



























Liste der noch zu erledigenden Punkte

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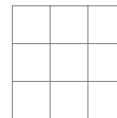
Kapitel 1

1. Overview

- „image society“ (webpages: 1995 text-based, 2005 image based, 2015 video based ...)
 - data transfer rates \uparrow , compression rates \uparrow
 - critical shift: reading \rightarrow watching
- „Photoshop“-ing (remove wrinkles, bumps, ...)
- Images in medicine („medical image processing“), x-ray, CT, MRI, ultrasound, ... („modalities“).
different questions:

1.) Layout!

align bottom measurements $\xrightarrow{?}$ image
 expl: tomography
 \Rightarrow difficult mathematical problems



2.) Image enhancements

- denoising
 - simple pixels/lines: „sandpaper“ interpolation
 - global noise: smoothing
- grayscale
 - histogramm balancing (spreading)
- distortion
 - makes straight lines (in real world) straight (in the images)
- edge detection
 - contour enhancement
- segmentation
 - detect and separate parts of the image
- registration
 - sequence of images of the same object \Rightarrow Wort?, compare Skizze
 - \nearrow object following in a movie

so richtig?

Our Focus:

- mathematical models/methods/ideas
- (algorithms)
- ((implementation))

skipped: Very fast intro: Matlab and images

Kapitel 2

2. What is an image?

2.1 Discrete and continuous images

There are (at least) two different points of view:



Abbildung 2.1: Discrete Image

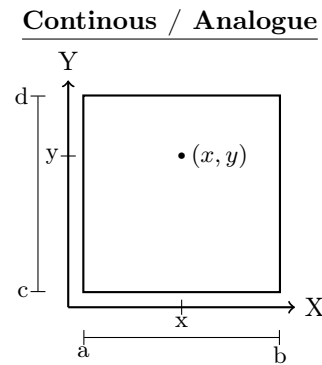


Abbildung 2.2: Continuous Image

object: matrix
tools: linear algebra (SVD, ...)
pros: (finite storage) storage, complexity
cons: limitations: zooming, rotations, ...

function
 analysis (differentiation, integrate, ...)
 freedom, tools, **motions? P.4**
 (e.g. edge discontinuity)
 storage (infinite amount of data)

arguably, one has:

- real life \Rightarrow continuous „images“ (objects)
- digital cameras \Rightarrow discrete images

In general we will say:

Definition 2.1 ((mathematical) image). A (mathematical) *image* is a function

$$u : \Omega \rightarrow F,$$

where: $\Omega \subset \mathbb{Z}^d$ (discrete) or $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ (continuous) ... *domain*

$d = 2$ (typical case 2D), $d = 3$ („3D image“ = body or $\underbrace{2D + \text{time}}_{\text{movie}}$)

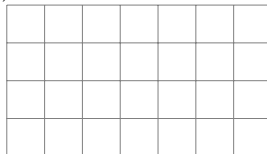
$d = 4$ (3D + time)

$F \dots$ range of colours

$F = \mathbb{R}$ or $[0, \infty]$ or $[0, 1]$ or $\{0, \dots, 255\}$, ... grayscale (light intensity)

$F \subset \mathbb{R}^3 \dots$ RGB image (colored)

$F = \{0, 1\} \dots$ black/white



3 Layers

\Rightarrow colored images:w

Matlab stuff

Large parts of the course: analytical approach (i.e. continuous domain Ω)

Since we want to differentiate, ... the image u .

Still: need to assume that also F is continuous (not as $\{0, 1\}$, $\{0, 1, \dots, 255\}$ or \mathbb{N})

since otherwise the only differentiable (actually, the only continuous) functions $u : \Omega \rightarrow F$ are *constant* functions \Leftrightarrow single-colour images

Also: We usually take F one-dimensional ($F \subset \mathbb{R}$). Think of it as either

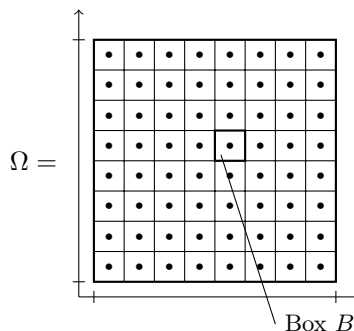
- gray scaled image, or
- treating R, G & B layer separately

2.2 Switching between discrete and continuous images

continuous \rightarrow discrete:

- divide the continuous image in small squared pieces (boxes) (superimpose grid)
- now: represent each box by *one* value
 - strategy 1: take function value $u(x_i)$
for $x_i = \text{midpoint of box } B_i$
 - strategy 2: use mean value

$$\frac{1}{|B_i|} \int_{B_i} u(x) dx$$



\Rightarrow discrete image

strategy 1: simple (and quick) but problematic ($u(x_i)$ might represent $u|_{B_i}$ badly; for $u \in L^p$, single point evaluation not even defined)

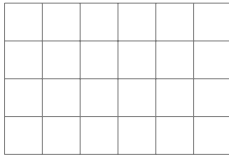
strategy 2: more complex but also more „democratic“ (actually closer to the way how CCD Sensors in digital cameras work)

often the image value of the box B_i gets also digitized, i.e. fitted (by scaling & rounding) into range $\{0, 1, \dots, 255\}$

discrete \rightarrow continuous

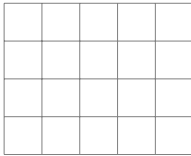
This is of course more tricky ...

- Again: each pixel of the discrete image corresponds to a „box“ of the continuous image (that is still to be constructed)
- Usually: pixel value \mapsto function value at the *midpoint* of the box
- Question: How to get the other function values (in the box)?



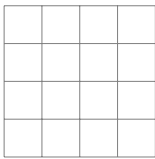
idea 1: just take the function value of the nearest midpoint („nearest neighbour interpolation“)

For each $x \in B_i : u(x) := u(x_j)$ where $|x - x_j| = \min_k |x - x_k|$



$\Rightarrow u(x) = u(x_i)$ for all $x \in B_i$
 \Rightarrow each box is uni-color
 \Rightarrow the continuous image is essentially still discrete

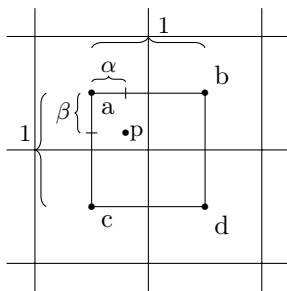
idea 2: (bi-) linear interpolation



Let $a, b, c, d \dots$ function values at 4 surrounding adjacent midpoints (\nearrow figure)

$\alpha, \beta, 1 - \alpha, 1 - \beta \dots$ distance to dotted lines (\nearrow figure, w.l.o.g, bob is 1×1)

interpolation (linear) on the dotted line between a and b :



$$e := a + \alpha(b - a) = (1 - \alpha)a + \alpha b$$

(1D - interpolation, convex combination)

Similarly: $f = (1 - \alpha)c + \alpha d$

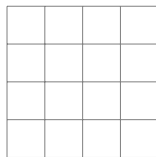
Then: The same 1D-interpolation between e and f

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow u(x) &:= (1 - \beta) \cdot e + \beta \cdot f \\ &= (1 - \beta)[(1 - \alpha)a + \alpha b] + \beta[(1 - \alpha)c + \alpha d] \\ &= \underbrace{(1 - \alpha)(1 - \beta)}_{\in [0, 1]} a + \underbrace{\alpha(1 - \beta)}_{\in [0, 1]} b + \underbrace{(1 - \alpha)\beta}_{\in [0, 1]} c + \underbrace{\alpha\beta}_{\in [0, 1]} d \end{aligned}$$

$\in [0, 1] \wedge \sum = 1$

\Rightarrow convex combination of the function values a, b, c, d at the the surrounding 4 midpoints (on which points is the nearest, instead of taking just a, b, c or d - depending)

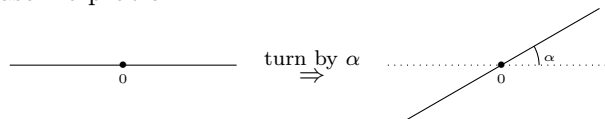
\Rightarrow 2D linear interpolation, *bi-linear interpolation* (can be interpreted as spline interpolation with bilinear **basis** splines).



