Chapter 5

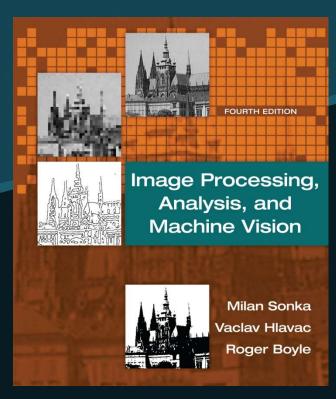


Image pre-processing



Image pre-processing

- Pixel brightness transformations
- Geometric transformations
- Local pre-processing
 - Image smoothing, edge detection, line detection, corner detection, and region detection.
- Image restoration

Objectives of image pre-processing

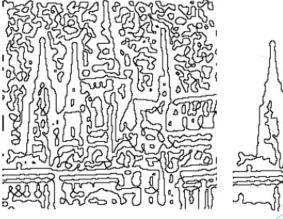
(a) Enhancing information that is useful for later

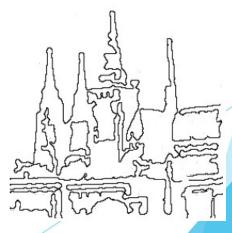
analysis





(b) Suppress image information that is not relevant to later work





Pixel brightness transformations

- Position-dependent brightness correction
 - The sensitivity of image acquisition and digitization devises may depend on position in the image.
 - Uneven object illumination (不均勻的光源) is also a source of degradation (退化).
 - If degradation is systematic (有條理的), it can be suppressed (抑制) by brightness correction.
 - A multiplicative error coefficient e(i, j) describes the change from the ideal.
 - Assume g(i,j) is the original undegraded image and f(i,j) is degraded version.

$$f(i,j) = e(i,j)g(i,j)$$

Examples



http://portfolio.veronika-by.com.ua/raw-to-jpeg-with-brigthness-correction/





Pixel brightness transformations

- Brightness correction
 - The error coefficient e(i,j) can be obtained if a reference image g(i,j) with known brightnesses is captures.
 - The simplest method to detect the error coefficient is to use an image g' with constant brightness c.
 - The degraded result is the image $f_c(i,j)$.

$$f_c(i,j) = e(i,j)g'(i,j) \longrightarrow e(i,j) = \frac{f_c(i,j)}{g'(i,j)} = \frac{f_c(i,j)}{c}$$

The systematic brightness errors can be suppressed by

$$g(i,j) = \frac{f(i,j)}{e(i,j)} = \frac{cf(i,j)}{f_c(i,j)}$$

• The method can be used only if the image degradation process is stable.

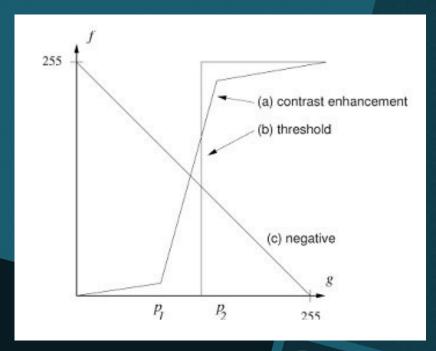
Pixel brightness transformations

- Gray-scale transformation
 - Gray-scale transformations do not depend on the position of the pixel in the image.
 - ullet A transformation $\mathcal T$ of original brightness p from scale $[p_0,p_k]$ into

brightness q from a new scale $[q_0, q_k]$ is given by

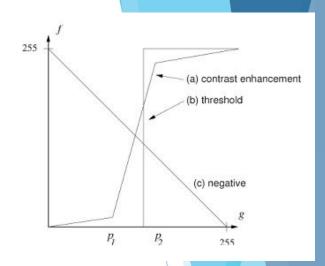
$$q = \mathcal{T}(p)$$

 The figure shows the most common gray-scale transformations.

