

Lecture 7: Edge Detection

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Review From Last Lecture

#2

- Definition of an Edge
- First Order Derivative Approximation as Edge Detector

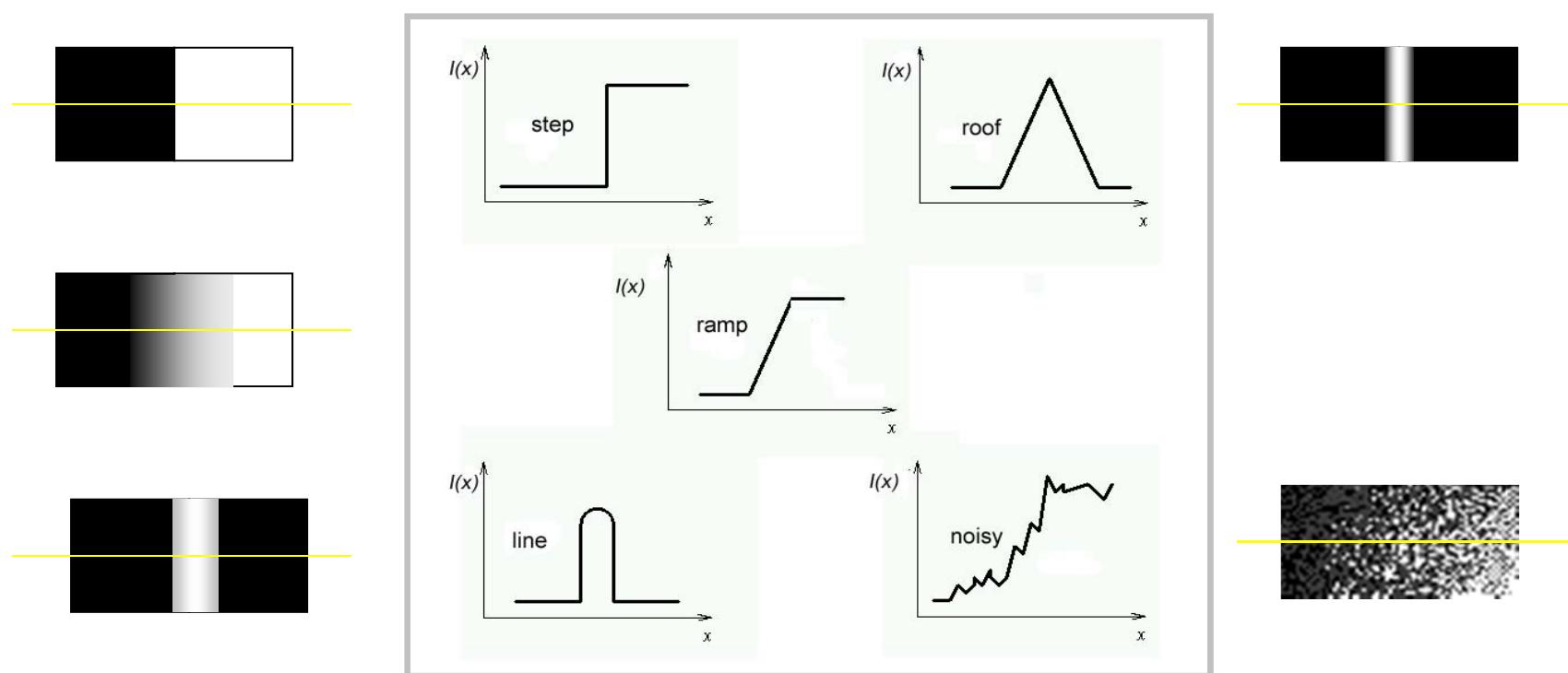
This Lecture

#3

- Examples of Edge Detection with first order derivative approximation
- Edge Detection with Second order derivative
- Combining Smoothing and Edge Detection with Laplacian of Gaussian

Summary: Edge Definition

- Edge is a boundary between two regions with relatively distinct gray level properties. #4
- Edges are pixels where the brightness function changes abruptly.
- Edge detectors are a collection of very important local image pre-processing methods used to locate (sharp) changes in the intensity function.



Criteria for Optimal Edge Detection

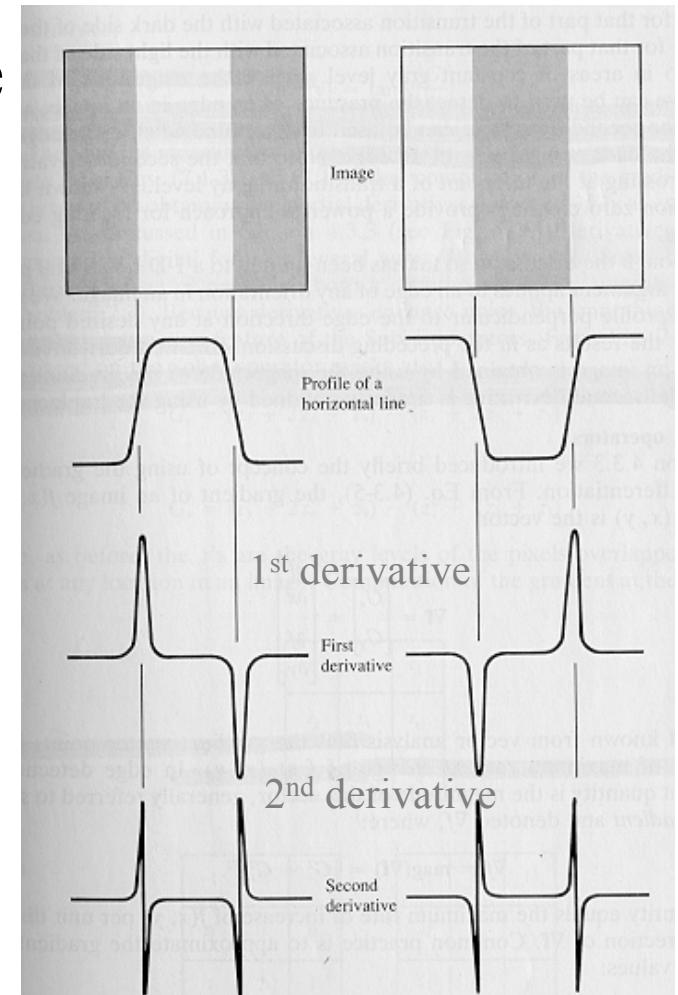
- **(1) Good detection**
 - Minimize the probability of false positives (i.e., spurious edges).
 - Minimize the probability of false negatives (i.e., missing real edges).
- **(2) Good localization**
 - Detected edges must be as close as possible to the true edges.
- **(3) Single response**
 - Minimize the number of local maxima around the true edge.

Edge Detection Using Derivatives

- Often, points that lie on an edge are detected by:

(1) Detecting the local maxima or minima of the first derivative.

(2) Detecting the zero-crossings of the second derivative.



Edge Detection Using First Derivative

sensitive to horizontal edges!

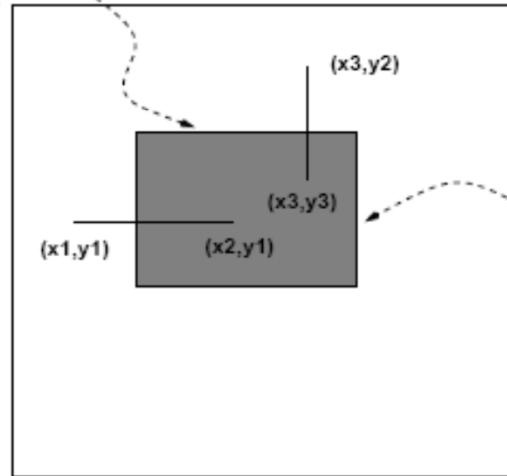
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} : \frac{f(x_3, y_2) - f(x_3, y_3)}{y_2 - y_3}$$

or $\frac{f(x, y+Dy) - f(x, y)}{-Dy} = \boxed{f(x, y) - f(x, y+1)}$ (grad in the y-direction)

($y_3=y_2+Dy$, $y_2=y$, $x_3=x$, $Dy=1$)

edge in the x-direction

(0,0)



sensitive to vertical edges!

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} :$$

$$\frac{f(x_2, y_1) - f(x_1, y_1)}{x_2 - x_1}$$

or $\frac{f(x+Dx, y) - f(x, y)}{Dx} =$
$$\boxed{f(x+1, y) - f(x, y)}$$
 (grad in the x-direction)

($x_2=x+Dx$, $x_1=x$, $y_1=y_2=y$, $Dx=1$)

Edge Detection Using First Derivative

- We can implement $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ using the following masks:

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline -1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

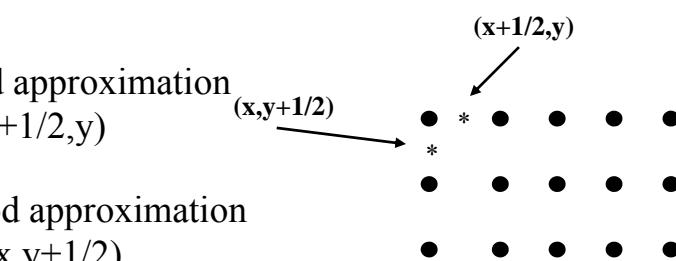
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$$

good approximation
at $(x+1/2, y)$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline 1 \\ \hline -1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

good approximation
at $(x, y+1/2)$



Approximation of First Derivative (Gradient)

- Consider the arrangement of pixels about the pixel (i, j) :

$a_0 \quad a_1 \quad a_2$
3 x 3 neighborhood: $a_7 \quad [i, j] \quad a_3$
 $a_6 \quad a_5 \quad a_4$

- The partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ can be computed by:

$$M_x = (a_2 + ca_3 + a_4) - (a_0 + ca_7 + a_6)$$
$$M_y = (a_6 + ca_5 + a_4) - (a_0 + ca_1 + a_2)$$

- The constant c implies the emphasis given to pixels closer to the center of the mask.

Prewitt Operator

- the Prewitt operator:

$$M_x = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad M_y = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

M_x and M_y are approximations at (i, j)

Sobel Operator

- the Sobel operator:

$$M_x = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad M_y = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

M_x and M_y are approximations at (i, j) .

Robert Edge Detection

- The Roberts edge detector

#12

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f(i, j) - f(i + 1, j + 1)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = f(i + 1, j) - f(i, j + 1)$$

- This approximation can be implemented by the following masks:

$$M_x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad M_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: M_x and M_y are approximations at $(i + 1/2, j + 1/2)$

Roberts Edge Detector

#13

There are two forms of the Roberts Edge Detector:

$$\sqrt{[I(r, c) - I(r - 1, c - 1)]^2 + [I(r, c - 1) - I(r - 1, c)]^2}$$

$$| I(r, c) - I(r - 1, c - 1) | + | I(r, c - 1) - I(r - 1, c) |$$

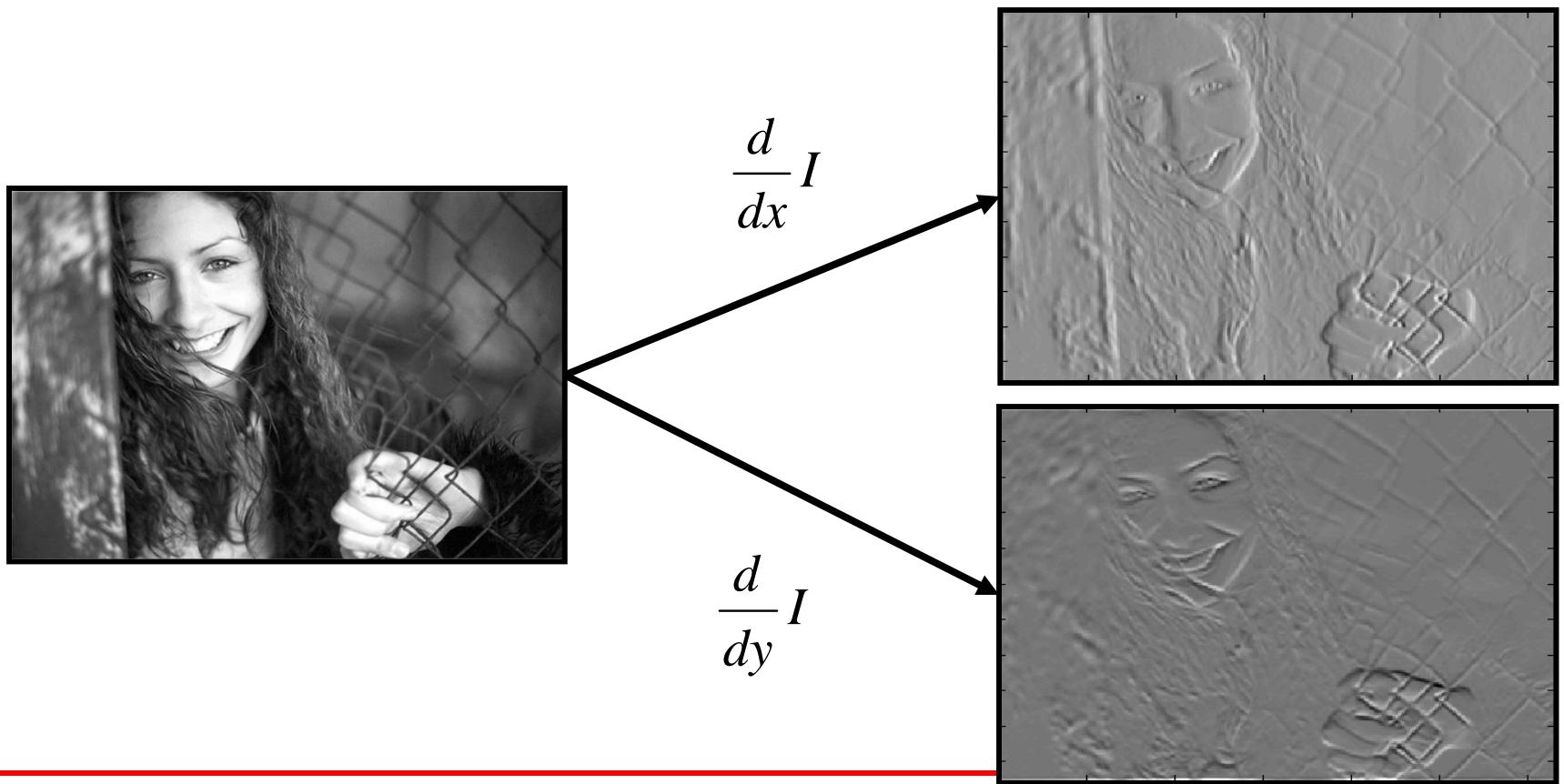
- The second form of the equation is often used in practice due to its computational efficiency