Beispiel 2.2. Rotate image

by angle $\phi \neq k \cdot \frac{\pi}{2}$

- continuous image case: no problem



$$x = D_\varphi y \quad x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}, D_\varphi = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{pmatrix}$$

2D rotation matrix

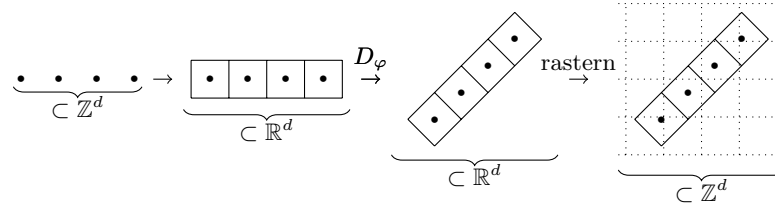
$$y = D_\varphi^{-1} x = D_{-\varphi} x$$

$$\Rightarrow v(x) := u(y) = u(D_{-\varphi} x) \quad \forall x \in \text{domain of the rotated image}$$

- discrete image case: problem !

For $x \in \text{domain of notated image}$, in general $D_{-\varphi} x \notin \text{domain of original image}$ ¹

Way out: $v(x) := \text{interpolation}$ between the $u(\cdot)$ of the 4 surrounding pixels of $D_{-\varphi}$



Something to think about:

What happens in the limit (?) if we, starting with an image (discrete or continuous), repeatedly switch between discrete and continuous, non-stop ... ?

Does the answer depend on the way of switching ? (continuous \rightarrow discrete: midpoint or average, discrete \rightarrow continuous: nearest neighbour or bilinear?)

¹it's not an integer

Kapitel 3

3. Histogramm and first applicatsion

3.1 The histogramm

Definition 3.1 (histogram). Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{Z}^d$, $F \subset \mathbb{R}$ discrete and $u : \Omega \rightarrow F$ a discrete discrete image. The function

$$H_u : F \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_0 \quad (:= \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\})$$

with

$$H_u(k) := \# \{x \in \Omega : u(x) = k\}, \quad k \in F$$

is called *histogramm* of the image u .

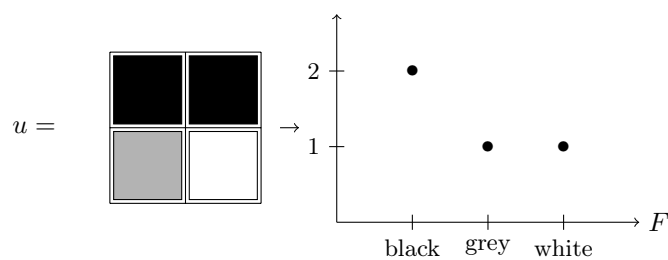
$H_u(k)$ counts how often colour k appears in u .

$$\sum_{k \in F} H_u(k) = |\Omega| = \text{number of pixels in the whole image}$$

or

$$\frac{H_u(k)}{|\Omega|} = \begin{array}{l} \text{relative frequency of colour } k \text{ in image } u \\ \text{(relative H\u00e4ufigkeit)} \end{array}$$

Beispiel 3.2.



If u is a continuous image, H_u can be understood as a measure (generalized function)¹.

Another way to write this:

$$H_u(k) = \sum_{x \in \Omega} \delta_{u(x)}(k), \quad k \in F \qquad H_u(k) = \int_{\Omega} \delta_{u(x)}(k) dx, \quad k \in F$$

hier fehlt noch das Kronecker underarrow

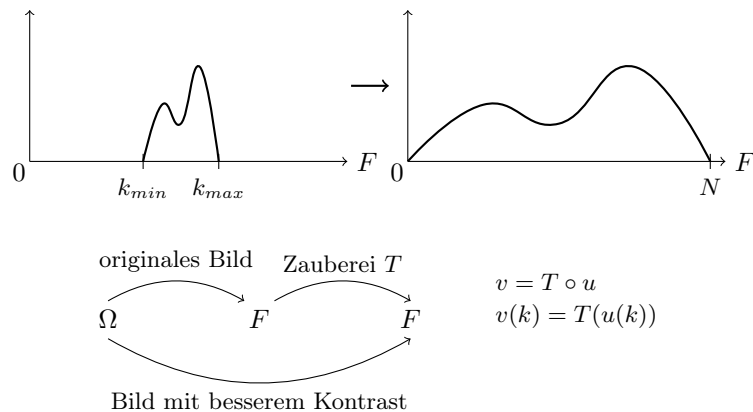
Matlab-Code

¹density of a probability distribution

3.2 Application: contrast enhancement

If the image only uses a small part of the available colour/grayscale „palette“ F , then its contrast can be improved by „spreading“ the histogram over all of F .

Simple idea:



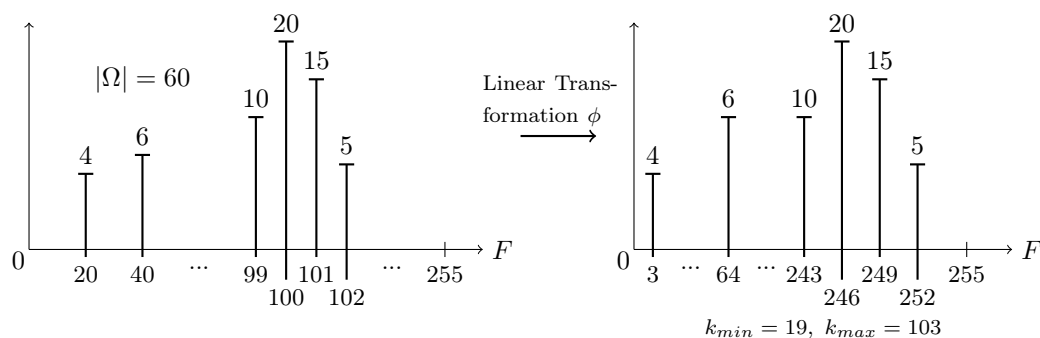
5

The above simple idea („contrast stretching“) corresponds to

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varphi : k_{\min} &\mapsto 0 \\
 k_{\max} &\mapsto N \\
 &\text{and linear in between} \\
 \text{i.e.} \quad \varphi(k) &= \left[\frac{k - k_{\min}}{k_{\max} - k_{\min}} \cdot N \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Where $[\cdot]$ means ...rounding to the nearest integer (assuming that $F = \{0, 1, \dots, N\}$).

