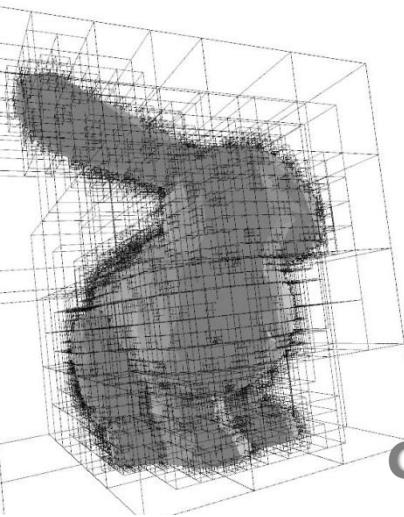
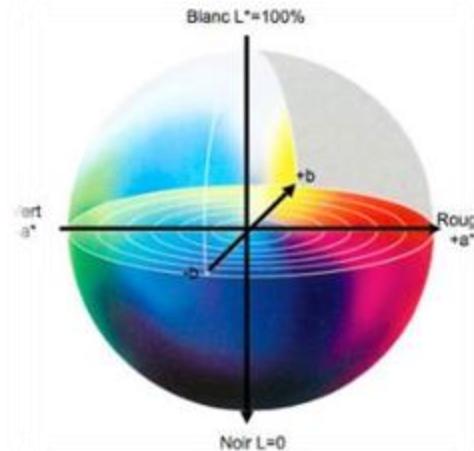




Image-Based Graphics





Outline

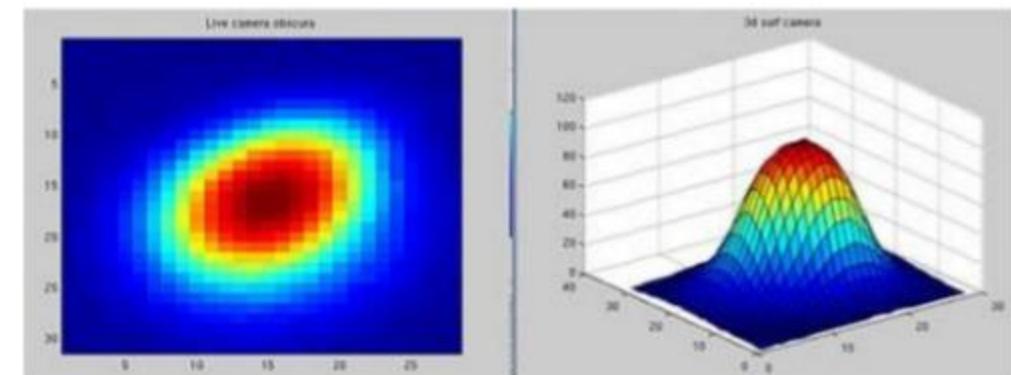
- Pixels and colours
- Point operations
- Histograms
- Filtering and morphology
- Low-level features of images





What is an image?

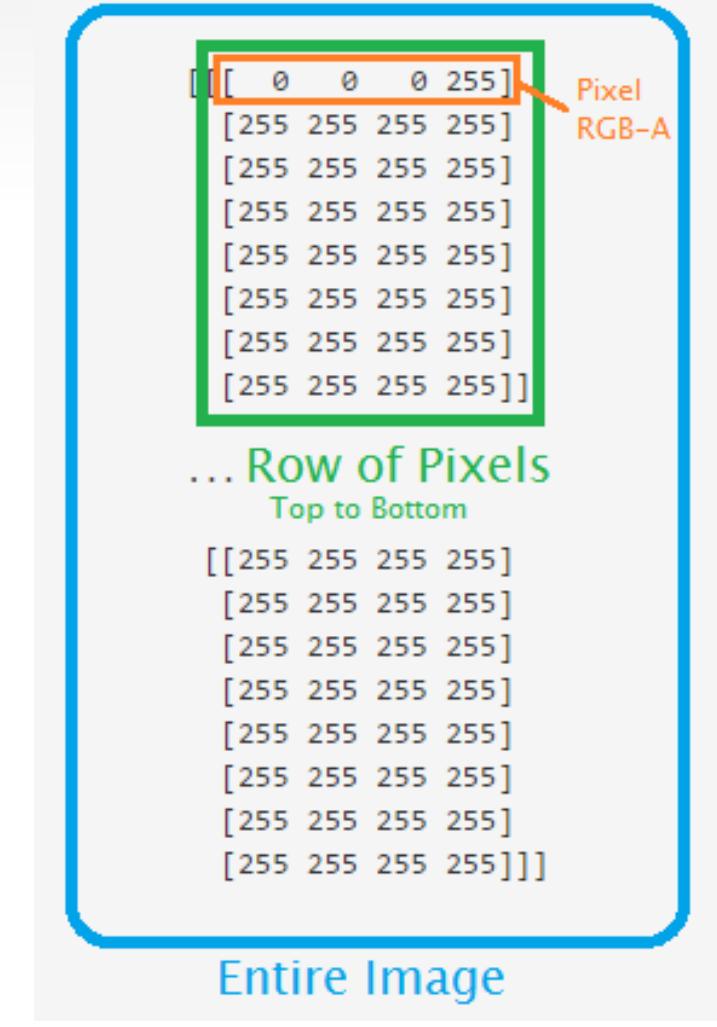
- A rectangular grid of **pixels**
- Each pixel has a color
- It can be represented using a two dimensional function $f(x,y)$ where x and y are the spatial coordinates of each point in the image and the amplitude of f is the intensity of that point.





Pixels

- The word is a combination of *pix*, for picture, and *element*.
 - The word *pix* appeared in Variety magazine headlines in 1932, as an abbreviation for the word *pictures*, in reference to movies.
 - The concept of a "picture element" dates to the earliest days of television, the earliest publication of the term *picture element* itself was in Wireless World magazine in 1927
 - In computer, it is represented by a multi-channel array of values





Gray vs. Color

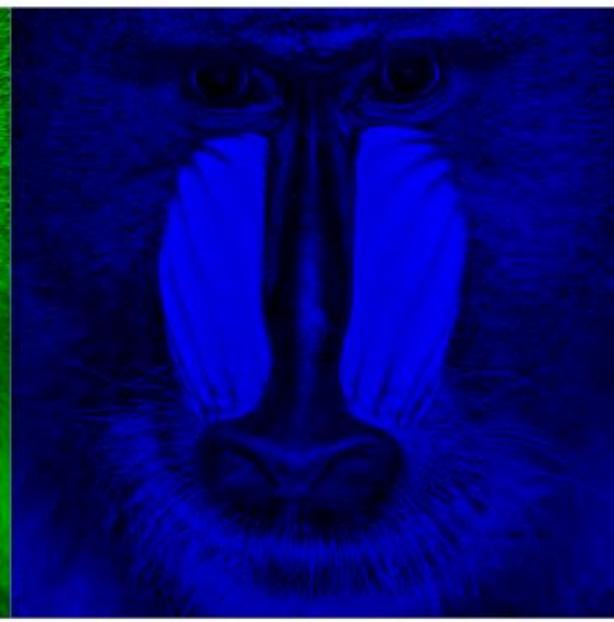
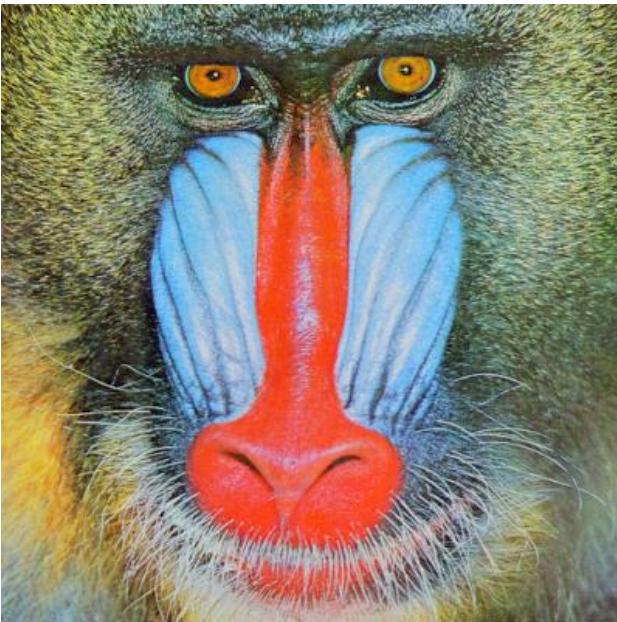
- **Gray scale image:** Each pixel is shade of Gray, it is from 0 (black) to 255 (white), store by one byte (8 bits)
 - [83, 129, 250, 23, 0, 59,]
- **Color image:** Each pixel corresponds to 3 values, or channels, which represents **Red, Green, Blue,**
 - 8 bits (1Byte) for each
 - [(23,33,200), (50, 150, 20), (255, 0, 128), ...]
 - Interestingly, it is called **RGB**, but normally stored in the order of **BGR**
(IMPORTANT when programming!)





Colours-RGB

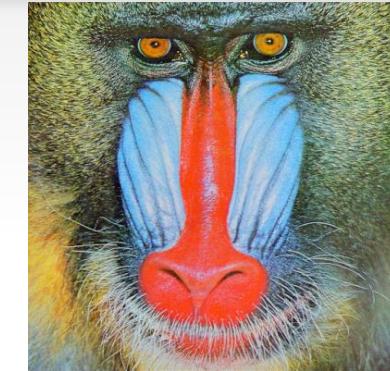
- RGB uses additive color mixing, because it describes what kind of *light* needs be *emitted* to produce a given color. RGB stores individual values
 - RGBA is RGB with an additional channel, alpha, for transparency.





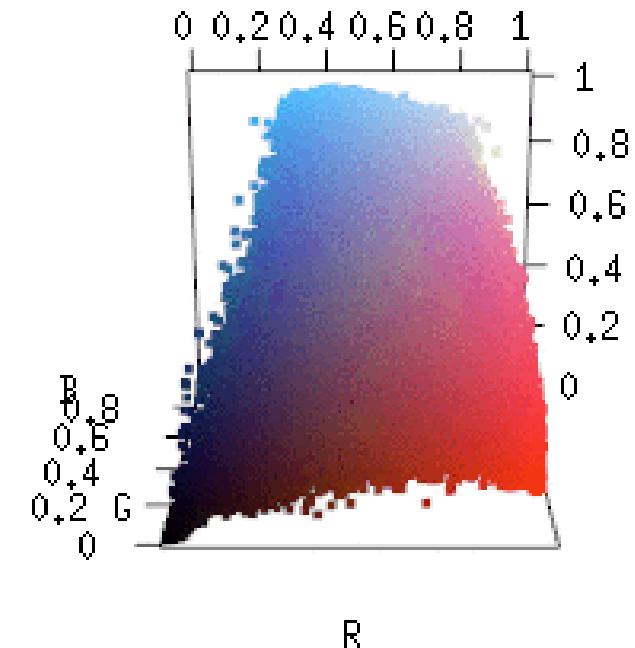
Colours-RGB

- RGB is a 3D space
- No right answer for comparing two colors
 - Sum of Squared Differences (SSD):



$$SSD(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = \sum_{i \in \text{Channels}} [I^i(\mathbf{p}) - I^i(\mathbf{q})]^2$$

For RGB colors, you just add up the SSD in three channels





Transform color image to gray image

- For every pixel, using luminosity method :
 - Intensity = $0.21 R + 0.72 G + 0.07 B$



Color

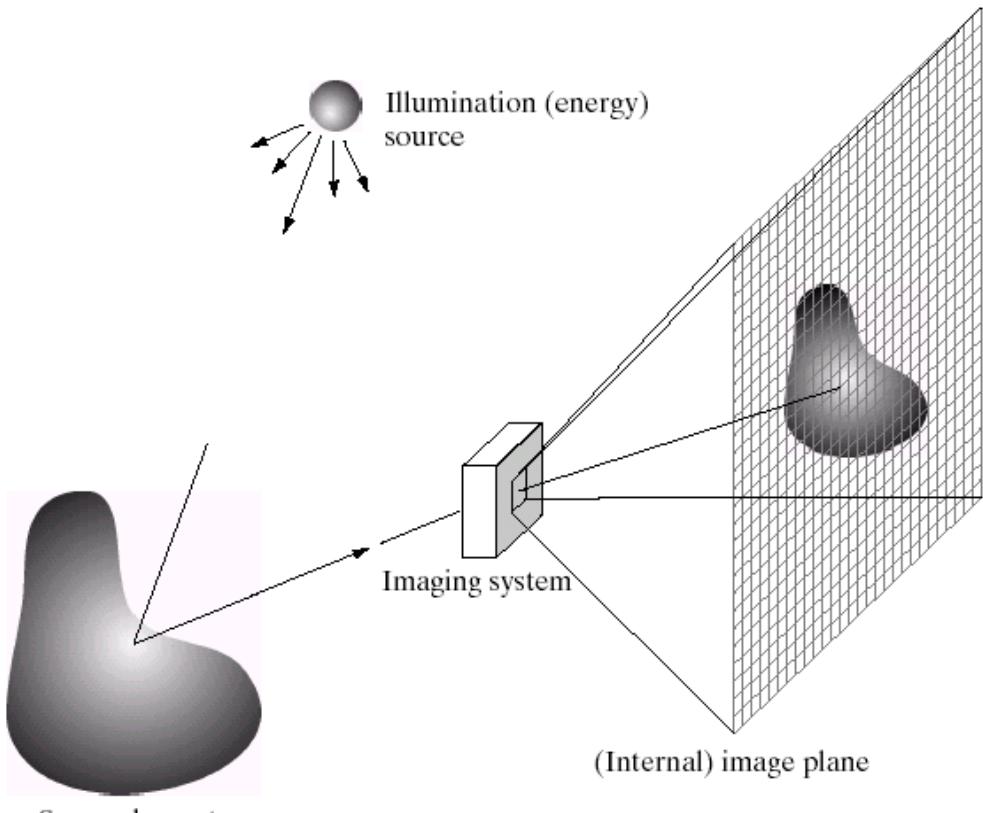


Average

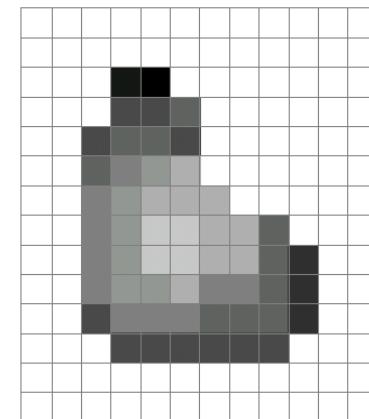


Luminosity

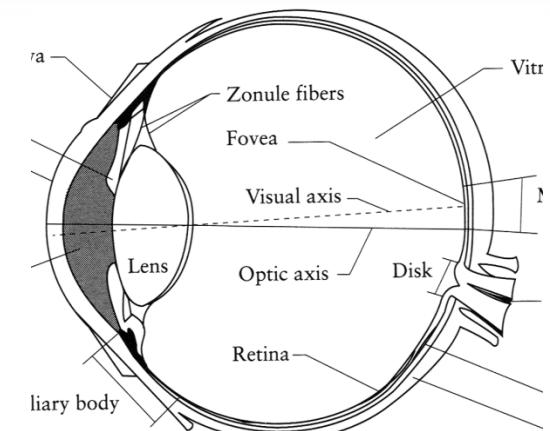
How do we get an image?



Film

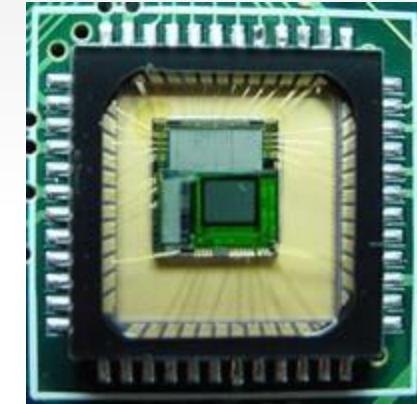
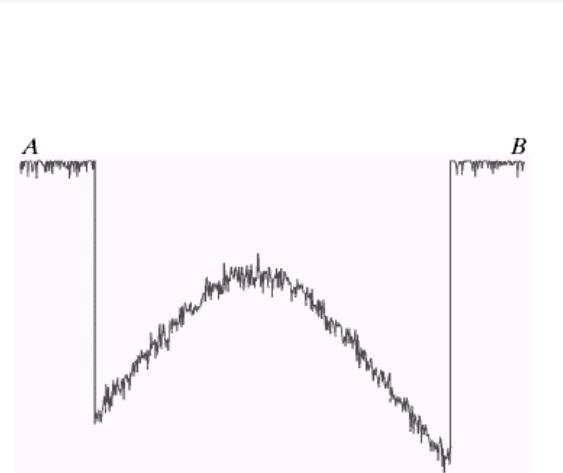
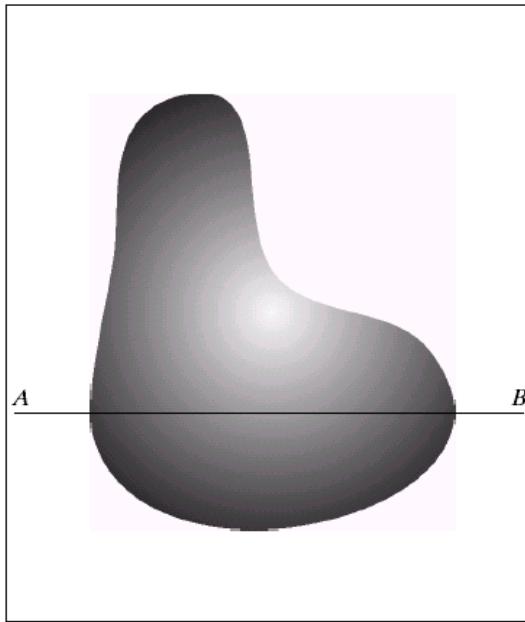


Digital Camera

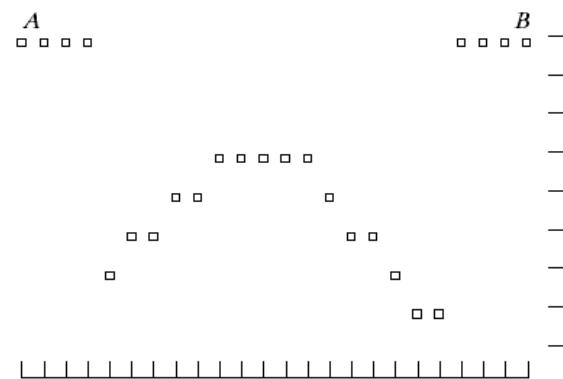
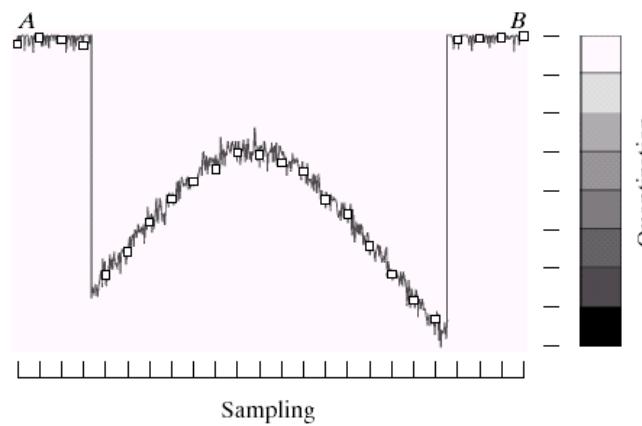


The Eye

Sampling and Quantization



CMOS sensor



CCD sensor



Quantization

- The numbers of gray levels of the following eight images are 256, 128, 64, 32, 16, 8, 4, and 2, respectively.





