradient is defined as a directional change in image intensity



$$\theta = -90^\circ$$



$$\theta = -45^\circ$$



Vertical change $G_y = I(x, y + 1) - I(x, y - 1)$

The gradient magnitude is used to measure how strong the change in image intensity is

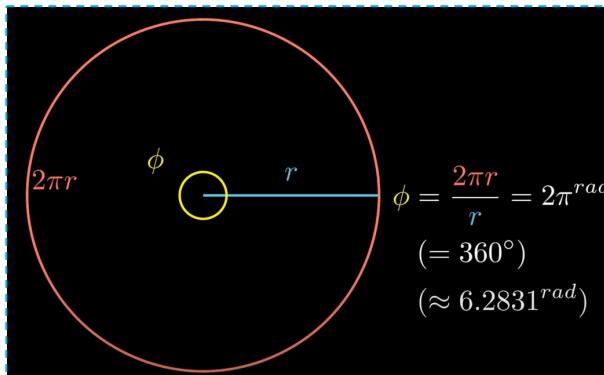
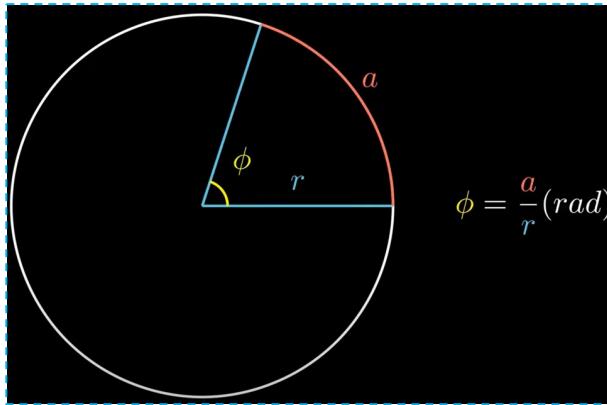
Horizontal change $G_x = I(x + 1, y) - I(x - 1, y)$

$$G = \sqrt{G_x^2 + G_y^2}$$

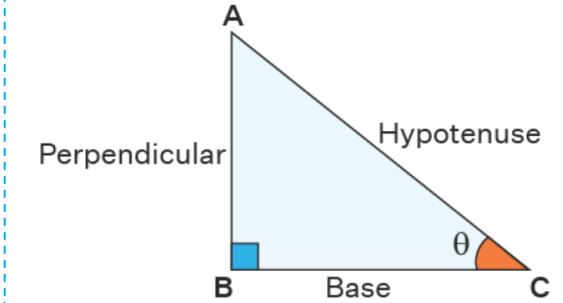
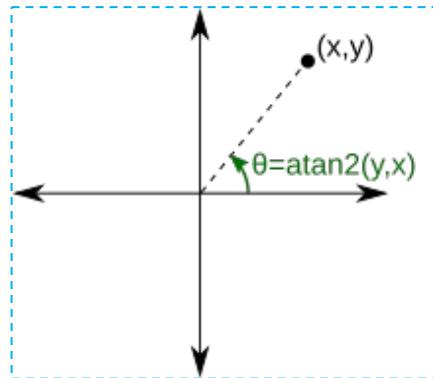
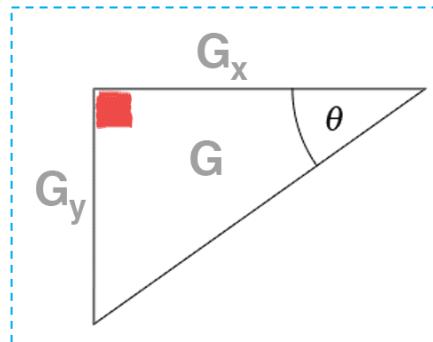
The gradient orientation is used to determine in which direction the change in intensity is pointing

$$\theta = \text{arctan2}(G_y, G_x) \times \left(\frac{180}{\pi}\right)$$

Image Gradient



$$\theta = \arctan2(G_y, G_x) \times \left(\frac{180}{\pi} \right)$$



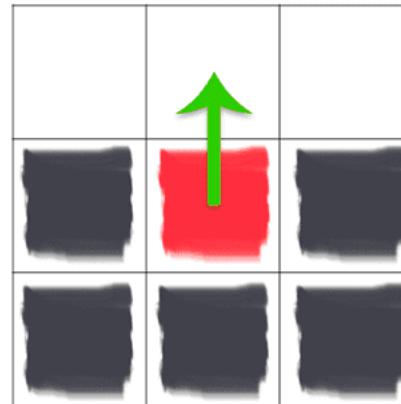
$$\tan \theta = \frac{\text{Perpendicular}}{\text{Base}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\text{Perpendicular}}{\text{Base}} \right)$$

$$\text{atan2}(y, x) = \begin{cases} \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) & \text{if } x > 0, \\ \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) + \pi & \text{if } x < 0 \text{ and } y \geq 0, \\ \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) - \pi & \text{if } x < 0 \text{ and } y < 0, \\ +\frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ and } y > 0, \\ -\frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ and } y < 0, \\ \text{undefined} & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ and } y = 0. \end{cases}$$

Image Gradient

255	255	255
0	255	0
0	0	0



255	0	0
255	255	0
255	255	255



$$G = \sqrt{0^2 + (-255)^2} = 255$$

$$G_x = 0 - 0 = 0$$

$$G_y = 0 - 255 = -255$$

$$\theta = \text{arctan2}(-255, 0) \times \left(\frac{180}{\pi}\right) = -90^\circ$$

$$G = \sqrt{(-255)^2 + 255^2} = 360.62$$

$$\theta = \text{arctan2}(255, -255) \times \left(\frac{180}{\pi}\right) = 135^\circ$$

Image Gradient



X-gradient



Y-gradient



Gradient magnitude

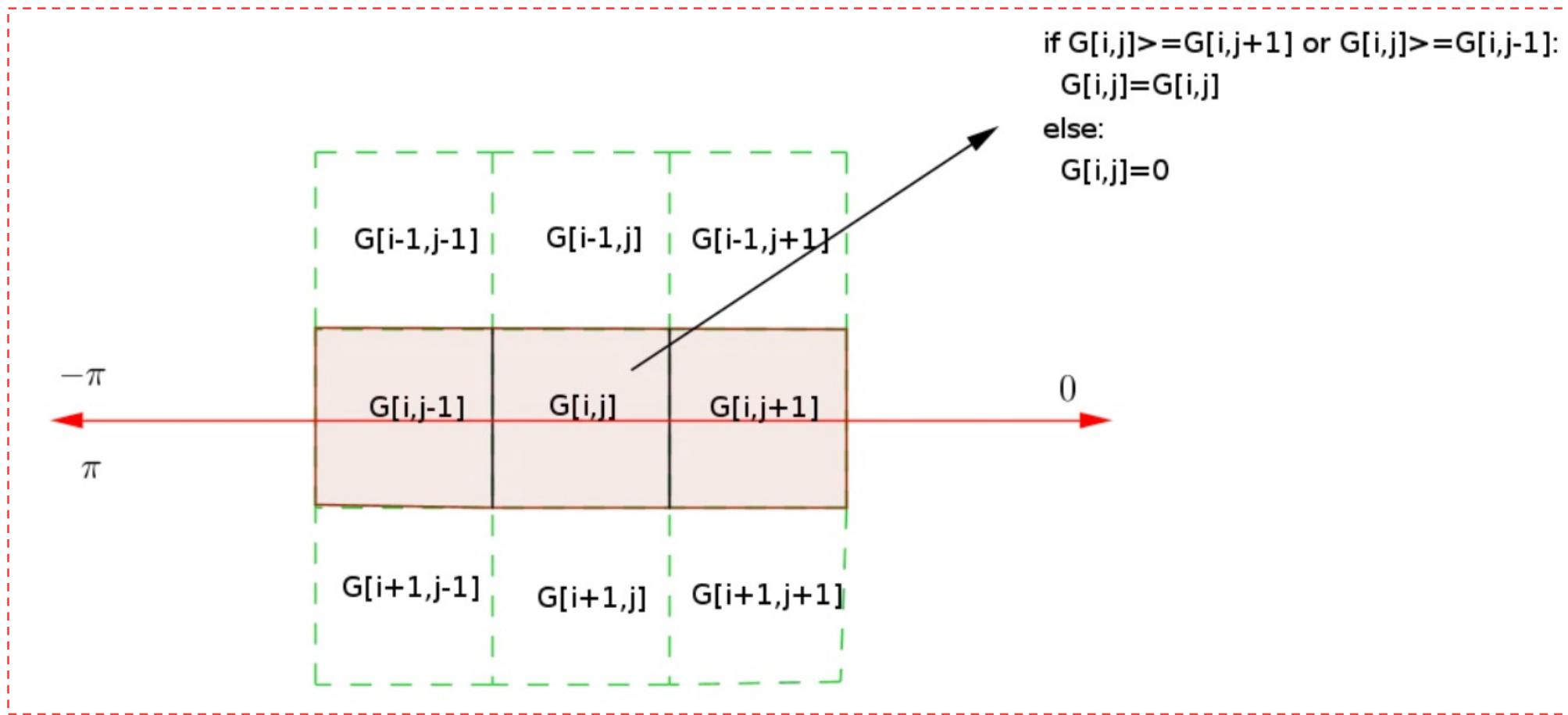


Gradient Direction

```
1 img_gaussian = np.float64(img_gaussian)
2 mask_x = np.zeros((2, 1))
3 mask_x[0] = -1
4 mask_x[1] = 1
5
6 I_x = cv2.filter2D(img_gaussian, -1, mask_x)
7 mask_y = mask_x.T
8 I_y = cv2.filter2D(img_gaussian, -1, mask_y)
9
10 Gm = (I_x ** 2 + I_y ** 2) ** 0.5
11 Gd = np.rad2deg(np.arctan2(I_y, I_x))
12
13 cv2.imshow("I_x", I_x)
14 cv2.imshow("I_y", I_y)
15 cv2.imshow("Gm", Gm)
16 cv2.imshow("Gd", Gd)
17
18 cv2.waitKey(0)
19 close_window_os()
```

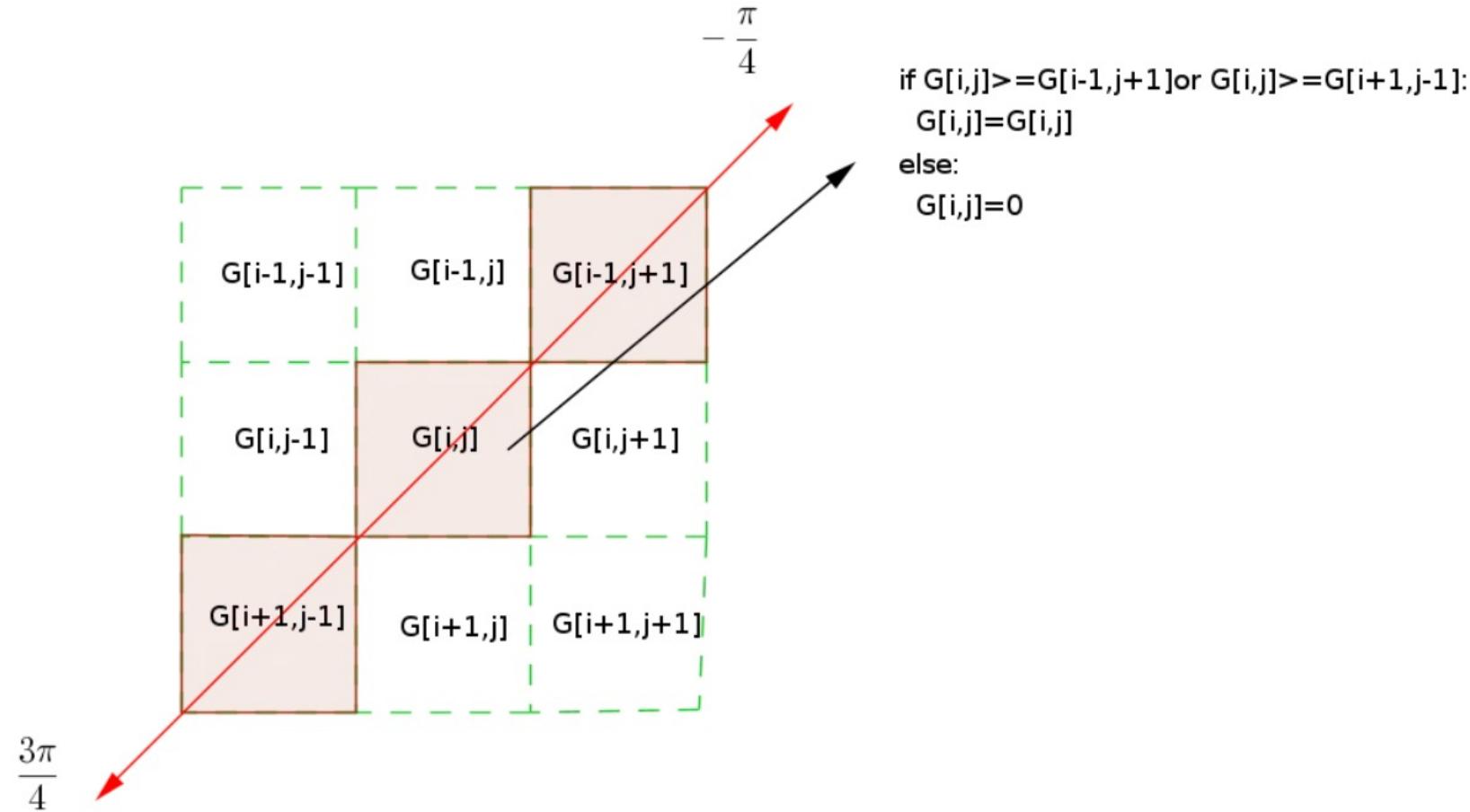
Gradient magnitude edges thicker than many edge detection. Next step is the make edges one pixel thick.

Non-Maximal Suppression

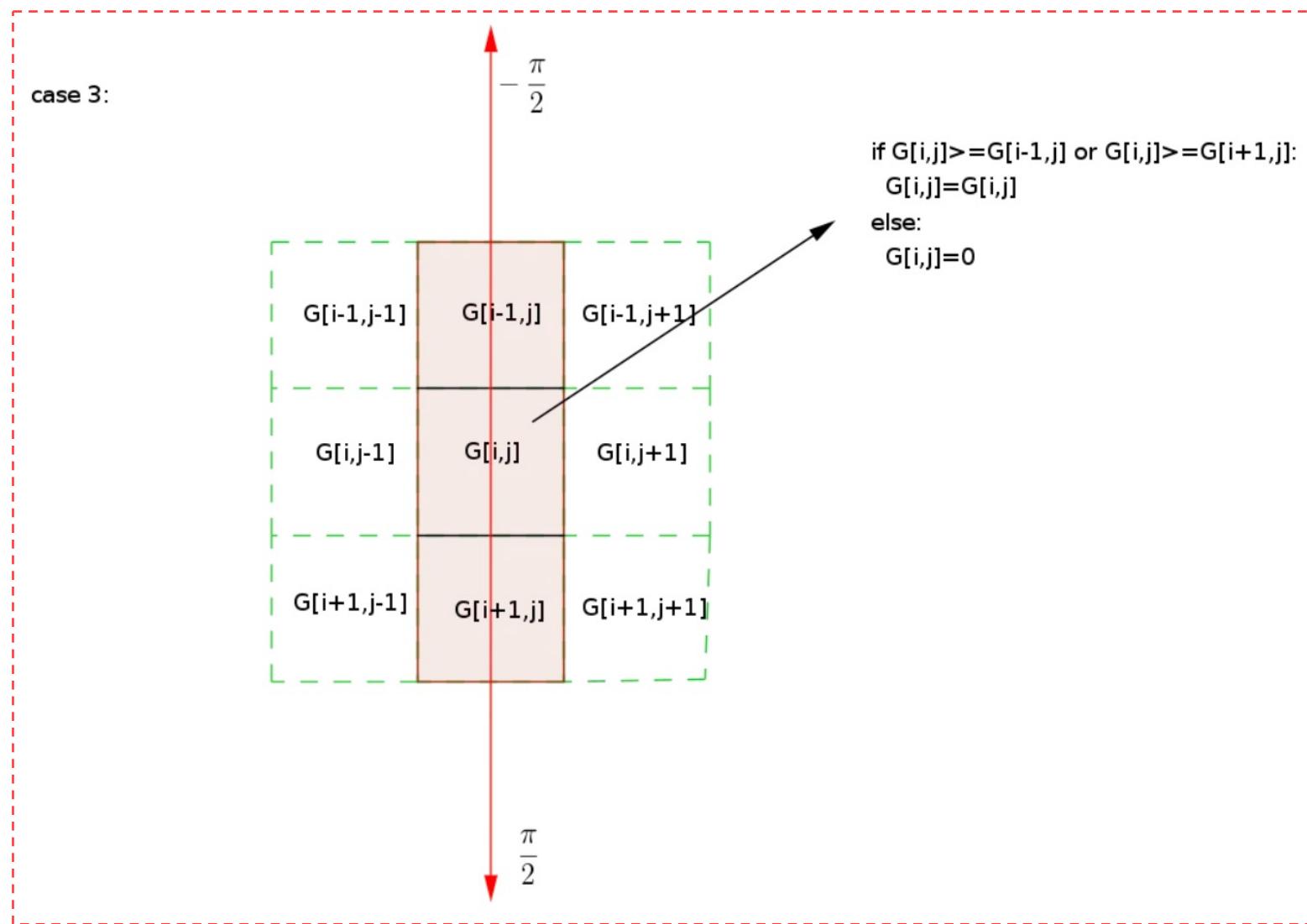


Non-Maximal Suppression

case 2:

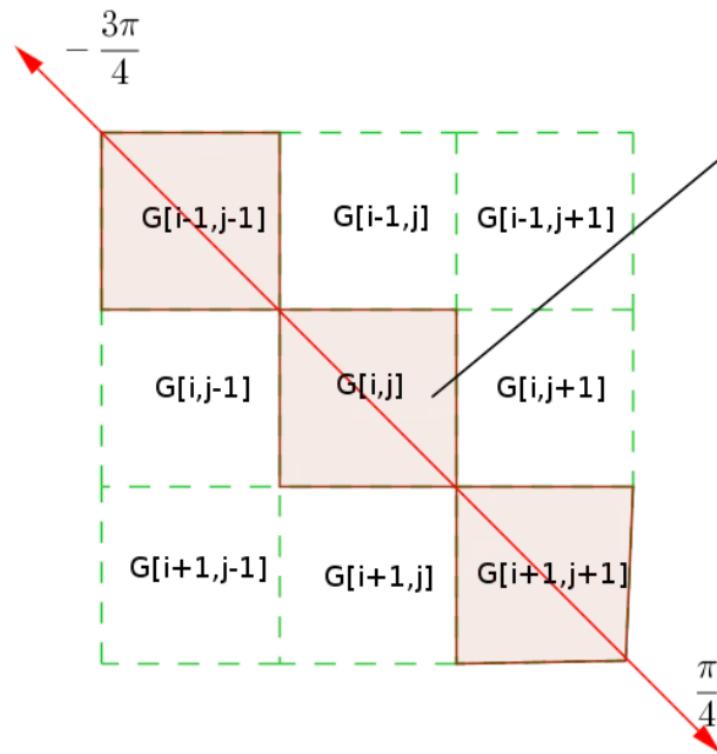


Non-Maximal Suppression



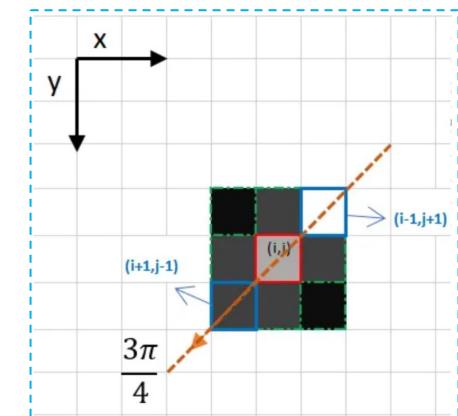
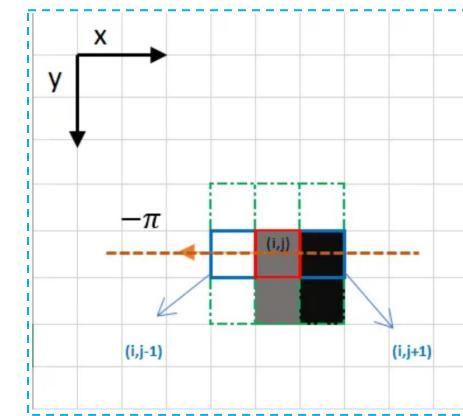
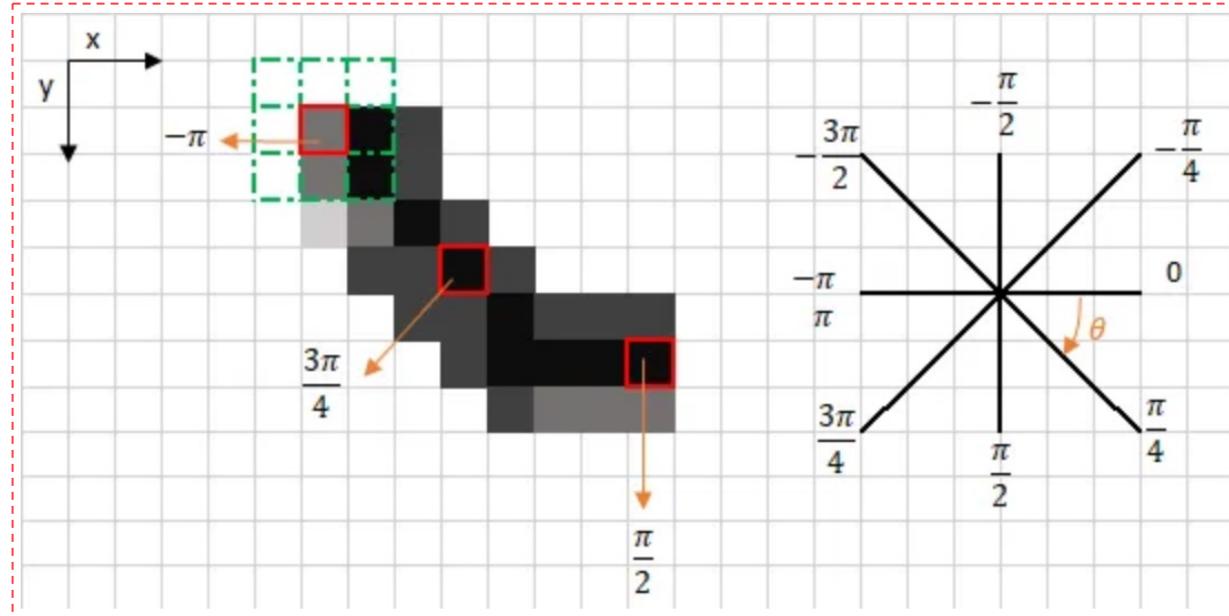
Non-Maximal Suppression

case 4:



```
if G[i,j]>=G[i-1,j-1]or G[i,j]>=G[i+1,j+1]:  
    G[i,j]=G[i,j]  
else:  
    G[i,j]=0
```

Non-Maximal Suppression



Hãy cho biết kết quả khi thực hiện Non-Maximal Suppression trên 2 ví dụ trên?