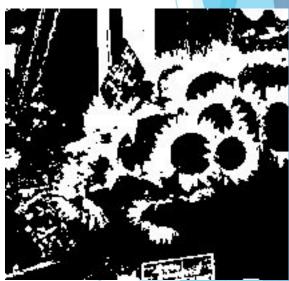






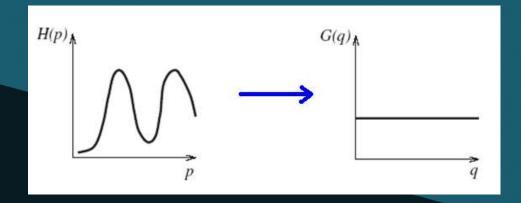




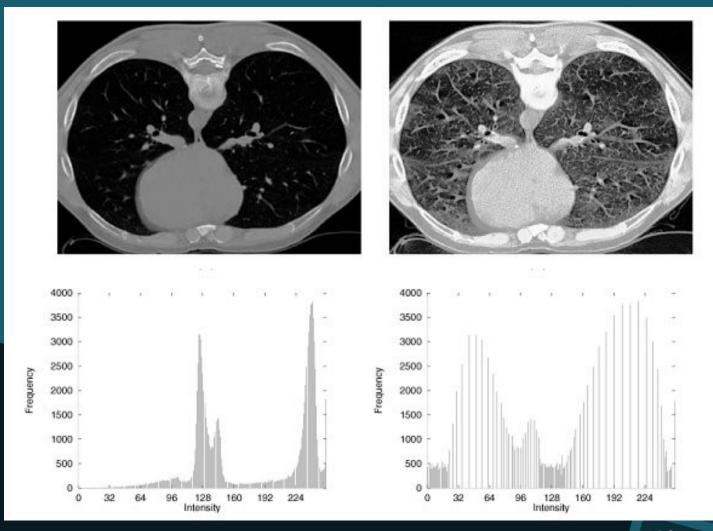


Gray-scale transformation

- Histogram equalization
 - The aim is to create an image with equally distributed brightness levels over the whole brightness scale.
 - Histogram equalization enhances contrast for brightness values close to histogram maxima, and decreases contrast near minima.



Histogram equalization



Histogram equalization

• Let H(p) be the input histogram, its gray-scale is $[p_0, p_k]$, G(q) be the desired output histogram, its gray-scale is $[q_0, q_k]$.

$$q = \mathcal{T}(p)$$

• The monotonic property of the transform T implies

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k} G(q_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} H(p_i)$$

• The equalized histogram G(q) corresponds to the uniform probability density function f whose function value is constant

$$f = \frac{N^2}{q_k - q_0}$$

for an $N \times N$ image.

Histogram equalization

• For the 'idealized' continuous probability density, from

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k} G(q_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} H(p_i)$$
 and $f = \frac{N^2}{q_k - q_0}$

we can drive

$$N^{2} \int_{q_{0}}^{q} \frac{1}{q_{k} - q_{0}} ds = \frac{N^{2}(q - q_{0})}{q_{k} - q_{0}} = \int_{p_{0}}^{p} H(s) ds$$

from which T can be derived as

$$q = \mathcal{T}(p) = \frac{q_k - q_0}{N^2} \int_{p_0}^{p} H(s) ds + q_0$$

The integral in this equation is called the cumulative histogram.

Algorithm 5.1 Histogram equalization

- 1. For an $N \times M$ image of G gray-levels, initialize an array H of length G to 0.
- 2. From the image histogram: Scan every pixel p if it has intensity g_p , perform

$$H[g_p] = H[g_p] + 1$$

Then let g_{min} be the minimum g for which H[g] > 0.

3. Form the cumulative image histogram H_c :

$$H_c[0] = H[0]$$

 $H_c[g] = H_c[g-1] + H[g], g = 1,2,...,G-1$

Let $H_{min} = H_c[g_{min}]$.

