





### **Digital Image Processing**

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## Today

- Some Basic Relationships Between Pixels
- Intensity Transformation
- Spatial Filtering







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- Spatial Filtering







#### Neighbors of a Pixel

• A pixel *p* at coordinates (*x*, *y*) has four *horizontal* and *vertical* neighbors whose coordinates are given by

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

This set of pixels, called the 4-neighbors of p, is denoted by  $N_4(p)$ .

The four diagonal neighbors of p has coordinates

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

and are denoted by  $N_d(p)$ . These points, together with the 4-neighbors, are called the 8-neighbors of p, denoted by  $N_8(p)$ .





#### Adjacency, Connectivity, Regions, and Boundaries

- Let V be the set of gray-level values used to define adjacency
  - In a binary image, V={1}
  - In a gray-scale image, V could be any subset of possible values 0 to 255.
- (a) 4-adjacency. Two pixels p and q with values from V are 4-adjacent if q is in the set N<sub>4</sub>(p).
- (b) 8-adjacency. Two pixels p and q with values from V are 8-adjacent if q is in the set N<sub>8</sub>(p).
- (c) *m-adjacency*. Two pixels *p* and *q* with values from *V* are *m-adjacent* if
  - (i) q is in  $N_4(p)$ , or
  - (ii) q is in  $N_D(p)$  and the set  $N_4(p) \cap N_4(q)$  has no pixels whose values are from V





- Adjacency, Connectivity, Regions, and Boundaries
  - Mixed adjacency is a modification of 8-adjacency. It is introduced to eliminate the ambiguities that often arise when 8-adjacency is used.

abc def

**FIGURE 2.25** (a) An arrangement of pixels. (b) Pixels that are 8-adjacent (adjacency is shown by dashed lines; note the ambiguity). (c) *m*-adjacency. (d) Two regions that are adjacent if 8-adjacency is used. (e) The circled point is part of the boundary of the 1-valued pixels only if 8-adjacency between the region and background is used. (f) The inner boundary of the 1-valued region does not form a closed path, but its outer boundary does.





- Adjacency, Connectivity, Regions, and Boundaries
  - A (digital) path (or curve) from pixel p with coordinates (x, y) to pixel q with coordinates (s, t) is a sequence of distinct pixels with coordinates

$$(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$$

Where  $(x_0, y_0) = (x, y), (x_n, y_n) = (s, t)$ , and pixels  $(x_{i-1}, y_{i-1})$  and  $(x_i, y_i)$ are adjacent for  $1 \le i \le n$ .

- If  $(x_0, y_0) = (x_n, y_n)$ , the path is a *closed* path.
- We can define 4-, 8-, or m-paths depending on the type of adjacency specified.
- Note the absence of ambiguity in the m-path.





#### • Adjacency, Connectivity, Regions, and Boundaries

- 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 it only has one connected component, then set S is called a *connect set*.
- Let *R* be a subset of pixels in an image. We call *R* a region of the image if *R* is a connected set. 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*.
- Edges are formed from pixels with derivative values that exceed a preset threshold.





#### **Distance Measures**

- For pixels p, q, and z, with coordinates (x, y), (s, t), and (v, w), respectively, D is a distance function or metric if
  - (a)  $D(p,q) \ge 0$  (D(p,q) = 0 iff p = q) (b) D(p,q) = D(q,p)

• (c) 
$$D(p,z) \le D(p,q) + D(q,z)$$





- Distance Measures
  - Euclidean distance

$$D_{e}(p,q) = \left[ (x-s)^{2} + (y-t)^{2} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

- $D_4$  distance (also called city-block distance)  $D_4(p,q) = |x-s| + |y-t|$
- D<sub>8</sub> distance (also called chessboard distance)

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





#### Distance Measures

•  $D_4$  distance &  $D_8$  distance

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

- Note that the D<sub>4</sub> distance & D<sub>8</sub> distance are independent of any paths that might exist between the points because these distances involve only the coordinates of the points.
- The *D<sub>m</sub>* distance between two points is defined as the shortest mpath between the points.





## Today

- Some Basic Relationships Between Pixels
- Intensity Transformation
- Spatial Filtering







### Basics

# •The spatial domain processes can be denoted by the expression

g(x,y) = T[f(x,y)]

• f(x,y) is the input image, g(x,y) is the output image, and *T* is an operator on *f* defined over a neighborhood of point (x, y)

> FIGURE 3.1 A  $3 \times 3$ neighborhood about a point (x, y) in an image in the spatial domain. The neighborhood is moved from pixel to pixel in the image to generate an output image.

