

# Information Processing Technology of Internet of Things

## Chapter 4 Visual Information Processing

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## *4.1 Image & Its Representation*

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## *4.1.1 Introduction*

# *Introduction*

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- **Computer vision** aims to duplicate the effect of human vision by electronically perceiving and understanding an image
- Computer vision is difficult
  - Loss of information in 3D  $\rightarrow$  2D
  - Interpretation of image
  - Noise
  - Too much data
  - Brightness
  - Local window vs. need for global view



# *Image representation*

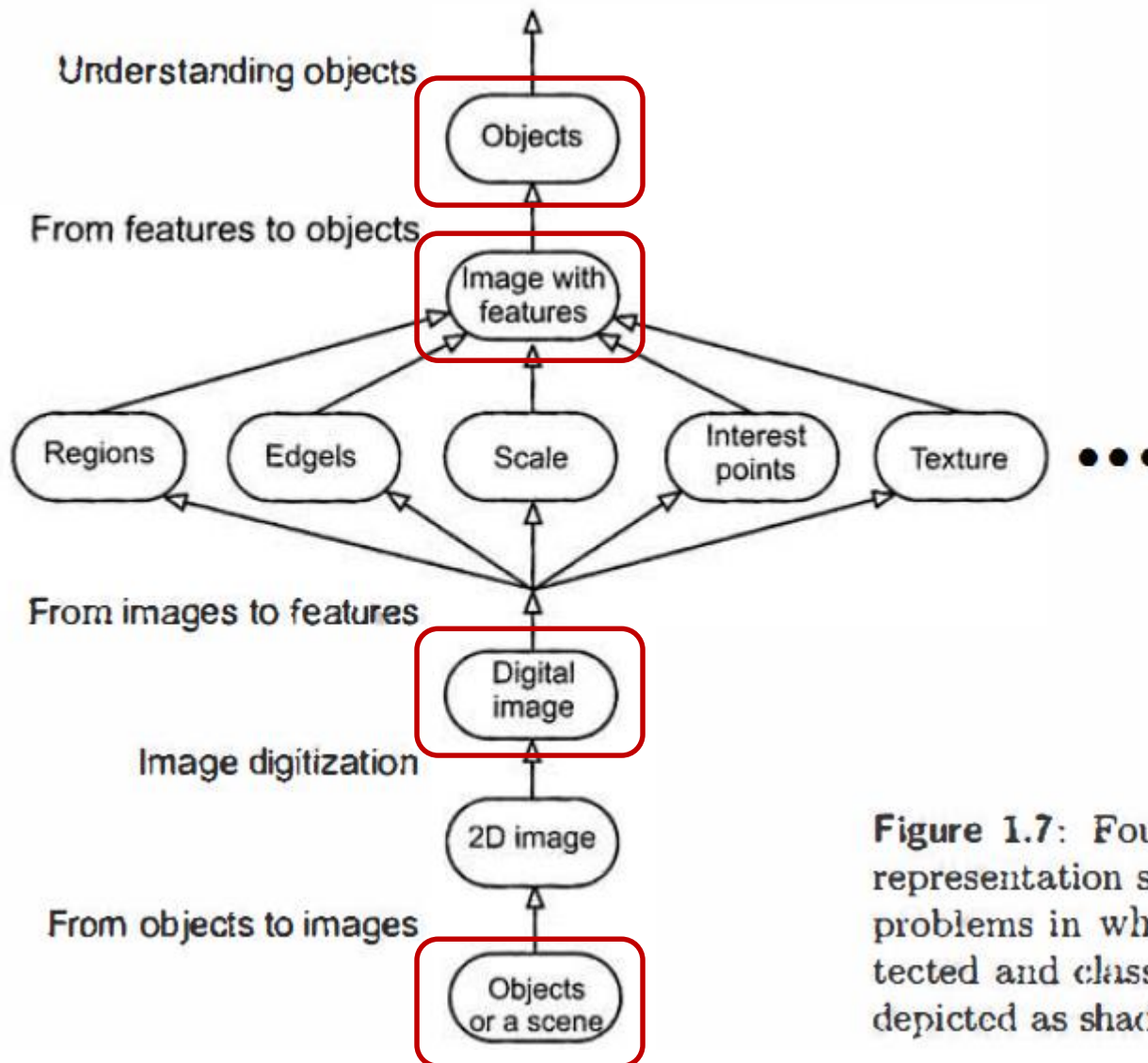
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- **Image understanding** by a machine is to find a relation between input image(s) and previously established models of the observed world.
  - Include several steps and several levels representing the image
- **Image representation** can be roughly divided according to data organization into four levels,





# Image representation



**Figure 1.7:** Four possible levels of image representation suitable for image analysis problems in which objects have to be detected and classified. Representations are depicted as shaded ovals.