Roberts Edge Detector

#14

- A simple approximation to the first derivative
- Marks edge points only; it does not return any information about the edge orientation
- Simplest of the edge detection operators and will work best with binary images

Example



Edge Detection Using Derivative

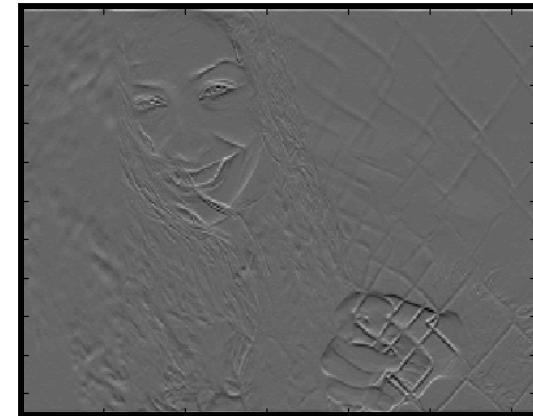
- Image derivatives:



Image I



$$I_x = I * \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



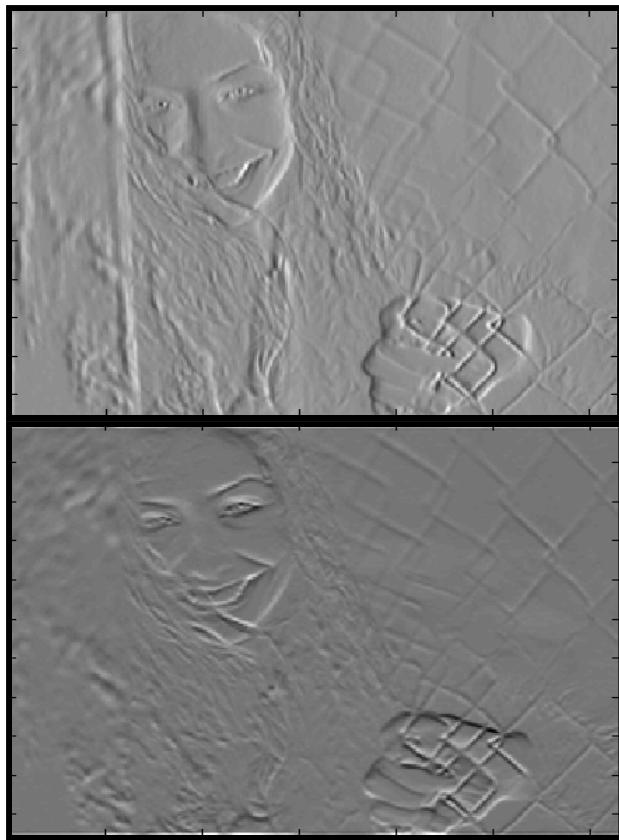
$$I_y = I * \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

#16

Edge Detection Using the Gradient

#17

- Example – cont.:



$$\Delta = \sqrt{\left(\frac{d}{dx} I\right)^2 + \left(\frac{d}{dy} I\right)^2}$$



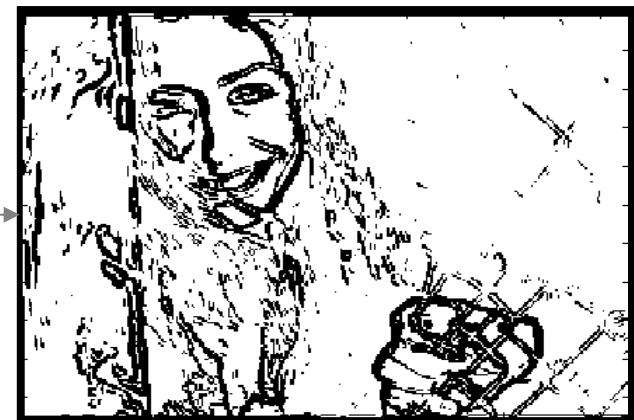
Edge Detection Using the Gradient

#18

- Example – cont.:



$$\Delta \geq \text{Threshold} = 100$$



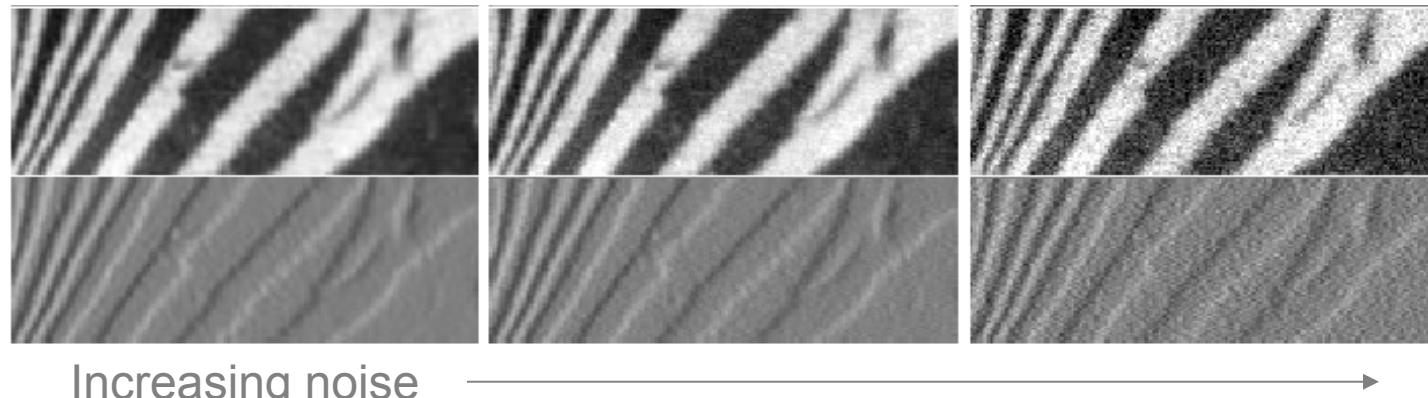
Derivatives and Noise

#19

- Derivatives are strongly affected by noise
 - obvious reason: image noise results in pixels that look very different from their neighbors
 - The larger the noise - the stronger the response
- What is to be done?
 - Neighboring pixels look alike
 - Pixel along an edge look alike
 - Image smoothing should help
 - Force pixels different to their neighbors (possibly noise) to look like neighbors

Derivatives and Noise

#20



- Need to perform image smoothing as a preliminary step
- Generally – use Gaussian smoothing

Edge Detection & Image Noise

#21

$$I(x) = \hat{I}(x) + N(x) \quad N(x) \sim N(0, \sigma) \text{ i.i.d}$$

Taking differences:

$$\begin{aligned} I'(x) &\cong \hat{I}(x+1) + N(x+1) - (\hat{I}(x-1) + N(x-1)) = \\ &= \underbrace{(\hat{I}(x+1) - \hat{I}(x-1))}_{\hat{I}'(x)} + \underbrace{(N(x+1) - N(x-1))}_{N_d(x)} \end{aligned}$$

Output noise: $E(N_d(x)) = 0$

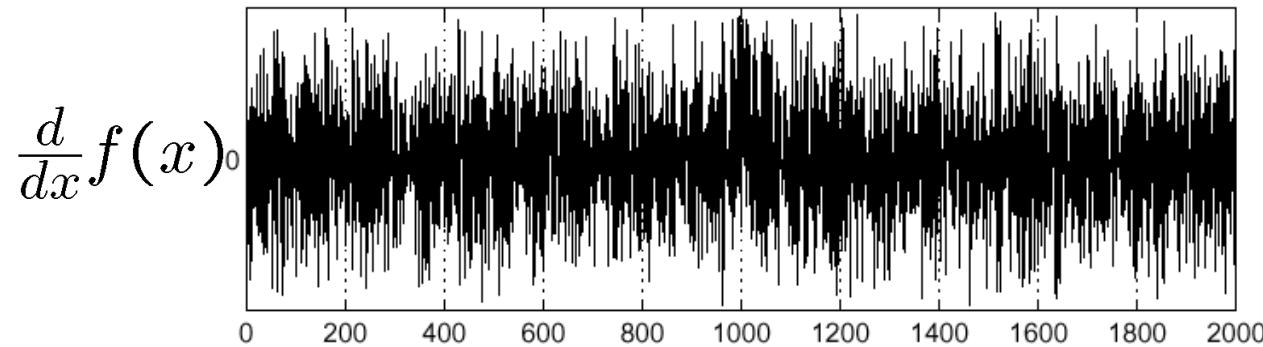
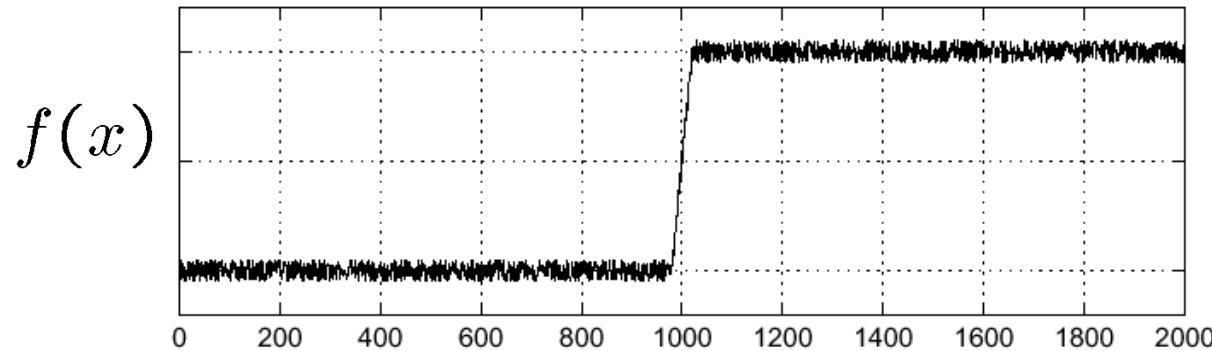
$$\begin{aligned} E(N_d^2(x)) &= E(N^2(x+1) + N^2(x-1) + 2N(x+1)N(x-1)) = \\ &= \sigma^2 + \sigma^2 + 0 = 2\sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$


Increases noise !!

Effects of noise

#22

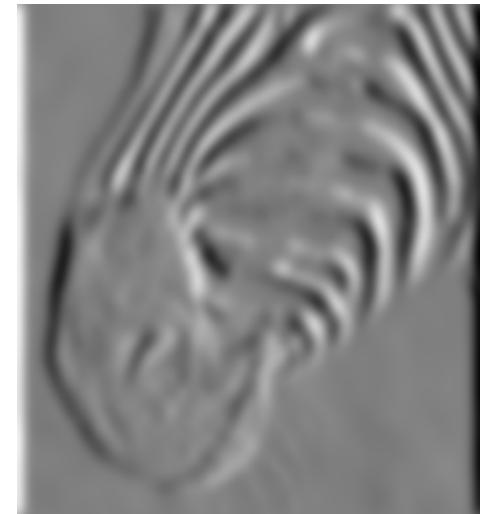
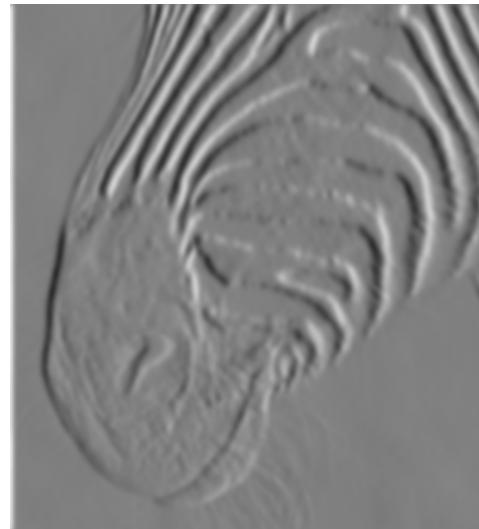
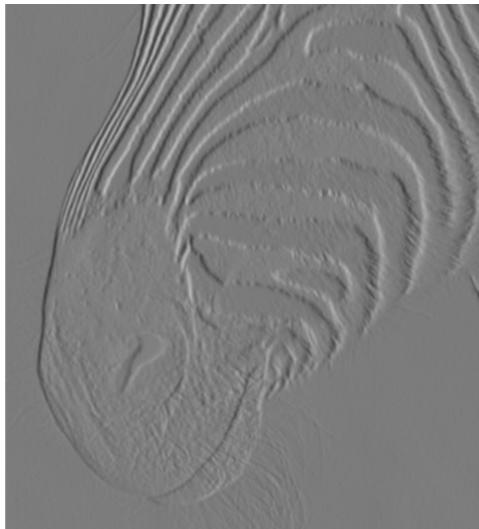
- Consider a single row or column of the image
 - Plotting intensity as a function of position gives a *signal*



- Where is the edge?

