

# EE 5098 – Digital Image Processing

## 3. Intensity Transformation and Spatial Filtering

# Outline

- Basic Intensity Transformation Functions
- Histogram Processing
- Fundamentals of Spatial Filtering
- Smoothing
- Sharpening
- Highpass, Bandstop, Bandpass Filters from Lowpass Filters
- Combining Spatial Enhancement Methods



# Spatial Domain vs. Transform Domain

## □ Spatial domain

- Directly manipulate pixels in an image
- Examples
  - ▶ intensity transformation: contrast manipulation, image thresholding
  - ▶ spatial filtering: image smoothing, sharpening

## □ Transform domain

- Transform an image to the transform domain, process the transform coefficients, and finally bring the results back to the spatial domain by an inverse transform
- Examples
  - ▶ Spectral shaping (e.g. LP-, BP-, HP-filtering)
  - ▶ Image compression

# Spatial-Domain Processing on a Single Image

$$g(x, y) = T(f(x, y))$$

$f(x, y)$ : input image

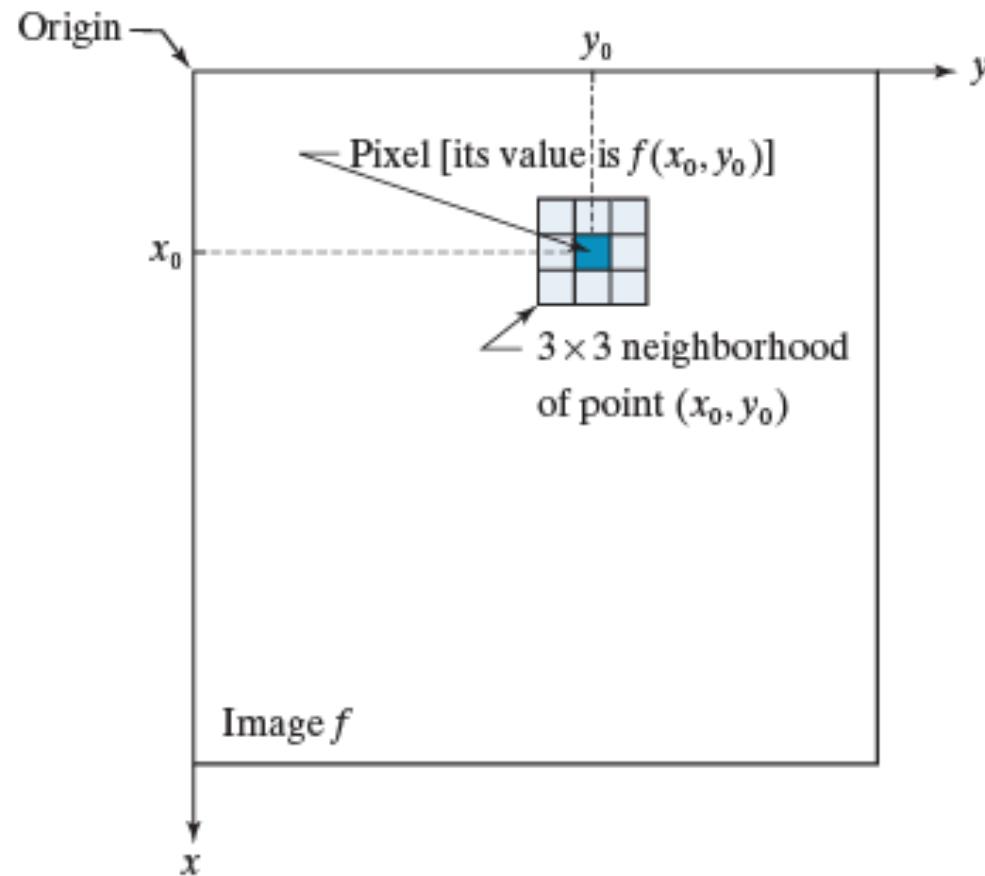
$g(x, y)$ : output image

$T$  : an operator defined over a neighborhood

**FIGURE 3.1**

A  $3 \times 3$  neighborhood about a point  $(x_0, y_0)$  in an image. The neighborhood is moved from pixel to pixel in the image to generate an output image.

Recall from Chapter 2 that the value of a pixel at location  $(x_0, y_0)$  is  $f(x_0, y_0)$ , the value of the image at that location.



The image processing consists of moving the center of the **neighborhood** from pixel to pixel and applying the operator to pixels in the neighborhood to yield an output value at that location.

Example: smoothing on  $3 \times 3$  neighborhood

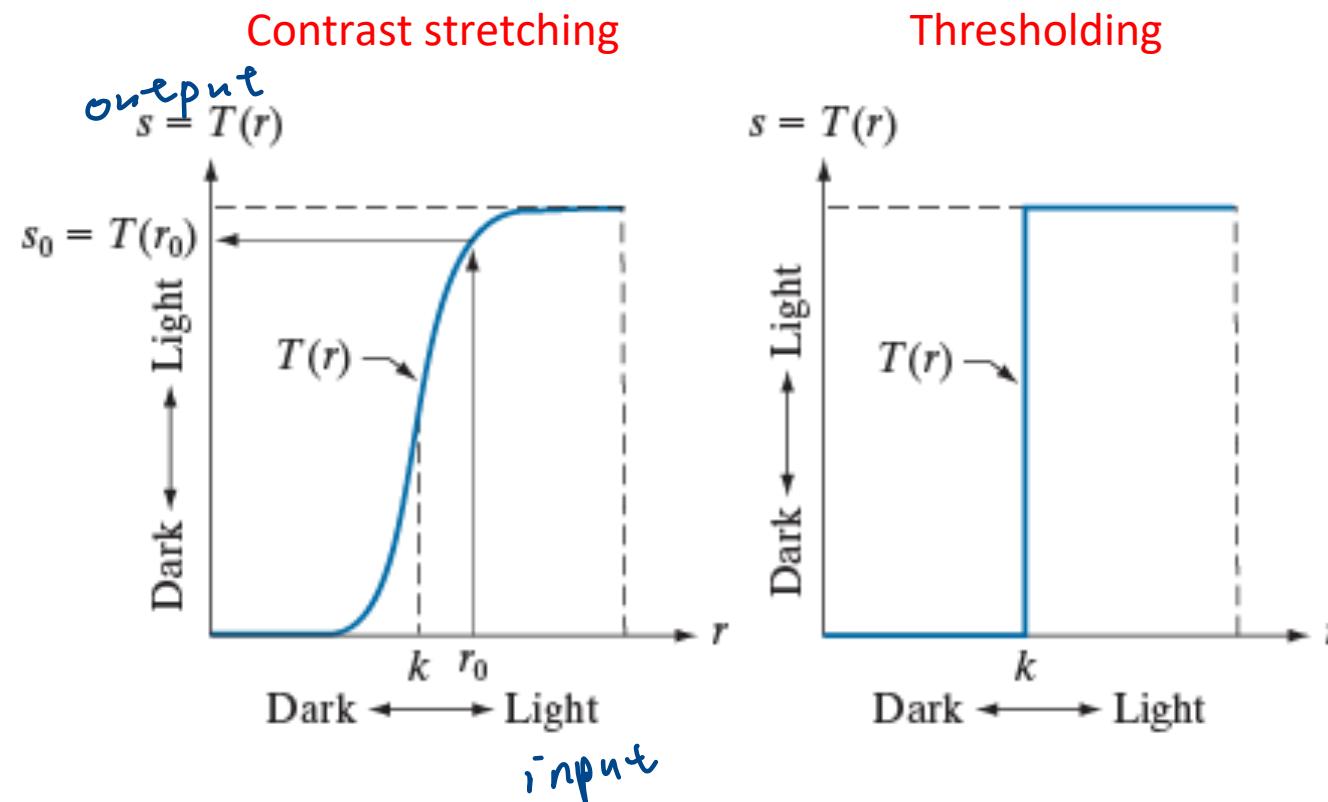
Intensity transformation: An operator performed on  $1 \times 1$  neighborhood

# Spatial-Domain Processing on a Single Image: Intensity Transformation

$$s = T(r)$$

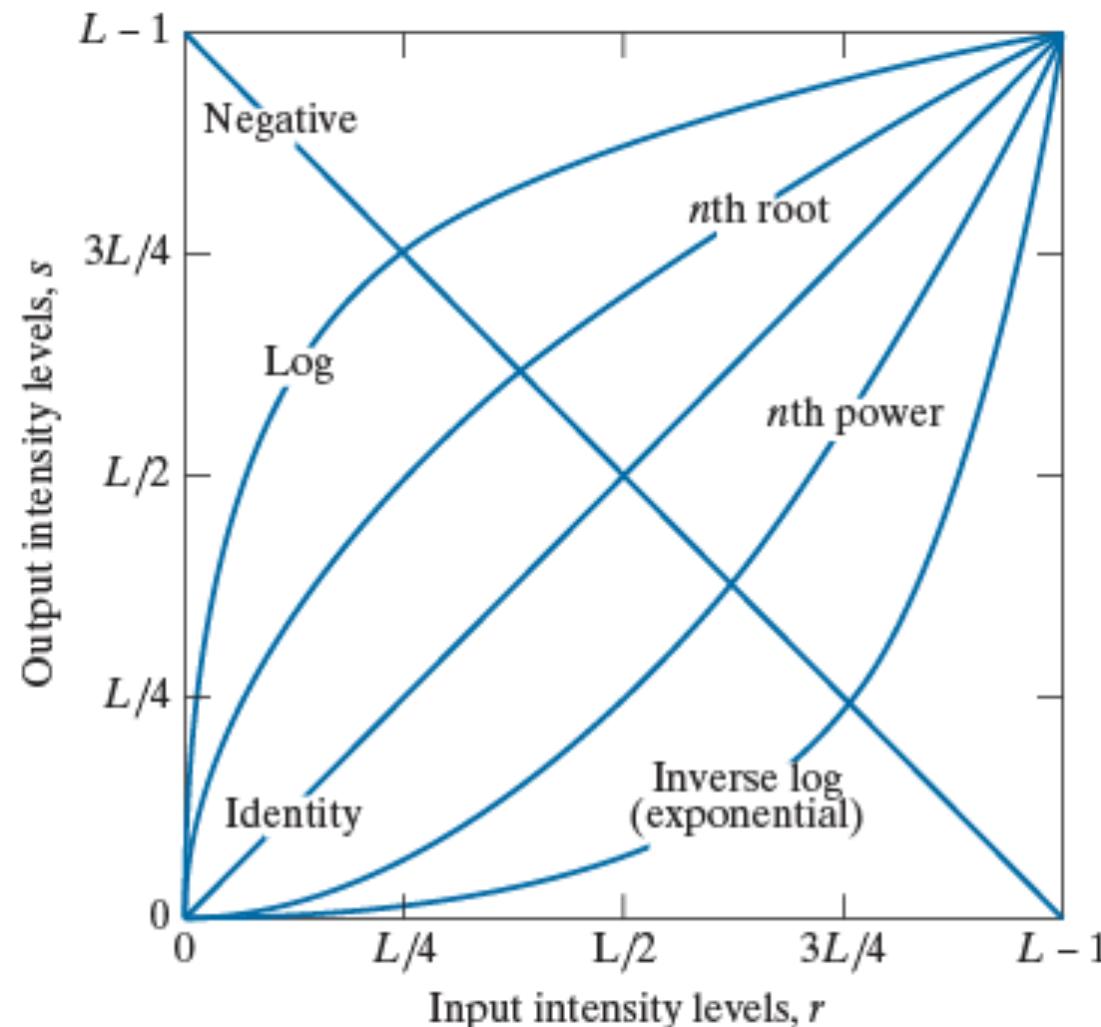
a b

**FIGURE 3.2**  
Intensity  
transformation  
functions.  
(a) Contrast-  
stretching  
function.  
(b) Thresholding  
function.

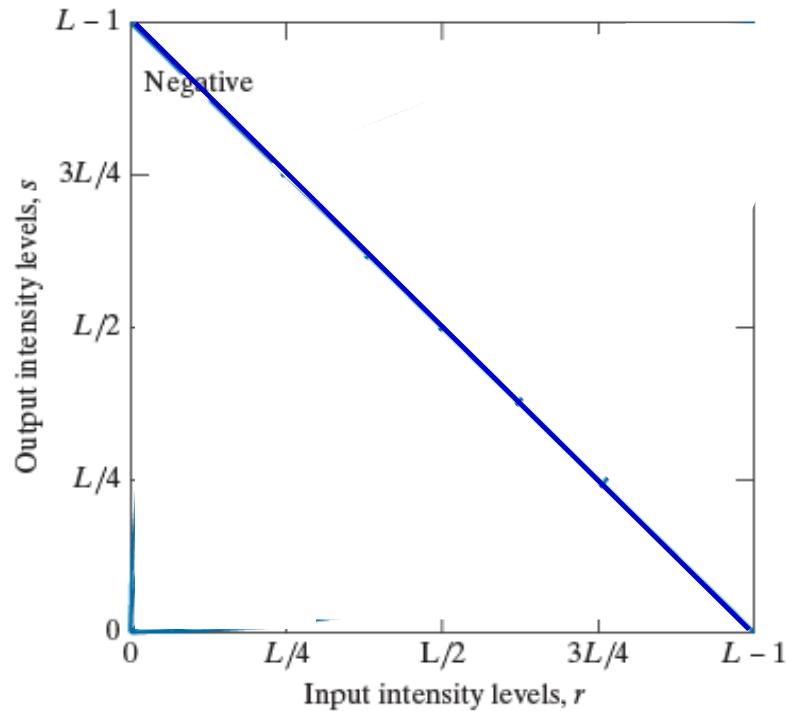


# Some Basic Intensity Transformation Functions

**FIGURE 3.3**  
Some basic intensity transformation functions. Each curve was scaled *independently* so that all curves would fit in the same graph. Our interest here is on the *shapes* of the curves, not on their relative values.



# Image Negatives



$$s = L - 1 - r$$

Used to enhance the white or gray detail embedded in dark regions of an image, especially when the black areas are dominant in size.

# Example: Image Negatives

a | b

**FIGURE 3.4**

(a) A digital 乳房X光攝影片 mammogram.

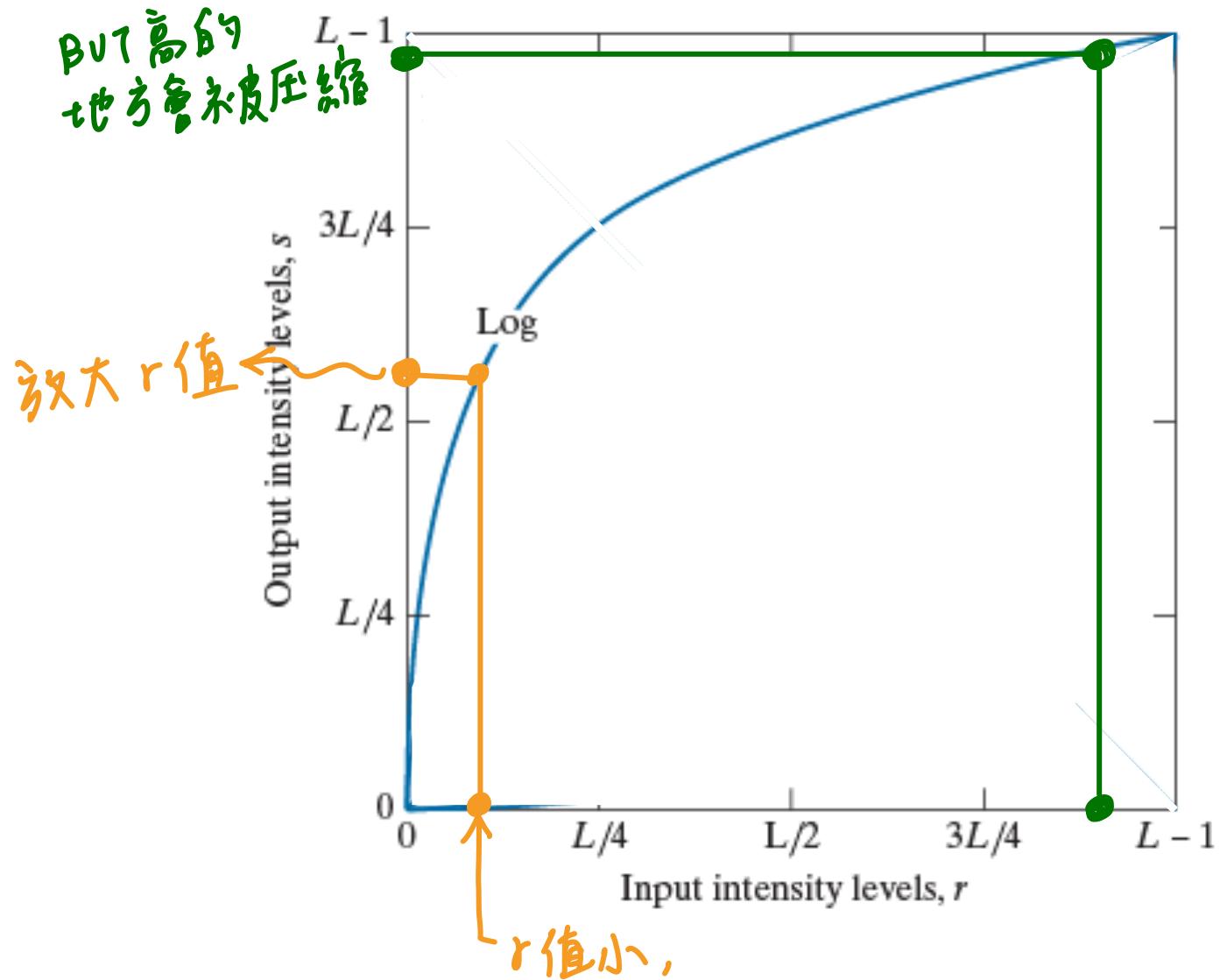
(b) Negative image obtained using Eq. (3-3).

(Image (a)  
Courtesy of  
General Electric  
Medical Systems.)



Small  
lesion

# Log Transformations



Log Transformations

$$s = c \log(1 + r)$$

$$r \geq 0$$

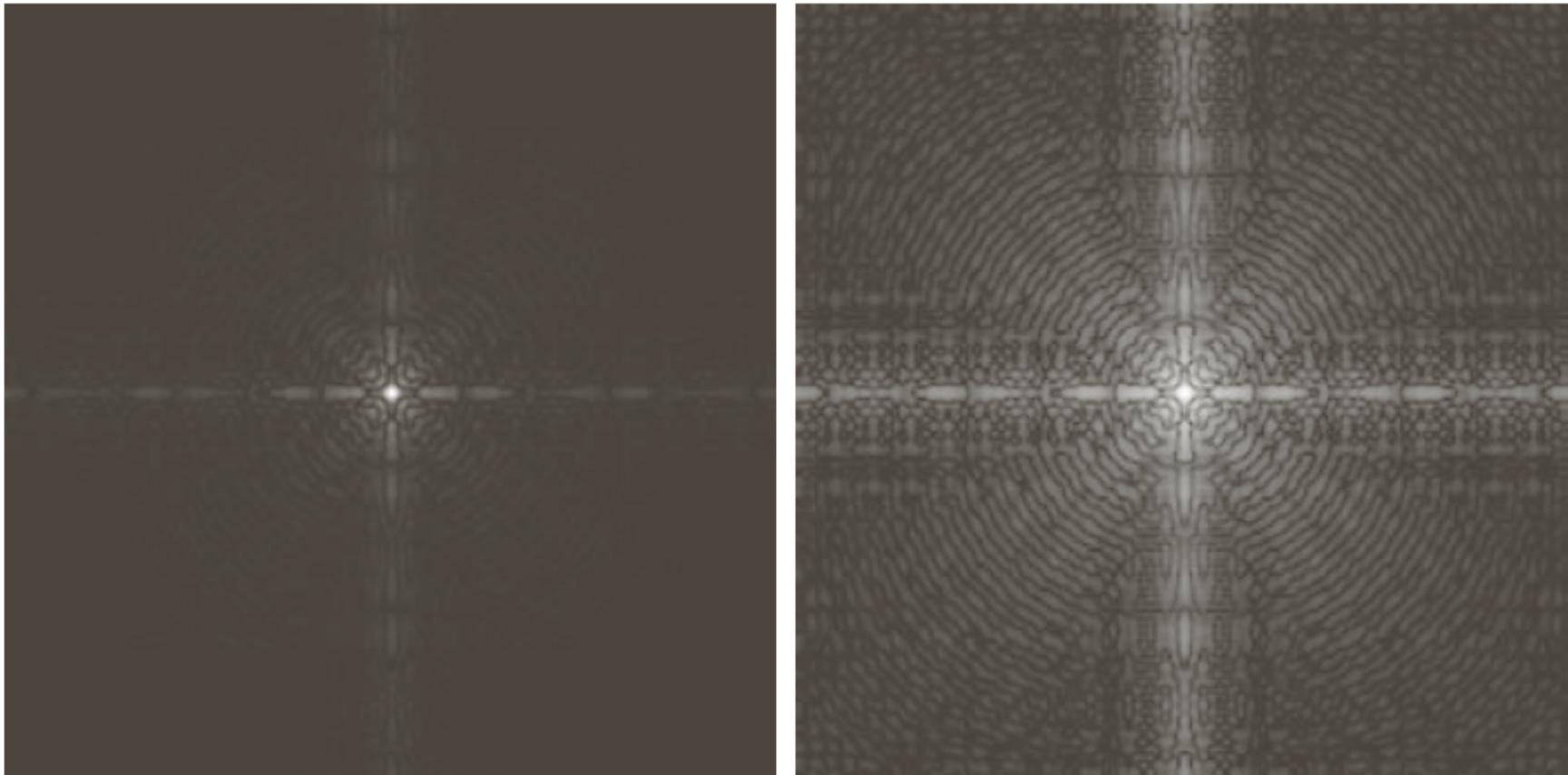
Used to **expand the values of dark pixels** in an image while compressing the higher-level values.

# Example of Log Transformation

a b

**FIGURE 3.5**

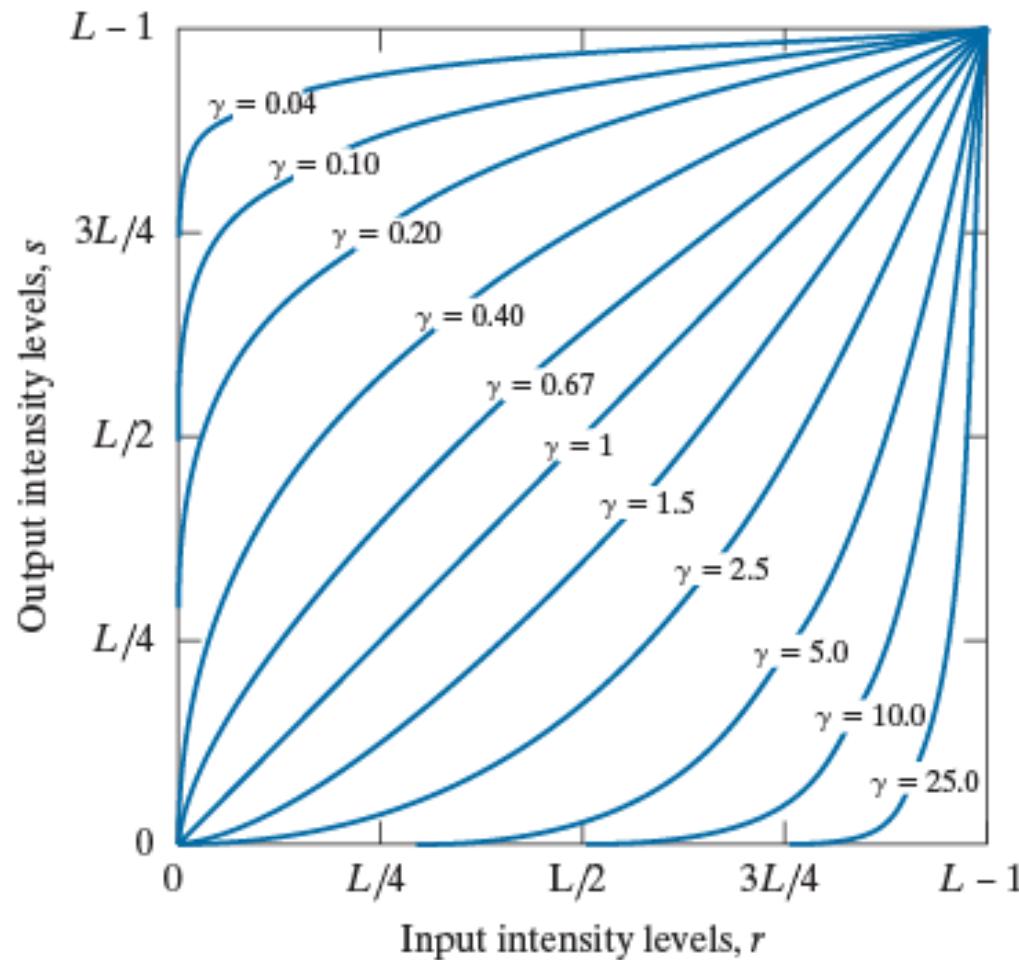
- (a) Fourier spectrum displayed as a grayscale image.  
(b) Result of applying the log transformation in Eq. (3-4) with  $c = 1$ . Both images are scaled to the range  $[0, 255]$ .