4. Set

$$T[g] = \text{round}\left(\frac{H_c[g] - H_{min}}{MN - H_{min}}(G - 1)\right)$$

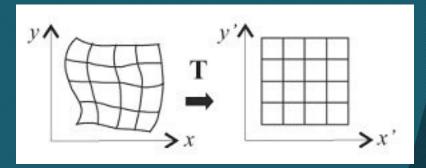
5. Rescan the image and write an output image with gray-levels g_q , setting

$$g_q = T[g_p]$$

Geometric transformations

- Geometric transformations permit elimination of the geometric distortion that occurs when an image is captured.
- A geometric transform is a vector function T that maps the pixel (x, y) to a new position (x', y').

$$T = (T_x, T_y)$$
$$x' = T_x(x, y)$$
$$y' = T_y(x, y)$$

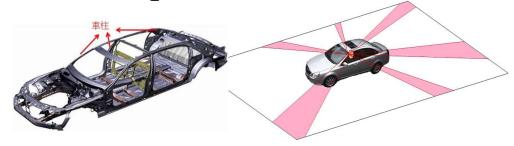


- Two basic steps of a geometric transform
 - First: pixel co-ordinate transformation
 - Second: brightness interpolation

Application: Bird's-View Image Generation

Blind areas around a vehicle

Window pillars



Height of vehicle

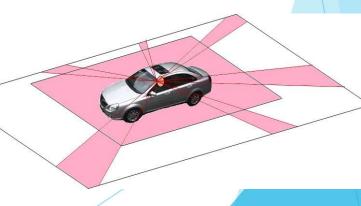


Driver's position



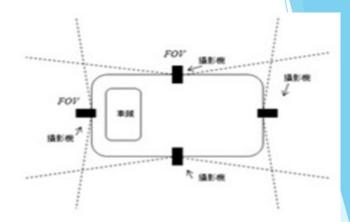


Summary of blind areas



System Configuration

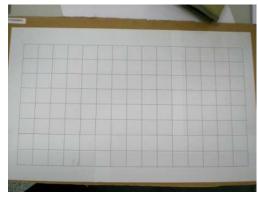




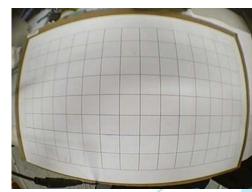
Fish-eye camera:







Scene



Image



• Equations $x' = T_x(x, y)$, $y' = T_y(x, y)$ can be approximated by a polynomial equations.

$$x' = T_x(x, y) = \sum_{r=0}^{m} \sum_{k=0}^{m-r} a_{rk} x^r y^k$$
$$y' = T_y(x, y) = \sum_{r=0}^{m} \sum_{k=0}^{m-r} b_{rk} x^r y^k$$

• If pairs of corresponding points (x, y), (x', y') in both images are known, it is possible to determine a_{rk} , b_{rk} by solving a set of linear equations.

Bilinear transform

$$x' = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 y + a_3 x y$$
$$y' = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 y + b_3 x y$$

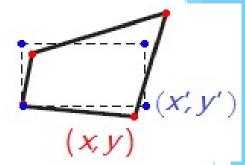
- The geometric transform can be approximated by a linear transform.
- Affine transform

$$x' = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 y$$
$$y' = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 y$$

• The affine transformation includes typical geometric transformations such as rotation, translation, scaling, and skewing.

Example: Bilinear transform

$$x' = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 y + a_3 xy$$
$$y' = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 y + b_3 xy$$



Needs at least 4 pairs of corresponding points to determine the parameters $a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3$

$$((x_1, y_1), (x'_1, y'_1)), ((x_2, y_2), (x'_2, y'_2))$$

 $((x_3, y_3), (x'_3, y'_3)), ((x_4, y_4), (x'_4, y'_4))$

$$x'_{1} = a_{0} + a_{1}x_{1} + a_{2}y_{1} + a_{3}x_{1}y_{1}, y'_{1} = b_{0} + b_{1}x_{1} + b_{2}y_{1} + b_{3}x_{1}y_{1}$$

$$x'_{2} = a_{0} + a_{1}x_{2} + a_{2}y_{2} + a_{3}x_{2}y_{2}, y'_{2} = b_{0} + b_{2}x_{2} + b_{2}y_{2} + b_{3}x_{2}y_{2}$$

