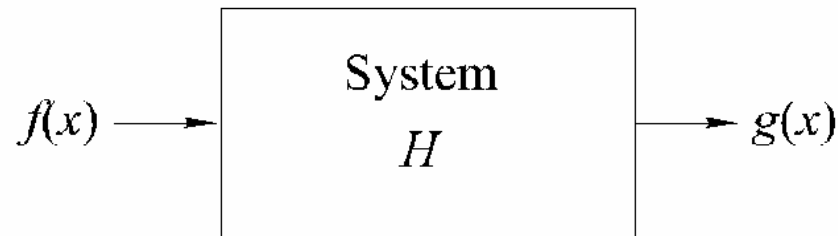


# Image Enhancement

Part 1: pixel-based operations

# Review: Linear Systems

- We define a system as a unit that converts an input function into an output function



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

Independent  
variable

System operator or Transfer  
function

# Linear Time Invariant Discrete Time Systems



$$Y(e^{j\omega}) = H(e^{j\omega})X(e^{j\omega})$$

$$Y(\omega) = H(\omega)X(\omega) \leftrightarrow y[n] = h[n] * x[n]$$

$$H(j\Omega) = \begin{cases} H(j\Omega) & |\Omega| < \pi/T \\ 0 & |\Omega| \geq \pi/T \end{cases}$$

IF

- The input signal is bandlimited
- The Nyquist condition for sampling is met
- The digital system is linear and time invariant

THEN

The overall continuous time system is equivalent to a LTIS whose frequency response is H.

# Overview of Linear Systems

- Let  $g_i(x) = H[f_i(x)]$

where  $f_i(x)$  is an arbitrary input in the class of all inputs  $\{f(x)\}$ , and  $g_i(x)$  is the corresponding output.

- If

$$H\{a \cdot f[n] + b \cdot g[n]\} = aH\{f[n]\} + bH\{g[n]\}$$

Then the system  $H$  is called a *linear system*.

- A linear system has the properties of *additivity* and *homogeneity*.

# Linear Systems

- The system  $H$  is called *shift invariant* if

$$g_i(x) = H[f_i(x)] \text{ implies that } g_i(x + x_0) = H[f_i(x + x_0)]$$

for all  $f_i(x) \in \{f(x)\}$  and for all  $x_0$ .

- This means that offsetting the independent variable of the input by  $x_0$  causes the same offset in the independent variable of the output. Hence, the input-output relationship remains the same.

# Linear Systems

- The operator  $H$  is said to be *causal*, and hence the system described by  $H$  is a *causal system*, if there is no output before there is an input.
- In other words

$$f(x) = 0 \text{ for } x < x_0 \text{ implies that } g(x) = H[f(x)] = 0 \text{ for } x < x_0.$$

- A linear system  $H$  is said to be *stable* if its response to any *bounded* input is *bounded*. That is, if

$$|f(x)| < K \text{ implies that } |g(x)| < cK$$

where  $K$  and  $c$  are constants.

# Linear Systems

- A *unit impulse function*, denoted  $\delta(a)$ , is *defined* by the expression

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(a)\delta(x-a)da = f(x).$$

The diagram shows a horizontal axis labeled  $a$ . A point  $x$  is marked on the axis. Two red arrows point upwards from the axis: one at  $a$  labeled  $\delta(a)$ , and one at  $x$  labeled  $\delta(x-a)$ . A red box encloses the integral equation above, with a vertical arrow pointing from the  $\delta(a)$  label to the  $\delta(x-a)$  term in the equation.

- The response of a system to a unit impulse function is called the *impulse response* of the system.

$$h(x) = H[\delta(x)]$$

$$h[n] = H\{\delta[n]\}$$

# Linear Systems

- If  $H$  is a linear shift-invariant system, then we can find its response to any input signal  $f(x)$  as follows:

$$g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\alpha)h(x - \alpha)d\alpha.$$

$$g[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} f[k]h[n - k]$$

- Underlying model: signal="sum" of deltas of amplitude  $f[n]$
- This expression is called the *convolution integral*. It states that the response of a linear, fixed-parameter system is completely characterized by the convolution of the input with the system impulse response.



