

## Lecture-3

### Intensity Transformation function:

- \* Linear
- \* logarithmic
- \* Power law

### Image Enhancement methods

- Spatial Domain: Direct manipulation of pixels in an image.
- Frequency Domain: Process the image by modifying the Fourier transform of an image.
- Combination Methods:

- ④ Purpose: ① Highlighting interesting detail in Images.  
 ② Removing noise from image  
 ③ making images more visually appealing.

$$g(x,y) = T \left[ f(x,y) \right]$$

s      r

$T$  = Grey level / Intensity transformation / mapping function.

$$s = T(r)$$

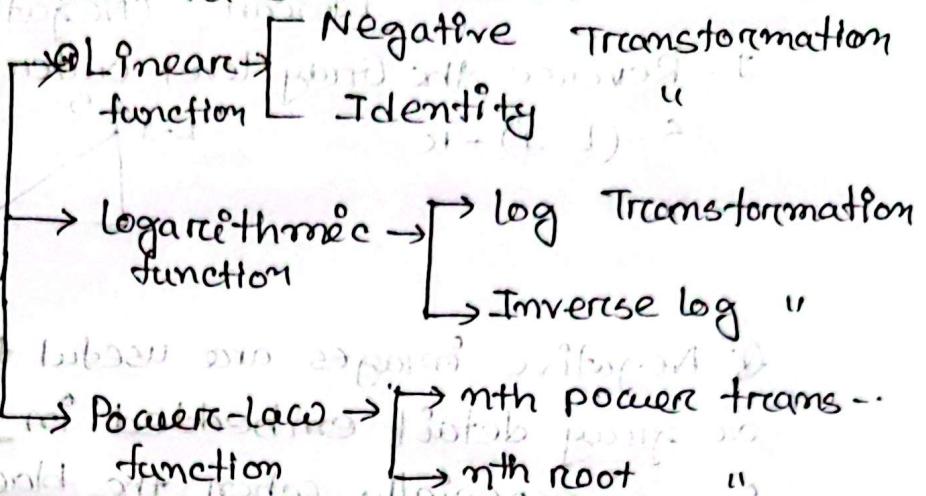
$s$  = Grey level of  $g$  at  $(x,y)$

$r$  = Grey level of  $f$  at  $(x,y)$

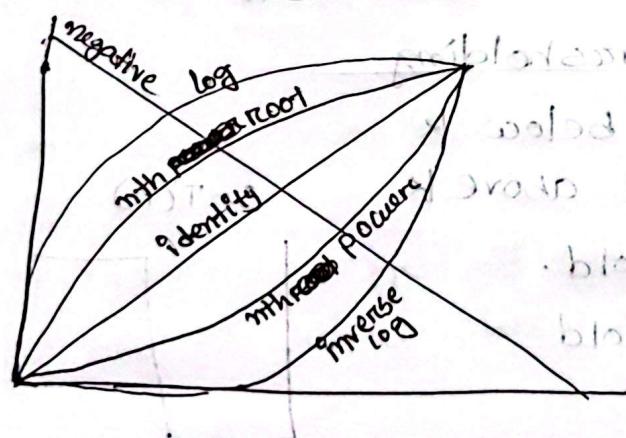
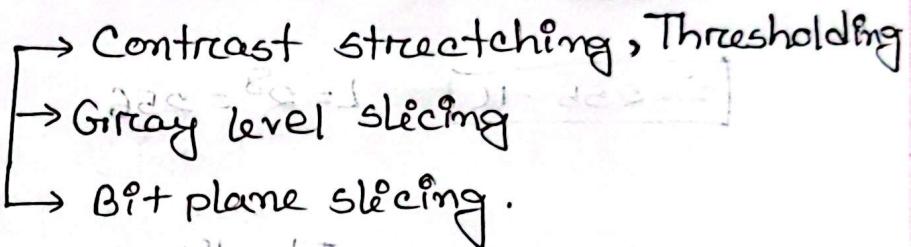
$T$  = is a function that maps  $r$  to  $s$

Intensity transformation functions are 2:

① Basic intensity



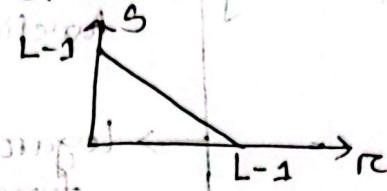
② Piecewise Linear Transformation



### Linear (Negative)

- Reverse the Gray level Order.

$$S = (L-1) - r$$



★ Negative images are useful for enhancing white or gray detail embedded in dark regions of an image, especially when the black areas are dominant in size.

$$S = 255 - r$$

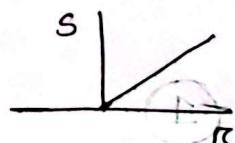
$$L = 2^8 = 256$$

$$S = r \quad \text{---}$$

$$r_1 = s_1$$

$$r_2 = s_2$$

### Identity



### Thresholding

★ Darkens level below k

★ Brightens level above k

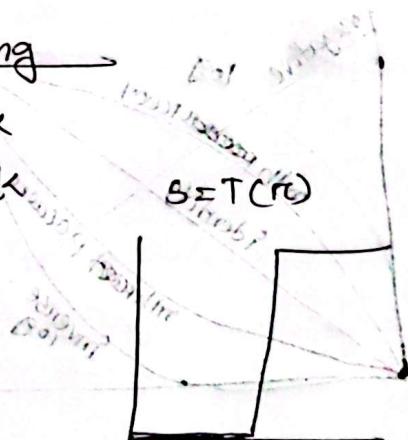
$$S = \begin{cases} 1 & r > \text{threshold} \\ 0 & r \leq \text{threshold} \end{cases}$$

$$\Theta(r_1, s_1) \quad (r_2, s_2)$$

~~$$r_1 = s_1 \quad (r_1, s_1) = (k, 0)$$~~

~~$$r_2 = s_2 \quad (r_2, s_2) = (k, L-1)$$~~

Dark  $\leftrightarrow$  Light



## Logfunction

$$S = c \times \log(1 + r)$$

maps input range to output range

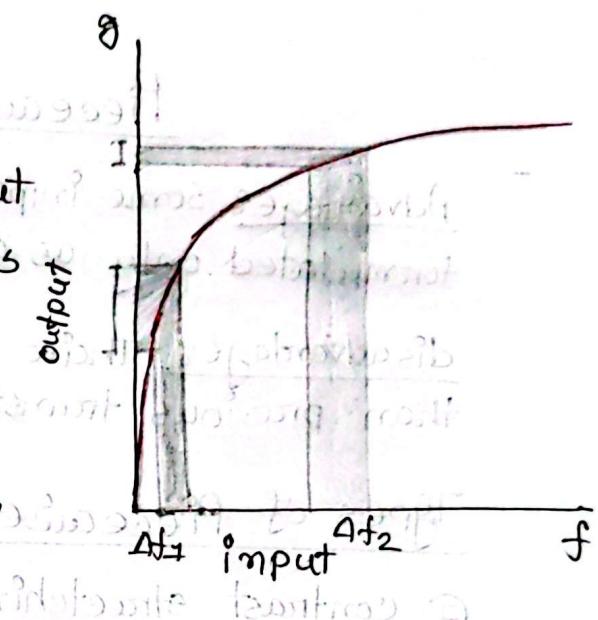
→ maps narrow range of low input values → into a wider range of output values.