(x, y) 3 × 3 neighborhood of $(x, y)$						
Image f						
Spatial domain						





### Basics

•The neighborhood along with a predefined operator is called *spatial filter* (also referred to as a *spatial mask*, *kernel*, *template*, or *window*), as we will discuss in detail in Section 3.4

•The smallest possible neighborhood is of size  $1 \times 1$ . In this case, *g* depends only on the value of *f* at a single point (*x*, *y*) and *T* becomes *intensity transformation function* 

$$s = T(r)$$

Also called *gray-level transformation*, *mapping*, or *point processing*. *s* and *r* are variables denoting, respectively the intensity of *g* and *f* at any point (*x*, *y*)





- What can they do ?
- What's the form of *T* ?

# • Important: every pixel for himself – spatial information completely lost!







#### •Some basic intensity transformation functions

Image negatives

$$s = L - 1 - r$$
$$r \in [0, L - 1]$$







## Some basic intensity transformation functions Image negatives







#### •Some basic intensity transformation functions

Image negatives



Inverse the colors







#### •Some basic intensity transformation functions

Image negatives



Inverse the brightness of each pixel





# Some basic intensity transformation functions Log transformations

$$s = c \log(1+r)$$
  
c is a constant and  $r \ge 0$ 







# Some basic intensity transformation functions Log transformations

#### a b

FIGURE 3.5 (a) Fourier spectrum. (b) Result of applying the log transformation given in Eq. (3.2-2) with c = 1.







# Some basic intensity transformation functions Log transformations







#### •Some basic intensity transformation functions •Power-Law (Gamma) transformations

 $\begin{array}{l} s=cr^{\gamma}\\ c \ and \ \gamma \ are \ positive \ constants \end{array}$ 

Account for an offset

$$s = c(r + \varepsilon)^{\gamma}$$
  
c and  $\gamma$  are positive constants







#### •Some basic intensity transformation functions •Power-Law (Gamma) transformations







#### •Some basic intensity transformation functions •Power-Law (Gamma) transformations







#### •Some basic intensity transformation functions •Power-Law (Gamma) transformations



a b c d

FIGURE 3.8 (a) Magnetic resonance image (MRI) of a fractured human spine. (b)-(d) Results of applying the transformation in Eq. (3.2-3) with c = 1 and  $\gamma = 0.6, 0.4, \text{and}$ 0.3, respectively. (Original image courtesy of Dr. David R. Pickens, Department of Radiology and Radiological Sciences, Vanderbilt University Medical Center.)





#### •Some basic intensity transformation functions •Power-Law (Gamma) transformations



FIGURE 3.9 (a) Aerial image. (b)–(d) Results of applying the transformation in Eq. (3.2-3) with c = 1 and  $\gamma = 3.0, 4.0, \text{ and}$ 5.0, respectively. (Original image for this example courtesy of NASA.)





#### Some basic intensity transformation functions

- Piecewise-linear transformations
  - Contrast stretching

Contrast stretching is a process that expands the range of intensity levels in an image so that it spans the full intensity range of the recording medium or display device.





#### Piecewise-linear transformations

#### Contrast stretching



a b c d

FIGURE 3.10 Contrast stretching. (a) Form of transformation function. (b) A low-contrast image. (c) Result of contrast stretching. (d) Result of thresholding. (Original image courtesy of Dr. Roger Heady, Research School of **Biological Sciences**, Australian National University, Canberra. Australia.)





#### Piecewise-linear transformations

#### Intensity-level slicing







#### Piecewise-linear transformations

#### Intensity-level slicing









#### Piecewise-linear transformations

#### Intensity-level slicing



#### a b c

**FIGURE 3.12** (a) Aortic angiogram. (b) Result of using a slicing transformation of the type illustrated in Fig. 3.11(a), with the range of intensities of interest selected in the upper end of the gray scale. (c) Result of using the transformation in Fig. 3.11(b), with the selected area set to black, so that grays in the area of the blood vessels and kidneys were preserved. (Original image courtesy of Dr. Thomas R. Gest, University of Michigan Medical School.)





#### Piecewise-linear transformations

- •Bit-plane slicing
- Pixels are digital numbers composed of bits. The intensity of each pixel in a 256-level gray-scale image is composed of 8bits.