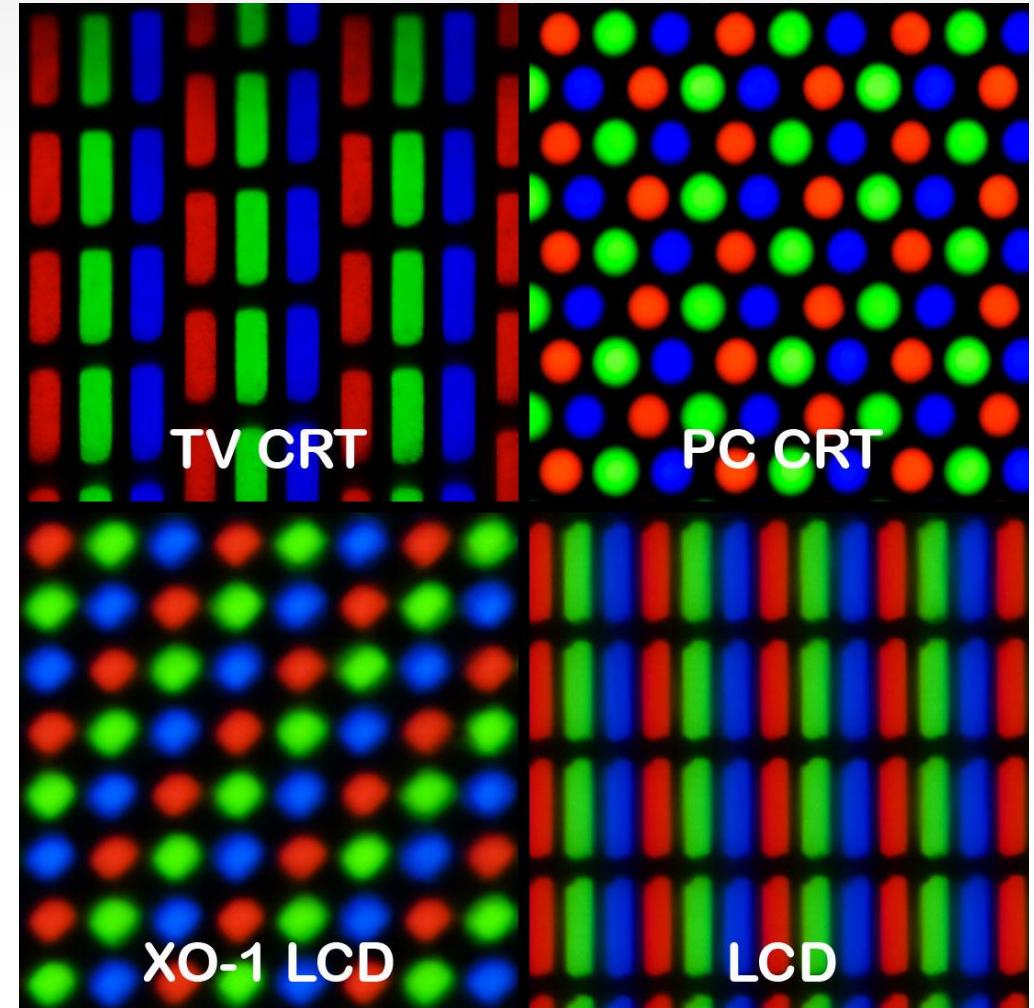
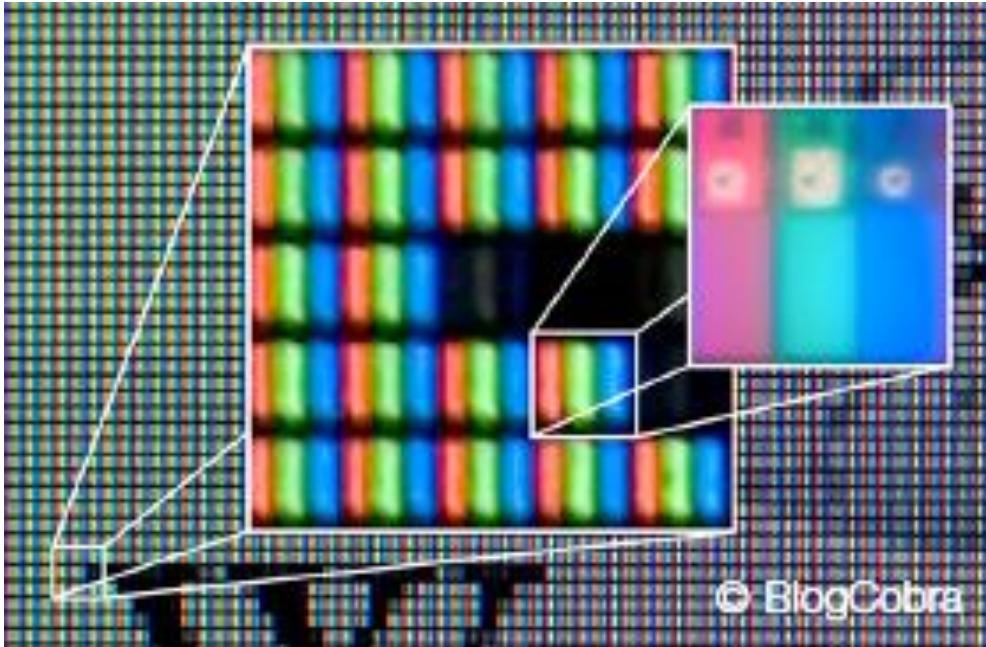
Pixel art



Pixel art

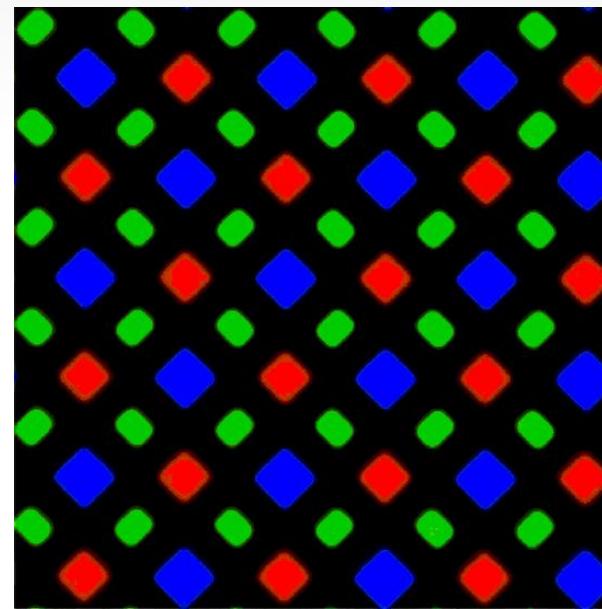


How do we show the pixels?

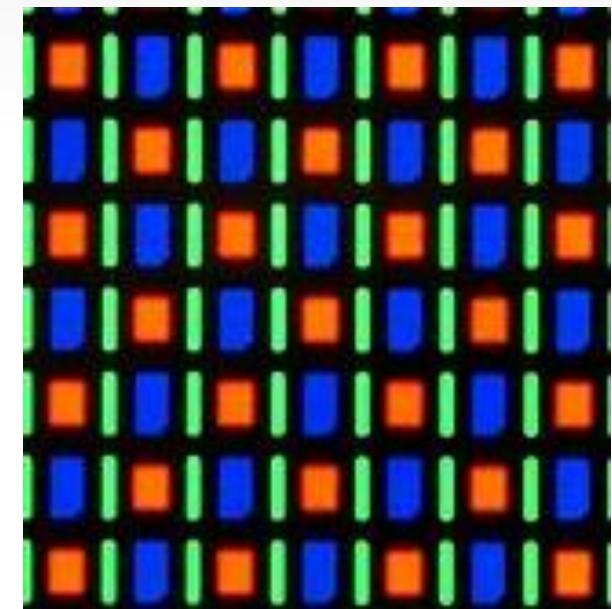




How do we show the pixels?



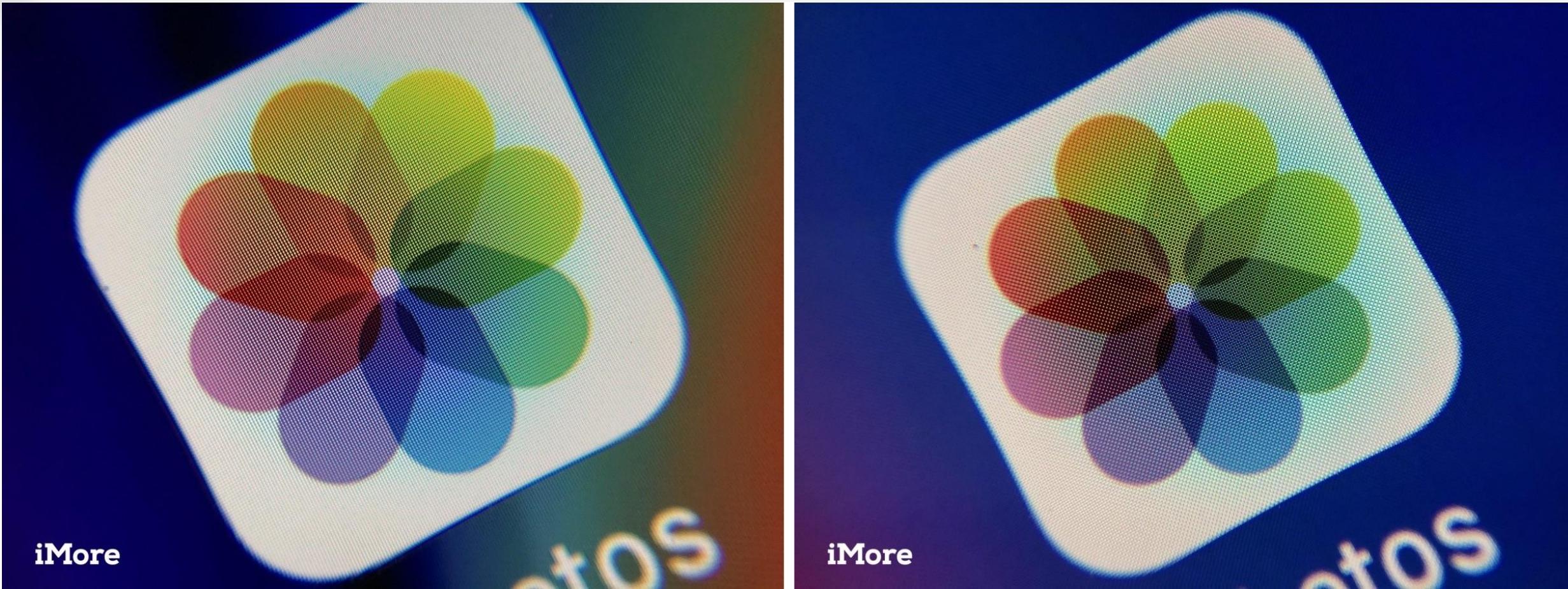
OLED screen on iPhone X
Diamond Sub-Pixels



[AMOLED](#) screen on the
Google [Nexus One](#)



How do we show the pixels?



iPhone 8 Plus's RGB stripe pixel layout (left) and iPhone X's diamond PenTile pixels (right).

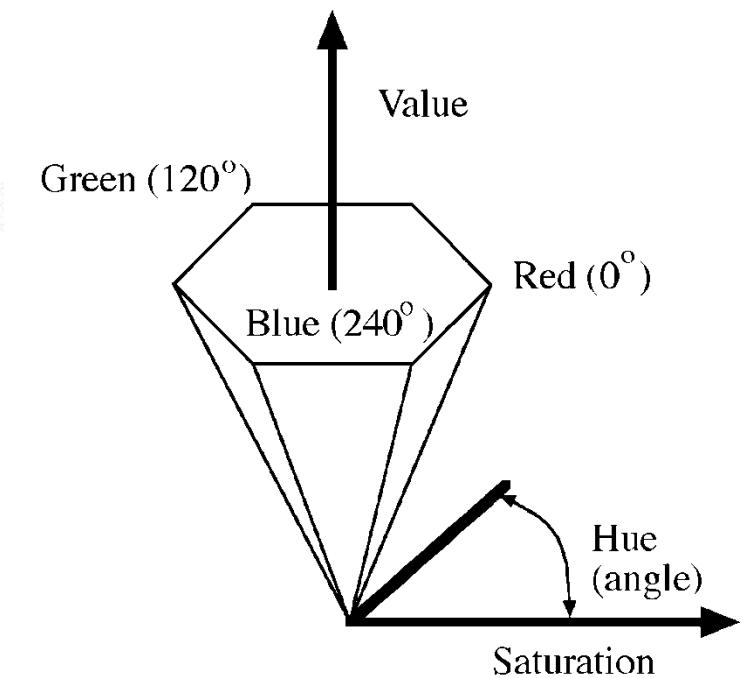
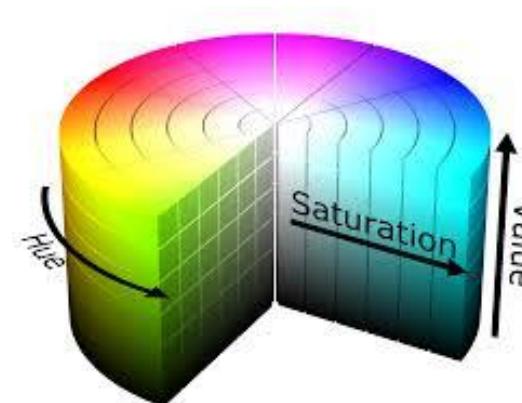
Other colour spaces - HSL

- HSL (Hue, Saturation, Lightness) and HSV (Hue, Saturation, Value) are two alternative representations of the RGB color model

$$V \leftarrow \max(R, G, B)$$

$$S \leftarrow \begin{cases} \frac{V - \min(R, G, B)}{V} & \text{if } V \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

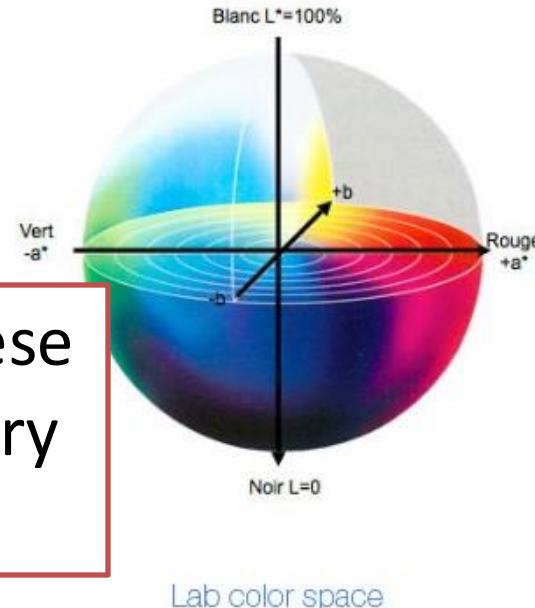
$$H \leftarrow \begin{cases} 60(G - B)/(V - \min(R, G, B)) & \text{if } V = R \\ 120 + 60(B - R)/(V - \min(R, G, B)) & \text{if } V = G \\ 240 + 60(R - G)/(V - \min(R, G, B)) & \text{if } V = B \end{cases}$$



If $H < 0$ then $H \leftarrow H + 360$. On output $0 \leq V \leq 1$, $0 \leq S \leq 1$, $0 \leq H \leq 360$, The values are then converted to the destination data type: 8-bit images: $V \leftarrow 255V$, $S \leftarrow 255S$, $H \leftarrow H/2$ (to fit to 0 to 255)

Other colour spaces - Lab

- The **Lab** color space describes mathematically all perceivable colors in the three dimensions
 - L for lightness and a and b for the color components green–red and blue–yellow.



OpenCV supports these colour conversion very well!

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0.412453 & 0.357580 & 0.180423 \\ 0.212671 & 0.715160 & 0.072169 \\ 0.019334 & 0.119193 & 0.950227 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} R \\ G \\ B \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X \leftarrow X/X_n, \text{ where } X_n = 0.950456$$

$$Z \leftarrow Z/Z_n, \text{ where } Z_n = 1.088754$$

$$L \leftarrow \begin{cases} 116 * Y^{1/3} - 16 & \text{for } Y > 0.008856 \\ 903.3 * Y & \text{for } Y \leq 0.008856 \end{cases}$$

$$a \leftarrow 500(f(X) - f(Y)) + delta$$

$$b \leftarrow 200(f(Y) - f(Z)) + delta$$

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} t^{1/3} & \text{for } t > 0.008856 \\ 7.787t + 16/116 & \text{for } t \leq 0.008856 \end{cases}$$

$$delta = \begin{cases} 128 & \text{for 8-bit images} \\ 0 & \text{for floating-point images} \end{cases}$$

8-bit images: $L \leftarrow L * 255/100, a \leftarrow a + 128, b \leftarrow b + 128$



Contrast Ratio

- Brightness discrimination experiment
 - Can you see the internal rectangle?