→ Inverse log does opposite.

### Properties:

1. For lower amplitudes of input image the range of Gray level is expanded.

2. For higher amplitudes of input image the range of Gray levels is compressed.



Also called dynamic-range compression / Expansion.

## Power law function

$$S = c \times r^\gamma$$

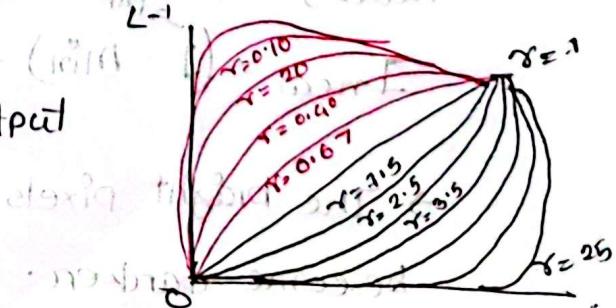
→ maps a narrow range of dark input values into a wider range of output values or vice versa.

→ Varying \$\gamma\$ gives a whole family of curves.

\$\gamma > 1 \rightarrow\$ mapping is toward darker output values.

\$\gamma = 1 \rightarrow\$ linear (identical)

\$\gamma < 1 \rightarrow\$ toward brighter output



## Gamma Correction

Varying Gamma try to reproduce colors

accurately also requires gamma correction.

## Piecewise

Advantages: some important transformations can be formulated only as a piecewise function.

disadvantages: Their specification requires more user input than previous transformation.

## Types of Piecewise Transformation

① Contrast stretching.

② Gray level slicing.

③ Bit plane slicing.

### Contrast stretching

→ to increase dynamic range of the gray level.

→ also known as normalization. The quality of image is enhanced by stretching the range of intensity values.

$$I_{\text{new}} = \left( I - \underset{\text{input intensity}}{\min} \right) \frac{\underset{\text{New max - New min}}{\text{New max - New min}}}{\underset{\text{Input range}}{\max - \min}} + \underset{\text{New Min.}}{\text{New Min.}}$$

→ The bright pixels become brighter, the dark pixels become darker.

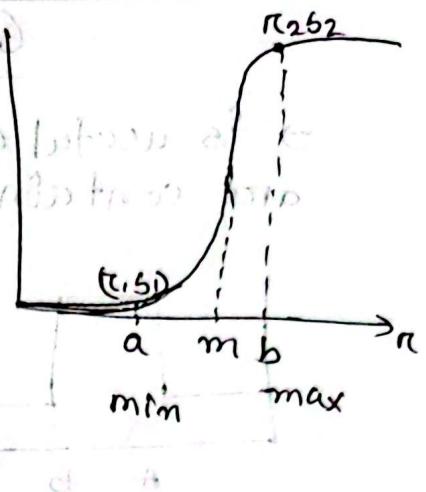
$$(r_1, s_1) = (\pi_{\min}, 0) = (a, 0)$$

$$(r_2, s_2) = (\pi_{\max}, L-1) = (b, L-1)$$

$\pi_{\min} = a$ ,  $m = \text{Contrast stretch point}$

$$\pi_{\max} = b$$

$$r_1 < r_2 \quad s_1 < s_2$$



① Input  $\rightarrow$  8-bit image have range  $[80 - 150]$

After contrast stretching  $\rightarrow [0 - 255]$

Let's  $I = 100$ .

$$\begin{aligned} I_{\text{new}} &= (I - \text{min}) \frac{\text{New Max} - \text{New Min}}{\text{Max} - \text{Min}} + \text{New Min} \\ &= (100 - 80) \frac{255 - 0}{150 - 80} + 0 \\ &= 20 \times \frac{255}{70} \\ &= 72.8 \\ &\approx 73. \end{aligned}$$

② Suppose we have following intensity  $a=90$   $b=180$ ,  $m=100$

Ans:

① If  $r > 180 \rightarrow$  intensity will be 255

② If  $r < 90 \rightarrow$  " " " be 0

③ If  $r$  is between  $a=90$  &  $b=180$ , T applies as follow.

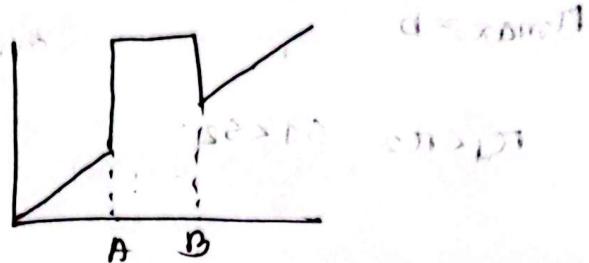
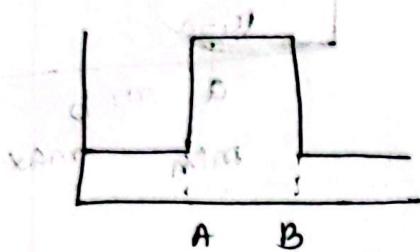
$r < 100 \rightarrow$  closer to zero (darker)

$r > 100 \rightarrow$  closer to 255 (brighter).

$$\frac{0.09 + 0.02}{0.09}$$

## Grey/Intensity level slicing : (10 min)

→ is useful when different features of an image are contained in different Grey levels.



