

# CS 558: Computer Vision

## 2<sup>nd</sup> Set of Notes

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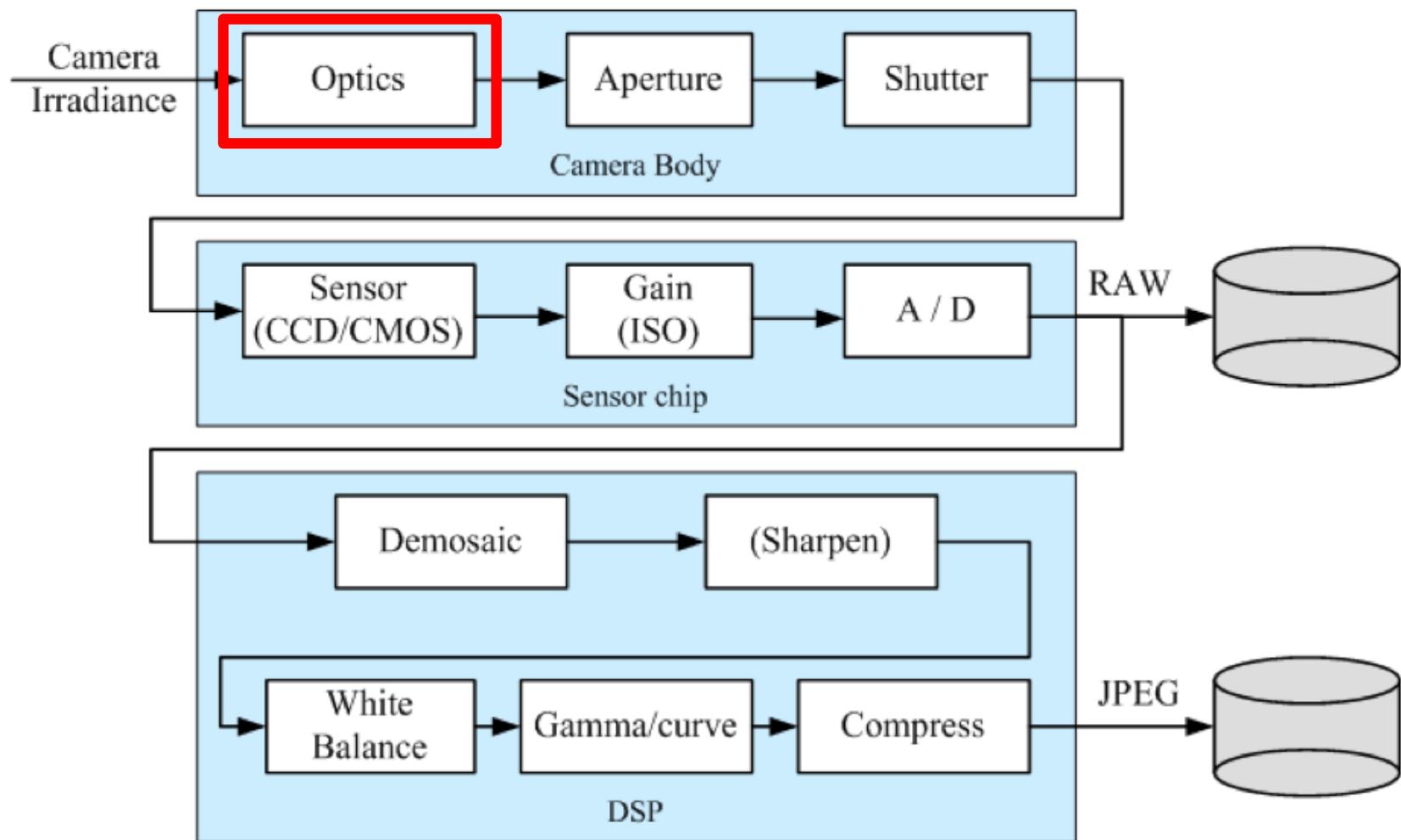
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Office: Lieb 215

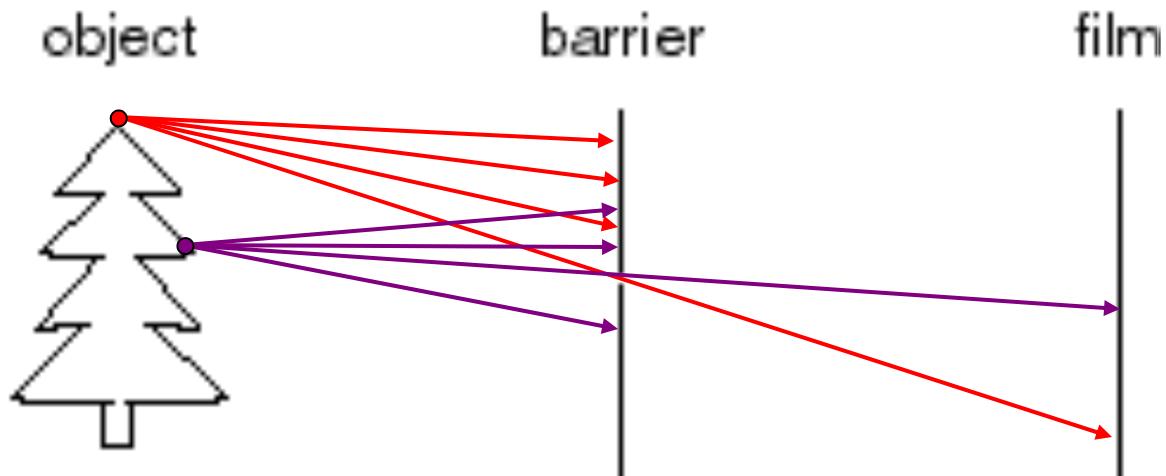
# Overview

- Brief summary of optics and aperture
- Camera body: shutter
- The sensor
  - Based on slides by G. Doretto
- Light and Shading
- Linear filters
  - Based on slides by D. Hoiem

# Camera Body: Optics



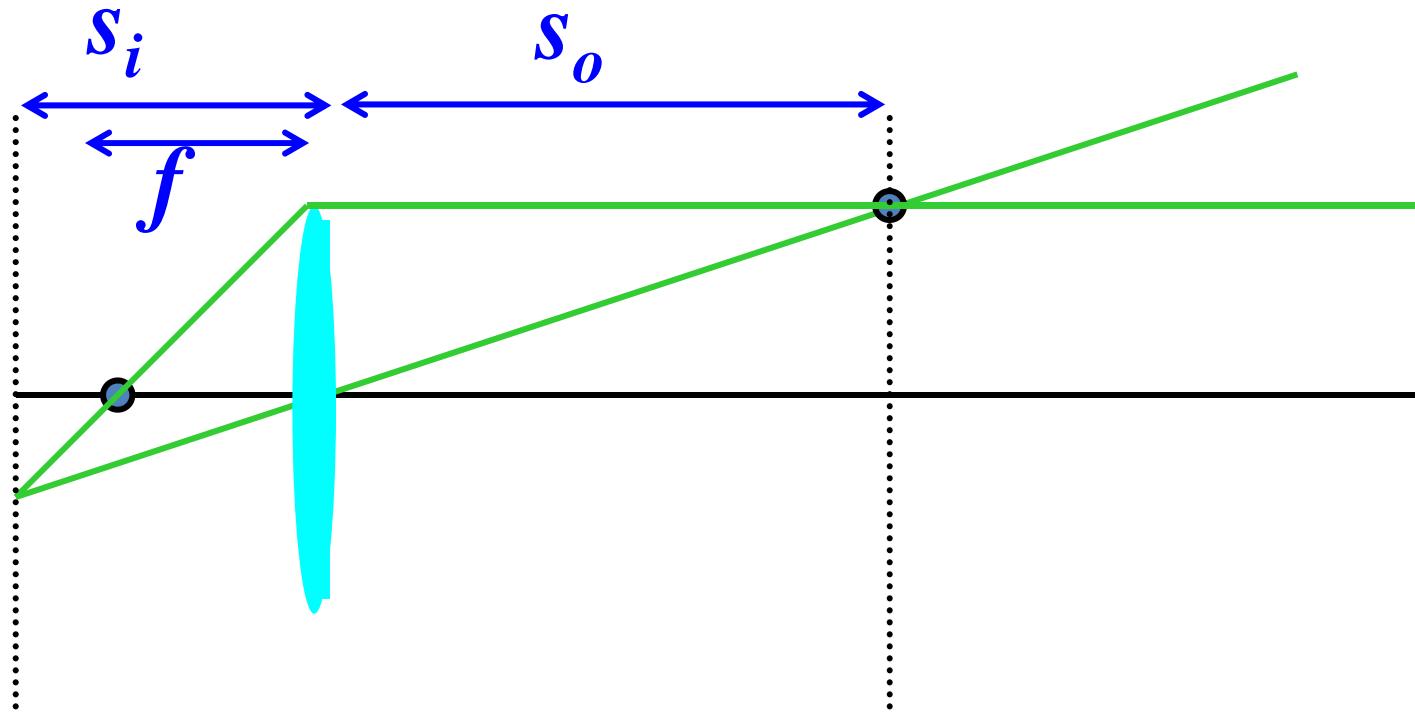
# Pinhole camera



- Add a barrier to block off most of the rays
  - This reduces blurring
  - The opening known as the **aperture**
  - How does this transform the image?

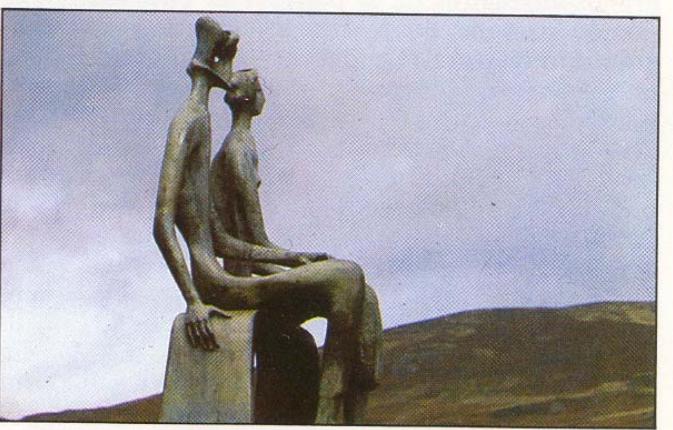
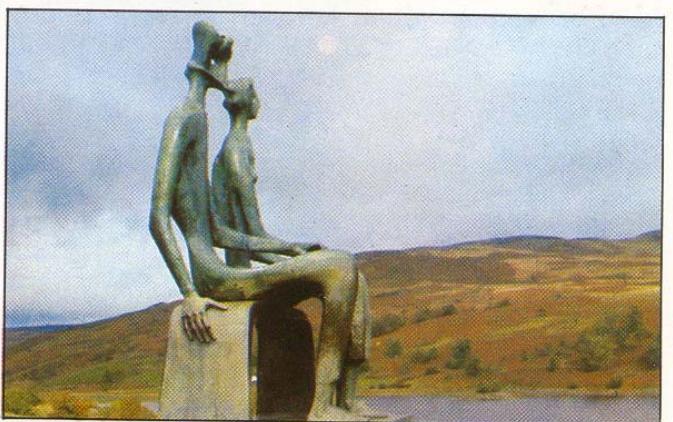
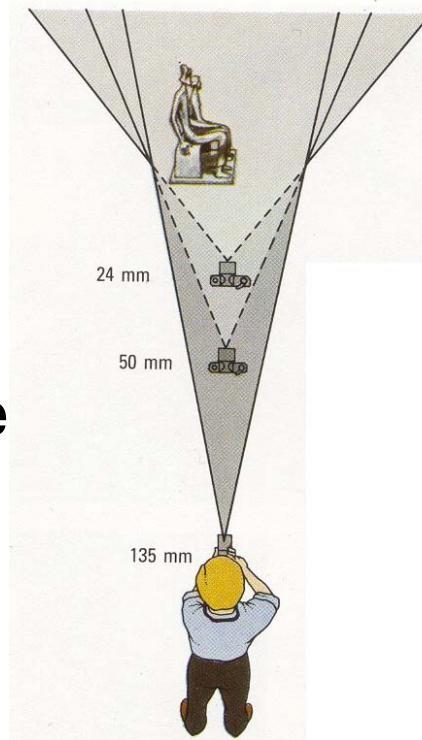
# Thin lens formula

$$\frac{1}{s_o} + \frac{1}{s_i} = \frac{1}{f}$$

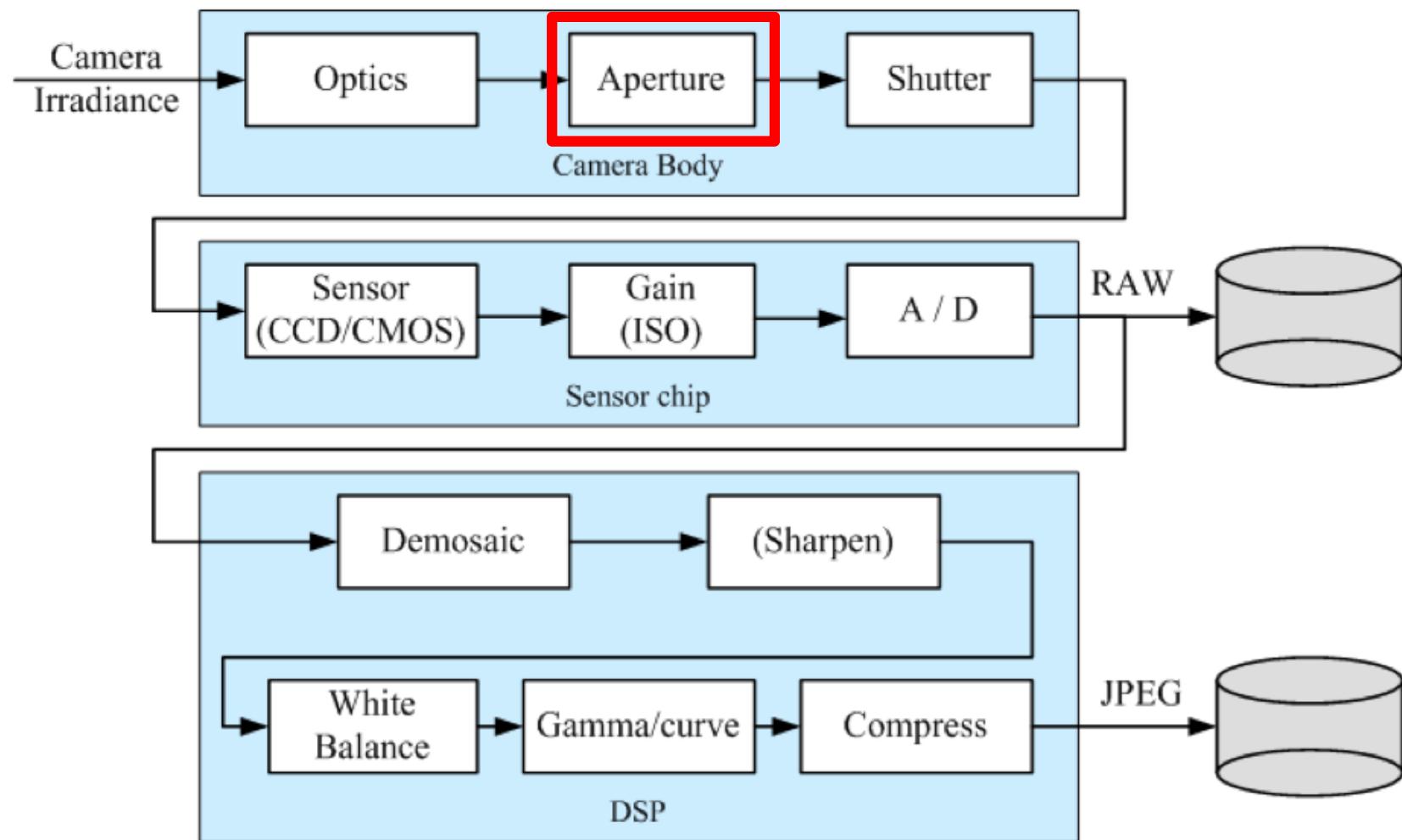


# Changing the focal length vs. changing the viewpoint

- Telephoto makes it easier to select background (a small change in viewpoint is a big change in background.)
  - changing the focal length lets us move back from a subject, while maintaining its size on the image
  - but moving back changes perspective relationships



# Camera Body: Aperture

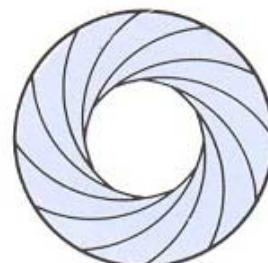


# Aperture

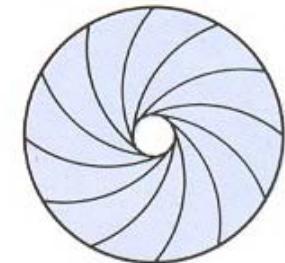
- Diameter of the lens opening (controlled by diaphragm)
- Expressed as a fraction of focal length, in f-number  $N$ 
  - f/2.0 on a 50mm lens means that the aperture is 25mm
  - f/2.0 on a 100mm lens means that the aperture is 50mm
- Disconcerting: small f-number = big aperture
- What happens to the area of the aperture when going from f/2.0 to f/4.0?
- Typical f-numbers are (each of them counts as one f/stop)  
f/2.0, f/2.8, f/4, f/5.6, f/8, f/11, f/16, f/22, f/32
  - See the pattern?



Full aperture



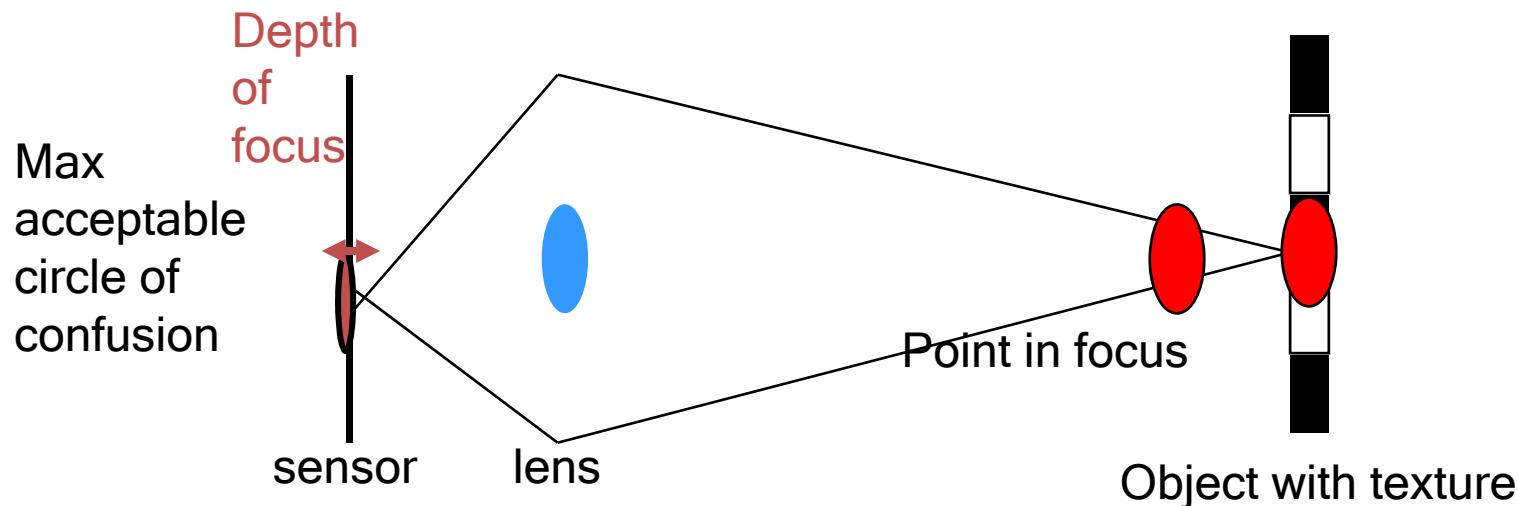
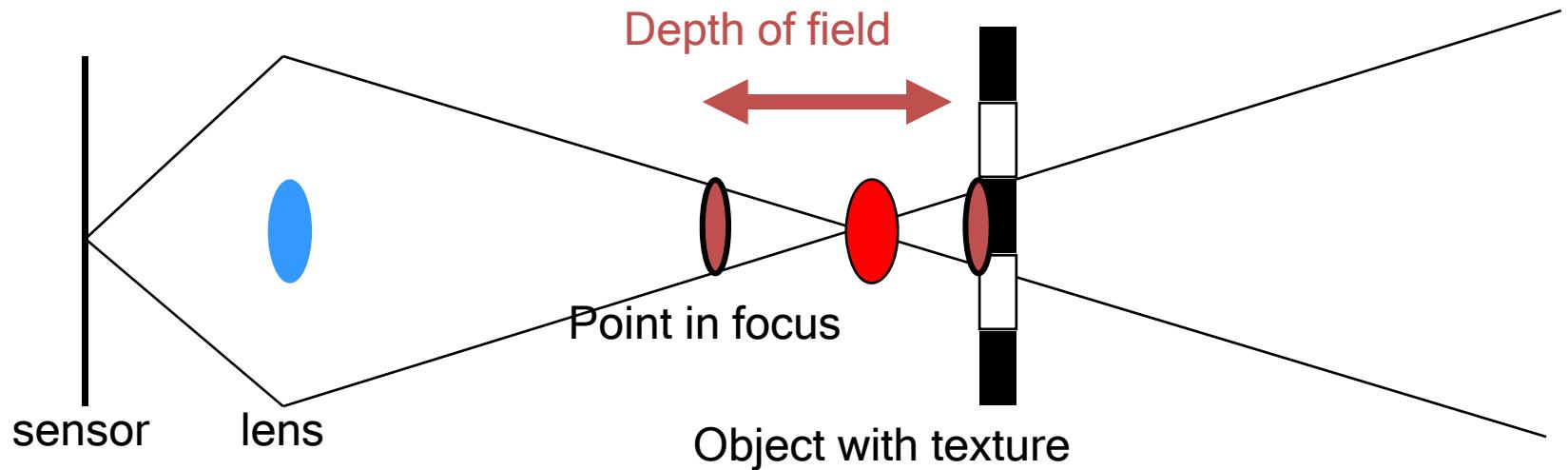
Medium aperture



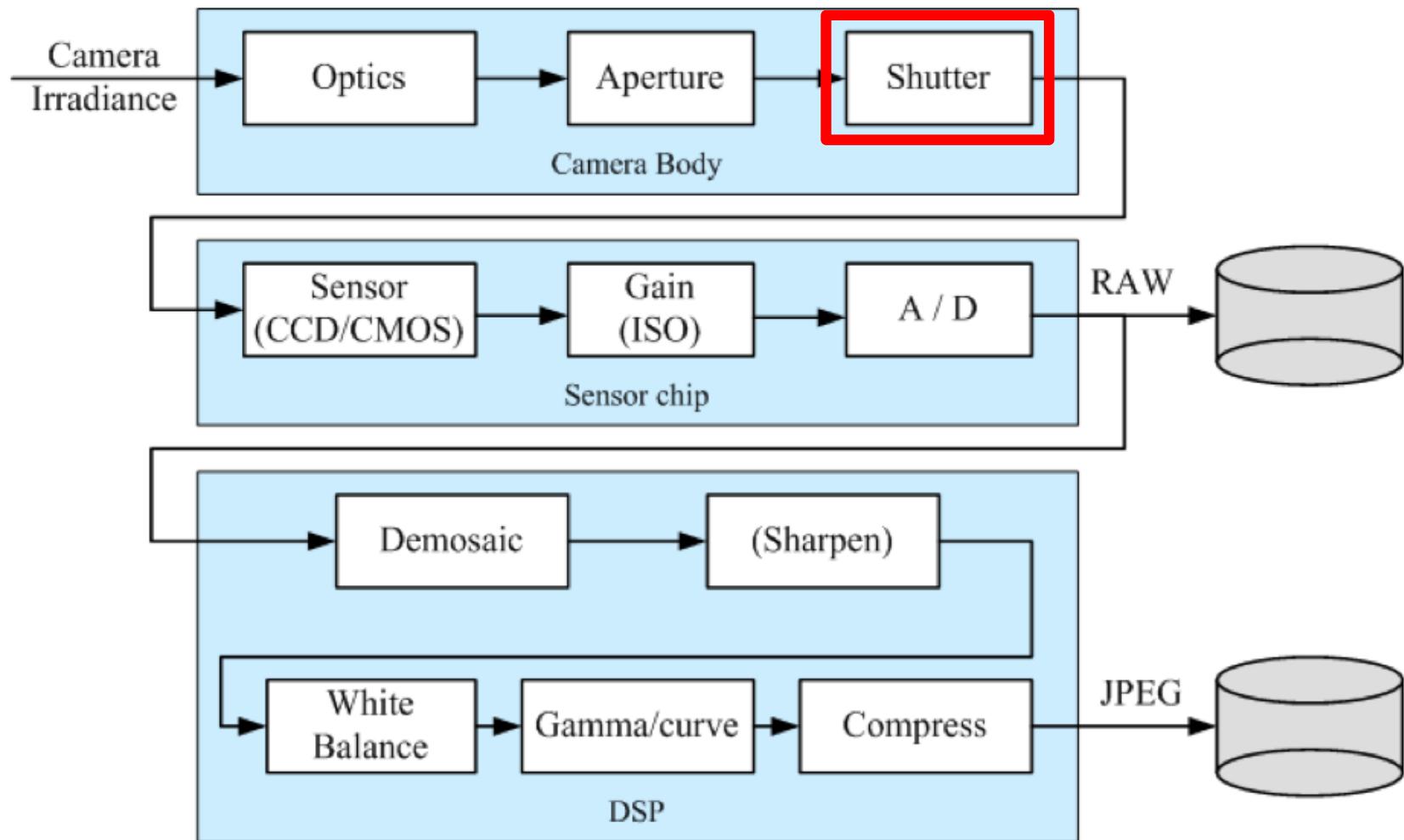
Stopped down

# Depth of field

- We allow for some tolerance



# Camera Body: Shutter

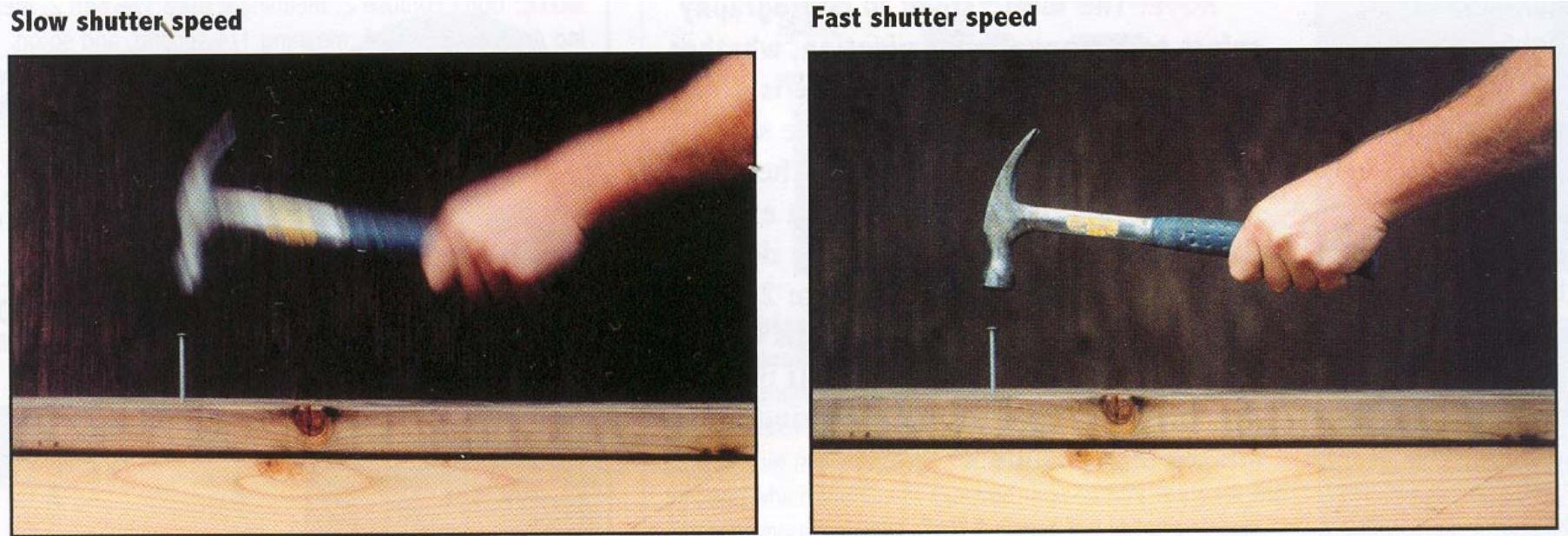


# Shutter speed

- Controls how long the film/sensor is exposed
- Pretty much linear effect on exposure
- Usually in fraction of a second:
  - 1/30, 1/60, 1/125, 1/250, 1/500
  - Get the pattern ?
- On a normal lens, normal humans can hand-hold down to 1/60

# Main effect of shutter speed

- Motion blur
- Halving shutter speed doubles motion blur



From Photography, London et al.