Example histogram:

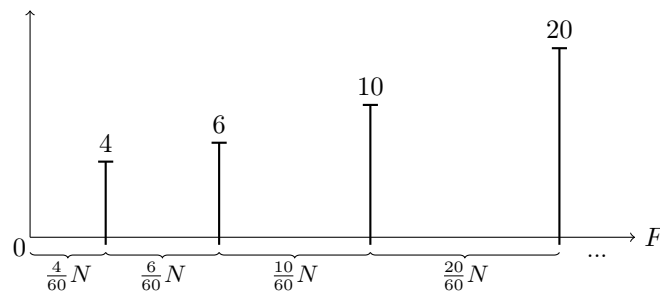


A bit more sophisticated:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varphi : (k_{\min} &\mapsto 0) \\
 k_{\max} &\mapsto N \\
 &\text{and **non** linear in between}
 \end{aligned}$$

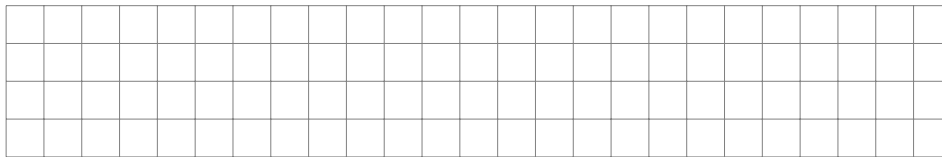
such that colour ranges that occur more frequently in u can occupy a larger range of colours in v .
 (\Rightarrow visibility \uparrow)

Example histogram spread out according to frequency of occurrence:



\Rightarrow „density“ is equalized over $F = \{0, \dots, N\}$

Ideal would be:



Layout S.12 u

Note: The new colours (i.e the location of the bars in the histogram of u) only depend on the frequencies / height of the bars in H_u but not on the colours/location of the bars in H_u

Finally: The formula

$$\varphi(k) = \left\lceil \frac{N}{|\Omega|} \sum_{l=0}^k H_u(l) \right\rceil$$

This process is called „histogramm equalization“

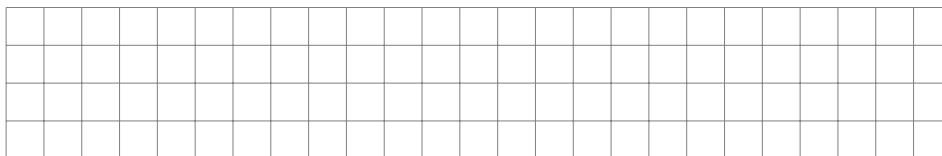
Exercise ?!

3.3 Another application: conversion to b/w

Task: convert grayscale image to black white

- interesting for object detection/*segmentation* ...!

Idea: Find a threshold $t \in T$ s.t. the histogram splits into two „characteristic“ parts



For $t \in F$ put

$$\text{black} := \{k \in F : k \leq t\}$$

$$\text{white} := \{k \in F : k > t\}$$

and

$$\tilde{u} := \begin{cases} 0, & u(x) \in \text{black} \\ 1, & u(x) \in \text{white} \end{cases} \quad \tilde{F} = \{0, 1\}$$

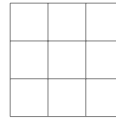
How to find the threshold t :

1.) Shape based methods

If the histogram is „biomodal“

$$\text{Put } t := \frac{k_{\max_1} + k_{\max_2}}{2}$$

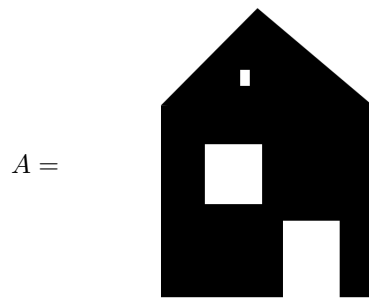
or $t := k_{\min}$



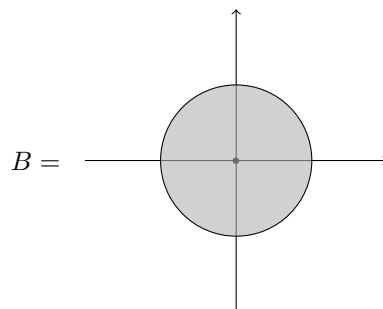
Kapitel 4

4. Basic Morphological Operations

B/W Bild:



Structural element :



4.1 Operations on A and B

$$A + B := \{a + b : a \in A, b \in B\}$$

This is called dilation.

You might imagine that at every dark point in the image A the Structurelement is applied.

$$A + B =$$

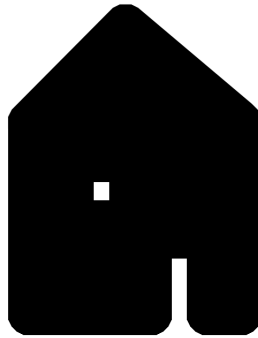


Image created in Matlab through:

```

1 I=imread('Bild1.png');
2 se=strel('disk',40,8);
3 I2=imcomplement(imdilate(imcomplement(I),se));%I am using the complement of the image
   here so that the structural element is applied to the dark parts of the image
4 imshow(I2);

```

$$A - B := \{a : a + B \subset A\}$$

This is called erosion.

You can imagine that you search for the points in which the structural element fits.

$$A - B =$$

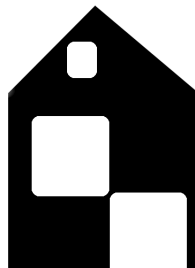


Image created in Matlab thorough:

```

1 I=imread('Bild1.png');
2 se=strel('disk',20,8);
3 I2=imcomplement(imerode(imcomplement(I),se));
4 imshow(I2);

```

One may quickly realize that $A \neq (A + B) - B$, so a new Operation is introduced:

$$A \bullet B := (A + B) - B$$

This is called closing and is used to e.g. remove noise. In the example image you might notice that the upper window is missing.



Image created in Matlab thorough:

```

1 I=imread('Bild1.png');
2 se=strel('disk',20,8);
3 I2=imcomplement(imdilate(imcomplement(I),se));
4 I3=imcomplement(imerode(imcomplement(I2),se));
5 imshow(I3);

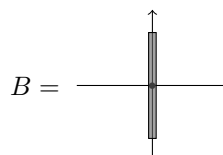
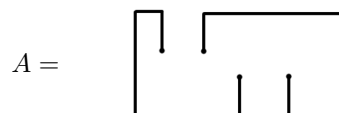
```

The inverse also exists:

$$A \circ B := (A - B) + B$$

This is called opening.

This time with a new example:



Kapitel 5

5. Entrauschen: Filter und Co

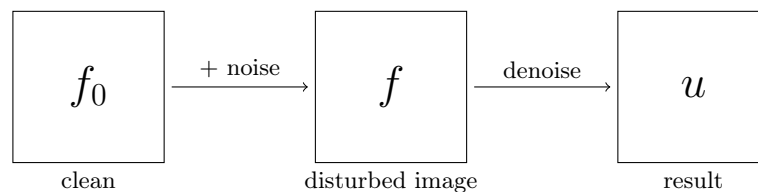
5.1 Noise

Noise = Unwanted disturbances in an image. Mostly because of

- point wise
- random
- independent

We consider *noise* to be an additive disturbances (for multiplicative noise use *log*).

Notation:



The quality of the denoised image u compared to the original image f_0 is described by norms:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \|f - f_0\| &\dots \text{noise} \\
 \|u - f_0\| &\dots \text{absolute error} \\
 \frac{\|u - f_0\|}{\|f - f_0\|} &\dots \text{relative error compared to the noise} \\
 \frac{\|u - f_0\|}{\|f_0\|} &\dots \text{relative error compared to the signal}
 \end{aligned}$$

Typically the chosen norm is:

$$\|f\| = \|f\|_2 = \sqrt{\int_{\Omega} |f(x)|^2 dx}$$

or in the discrete:

