

# BLG453E COMPUTER VISION



## Spatial Filtering

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Computer Engineering Department

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### Learning Outcomes of the Course

Students will be able to:

1. Discuss the main problems of computer (artificial) vision, its uses and applications
2. Design and implement various image transforms: point-wise transforms, neighborhood operation-based spatial filters, and geometric transforms over images
3. Define and construct segmentation, feature extraction, and visual motion estimation algorithms to extract relevant information from images
4. Construct least squares solutions to problems in computer vision
5. Describe the idea behind dimensionality reduction and how it is used in data processing
6. Apply object and shape recognition approaches to problems in computer vision

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## Week 4: LOs: Spatial Image Filtering: Neighborhood Operations

At the end of Week 4: Students will be able to:

2. Design and implement various image transforms: neighborhood operation-based spatial filters



[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Image\\_noise](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Image_noise)

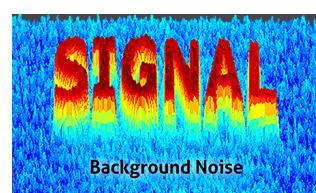
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**NOISE:** any undesired information that contaminates an image

- Digital image acquisition process, which converts a light signal into a continuous electrical signal that is then sampled, is the primary process by which noise appears in digital images.
- Noise increases with the sensitivity setting in the camera, length of the exposure, temperature, and even varies among different camera models due to different electronics.

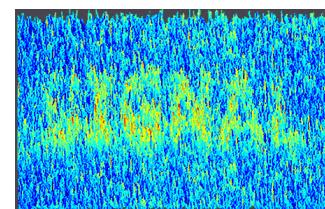


**SIGNAL**  
Camera Image



Background Noise

**SIGNAL**  
Camera Image



3D representation of the 2D image

<http://www.cambridgeincolour.com/tutorials/image-noise.htm>

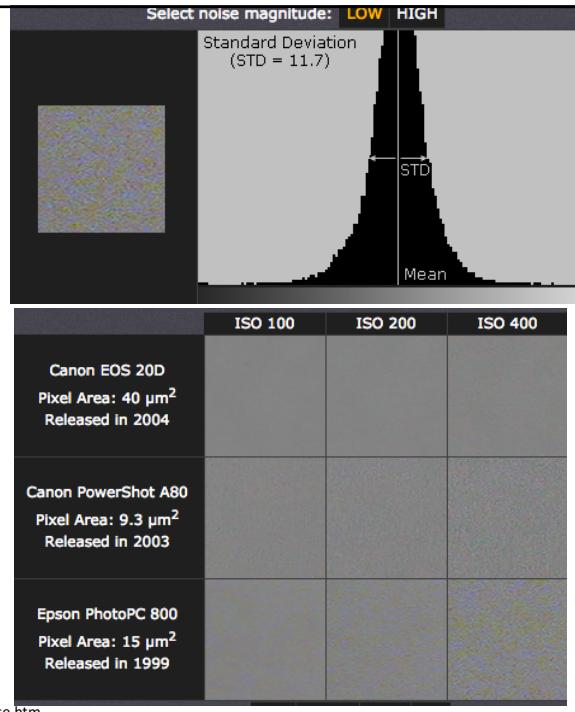
4

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## Types of NOISE

- Digital cameras: Most typical: Random noise

Q: If an image patch has zero noise, what is the shape of the noise histogram?

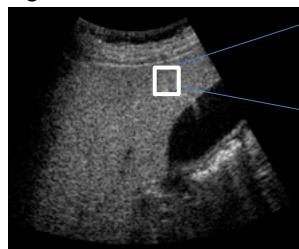


<http://www.cambridgeincolour.com/tutorials/image-noise.htm>

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## Do we only have digital camera (optical) images ?

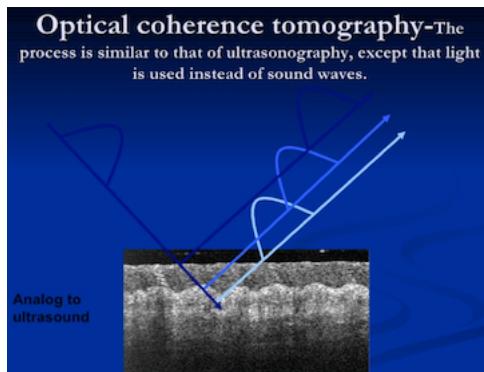
E.g. Ultrasound of a Liver:



Ultrasound Images exhibit Speckle Noise



E.g. Optical Coherence Tomography image of retina

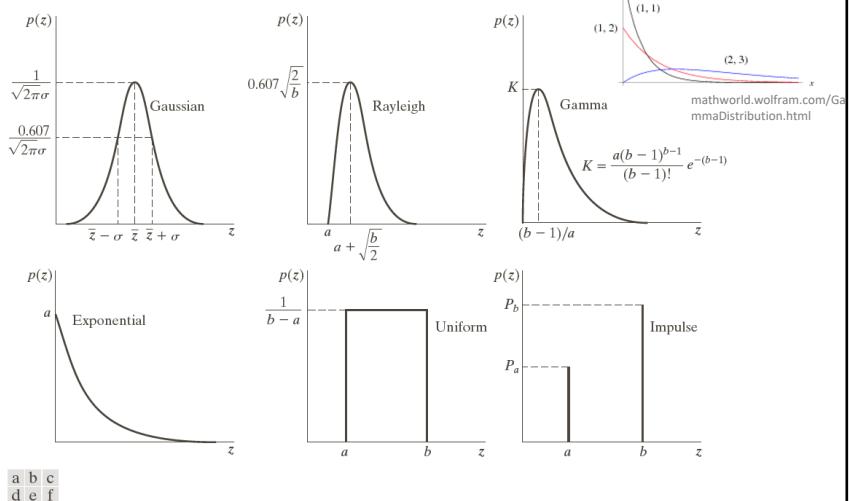


[http://www.slideshare.net/tapan\\_jakka/optical-coherence-tomography](http://www.slideshare.net/tapan_jakka/optical-coherence-tomography)

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## NOISE PROBABILITY DENSITY FUNCTIONS (PDFs)



**FIGURE 5.2** Some important probability density functions.

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## Mathematical Expressions for the PDFs

$$H_{Gaussian} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(g-m)^2/2\sigma^2}$$

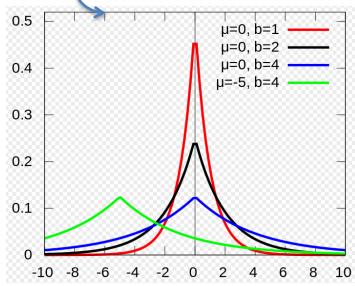
$$H_{Rayleigh} = \frac{2g}{\alpha} e^{-g^2/\alpha}$$

$$H_{Exponential} = \frac{e^{-g/\alpha}}{\alpha}$$

$$H_{Uniform} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{for } a \leq g \leq b \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

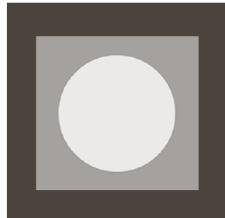
$$H_{Laplace} = \frac{1}{2b} e^{-|g-m|/b}$$

$$H_{Salt\&Pepper} = \begin{cases} A & \text{for } g = a(\text{pepper}) \\ B & \text{for } g = b(\text{salt}) \end{cases}$$



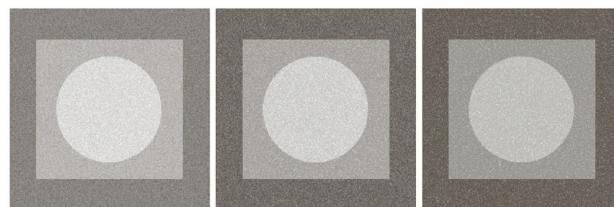
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**FIGURE 5.3** Test pattern used to illustrate the characteristics of the noise PDFs shown in Fig. 5.2.

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Gaussian

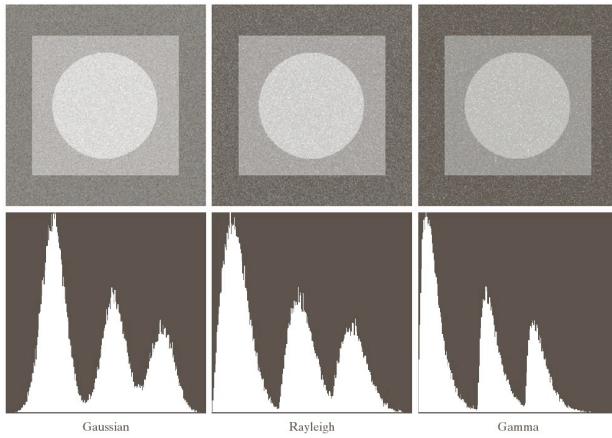
Rayleigh

Gamma

**FIGURE 5.4** Images and histograms resulting from adding Gaussian, Rayleigh, and gamma noise to the image in Fig. 5.3.

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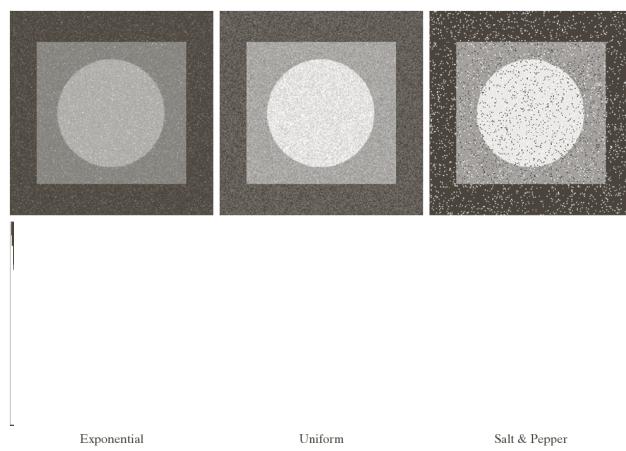
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**FIGURE 5.4** Images and histograms resulting from adding Gaussian, Rayleigh, and gamma noise to the image in Fig. 5.3.