Noise in Edge Detection

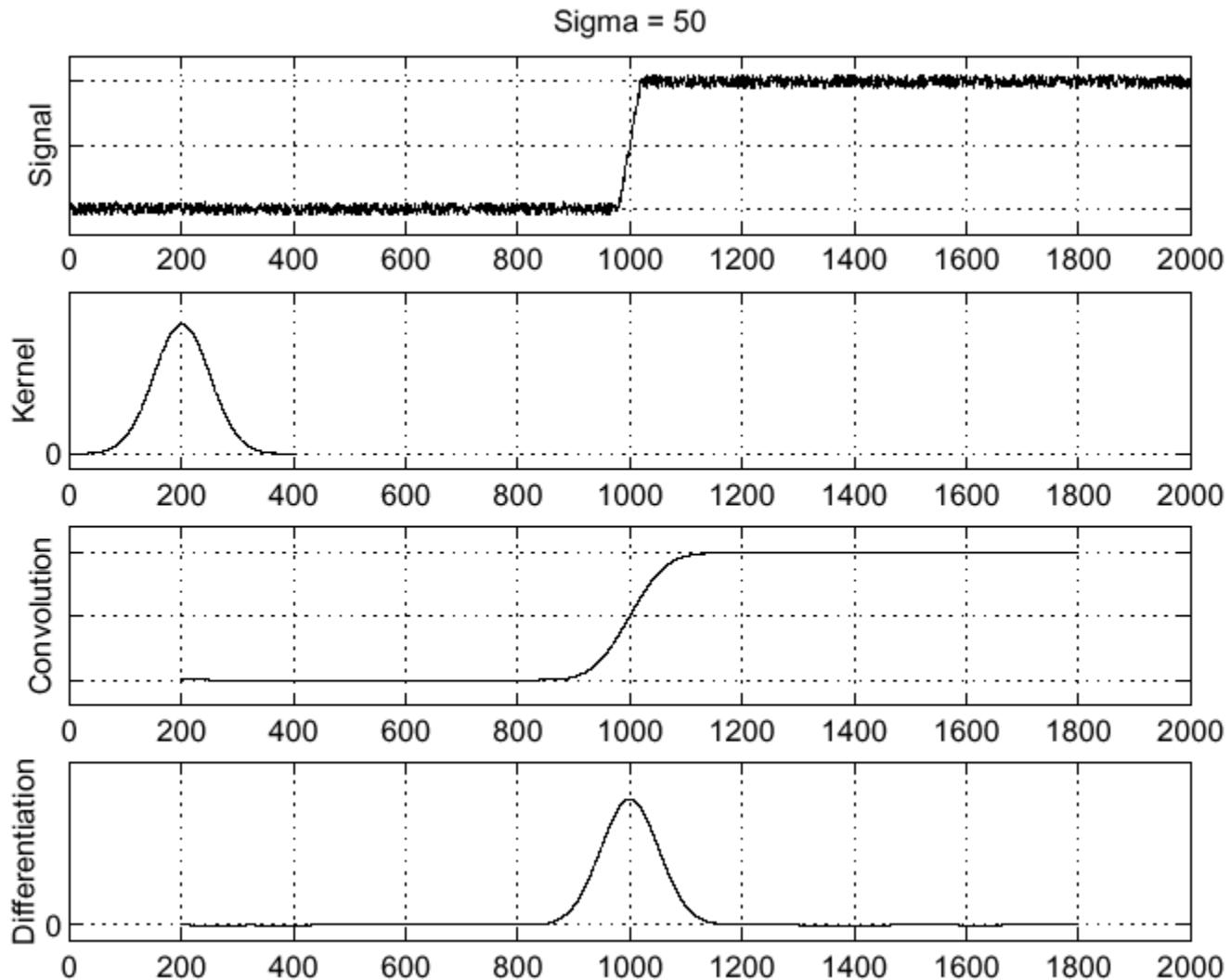
- Practical issues: #23
 - Differential masks act as high-pass filters – tend to amplify noise.
 - Reduce the effects of noise - first smooth with a low-pass filter.
- 1) The noise suppression-localization tradeoff
- a larger filter reduces noise, but worsens localization (i.e., it adds uncertainty to the location of the edge) and vice-versa.



Solution: smooth first

- Where is the edge?

f



24

$h \star f$

$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(h \star f)$

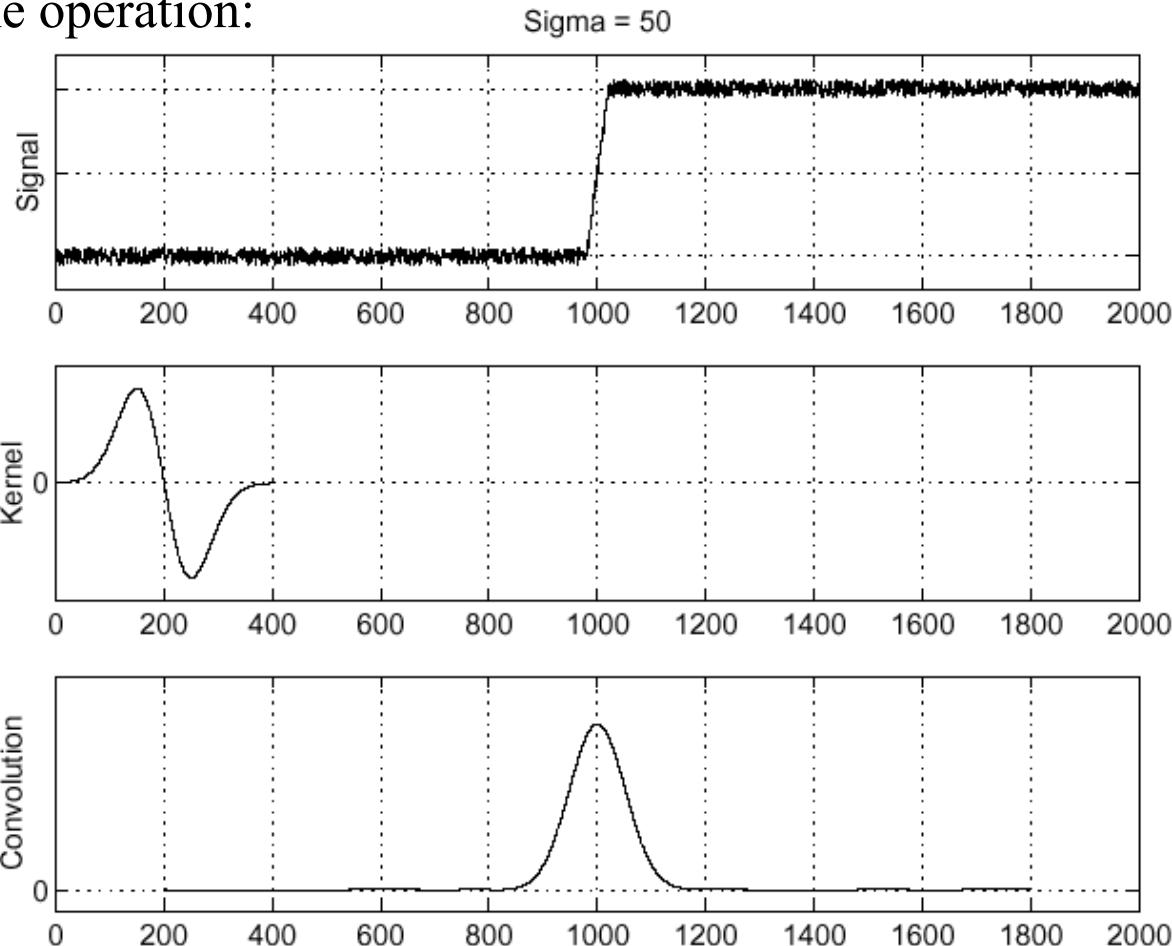
Derivative theorem of convolution

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(h \star f) = (\frac{\partial}{\partial x}h) \star f$$

#25

- This saves us one operation:

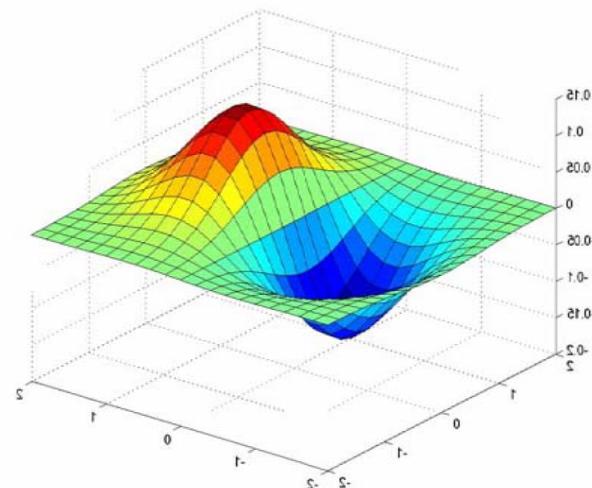
$$f$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}h$$
$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}h) \star f$$



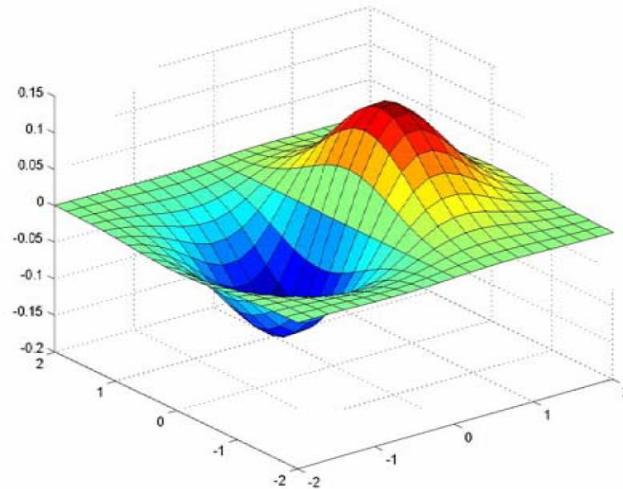
Derivative of Gaussian filters

$$(I \otimes g) \otimes h = I \otimes (g \otimes h)$$

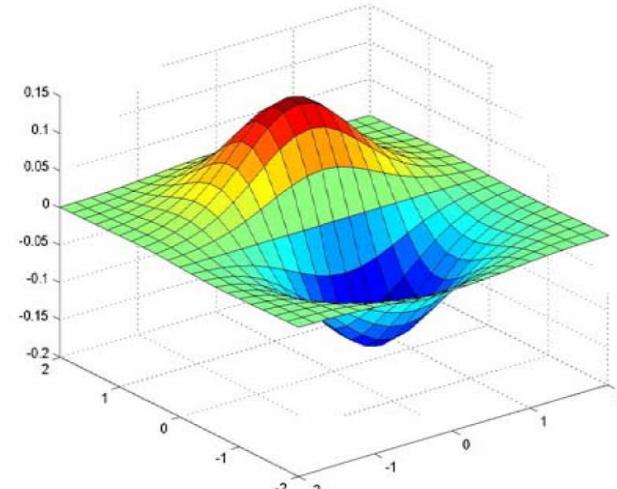
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.0030 & 0.0133 & 0.0219 & 0.0133 & 0.0030 \\ 0.0133 & 0.0596 & 0.0983 & 0.0596 & 0.0133 \\ 0.0219 & 0.0983 & 0.1621 & 0.0983 & 0.0219 \\ 0.0133 & 0.0596 & 0.0983 & 0.0596 & 0.0133 \\ 0.0030 & 0.0133 & 0.0219 & 0.0133 & 0.0030 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$