# Effect of shutter speed

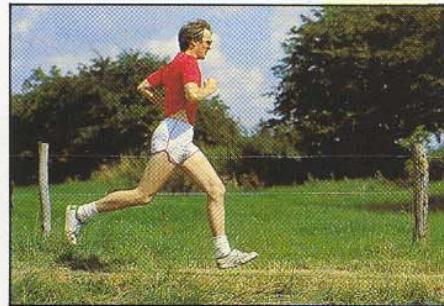
- Freezing motion

Walking people



1/125

Running people



1/250

Car



1/500

Fast train



1/1000

# Exposure

- Two main parameters:
  - Aperture (in f number)
  - Shutter speed (in fraction of a second)
- Exposure = irradiance x time

$$H = E \times T$$

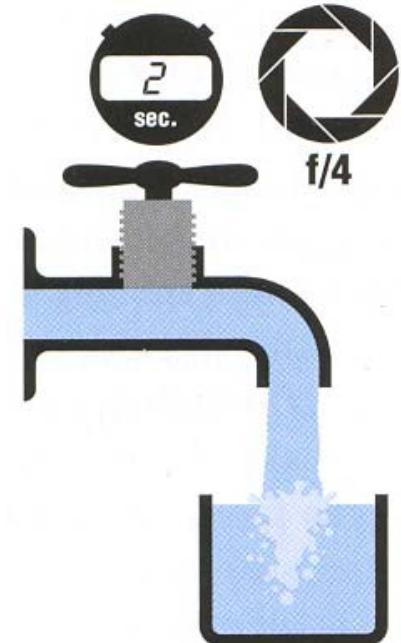
- Irradiance (E)
  - controlled by aperture
- Exposure time (T)
  - controlled by shutter

# Reciprocity

- Reciprocity

The same exposure is obtained with an exposure twice as long and an aperture *area* half as big

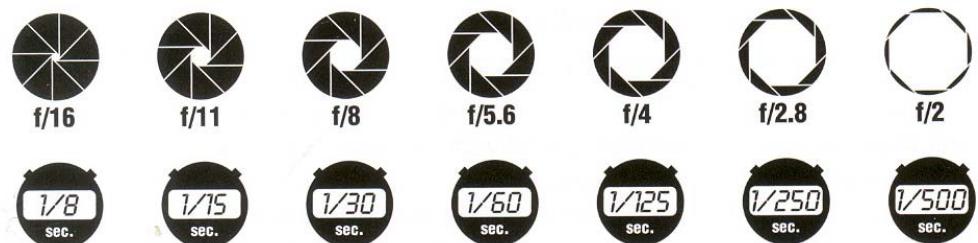
- Hence square root of two progression of f stops vs. power of two progression of shutter speed



From Photography, London et al.

# Reciprocity

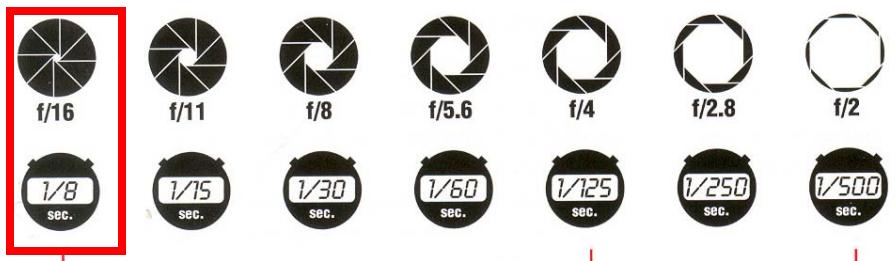
- Assume we know how much light we need
- We have the choice of an infinity of shutter speed/aperture pairs



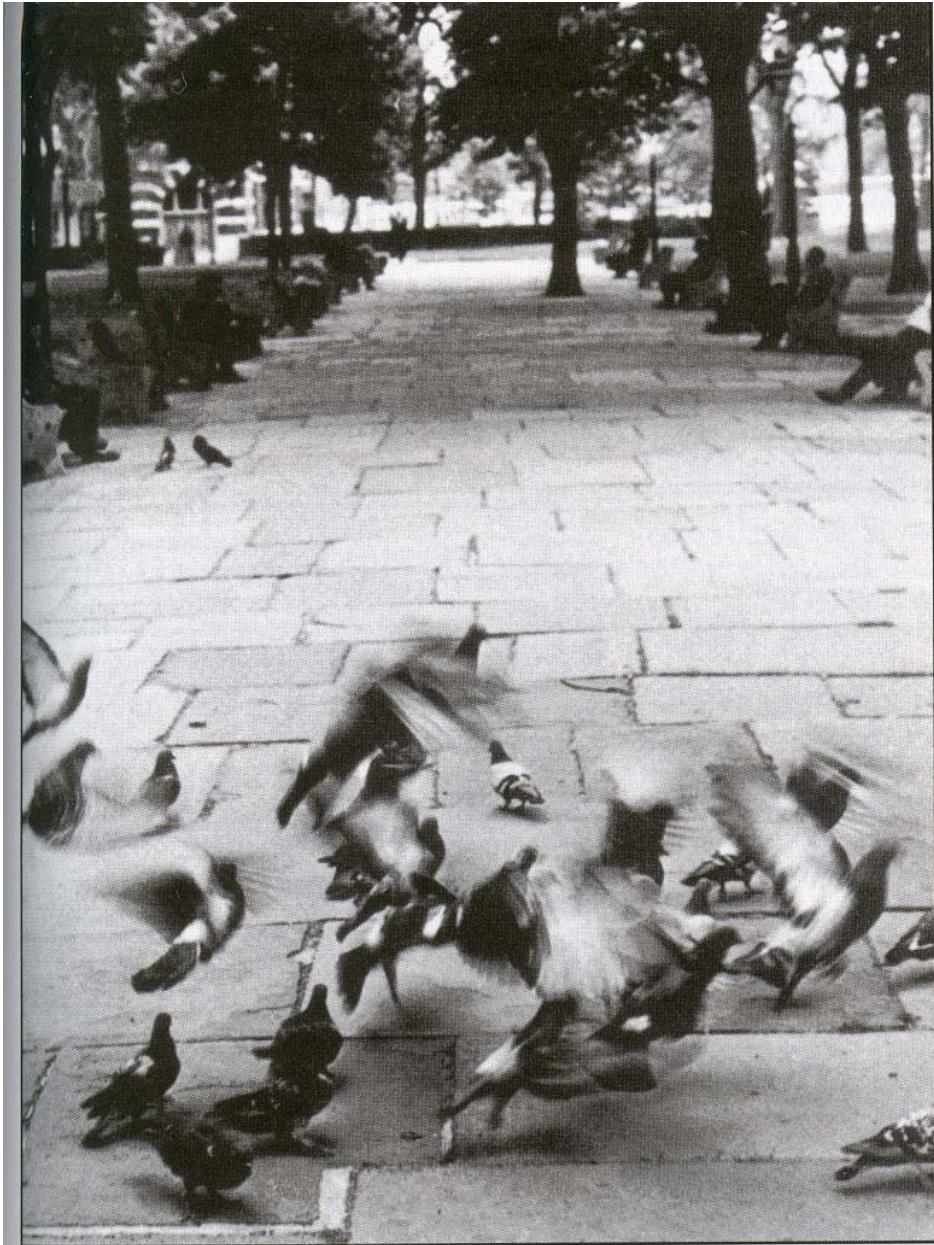
- What will guide our choice of a shutter speed?
  - Freeze motion vs. motion blur, camera shake
- What will guide our choice of an aperture?
  - Depth of field, distortion reduction, diffraction limit
- Often we must compromise
  - Open more to enable faster speed (but shallow DoF)



**Small aperture (deep depth of field), slow shutter speed (motion blurred).** In this scene, a small aperture ( $f/16$ ) produced great depth of field; the nearest paving stones as well as the farthest trees are sharp. But to admit enough light, a slow shutter speed ( $1/8$  sec) was needed; it was too slow to show moving pigeons sharply. It also meant that a tripod had to be used to hold the camera steady.



From Photography, London et al.



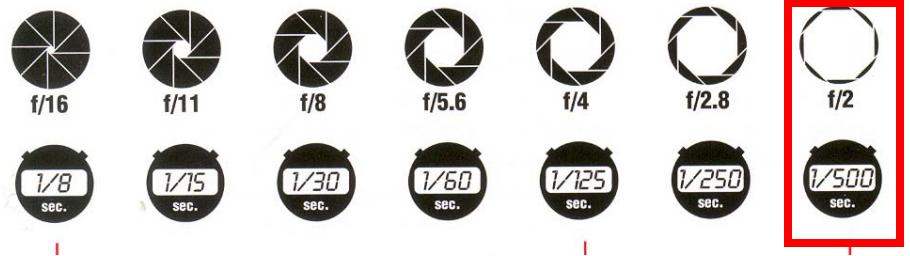
*Medium aperture (moderate depth of field), medium shutter speed (some motion sharp). A medium aperture (f/4) and shutter speed (1/125 sec) sacrifice some background detail to produce recognizable images of the birds. But the exposure is still too long to show the motion of the birds' wings sharply.*



From Photography, London et al.



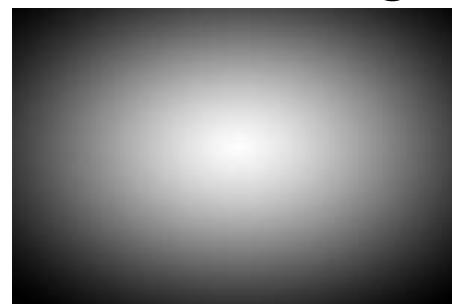
***Large aperture (shallow depth of field), fast shutter speed (motion sharp).*** A fast shutter speed (1/500 sec) stops the motion of the pigeons so completely that the flapping wings are frozen. But the wide aperture (f/2) needed gives so little depth of field that the background is now out of focus.



From Photography, London et al.

# Metering

- Photosensitive sensors measure scene luminance
- Usually TTL (through the lens)
- Simple version: center-weighted average



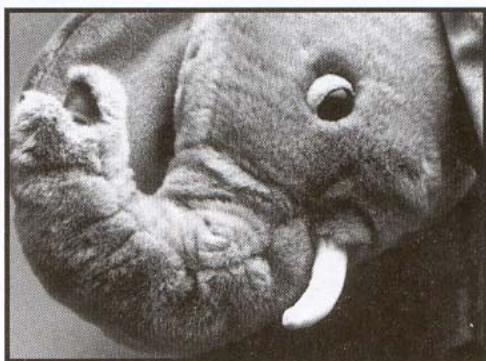
- Assumption? Failure cases?
  - Usually assumes that a scene is 18% gray
  - Problem with dark and bright scenes



**White polar bear given exposure suggested by meter**



**White polar bear given 2 stops more exposure**



**Gray elephant given exposure suggested by meter**



**Black gorilla given exposure suggested by meter**



**Black gorilla given 2 stops less exposure**

From Photography, London et al.

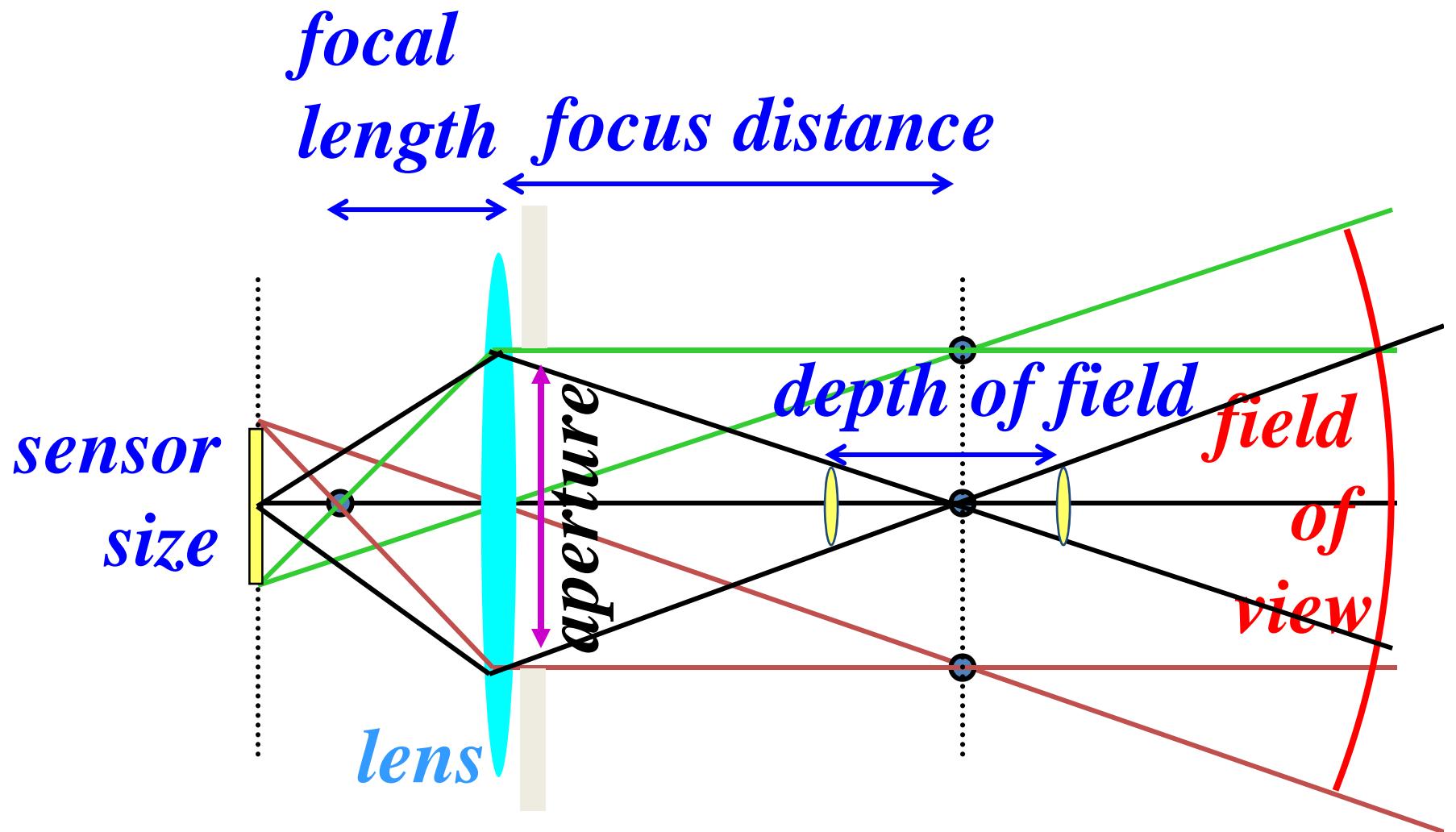
# Exposure & Metering

- The camera metering system measures how bright the scene is
- In Aperture priority mode, the photographer sets the aperture, the camera sets the shutter speed
- In Shutter-speed priority mode, the photographers sets the shutter speed and the camera deduces the aperture
  - In both cases, reciprocity is exploited
- In Program mode, the camera decides both exposure and shutter speed (middle value more or less)
- In Manual, the user decides everything (but can get feedback)

# Pros and cons of various modes

- Aperture priority
  - Direct depth of field control
  - Cons: can require impossible shutter speed (e.g. with f/1.4 for a bright scene)
- Shutter speed priority
  - Direct motion blur control
  - Cons: can require impossible aperture (e.g. when requesting a 1/1000 speed for a dark scene)
    - Note that aperture is somewhat more restricted
- Program
  - Almost no control, but no need for neurons
- Manual
  - Full control, but takes more time and thinking

# Recap



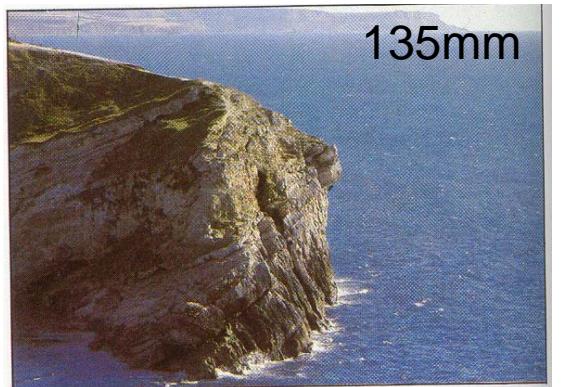
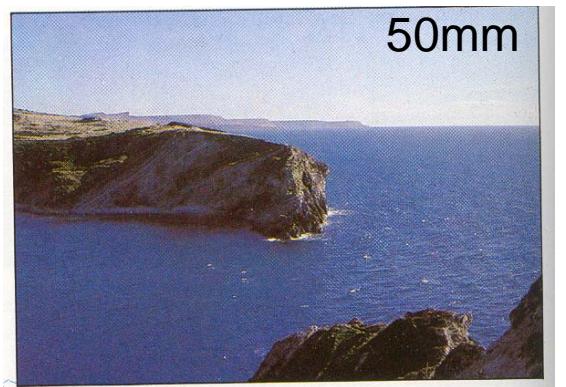
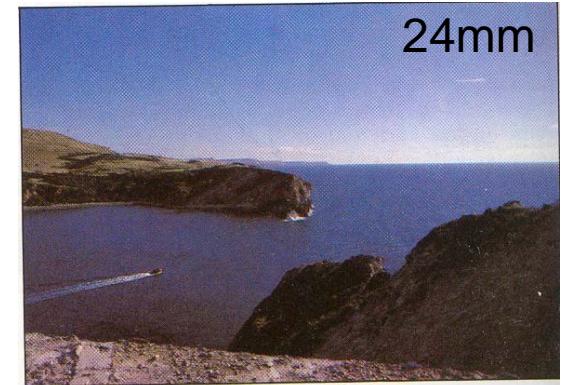
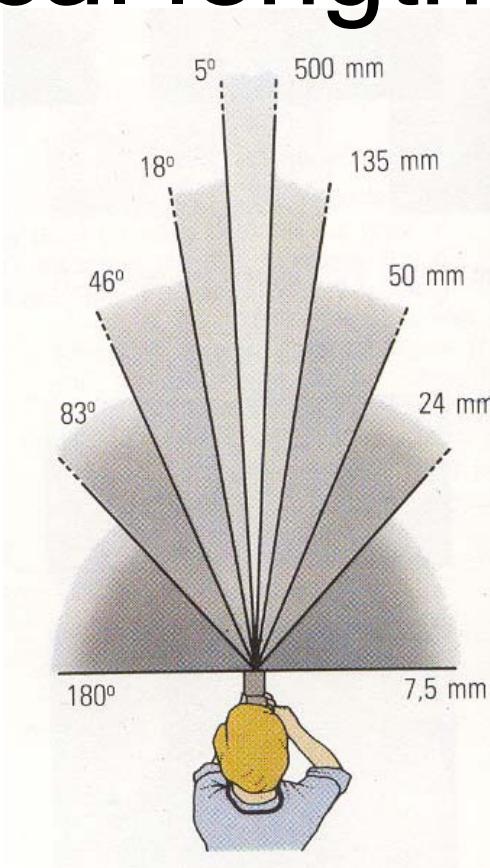
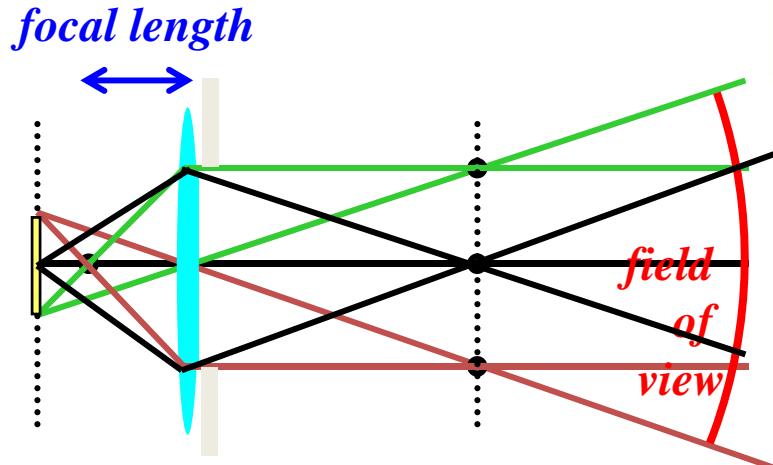
# Focal length

<30mm: wide angle

50mm: standard

>100mm telephoto

Affected by sensor size (crop factor)

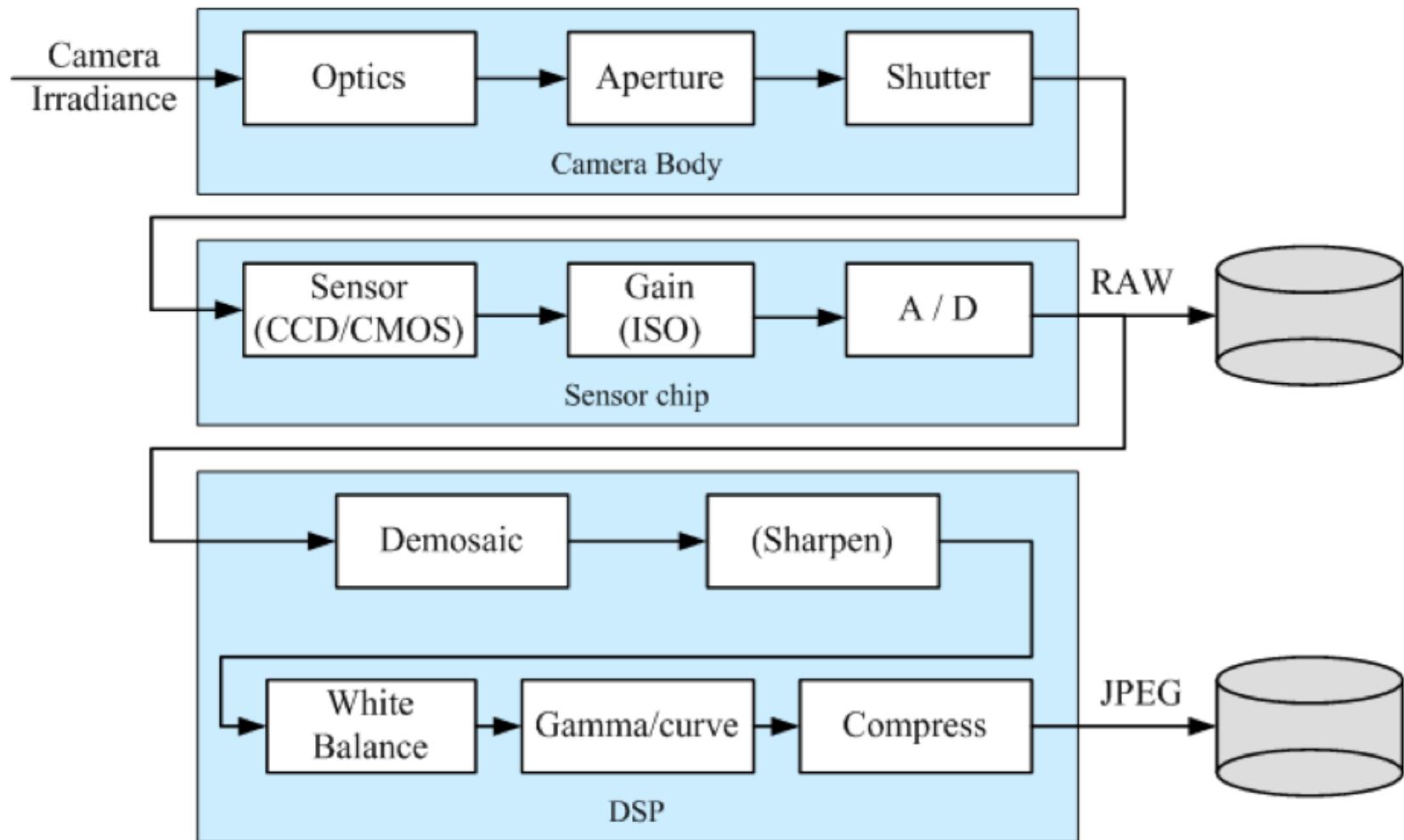


# Exposure

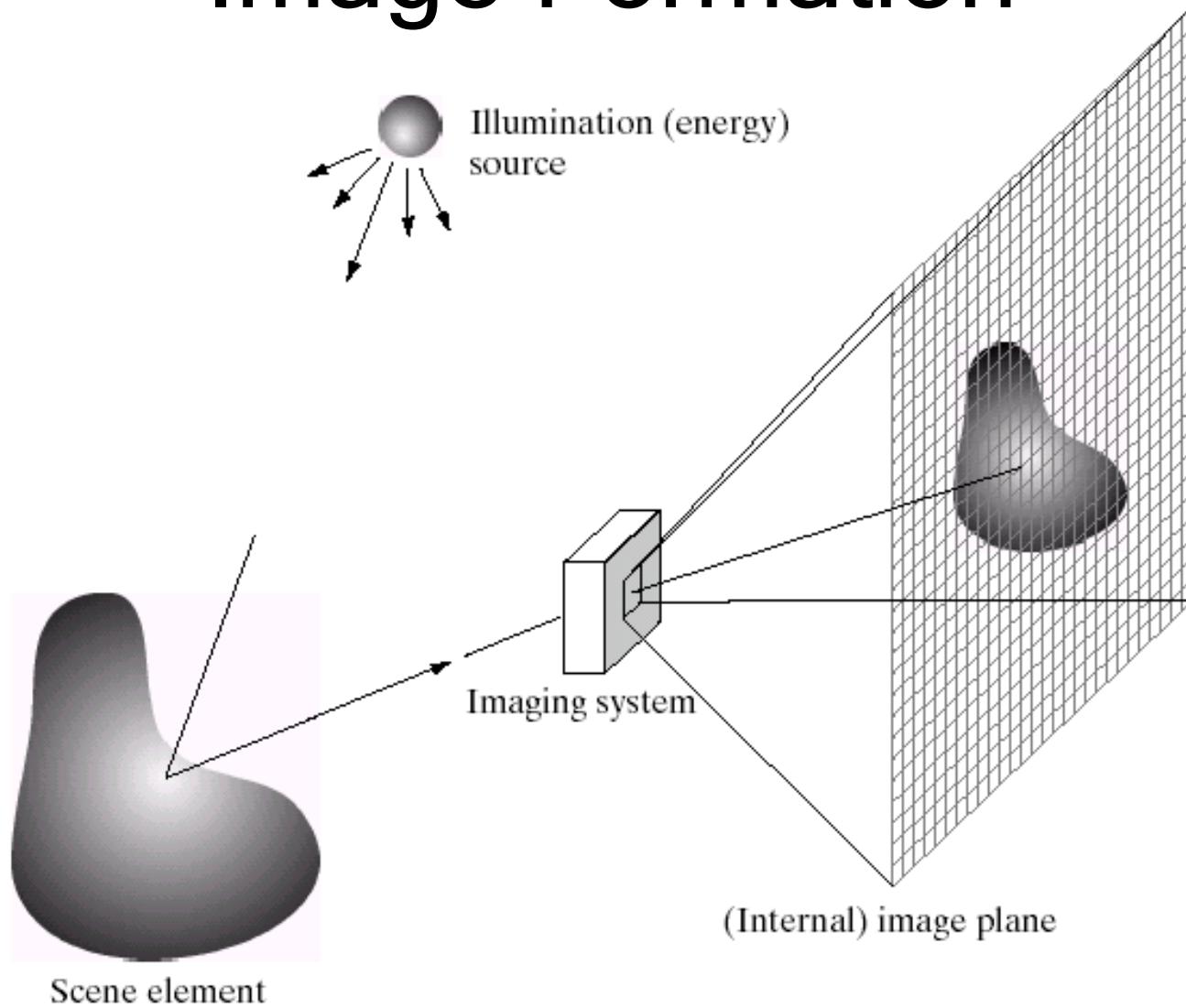
- Aperture (f number)
  - Expressed as ratio between focal length and aperture diameter:  
diameter =  $f / \text{f number}$
  - f/2.0, f/2.8, f/4.0, f/5.6, f/8.0, f/11, f/16 (factor of  $\sqrt{2}$ )
  - Small f number means large aperture
  - Main effect: depth of field
  - A good standard lens has max aperture f/1.8.  
A cheap zoom has max aperture f/3.5
- Shutter speed
  - In fraction of a second
  - 1/30, 1/60, 1/125, 1/250, 1/500 (factor of 2)
  - Main effect: motion blur
- Sensitivity
  - Gain applied to sensor
  - In ISO, bigger number, more sensitive (100, 200, 400, 800, 1600)
  - Main effect: sensor noise

Reciprocity between these three numbers:  
for a given exposure, one has two degrees of freedom.

