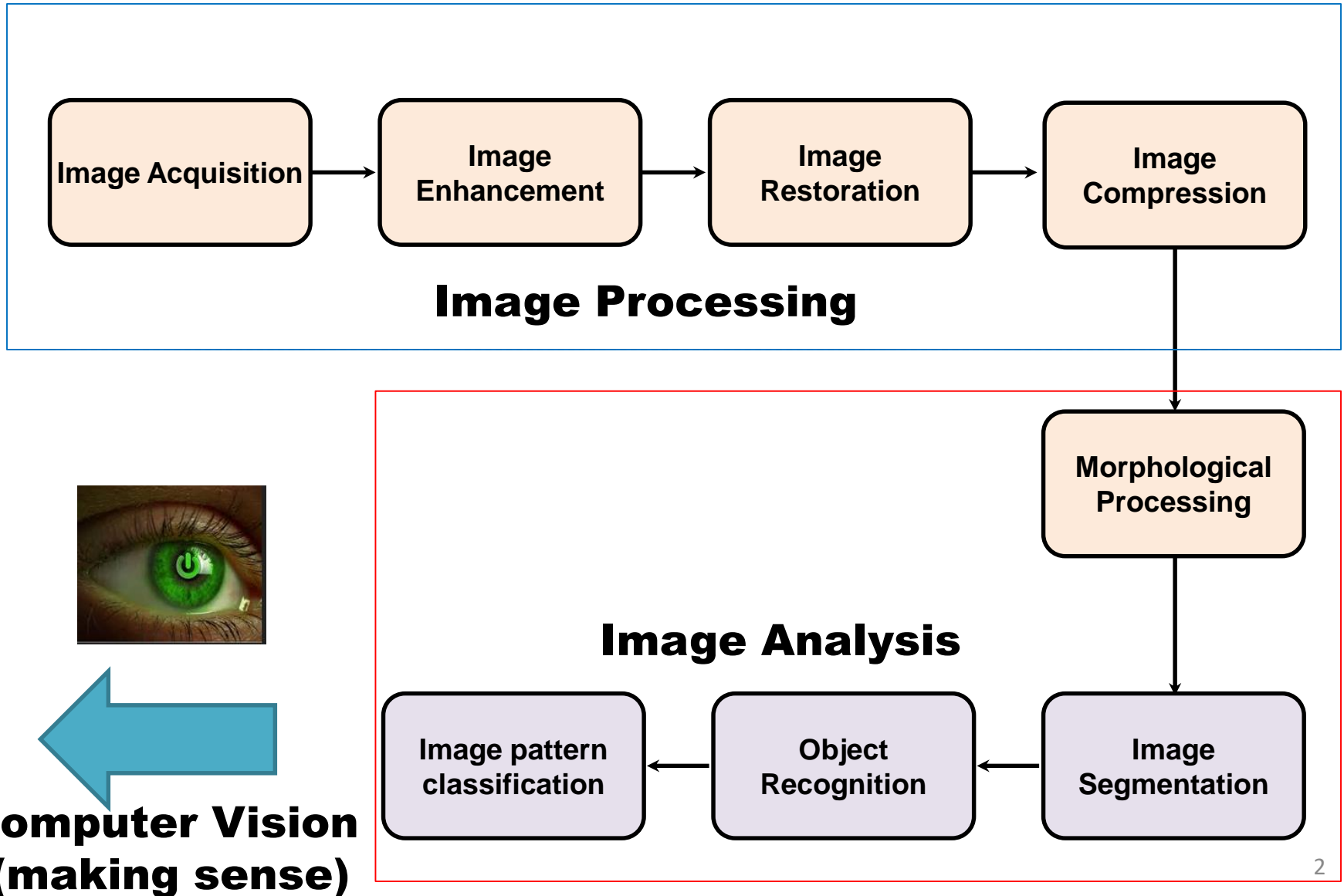


CS370 Computer Imaging

Image Representation and Operations Part-1

Key Stages in DIP



Recap

- Goal of Image Processing
- Human Visual System
- Image Acquisition
- Digital Image Representation
- Image Sampling And Quantisation
- Image Resolution

Lecture Objective

- Pixel Neighborhood
- Adjacency
- Digital Path
- Connectivity
- Region and Boundary
- Proximity Relationship
- Defining Linear Operations