Check every pixel on the Gradient magnitude image and choose 2 neighbor of the pixel according to Gradient Direction. If center pixel is larger than the both neighbors then keep it, otherwise set the pixel to 0.

Non-Maximal Suppression

```
def f_NMS(Gm, Gd):
    num_rows, num_cols = Gm.shape[0], Gm.shape[1]
    Gd_bins = 45 * (np.round(Gd / 45))

    G_NMS = np.zeros(Gm.shape)

    neighbor_a, neighbor_b = 0., 0.

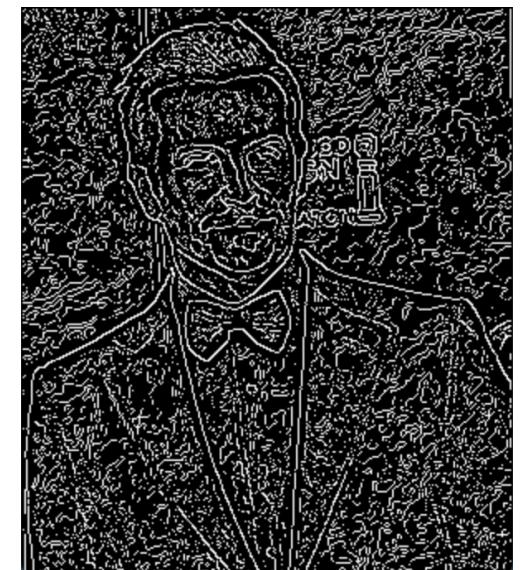
    for r in range(1, num_rows - 1):
        for c in range(1, num_cols - 1):
            angle = Gd_bins[r, c]
            if angle == 180. or angle == -180. or angle == 0.:
                neighbor_a, neighbor_b = Gm[r + 1, c], Gm[r - 1, c]
            elif angle == 90. or angle == -90.:
                neighbor_a, neighbor_b = Gm[r, c - 1], Gm[r, c + 1]
            elif angle == 45. or angle == -135.:
                neighbor_a, neighbor_b = Gm[r + 1, c + 1], Gm[r - 1, c - 1]
            elif angle == -45. or angle == 135.:
                neighbor_a, neighbor_b = Gm[r - 1, c + 1], Gm[r + 1, c - 1]
            else:
                print("error")
                return

            if Gm[r, c] > neighbor_a and Gm[r, c] > neighbor_b:
                G_NMS[r, c] = Gm[r, c]

    return G_NMS
```



Gradient magnitude



Gradient NMS

Double threshold



Gradient NMS

The double threshold step aims at identifying 3 kinds of pixels:
strong, weak, and non-relevant



Double Threshold

```
def threshold_edge(img, weak_pixel = 75, strong_pixel = 255):
    highT = 0.15
    lowT = 0.05

    highThreshold = img.max() * highT;
    lowThreshold = highThreshold * lowT;

    M, N = img.shape
    res = np.zeros((M,N), dtype=np.uint8)

    strong_i, strong_j = np.where(img >= highThreshold)
    zeros_i, zeros_j = np.where(img < lowThreshold)

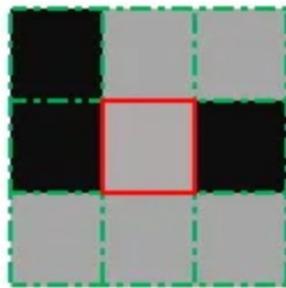
    weak_i, weak_j = np.where((img <= highThreshold) & (img >= lowThreshold))

    res[strong_i, strong_j] = strong_pixel
    res[weak_i, weak_j] = weak_pixel

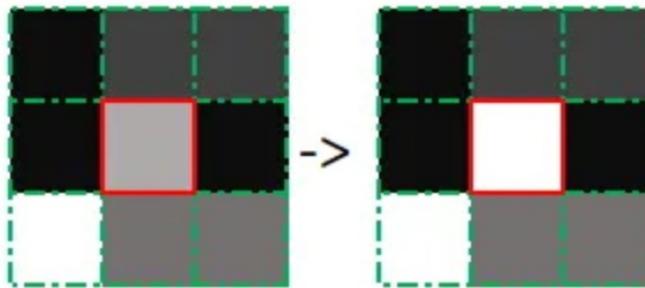
    return res
```

Edge Tracking by Hysteresis

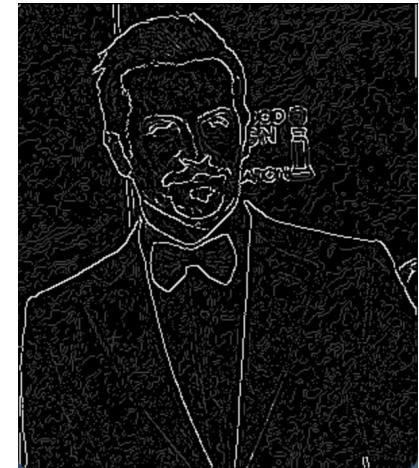
Based on the threshold results, the hysteresis consists of transforming weak pixels into strong ones



No strong pixels around

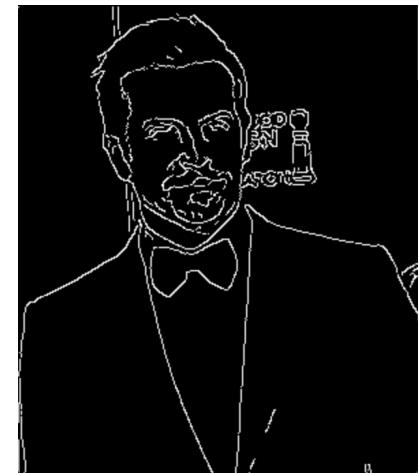


One strong pixel around



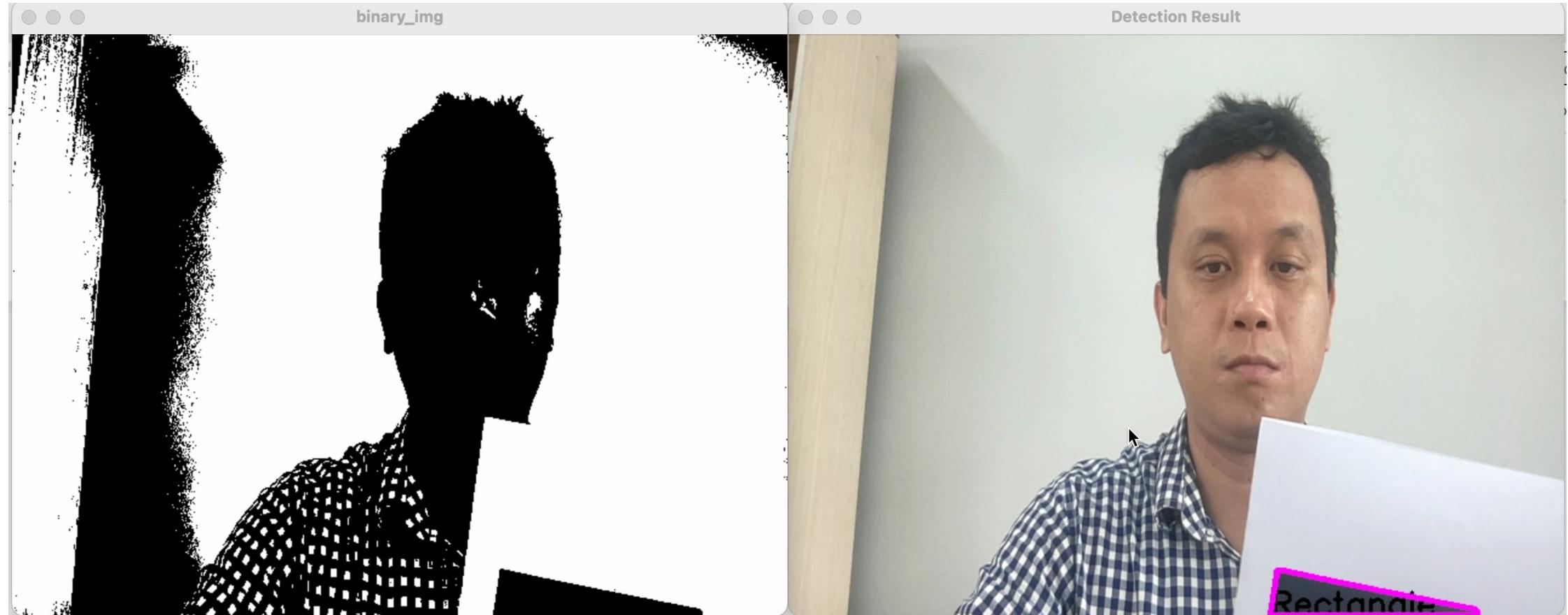
Double Threshold

```
def hysteresis(img, weak, strong=255):
    M, N = img.shape
    for i in range(1, M-1):
        for j in range(1, N-1):
            if (img[i,j] == weak):
                try:
                    if ((img[i+1, j-1] == strong) or (img[i+1, j] == strong) or (img[i+1,
                        or (img[i, j-1] == strong) or (img[i, j+1] == strong)
                        or (img[i-1, j-1] == strong) or (img[i-1, j] == strong) or (img[i-1, j+1] == strong)):
                        img[i, j] = strong
                except IndexError as e:
                    pass
    return img
```

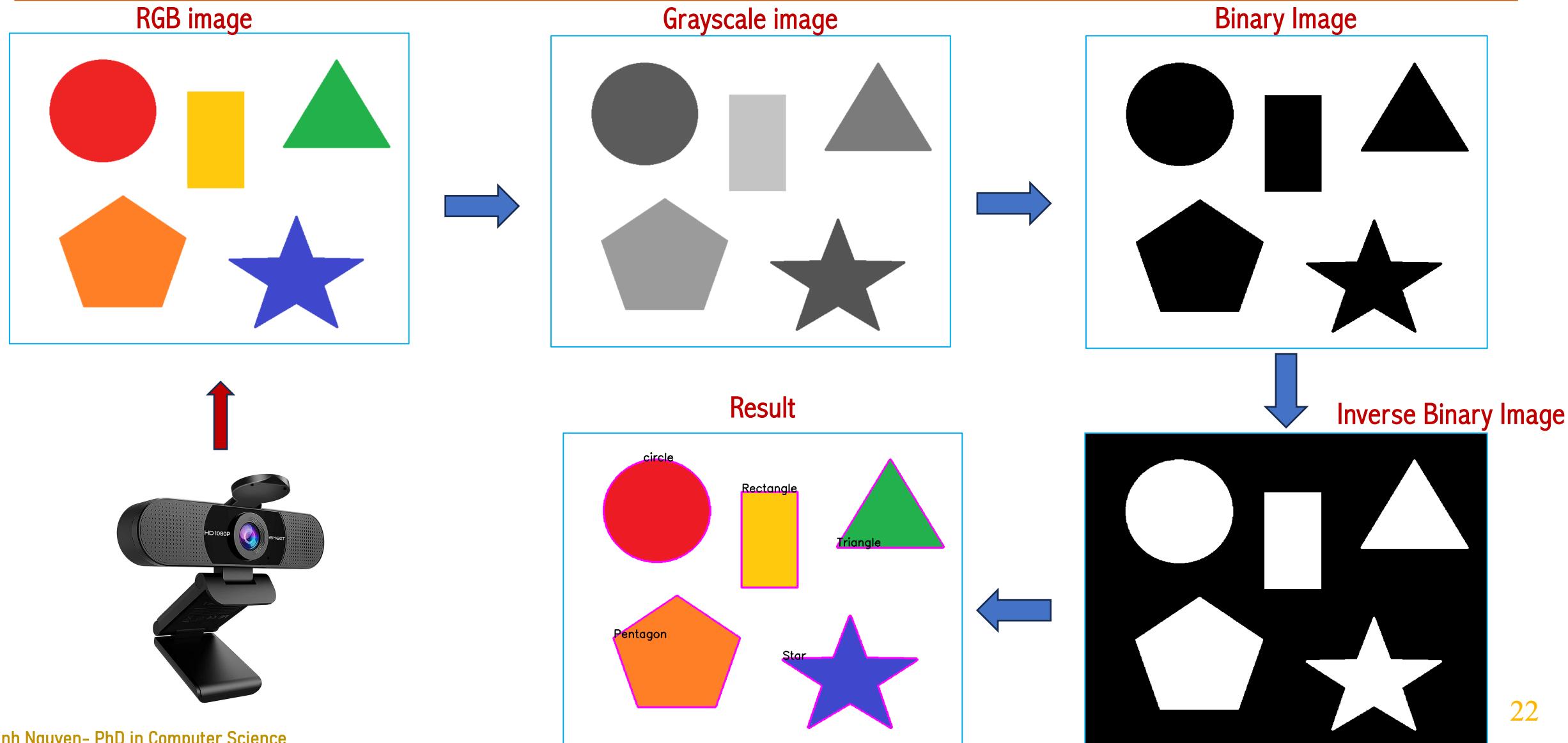


Final Result

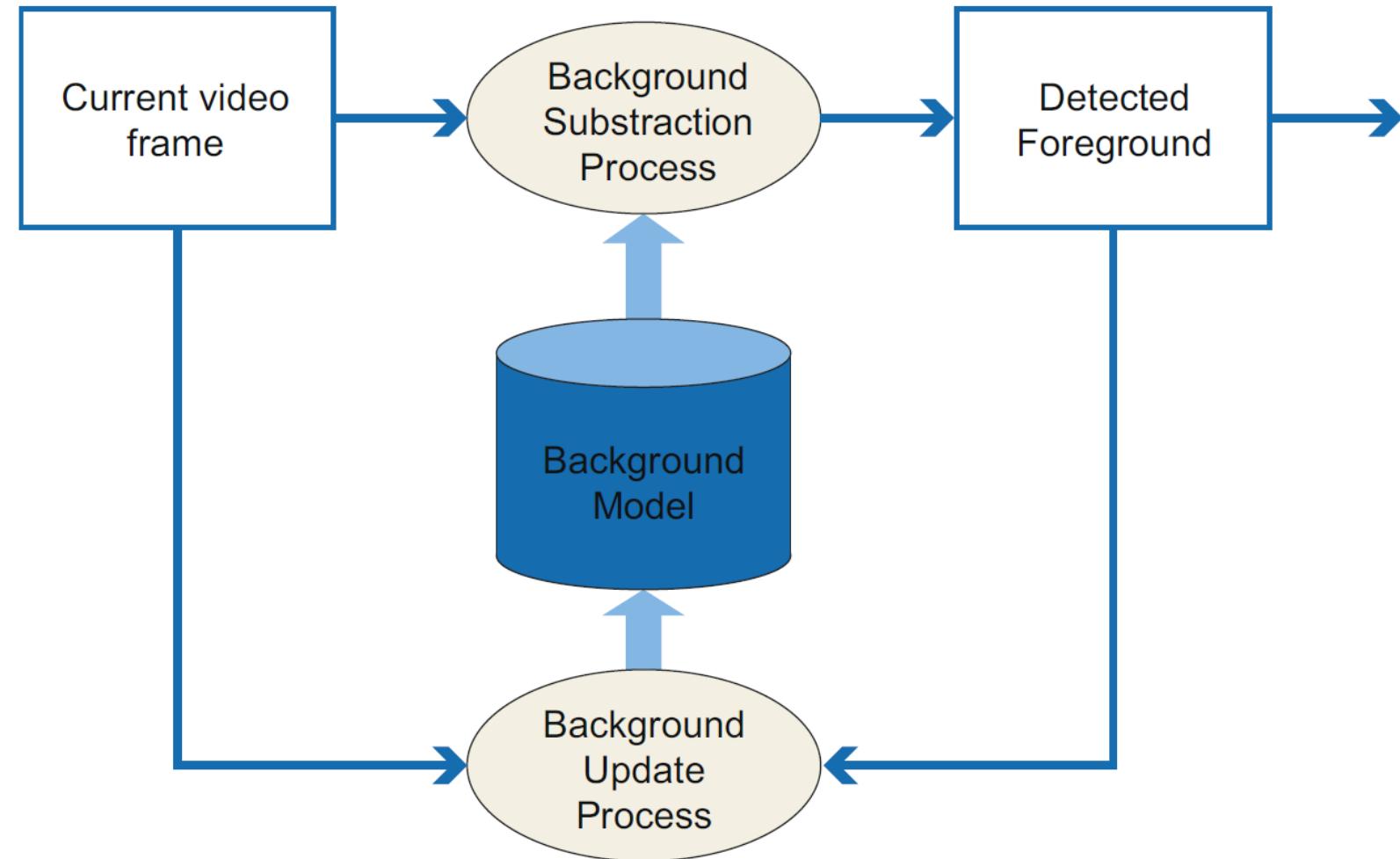
Review Online Shape Detection



Online Shape Detection



Background Subtraction



Simple Approach

1. Estimate the background for time t.
2. Subtract the estimated background from the input frame.
3. Apply a threshold T to the absolute difference to get the foreground mask.