# *Image analysis tasks*

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- Image is digitized first
  - Be represented by a rectangular matrix with elements corresponding to the brightness at appropriate image locations;
  - or be presented in color, implying (usually) three channels: red, green and blue
- Two levels are often distinguished:
  - Low-level image processing
  - High-level image understanding

# *Image analysis tasks*

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- **Low-level processing** methods: use very little knowledge about the content of images
  - image compression
  - pre-processing methods for noise filtering
  - edge extraction
  - image sharpening
  - ...
- **High-level processing** is based on knowledge, goals, and plans of how to achieve those goals, and artificial intelligence methods are widely applicable.
  - High-level computer vision tries to imitate human cognition and the ability to make decisions according to the information contained in the image.



# *Image analysis tasks*

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- Low-level data
  - original images represented by matrices composed of brightness (or similar) values
- High-level data
  - originate in images as well, but only those data which are relevant to high-level goals are extracted, reducing the data quantity considerably.
  - represent knowledge about the image content, for example, object size, shape, and mutual relations between objects in the image



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## *4.1.2 Image representations*

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# *The continuous image function*

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- Mathematical models are often used to describe images and other signals. A signal is a function depending on some variable with physical meaning
- The (**gray-scale**) image function values correspond to **brightness** at image points.
  - Brightness integrates different optical quantities.
  - The image is intrinsically two dimensional ( 2D )
- A monochromatic static image is represented by a **continuous image function**  $f(x, y)$  whose arguments are two co-ordinates in the plane.



# *The continuous image function*

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- Computerized image processing uses **digital image functions** which are usually represented by matrices, so co-ordinates are natural numbers.
  - The domain of the image function is a region  $R$  in the plane
$$R = \{ (x, y), 1 \leq x \leq x_m, 1 \leq y \leq y_n \}$$
    - where  $x_m$ ,  $y_n$  represent the maximal image co-ordinates.  
(horizontal x-axis, vertical y-axis, origin bottom-left)
- In monochromatic images, the lowest image function value corresponds to black and the highest to white. Brightness values bounded by these limits are **gray-levels**.



# *Image digitization*

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- **Image digitization** means that the function  $f(x, y)$  is **sampled** into a matrix with  $M$  rows and  $N$  columns.
- **Image quantization** assigns to each continuous sample an integer value——the continuous range of the image function  $f(x, y)$  is split into  $K$  intervals.
- The finer the sampling (i.e., the larger  $M$  and  $N$ ) and quantization (the larger  $K$ ), the better the approximation of the continuous image function  $f(x, y)$  achieved.

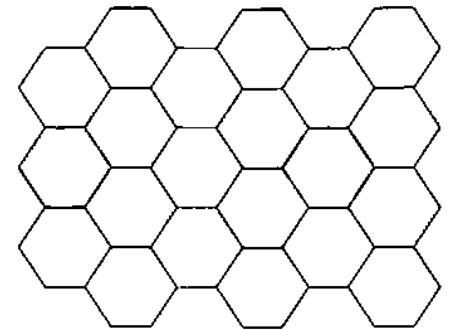
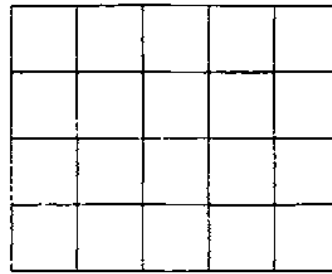




# Image digitization——Sampling

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- A continuous image is digitized at **sampling points**. These sampling points are ordered in the plane, and their geometric relation is called the **grid** (which are usually square or hexagonal).



- One infinitely small sampling point in the grid corresponds to one picture element also called **a pixel** or **image element** in the digital image.



# *Image digitization—Quantization*

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- A value of the sampled image  $f_s(j\Delta x, k\Delta y)$  is expressed as a digital value in image processing. The transition between continuous values of the image function (brightness) and its digital equivalent is called **quantization**.
- Most digital image processing devices use quantization into **k equal intervals**. If  $b$  bits are used to express the values of the pixel brightness then the **number of brightness levels** is  $k = 2^b$ . Eight bits per pixel per channel (one each for red, green, blue) are commonly used.