# Power-Law (Gamma) Transformations

FIGURE 3.6

Plots of the gamma equation  $s = cr^\gamma$  for various values of  $\gamma$  ( $c = 1$  in all cases). Each curve was scaled *independently* so that all curves would fit in the same graph. Our interest here is on the *shapes* of the curves, not on their relative values.



$$S = CR^\gamma$$

Many devices for image capture and display obey this kind of power law.

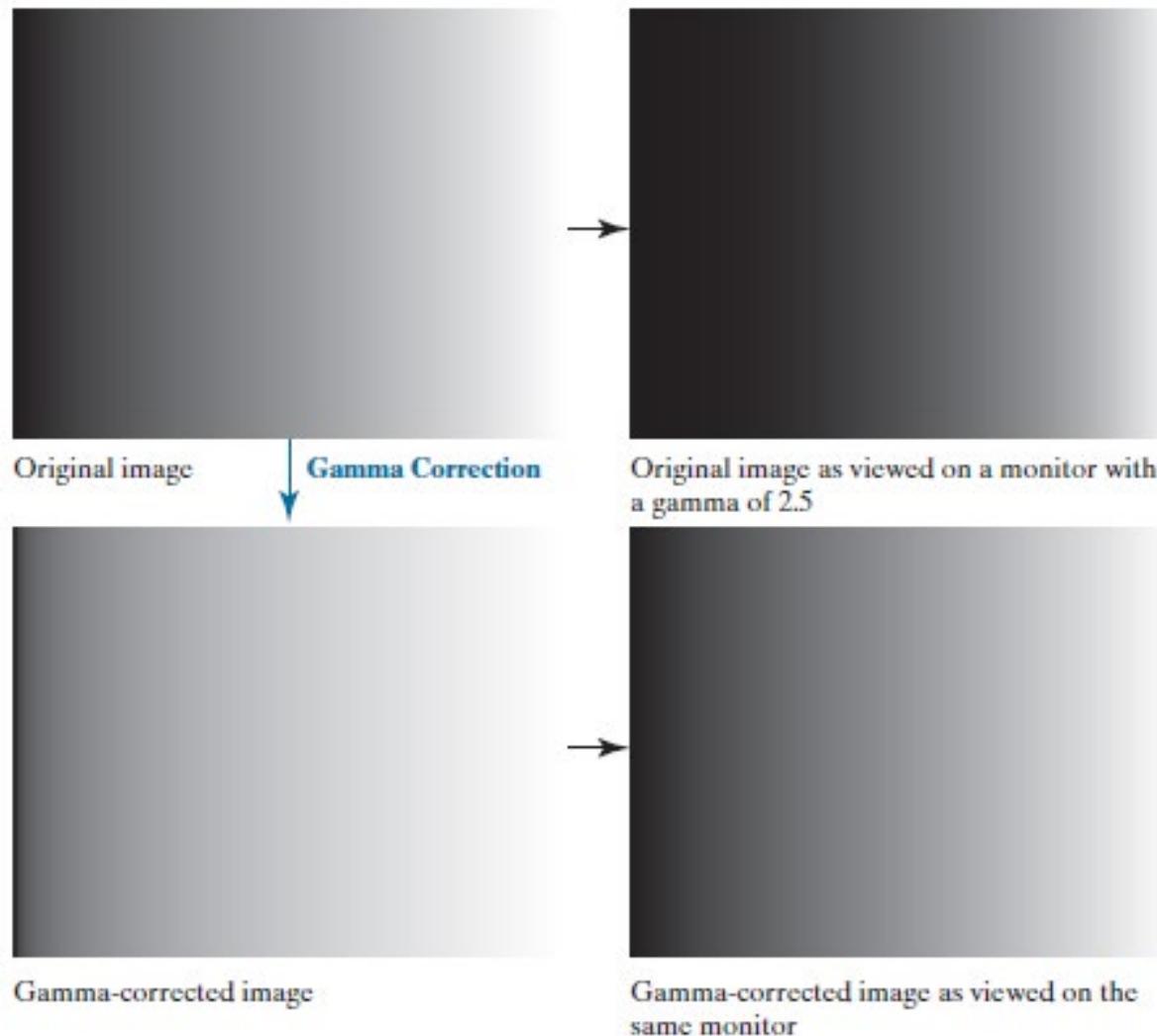
The process of correcting such power-law responses is called **gamma correction**.

# Example of Gamma Transformation

a  
b  
c  
d

**FIGURE 3.7**

(a) Intensity ramp image. (b) Image as viewed on a simulated monitor with a gamma of 2.5. (c) Gamma-corrected image. (d) Corrected image as viewed on the same monitor. Compare (d) and (a).



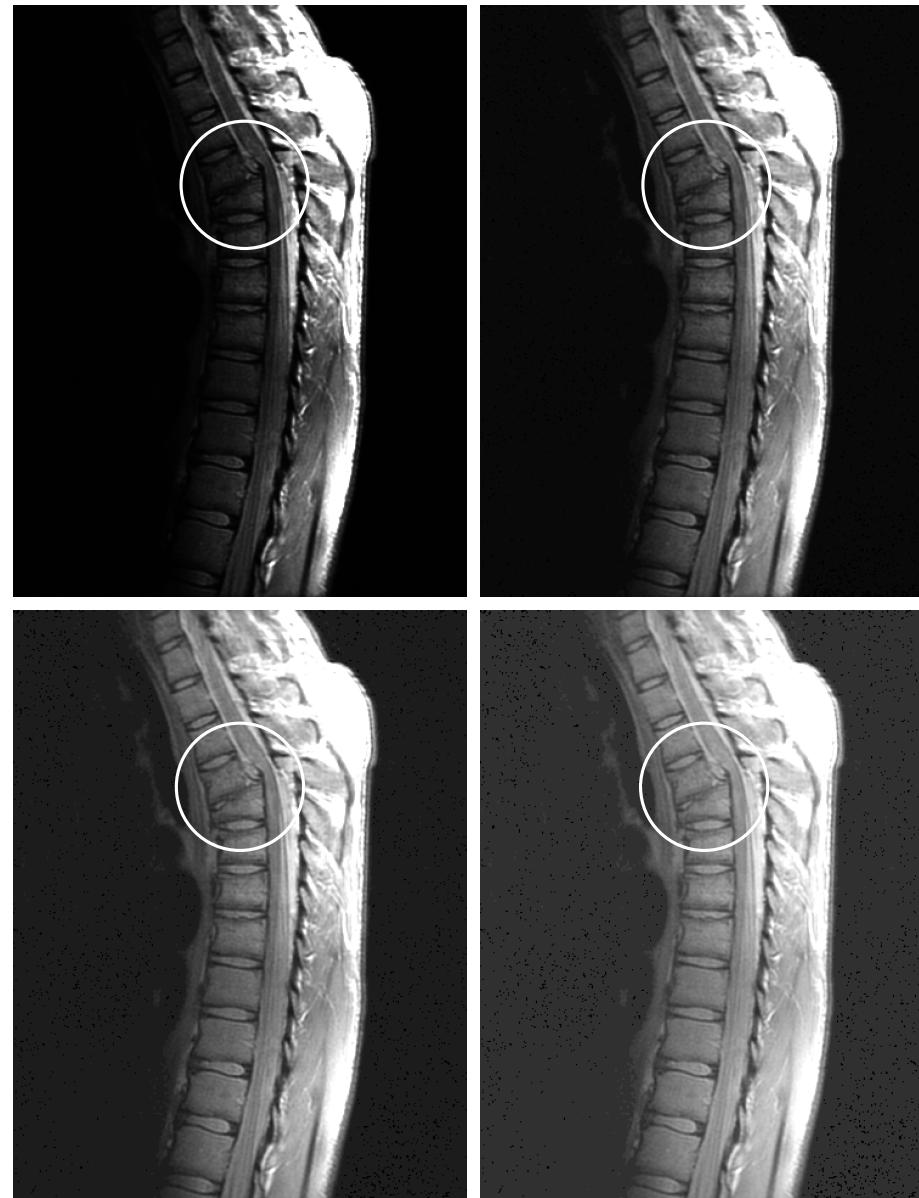
Cathode ray tube (CRT) devices have an intensity-to-voltage response that is a power function, with exponents varying from approximately 1.8 to 2.5

Gamma corrected image is obtained by applying

$$s = r^{1/2.5}$$

to the image before imputing it to the monitor.

# Example of Gamma Transformation



a b  
c d

**FIGURE 3.8**  
(a) Magnetic resonance image (MRI) of a fractured human spine (the region of the fracture is enclosed by the circle).  
(b)–(d) Results of applying the transformation in Eq. (3-5) with  $c = 1$  and  $\gamma = 0.6, 0.4$ , and  $0.3$ , respectively.  
(Original image courtesy of Dr. David R. Pickens, Department of Radiology and Radiological Sciences, Vanderbilt University Medical Center.)

# Example of Gamma Transformation

a | b  
c | d

**FIGURE 3.9**

(a) Aerial image.  
(b)–(d) Results  
of applying the  
transformation  
in Eq. (3-5) with  
 $\gamma = 3.0, 4.0,$  and  
 $5.0,$  respectively.  
( $c = 1$  in all cases.)  
(Original image  
courtesy of  
NASA.)

$$S = cr^\gamma$$

$\gamma=4$



$\gamma=3$



$\gamma=5$

# Piecewise-Linear Transformation

## □ Contrast Stretching

- Expands the range of intensity levels in an image so that it spans the full intensity range of the recording medium or display device.
- Applicable to low-contrast images resulted from poor illumination, lack of dynamic range in the image sensor, or wrong setting of a lens aperture during image acquisition.

## □ Intensity-Level Slicing

- Highlighting a specific range of intensities in an image

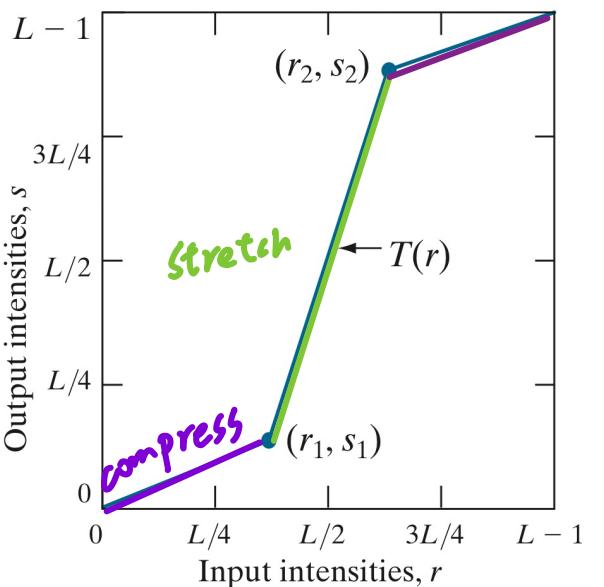
# Contrast Stretching

$$(r_1, s_1) = (r_{\min}, 0)$$

$$(r_2, s_2) = (r_{\max}, L-1)$$

$$(r_1, s_1) = (m, 0)$$

$$(r_2, s_2) = (m, L-1)$$



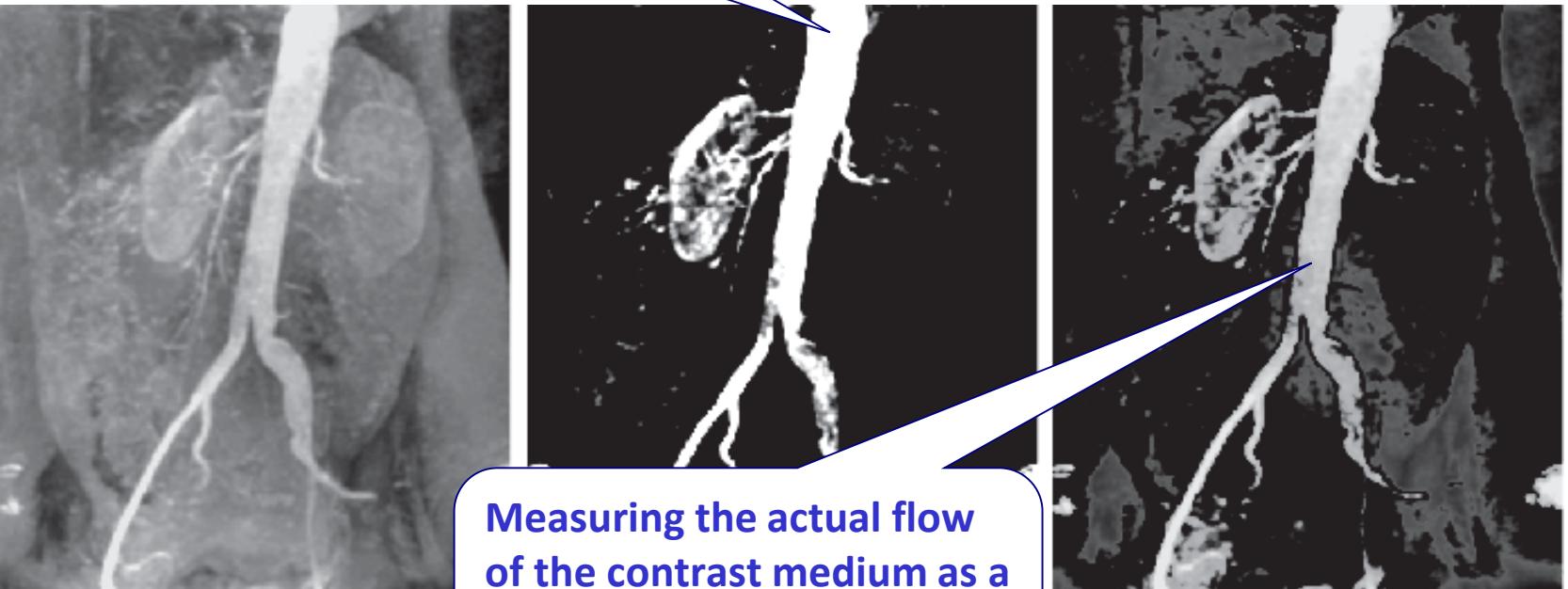
a  
b  
c  
d

**FIGURE 3.10**

Contrast stretching.  
(a) Piecewise linear transformation function. (b) A low-contrast electron microscope image of pollen, magnified 700 times.  
(c) Result of contrast stretching.  
(d) Result of thresholding.  
(Original image courtesy of Dr. Roger Heady, Research School of Biological Sciences, Australian National University, Canberra, Australia.)

# Intensity-Level Slicing

Highlight the major blood vessels and study the shape of the flow of the contrast medium (to detect blockages, etc.)

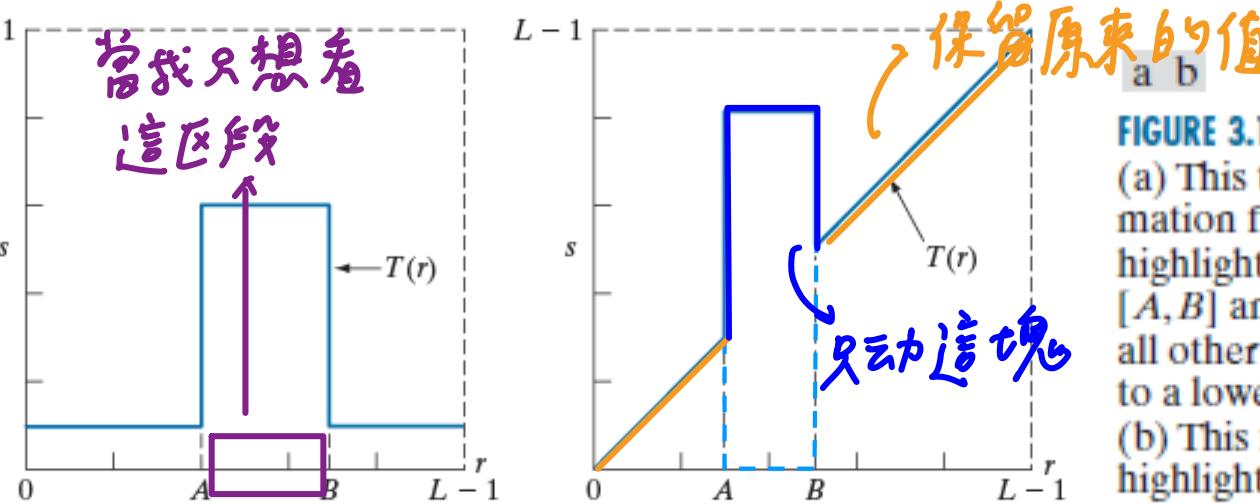


a b c 大主動脈的 血管造影

**FIGURE 3.12** (a) Aortic angiogram, with the range of intensities of interest highlighted. (b) Result of using the transformation function illustrated in Fig. 3.11(a), with the selected range set near white, so that the blacks in the area of the blood vessels and kidneys were removed. (c) Result of using the transformation of the type illustrated in Fig. 3.11(b), with the selected range set near black, so that the grays in the area of the blood vessels and kidneys were preserved. (Original image courtesy of Dr. Thomas R. Gest, University of Michigan Medical School.)

Measuring the actual flow of the contrast medium as a function of time in a series of images

of the type illustrated in Fig. 3.11(a), with the selected range set near white, so that the blacks in the area of the blood vessels and kidneys were removed. (c) Result of using the transformation of the type illustrated in Fig. 3.11(b), with the selected range set near black, so that the grays in the area of the blood vessels and kidneys were preserved. (Original image courtesy of Dr. Thomas R. Gest, University of Michigan Medical School.)

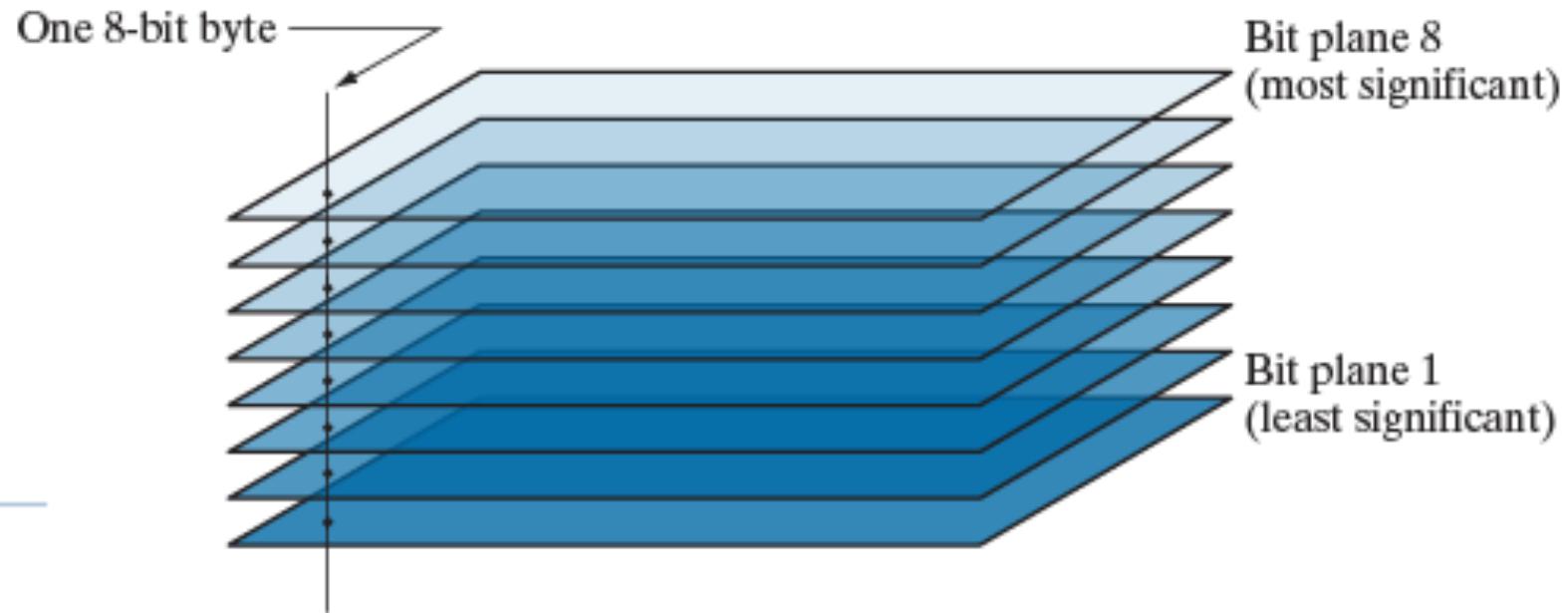


**FIGURE 3.11**

- (a) This transformation function highlights range  $[A, B]$  and reduces all other intensities to a lower level.  
(b) This function highlights range  $[A, B]$  and leaves other intensities unchanged.

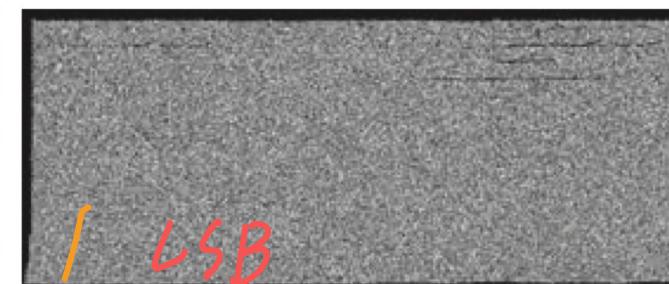
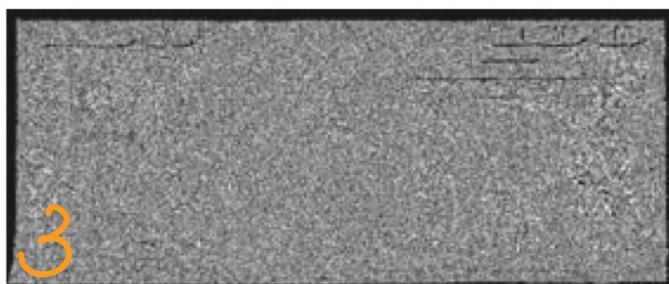
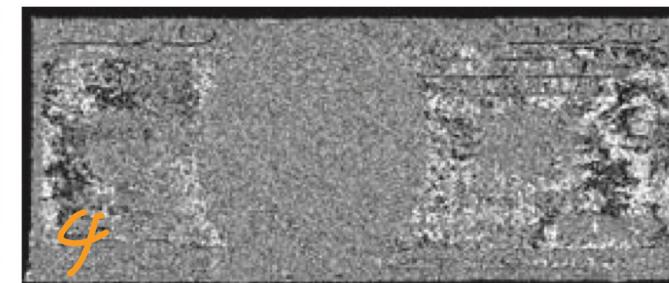
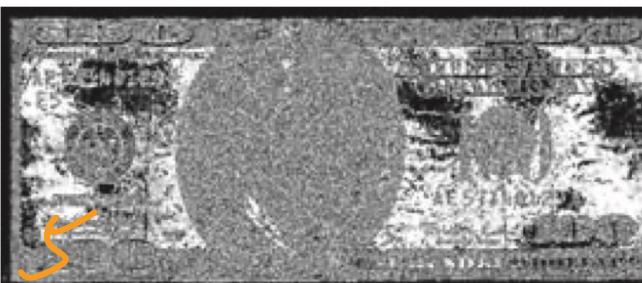
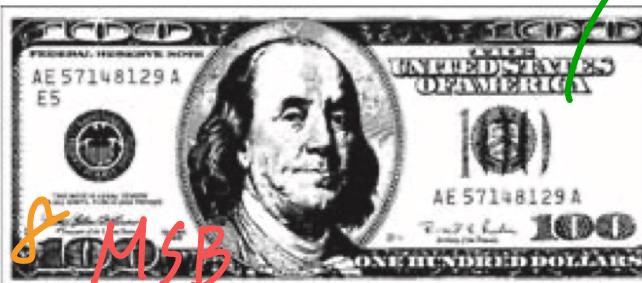
# Bit-plane Slicing

**FIGURE 3.13**  
Bit-planes of an  
8-bit image.



## Bit-plane Slicing

把最白的部份表現出來(白色值很大)



a	b	c
d	e	f
g	h	i

FIGURE 3.14 (a) An 8-bit gray-scale image of size  $550 \times 1192$  pixels. (b) through (i) Bit planes 8 through 1, with bit plane 1 corresponding to the least significant bit. Each bit plane is a binary image..