Depending on the object structure, speed, frame rate and global threshold, this approach may or may not be useful



-

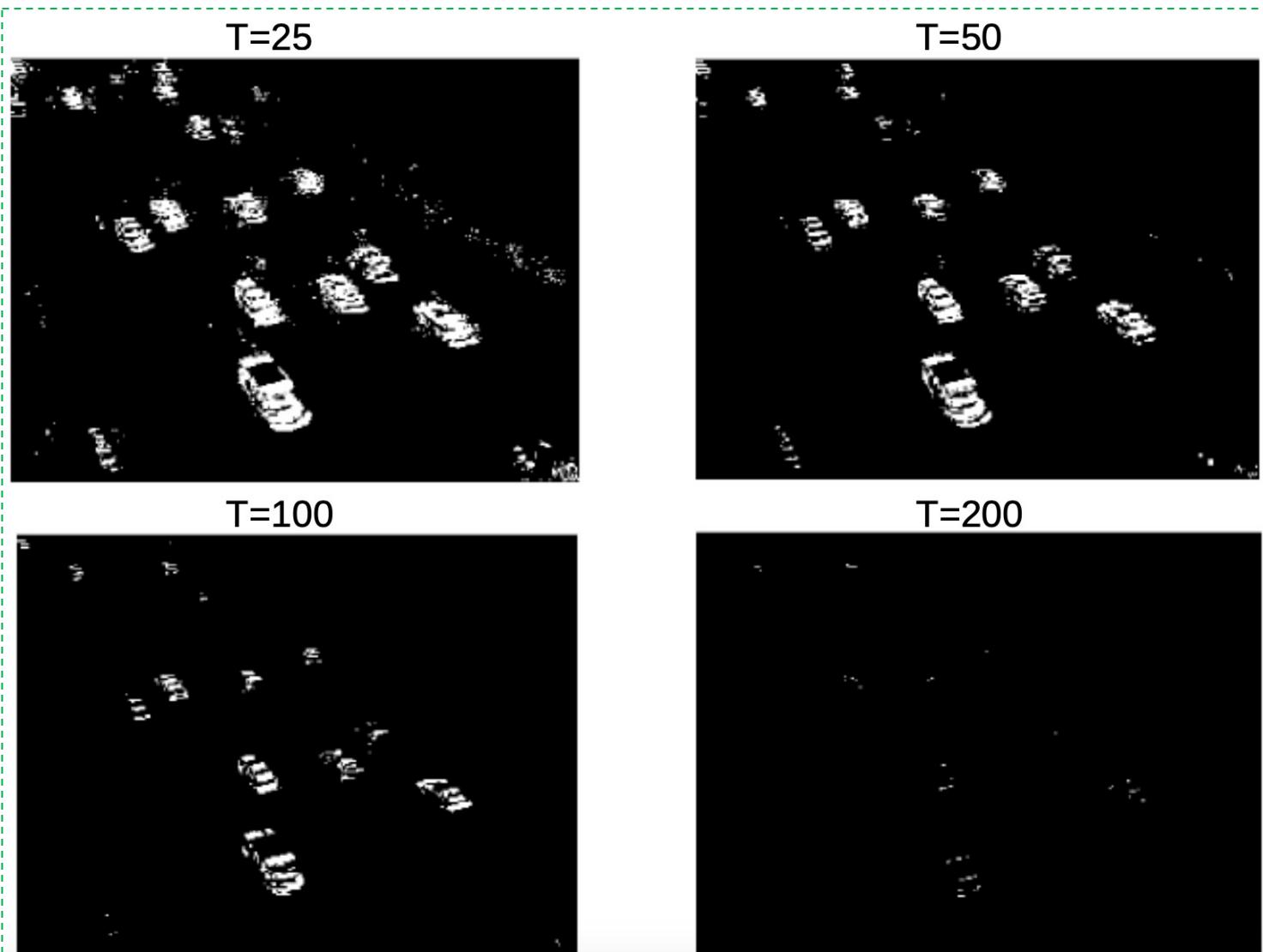


how can we estimate the background?

$$B(x, y, t) = I(x, y, t - 1)$$

$$|I(x, y, t) - I(x, y, t - 1)| > T$$

Simple Approach



$$B(x, y, t) = I(x, y, t - 1)$$

$$|I(x, y, t) - I(x, y, t - 1)| > T$$

Depending on the object structure, speed, frame rate and global threshold, this approach may or may not be useful

Mean Filter

The background is the mean of the previous n frames

$$B(x, y, t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} I(x, y, t - i)$$
$$\left| I(x, y, t) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} I(x, y, t - i) \right| > T$$

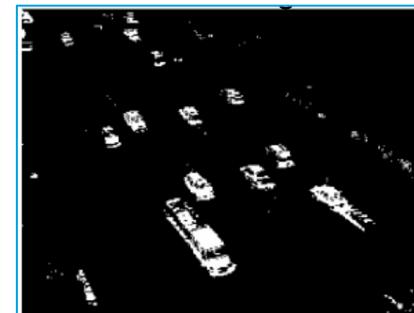


Median Filter

Assuming that the background is more likely to appear in a scene, we can use the median of the previous n frames as the background model

$$B(x, y, t) = \text{median}_{i=0 \dots n-1} (I(x, y, t - i))$$
$$\left| I(x, y, t) - \text{median}_{i=0 \dots n-1} (I(x, y, t - i)) \right| > T$$

$n = 10$



Mean Filter

$n = 20$



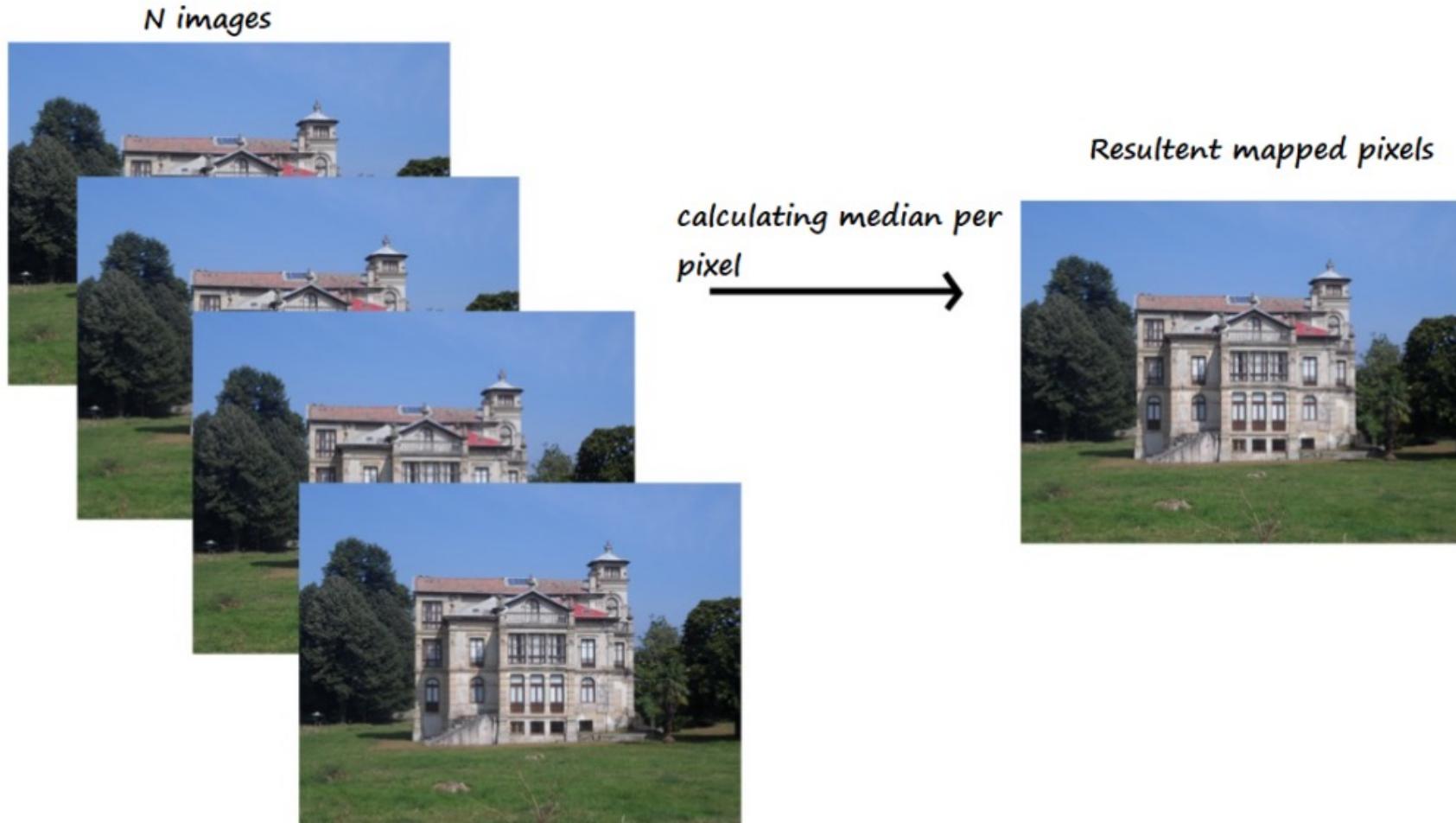
$n = 50$



Median Filter



Temporal Average Filter



Dicussion

Advantages:

- Extremely easy to implement and use!
- All pretty fast.
- Corresponding background models are not constant, they change over time

Disadvantages:

- Accuracy of frame differencing depends on object speed and frame rate!
- Mean and median background models have relatively high memory requirements.
- There is one global threshold, Th , for all pixels in the image



Limitation

Quick Look at K-mean

Advantages:

1. Select initial choice of K means
2. Determine which sample belongs to which cluster

$$\Delta_{nk} = 1 \text{ if } k = \operatorname{argmin} \|x_n - \mu_k\|^2$$

$$\Delta_{nk} = 0 \text{ otherwise}$$

3. Define cost function

$$J = \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \Delta_{nk} (x_n - \mu_k)^2$$

4. Minimize the cost function based with respective to:

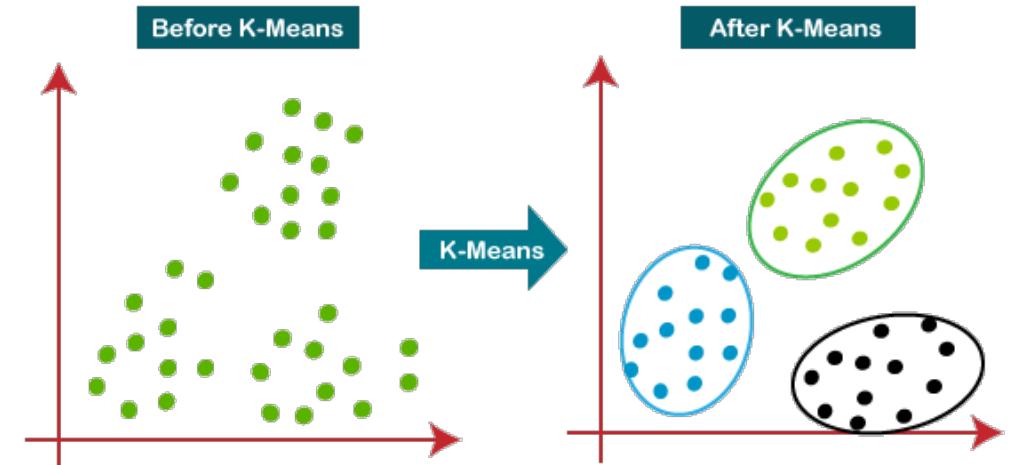
$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mu_k} = -2 \sum_{n=1}^N \Delta_{nk} (x_n - \mu_k) = -2 \sum_{n=1}^N \Delta_{nk} (x_n - \mu_k) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \Delta_{nk} x_n = \sum_{n=1}^N \Delta_{nk} \mu_k$$

$$\mu_k = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \Delta_{nk} x_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N \Delta_{nk}}$$

5. Go to step 2

6. Do it until no further changes in assignment or until reach to maximum number of iterations



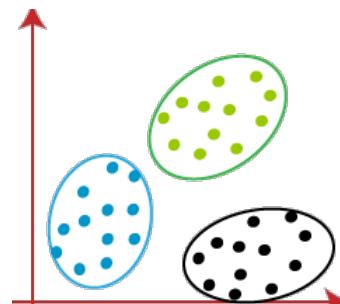
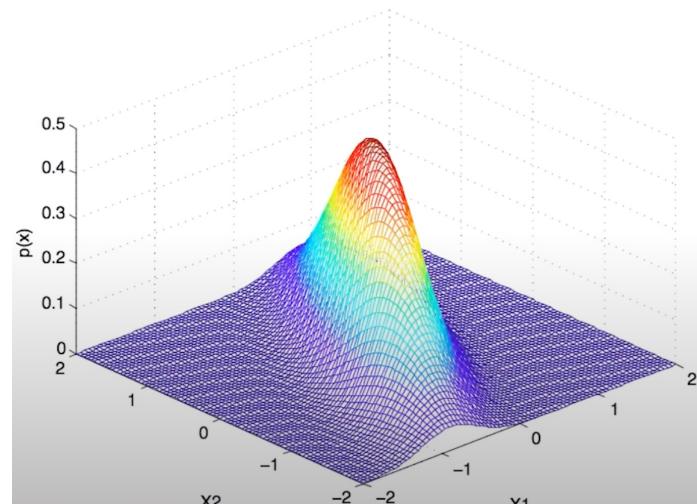
Quick look at Gaussian Mixture Model

Multivariate Gaussian distribution for $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$:

$$p(\mathbf{x} | \mu, \Sigma) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{d}{2}} |\Sigma|^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x}-\mu)}$$

- μ is vector of means
- Σ is covariance matrix

pdf when $\mu = [0, 0]$ and $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$



Normal Distribution Formula

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

μ = mean of x
 σ = standard deviation of x
 $\pi \approx 3.14159 \dots$
 $e \approx 2.71828 \dots$

Mixture model:

- observation \mathbf{x}_i in cluster c_i with K clusters
- model each cluster with a Gaussian distribution

$$\mathbf{x}_i | c_i = k \sim N(\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

How do we find c_1, \dots, c_n (clusters) and $(\mu_1, \Sigma_1), \dots, (\mu_K, \Sigma_K)$ (cluster centers)?

Quick look at Gaussian Mixture Model

First, let's simplify the model:

- covariance matrices have only diagonal elements,

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_K^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- set $\sigma_1^2 = \dots = \sigma_K^2$, suppose known

Next, use a method similar to K-means:

- start with random cluster centers
- associate observations to clusters by (log-)likelihood,

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\mathbf{x}_i | c_i = k) &= -\frac{d}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log \left(\prod_{j=1}^d \sigma_{k,j}^2 \right) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^d (x_{i,j} - \mu_{k,j})^2 / \sigma_{k,j}^2 \\ &\propto -d \log(\sigma_k) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_k^2} \sum_{j=1}^d (x_{i,j} - \mu_{k,j})^2 \\ &\propto -\sum_{j=1}^d (x_{i,j} - \mu_{k,j})^2 \end{aligned}$$

- refit centers μ_1, \dots, μ_K given clusters by

$$\mu_{k,j} = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{c_i=k} x_{i,j}$$

- recluster observations...

Quick look at Gaussian Mixture Model

clustering with K-means

minimize distance

$$d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mu_k) = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^d (x_{i,j} - \mu_{k,j})^2}$$

update means with K-means

use average

$$\mu_{k,j} = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{c_i=k} x_{i,j}$$

clustering with GMM

maximize likelihood

$$\ell(\mathbf{x}_i | c_i = k) \propto -\sum_{j=1}^d (x_{i,j} - \mu_{k,j})^2$$

update means with GMM

use average

$$\mu_{k,j} = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{c_i=k} x_{i,j}$$

Quick look at Gaussian Mixture Model

OK, now what if

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_K^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_K^2$ can take different values?

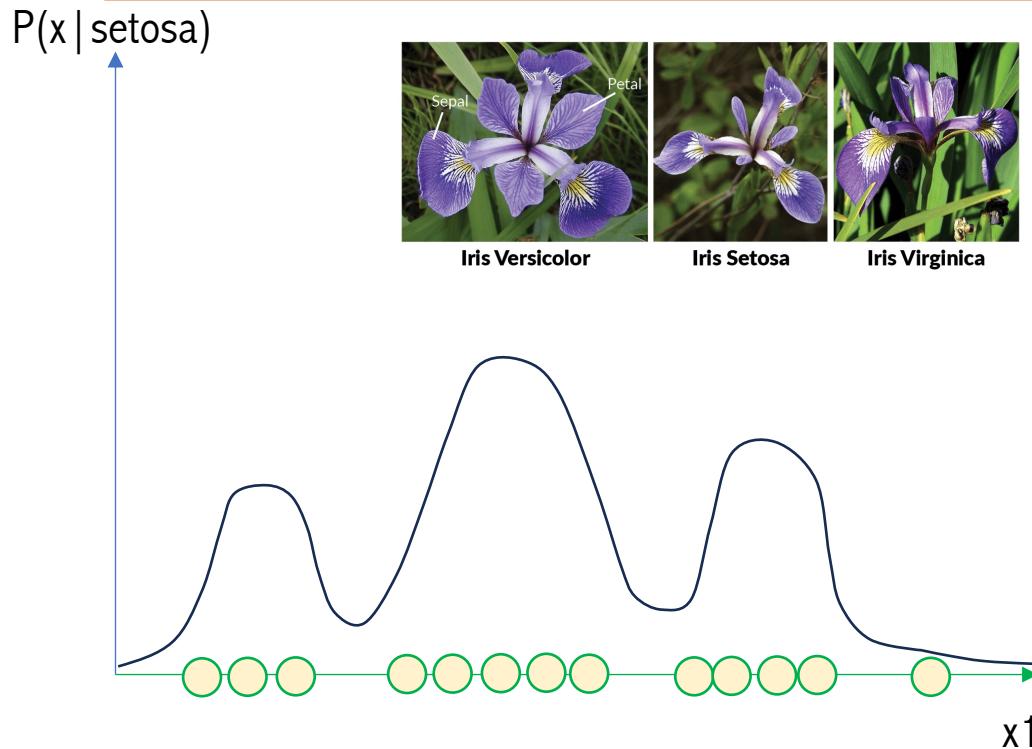
- use same algorithm
- update μ_k and σ_k^2 with maximum likelihood estimator,

$$\mu_{k,j} = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{c_i=k} x_{i,j}$$

$$\sigma_{k,j}^2 = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{c_i=k} (x_{i,j} - \mu_{k,j})^2$$

- Clustering helps discover patterns
- k -means is a simple approach
- Gaussian mixture models more probabilistic foundation

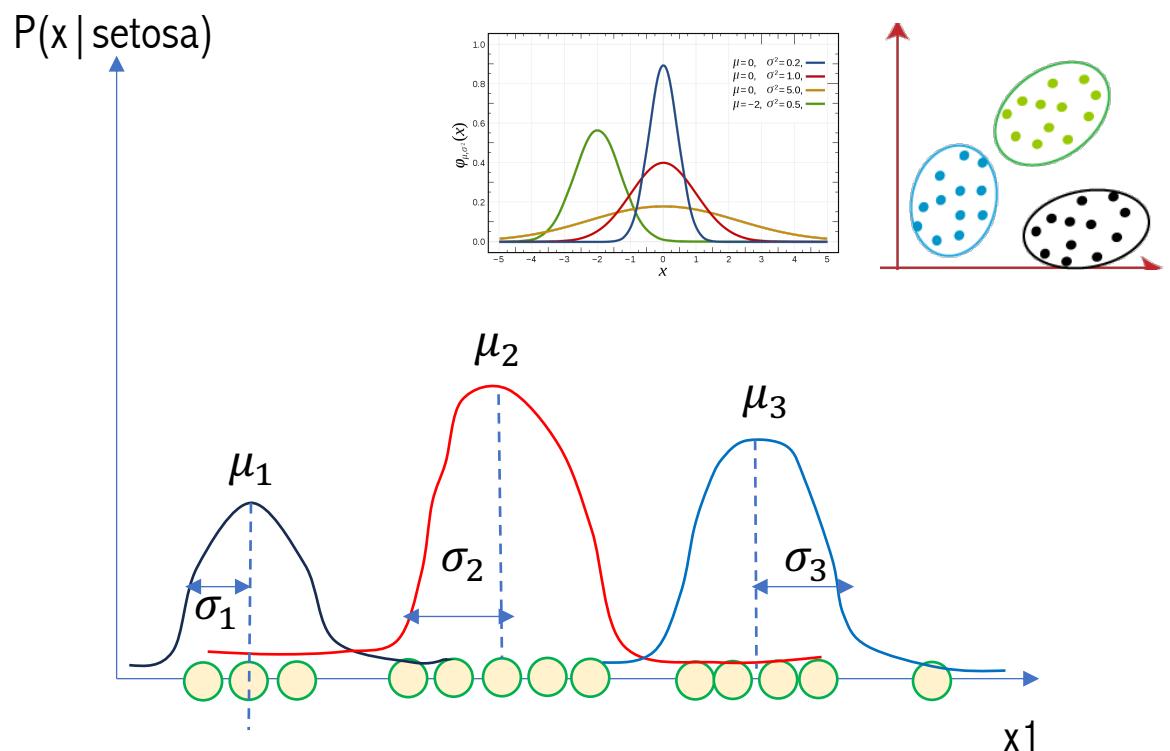
Quick look at Gaussian Mixture Model



$$P(x | \text{setosa}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k N(X | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