False Contouring

- Insufficient number of intensity levels in smooth areas of a digital image



k=8



K=4

False Contouring



256



128



64



32



16



8

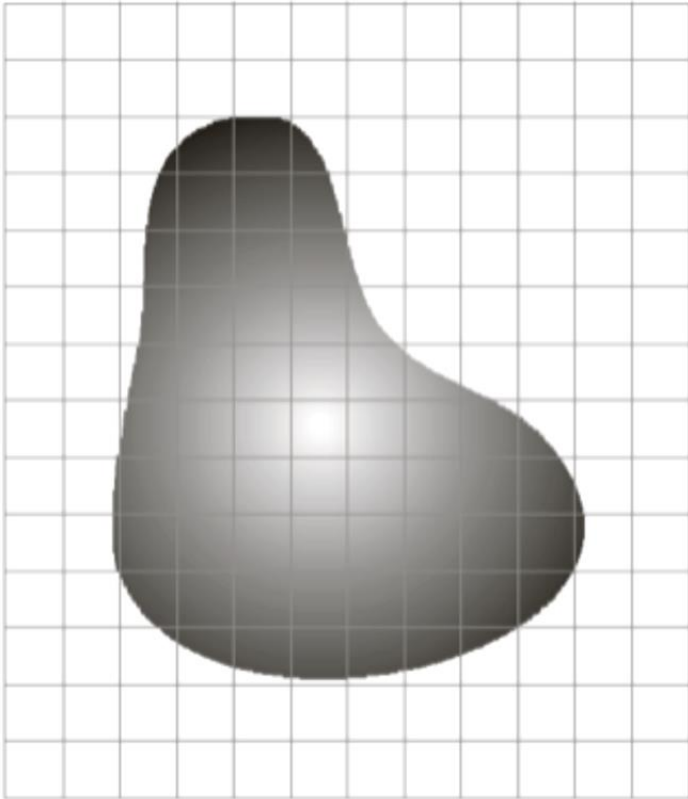


4

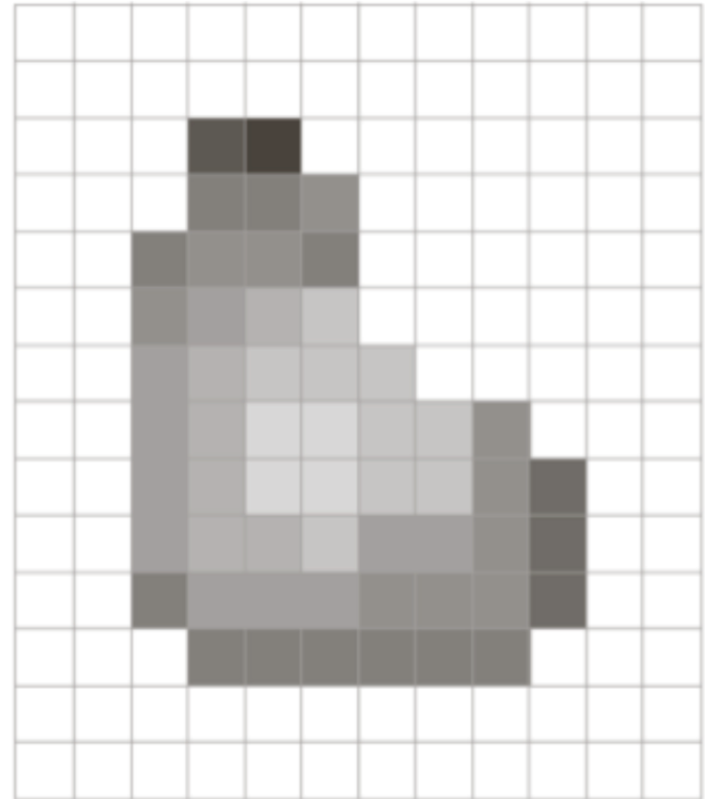


2

From Analog to Digital



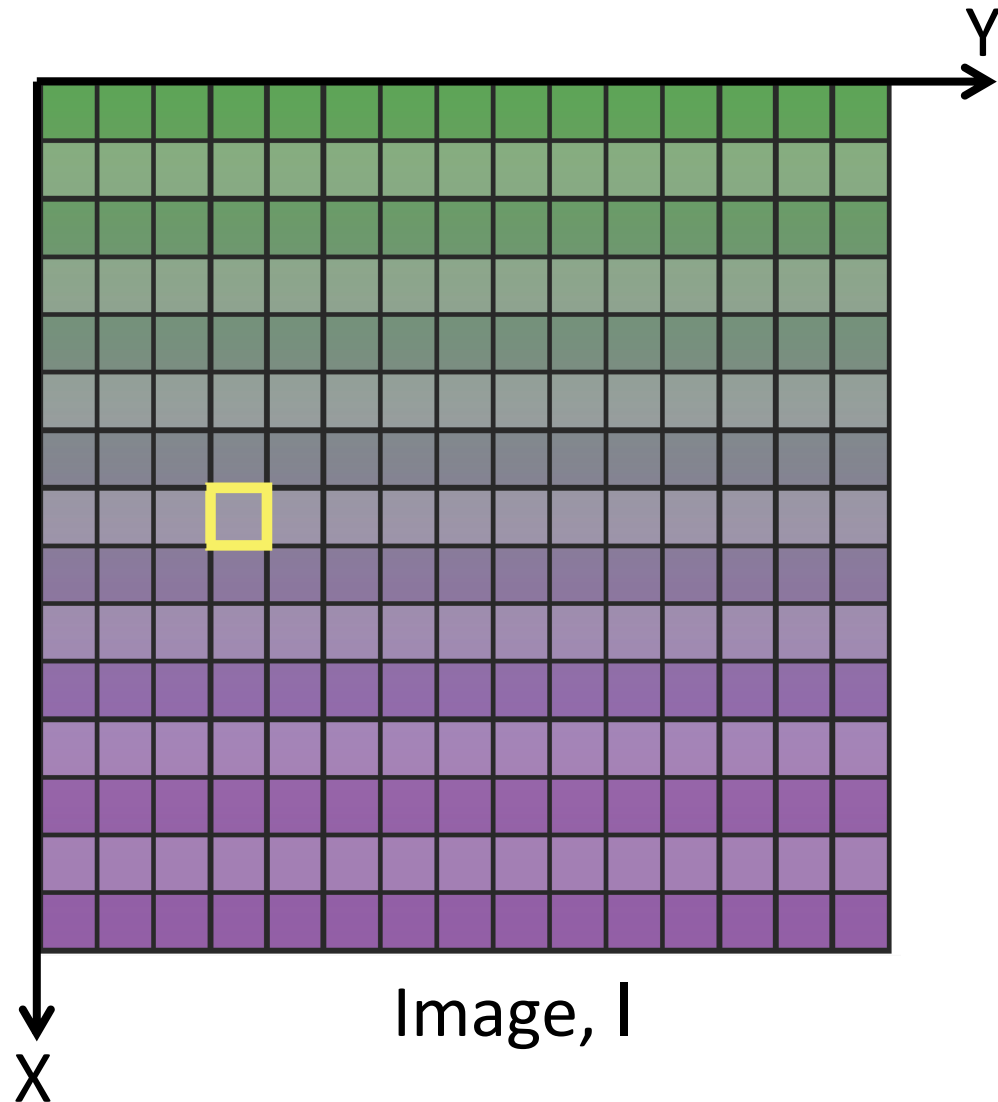
Continuous input on
the sensor



Result of Image Sampling and
Quantization

2-D Image Representation

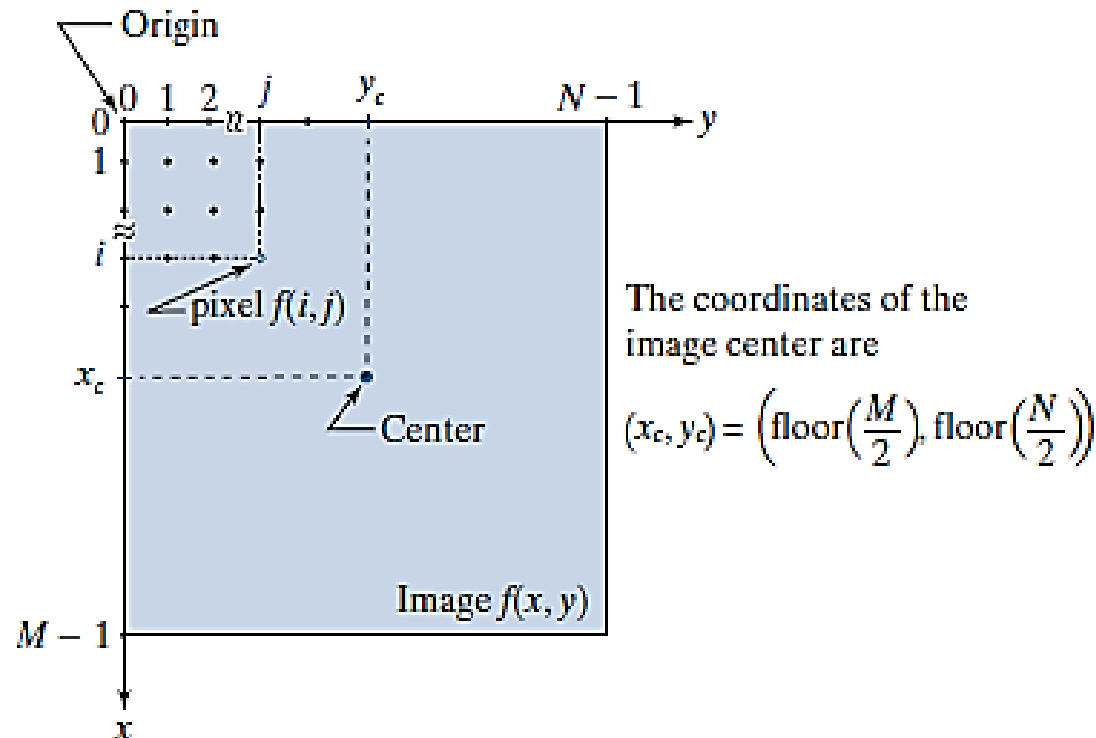
- Array of 2D elements
 - Picture Elements – *pixel*
 - Randomly addressable locations
 - No **adjacency information** is stored explicitly



2-D Image Representation