$$x'_{3} = a_{0} + a_{1}x_{3} + a_{2}y_{3} + a_{3}x_{3}y_{3}, y'_{3} = b_{0} + b_{1}x_{3} + b_{2}y_{3} + b_{3}x_{3}y_{3}$$

$$x'_{4} = a_{0} + a_{1}x_{4} + a_{2}y_{4} + a_{3}x_{4}y_{4}, y'_{4} = b_{0} + b_{1}x_{4} + b_{2}y_{4} + b_{3}x_{4}y_{4}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & y_1 & x_1y_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & x_1 & y_1 & x_1y_1 \\ 1 & x_2 & y_2 & x_2y_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & x_2 & y_2 & x_2y_2 \\ 1 & x_3 & y_3 & x_3y_3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & x_3 & y_3 & x_3y_3 \\ 1 & x_4 & y_4 & x_4y_4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & x_4 & y_4 & x_4y_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \\ b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1' \\ y_1' \\ x_2' \\ y_2' \\ x_3' \\ y_3' \\ x_4' \\ y_4' \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Ax = b$$

Solve *x* by the least square error method.

• A geometric transform applied to the whole image may change the co-ordinate system, and a Jacobia determinant J provides information about how the co-ordinate system changes.

$$J = \left| \frac{\partial (x', y')}{\partial (x, y)} \right| = \left| \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x'}{\partial y} \right| = \left| \frac{\partial y'}{\partial x} \frac{\partial y'}{\partial y} \right|$$

- If the transformation is singular (has no inverse), then J=0.
- If the area of the image is invariant under the transformation, then J = 1.

• The Jacobia determinant for the bilinear transform

$$x' = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 y + a_3 x y$$

$$y' = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 y + b_3 x y$$

$$J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial x'}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial y'}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial y'}{\partial y} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 + a_3 y & a_2 + a_3 x \\ b_1 + b_3 y & b_2 + b_3 x \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (a_1 + a_3 y)(b_2 + b_3 x) - (b_1 + b_3 y)(a_2 + a_3 x)$$

$$= a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1 + (a_1 b_3 - a_3 b_1)x + (a_3 b_2 - a_2 b_3)y$$

The Jacobia determinant for the affine transform

$$J = a_1b_2 - a_2b_1$$

- Some important geometric transformations are:
 - Rotation by the angle ϕ about the origin:

$$x' = x\cos\phi + y\sin\phi$$
$$y' = -x\sin\phi + y\cos\phi$$
$$J = 1$$

• Change of scale a in the x axis and b in the y axis:

$$x' = ax$$
$$y' = by$$
$$J = ab$$

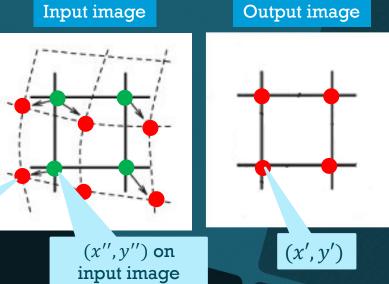
• Skewing by the angle ϕ , given by:

$$x' = x + y \tan \phi$$
$$y' = y$$
$$J = 1$$

- After applying a pixel co-ordinate transformation
 - Assume we wish to compute the brightness values of the pixel (x', y') in the output image (integer numbers, illustrated by solid lines in figures).
 - The co-ordinates of the point (x, y) in the original image can be obtained by inverting the planar transformation.

$$(x,y) = \mathbf{T}^{-1}(x',y')$$

• In general, the real co-ordinates after inverse transformation (dashed lines) do not fit the discrete raster (光柵) (solid lines), and so the brightness is not known.



