

## Module 1

### Introduction

- Quickstart: Read & Display Images
- Introduction
- Types of Images
- Imaging Geometry
- Image Representation

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## Read & Display “.bin” Images

- Many of our images will have file type “.bin”
- This is not a “standard” file type!
  - ▶ These files contains raw image data without any header information.
- Programs like *Microsoft Office Picture Manager* can’t display “.bin” files directly.
- But raw image files are easy to work with because the format is simple and there’s no complicated header to parse.

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## What’s Inside a “.bin” Image File

- It is usually a grayscale image.
- Each pixel (picture element) is one byte.
  - ▶ The data type is uchar (also known as uint8).
  - ▶ The min value is 00000000b = 00h = 0d, which displays as the darkest black.
  - ▶ The max value is 11111111b = FFh = 255d, which displays as the brightest white.



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## Inside a “.bin” Image File

- The file contains a linear array of bytes: one for each pixel.
- The pixels are stored in “raster scan” order: left to right, top to bottom.
- For a 256 × 256 image, the first 256 bytes are the pixels of the top row from left to right.
- The next 256 bytes are the pixels of the second row, from left to right, and so on.



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## Read & Display “.bin” Using Matlab

```
fidLena = fopen('lena.bin','r');
[Lena,junk] = fread(fidLena,[256,256], 'uchar');
junk % echo the number of bytes that were read
Lena = Lena'; % you must transpose the image

figure(1); colormap(gray(256));
image(Lena);
axis('image');
title('Original Lena Image');
print -dtiff M_Lena.tif; % write figure as tif

fidOut = fopen('Outfile.bin','w+');
LenaOut = Lena'; % transpose before writing
fwrite(fidOut,LenaOut,'uchar'); % write raw image data
fclose(fidLena);fclose(fidOut);
```

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## Some Notes About Matlab

- When you use fread to read a “.bin” image, you must transpose the array after reading.
  - ▶ This is a legacy issue related to the fact that Matlab was originally written in FORTRAN, but was later re-implemented in C.
  - ▶ In FORTRAN, 2D arrays are stored in memory in column-major order, but in C they are stored in row-major order (see next page).
- If you read the image into a 2D Matlab array X (and transpose), then X(m,n) is the pixel at row=m and col=n. X(1,1) is the upper left pixel of the image. X(5,7) is the pixel on row 5 and column 7.
- Reasons TO use Matlab: it's easy and has lots of built in function support (to display images, for example).
- Reasons NOT to use Matlab: it can be slow for big images!
- Use matrix operations and avoid loops wherever possible!
  - ▶ Ex: to copy a block of pixels, use K(1:256,1:128) = J(1:256,129:256) instead of a loop.

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## More on 2D Array Indexing

- A 2D C array is stored in memory in row-major order. If you traverse the elements in order, the **last** index varies fastest. To avoid cache faults when accessing  $x[m][n]$  with nested loops, the outer loop should be  $m$  and the inner loop should be  $n$ .
- A FORTRAN 2D array is stored in column-major order. If you traverse the elements in order, the **first** index varies fastest. To avoid cache faults when accessing  $x(m,n)$  with nested loops, the outer loop should be  $n$  and the inner loop should be  $m$ .
- When using large 2D arrays in Matlab, it is important to remember that Matlab was originally written in FORTRAN.

```
% LoopTime.m
x = rand(xsize,xsize);
x = zeros(xsize,xsize);
tic
for row=1:xsize
    for col=1:xsize
        y(row,col) = x(row,col);
    end
end
toc
```

Matlab Console Output:

```
>> LoopTime
Elapsed time is 28.483111 seconds.
Elapsed Time is 2.889330 seconds.
```

► The loops run 10x faster  
the 2<sup>nd</sup> way!