# Bit-plane Slicing



a b c

**FIGURE 3.15** Image reconstructed from bit planes: (a) 8 and 7; (b) 8, 7, and 6; (c) 8, 7, 6, and 5.

Fig. 15(c) is close enough to Fig. 3.14(a).  
Therefore, we may store only the four  
highest-order bits to save 50% storage.

實際上不會這樣做 compression



**FIGURE 3.14(a)**

# Histogram Processing

- ❑ Histogram Equalization
- ❑ Histogram Matching
- ❑ Local Histogram Processing
- ❑ Using Histogram Statistics for Image Enhancement

## Histogram Processing

- Histogram

$$h(r_k) = n_k$$

$r_k$  is the  $k^{th}$  intensity value

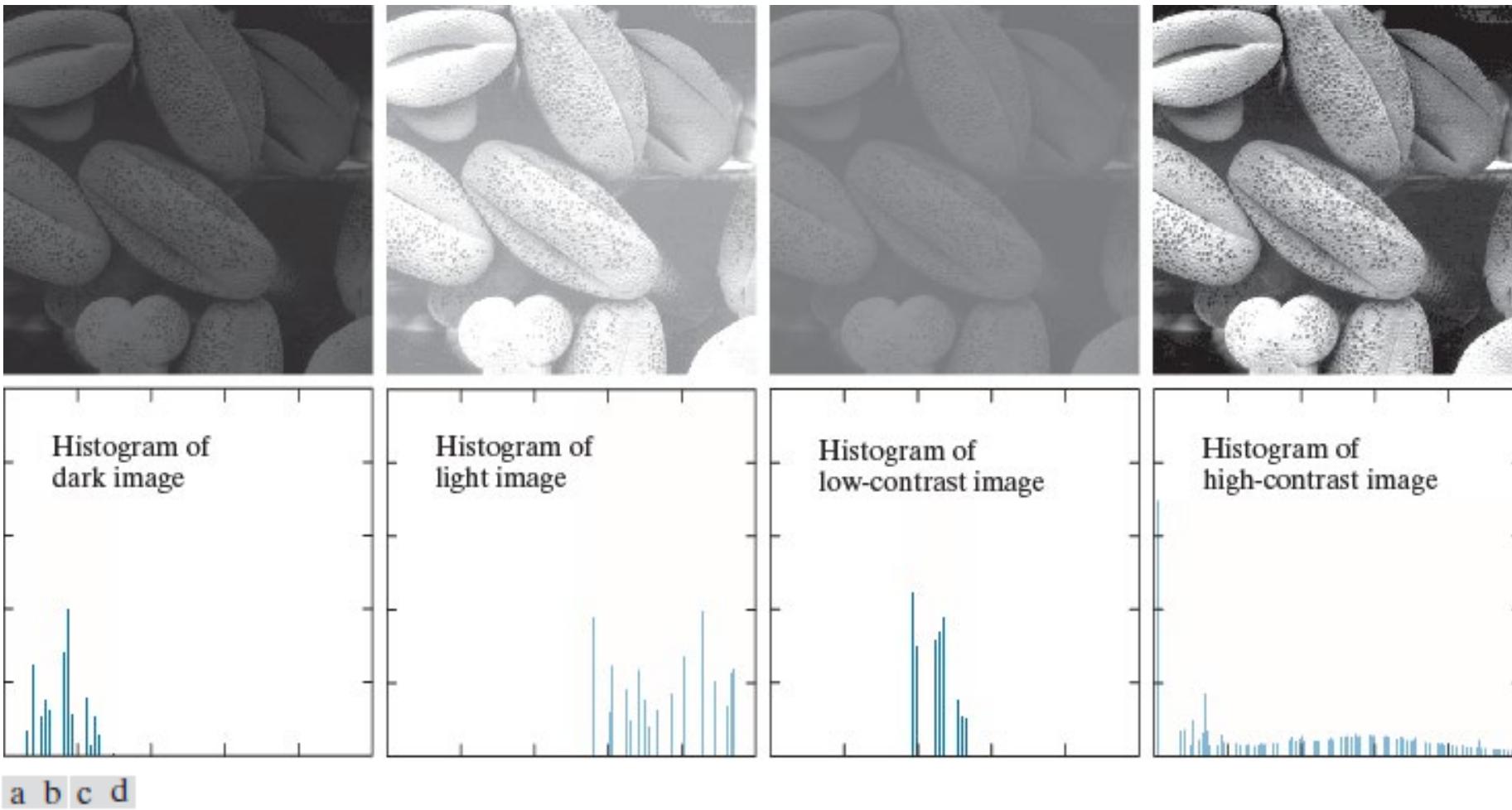
$n_k$  is the number of pixels in the image with intensity  $r_k$

- Normalized histogram

$$p(r_k) = \frac{n_k}{MN}$$

$n_k$ : the number of pixels with intensity  $r_k$  in the image of size  $M \times N$

# Histogram



**FIGURE 3.16** Four image types and their corresponding histograms. (a) dark; (b) light; (c) low contrast; (d) high contrast. The horizontal axis of the histograms are values of  $r_k$  and the vertical axis are values of  $p(r_k)$ .

# Histogram Equalization

$$s = T(r) \quad 0 \leq r \leq L - 1$$

- $T(r)$  is a monotonically increasing function in the interval  $0 \leq r \leq L - 1$
- $0 \leq T(r) \leq L - 1$  for  $0 \leq r \leq L - 1$

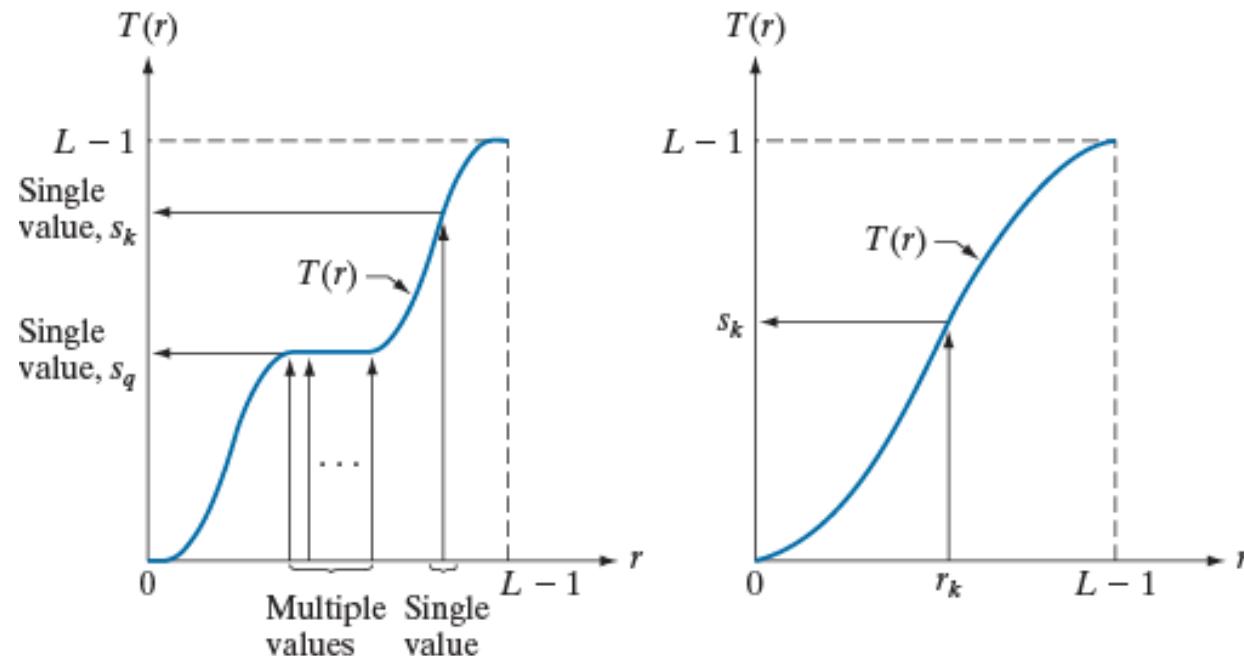
$$r = T^{-1}(s), \quad 0 \leq s \leq L - 1$$

- $T(r)$  is a strictly monotonically increasing function in the interval  $0 \leq r \leq L - 1$
- $0 \leq T(r) \leq L - 1$  for  $0 \leq r \leq L - 1$

a b

**FIGURE 3.17**

(a) Monotonic increasing function, showing how multiple values can map to a single value. (b) Strictly monotonic increasing function. This is a one-to-one mapping, both ways.





## Histogram Equalization

- The intensity levels in an image may be viewed as random variables in the interval  $[0, L - 1]$ .
- Let  $p_r(r)$  and  $p_s(s)$  denote the probability density function (PDF) of random variables  $r$  and  $s$ .
- If  $p_r(r)$  and  $T(r)$  are known and  $T(r)$  is continuous and differentiable, then

$$p_s(s) = p_r(r) \left| \frac{dr}{ds} \right|$$

Leibniz rule

- A transformation of particular importance is

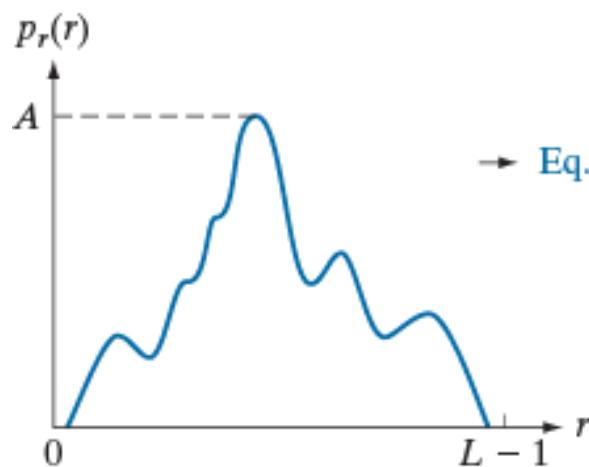
$$s = T(r) = (L - 1) \underbrace{\int_0^r p_r(w) dw}_{\text{Cumulative distribution function (CDF)}} \quad (3-11)$$

*保證 { } uniform distribution*

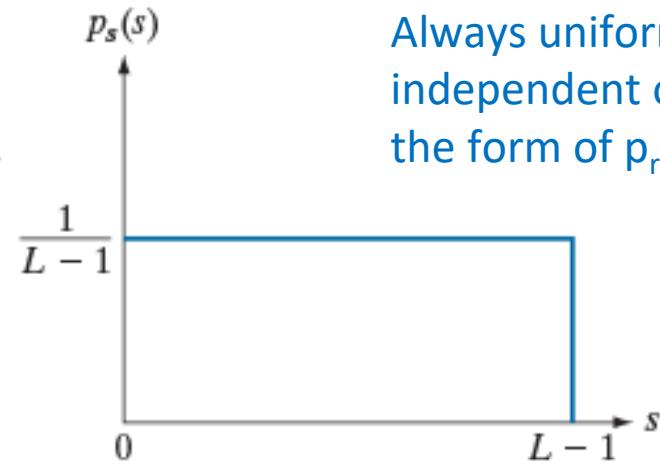
# Histogram Equalization

$$\frac{ds}{dr} = \frac{dT(r)}{dr} = (L-1) \frac{d}{dr} \left[ \int_0^r p_r(w) dw \right] = (L-1)p_r(r)$$

$$p_s(s) = p_r(r) \left| \frac{dr}{ds} \right| = p_r(r) \left| \frac{1}{(L-1)p_r(r)} \right| = \frac{1}{L-1}, \quad 0 \leq s \leq L-1$$



→ Eq. (3-11) →



Always uniform,  
independent of  
the form of  $p_r(r)$ .

a b

**FIGURE 3.18** (a) An arbitrary PDF. (b) Result of applying Eq. (3-11) to the input PDF. The resulting PDF is always uniform, independently of the shape of the input.

## Example

Suppose that the (continuous) intensity values in an image have the PDF

$$p_r(r) = \begin{cases} \frac{2r}{(L-1)^2}, & \text{for } 0 \leq r \leq L-1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Prove that Eq. (3-11) leads to a uniform PDF.

$$\rightarrow s = T(r) = (L-1) \int_0^r p_r(w) dw = (L-1) \int_0^r \frac{2w}{(L-1)^2} dw = \frac{r^2}{L-1}$$

$$p_s(s) = p_r(r) \left| \frac{dr}{ds} \right| = \frac{2r}{(L-1)^2} \left| \frac{L-1}{2r} \right| = \frac{1}{L-1}$$

Indeed,  $p_s(s)$  is a uniform PDF.

# Histogram Equalization 改善 contrast

Continuous case:

$$s = T(r) = (L-1) \int_0^r p_r(w) dw$$

Discrete case:

$$\begin{aligned} s_k &= T(r_k) = (L-1) \sum_{j=0}^k p_r(r_j) \\ &= (L-1) \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{n_j}{MN} = \frac{L-1}{MN} \sum_{j=0}^k n_j \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, L-1 \end{aligned}$$

## ~~X~~ Example 3.5: (Discrete) Histogram Equalization

Suppose that a 3-bit image ( $L=8$ ) of size  $64 \times 64$  pixels ( $MN = 4096$ ) has the intensity distribution shown in following table.  
Get the histogram equalization transformation function and give the  $p_s(s_k)$  for each  $s_k$ .

**TABLE 3.1**  
Intensity distribution and histogram values for a 3-bit,  $64 \times 64$  digital image.

$r_k$	$n_k$	$p_r(r_k) = n_k/MN$
$r_0 = 0$	790	0.19
$r_1 = 1$	1023	0.25
$r_2 = 2$	850	0.21
$r_3 = 3$	656	0.16
$r_4 = 4$	329	0.08
$r_5 = 5$	245	0.06
$r_6 = 6$	122	0.03
$r_7 = 7$	81	0.02

## Example 3.5: (Discrete) Histogram Equalization (cont'd)

$$s_0 = T(r_0) = 7 \sum_{j=0}^0 p_r(r_j) = 7 \times 0.19 = 1.33$$

$p_s(s_k)$

$\rightarrow 1 \quad 0.19$

$$s_1 = T(r_1) = 7 \sum_{j=0}^1 p_r(r_j) = 7 \times (0.19 + 0.25) = 3.08$$

$\rightarrow 3 \quad 0.25$

$$s_2 = 4.55 \quad \rightarrow 5 \quad 0.21$$

$$s_3 = 5.67 \quad \rightarrow 6 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} 0.24$$

$$s_4 = 6.23 \quad \rightarrow 6 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} 0.24$$

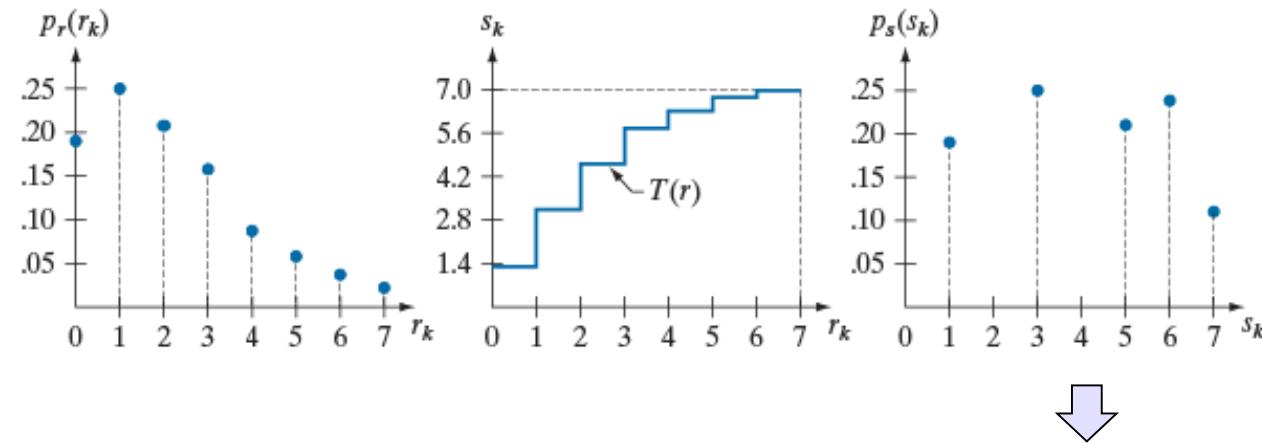
$$s_5 = 6.65 \quad \rightarrow 7 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} 0.11$$

$$s_6 = 6.86 \quad \rightarrow 7 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} 0.11$$

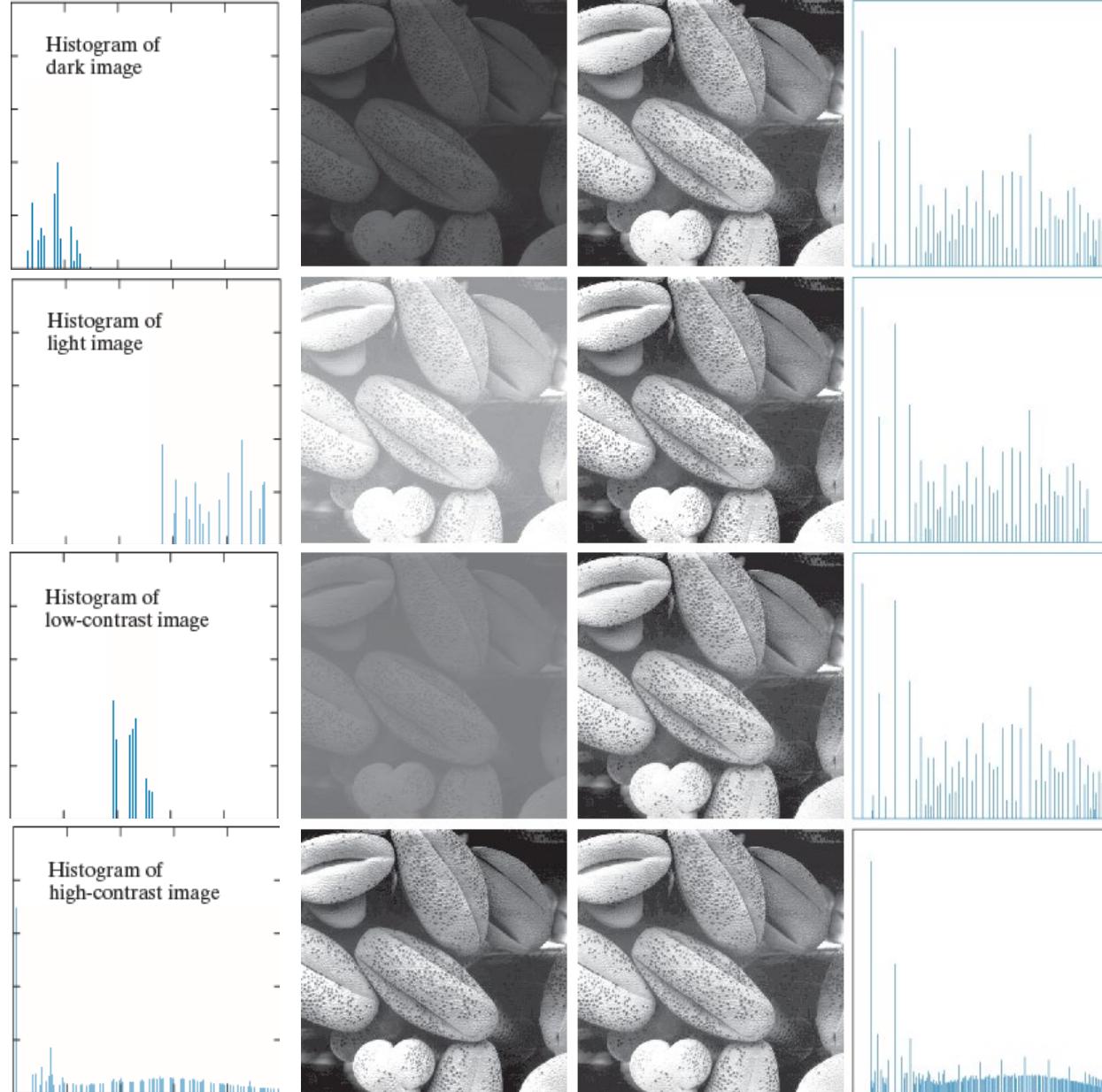
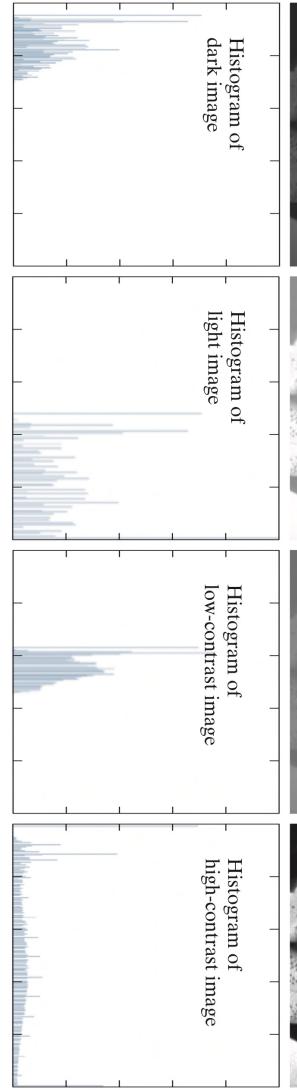
$$s_7 = 7.00 \quad \rightarrow 7 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} 0.11$$

a b c

**FIGURE 3.19**  
Histogram equalization.  
(a) Original histogram.  
(b) Transformation function.  
(c) Equalized histogram.



Perfectly flat  
histograms are rare.



**FIGURE 3.20** Left column: Images from Fig. 3.16. Center column: Corresponding histogram-equalized images. Right column: histograms of the images in the center column (compare with the histograms in Fig. 3.16).

**FIGURE 3.16** Four image types and their corresponding histograms. (a) dark; (b) light; (c) low contrast; (d) high contrast. The horizontal axis of the histograms are values of  $r_k$  and the vertical axis are values of  $p(r_k)$ .

## Transformation Functions of Fig. 3.20

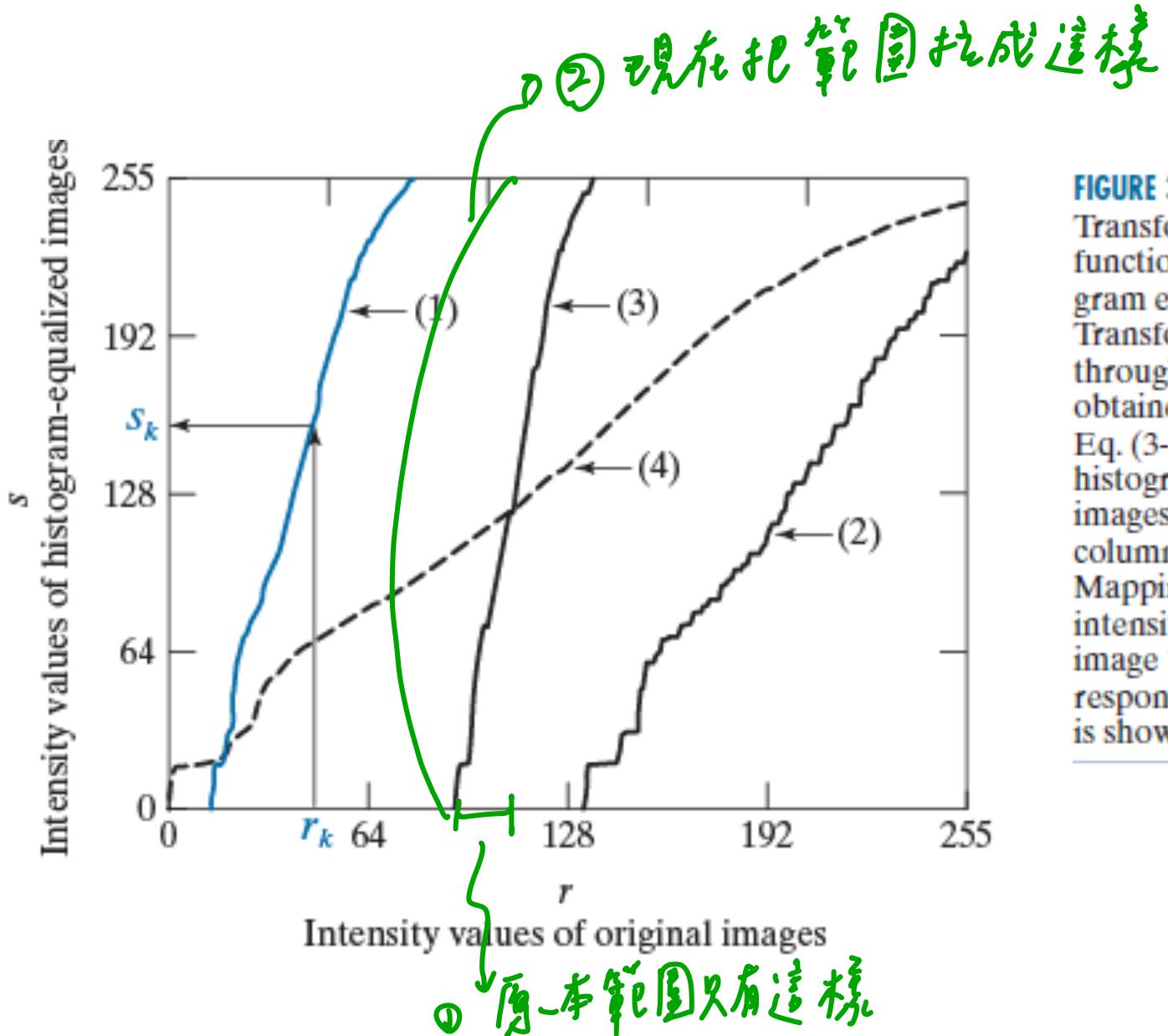


FIGURE 3.21

Transformation functions for histogram equalization. Transformations (1) through (4) were obtained using Eq. (3-15) and the histograms of the images on the left column of Fig. 3.20. Mapping of one intensity value  $r_k$  in image 1 to its corresponding value  $s_k$  is shown.