Visibility threshold

$$K = \Delta I / I \approx 1\text{--}2\%$$

Weber fraction

I is luminance

Same blue channel difference value:



Contrast Ratio

- Luminance ratio between two successive quantization levels should be at visibility threshold
- K is Weber's fraction
- For K is between 0.01~0.02, N = 256, $\frac{I_{max}}{I_{min}} = 13 \sim 156$
- Typical display contrast ratio (max : min)
 - Modern flat panel display in dark room 1000:1
 - Cathode ray tubes (CRTs) 100:1
 - Print on paper 10:1
- If we use more bits for a channel, say 9 bits, N = 512

$$\frac{I_{max}}{I_{min}} = 24813 \text{ when } K = 0.02$$



Point operations

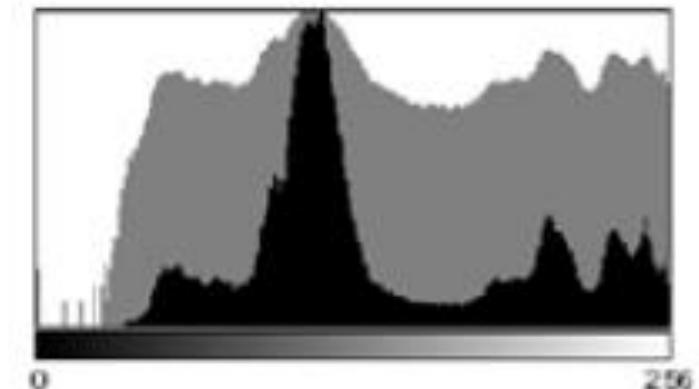
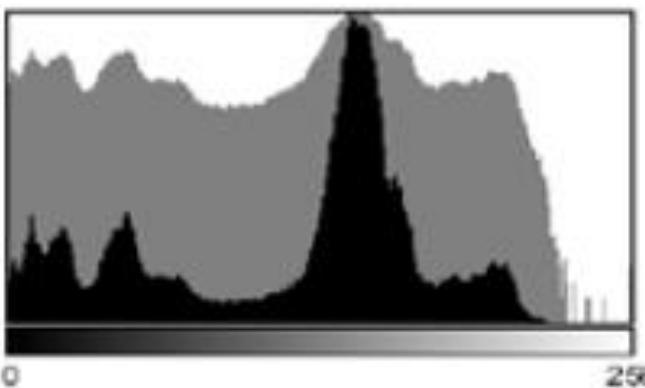
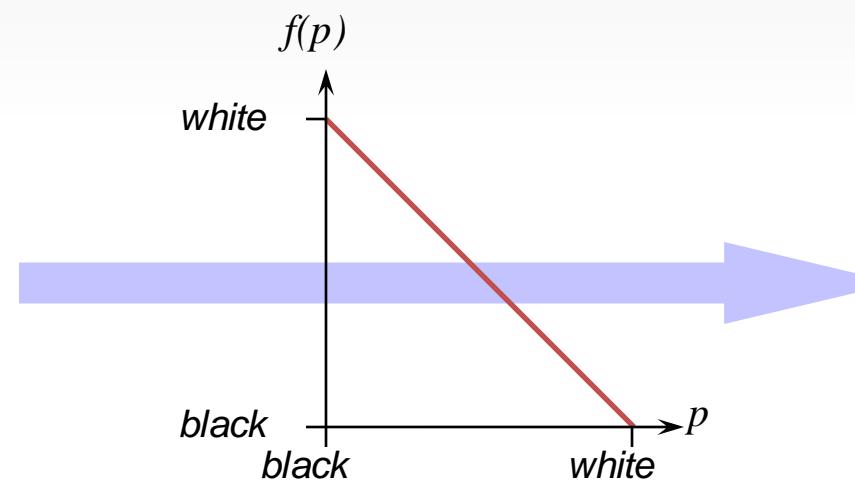
- Each pixel's value is modified
- the modification function only takes that pixel's value into account

$$p'(i, j) = f\{p(i, j)\}$$

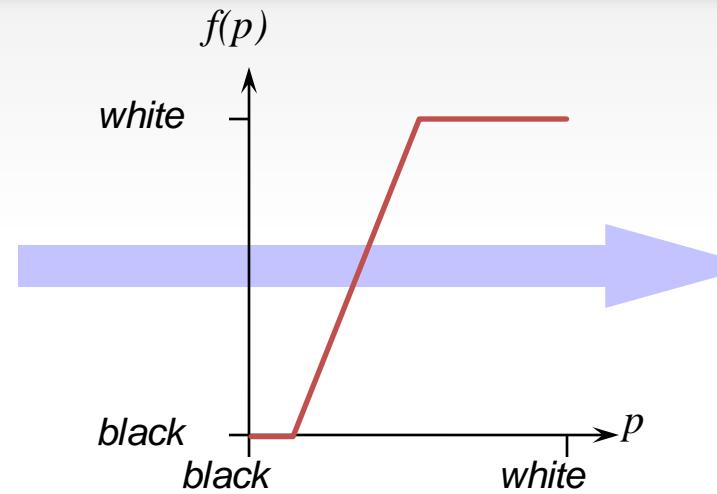
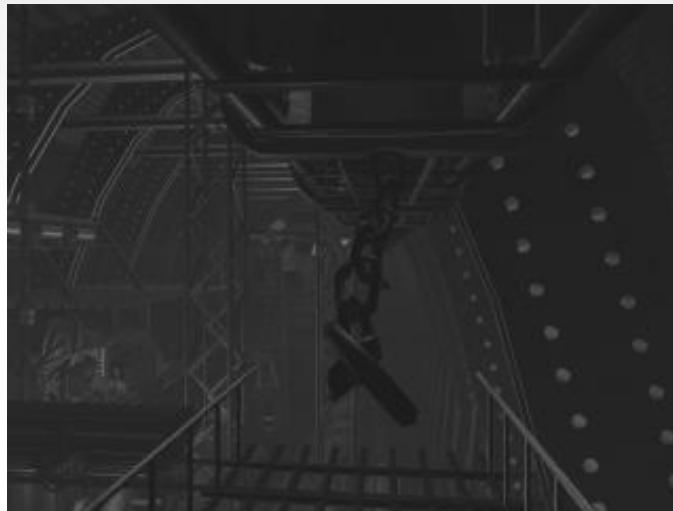
- where $p(i, j)$ is the value of the pixel and $p'(i, j)$ is the modified value
- the modification function, $f(p)$, can perform any operation that maps one intensity value to another



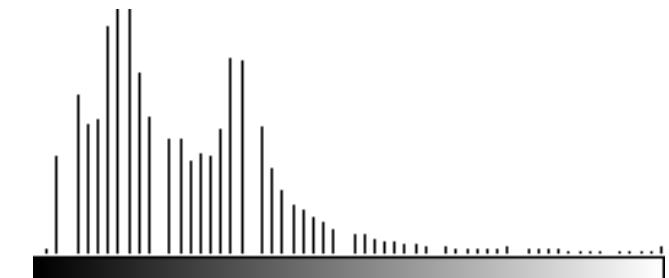
Point processing: inverting an image



Point processing: improving contrast



dark histogram

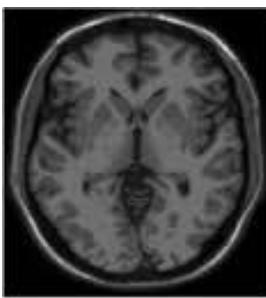


improved histogram

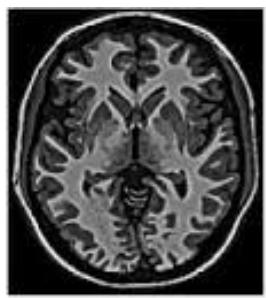


Improve visual quality

- Combine these operations properly, you will get a much better visual quality
- Not only useful for entertainment! It has many important applications, like medical image enhancement



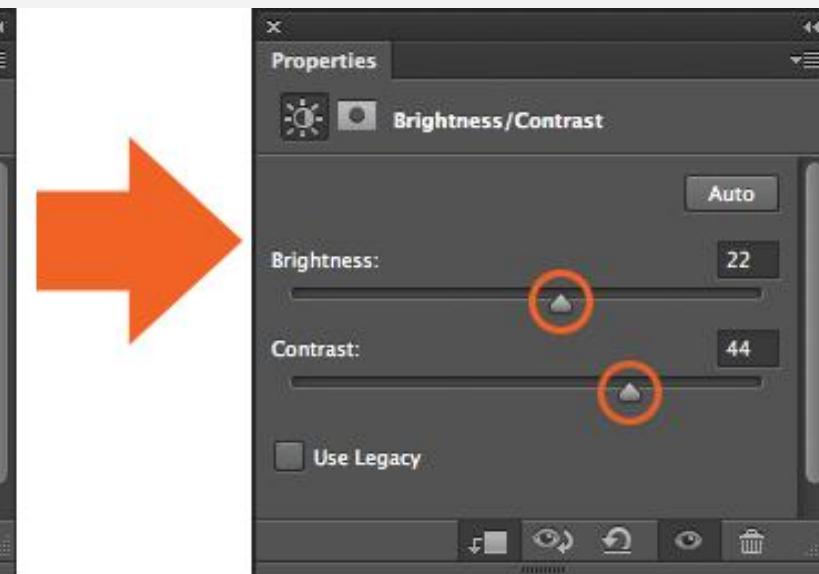
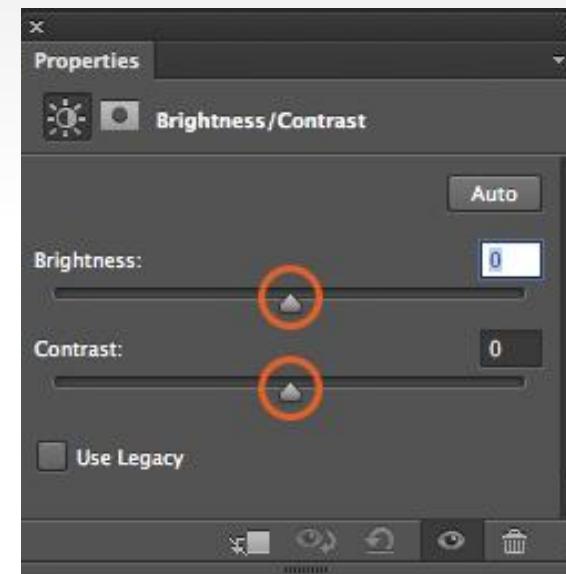
(a)



(b)



(c)



Automatic Contrast Adjustment

- Point operation that modifies pixel intensities such that available range of values is fully covered
- Algorithm:
 - Find the highest and lowest pixel intensities
 - Linear stretching of intensity range



$$f_{ac}(a) = a_{min} + (a - a_{low}) \cdot \frac{a_{max} - a_{min}}{a_{high} - a_{low}}$$

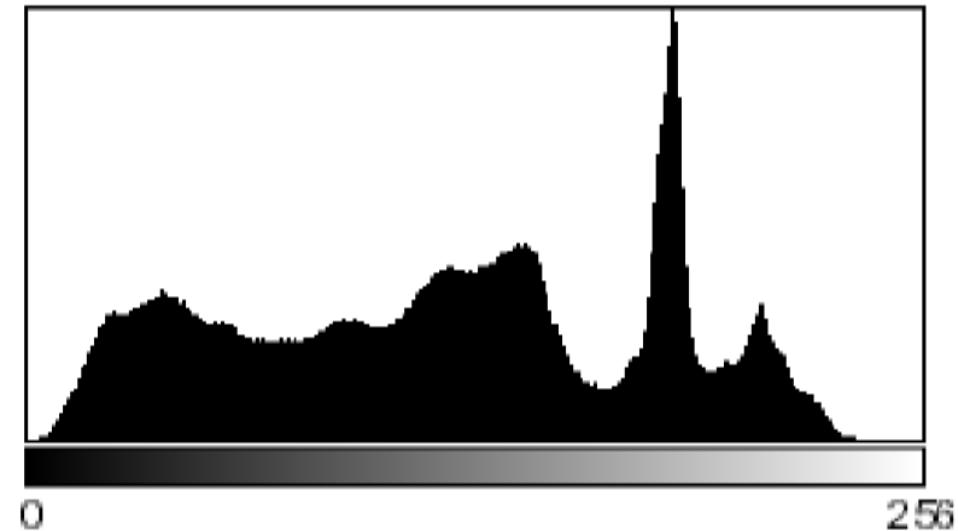
If $a_{min} = 0$ and $a_{max} = 255$

$$f_{ac}(a) = (a - a_{low}) \cdot \frac{255}{a_{high} - a_{low}}$$



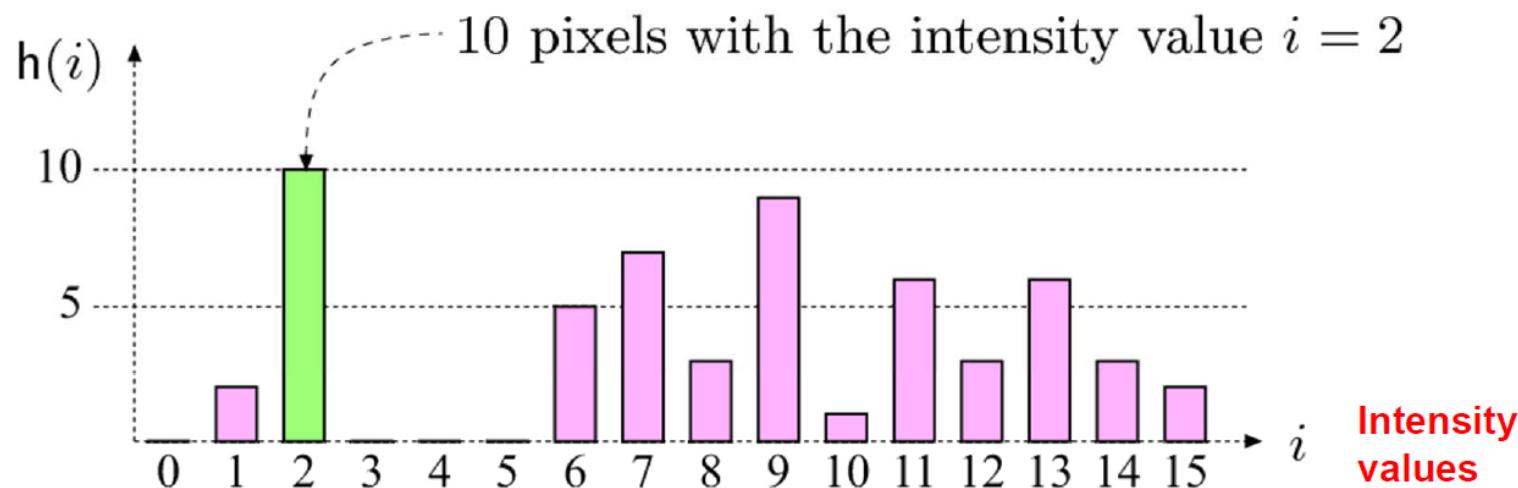
Histograms

- Histograms plots how many times (frequency) each intensity value in image occurs.
 - Example: An image has 256 distinct gray levels (8 bits), the **Histogram** (right) shows frequencies for the 256 gray levels



Histograms

- *Maximum Intensity Value = 16, 10 pixels have value = 2*



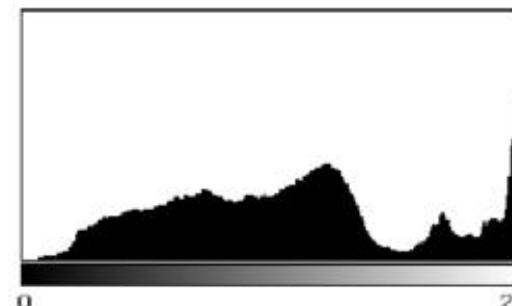
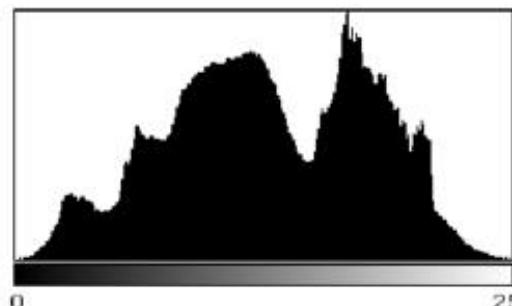
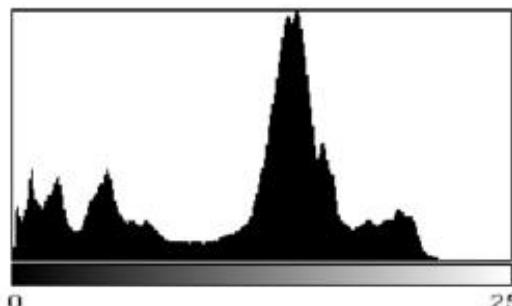
$h(i)$	0	2	10	0	0	0	5	7	3	9	1	6	3	6	3	2
i	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15



Detecting Bad Exposure

- **Exposure:**

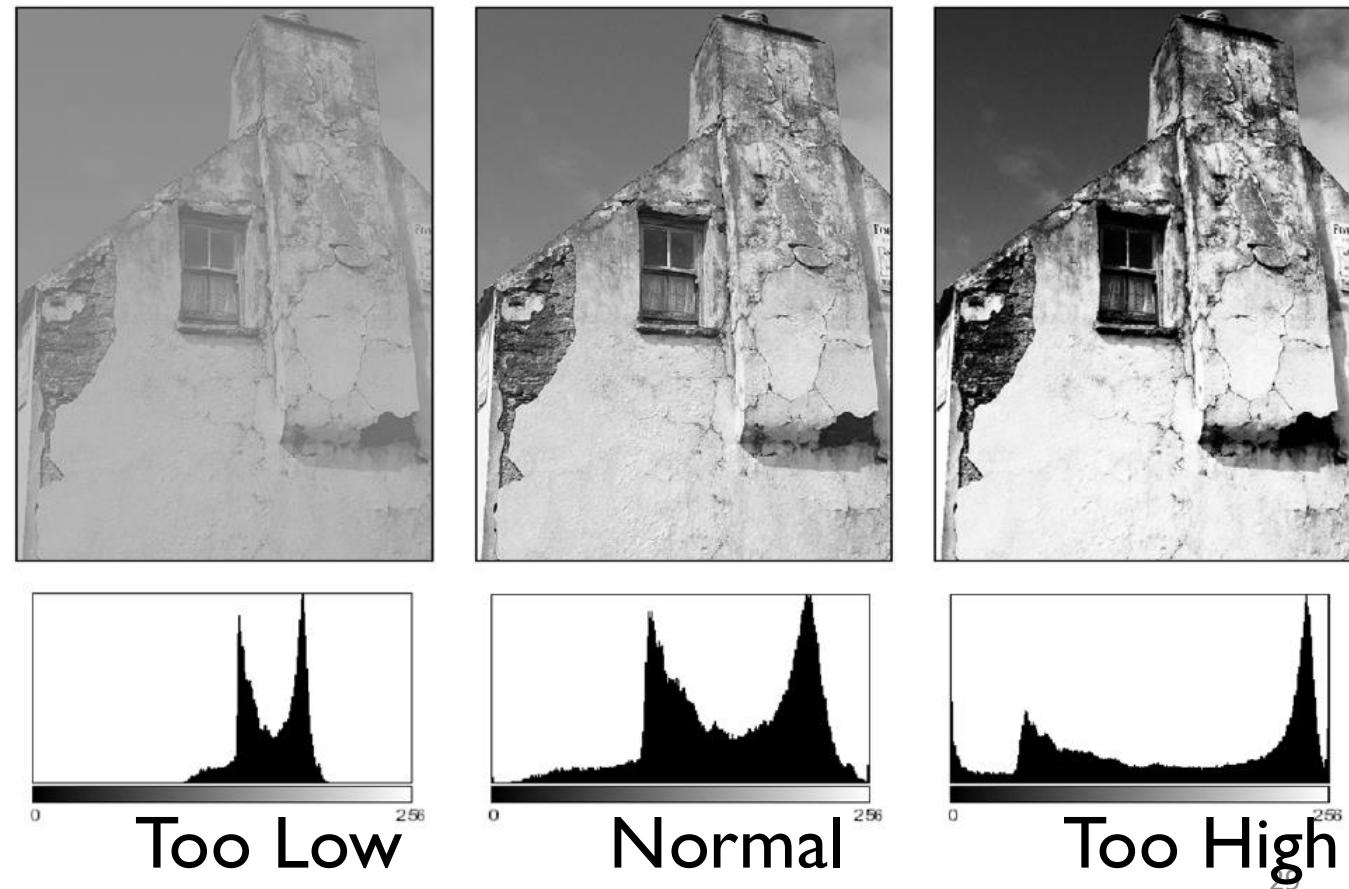
Are intensity values spread (good) out or bunched up (bad)?