Covariance Matrix

$$0 < \pi_k < 1 \quad \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$$



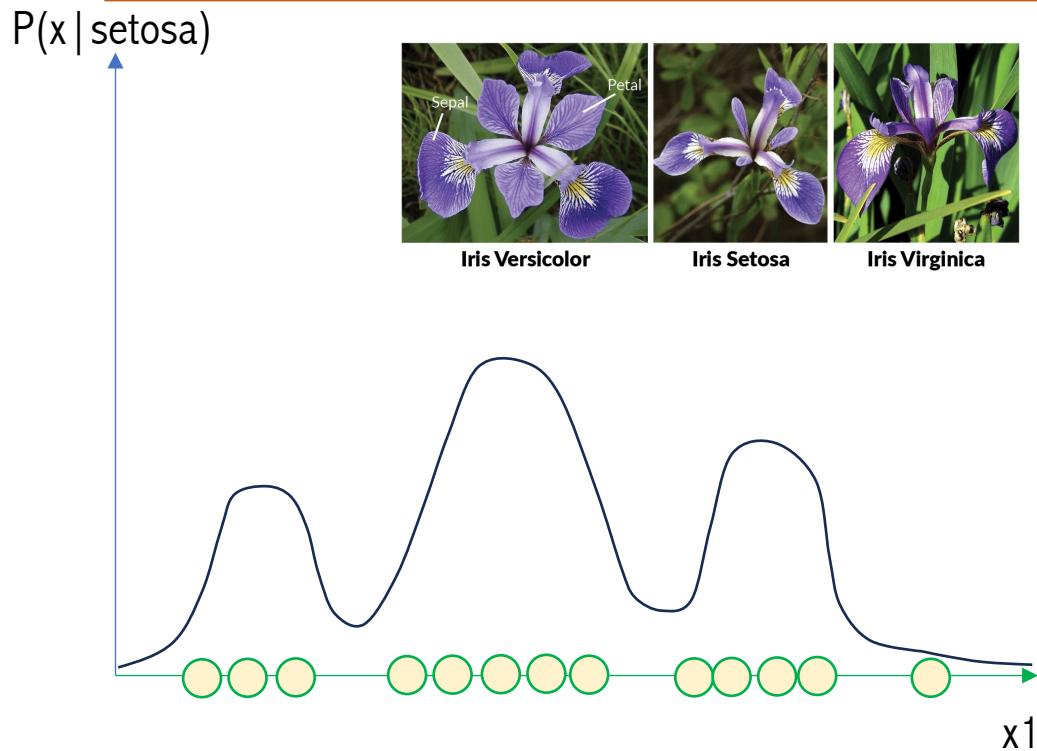
Latent variable (binary): z_k

$$P(z_k=1) = \pi_k \quad P(z_1=1) = \pi_1$$

$$P(z_2=1) = \pi_2$$

$$P(z_3=1) = \pi_3$$

Quick look at Gaussian Mixture Model



$$P(x | z_k=1) = N(X | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

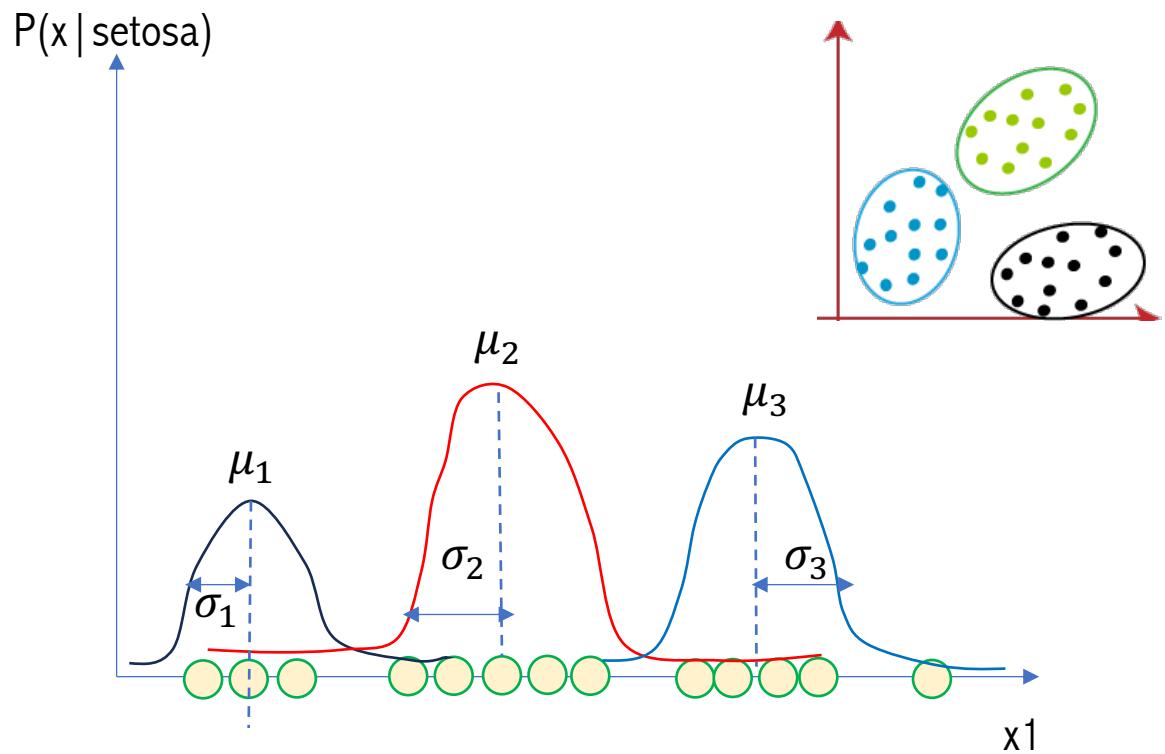
$$P(x | z_1=1) = N(X | \mu_k, \Sigma_1)$$

$$P(x) = \sum_{k=1}^K P(z_k=1)P(x | z_k=1)$$

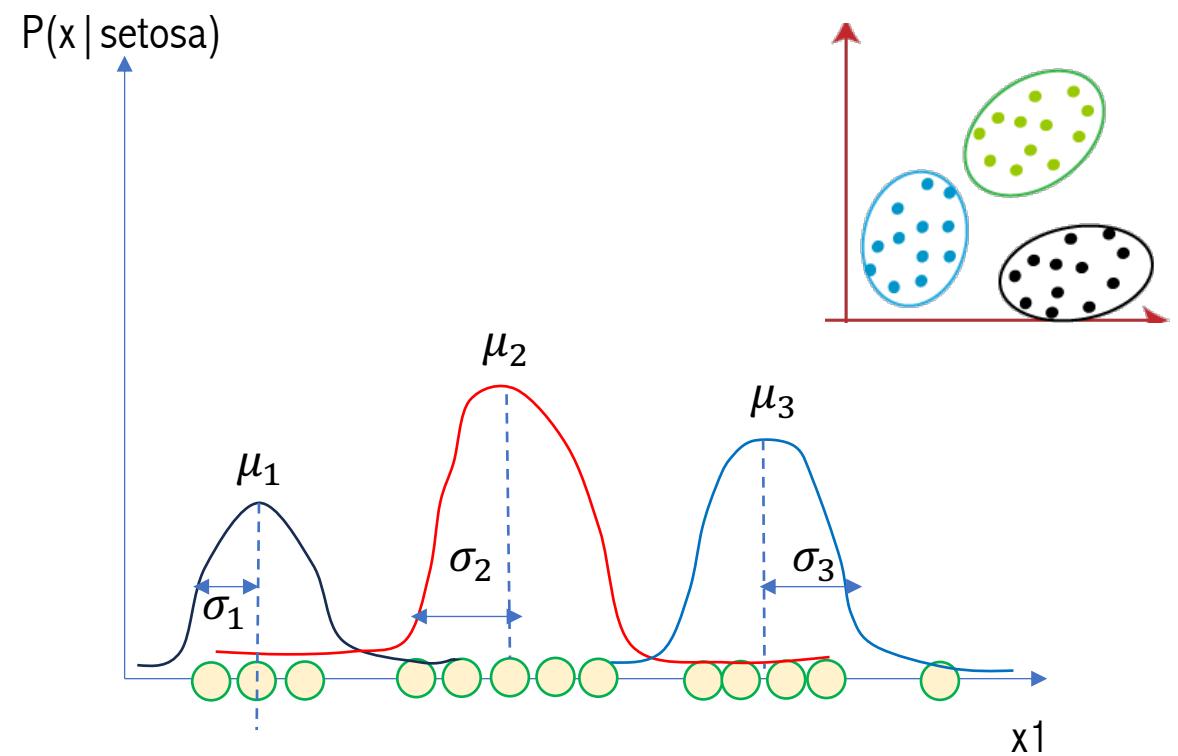
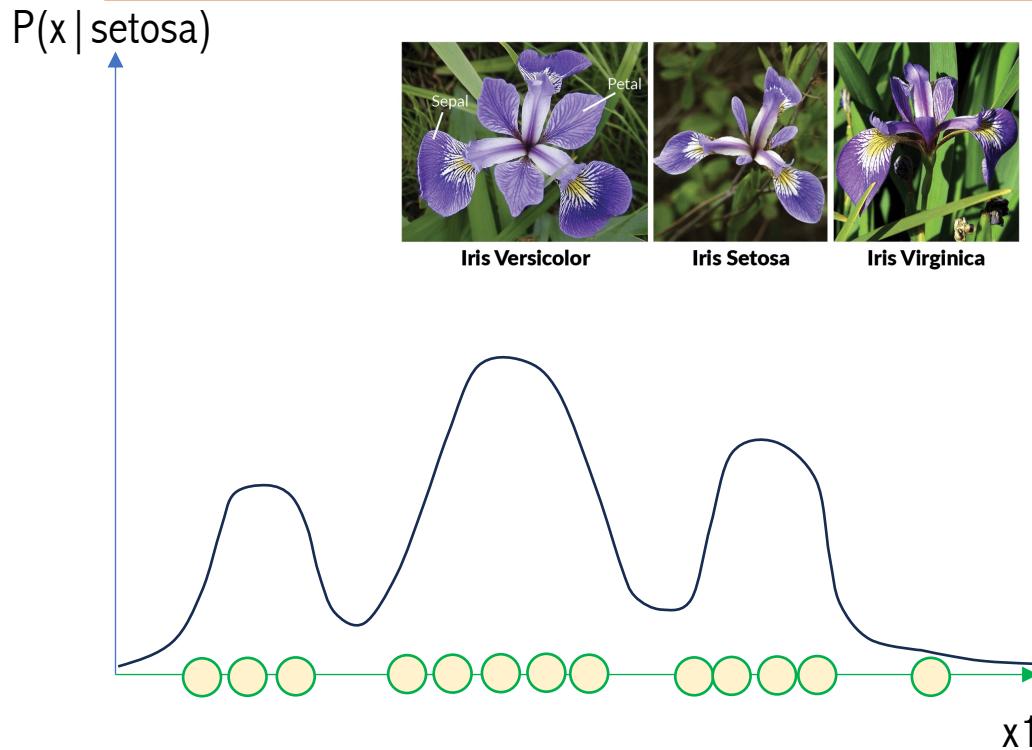
$$P(z_k=1 | x) = \frac{P(x | z_k=1)P(z_k=1)}{P(x)}$$

$$P(X) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(x_i) \quad \text{For all samples}$$

$$\ln(P(X)) = \sum_{i=1}^N \ln(p(x_i)) \rightarrow \ln(P(X)) = \sum_{i=1}^N \ln(\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k N(X | \mu_k, \Sigma_k))$$



Quick look at Gaussian Mixture Model



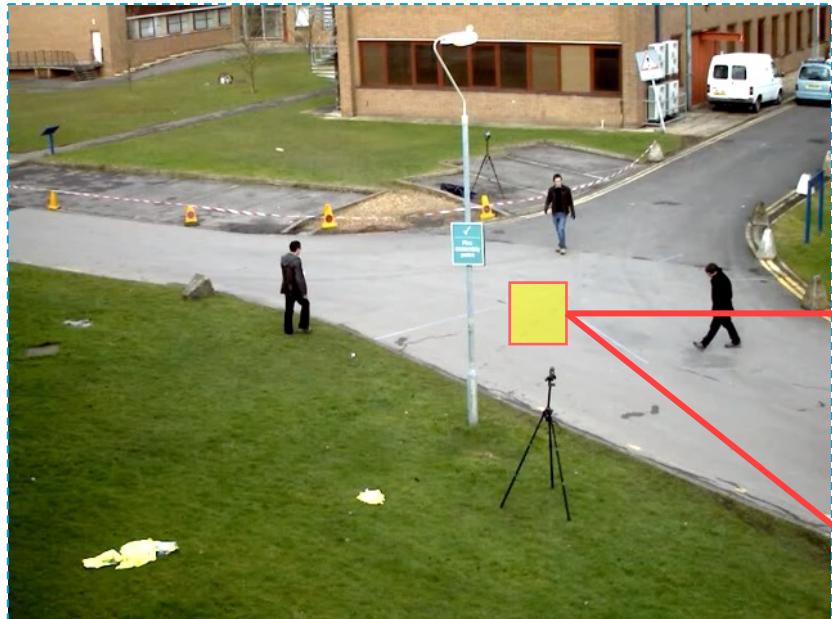
$$\ln(P(X)) = \prod_{i=1}^N \ln(\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k N(X|\mu_k, \Sigma_k))$$

$$\ln(P(X | \pi, \mu, \Sigma)) = \prod_{i=1}^N \ln(\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k N(X|\mu_k, \Sigma_k))$$

$$\frac{\partial \ln(P(X | \pi, \mu, \Sigma))}{\partial \mu_k} = 0$$

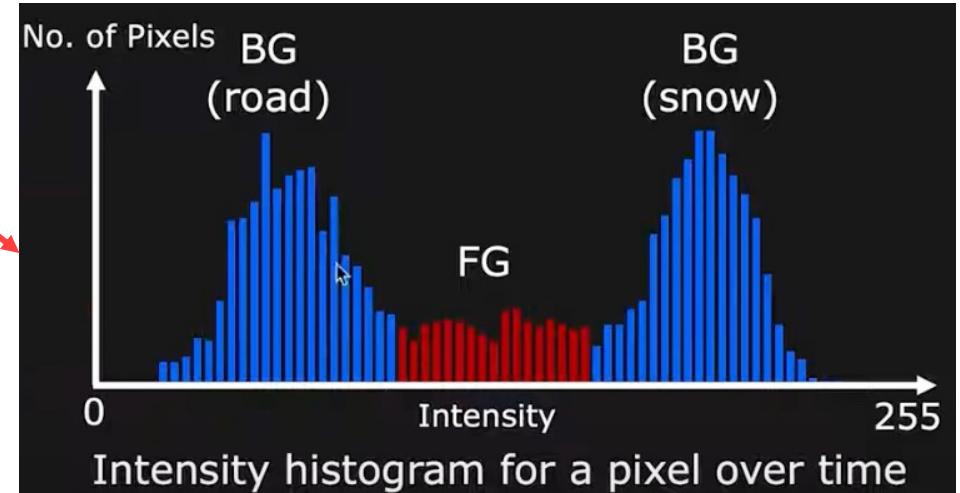
$$\frac{\partial \ln(P(X | \pi, \mu, \Sigma))}{\partial \Sigma_k} = 0$$

Mixture Model

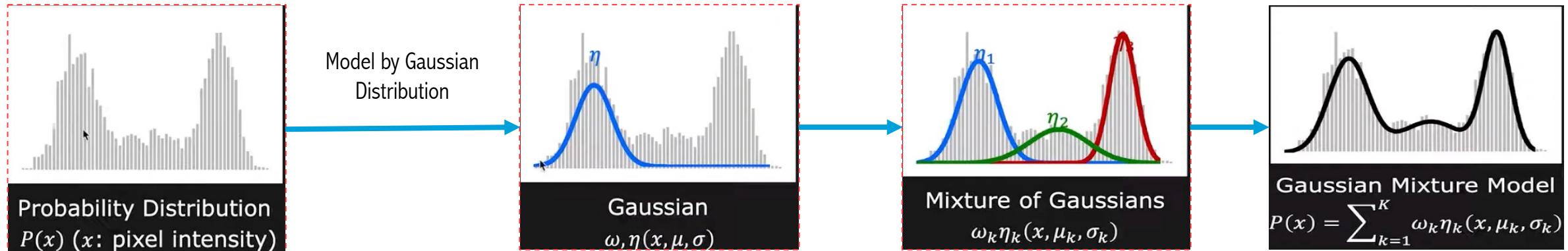


Intensity variation due to static scene (**road**),
and occasional moving objects (**vehicles**)

Intuition: Pixels are background most of the time. We try to model the distribution and then classify a pixel as a foreground or a background based on this distribution.



Gaussian Mixture Model



1- Dimensional Gaussian

$$\omega \eta(x, \mu, \sigma) = \omega \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$

Assump $P(x)$ is made with K different Gaussians.

GMM Distribution: Weighted sum of K Gaussians

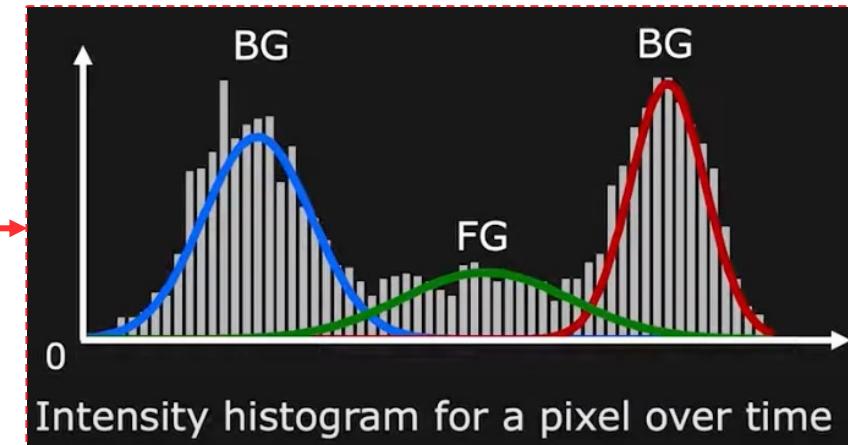
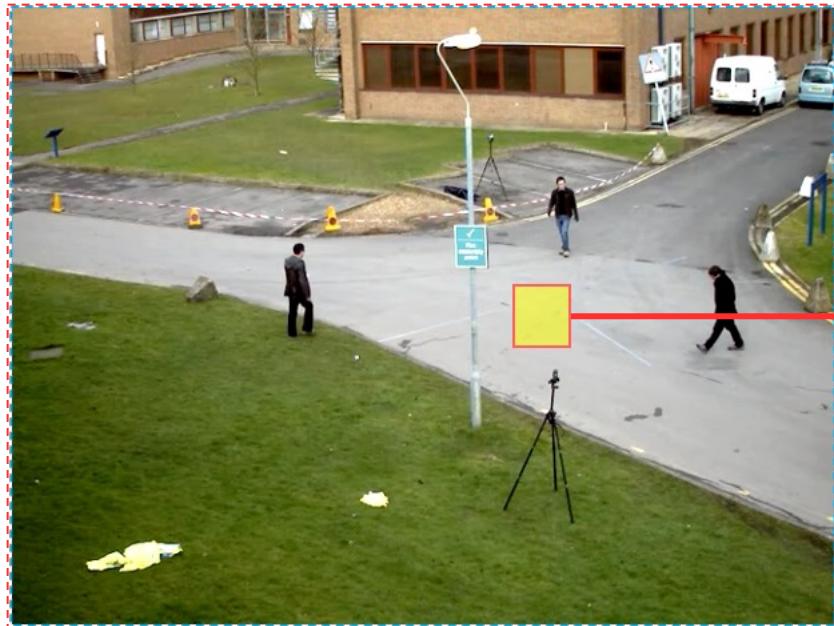
$$P(x) \cong \sum_{k=1}^K \omega_k \eta_k(x, \mu_k, \sigma_k)$$

such that $\sum_{k=1}^K \omega_k = 1$

How about high dimensional GMM?

Background Modeling with GMM

- Given: A GMM for intensity/color variation at a pixel over time
- Classify: Individual Gaussian as foreground or background



Intuition: Pixels are background most of the time. That is, Gaussians with large supporting evidence (scale) ω and small σ

$$\text{Large: } \frac{\omega}{\sigma} = \text{Background}$$

$$\text{Small: } \frac{\omega}{\sigma} = \text{Foreground}$$

Change Detection Using GMM

For each pixel:

1. Compute pixel color histogram H using first N frames
2. Normalize histogram: $\hat{H} = \frac{H}{\|H\|}$
3. Model as \hat{H} mixture of K (3 to 5) Gaussians
4. For each subsequent frame:
 - a. The pixel value X belongs to Gaussian k in GMM for which $\|X - \mu_k\|$ is minimum and $\|X - \mu_k\| < 2.5 \sigma_k$
 - b. if $\frac{\omega}{\sigma}$ is large then classify pixel as background. Else classify as foreground
 - c. Update histogram H using new pixel intensity
 - d. if $\hat{H} - \frac{H}{\|H\|}$ is large, we update $\hat{H} = \frac{H}{\|H\|}$, and then refit GMM

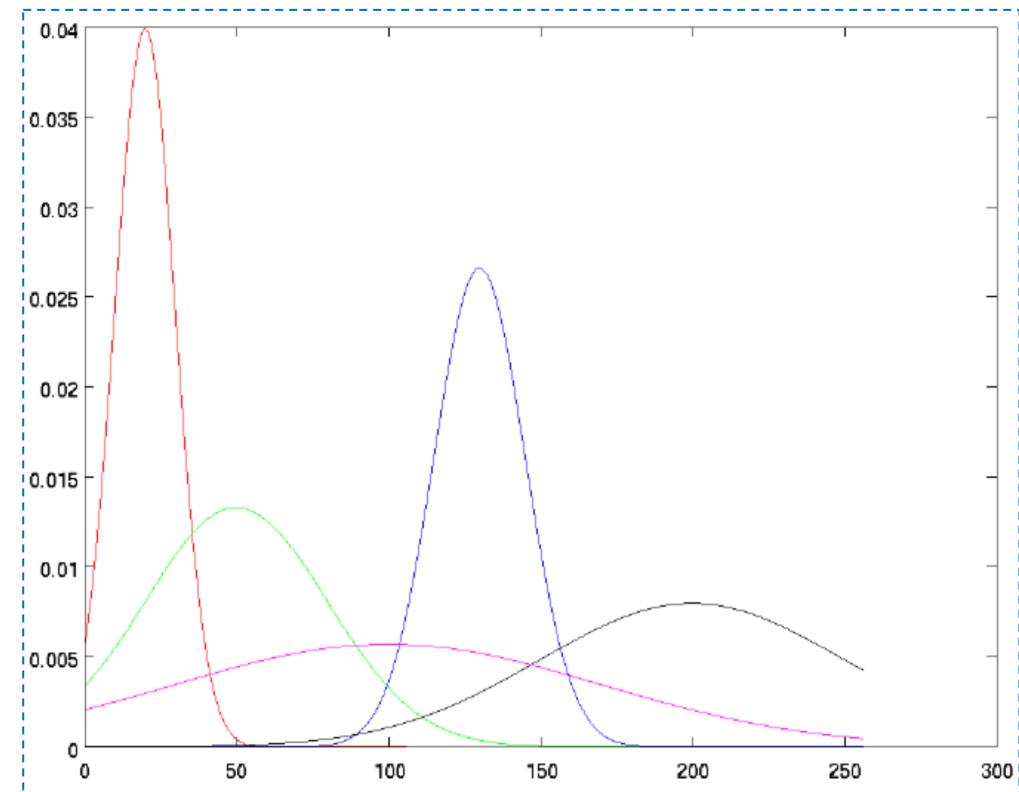
Background Subtraction With Mixture of Gaussian (MOG)