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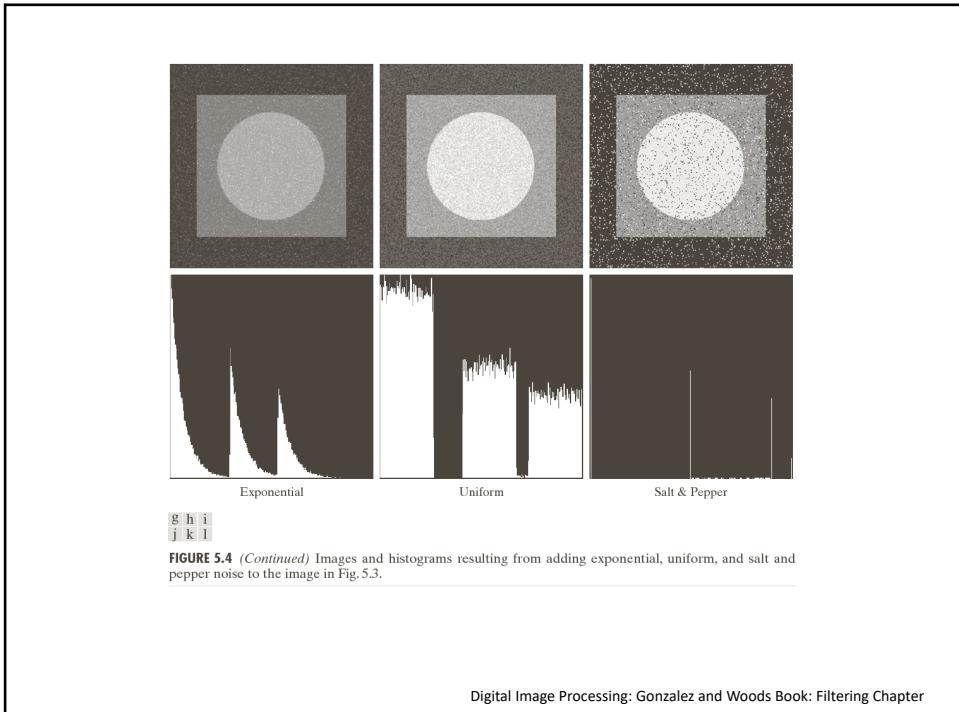
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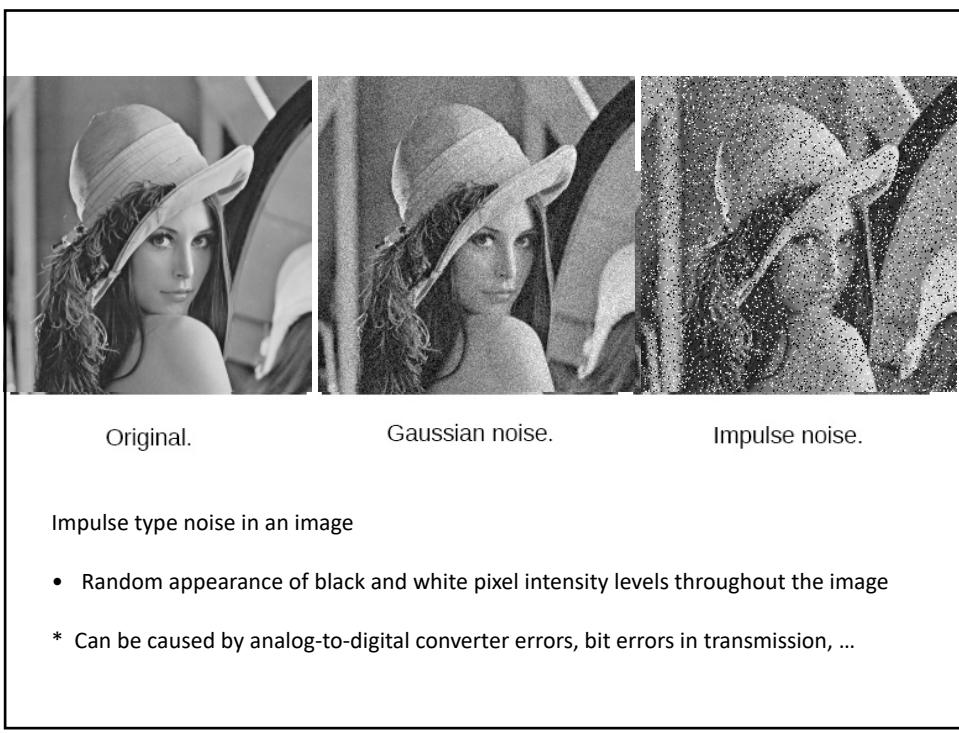
**FIGURE 5.4 (Continued)** Images and histograms resulting from adding exponential, uniform, and salt and pepper noise to the image in Fig. 5.3.

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## Impulse Noise

- **Impulse noise** may corrupt any signal including digital images just due to occasional inversion of a single bit representing the intensity value in some pixel
- The general model of impulse noise is

$$g(x,y) = \begin{cases} p_n, \eta(x,y) \\ 1-p_n, f(x,y) \end{cases}$$

where  $p_n$  is the probability of distortion ( $p_n$  in percents  
 $p_n \cdot 100\%$  is called the **corruption rate**)

$\eta$  A certain intensity value to replace the image intensity  $f(x,y)$

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## Impulse Noise



- Unlike additive noise, which just distorts intensity values, impulse noise completely replaces the intensity values in those pixels that are corrupted.
- The higher is corruption rate, the more pixels are affected by noise and the more difficult is filtering

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## Salt-and-Pepper Impulse Noise



- Salt-and-Pepper impulse noise replaces the intensity values in the image  $f(x, y)$  by 0s and 255s with some certain probabilities

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} p_0, & 0 \\ p_{255}, & 255 \\ 1 - (p_0 + p_{255}), & f(x, y) \end{cases}$$

- Since 0 is black and 255 is white, a corrupted image is covered by white and black impulses ("salt-and-pepper")
- The corruption rate is

$$(p_0 + p_{255}) \cdot 100\%$$

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## FILTERING

*Spatial Filtering or Frequency Filtering ?*

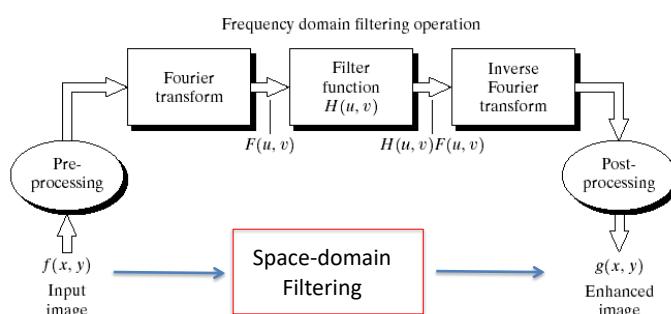


FIGURE 4.5 Basic steps for filtering in the frequency domain.

**Important Note:**

In this course, we will work with **spatial**, i.e. **Space domain filtering only**.

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**Q: Why do we use SPATIAL FILTERS?**

Noise Removal/Smoothing or Image Enhancement or Feature Extraction

...

- Smoothing Spatial Filters
  - Averaging (linear) filters
  - Order-statistic (nonlinear) filters
  - Adaptive filters
- Sharpening Spatial Filters
  - Unsharp Masking and Highboost filtering
- Morphological Image Filters: If time permits, but you should take a look yourself. Used widely in image filtering
- Typically these filters operate on small subimages, i.e. *windows*.

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## **SMOOTHING SPATIAL FILTERS**

Why smooth?

To reduce noise!

To increase signal to noise ratio!

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## SMOOTHING SPATIAL FILTERS

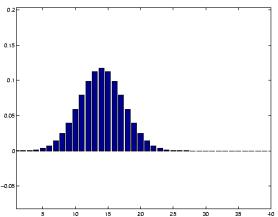
Why smooth?

To increase signal to noise ratio!

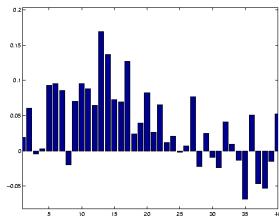
$$SNR = \frac{\mu_{signal}}{\sigma_{noise}}$$

Signal average value  
Noise (or background) standard deviation

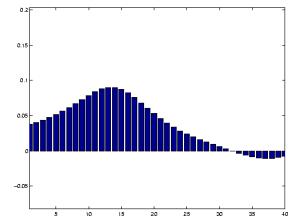
Histograms:



Original signal



Original w. random noise



Recovered signal by Gaussian smoothing

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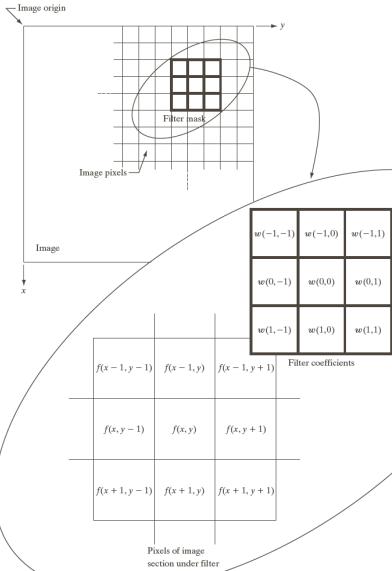
## MECHANICS OF SPATIAL FILTERING

<https://towardsdatascience.com/intuitively-understanding-convolutions-for-deep-learning-1f6f42faee1>

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## MECHANICS OF SPATIAL FILTERING



$f(x,y)$ : image  
 $w(s,t)$ : filter mask  
 $g(x,y)$ : filter response: Convolution

Each pixel in  $w$  visits every pixel in  $f$ .

FIGURE 3.28 The mechanics of linear spatial filtering using a  $3 \times 3$  filter mask. The form chosen to denote the coordinates of the filter mask coefficients simplifies writing expressions for linear filtering.

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## Averaging (smoothing) filter masks

Q: Are the following filters fine in practice?

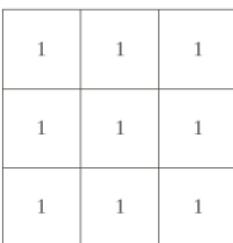
1	1	1
1	1	1
1	1	1

1	2	1
2	4	2
1	2	1

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## Averaging (smoothing) filter masks

Don't forget: You have to normalize the filter coefficients to sum to 1 for averaging filters

$\frac{1}{9} \times$		$\frac{1}{16} \times$	
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a b

**FIGURE 3.32** Two  $3 \times 3$  smoothing (averaging) filter masks. The constant multiplier in front of each mask is equal to 1 divided by the sum of the values of its coefficients, as is required to compute an average.

$$g(x, y) = \sum_{s=-1}^1 \sum_{t=-1}^1 w(s, t) f(x+s, y+t) \quad g(x, y) = \frac{\sum_{s=-1}^1 \sum_{t=-1}^1 w(s, t) f(x+s, y+t)}{\sum_{s=-1}^1 \sum_{t=-1}^1 w(s, t)}$$

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1/9	1/9	1/9
1/9	1/9	1/9
1/9	1/9	1/9

Figure 4.11 Local average mask.

101 * 1/9	100 * 1/9	103 * 1/9	105	107	105	103	110
110 * 1/9	140 * 1/9	120 * 1/9	122	130	130	121	120
134 * 1/9	134 * 1/9	135 * 1/9	131	137	138	120	121
132	132	132	133	133	150	160	155
134	140	140	135	140	156	160	174
130	138	139	150	169	175	170	165
126	133	138	149	163	169	180	185
130	140	150	169	178	185	190	200

Figure 4.12 Image smoothing using local average mask.

$$1/9 * (101 + \dots + 135) = 119.67$$

$$1/9 * (100 + \dots + 131) = 121.11$$

....

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## Convolution vs Correlation ?

### Correlation

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

### Convolution

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

Correlation yields a copy of the function, but rotated by 180°.

Q: When are the two equivalent?

A: When we have symmetric filters

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## Spatial Correlation And Convolution

	Correlation	Convolution	
(a)	$f$  $w$	$f$  $w$ rotated 180°	(i)
(b)	$f$  $w$	$f$  $w$ rotated 180°	(j)
(c)	$f$  $w$	$f$  $w$ rotated 180°	(k)
(d)	$f$  $w$	$f$  $w$ rotated 180°	(l)
(e)	$f$  $w$	$f$  $w$ rotated 180°	(m)
(f)	$f$  $w$	$f$  $w$ rotated 180°	(n)
(g)	Full correlation result $0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 8 \ 2 \ 3 \ 2 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0$	Full convolution result $0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 2 \ 8 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0$	(o)
(h)	Cropped correlation result $0 \ 8 \ 2 \ 3 \ 2 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0$	Cropped convolution result $0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 2 \ 8 \ 0 \ 0$	(p)

**FIGURE 3.29** Illustration of 1-D correlation and convolution of a filter with a discrete unit impulse. Note that correlation and convolution are functions of *displacement*.

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## Example in 2D

**FIGURE 3.30**  
 Correlation  
 (middle row) and convolution  
 (last row) of a 2-D  
 filter with a 2-D  
 discrete, unit  
 impulse. The 0s  
 are shown in gray  
 to simplify visual  
 analysis.