[0.09 - 0.02] = 0.07 and [0.09 - D] = 0.09 - 0.02 = 0.07

[0.09 - 0] = ← predominant feature not A

$$= \frac{0.09 - 0.02}{0.09 - 0} = 0.75$$

→ 0.75 > 0.5 →  $\frac{0.09 - 0.02}{0.09 - 0} > 0.5$  (0.09 - D) > 0.5  
0.07 > 0.5

$$\frac{0.09 - 0.02}{0.09 - 0.02} = \frac{0.07}{0.07} = 1$$

$$\frac{0.09 - 0.02}{0.09} = \frac{0.07}{0.09} = 0.78$$

$$0.78 < 1$$

$$0.78 < 0.5$$

∴ 0.75 > 0.5 & 0.78 < 0.5 → Both are acceptable

→ 0.75 > 0.5 →  $\frac{0.09 - 0.02}{0.09 - 0} > 0.5$

→ 0.78 < 0.5 →  $\frac{0.09 - 0.02}{0.09} < 0.5$

→ 0.75 > 0.5 & 0.78 < 0.5 → Both are acceptable

→ 0.75 > 0.5 →  $\frac{0.09 - 0.02}{0.09 - 0} > 0.5$

→ 0.78 < 0.5 →  $\frac{0.09 - 0.02}{0.09} < 0.5$

## Chapter - 3

Smoothing → Removes fine details.

What is kernel / mask:

- Represented by 2-D matrix.
- mask usually of the order of  $1 \times 1, 3 \times 3, 5 \times 5, 7 \times 7$
- Always in odd number.
- known as filter / mask / window / kernel / box.

There are two types of filtering.

- ① Smoothing Spatial Filtering [Low pass]
- ② Sharpening Spatial Filtering [High pass]

Why filters are used?

- ① for blurring and noise reduction.
- ② for edge detection and sharpness.
- ③ Enhance image
- ④ Extract information from image → Texture, edge, distinction
- ⑤ Detect patterns → Template matching.

Average / mean Filter (Linear)

→ also known as box filter.

→ has following properties

\* It must be odd ordered

\* The sum of all element should be 1.

\* All element should be same.

~~\* All~~

$$\frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$3 \times 3$

To get borderc pixel's

- ① zero padding
- ② Borderc padding / Pixel replication
- ③ Discard borderc pixel.

What does mean/ Box filter do

- \* Replaces each pixel with an average of its neighborhood
- \* Achieve smoothing effect (remove sharp features)
- \* Adds a 'softer' look to an image.

Weighted Smoothing Filters

- different weights in the averaging function.
- 4-neighbor mask will be half of the center weight and ~~1/4 of~~ diagonals will be  $1/4$  of the weight.

1	2	1
2	9	2
1	2	1

Gaussian filter

- Gaussian smoothing operators perform a weighted average of surrounding pixels based on Gaussian distribution.
- Remove Gaussian noise.
- Reduce sharpness; better than average filters.
- Kernels  $3 \times 3, 5 \times 5, 7 \times 7$ .

$\frac{1}{16}$	1	2	1
	2	4	2
	1	2	1

$\frac{1}{273}$

1	1	4	X	4	1
9	16	26	16	9	
X	26	41	26	X	
4	16	26	16	4	
1	9	X	9	1	

## Order Statistic Non Linear Filtering

→ mean

→ max

- median →
  - No new pixel value introduced
  - Never replace with largest or smallest value
  - Removes spikes: Good for impulse, salt & pepper noise
  - Non linear filtering
  - Blurring + Reduce noise

## Common types of noise

- ① salt and pepper → White and Black dot./pixel
- ② Impulse noise → random occurrences of white pixel
- ③ Gaussian noise → variations in intensity drawn from a Gaussian normal distribution

## Sharpening spatial filters.

- Highlight fine details.
- Remove blurring from image.
- Highlights edges.
- Useful for emphasizing transitions in image. Intensity.

### Applications

- ① Photo enhancement.
  - ② medical image visualization.
  - ③ Industrial defect detection.
  - ④ Electronic printing
- \* The 2nd derivative is more useful for image enhancement than the 1st derivative → stronger response to fine detail

Laplacian → 2nd derivative

Sobel → Use of 1st derivative.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -8 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow g(x, y) = f(x, y) - 6\nabla^2 f$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 5 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 9 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Sobel

- provides differencing and smoothing effect of an image.
- $3 \times 3$  convolution kernels.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Gy  
Extract horizontal edges

$$G_r = |G_{x}| + |G_{y}|$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Gx  
Extract vertical edges.

- Typically used for edge detection.

## Difference Filter

- Also called as Emboss filters
- Enhances the details in the direction specific on the mask selected.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Vertical

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Horizontal

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Diagonal

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Diagonal

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Histogram

- The histogram function is defined over all possible intensity levels.
- For each intensity level, its value is equal to the number of the pixels with that intensity.

## Applications

- Image Enhancement
- Compression
- Segmentation
- tool for real time image processing

## Color image histogram 2 types

- ① Intensity histogram
  - Convert color image to gray scale.
  - Display histogram of gray scale.

- ② Individual color channel histogram.

→ 3 Histogram (R, G, B)

4 basic intensity characteristics:

### Low Contrast images

Histogram is narrow and centered toward middle of the gray scale.

### High contrast:

→ Covers broad range of the gray scale and the distribution of pixels is not too far from uniform with very few vertical lines being much higher than others.

### Dark Images:

concentrated on the low side

### Bright Images:

concentrated on the high side

## Why important?

- fast way to analyze the overall image quality
- By processing the histograms an image can be quickly and automatically improved.

## Use of histogram

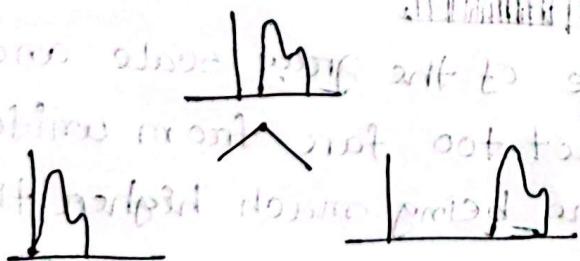
- ① whether image was scanned properly or not.
- ② idea about tonal distribution of an image.
- ③ equalization is applied to improve the appearance.
- ④ tells us about object.
- ⑤ helps us to select threshold value for object detection.
- ⑥ used for image segmentation.

## Histogram Processing Techniques

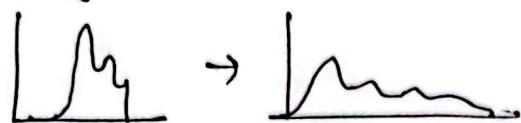
- ① Histogram Sliding
- ② Histogram Stretching
- ③ " Equalization.

### Sliding

Shifted toward right words or left words



Stretching  
increasing contrast



$$T(r) = r + 100 \rightarrow$$

A graph showing a linear transformation. The vertical axis is labeled '100' at its top. The horizontal axis is labeled 'r'. A straight line starts from the origin (0,0) and goes up to the point (100, 100), representing the function  $T(r) = r + 100$ .

$$T(r) = r \times 10 \rightarrow$$

A graph showing a linear transformation. The vertical axis is labeled 'r' at its top. The horizontal axis is labeled 'r \times 10'. A straight line starts from the origin (0,0) and goes up to the point (1, 10), representing the function  $T(r) = r \times 10$ .