# *Image digitization—Quantization*



(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

**Figure 2.3:** Brightness levels. (a) 64. (b) 16. (c) 4. (d) 2.



# Metric and topological properties of digital images

## ■ Distance

- Any function  $D$  holding the following three condition is a 'distance' (or a metric)

$$\begin{aligned}
 D(p, q) &\geq 0, \quad \text{for } (D(p, q) = 0 \text{ if and only if } p = q) && \text{identity,} \\
 D(p, q) &= D(q, p), && \text{symmetry,} \\
 D(p, r) &\leq D(p, q) + D(q, r), && \text{triangular inequality.}
 \end{aligned}$$

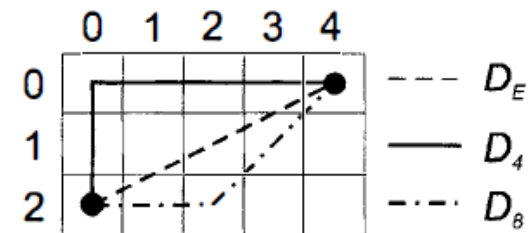
- The distance between points with co-ordinates  $(i, j)$  and  $(h, k)$  may be defined in several different ways.

- Euclidean distance  $D_E$**   $D_E((i, j), (h, k)) = \sqrt{(i - h)^2 + (j - k)^2}$
- city block distance  $D_4$**  (also  $L_1$  metric or Manhattan distance)

$$D_4((i, j), (h, k)) = |i - h| + |j - k|$$

- chessboard distance  $D_8$**

$$D_8((i, j), (h, k)) = \max \{ |i - h|, |j - k| \}$$

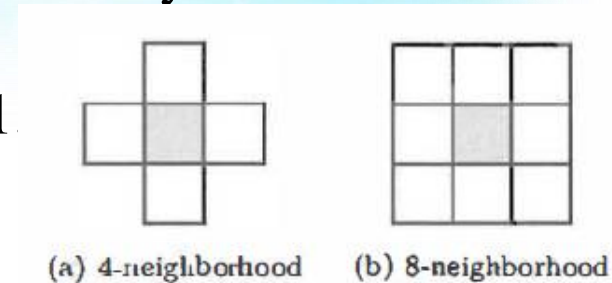


# Metric and topological properties of digital images

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## ■ Pixel adjacency

- Any two pixels  $(p, q)$  are called **4-neighbors** if they have distance  $D_4(p, q) = 1$ .
- **8-neighbors** are two pixels with  $D_8(p, q) = 1$ .

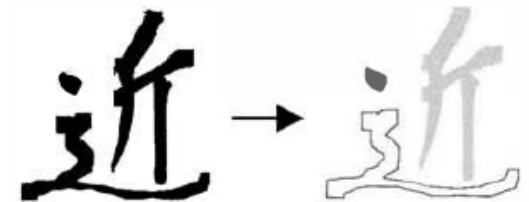


## ■ Region

- set consisting of several adjacent pixels
- a region is a connected set

## ■ Contiguous

- if there is a path between two pixels in the set of pixels in the image, these pixels are called contiguous.
- Alternatively, we can say that a region is a set of pixels in which each pair of pixels is contiguous.





# *Metric and topological properties of digital images*

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- Assume  $R_i$  are disjoint regions which do not touch the image bounds.
- Let  $R$  be the union of all regions  $R_i$
- $R^C$  be the set complement of  $R$  with respect to the image
- The subset of  $R^C$  which is contiguous with the image bounds is called the **background**
- the remainder of the complement  $R^C$  is called **holes**.
- A region is called **simple contiguous** if it has no holes.
- A region with holes is called **multiple contiguous**.



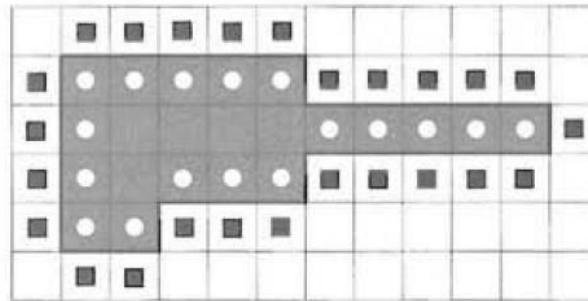
# *Metric and topological properties of digital images*

- border of a region  $R$  (inner border)

- the set of pixels within the region that have one or more neighbors outside R.

- outer border

- the border of the background (i.e., its complement) of the region.



**Figure 2.13:** Inner borders of a region shown as white circles and outer borders shown as black squares. 4-neighborhood was considered.

