

DIGITAL IMAGE PROCESSING-1

Unit 2: Lecture 15-16

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Unit 2: Image Transforms

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Last Session

- Basic relationship between pixels cont..
- Regions and boundaries
- Linear/non linear operations on images
- Introduction to Image transforms

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Today's Session

- Image transforms preliminaries
 - Orthogonal transforms
 - Unitary transforms
 - Separable transforms

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Linear Transforms

- Linear transforms follow the superposition theorem (homogeneity and additive property)
- These transforms, decompose functions into weighted sums of **orthogonal basis functions** (?)
 - can be studied using the tools of linear algebra and functional analysis.
- **These transforms are the coefficients of linear expansions**

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Signal Transform

- An arbitrary continuous signal $x(t)$ can be represented by a series summation of set of orthogonal basis functions (?)
- The series expansion is given as:

$$x(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n a_n(t) \text{ --- infinite series expansion.}$$

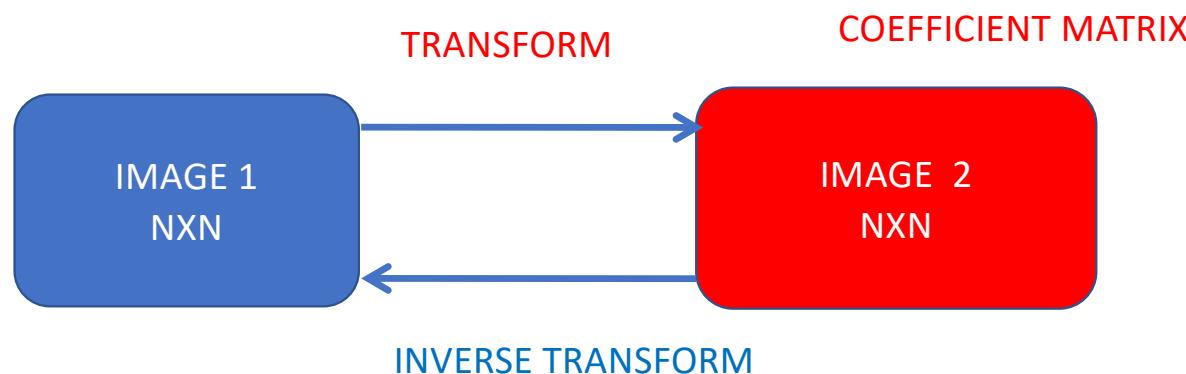
$$\hat{x}(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} c_n a_n(t) \text{ ----- finite series expansion}$$

- Finite expansion gives an approximate representation of $x(t)$.

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Image Transforms

- All the image processing approaches discussed thus far operate directly on the pixels of an input image
 - they work directly in the spatial domain.
- In some cases, image processing tasks are best formulated by transforming the input images, carrying the specified task in a transform domain, and applying the inverse transform to return to the spatial domain. Y



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Image Transforms

- An important class of 2-D linear transforms, denoted $T(u, v)$, can be expressed in the general form

$$T(u, v) = \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x, y)r(x, y, u, v)$$

where $f(x, y)$ is an input image, $r(x, y, u, v)$ is called a forward transformation kernel and evaluated for $u = 0, 1, 2, \dots, M-1$ and $v = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1$.

x and y are spatial variables, while M and N are the row and column dimensions of f .

Variables u and v are called the transform variables.

$T(u, v)$ is called the forward transform of $f(x, y)$

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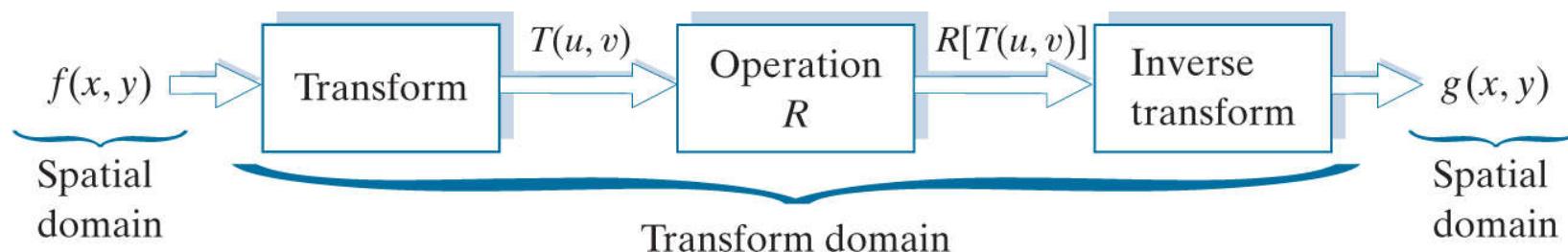
Image Transforms