# Linear Systems

- Convolution of two functions of a continuous variable is defined as

$$f(x) * h(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\alpha)h(x - \alpha)d\alpha$$

- In the discrete case

$$f[n] * h[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m]h[n - m]$$

# Linear Systems

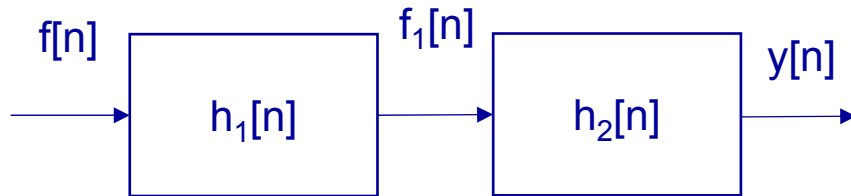
- In the 2D discrete case

$$f[n_1, n_2] * h[n_1, n_2] = \sum_{m_1=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{m_2=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m_1, m_2] h[n_1 - m_1, n_2 - m_2]$$

$h[n_1, n_2]$  is a linear filter.

# Linear systems

- Cascade (“in serie”)



$$h[n] = h_1[n] * h_2[n]$$

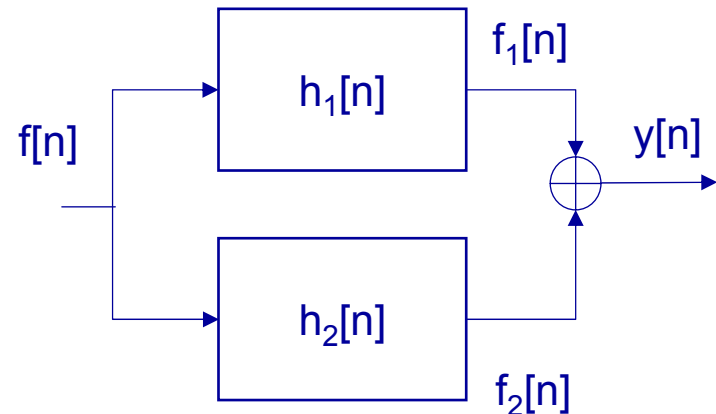
$$H(\Omega) = H_1(\Omega)H_2(\Omega)$$

$$H[k] = H_1[k]H_2[k]$$

**Proof**

$$\begin{aligned} y[n] &= f_1[n] * h_2[n] = f[n] * h_1[n] * h_2[n] = \\ &= f[n] * (h_1[n] * h_2[n]) \end{aligned}$$

- Parallel (“in parallelo”)



$$h[n] = h_1[n] + h_2[n]$$

$$H(\Omega) = H_1(\Omega) + H_2(\Omega)$$

$$H[k] = H_1[k] + H_2[k]$$

# IP Algorithms

## Spatial domain

- Operations are performed in the image domain
- Image  $\Leftrightarrow$  matrix of numbers
- Examples
  - luminance adaptation
  - chromatic adaptation
  - contrast enhancement
  - spatial filtering
  - edge detection
  - noise reduction

## Transform domain

- Some operators are used to project the image in another space
- Operations are performed in the transformed domain
  - Fourier (DCT, FFT)
  - Wavelet (DWT, CWT)
- Examples
  - coding
  - denoising
  - image analysis

Most of the tasks can be implemented both in the image and in the transformed domain. The choice depends on the context and the specific application.

# Spatial domain processing

## Pixel-wise

- Operations involve the single pixel
- Operations:
  - histogram equalization
  - change of the colorspace
  - addition/subtraction of images
  - get negative of an image
- Applications:
  - luminance adaptation
  - contrast enhancement
  - *chromatic adaptation*

## Local-wise

- The neighbourhood of the considered pixel is involved
  - Any operation involving digital filters is local-wise
- Operations:
  - correlation
  - convolution
  - filtering
  - transformation
- Applications
  - smoothing
  - sharpening
  - noise reduction
  - edge detection