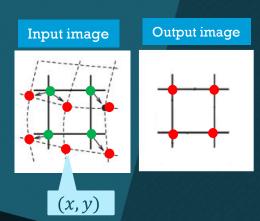
- How to calculate the brightness value of (x, y)?
 - Denote the result of the brightness interpolation by $f_n(x, y)$, where n distinguished different interpolation methods.
 - The brightness can be expressed by the convolution equation

$$f_n(x,y) = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} g_s(l\Delta x, k\Delta y) h_n(x - l\Delta x, y - k\Delta y)$$

 h_n : the interpolation kernel function

 $g_s(l\Delta x, k\Delta y)$: brightness value, the sampled version of the originally continuous image function f(x, y)

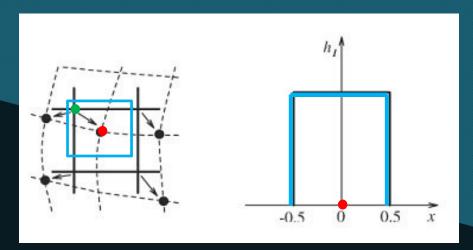
let $\Delta x = \Delta y = 1$ for simplification



- Three most common brightness interpolation methods are nearest neighbor, linear and bi-cubic.
- Nearest-neighborhood interpolation

$$f_1(x, y) = g_s(\text{round}(x), \text{round}(y))$$

 The position error of nearest-neighborhood interpolation is at most half a pixel.



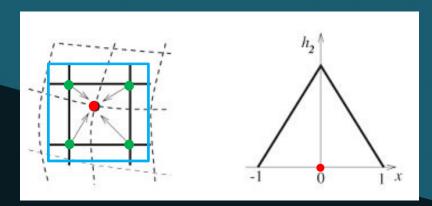
- Linear interpolation (Bilinear interpolation)
 - Linear interpolation explores four points neighboring the point (x, y), and assumes that the brightness function is linear in this neighborhood.

$$f_2(x,y) = (1-a)(1-b)g_s(l,k) + a(1-b)g_s(l+1,k)$$
$$+b(1-a)g_s(l,k+1) + abg_s(l+1,k+1)$$

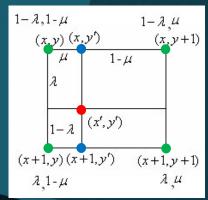
where

$$l = floor(x),$$

 $a = x - l,$
 $k = floor(y),$
 $b = y - k$



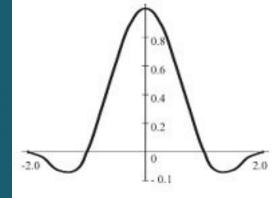
https://en.wikipedia.org/ wiki/Bilinear_interpolation

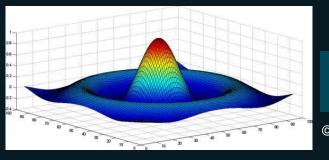


- Bi-cubic interpolation
 - Bi-cubic interpolation improves the model of the brightness function by approximating it locally by a bi-cubic polynomial surface, 16 neighboring points are used for interpolation.
 - The 1D interpolation kernel (Mexican hat) is given by

$$h_3 = \begin{cases} 1 - 2|x|^2 + |x|^3 & \text{for } 0 \le |x| < 1\\ 4 - 8|x| + 5|x|^2 - |x|^3 & \text{for } 1 \le |x| < 2\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• Bi-cubic interpolation preserves fine details in the image very well.





https://www.researchgate.net/figu re/262569642_figl_An-exampleof-a-Mexican-hat-wavelet-function

Local pre-processing

- Local pre-processing methods are divided into two groups according to the goal of the processing.
 - Smoothing
 - To suppress noise or other small fluctuations (變動) in the image
 - Gradient operators
 - To indicate the locations with bigger local derivatives (導數) in the image

PS: 導數: 一個函數在某一點的導數描述了這個函數在這一點附近的變化率。https://zh.wikipedia.org/wiki/%E5%AF%BC%E6%95%B0

- Another classification of local pre-processing methods is according to the transformation properties
 - Linear transformations
 - Non-linear transformations

Local pre-processing

- Linear transformations
 - Linear operations calculate the resulting value in the output image pixel f(i,j) as a linear combination of brightness values in a local neighborhood \mathcal{O} of the pixel g(i,j) in the input image.
 - The contribution of the pixels in the neighborhood \mathcal{O} is weighted by coefficients h.

$$f(i,j) = \sum_{(m,n)\in\mathcal{O}} \sum h(i-m,j-n)g(m,n)$$

• The kernel *h* is called a convolution mask.