- Given $T(u, v)$, we can recover $f(x, y)$ using the inverse transform of $T(u, v)$:

$$f(x, y) = \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} T(u, v)s(x, y, u, v)$$

for $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, M-1$ and $y = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1$, where $s(x, y, u, v)$ is called an inverse transformation kernel.

- $f(x, y)$ and $T(u, v)$ are called a transform pair**



General approach for working in the linear transform domain

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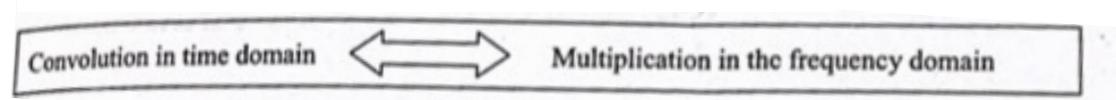
Image Transforms

- Tools that help us to move from one domain to other
 - Ex.: Time(space) to frequency
- Change of co-ordinates
- No change in information content, only representation changes
- All of an image's transforms are equivalent in the sense that they contain the same information and total energy
- **They are reversible and differ only in the way that the information and energy is distributed among the transform's coefficients**

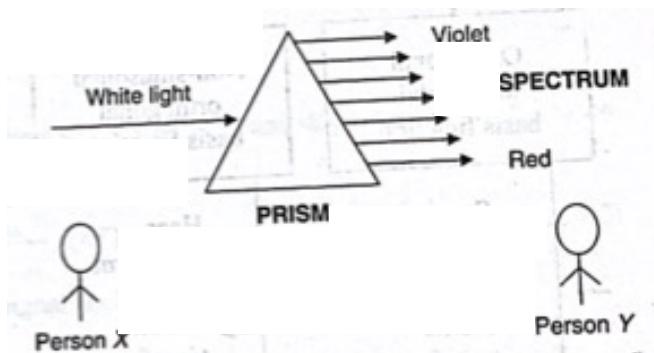
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Need for Transforms

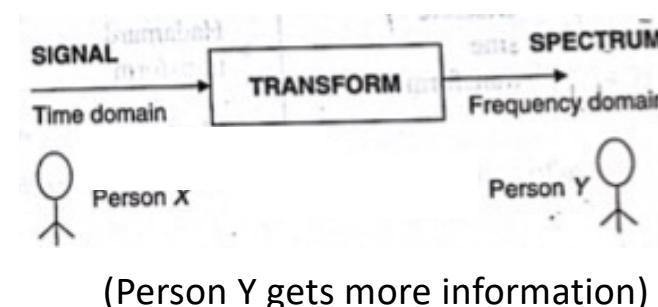
- **Fast computations/mathematical convenience**- Ex: convolutions



- **Better processing** - for smooth, moderate, fast changes in signals
- **Extracting more information**- Allow to extract more relevant information



Spectrum of white light



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Image Transforms

- **Two major reasons for transforming an image:**
 - The transformation may isolate critical components of the image pattern so that they are directly accessible for analysis
 - It may place image data in a more compact form so that they can be stored and transmitted efficiently

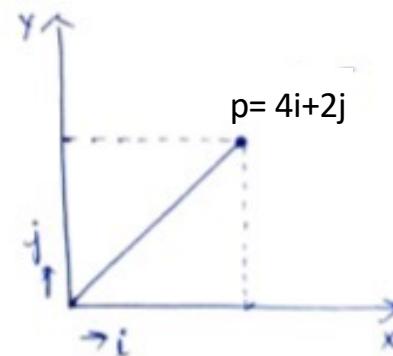
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Image Transforms: Applications