# *Metric and topological properties of digital images*

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## ■ Convex

- If any two points within a region are connected by a straight line segment, and the whole line lies within the region, then this region is convex
- The property of convexity decomposes all regions into two equivalence classes: convex and non-convex.



**Figure 2.14:** A convex region (left) and non-convex region (right).



# *Metric and topological properties of digital images*

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## ■ Convex hull

- the smallest convex region containing the input region, possibly non-convex.
- The set inside the convex hull which does not belong to an object is called the **deficit of convexity**. This can be split into two subsets:
  - **lakes** (dark gray) are fully surrounded by the object;
  - **bays** (light gray) are contiguous with the border of the convex hull of the object.



**Figure 2.15:** Description using topological components: An 'R' object, its convex hull, and the associated lakes and bays.

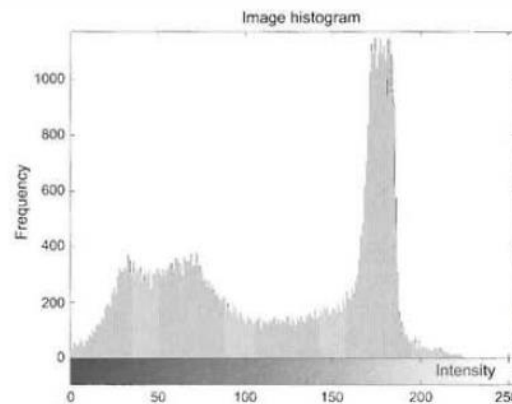
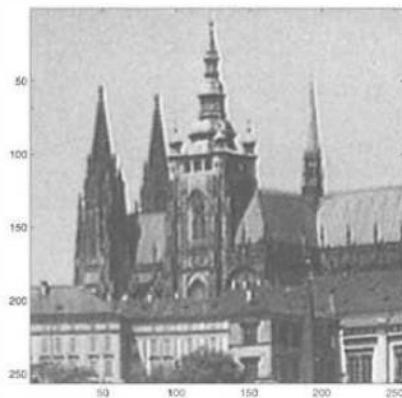


# Histograms

- The **brightness histogram**  $h_f(z)$  of an image provides the frequency of the brightness value  $z$  in the image
  - the histogram of an image with  $L$  gray-levels is represented by a one-dimensional array with  $L$  elements.
  - We might want to find a first-order probability function  $p_1(z; x, y)$  to indicate the probability that pixel  $(x, y)$  has brightness  $z$ .

## Algorithm 2.2: Computing the brightness histogram

1. Assign zero values to all elements of the array  $h_f$ .
2. For all pixels  $(x, y)$  of the image  $f$ , increment  $h_f(f(x, y))$  by 1.

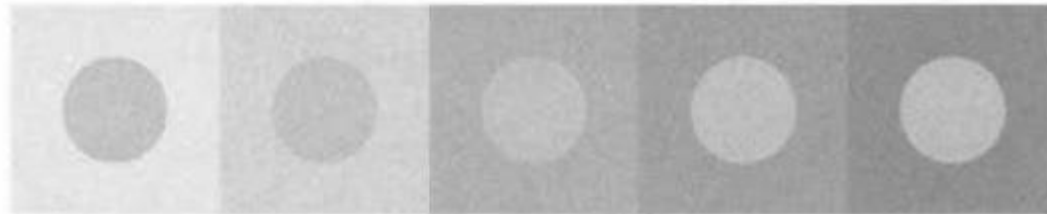




# Visual perception of the image

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- If an image is to be analyzed by a human the information should be expressed using **variables which are easy to perceive**; these are psycho-physical parameters such as contrast, border, shape, texture, color, etc.
- **Contrast**
  - the local change in brightness
  - defined as the ratio between average brightness of an object and the background
  - Apparent brightness depends very much on the brightness of the local surroundings; this effect is called **conditional contrast**.



Conditional contrast effect. Circles inside squares have the same brightness and are perceived as having different brightness values



# Image quality

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- An image might be degraded during capture, transmission, or processing, and measures of **image quality** can be used to assess the **degree of degradation**.
  - The quality required naturally depends on the purpose for which an image is used.
- Methods for **assessing image quality** can be divided into two categories
  - **Subjective methods**: the ultimate criterion is the perception of a selected group of professional and lay viewers, e.g., television
  - **Objective methods**: The quality of the image  $f(x, y)$  is usually estimated by comparison with a known reference image  $g(x, y)$ , e.g., mean quadratic difference  $\sum (g - f)^2$



# Noise in images

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- Real images are often degraded by some **random errors**-this degradation is usually called **noise**.
  - Noise can occur during image capture, transmission, or processing, and may be dependent on, or independent of, the image content .
- Noise is usually described by its probabilistic characteristics
  - Idealized noise, called **white noise** is often used. White noise has a constant power spectrum, meaning that all noise frequencies are present and have the same intensity.