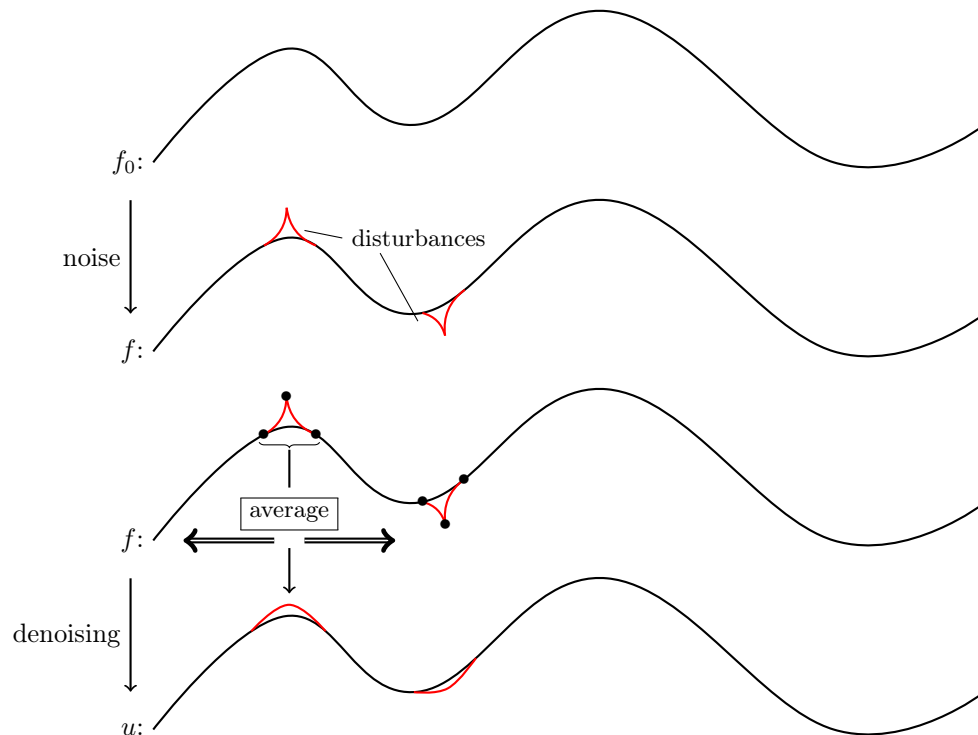
$$\|f\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{x \in \Omega} |f(x)|^2}$$

Closely connected is the Signal to noise ratio (SNR):

$$\log\left(\underbrace{\frac{\|f_0\|_2}{\|u - f_0\|_2}}_{\in [1, \infty)}\right) \in [0, +\infty), \text{ where } 0 \text{ is bad and } +\infty \text{ is good.}$$

5.2 smoothing filter

Idea: (to simplify in 1D)

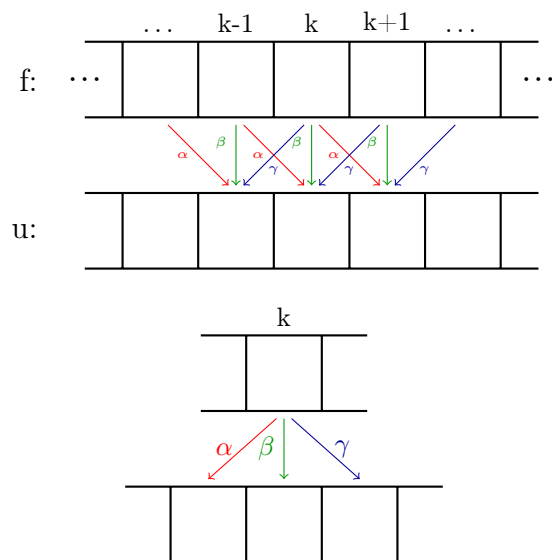


$$u(k) := \alpha \cdot f(k-1) + \beta \cdot f(k) + \gamma \cdot f(k+1) \quad (5.1)$$

where:

$$\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 1 \quad (5.2)$$

More precisely (5.1) means:



With (5.1) there is a mapping $f \mapsto u$, we write

$$u = m \boxtimes f, \text{ this is called } \underline{\text{Correlation}} .$$

where:

$$(m \boxtimes f)(k) = \sum_{i \in \text{supp}(m)} m(i) f(k+i) \quad (5.3)$$

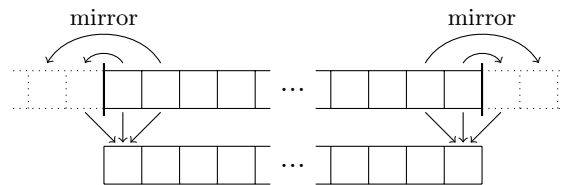
and:

$$m = \begin{array}{ccccc} & \dots & -1 & 0 & 1 & \dots \\ \dots & \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \dots & \text{called } \underline{\text{mask}} \end{array}$$

If you set $j := k + i$ in (5.1), then $i = j - k$, which means:

$$(m \boxtimes f)(k) = \sum_{i \in \text{supp}(m)} m(j-k) f(j) \quad (5.4)$$

To apply the mapping onto the boundary the image is reflected, in 1D:



in 2D:

d	b	d
q	p	q
d	b	d

Formula (5.4) might remind one of the convolution :

Layout!

$$(g * f)(k) = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} g(\underbrace{k-j}_{\text{Difference to (5.4)}}) \cdot f(j) \quad (5.5)$$

If you set $g(i) := m(-i) =: \tilde{m}(i)$, which corresponds to a reflection of the Mask, then

$$m \boxtimes f = g * f = \tilde{m} * f$$

Im Skript hier noch Beispiele und soetwas p. 32f

Properties of the convolution:

1. $(f * g) * h = f * (g * h)$, Associativity
2. $f * g = g * f$, Commutativity
3. $\tilde{f} * \tilde{g} = \widetilde{f * g}$, Compatibility with reflection

Properties of the correlation:

1. $f \boxtimes (g \boxtimes h) = \tilde{f} * (\tilde{g} * h) \stackrel{\boxed{1}}{=} (\tilde{f} * \tilde{g}) * h \stackrel{\boxed{3}}{=} (\widetilde{f * g}) * h = (f * g) \boxtimes h \neq (f \boxtimes g) \boxtimes h$, not associative!
2. $f \boxtimes g = \tilde{f} * g \stackrel{\boxed{2}}{=} g * \tilde{f} = \tilde{\tilde{g}} * \tilde{\tilde{f}} \stackrel{\boxed{3}}{=} (\widetilde{\tilde{g} * \tilde{f}}) = \widetilde{g \boxtimes f} \neq g \boxtimes f$, not commutative!
3. $\tilde{f} \boxtimes \tilde{g} = \tilde{\tilde{f}} * \tilde{\tilde{g}} \stackrel{\boxed{3}}{=} \widetilde{(\tilde{f} * \tilde{g})} = \widetilde{f \boxtimes g}$, Compatibility with reflection

$$\boxtimes \text{ und } * \text{ definiert man auf: } \ell^1(\mathbb{Z}^d) := \left\{ f = (f_i)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^d} : \underbrace{\sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^d} |f_i|}_{:= \|f\|_1} < \infty \right\}$$

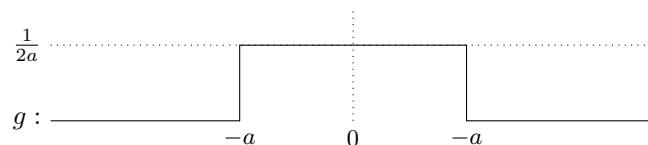
Man kann zeigen (Übung): $f, g \in \ell^1 \Rightarrow f * g \in \ell^1$ und $\|f * g\|_1 \leq \|f\|_1 \cdot \|g\|_1$. Wobei oft die Gleichheit gilt.

Alles gilt auch in der Kontinuierlichen Version:

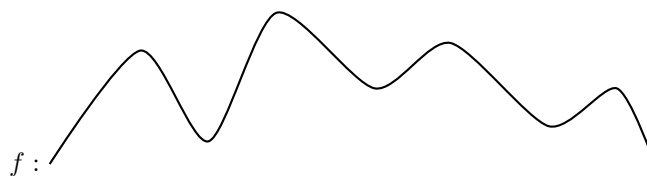
$$L^1(\mathbb{R}^d) := \left\{ f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : \underbrace{\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f| dx}_{:= \|f\|_1} < \infty \right\}$$

$$f, g \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d) : (g * f)(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} g(x - y) f(y) dy, \quad y, x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

Beispiel für den kontinuierlichen Fall:



Hierbei gilt $\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x) dx = 1$



$g \boxtimes f = \underline{\text{gleitendes Mittel}}$.



Layout!

Weitere Eigenschaften der Faltung:

Für alle $f, g \in L^1$ or ℓ^1

$$\left. \begin{aligned} (g_1 + g_2) * f &= (g_1 * f) + (g_2 * f) \\ (\alpha g) * f &= \alpha(g * f) \end{aligned} \right\} = \text{Linearität}$$

Somit ist:

$$g \mapsto f * g$$

ein linearer Operator.