Histograms and Contrast

- The contrast of a image indicates how easily objects can be distinguished
 - High contrast image:** many distinct intensity values
 - Low contrast:** image uses few intensity values





Histograms and Dynamic Range

- Dynamic Range: Number of distinct pixels in image

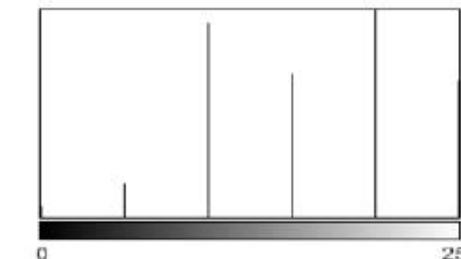
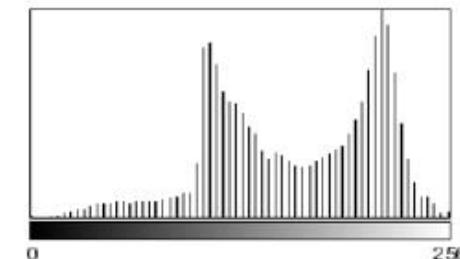
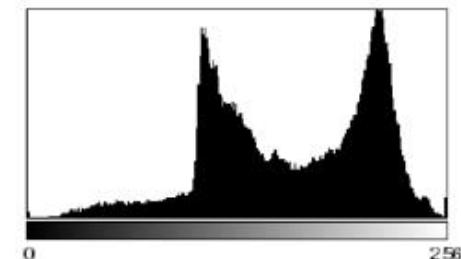
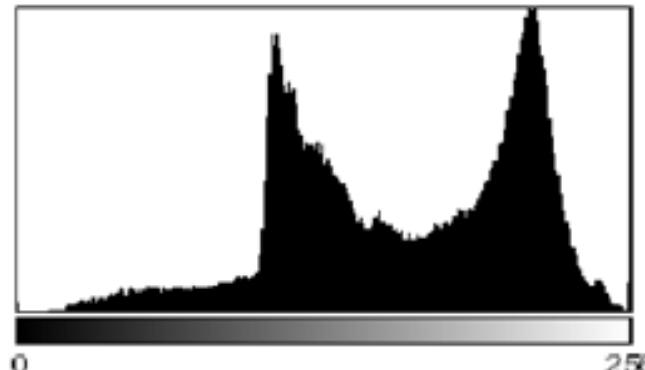


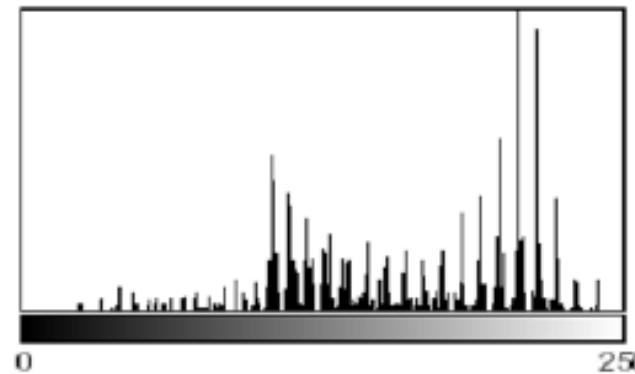


Image Defects and Histograms

- **Histograms show impact of image compression**
 - Example: in GIF compression, dynamic range is reduced to only few intensities (quantization)



Original Histogram

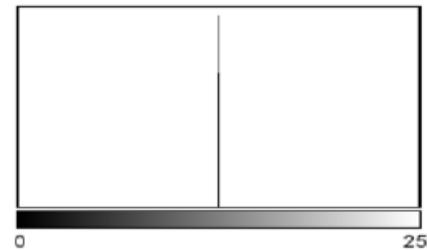


Histogram after GIF conversion

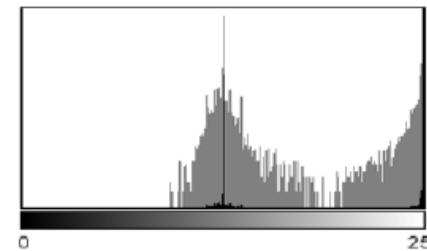


Image Defects and Histograms

- Histograms show impact of image compression ?
 - Example: Effect of JPEG compression on line graphics:



Original histogram
has only 2 intensities
(gray and white)

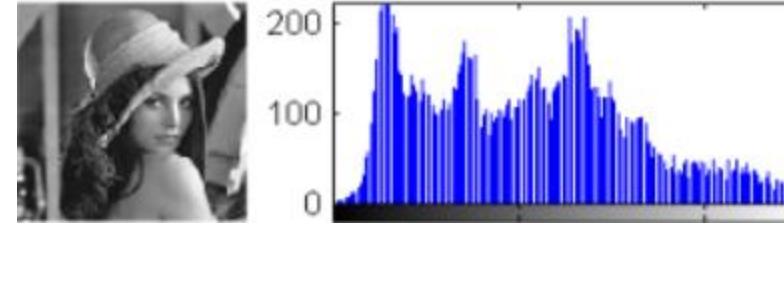
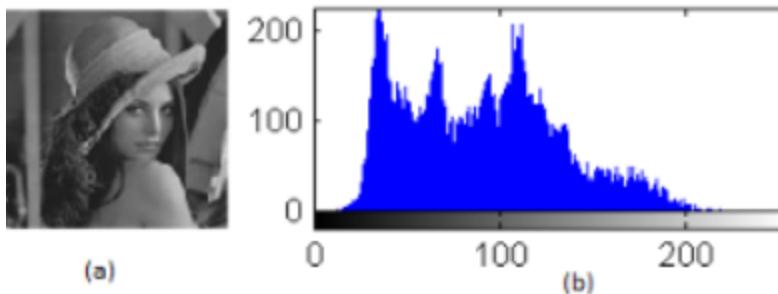


JPEG image appears
dirty, fuzzy and blurred
Its Histogram contains
gray values not in original

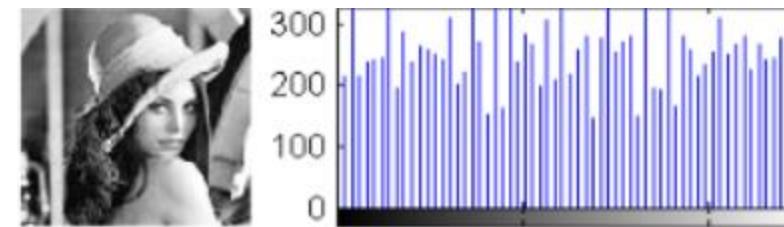


Histogram Equalization

- **Histogram equalization** is a method in image processing of contrast adjustment using the image's histogram.



Automatic Contrast Adjustment



Histogram Equalization

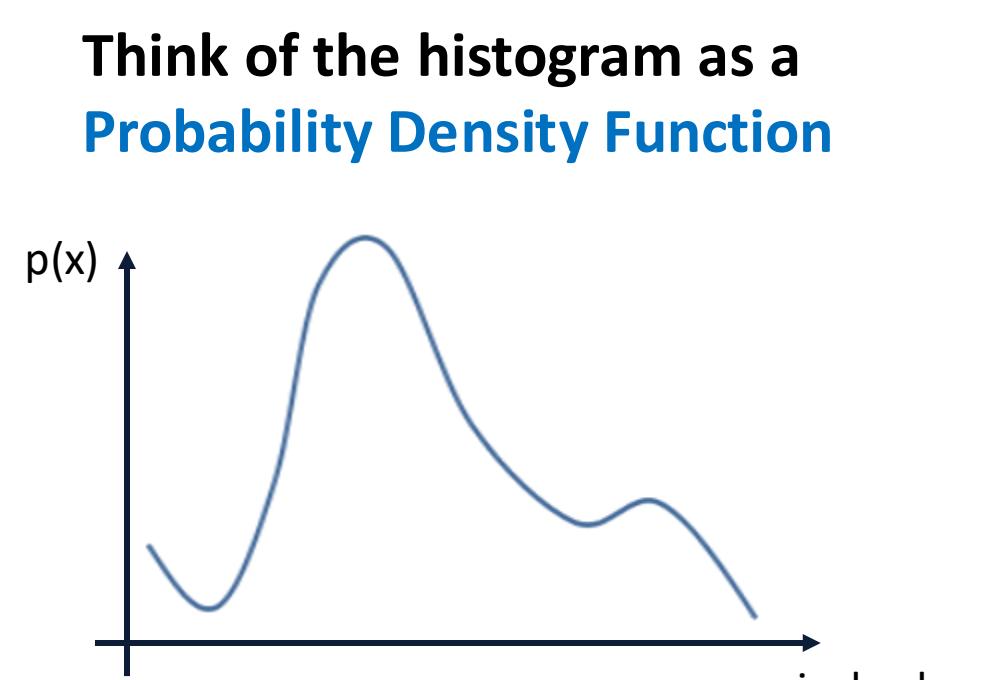
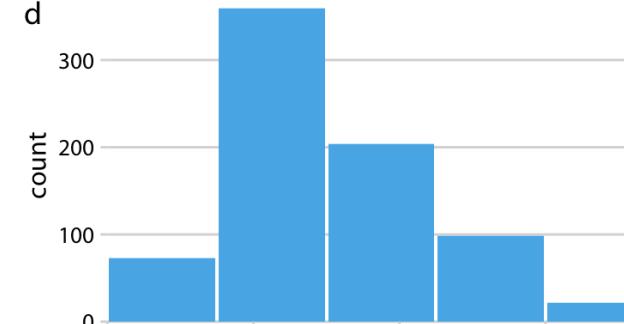
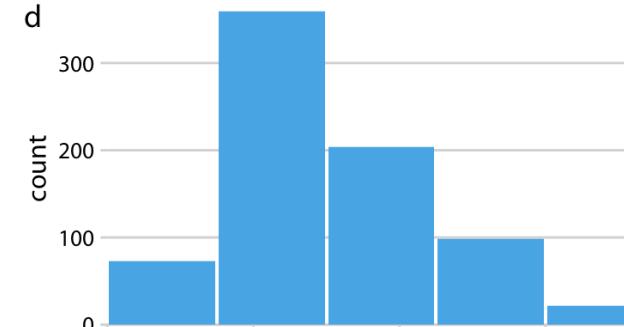
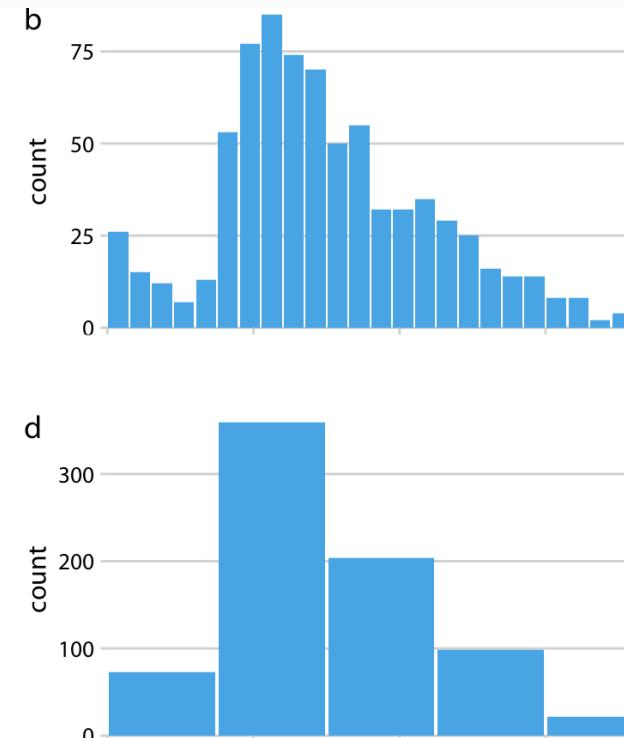
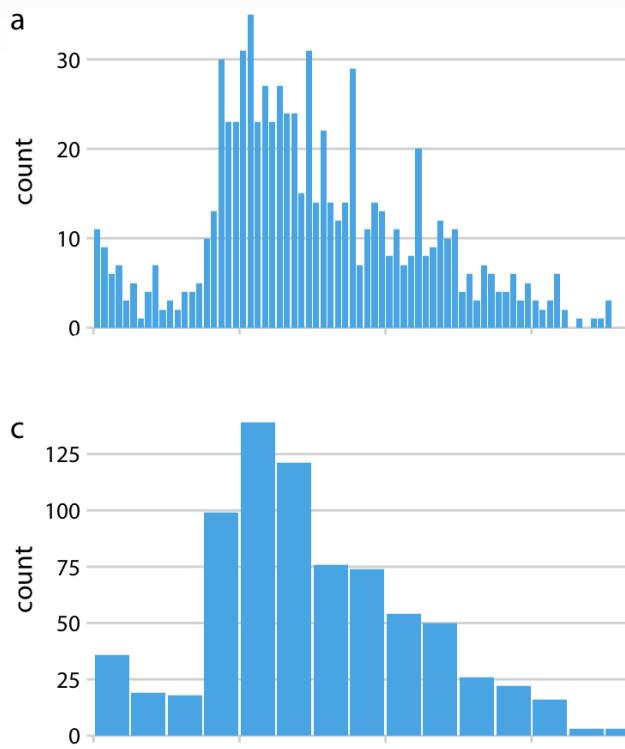
The purposes of Histogram Equalization:

--to equally make use of all available gray levels in the dynamic range



Histogram Equalization

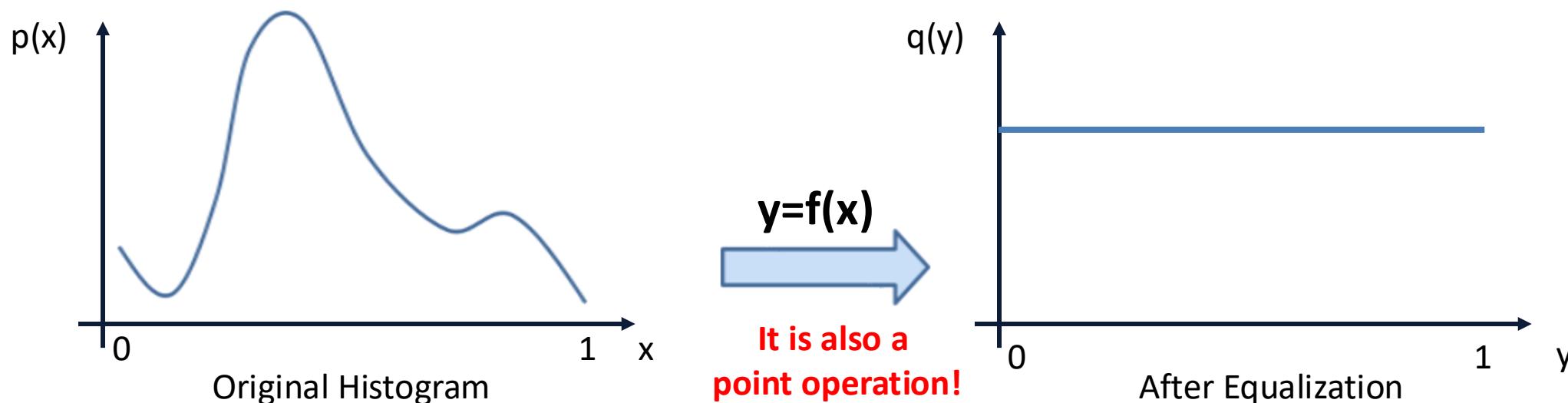
- A mathematical view of a histogram:



Think of the histogram as a
Probability Density Function

The Objective

- Assume the pixel values are continuous in the normalized range of $(0, 1)$, and a mapping function $y=f(x)$ maps x to y also in the same range.
- $p(x)$ and $q(y)$ are the probability density functions for x and y



What is $f(x)$??