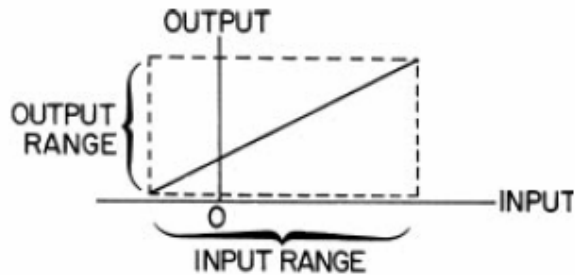
# Image enhancement

- There is no general unifying theory of image enhancement at present because there is no general standard of image quality that can serve as a design criterion for an image enhancement processor.
  - Consideration is given here to a variety of techniques that have proved useful for human observation improvement and image analysis.
- [Pratt, Chapter 10]

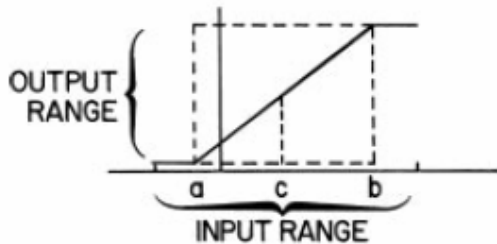
# Pixel-wise operations

- Contrast enhancement
  - Amplitude scaling
  - Histogram stretching/shrinking, sliding, equalization
- Contrast can often be improved by amplitude rescaling of each pixel

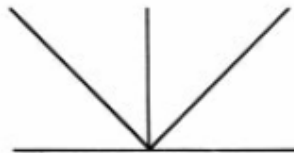
# Amplitude scaling



(a) Linear image scaling



(b) Linear image scaling with clipping



(c) Absolute value scaling

*Window-level transformation.* The window value is the width of the linear slope; the level is located at the midpoint  $c$  of the slope line. Very common in medical imaging.

**FIGURE 10.1-2.** Image scaling methods.



# Amplitude scaling

Q component of a YIQ  
image representation.



(a) Linear, full range,  $-0.147$  to  $0.169$

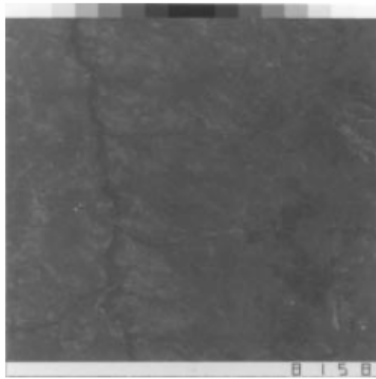


(b) Clipping,  $0.000$  to  $0.169$



(c) Absolute value,  $0.000$  to  $0.169$

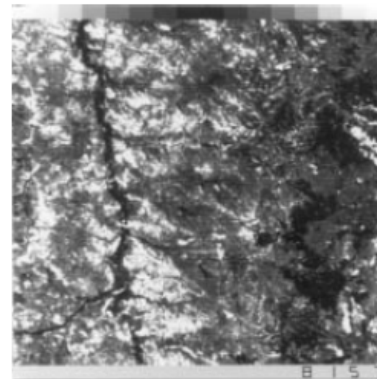
# Window level transformation: ex.