# Histogram Matching (Specification)

Generate a processed image that has a specified histogram

Let  $p_r(r)$  and  $p_z(z)$  denote the continuous probability density functions of the variables  $r$  and  $z$ .

$p_z(z)$  is the specified PDF that we want the output image to have.

Let  $s$  be the random variable with the probability

$$s = T(r) = (L-1) \int_0^r p_r(w) dw.$$

Define a function  $G(z)$  with the property

$$G(z) = (L-1) \int_0^z p_z(t) dt = s.$$

Then,  $z$  must satisfy the condition

$$z = G^{-1}(s) = G^{-1}[T(r)].$$

→ 找  $r$  和  $z$  的关系

## Histogram Matching: Procedure

- Obtain  $p_r(r)$  from the input image and then obtain the values of  $s$

$$s = (L - 1) \int_0^r p_r(w) dw$$

- Use the specified PDF and obtain the transformation function  $G(z)$

$$G(z) = (L - 1) \int_0^z p_z(t) dt = s$$

- Mapping from  $s$  to  $z$

$$z = G^{-1}(s)$$

## Histogram Matching: Example

For continuous intensity values, suppose that an image has the intensity PDF

$$p_r(r) = \begin{cases} \frac{2r}{(L-1)^2}, & \text{for } 0 \leq r \leq L-1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Find the transformation function that will produce an image whose intensity PDF is

$$p_z(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{3z^2}{(L-1)^3}, & \text{for } 0 \leq z \leq (L-1) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

## Histogram Matching: Example

Find the histogram equalization transformation for the input image

$$s = T(r) = (L-1) \int_0^r p_r(w) dw = (L-1) \int_0^r \frac{2w}{(L-1)^2} dw = \frac{r^2}{L-1}$$

Find the histogram equalization transformation for the specified histogram

$$G(z) = (L-1) \int_0^z p_z(t) dt = (L-1) \int_0^z \frac{3t^2}{(L-1)^3} dt = \frac{z^3}{(L-1)^2} = s$$

The transformation function

$$z = \left[ (L-1)^2 s \right]^{1/3} = \left[ (L-1)^2 \frac{r^2}{L-1} \right]^{1/3} = \left[ (L-1)r^2 \right]^{1/3}$$

## Histogram Matching: Discrete Case

- Obtain  $p_r(r_j)$  from the input image, obtain the values of  $s_k$ , and then round the value to the integer range  $[0, L-1]$ .

$$s_k = T(r_k) = (L-1) \sum_{j=0}^k p_r(r_j) = \frac{(L-1)}{MN} \sum_{j=0}^k n_j, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, L-1$$

- Use the specified PDF, obtain the transformation function  $G(z_q)$ , and then round the value to the integer range  $[0, L-1]$ .

$$G(z_q) = (L-1) \sum_{i=0}^q p_z(z_i) = s_k$$

- Mapping from  $s_k$  to  $z_q$  so that  $G(z_q)$  is close to  $s_k$ . When the mapping is not unique, choose the smallest value.

$$z_q = G^{-1}(s_k)$$

## Example: Histogram Matching

Suppose that a 3-bit image ( $L=8$ ) of size  $64 \times 64$  pixels ( $MN = 4096$ ) has the intensity distribution shown in the left table. Compute the histogram transformation function and make the output image with the histogram specified in the right table.

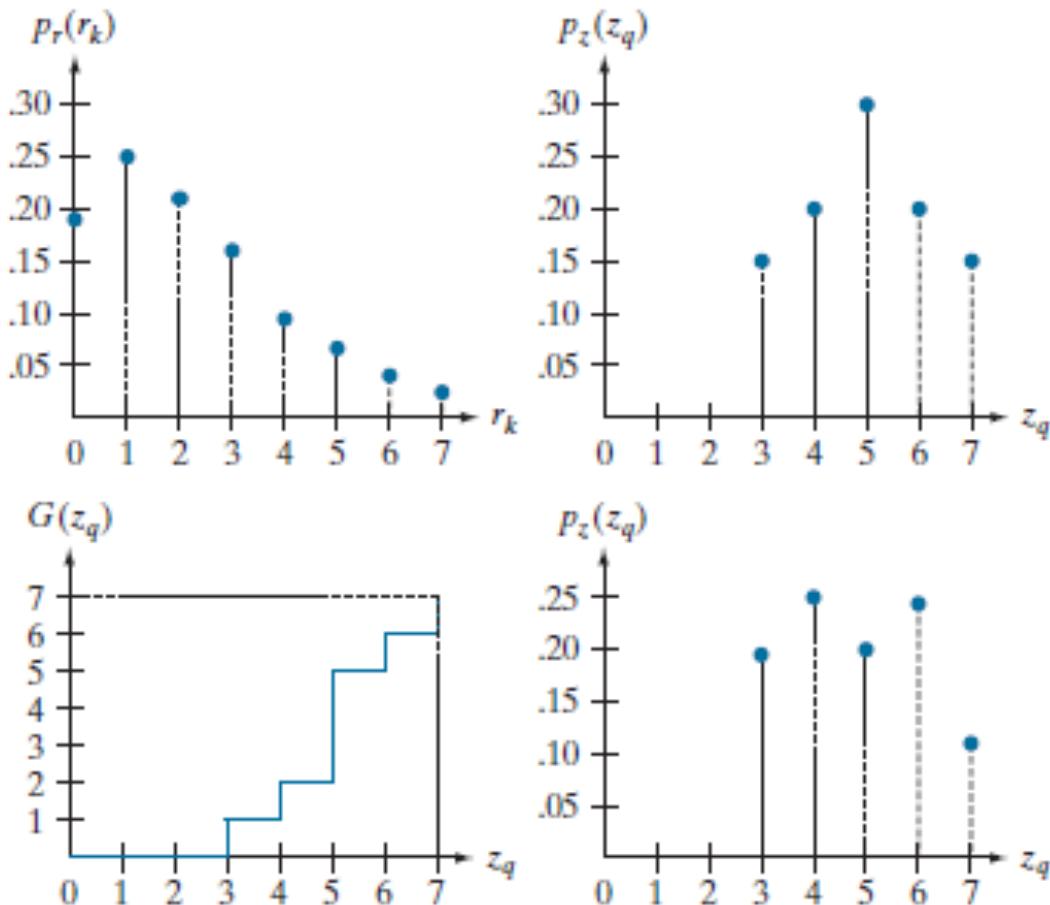
$r_k$	$n_k$	$p_r(r_k) = n_k/MN$
$r_0 = 0$	790	0.19
$r_1 = 1$	1023	0.25
$r_2 = 2$	850	0.21
$r_3 = 3$	656	0.16
$r_4 = 4$	329	0.08
$r_5 = 5$	245	0.06
$r_6 = 6$	122	0.03
$r_7 = 7$	81	0.02

Specified	
$z_q$	$p_z(z_q)$
$z_0 = 0$	0.00
$z_1 = 1$	0.00
$z_2 = 2$	0.00
$z_3 = 3$	0.15
$z_4 = 4$	0.20
$z_5 = 5$	0.30
$z_6 = 6$	0.20
$z_7 = 7$	0.15

# Example: Histogram Matching

a b  
c d

**FIGURE 3.22**  
(a) Histogram of a 3-bit image.  
(b) Specified histogram.  
(c) Transformation function obtained from the specified histogram.  
(d) Result of histogram specification. Compare the histograms in (b) and (d).



## ❖ Example: Histogram Matching

Obtain the scaled histogram-equalized values (from Example 3.5)

$$s_0 = 1, s_1 = 3, s_2 = 5, s_3 = 6, s_4 = 6, s_5 = 7, s_6 = 7, s_7 = 7.$$

Compute all the values of the transformation function G

$$G(z_0) = 7 \sum_{j=0}^0 p_z(z_j) = 0.00 \rightarrow 0$$

$$G(z_1) = 0.00 \rightarrow 0$$

$$G(z_3) = 1.05 \rightarrow 1$$

$$G(z_5) = 4.55 \rightarrow 5$$

$$G(z_7) = 7.00 \rightarrow 7$$

$$G(z_2) = 0.00 \rightarrow 0$$

$$G(z_4) = 2.45 \rightarrow 2$$

$$G(z_6) = 5.95 \rightarrow 6$$

**TABLE 3.2**  
Specified and  
actual histograms  
(the values in  
the third column  
are computed in  
Example 3.7).

<b>Specified</b> $z_q$	<b>Actual</b> $p_z(z_q)$	<b>Actual</b> $p_z(z_k)$
$z_0 = 0$	0.00	0.00
$z_1 = 1$	0.00	0.00
$z_2 = 2$	0.00	0.00
$z_3 = 3$	0.15	0.19
$z_4 = 4$	0.20	0.25
$z_5 = 5$	0.30	0.21
$z_6 = 6$	0.20	0.24
$z_7 = 7$	0.15	0.11

## Example: Histogram Matching

Obtain the scaled histogram-equalized values (from Example 3.5)

$$s_0 = 1, s_1 = 3, s_2 = 5, s_3 = 6, s_4 = 6, s_5 = 7, s_6 = 7, s_7 = 7.$$

Compute all the values of the transformation function G

$$G(z_0) = 7 \sum_{j=0}^0 p_z(z_j) = 0.00 \rightarrow 0$$

$$G(z_1) = 0.00 \rightarrow 0$$

$$G(z_2) = 0.00 \rightarrow 0$$

$$G(z_3) = 1.05 \rightarrow 1 \quad s_0 \rightarrow z_3 \quad G(z_4) = 2.45 \rightarrow 2 \quad s_1 \rightarrow z_4$$

$$G(z_5) = 4.55 \rightarrow 5 \quad s_2 \rightarrow z_5 \quad G(z_6) = 5.95 \rightarrow 6 \quad s_3 \rightarrow z_6$$

$$G(z_7) = 7.00 \rightarrow 7 \quad s_4 \quad s_5 \quad s_6 \quad s_7 \rightarrow z_7$$

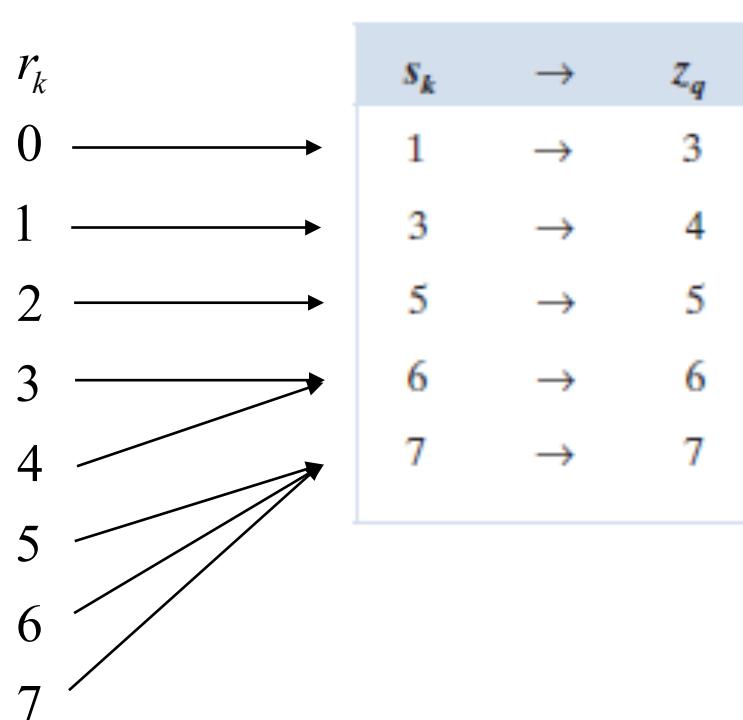
! چنانچه  $s_4$  را map کنیز

G is not strictly monotonic  
→ find the smallest value  
of  $z_q$  so that the value  $G(z_q)$   
is the closest to  $s_k, \forall s_k$ .

# Example: Histogram Matching

$$s_0 = 1, s_1 = 3, s_2 = 5, s_3 = 6, s_4 = 6, s_5 = 7, s_6 = 7, s_7 = 7.$$

**TABLE 3.4**  
Mapping of  
values  $s_k$  into  
corresponding  
values  $z_q$ .

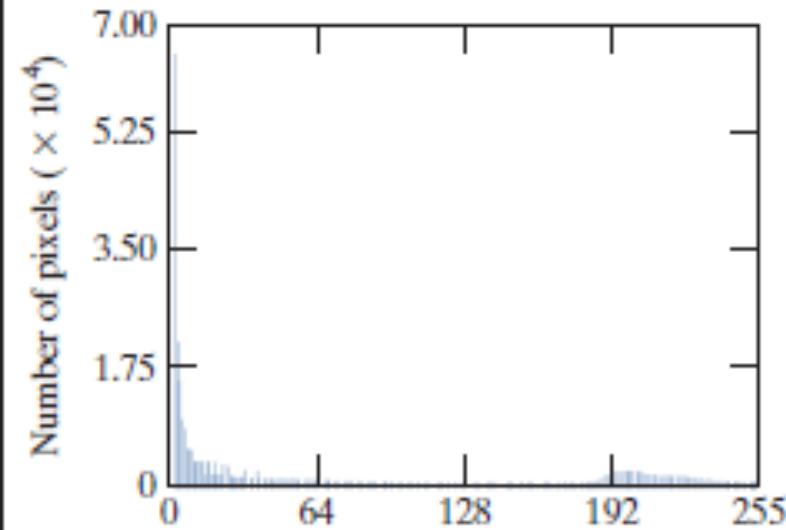


# Histogram Matching vs. Histogram Equalization

a b

**FIGURE 3.23**

(a) An image, and  
(b) its histogram.



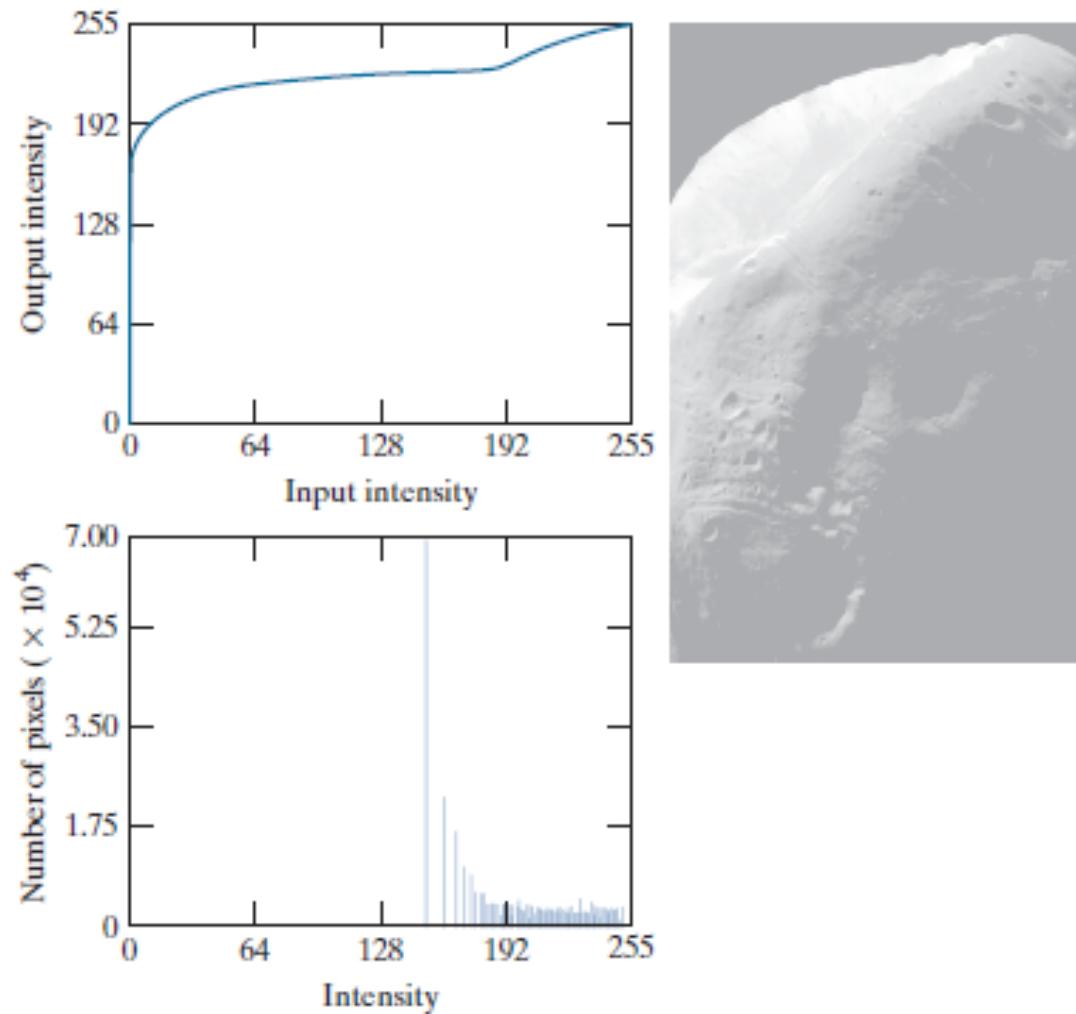
丙  
匹配

# Histogram Matching vs. Histogram Equalization

a b  
c

**FIGURE 3.24**

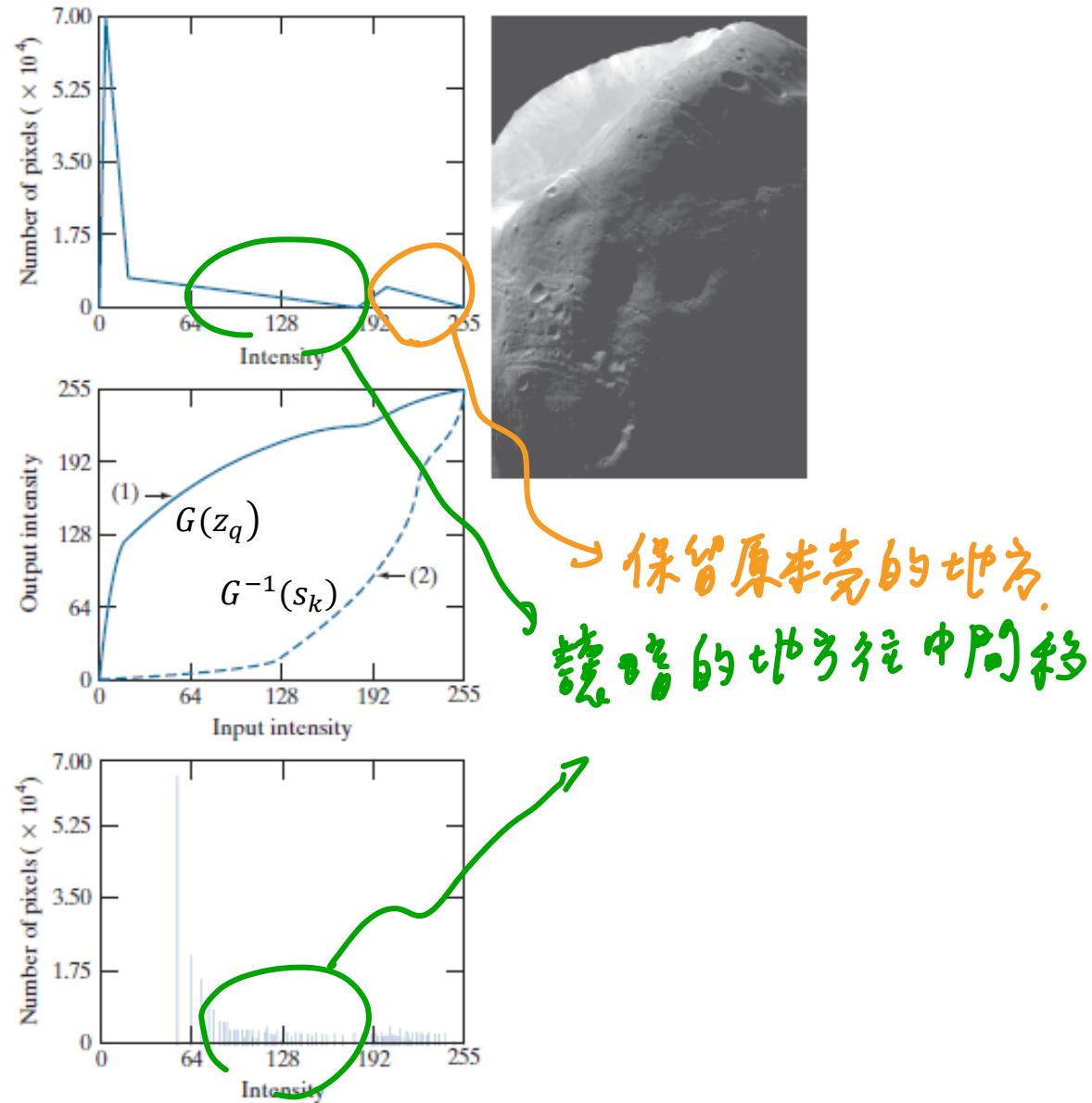
- (a) Histogram equalization transformation obtained using the histogram in Fig. 3.23(b).  
(b) Histogram equalized image.  
(c) Histogram of equalized image.



# Histogram Matching vs. Histogram Equalization

a c  
b d

**FIGURE 3.25**  
Histogram specification.  
(a) Specified histogram.  
(b) Transformation  $G(z_q)$ , labeled (1), and  $G^{-1}(s_k)$ , labeled (2).  
(c) Result of histogram specification.  
(d) Histogram of image (c).