Result is flipped in both axes (horizontal and vertical x and y) compared to convolution result

### Convolution result

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THQ: You are given 3 filter kernels below: for which one the correlation result is equal to the convolution result?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{A})$$

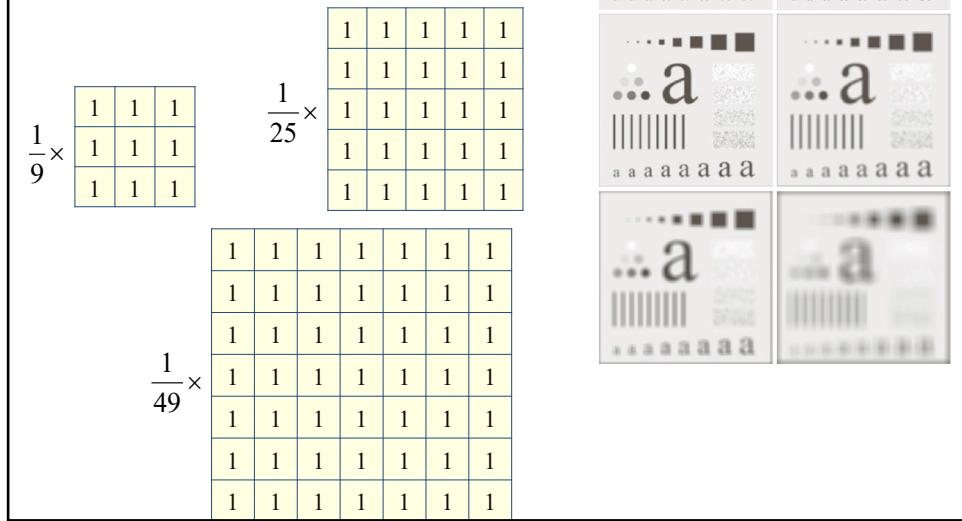
$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc} -1 & 5 & 7 \\ 3 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 2 & 5 \end{array} \right] \text{(B)}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (C)$$

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### THQ: Filter Kernel Size

**FIGURE 3.33** (a) Original image, of size  $500 \times 500$  pixels (b)–(f) Results of smoothing with square averaging filter masks of sizes  $m = 3, 5, 9, 15, 25, 45$ , and  $55$ , respectively. The black squares at the top are of sizes  $3, 5, 9, 15, 25, 35, 45$ , and  $55$  pixels; their borders are 25 pixels apart. The letters at the bottom range in size from 10 to 24 points, in increments of 2 points; the large letter at the top is 60 points. The vertical bars are 5 pixels wide and 100 pixels high; their separation is 20 pixels. The diameter of the circles is 25 pixels, and their borders are 15 pixels apart; their intensity levels range from 0% to 100% black in increments of 20%. The background of the image is 10% black. The noisy rectangles are of size  $50 \times 120$  pixels.



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### THQ: Filter Kernel Size

Original image



$$\frac{1}{9} \times 9$$

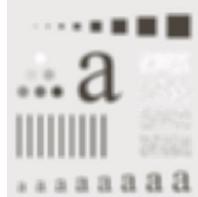
(I)

$$\frac{1}{25} \times 25$$

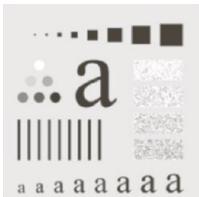
(II)

$$\frac{1}{49} \times 49$$

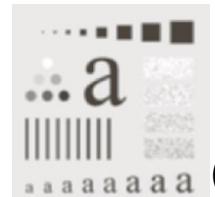
(III)



(A)



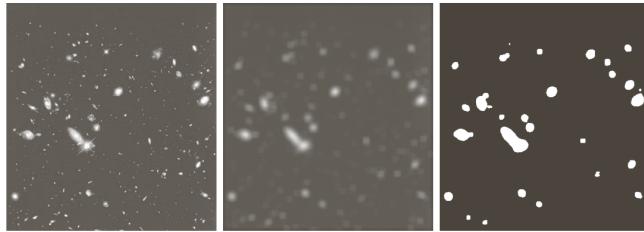
(B)



(C)

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Note that: Spatial filtering is not only for noise reduction! You can use it as pre-processing for object/blob detection, etc.



a b c

**FIGURE 3.34** (a) Image of size  $528 \times 485$  pixels from the Hubble Space Telescope. (b) Image filtered with a  $15 \times 15$  averaging mask. (c) Result of thresholding (b). (Original image courtesy of NASA.)

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Some advanced filtering examples from medical imaging:

**Fig. 4** **a** X-ray image of the coronary arteries. Iodine contrast medium is injected in the vessels, which causes them to absorb more X-ray radiation than the surrounding tissues. **b** The vesselness transform of the X-ray image enhances the tubular structures, and suppresses the other image features

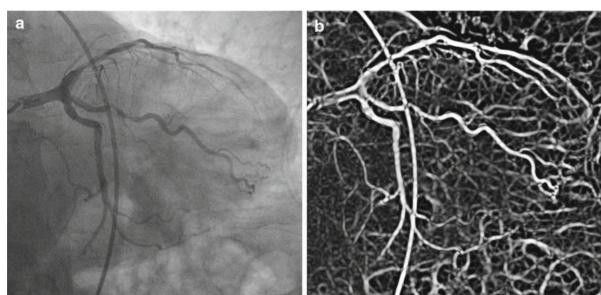
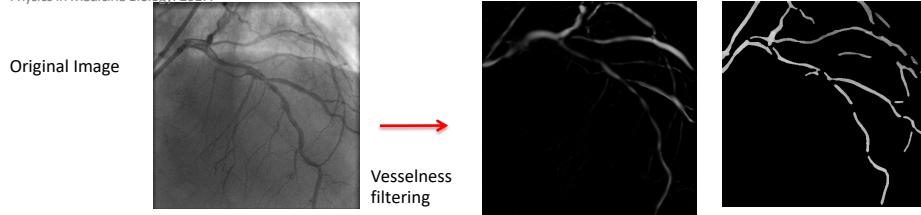


Figure from: D. Ruijters et al. Vesselness-based 2D–3D registration of the coronary arteries, Int J CARS, 2009.

T.Aksoy, Z.Spiclin, F.Pernus, G.Unal, Monoplane 3D–2D registration of cerebral angiograms based on multi-objective stratified optimization, Physics in Medicine Biology, 2017.

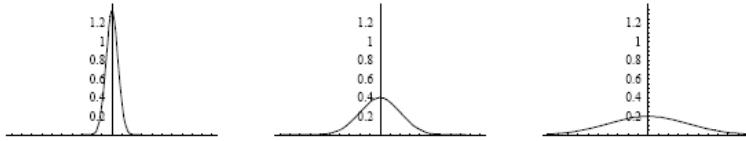


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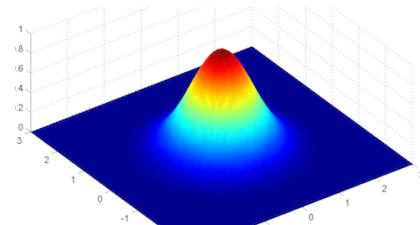
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### Ex: Create Spatial Filters by using Gaussian Kernel Function

$$G_{1D}(x; \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



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



$$G_{ND}(\vec{x}; \sigma) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma)^N} e^{-\frac{\|\vec{x}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Figure: mathworks.com

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### Gaussian kernels

```

σ=0.391 pixels (3x3)
1 4 1
4 12 4
1 4 1

σ=0.625 pixels (5x5)
1 2 3 2 1
2 7 11 7 2
3 11 16 11 3
2 7 11 7 2
1 2 3 2 1

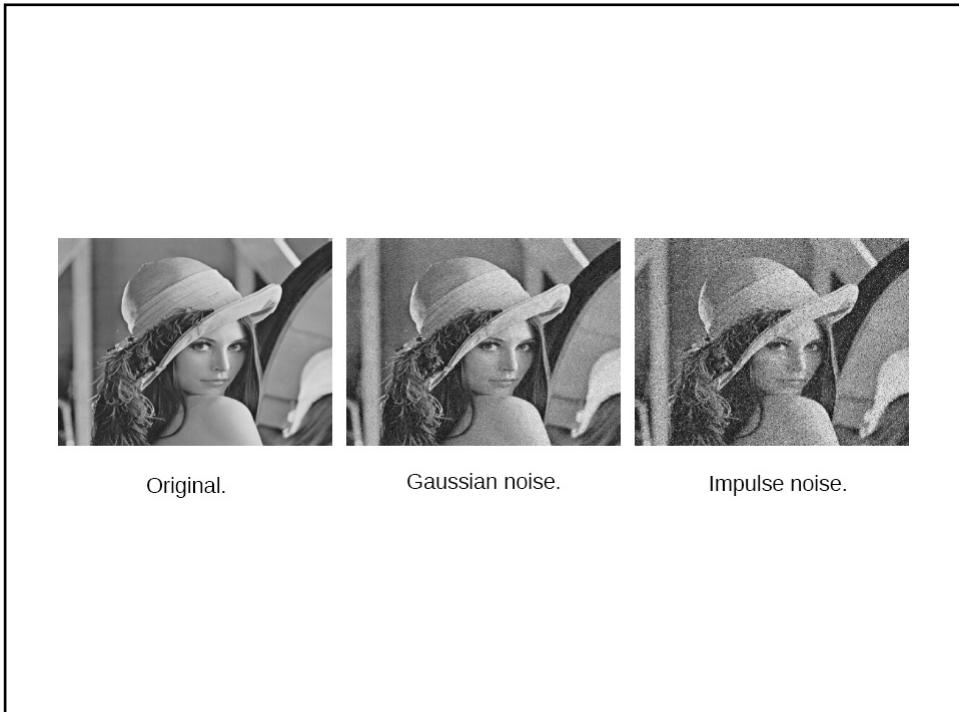
σ=1.0 pixels (9x9)
0 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0
0 1 2 3 3 3 3 2 1
1 2 3 6 7 6 3 2 1
1 3 6 9 11 9 6 3 1
1 3 6 9 11 9 6 3 1
1 3 6 9 11 9 6 3 1
1 2 3 6 7 6 3 2 1
0 1 2 3 3 3 3 2 1
0 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0

σ=1.6 pixels (11x11)
1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 1 1 1
1 2 2 4 5 6 7 6 5 4 2 1
1 2 4 6 7 8 9 8 7 5 3 2
2 3 4 6 8 10 11 10 8 6 4 2
2 4 6 7 9 11 12 11 9 6 4 2
2 4 6 8 10 11 10 8 6 4 2
2 3 5 7 8 9 8 7 5 3 2
2 3 5 7 8 9 8 7 5 3 2
1 2 4 5 6 7 6 5 4 2 1
1 2 2 3 4 4 4 3 2 2 1
1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 1 1 1

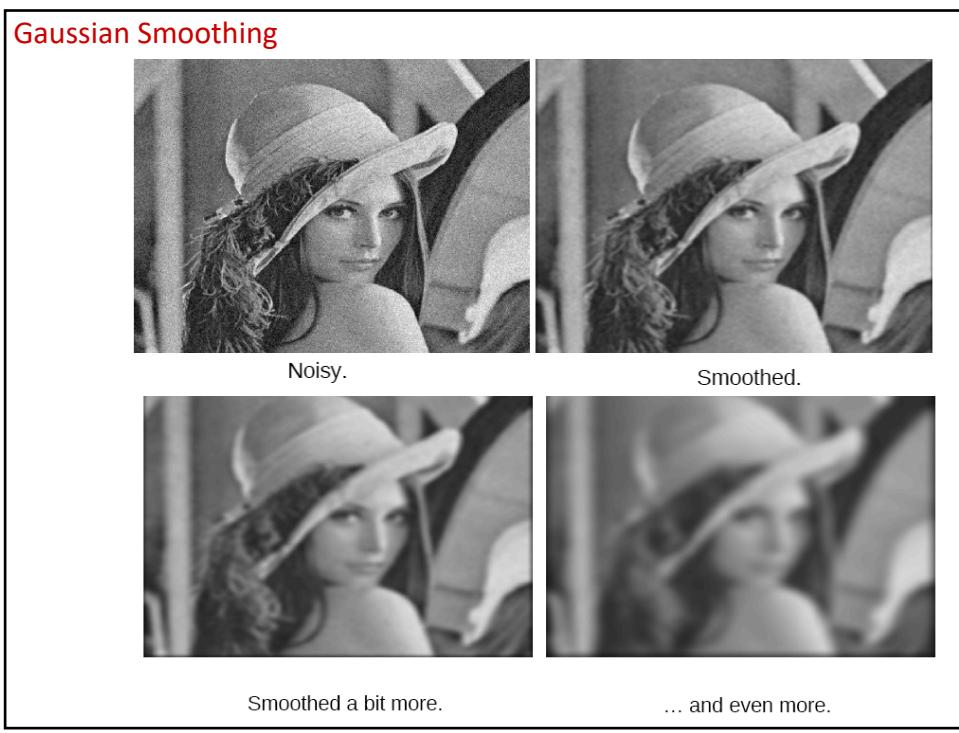
σ=2.5 pixels (15x15)
2 2 3 4 5 5 6 6 5 5 4 3 2 2
2 3 4 6 7 8 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2
3 4 6 7 9 10 10 11 10 10 9 7 6 4 3
4 5 7 9 11 13 14 15 16 15 15 13 11 9 7 5 4
5 7 9 11 13 14 15 16 15 15 13 11 9 7 5 4
5 7 9 11 13 14 15 16 15 15 13 11 9 7 5 4
6 8 10 12 14 16 18 17 18 17 15 13 10 8 6
6 8 11 13 15 17 19 19 19 17 15 13 11 8 6
6 8 10 13 15 17 19 19 19 17 15 13 10 8 6
5 7 10 12 14 16 18 17 18 17 15 13 12 10 7 5
5 7 9 11 13 15 17 18 17 15 13 10 8 6 5
4 5 7 9 10 12 13 13 13 12 10 9 7 5 4
3 4 6 7 9 10 10 11 10 10 9 7 6 4 3
2 3 4 5 7 7 8 8 8 7 5 4 3 2
2 2 3 4 5 5 6 6 5 5 4 3 2