- Preprocessing - filtering noise (HF), enhancement
- Restoration
- Data compression
- Feature extraction-edges, corners

Image Transforms Preliminaries

- **Basis functions** are used to describe any point in space
 - For ex. Euclidean basis (x,y) forms a basis using which one can describe a point by its coordinates on each axis
 - The vector from origin to point p is the weighted sum of all the unit vectors of the axis



- To analyse any signal it is easier to break the signal into smaller manageable parts called “basis functions”.
- **Any signal can be represented as a linear combination of simpler functions called basis functions**

Orthogonal and Orthonormal Vectors

- Two vectors are orthogonal if they are perpendicular to each other. i.e. the dot product of the two vectors is zero.
- A set of vectors. $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ are mutually orthogonal if every pair of vectors is orthogonal. i.e.

$$\vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_j = 0, \text{ for all } i \neq j.$$

- A set of vectors S is orthonormal if every vector in S has magnitude 1 and the set of vectors are mutually orthogonal.

Orthogonal and Orthonormal Vectors

Let \mathcal{V} be an inner-product space. A set of vectors

$$\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n, \dots\} \in \mathcal{V}$$

is called **orthonormal** if and only if

$$\forall i, j : \langle u_i, u_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$$

where δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta and $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is the inner product defined over \mathcal{V} .

Orthogonal Vectors

- In linear algebra, two **vectors** in an inner product space are **orthonormal** if they are **orthogonal** (perpendicular) and are **unit vectors**.
 - An **orthonormal** set which forms a basis is called an **orthonormal basis**.
- So vectors being **orthogonal** puts a restriction on the angle **between** the vectors whereas vectors being **orthonormal** puts restriction on both the angle **between** them as well as **the length of those vectors**.

Unitary and Hermitian Matrix

- **Unitary Matrix:** A Matrix 'A' is a unitary matrix if $A^{-1} = A^{*T}$
where A^* is conjugate of A
- Condition for orthogonality of matrices: $AA^{-1} = I$
- Condition for orthogonality of unitary matrices: $AA^{-1} = AA^{*T} = I$
- Condition for orthogonality of unitary real matrices: $AA^{-1} = AA^T = I$
- Or $A^{-1} = A^T$
- **Hermitian Matrix:** $A^H = A^{*T}$
 - **For a real matrix** $A^H = A^T$
- So for a Unitary Matrix: $A^{-1} = A^H$

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Examples

1. What is the complex conjugate and Hermitian of T?

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 2+j & 3 \\ -2 & 7-j \end{pmatrix}$$

Sol: Complex conjugate is

$$T^* = \begin{pmatrix} 2-j & 3 \\ -2 & 7+j \end{pmatrix}$$

Hermitian of T = T^{*H}

$$T^H = \begin{pmatrix} 2-j & -2 \\ 3 & 7+j \end{pmatrix}$$

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Examples

2. Show that unitary matrix A is orthogonal

$$A = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 & -2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Sol: Condition for orthogonality is

$$A^{-1} = A^T$$

$$A \times A^T = I,$$

$$A^{-1} = A^T = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A \times A^T = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 & -2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \times \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since $A \times A^{-1} = A \times A^T = I$, Hence given matrix is orthogonal

Unitary Matrix and Transform

- **Unitary transform:** A discrete linear transform is unitary if its transform matrix conforms to the unitary condition $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{*T} = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{A}^H = \mathbf{I}$ where \mathbf{A} = transformation matrix and \mathbf{A}^H = Hermitian matrix and $\mathbf{A}^H = \mathbf{A}^{*T}$
- **When the transform matrix \mathbf{A} is unitary, the defined transform is called unitary transform**
 - Determinant and eigen value of a unitary matrix have unity magnitude
 - **Image Transforms represent the given image as a series summation of a set of Unitary Matrices (basis matrices)**

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1D Unitary Transform

- Let $u(n)$ be a one dimensional sequence where $0 \leq n \leq N - 1$ consisting of N elements.
- Unitary transform is defined as follows :

$$v(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} a(k, n) \cdot u(n) \quad 0 \leq k \leq N - 1$$