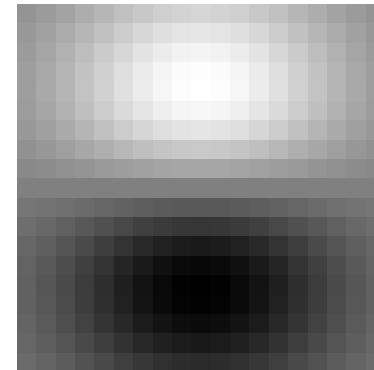
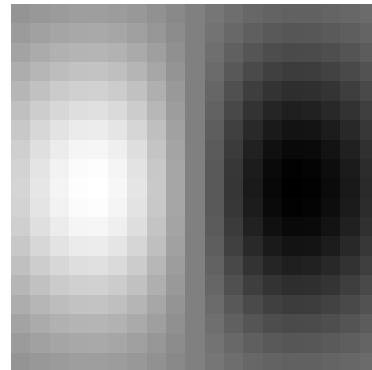
Derivative of Gaussian filters



x-direction

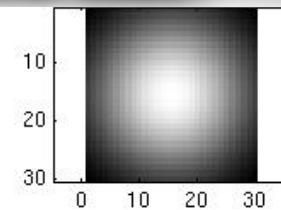
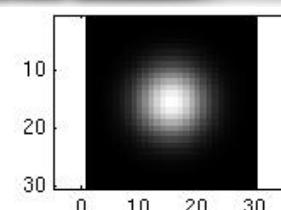
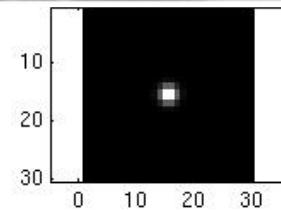


y-direction

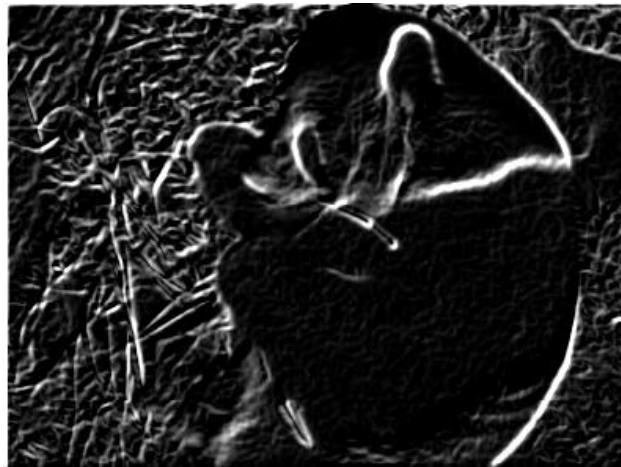


Smoothing with a Gaussian

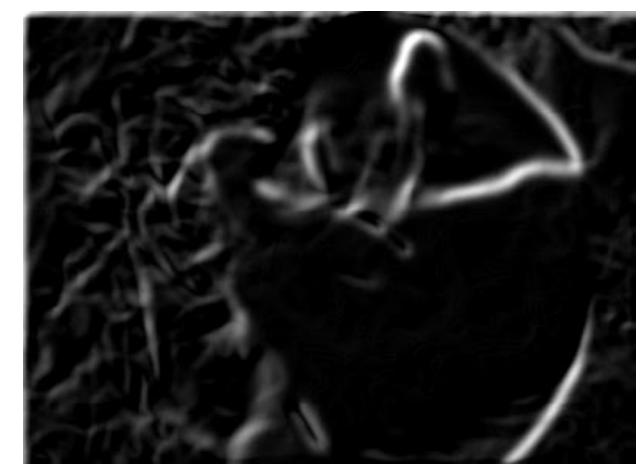
Recall: parameter σ is the “scale” / “width” / “spread” of the Gaussian kernel, and controls the amount of smoothing.



Effect of σ on derivatives



$\sigma = 1$ pixel



$\sigma = 3$ pixels

The apparent structures differ depending on Gaussian's scale parameter.

Larger values: larger scale edges detected

Smaller values: finer features detected

Edge Detection Steps Using Gradient

(1) Smooth the input image ($\hat{f}(x, y) = f(x, y) * G(x, y)$)

$$(2) \hat{f}_x = \hat{f}(x, y) * M_x(x, y) \longrightarrow \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$$

$$(3) \hat{f}_y = \hat{f}(x, y) * M_y(x, y) \longrightarrow \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

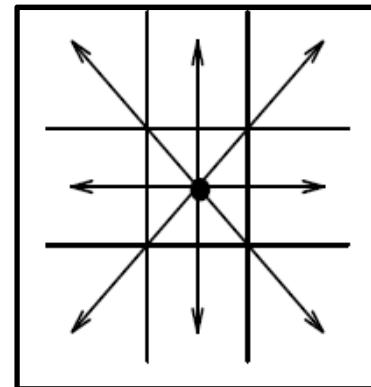
(4) $magn(x, y) = |\hat{f}_x| + |\hat{f}_y|$ (i.e., **sqrt** is costly!)

$$(5) dir(x, y) = \tan^{-1}(\hat{f}_y / \hat{f}_x)$$

(6) If $magn(x, y) > T$, then possible edge point

Edge Direction Implementation

- Typically quantize the gradient orientation to a fixed number of orientations
- You can identify the edges based on magnitude and direction



How Many Directions or Levels ?



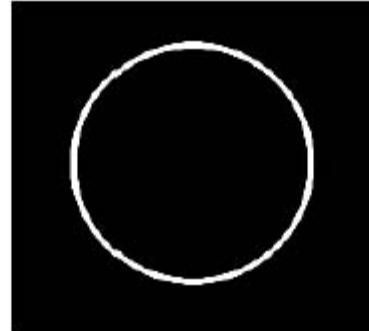
#32

Isotropy

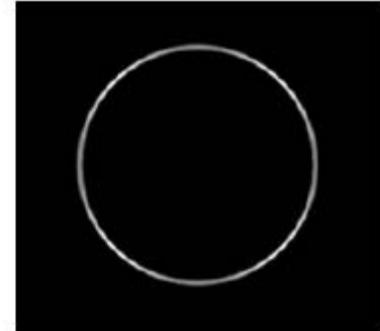
#33



original image



isotropic filter



anisotropic filter

- **Isotropic** filter: uniform edge magnitude for all directions
- **Anisotropic** edge filter: non-uniform magnitude
- In this illustration, response depends on edge orientation
 - directions $45^\circ \cdot k$ are amplified
 - directions $90^\circ \cdot k$ are suppressed

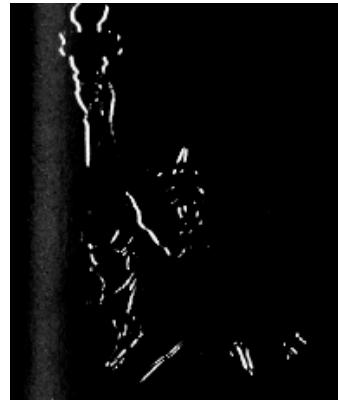
Isotropic property of gradient magnitude

- The magnitude of the gradient detects edges in all directions.

$$\frac{d}{dx} I$$

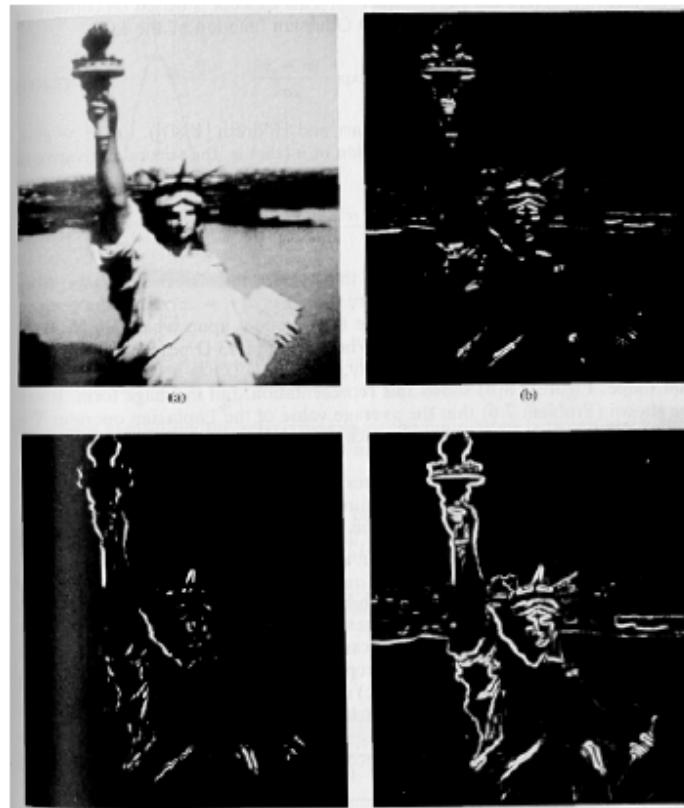
$$\frac{d}{dy} I$$

$$\nabla = \sqrt{\left(\frac{d}{dx} I\right)^2 + \left(\frac{d}{dy} I\right)^2}$$



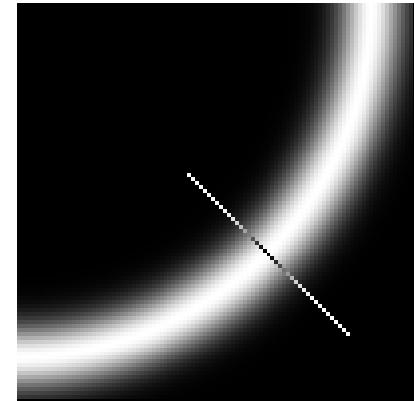
Edge Detection Using the Gradient

- Isotropic property of gradient magnitude: #35
 - The magnitude of gradient is an *isotropic* operator (it detects edges in any direction !!)



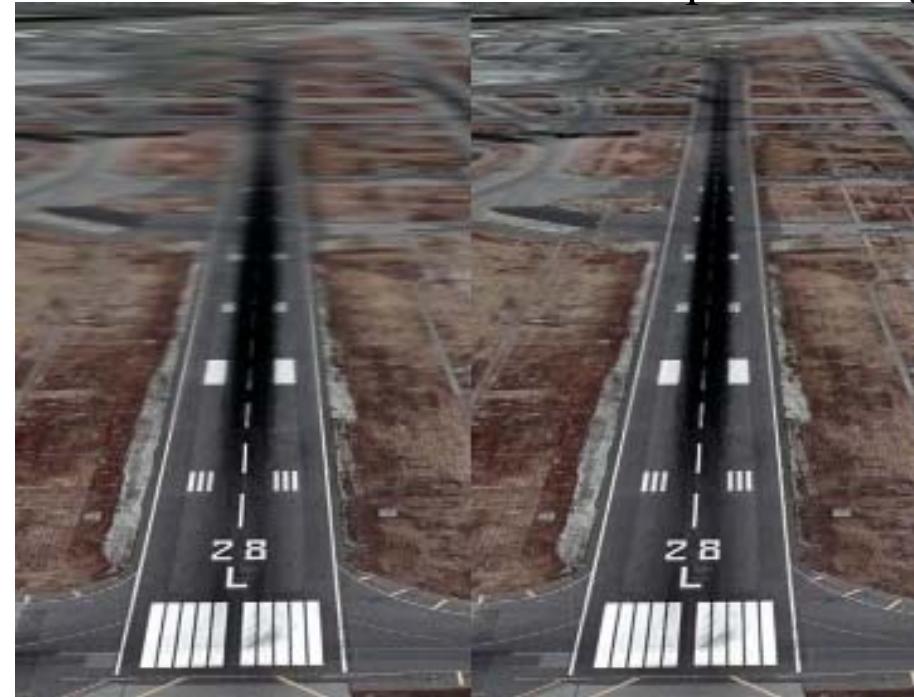
Anisotropic Filtering (i.e., edge preserving smoothing)

- Symmetric Gaussian smoothing tends to blur out edges rather aggressively.
- An “oriented” smoothing operator would work better:
 - (i) Smooth aggressively perpendicular to the gradient
 - (ii) Smooth little along the gradient



Anisotropic filtering - Example

result using
anisotropic filtering

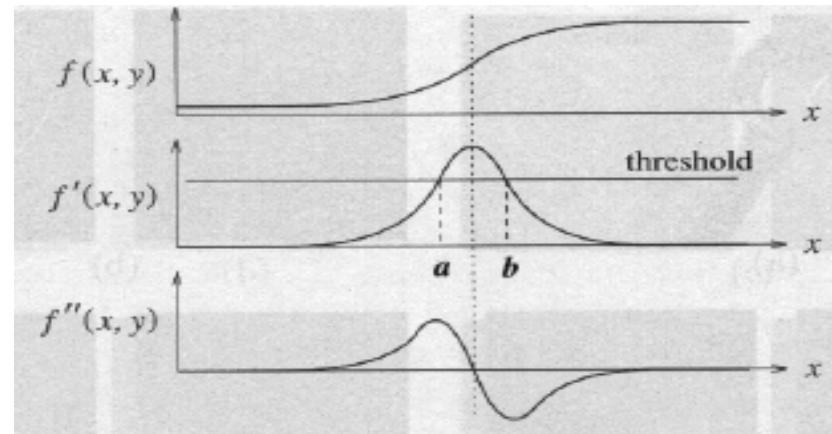




#38

Edge Detection Using the 2nd Derivative

- Edge points can be detected by finding the zero-crossings of the second derivative. #39



- There are two approaches that uses the second derivative to identify the edge presence
 - Smoothing then apply Gradient
 - Combine smoothing and Gradient Operations

Edge Detection Using Second Derivative

- Approximate finding maxima/minima of gradient magnitude by finding places where:
$$\frac{df^2}{dx^2}(x) = 0$$
- Can't always find discrete pixels where the second derivative is zero – look for **zero-crossing** instead.