# Noise in images

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## ■ Gaussian noise

- A random variable with a Gaussian (normal) distribution has its probability density function given by the Gaussian curve. In the 1D case the density function is

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

- a very good approximation to noise that occurs in many practical cases.



# Noise in images

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- When an image is transmitted through some channel, noise which is usually independent of the image signal occurs.
- The signal-independent degradation is called **additive noise** and can be described by the model

$$f(x, y) = g(x, y) + \nu(x, y)$$

where the noise  $\nu$  and the input image  $g$  are independent variables.





# Noise in images

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## ■ Signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)

- computing the total square value of the noise contribution

$$E = \sum_{(x,y)} \nu^2(x,y)$$

- computing the total square value of the observed signal

$$F = \sum_{(x,y)} f^2(x,y)$$

- The signal-to-noise ratio is then  $\text{SNR} = \frac{F}{E}$
- SNR represents a measure of image quality, with high values being 'good'.
- often expressed in the logarithmic scale  $\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} = 10 \log_{10} \text{SNR}$



# Noise in images

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- **Multiplicative noise**  $f = g \nu$
- **Quantization noise** occurs when insufficient quantization levels are used.
- **Impulse noise** means that an image is corrupted with individual noisy pixels whose brightness differs significantly from that of the neighborhood.
- **Salt-and-pepper noise**
  - used to describe **saturated impulsive noise**--an image corrupted with white and/or black pixels is an example. Salt-and-pepper noise can corrupt binary images.



# Color spaces

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- Color can be defined by almost any set of **primary colors**, e.g., red, green, and blue.
- Several different primary colors and corresponding color spaces are used in practice, and these spaces can be transformed into each other.
- **Color spaces**
  - RGB color space
  - CMY(Cyan, Magenta, Yellow) color model
  - HSV - Hue, Saturation, and Value (also known as HSB, hue, saturation, brightness)
  - HSL (hue, saturation, lightness/luminance), also known as HLS or HSI (hue, saturation, intensity) is similar to HSV.
  - ...



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### *4.1.3 Data structures for image analysis*

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# *Levels of image data representation*

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- The aim of computer visual perception is to find a **relation between an input image and models of the real world**.
- Several levels of **visual information representation** are defined on the way between the input image and the model
- Computer vision then comprises a design of the:
  - **Intermediate representations** (data structures) .
  - **Algorithms** used for the creation of representations and introduction of relations between them.



# *Levels of image data representation*

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- The visual information representations can be stratified in four levels –however, there are no strict borders between them.
- Four levels: from signals at a low level of abstraction to the description that a human can perceive.
  - **iconic images**: consists of images containing original data: integer matrices with data about pixel brightness
  - **segmented images**: Parts of the image are joined into groups that probably belong to the same objects
  - **geometric representations**: holding knowledge about 2D and 3D shapes
  - **relational models**: a higher level of abstraction, e.g., represented by semantic nets or frames





# *Traditional image data structures-Matrices*

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- A **matrix** is the most common data structure for low-level representation of an image.
- **Elements of the matrix** are integer numbers corresponding to **brightness**, or to another property of the corresponding pixel of the sampling grid.
- Image information in the matrix is accessible through the **co-ordinates of a pixel** that correspond with row and column indices.
- The matrix contains **spatial relations** among semantically important parts of the image. The space is two-dimensional in the case of an image--a plane.



# *Traditional image data structures-Matrices*

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- Some special images that are represented by matrices
  - A **binary image** (an image with two brightness levels only) is represented by a matrix containing only zeros and ones.
  - Several matrices can contain information about one **multispectral image**. Each of these matrices contains one image corresponding to one spectral band.
  - Matrices of different resolution are used to obtain **hierarchical image data structures**.



# Traditional image data structures-Matrices

## ■ integral image

- A matrix representation that holds global image information
- its values  $ii(i, j)$  in the location  $(i, j)$  represent the sums of all the original image pixel-values left of and above  $(i, j)$ :

$$ii(i, j) = \sum_{k \leq i, l \leq j} f(k, l)$$

where  $f$  is the original image.