# Sensor Chip



# Image Formation



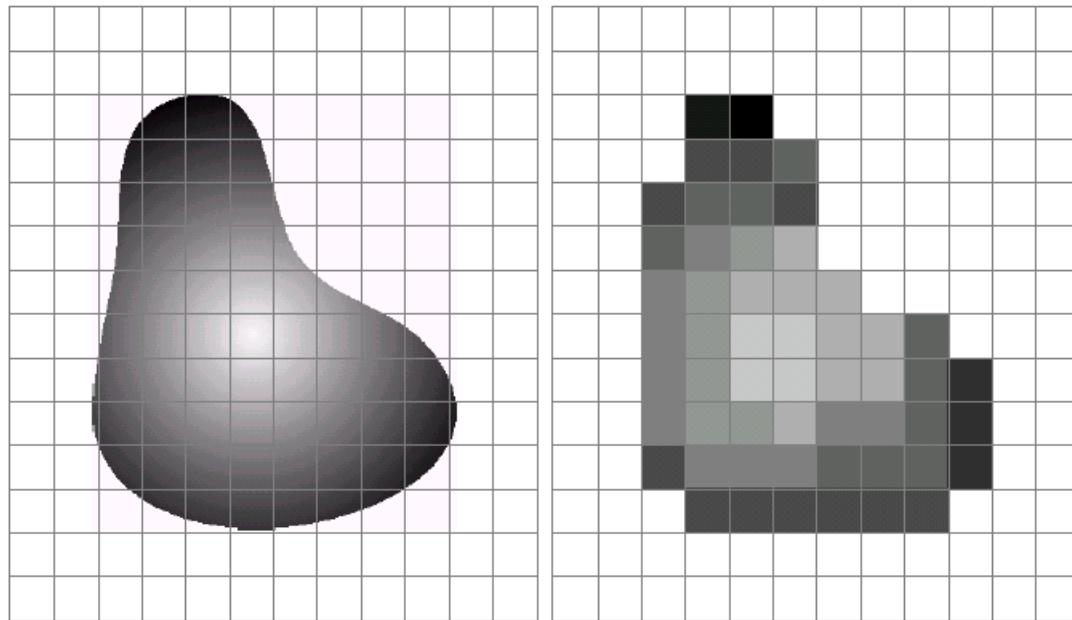
# Digital camera



A digital camera replaces film with a sensor array

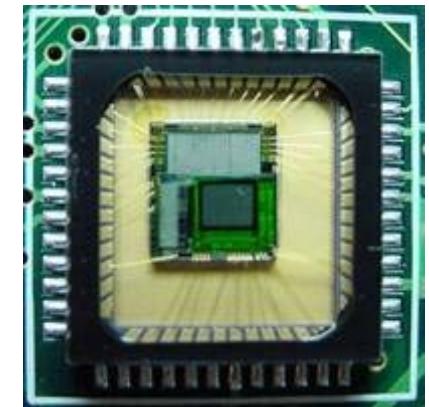
- Each cell in the array is light-sensitive diode that converts photons to electrons
- Two common types: Charge Coupled Device (CCD) and Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor (CMOS)

# Sensor Array



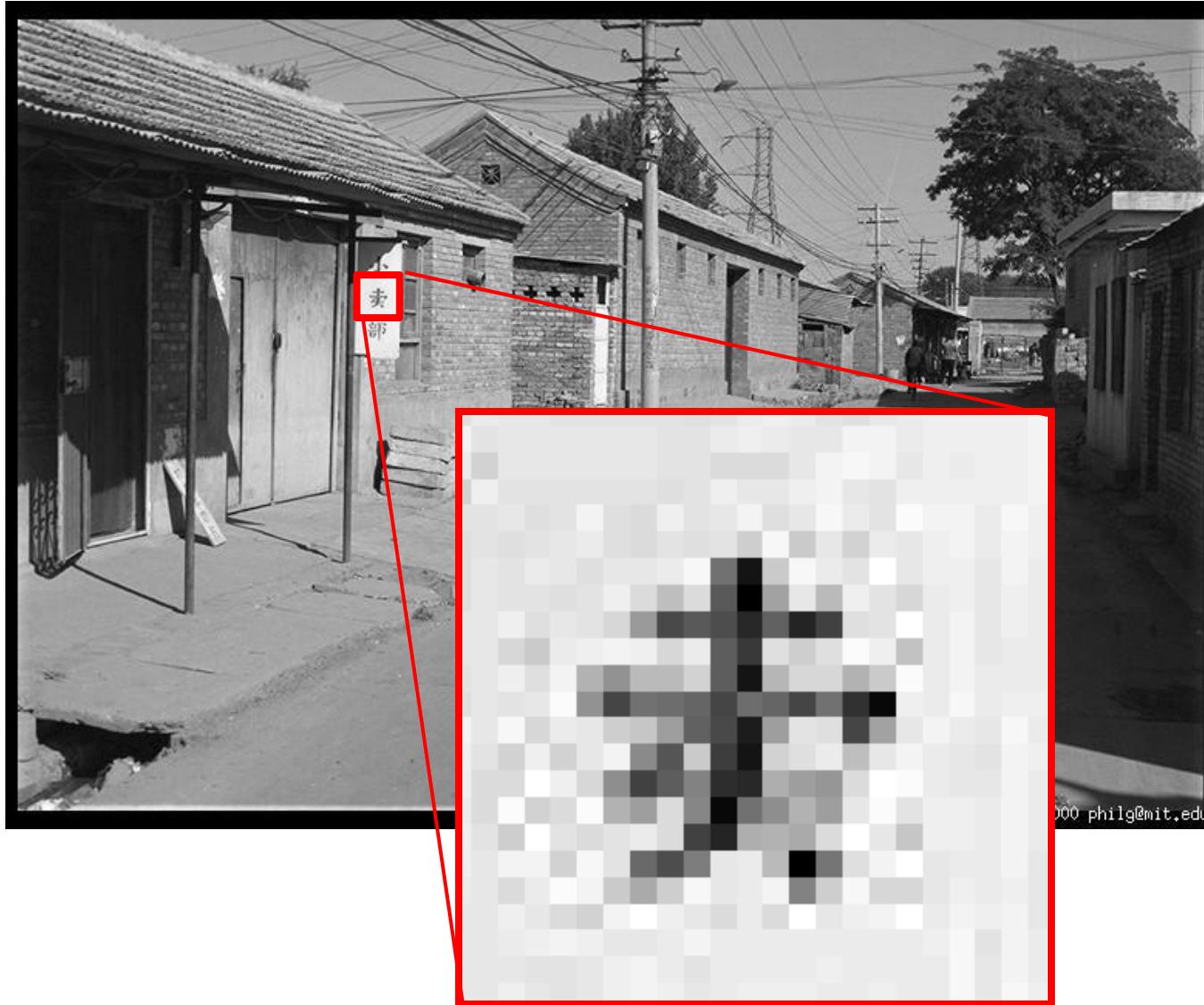
a b

**FIGURE 2.17** (a) Continuous image projected onto a sensor array. (b) Result of image sampling and quantization.

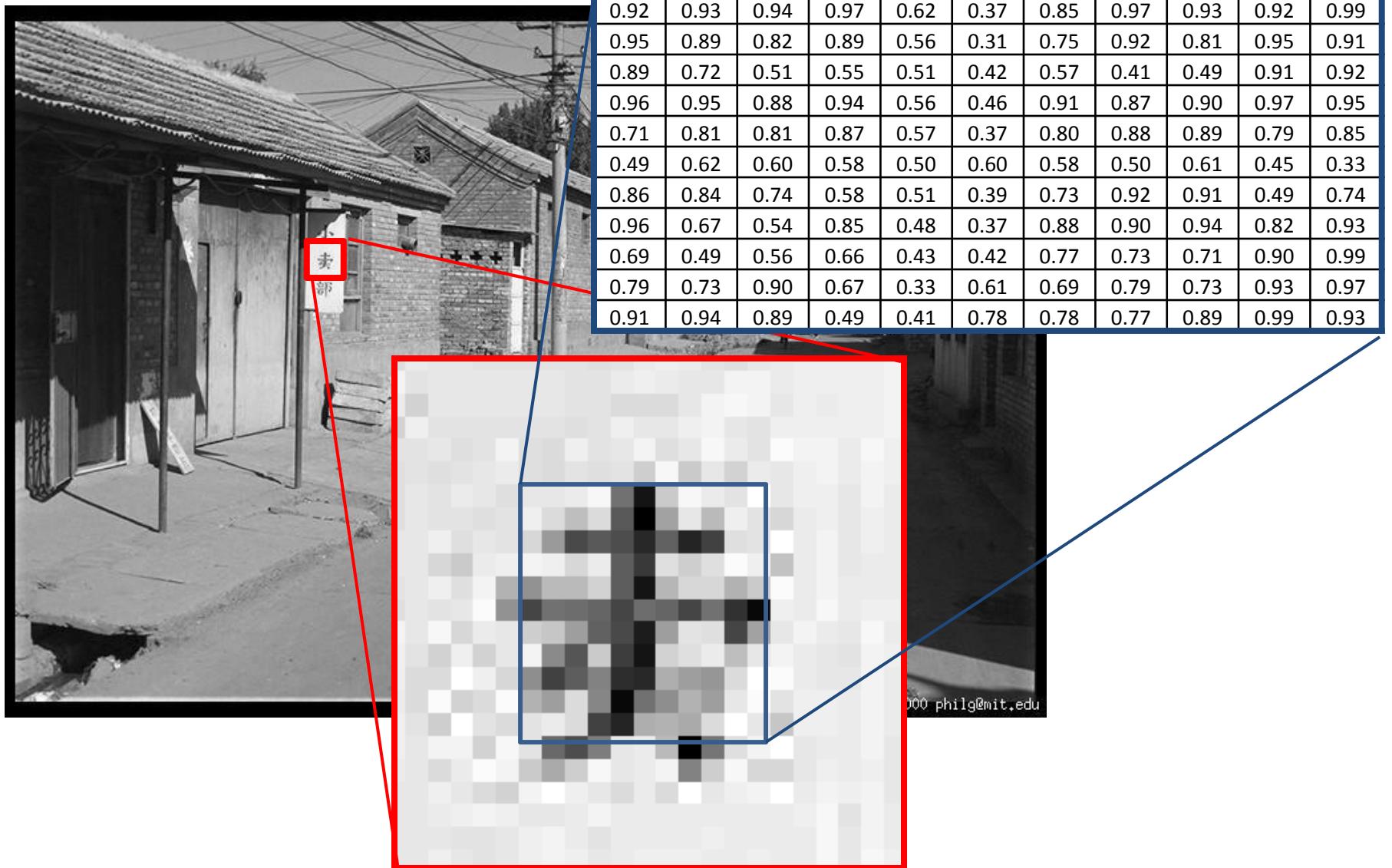


CMOS sensor

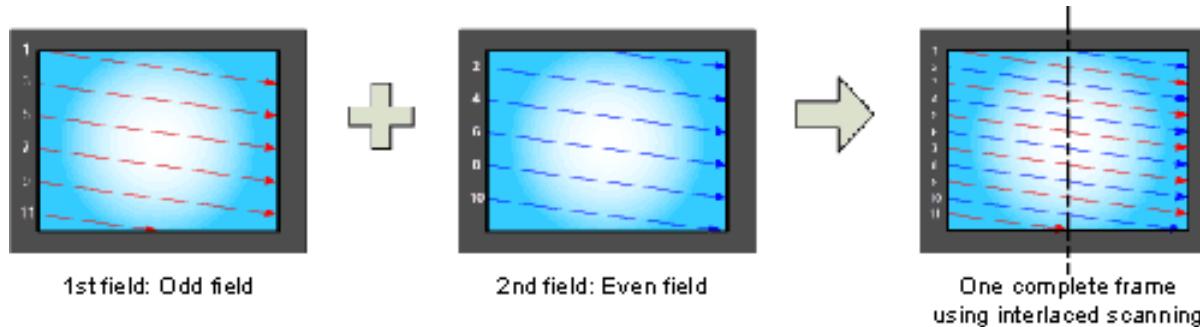
# The raster image (pixel matrix)



# The raster image (pixel matrix)



# Interlace vs. progressive scan



One complete frame using progressive scanning

# Progressive scan



[http://www.axis.com/products/video/camera/progressive\\_scan.htm](http://www.axis.com/products/video/camera/progressive_scan.htm)

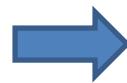
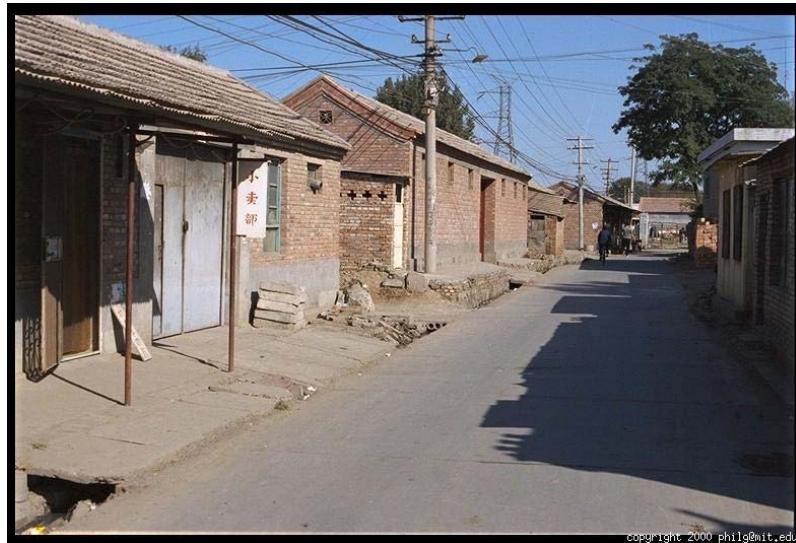
# Interlace



[http://www.axis.com/products/video/camera/progressive\\_scan.htm](http://www.axis.com/products/video/camera/progressive_scan.htm)

# Color Image

R



G



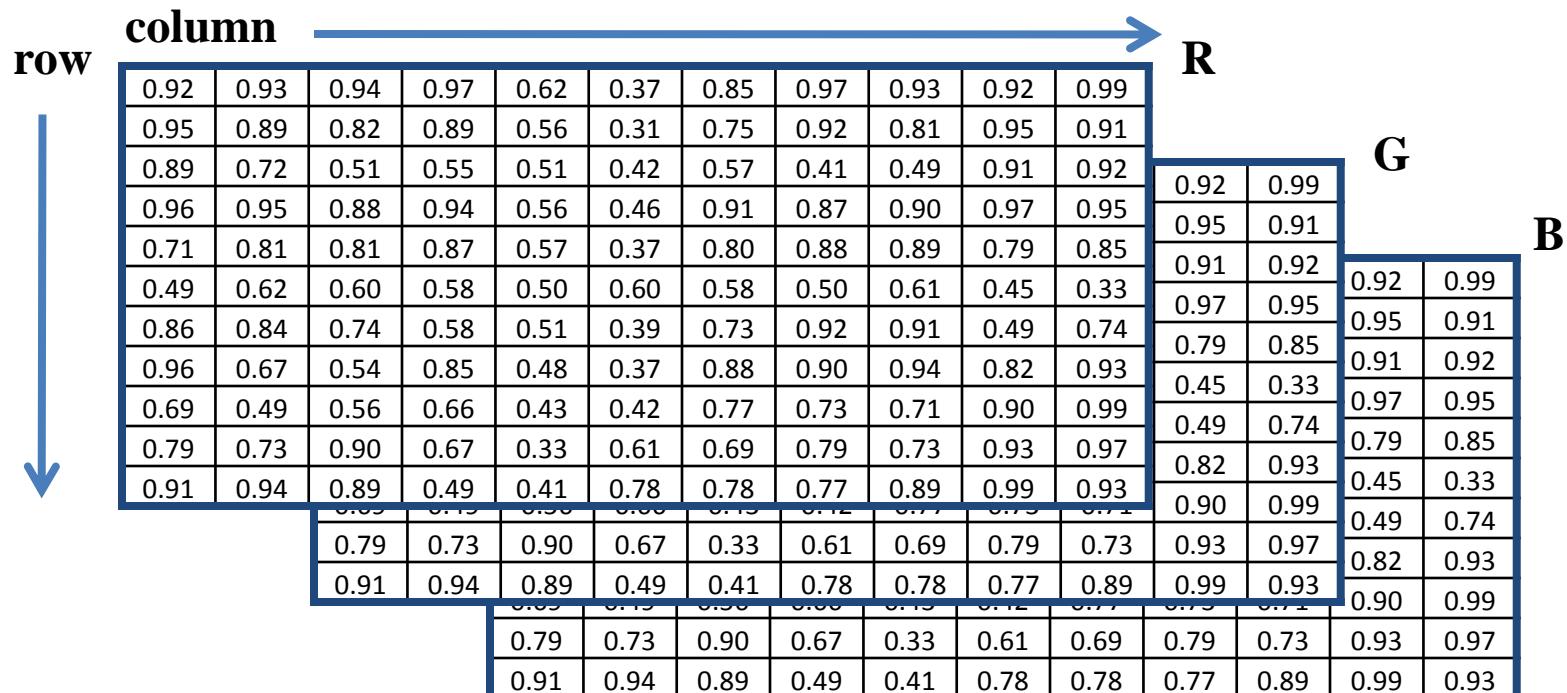
B



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# Images in Matlab

- Images represented as a matrix
- Suppose we have a NxM RGB image called “im”
  - $\text{im}(1,1,1)$  = top-left pixel value in R-channel
  - $\text{im}(y, x, b)$  = y pixels down, x pixels to right in the b<sup>th</sup> channel
  - $\text{im}(N, M, 3)$  = bottom-right pixel in B-channel
- `imread(filename)` returns a uint8 image (values 0 to 255)
  - Convert to double format (values 0 to 1) with `im2double`



# CCD color sampling

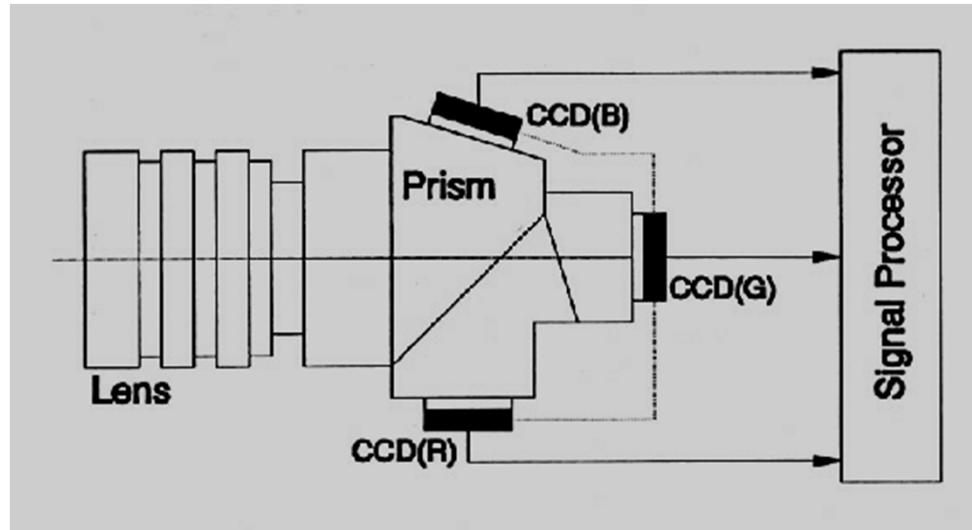
- Problem: a photosite can record only one number
- We need 3 numbers for color

# Some approaches to color sensing

- Scan 3 times (temporal multiplexing)
  - Drum scanners
  - Flat-bed scanners
  - Russian photographs from 1800's
- Use 3 detectors
  - High-end 3-tube or 3-ccd video cameras
- Use spatially offset color samples (spatial multiplexing)
  - Single-chip CCD color cameras
  - Human eye

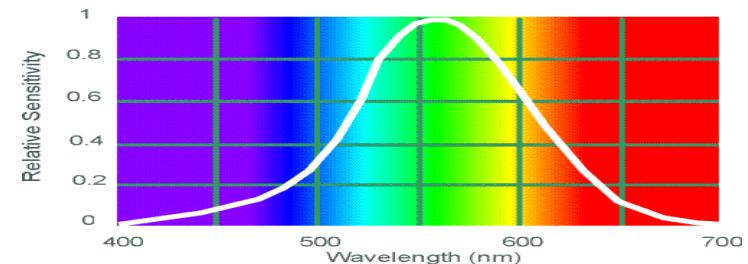
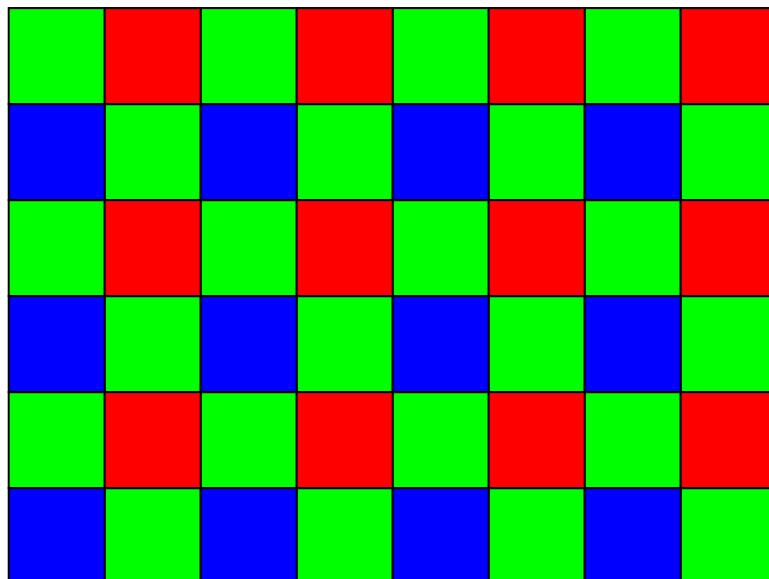
# 3 CCD Sensor

- 3-chip vs. 1-chip: quality vs. cost

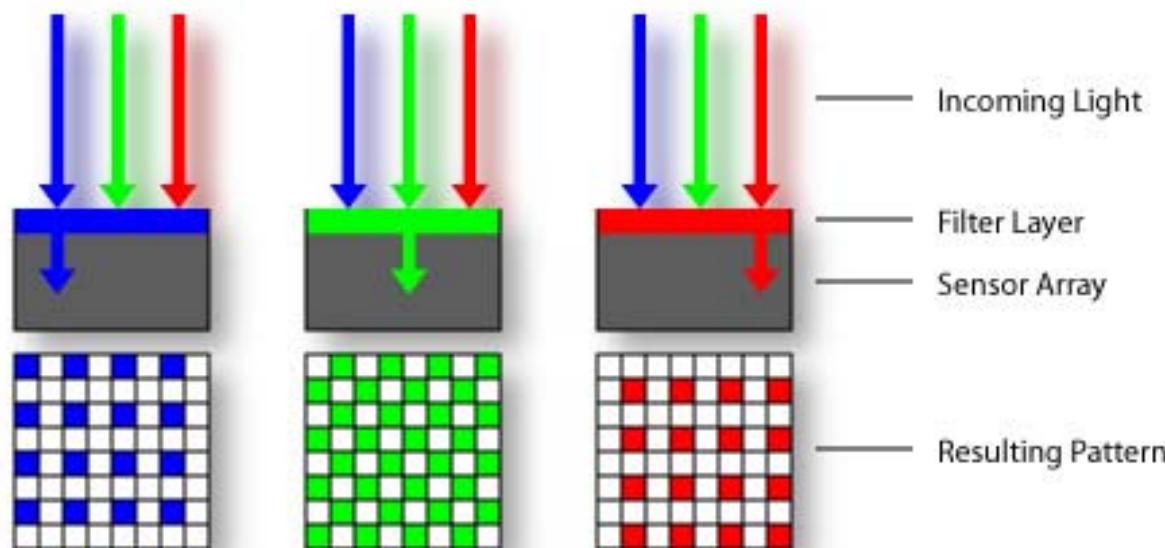
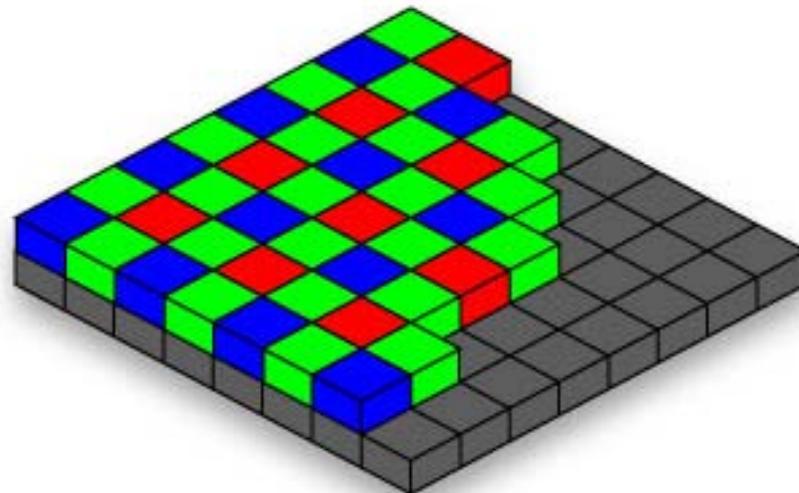


# Spatial Multiplexing: Bayer Grid

- Why more green?
  - We have 3 channels and square lattice doesn't like odd numbers
  - It's the spectrum “in the middle”
  - More important to human perception of brightness