#### Piecewise-linear transformations

#### •Bit-plane slicing







#### Piecewise-linear transformations

#### •Bit-plane slicing



#### a b c

**FIGURE 3.15** Images reconstructed using (a) bit planes 8 and 7; (b) bit planes 8, 7, and 6; and (c) bit planes 8, 7, 6, and 5. Compare (c) with Fig. 3.14(a).







#### False contour

- •Discrete gray levels
- Lack of effective gray levels






#### False contour







#### False contour











#### Histogram processing

- Histograms are the basis for numerous spatial domain processing techniques
- Histograms are the statistical diagrams of gray level distribution
- For continuous gray level

$$p(r) = \lim_{\Delta r \to 0} \frac{A(r + \Delta r) - A(r)}{\Delta r \cdot A}$$





#### Histogram processing

•For discrete gray level

$$h(r_k) = n_k, \quad r_k \in [0, L-1]$$

where  $r_k$  is the *k*th intensity value and  $n_k$  is the number of pixels in the image with intensity  $r_k$ . Thus, a normalized histogram is given by

$$p(r_k) = n_k / MN$$
, for  $k = 0, 1, 2, ..., L-1$ 

M and N are the row and column dimensions of the image. And we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{L-1} p_k(r_k) = 1$$





#### Histogram processing







#### Histogram processing

**FIGURE 3.16** Four basic image types: dark, light, low contrast, high contrast, and their corresponding histograms.







- In many cases histograms are needed for local areas in an image
- Examples:
  - Pattern detection
  - adaptive enhancement
  - adaptive thresholding
  - tracking







# Histogram usage

- Digitizing parameters
- Measuring image properties:
  - Average
  - Variance
  - Entropy
  - Contrast
  - Area (for a given gray-level range)
- Threshold selection
- Image distance
- Image Enhancement
  - Histogram equalization
  - Histogram stretching
  - Histogram matching







#### Histogram processing

Histograms haven't any position information

Reshuffling all pixels within the image





Its histogram won't change. No point processing will be affected... Spatial information is discarded





#### Histogram Equalization & Histogram Specification

- Histogram equalization
  - The histogram of is a uniform histogram
- Histogram specification
  - The histogram of has a specified shape
- Histogram equalization is a special example of histogram specification
- Theoretical argument of histogram equalization
  - Principle of the biggest entropy

$$H_{c} = -\int_{r_{min}}^{r_{max}} p(r) \log p(r) dr$$

• While the histogram is equalized, the entropy of the image is biggest, which means that the human visual system can obtain the maximum information





**Transformation function** 

$$s = T(r) \quad 0 \le r \le L - 1$$

Assume that:

(a) T(r) is a monotonically increasing function in the interval  $0 \le r \le L-1$ 

(b)  $0 \le T(r) \le L-1$  for  $0 \le r \le L-1$ In some formulations to be discussed later, we use the inverse

$$r = T^{-1}(s) \quad 0 \le s \le L - 1$$

change condition (a) to

(a') T(r) is a strictly monotonically increasing function in the interval  $0 \le r \le L-1$ 











*p<sub>r</sub>(r)* and *p<sub>s</sub>(s)* denote the PDFs of *r* and *s*, respectively. *p<sub>r</sub>(r)* and *T(r)* are known and *T(r)* is continuous and differentiable. Then the PDF of the transformed variable s can be obtained using the simple formula

$$p_s(s) = p_r(r) \left| \frac{dr}{ds} \right|$$

 A transformation function of particular importance in image processing has the form

$$s = T(r) = (L-I) \int_0^r p_r(w) dw$$











$$\frac{ds}{dr} = \frac{dT(r)}{dr}$$

$$= (L-1)\frac{d}{dr} \left[ \int_{0}^{r} p_{r}(w) dw \right]$$

$$= (L-1)p_{r}(r)$$

$$p_{s}(s) = p_{r}(r) \left| \frac{dr}{ds} \right|$$

$$= p_{r}(r) \left| \frac{1}{(L-1)p_{r}(r)} \right|$$

$$= \frac{1}{L-1} \qquad 0 \le s \le L-1$$







**FIGURE 3.18** (a) An arbitrary PDF. (b) Result of applying the transformation in Eq. (3.3-4) to all intensity levels, *r*. The resulting intensities, *s*, have a uniform PDF, independently of the form of the PDF of the *r*'s.