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## Read & Display “.bin” Using C

```
#include <math.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <string.h>

#define BYTE unsigned char

/*
 * Function Prototypes (forward declarations)
 */
void disk2byte();
void byte2disk();

/*-----*/
/* MAIN */
/*-----*/

int argc;
char *argv[];

{
    int size;           /* num rows/cols in images */
    int so2;           /* size / 2 */
    int i;              /* counter */
    int row;            /* image row counter */
    int col;            /* image col counter */
    BYTE *il;           /* input image I1 */

    main(argc,argv)
    {
        if ((il = (BYTE *)malloc(sizeof(size)*sizeof(BYTE))) == NULL) {
            printf("\n%s: free store exhausted.\n",argv[0]);
            exit(-1);
        }
        if ((C = (BYTE *)malloc(sizeof(size)*sizeof(BYTE))) == NULL) {
            printf("\n%s: free store exhausted.\n",argv[0]);
            exit(-1);
        }
        if ((K = (BYTE *)malloc(sizeof(size)*sizeof(BYTE))) == NULL) {
            printf("\n%s: free store exhausted.\n",argv[0]);
            exit(-1);
        }

        /* Read input images */
        /* */
        disk2byte(I1.size,I1);
        disk2byte(I2.size,I2);

        /* */
        /* Make output image J: left half is I1, right half is I2 */
        /* */
        for (i=0; i<size; i++) {
            for (col=0; col < so2; col++) {
                C[i*so2+col] = I1[i*so2+col];
            }
            for (col = so2; col < size; col++) {
                C[i*so2+col] = I2[i*so2+col];
            }
        }

        /* write the output images */
        /* */
        byte2disk(C.size,C,outFn);
        byte2disk(K.size,K,outFnK);

        return;
    } /*----- Main -----*/
}

/*-----*/
/* disk2byte.c */
/*-----*/
/* Function reads an unsigned char (Byte) image from disk */
/* */
/* jph 15 June 1992 */
/*-----*/

void disk2byte(x,row_dim,col_dim,fn)
{
    BYTE *x;           /* image to be read */
    int row_dim;        /* row dimension of x */
    int col_dim;        /* col dimension of x */
    char *fn;           /* filename */
{
```

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```
BYTE *I1;           /* Input image I1 */
BYTE *I2;           /* Output image J */
BYTE *K;             /* Output image K */
char *inFn1;         /* Input filename for image I1 */
char *inFn2;         /* Input filename for image I2 */
char *outFn;          /* Output filename for image J */
char *outFnK;         /* Output filename for image K */

/*
 * check for proper invocation, parse args
 */
if (argc != 6) {
    printf("Usage: %s    \n",
           argv[0]);
    exit(0);
}
size = atoi(argv[1]);
if (size % 2) {
    printf("Usage: size must be divisible by 2.\n",argv[0]);
    exit(0);
}
inFn1 = argv[2];
inFn2 = argv[3];
outFn = argv[4];
outFnK = argv[5];

so2 = size >> 1;

/*
 * Allocate image arrays
 */
if ((C1 = (BYTE *)malloc(sizeof(size)*sizeof(BYTE))) == NULL) {
    printf("Usage: free store exhausted.\n",argv[0]);
    exit(-1);
}
if ((C2 = (BYTE *)malloc(sizeof(size)*sizeof(BYTE))) == NULL) {
    printf("Usage: free store exhausted.\n",argv[0]);
    exit(-1);
}
if ((K1 = (BYTE *)malloc(sizeof(size)*sizeof(BYTE))) == NULL) {
    printf("Usage: free store exhausted.\n",argv[0]);
    exit(-1);
}
```

```
if ((C2 = (BYTE *)malloc(sizeof(size)*sizeof(BYTE))) == NULL) {
    printf("Usage: free store exhausted.\n",argv[0]);
    exit(-1);
}
if ((J = (BYTE *)malloc(sizeof(size)*sizeof(BYTE))) == NULL) {
    printf("Usage: free store exhausted.\n",argv[0]);
    exit(-1);
}

/* */
/* Read input images */
/* */
disk2byte(I1.size,inFn1);
disk2byte(I2.size,inFn2);