# Local Histogram Equalization

Define a neighborhood and move its center from pixel to pixel

At each location, the histogram of the pixels in the neighborhood is computed. Either histogram equalization or histogram specification transformation function is obtained

Map the intensity of the pixel centered in the neighborhood

Move to the next location and repeat the procedure

# Example of Local Histogram Equalization

Original Image: Imperceptible noise throughout; invisible objects embedded in the dark squares

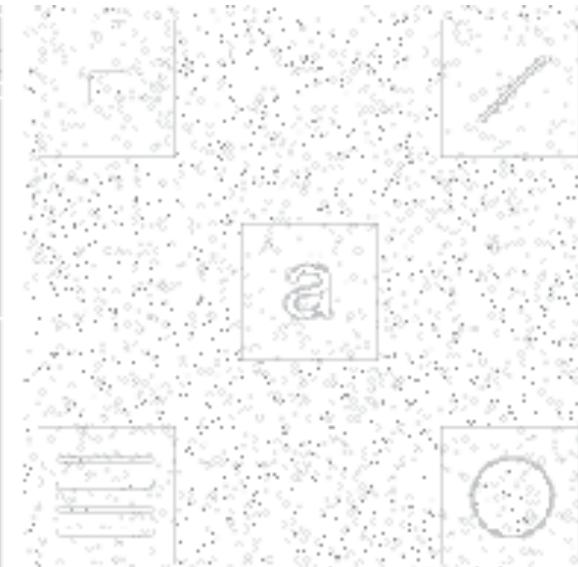
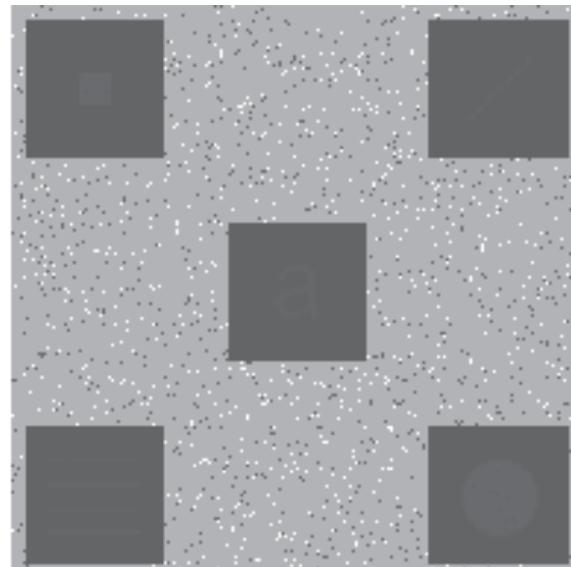
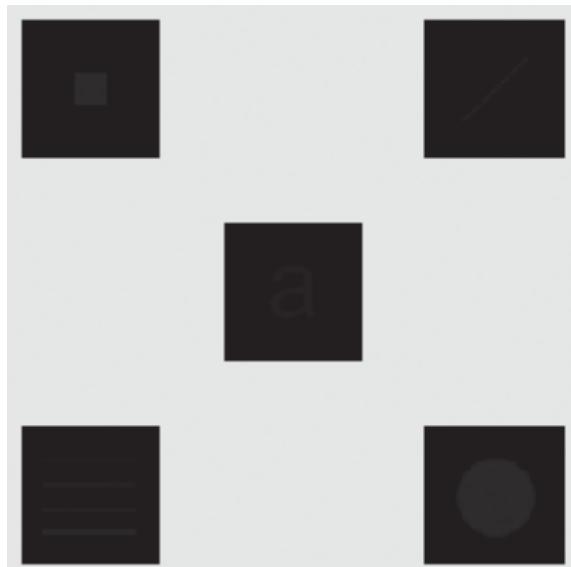
Global histogram equalization:  
Noise enhanced but no new details

Local histogram equalization with a neighborhood of size 3x3.  
Dark details appear.

a b c

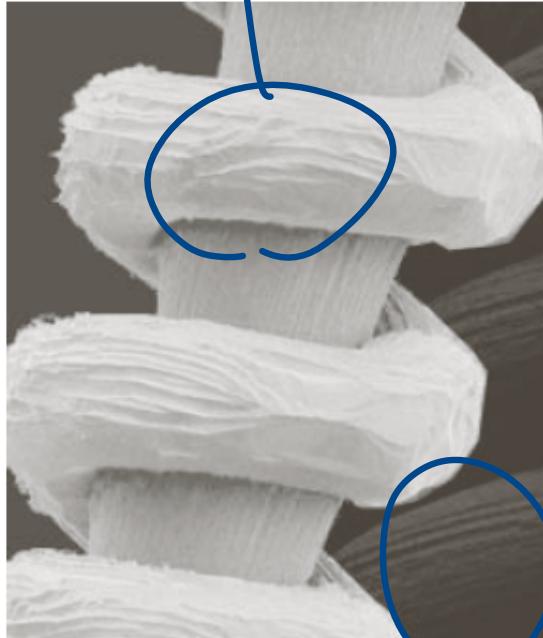
FIGURE 3.26

(a) Original image. (b) Result of global histogram equalization. (c) Result of local histogram equalization.



# Example of Local Histogram Equalization

大范围保留高亮区域



Original image

高亮区域被加暗了(不好)



Global histogram equalization



局部直方图均衡化

高亮区域没有变暗

# Using Histogram Statistics for Image Enhancement

Let  $r$  denote a discrete random variable representing intensity values in the range  $[0, L-1]$ .  
Let  $p(r_i)$  denote the normalized histogram component corresponding to intensity value  $r_i$ .

Moment

$$\mu_n(r) = \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} (r_i - m)^n p(r_i) \quad \leftarrow \text{nth moment of } r \text{ about its mean}$$

Mean (average intensity)

$$m = \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} r_i p(r_i) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x, y)$$

Variance

$$\sigma^2 = u_2(r) = \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} (r_i - m)^2 p(r_i) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} [f(x, y) - m]^2$$

The mean is a measure of average intensity, and the variance is a measure of image contrast.

# Using Histogram Statistics for Image Enhancement

Let  $S_{xy}$  denote a neighborhood of specified size, centered on  $(x,y)$ .

分区計算

Local average intensity

$$m_{s_{xy}} = \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} r_i p_{s_{xy}}(r_i) \rightarrow \text{均值} \rightarrow \text{平均强度}$$

Local variance

差  
→ detail

$$\sigma_{s_{xy}}^2 = \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} (r_i - m_{s_{xy}})^2 p_{s_{xy}}(r_i)$$

# Example: Using Histogram Statistics for Image Enhancement

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} Cf(x, y) & \text{if } k_0 m_G \leq m_{s_{xy}} \leq k_1 m_G \text{ and } k_2 \sigma_G \leq \sigma_{s_{xy}} \leq k_3 \sigma_G \\ f(x, y) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Dark and low contrast

$m_G$  (global mean) = 161,  $\sigma_G$  (global standard deviation) = 103;

$r_{\max} = 228$  for image,  $r_{\max} = 10$  for dark squares,  $r_{\min} = 0$ ;

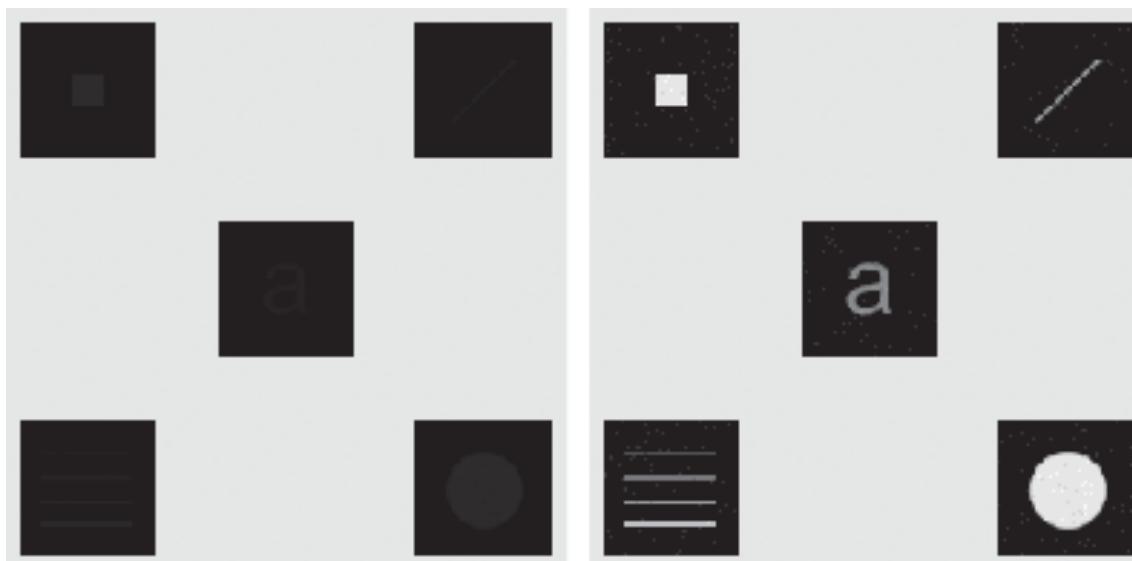
$k_0 = 0$ ,  $k_1 = 0.1$ ,  $k_2 = 0$ ,  $k_3 = 0.1$ ,  $C = 22.8$ .

Set C=22.8 to make maximum intensity =  $r_{\max}$ .

a b

FIGURE 3.27

(a) Original image. (b) Result of local enhancement based on local histogram statistics. Compare (b) with Fig. 3.26(c).



# Spatial Filtering

- ❑ **Filtering** refers to passing, modifying, or rejecting specified components of an image. If the operation is linear (nonlinear), it is called a linear (nonlinear) filter.
- ❑ Spatial filtering modifies an image by replacing the value of each pixel by a function of the values of the pixel and its neighbors.
- ❑ Linear spatial filtering of an image of size  $M \times N$  with a **filter kernel** (or kernel)  $w$  of size  $m \times n$  is given by the expression

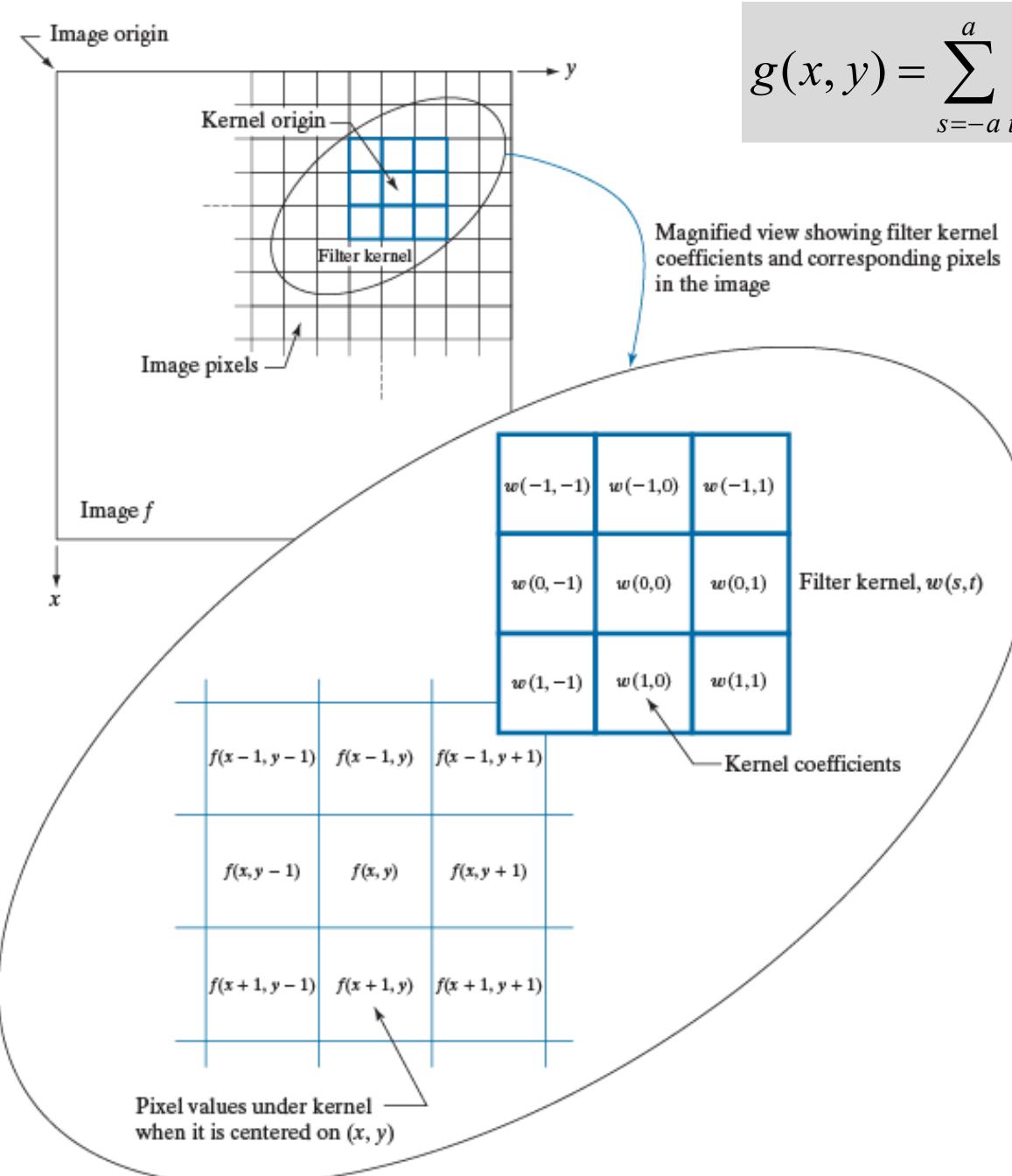
$$g(x, y) = \sum_{s=-a}^a \sum_{t=-b}^b w(s, t) f(x + s, y + t)$$

A sum-of-products operation

# Spatial Filtering

FIGURE 3.28

The mechanics of linear spatial filtering using a  $3 \times 3$  kernel. The pixels are shown as squares to simplify the graphics. Note that the origin of the image is at the top left, but the origin of the kernel is at its center. Placing the origin at the center of spatially symmetric kernels simplifies writing expressions for linear filtering.



$$g(x, y) = \sum_{s=-a}^a \sum_{t=-b}^b w(s, t) f(x+s, y+t)$$

# Convolution vs. Correlation

The convolution of a filter  $w(x, y)$  of size  $m \times n$   
with an image  $f(x, y)$  is denoted by  $w(x, y) \star f(x, y)$

$$w(x, y) \star f(x, y) = \sum_{s=-a}^a \sum_{t=-b}^b w(s, t) f(x-s, y-t)$$

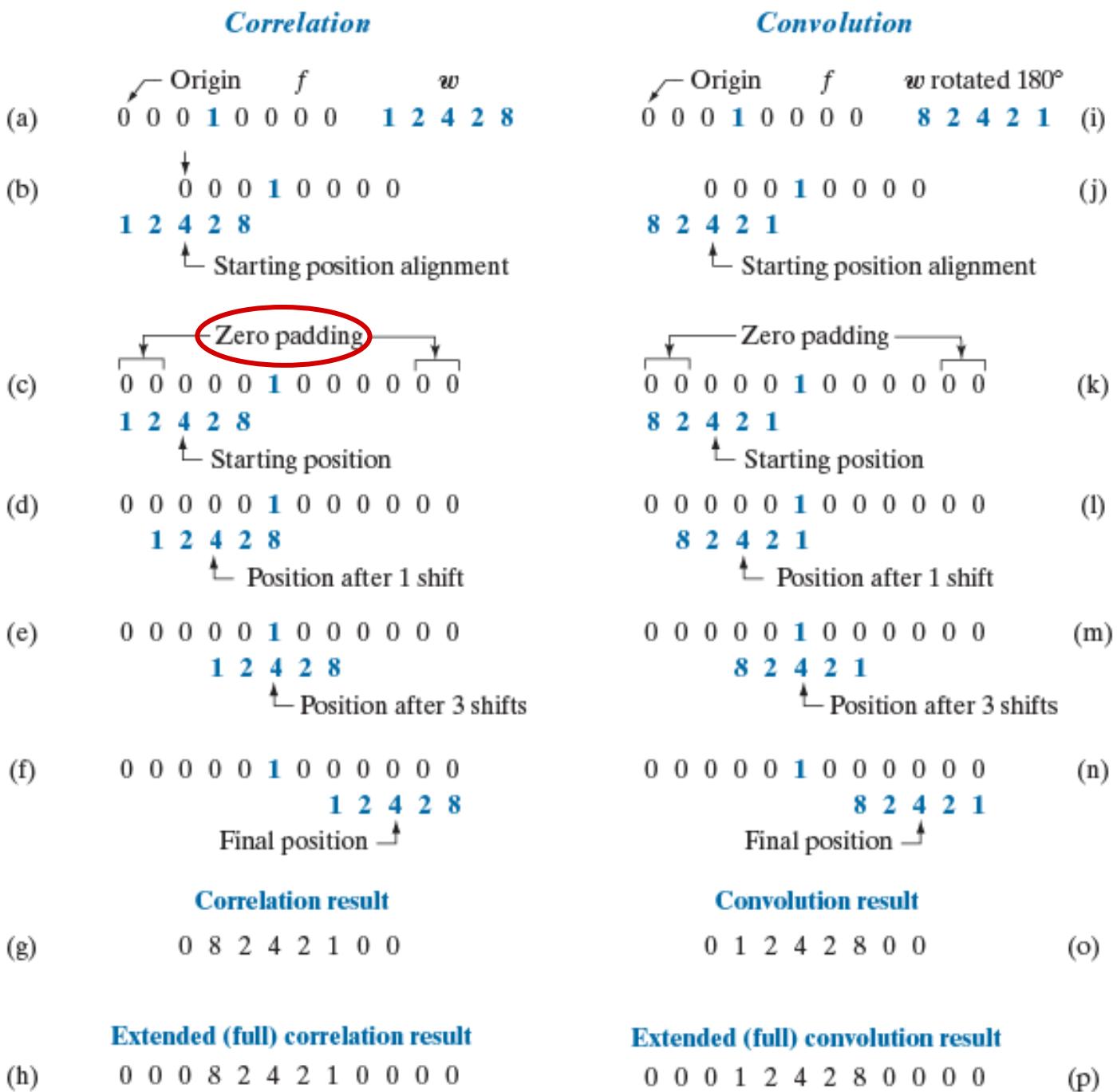
The correlation of a filter  $w(x, y)$  of size  $m \times n$   
with an image  $f(x, y)$  is denoted by  $w(x, y) \star f(x, y)$

$$w(x, y) \star f(x, y) = \sum_{s=-a}^a \sum_{t=-b}^b w(s, t) f(x+s, y+t)$$

✓ If the kernel is symmetric about its center, convolution and correlation yield the same result.

# Correlation vs. Convolution

**FIGURE 3.29**  
 Illustration of 1-D correlation and convolution of a kernel,  $w$ , with a function  $f$  consisting of a discrete unit impulse. Note that correlation and convolution are functions of the variable  $x$ , which acts to *displace* one function with respect to the other. For the extended correlation and convolution results, the starting configuration places the right-most element of the kernel to be coincident with the origin of  $f$ . Additional padding must be used.



Padded  $f$ 

Origin $f$	0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 $w$	0 0 0 1 0 0 0
0 0 1 0 0 1 2 3	0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 4 5 6	0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 7 8 9	0 0 0 0 0 0 0

(a)

(b)

Initial position for  $w$ 

1 2 3	0 0 0 0 0
4 5 6	0 0 0 0 0
7 8 9	0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 1 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0

(c)

Correlation result

0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 9 8 7 0 0 0
0 6 5 4 0 0 0
0 3 2 1 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0

(d)

Full correlation result

0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 9 8 7 0 0 0
0 6 5 4 0 0 0
0 3 2 1 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0

(e)

Rotated  $w$ 

9 8 7	0 0 0 0 0
6 5 4	0 0 0 0 0
3 2 1	0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 1 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0

(f)

Convolution result

0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 1 2 3 0 0 0
0 4 5 6 0 0 0
0 7 8 9 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0

(g)

Full convolution result

0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 1 2 3 0 0 0
0 4 5 6 0 0 0
0 7 8 9 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0

(h)

**FIGURE 3.30**  
 Correlation  
 (middle row) and  
 convolution (last  
 row) of a 2-D  
 kernel with an  
 image consisting  
 of a discrete unit  
 impulse. The 0's  
 are shown in gray  
 to simplify visual  
 analysis. Note that  
 correlation and  
 convolution are  
 functions of  $x$  and  
 $y$ . As these  
 variable change,  
 they  
*displace* one  
 function with  
 respect to the  
 other. See the  
 discussion of Eqs.  
 (3-36) and (3-37)  
 regarding full  
 correlation and  
 convolution.

# Fundamental Properties

**TABLE 3.5**  
Some fundamental properties of convolution and correlation. A dash means that the property does not hold.

Property	Convolution	Correlation
Commutative	$f \star g = g \star f$	—
Associative	$f \star (g \star h) = (f \star g) \star h$	—
Distributive	$f \star (g + h) = (f \star g) + (f \star h)$	$f \star (g + h) = (f \star g) + (f \star h)$

# Three Approaches to Filter Construction

1. Formulating filters based on mathematical properties
  - Computing the average to smooth an image is analogous to integration
  - Computing the derivative of an image sharpens the image
2. Sampling a 2D spatial function whose shape has a desired property
  - For example, Gaussian function in Section 3.5
3. Designing from a specified frequency response, typically using a filter design software
  - Section 3.7

# Smoothing (Lowpass) Spatial Filters

- Smoothing filters are used for blurring or noise reduction
- Blurring can be applied to remove small details of images or bridge in small gaps for lines or curves
- Smoothing spatial filters include linear and nonlinear filters
- The general implementation for filtering an  $M \times N$  image with a weighted averaging filter of size  $m \times n$  is given

$$g(x, y) = \frac{\sum_{s=-a}^a \sum_{t=-b}^b w(s, t) f(x + s, y + t)}{\sum_{s=-a}^a \sum_{t=-b}^b w(s, t)}$$

where  $2a + 1 = M$  and  $2b + 1 = N$ .

# Smoothing (Lowpass) Kernels

## Box and Gaussian Kernels

a b

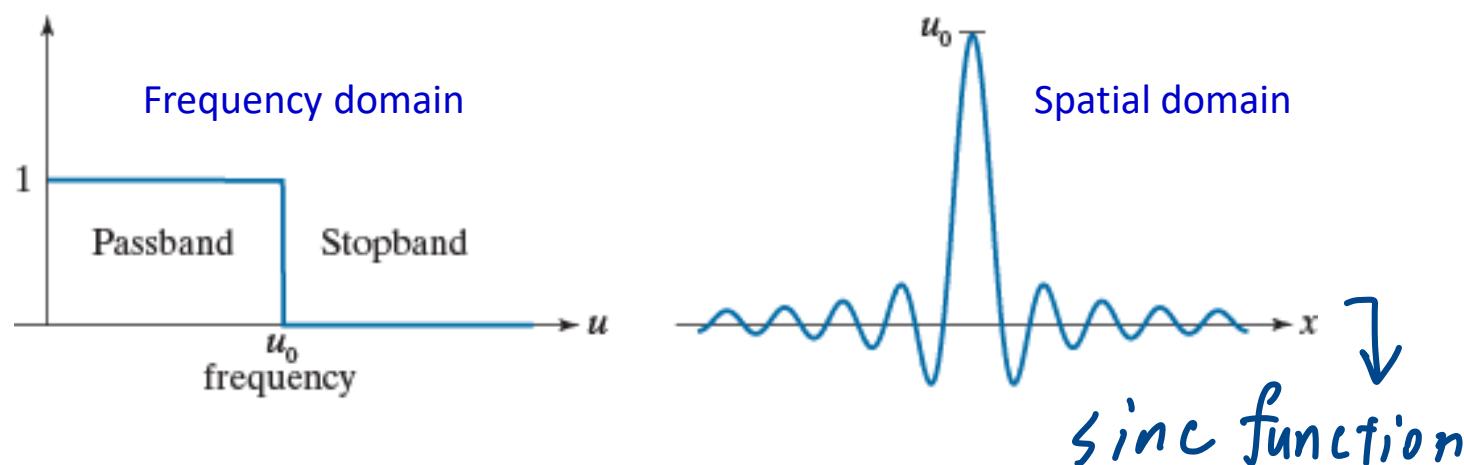
**FIGURE 3.31**  
Examples of smoothing kernels:  
(a) is a *box* kernel;  
(b) is a *Gaussian* kernel.

Box			Gaussian		
1	1	1	0.3679	0.6065	0.3679
1	1	1	0.6065	1.0000	0.6065
1	1	1	0.3679	0.6065	0.3679

## 1-D Ideal Low-Pass Filter

a b

**FIGURE 3.32**  
(a) Ideal 1-D low-pass filter transfer function in the frequency domain.  
(b) Corresponding filter kernel in the spatial domain.