At any time t, what is known about a particular pixel (x_0, y_0) is its history:

$$\{X_1, \dots, X_t\} = \{I(x_0, y_0, i) | 1 \leq i \leq t\}$$

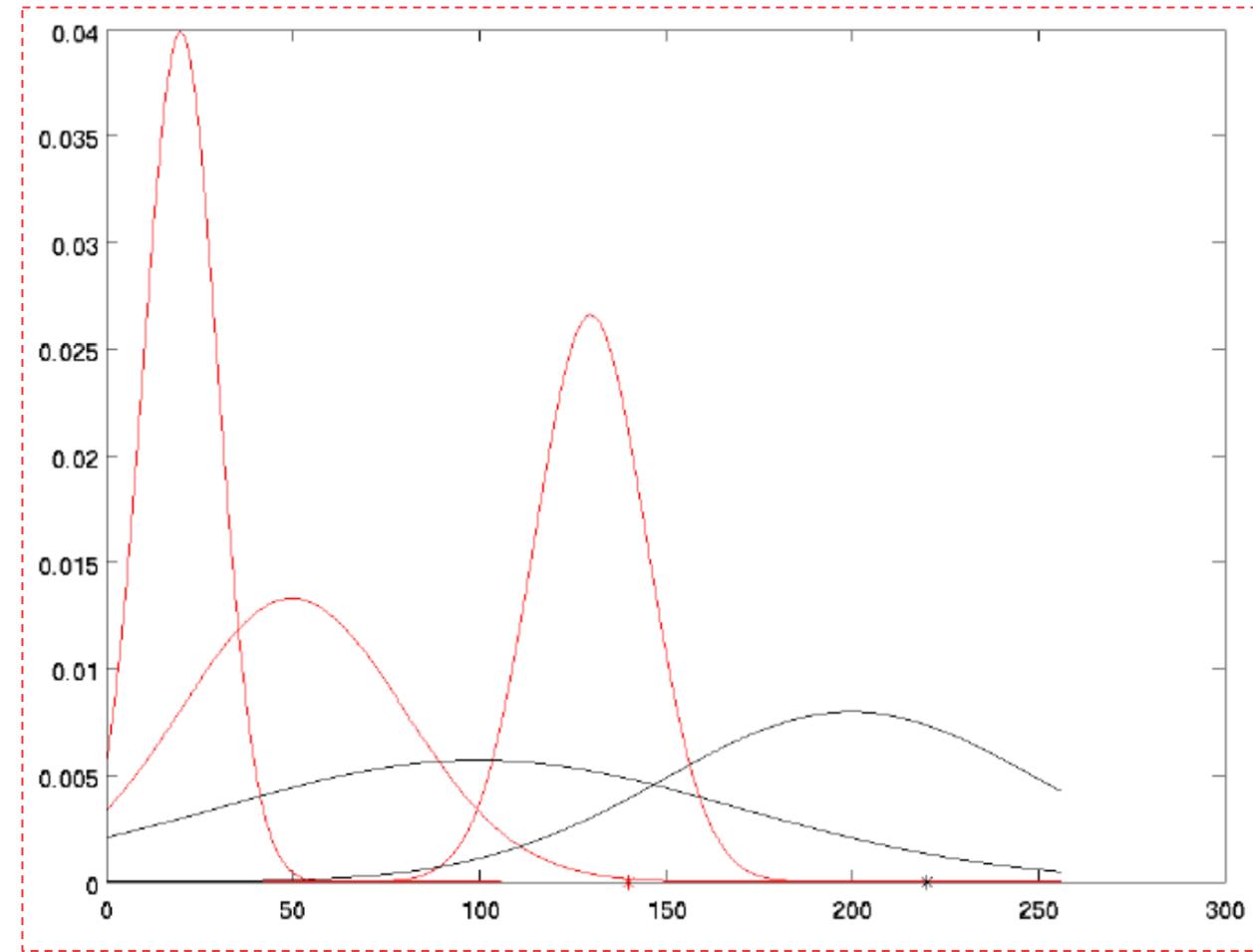
This history is modeled by a mixture of K Gaussian distributions:

$$P(X_t) = \sum_{i=1}^K \omega_{it} \mathcal{N}(X_t | \mu_{it}, \Sigma_{it})$$
$$\mathcal{N}(X_t | \mu_{it}, \Sigma_{it}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2}} \frac{1}{|\Sigma_{it}|} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(X_t - \mu_{it}^T \Sigma_{it}^{-1} (X_t - \mu_{it}))\right)$$

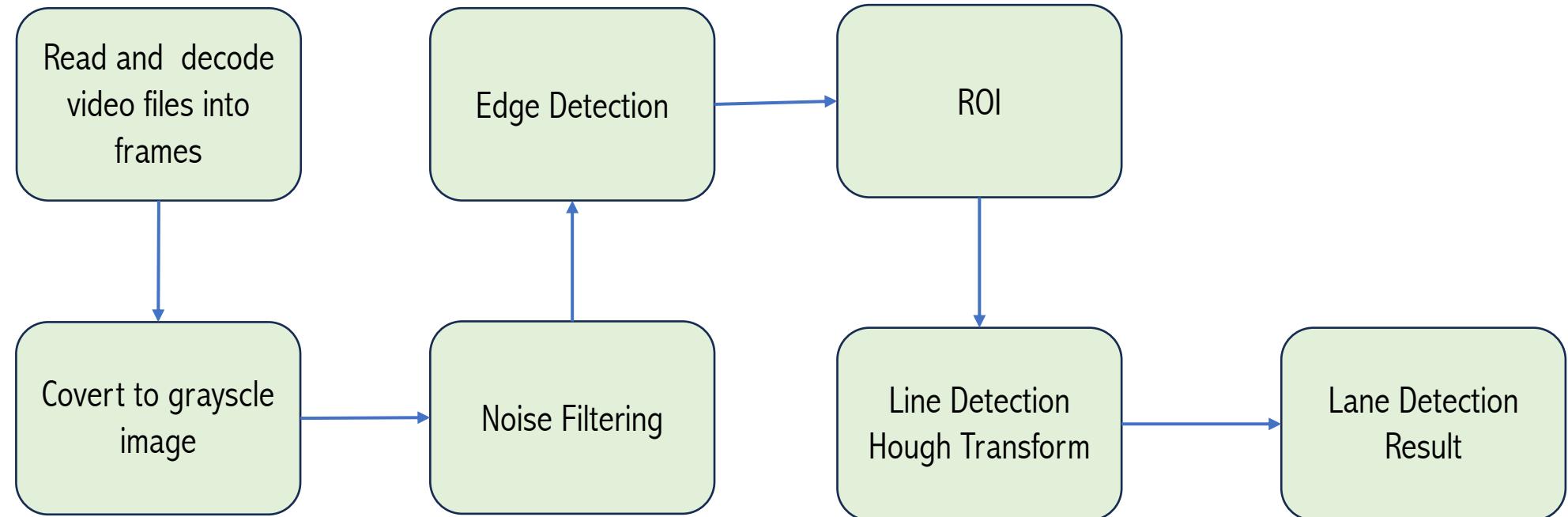


Mixture of Gaussian (MOG) Background Subtraction

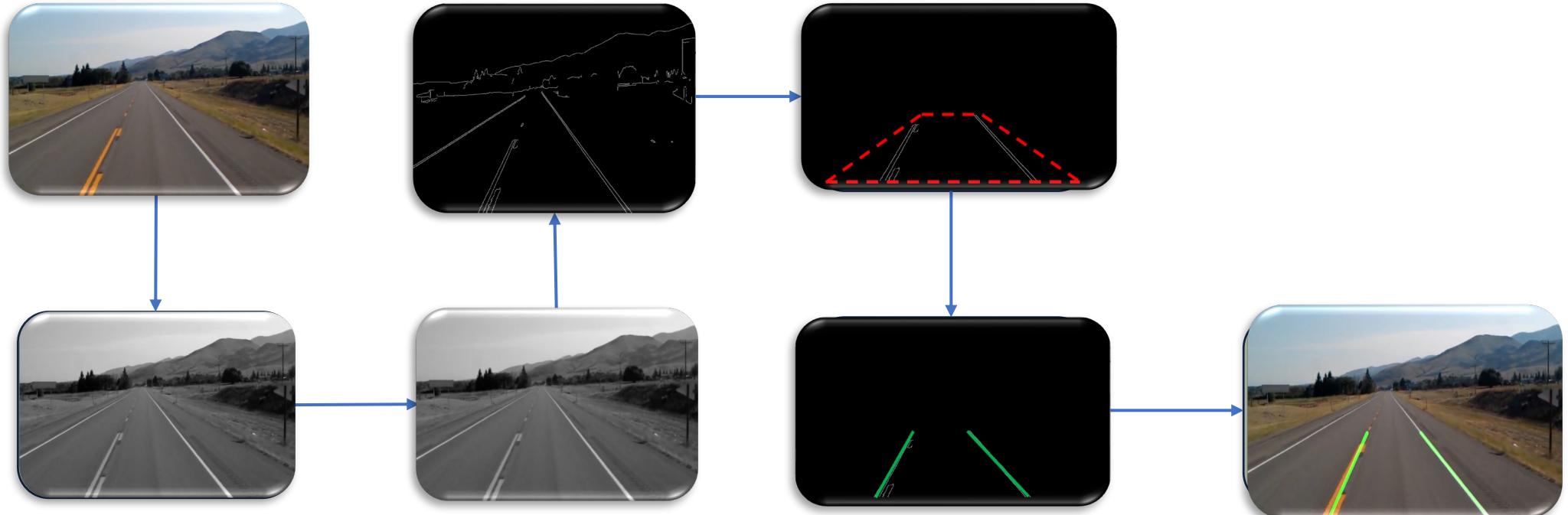
After background model estimation red distributions become the background model and black distributions are considered to be foreground



Lane Detection Work Flow



Lane Detection Work Flow



Outline

- **Background Subtraction Assignment: Review**
- **Grayscale Conversion**
- **Image Blurring Techniques**
- **Region of Interest (ROI)**
- **Line Detection based on Hough Transform**
- **Lane Detection Demo**

Color to Grayscale



Original Image



Grayscale Image

```
# convert the RGB image to Gray scale
grayscale = cv2.cvtColor(image, cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
```

(OpenCV) ITU-R 601-2 luma transform: $0.299 R + 0.587 G + 0.114 B$

Average-based method: $(R + G + B) / 3$

The luminosity: $0.2126R+0.7152G+0.0722B$

Tại sao phải convert ảnh màu sang ảnh xám?

Outline

- **Background Subtraction Assignment: Review**
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- **Lane Detection Demo**

How Image Blurring Work



Blur Image

Gaussian Filter (5,5)



Edge Image



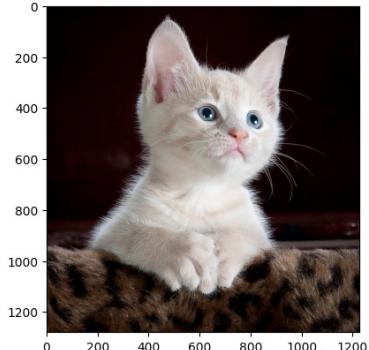
Original Image

No filter

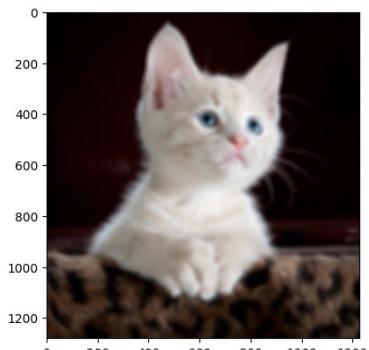


Edge Image

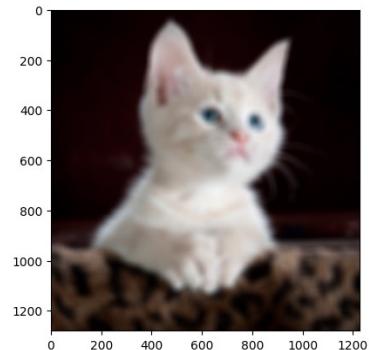
How Image Blurring Work



21x21



31x31



Blurring an image is make the image less sharp. This can be done by smoothing the color transition between the pixels.

Mean Filter (Average Filter/Box Filter)

$$K = \frac{1}{ab} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & \ddots & 1 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

a = 3 and b = 3

$$K = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

```
img = cv2.cvtColor(img, cv2.COLOR_BGR2RGB)
plt.figure()
plt.imshow(img)

# Show the blurred image with different size of kernel
blurImg = cv2.blur(img,(21,21))
plt.figure()
plt.imshow(blurImg)

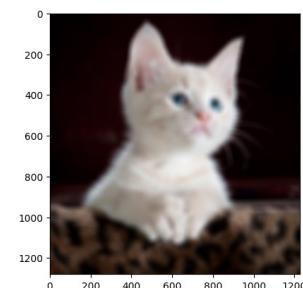
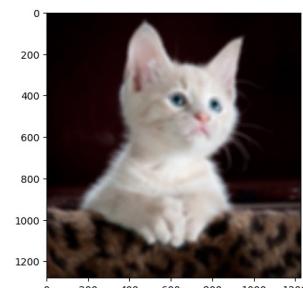
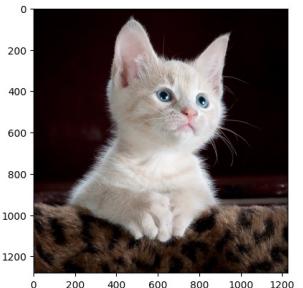
blurImg = cv2.blur(img,(31,31))
plt.figure()
plt.imshow(blurImg)

plt.show()
```

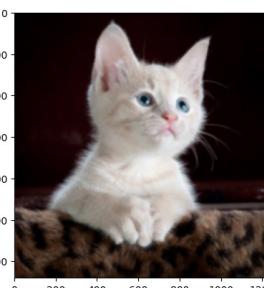
The greater value of kernel size, the greater _____ because the number of pixels involved is greater and the transition of colors become smoother.

How Image Blurring Work

Mean Filter



Gaussian Filter



The Gaussian smoothing operator is a 2-D convolution operator that is used to 'blur' images and remove detail and noise.

Gaussian Filter

$$G(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Approximation of 3 x 3
Gaussian kernel, $\sigma = 1$

$$\frac{1}{16} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

21x21

31x31

```
img = cv2.cvtColor(img, cv2.COLOR_BGR2RGB)
plt.figure()
plt.imshow(img)
plt.show()

# Show the blurred image with different size of kernel

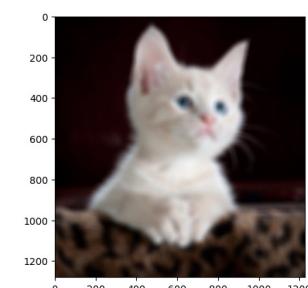
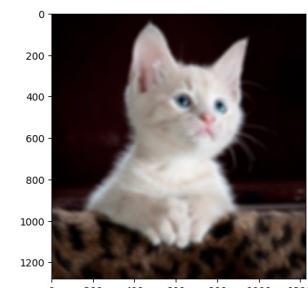
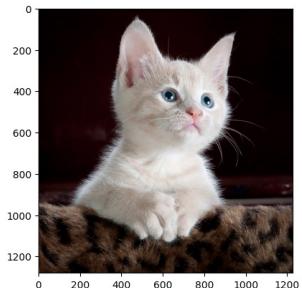
# Show the blurred image with different size of kernel
blurImg = cv2.GaussianBlur(img,(21,21), 0)
plt.figure()
plt.imshow(blurImg)

blurImg = cv2.GaussianBlur(img,(31,31), 0)
plt.figure()
plt.imshow(blurImg)

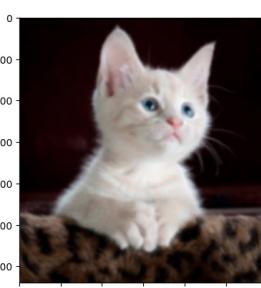
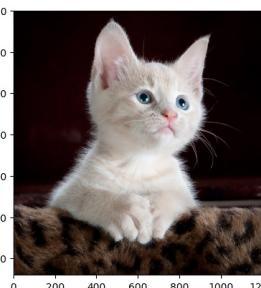
plt.show()
```

How Image Blurring Work

Mean Filter



Gaussian Filter



The Gaussian smoothing operator is a 2-D convolution operator that is used to 'blur' images and remove detail and noise.

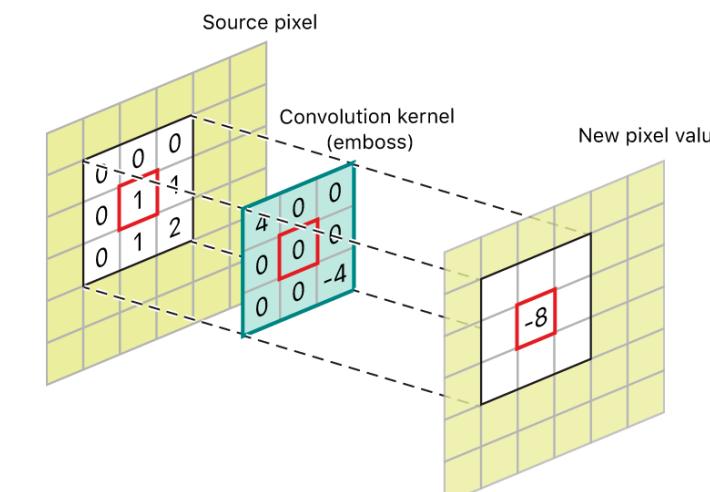
Gaussian Filter

$$G(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Approximation of 3 x 3
Gaussian kernel, $\sigma = 1$

$$\frac{1}{16} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

21x21

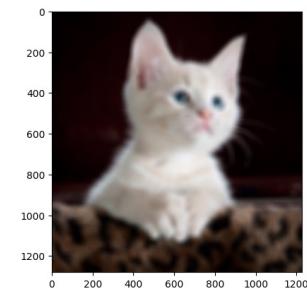
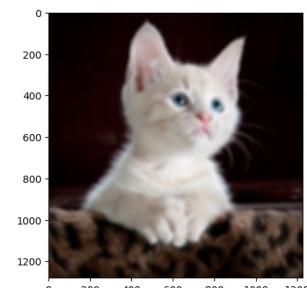
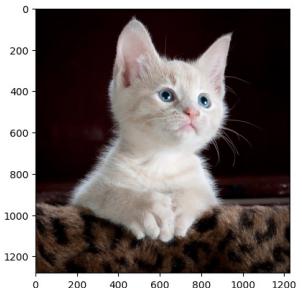


31x31

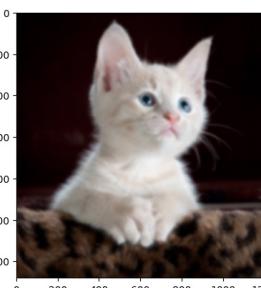
By changing the values in the kernel, we can change the effect on the image — blurring, sharpening, edge detection, noise reduction, etc

How Image Blurring Work

Mean Filter



Gaussian Filter



The Gaussian smoothing operator is a 2-D convolution operator that is used to 'blur' images and remove detail and noise.

Gaussian Filter

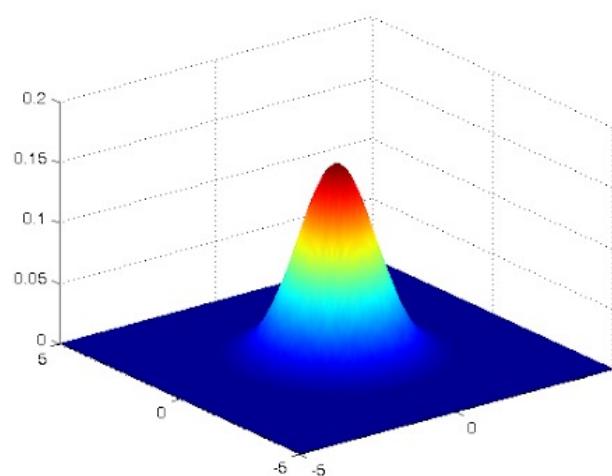
$$G(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Approximation of 3 x 3
Gaussian kernel, $\sigma = 1$

$$\frac{1}{16} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

A Gaussian blur is applied by convolving the image with a Gaussian function.

21x21

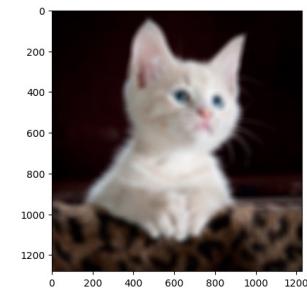
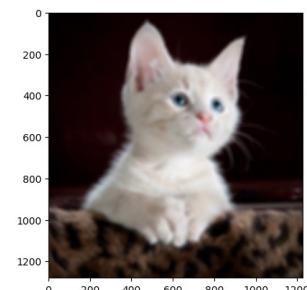
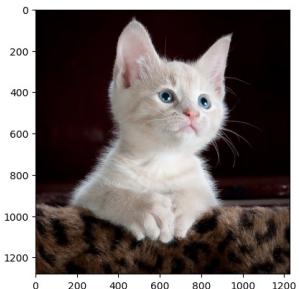


31x31

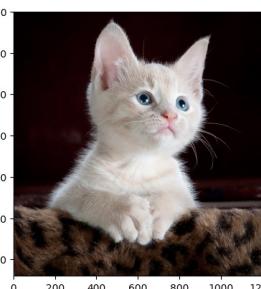
Weighted average of the pixel's values and the height of the curve at that point, the pixels in the center of the group would contribute most significantly to the resulting value

How Image Blurring Work

Mean Filter



Gaussian Filter

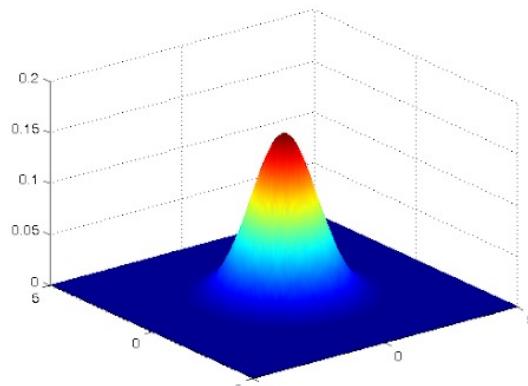


The Gaussian smoothing operator is a 2-D convolution operator that is used to 'blur' images and remove detail and noise.