### Algorithm 4.2: Integral image construction

1. Let  $s(i, j)$  denote a cumulative row sum, let  $s(i, -1) = 0$ .
2. Let  $ii(i, j)$  be an integral image, let  $ii(-1, j) = 0$ .
3. Using a single row-by-row pass through the image, for each image pixel  $(i, j)$  calculate the cumulative row sums  $s(i, j)$  and the integral image value  $ii(i, j)$  using the recurrences

$$s(i, j) = s(i, j - 1) + f(i, j) , \quad (4.2)$$

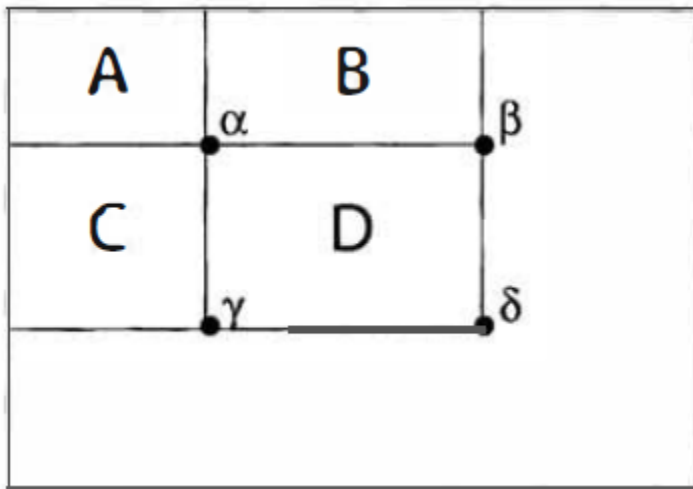
$$ii(i, j) = ii(i - 1, j) + s(i, j) . \quad (4.3)$$

4. After reaching the lower right image corner pixel after a single pass through the image, the integral image  $ii$  is constructed.



# Traditional image data structures-Matrices

- The main use of integral image data structures is in **rapid calculation of simple rectangle image features** at multiple scales.
  - Used for rapid object identification and for object tracking
  - As shown in the Figure, any rectangular sum can be computed using four array references.



Calculation of rectangle features from an integral image. The sum of pixels within rectangle D can be obtained using four array references.

$$D_{sum} = ii(\delta) + ii(\alpha) - (ii(\beta) + ii(\gamma))$$



# *Traditional image data structures-Chains*

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- **Chains** are used for the description of **object borders** in computer vision. One element of the chain is a basic symbol.
- Chains are appropriate for data that can be **arranged as a sequence of symbols**, and the neighboring symbols in a chain usually correspond to the neighborhood of primitives in the image.
- **Chain codes** (and Freeman codes) are often used for the description of object borders, or other one-pixel-wide lines in images.
- The border is defined by the co-ordinates of its **reference pixel** and the **sequence of symbols** corresponding to the line of the unit length in several pre-defined orientations.

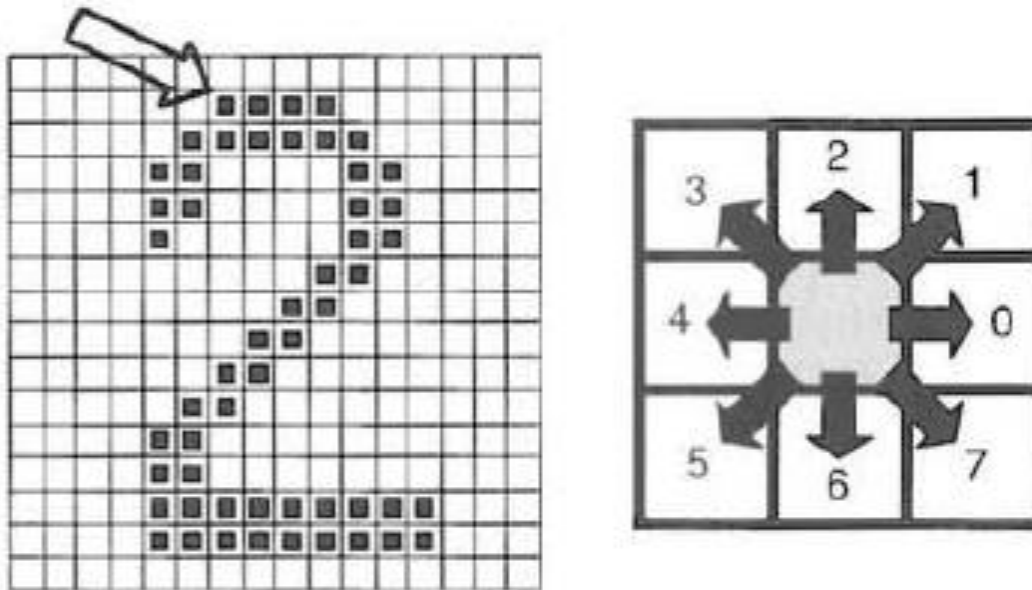




# *Traditional image data structures-Chains*

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- An example of a chain code is shown in the Figure , where 8-neighborhoods are used.



the reference pixel starting the chain is marked by an arrow:

00077665555566000000064444444222111112234445652211.