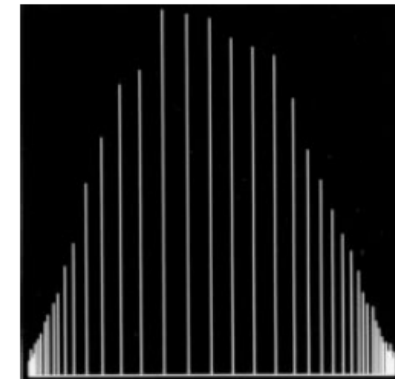
(a) Original



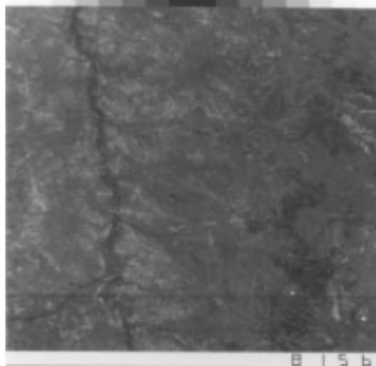
(b) Original histogram



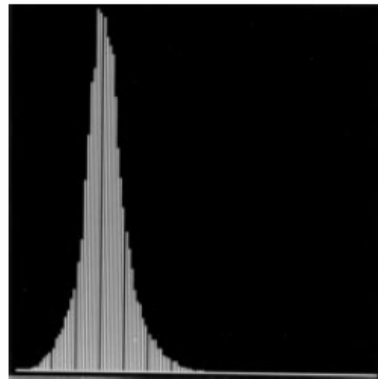
(e) Min. clip = 0.24, max. clip = 0.35



(f) Enhancement histogram



(c) Min. clip = 0.17, max. clip = 0.64



(d) Enhancement histogram

FIGURE 10.1-4. Window-level contrast stretching of an earth satellite image.



Gray scale contouring is at the threshold of visibility.

# Contrast enhancement via graylevel transf.

- Point transformations that modify the contrast of an image within a display's dynamic range
- Often nonlinear point transformations

$$G[j,k] = (F[j,k])^p$$

$$0 \leq F[j,k] \leq 1$$

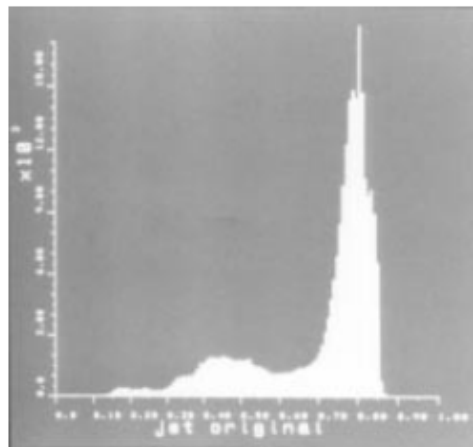
$p$  : power law variable

# example

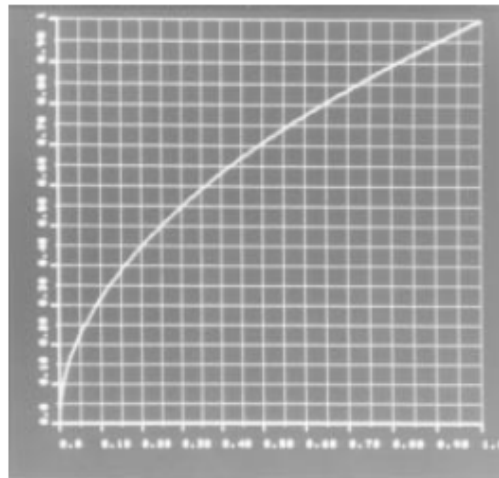
original



(a) Original



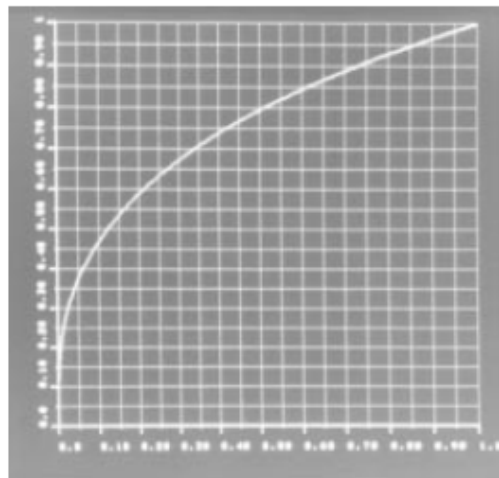
(b) Original histogram



(a) Square root function



(b) Square root output



(c) Cube root function



(d) Cube root output

# log amplitude scaling

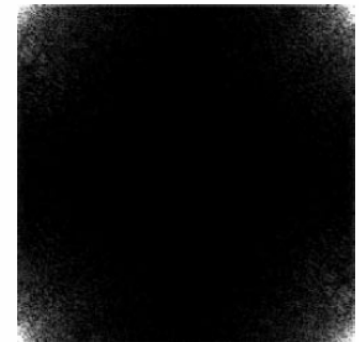
- The logarithm function is useful for scaling image arrays with a very wide dynamic range.