/* */
/* Make output image J: left half is I1, right half is I2 */
/* */
for (i=0; i<size; i++) {
    for (col=0; col < so2; col++) {
        C1[i*so2+col] = I1[i*so2+col];
    }
    for (col = so2; col < size; col++) {
        C1[i*so2+col] = I2[i*so2+col];
    }
}
```

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```
/* */
/* Make output image K: swap left and right halves of J */
/* */
for (row=0; row < size; row++) {
    for (col=0; col < so2; col++) {
        K[row*size + col] = J[row*size + col+so2];
    }
    for (col = so2; col < size; col++) {
        K[row*size + col] = J[row*size + col-so2];
    }
}

/*
 * write the output images
 */
byte2disk(C.size,C,outFn);
byte2disk(K.size,K,outFnK);

return;
} /*----- Main -----*/
}

/*-----*/
/* disk2byte.c */
/*-----*/
/* Function reads an unsigned char (Byte) image from disk */
/* */
/* jph 15 June 1992 */
/*-----*/

void disk2byte(x,row_dim,col_dim,fn)
{
    BYTE *x;           /* image to be read */
    int row_dim;        /* row dimension of x */
    int col_dim;        /* col dimension of x */
    char *fn;           /* filename */
{
```

```
int fd;           /* file descriptor */
int n_bytes;        /* number of bytes to read */

/*
 * detect zero dimension input
 */
if ((row_dim==0) || (col_dim==0)) return;

/*
 * open the file
 */
if ((fd = open(fn, O_RDONLY)) == -1) {
    printf("\ndisk2byte.c : could not open %s !\n",fn);
    return;
}

/*
 * read image data from the file
 */
n_bytes = row_dim * col_dim * sizeof(unsigned char);
if (read(fd,x,n_bytes) != n_bytes) {
    printf("\ndisk2byte.c : complete read of %s did not succeed.\n",fn);
    return;
}

/*
 * close file and return
 */
if (close(fd) == -1) printf("\ndisk2byte.c : error closing %s.\n");
return;
```

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```

/*
 * byte2disk.c
 *
 * Function writes an unsigned char (byte) image to disk
 *
 * jph 15 June 1992
 */

void byte2disk(x,row_dim,col_dim,fn)
{
    BYTES *x;           /* image to be written */
    int row_dim;        /* row dimension of x */
    int col_dim;        /* col dimension of x */
    char *fn;           /* filename */

    int fd;             /* File descriptor */
    int n_bytes;         /* number of bytes to read */

    /*
     * detect zero dimension input
     */
    if ((row_dim==0) || (col_dim==0)) return;

    /*
     * create and open the file
     */
    if ((fd = open(fn, O_WRONLY | O_CREAT | O_TRUNC, 0640))== -1) {
        printf("\nbyte2disk.c : could not open %s.",fn);
        return;
    }

    /*
     * write image data to the file
     */
    n_bytes = row_dim * col_dim * sizeof(unsigned char);
    if (write(fd,x,n_bytes) != n_bytes) {
        printf("\nbyte2disk.c : complete write of %s did not succeed.",fn);
    }