Equalization → why important?

## Chapter - 8. Arithmetic Compression:

- ④ Arithmetic Coding is a lossless compression technique that encodes data by creating a code string which represents a fractional value on the number line between 0 and 1.
- Non block coding.
  - An entire sequence symbols (string of symbol) is mapped to a single arithmetic number (code word).
  - This coding can achieve theoretically higher compression rates than Huffman codes.
  - Variable length code
  - Error-free compression technique.

## Data Compression

- refers to the process of reducing the amount of data required to represent a given quantity of information.

## Application of Image Compressions

1. Internet
2. Business
3. multimedia
4. satellite imaging
5. medical imaging

by compressed

For - 15,

$$30 \text{ frame} \times (720 \times 480) \times 3 \text{ bytes/pixel} = 31 \text{ MB}$$

$$31104000 \text{ bytes/sec} \times 60^2 \text{ sec} \times 2 \text{ hours.}$$

$$= 2204 \text{ GB.}$$

Q7  $\rightarrow$  8.5 GB dual-layer DVDs (12 cm disk) are needed to

store it into Q9.  $\rightarrow$  132 dual layer DVDs (12 cm disk) are needed to store it into Q10.

$$\cdot Q9 \text{ col} = \frac{1}{Q10 \text{ col}} \cdot Q10$$

Data Redundancy

$CR = \text{Compression Ratio}$

The relative redundancy,  $R_D = 1 - \frac{1}{CR}$

$\rightarrow$  If  $n_1 = n_2$   $CR = 1$ ,  $R_D = 0 \rightarrow$  no redundancy.

$\rightarrow$  If  $n_1 > n_2$   $CR \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $R_D = 1 \rightarrow$  high "

$\rightarrow$  If  $n_1 \ll n_2$   $CR \rightarrow 0$ ,  $R_D = 100\% \rightarrow$  undesirable.

\*\*\* A compression ratio 10 (10:1) means, the first data set has 10 information carrying units (bits) for every 1 unit in the second (compressed) data set.

Orb 1 unit  $\rightarrow$  10 bit info  $\rightarrow$  compressed to

Spatial

Original, bit required ( $256 \times 256 \times 8$ )

In Run length ( $256 + 256) \times 8$ )

$$C = 128:1$$

1. Coding redundancy  $\rightarrow$  does not need all 8 bits.
2. Spatial redundancy  $\rightarrow$  Information is unnecessarily repeated.
3. Irrelevant info  $\rightarrow$  Information is not useful.

### Information theory

A random event  $E$  with probability  $P(E)$  carries  $I(E)$  units of information,

$$I(E) = \log \frac{1}{P(E)} = -\log P(E).$$

Higher the uncertainty, higher the information content.

If we have a source of random events from a discrete set of events  $(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_j)$  with probabilities  $P(a_1), P(a_2), P(a_3), \dots, P(a_j)$  then average information per event or the entropy of the source,

$$H = \sum_{j=1}^J -P(a_j) \log_2 P(a_j).$$

Considering Pixel Intensity as random events, and the

$$H = \sum_{k=1}^{L-1} -P(r_k) \log_2 P(r_k) \quad L = \text{Gray levels / \# of intensity}$$

$r_k = \text{Input image intensity.}$

$P(r_k)$  = is normalized histogram  
of input image

Entropy is the measurement of the average/at least information in an image.

⇒ Variable length coding →

Huffman, RL-forest

Golomb

Arithmetic

⇒ LZW coding → spatial

⇒ Bit plane coding → Run length coding.

### Huffman Coding Properties

1. codes one symbol at a time.

2. Block code.

3. Instantaneously Decodable.

4. Uniquely Decodable.

### Golomb Coding $G_m(n)$

1. Used to represent non-negative integer input.

2. with exponentially decaying probability distributions

3. can be optimally encoded.

4. Using a family of code.

5. Computationally simpler than Huffman Coding.

$$q = \left\lfloor \frac{m}{2} \right\rfloor$$

$$k = \lceil \log_2 m \rceil$$

$$c = 2^k - m$$

$$\pi = n \bmod m$$

## Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW)

1. Error free compression technique.
2. Removes spatial redundancy.
3. Assign fixed-length code word to variable length sequence of source symbol.
4. It does not require any knowledge of probability of occurrence.
5. LZW coding is used in the GIF, TIFF, PDF formats.

## Run-length Encoding

1. Spatial Redundancy eliminated.
2. If two parts (start of next intensity, begin report # of consecutive pixels having that intensity)
3. Small runs results in expansion instead of compression.

## Run-length in Bmp

- Uses combination of encoded + absolute mode.
- Either mode can appear anywhere in the image.
- Encoded mode → 2 byte RLC → 1 byte run length, 2 byte - gray/color index
- Absolute → 2 byte RLC → first byte → 0 second byte → 1

### Second byte value

0	—————	End of line.
1	—————	End of image
2	—————	move to a new position.
3-255	—————	specify pixels individually

## Fidelity Criteria

→ refers to the standards or measures used to access how accurately an image or signal is reproduced or represented after processing, like, compression or transmission.

These criteria are important in areas like image processing, audio processing and other fields where maintaining the quality of original data is crucial, especially after compression or manipulation.

### 2 types:

- ① Objective Fidelity Criteria → Mathematically defined
- ② Subjective Fidelity Criteria → based on human observers

$$f(x,y) \xrightarrow{\text{compress}} g(x,y) \xrightarrow{\text{Decompress}} \hat{f}(x,y)$$

$$\hat{f}(x,y) = f(x,y) + e(x,y)$$

How close  $\hat{f}(x,y)$  to  $f(x,y)$ ?

### Objective Fidelity Criteria

→ are quantitative measures that evaluate the difference between the original and the processed images using mathematical function/formulas.

These criteria provide numerical values to describe image quality, often without human interpretations.

## Subjective

→ rely on human visual perception to evaluate the quality of an image.

These criteria, based on how an observer perceives the similarity or difference between the original and processed image.