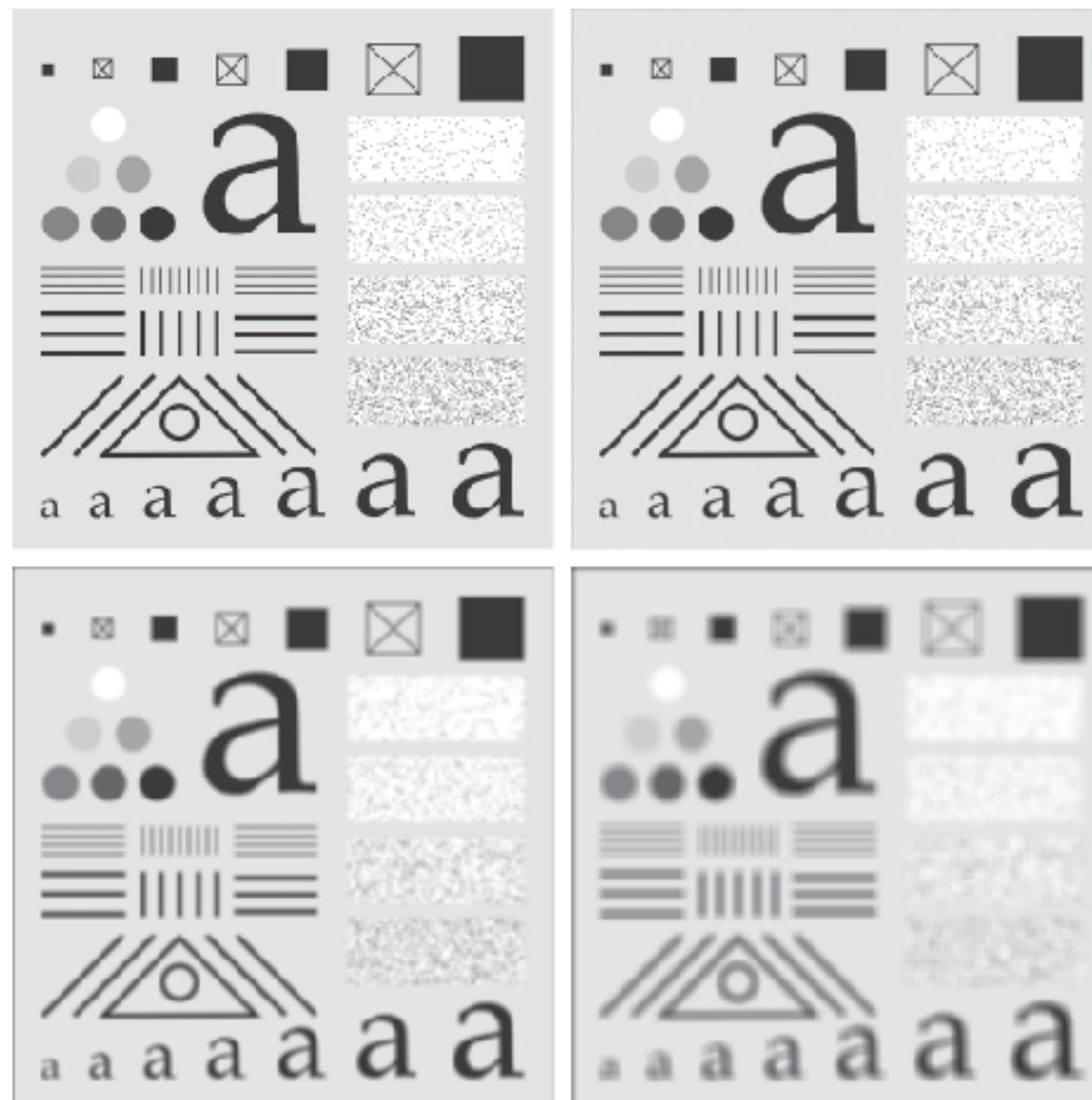
# Low-Pass Filtering Using a Box Kernel

a  
b  
c  
d

**FIGURE 3.33**

(a) Test pattern of size  $1024 \times 1024$  pixels.

(b)-(d) Results of lowpass filtering with box kernels of sizes  $3 \times 3$ ,  $11 \times 11$ , and  $21 \times 21$ , respectively.

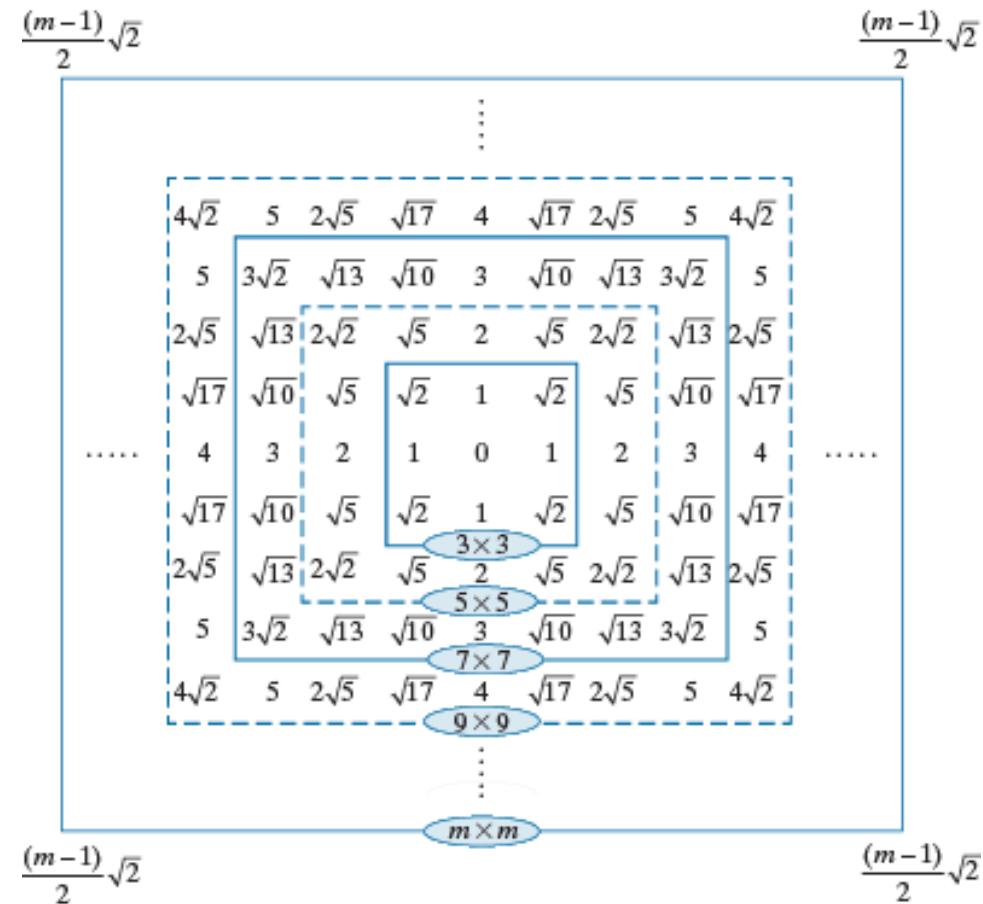


Kernel size ↑  
smooth ↑

# Distances to Center of Square Gaussian Kernels

FIGURE 3.34

Distances from the center for various sizes of square kernels.



Value is negligible  
when distance  
 $> 3\sigma$

$$G(x, y) = Ke^{\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$
$$K = 1, \sigma = 1$$

! Gaussian filter

大過某程度就肉眼無法判別。  
所以 kernel 不用太大

# Discretization of Gaussian Filter

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

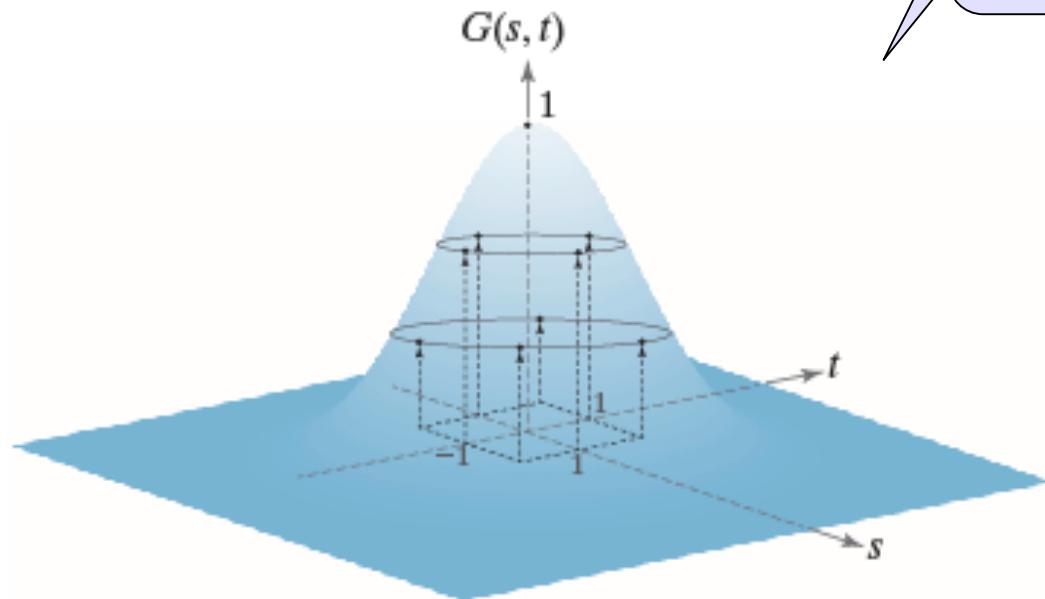
$$K = 1, \sigma = 1$$

circularly  
symmetric  
(isotropic)

a b

FIGURE 3.35

(a) Sampling a Gaussian function to obtain a discrete Gaussian kernel. The values shown are for  $K = 1$  and  $\sigma = 1$ . (b) Resulting  $3 \times 3$  kernel [this is the same as Fig. 3.31(b)].



$$\frac{1}{4.8976} \times$$

0.3679	0.6065	0.3679
0.6065	1.0000	0.6065
0.3679	0.6065	0.3679

# Properties of Gaussian Filters

rank=1

1. Separable  $\Rightarrow G(x,y) = G_1(x)G_2(y)$
2. Product and convolution of two Gaussians are Gaussian too

**TABLE 3.6** Mean and standard deviation of the product ( $\times$ ) and convolution ( $\star$ ) of two 1-D Gaussian functions,  $f$  and  $g$ . These results generalize directly to the product and convolution of more than two 1-D Gaussian functions (see Problem 3.33).

	$f$	$g$	$f \times g$	$f \star g$
Mean	$m_f$	$m_g$	$m_{f \times g} = \frac{m_f \sigma_g^2 + m_g \sigma_f^2}{\sigma_f^2 + \sigma_g^2}$	$m_{f \star g} = m_f + m_g$
Standard deviation	$\sigma_f$	$\sigma_g$	$\sigma_{f \times g} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_f^2 \sigma_g^2}{\sigma_f^2 + \sigma_g^2}}$	$\sigma_{f \star g} = \sqrt{\sigma_f^2 + \sigma_g^2}$

# Low-Pass Filtering with a Gaussian Kernel



21x21

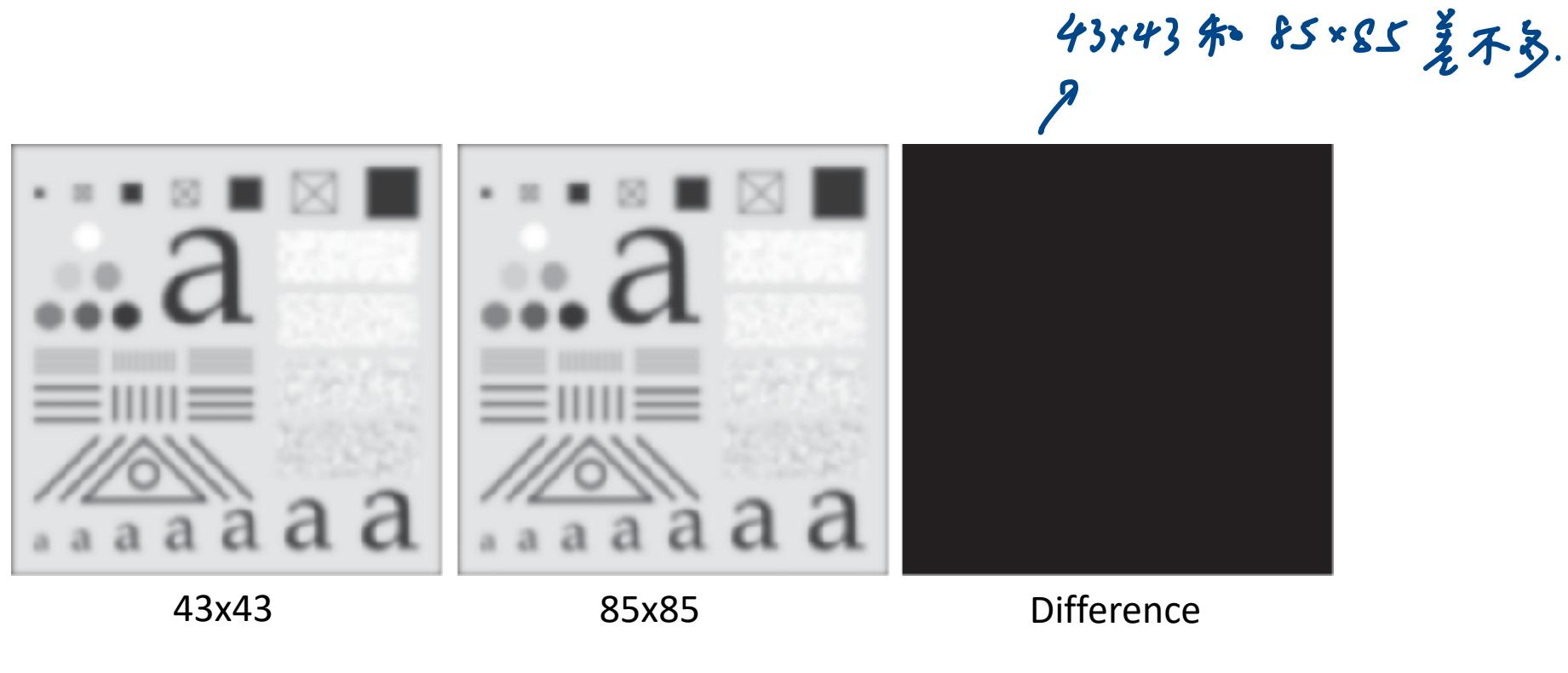
43x43

Result comparable to Fig. 3.33(d)  
with a 21x21 averaging filter

a b c

**FIGURE 3.36** (a) A test pattern of size  $1024 \times 1024$ . (b) Result of lowpass filtering the pattern with a Gaussian kernel of size  $21 \times 21$ , with standard deviations  $\sigma = 3.5$ . (c) Result of using a kernel of size  $43 \times 43$ , with  $\sigma = 7$ . This result is comparable to Fig. 3.33(d). We used  $K = 1$  in all cases.

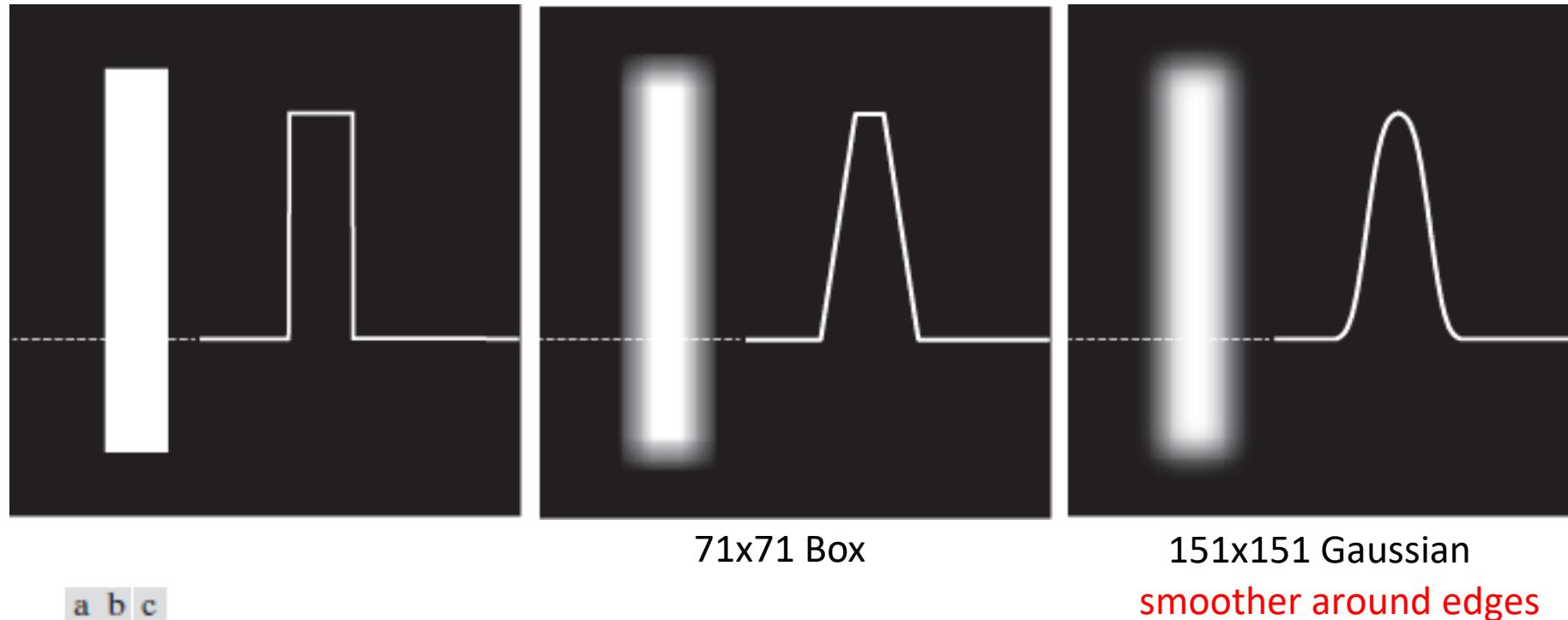
# Gaussian Filtering with Different Kernel Sizes



**FIGURE 3.37** (a) Result of filtering Fig. 3.36(a) using a Gaussian kernels of size  $43 \times 43$ , with  $\sigma = 7$ . (b) Result of using a kernel of  $85 \times 85$ , with the same value of  $\sigma$ . (c) Difference image.

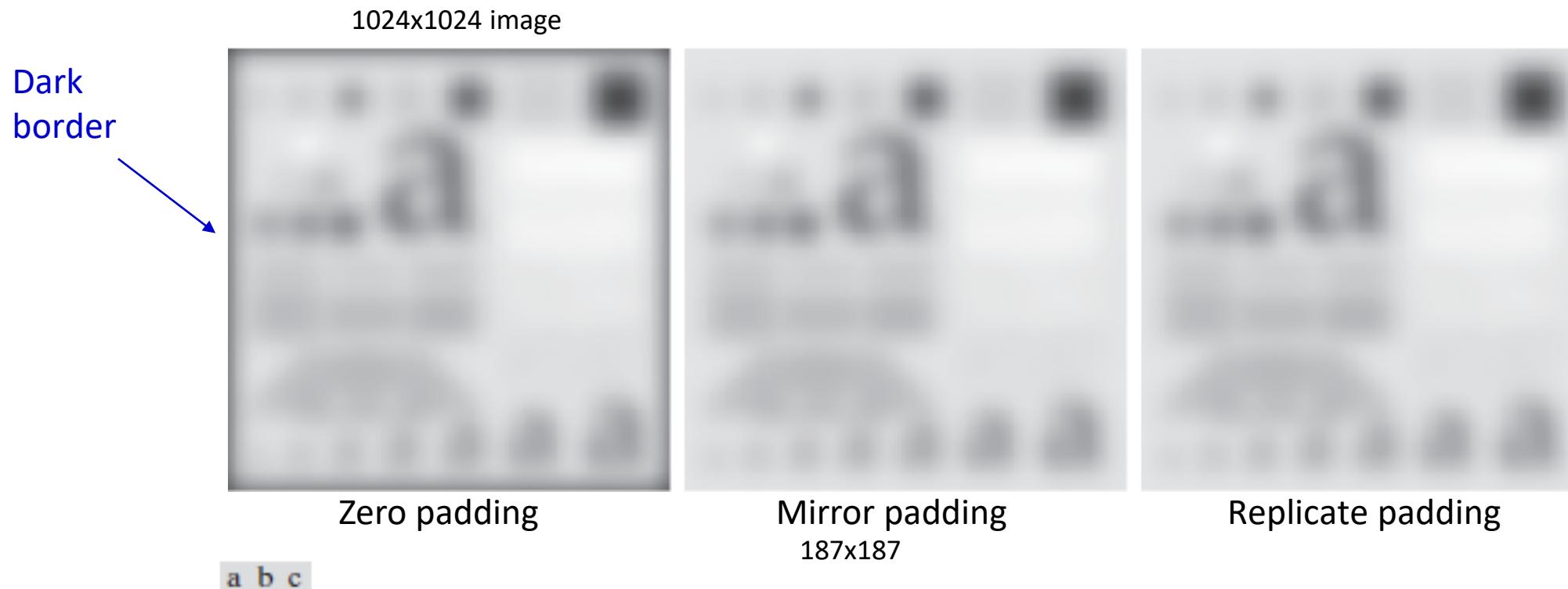
There is little to be gained by using a Gaussian kernel larger than  $\lceil 6\sigma \rceil \times \lceil 6\sigma \rceil$ .

# Comparison of Gaussian and Box Filter Smoothing



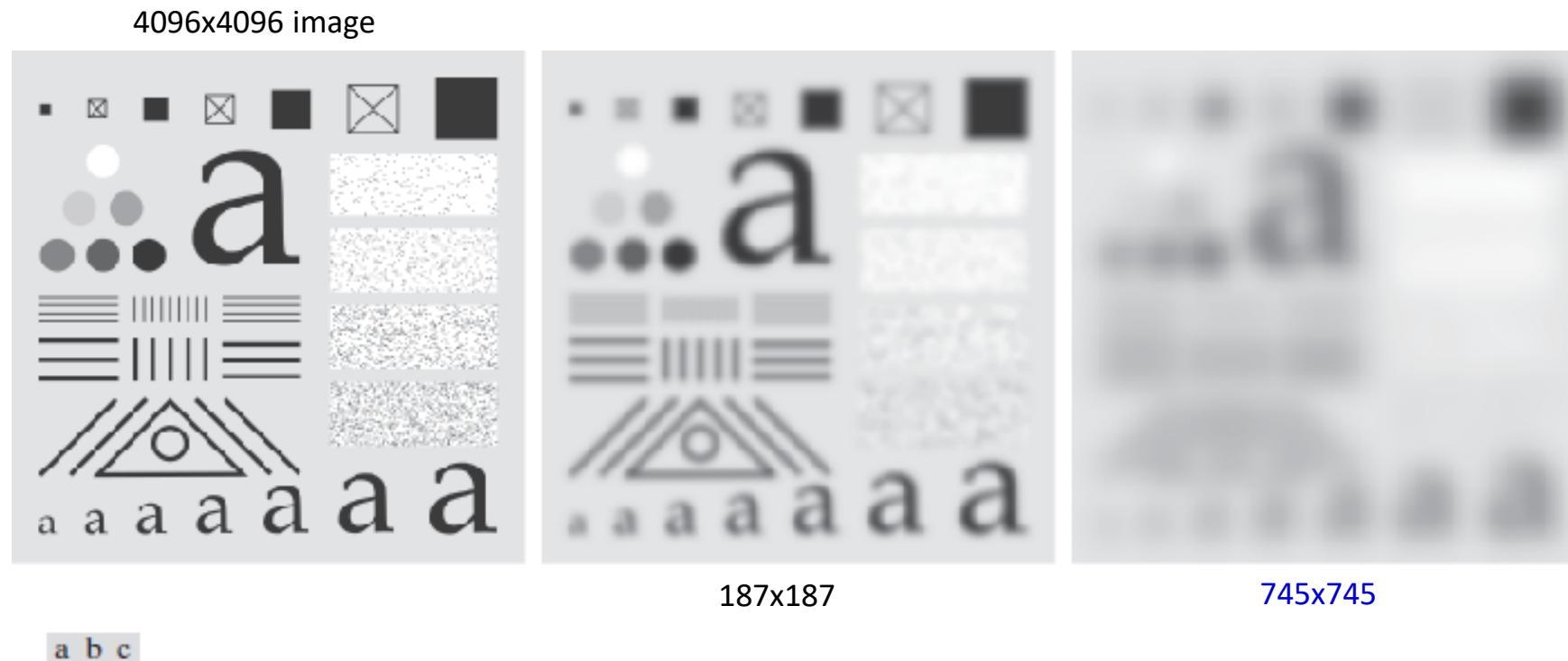
**FIGURE 3.38** (a) Image of a white rectangle on a black background, and a horizontal intensity profile along the scan line shown dotted. (b) Result of smoothing this image with a box kernel of size  $71 \times 71$ , and corresponding intensity profile. (c) Result of smoothing the image using a Gaussian kernel of size  $151 \times 151$ , with  $K = 1$  and  $\sigma = 25$ . Note the smoothness of the profile in (c) compared to (b). The image and rectangle are of sizes  $1024 \times 1024$  and  $768 \times 128$  pixels, respectively.