 For discrete values, we deal with probabilities (histogram values) and summations instead of probability density functions and integrals. The condition s of monotonicity stated earlier apply also in the discrete case

$$p_r(r_k) = \frac{n_k}{MN}$$
  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, L-1$ 

A plot of p<sub>r</sub>(r<sub>k</sub>) versus r<sub>k</sub> is commonly referred to as a histogram





• The discrete form of the transformation is

$$s_{k} = T(r_{k}) = (L-1) \sum_{j=0}^{k} p_{r}(r_{j})$$
$$= \frac{L-1}{MN} \sum_{j=0}^{k} n_{j} \qquad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, L-1$$





• Example 3.4 & 3.5

r <sub>k</sub>	$n_k$	$p_r(r_k) = n_k/MN$
$r_0 = 0$	790	0.19
$r_1 = 1$	1023	0.25
$r_2 = 2$	850	0.21
$r_3 = 3$	656	0.16
$r_4 = 4$	329	0.08
$r_5 = 5$	245	0.06
$r_6 = 6$	122	0.03
$r_7 = 7$	81	0.02
$r_7 = 7$	81	0.02

**TABLE 3.1**Intensitydistribution andhistogram valuesfor a 3-bit, $64 \times 64$  digitalimage.





• Example 3.4 & 3.5



**FIGURE 3.19** Illustration of histogram equalization of a 3-bit (8 intensity levels) image. (a) Original histogram. (b) Transformation function. (c) Equalized histogram.







**FIGURE 3.20** Left column: images from Fig. 3.16. Center column: corresponding histogram- equalized images. Right column: histograms of the images in the center column.











• The *inverse transformation* from *s* back to *r* is defined by

$$r_k = T^{-1}(s_k)$$
  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, L-1$ 

- Problem 3.10(3<sup>rd</sup> edition)
- Problem 3.9(2<sup>nd</sup> edition)







- Histogram equalization automatically determines a transformation function that seeks to produce an output image that has a uniform histogram.
- Histogram matching (or histogram specification), generates a processed image that has a specified histogram.





- Start from continuous intensities
  - r and z denote the intensity levels of the input and output images, respectively
  - $p_r(r)$  and  $p_z(z)$  denote their continuous PDFs, while  $p_r(r)$  is estimated from given input image and  $p_z(z)$  is the specified PDF that we wish to have
  - Let s be a random variable with the property

$$s = T(r) = (L-1) \int_0^r p_r(w) dw$$





Define another random variable z with the property

$$G(z) = (L-I) \int_0^z p_z(t) dt = s$$

• From these equations that

$$G(z) = T(r)$$

• That z must satisfy the condition

$$z = G^{-1}\left(T\left(r\right)\right)$$













Discrete formulation

$$s_{k} = T(r_{k}) = (L-I) \sum_{j=0}^{q} p_{r}(r_{j})$$

$$=\frac{(L-1)}{MN}\sum_{j=0}^{k}n_{j} \qquad k=0,1,2,\ldots,L-1$$

 $\alpha$ 

$$G(z_q) = (L-I) \sum_{i=0}^{q} p_z(z_i)$$

$$G(z_q) = s_k$$

$$z_q = G^{-1}(s_k)$$





• Example 3.7, 3.8







#### • Example 3.7, 3.8

$z_q$	Specified $p_z(z_q)$	Actual $p_z(z_k)$
$z_0 = 0$	0.00	0.00
$z_1 = 1$	0.00	0.00
$z_2 = 2$	0.00	0.00
$z_3 = 3$	0.15	0.19
$z_4 = 4$	0.20	0.25
$z_5 = 5$	0.30	0.21
$z_6 = 6$	0.20	0.24
$z_7 = 7$	0.15	0.11

# **TABLE 3.2**Specified andactual histograms(the values in thethird column arefrom thecomputationsperformed in thebody of Example3.8).