Spatial domain representation:

- We define the *origin* of an image at the *top Left corner*. This is a convention based on the fact that many image displays (e.g., TV monitors) sweep an image starting at the top left and moving to the right, one row at a time.

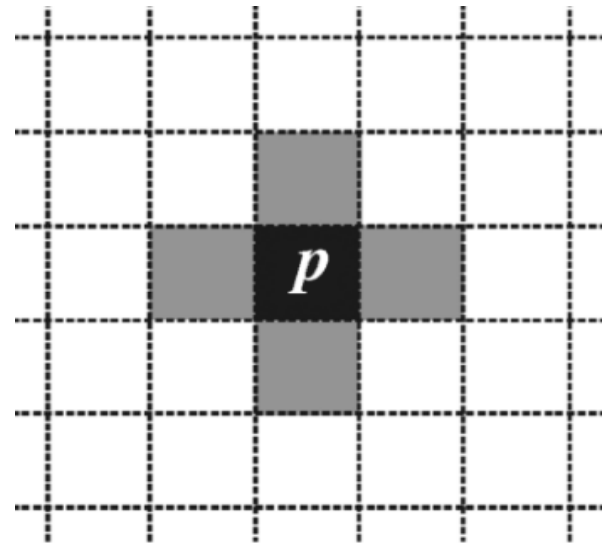
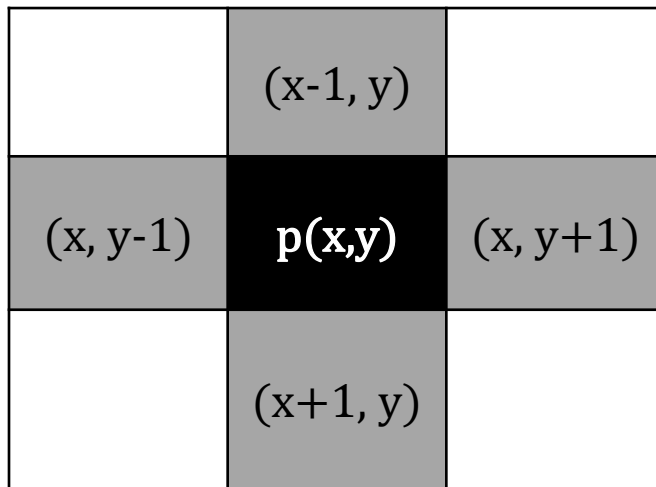


Neighbors of a Pixel

Neighbors of a Pixel

- The **4-neighbors** coordinates of a pixel are given by:

$(x+1, y)$, $(x-1, y)$, $(x, y+1)$, $(x, y-1)$



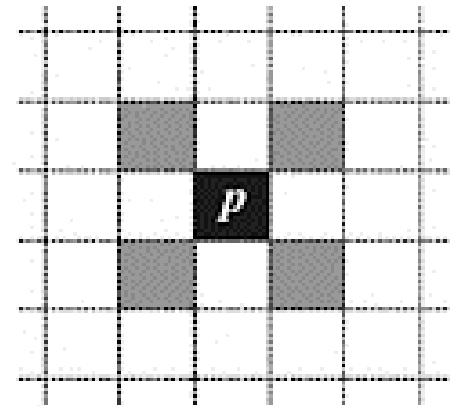
- This set of pixels is denoted by $N_4(p)$. Each pixel is one unit distance from (x, y) .