## Calculation (Objective)

$$\text{Error}, e(x,y) = \hat{f}(x,y) - f(x,y)$$

$\hat{f}(x,y)$  = processed image

$f(x,y)$  = original image

Total Error betn two image.

$$\sum_{x=0}^{m-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} [\hat{f}(x,y) - f(x,y)]^2$$



Root mean Square Error  $\Rightarrow \sqrt{[\hat{f}(x,y) - f(x,y)]^2}$

$$E_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{mN} \sum_{x=0}^{m-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} [\hat{f}(x,y) - f(x,y)]^2}$$

(\*) Smaller value of  $E_{rms}$  is better compression

→ smaller error → better compression

→ better treatment

→ smaller error → better compression

→ better treatment

Signal to noise ratio:

$$SNR_{rms} = \frac{\sum_{x=0}^{m-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \hat{f}(x,y)^2}{\sum_{x=0}^{m-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} [\hat{f}(x,y) - f(x,y)]^2}$$

④ A larger SNR  $\rightarrow$  better image.

→ to remove salt & pepper noise from image.

$$\hat{f}(x,y)^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + 6^2 + 5^2 + 8^2 + 9^2 + 10^2$$

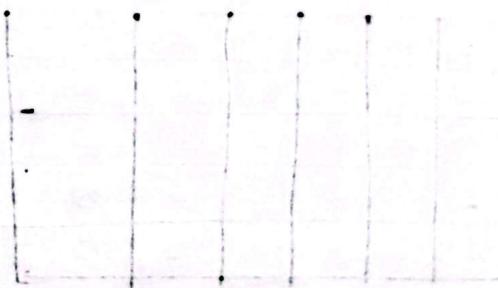
$$[\hat{f}(x,y) - f(x,y)]^2 = (1-0)^2 + (2-1)^2 + (3-5)^2 + (4-3)^2 + (6-6)^2 + (5-2)^2 + (8-4)^2 + (9-8)^2 + (10-10)^2$$

→ better image  $\rightarrow$  less noise  $\rightarrow$   $\rightarrow$   $\rightarrow$  better image

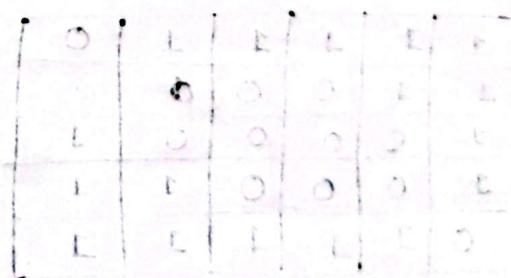
1	2	3
4	6	5
8	9	10

0	1	5
3	6	2
4	8	10

→ better image



→ better image



## Chapter 6 Colour Image Processing

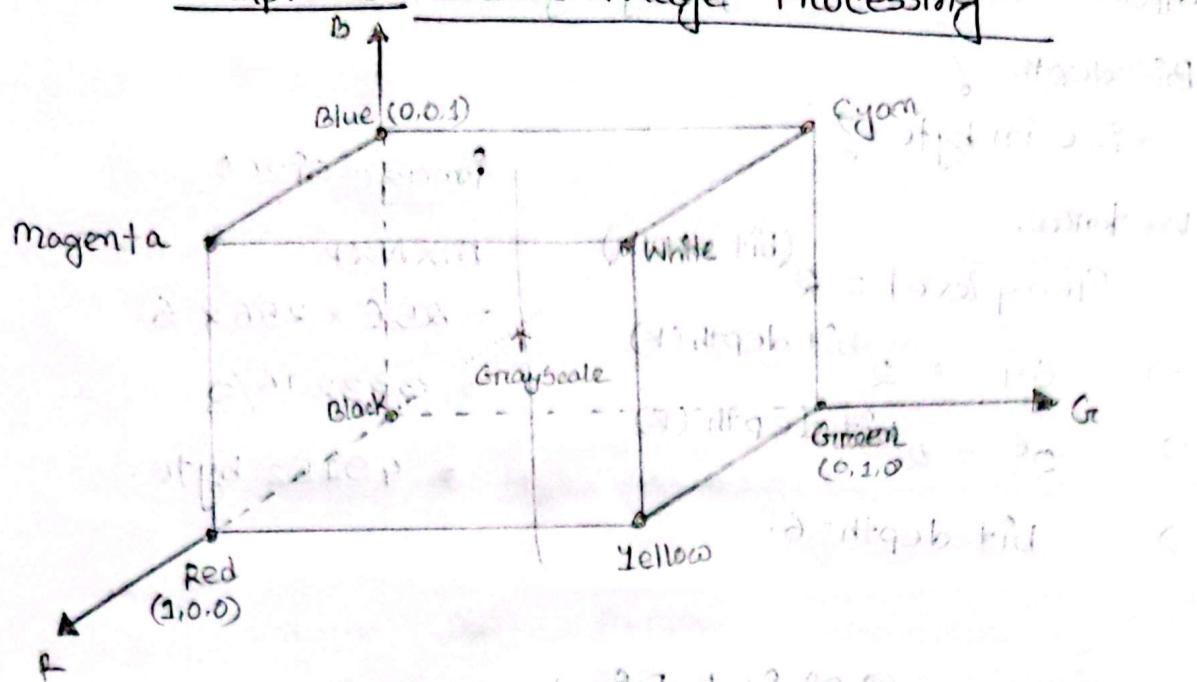
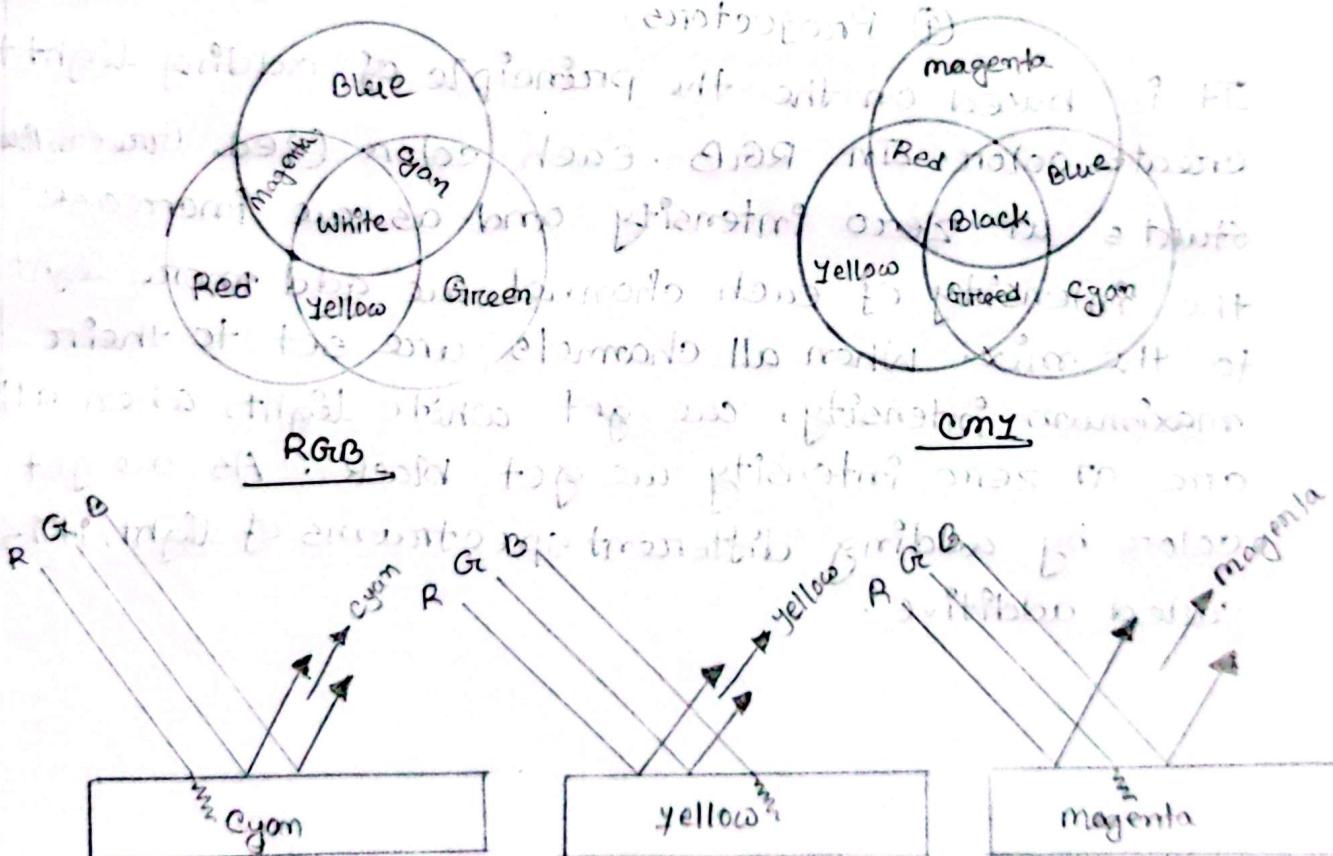