$z_q$	$G(z_q)$
$z_0 = 0$	0
$z_1 = 1  z_2 = 2$	0
$z_3 = 3$ $z_4 = 4$	1 2
$z_5 = 5$	5
$z_6 = 6$ $z_7 = 7$	6 7

**TABLE 3.3**All possiblevalues of thetransformationfunction G scaled,rounded, andordered withrespect to z.





• Histogram equalization is not always good







• Histogram equalization is not always good







Histogram equalization is not always good







# Today

- Some Basic Relationships Between Pixels
- Intensity Transformation
- Spatial Filtering







# **Spatial Filtering**







# **Spatial Filtering**

- The mechanics of spatial filtering
  - Generally, for a mask of size m by n, we assume that m=2a+1 and n=2b+1, where a and b are positive integers.
  - Linear spatial filtering of an image of size M by N with a filter of size m by n is given by the expression

$$g(x, y) = \sum_{s=-a}^{a} \sum_{t=-b}^{b} w(s, t) f(x+s, y+t)$$




### Some yucky details

- What about near the edge?
  - the filter window falls off the edge of the image
  - need to extrapolate
  - methods:
    - clip filter (black)
    - wrap around
    - copy edge
    - reflect across edge
    - vary filter near edge









- Relationship between spatial correlation and convolution
  - Page 168, section 3.4.2, DIP(3<sup>rd</sup> Edition)







Vector representation of linear filtering

$$R = w_1 z_1 + w_2 z_2 + \ldots + w_{mn} z_{mn}$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{mn} w_k z_k$$
$$= \mathbf{w}^{\mathbf{T}} \mathbf{z}$$

 where the ws are the coefficients of an m by n filter and the zs are the corresponding image intensities encompassed by the filter





Vector representation of linear filtering

• As an example

$$R = w_1 z_1 + w_2 z_2 + \dots + w_9 z_9$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{9} w_k z_k$$

$$= \mathbf{w}^{\mathbf{T}} \mathbf{z}$$

$$w_1 \quad w_2 \quad w_3$$

$$w_4 \quad w_5 \quad w_6$$

$$w_7 \quad w_8 \quad w_9$$

 where the *w*s are 9-dimensional vectors formed from the coefficients of the mask and the image intensities encompassed by the mask, respectively





- Image smoothing is used for blurring and for noise reduction
  - Blurring is used in preprocessing steps, such as removal of small details from an image prior to object extraction, and bridging of small gaps in lines or curves
  - Noise reduction can be accomplished by blurring with a linear filter and also by nonlinear filtering
- Disadvantage of image smoothing
  - edges or details in the image will be blurred
- Principle of image smoothing
  - remain most of the details in the image





### Smoothing linear filters

 Use of first filter yields the standard averages of the pixels under the mask. A spatial



	1	2	1
$\frac{1}{16}$ ×	2	4	2
	1	2	1

averaging filter in which all coefficients are equal sometimes called a *box filter* 

 The second mask yields a so-called *weighted average*, giving more weight to some pixels at the expense of the others. (Gaussian kernel)





- Smoothing linear filters
  - The general implementation for filtering an M by N image with a weighted averaging filter of size m by n (m and n odd) is given by the expression

$$g(x, y) = \frac{\sum_{s=-a}^{a} \sum_{t=-b}^{b} w(s,t) f(x+s, y+t)}{\sum_{s=-a}^{a} \sum_{t=-b}^{b} w(s,t)}$$





Smoothing linear filters

**FIGURE 3.33** (a) Original image, of size  $500 \times 500$  pixels. (b)–(f) Results of smoothing with square averaging filter masks of sizes m = 3, 5, 9, 15, and 35, respectively. The black squares at the top are of sizes 3, 5, 9, 15, 25, 35, 45, and 55 pixels, respectively; their borders are 25 pixels apart. The letters at the bottom range in size from 10 to 24 points, in increments of 2 points; the large letter at the top is 60 points. The vertical bars are 5 pixels wide and 100 pixels high; their separation is 20 pixels. The diameter of the circles is 25 pixels, and their borders are 15 pixels apart; their intensity levels range from 0% to 100% black in increments of 20%. The background of the image is 10% black. The noisy rectangles are of size  $50 \times 120$  pixels.







Smoothing linear filters



a b c

**FIGURE 3.34** (a) Image of size  $528 \times 485$  pixels from the Hubble Space Telescope. (b) Image filtered with a  $15 \times 15$  averaging mask. (c) Result of thresholding (b). (Original image courtesy of NASA.)





- Order-statistic filters
  - Order-statistic filters are nonlinear spatial filters whose response is based on ordering the pixels contained in the image area encompassed by the filter, and then replacing the value of the center pixel with the value determined by the ranking result.
  - Median, max, min filtering.
  - The median filters are the best known and particularly effective in the presence of impulse noise





• A Median Filter operates over a window by selecting the median intensity in the window.