Where

$v(k)$ = Transformed sequence

$a(k, n)$ = Forward Transform kernel

- The original signal can be recovered back by inverse transform

$$u(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} v(k) \cdot a^*(k, n) \quad 0 \leq n \leq N - 1$$

Where $a^*(k, n)$ =conjugate of $a(k, n)$, called inverse transformation kernel

1D Unitary Transform

$$v(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} a(k, n) \cdot u(n) \quad 0 \leq k \leq N - 1$$

$$u(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} v(k) \cdot a^*(k, n) \quad 0 \leq n \leq N - 1$$

- In matrix notation forward unitary transform is given by $V = A U$
- Inverse unitary transform is given by $U = A^{*T} V$

Separable Transform

- A function of 2 independent variables is said to be **separable**, if it can be expressed as a product of 2 functions, each of them depending on only one variable

$$a(m,n) = a(m).a(n)$$

- Hence for a 2D separable transform $g(x,y,u,v) = g_1(x,u) \cdot g_2(y,v)$
- If g_1 and g_2 are functionally same then RHS = $g_1(x,u) \cdot g_1(y,v)$
and then the function is called Symmetric
- Examples of class of transforms that are separable and symmetric $\rightarrow DFT, DCT \dots \dots$

2D Separable and Unitary Transform

- The **forward kernel** is said to be separable if

$$a_{k,l}(m, n) = a_k(m) \cdot a_l(n) = a(k, m) \cdot b(l, n)$$

Where

$a(k, m) = A$ and $b(l, n) = B$ are Unitary matrices

$$AA^* = I \text{ and } BB^* = I$$

2D Separable and Unitary Transform

- Let $u(m, n)$ be an image of size $N \times N$, then forward transformation is given by

$$v(k, l) = \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} u(m, n) a_{k,l}(m, n) \quad 0 \leq k, l \leq N - 1$$

- Inverse transformation is given by

$$u(m, n) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} v(k, l) a^*_{k,l}(m, n) \quad 0 \leq m, n \leq N - 1$$

Where

$a_{k,l}(m, n)$ is forward transformation kernel

$a^*_{k,l}(m, n)$ is reverse transformation kernel

2D Separable Unitary Transform

- **Separable unitary transforms:** reduces Computational Complexity
- If the forward kernel is separable and symmetric then the forward transform is given by

$$v(k, l) = \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} u(m, n) a_{k,l}(m, n) \quad 0 \leq k, l \leq N - 1$$

- In matrix

Forward transform is given by $V = A U A^T$

Inverse transform is given by

$$U = A^{*T} V A^*$$

Where

U is input matrix

V is transformed output matrix A is transformation kernel

$$AA^{*T} = I. \text{ and } BB^{*T} = I$$

- **If this is satisfied, then we say that the transform is a separable transform**

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Summary: 1D and 2D Unitary transform

- 1D unitary transform, $V=AU$
- 1D Inverse unitary transform, $U=A^{*T} V$
- 2D unitary transform, $V=AUA^T$
- 2D Inverse unitary transform, $U=A^{*T} V A^*$

Basis Images

- Any image can be represented as a linear combination of **basis images.** V=AU
- **Basis images :** Images can be expanded in terms of discrete set of basis arrays called “Basis images”
- The basis images can be generated by unitary matrices.
- Basis image is represented as

$$B^*_{k,l} = b^*_k \cdot b^{*T}_l$$

Where

b^*_k is k^{th} column of A^{*T}

b^*_l is l^{th} column of A^{*T}

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Basis Images

- Using the transformed image v and these basis images, original image can be generated as follows:

$$u = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} v(k, l) B_{k,l}^*$$

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Unitary Image Transforms Examples

3. Prove that the unitary transform works for the given image by using the image transform kernel

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Sol: F is real. So forward transform is given as $g = T \times F \times T^T$

$$g = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Original image can be recovered as $f = T^T \times g \times T$

$$f = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

As original image is recovered this transformation works

- It can be observed that there is no information loss
- **This is the reason for popularity of unitary transforms**

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Next Session

- Image basis cont..
- Desirable properties of image transforms
- 1 D and 2D DFT



THANK YOU

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