Edge Detection Using Second Derivative

- Computing the 2nd derivative:

#41

$$f''(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(x+h) - f'(x)}{h} \approx f'(x+1) - f'(x) = \\ f(x+2) - 2f(x+1) + f(x) \quad (h=1)$$

- This approximation is centered about $x + 1$
- By replacing $x + 1$ by x we obtain:

$$f''(x) \approx f(x+1) - 2f(x) + f(x-1)$$

mask: [1 -2 1]

Image Derivatives

- 1st order

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f(x + 1) - f(x)$$

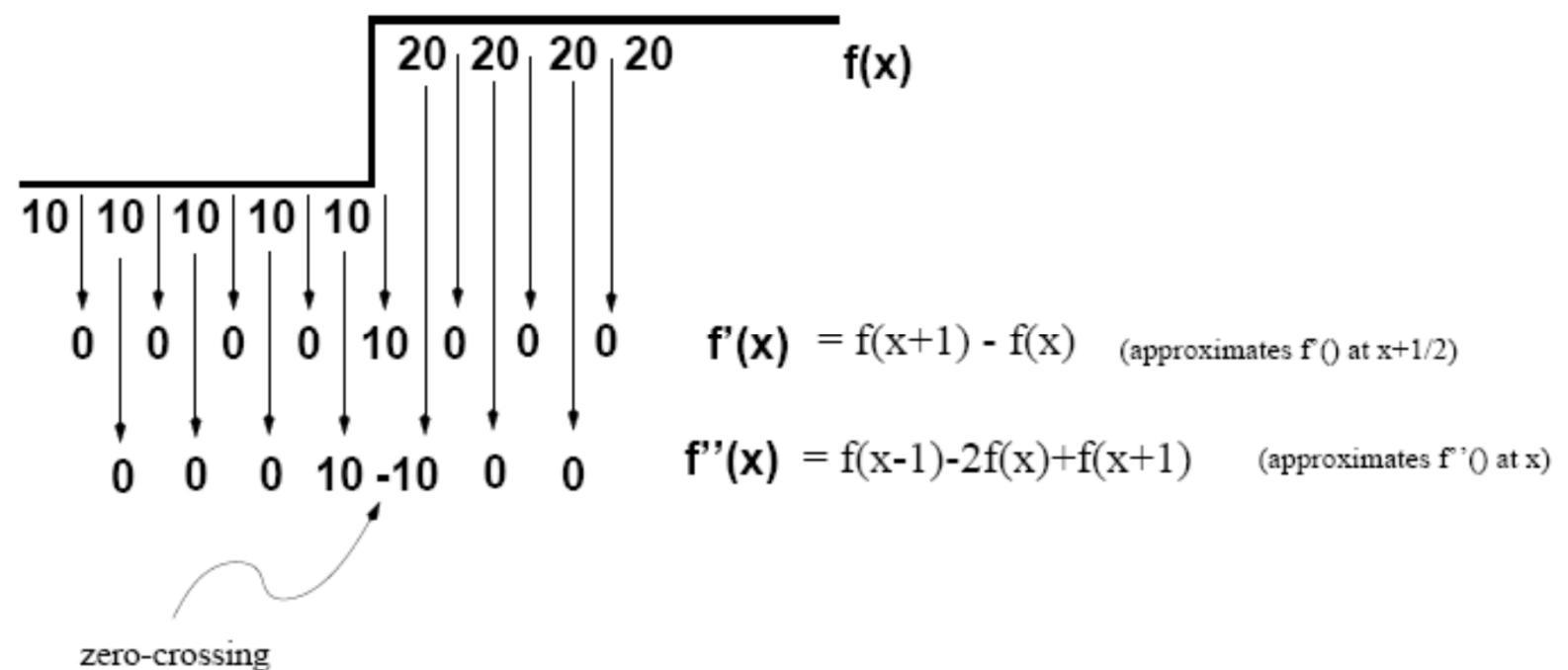


- 2nd order

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = f(x + 1) + f(x - 1) - 2 f(x)$$



Edge Detection Using Second Derivative (cont'd)



Edge Detection Using Second Derivative (cont'd)

- Computing the 2nd derivative – cont.
 - Examples using the edge models:

#44

mask M = [-1, 2, -1]

S_1				12	12	12	12	12	24	24	24	24	24
S_1	\otimes	M		0	0	0	0	-12	12	0	0	0	0

(a) S_1 is an upward step edge

S_2				24	24	24	24	24	12	12	12	12	12
S_2	\otimes	M		0	0	0	0	12	-12	0	0	0	0

(b) S_2 is a downward step edge

S_3				12	12	12	12	15	18	21	24	24	24
S_3	\otimes	M		0	0	0	-3	0	0	0	3	0	0

(c) S_3 is an upward ramp

S_4				12	12	12	12	24	12	12	12	12	12
S_4	\otimes	M		0	0	0	-12	24	-12	0	0	0	0

Edge Detection Using Second Derivative (cont'd)

(upward) step edge

S_1			12	12	12	12	12	24	24	24	24	24
S_1	\otimes	M	0	0	0	0	-12	12	0	0	0	0

(downward) step edge

S_2			24	24	24	24	24	12	12	12	12	12
S_2	\otimes	M	0	0	0	0	12	-12	0	0	0	0

ramp edge

S_3			12	12	12	12	15	18	21	24	24	24
S_3	\otimes	M	0	0	0	-3	0	0	0	3	0	0

roof edge

S_4			12	12	12	12	24	12	12	12	12	12
S_4	\otimes	M	0	0	0	-12	24	-12	0	0	0	0

Edge Detection Using Second Derivative (cont'd)

- Four cases of zero-crossings:
 $\{+, -\}$, $\{+, 0, -\}$, $\{-, +\}$, $\{-, 0, +\}$
- **Slope** of zero-crossing $\{a, -b\}$ is: $|a+b|$.
- To detect “strong” zero-crossing, threshold the slope.

Second Derivative in 2D: Laplacian

The *Laplacian* is defined mathematically as

$$\nabla^2 = \nabla \cdot \nabla = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}$$

When we apply it to an image, we get

$$\nabla^2 f = \left(\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \right) I = \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial y^2}$$

Second Derivative in 2D: Laplacian

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = f(i, j + 1) - 2f(i, j) + f(i, j - 1)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = f(i + 1, j) - 2f(i, j) + f(i - 1, j)$$

$$\nabla^2 f = -4f(i, j) + f(i, j + 1) + f(i, j - 1) + f(i + 1, j) + f(i - 1, j)$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & -2 & 1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & -2 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} \quad = \quad \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & -4 & 1 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Variations of Laplacian

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0.0 & 0.5 \\ 1.0 & -4.0 & 1.0 \\ 0.5 & 0.0 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 1.0 & 0.5 \\ 0.0 & -4.0 & 0.0 \\ 0.5 & 1.0 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -8 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -2 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & -4 & -1 \\ 2 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Laplacian - Example

detect zero-crossings

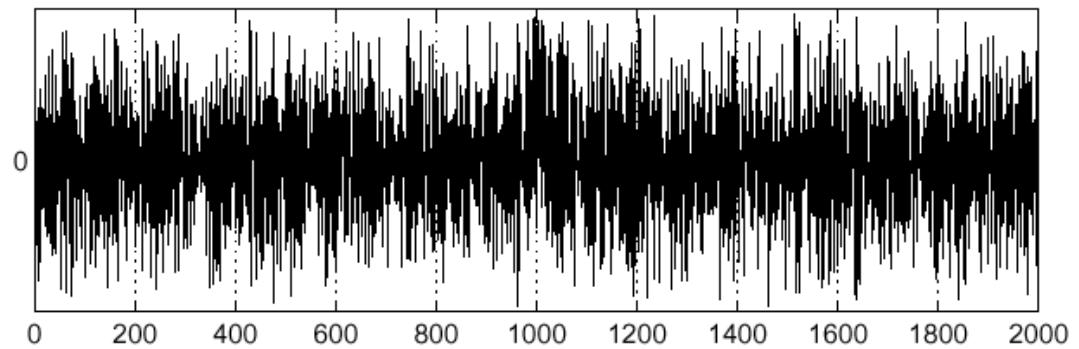
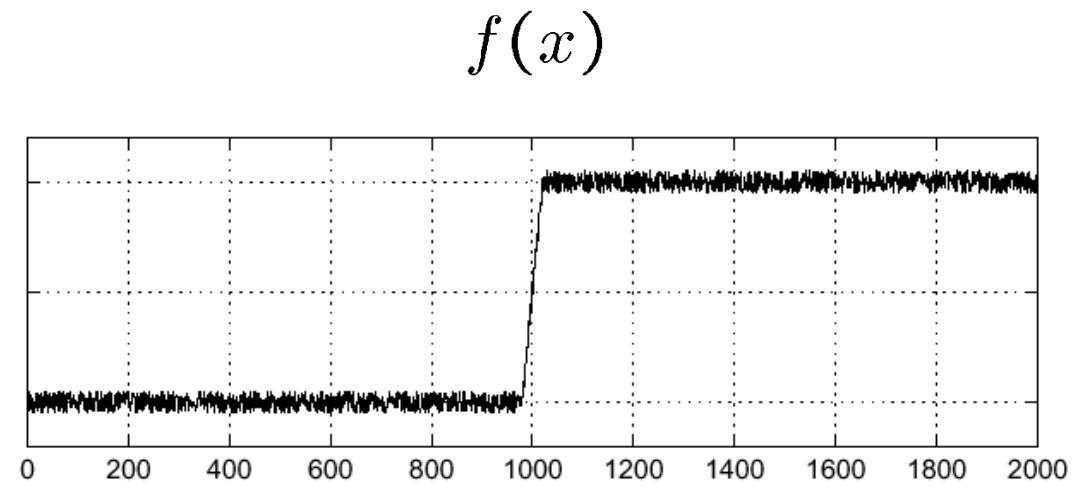
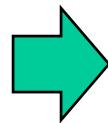
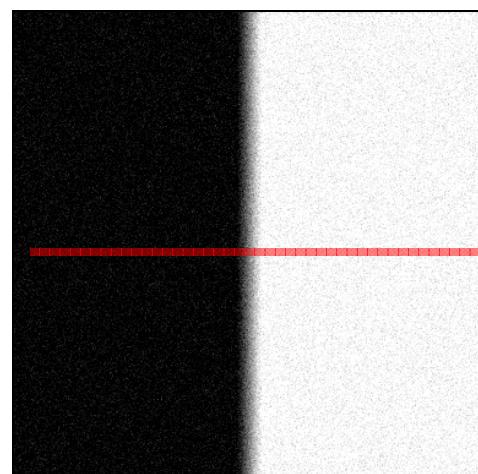
5	5	5	5	5	5
5	5	5	5	5	5
5	5	10	10	10	10
5	5	10	10	10	10
5	5	5	10	10	10
5	5	5	5	10	10

-	-	-	-	-	-	-
-	0	-5	-5	-5	-	-
-	-5	10	5	5	-	-
-	-5	10	0	0	-	-
-	0	-10	10	0	-	-
-	-	-	-	-	-	-

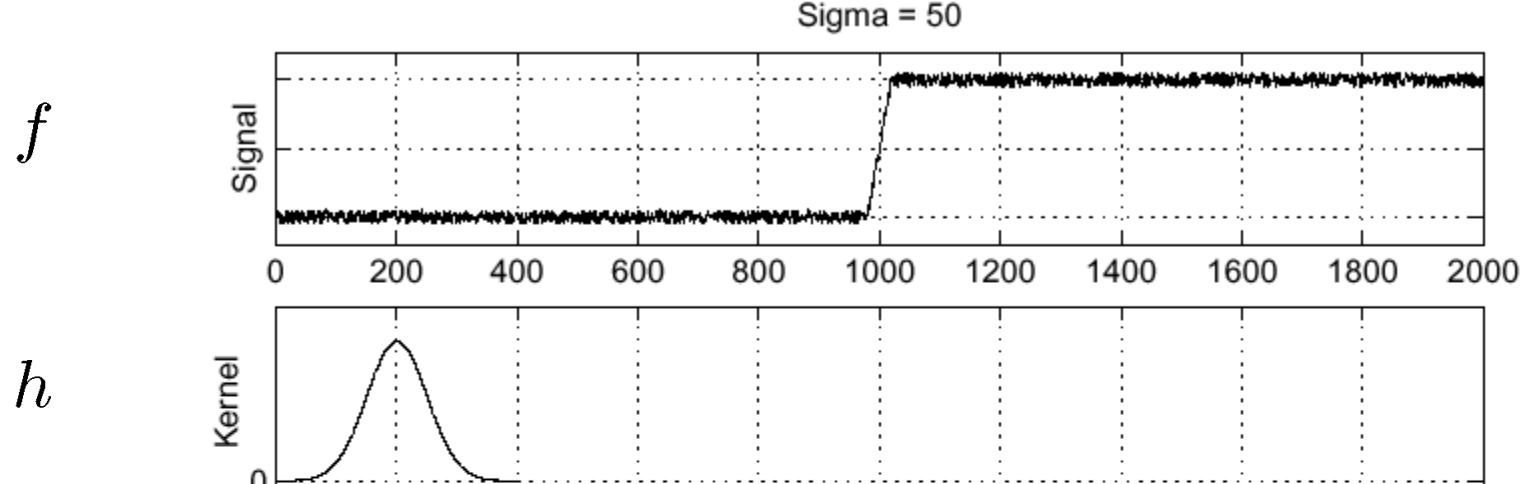
Properties of Laplacian

- It is cheaper to implement than the gradient (i.e., one mask only).
- It does not provide information about edge direction.
- It is more sensitive to noise (i.e., differentiates twice).
- It is an isotropic operator (equal weights in all directions)