    /*
     * close file and return
     */
    if (close(fd) == -1) printf("\nbyte2disk.c : error closing %s.",fn);
    return;
}

```

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## Some Notes About C

- C is good because it is FAST and has powerful syntax for performing low level (bit & byte) operations on image data.
- You need a good compiler. See "links" on the course web site to obtain the excellent GNU gcc compiler. It will compile the code in the previous example.
- You need a good debugger. See "links" on the course web site to get DDD.
- You need good library routines to display images and to read images with headers. See "links" on the course web site to get ImageMagick.
  - Also see the "Image Magick HOWTO" under "Handouts" on the course web site.
- Array indexing in C starts at ZERO. This is an important difference from Matlab.
  - The top row of the image is row 0. The first column is col 0.
  - For a 256 × 256 image, X[m\*256 + n] is the pixel at row=m and col=n.
  - For a 2D C array, X[m][n] is the pixel at row=m and col=n.
- If you read the image into a 1D C array, it's easy to handle the case where the image SIZE is unknown at compile time.
- The main reasons to use C are that it is FAST and PORTABLE... faster debugging and doesn't depend on having a Matlab installation.

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## Convert ".bin" Image to ".pgm"

- If you want to directly display a ".bin" image using standard programs like *Microsoft Office Picture Manager*, you need to add a header.
- The easiest way is to make a ".pgm" file.
- For a 256 × 256 ".bin" image, add the following 15-byte header:

HEX	50	35	0A	32	35	36	20	32
ASCII	P	5	.	2	5	6	_	2
HEX	35	36	0A	32	35	35	0A	
ASCII	5	6	.	2	5	5	.	

- You can do this manually with a hex-capable editor like vi (unix) or Vim (windows or unix).
- Or you can use a program like the function "pgm\_convert.m" available on the course web site under "Code."

## Course Objectives

- Learn Digital Image & Video Processing**
  - Theory
  - Algorithms and Programming
  - Applications and Projects
- Have fun doing it

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## Some Good Books

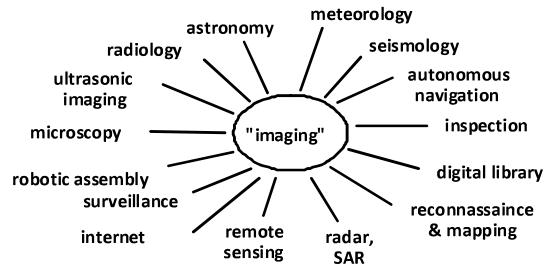
- Digital Image Processing*, R.C. Gonzalez and R. Woods, 3rd Edition, 2012.  
User-friendly textbook, nicely illustrated. Used previously in this course
- Digital Image Processing*, W.K. Pratt, Wiley, 4th Edition, 2007.  
Encyclopedic, rather dated.
- Digital Picture Processing*, Rosenfeld & Kak, 2nd Edition, 1982.  
Encyclopedic but readable.
- Fundamentals of Digital Image Processing*, Jain, 1988.  
Handbook-style, terse. Meant for advanced level.
- Digital Video Processing*, M. Tekalp, Prentice-Hall, 1995.  
Only book devoted to digital video; high-level; excellent
- Machine Vision*, Jain, Kasturi, and Schunk, McGraw-Hill, 1995.  
Beginner's book on computer vision.
- Robot Vision*, B.K.P. Horn, MIT Press, 1986.  
Advanced-level book on computer vision.

## Journals

- *IEEE Transactions on:*
  - Image Processing
  - Pattern Analysis & Machine Intelligence
  - Multimedia
  - Geoscience and Remote Sensing
  - Medical Imaging
- *Computer Vision, Graphics, and Image Processing*
  - Image Understanding
  - Graphics and Image Processing
- *Pattern Recognition*
- *Image and Vision Computing*
- *Journal of Visual Communication and Image Representation*