Image smoothing

- Image smoothing
 - Image smoothing uses redundancy (多餘;重複) in image data to suppress noise, usually by some form of averaging of brightness values in some neighborhood \mathcal{O} .
 - Goal: suppressing noise
 - Problem: blurring sharp edges
 - Solution: edge preserving
 - Usually using non-linear methods
 - For example: computing the average only from points in the neighborhood which have similar properties to the point being processed.

Image smoothing

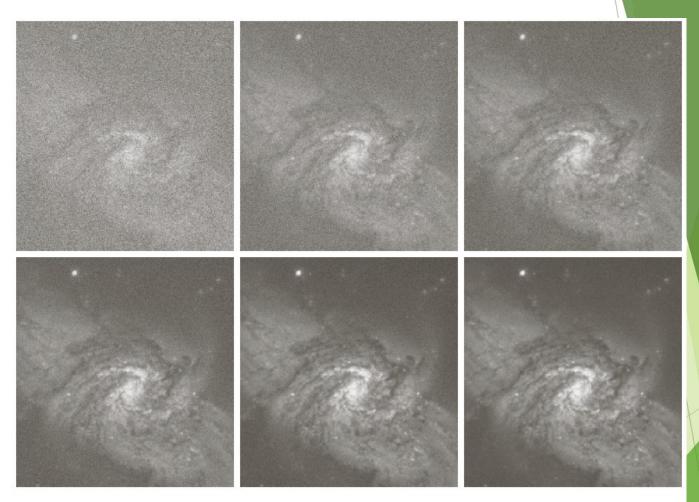
- Averaging, statistical principles of noise suppression
 - Assume that the noise value ν at each pixel is an independent random variable with zero mean and standard deviation σ .
 - We might capture the same static scene under the same conditions n times and from each captured image a particular pixel value g_i , $i=1,\ldots,n$ is selected.
 - An estimate of the correct value can be obtained as an average of theses values.

$$\frac{g_1 + \dots + g_n}{n} + \frac{\nu_1 + \dots + \nu_n}{n}$$

- The second term describes the noise with zero mean and standard deviation $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$.
- Thus, if *n* images of the same scene are available,

$$f(i,j) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} g_k(i,j)$$

Noise reduction (for addition noise)



a b c d e f

FIGURE 2.26 (a) Image of Galaxy Pair NGC 3314 corrupted by additive Gaussian noise. (b)–(f) Results of averaging 5, 10, 20, 50, and 100 noisy images, respectively. (Original image courtesy of NASA.)

Image smoothing

- Averaging, statistical principles of noise suppression
 - Usually, only one noise corrupted is available, and averaging is then performed in a local neighborhood.
 - Averaging is a special case of discrete convolution.
 - For a 3×3 neighborhood, the convolution mask h is

$$h = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

A Gaussian probability distribution: better approximations

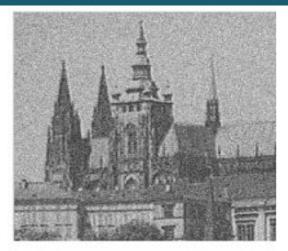
$$h = \frac{1}{10} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad h = \frac{1}{16} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Image smoothing

Original image









Gaussian noise

 7×7 averaging

 3×3 averaging

- Averaging with limited data validity
 - Try to avoid blurring by averaging
 - A simple criterion is to define a brightness interval of invalid data [min, max] (typically corresponding to noise of known image faults), and apply image averaging only to pixels in that interval.
 - For a point (m, n), the convolution mask is calculated in the neighborhood \mathcal{O} by the non-linear formula

$$h(i,j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } g(m+i,n+j) \notin [\text{min, max}] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where (i, j) specify the mask element.