Histogram Equalization

$$\int_0^1 p(x)dx = \int_0^1 q(y)dy = 1 \text{ (}p(x), q(y)\text{-Probability Density Functions)}$$

- Also assume all pixels within the gray scale interval of the input image are mapped to the corresponding range of the output :

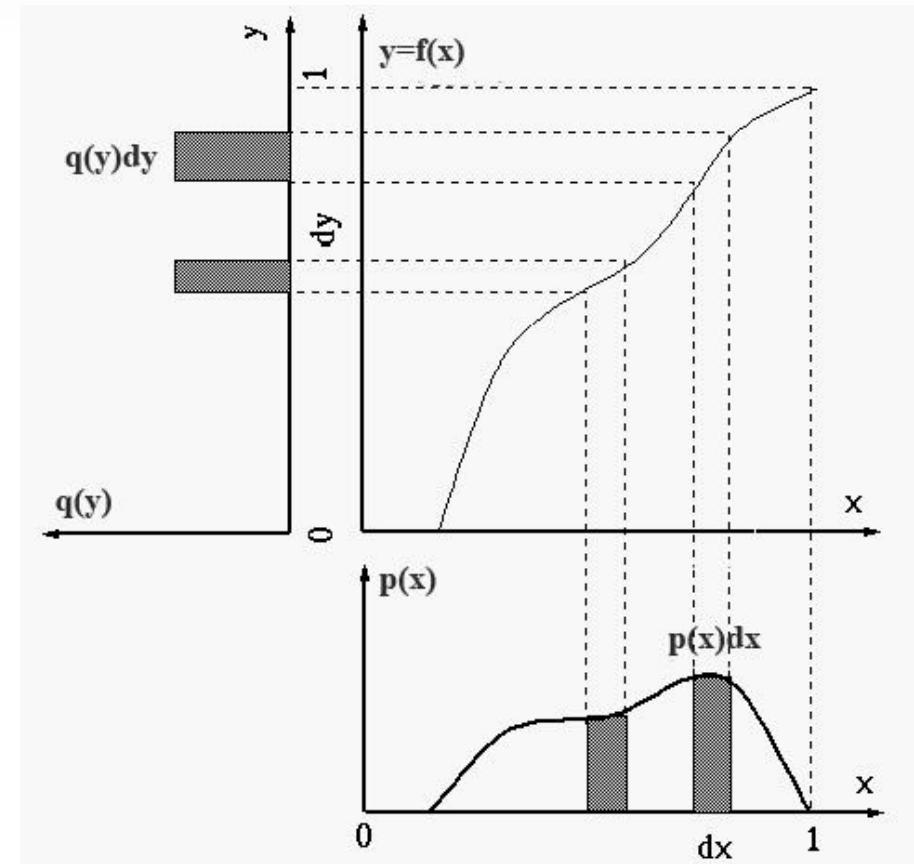
$$q(y)dy = p(x)dx$$

- For the distribution function $q(y)$, it should be equalized, which needs to be a constant 1, so:

$$q(y) = 1$$

$$q(y)dy = dy = p(x)dx,$$

or $\frac{dy}{dx} = p(x)$





Histogram Equalization

- Integrating both sides, we get the mapping function $y = f(x)$ for the histogram equalization:

$$y = f(x) = \int_0^x p(u)du$$

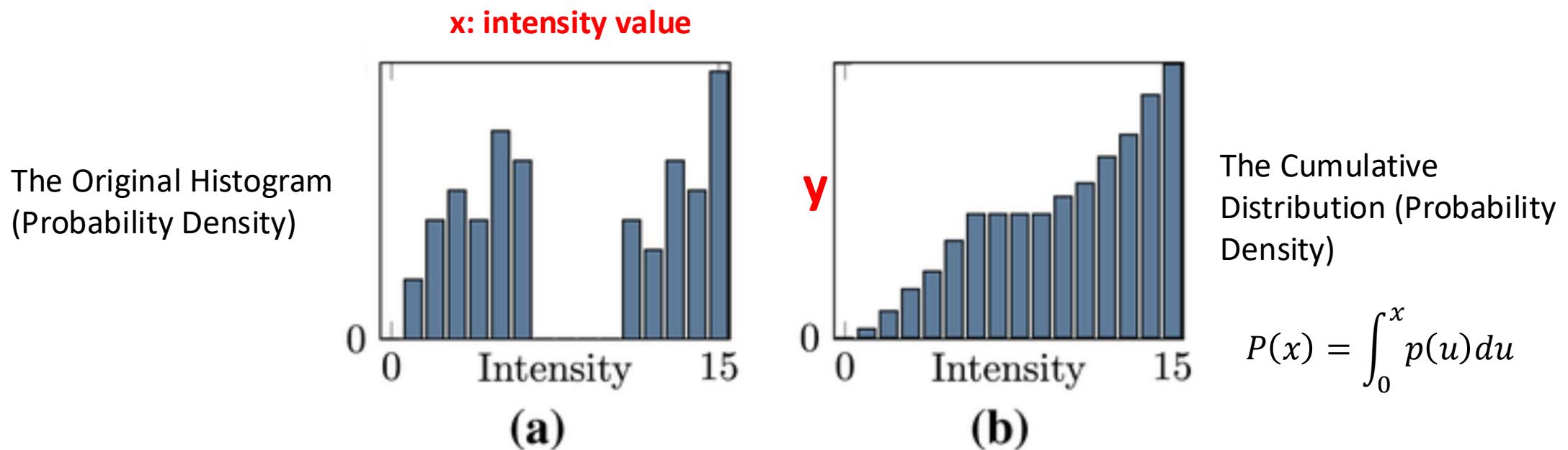
- We can use $P(x)$ to represent the **cumulative distribution** of the gray levels of the input image:

$$P(x) = \int_0^x p(u)du, \quad P(0) = 0, \quad P(1) = 1$$

P(x) is the function $y = f(x)$ we are looking for! Given an original pixel value x, the cumulative probability of x (the probability of the pixel value being less than x) in the original histogram function p(x) will be the new value y for that pixel!

Histogram Equalization

- We use the cumulative distribution function's value at x to as the new value y !





Histogram Equalization

Implementation -- back projection

- Consider a discrete grayscale image $\{x\}$ and let n_i be the number of occurrences of gray level n . The probability of an occurrence of a pixel of level n in the image is

$$p_n = \frac{\text{number of pixels with intensity } n}{\text{total number of pixels}} \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, L - 1.$$

$$g_{i,j} = \text{floor}\left((L - 1) \sum_{n=0}^{f_{i,j}} p_n\right)$$

In implementation, we add an **extra normalization step** to make full use of 0-255

Histogram Equalization

Original Image								
52	55	61	66	70	61	64	73	
63	59	55	90	109	85	69	72	
62	59	68	113	144	104	66	73	
63	58	71	122	154	106	70	69	
67	61	68	104	126	88	68	70	
79	65	60	70	77	68	58	75	
85	71	64	59	55	61	65	83	
87	79	69	68	65	76	78	94	

Implementation using the CDF table

$$g_{i,j} = \text{floor} \left(\frac{\text{CDF}(f_{i,j})}{\text{Total Pixel Num}} \times (L - 1) \right)$$

Cannot guarantee the utilization of the intensity level 0.
E.g. If $L = 256$, $\text{CDF}(\min)/\text{Total} > 0.004$

$$g_{i,j} = \text{floor} \left(\frac{(\text{CDF}(f_{i,j}) - \text{CDF}_{\min})}{(\text{CDF}_{\max} - \text{CDF}_{\min})} \times (L - 1) \right)$$

0	12	53	93	146	53	73	166
65	32	12	215	235	202	130	158
57	32	117	239	251	227	93	166
65	20	154	243	255	231	146	130
97	53	117	227	247	210	117	146
190	85	36	146	178	117	20	170
202	154	73	32	12	53	85	194
206	190	130	117	85	174	182	219

Result

Value	Count								
52	1	64	2	72	1	85	2	113	1
55	3	65	3	73	2	87	1	122	1
58	2	66	2	75	1	88	1	126	1
59	3	67	1	76	1	90	1	144	1
60	1	68	5	77	1	94	1	154	1
						104	2		
						106	1		
						109	1		

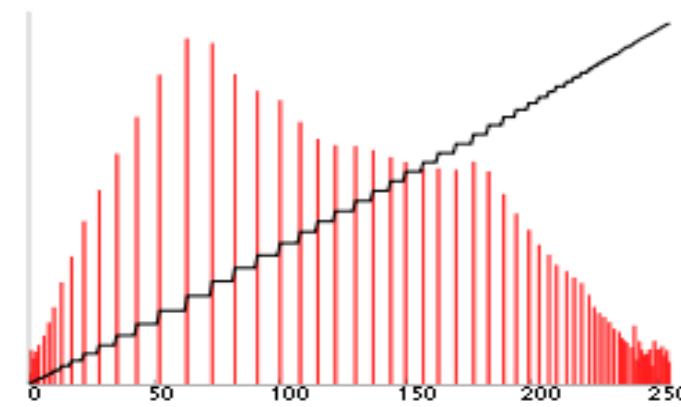
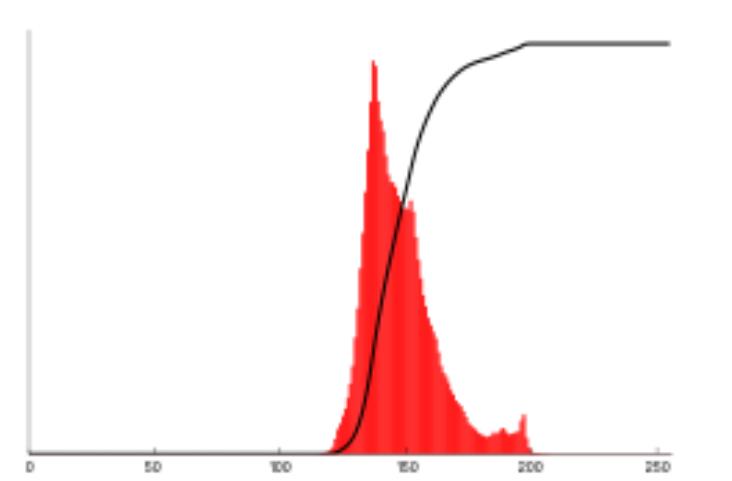
Value	CDF								
52	1	64	19	72	40	85	51	113	60
55	4	65	22	73	42	87	52	122	61
58	6	66	24	75	43	88	53	126	62
59	9	67	25	76	44	90	54	144	63
60	10	68	30	77	45	94	55	154	64
61	14	69	33	78	46	104	57		
62	15	70	37	79	48	106	58		
63	17	71	39	83	49	109	59		

Histogram

Cumulative
Distribution
Function
(CDF)



Histogram Equalization



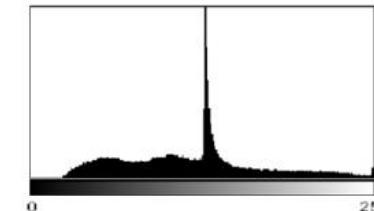
Color Image Histograms

1. Intensity histogram:

- Convert color image to gray scale



(a)



(b) h_{Lum}

2. Individual Color

- Channel Histograms:
3 histograms (R,G,B)



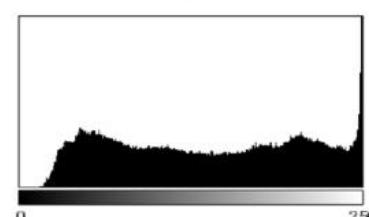
(c) R



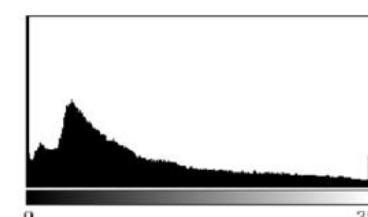
(d) G



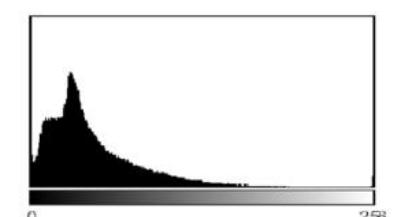
(e) B



(f) h_R



(g) h_G



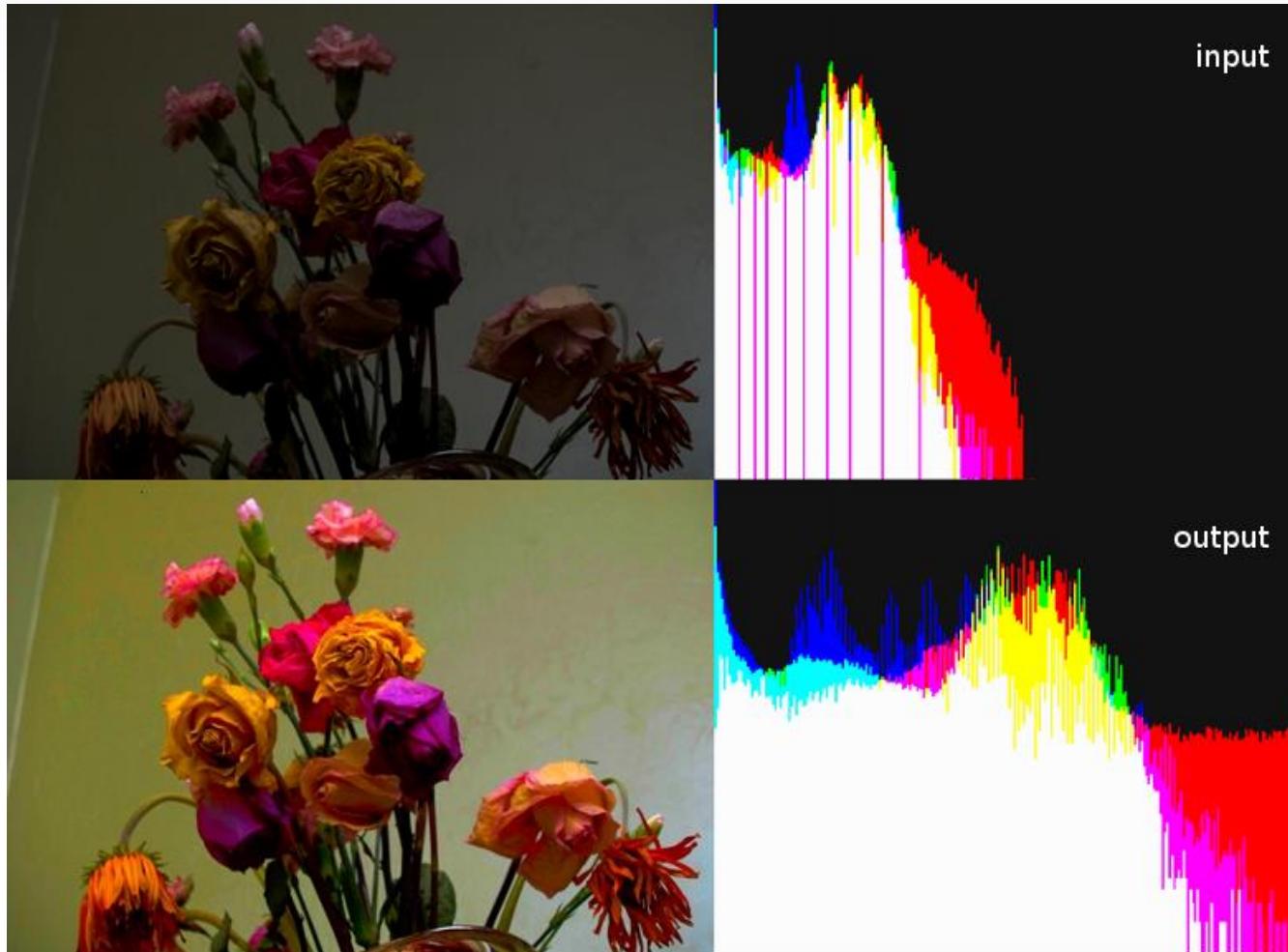
(h) h_B

All the operations on histograms
can be done on each channel



Color Image Histograms

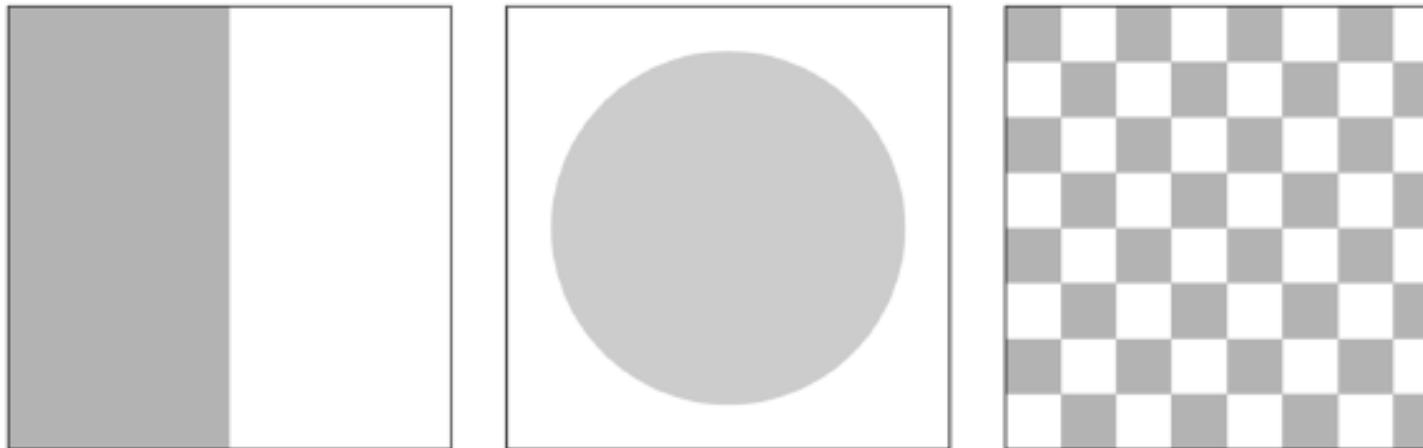
- Color image histogram equalization:





Histograms

- Different images can have same histogram
- 3 images below have same histogram

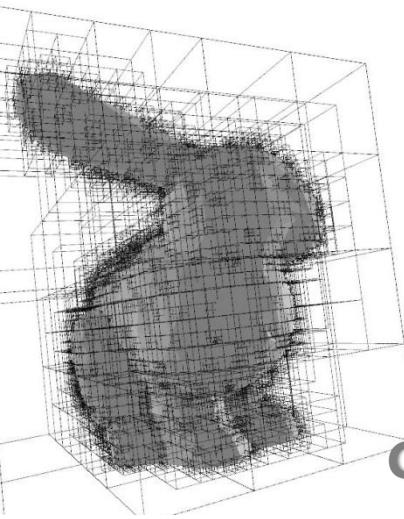
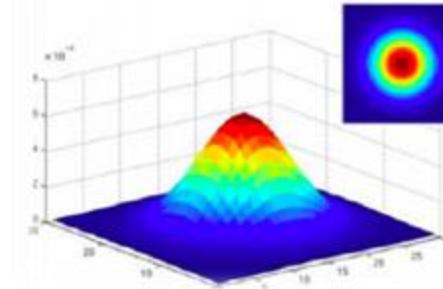


Histograms only have statistical information

- Half of pixels are gray, half are white
 - Same histogram = same statistics
 - Can we reconstruct image from histogram? No!



Image-Based Computer Graphics



Fundamentals of Image Processing

Morphology, Filtering and Pyramids



How to remove the noises?