Figure 8: RGB Color Model. (Based on Cartesian Coordinate System)

Light intensity for human eye =  $(0.299 \times \text{Red}) + (0.587 \times \text{Green}) + (0.144 \times \text{Blue})$



Given,  $256 \times 256$  image, gray level 64.

Bit depth = ?

Size in byte = ?

Work now,

$$\text{Gray level} = 2^{\text{bit depth}}$$

$$\Rightarrow 64 = 2^{\text{bit depth (K)}}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2^6 = 2^{\text{bit depth (K)}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{bit depth} = 6.$$

### Image sizes

$$m \times N \times K$$

$$= 256 \times 256 \times 6$$

$$= 393216 / 8$$

$$= 49152 \text{ byte.}$$

RGB used  $\rightarrow$  ① Digital Display

② Computer monitors

③ Television screens

④ Projectors.

It is based on the principle of adding light to create colors. In RGB, each color (Red, Green, Blue) starts at zero intensity and as we increase the intensity of each channel we add more light to the mix. When all channels are set to their maximum intensity, we get white light, when all are at zero intensity we get black. As we get colors by adding different spectrums of light, it is called additive.

Feature	Additive Color Model	Subtractive
Primary colors	Red, Green, Blue (RGB)	Cyan, magenta, yellow (CMY)
Color formation	Colors formed by adding light.	Colors are formed by absorbing light.
White creation	Mixing all 3 colors (R+G+B)	Absence of pigment (reflecting all light)
Black creation	Absence of light (no RGB)	Combining all pigments (CMY)
Used In	Screens, digital display, lighting.	Printing, painting, color filter.

## Chapter-6

# out of all cones of our eyes.

65% → Red light.

33% → Green Light.

2% → Blue Light



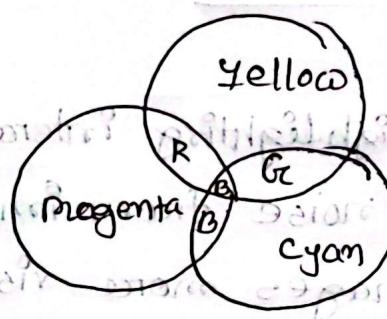
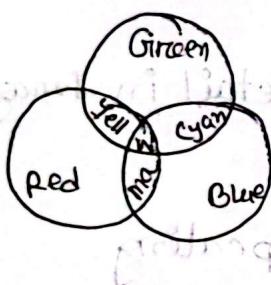
### Additive

Combination of → red + green + blue → White.

### Subtractive

\* Primary colors → Cyan, Magenta, Yellow.

\* Black → Cyan + Magenta + Yellow.



$$\text{Red} + \text{Green} = \text{Yellow}$$

$$\text{Green} + \text{Blue} = \text{Cyan}$$

$$\text{Blue} + \text{Red} = \text{Magenta}$$

$$\text{Cyan} = \text{White} - \text{Red}$$

$$(\text{magenta} = \text{White}) - \text{Green}$$

$$\text{Yellow} = \text{White} - \text{Blue}$$

(Blue) to (B) to final round off

(Green) to (G) to final round off

(Red) to (R) to final round off

Final output

aperte no based Erosion moltiplicazione di pixel con 3x3

$(AOB) = \{z | (0)_z \subseteq A\}$  operazione di erosione

$A \oplus B = \{z | (\hat{0})_z \cap A \neq \emptyset\}$  dilatazione di oggetto

soffine non controllate erosione

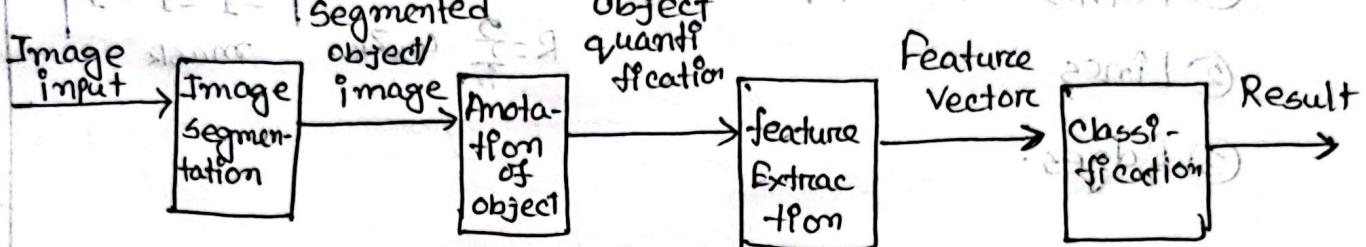
mostre di problemi 100% bruciato - bollito e -

### What is Image Segmentation

→ is an aspect of image processing

→ is a computer vision process.