Formt ℓ^1 bzw. L^1 eine Algebra mit neutralem Element δ ?

ℓ^1 ?:

$$\delta: \quad \cdots \quad \boxed{0} \quad \boxed{0} \quad \boxed{1} \quad \boxed{0} \quad \boxed{0} \quad \cdots$$

↑
Pos 0

Ja!

L^1 ?: Für ein solches Element muss gelten:

$$\forall f \in L^1 : d * f = f$$

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R} : \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \underbrace{\delta(x-y)}_{=0 \forall x \neq y} f(y) dy = f(x)$$

Diese Funktion wird Dirac-Impuls genannt ist aber kein Element von L^1 .

Nun zu Masken in 2D:

$$u = m \boxtimes f \text{ mit } m = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & \alpha & \\ \hline \beta & \gamma & \delta \\ \hline & \epsilon & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

wobei $\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta + \epsilon = 1$

Kurzschreibweise: $u_{ij} := u(x)$ wobei $x = \begin{pmatrix} i \\ j \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{Z}^2$, analog für f_{ij} .

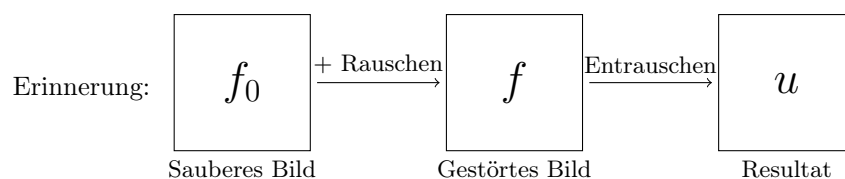
$$\Rightarrow u_{ij} = \alpha f_{i-1,j} + \beta f_{i,j-1} + \gamma f_{ij} + \delta f_{i,j+1} + \epsilon f_{i+1,j}$$

$$u = m \boxtimes f = \tilde{m} * f \text{ mit } \tilde{m} = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & \epsilon & \\ \hline \delta & \gamma & \beta \\ \hline & \alpha & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Symmetrischer Fall:

$$\tilde{m} = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & \alpha & \\ \hline \alpha & \gamma & \alpha \\ \hline & \alpha & \\ \hline \end{array} \text{ mit } \gamma = 1 - 4\alpha$$

$$u_{ij} = (1 - 4\alpha)f_{ij} + \alpha(f_{i-1,j} + f_{i,j-1} + f_{i,j+1} + f_{i+1,j}) \quad (5.6)$$



Annahme: $f_{ij} = f_{ij} + r_{ij}$ mit $r_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ iid.

z.z.: $\text{Var}(u_{ij}) \leq \text{Var}(f_{ij})$

$$\text{Var}(f_{ij}) = E(\underbrace{f_{ij} - \overbrace{E f_{ij}}^{f_{ij}^0}}_{r_{ij}})^2 = \sigma^2$$

Layout!

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(u_{ij}) &= E(u_{ij} - E u_{ij})^2 = E((1 - 4\alpha)(\underbrace{f_{ij} - f_{ij}^0}_{r_{ij}}) + \alpha(\underbrace{(f_{i-1,j} - f_{i-1,j}^0)}_{r_{i-1,j}}) + \dots + \underbrace{(f_{i+1,j} - f_{i+1,j}^0)}_{r_{i+1,j}}))^2 \\ &= E((1 - 4\alpha)^2 r_{ij}^2 + \alpha^2(r_{i-1,j}^2 + r_{i,j-1}^2 + r_{i,j+1}^2 + r_{i+1,j}^2) + 2(1 - 4\alpha)\alpha r_{ij} r_{i-1,j} \dots) \\ &= (1 - 4\alpha)^2 \underbrace{E r_{ij}^2}_{\sigma^2} + \alpha^2(E r_{i-1,j}^2 + \dots + E r_{i+1,j}^2) + 2(1 - 4\alpha)\alpha \underbrace{E(r_{ij} r_{i-1,j})}_{\underbrace{E r_{ij} E r_{i-1,j}}_0} + \underbrace{\dots}_0 \\ &= (1 - 4\alpha)^2 \sigma^2 + \alpha^2 4\sigma^2 = (1 - 8\alpha + 16\alpha^2 + 4\alpha^2) \sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

Da $0 \leq \alpha$ und $0 \leq 1 - 4\alpha \Rightarrow 0 \leq \alpha \leq \frac{1}{4}$:

$$(1 - 8\alpha + 16\alpha^2 + 4\alpha^2) \sigma^2 = 1 + \underbrace{\underbrace{20\alpha}_{\geq 0} \underbrace{(\alpha - \frac{2}{5})}_{< 0}}_{\leq 1}$$

$\Rightarrow \text{Var}(u_{ij}) \leq \text{Var}(f_{ij})$ für $\alpha \in [0, \frac{1}{4}]$

Dabei gilt: $\text{Var}(u_{ij}) \xrightarrow{\alpha} \min \iff 1 - 8\alpha + 20\alpha^2 \xrightarrow{\alpha} \min \iff -8 + 40\alpha = 0 \iff \alpha = \frac{1}{5}$

$$\Rightarrow \text{bester Filter : } \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & \frac{1}{5} & \\ \hline \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} \\ \hline & \frac{1}{5} & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Kapitel sollte noch fehlergelesen werden. Es könnte noch einiges aus dem Skript übernommen werden. Es braucht etwas Layout

5.3 Frequenzfilter

Ansatz: Rauschen \approx hochfrequente Anteile des Bildes/Signals

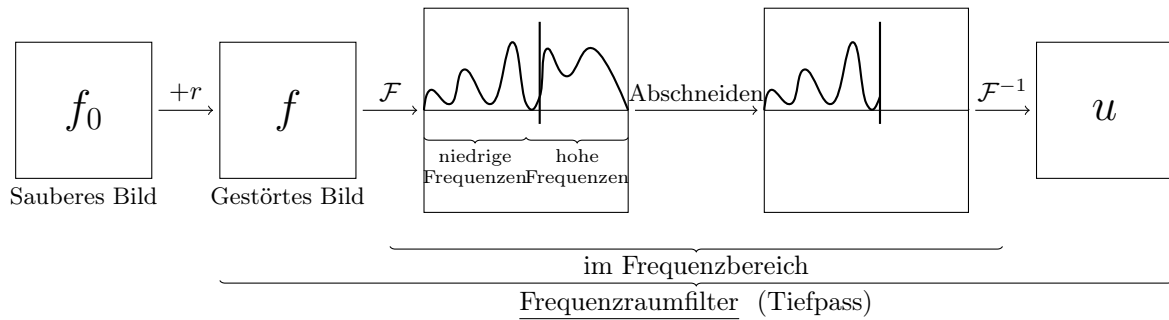
\Rightarrow gezieltes entfernen

Wichtiges Instrument: Fouriertransformation (FT)

$$\mathcal{F} : f \mapsto \hat{f} \text{ mit } \hat{f}(z) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} dx$$

hier fehlt der rest aus einer Vorlesung

siehe auch p. 41



Wobei $z \in \mathbb{R}^d, f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

Falls auch $\hat{f} \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ ist, dann lässt sich f wie folgt mittels der inversen Fouriertransformation aus \hat{f} rekonstruieren:

$$\mathcal{F}^{-1} : \hat{f} \mapsto f$$

$$\hat{f}(z) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) e^{i\langle z, x \rangle} dx \quad (5.7)$$

Wobei $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

Man hat also $\mathcal{F}^{-1} \mathcal{F} f$, d.h.