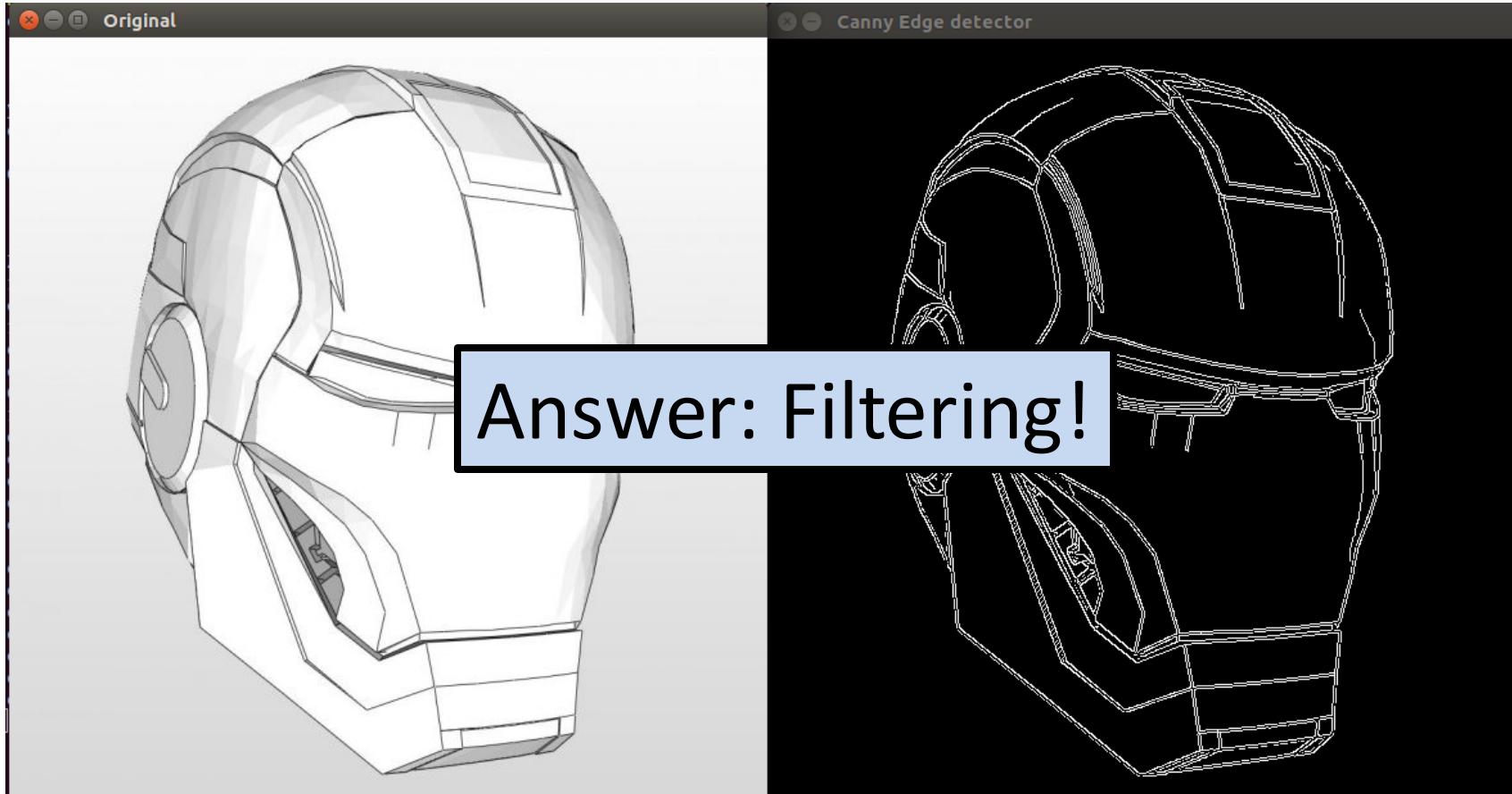


How to find the exactly same bird?



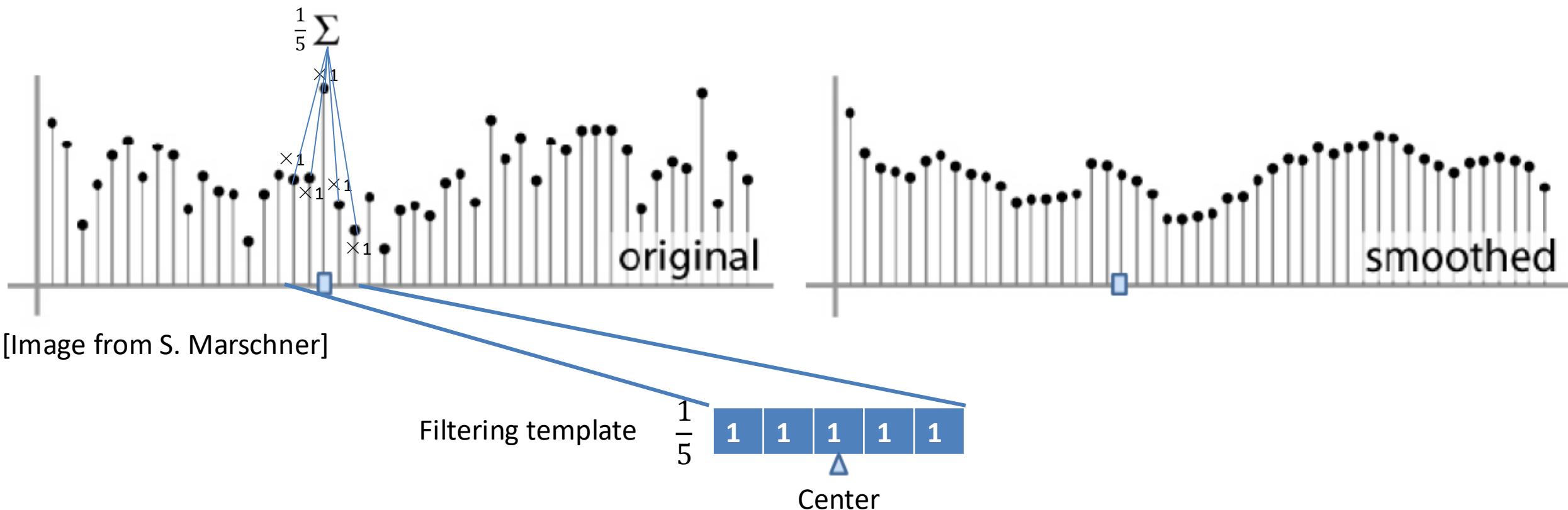


How to extract all these edges?



Denoising

- The simplest thing: replace each pixel by the average of neighbors.
- 1-D example:





Averaging in 2D image

$$\begin{array}{c} \textcircled{\times} \quad \frac{1}{9} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

1



Averaging in 2D image

$$\begin{array}{c} \textcircled{\times} \quad \frac{1}{9} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

2



Averaging in 2D image

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

2



Averaging in 2D image

$$\begin{array}{c} \times \\ \frac{1}{9} \end{array}$$

1	1	1
1	1	1
1	1	1

2



Averaging in 2D image

$$\begin{array}{c} \otimes \\ \frac{1}{9} \end{array}$$

三



Filtering: Convolution

- For the averaging thing, it is equally weighted combinations of pixels in a small neighboring group:

$$G(i, j) = \frac{1}{(2k + 1)^2} \sum_{u=-k}^k \sum_{v=-k}^k I(i + u, j + v)$$

- For general filtering, it is determined as a weighted sum of input pixel value

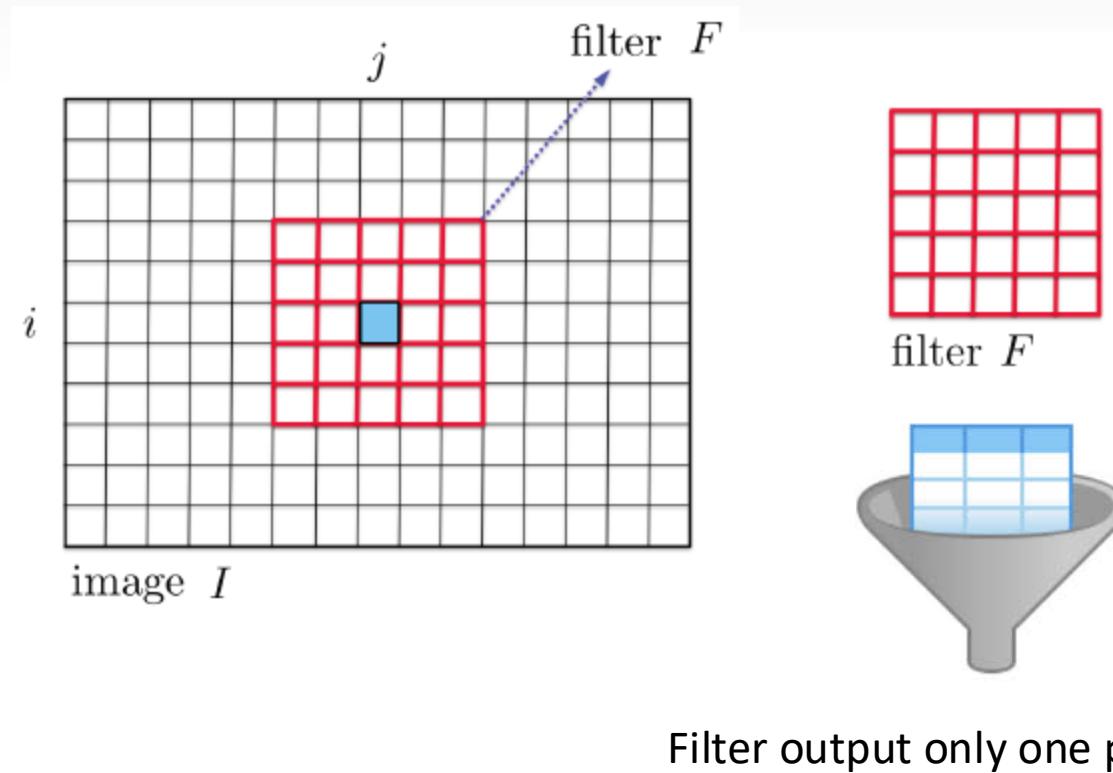
$$G(i, j) = \sum_{u=-k}^k \sum_{v=-k}^k F(u, v) * I(i + u, j + v)$$

The entries of the **weight kernel** or **mask** $F(u, v)$ are called the **filter coefficients**. This operation is also called **CONVOLUTION**, just as in deep learning



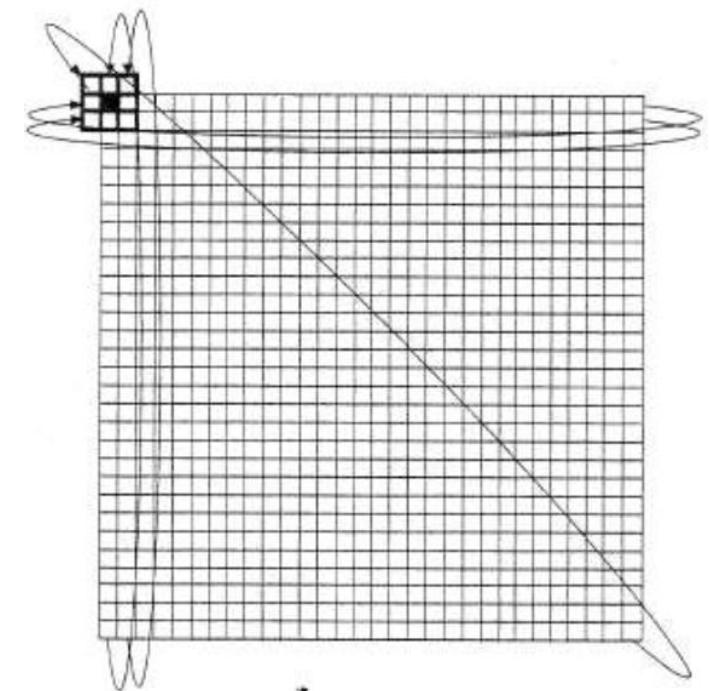
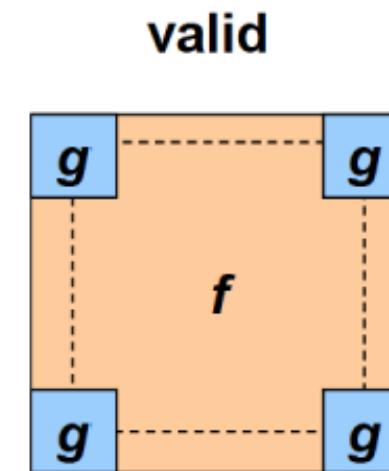
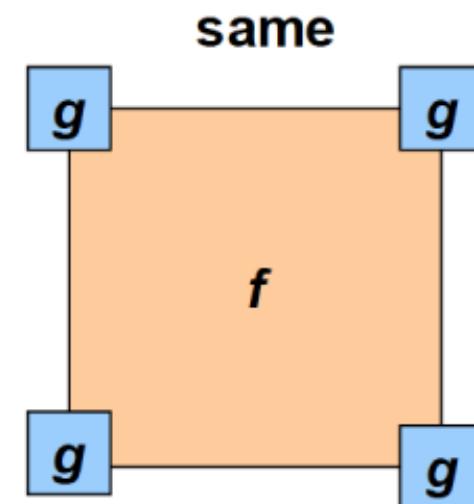
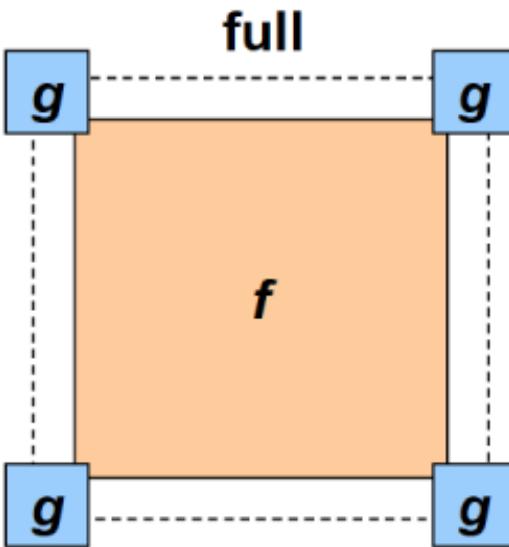
Filtering templates

- We can define different templates for different situations



Filtering templates

- What about boundary pixels?
 - Different ways to handle it.



Recycle or just pad with zeros

Filtering Applications

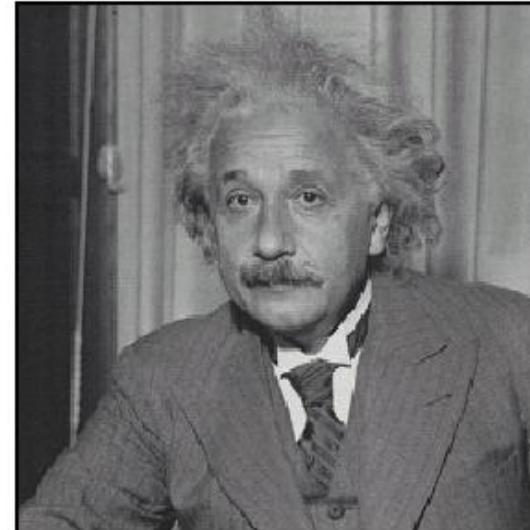


Original

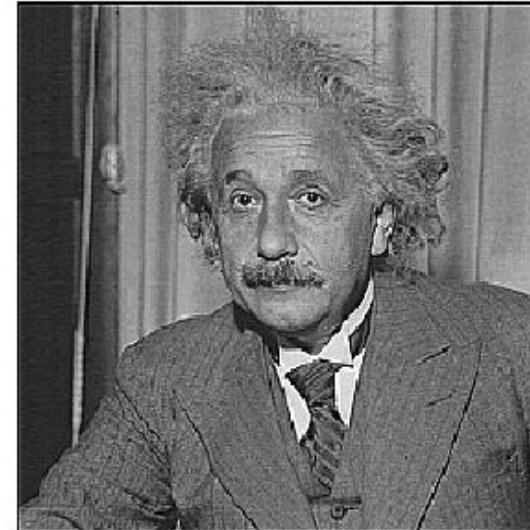
$$\ast \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} - \frac{1}{9} \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right) =$$



Sharpening filter
(accentuates edges)



before



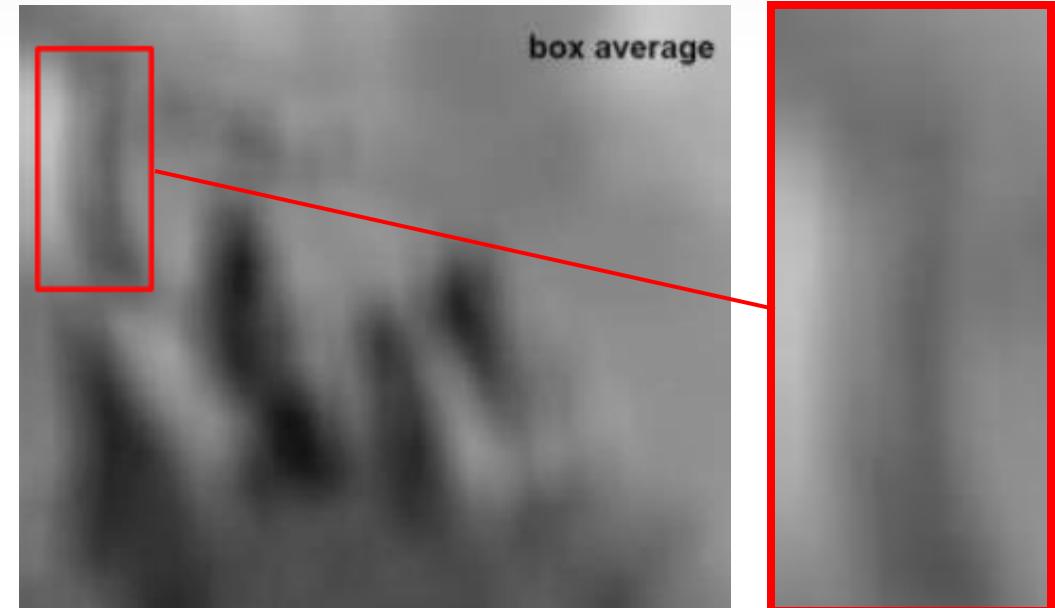
after

[Source: D. Lowe]



Filtering Applications

- Smoothing by averaging (or box averaging)



- We actually have a mathematically correct smoothing filter
 - Gaussian filter

Filtering Applications

- Gaussian filter kernel:

- 3 by 3 version:

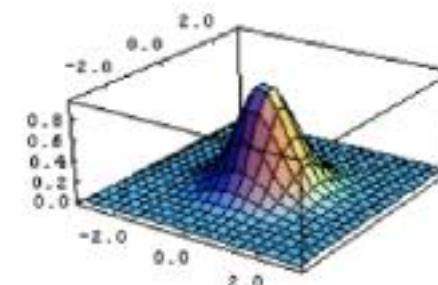
$$\frac{1}{16} \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{matrix} F(i, j)$$

- Removes high-frequency components from the image (low-pass filter)

- In Fourier Transform of an image, the 2D image is treated as a 2D signal
 - decomposed into components in different frequency
 - Sharp edges, where the image changes rapidly, are modeled by high frequencies
 - Applying Gaussian filter can remove the high frequencies, but box filter cannot.