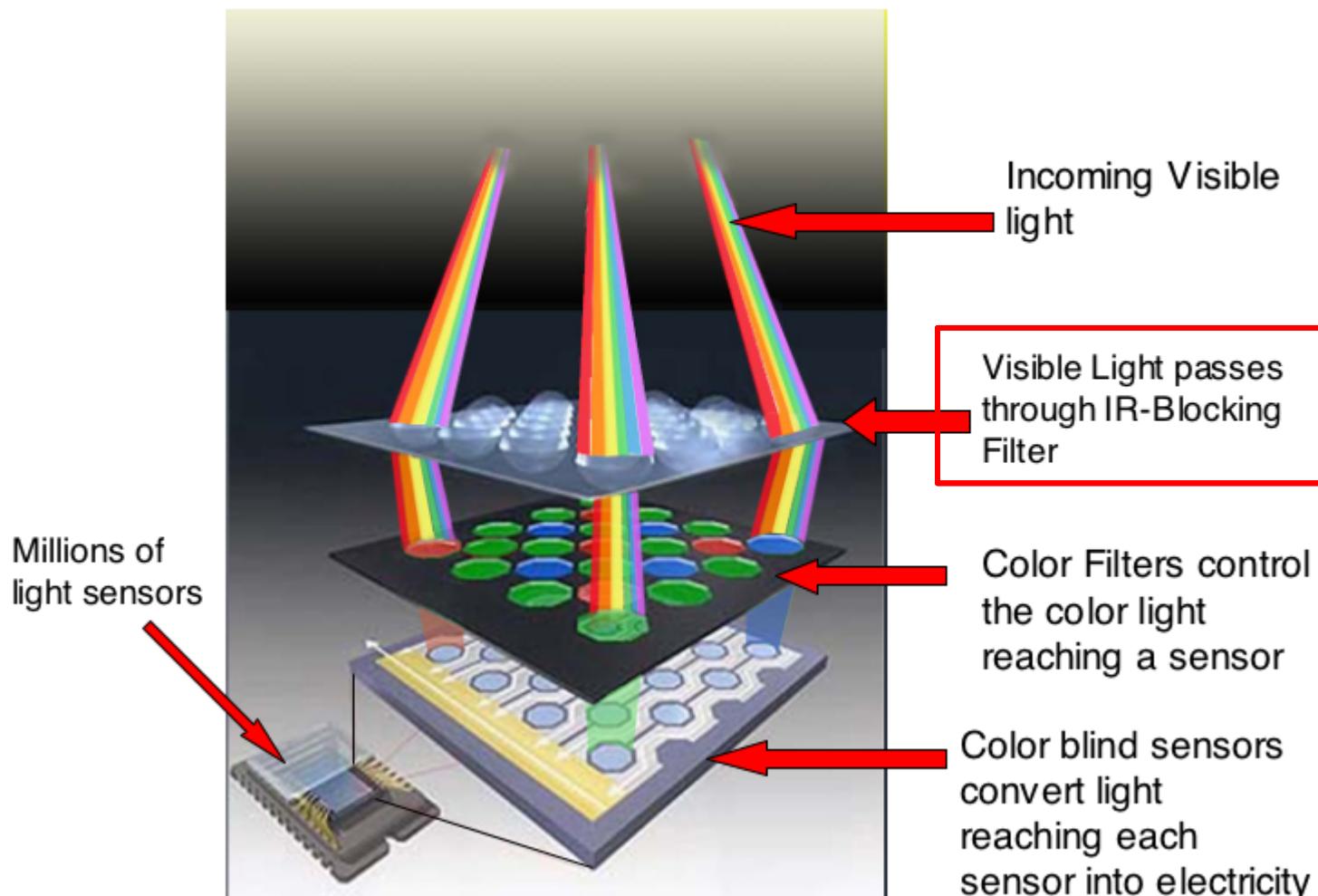


# Practical Color Sensing: Bayer Grid

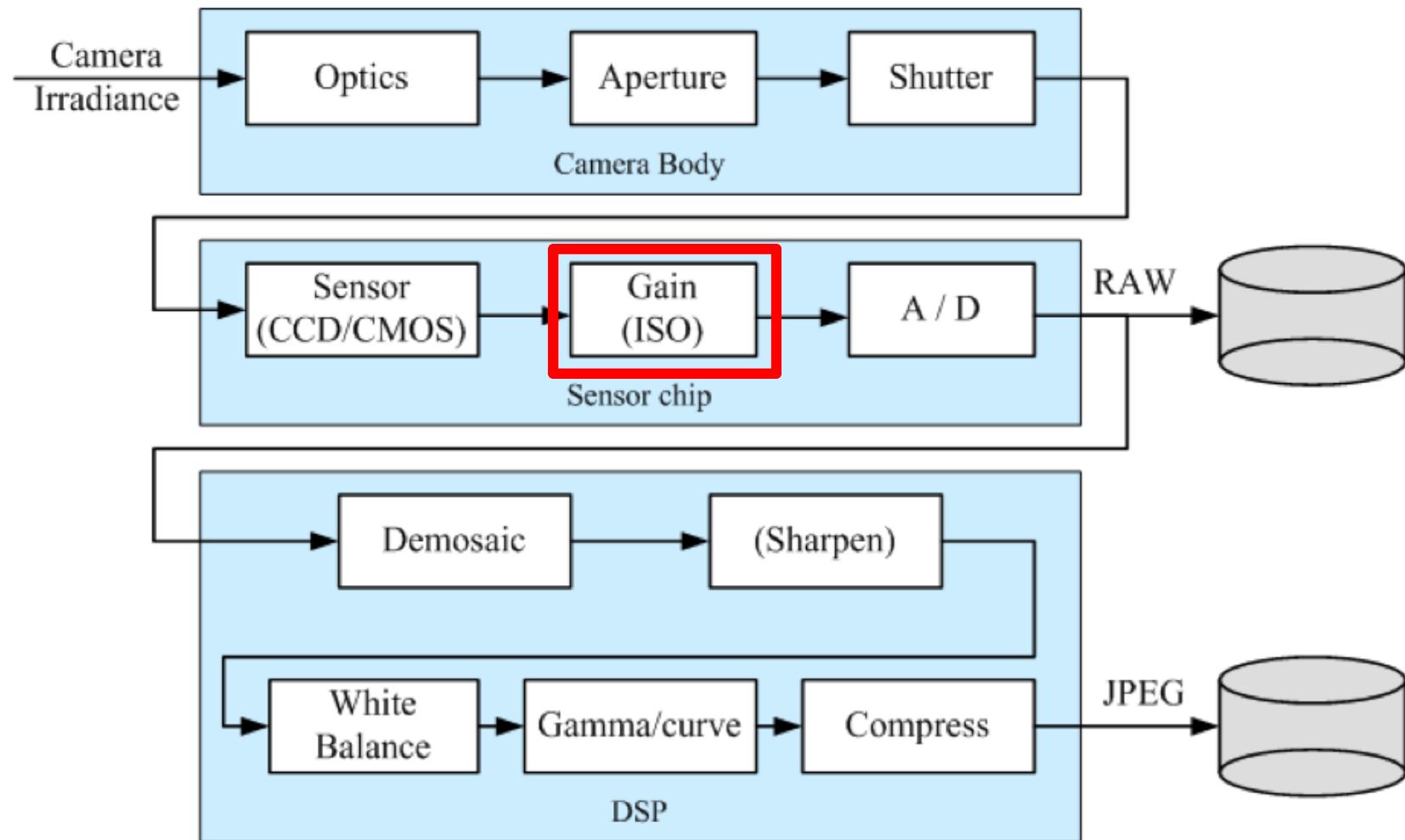


# Recap: Camera sensor

## RGB Inside the Camera

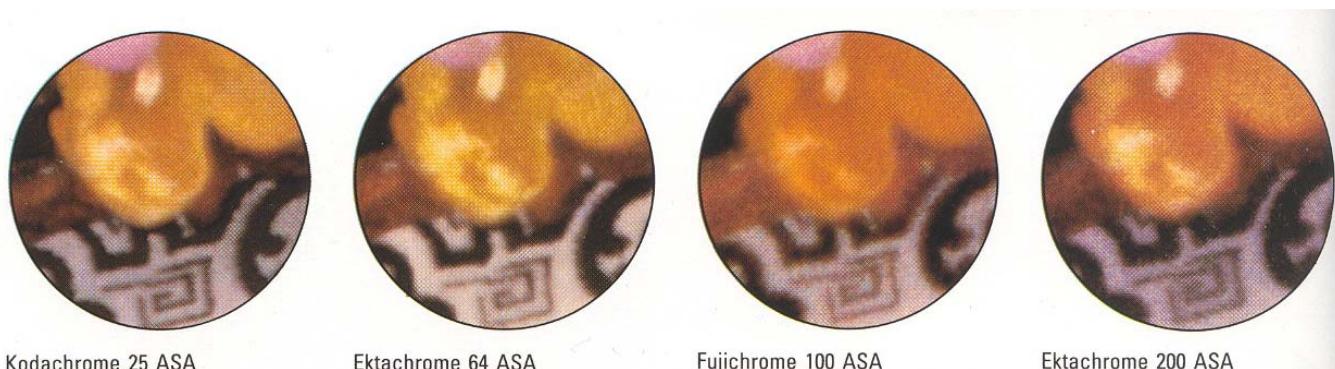


# Sensor Chip: Gain



# Sensitivity (ISO)

- Third variable for exposure: gain applied to sensor
- Linear effect (200 ISO needs half the light as 100 ISO)
- Film photography: trade sensitivity for grain



Kodachrome 25 ASA

Ektachrome 64 ASA

Fujichrome 100 ASA

Ektachrome 200 ASA

- Digital photography: trade sensitivity for noise

Nikon D2X ISO 100	Nikon D2X ISO 200	Nikon D2X ISO 400	Nikon D2X ISO 800	Nikon D2X ISO 1600	Nikon D2X ISO 3200
A dark gray square representing the image quality at ISO 100.	A darker gray square representing the image quality at ISO 200.	A dark gray square representing the image quality at ISO 400.	A dark gray square representing the image quality at ISO 800.	A dark gray square representing the image quality at ISO 1600.	A dark gray square representing the image quality at ISO 3200.
A portrait of a person's face with very low noise.	A portrait of a person's face with some visible noise.	A portrait of a person's face with significant noise.	A portrait of a person's face with a lot of noise.	A portrait of a person's face with very high noise.	A portrait of a person's face with extreme noise.

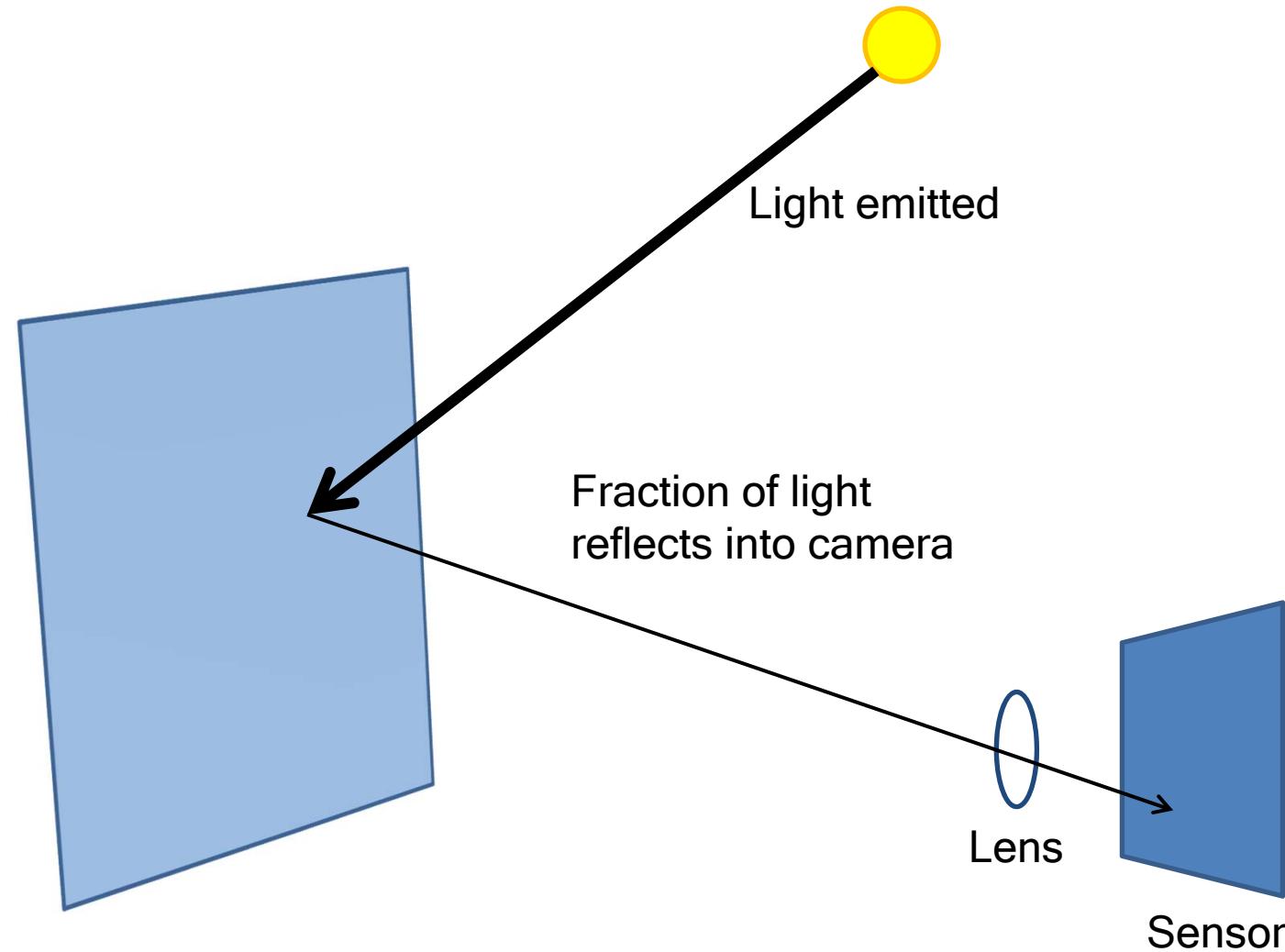
# Light and Shading

Slides by D. Hoiem



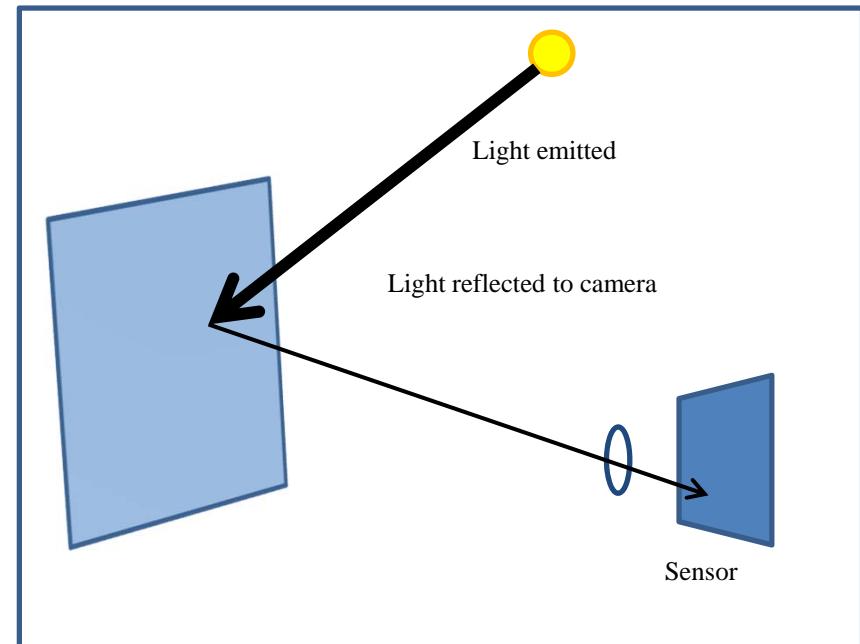
- What determines a pixel's intensity?
- What can we infer about the scene from pixel intensities?

# How does a pixel get its value?



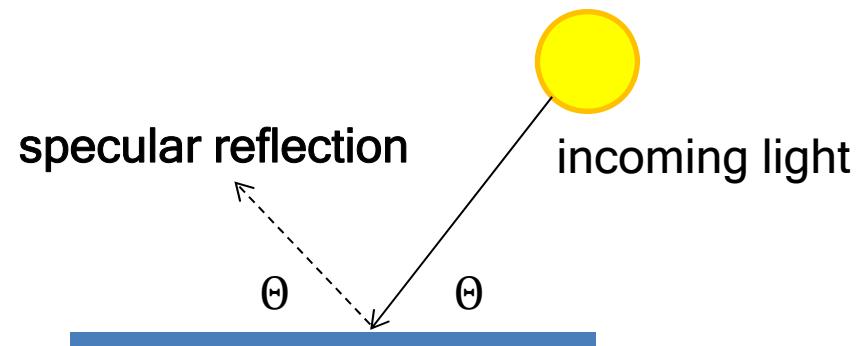
# How does a pixel get its value?

- Major factors
  - Illumination strength and direction
  - Surface geometry
  - Surface material
  - Nearby surfaces
  - Camera gain/exposure

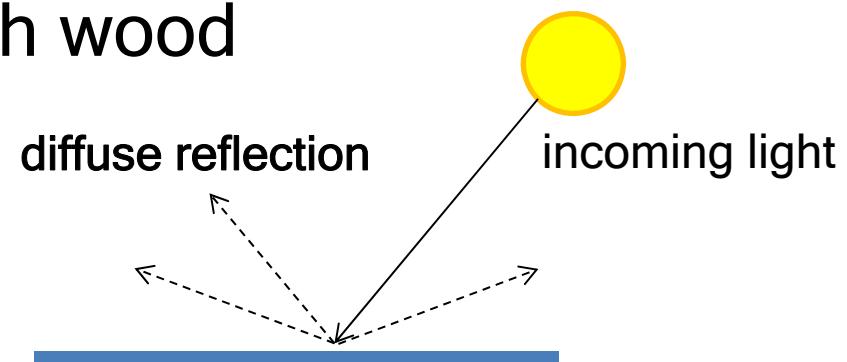


# Basic models of reflection

- Specular: light bounces off at the incident angle
  - E.g., mirror

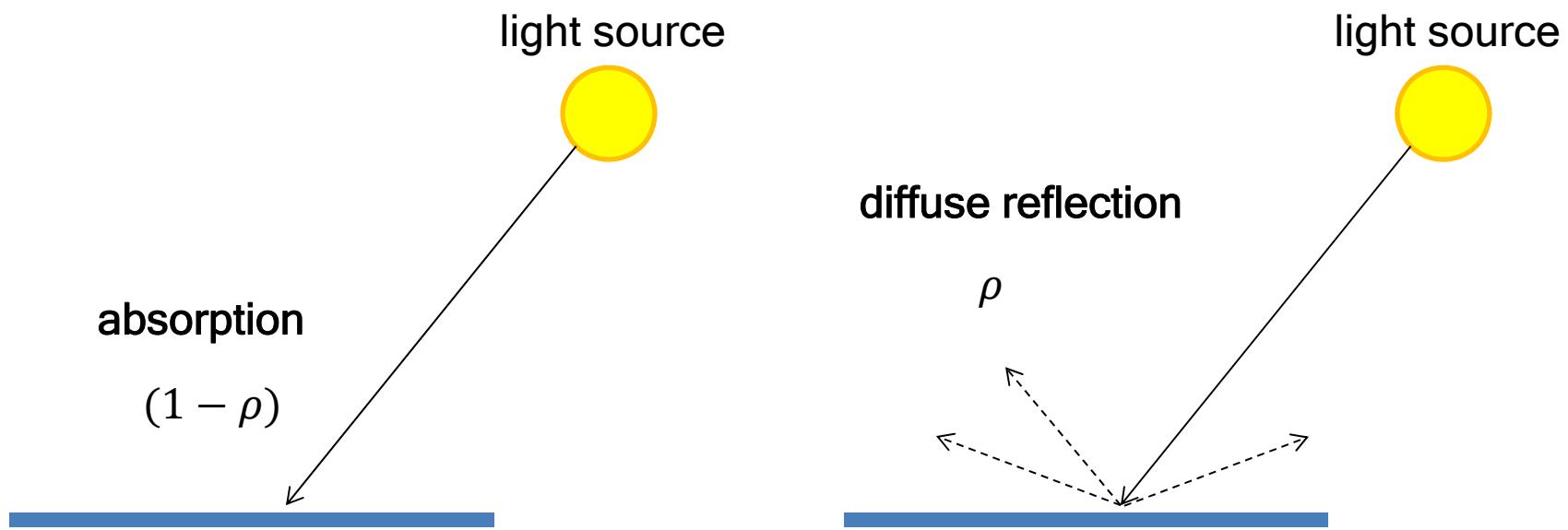


- Diffuse: light scatters in all directions
  - E.g., brick, cloth, rough wood



# Lambertian reflectance model

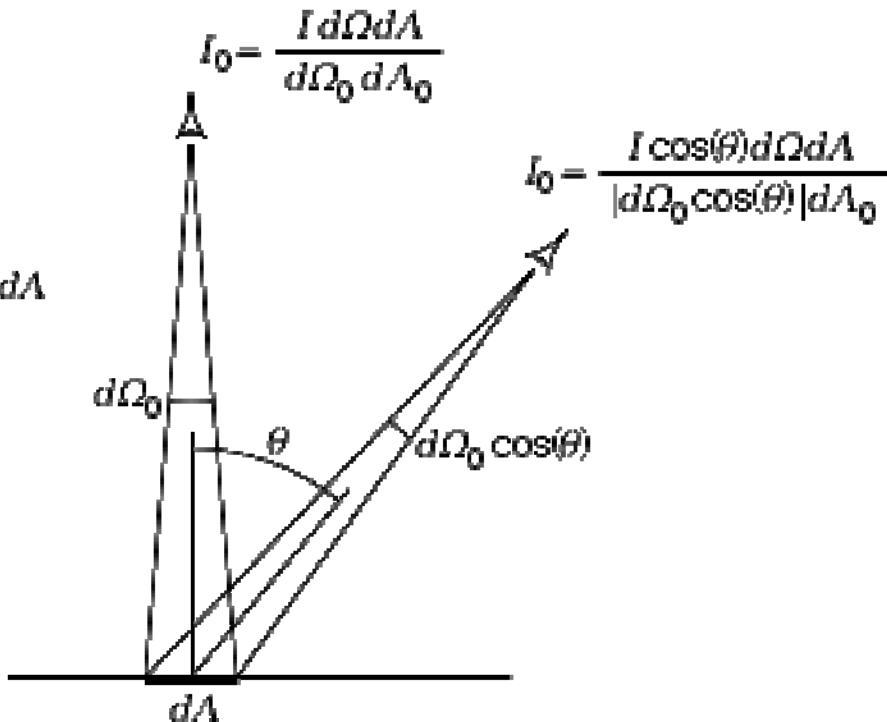
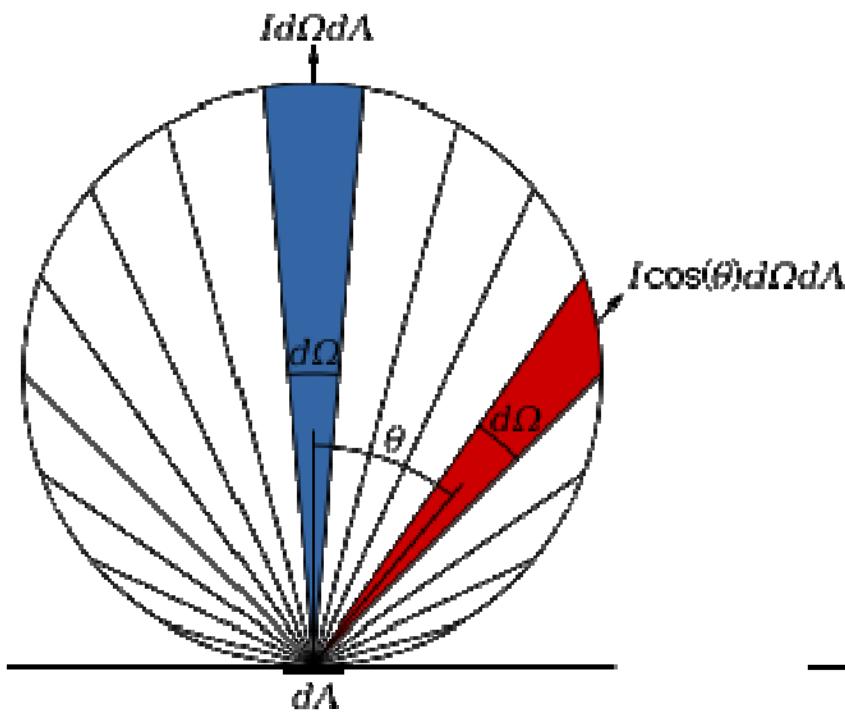
- Some light is absorbed (function of albedo  $\rho$ )
- Remaining light is scattered (diffuse reflection)
- Examples: soft cloth, concrete, matte paints



# Diffuse reflection: Lambert's cosine law

Intensity does *not* depend on viewer angle.

- Amount of reflected light proportional to  $\cos(\theta)$
- Visible solid angle also proportional to  $\cos(\theta)$



# Most surfaces have both specular and diffuse components

- Specularity = spot where specular reflection dominates (typically reflects light source)



Photo: northcountryhardwoodfloors.com



Typically, specular component is small

# Intensity and Surface Orientation

Intensity depends on illumination angle because less light comes in at oblique angles.