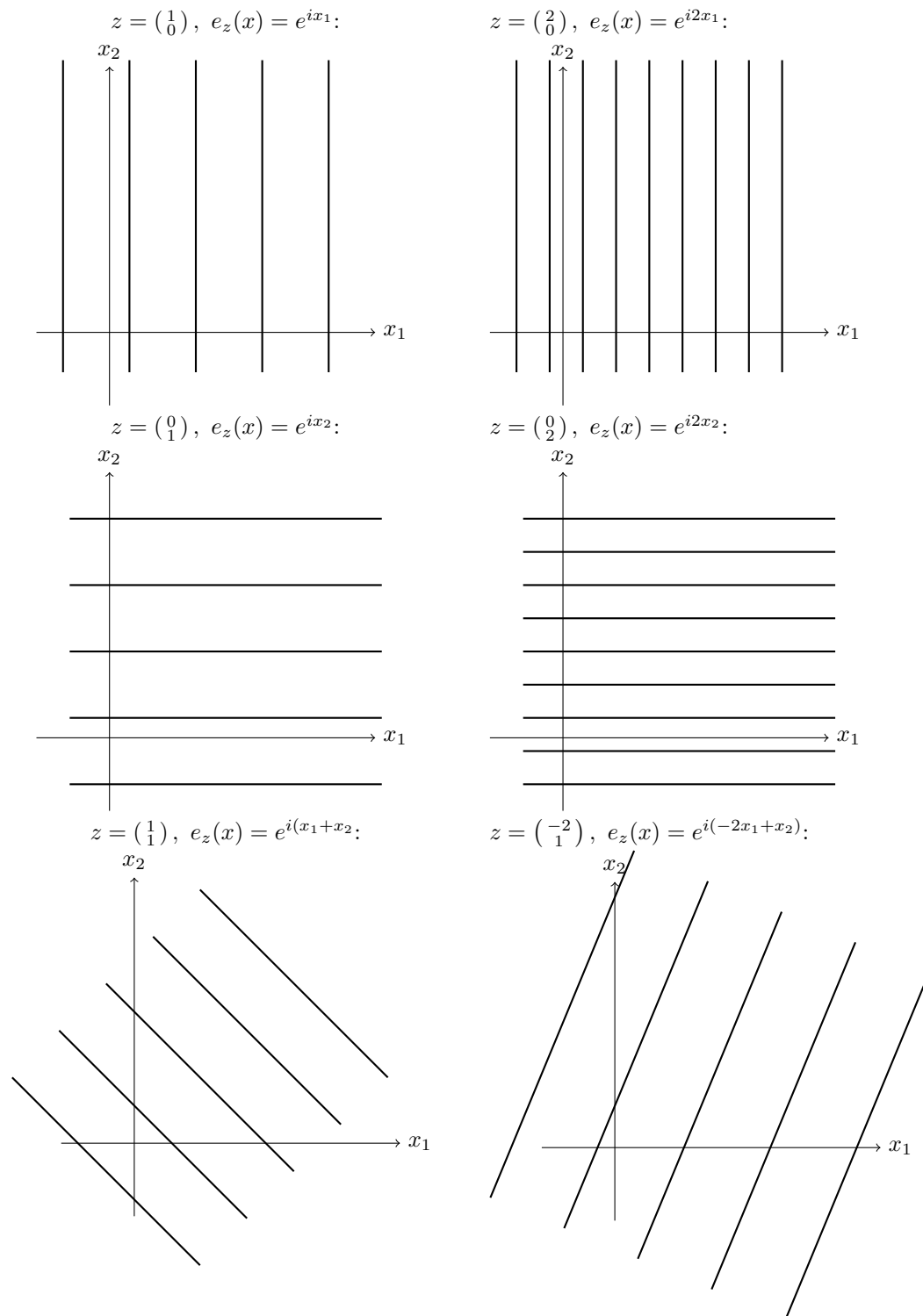
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left(\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(y) e^{-i\langle z, y \rangle} dy \right) e^{i\langle z, x \rangle} dz$$

Sei nun $e_z(x) := e^{i\langle z, x \rangle}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ mit Parameter $z = \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_d \end{pmatrix}$.

Also $e_z(x) = e^{i\langle \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \rangle} = e^{i(z_1 x_1 + z_2 x_2)}$

Beispiele in 2D:

(Hier stellen die Linien, Punkte mit konstantem wert dar)



$f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d) = \{f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f|^2 dx < \infty\}$ ist

- ein normierter Raum mit $+$, $\alpha \cdot$ und $\| \cdot \|_2 := \sqrt{\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f(x)|^2 dx}$
- ein Skalarproduktraum mit $\langle f, g \rangle := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f \bar{g} dx$, wobei $\|f\|_2^2 = \langle f, f \rangle$
- ein vollständiger Raum, also Banachraum

Ein vollständiger normierter Banachraum mit Skalarprodukt heißt Hilbertraum.
 \mathcal{F} kann auch als Abbildung auf $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ betrachtet werden. Dann gilt:

$$\hat{f} = \mathcal{F}f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$$

und

$$\|\hat{f}\|_2 = \|f\|_2 \quad (5.8)$$

und sogar

$$\langle \hat{f}, \hat{g} \rangle_2 = \langle f, g \rangle_2 \quad (5.9)$$

für alle $f, g \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

Weitere Eigenschaften der Fouriertransformation:

- $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d) \Rightarrow \hat{f}$ stetig und $\lim_{|z| \rightarrow \infty} \hat{f}(z) = 0$
- $\mathcal{F} : L^1(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow C(\mathbb{R}^d)$ ist eine lineare Abbildung
- $\mathcal{F} : L^1(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow C(\mathbb{R}^d)$ ist eine beschränkte/stetige Abbildung
- Verschiebung $\xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}}$ Modulation, d.h.

$$g(x) = f(x + a) \Rightarrow \hat{g}(z) = e^{i\langle a, z \rangle} \hat{f}(z)$$

- Modulation $\xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}}$ Verschiebung, d.h.

$$g(x) = e^{i\langle x, a \rangle} f(x) \Rightarrow \hat{g}(z) = \hat{f}(z - a)$$

- Skalierung $\xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}}$ inverse Skalierung, d.h.

$$g(x) = f(cx) \Rightarrow \hat{g}(z) = \frac{1}{|c|} \hat{f}\left(\frac{z}{|c|}\right)$$

- Konjugation: $g(x) = \overline{f(x)} \Rightarrow \hat{g}(z) = \overline{\hat{f}(-z)}$
 Folglich: f reelwertig $\Rightarrow \hat{f}(z) = \overline{\hat{f}(-z)}$

-

$$\text{Grundmode: } \hat{f}(0) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) dx$$

$$\text{Analog: } f(0) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{f}(x) dx$$

- Differentiation $\xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}}$ Multiplikation mit Potenzen von z , d.h.

$$g(x) = \frac{\partial^{\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_d}}{\partial x_1^{\alpha_1} \dots \partial x_d^{\alpha_d}} f(x) \Rightarrow \hat{g}(z) = i^{\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_d} z_1^{\alpha_1} \dots z_d^{\alpha_d} \hat{f}(z)$$

- Umkehrung des letzten Punktes:

$$g(x) = x_1^{\alpha_1} \dots x_d^{\alpha_d} f(x) \Rightarrow \hat{g}(z) = i^{\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_d} \frac{\partial^{\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_d}}{\partial x_1^{\alpha_1}} \hat{f}(z)$$