Gaussian Filter

$$G(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

21x21



31x31

Approximation of 3 x 3
Gaussian kernel, $\sigma = 1$

$$\frac{1}{16} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

```

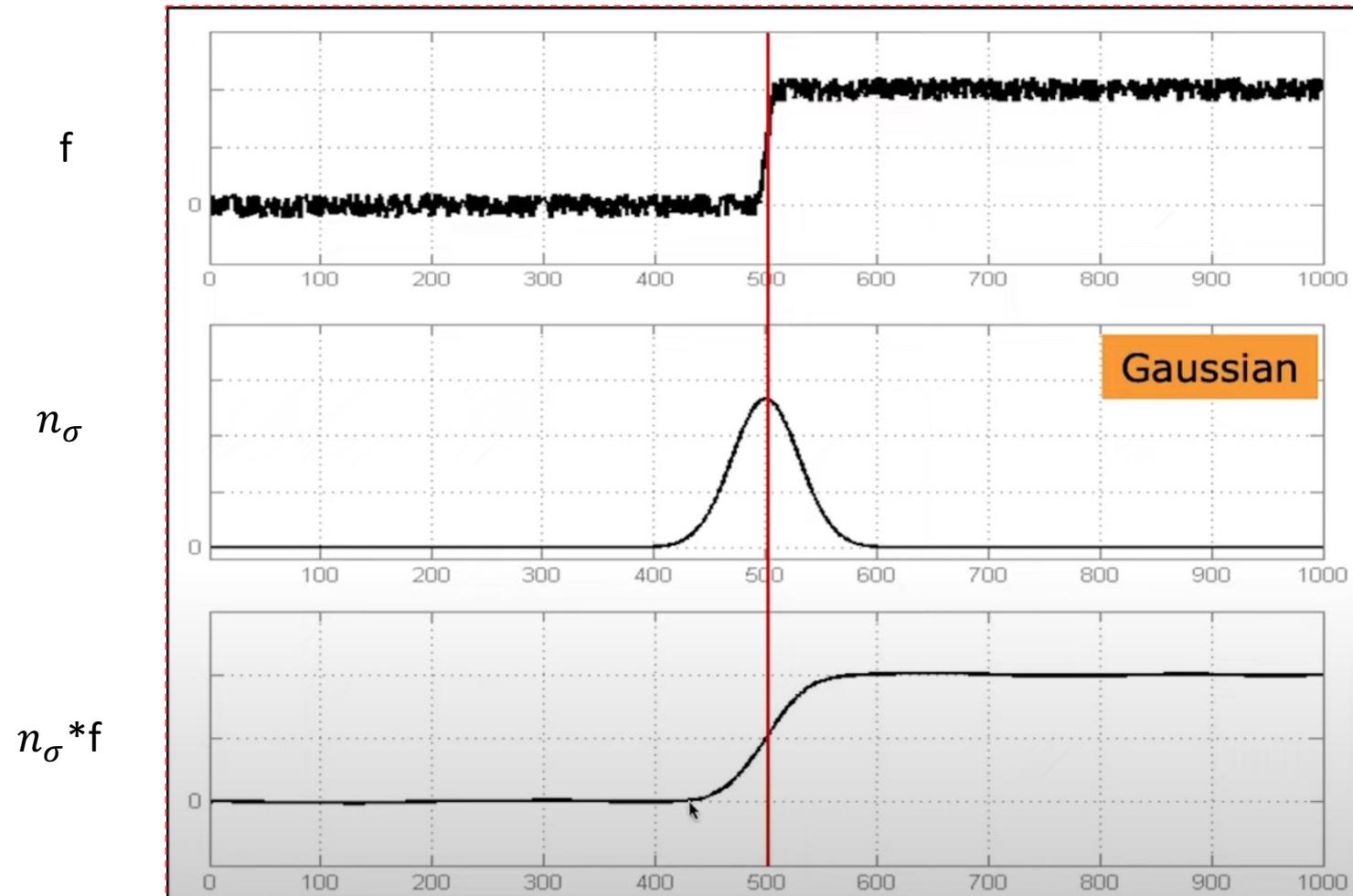
for x in range(-radius, radius+1, 1):
    for y in range(-radius, radius+1, 1):
        exponentNumerator = float(-(x * x + y * y))
        exponentDenominator = (2 * sigma * sigma)

        eExpression = np.exp(exponentNumerator / exponentDenominator)
        kernelValue = (eExpression / (2 * pi * sigma * sigma))

        #We add radius to the indices to prevent out of bound issues
        #because x and y can be negative
        kernel[x + radius][y + radius] = kernelValue
        sum += kernelValue

for x in range(-radius, radius+1, 1):
    for y in range(-radius, radius+1, 1):
        kernel[x + radius][y + radius] = kernel[x + radius][y + radius]/sum
    
```

Gaussian Filter



How Image Blurring Work



Blur Image

Gaussian Filter (5,5)

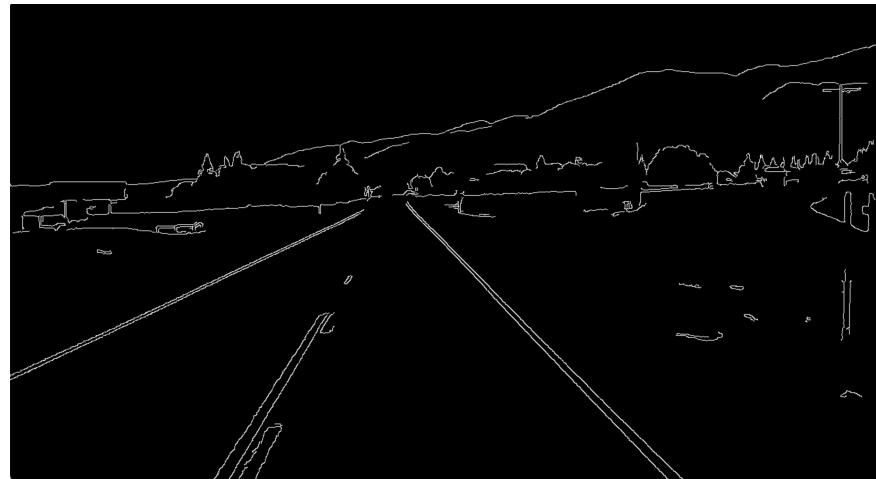


Edge Image



Original Image

No filter



Edge Image

Edge Detection



Blur Image



Edge Image



Lane Detection Results

Tại sao kết quả line detection lại không chính xác?

Edge Detection



Blur Image



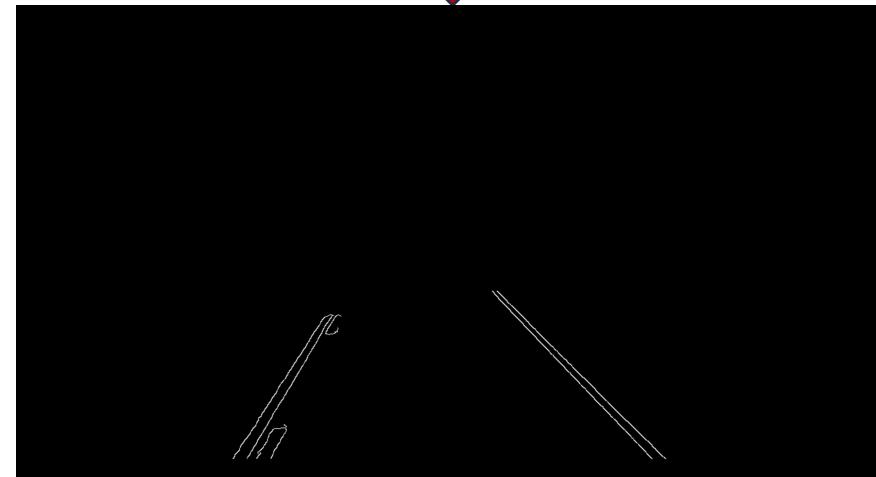
Edge Image



Ego-lane



Lane Detection Results



Outline

- Background Subtraction Assignment: Review
- Grayscale Conversion
- Blurring Techniques
- Region of Interest (ROI)
- Line Detection based on Hough Transform
- Lane Detection Demo

Region of Interest



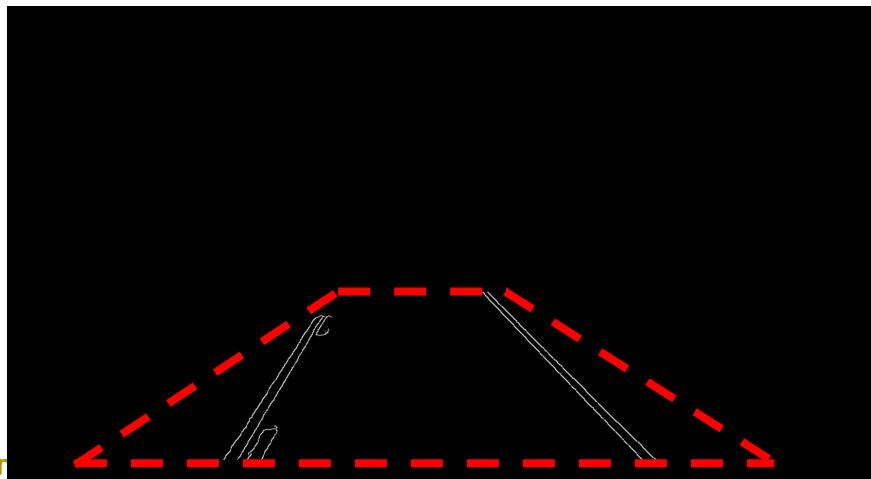
Blur Image



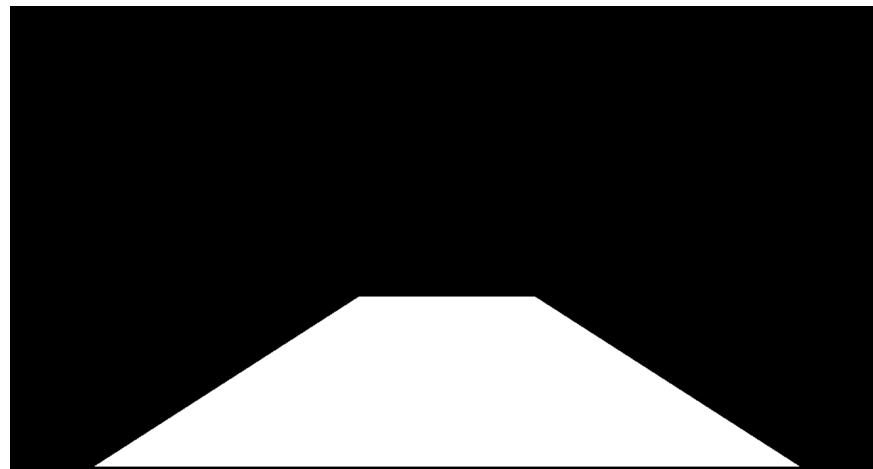
Edge Image



Ego-lane



Ego-lane



Region of Interest



Blur Image

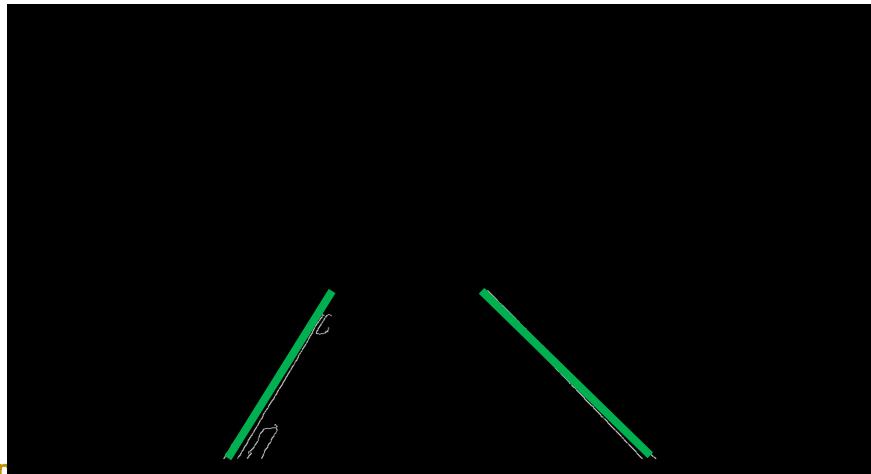


Edge Image



Ego-lane

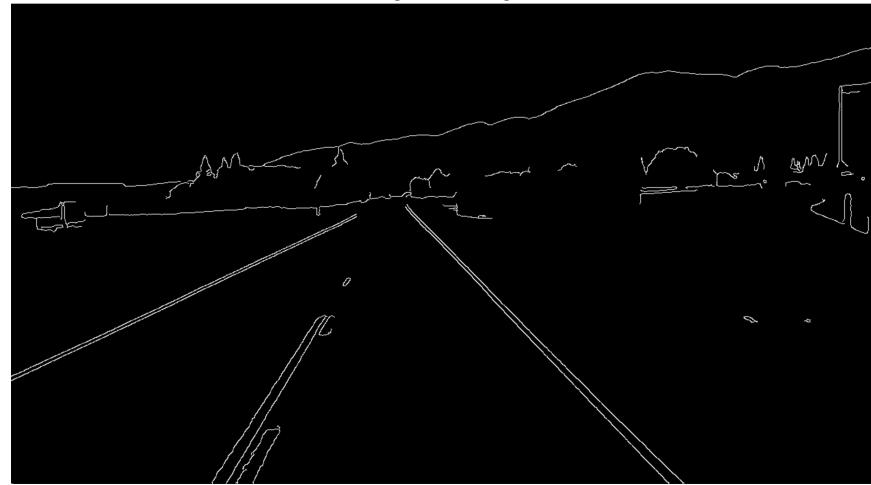
Line Detections



Region of Interest



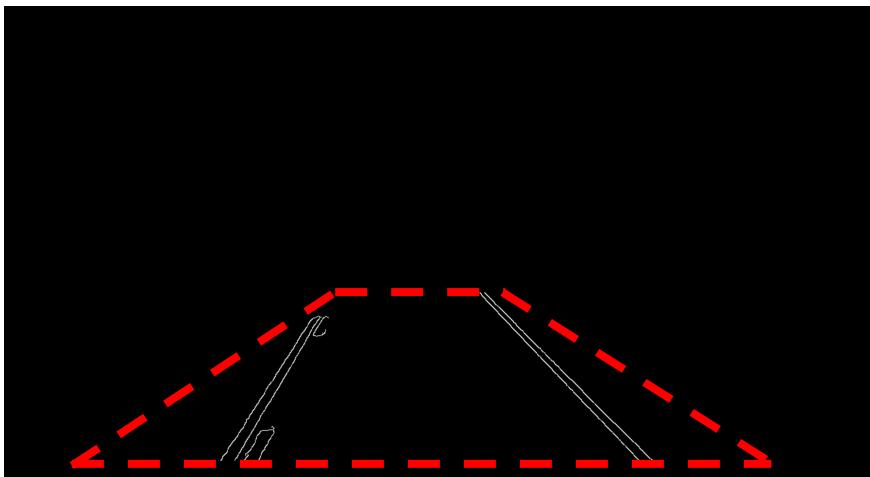
Blur Image



Edge Image



Region of Interest



Ego-lane



```
def region_selection(image):
    mask = np.zeros_like(image)
    ignore_mask_color = 255
    # creating a polygon to focus only on the road in the picture
    # we have created this polygon in accordance to how the camera was placed
    rows, cols = image.shape[:2]
    bottom_left = [cols * 0.1, rows * 0.95]
    top_left = [cols * 0.4, rows * 0.6]
    bottom_right = [cols * 0.9, rows * 0.95]
    top_right = [cols * 0.6, rows * 0.6]
    vertices = np.array([[bottom_left, top_left, top_right, bottom_right]])
    # filling the polygon with white color and generating the final mask
    cv2.fillPoly(mask, vertices, ignore_mask_color)
    # performing Bitwise AND on the input image and mask to get only the region of interest
    masked_image = cv2.bitwise_and(image, mask)
    return masked_image
```

Outline

- Background Subtraction Assignment: Review
- Grayscale Conversion
- Blurring Techniques
- Region of Interest (ROI)
- Line Detection based on Hough Transform
- Lane Detection Demo

Line Detection Clearly Explain

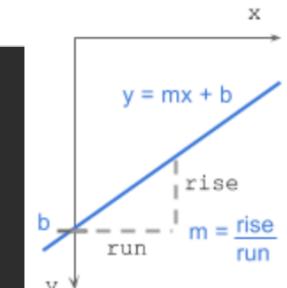
A line in Cartesian form has the equation:

$$y = mx + b$$

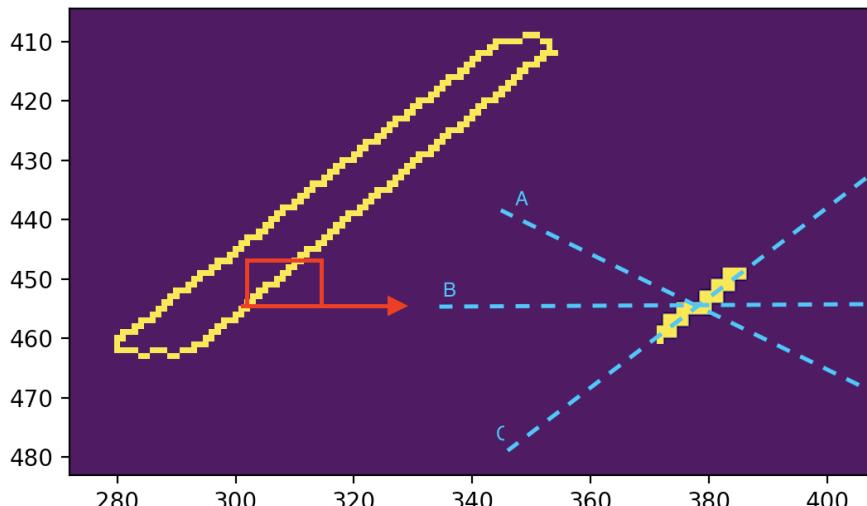
where:

m = gradient or slope of the line (rise/run)

b = y -intercept

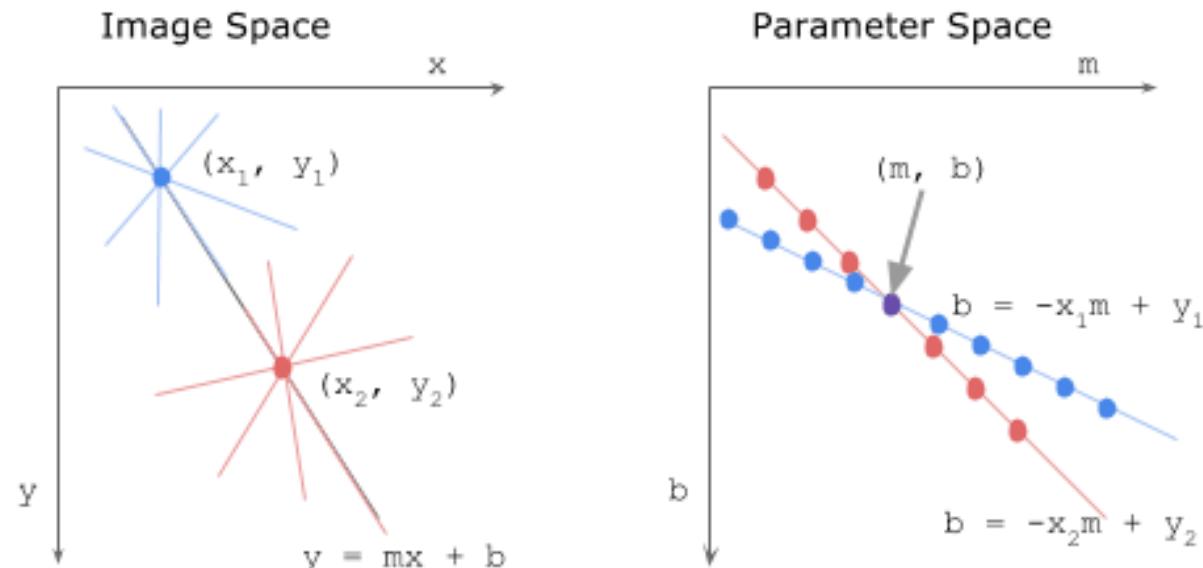


Given a set of edge points or a binary image indicating edges, we want to find as many lines that connect these points in image space.



Line Detection Clearly Explain

Say we have 2 edge points (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) . For each edge point at various gradient values ($m = -0.5, 1.0, 1.5, \text{etc.}$), we calculate the corresponding b values. The image below shows the various lines through an edge point in image space and the plot of these lines in parameter space. Points which are collinear in the cartesian image space will intersect at a point in (m, b) parameter space.



Unfortunately, the slope, m , is undefined when the line is vertical (division by 0!). To overcome this, we use another parameter space, the Hough space.