→ first step in image analysis.



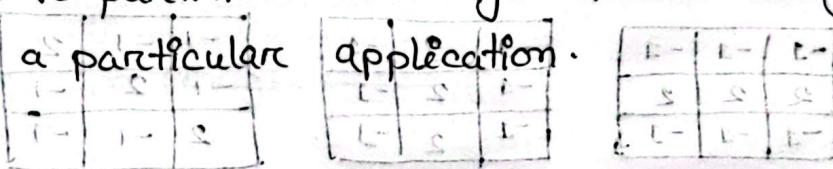
### A typical image analysis pipeline

→ Purpose → is to partition an image into meaningful regions with respect to a particular application.

→ count

→ measure

→ study properties (intensity, texture)



### Principle Approach of Segmentation

1. Similarity →
  - Thresholding → based on pixel intensity
  - Region based → grouping similar pixels
  - Match based → comparison to a given template

$T_{Rm}$

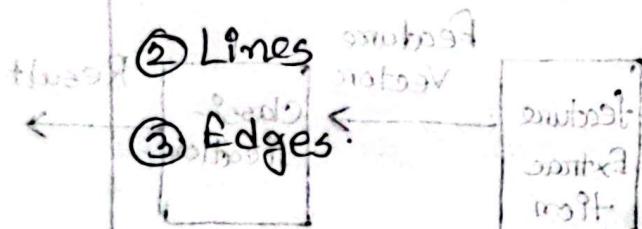
② Discontinuity → Partition an image based on sharp changes in intensity (such as edges in an image)

→ Edge based → Detection of edges (that) separates regions from each other

→ Watershed → find region corresponding to local minima in intensity.

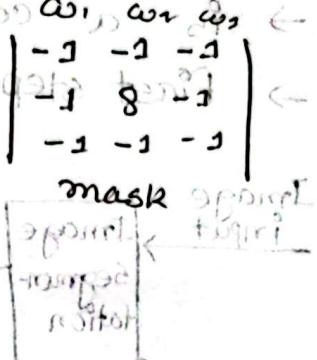
3 types of Gray level discontinuities.

① Points. →  $|R_i| > T$  (neg threshold) →



$$R = \sum_{k=1}^K w_k Z_{ik}$$

mask



### Line Detection

Horizontal, Vertical, diagonal ( $45^\circ$ )

-1	-1	-1
2	2	2
-1	-1	-1

-1	2	-1
-1	2	-1
-1	2	-1

-1	-1	2
-1	2	-1
2	-1	-1

2	-1	-1
-1	2	-1
-1	-1	2

$|R_i| > |R_j|$  for all  $j \neq i$  → Line detect. direction of mask

Blurred image no need of blurring →  
Taking minimum pixel among → need of  
Input image of masking → need of

HT  
11

## Edge

→ Abrupt change in the intensity of pixel



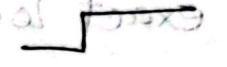
→ boundary of two regions.

→ Discontinuity in image brightness or contrast.

Edge is the boundary of between two homogeneous region

## Edge Type (4)

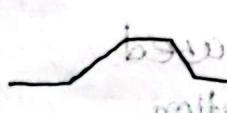
① → Step Edge



② → Ramp "



③ → Ridge "



④ → Roof "



1st derivative → hence an edge is

2nd derivative → show edge direction

## Edge Detection

### Edge Detection

→ sudden change in image intensity.

### Usage

→ Reduce unnecessary info of image while preserve structure.

→ Extract important features → Corners

→ Lines

→ Curves

→ Recognize objects, boundaries, segmentation

→ Part of computer vision and recognition.

$(B_{\text{out}}) \leftarrow (B_{\text{in}}) \otimes \nabla \otimes (B_{\text{in}})$



## 3 main steps of Edge detection

↳ ~~Input ED processed with in 3 steps~~ toward A ←

1. Filtering (smoothing) → remove noise.

2. Differentiation (Edge sharpening) → where intensity changes i.e. detects discontinuity.

3. Detection (thresholding) → take decision - .

4. Localization → determine exact location of edge. ④

## Only Gradient Based Edge Detection

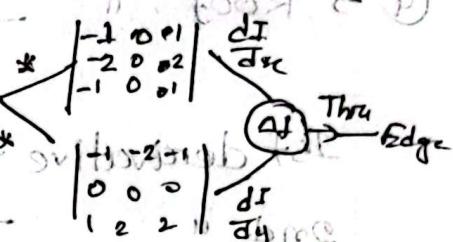
→ Simple to implement

→ detect edge and their direction. I

→ sensitive to noise.

→ Not accurate in locating edges.

→ Too much details



## Laplacian & Gaussian Log

→ cheaper to implement → combine two filter

→ Doesn't provide info about direction of the edge.

→ Probability of false and missing edges.

→ Localization is better than Gradient Operators.

steps

→ Smoothing → Gaussian filter

→ Enhance Edge → Laplacian operator

→ zero crossings denotes edge locations to trace

use → linear approach to determine the sub-pixel location of the edge.

$$g(x, y) = \nabla^2 [G(x, y) * f(x, y)]$$

## Canny Edge detection

### 3 main Criteria

- ① Good detection  $\rightarrow$  Ability to detect locate and mark all real edges
- ② Good localisation  $\rightarrow$  minimal distance between real edge & detected edge
- ③ Clear response  $\rightarrow$  Only one response per edge.

The Algorithm  $\rightarrow$  5 steps:

① Smoothing  $\rightarrow$  remove noise

$$\begin{matrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{matrix} \rightarrow 0.25$$

② Finding Gradients.

$$\begin{matrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{matrix}$$

$$\begin{matrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{matrix} \rightarrow 0.25$$

③ Non-maximum Suppression

$$\begin{matrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{matrix}$$

④ Double Thresholding

$$\begin{matrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{matrix} \rightarrow 0.25$$

⑤ Edge tracking by hysteresis.