```

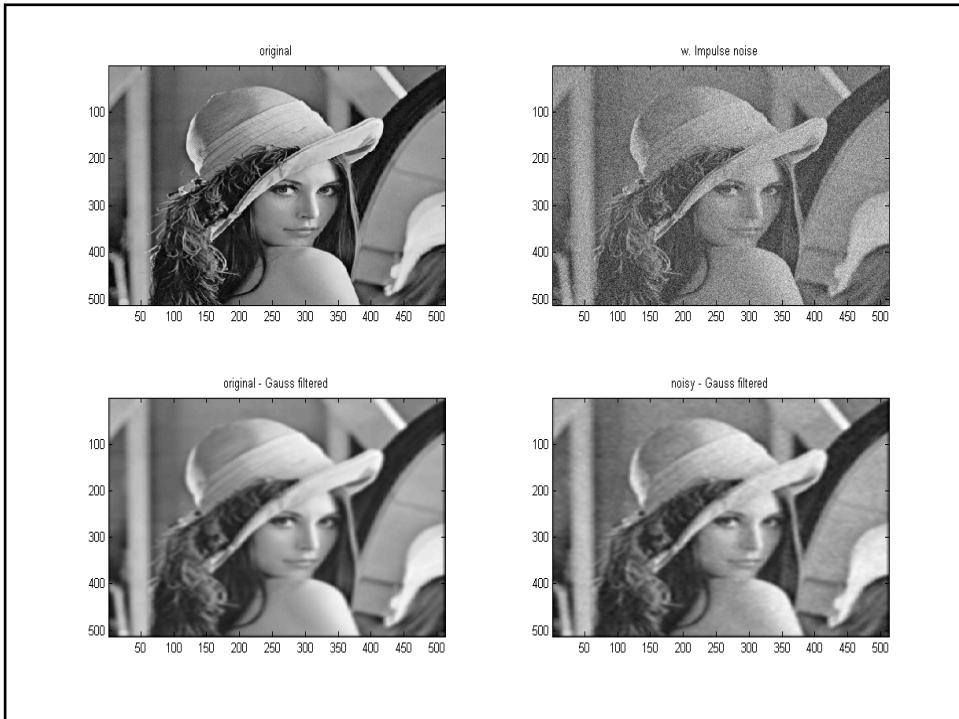
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### Additive Noise model versus Multiplicative Noise model

\* Additive noise corrupts the data by an addition process

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \text{original image} & \xrightarrow{\substack{\text{added noise} \\ \eta(x,y)}} & \text{Noise corrupted image} \\
 f(x,y) & \xrightarrow{+} & g(x,y)
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{aligned}
 g(x,y) &= f(x,y) + \eta(x,y) \\
 &\text{e.g. Thermal noise}
 \end{aligned}$$

To remove additive random noise such as Gaussian noise, linear filters such as averaging filters can be used

\* Multiplicative noise corrupts the data through a multiplicative process

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \text{original image} & \xrightarrow{\substack{\eta(x,y)}} & \text{Noise corrupted image} \\
 f(x,y) & \xrightarrow{\times} & g(x,y)
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{aligned}
 g(x,y) &= f(x,y) \times \eta(x,y) \\
 &\text{e.g. Salt and Pepper noise is multiplicative. Global illumination variations, Speckle noise in sound/ultrasound, radar, ...}
 \end{aligned}$$

e.g. global illumination in an image is like a noise mask multiplying pixels  
To remove multiplicative noise, use others such as nonlinear filters, e.g. order stats filters

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## Averaging (mean) filters

Response based on averaging pixel intensities in a neighborhood/window around the current pixel



### Arithmetic mean

- Noise reduced by blurring
- Works well for random noise, Gaussian noise...

$$\hat{f}(x,y) = \frac{1}{mn} \sum_{(s,t) \in S_{xy}} g(s,t)$$

$S_{xy}$  : set of pixels (window)  
around pixel (x,y)

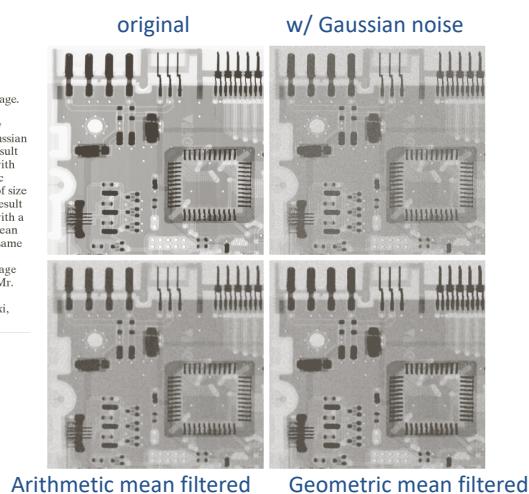
### Geometric mean

- Works well for Gaussian noise
- Loses less image detail than arithmetic mean filter

$$\hat{f}(x,y) = \left[ \prod_{(s,t) \in S_{xy}} g(s,t) \right]^{\frac{1}{mn}}$$

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**FIGURE 5.7**  
 (a) X-ray image.  
 (b) Image corrupted by additive Gaussian noise. (c) Result of filtering with an arithmetic mean filter of size  $3 \times 3$ . (d) Result of filtering with a geometric mean filter of the same size.  
 (Original image courtesy of Mr. Joseph E. Pascente, Lixi, Inc.)

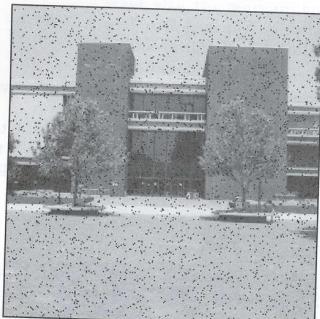


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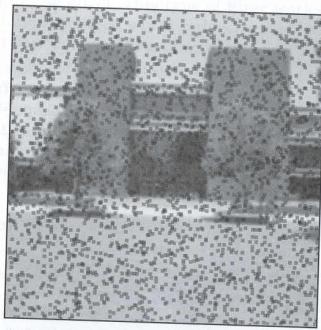
47

If you apply the wrong type of filter...

Figure 3.3-8 (Continued)



c. Image with pepper noise—probability = .04.



d. Result of geometric mean filter on image with pepper noise; mask size = 3.

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### Multiplicative Noise model

\* Recall Multiplicative noise model:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{original image} & \eta(x,y) & \text{Noise corrupted image} \\ f(x,y) & \xrightarrow{\times} & g(x,y) \end{array} \quad g(x,y) = f(x,y) \times \eta(x,y)$$

\* An idea: linearize the model by a nonlinear operation such as taking logarithm:

$$\log g(x,y) = \log f(x,y) + \log \eta(x,y)$$

Then use a linear filter to remove noise, and transform back by  $\log^{-1}$

\* Typically what we do to remove speckle noise: a nonlinear filters such as order statistics filters are used

see next slide

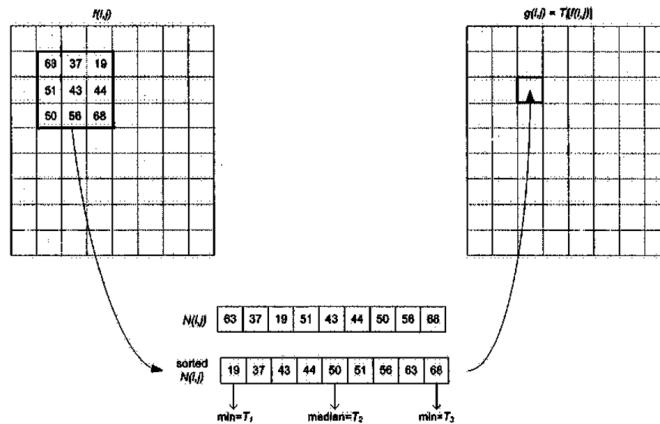
49

### Order-statistic filters

$$g(x,y) \xrightarrow{\text{Nonlinear Filtering}} \hat{f}(x,y)$$

Response based on ordering (ranking) pixel intensity values in a window (neighborhood) around the current pixel location

e.g. Median Filter



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### Order-statistic filters

$$g(x,y) \xrightarrow{\text{Nonlinear Filtering}} \hat{f}(x,y)$$

Response based on ordering (ranking) pixel intensity values in a window (neighborhood) around the current pixel location

Median Filter

- Good for impulse noise
- Less smoothing than averaging filters

$$\hat{f}(x,y) = \underset{(s,t) \in S_{xy}}{\text{median}} \{g(s,t)\}$$

Max Filter & Min Filter

- Max finds brightest points (reduces pepper noise – dark dots)
- Min finds darkest points (reduces salt noise – bright dots)

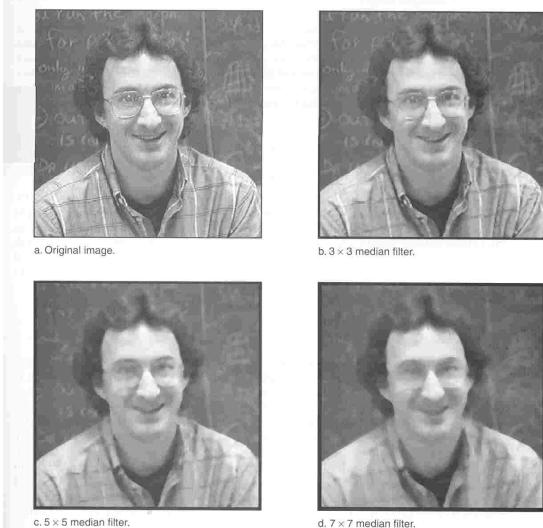
$$\hat{f}(x,y) = \underset{(s,t) \in S_{xy}}{\max} \{g(s,t)\}$$

$$\hat{f}(x,y) = \underset{(s,t) \in S_{xy}}{\min} \{g(s,t)\}$$

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### Image smoothing with median filtering...

Figure 4.4-3 Image Smoothing with a Median Filter



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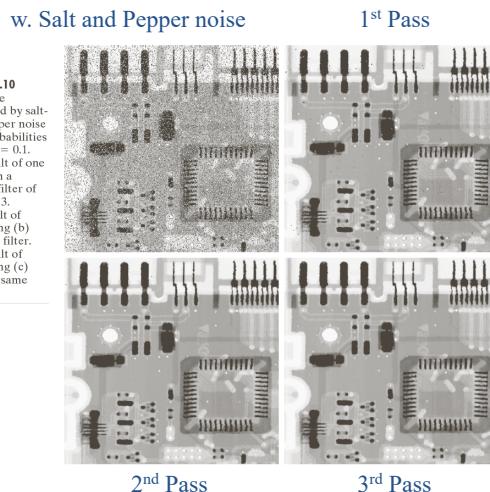
### Compare to arithmetic mean filter

Figure 4.4-2 Image Smoothing with an Arithmetic Mean Filter



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## Median filtering...



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Gaussian noise.

Median filtered.



Impulse noise.