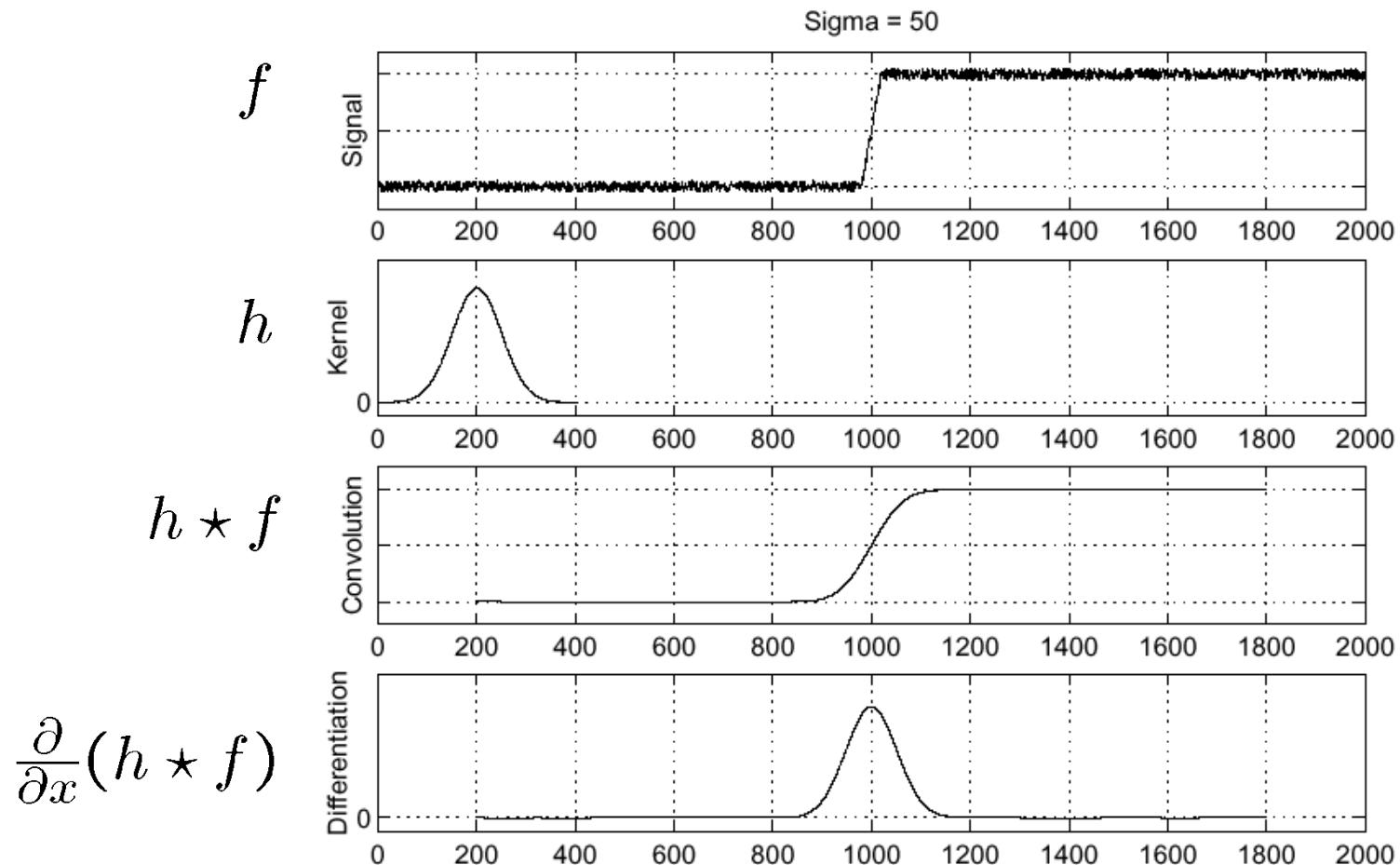
Noise Effect on Derivates



Solution: smooth first

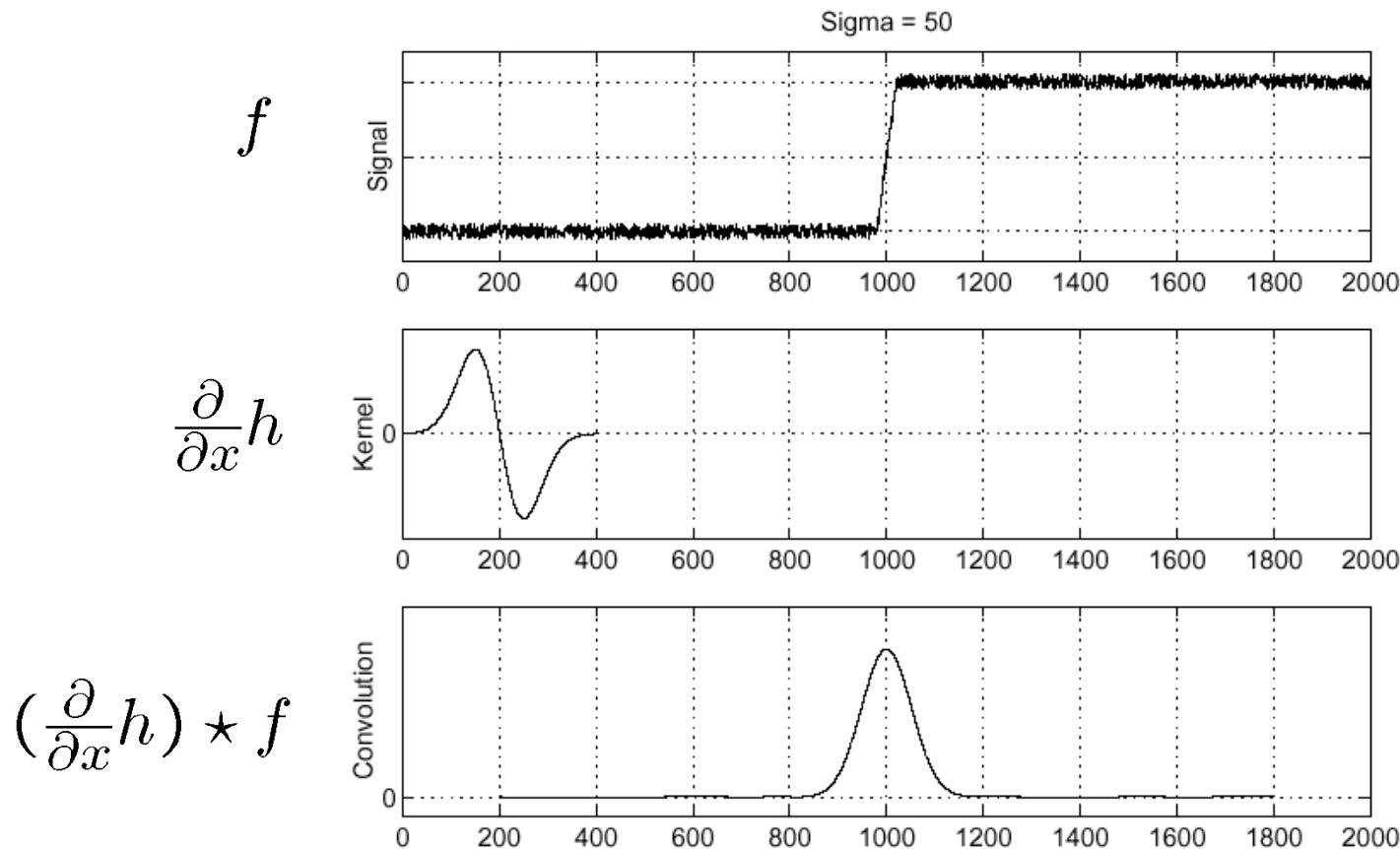


Effect of Smoothing on Derivatives (cont'd)



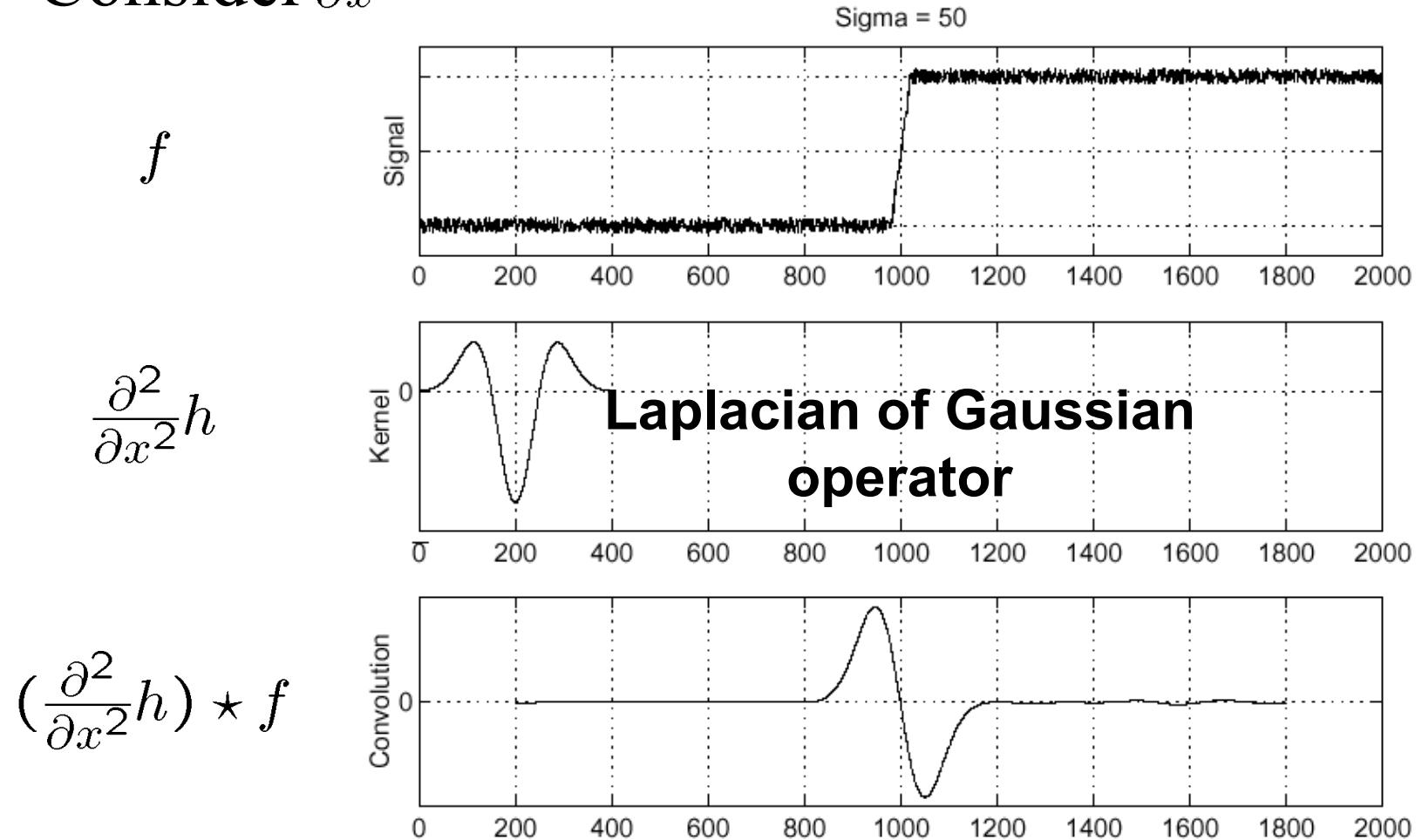
Combine Smoothing with Differentiation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(h \star f) = (\frac{\partial}{\partial x}h) \star f \quad (\text{i.e., saves one operation})$$



Laplacian of Gaussian

Consider $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}(h \star f)$

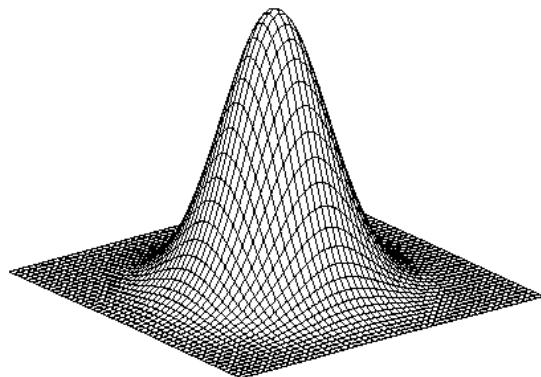


ME526 - Where Is the edge?

Zero-crossings of bottom graph

Slide credit: Steve Seitz

2D edge detection filters



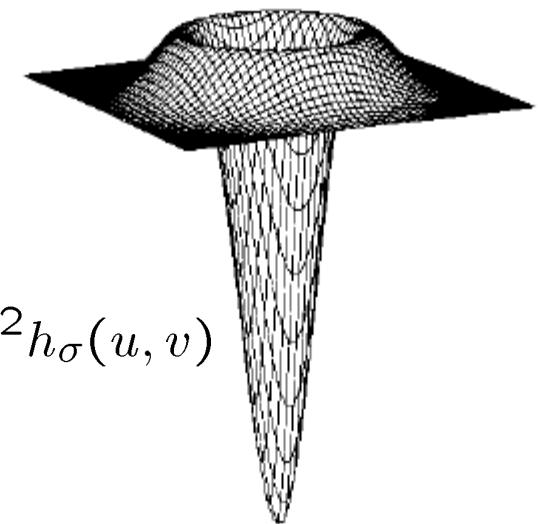
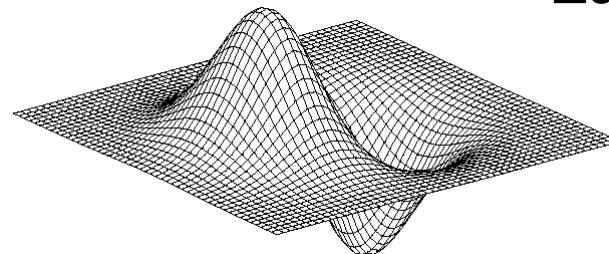
Gaussian

$$h_\sigma(u, v) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{u^2+v^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

derivative of Gaussian

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} h_\sigma(u, v)$$

Laplacian of Gaussian



- ∇^2 is the Laplacian operator:

$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG) (Marr-Hildreth operator)

- To reduce the noise effect, the image is first smoothed.
- When the filter chosen is a Gaussian, we call it the LoG edge detector.