Neighbors of a Pixel

- The *four diagonal neighbors* coordinates of a pixel are given by:

$(x+1, y+1)$, $(x+1, y-1)$, $(x-1, y+1)$, $(x-1, y-1)$

$(x-1, y-1)$		$(x-1, y+1)$
	$p(x, y)$	
$(x+1, y-1)$		$(x+1, y+1)$

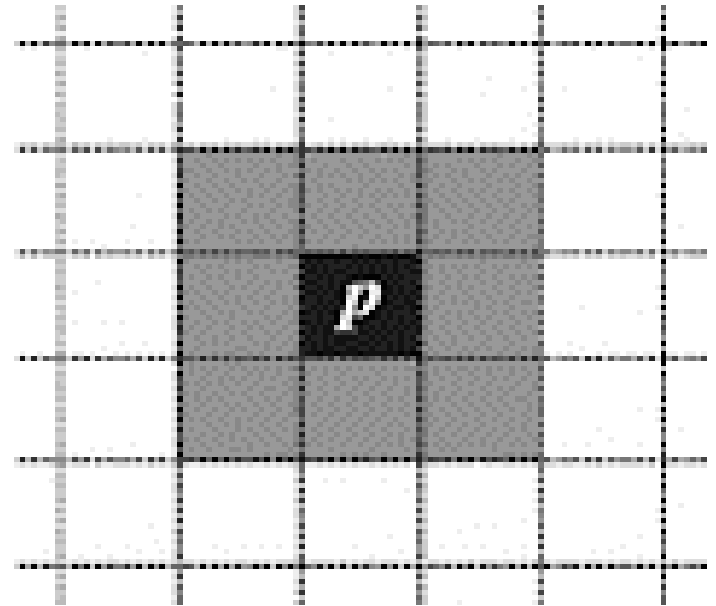


- This set of pixels is denoted by $N_D(p)$. Each pixel is one unit distance from (x, y) .

Neighbors of a Pixel

- $N_D(p)$, together with the 4-neighbors: $N_4(p)$, are called the *eight neighbors* of p , denoted by $N_8(p)$.

$(x-1, y-1)$	$(x-1, y)$	$(x-1, y+1)$
$(x, y-1)$	$p(x, y)$	$(x, y+1)$
$(x+1, y-1)$	$(x+1, y)$	$(x+1, y+1)$



Adjacency and Connectivity

Adjacency and Connectivity

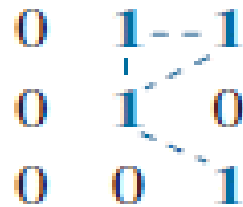
- Let V be a set of **intensity values** used to define adjacency and connectivity.
- In a binary image, $V = \{1\}$, if we are referring to adjacency of pixels with value **1**. Similarly $V = \{0\}$, if we are referring to adjacency of pixels with value **0**.
- In a gray-scale image, the idea is the same, but V typically contains more elements.
 - If the possible intensity values are 0 – 255, V set can be any subset of these 256 values. For example, $V = \{180, 181, 182, \dots, 200\}$.

3 Types of Adjacency

- **4-adjacency**: Two pixels p and q with values from V are 4-adjacent if $q \in N_4(p)$.
- **8-adjacency**: Two pixels p and q with values from V are 8-adjacent if $q \in N_8(p)$.
- **m-adjacency**: Two pixels p and q with values from V are m-adjacent if:
 - $q \in N_4(p)$ **or**
 - $q \in N_D(p)$ **and** $N_4(p) \cap N_4(q)$ has no pixel whose values are from V (no intersection)
 - Use 4-adjacency where possible and 8-adjacency where not possible.

Types of Adjacency

- **m-adjacency** (Mixed adjacency) is a modification of 8-adjacency, and is introduced to eliminate the ambiguities that may result from using 8-adjacency.
- For example, consider the pixel arrangement in following figure and let $V = \{1\}$. The three pixels at the top show multiple (ambiguous) 8-adjacency, as indicated by the dashed lines.



Path between top-right and bottom-right points

- This ambiguity is removed by using *m*-adjacency, as shown in the following figure.



Path between top-right and bottom-right points

Digital Path

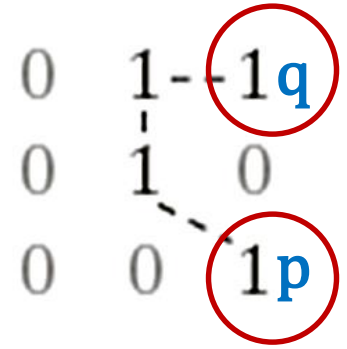
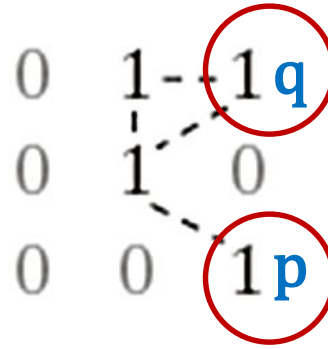
A Digital Path

- A **digital path** (or **curve**) from pixel **p** with coordinate (x_0, y_0) to pixel **q** with coordinate (x_n, y_n) is a sequence of distinct pixels with coordinates (x_0, y_0) , (x_1, y_1) , ..., (x_n, y_n) where pixels (x_i, y_i) and (x_{i-1}, y_{i-1}) are **adjacent** for $1 \leq i \leq n$.
- In this case, **n** is the **length** of the path.
- If $(x_0, y_0) = (x_n, y_n)$, then the path is **closed**.
- We can specify **4-**, **8-** or **m-paths** depending on the type of adjacency specified.

A Digital Path

- For example:

0	1	1
0	1	0
0	0	1



- In the middle figure, the paths between the pixel ^p and ^q are **8-paths**. And the path between the same 2 pixels in the right figure is **m-path**.