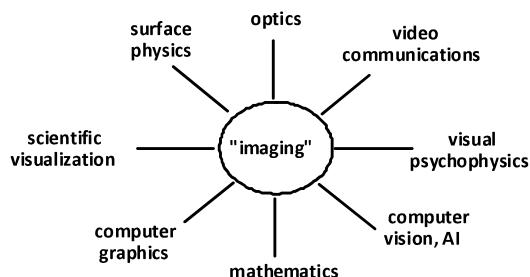
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## Applications of DIP/DVP



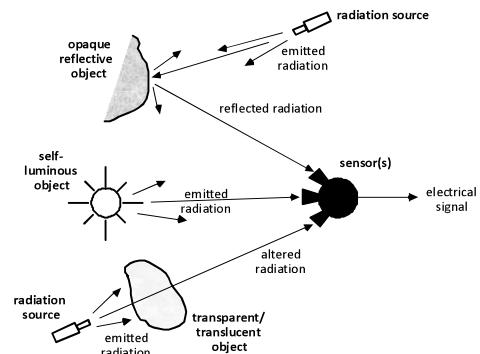
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## A Multidisciplinary Science



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## Three Types of Images



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## Type #1: Reflection Images

- Image information is **surface** information: how an object **reflects/absorbs** radiation
  - **Optical** (visual, photographic)
  - **Radar**
  - **Ultrasound, sonar** (non-EM)
  - **Electron Microscopy**

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## Type #2: Emission Images

- Image information is **internal** information: how an object **creates** radiation
  - Thermal, infrared (FLIR)
  - Astronomy (stars, nebulae, etc.)
  - Nuclear (particle emission, e.g., MRI)

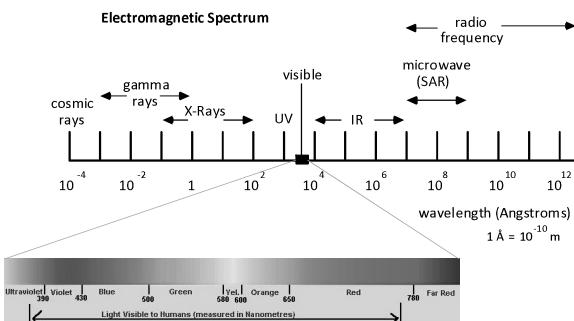
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## Type #3: Absorption Images

- Image information is **internal** information: how an object **modifies/absorbs** radiation
  - X-Rays in many applications
  - Brightfield optical microscopy
  - Tomography (CAT, PET) in medicine
  - “Vibro-Seis” in geophysical prospecting

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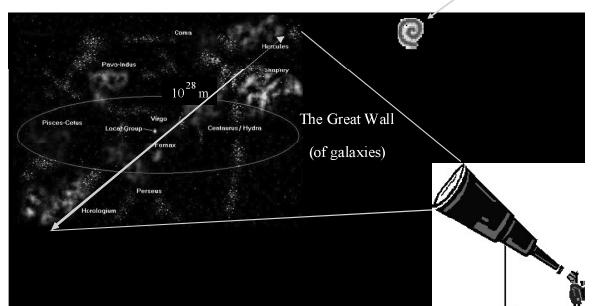
## Electromagnetic Radiation



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## Scales of Imaging

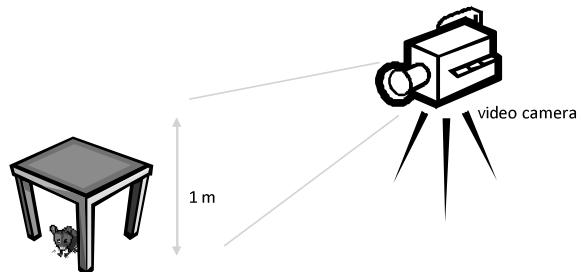
From the **gigantic...**



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## Scales of Imaging

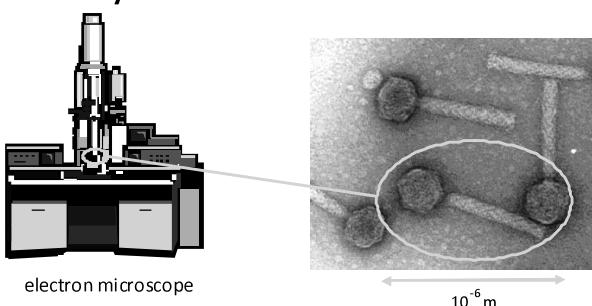
...to the **everyday ...**



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## Scales of Imaging

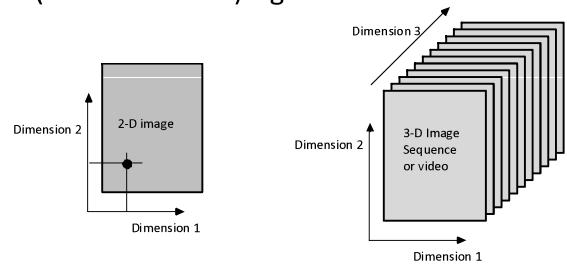
...to the **tiny**.



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## Dimensionality of Images

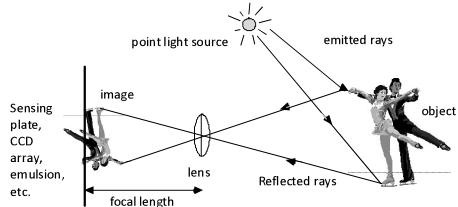
- Images and videos are **multi-dimensional** ( $\geq 2$  dimensions) signals.



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## Optical Imaging Geometry

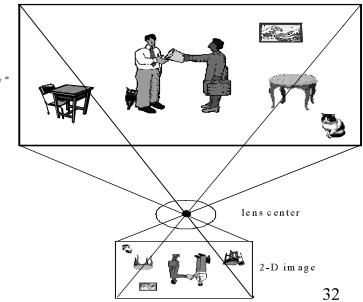
- Assume **reflection imaging** with visible light.
- Let's quantify the **geometric relationship** between 3-D world coordinates and projected 2-D image coordinates.



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## 3D-to-2D Projection

- Image projection is a **reduction of dimension** (3D-to-2D): 3-D info is **lost**. Getting this info back is **very hard**.



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## Perspective Projection

- There is a geometric relationship between **3-D space coordinates** and **2-D image coordinates** under perspective projection.
- We will require some **coordinate systems**:

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## Projective Coordinate Systems

### Real-World Coordinates

- $(X, Y, Z)$  denote points in 3-D space
- The **origin**  $(X, Y, Z) = (0, 0, 0)$  is the **lens center**

### Image Coordinates

- $(x, y)$  denote points in the 2-D image
- The  $x - y$  plane is chosen parallel to the  $X - Y$  plane
- The **optical axis** passes through both origins

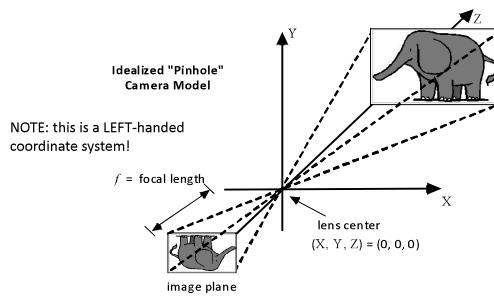
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## Pinhole Projection Geometry

- The lens is modeled as a **pinhole** through which all light rays hitting the image plane pass.