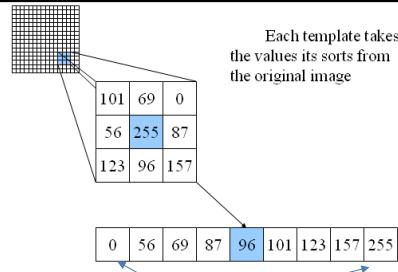
Median filtered.

55

25

## More Order-statistic filters

Response based on ordering  
(ranking) pixel intensities



### Midpoint Filter

- Combines order-statistic and averaging
- Good for randomly distributed noise (e.g. Gaussian, uniform)

$$\hat{f}(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \max_{(s,t) \in S_{xy}} \{g(s,t)\} + \min_{(s,t) \in S_{xy}} \{g(s,t)\} \right]$$

### Alpha-trimmed mean Filter

- Remove  $d/2$  highest & lowest intensities
- Useful in removing multiple types of noise (e.g. S&P + Gaussian)
- $d=0$ : arithmetic mean
- $d=mn-1$ : median

$$\hat{f}(x, y) = \frac{1}{mn-d} \sum_{(s,t) \in S_{xy}} g_r(s, t)$$

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w. S&P noise

Arithmetic mean filtered

Median filtered

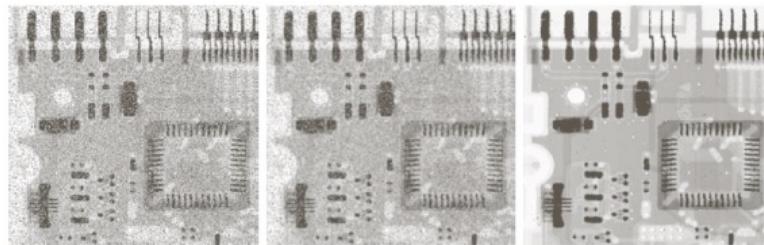
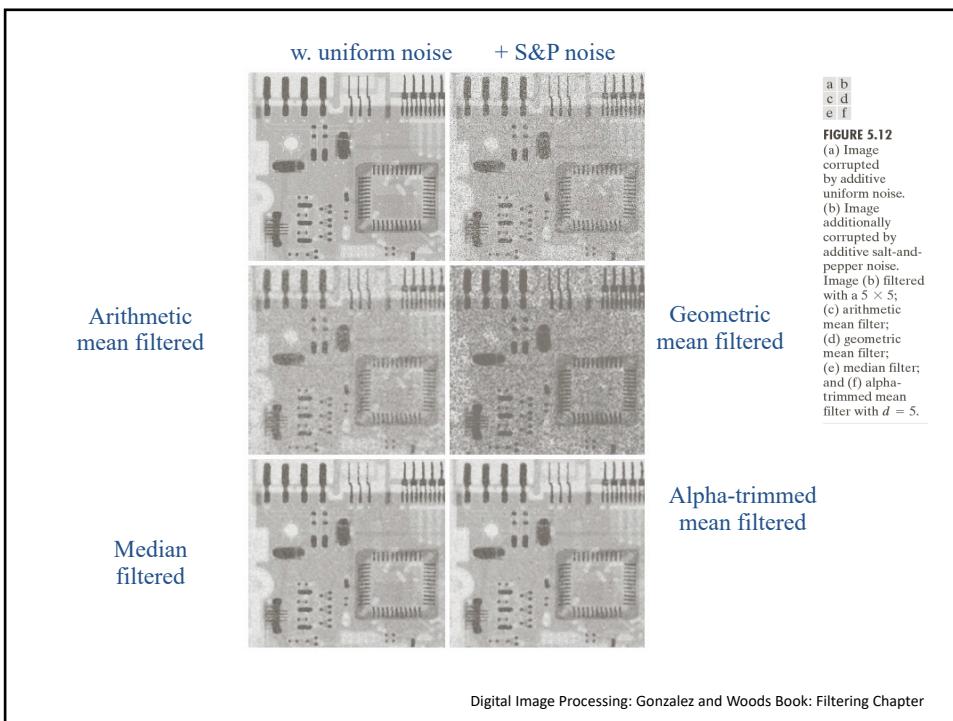


FIGURE 3.35 (a) X-ray image of circuit board corrupted by salt-and-pepper noise. (b) Noise reduction with a  $3 \times 3$  averaging mask. (c) Noise reduction with a  $3 \times 3$  median filter. (Original image courtesy of Mr. Joseph E. Pascente, Lixi, Inc.)

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### Mean-Median Filter

Similarly, for mixed noise (e.g. Gaussian type and impulse type), you can design a blended mean-median filter:

$$\hat{I} = \alpha I_{mean} + (1 - \alpha) I_{median}$$

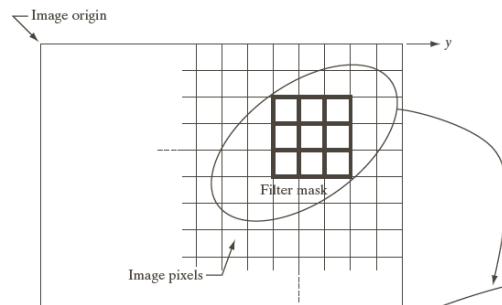
- $\alpha$  : the blending parameter
- $I_{mean}$  : the mean intensity in your filter window
- $I_{median}$ : the median intensity in your filter window

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## Adaptive Filters

Adaptive to image characteristic in the neighborhood.

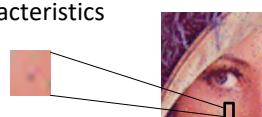
Modification of the gray-level values within an image based on some criterion that adjusts its parameters as local image characteristics change.



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## Adaptive local noise reduction filter

Makes use of mean (average intensity) and variance (measure of contrast) in an image window (filter size) and global intensity characteristics



$$\hat{f}(x, y) = g(x, y) - \frac{\sigma_n^2}{\sigma_L^2} [g(x, y) - m_L]$$

$m_L$  : local mean of pixels in  $S_{xy}$

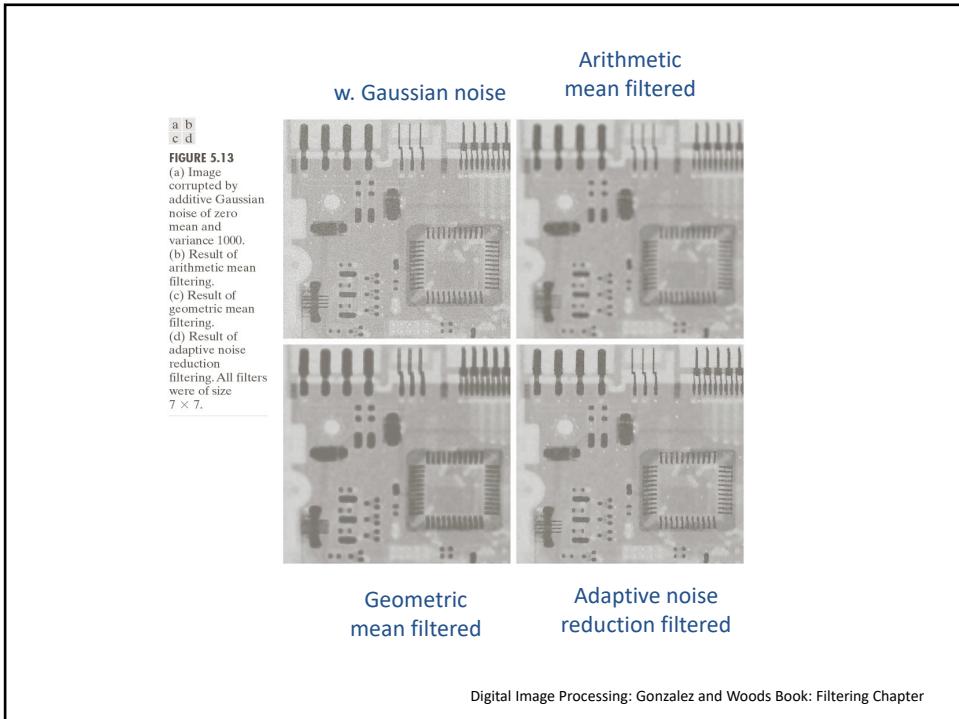
$\sigma_L^2$  : local variance of pixels in  $S_{xy}$

$\sigma_n^2$  : variance of overall noise (unknown)

Works best with Gaussian and uniform noise

Issues like how to estimate  $\sigma_n^2$

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## Adaptive Contrast Enhancement (ACE) Filter

$$I_{ACE}(r,c) = k_1 \left[ \frac{m_{I(r,c)}}{\sigma_{loc(r,c)}} \right] [I(r,c) - m_{loc}(r,c)] + k_2 m_{loc}(r,c)$$

This term relates to  $Coeff\ of\ Variation = \frac{\sigma}{m}$

where  $m_{I(r,c)}$  = mean of the entire image  $I(r,c)$

$\sigma_{loc}$  = local standard deviation (in the window under consideration)

$m_{loc}$  = local mean (average in the window under consideration)

$k_1, k_2$  = constants, vary between 0 and 1

Here, the goal is to enhance rather than denoise!

Areas of low contrast (=low standard variation) are boosted (i.e.,  $\sigma_{loc}$  is low)

The mean is then added back, to restore local average brightness.

\*In practice, it is often helpful to shrink the histogram of the image before applying this filter

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## Image Filtering and Enhancement: Clipping

**Note:** Always check the range of the resulting, i.e. the filtered or the enhanced, image intensity:

$$I_{\text{filtered}}(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } I_{\text{filtered}}(x,y) < 0 \\ 255 & \text{if } I_{\text{filtered}}(x,y) > 255 \\ I_{\text{filtered}}(x,y) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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## Color Image Filtering

Typically apply the filter either to:

1. each R,G,B channel separately; or
2. only the Intensity (brightness) component in another color space, e.g: H,S,I color space  
(we did not cover different color spaces in this course, but you can use them as transforms)



The original image



After a kind of Adaptive Contrast Enhancement

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## Adaptive Contrast Enhancement Filter example



Portion of a Landsat TM scene (Bands 3, 2, 1 as RGB)



Left: Dark lava flows and bright salt flats reveal little local detail.

Right: Same scene with a kind of RGB adaptive contrast enhancement filter applied

The final image is a weighted average of the LACE filter output (90%) and the original image (10%).

Enhanced contrast in dark and light areas brings out significant surface detail throughout the image.

<http://www.microimages.com/documentation/TechGuides/56lace10n.pdf>

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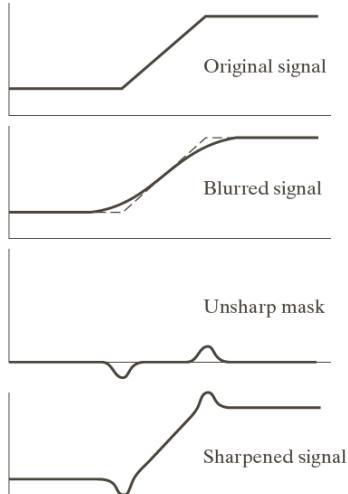
## Unsharp Masking and High-Boost Filtering

The **unsharp filter** is a simple sharpening operator which derives its name from the fact that it enhances edges (and other high frequency components in an image) via a procedure which subtracts an unsharp, or smoothed, version of an image from the original image.

The unsharp filtering technique is commonly used in the photographic and printing industries for crispening edges.

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### Characteristics of an unsharp filter



**FIGURE 3.39** 1-D illustration of the mechanics of unsharp masking.  
 (a) Original signal.  
 (b) Blurred signal with original shown dashed for reference.  
 (c) Unsharp mask.  
 (d) Sharpened signal, obtained by adding (c) to (a).

Unsharp mask = Original signal – Blurred signal;  
 can be used for sharpening if we add it back into the original signal.

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Consider the simple image object whose strong edges have been slightly blurred by camera focus.