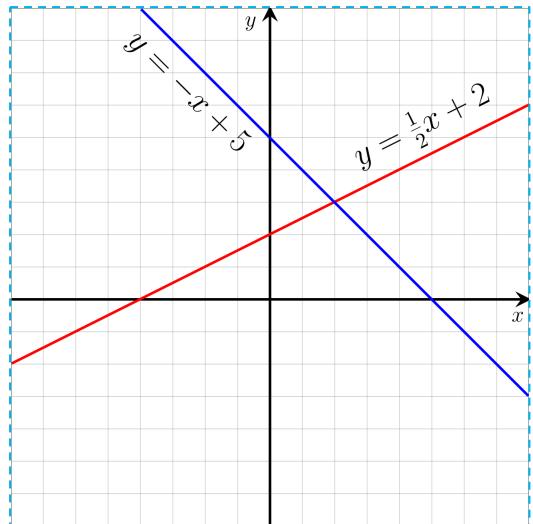
How it works - angle-distance parameter space

All points on a line in image space intersect at a common point in parameter space. This common point (m, b) represents the line in image space.

Line Detection Clearly Explain

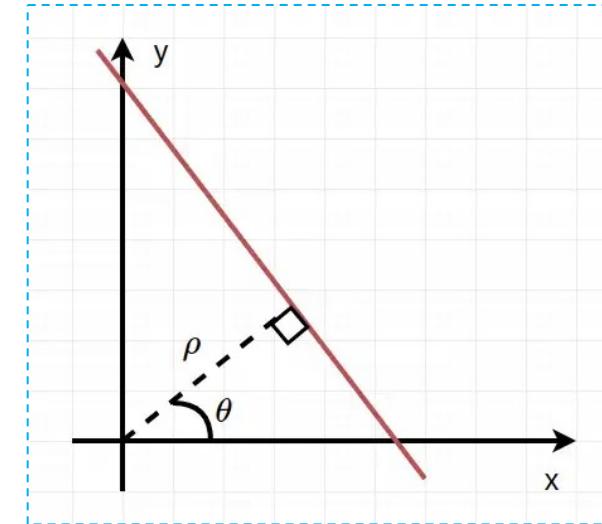
Phương trình đường thẳng cơ bản:

$$y = ax + b$$



Phương trình đường thẳng theo tọa độ cực:

$$\rho = x \cos(\theta) + y \sin(\theta)$$



Ý tưởng chung của việc phát hiện đường thẳng trong thuật toán này là tạo mapping từ không gian ảnh (A) sang một không gian mới (B) mà mỗi đường thẳng trong không gian (A) sẽ ứng với một điểm trong không gian (B).

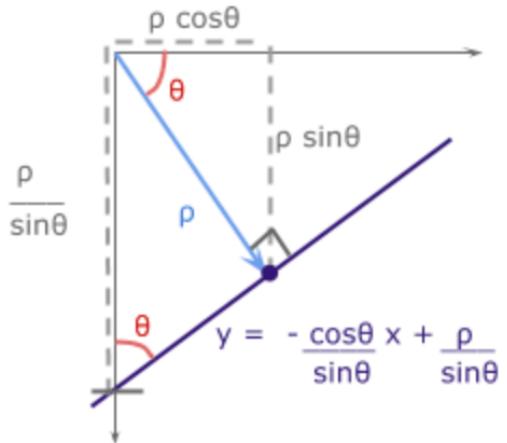
$$\rho = x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta$$

where:

ρ (rho) = distance from origin to the line. [-max_dist to max_dist].
max_dist is the diagonal length of the image.
 θ = angle from origin to the line. [-90° to 90°]

Line Detection Clearly Explain

Deriving rho: $\rho = x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta$



With basic trigonometry, we know that for right-angled triangles,

$$\sin \theta = \frac{\text{opposite}}{\text{hypotenuse}} \text{ and } \cos \theta = \frac{\text{adjacent}}{\text{hypotenuse}}.$$

We want to convert the cartesian form $y = mx + b$ with parameters (m, b) to polar form with parameters (ρ, θ) .

The line from the origin with distance ρ has a gradient of $\frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}$. The line of interest, which is perpendicular to it, will have a negative reciprocal gradient value of $\frac{-\cos \theta}{\sin \theta}$. For b , the y-intercept of the line of interest, $\sin \theta = \frac{\rho}{b}$.

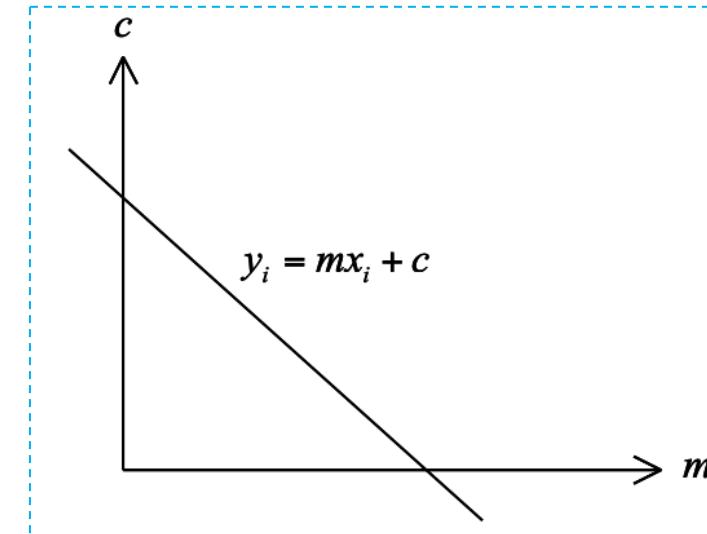
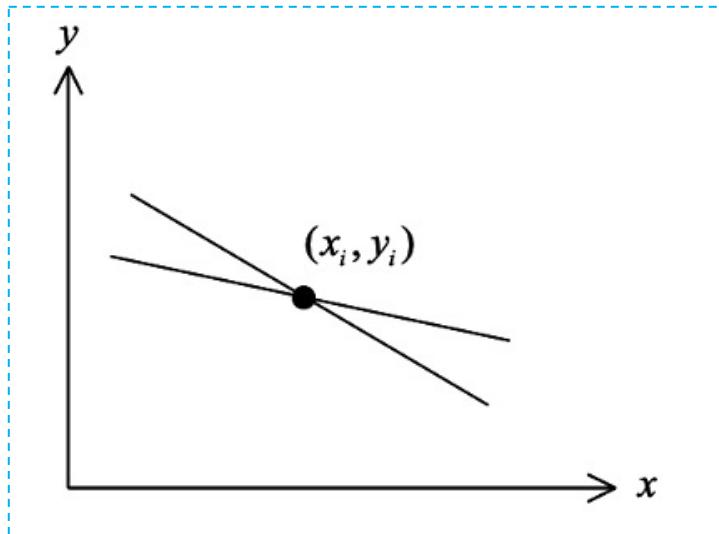
With $m = \frac{-\cos \theta}{\sin \theta}$ and $b = \frac{\rho}{\sin \theta}$, we get $\rho = x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta$.

Line Detection Clearly Explain

Phương trình đường thẳng cơ bản:

$$y_i = mx_i + c$$

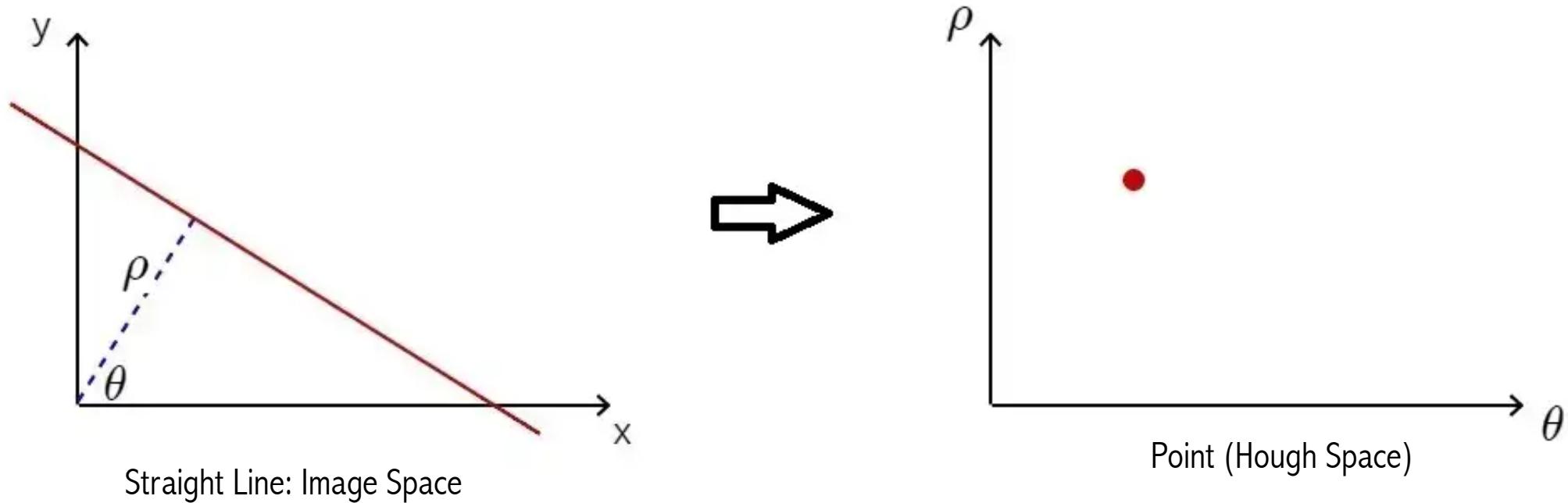
$$c = y_i - mx_i$$



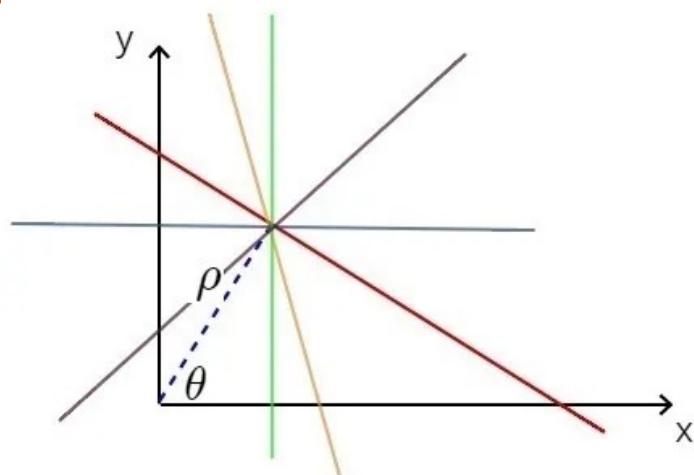
Lines through a point in the Cartesian domain

At this point, it is easy to see that each different line through the point (x_i, y_i) corresponds to one of the points on the line in the (m, c) space.

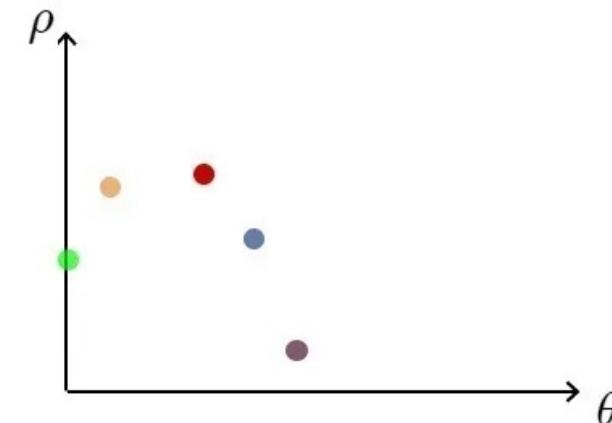
Line in Image Space to Point in Hough Space



Mapping from Image space to Hough space



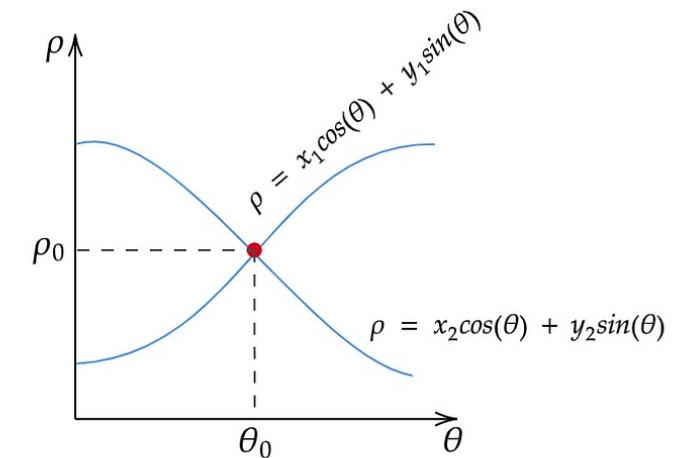
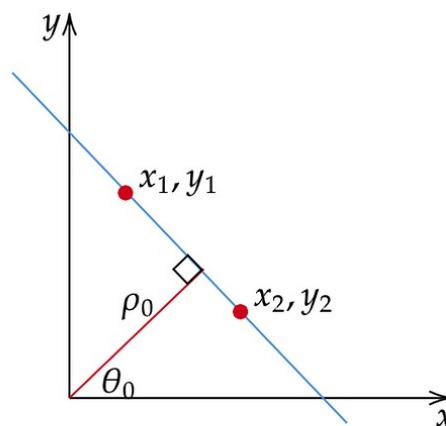
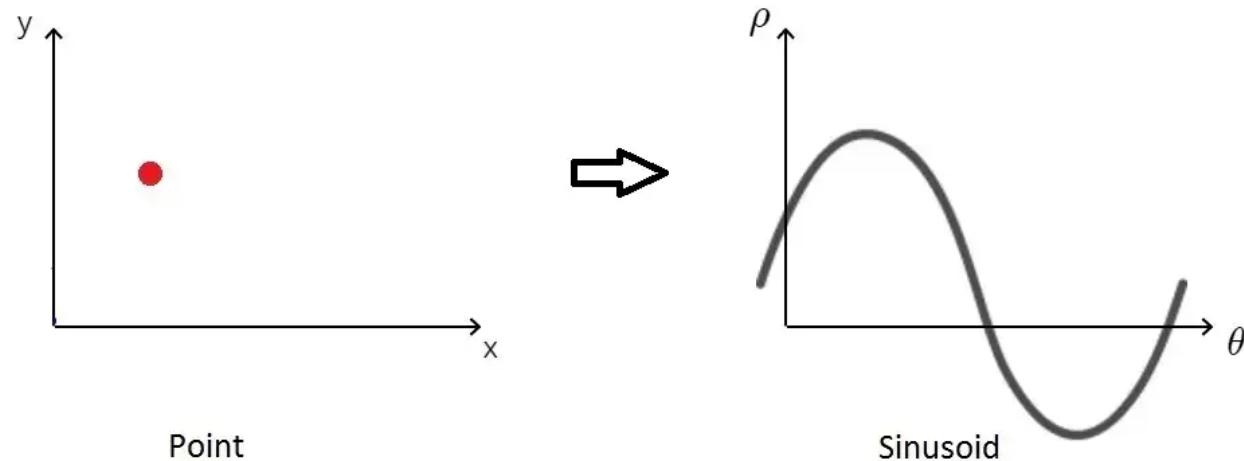
Bunch of lines intersecting at one point



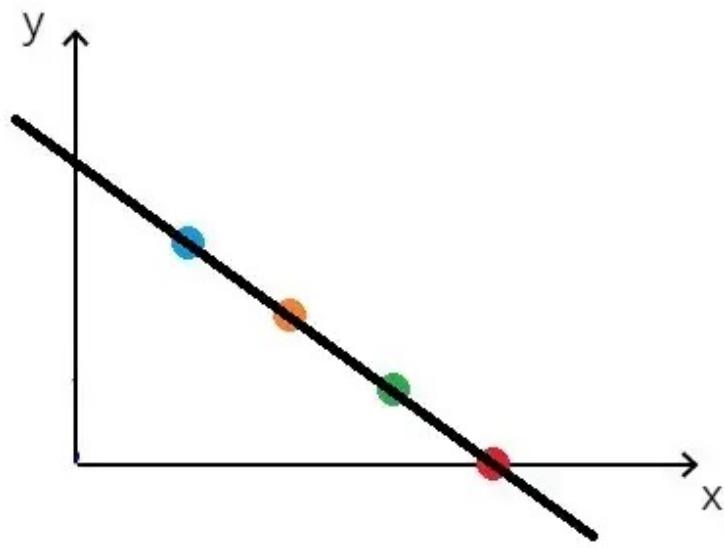
Points which form a sinusoid

It turns out that these points in (ρ, θ) space are forming a sinusoid

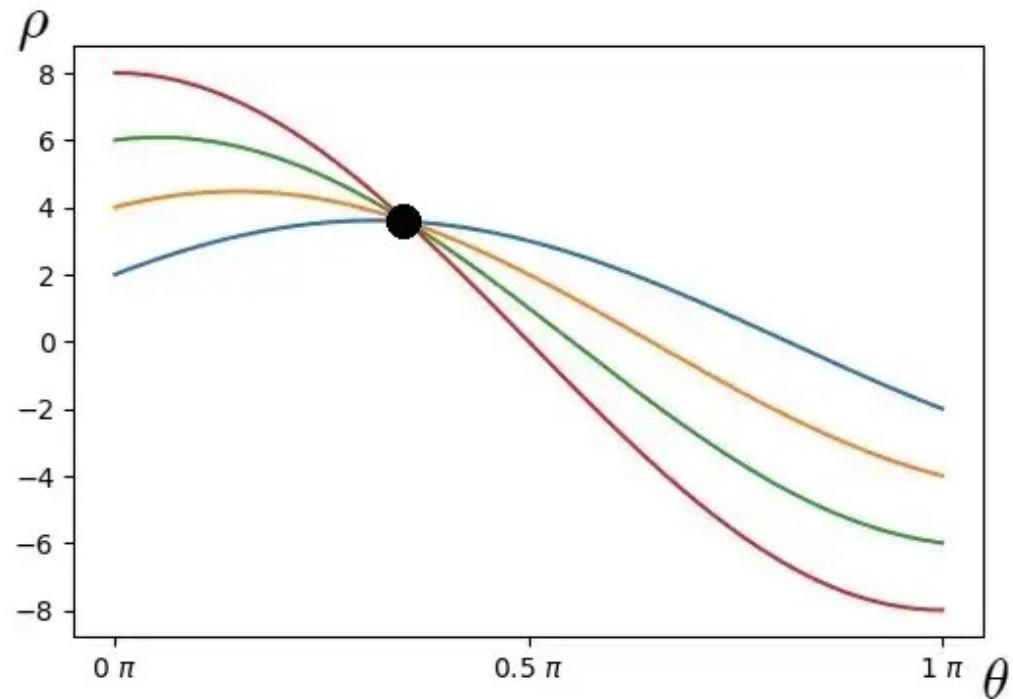
Point in Image Space to Sine in Hough Space



Point in Image Space to Sine in Hough Space

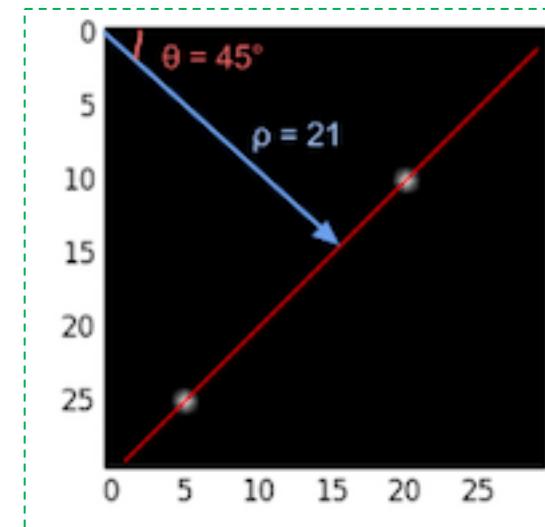
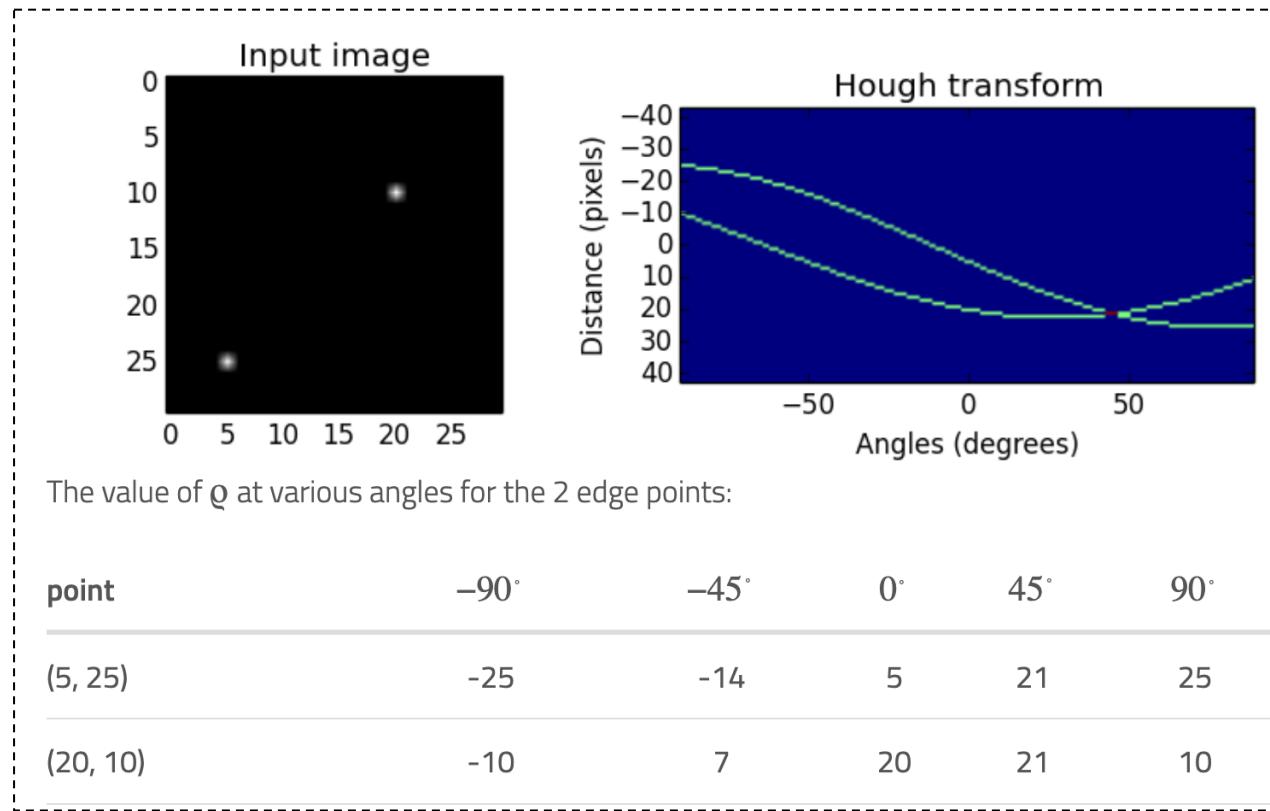