A Digital Path

Set $V = \{2, 3, 5\}$

4	5	6	4	5	4
3	5	3	4	3	4
4	4	4	2	4	3
5	3	4	3	3	5
6	3	2	3	4	6
5	4	5	3	3	6

p ← → q

4	5	6	4	5	4
3	5	3	4	3	4
4	4	4	2	4	3
5	3	4	3	3	5
6	3	2	3	4	6
5	4	5	3	3	6

4-path

No path

4	5	6	4	5	4
3	5	3	4	3	4
4	4	4	2	4	3
5	3	4	3	3	5
6	3	2	3	4	6
5	4	5	3	3	6

8-path

Minimum path
length = 5

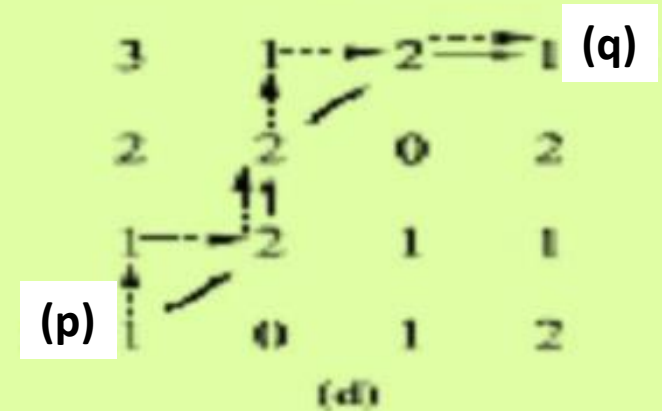
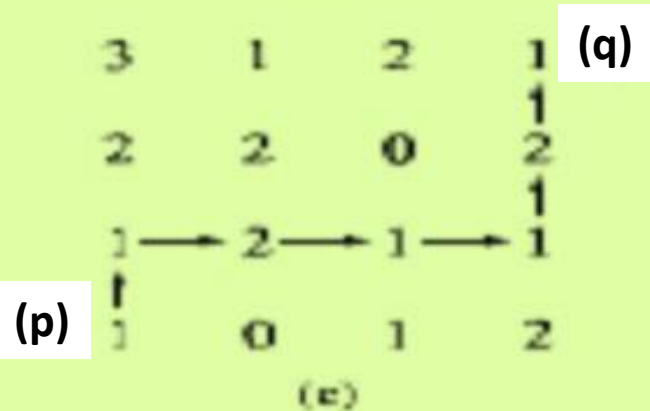
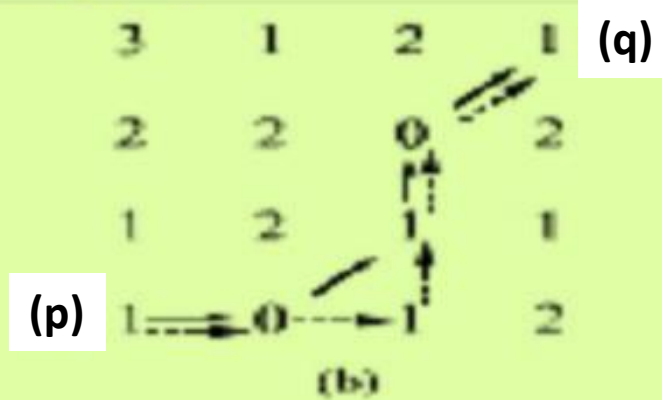
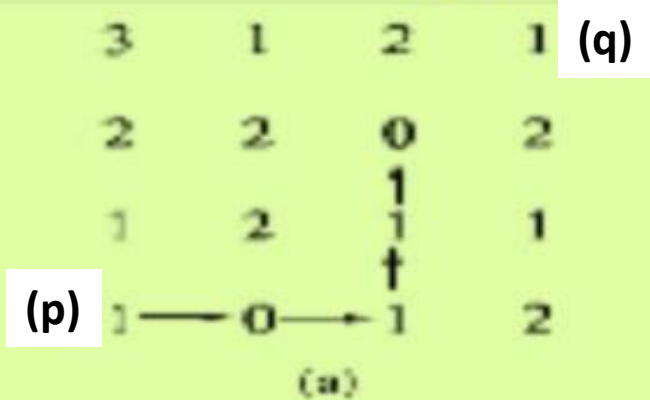
4	5	6	4	5	4
3	5	3	4	3	4
4	4	4	2	4	3
5	3	4	3	3	5
6	3	2	3	4	6
5	4	5	3	3	6

m-path

Minimum path
length = 5

A Digital Path

Find the minimum path distance



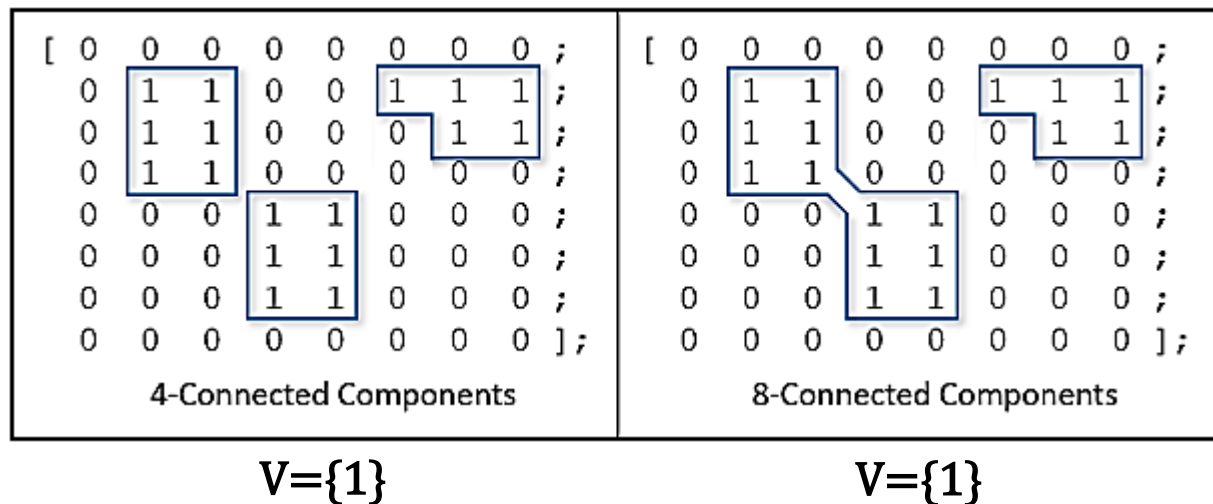
(a) 4path for $V = \{0, 1\}$ (b) 8 path(Solid Lines), m path(Dashed Lines)

(c) 4path for $V = \{1, 2\}$ (d) 8 path(Solid Lines), m path(Dashed Lines)

Connectivity

Connectivity

- Let S represent a subset of pixels in an image. Two pixels p and q are said to be connected in S if there exists a path between them consisting entirely of pixels in S .
- For any pixel p in S , the set of pixels that are connected to it in S is called a connected component of S .
- If the set S only has one connected component, then it is called a connected set.