# ※ Effect of Padding on Gaussian Filtering 你会分！



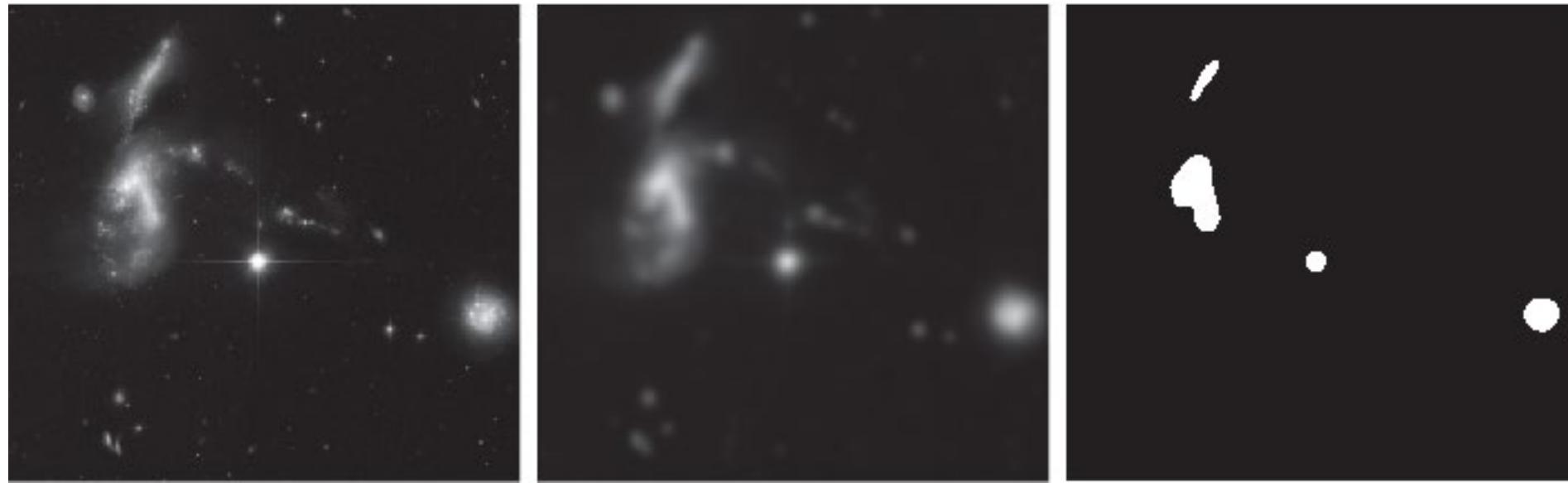
**FIGURE 3.39** Result of filtering the test pattern in Fig. 3.36(a) using (a) zero padding, (b) mirror padding, and (c) replicate padding. A Gaussian kernel of size  $187 \times 187$ , with  $K = 1$  and  $\sigma = 31$  was used in all three cases.

# Smoothing Performance as a Function of Image and Kernel Size



**FIGURE 3.40** (a) Test pattern of size  $4096 \times 4096$  pixels. (b) Result of filtering the test pattern with the same Gaussian kernel used in Fig. 3.39. (c) Result of filtering the pattern using a Gaussian kernel of size  $745 \times 745$  elements, with  $K = 1$  and  $\sigma = 124$ . Mirror padding was used throughout.

# Using Lowpass Filtering and Thresholding for Region Extraction



a b c

**FIGURE 3.41** (a) A  $2566 \times 2758$  Hubble Telescope image of the *Hickson Compact Group*. (b) Result of lowpass filtering with a Gaussian kernel. (c) Result of thresholding the filtered image (intensities were scaled to the range  $[0, 1]$ ). The Hickson Compact Group contains dwarf galaxies that have come together, setting off thousands of new star clusters. (Original image courtesy of NASA.)

# Shading Correction Using Lowpass Filtering

- Image: 2048x2048
- Checkerboard square: 128x128
- Gaussian kernel: 512x512, K=1,  $\sigma=128$
- The kernel is just large enough to blur out the squares.
- A kernel three times the size of the squares is too small to blur them out sufficiently.



a b c

*mirroring b's padding*

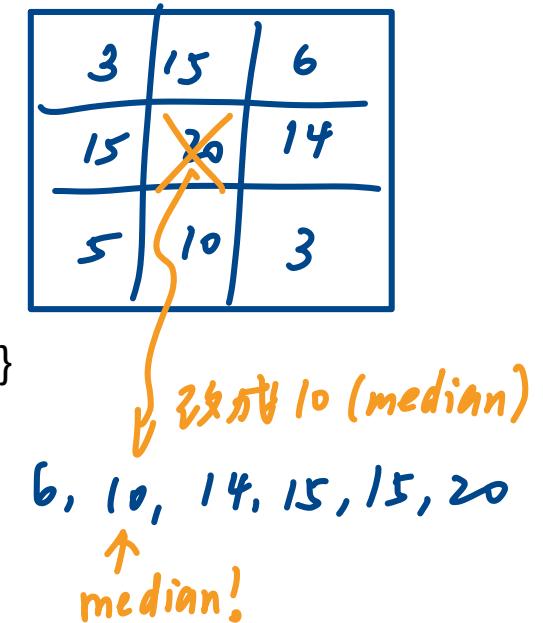
**FIGURE 3.42** (a) Image shaded by a shading pattern oriented in the  $-45^\circ$  direction. (b) Estimate of the shading patterns obtained using lowpass filtering. (c) Result of dividing (a) by (b). (See Section 9.8 for a morphological approach to shading correction).

# Order-Statistic Filters

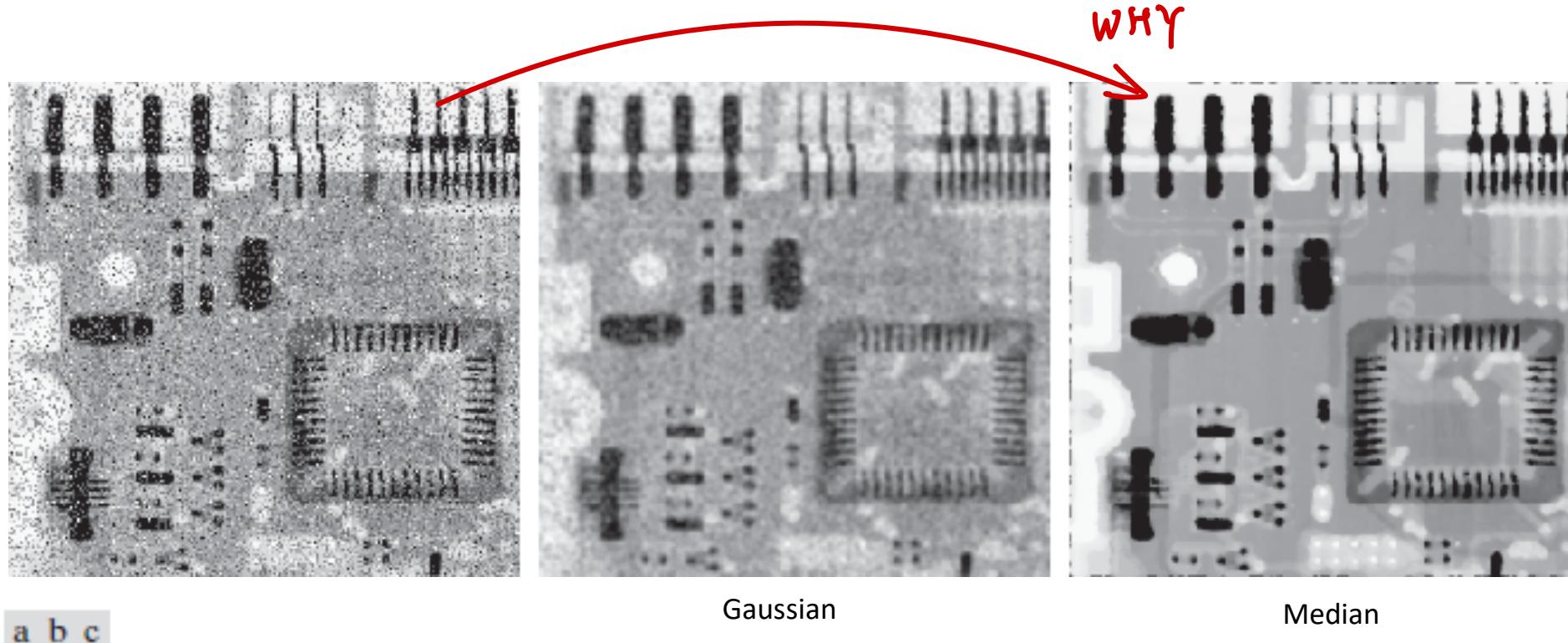
- ❑ Nonlinear
- ❑ Based on ordering (ranking) the pixels contained in the filter mask
- ❑ Replacing the value of the center pixel with the value determined by the ranking result
- ❑ For example, median filter, max filter, min filter, etc.

Provides excellent noise reduction with less blurring than linear smoothing filters.

{1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8}



# Median Filtering for Noise Reduction



**FIGURE 3.43** (a) X-ray image of a circuit board, corrupted by salt-and-pepper noise. (b) Noise reduction using a  $19 \times 19$  Gaussian lowpass filter kernel with  $\sigma = 3$ . (c) Noise reduction using a  $7 \times 7$  median filter. (Original image courtesy of Mr. Joseph E. Pascente, Lixi, Inc.)

# Sharpening Spatial Filters

- ❑ Sharpening highlights transitions in intensity
- ❑ Can be accomplished by spatial differentiation, which enhances edges and other discontinuities (such as noise) and de-emphasizes areas with slowly varying intensities.
- ❑ Referred to as highpass filtering

# Sharpening Spatial Filters: Foundation

- The first-order derivative of a one-dimensional function  $f(x)$  is the difference

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

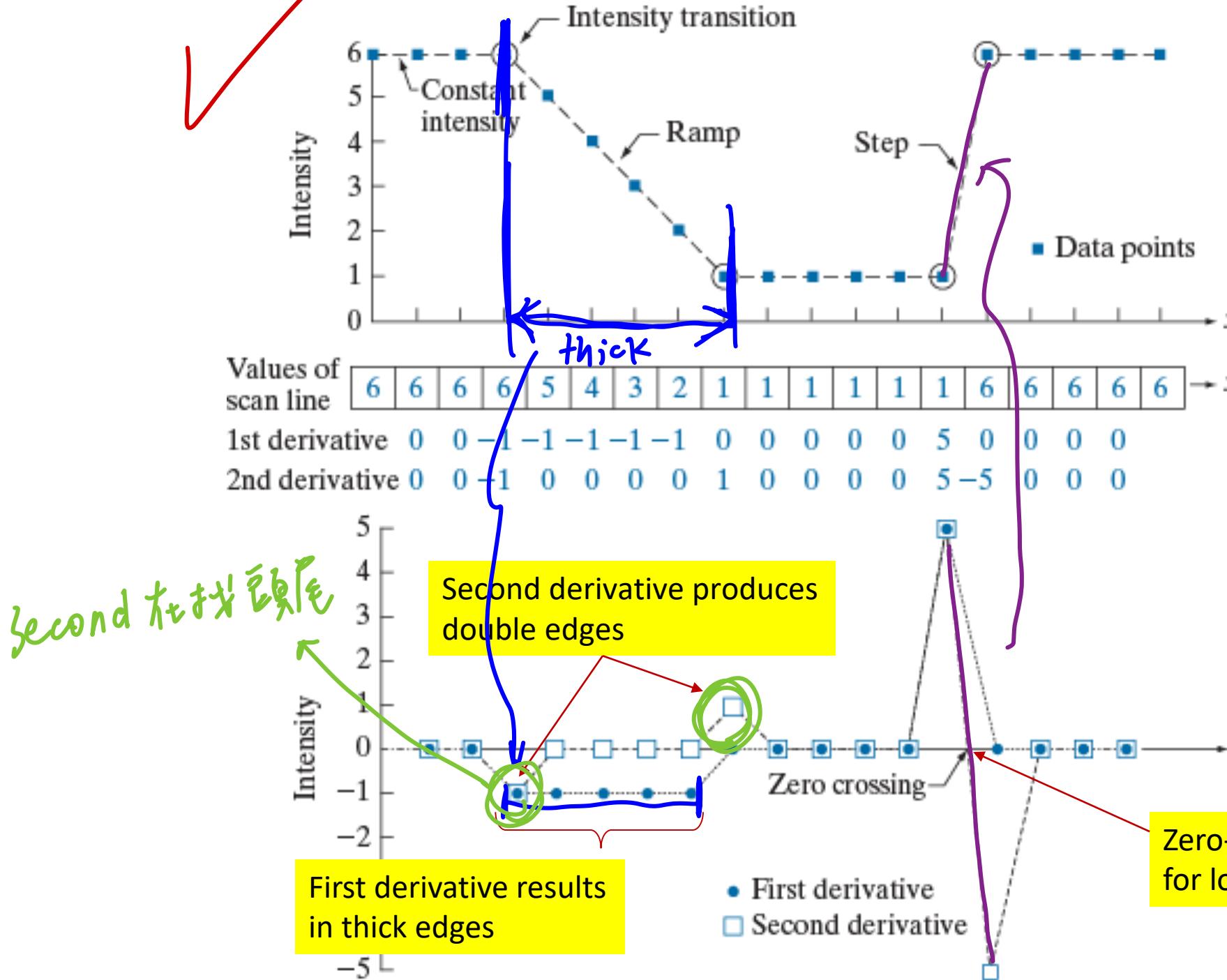
- The second-order derivative of  $f(x)$  as the difference

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

a  
b  
c

FIGURE 3.44

- (a) A section of a horizontal scan line from an image, showing ramp and step edges, as well as constant segments.  
(b) Values of the scan line and its derivatives.  
(c) Plot of the derivatives, showing a zero crossing. In (a) and (c) points were joined by dashed lines as a visual aid.



# Sharpening Spatial Filters: Laplace Operator

Laplacian for an image  $f(x,y)$ :

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

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

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

$$\nabla^2 f = f(x+1, y) + f(x-1, y) + f(x, y+1) + f(x, y-1) - 4f(x, y)$$

# Sharpening Spatial Filters: Laplace Operator

0	1	0
1	-4	1
0	1	0

1	1	1
1	-8	1
1	1	1

0	-1	0
-1	4	-1
0	-1	0

-1	-1	-1
-1	8	-1
-1	-1	-1

a b c d

**FIGURE 3.45** (a) Laplacian kernel used to implement Eq. (3-53). (b) Kernel used to implement an extension of this equation that includes the diagonal terms. (c) and (d) Two other Laplacian kernels.

# Sharpening Spatial Filters: Laplace Operator

Image sharpening by adding the Laplacian image to the original:

$$g(x, y) = f(x, y) + c[\nabla^2 f(x, y)]$$

✓ difference  
between  
p84  
sharp

$f(x, y)$ : input image

$g(x, y)$ : sharpened images

$$c = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } \nabla^2 f(x, y) \text{ corresponding to Fig. 3.45(a) or (b)} \\ 1 & \text{if } \nabla^2 f(x, y) \text{ corresponding to Fig. 3.45(c) or (d)} \end{cases}$$

→ 其实是微分

# Image Sharpening Using the Laplacian

a b  
c d

**FIGURE 3.46**

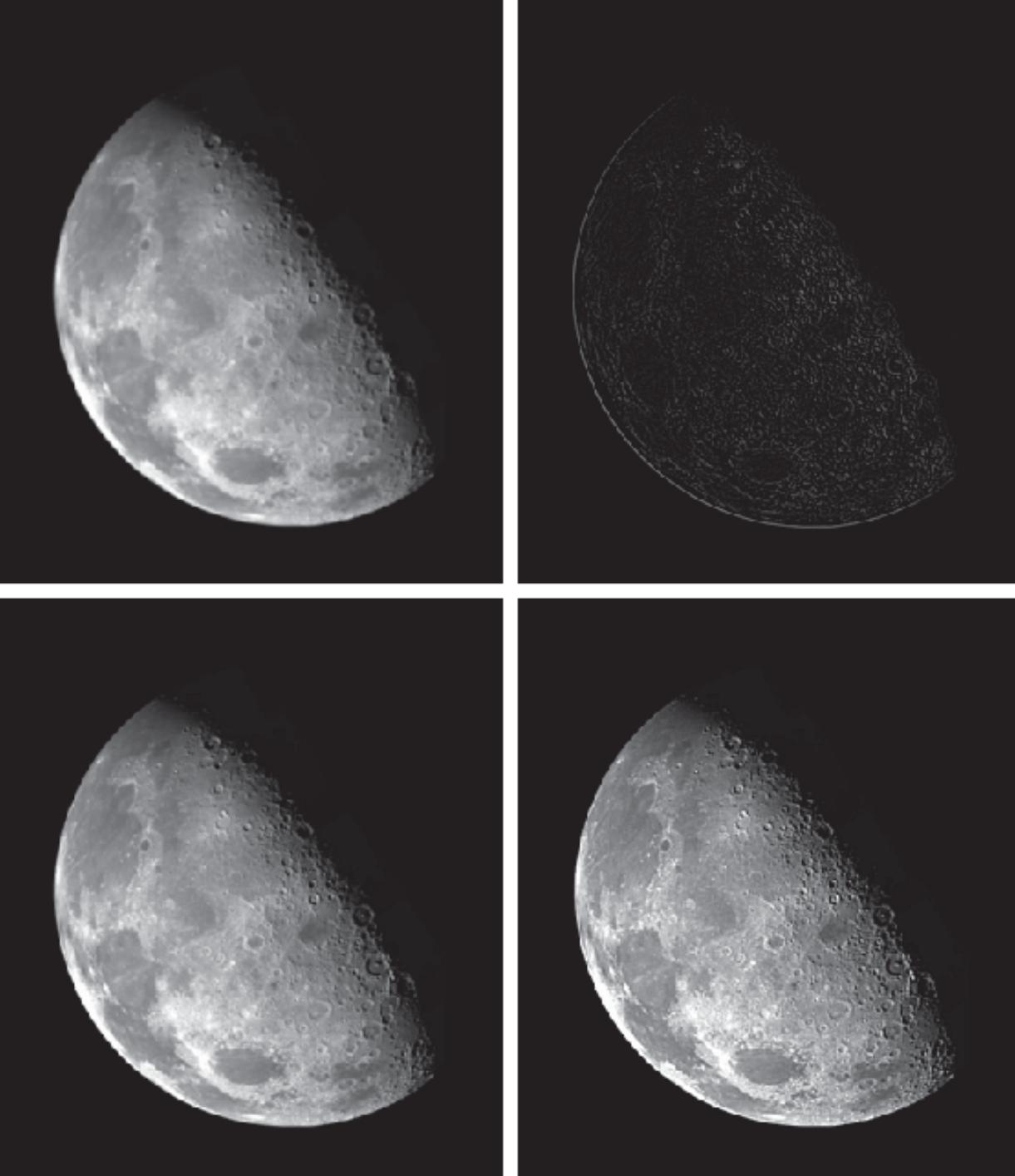
(a) Blurred image of the North Pole of the moon.

(b) Laplacian image obtained using the kernel in Fig. 3.45(a).

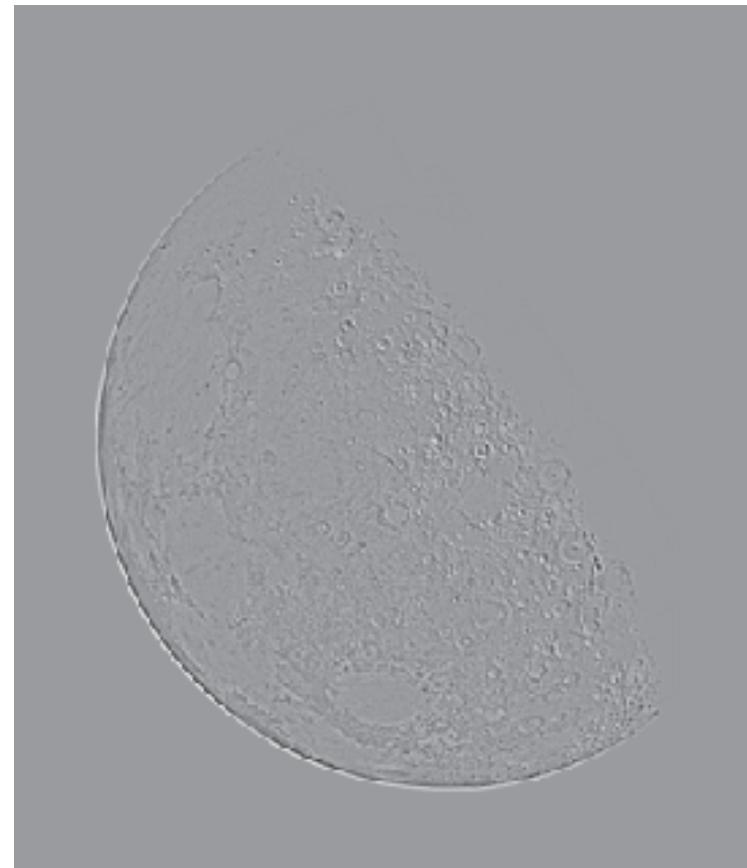
(c) Image sharpened using Eq. (3-54) with  $c = -1$ .

(d) Image sharpened using the same procedure, but with the kernel in Fig. 3.45(b).

(Original image courtesy of NASA.)



# Image Sharpening Using the Laplacian



**FIGURE 3.47**  
The Laplacian image from Fig. 3.46(b), scaled to the full  $[0, 255]$  range of intensity values. Black pixels correspond to the most negative value in the unscaled Laplacian image, grays are intermediate values, and white pixels corresponds to the highest positive value.