# *Traditional image data structures-Chains*

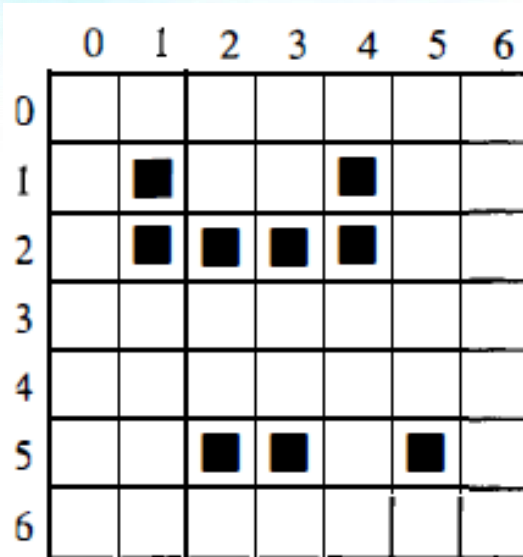
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- **Run length coding** is quite often used to represent strings of symbols in an image matrix (for instance, FAX machines use run length coding).
- Consider a binary image first. Run length coding records only **areas that belong to the object** in the image; the area is then represented as **a list of lists**.
  - a representative one describes each row of the image by a sublist
  - The first element of which is the row number
  - Subsequent terms are co-ordinate pairs; the first element of a pair is the beginning of a run and the second is the end (the beginning and the end are described by column coordinates).
  - there can be several such sequences in the row.



# *Traditional image data structures-Chains*

- Run length coding is illustrated in the Figure



Run length coding; the code is ((11144) (214) (52355))

- The main advantage of run length coding is the existence of **simple algorithms for intersections and unions of regions** in the image.



# *Traditional image data structures-Topological data structures*

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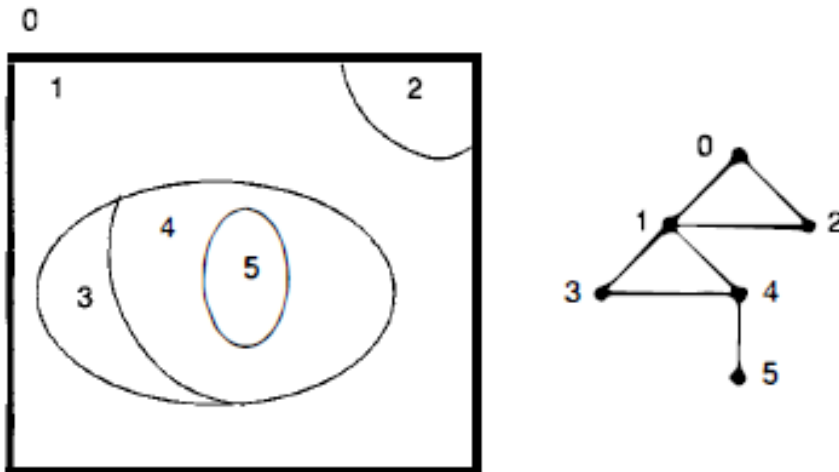
- **Topological data structures** describe the image as a set of **elements and their relations**; these relations are often represented using graphs.
- A **graph**  $G = (V, E)$  is an algebraic structure which consists of a set of nodes  $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  and a set of arcs  $E = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m\}$ .
- Each arc  $e_k$  is incident to an unordered (or ordered) pair of nodes  $\{v_i, v_j\}$  which are not necessarily distinct.
- The **degree of the node** is equal to the number of incident arcs of the node.
- An **evaluated graph** (also weighted graph) is a graph in which values are assigned to arcs, to nodes, or to both--these values may, for example, represent weights, or costs.