- An example of averaging with limited data validity
 - apply image averaging only to pixels on the noises

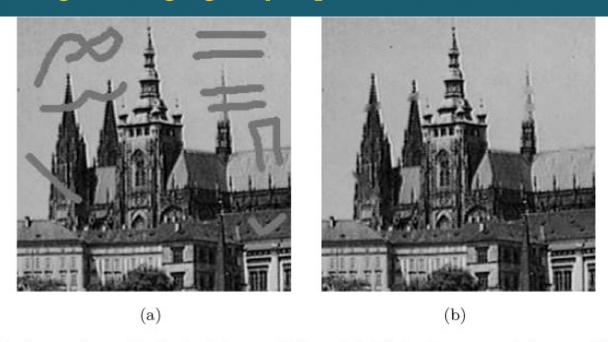


Figure 5.10: Averaging with limited data validity. (a) Original corrupted image. (b) Result of corruption removal. © Cengage Learning 2015.

- Averaging according to inverse gradient
 - Within a convolution mask of odd size, the inverse gradient δ of a point (i, j) with respect to the central pixel (m, n) is defined as

$$\delta(i,j) = \frac{1}{|g(m,n) - g(i,j)|}$$

- If g(m,n) = g(i,j), then we define $\delta(i,j) = 2$.
- So $\delta(i,j) \in (0,2]$ and is smaller at the edge than in the interior of a homogeneous region.
- The kernel function h

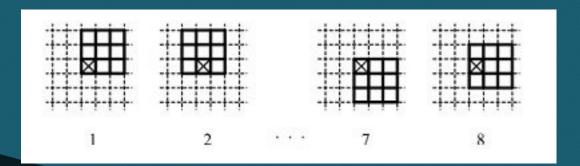
$$h(i,j) = 0.5 \frac{\delta(i,j)}{\sum_{(m,n)\in\mathcal{O}} \delta(m,n)}$$

Moreover, the mask coefficient corresponding to the central pixel is defined as h(i,j) = 0.5.

- Averaging using a rotating mask
 - A non-linear method that avoids edge blurring
 - The neighborhood of the current pixel is divided into two subsets
 - One set consists of all pixels neighboring the current pixel which satisfy the homogeneity criterion (具同質性)
 - The second set is the complement (不具同質性)
 - The brightness average is calculated only within homogeneity region which is measured by a brightness dispersion σ^2 .
 - Let n be a number of pixels in a region R and g be the input image.

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(i,j) \in R} \left(g(i,j) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(k,l) \in R} g(k,l) \right)^2$$

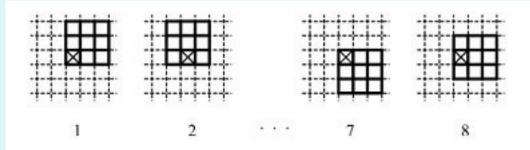
- Averaging using a rotating mask
 - The shape and size of masks to compute region homogeneity
 - For example, eight possible rotated 3×3 makes that cover a 5×5 neighborhood of a current pixel.



Algorithm 5.2 Smoothing using a rotating mask

- 1. Consider each image pixel (i, j).
- 2. Calculate dispersion for all possible mask rotations about pixel (i, j) according to

$$\sigma^{2} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(i,j) \in R} \left(g(i,j) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(k,l) \in R} g(k,l) \right)^{2}$$



- 3. Choose the mask with minimum dispersion (分散).
- 4. Assign to the pixel f(i,j) in the output image f the average brightness in the chosen mask.

- Median filtering
 - In probability theory, the median divides the higher half of a probability distribution from the lower half.
 - Median filter is a non-linear smoothing method.

Algorithm 5.3 Efficient median filtering

1. Set
$$t = \frac{mn}{2}$$

(m, n) are the numbers of rows and columns of the median window and both odd, round t)

- 2. Position the window at the beginning of a new row, and sort its contents. Construct a histogram H of the window pixels, determine the median m, and record n_m , the number of pixels with intensity less than or equal to m.
- 3. For each pixel p in the leftmost column of intensity p_g , perform

$$H[p_q] = H[p_q] - 1$$

Further, if $p_g < m$, set $n_m = n_m - 1$.