$\rho$  = albedo

$S$  = directional source

$N$  = surface normal

$I$  = reflected intensity

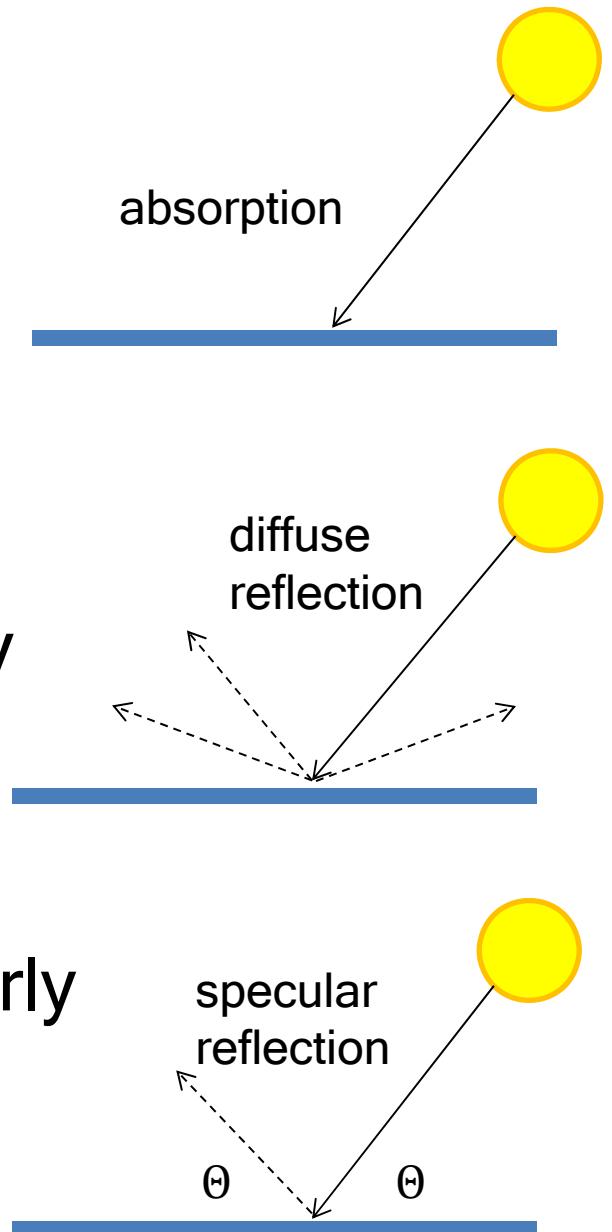
$$I(x) = \rho(x)(S \cdot N(x))$$





# Recap

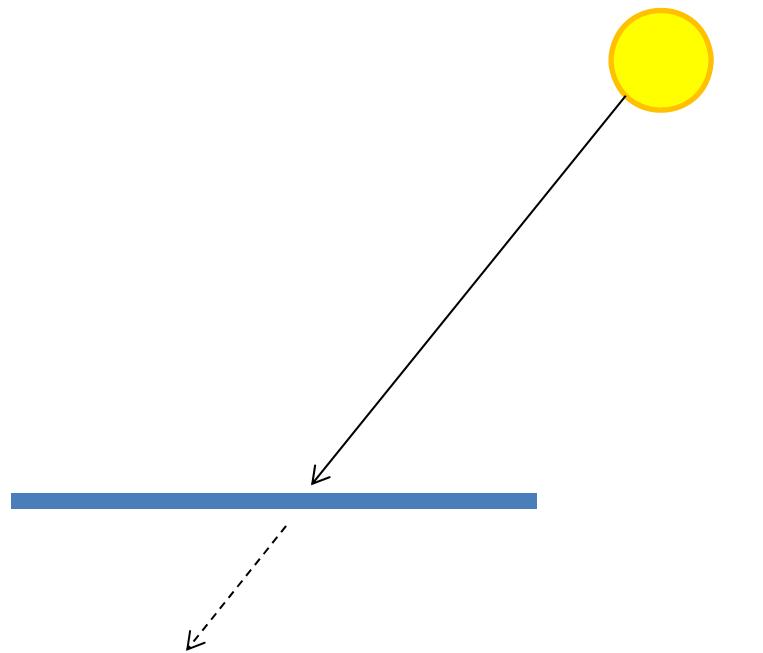
- When light hits a typical surface
  - Some light is absorbed ( $1-\rho$ )
    - More absorbed for low albedos
  - Some light is reflected diffusely
    - Independent of viewing direction
  - Some light is reflected specularly
    - Light bounces off (like a mirror), depends on viewing direction



# Other possible effects

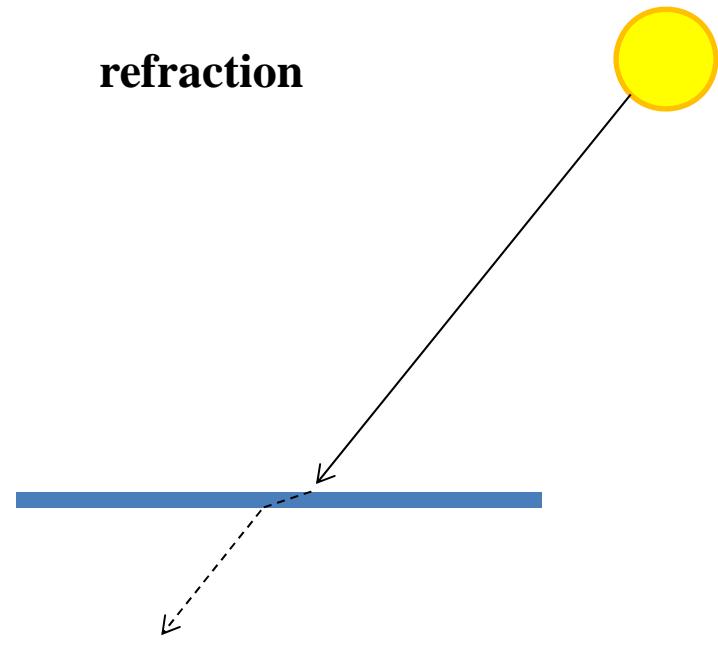


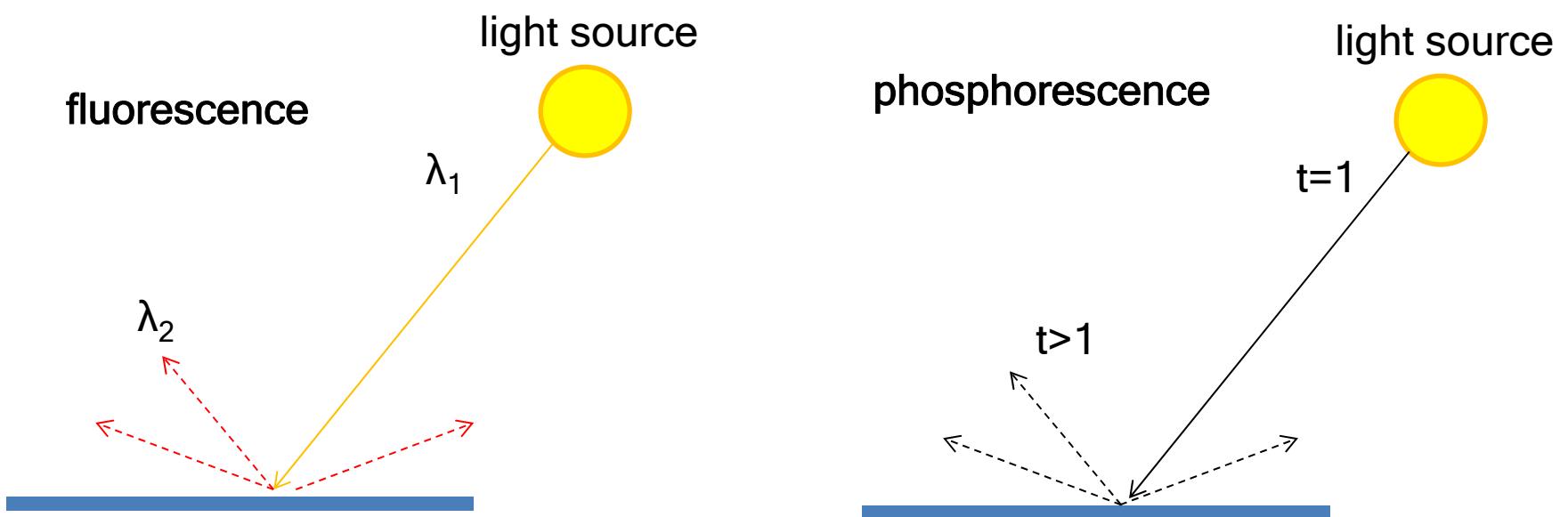
transparency

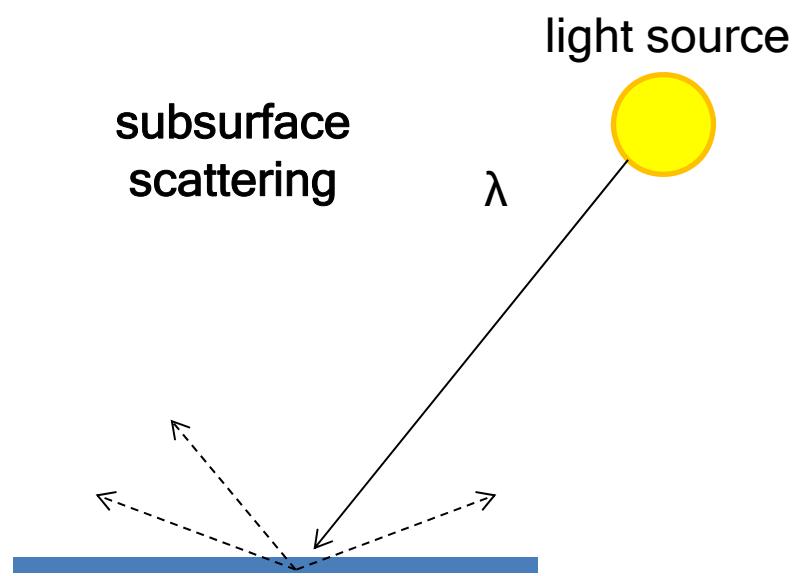
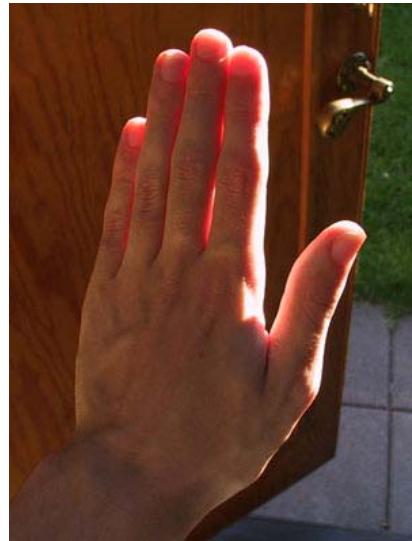


light source

refraction

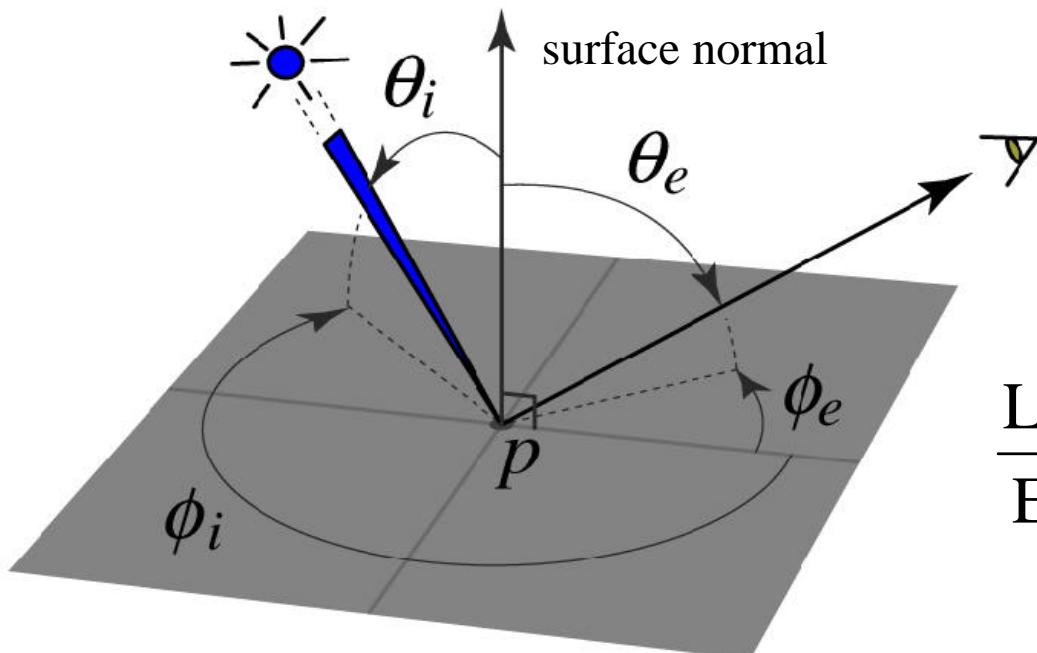






# BRDF: Bidirectional Reflectance Distribution Function

- Model of local reflection that tells how bright a surface appears when viewed from one direction when light falls on it from another
  - Ratio of measured outgoing radiance in direction  $(\theta_e, \phi_e)$  to irradiance from direction  $(\theta_i, \phi_i)$
  - Reciprocal



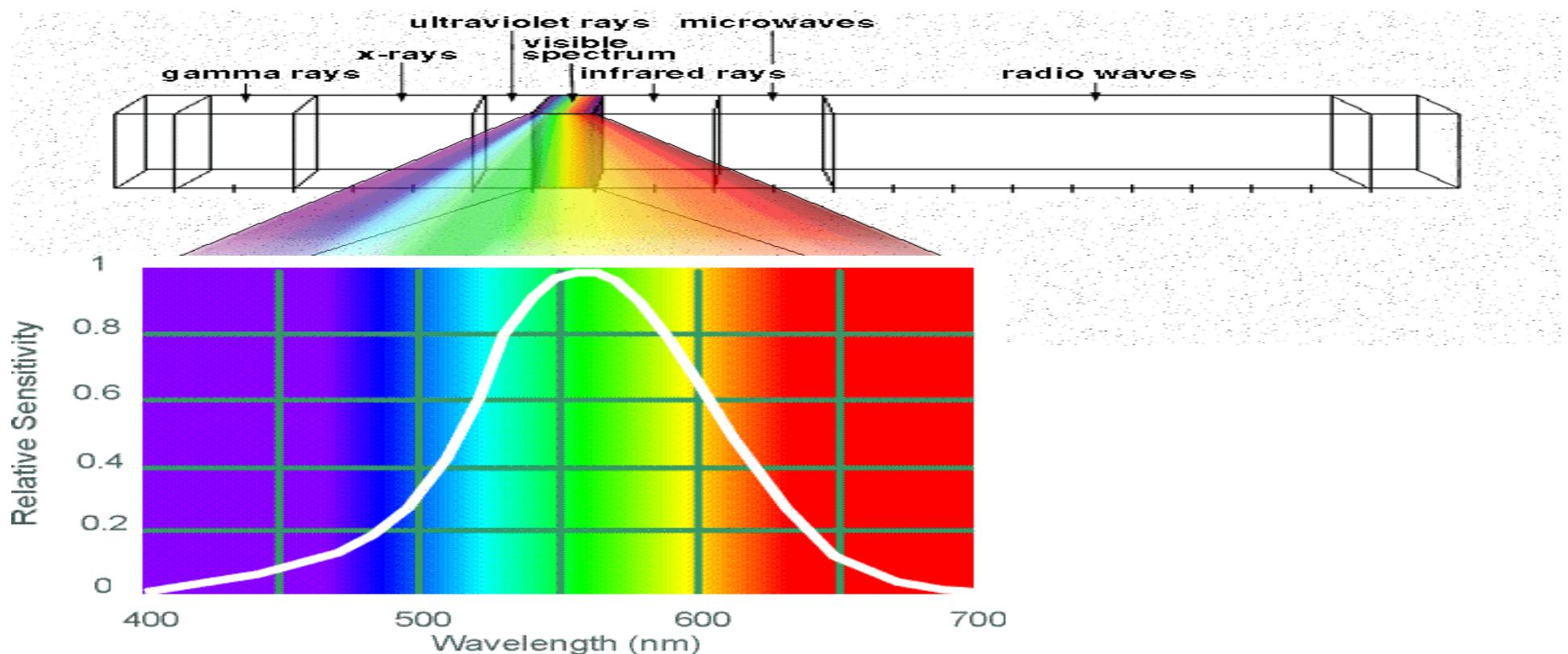
$$\rho(\theta_i, \phi_i, \theta_e, \phi_e; \lambda) =$$

$$\frac{L_e(\theta_e, \phi_e)}{E_i(\theta_i, \phi_i)} = \frac{L_e(\theta_e, \phi_e)}{L_i(\theta_i, \phi_i) \cos \theta_i d\omega}$$

Slide credit: S. Savarese

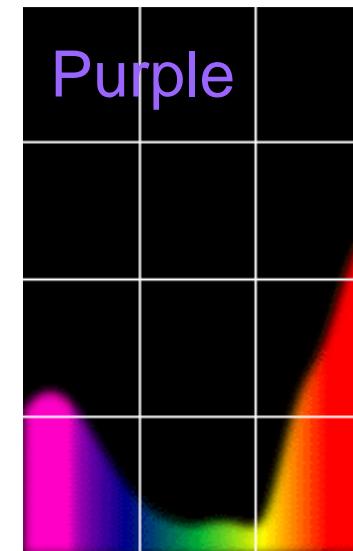
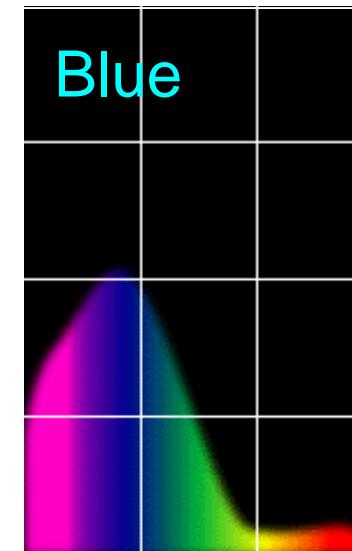
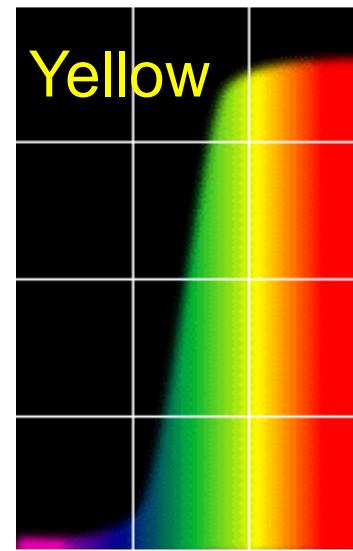
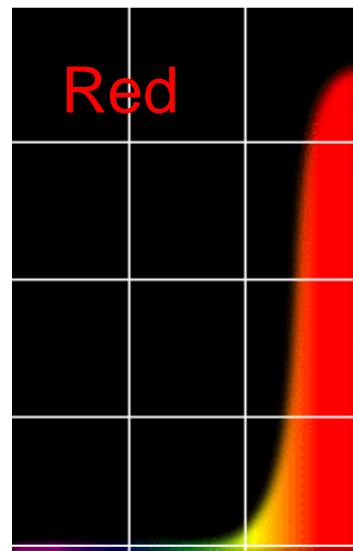
# Color

Light is composed of a spectrum of wavelengths



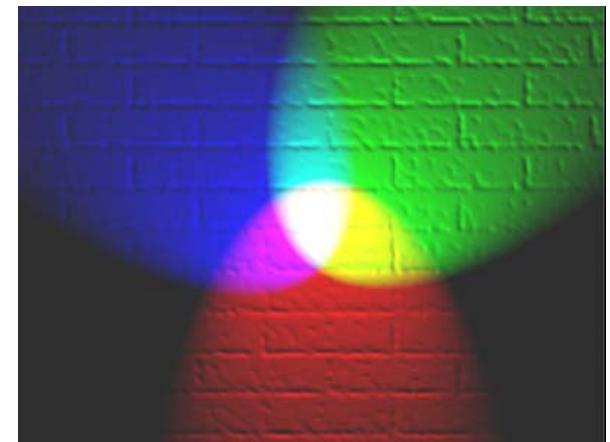
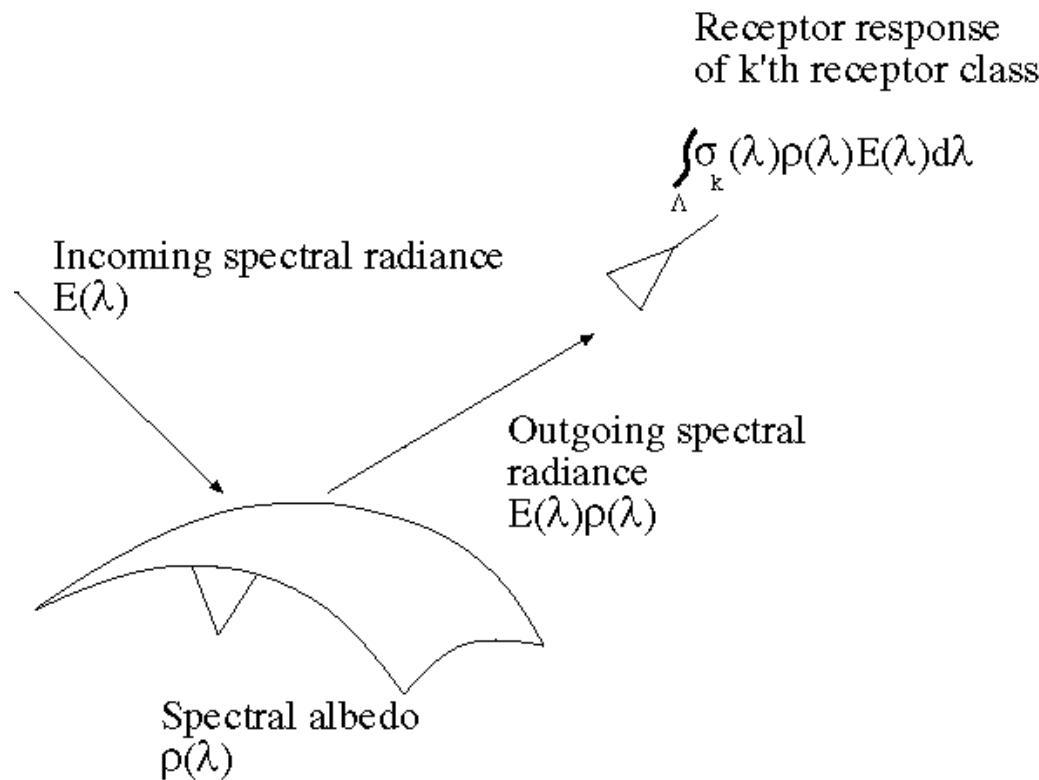
Human Luminance Sensitivity Function

# Some examples of the reflectance spectra of surfaces



# The color of objects

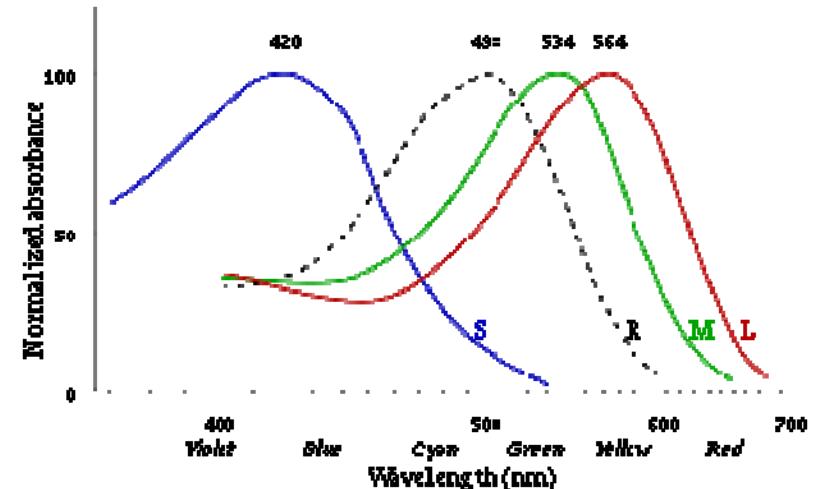
- Colored light arriving at the camera involves two effects
  - The color of the light source (illumination + inter-reflections)
  - The color of the surface



# Why RGB?

If light is a spectrum, why are images RGB?

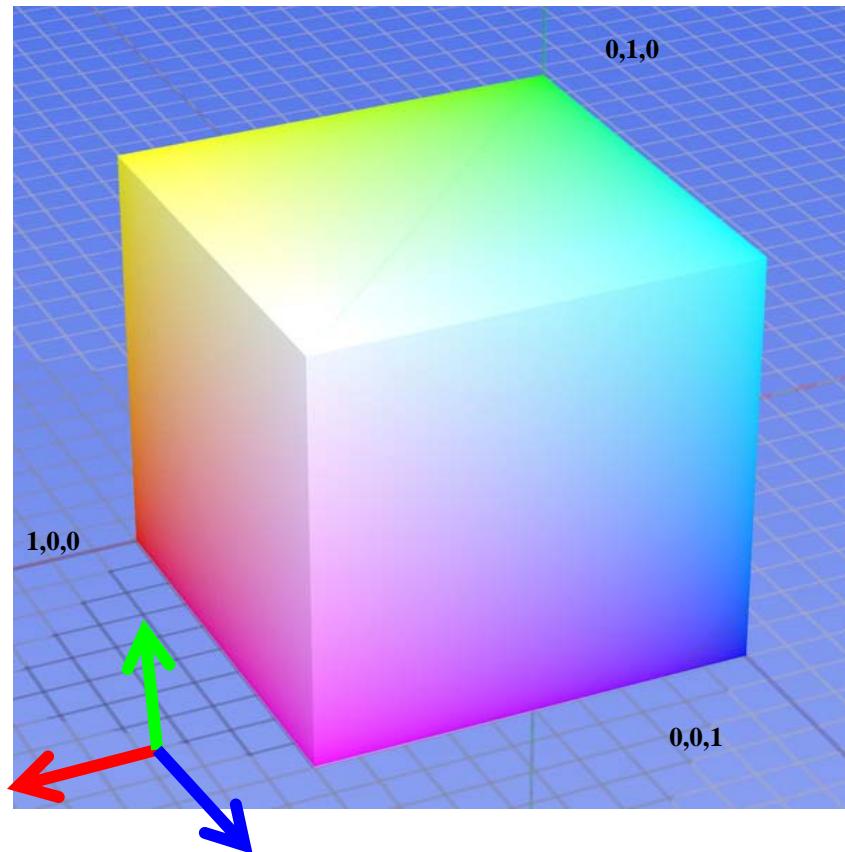
# Human color receptors



- Long (red), Medium (green), and Short (blue) cones, plus intensity rods
- Fun facts
  - “M” and “L” on the X-chromosome
    - That’s why men are more likely to be color blind
  - “L” has high variation, so some women are tetrachromatic
  - Some animals have 1 (night animals), 2 (e.g., dogs), 4 (fish, birds), 5 (pigeons, some reptiles/amphibians), or even 12 (mantis shrimp) types of cones

# Color spaces: RGB

Default color space



Some drawbacks

- Strongly correlated channels
- Non-perceptual



R  
(G=0,B=0)



G  
(R=0,B=0)



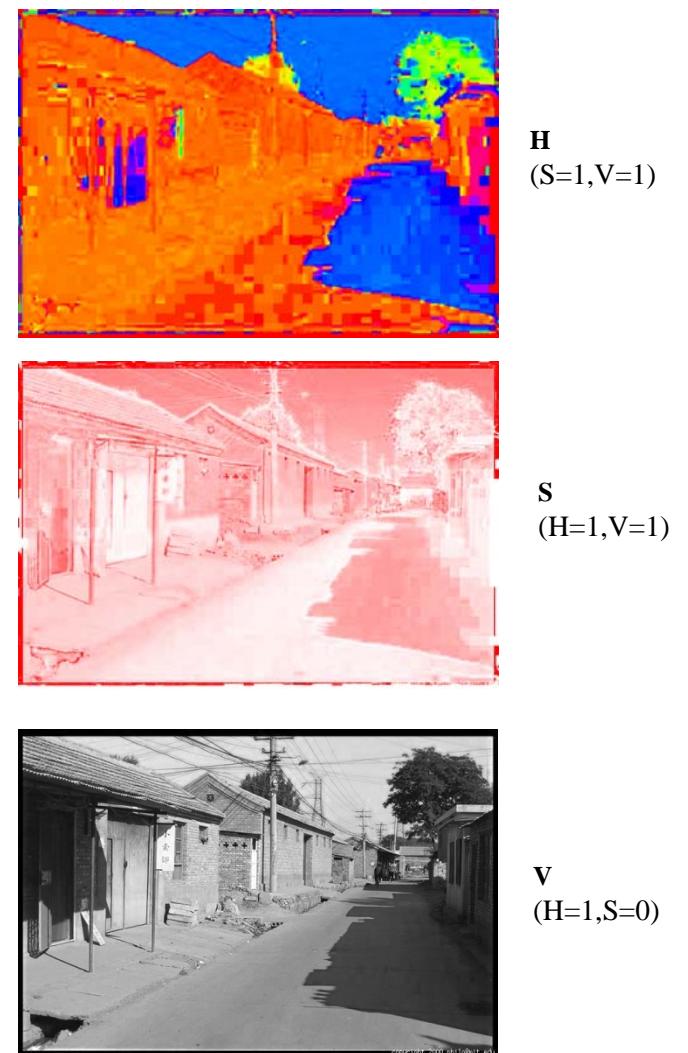
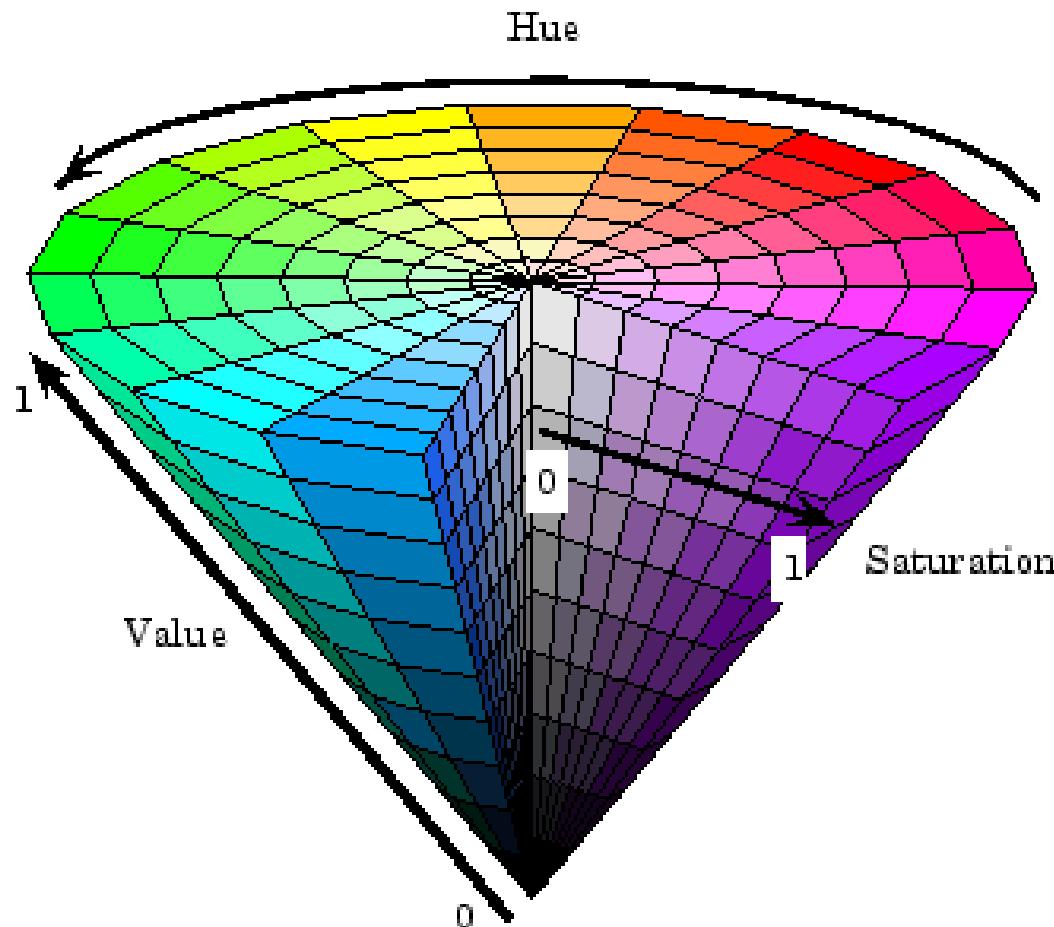
B  
(R=0,G=0)