In order to extract a sharpened view of the edges, we smooth this image using a mean filter (kernel size  $3 \times 3$ ) and then subtract the smoothed result from the original image



Produce an edge image  $g(x,y)$  from an input image  $f(x,y)$  via

$$g(x,y) = f(x,y) - f_{smooth}(x,y)$$

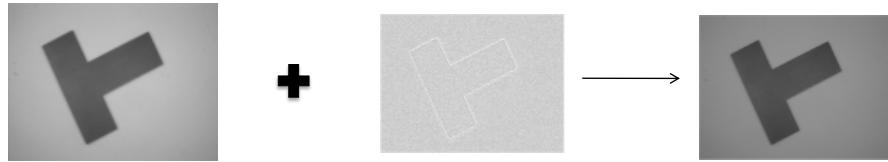
where  $f_{smooth}(x,y)$  is a smoothed version of  $f(x,y)$

Because we subtract all low frequency components from the original image (i.e., we highpass filtered the image) we are left with only high frequency edge descriptions.

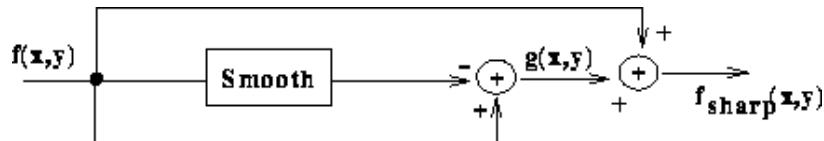
69

Desired thing: a sharpening operator give us back our original image with the high frequency components enhanced.

In order to achieve this effect,  
we now add some proportion of this high frequency image back onto our original image.



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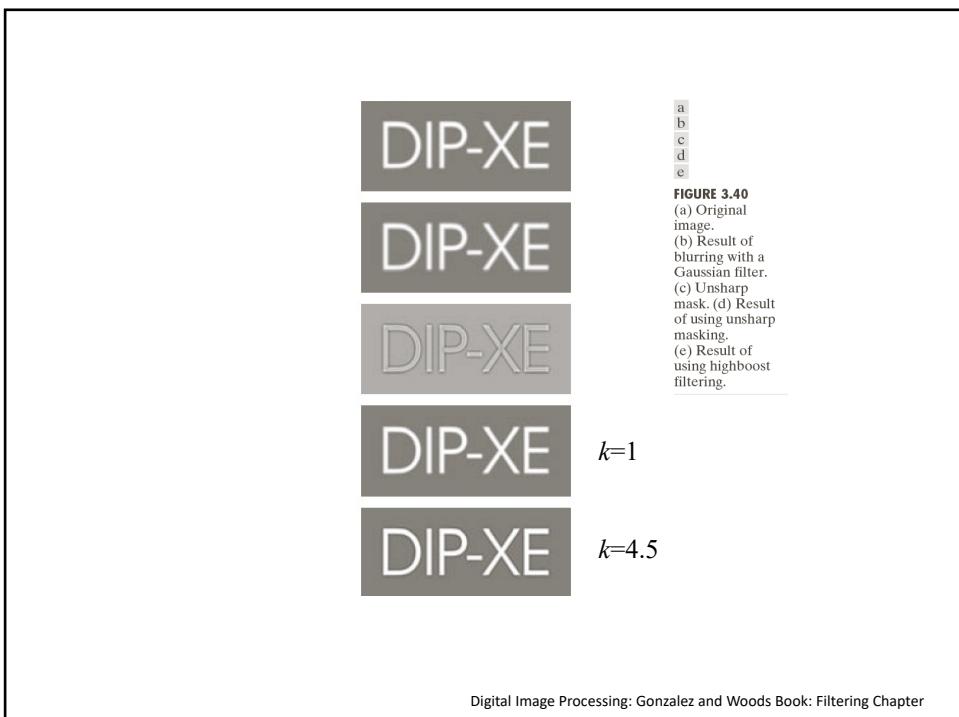


The complete unsharp filtering operator.

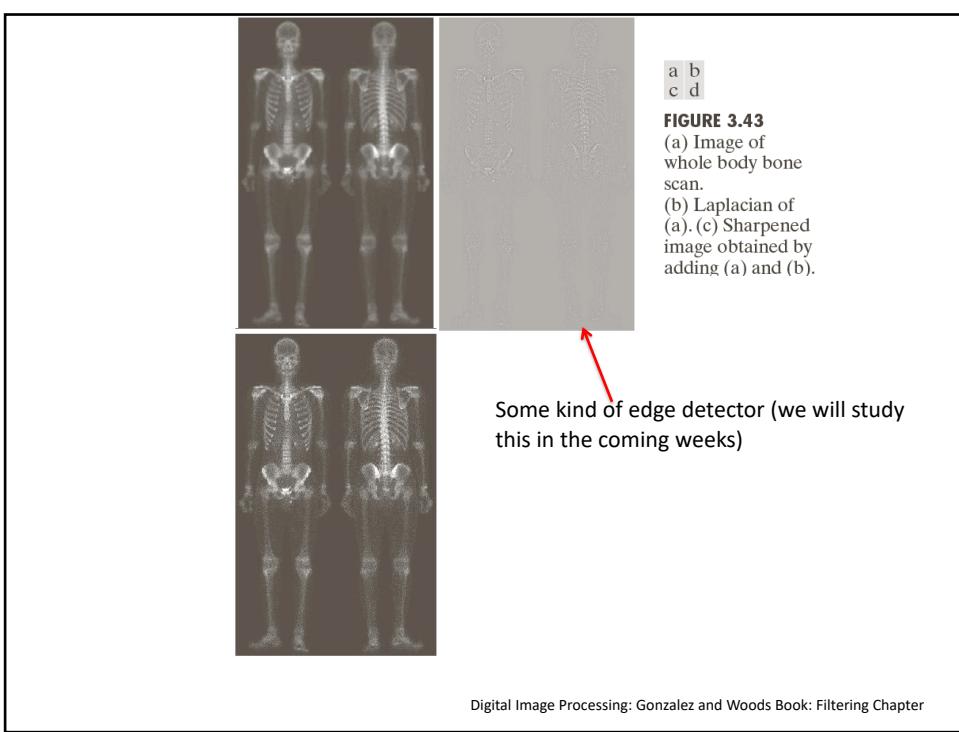
$$g(x,y) = f(x,y) - f_{smooth}(x,y)$$

$$f_{sharp}(x,y) = f(x,y) + k * g(x,y)$$

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A slight further generalization of unsharp masking is called ***high-boost filtering***

$$g(x,y) = A f(x,y) - f_{\text{smooth}}(x,y)$$

where  $A \geq 1$ .

0	-1	0	-1	-1	-1
-1	$A + 4$	-1	-1	$A + 8$	-1
0	-1	0	-1	-1	-1
0	-1	0	-1	-1	-1

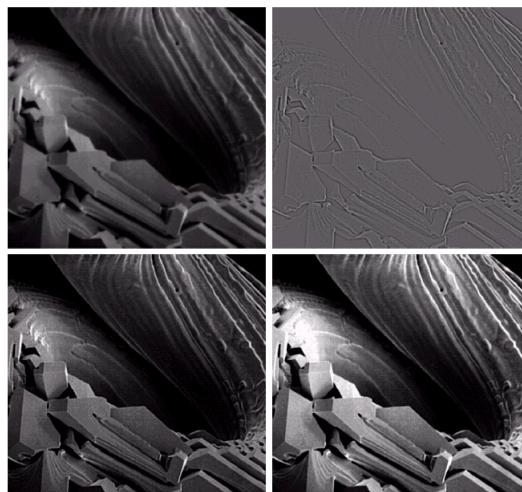
a b

**FIGURE 3.42** The high-boost filtering technique can be implemented with either one of these masks, with  $A \geq 1$ .

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a b  
c d

**FIGURE 3.43**  
(a) Same as Fig. 3.41(c), but darker.  
(a) Laplacian of (a) computed with the mask in Fig. 3.42(b) using  $A = 0$ .  
(c) Laplacian enhanced image using the mask in Fig. 3.42(b) with  $A = 1$ . (d) Same as (c), but using  $A = 1.7$ .



Some kind of edge detector  
(we will study this in the coming weeks)

A=1

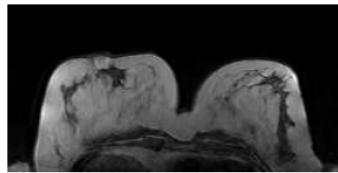
A=1.7

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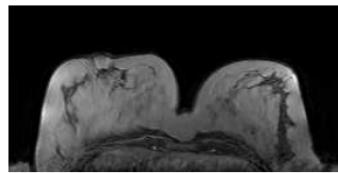
75

35

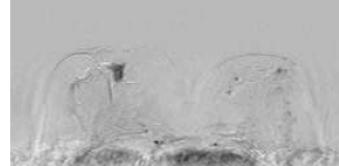
## Enhancement Using Subtraction



Pre-contrast



Post-contrast



Subtraction of pre- and post-contrast

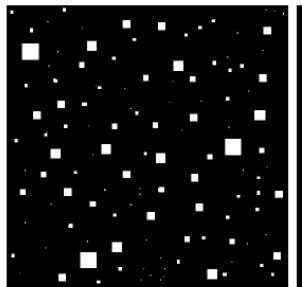
MR Mammography (D. Rueckert)

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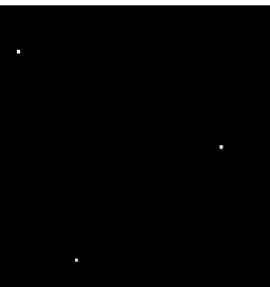
## Ex: Nonlinear Filtering: Morphological Image Filtering

**Goal:** Extract image components that are useful in representation of:  
objects/shapes in images; regions; boundaries; skeletons; convex hulls;  
.. Useful for Connectivity analysis, Blob Analysis etc.

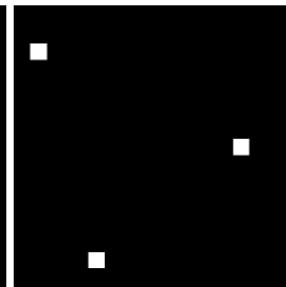
Two Main Image Morphology Operations: **Dilate** and **Erode**



a



b



c

**FIGURE 9.7** (a) Image of squares of size 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and 15 pixels on the side. (b) Erosion of (a) with a square structuring element of 1's, 13 pixels on the side. (c) Dilation of (b) with the same structuring element.

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## Morphological Image Processing

- Binary Morphology: assumes objects are represented in images using only two “color” values, say black and white.
- The coordinates of the black (or white) pixels form a complete description of the objects in the image.
- Objects form the Sets in images
- Another branch of morphology: Grayscale morphological operations

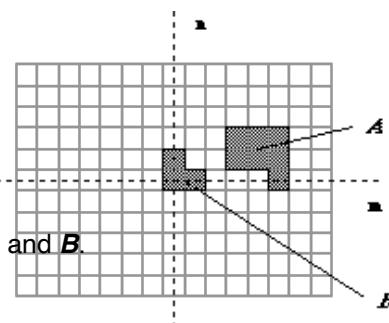
78

## Morphology-based Operations

We defined an image as an (amplitude) function of two, real (coordinate) variables  $I(x,y)$  or two, discrete variables  $I[m,n]$ .

An alternative definition of an image can be based on the notion that an image consists of a set (or collection) of either continuous or discrete coordinates.

In a sense, the set corresponds to the points or pixels that belong to the objects in the image.

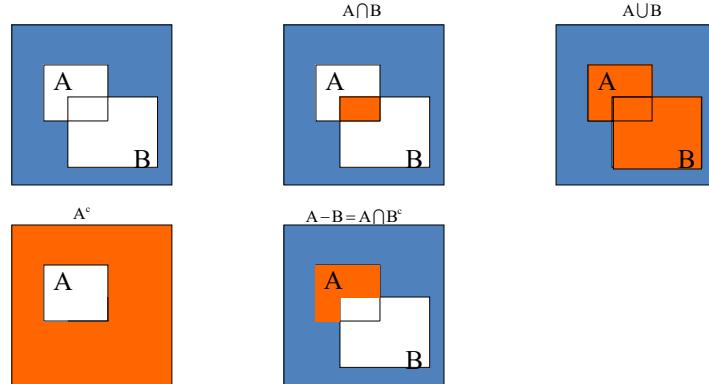


A binary image containing two object sets **A** and **B**.