Points which form a line



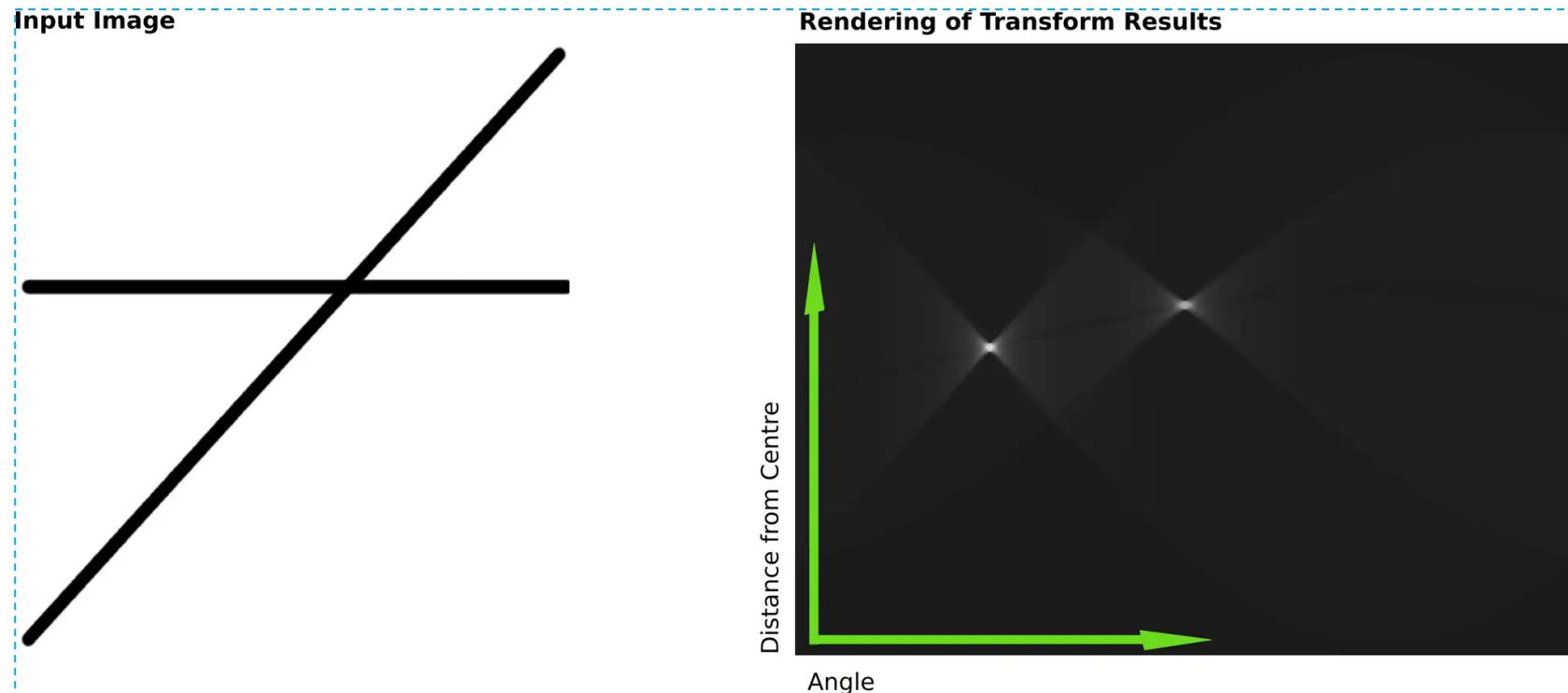
Bunch of sinusoids intersecting at one point

Point in Image Space to Sine in Hough Space



To explain the hough transform, I'll use a simple example. I've created an input binary image of size 30 x 30 pixels with points at (5, 25) and (20, 10) shown below. The image is transformed to the hough space by calculating ρ with a point at each angle from -90° to 90° (negative angles are anti-clockwise starting horizontally from the origin and positive angles are clockwise). The points in hough space make a sinusoidal curve.

Mỗi đường thẳng khác nhau sẽ tạo thành một điểm sáng (nơi giao nhau của nhiều hình sin) trên không gian Hough. Dưới đây là sự biểu diễn 2 đường thẳng trong không gian Hough.



Summary in Line Detection

To sum up, we observed following relations between Image space and Hough space:

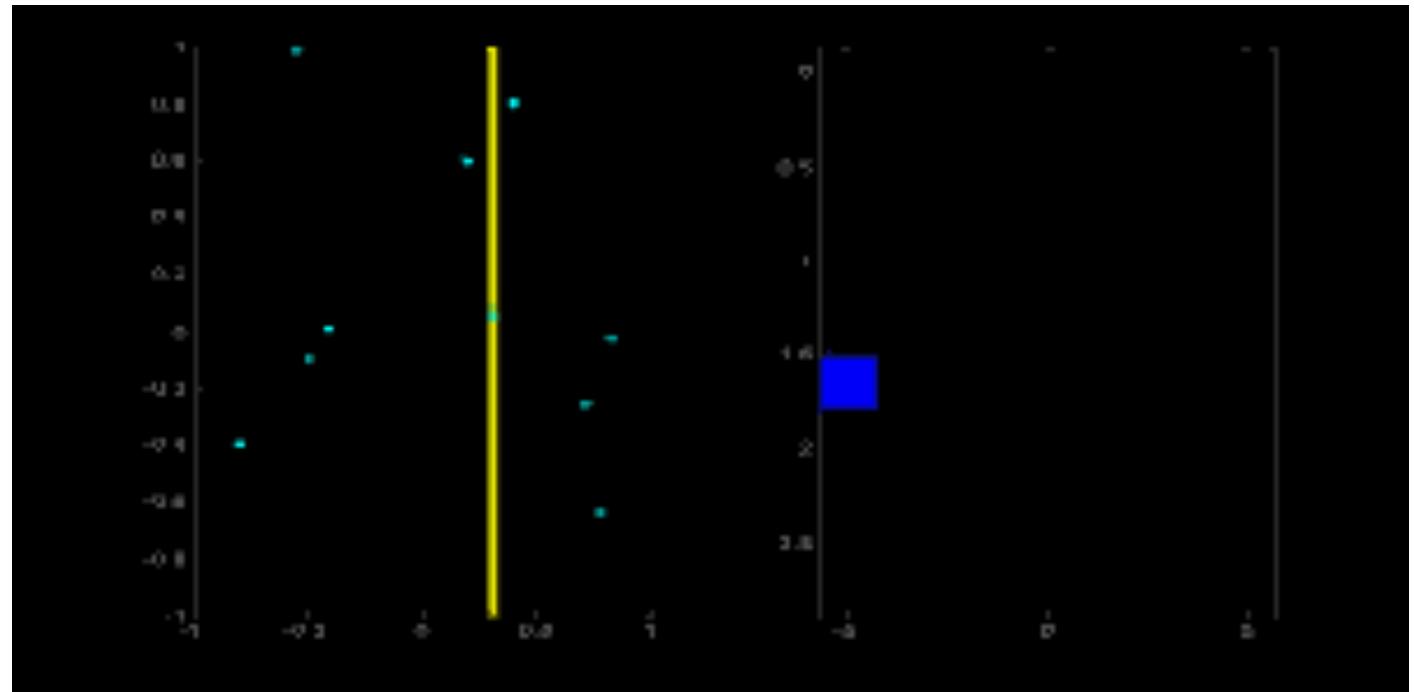
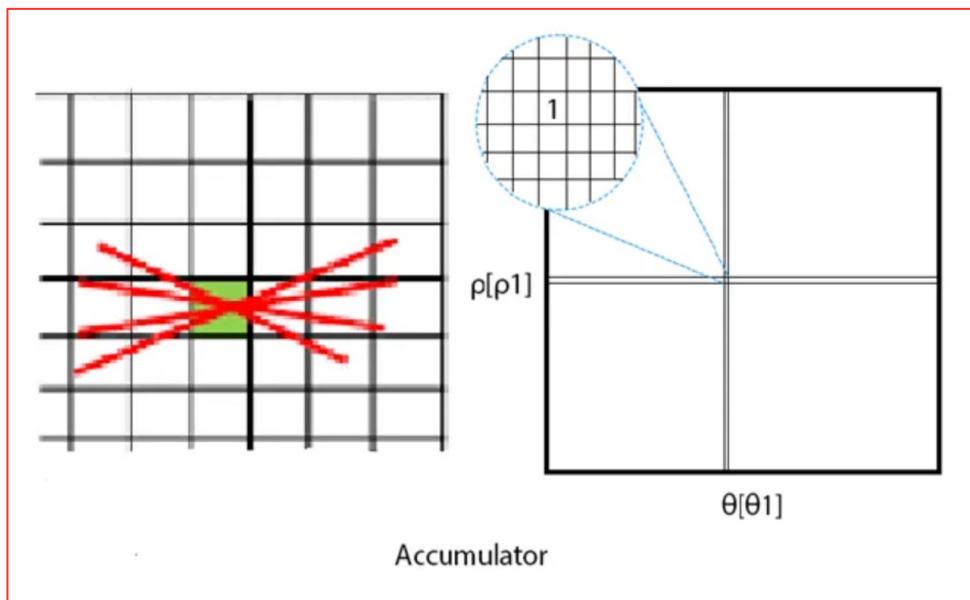
Straight line → Point

Point → Sinusoid

Multiple points on Straight line → Multiple sinusoids intersecting at a point

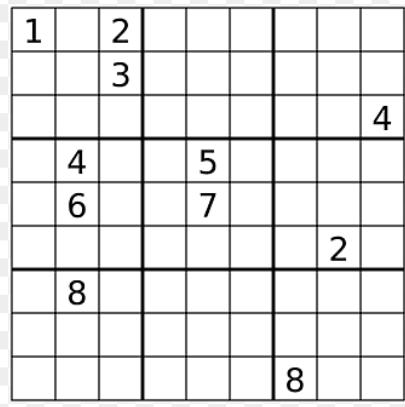
Multiple lines → Multiple sinusoid with multiple points of intersection

Lane Detection Clearly Explain

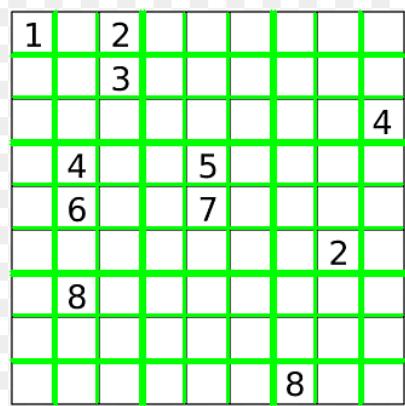


<http://homepages.inf.ed.ac.uk/amos/hough.html>

Line Detection: Hough Transform



Input Image



Line Detection Result

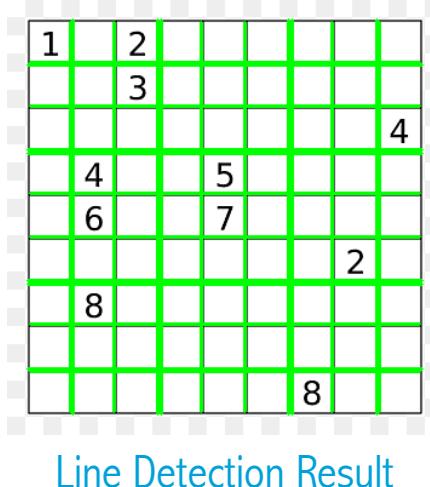
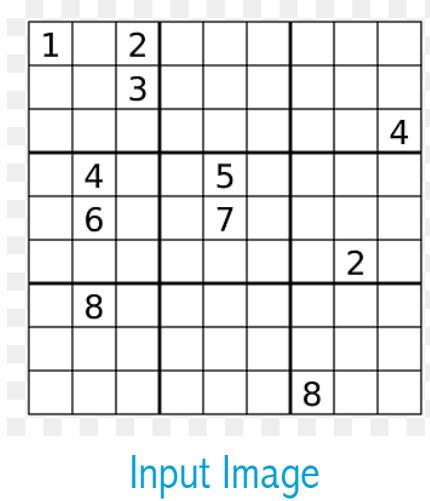
```
# Read image
image = cv2.imread('/content/sudoku.png')

# Convert image to grayscale
gray = cv2.cvtColor(image, cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)

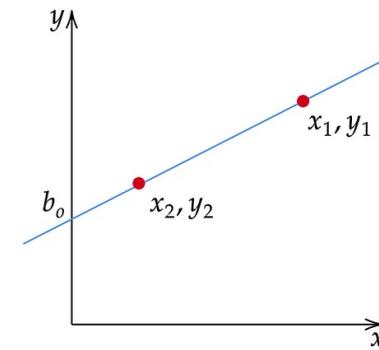
# Use canny edge detection
edges = cv2.Canny(gray,50,200)

# Apply HoughLinesP method to
# to directly obtain line end points
lines_list = []
lines = cv2.HoughLinesP(
    edges, # Input edge image
    1, # Distance resolution in pixels
    np.pi/180, # Angle resolution in radians
    threshold=200, # Min number of votes for valid line
    minLineLength=5, # Min allowed length of line
    maxLineGap=10 # Max allowed gap between line for joining them
)
```

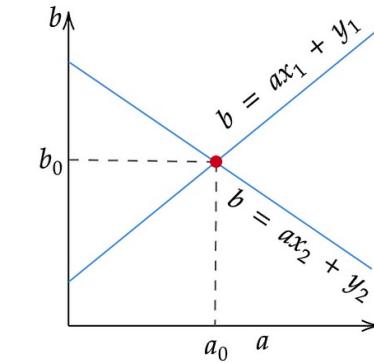
Line Detection: Hough Transform



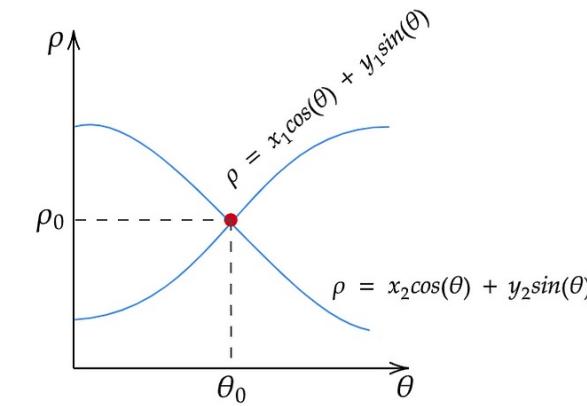
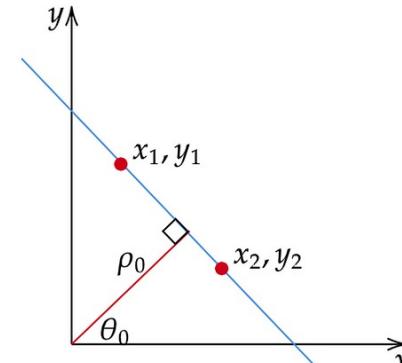
$$y = ax + b$$



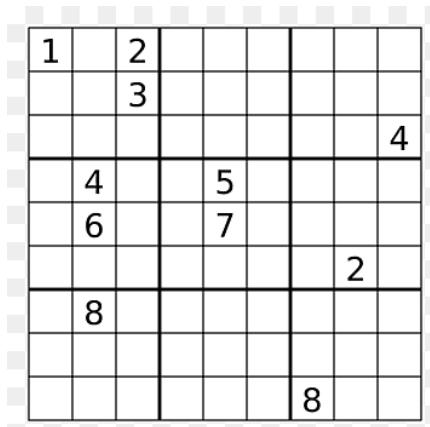
Line in the image space can be expressed with two variables



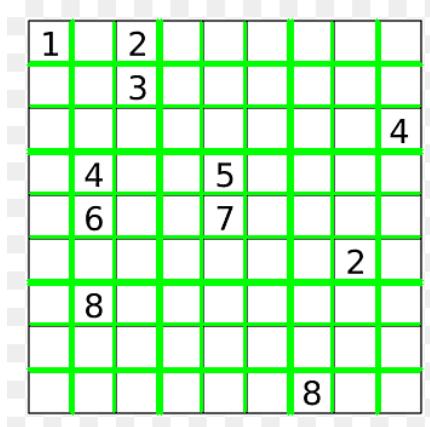
$$\rho = x \cos(\theta) + y \sin(\theta)$$



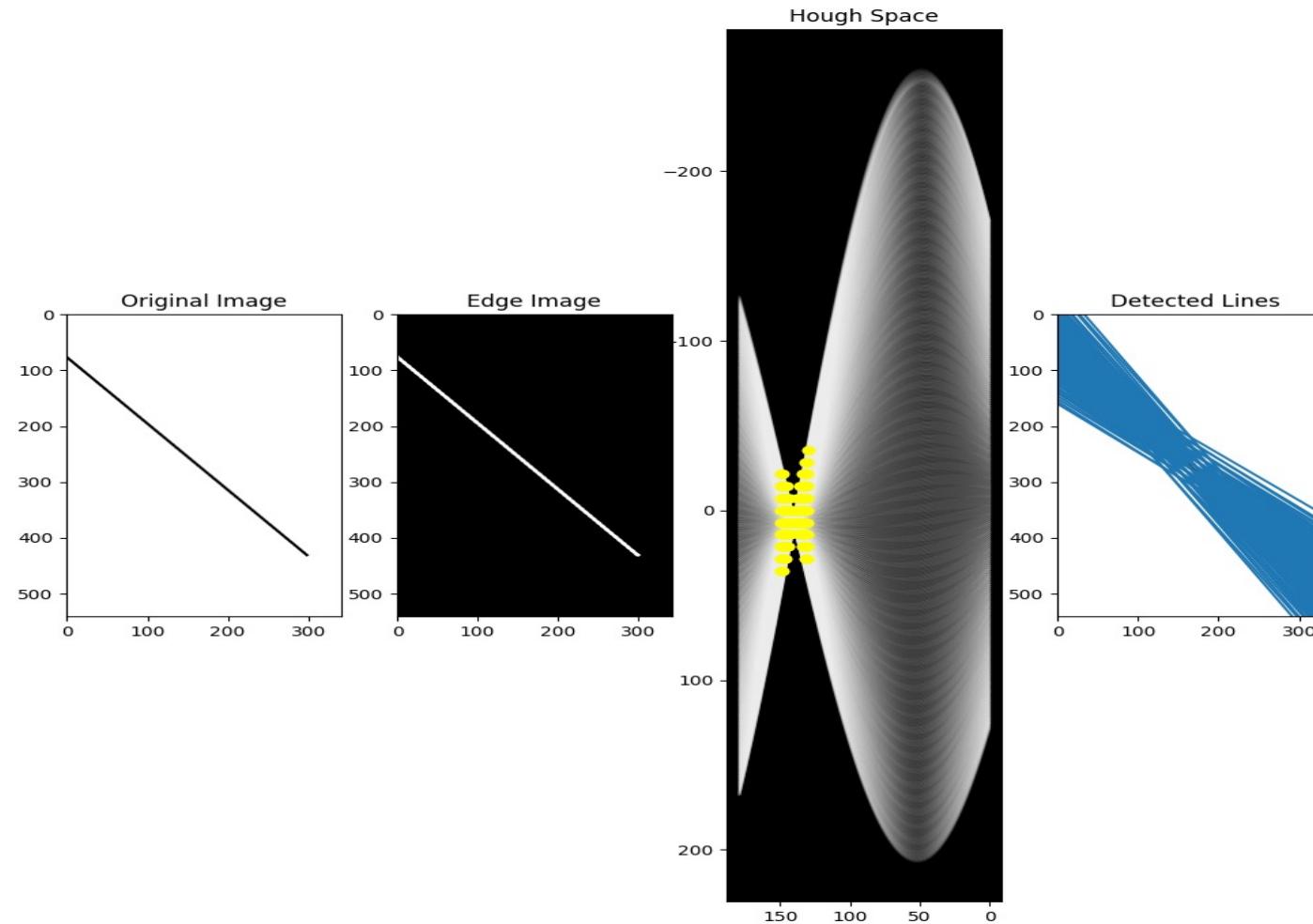
Line Detection: Hough Transform



Input Image



Line Detection Result



The yellow dots in the Hough Space indicate that lines exist and are represented by the θ and ρ pairs.

Outline

- **Background Subtraction Assignment: Review**
- **Grayscale Conversion**
- **Blurring Techniques**
- **Region of Interest (ROI)**
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- **Lane Detection Demo**

Lane Detection Demo



Research Challenges