# *Traditional image data structures-Topological data structures*

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- **Region adjacency graph**: nodes correspond to regions and neighboring regions are connected by an arc
- The segmented image consists of regions with similar properties (brightness, texture, color, . . . ) that correspond to some entities in the scene, and the neighborhood relation is fulfilled when the regions have some common border.
- An example of region adjacency graph



the label 0 denotes pixels out of the image



# *Traditional image data structures-Topological data structures*

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- The region adjacency graph has several attractive features. If a region encloses other regions, then the part of the graph corresponding with **the areas inside can be separated by a cut in the graph**. Nodes of degree 1 represent simple holes.



# *Hierarchical data structures*

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- Computer vision is by its nature very **computationally expensive**
- One of the solutions is to use **parallel computers**.  
Unfortunately there are many computer vision problems that are very difficult to divide among processors, or decompose in any way.
- **Hierarchical data structures** make it possible to use algorithms which decide a strategy for processing on the basis of relatively small quantities of data.
  - pyramids
  - quad trees





# *Hierarchical data structures--Pyramids*

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- Pyramids are among the simplest hierarchical data structures.
  - M-pyramids (matrix-pyramids)
  - T-pyramids (tree-pyramids)
- A **Matrix-pyramid** (M-pyramid)
  - a sequence  $\{M_L, \dots, M_{L-1}, \dots, M_0\}$  of images
  - $M_L$  has the same dimensions and elements as the original image,
  - $M_{i-1}$  is derived from the  $M_i$ ; by reducing the resolution by one-half.
  - $M_0$  corresponds to one pixel only.
  - used when it is necessary to work with an image at different resolutions simultaneously. (An image having one degree smaller resolution in a pyramid contains four times less data, so it is processed approximately four times as quickly.)



# *Hierarchical data structures--Pyramids*

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- **Tree-pyramids:** a tree structure

- Let  $2^L$  be the size of an original image (the highest resolution) . A tree-pyramid (T-pyramid) is defined by:

1. A set of nodes  $P = \{P = (k, i, j) \text{ such that level } k \in [0, L]; i, j \in [0, 2^k - 1]\}$ .
2. A mapping  $F$  between subsequent nodes  $P_{k-1}, P_k$  of the pyramid

$$F(k, i, j) = (k - 1, i \text{ div } 2, j \text{ div } 2) ,$$

where 'div' denotes whole-number division.

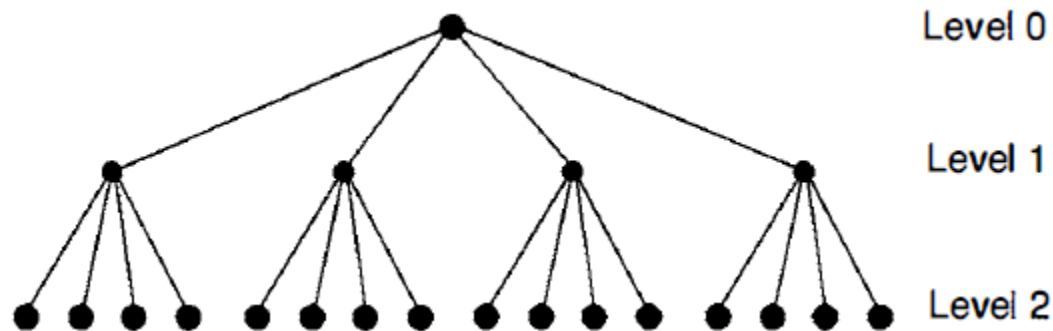
3. A function  $V$  that maps a node of the pyramid  $P$  to  $Z$ , where  $Z$  is the subset of the whole numbers corresponding to the number of brightness levels, for example,  $Z = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 255\}$ .



# Hierarchical data structures--Pyramids

## ■ Tree-pyramids:

- elements of the set of nodes  $P = \{(k, i, j)\}$  correspond with individual matrices in the M-pyramid ( $k$  is called the level of the pyramid). An image  $P = \{(k, i, j)\}$  for a specific  $k$  constitutes an **image at the  $k$ th level of the pyramid**.
- $F$  is the so-called **parent mapping**, which is defined for all nodes  $P_k$  of the T-pyramid except its root  $(0, 0, 0)$ .
- Every node of the T-pyramid has **four child nodes** except leaf nodes, which are nodes of level  $L$  that correspond to the individual pixels in the image.



# *Hierarchical data structures--Pyramids*

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## ■ Tree-pyramids:

- Values of individual nodes of the T-pyramid are defined by the function  $V$ .
- **Values of leaf nodes** are the same as values of the image function (brightness) in the original image at the finest resolution
- **values of nodes in other levels** of the tree are either an arithmetic mean of four child nodes or they are defined by coarser sampling, meaning that the value of one child (e.g. , top left) is used.