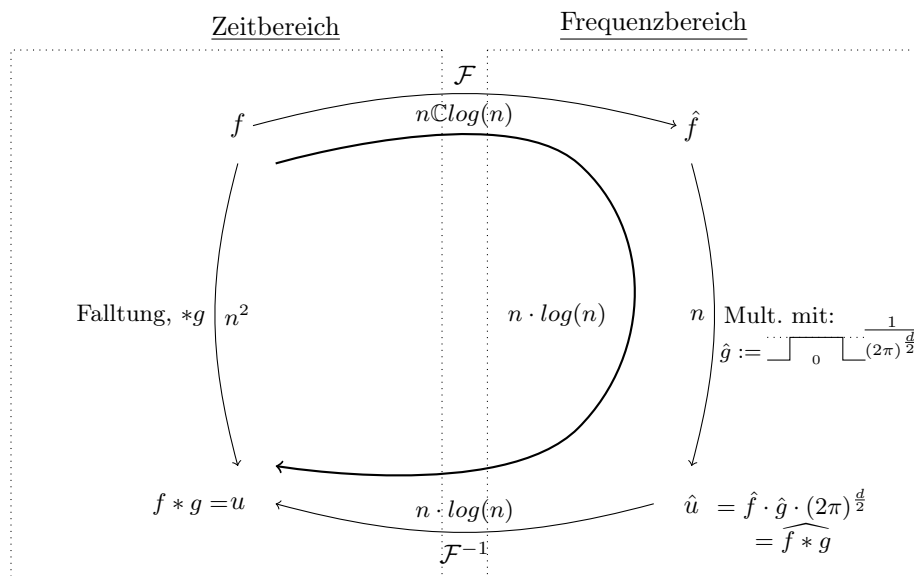
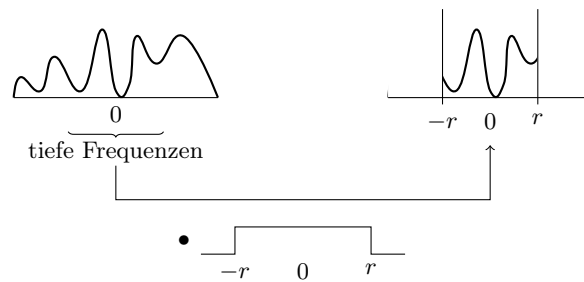
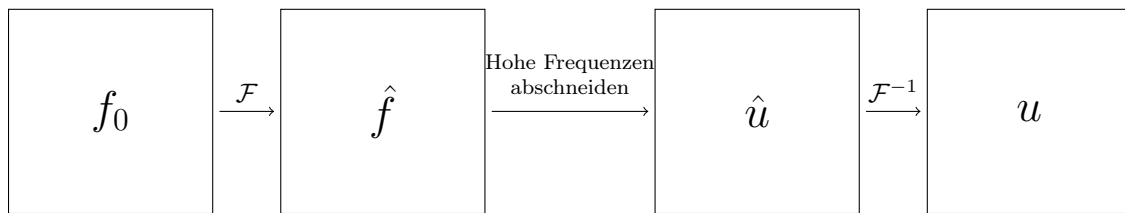
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$$\text{Faltungssatz: } \mathcal{F}(f * g) = (2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} \mathcal{F}(f) \cdot \mathcal{F}(g), \widehat{f * g} = (2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} \hat{f} \cdot \hat{g}$$

$$\text{Analog: } \mathcal{F}(f \cdot g) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \mathcal{F}(f) * \mathcal{F}(g), \widehat{f \cdot g} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \hat{f} * \hat{g}$$

d.h.: Faltung $\xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}}$ Multiplikation und umgekehrt

Zur Erinnerung:



Genauer:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{F}u &= \hat{v} = \\
 g(x) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} (\mathcal{F}^{-1} \chi_{[-r, r]^d})(x) \\
 &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \chi_{[-r, r]^d}(z) e^{i\langle z, x \rangle} dz \\
 &\stackrel{1d}{=} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \chi_{[-r, r]}(z) e^{izx} dz \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-r}^r e^{izx} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left. \frac{e^{izx}}{ix} \right|_{z=-r}^r \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi ix} (e^{irx} - e^{-irx}) = \frac{1}{\pi x} \sin(rx) \\
 \hat{g}(0) &= (\mathcal{F}g)(0) = \frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Es ist zu bemerken, dass g eine Art Tensor Struktur besitzt, was in etwa bedeutet das sich die Funktion in beliebigen Dimensionen als Produkt der Funktion in einer Dimensionen darstellen lässt.

Gauß-Kern :

$$G(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} e^{-\frac{|x|^2}{2}} \Rightarrow G\left(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \end{pmatrix}\right) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} e^{-\frac{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_d^2}{2}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{x_1^2}{2}}\right) \cdot \dots \cdot \left(\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{x_d^2}{2}}\right) = G(x_1) \cdot \dots \cdot G(x_d)$$

allerhand noch im Skript und ein Tafelfoto

5.4 Filterbreite und Glättung

klar ist: $\frac{1}{25}$

1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1

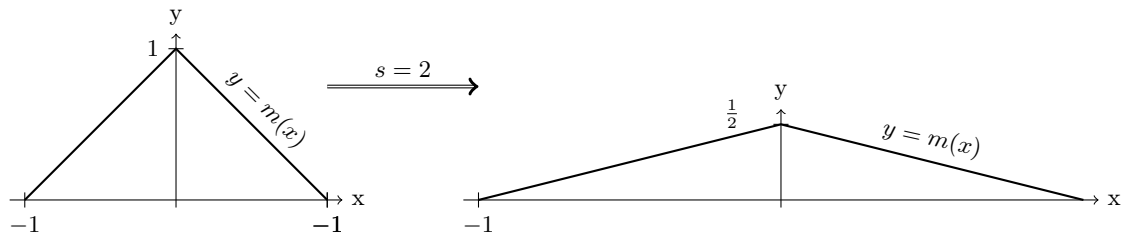
'glättet mehr als': $\frac{1}{9}$

1	1	1
1	1	1
1	1	1

Im Kontinuierlichen: Sei $m \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ und $s > 0$. Setze

$$m_s(x) := \frac{1}{s^d} m\left(\frac{x}{s}\right), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

Bsp (in $d = 1$):



Bsp: Gauß-Kern $G(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} e^{-\frac{|x|^2}{2}}$

Skalierung mit Fehler $s > 0$

$$\Rightarrow G_s(x) = \frac{1}{s^d} G\left(\frac{x}{s}\right) = \frac{1}{s^d} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} e^{-\frac{|x|^2}{2s^2}} = \frac{1}{(2\pi s^2)^{\frac{d}{2}}} e^{-\frac{|x|^2}{2s^2}}$$

Skalierung $s \hat{=}$ Standardabweichung σ

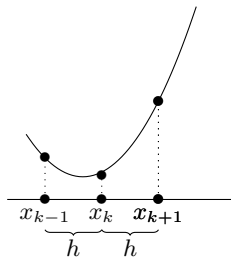
hier noch mehr im Skript p. 45

5.5 Differenzenfilter

Bisher: Glättung $\hat{=}$ Mittelwert bilden $\hat{=}$ Summe/Integrale

Jetzt: Schärfen $\hat{=}$ Differenzen/Kontraste hervorheben $\hat{=}$ Differenzen/Ableitungen

Diskretisierung von Ableitungen durch Differenzenquotienten



(hier bedeutet $f(k) = f(x_k)$)

Vorwärts: $u(h) = \frac{f(k+1) - f(k)}{h} \quad u = \frac{1}{h} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \boxtimes f$

Rückwärts: $u(h) = \frac{f(k) - f(k-1)}{h} \quad u = \frac{1}{h} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \boxtimes f$

Zentral: $u(h) = \frac{f(k+1) - f(k-1)}{2h} \quad u = \frac{1}{2h} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \boxtimes f$

2. Ableitung:

$$\begin{aligned}
 u(h) &\approx \frac{f'(k+1) - f'(k)}{h} \text{ (vorwärts)} \\
 &\approx \frac{\frac{f(k+1) - f(k)}{h} - \frac{f(k) - f(k-1)}{h}}{h} \text{ (rückwärts)} \\
 &= \frac{f(k+1) - 2f(k) + f(k-1)}{h^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Also folgt $u := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \boxtimes f$ und $\frac{1}{h^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{h} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} * \frac{1}{h} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$
Denn:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\frac{1}{h} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \frac{1}{h} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} * \left(\frac{1}{h} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} * f \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{1}{h} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} * \frac{1}{h} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) * f \\
 &= \left(\frac{1}{h} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \boxtimes \frac{1}{h} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) * f \\
 &= \frac{1}{h^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} * f \\
 &= \frac{1}{h^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \boxtimes f
 \end{aligned}$$

In 2D: $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{=} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \hat{=} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \hat{=} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \hat{=} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Diskreter Laplace Operator :

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \hat{=} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

5.6 Glättungsfiler und partielle Differentialgleichungen

Wir haben gesehen: $m = \frac{1}{5} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ist unter allen 5-Punkt Filtern der am besten glättende.