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## Morphological Filtering

### Morphological Image Filtering: Based on Set Operations

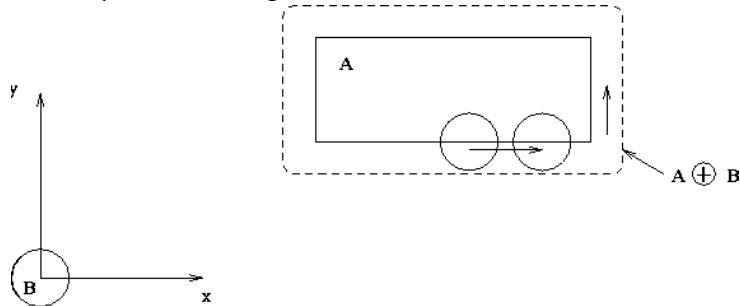


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## DILATION

Consider the example where  $A$  is a rectangle and  $B$  is a disc centered on the origin.

$A$  is dilated by the structuring element  $B$ :



The result is a new set (whose outer border is marked by dashed points) made up of all points generated by first:

- Shifting  $B$  set over  $A$
- Assigning the intersection of shifted  $B$  and  $A$  to each center pixel point

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## DILATION

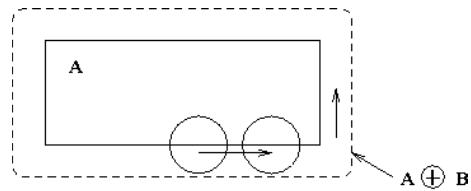
Dilation of A by Structuring element B

Mathematically

$$A \oplus B = \{x : (\hat{B}_x \cap A) \neq \emptyset\}$$

$\hat{B}_x$  : Reflection of B about its origin

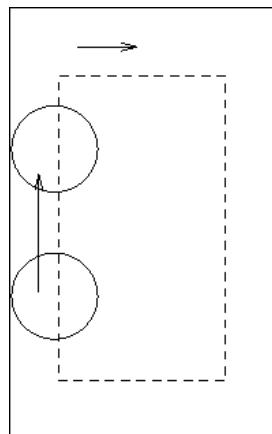
Since B is symmetric:  $\hat{B}_x = B_x$



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## EROSION

Erosion of the object  $A$  by a structuring element  $B$  is given by



Interpretation of Erosion: Set of all points  $x$  such that  $B$  translated by  $x$  is completely contained in  $A$   
=> no common elements with background  $A^c$

$$A \ominus B = \{x : B_x \subseteq A\}.$$

$A$  is eroded by the structuring element  $B$  to give the internal dashed shape.

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Dilation and erosion are duals of each other with respect to set complementation and reflection. That is,

$$(A \ominus B)^c = A^c \oplus \hat{B}.$$

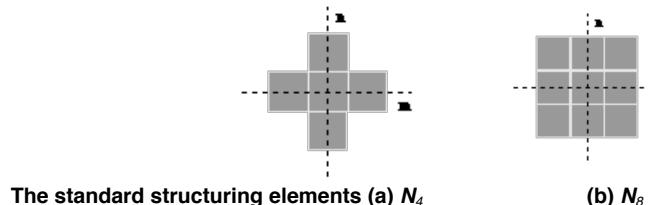
*Dilation*, in general, causes objects to dilate or grow in size;

*Erosion* causes objects to shrink.

The amount and the way that they grow or shrink depend upon the choice of the structuring element.

Note: Duality is proved in Section 9.2.3, Gonzalez and Woods book

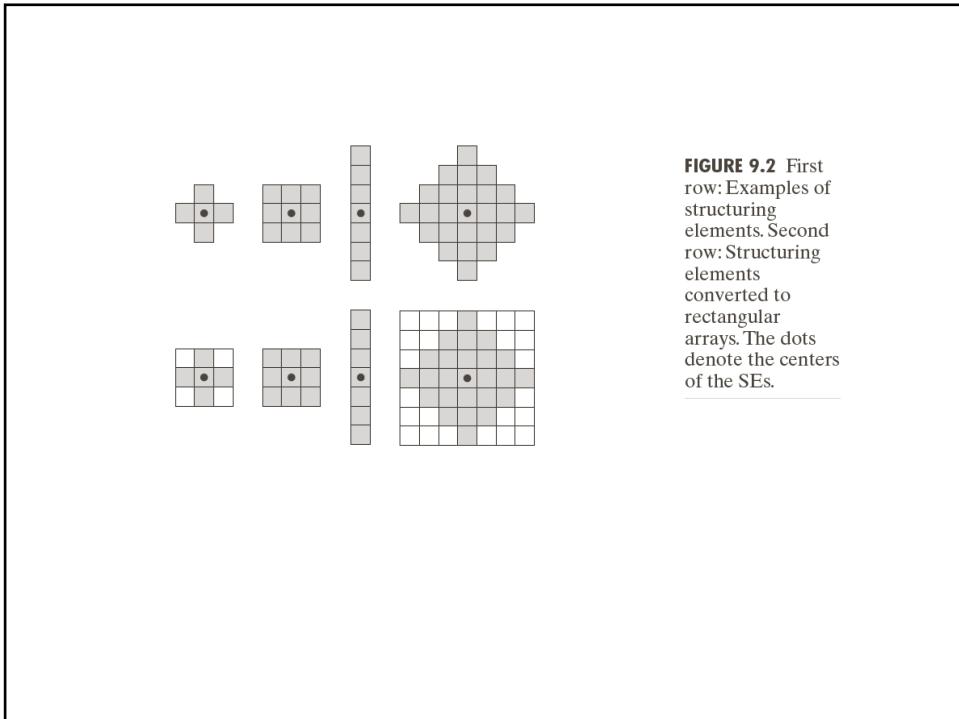
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Typically the structuring element  $B$  is a circular disc in the plane, but it can be any shape.

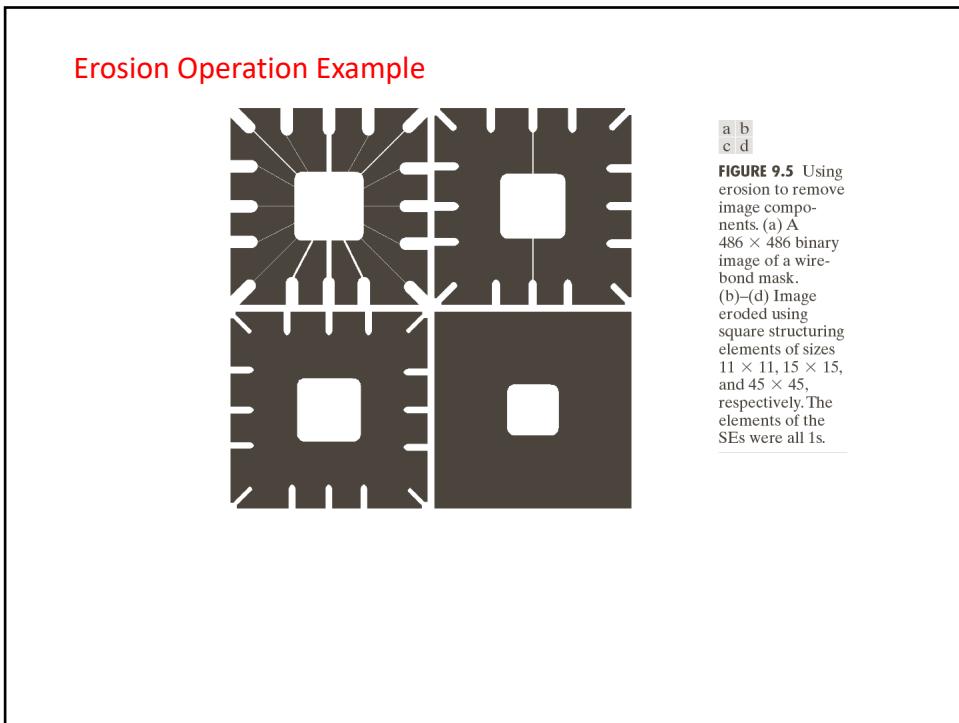
The image and structuring element sets need not be restricted to sets in the 2D plane, but could be defined in 1, 2, 3 (or higher) dimensions.

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**FIGURE 9.2** First row: Examples of structuring elements. Second row: Structuring elements converted to rectangular arrays. The dots denote the centers of the SEs.

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a b  
c d

**FIGURE 9.5** Using erosion to remove image components. (a) A  $486 \times 486$  binary image of a wire-bond mask. (b)-(d) Image eroded using square structuring elements of sizes  $11 \times 11$ ,  $15 \times 15$ , and  $45 \times 45$ , respectively. The elements of the SEs were all 1s.

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### Dilation Operation Example

Historically, certain computer programs were written using only two digits rather than four to define the applicable year. Accordingly, the company's software may recognize a date using "00" as 1900 rather than the year 2000.



Historically, certain computer programs were written using only two digits rather than four to define the applicable year. Accordingly, the company's software may recognize a date using "00" as 1900 rather than the year 2000.



0	1	0
1	1	1
0	1	0

a b c

**FIGURE 9.7**  
(a) Sample text of poor resolution with broken characters (see magnified view).  
(b) Structuring element.  
(c) Dilation of (a) by (b). Broken segments were joined.

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### Applications of morphological operations

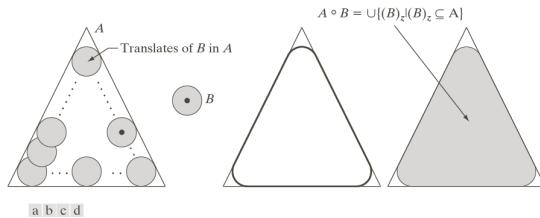
Erosion and dilation can be used in a variety of ways, in parallel and series, to give other transformations including thickening, thinning, skeletonisation and many others.

Now intuitively, dilation expands an image object and erosion shrinks it. We can combine the two operations to obtain new different operations.

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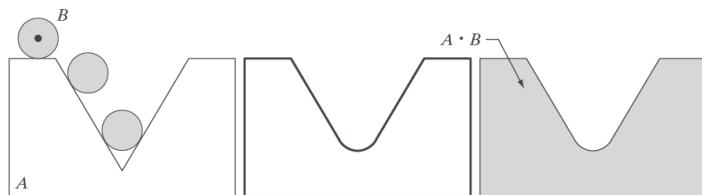
### Opening: Erosion followed by dilation



**FIGURE 9.8** (a) Structuring element  $B$  “rolling” along the inner boundary of  $A$  (the dot indicates the origin of  $B$ ). (b) Structuring element. (c) The heavy line is the outer boundary of the opening. (d) Complete opening (shaded). We did not shade  $A$  in (a) for clarity.

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### Closing: Dilation followed by erosion

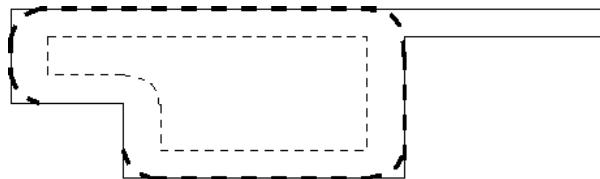


**FIGURE 9.9** (a) Structuring element  $B$  “rolling” on the outer boundary of set  $A$ . (b) The heavy line is the outer boundary of the closing. (c) Complete closing (shaded). We did not shade  $A$  in (a) for clarity.

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**Opening** generally smooths a contour in an image, breaking narrow isthmuses (a narrow passage connecting two larger structures) and eliminating thin protrusions.

**Closing** tends to narrow smooth sections of contours, fusing narrow breaks and long thin gulfs, eliminating small holes, and filling gaps in contours.

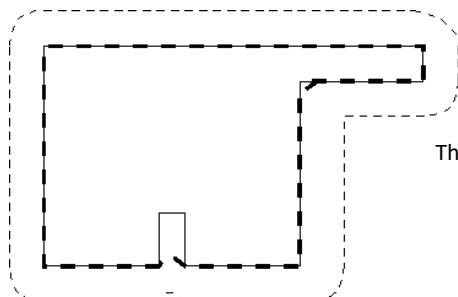


The opening (given by the dark dashed lines) of  $A$  (given by the solid lines). The structuring element  $B$  is a disc.  
The internal dashed structure is  $A$  eroded by  $B$ .