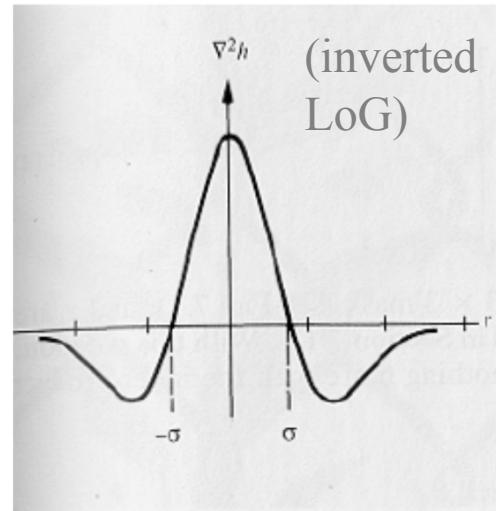
$$G(x, y) = e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

σ controls smoothing

- It can be shown that:

$$\nabla^2[f(x, y) * G(x, y)] = \nabla^2G(x, y) * f(x, y)$$

$$\nabla^2G(x, y) = \left(\frac{r^2 - 2\sigma^2}{\sigma^4}\right)e^{-r^2/2\sigma^2}, (r^2 = x^2 + y^2)$$



Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG) (Marr-Hildreth operator)

- The 2-D Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG) function centered on zero and with Gaussian standard deviation σ has the form:

$$LoG(x, y) = -\frac{1}{\pi\sigma^4} \left[1 - \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right] e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

where σ is the standard deviation

- The amount of smoothing can be controlled by varying the value of the standard deviation.

Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG) - Example

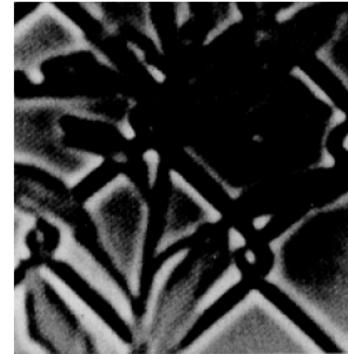
$$5 \times 5 \text{ Laplacian of Gaussian mask}$$

0	0	-1	0	0
0	-1	-2	-1	0
-1	-2	16	-2	-1
0	-1	-2	-1	0
0	0	-1	0	0

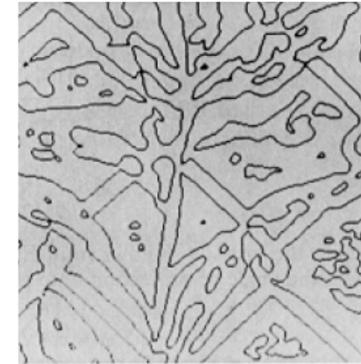
$$\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & 16 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{array}$$

(inverted LoG)																	
17 × 17 Laplacian of Gaussian mask																	
0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	-1	-1	-1	-2	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3	-2	-1	-1	-1	0	0	0
0	0	-1	-1	-2	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3	-2	-1	-1	0	0	0
0	-1	-1	-2	-3	-3	-3	-2	-3	-2	-3	-3	-3	-3	-2	-1	-1	0
0	-1	-2	-3	-3	0	2	4	2	0	-3	-3	-3	-2	-1	-1	0	0
-1	-1	-3	-3	-3	0	4	10	12	10	4	0	-3	-3	-3	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-3	-3	-2	2	10	18	21	18	10	2	-2	-3	-3	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-3	-3	-3	4	12	21	24	21	12	4	-3	-3	-3	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-3	-3	-2	2	10	18	21	18	10	2	-2	-3	-3	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-3	-3	-3	0	4	10	12	10	4	0	-3	-3	-3	-1	-1	-1
0	-1	-2	-3	-3	-3	0	2	4	2	0	-3	-3	-3	-2	-1	0	0
0	-1	-1	-2	-3	-3	-3	-2	-3	-2	-3	-3	-3	-2	-1	-1	0	0
0	0	-1	-1	-2	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3	-2	-1	-1	-1	0	0	0
0	0	-1	-1	-1	-2	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3	-2	-1	-1	-1	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

filtering



zero-crossings

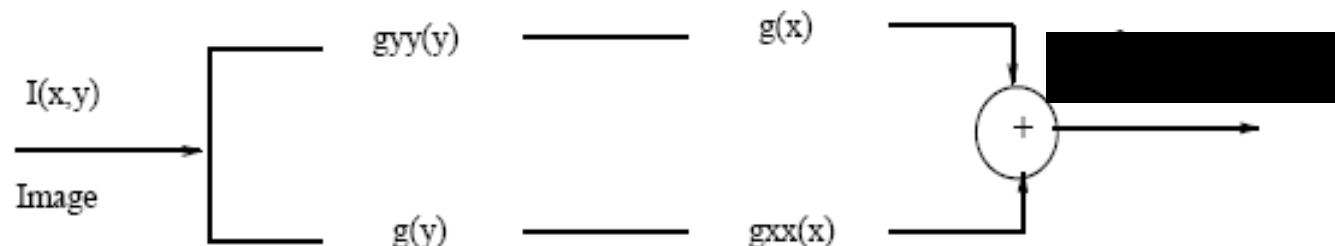


Decomposition of LoG

- It can be shown than LoG can be written as follows:

$$\nabla^2 g(x, y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y^2} g(y) * g(x) + g(y) * \frac{\partial}{\partial x^2} g(x).$$

- 2D LoG convolution can be implemented using 4, 1D convolutions.

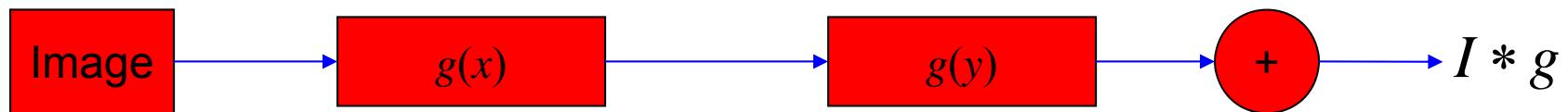


Edge Detection Using the 2nd Derivative

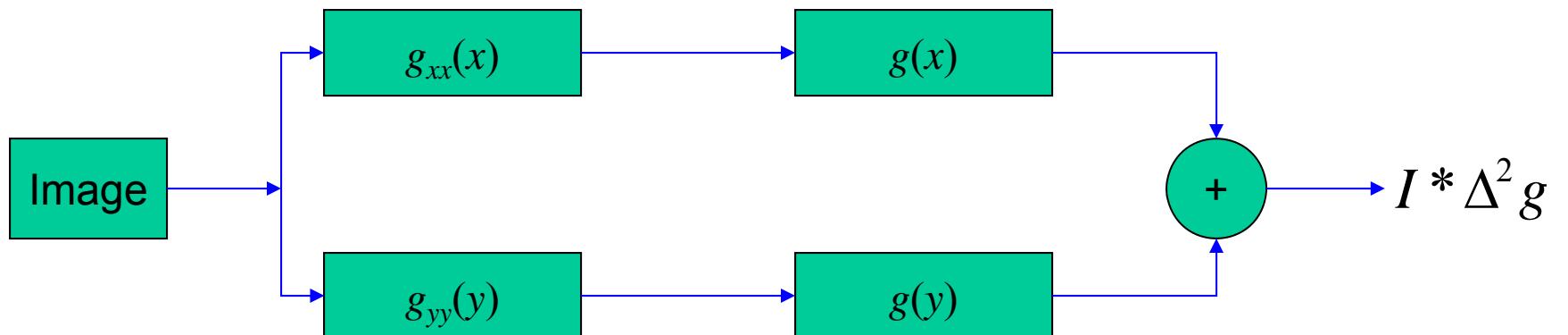
- Separability

#62

Gaussian Filtering



Laplacian-of-Gaussian Filtering



Edge Detection Using the 2nd Derivative

- Separability
 - Gaussian:
 - A 2-D Gaussian can be separated into two 1-D Gaussians
 - Perform 2 convolutions with 1-D Gaussians

• Separability

- Gaussian:
 - A 2-D Gaussian can be separated into two 1-D Gaussians
 - Perform 2 convolutions with 1-D Gaussians

$$h(x, y) = I(x, y) * g(x, y) \quad n^2 \text{ multiplications per pixel}$$

$$h(x, y) = (I(x, y) * g_1(x)) * g_2(y) \quad 2n \text{ multiplications per pixel}$$

$$g_1 = [0.011 \quad 0.13 \quad 0.6 \quad 1 \quad 0.6 \quad 0.13 \quad 0.011]$$

$$g_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.011 \\ 0.13 \\ 0.6 \\ 1 \\ 0.6 \\ 0.13 \\ 0.011 \end{bmatrix}$$

Decomposition of LoG (cont'd)

Steps

1. Convolve the image with a second derivative of Gaussian mask ($g_{yy}(y)$) along each column.
2. Convolve the resultant image from step (1) by a Gaussian mask ($g(x)$) along each row. Call the resultant image I^x .
3. Convolve the original image with a Gaussian mask ($g(y)$) along each column.
4. Convolve the resultant image from step (3) by a second derivative of Gaussian mask ($g_{xx}(x)$) along each row. Call the resultant image I^y .
5. Add I^x and I^y .

Edge Detection Using LOG

#65

- Marr-Hildteth (LOG) Algorithm:

- Compute LoG
 - Use one 2D filter: $\Delta^2 g(x, y)$
 - Use four 1D filters: $g(x), g_{xx}(x), g(y), g_{yy}(y)$
 - Find zero-crossings from each row and column
 - Find slope of zero-crossings
 - Apply threshold to slope and mark edges

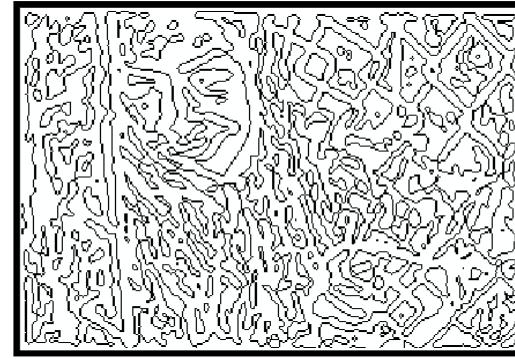
Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG) - Example

- The Laplacian-of-Gaussian (LOG) – cont.

#66

 I  $I * (\Delta^2 G)$ 

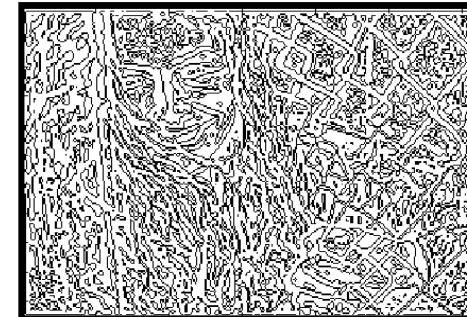
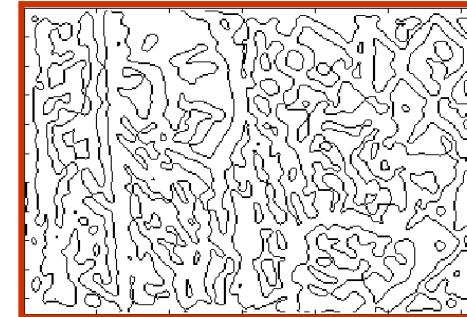
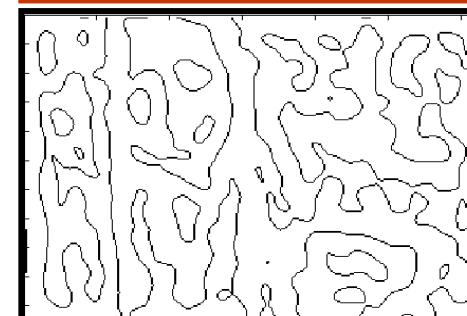
Zero crossings of $I * (\Delta^2 G)$



Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG) - Example

- The Laplacian-of-Gaussian (LOG) – cont.