Image from: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:RGB\\_color\\_solid\\_cube.png](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:RGB_color_solid_cube.png)

# Color spaces: HSV

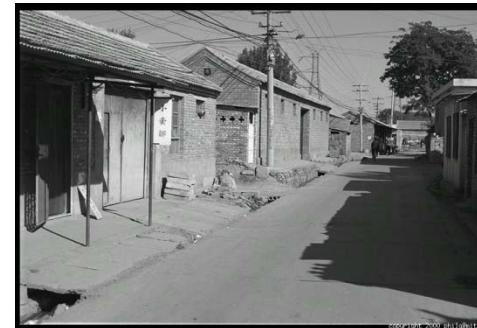
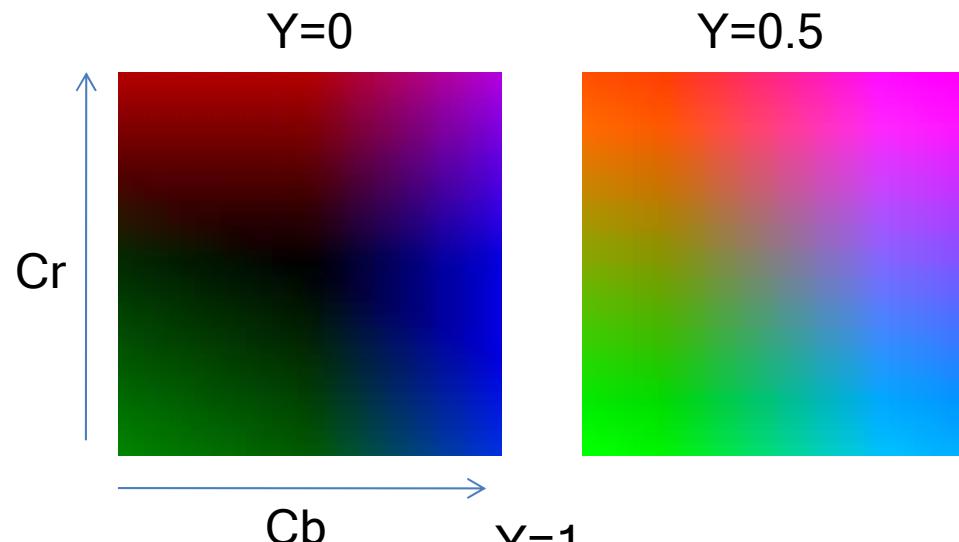


Intuitive color space



# Color spaces: YCbCr

Fast to compute, good for compression, used by TV



**Y**  
(Cb=0.5,Cr=0.5)



**Cb**  
(Y=0.5,Cr=0.5)



**Cr**  
(Y=0.5,Cb=0.5)

$$Y' = 16 + \frac{65.738 \cdot R'_D}{256} + \frac{129.057 \cdot G'_D}{256} + \frac{25.064 \cdot B'_D}{256}$$

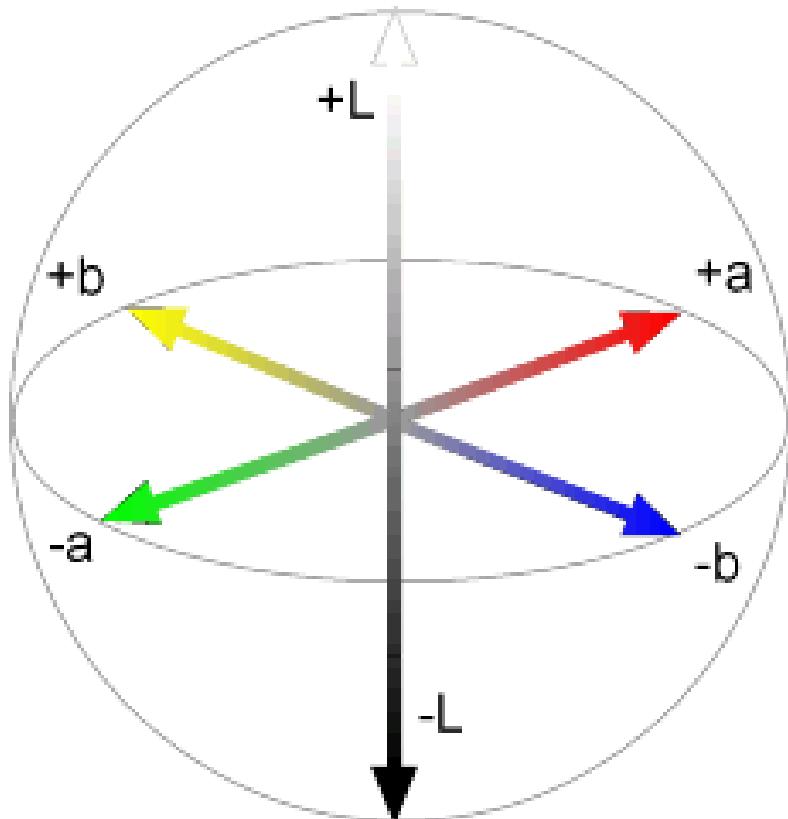
$$C_B = 128 + \frac{-37.945 \cdot R'_D}{256} - \frac{74.494 \cdot G'_D}{256} + \frac{112.439 \cdot B'_D}{256}$$

$$C_R = 128 + \frac{112.439 \cdot R'_D}{256} - \frac{94.154 \cdot G'_D}{256} - \frac{18.285 \cdot B'_D}{256}$$

# Color spaces: CIE L\*a\*b\*



“Perceptually uniform” color space



Luminance = brightness  
Chrominance = color



**L**  
( $a=0, b=0$ )



**a**  
( $L=65, b=0$ )



**b**  
( $L=65, a=0$ )

Which contains more information?

- (a) intensity (1 channel)
- (b) chrominance (2 channels)

# Most information in intensity



Only color shown – constant intensity

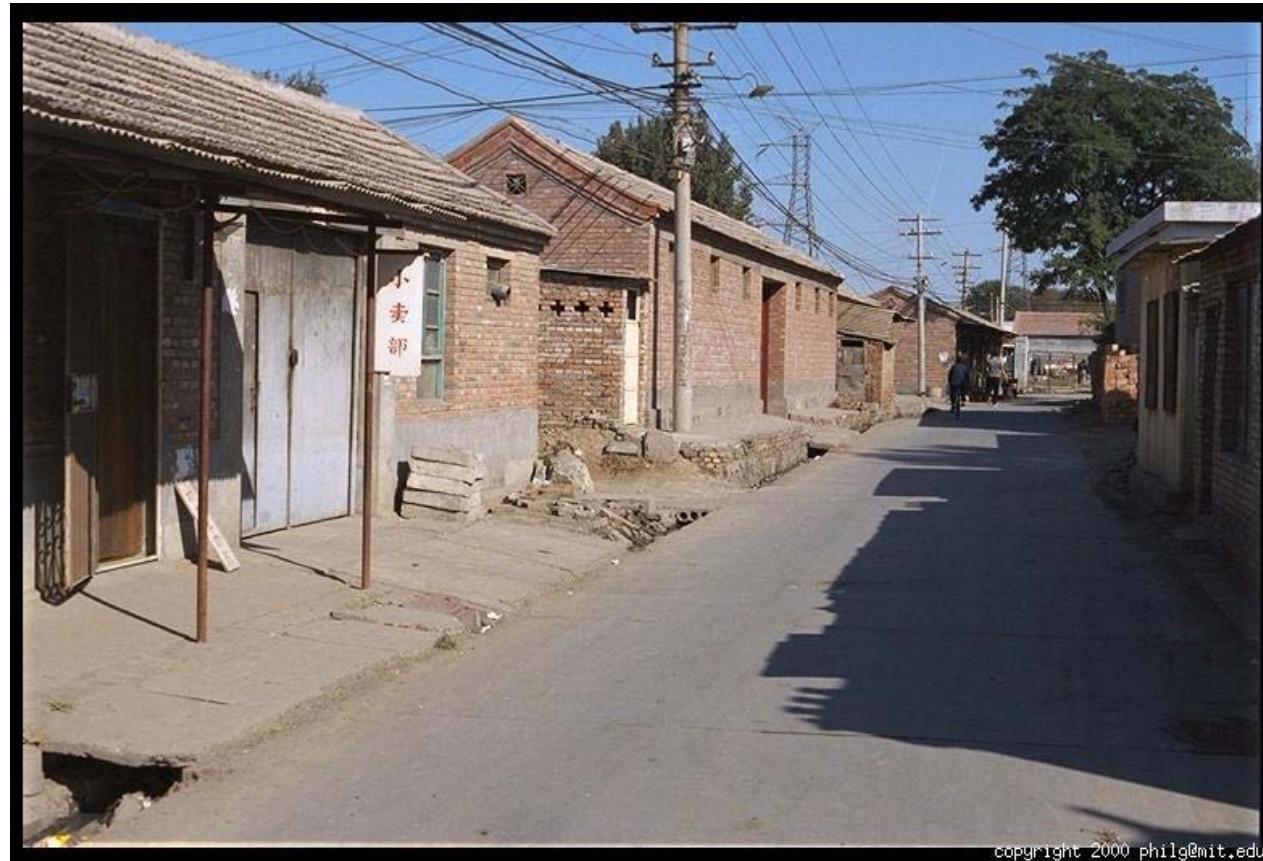
# Most information in intensity



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Only intensity shown – constant color

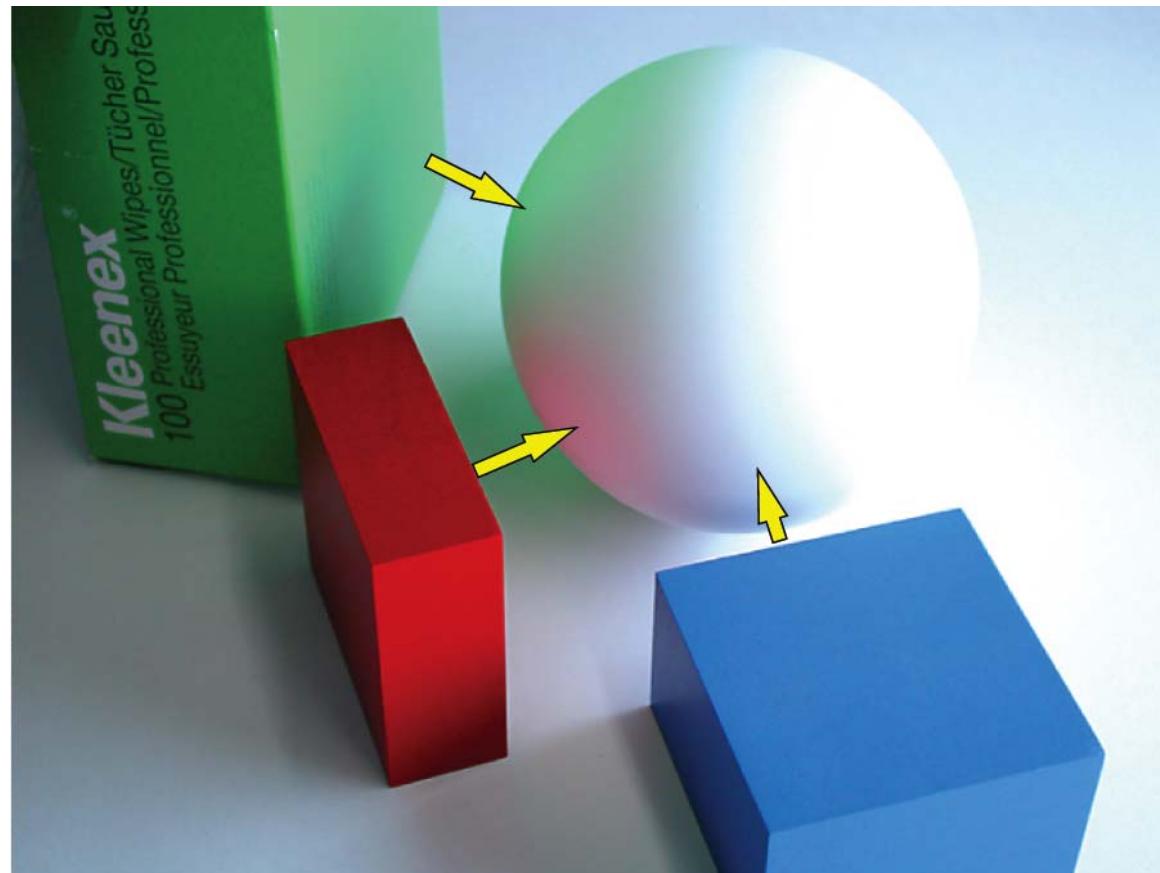
# Most information in intensity



Original image

# So far: light → surface → camera

- Called a local illumination model
- But much light comes from surrounding surfaces

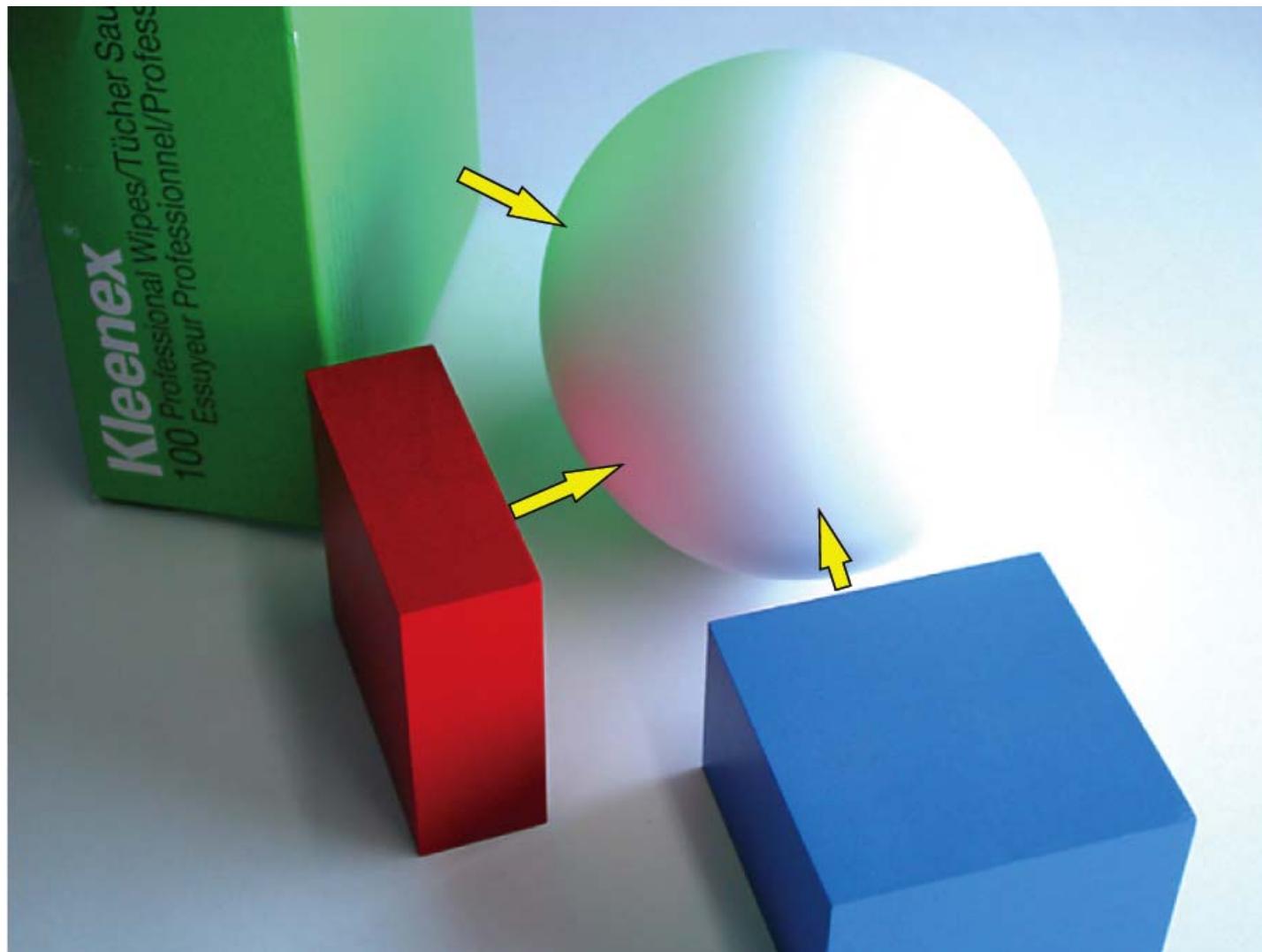


From Koenderink slides on image texture and the flow of light

# Inter-reflection is a major source of light

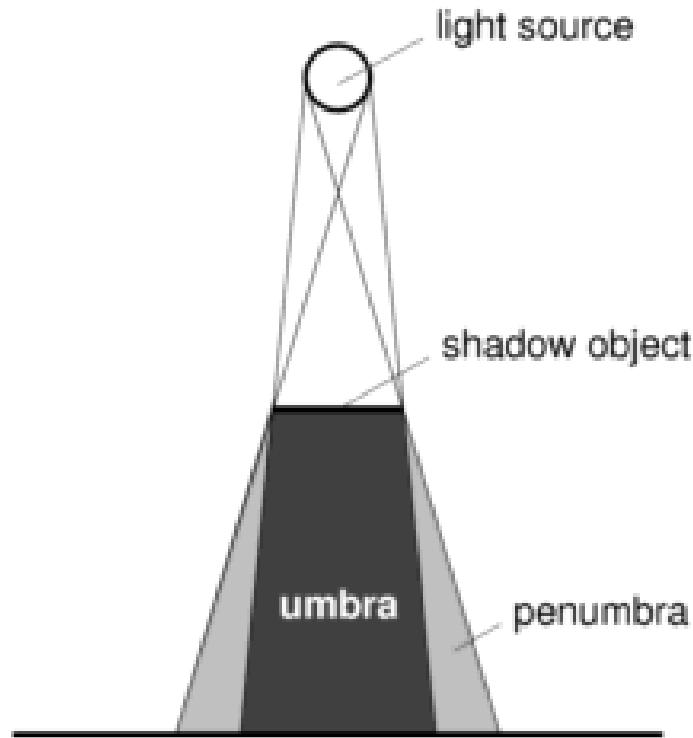


Inter-reflection affects the apparent color of objects

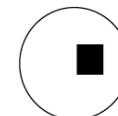
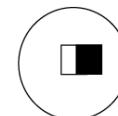
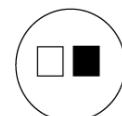
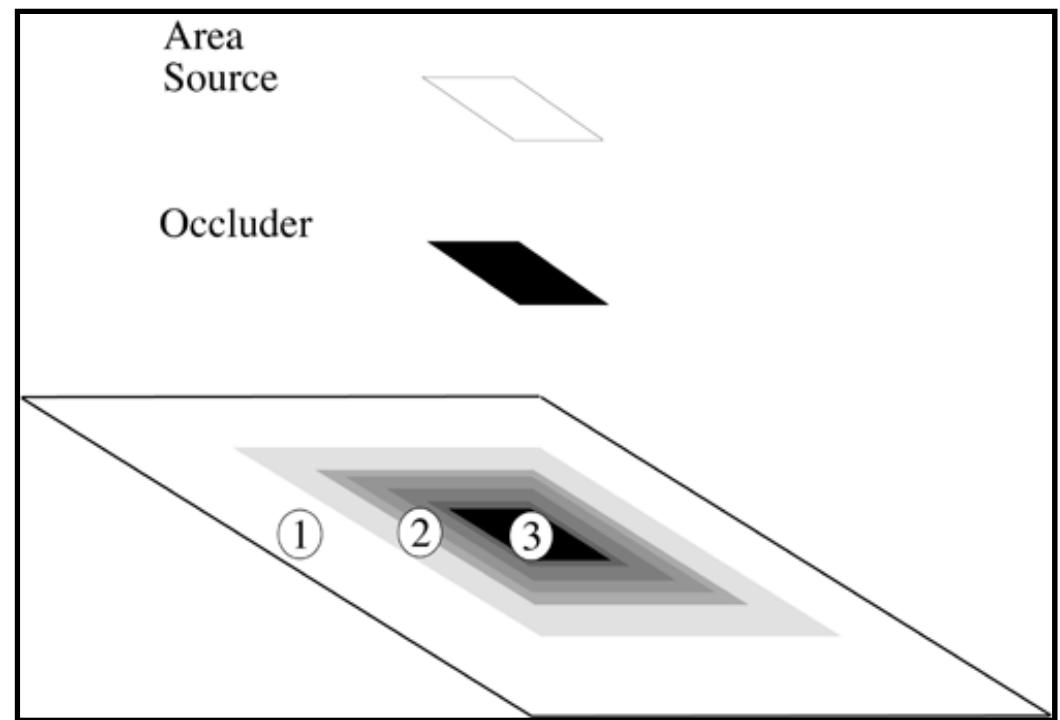
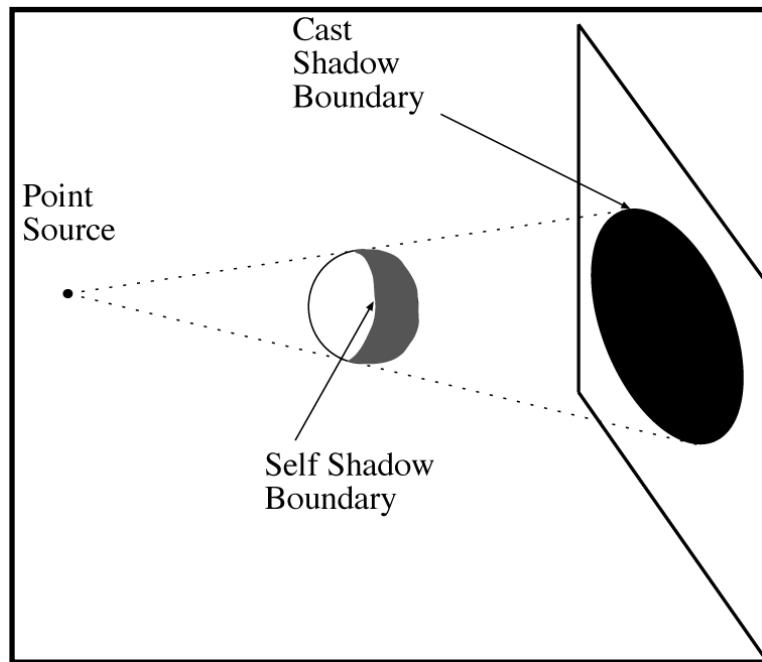


# Scene surfaces also cause shadows

- Shadow: reduction in intensity due to a blocked source



# Shadows



1

2

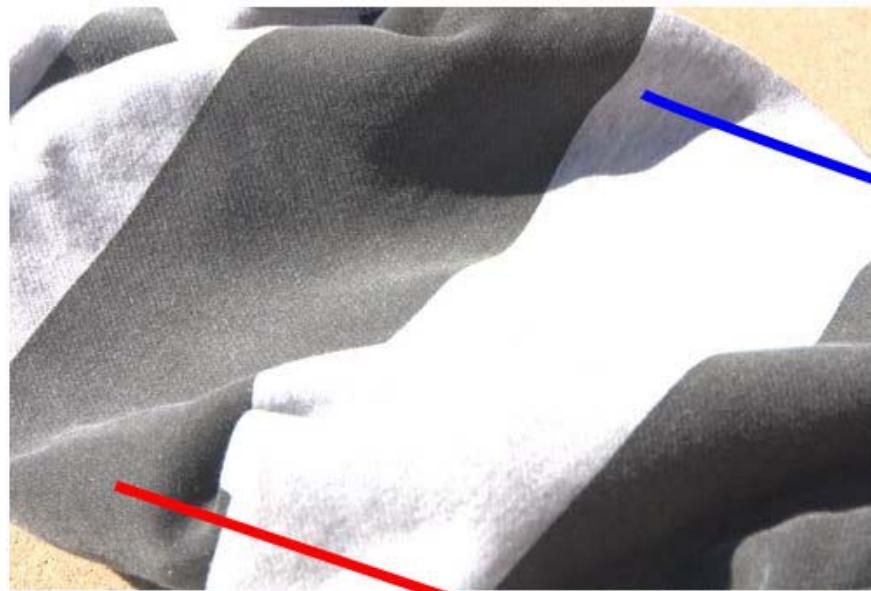
3

# Models of light sources

- Distant point source
  - One illumination direction
  - E.g., sun
- Area source
  - E.g., white walls, diffuser lamps, sky
- Ambient light
  - Substitute for dealing with interreflections
- Global illumination model
  - Account for interreflections in modeled scene

# The plight of the poor pixel

- A pixel's brightness is determined by
  - Light source (strength, direction, color)
  - Surface orientation
  - Surface material and albedo
  - Reflected light and shadows from surrounding surfaces
  - Gain on the sensor
- A pixel's brightness tells us nothing by itself



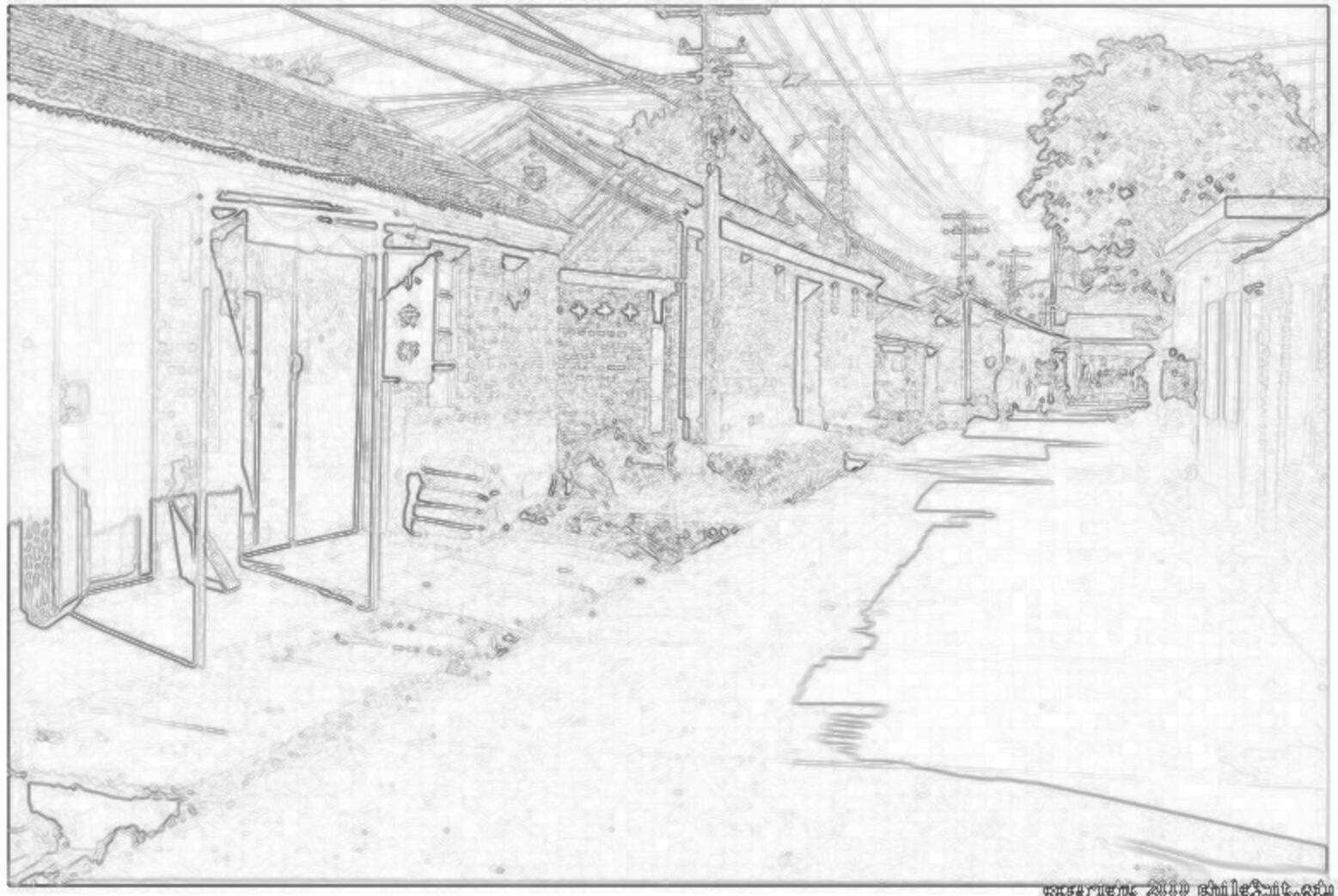
# And yet we can interpret images...



copyright 2000 philg@mit.edu

- Key idea: for nearby scene points, most factors do not change much
- The information is mainly contained in *local differences* of brightness

# Darkness = Large Difference in Neighboring Pixels



Copyright 2010 Philip Nott, Jr.