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Closing is the dual operation of opening

$$A \bullet B = (A \oplus B) \ominus B.$$



The closing of  $A$  by the structuring element  $B$ .

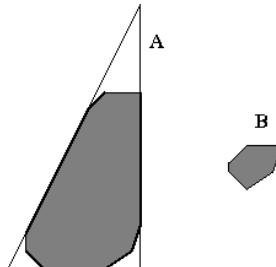
This is like 'smoothing from the outside'. Holes are filled in and narrow valleys are 'closed'.

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Opening is like 'rounding from the inside': the opening of  $A$  by  $B$  is obtained by taking the union of all translates of  $B$  that fit inside  $A$ . Parts of  $A$  that are smaller than  $B$  are removed. Thus

$$A \circ B = (A \ominus B) \oplus B,$$

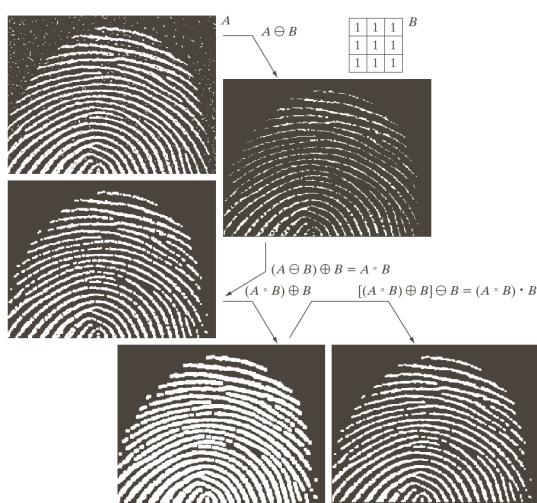


The opening of  $A$  by the structuring element  $B$ .

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### Morphological Filtering:

The morphological filter  $(A \circ B) \bullet B$  can be used to eliminate 'salt and pepper' noise.



**FIGURE 9.11**  
 (a) Noisy image.  
 (b) Structuring element.  
 (c) Eroded image.  
 (d) Opening of  $A$ .  
 (e) Dilation of the opening.  
 (f) Closing of the opening.  
 (Original image courtesy of the National Institute of Standards and Technology.)

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The important things to note are that

- morphological operations preserve the main geometric structures of the object.
- Only features 'smaller than' the structuring element are affected by transformations.
- All other features at 'larger scales' are not degraded.

Note: These are not valid with linear transformations, such as given by convolution.

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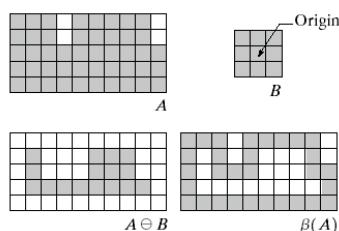
### Boundary Extraction by Morphology

The *boundary* of a set  $A$ , denoted by  $\partial A$ , can be obtained by first eroding  $A$  with  $B$ , where  $B$  is a suitable structuring element, and then performing the set difference between  $A$  and its erosion. That is:

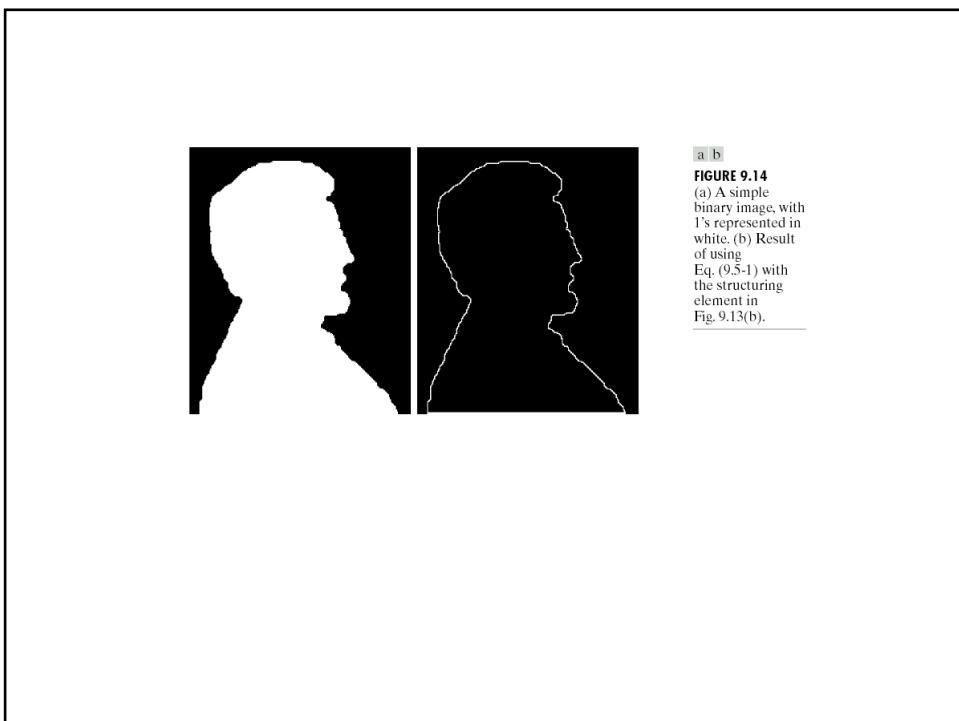
$$\partial A = A - (A \ominus B).$$

Typically,  $B$  would be a  $3 \times 3$  matrix of 1s.

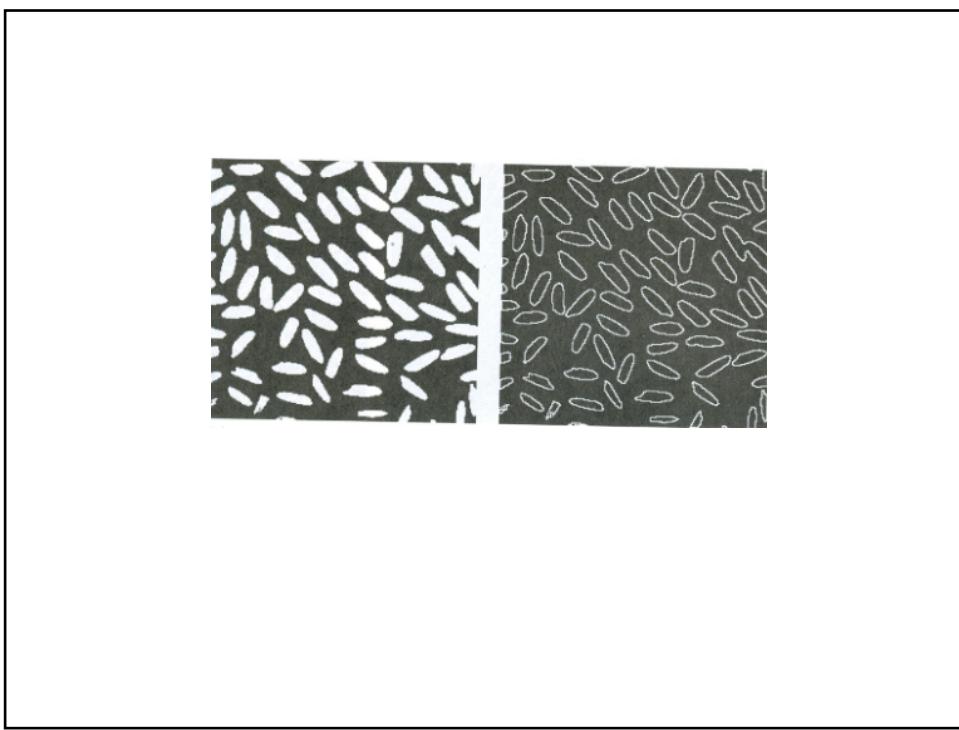
a b  
c d  
**FIGURE 9.13** (a) Set  
 $A$ . (b) Structuring  
element  $B$ . (c)  $A$   
eroded by  $B$ .  
(d) Boundary, given  
by the set  
difference between  
 $A$  and its erosion.



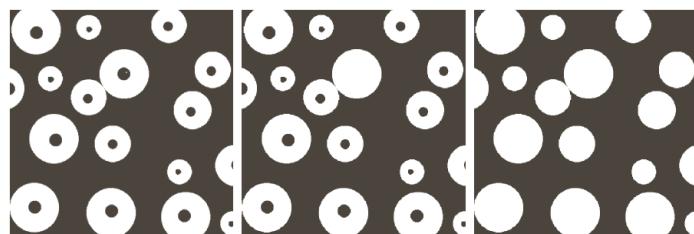
97



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99



a b c

**FIGURE 9.16** (a) Binary image (the white dot inside one of the regions is the starting point for the hole-filling algorithm). (b) Result of filling that region. (c) Result of filling all holes.

*Region filling can be accomplished by Closing operation*

or iteratively using dilations, complementation, and intersections (not all are covered in class, you can look at Gonzalez Woods Chapter 9 for various kinds of morphological operations)

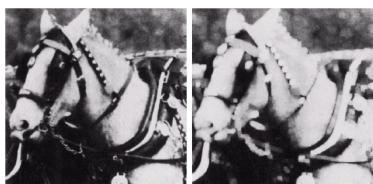
100

### Gray-value Morphology

Just: Replace binary sets with gray-valued images

Replace AND operation with MIN operation

OR operation with MAX operation



**FIGURE 9.29**  
(a) Original  
image.  
(b) Result  
of dilation.  
(c) Result  
of erosion.  
(Courtesy of  
Mr. A. Morris,  
Leica Cambridge,  
Ltd.)

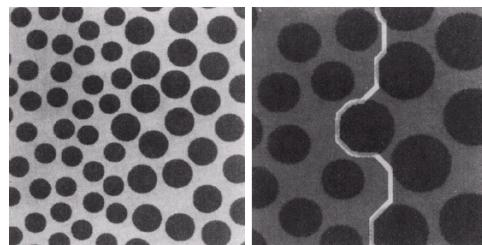


**a) Dilation b) Erosion c) Smoothing**

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## Texture Segmentation

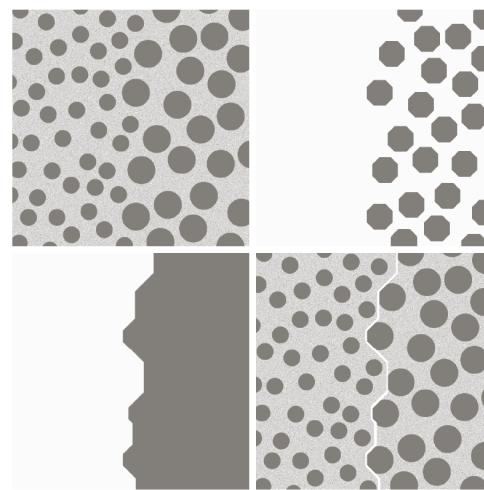
a b  
**FIGURE 9.35**  
(a) Original  
image, (b) Image  
showing boundary  
between regions  
of different  
texture. (Courtesy  
of Mr. A. Morris,  
Leica Cambridge,  
Ltd.)



Close the image by successively using larger structuring elements.

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a b  
**FIGURE 9.43**  
Textural  
segmentation.  
(a) A  $600 \times 600$   
image consisting  
of two types of  
blobs. (b) Image  
with small blobs  
removed by  
closing (a).  
(c) Image with  
light patches  
between large  
blobs removed by  
opening (b).  
(d) Original  
image with  
boundary  
between the two  
regions in (c)  
superimposed.  
The boundary was  
obtained using a  
morphological  
gradient  
operation.



(c) Open image b with SE > separation dist btw  
blobs

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## Next Generation Filters: Learnable

Idea: Let the algorithm learn the filters through Artificial Neural Networks, lately known as **Deep Learning**

Not covered in our class, where you are learning hand-crafted filters, and feature engineering, which is important to know before you work with Learning in (Visual) Data Processing/Science

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### END OF LECTURE

Recall Learning Objective (LO) for Week 4: Students will be able to:

**LO2.** Design and implement various image transforms:  
**neighborhood operation-based spatial filters**

### Reading Assignments:

Study this week's topics from your lecture notes

NEXT TIME: We will study Edge Detection

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