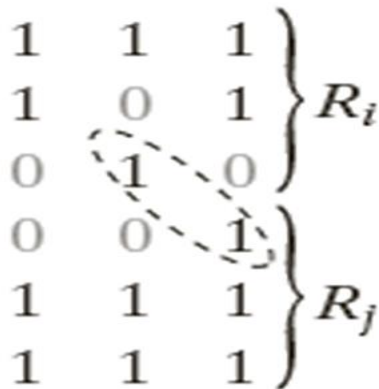
Region and Boundary

Region

- Let **R** be a subset of pixels in an image, we call R a **region** of the image if R is a **connected set**.

OR

- A region in an image is a **group of connected pixels** with **similar properties**.
- Two regions are **adjacent** if their union forms a connected set, otherwise **disjoint**.
- We consider 4 and 8 adjacency when referring to regions.



- In this example, the two regions of 1's are adjacent only if 8-adjacency is used.
- A 4-path between the two regions does not exist, so their union is not a connected set.

Region

- Suppose an image contains K disjoint regions, R_k , $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$, **none of which touches the image border**. Let \mathbf{R}_u denote the union of all the K regions, and let $(\mathbf{R}_u)^c$ denote its complement:
 - ❖ We call all the points in R_u the *foreground*, and
 - ❖ All the points in $(R_u)^c$ the *background* of the image.

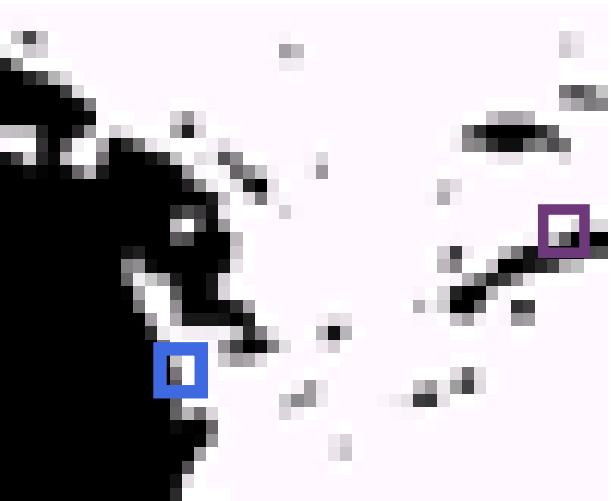


Boundary

- The **boundary** (also called border or contour) of a region **R** is the set of pixels in the region that **have one or more neighbors that are not in R**.

OR

- The **boundary** of a region is the set of pixels in the region that have at least one background neighbor.



0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0
0	1	1	1	0
0	0	0	0	0

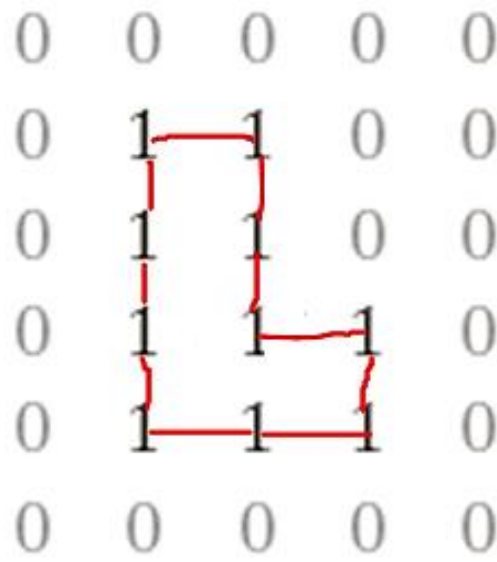
- In this example, the circled 1 is **not a member** of the border of the 1-valued region if 4-connectivity is used.
- As a rule, adjacency between points in a region and its background is defined using 8-connectivity to handle situations such as this.

Boundary

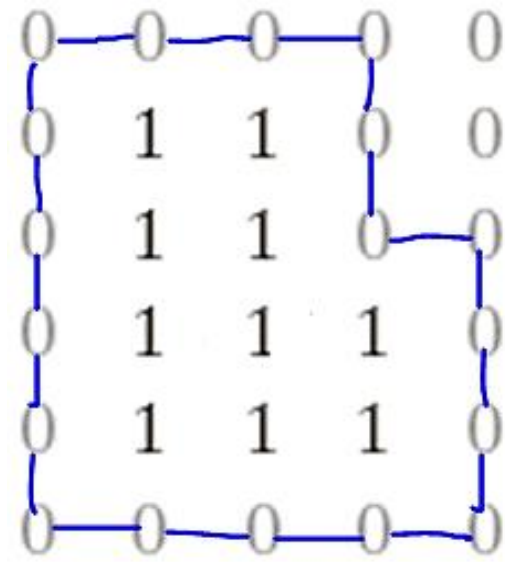
- **Inner boundary**: of the region
- **Outer boundary**: the border in the background



A region of $V=\{1\}$,
8-connectivity and
its background



Inner boundary



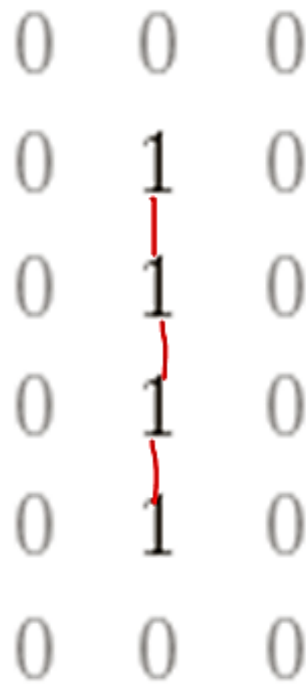
Outer boundary

Boundary

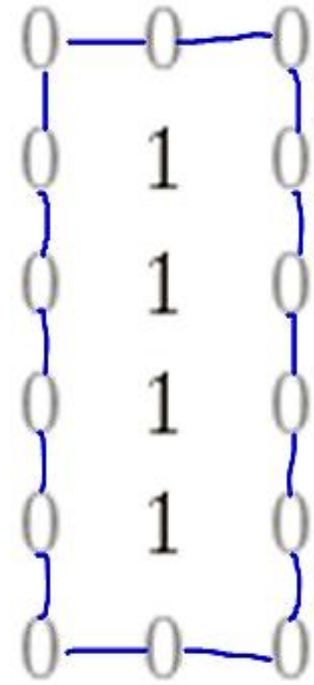
- **Inner boundary**: of the region
- **Outer boundary**: the border in the background



A region of $V=\{1\}$,
8-connectivity and
its background



Inner boundary



Outer boundary

Boundary vs. Edge

- Boundary: **global** concept: the boundary of a finite region forms a closed path.
- Edge: **local** concept, based on a measure of intensity-level discontinuity at a point.
 - Edge point
 - Edge segment



Proximity Relationship

Proximity Relationship

- What is the **distance** between any two pixels?
 - Distance in **domain** (2D plane)
 - Distance in **range** (Gray scale values)
- Meaning of distance is context dependent.