# What is this?





# What differences in intensity tell us about shape

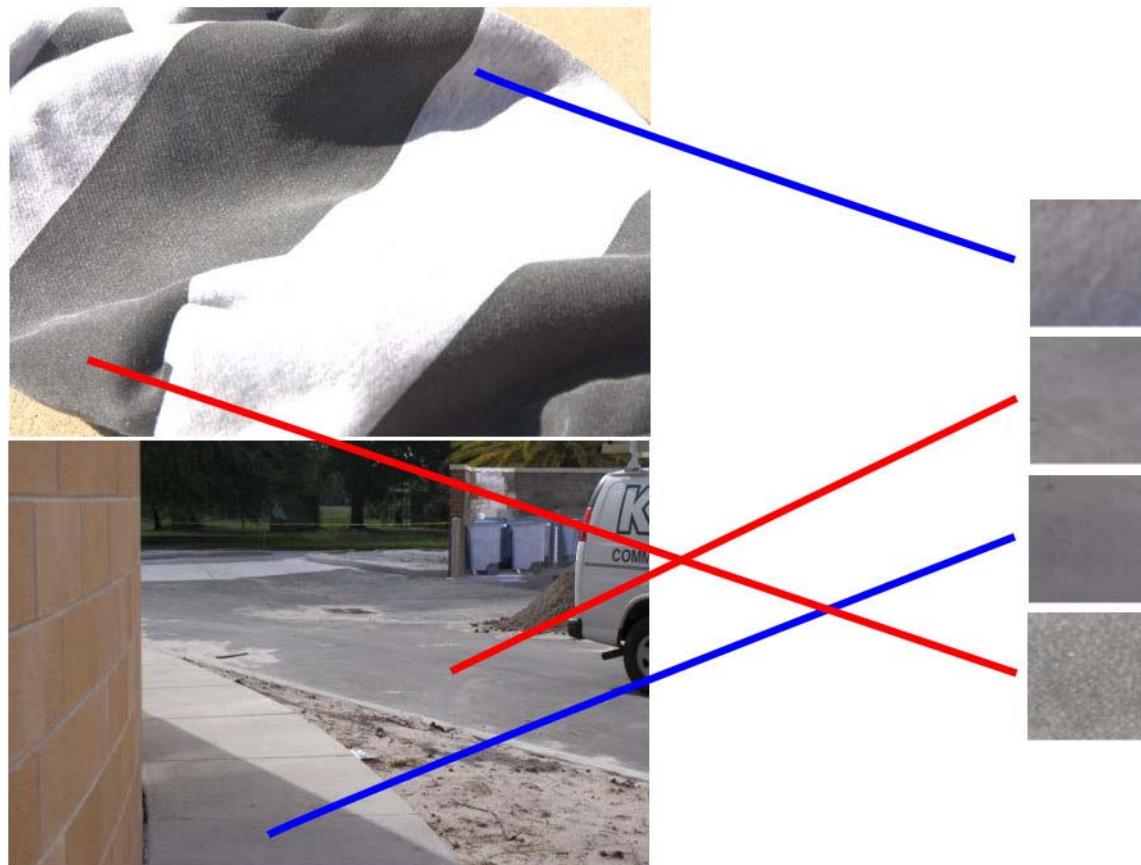
- Changes in surface normal
- Texture
- Proximity
- Indents and bumps
- Grooves and creases



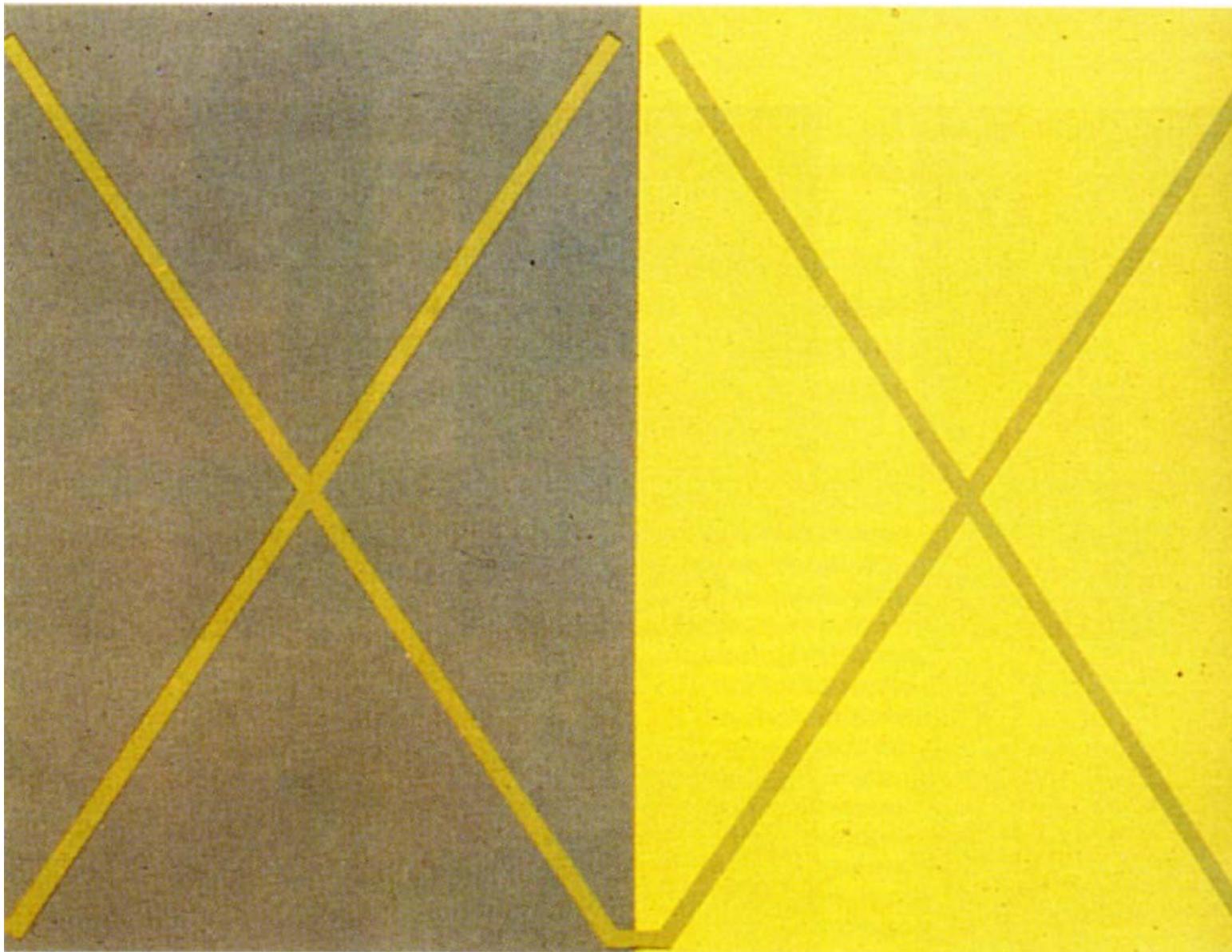
Photos Koenderink slides on image texture and the flow of light

# Color constancy

- Interpret surface in terms of albedo or “true color”, rather than observed intensity
  - Humans are good at it
  - Computers are not nearly as good



One source of constancy: local comparisons

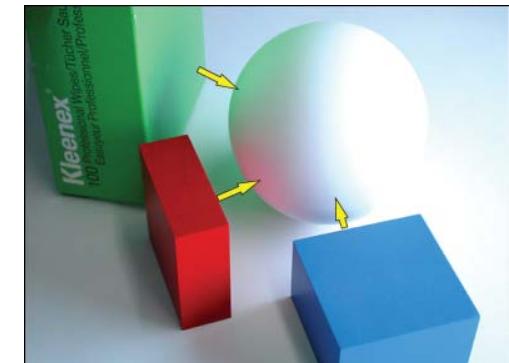
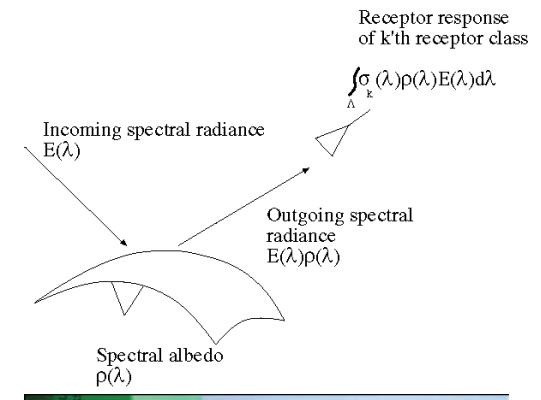




<http://www.echalk.co.uk/amusements/OpticalIllusions/colourPerception/colourPerception.html>

# Things to remember

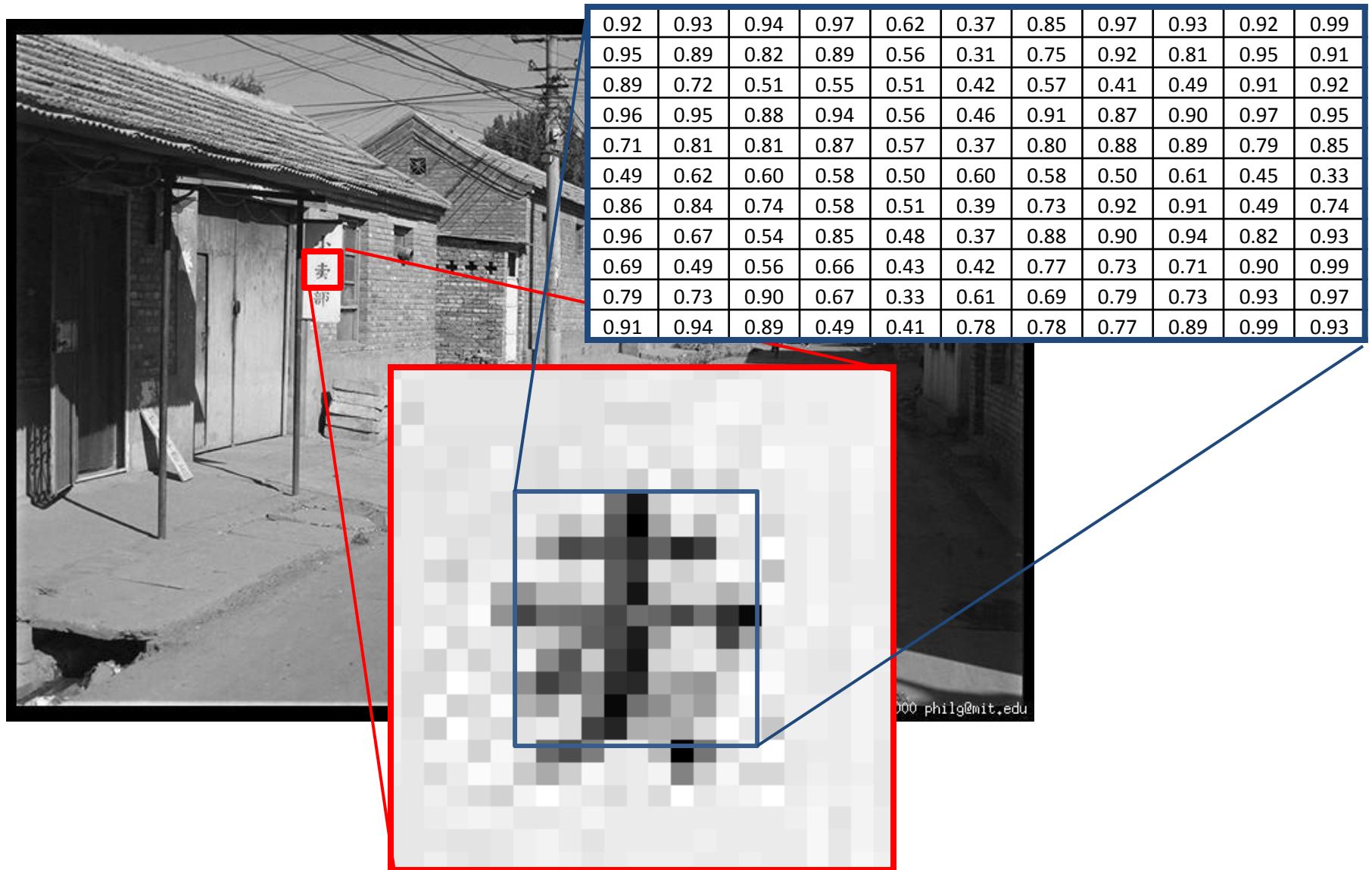
- Important terms: diffuse/specular reflectance, albedo, umbra/penumbra
- Observed intensity depends on light sources, geometry/material of reflecting surface, surrounding objects, camera settings
- Objects cast light and shadows on each other
- Differences in intensity are primary cues for shape



# Pixels and Linear Filters

Slides by D. Hoiem

# The raster image (pixel matrix)



# Image filtering

- Image filtering: for each pixel, compute function of local neighborhood and output a new value
  - Same function applied at each position
  - Output and input image are typically the same size

# Image filtering

- Linear filtering: function is a weighted sum/difference of pixel values
- Really important
  - Enhance images
    - Denoise, smooth, increase contrast, etc.
  - Extract information from images
    - Texture, edges, distinctive points, etc.
  - Detect patterns
    - Template matching

# Example: box filter

$g[\cdot, \cdot]$

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

1	1	1
1	1	1
1	1	1

Slide credit: David Lowe (UBC)

# Image filtering

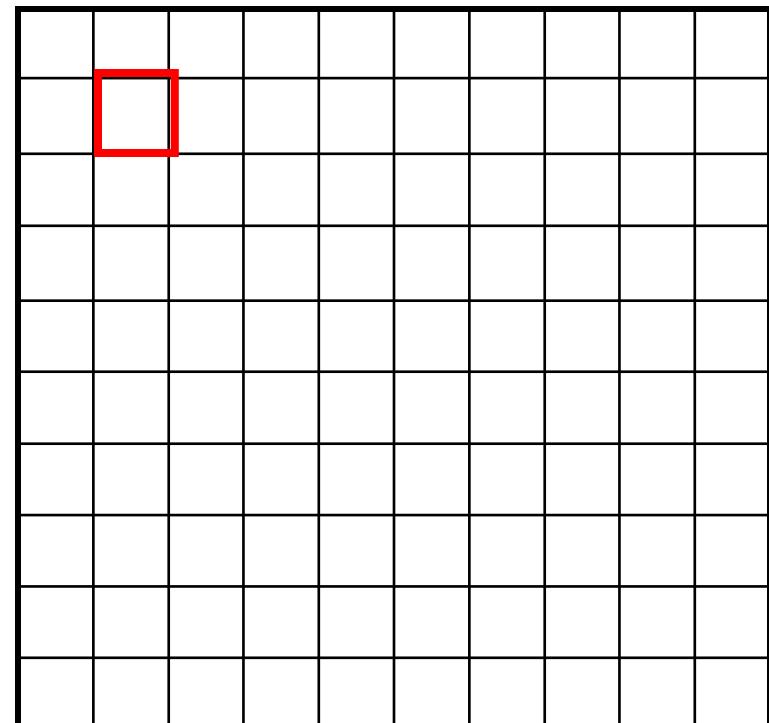
$f[.,.]$

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	0	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

$h[.,.]$

$$g[\cdot, \cdot] \frac{1}{9}$$

1	1	1
1	1	1
1	1	1



$$h[m, n] = \sum_{k,l} g[k, l] f[m+k, n+l]$$

Credit: S. Seitz

# Image filtering

$$g[\cdot, \cdot] \frac{1}{9}$$

1	1	1
1	1	1
1	1	1

$$f[.,.]$$

$h[.,.]$

$$h[m,n] = \sum_{k,l} g[k,l] f[m+k, n+l]$$

Credit: S. Seitz

# Image filtering

$$g[\cdot, \cdot] \frac{1}{9} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$f[.,.]$

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	0	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

$h[.,.]$

			0	10	20					

$$h[m,n] = \sum_{k,l} g[k,l] f[m+k, n+l]$$

Credit: S. Seitz

# Image filtering

$f[.,.]$

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	0	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

$h[.,.]$


$$h[m,n] = \sum_{k,l} g[k,l] f[m+k, n+l]$$

Credit: S. Seitz

$$g[\cdot, \cdot] \frac{1}{9}$$

1	1	1
1	1	1
1	1	1

# Image filtering

$$g[\cdot, \cdot] \frac{1}{9} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$f[.,.]$

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	0	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

$h[.,.]$

			0	10	20	30	30		

$$h[m, n] = \sum_{k,l} g[k, l] f[m+k, n+l]$$

Credit: S. Seitz

# Image filtering

$$g[\cdot, \cdot] \frac{1}{9} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$f[.,.]$

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	0	90	90	90	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

$h[.,.]$

	0	10	20	30	30					

$$h[m, n] = \sum_{k,l} g[k, l] f[m+k, n+l]$$

Credit: S. Seitz

# Image filtering

$$g[\cdot, \cdot] \frac{1}{9} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$f[.,.]$

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	0	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

$h[.,.]$

	0	10	20	30	30					

$$h[m, n] = \sum_{k,l} g[k, l] f[m+k, n+l]$$

Credit: S. Seitz

# Image filtering

$$g[\cdot, \cdot] \quad \frac{1}{9} \begin{matrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{matrix}$$

$$f[., .]$$

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	0	90	90	90	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

$$h[., .]$$

	0	10	20	30	30	30	20	10		
	0	20	40	60	60	60	40	20		
	0	30	60	90	90	90	60	30		
	0	30	50	80	80	90	60	30		
	0	30	50	80	80	90	60	30		
	0	20	30	50	50	60	40	20		
	10	20	30	30	30	30	20	10		
	10	10	10	0	0	0	0	0		

$$h[m, n] = \sum_{k,l} g[k, l] f[m+k, n+l]$$

Credit: S. Seitz

# Box Filter

What does it do?

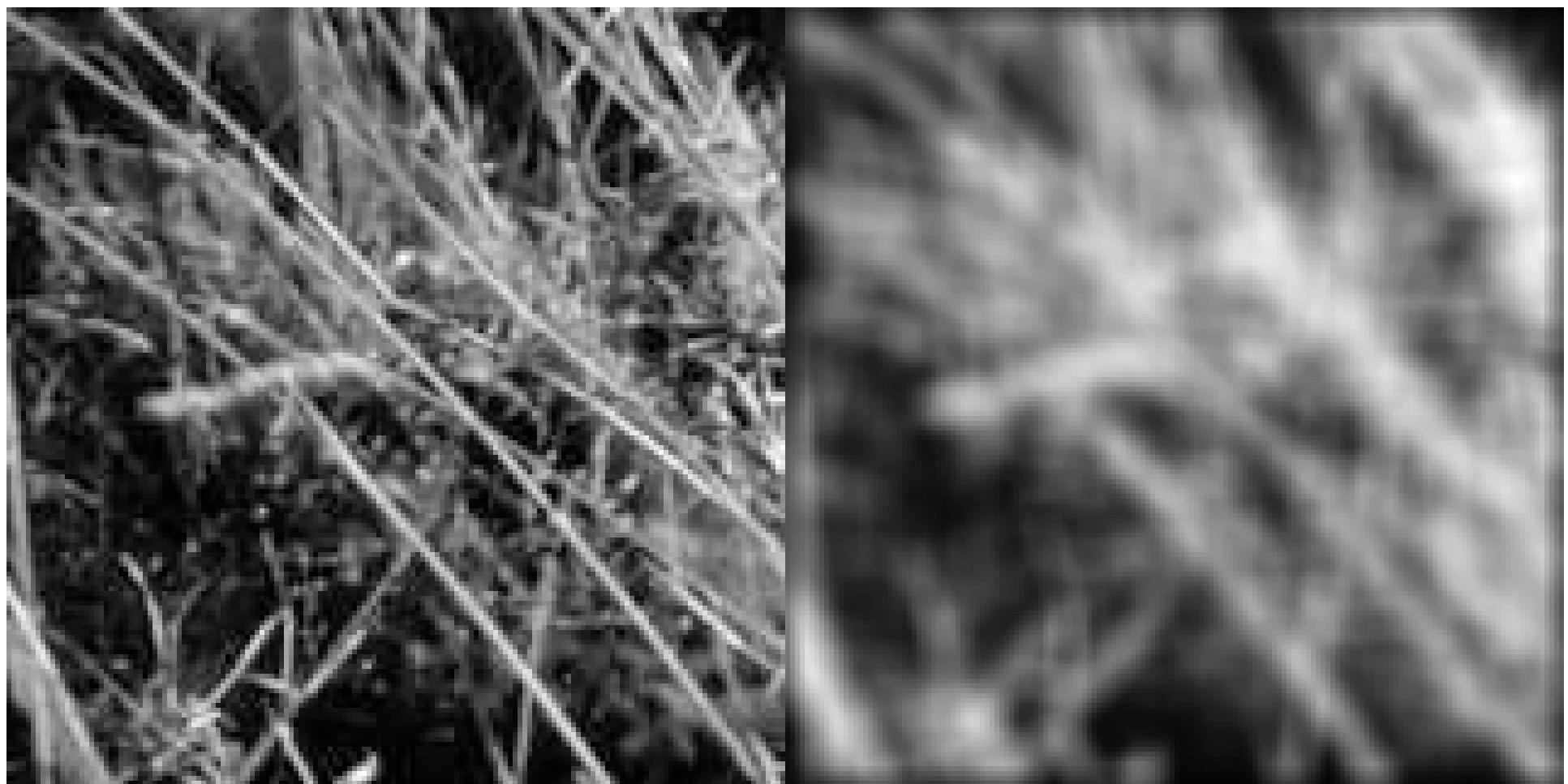
- Replaces each pixel with an average of its neighborhood
- Achieve smoothing effect  
(remove sharp features)

$g[\cdot, \cdot]$

$$\frac{1}{9} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Slide credit: David Lowe (UBC)

# Smoothing with box filter



# Practice with linear filters



Original

0	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	0

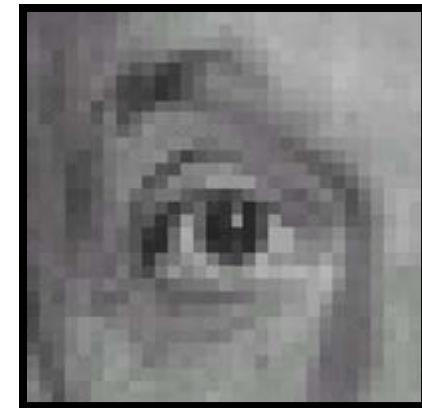
?

# Practice with linear filters



Original

0	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	0



Filtered  
(no change)

# Practice with linear filters



Original

0	0	0
0	0	1
0	0	0

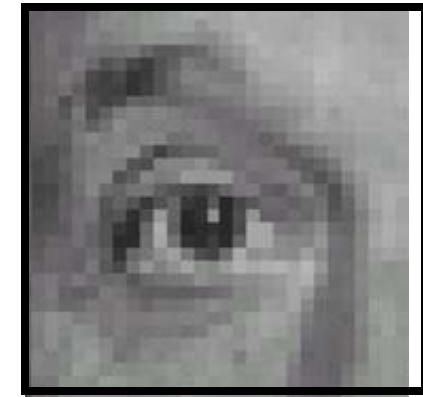
?

# Practice with linear filters



Original

0	0	0
0	0	1
0	0	0



Shifted left  
By 1 pixel

# Practice with linear filters



Original

0	0	0
0	2	0
0	0	0

-

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

1	1	1
1	1	1
1	1	1

?