This kernel is an approximation of a 2d Gaussian function:

$$h(u, v) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{u^2+v^2}{\sigma^2}}$$

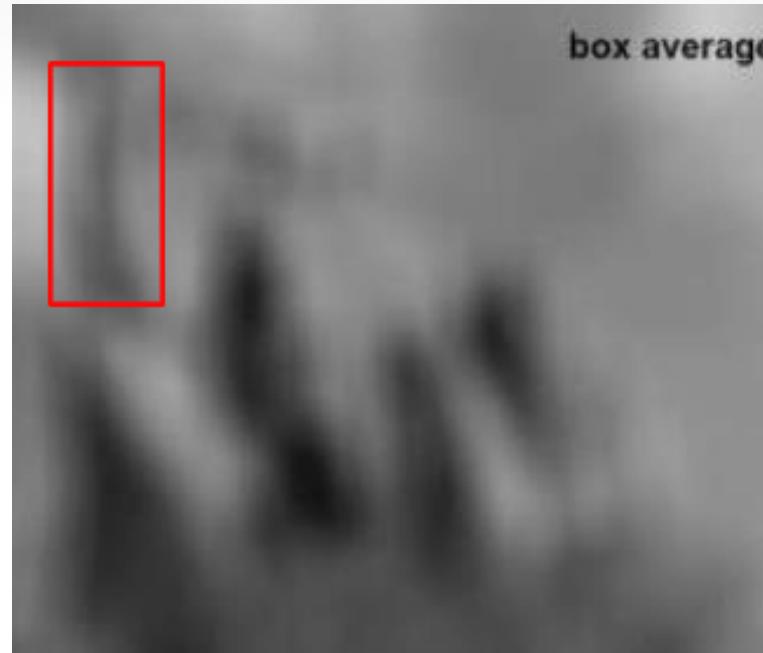




Smoothing by Gaussian



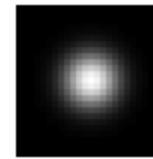
input



box average



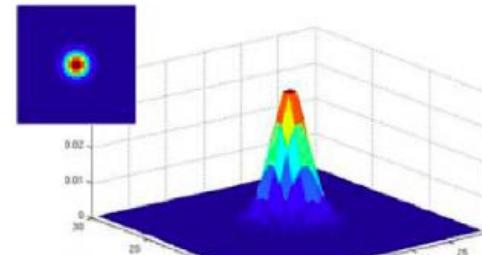
Gaussian blur



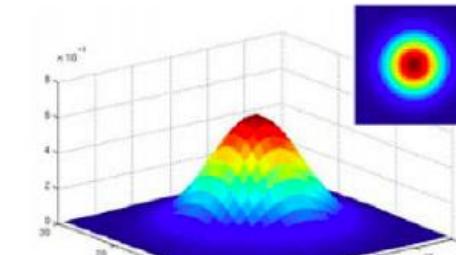


Smoothing by Gaussian

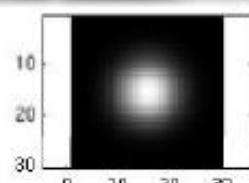
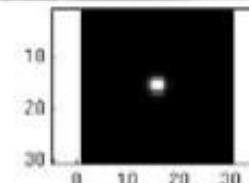
- Different parameters for the Gaussian functions
 - We can get different level of smoothness



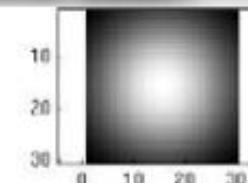
$\sigma = 2$ with
30 x 30
kernel



$\sigma = 5$ with
30 x 30
kernel



...

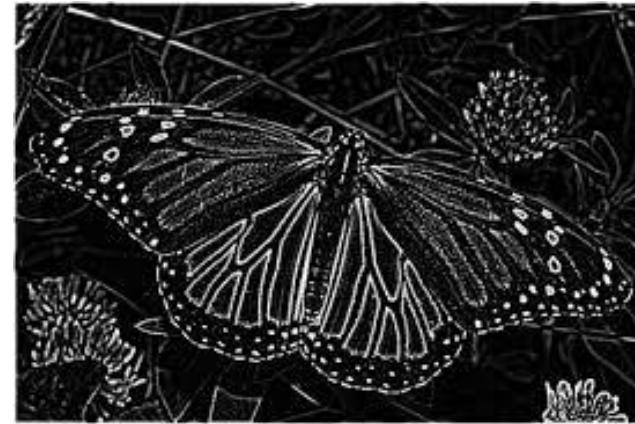


[Source: K. Grauman]



Edge Detection

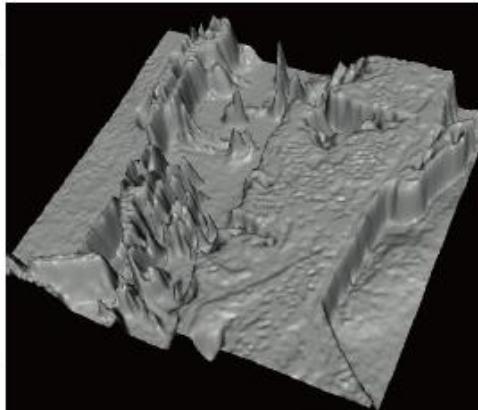
- Classical definition of the edge detection problem: localization of large local changes in the grey level image → large graylevel gradients
 - Can be extended to color images
- Goal: identify objects in images
 - also feature extraction, 3D reconstruction, motion recognition, image restoration, registration
- Contours are very important perceptual cues!
 - They provide a first saliency map for the interpretation of image semantics





Edge Detection

- What causes an edge?
 - Depth discontinuity, object boundaries
 - Change in surface orientation: shape
 - Cast shadows
- Edges look like steep cliffs



Images as Functions



Derivatives of images

- If image f was continuous, then compute the partial derivative as

$$\frac{df(x, y)}{dx} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \varepsilon, y) - f(x, y)}{\varepsilon}$$

- In the discrete domain, 1st-order forward discrete derivative:

$$\frac{df(x, y)}{dx} \approx \frac{f(x + 1, y) - f(x, y)}{1}$$

- So The partial derivative of image $f(x, y)$ with respect to the variable x can be computed as:

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



Filter for getting partial derivatives

- It can just be computed by applying the filter:

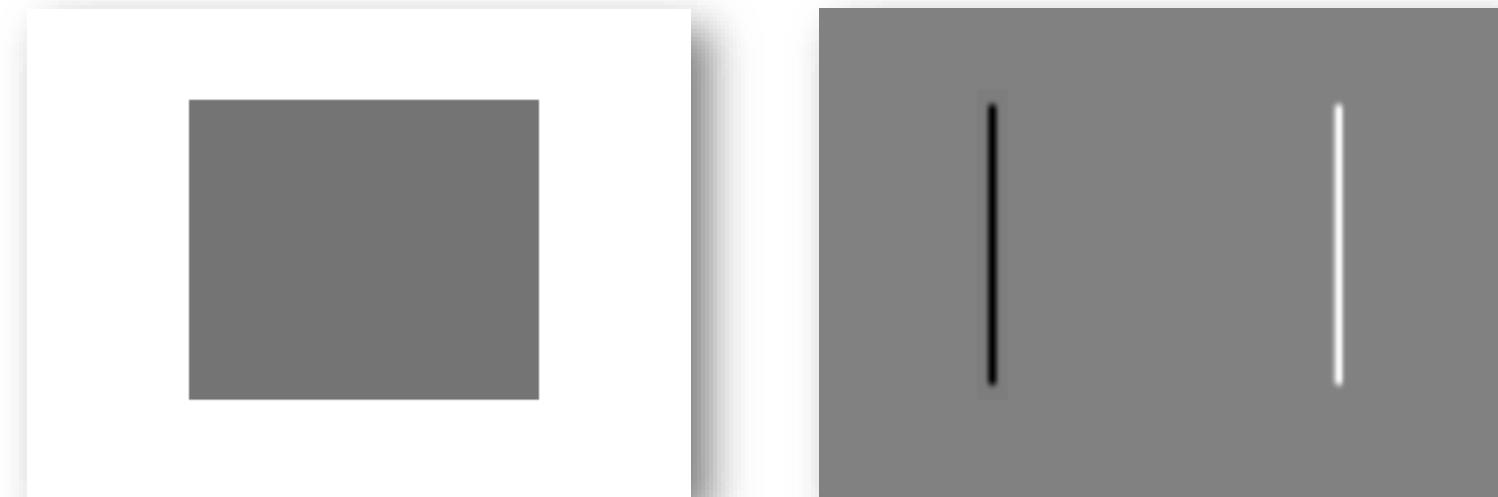
$$\begin{matrix} -1 & 1 \end{matrix}$$

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

- Partial derivative for y:

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

- The horizontal derivative using the filter $[-1, 1]$





Filter for getting partial derivatives

- It can just be computed by applying the filter:

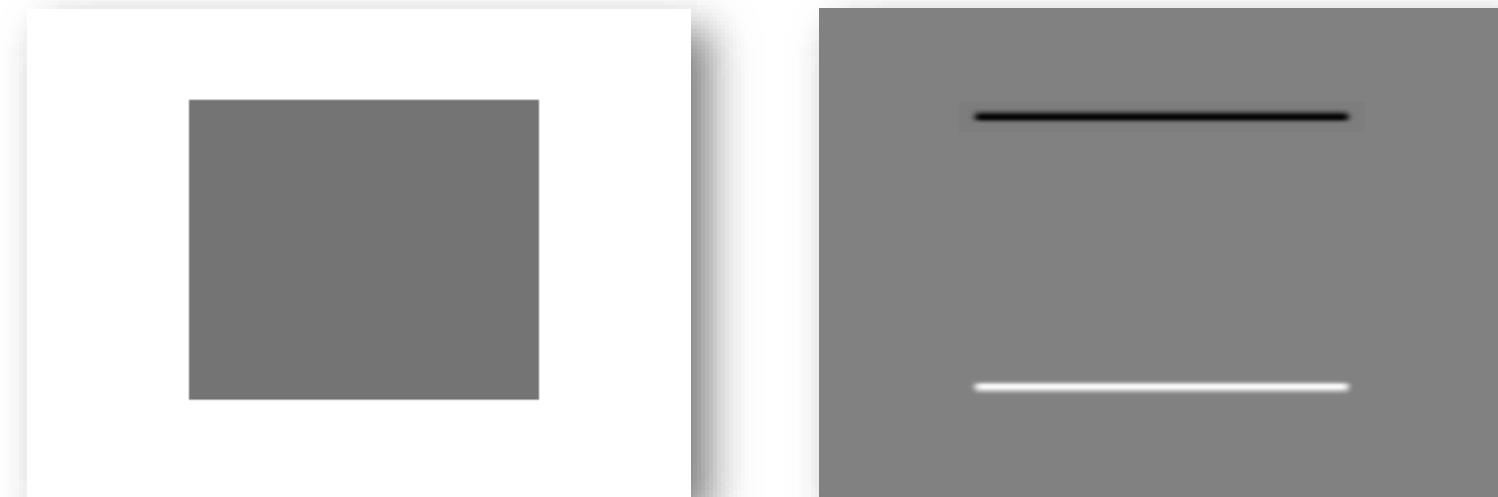
$$\begin{matrix} -1 & 1 \end{matrix}$$

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

- Partial derivative for y:

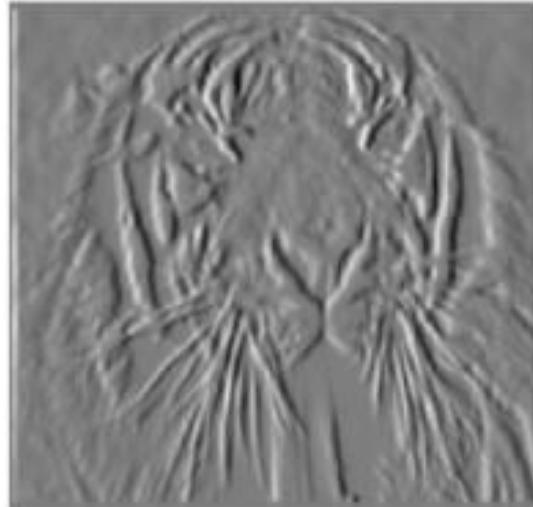
$$\begin{matrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{matrix}$$

- The vertical derivative using the filter $[-1, 1]^T$

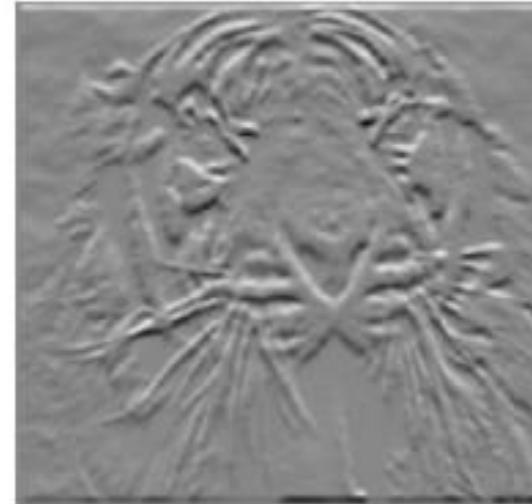




Filter for getting partial derivatives



-1	1
----	---



-1
1



Other approximations

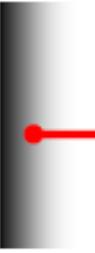
- Other templates for getting approximated derivatives

	Central Difference	Prewitt	Sobel
Roberts	$\begin{pmatrix} [0] & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & [0] & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & [0] & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & [0] & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & [0] & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & [0] & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & [0] & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

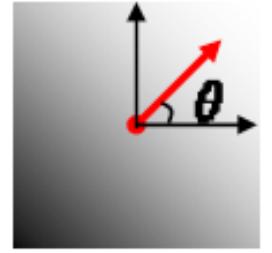


Image Gradient

- The gradient of an image: $\nabla f = \left[\frac{df}{dx}, \frac{df}{dy} \right]$
- The gradient points in the direction of most rapid change in intensity


$$\nabla f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, 0 \right]$$


$$\nabla f = \left[0, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right]$$


$$\nabla f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right]$$

- The gradient direction (orientation of edge normal) is given by:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{df}{dy} / \frac{df}{dx}\right)$$



Image Gradient

- The edge strength is given by the magnitude:

$$\|\nabla f\| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{df}{dx}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{df}{dy}\right)^2}$$

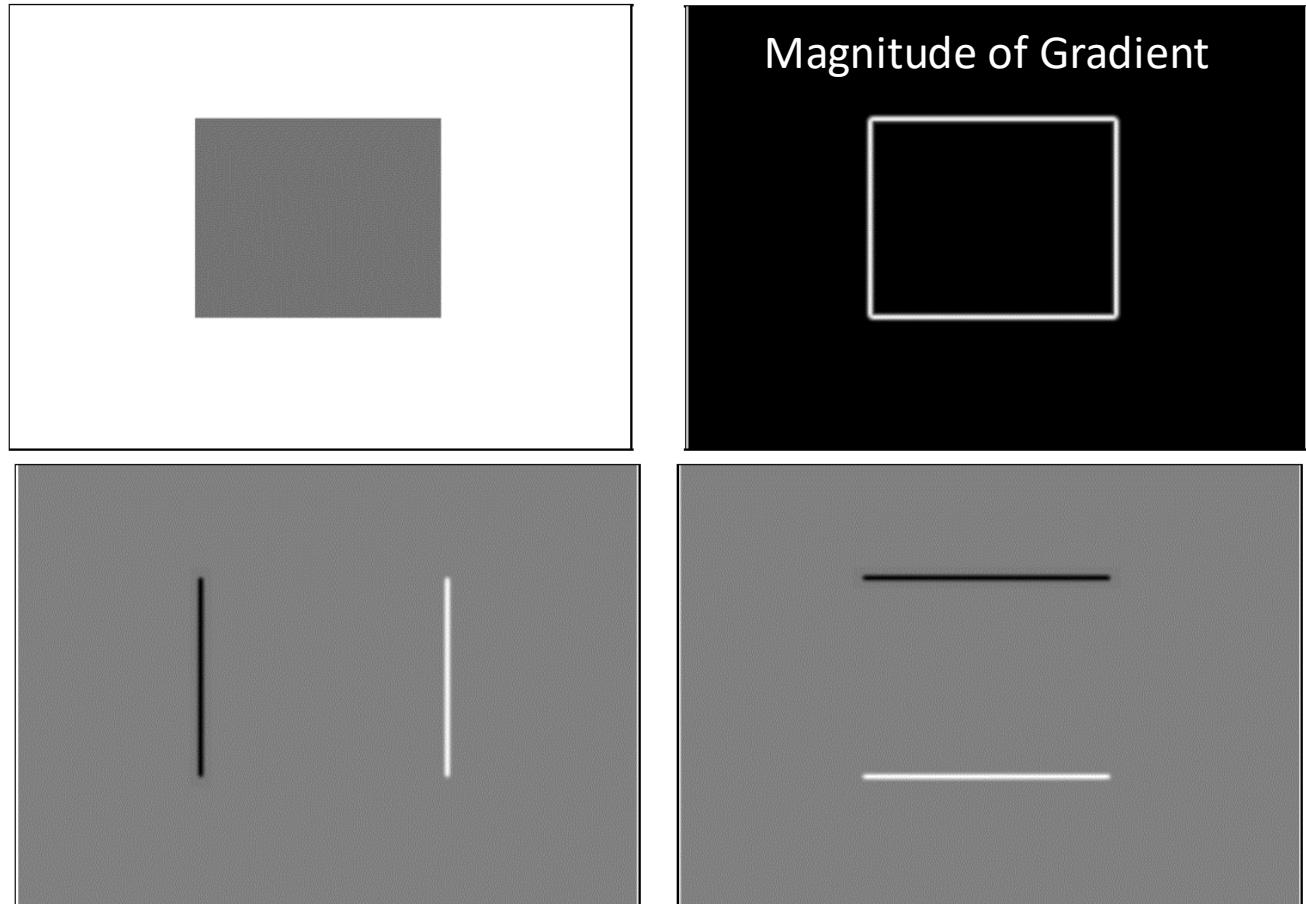




Image Gradient

- Thresholding gradient magnitude to get edges:



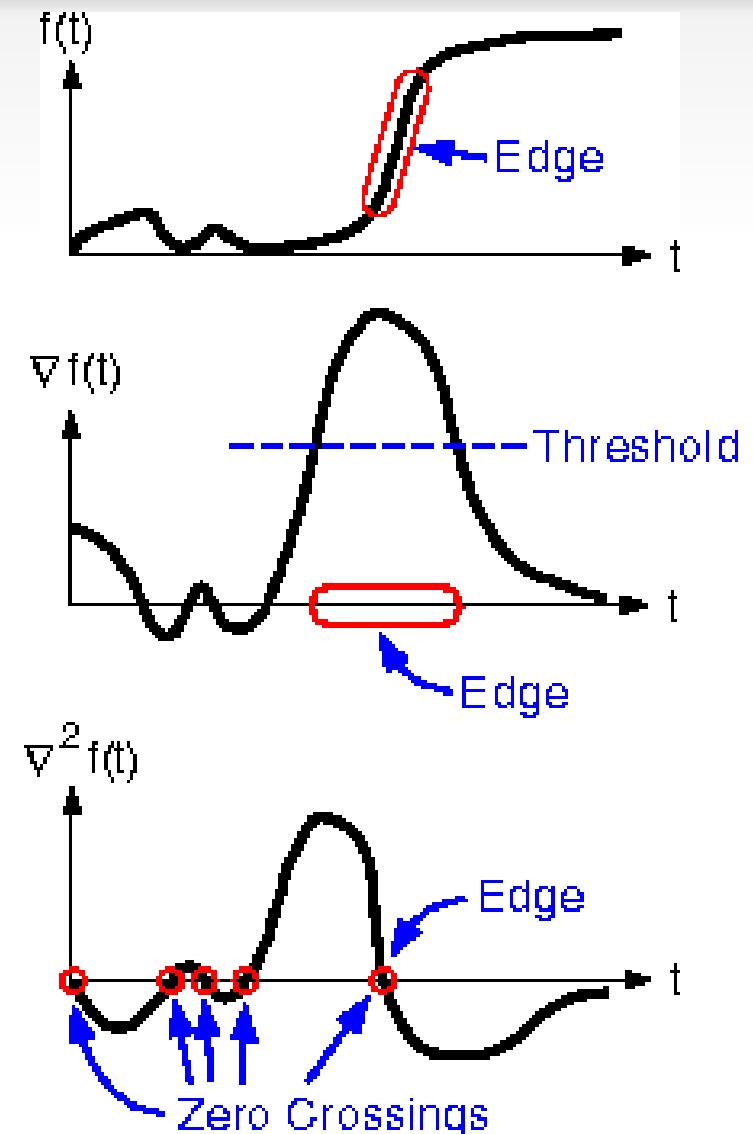
Gradient Magnitude
(Gradient Map)



Edges

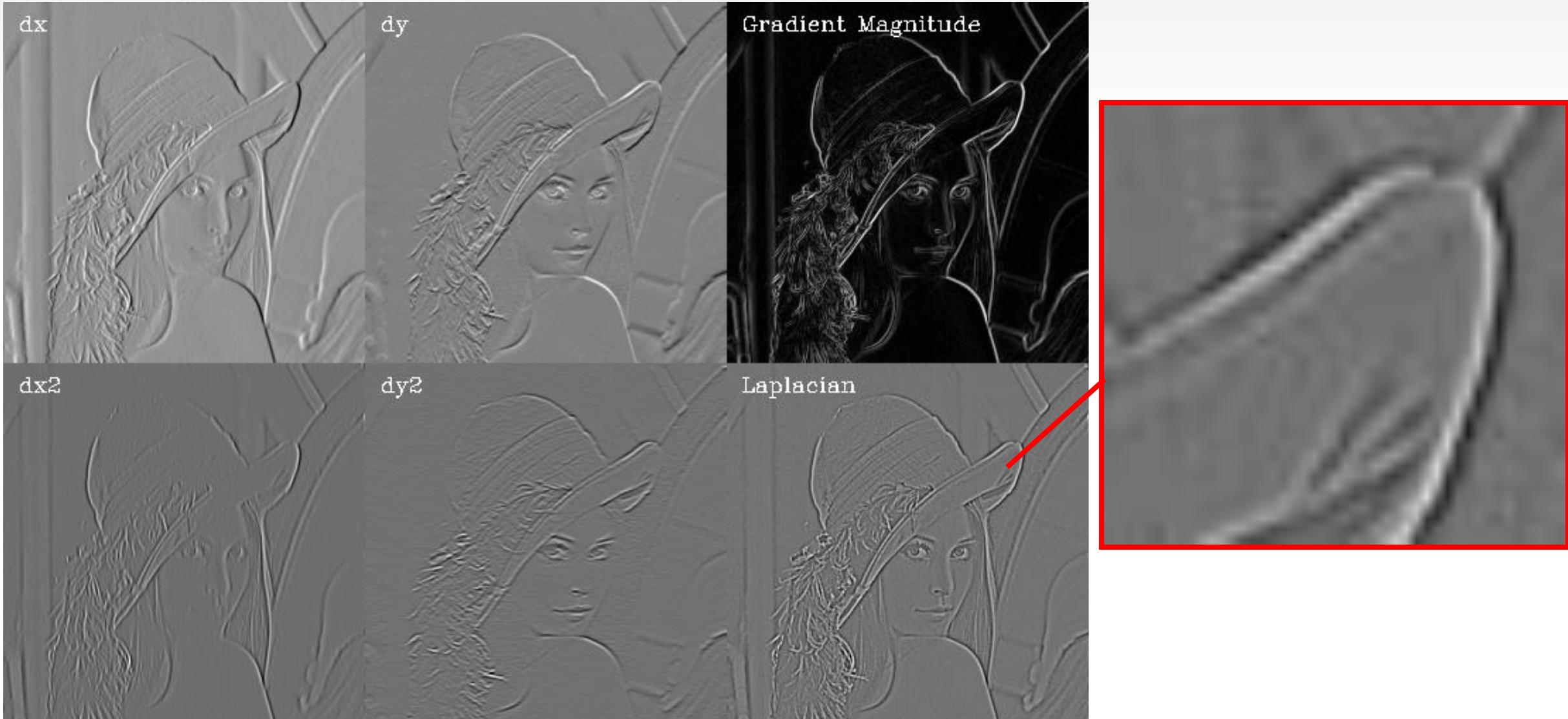
Laplacian filter – second derivatives

- However, directly thresholding the gradient magnitude, will get a “thick” edge
- Laplacian filter is for detecting edge by second derivative
- Zero crossing points will be the edge





Laplacian filter





Laplacian filter

First order finite difference: $\delta_h[f](x) = f(x + \frac{1}{2}h) - f(x - \frac{1}{2}h)$

Second order derivative
calculated by finite
difference

$$f''(x) \approx \frac{\delta_h^2[f](x)}{h^2} = \frac{f(x + h) - 2f(x) + f(x - h)}{h^2}.$$

It is $I(x + 1) + I(x - 1) - 2I(x)$

When h approaches 0

For 2D

Laplace filter

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

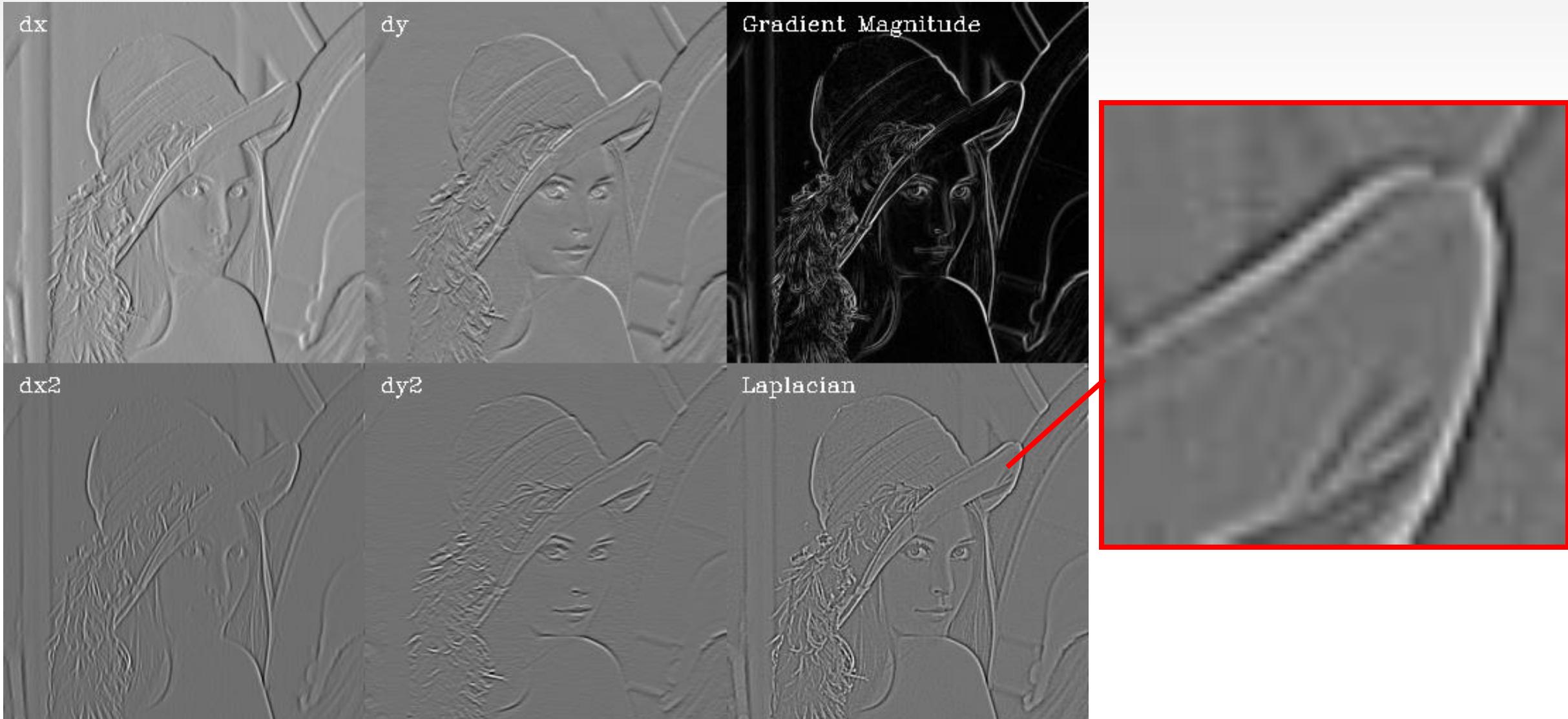
$$\begin{aligned}\Delta f &= \frac{\partial f^2}{\partial^2 x} + \frac{\partial f^2}{\partial^2 y} = I(x + 1, y) + I(x - 1, y) - 2I(x, y) + I(x, y + 1) + I(x, y - 1) - 2I(x, y) \\ &= I(x + 1, y) + I(x - 1, y) + I(x, y + 1) + I(x, y - 1) - 4I(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

0	1	0
1	-4	1
0	1	0

2D Laplace filter

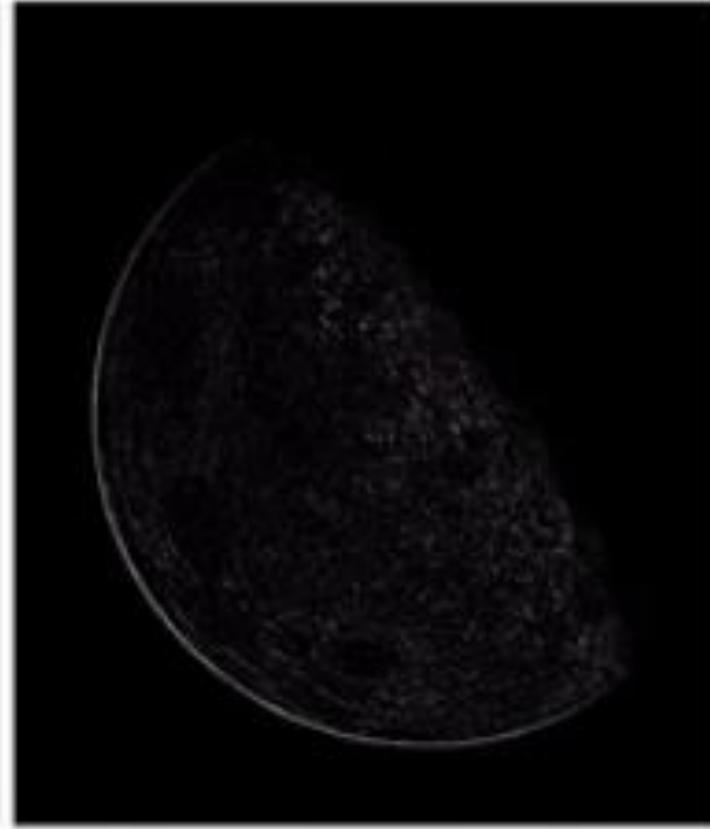


Laplacian filter





Laplacian filter



Filtered Result
(Absolute value visualisation)

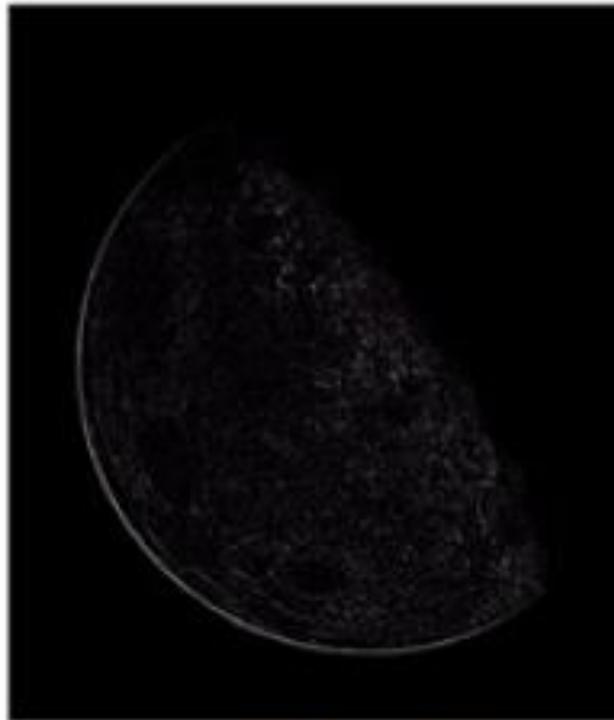


Laplacian filter

- A simple enhancement using Laplacian filter: Sharpen



Original
Image



Laplacian
Filtered Image

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}$$

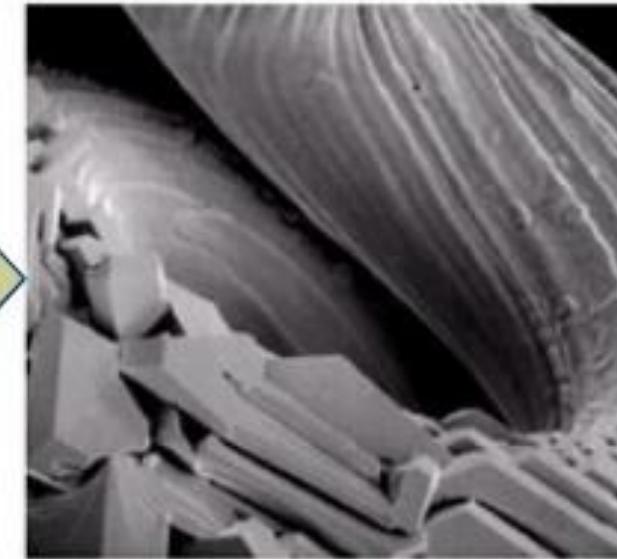
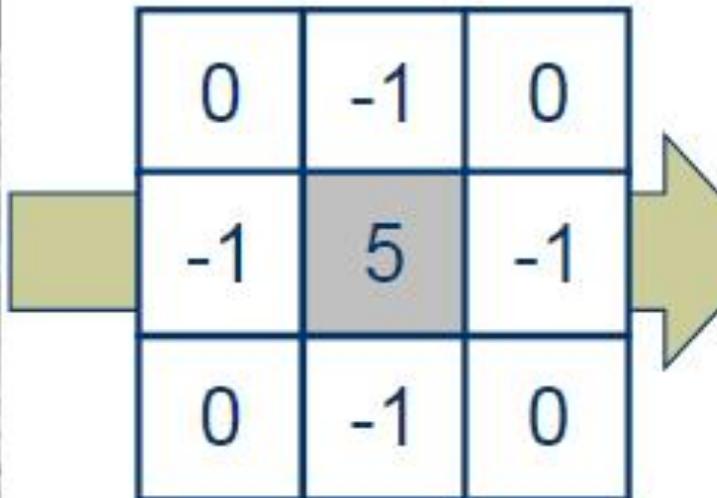
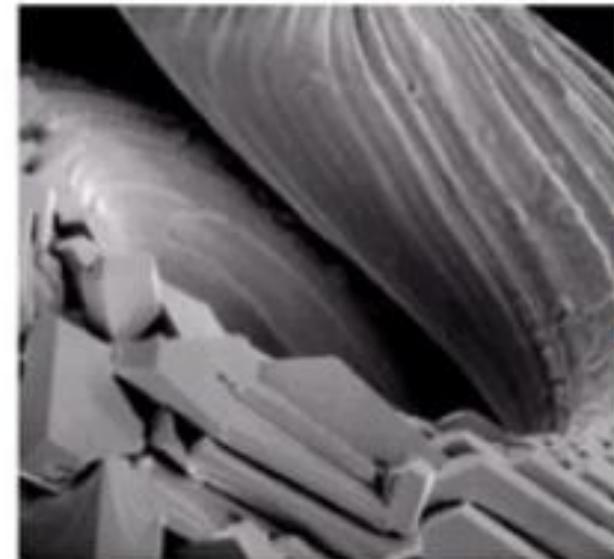
2D Laplace filter



Sharpened
Image



Laplacian Filter for Sharpening



$$\begin{aligned}g(x, y) &= f(x, y) - \nabla^2 f \\&= f(x, y) - [f(x+1, y) + f(x-1, y) \\&\quad + f(x, y+1) + f(x, y-1) \\&\quad - 4f(x, y)]\end{aligned}$$