Algorithm 5.3 Efficient median filtering (con.)

4. Move the window one column right. For each pixel p in the rightmost column of intensity p_q , perform

$$H[p_g] = H[p_g] + 1$$

Further, if $p_g < m$, set $n_m = n_m + 1$.

- 5. If $n_m = t$ then go to (8).
- 6. If $n_m > t$ then go to (7).

Repeat m=m+1, $n_m=n_m+H[m]$ until $n_m\geq t$. Go to (8).

7. (We have $n_m > t$, if here)

Repeat $n_m = n_m - H[m]$, m = m - 1 until $n_m \le t$.

- 8. If the right-hand column of the window is not at the right-hand edge of the image, go to (3).
- 9. If the bottom row of the window is not at the bottom of the image, go to (2).

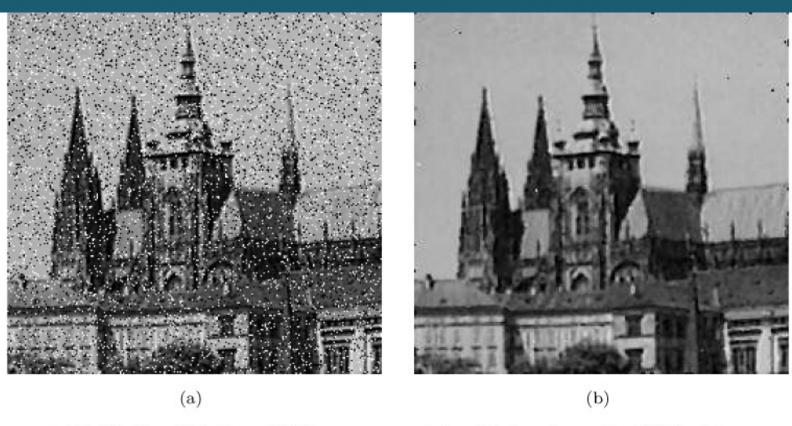
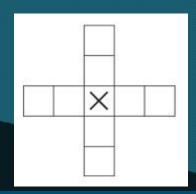


Figure 5.12: Median filtering. (a) Image corrupted with impulse noise (14% of image area covered with bright and dark dots). (b) Result of 3×3 median filtering. © Cengage Learning 2015.

Median filtering

- The main disadvantage of median filtering in a rectangular neighborhood is its damaging of the thin lines and sharp corners.
- This can be avoided if another shape of neighborhood is used.
- For example, if horizontal/vertical lines need preserving, a neighborhood such as that in the figure can be used.



Horizontal/vertical line preserving neighborhood for median filtering

- Non-linear mean filter
 - A generalization of averaging technique

$$f(m,n) = \mathbf{u}^{-1} \left(\frac{\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{O}} a(i,j) \mathbf{u}(g(i,j))}{\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{O}} a(i,j)} \right)$$

where f(m,n): the result of the filtering g(i,j): the pixel in the input image \mathcal{O} : a local neighborhood of the current pixel (m,n) u^{-1} : an inverse function of one variable function u a(i,j): weight coefficient

• If the weights a(i, j) are constant, the filter is called homomorphic.

- Non-linear mean filter
 - Some homomorphic filters
 - Arithmetic mean

$$u(g) = g$$

• Harmonic mean

$$u(g) = \frac{1}{g}$$

Geometric mean

$$u(g) = \log g$$

$$u(g) = g; u^{-1}(g) = g$$

$$f(m, n)$$

$$= u^{-1} \left(\frac{\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{O}} a(i,j) u(g(i,j))}{\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{O}} a(i,j)} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{O}} a(i,j) u(g(i,j))}{\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{O}} a(i,j)}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{O}} a(i,j) g(i,j)}{\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{O}} a(i,j)}$$