(Note that filter sums to 1)

Source: D. Lowe

# Practice with linear filters



Original

0	0	0
0	2	0
0	0	0



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

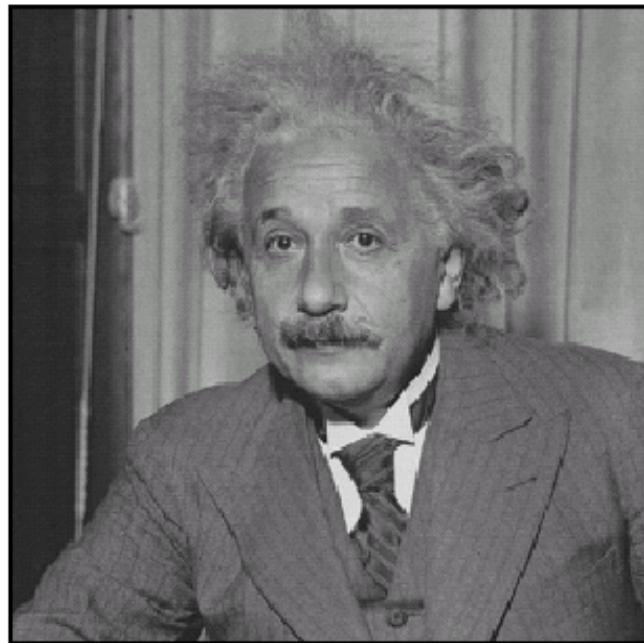
1	1	1
1	1	1
1	1	1



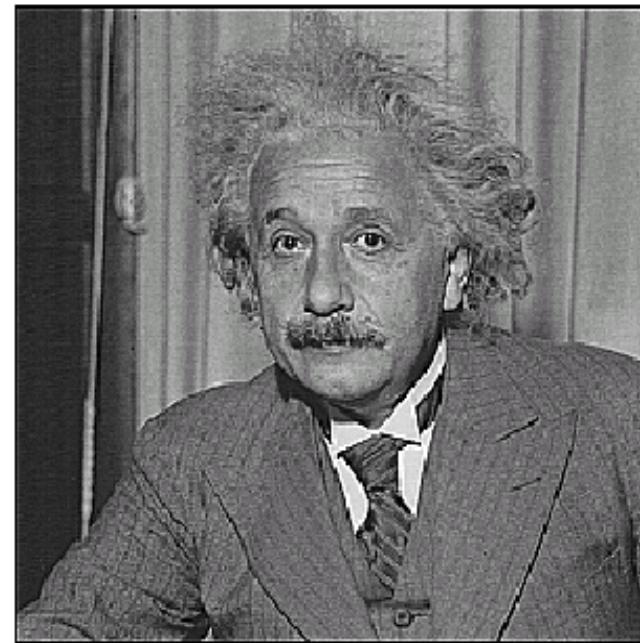
**Sharpening filter**

- Accentuates differences with local average

# Sharpening



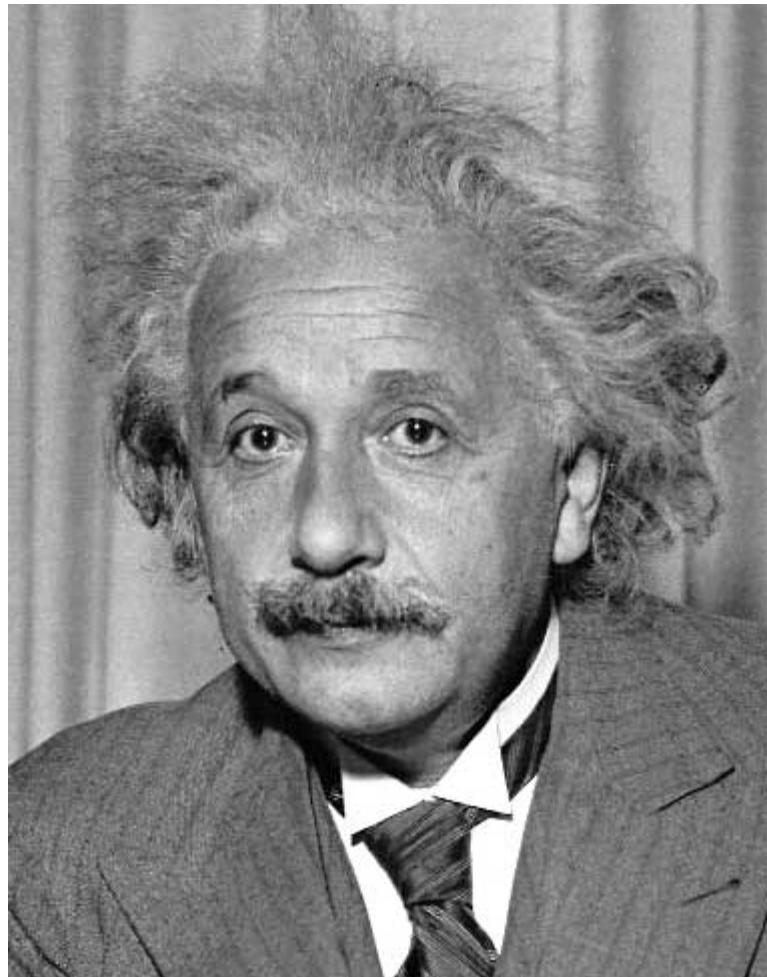
**before**



**after**

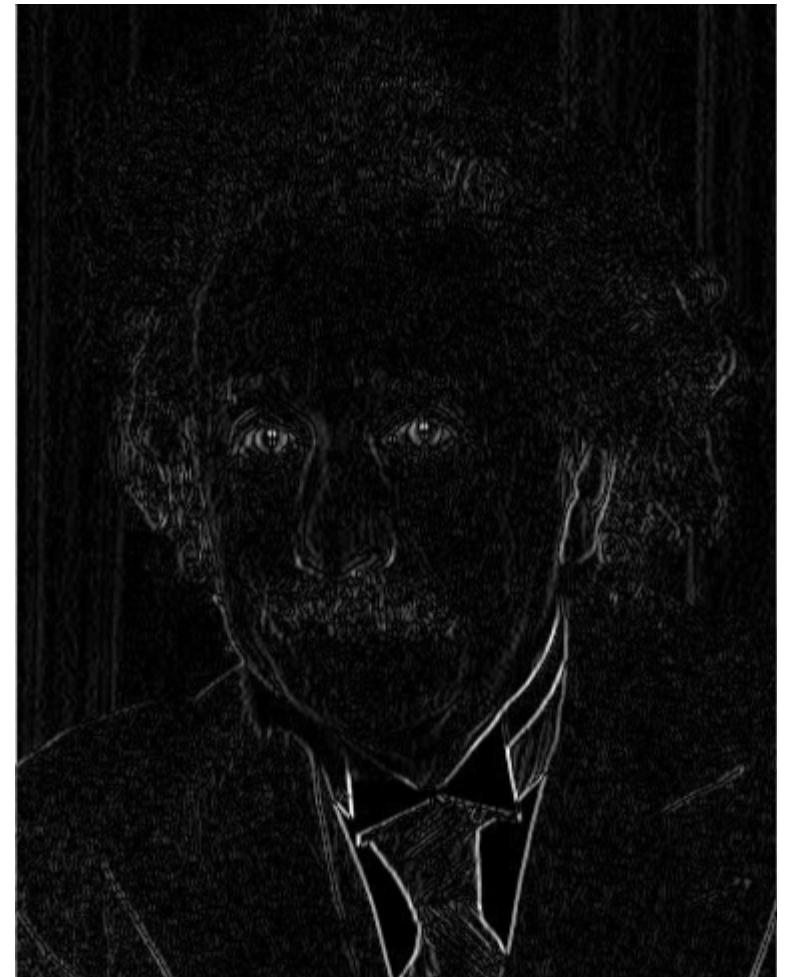
Source: D. Lowe

# Other filters



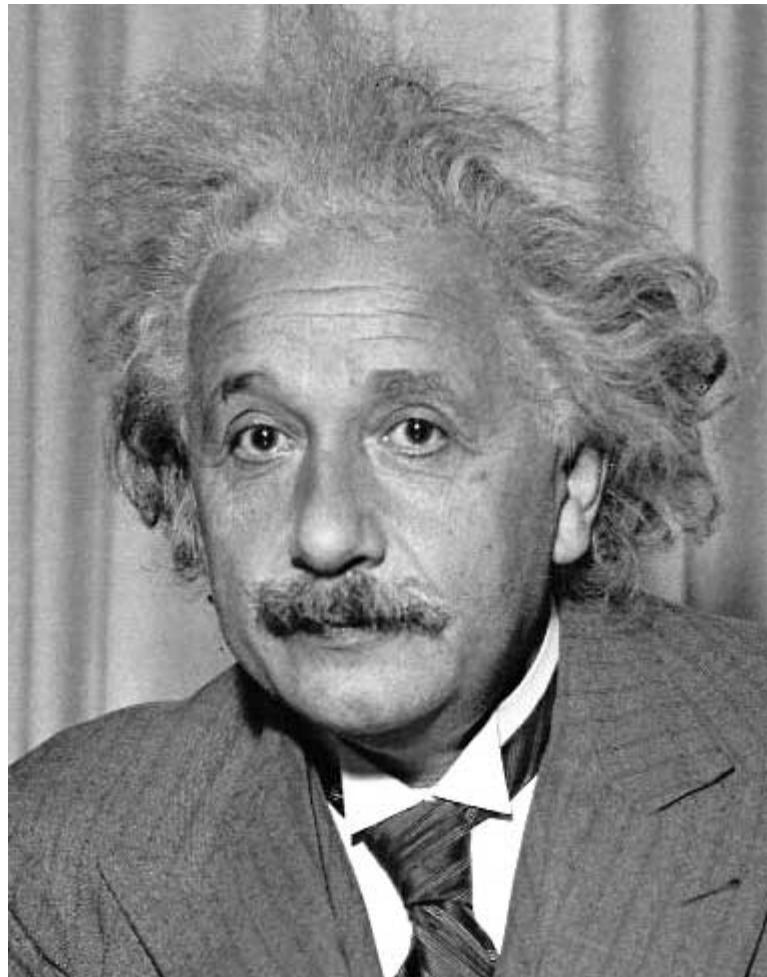
1	0	-1
2	0	-2
1	0	-1

Sobel



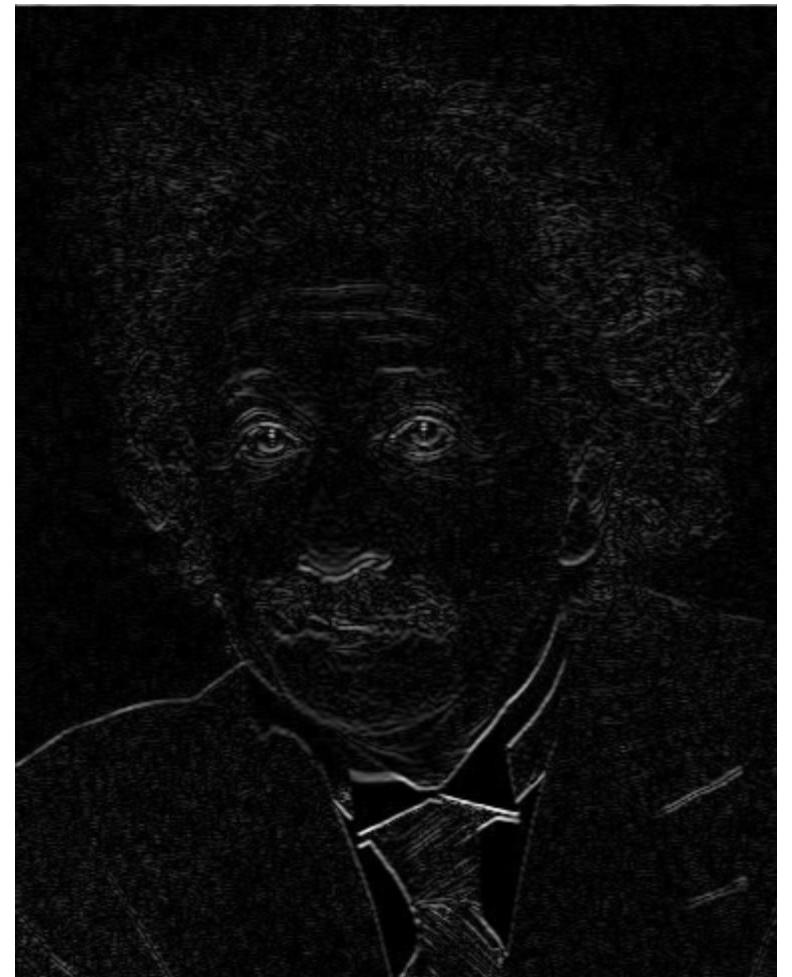
Vertical Edge  
(absolute value)

# Other filters



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

Sobel



Horizontal Edge  
(absolute value)

# Basic gradient filters

Horizontal Gradient

0	0	0
-1	0	1
0	0	0

or

-1	0	1
----	---	---

Vertical Gradient

0	-1	0
0	0	0
0	1	0

or

-1
0
1

# Examples

Write as filtering operations, plus some pointwise operations: +, -, .\*, >

1. Sum of four adjacent neighbors plus 1

$$out(m, n) = 1 + \sum_{k, l \in \{-1, 1\}} in(m+k, n+l)$$

2. Sum of squared values of 3x3 windows around each pixel:

$$out(m, n) = \sum_{k, l \in \{-1, 0, 1\}} in(m+k, n+l)^2$$

3. Center pixel value is larger than the average of the pixel values to the left and right:

$$out(m, n) = 1 \text{ if } in(m, n) > (in(m, n-1) + in(m, n+1)) / 2$$

$$out(m, n) = 0 \text{ if } in(m, n) \leq (in(m, n-1) + in(m, n+1)) / 2$$

# Filtering vs. Convolution

- 2d filtering
  - $h = \text{filter2}(g, f)$  ; or  
 $h = \text{imfilter}(f, g)$  ;  
$$h[m, n] = \sum_{k,l} g[k, l] f[m + k, n + l]$$
- 2d convolution
  - $h = \text{conv2}(g, f)$  ;  
$$h[m, n] = \sum_{k,l} g[k, l] f[m - k, n - l]$$

# Key properties of linear filters

**Linearity:**

$$\text{filter}(f_1 + f_2) = \text{filter}(f_1) + \text{filter}(f_2)$$

**Shift invariance:** same behavior regardless of pixel location

$$\text{filter}(\text{shift}(f)) = \text{shift}(\text{filter}(f))$$

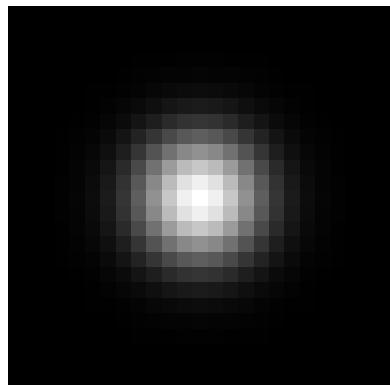
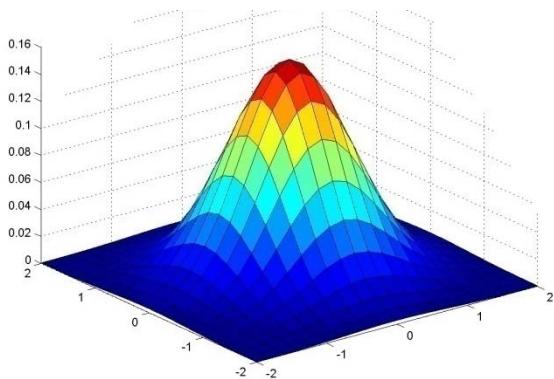
Any linear, shift-invariant operator can be represented as a convolution

# More properties

- Commutative:  $a * b = b * a$ 
  - Conceptually no difference between filter and signal
- Associative:  $a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c$ 
  - Often apply several filters one after another:  $((a * b_1) * b_2) * b_3$
  - This is equivalent to applying one filter:  $a * (b_1 * b_2 * b_3)$
- Distributes over addition:  $a * (b + c) = (a * b) + (a * c)$
- Scalars factor out:  $ka * b = a * kb = k(a * b)$
- Identity: unit impulse  $e = [0, 0, 1, 0, 0]$ ,  $a * e = a$

# Important filter: Gaussian

- Spatially-weighted average



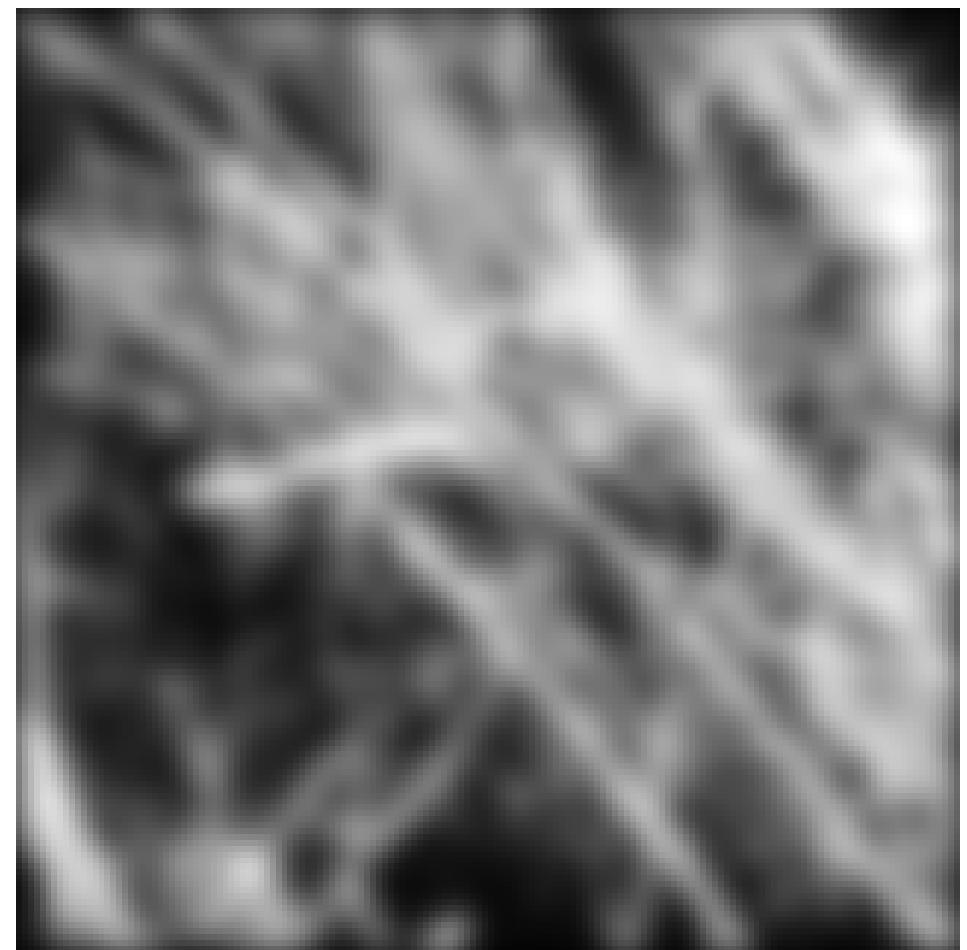
0.003	0.013	0.022	0.013	0.003
0.013	0.059	0.097	0.059	0.013
0.022	0.097	0.159	0.097	0.022
0.013	0.059	0.097	0.059	0.013
0.003	0.013	0.022	0.013	0.003

5 x 5,  $\sigma = 1$

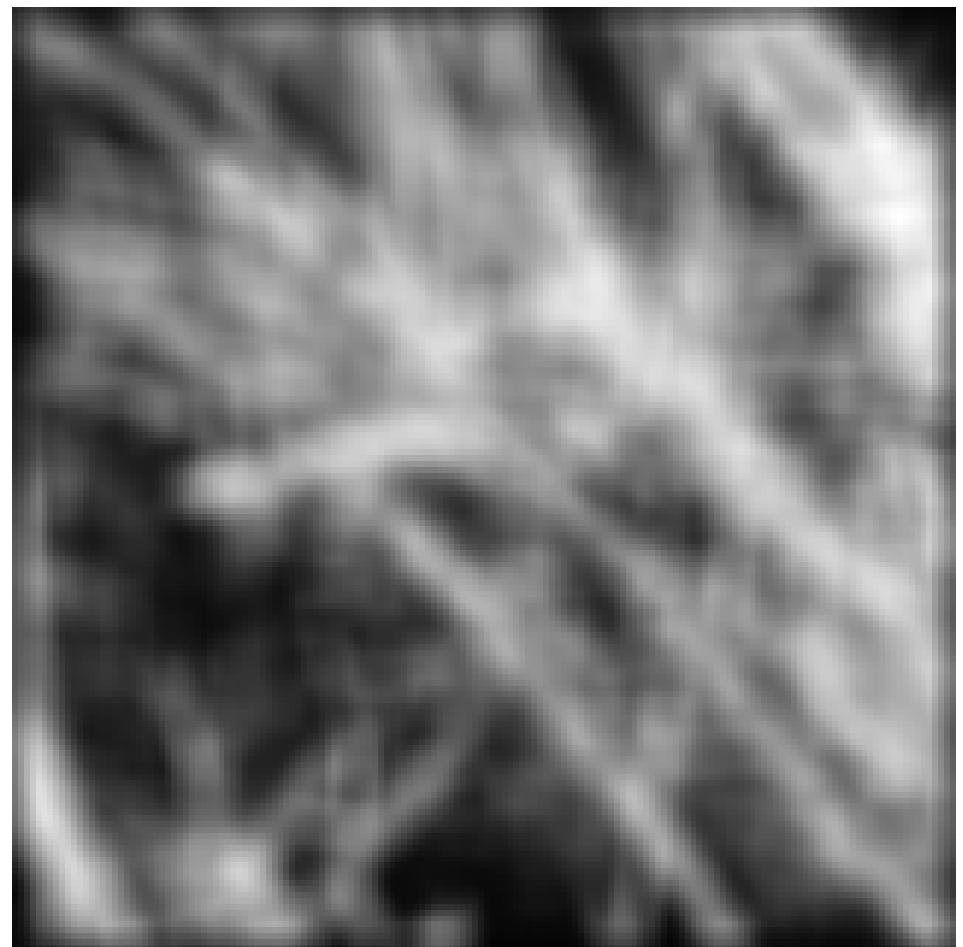
$$G_\sigma = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{(x^2+y^2)}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Slide credit: Christopher Rasmussen

# Smoothing with Gaussian filter



# Smoothing with box filter



# Gaussian filters

- Remove “high-frequency” components from the image (low-pass filter)
  - Images become more smooth
- Convolution with self is another Gaussian
  - So can smooth with small-width kernel, repeat, and get same result as larger-width kernel would have
  - Convolving two times with Gaussian kernel of width  $\sigma$  is same as convolving once with kernel of width  $\sigma\sqrt{2}$
- *Separable* kernel
  - Factors into product of two 1D Gaussians

# Separability of the Gaussian filter

$$\begin{aligned} G_\sigma(x, y) &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp^{-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}} \\ &= \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} \right) \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp^{-\frac{y^2}{2\sigma^2}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

The 2D Gaussian can be expressed as the product of two functions, one a function of  $x$  and the other a function of  $y$

In this case, the two functions are the (identical) 1D Gaussian

# Separability example

2D filtering  
(center location only)

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 2 & 1 \\ \hline 2 & 4 & 2 \\ \hline 1 & 2 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} * \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 2 & 3 & 3 \\ \hline 3 & 5 & 5 \\ \hline 4 & 4 & 6 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

The filter factors  
into a product of 1D  
filters:

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 2 & 1 \\ \hline 2 & 4 & 2 \\ \hline 1 & 2 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} = \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 1 \\ \hline 2 \\ \hline 1 \\ \hline \end{array} \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 2 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Perform filtering  
along rows:

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 2 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} * \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 2 & 3 & 3 \\ \hline 3 & 5 & 5 \\ \hline 4 & 4 & 6 \\ \hline \end{array} = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 11 & & \\ \hline 18 & & \\ \hline 18 & & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Followed by filtering  
along the remaining column:

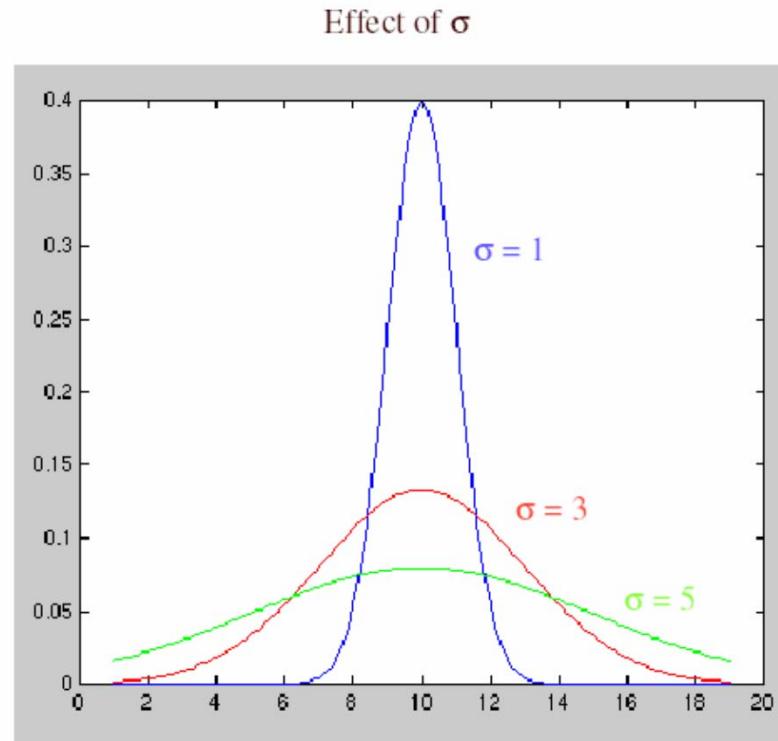
# Separability

- Why is separability useful in practice?

# Practical matters

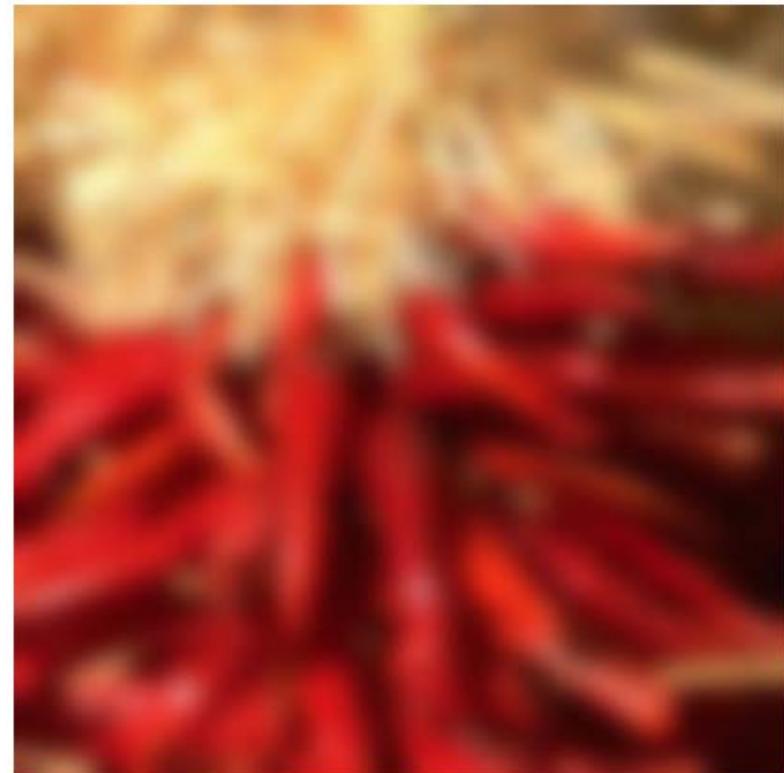
## How big should the filter be?

- Values at edges should be near zero  $\leftarrow$  important!
- Rule of thumb for Gaussian: set filter half-width to about 3  $\sigma$



# Practical matters

- What about near the edge?
  - the filter window falls off the edge of the image
  - need to extrapolate
  - methods:
    - clip filter (black)
    - wrap around
    - copy edge
    - reflect across edge



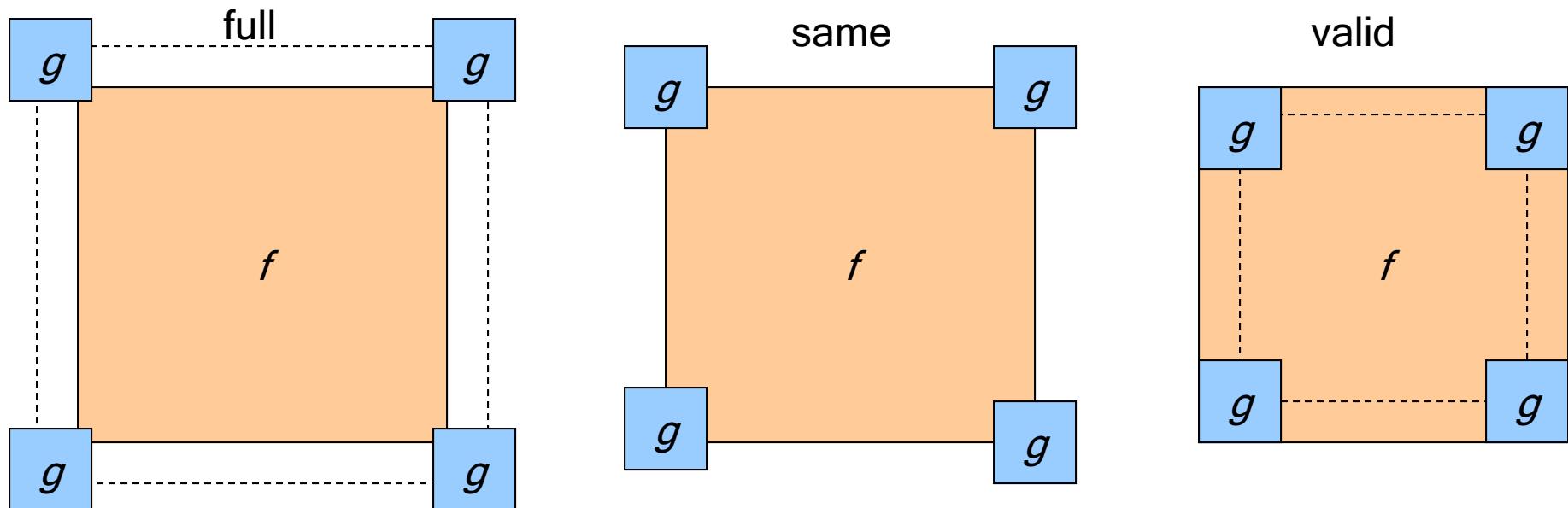
Source: S. Marschner

# Practical matters

- methods (MATLAB):
  - clip filter (black):      `imfilter(f, g, 0)`
  - wrap around:              `imfilter(f, g, 'circular')`
  - copy edge:                `imfilter(f, g, 'replicate')`
  - reflect across edge: `imfilter(f, g, 'symmetric')`

# Practical matters

- What is the size of the output?
- MATLAB: `filter2(g, f, shape)`
  - *shape* = ‘full’: output size is sum of sizes of f and g
  - *shape* = ‘same’: output size is same as f
  - *shape* = ‘valid’: output size is difference of sizes of f and g



Source: S. Lazebnik

# Slide Credits

- This set of slides contains contributions kindly made available by the following authors
  - Gianfranco Doretto
  - Derek Hoiem
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  - Steve Seitz
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