- The image plane is one **focal length  $f$**  from the lens. This is where the camera is in focus.
- The image is **recorded** at the image plane, using a photographic emulsion, CCD sensor, etc.

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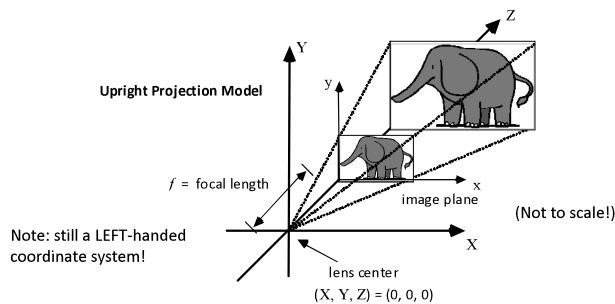
## Pinhole Projection Geometry



**Problem:** In this model (and in reality), the image is reversed and upside down. It is convenient to change the model to correct this.

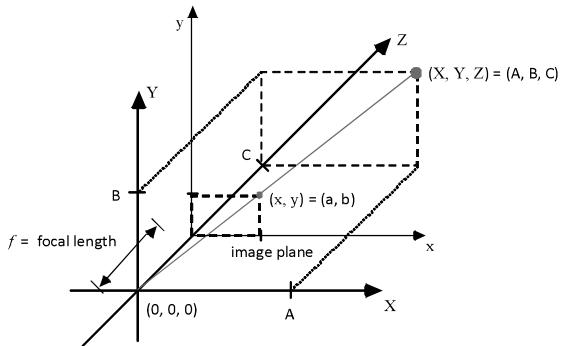
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## Upright Projection Geometry



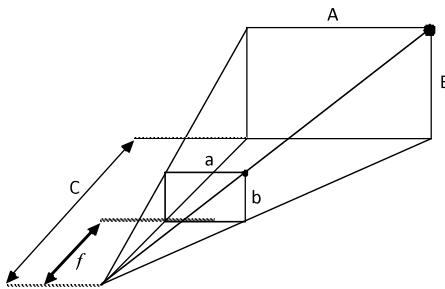
- Let us make our model more mathematical...

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- All of the relevant coordinate axes and labels ...

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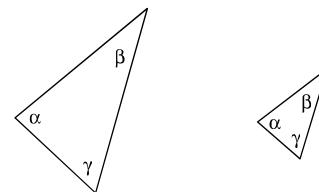


- This equivalent simplified diagram shows only the relevant data relating  $(X, Y, Z) = (A, B, C)$  to its projection  $(x, y) = (a, b)$ .

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## Similar Triangles

- Triangles are **similar** if their **corresponding angles are equal**:



similar triangles

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## Similar Triangles Theorem

- Similar triangles have their side lengths in the **same proportions**.

$$\frac{D}{E} = \frac{d}{e}$$

$$\frac{E}{F} = \frac{e}{f}$$

$$\frac{F}{D} = \frac{f}{d}$$

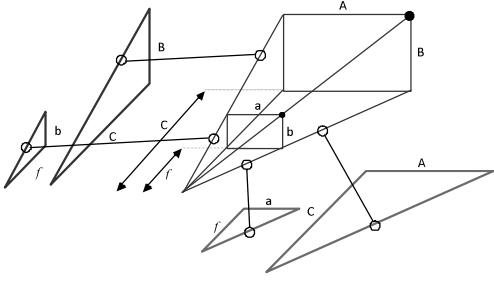
etc

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## Solving Perspective Projection

- Similar triangles solves the relationship between 3-D space and 2-D image coordinates.
- Redraw the geometry once more, this time making apparent two pairs of **similar triangles**:

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- By the **Similar Triangles Theorem**, we conclude that:  $\frac{a}{f} = \frac{A}{C}$  and  $\frac{b}{f} = \frac{B}{C}$
- OR:  $(a, b) = \frac{f}{C} \cdot (A, B) = (fA/C, fB/C)$

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## Perspective Projection Equation

- The relationship between a 3-D point  $(X, Y, Z)$  and its 2-D image  $(x, y)$ :

$$(x, y) = \frac{f}{Z} \cdot (X, Y)$$

where  $f$  = focal length

- The ratio  $f/Z$  is the **magnification factor**, which varies with the range  $Z$  from the lens center to the **object plane**.

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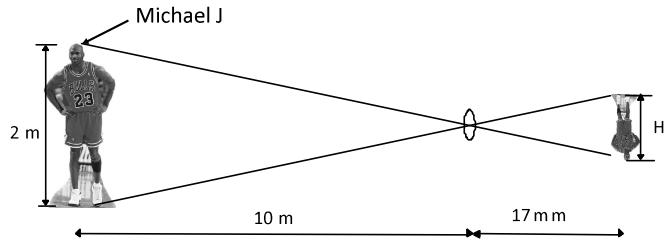
## Perspective Projection Equation

### • Example

- A man stands 10 m in front of you.
- He is 2 m tall.
- Your eye's focal length is about 17 mm

- **Question:** What is the height  $H$  of his image on your retina?

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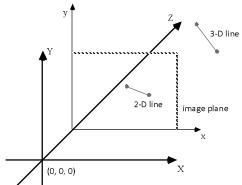
- By similar triangles,

$$\frac{2 \text{ m}}{10 \text{ m}} = \frac{H}{17 \text{ mm}} \Rightarrow H = 3.4 \text{ mm}$$

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## Straight Lines Under Perspective Projection

- Why do straight lines (or line segments) in 3-D project to straight lines in 2-D images?
- Not true of all lenses, e.g. "fish-eye" lenses do not obey the pinhole approximation.

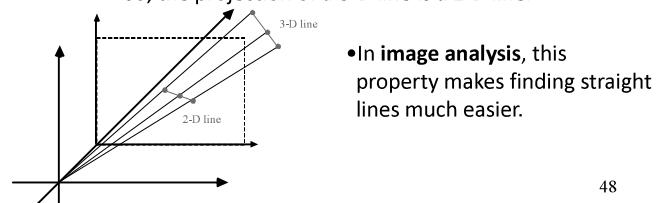


To show this to be true, one could write the equation for a line in 3-D, and then project it to the equation of a 2-D line...

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- Easier way:

- Any two lines touching the lens center and the 3-D line must lie in the same plane (a point and a line define a plane).
- The intersection of this plane with the image plane gives the projection of the line.
- The intersection of two (nonparallel) planes is a line.
- So, the projection of a 3-D line is a 2-D line.

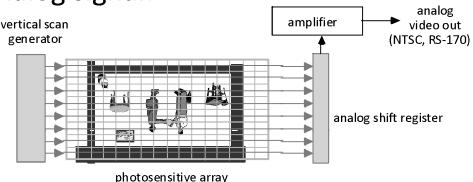


• In **image analysis**, this property makes finding straight lines much easier.

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## CCD Image Sensing

- Modern digital cameras sense **2-D images** using charge-coupled device (CCD) sensor arrays.
- The output is typically a line-by-line (raster) analog signal:



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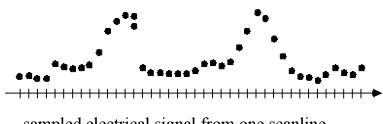
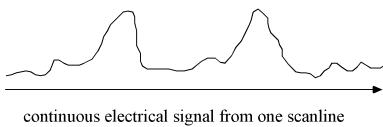
## A/D Conversion

- Consists of **sampling** and **quantization**.
- **Sampling** is the process of creating a signal that is defined only at **discrete points**, from one that is continuously defined.
- **Quantization** is the process of converting each sample into a **finite** digital representation.
- We will explore these in depth **later**.

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## Sampling

- Each video **raster** is converted from a **continuous voltage waveform** into a sequence of **voltage samples**:



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## Digital Image

- A **digital image** is an array of numbers (row, column) representing image intensities



- Each of these **picture elements** is called a **pixel**.

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## Sampled Image

- The image array is rectangular ( $N \times M$ )
- Examples: square images
 

128 x 128	$(2^{14} \approx 16,000 \text{ pixels})$
256 x 256	$(2^{16} \approx 65,500 \text{ pixels})$
512 x 512	$(2^{18} \approx 262,000 \text{ pixels})$
1024x1024	$(2^{20} \approx 1,000,000 \text{ pixels})$

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## Sampling Effects

- It is essential that the image be sampled **sufficiently densely**; else the image quality will be severely degraded.
- Can be expressed mathematically via the Sampling Theorem, but the effects are **visually obvious**.
- With sufficient samples, the image **appears continuous**....

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## Spatial Downsampling



## Quantization

- Each **gray level** is quantized to an integer between 0 and  $K-1$ .
- There are  $K = 2^B$  possible gray levels.
- Each pixel is represented by  $B$  bits; usually  $1 \leq B \leq 8$ .



a pixel



8-bit representation

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## Quantization

- The pixel intensities or gray levels must be quantized **sufficiently densely** so that excessive information is not lost.
- This is **hard** to express mathematically, but again, quantization effects are **visually obvious**.

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## Quantization



## The Image/Video Data Explosion

- Total **storage** required for **one digital image** with  $2^P \times 2^Q$  pixels spatial resolution and  $B$  bits / pixel gray-level resolution is  $B \times 2^{P+Q}$  bits.
- Usually  $B=8$  and often  $P=Q=9$ . A common image size is then **1/4 megabyte**.
- Five years ago this was a lot.

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## The Image/Video Data Explosion