Smoothing

Gaussian filter

$$f(x,y) \xrightarrow{\text{Gaussian filter}} f_s(x,y)$$

$G_x, G_y$

$$M(x,y) = |G_x| + |G_y|$$

$$\theta(x,y) = \tan^{-1}(G_y/G_x)$$

Gradient magnitude

local

$$g(x,y)$$

Non-maxima suppression

max

$$g_{NP}(x,y)$$

Edge detected by

hysteresis

$$g(x,y)$$

double

thresholding

$$g_{NH}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N2}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N3}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N4}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N5}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N6}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N7}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N8}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N9}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N10}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N11}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N12}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N13}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N14}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N15}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N16}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N17}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N18}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N19}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N20}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N21}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N22}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N23}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N24}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N25}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N26}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N27}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N28}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N29}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N30}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N31}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N32}(x,y)$$

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$$g_{N188}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N189}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N190}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N191}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N192}(x,y)$$

$$g_{N193}(x,y)$$
</

Step 1° Smoothing (Blurring of the edge image to remove noise).

Let  $f(x,y)$  denote input image and  $G(x,y)$  as Gaussian function:  $G(x,y) = e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$

Smoothed image  $f_s(x,y) = G(x,y) * f(x,y)$ .

Step 2° Finding Gradient (The edge should be marked where gradients of the image has large magnitudes)

Sobel:

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

 $G_y$

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

 $G_x$

Prewitt:

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

 $G_y$

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

 $G_x$

Gradient magnitude:

$$M(x,y) = \sqrt{(G_x)^2 + (G_y)^2}$$

$$\text{on } |G_x| + |G_y|$$

$$\theta(x,y) = \tan^{-1}(G_y/G_x)$$

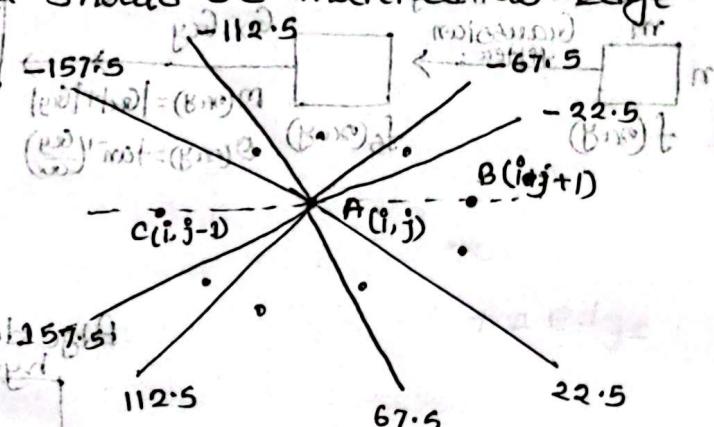
Step 3° Only local maxima should be marked as Edge.

For each pixels, the neighbouring pixels are located in

horizontal ( $0^\circ$ ), vertical ( $90^\circ$ ), diagonal direction ( $45^\circ, 135^\circ$ )

$$M(x,y) = \begin{cases} |\nabla S|(x,y) & |\nabla S|(x,y) > |\nabla S|(x,y+1) \\ & |\nabla S|(x,y) > |\nabla S|(x,y-1) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$g_N(x,y)$  will be the output.



Step 4: Double Thresholding (Potential Edges are determined by Thresholding)

To solve the problem of which edges are really edges and which are not, Canny uses Hysteresis Thresholding.

$$g_{NH}(x,y) = g_N(x,y) > T_H$$

$$g_{NL}(x,y) = g_N(x,y) > T_L$$

$$\text{and } g_{NL}(x,y) = g_{NL}(x,y) - g_{NH}(x,y)$$

The ratio of the high and low threshold should be two or three to one.

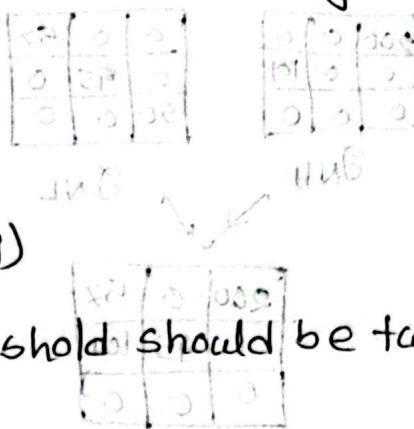
# False positive: If threshold is too low than some unreal edges are detected as edges which are called fake positive edges.

# False negative: If threshold is too high then actual valid edges will be eliminated.

Step 5: Edge tracking by hysteresis (Final Edges are determined by suppressing all edges that are not connected to a very strong edge.)

For the edge pixel of  $g_{NH}(x,y)$  and  $g_{NL}(x,y)$ .

1. Any edge with its intensity  $>$  'High' threshold are the 'sure edge'
2. Any edge with intensity  $<$  'low' threshold are the non-edge.



\*3. The edges between high and loco threshold are classified as edges only if they are connected to the 'sure edge' otherwise eliminated.

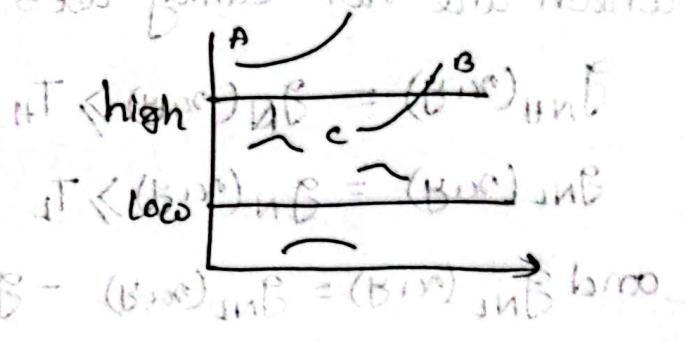
200	0	0
0	0	101
0	0	0

$\theta_{NH}$

0	0	57
0	45	0
50	0	0

$\theta_{NL}$

200	0	57
0	45	101
0	0	0



$(B > 0) \cap (B < 101) = (B > 0) - (B > 101)$

Binary mask with only black and white pixels and no gray pixels.

Binary mask with only black and white pixels and no gray pixels.

Binary mask with only black and white pixels and no gray pixels.

$(B > 0) \cap (B < 101) = (B > 0) - (B > 101)$

Binary mask with only black and white pixels and no gray pixels.

Binary mask with only black and white pixels and no gray pixels.

- Edge - mask

## Lecture-10 (Image Segmentation)

### Edge Detection Algorithms:

#### 1. Gradient Based

→ SOBEL

→ Prewitt

→ Robert's Cross operator

#### 2. Laplacian Based → Laplacian of Gaussian

#### 3. Hybrid → Gradient + Laplacian → Canny Edge detection

### Line detection:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Point detection →

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 8 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

### 3 types of Gray level discontinuities:

- ① Points.
- ② Lines
- ③ Edges.