# Unsharp Masking and Highboost Filtering

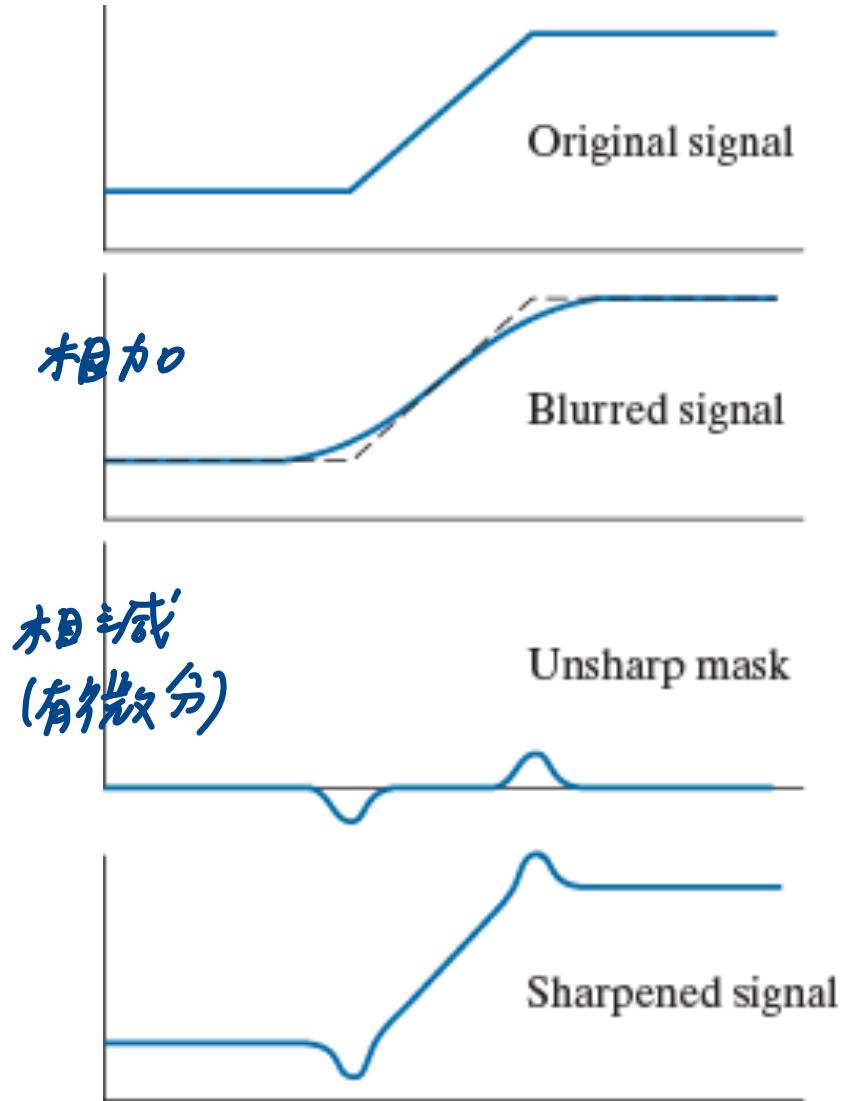
## □ Unsharp masking

- Subtracting an unsharp (smoothed) version of an image from the original image
- Often used in printing and publishing industry

## □ Steps

1. Blur the original image
2. Subtract the blurred image from the original
3. Add the mask to the original

⇒ 其一・之後微分



# Unsharp Masking and Highboost Filtering

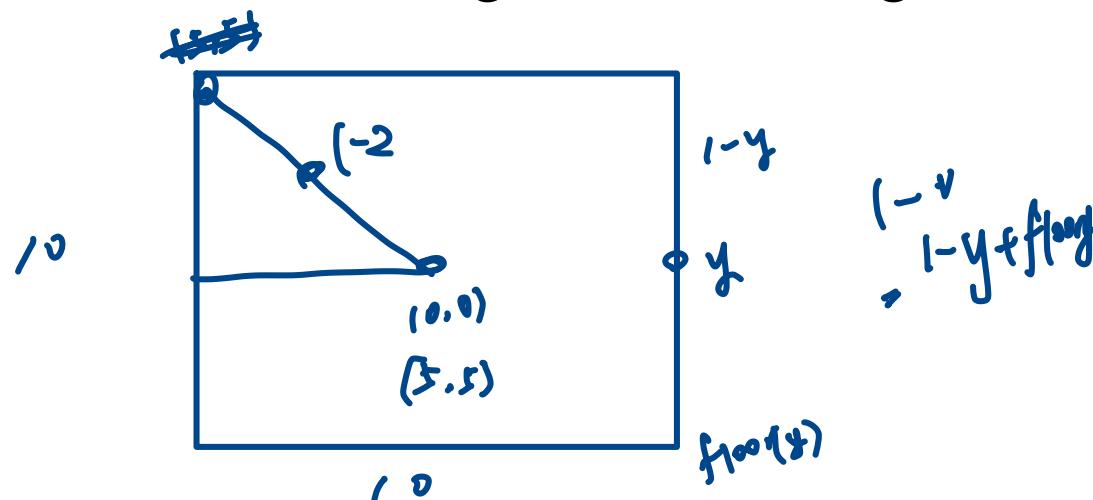
First, obtain an unsharp mask by subtracting the blurred image  $\bar{f}(x, y)$  from the original

$$g_{mask}(x, y) = f(x, y) - \bar{f}(x, y)$$

Then add a weighted portion of the mask back to the original

$$g(x, y) = f(x, y) + k * g_{mask}(x, y) \quad k \geq 0$$

when  $k > 1$ , the process is referred to as "highboost filtering."



# Unsharp Masking and Highboost Filtering



**FIGURE 3.49** (a) Original image of size  $600 \times 259$  pixels. (b) Image blurred using a  $31 \times 31$  Gaussian lowpass filter with  $\sigma = 5$ . (c) Mask. (d) Result of unsharp masking using Eq. (3-56) with  $k = 1$ . (e) Result of highboost filtering with  $k = 4.5$ .

# Image Sharpening by First-Order Derivatives

For function  $f(x, y)$ , the gradient of  $f$  at coordinates  $(x, y)$  is defined as

$$\nabla f \equiv \text{grad}(f) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} g_x \\ g_y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

The *magnitude* of vector  $\nabla f$ , denoted by  $M(x, y)$ , is computed by

$$M(x, y) = \text{mag}(\nabla f) = \sqrt{g_x^2 + g_y^2}$$



Gradient Image

# Image Sharpening by First-Order Derivatives

In some implementations, it is more suitable computationally to approximate the squares and square root operations by absolute values

$$\text{Sobel} \quad M(x, y) \approx |g_x| + |g_y|$$

$$M(x, y) = |z_8 - z_5| + |z_6 - z_5|$$

Roberts Cross-gradient Operators

$z_1$	$z_2$	$z_3$
$z_4$	$z_5$	$z_6$
$z_7$	$z_8$	$z_9$

$$M(x, y) \approx |z_9 - z_5| + |z_8 - z_6|$$

Sobel Operators

$$M(x, y) \approx |(z_7 + 2z_8 + z_9) - (z_1 + 2z_2 + z_3)| + |(z_3 + 2z_6 + z_9) - (z_1 + 2z_4 + z_7)|$$

# Image Sharpening Based on First-Order Derivatives

a  
b c  
d e

**FIGURE 3.50**  
(a) A  $3 \times 3$  region of an image, where the  $z$ s are intensity values.  
(b)–(c) Roberts cross-gradient operators.  
(d)–(e) Sobel operators. All the kernel coefficients sum to zero, as expected of a derivative operator.

$z_1$	$z_2$	$z_3$
$z_4$	$z_5$	$z_6$
$z_7$	$z_8$	$z_9$

-1	0	0	-1
0	1	1	0

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

Roberts cross-gradient operators

Sobel operators

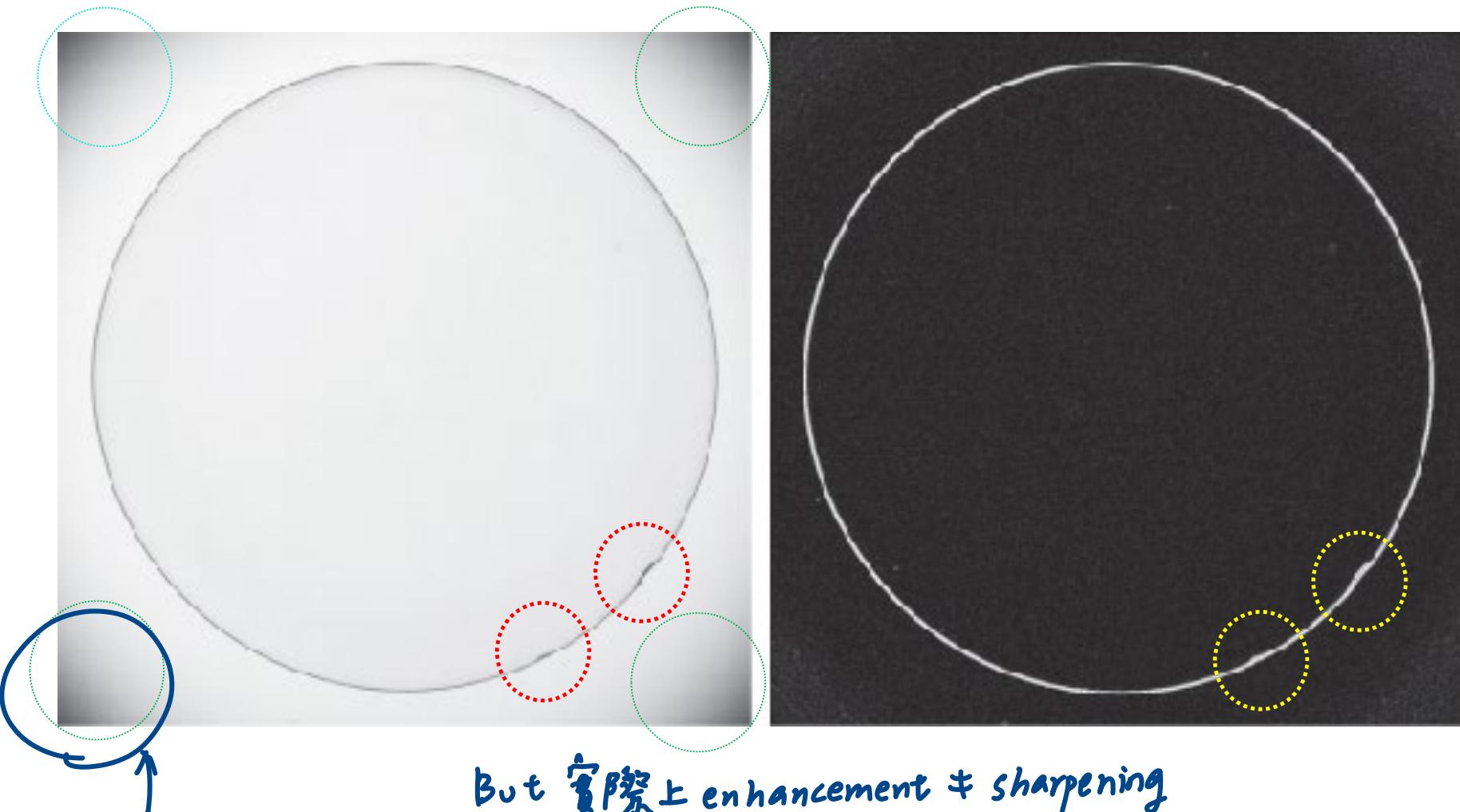
# Using the Gradient for Edge Enhancement

a b

FIGURE 3.51

(a) Image of a contact lens (note defects on the boundary at 4 and 5 o'clock).

(b) Sobel gradient. (Original image courtesy of Perceptics Corporation.)



Optical vignetting

But 實際上 enhancement ≠ sharpening  
enhancement 主要處理 edge, sharpen 是讓整個圖銳利

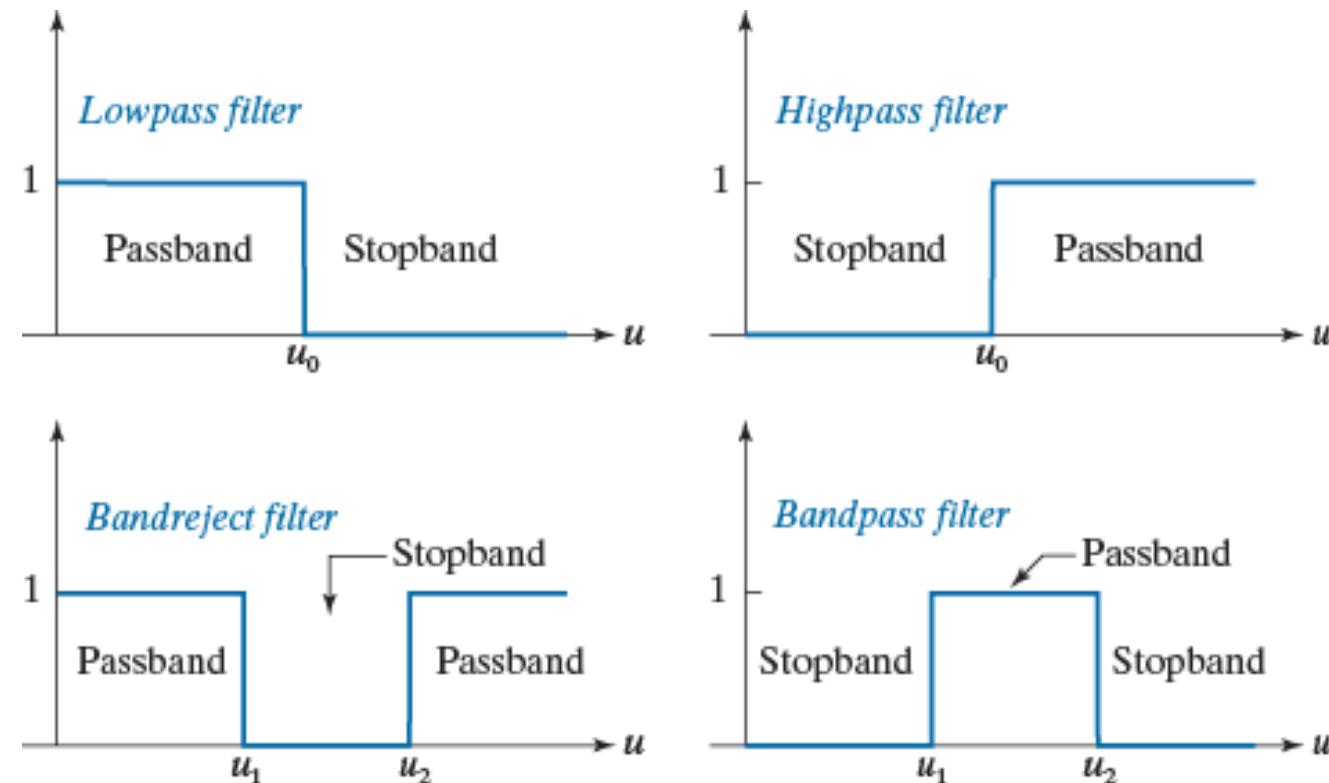
# Highpass, Bandreject, and Bandpass Filters from Lowpass Filter

a b  
c d

**FIGURE 3.52**

Transfer functions of ideal 1-D filters in the frequency domain ( $u$  denotes frequency).

- (a) Lowpass filter.
- (b) Highpass filter.
- (c) Bandreject filter.
- (d) Bandpass filter.  
(As before, we show only positive frequencies for simplicity.)



# Spatial Kernels Derived from Lowpass Kernel



Lowpass  $f_{lp}(x, y)$

Highpass  $f_{hp}(x, y) = \delta(x, y) - f_{lp}(x, y)$

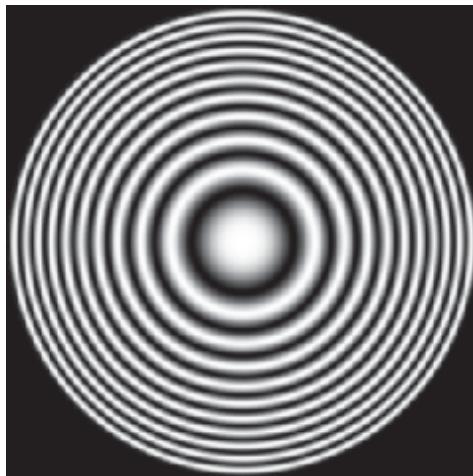
Bandreject  $f_{br}(x, y) = f_{lp}(x, y) + f_{hp}(x, y) = f_{lp}(x, y) + [\delta(x, y) - f_{lp}(x, y)]$

Bandpass  $f_{hp}(x, y) = \delta(x, y) - f_{br}(x, y) = \delta(x, y) - [f_{lp}(x, y) + [\delta(x, y) - f_{lp}(x, y)]]$

幾乎都用，命名，亦做了甚麼？

# Zone Plate Filtered with Lowpass Kernels

**FIGURE 3.53**  
A zone plate  
image of size  
 $597 \times 597$  pixels.



$$z(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}[1 + \cos(x^2 + y^2)]$$

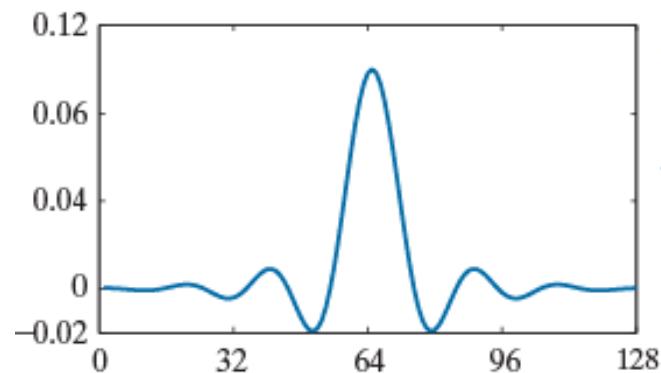
$x, y : [-8.2, 8.2]$

$\Delta : 0.0275$

why  
different?

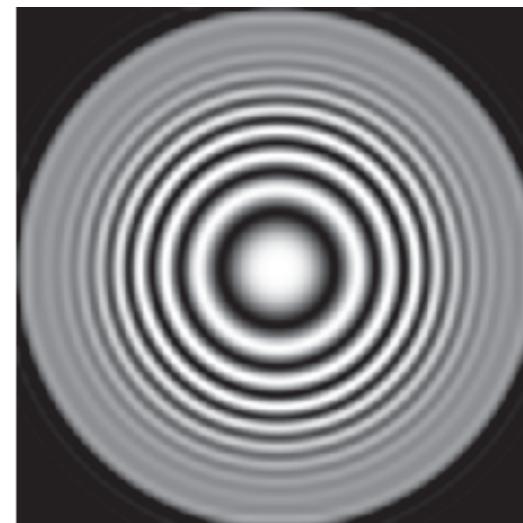
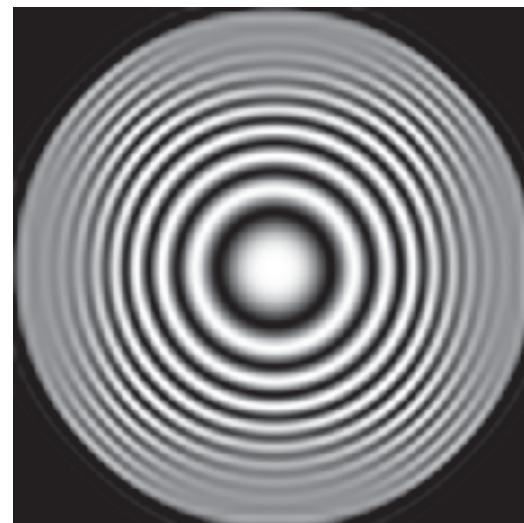
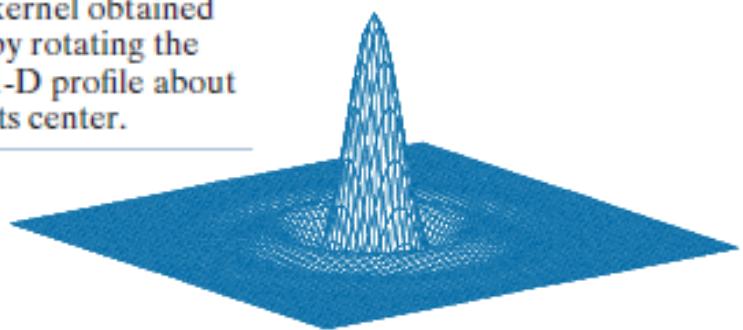
a b

**FIGURE 3.55**  
(a) Zone plate  
image filtered  
with a separable  
lowpass kernel  
(b) Image filtered  
with the isotropic  
lowpass kernel in  
Fig. 3.54(b).

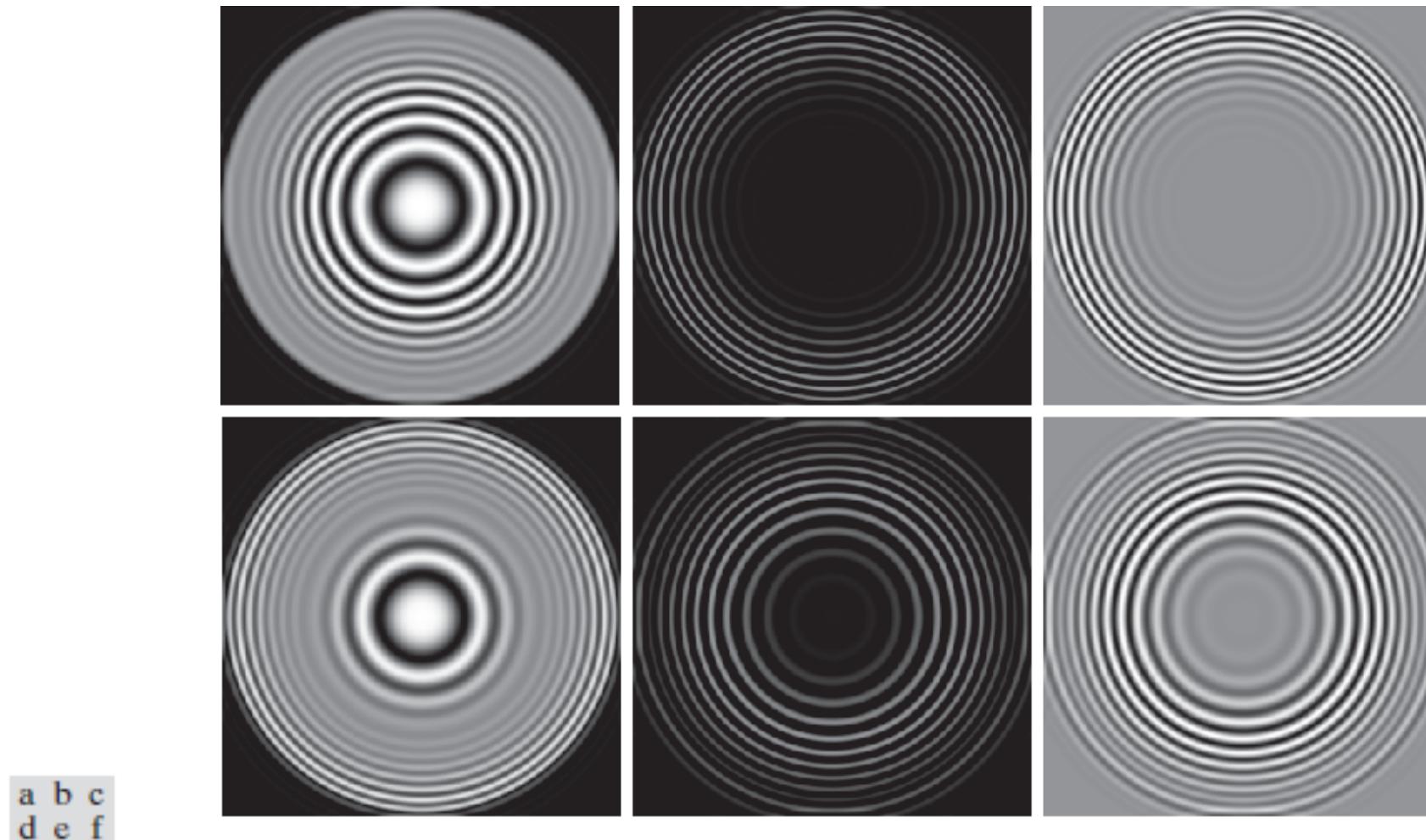


a b

**FIGURE 3.54**  
(a) A 1-D spatial  
lowpass filter  
function. (b) 2-D  
kernel obtained  
by rotating the  
1-D profile about  
its center.



# Highpassed, Bandrejected, and Bandpassed Zone Plate



**FIGURE 3.56**

Spatial filtering of the zone plate image. (a) Lowpass result; this is the same as Fig. 3.55(b). (b) Highpass result. (c) Image (b) with intensities scaled. (d) Bandreject result. (e) Bandpass result. (f) Image (e) with intensities scaled.

# Combination of Techniques

Goal:

Bring out more skeletal details by image enhancement

Challenges:

Small dynamic range

Noisy



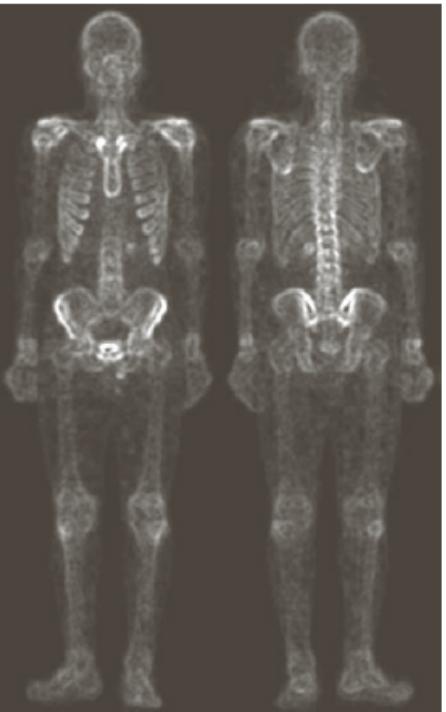
WHY 加乘?

a b  
c d

FIGURE 3.57

- (a) Image of whole body bone scan.  
(b) Laplacian of (a).  
(c) Sharpened image obtained by adding (a) and (b).  
(d) Sobel gradient of image (a). (Original image courtesy of G.E. Medical Systems.)

# Combination of Techniques



e f  
g h

**FIGURE 3.57**  
*(Continued)*  
(e) Sobel image smoothed with a  $5 \times 5$  box filter.  
(f) Mask image formed by the product of (b) and (e).  
(g) Sharpened image obtained by the adding images (a) and (f).  
(h) Final result obtained by applying a power-law transformation to (g). Compare images (g) and (h) with (a). (Original image courtesy of G.E. Medical Systems.)

Histogram processing is not a good choice for images with histograms characterized by dark and bright components.

Study p. 194 of the textbook.

目標: noise, smooth dynamic range.