- Storing **1 second** of a gray-level movie (TV rate = 30 images / sec) requires 7.5 Mbytes.
- A 2-hour gray-level video ( $8 \times 512 \times 512 \times 30$ ) requires 27,000 megabyte or **27 gigabytes of storage** at nowhere near theatre quality. That's a lot **today**.
- Later, we will discuss ways to **compress** digital images and videos.

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## Color Images

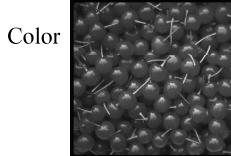
- A color image has vector-valued pixels. For example, 8 bits of Red, 8 bits of Blue, and 8 bits of Green.
- So you can think of a color image as a collection of three grayscale images.
  - ▶ E.g., a Red image, a Blue image, and a Green image.
  - ▶ These images are usually called color “bands” or “channels.”
  - ▶ Note: some color spaces like CMYK have *more* than 3 bands.
- In a grayscale image, the pixel values represent *intensity* or *luminance*, usually denoted I or Y.
- For an RGB color image, the intensity (luminance) is given by  
 $I = 0.2989R + 0.5870G + 0.1140B$
- This formula is not unique (i.e., it is not the only way to convert RGB to luminance), but it is **widely accepted**.
- Matlab provides a function `rgb2gray` to compute this.

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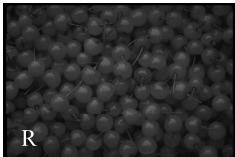
## More on Color

- Some color spaces like YUV and YCbCr represent the grayscale image directly.
  - ▶ This was originally done so that black-and-white TV's could receive color TV signals... and just display the Y band.
- Many color image processing algorithms process the color bands independently like grayscale images.
  - ▶ For example, there may be noise that affects the bands independently.
  - ▶ This approach can produce weird changes in the colors, however.
- Often, it's desirable to modify an image without changing the colors.
  - ▶ For example, we might want to just make a color image brighter without making any visually obvious changes to the colors of the pixels.
  - ▶ In such cases, it's usually sufficient to apply the filter to the intensity image (grayscale image) only, then reconstruct the colors.
- We'll spend most of our time on grayscale images in this class.
- Development of true vector color filters is an active research area.

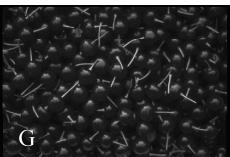
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Color



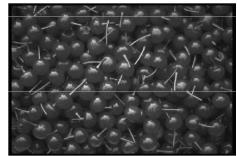
R



G



B



Intensity

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## Common Image Formats

- **JPEG (Joint Photographic Experts Group)** images are compressed with loss – see Module 7. All digital cameras today have the option to save images in JPEG format. File extension: `image.jpg`
- **TIFF (Tagged Image File Format)** images can be lossless (LZW compressed) or compressed with loss. Widely used in the printing industry and supported by many image processing programs. File extension: `image.tif`
- **GIF (Graphic Interchange Format)** an old but still-common format, limited to 256 colors. Lossless and lossy (LZW) formats. File extension: `image.gif`
- **PNG (Portable Network Graphics)** is the successor to GIF. Supports true color (16 million colors). File extension: `image.png`
- **BMP (bit mapped) format** is used internally by Microsoft Windows. Not compressed. Widely accepted. File extension: `image.bmp`

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