#67

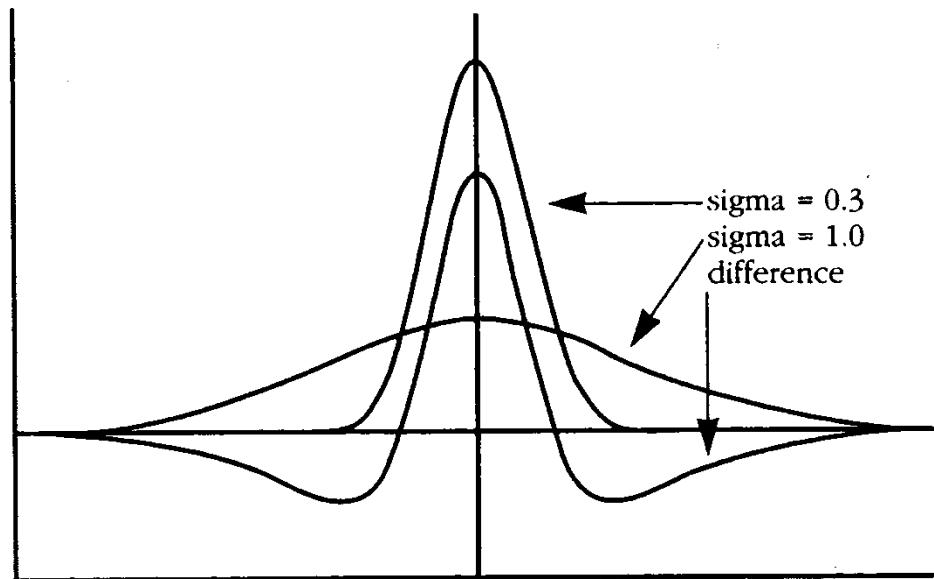
 $\sigma = 1$  $\sigma = 3$  $\sigma = 6$ 

Difference of Gaussians (DoG)

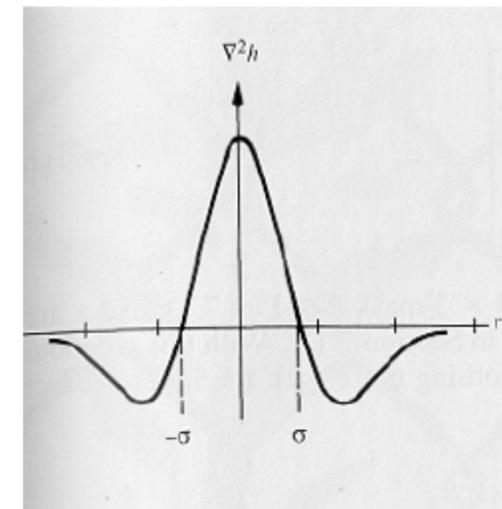
- The Laplacian of Gaussian can be approximated by the difference between two Gaussian functions:

$$\nabla^2 G \approx G(x, y; \sigma_1) - G(x, y; \sigma_2)$$

approximation

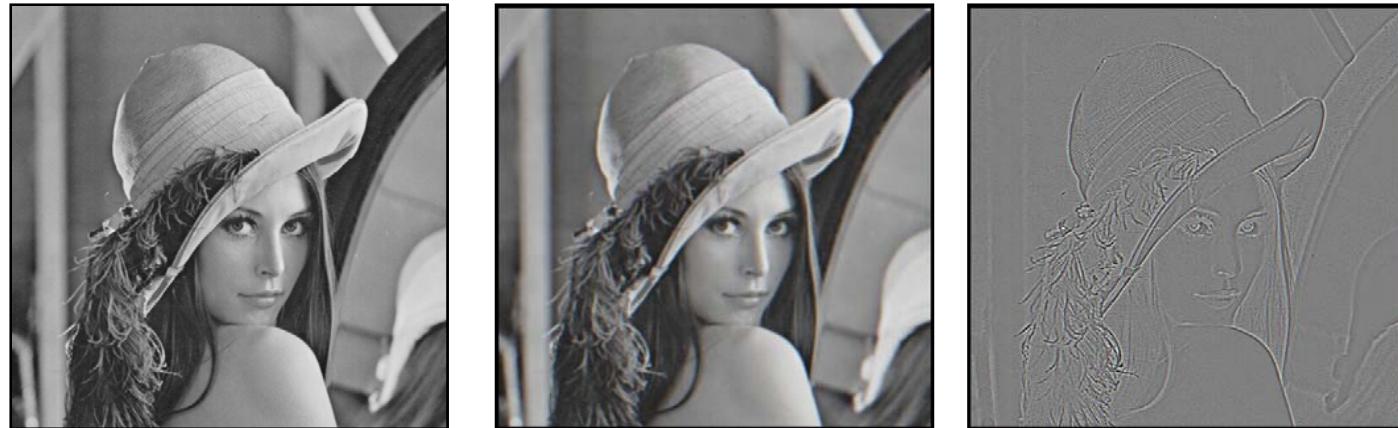


actual LoG



Difference of Gaussians (DoG) (cont'd)

$$\nabla^2 G \approx G(x, y; \sigma_1) - G(x, y; \sigma_2)$$

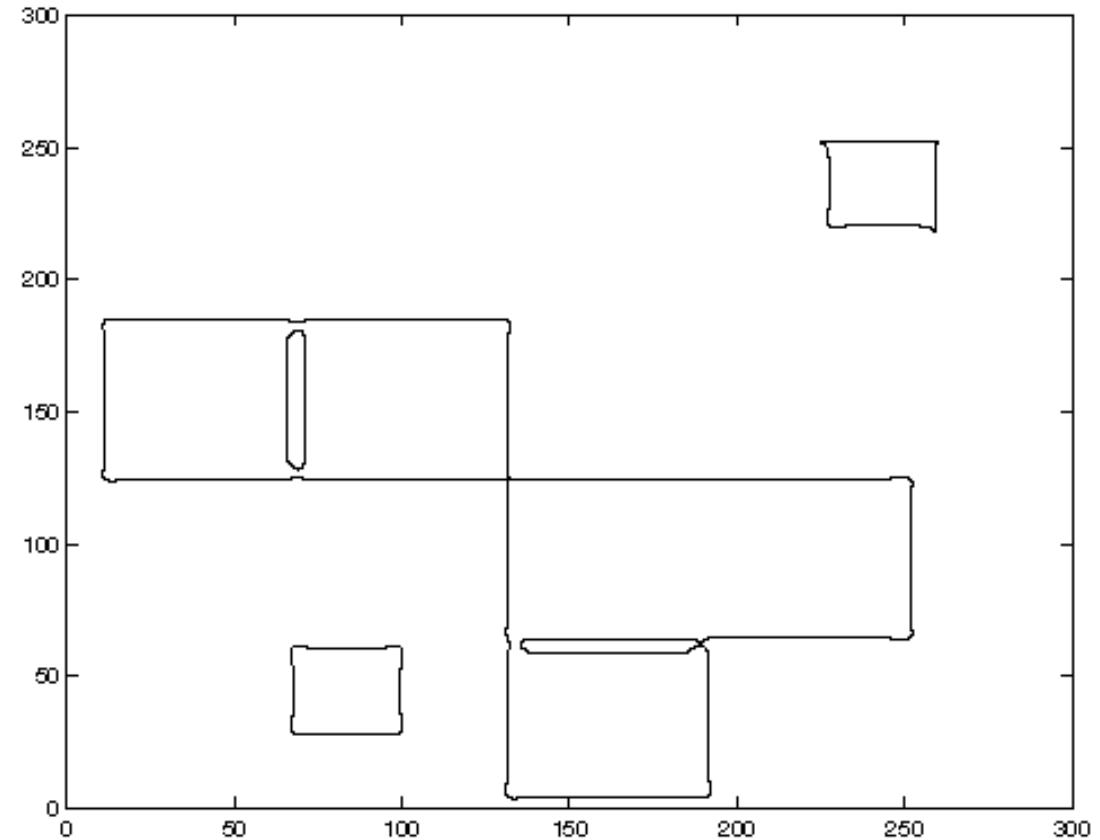


(b)-(a)

Ratio (σ_1/σ_2) for best approximation is about 1.6.
(Some people like $\sqrt{2}$.)

Gradient vs LoG (cont'd)

- Disadvantage of LOG edge detection:
– Does not handle corners well



Gradient vs LoG

- Gradient works well when the image contains sharp intensity transitions and low noise.
- Zero-crossings of LOG offer better localization, especially when the edges are not very sharp.

step edge

2	2	2	2	2	2	8	8	8	8	8
2	2	2	2	2	2	8	8	8	8	8
2	2	2	2	2	2	8	8	8	8	8
2	2	2	2	2	2	8	8	8	8	8
2	2	2	2	2	2	8	8	8	8	8
2	2	2	2	2	2	8	8	8	8	8

0	0	0	6	-6	0	0	0
0	0	0	6	-6	0	0	0
0	0	0	6	-6	0	0	0
0	0	0	6	-6	0	0	0

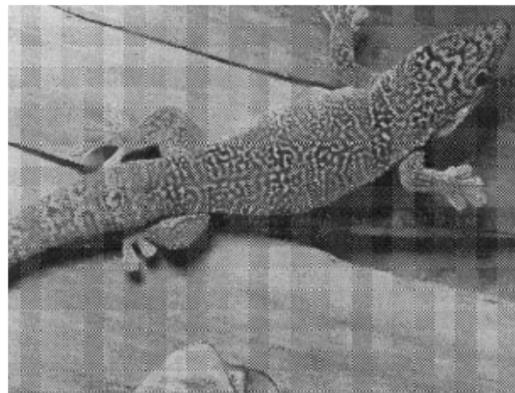
ramp edge

2	2	2	2	2	2	5	8	8	8	8
2	2	2	2	2	2	5	8	8	8	8
2	2	2	2	2	2	5	8	8	8	8
2	2	2	2	2	2	5	8	8	8	8
2	2	2	2	2	2	5	8	8	8	8
2	2	2	2	2	2	5	8	8	8	8

0	0	0	3	0	-3	0	0
0	0	0	3	0	-3	0	0
0	0	0	3	0	-3	0	0
0	0	0	3	0	-3	0	0

Practical Issues

- Noise suppression-localization tradeoff.
 - Smoothing depends on mask size (e.g., depends on σ for Gaussian filters).
 - Larger mask sizes reduce noise, but worsen localization (i.e., add uncertainty to the location of the edge) and vice versa.



smaller mask



larger mask



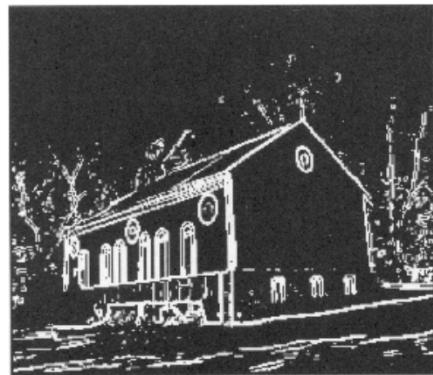
Choice of Threshold

- Trade off of threshold value.

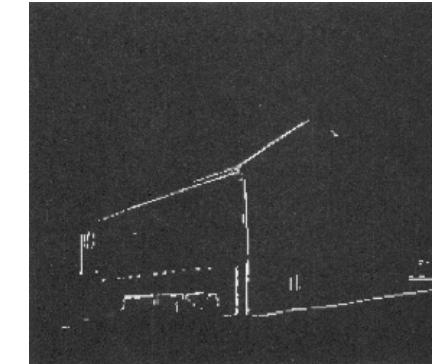
gradient magnitude



low threshold



high threshold

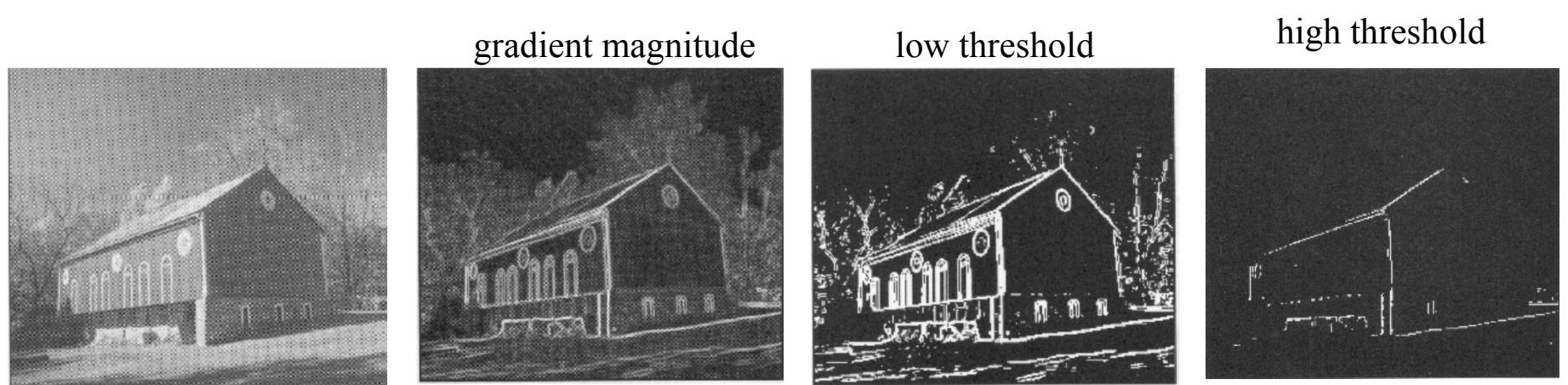


Standard thresholding

- Standard thresholding:

$$E(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \|\nabla f(x, y)\| > T \text{ for some threshold } T \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Can only select “strong” edges.
- Does not guarantee “continuity”.



Hysteresis thresholding

- Hysteresis thresholding uses two thresholds:
 - low threshold t_l
 - high threshold t_h (usually, $t_h = 2t_l$)
- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| $\ \nabla f(x, y)\ \geq t_h$ | definitely an edge |
| $t_l \leq \ \nabla f(x, y)\ < t_h$ | maybe an edge, depends on context |
| $\ \nabla f(x, y)\ < t_l$ | definitely not an edge |
- For “maybe” edges, decide on the edge if neighboring pixel is a strong edge.

Hysteresis Thresholding Example

#76



original image



edge magnitude



$T = \{5, 20\}$



$T = \{20, 40\}$

- Higher thresholds result in less edges
- In both cases, contour connectivity is preserved
 - well, almost... :-)

Edge Detection Review

#77

- Edge detection operators are based on the idea that edge information in an image is found by looking at the relationship a pixel has with its neighbors
- If a pixel's gray level value is similar to those around it, there is probably not an edge at that point

Edge Detection Review

#78

- Edge detection operators are often implemented with convolution masks and most are based on discrete approximations to differential operators
- Differential operations measure the rate of change in a function, in this case, the image brightness function

Edge Detection Review

#79

- Preprocessing of image is required to eliminate or at least minimize noise effects
- There is tradeoff between sensitivity and accuracy in edge detection
- The parameters that we can set so that edge detector is sensitive include the size of the edge detection mask and the value of the gray level threshold
- A larger mask or a higher gray level threshold will tend to reduce noise effects, but may result in a loss of valid edge points