Idee: Rauschen weiter verringern indem man $m \boxtimes$ wiederholt anwendet \Rightarrow Folge von Bildern:

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{c} f \\ := u^{(0)} \end{array}} \xrightarrow{m \boxtimes} \boxed{u^{(1)}} \xrightarrow{m \boxtimes} \boxed{u^{(2)}} \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow u^{(n+1)} - u^{(n)} = (\text{Unterschied zwischen 'Zeit' Punkt } n \text{ und } n+1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \underbrace{m \boxtimes u^{(n)}}_{u^{n+1}} - \underbrace{\delta \boxtimes u^{(n)}}_{u^{(n)}} \text{ mit } \delta = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ &= (m - \delta) \boxtimes u^{(n)} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{5} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} - \frac{1}{5} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 5 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} \right) \boxtimes u^{(n)} \\ &= \frac{1}{5} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & -4 & 1 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} u^{(n)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{noch einmal schauen was 5.10 ist} \quad (5.10)$$

Somit gilt insgesamt:

$$\underbrace{u^{(n+1)} - u^{(n)}}_{\cong \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}} = \frac{1}{5} \underbrace{\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & -4 & 1 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}}_{\cong \Delta u} \quad (5.11)$$

Kontinuierlich: Funktion u

$$u(x, t) \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^2, \quad t \text{ Zeit}$$

(5.11) ist eine Diskretisierung (1 Zeitschritt im Eulerverfahren) der partiellen Differentialgleichungen

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \Delta u \quad (5.12)$$

Bekannt als Wärmegleichung oder Diffusionsgleichung.

Zum Zeitpunkt $t = 0$ möge die Anfangsbedingung

$$u(x, 0) = u^{(0)} = f(x) \quad (5.13)$$

gelten. Vorranschreiten der Zeit t repräsentiert Diffusion.

Für einen stationären Zustand, also keine Änderung $\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}$ dann muss auch $\Delta u = 0$ gelten.

Diese wird unter anderem von konstanten Funktionen oder linearen Funktionen $u(x_1, x_2) = ax_1 + bx_2$ erfüllt.

Es existiert auch eine explizite Formel für die Lösung der Diffusionsgleichung (5.12) mit Anfangsbedingung (5.13):

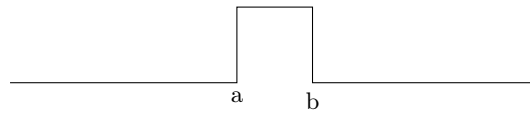
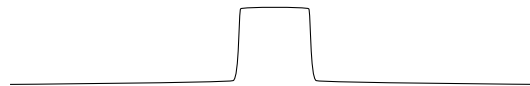
$$u(x, t) = \left(G_{\sqrt{2t}} * u^{(0)} \right) (x)$$

Wobei $\sqrt{2t}$ für eine Skalierung um diesen Wert steht.

Zu zeigen ist: $\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \Delta u$

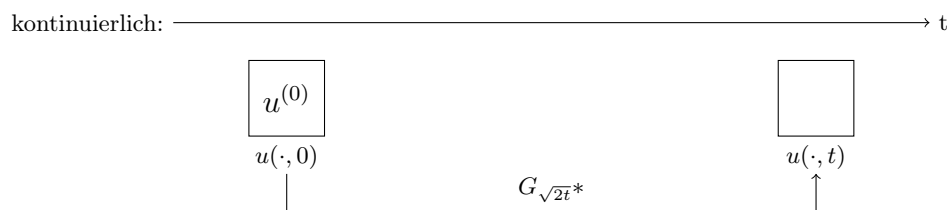
$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(G_{\sqrt{2t}} * u^{(0)} \right) = \Delta \left(G_{\sqrt{2t}} * u^{(0)} \right) \\ &\stackrel{\text{mit Satz}}{\implies} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} G_{\sqrt{2t}} \right) * u^{(0)} = (\Delta G_{\sqrt{2t}}) * u^{(0)} \end{aligned}$$

Es bleibt somit z.z.: $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} G_{\sqrt{2t}} = \Delta G_{\sqrt{2t}}$.

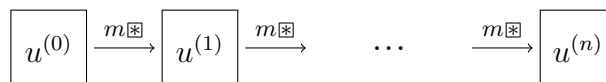
$t = 0$: $t > 0$:

Bemerkenswert ist das, für $t = 0$ die Funktion nicht stetig ist, aber für alle $t > 0$ die Funktion beliebig oft differenzierbar ist.

Insgesamt lässt sich die Idee darstellen als:



diskret:



Ab hier Livetex 24.11

Wiederholung Diffusionsgleichung letzte Woche:

Vergleich kontinuierlicher mit dem diskreten Fall.

5.7 Isotrope und anisotrope Diffusion

Haben gesehen: Glättung/Diffusion verringert rauschen

Aber: Auch Kanten/Details werden verwischt.

Ausweg: Diffusion steuern, so dass sie an Kanten weniger stark glättet.

an Kanten Stellen mit großer Änderungsrate in x - oder y -Richtung, oder beides, d.h.:

$$|\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}|^2 + |\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}|^2 = \left\| \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} \right\|^2 [\nabla u]$$

$$\text{Plan: } \nabla u \begin{cases} \text{groß} & \Rightarrow \text{Diffusion} \searrow \\ \text{klein} & \Rightarrow \text{Diffusion normal} \end{cases} \quad (5.14)$$

Diffusionsgleichung:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \Delta u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} u + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} u = \dots = \text{div}(M)(\nabla u)$$

Ansatz für M :

a) $M = I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow$ übliche Diffusion

b) $M = g(|\nabla u(x, y)|) \cdot I$

$$g(s) = \frac{1}{(\frac{s}{\kappa})^2 + 1} \text{ mit Parameter } \kappa > 0$$

\Rightarrow Perona & Malik (1990)

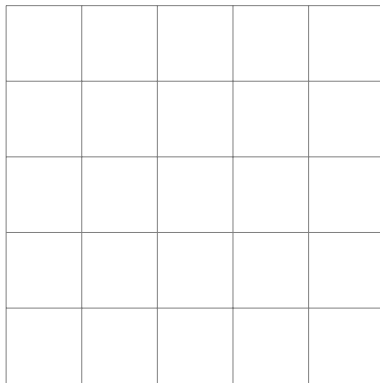
c) $M = \begin{pmatrix} g(|\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}|) & 0 \\ 0 & g(|\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}|) \end{pmatrix}$

- Kante mit $||\nabla u|| < \kappa$ werden gelättet ($g > \frac{1}{2}$)
- Kante mit $||\nabla u|| \geq \kappa$ werden nicht geglättet ($g \leq \frac{1}{2}$)

Bild zu isotrop und anisotrop. (Kann man sich sparen?)

Im diskreten Fall: $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ $\mathbf{x}_W = \mathbf{x} + \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, usw.

Sei $M = \begin{pmatrix} c_1(\mathbf{x}) & 0 \\ 0 & c_1(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{div}(M \cdot \nabla u(\mathbf{x})) &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \left[\begin{pmatrix} c_1(\mathbf{x}) & 0 \\ 0 & c_2(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix} \right] \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \begin{pmatrix} c_1(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(\mathbf{x}) \\ c_2(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix} \\ &\approx \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \begin{pmatrix} c_1(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(\mathbf{x}) \\ c_2(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$