- What advantage does median filtering have over Gaussian filtering?
  - Robustness to outliers

filters have width 5 :







Salt-and-pepper noise

Median filtered









### abc

**FIGURE 3.35** (a) X-ray image of circuit board corrupted by salt-and-pepper noise. (b) Noise reduction with a  $3 \times 3$  averaging mask. (c) Noise reduction with a  $3 \times 3$  median filter. (Original image courtesy of Mr. Joseph E. Pascente, Lixi, Inc.)





- Image sharpening is used to highlight fine detail in an image or to enhance detail that has been blurred
  - Blurred detail in the image is either in error or as a nature effect of a particular method of image acquisition
- Applications of image sharpening
  - Electronic printing, medical imaging, industrial inspection, autonomous guidance in military systems
- Principle of image sharpening
  - Image differentiation can enhance edges and other discontinuities (such as noise) and deemphasize areas with slowly varying gray-level values





### Foundation

- Any definition of a first derivative
  - Must be zero in areas of constant intensity
  - · Must be nonzero at the onset of an intensity step or ramp
  - Must be nonzero along ramps
- Any definition of a second derivative
  - Must be zero in constant areas
  - Must be nonzero at the onset and end of an intensity step or ramp
  - Must be zero along ramps of constant slope





First-order derivative of a one-dimensional function is the difference

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f\left(x+I\right) - f\left(x\right)$$

Second-order derivative of a one-dimensional function is the difference

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = f(x+1) + f(x-1) - 2f(x+1) + f(x+1) + f(x-1) - 2f(x+1) + f(x-1) + f(x+1) + f(x-1) + f(x+1) + f(x+1$$

















- The Laplacian
  - Laplacian operator

$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

X-direction

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = f(x+1, y) + f(x-1, y) - 2f(x, y)$$

Y-direction

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = f(x, y+1) + f(x, y-1) - 2f(x, y)$$





• The discrete Laplacian of two variables

 $\nabla^{2} f(x, y) = f(x+1, y) + f(x-1, y) + f(x, y+1) + f(x, y-1) - 4f(x, y)$ 

0	1	0	1	1	1	a b c d
1	-4	1	1	-8	1	FIGURE 3.37 (a) Filter mask used to implement Eq. (3.6-6).
0	1	0	1	1	1	(b) Mask used to implement an extension of this equation that includes the diagonal terms. (c) and (d) Two other implementa- tions of the Laplacian found frequently in practice.
0	-1	0	-1	-1	-1	
-1	4	-1	-1	8	-1	
0	-1	0	-1	-1	-1	





• For image sharpening

 $g(x, y) = f(x, y) + c\left[\nabla^2 f(x, y)\right]$ 

a bc de

### FIGURE 3.38

(a) Blurred image of the North Pole of the moon.
(b) Laplacian without scaling.
(c) Laplacian with scaling.
(d) Image sharpened using the mask in Fig. 3.37(a).
(e) Result of using the mask in Fig. 3.37(b).
(Original image courtesy of NASA.)









- Unsharp masking and highboost filtering
  - Unsharp masking
    - Blur the original image
    - Subtract the blurred image from the original (the resulting difference is called the mask)
    - Add the mask to the original

$$g_{mask}(x, y) = f(x, y) - \overline{f}(x, y)$$
$$g(x, y) = f(x, y) + k \cdot g_{mask}(x, y)$$























### So, what does blurring take away?

### Unsharp Masking (MATLAB)

```
image=imread('lena512.bmp');
im=mat2gray(image);
g= fspecial('gaussian', 25,4);
imblur = conv2(im,g,'same');
figure; imshow(imblur);
figure; imshow(im-imblur);
figure; imshow(im-imblur,[]);
figure; imshow(im+0.4*(im-imblur));
```









a b c d FIGURE 3.39 1-D illustration of the mechanics of unsharp masking. (a) Original signal. (b) Blurred signal with original shown dashed for reference. (c) Unsharp mask. (d) Sharpened signal, obtained by adding (c) to (a).







Using first-order derivatives for image sharpening – the gradient

 $\int \partial f$ 

• The gradient of f at (x, y)

$$\nabla f \equiv grad\left(f\right) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} g_x \\ g_y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

Magnitude

$$M(x, y) = mag(\nabla f) = \sqrt{g_x^2 + g_y^2}$$
$$\approx |g_x| + |g_y|$$

















### Homework problem 3.7, 3.11, 3.23





# Requirements of Project One now posted!





# Thank You!