Distance Measures

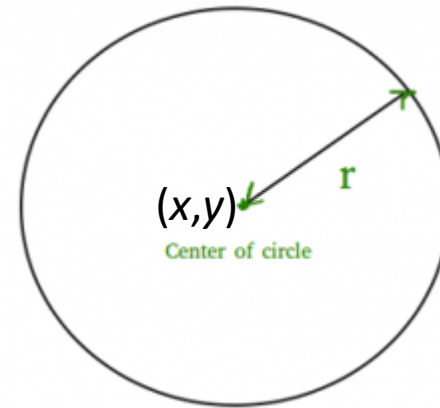
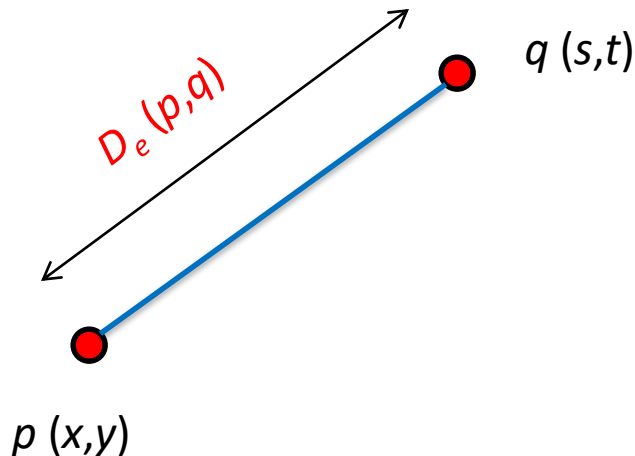
- For pixels p , q and z , D is a **distance function** or **metric** if:
 1. $D(p, q) \geq 0$ (non-negativity)
 2. $D(p, q) = 0$ if and only if $p = q$ (Identity of indiscernible)
 3. $D(p, q) = D(q, p)$ (Symmetry)
 4. $D(p, z) \leq D(p, q) + D(q, z)$ (triangle inequality)

Distance Measures

- The *Euclidean Distance* between p with coordinates (x, y) and q with coordinates (s, t) is defined as:

$$D_e(p, q) = [(x - s)^2 + (y - t)^2]^{1/2}$$

- Pixels having a distance less than or equal to some value r from (x, y) are the points contained in a **disk** of radius r centered at (x, y) .

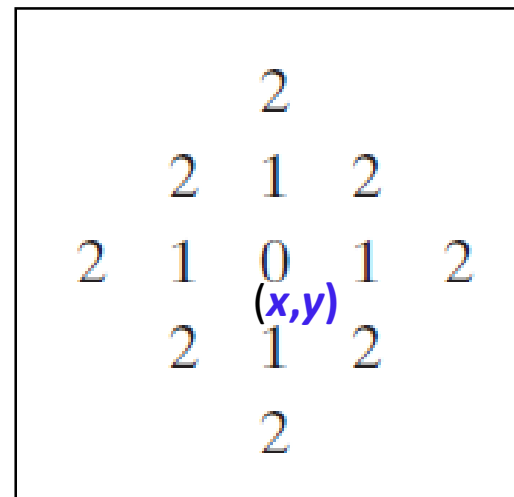
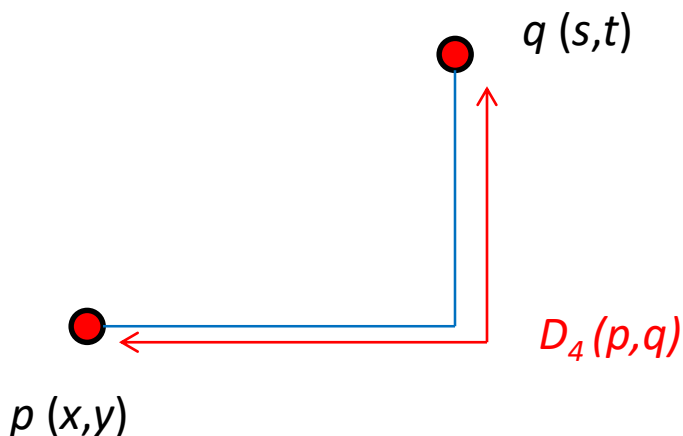


Distance Measures

- The **D_4 distance** (also called **city-block distance**) between **p** and **q** is defined as:

$$D_4(p, q) = |x - s| + |y - t|$$

- Pixels having a D_4 distance from (x,y) , less than or equal to some value **r** form a **diamond** centered at (x,y) .



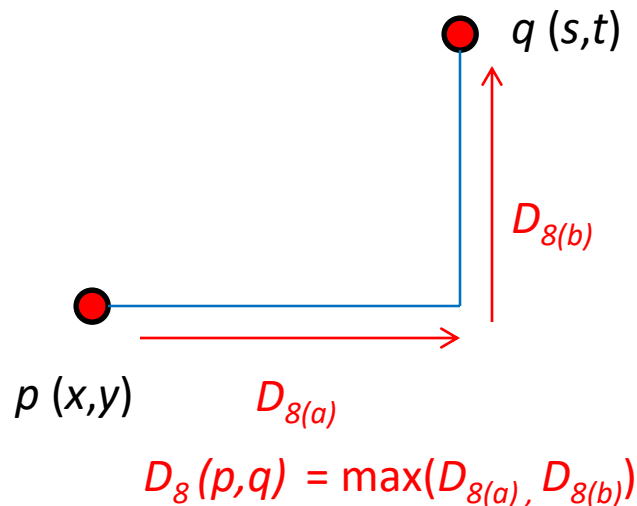
$$D_4 \leq 2$$

Distance Measures

- The **D_8 distance** (also called **chessboard distance**) between p and q is defined as:

$$D_8(p, q) = \max(|x - s|, |y - t|)$$

- Pixels having a D_8 distance from (x, y) , less than or equal to some value r form a **square** Centered at (x, y) .

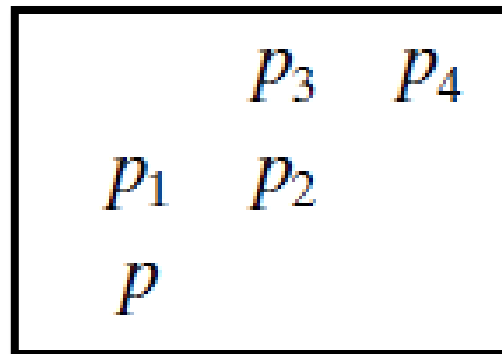


2	2	2	2	2
2	1	1	1	2
2	1	0	1	2
2	1	1	1	2
2	2	2	2	2

$$D_8 \leq 2$$

Distance Measures

- The D_m *distance* is defined as the shortest m-path between the points.
- Consider the following arrangement of pixels and assume that p , p_2 , and p_4 have value 1 and that p_1 and p_3 can have a value of 0 or 1.
- Suppose that we consider the adjacency of pixels values 1 (i.e. $V = \{1\}$), what is the distance between p and p_4 i.e. $D_m(p, p_4)$?



Distance Measures

- **Case1:** If $p_1=0$ and $p_3=0$, $D_m(p, p_4)=2$
 $(p \rightarrow p_2 \rightarrow p_4)$

	0	1
0	1	
1		

- **Case2:** If $p_1=1$ and $p_3=0$, $D_m(p, p_4)=3$
 $(p \rightarrow p_1 \rightarrow p_2 \rightarrow p_4)$

	0	1
1	1	
1		

- **Case3:** If $p_1=0$ and $p_3=1$, $D_m(p, p_4)=3$
 $(p \rightarrow p_2 \rightarrow p_3 \rightarrow p_4)$

	1	1
0	1	
1		

- **Case4:** If $p_1=1$ and $p_3=1$, $D_m(p, p_4)=4$
 $(p \rightarrow p_1 \rightarrow p_2 \rightarrow p_3 \rightarrow p_4)$

	1	1
1	1	
1		

	p_3	p_4
p_1	p_2	
p		

Linear Operations

Linear Vs. Nonlinear Operation

- Let H be a **general operator** that produces $g(x,y)$ for a given image $f(x,y)$:

$$H[f(x,y)] = g(x,y)$$

- Given two arbitrary constants, a and b , and two arbitrary images $f_1(x, y)$ and $f_2(x, y)$, H is said to be a **Linear operator** if:

$$\begin{aligned} H[af_1(x,y) + bf_2(x,y)] &= aH[f_1(x,y)] + bH[f_2(x,y)] \\ &= ag_1(x,y) + bg_2(x,y) \end{aligned}$$

- **Additivity**: $H[f_1(x,y) + f_2(x,y)] = H[f_1(x,y)] + H[f_2(x,y)]$
- **Homogeneity**: $H[c \times f(x,y)] = c \times H[f(x,y)]$

An operator that fails to satisfy above conditions is said to be **nonlinear**.

Linear Operation : example

- Suppose that \mathbf{H} is the **summation operator** Σ and function performed by this operator is simply to *sum its inputs*:

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma[a f_1(x, y) + b f_2(x, y)] &= \Sigma a f_1(x, y) + \Sigma b f_2(x, y) \\ &= a \Sigma f_1(x, y) + b \Sigma f_2(x, y) \\ &= a g_1(x, y) + b g_2(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

Where the first step follows from the fact that **summation is distributive**. So, an expansion of the left side is equal to the right side, and we conclude that the **sum operator is linear**.

Linear Operation

- How to show an operator H is linear?
 - We need to show that for arbitrary images $f_1(x,y)$ and $f_2(x,y)$, H satisfies the following equation:

$$H[\alpha f_1(x,y) + \beta f_2(x,y)] = \alpha H[f_1(x,y)] + \beta H[f_2(x,y)]$$

Examples

- $H[f(x,y)] = f(x-x_0, y-y_0)$
- $H[f(x,y)] = [f(x,y)]^2$
- $H[f(x,y)] = \max[f(x,y)]$
- $H[f(x,y)] = f(M \times x, N \times y)$, where $M, N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
- $H[f(x,y)] = af(x,y) + b$, where a, b are arbitrary scalars

Non-linear Operation

$$\mathcal{H}[af_1(x,y) + bf_2(x,y)] = a\mathcal{H}[f_1(x,y)] + b\mathcal{H}[f_2(x,y)]$$

- If \mathbf{H} **does not** satisfy **additive** and **homogeneity** property, then it is a non-linear operator.

Non-Linear Operation : **example**

- Suppose that we are working with the **max operation**, whose function is to find the *maximum value of the pixels* in an image.
- Consider the following two images and suppose that we let **$a = 1$** and **$b = -1$** :

$$\mathcal{H}[af_1(x, y) + bf_2(x, y)] = a\mathcal{H}[f_1(x, y)] + b\mathcal{H}[f_2(x, y)]$$

$$f_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad f_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 5 \\ 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

LHS

$$\max \left\{ (1) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} + (-1) \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 5 \\ 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \right\} = \max \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -6 & -3 \\ -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \\ = -2$$

RHS

$$(1) \max \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\} + (-1) \max \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 5 \\ 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \right\} = 3 + (-1)7 = -4$$

The LHS and RHS of the linear equation are not equal in this case, so we have proved that the **max operator is nonlinear**.

Next Lecture

- Elementwise Versus Matrix Operations
- Operations on Images
 - Arithmetic Operations
 - Set and Logical Operations
- Spatial Operations
 - Single-pixel Operations
 - Neighborhood Operations