$$G(j, k) = \frac{\log_e\{1.0 + aF(j, k)\}}{\log_e\{2.0\}}$$

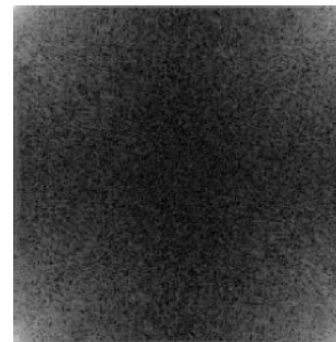
$a > 0$



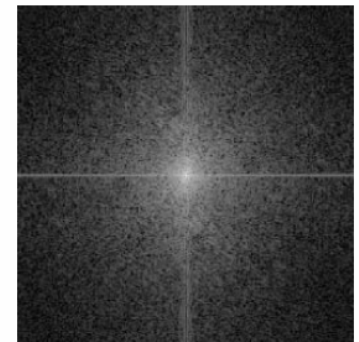
(a) Original



(b) Clipped magnitude, nonordered



(c) Log magnitude, nonordered



(d) Log magnitude, ordered

# Reverse and Inverse functions

- Reverse function

$$G[i, k] = (1 - F[i, k])$$

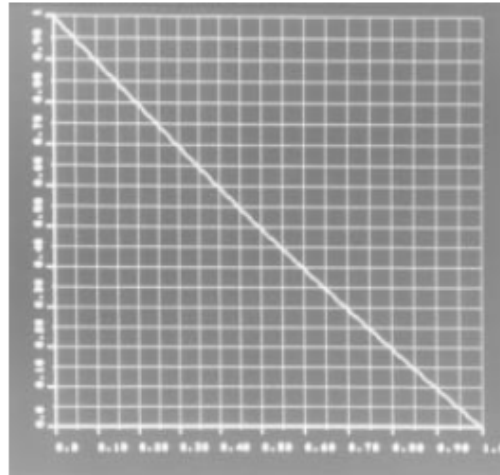
$$0 \leq F[i, k] \leq 1$$

- Inverse function

$$G(j, k) = \begin{cases} 1.0 & \text{for } 0.0 \leq F(j, k) < 0.1 \\ \frac{0.1}{F(j, k)} & \text{for } 0.1 \leq F(j, k) \leq 1.0 \end{cases}$$

clipped below 0.1 to maintain the range  
(max value=1)

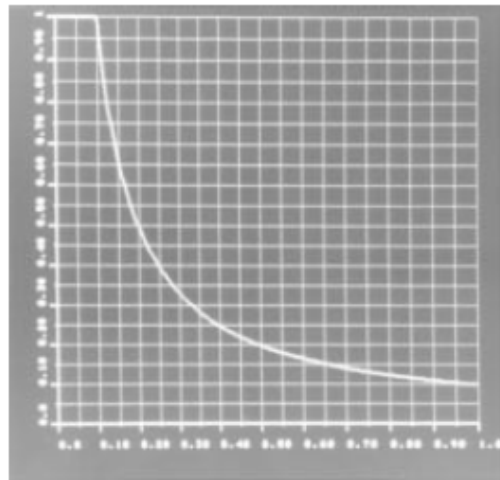
# example



(a) Reverse function



(b) Reverse function output



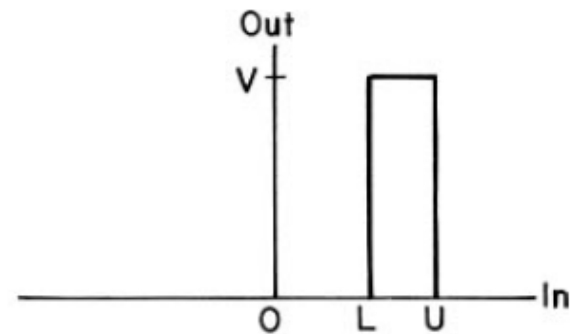
(c) Inverse function



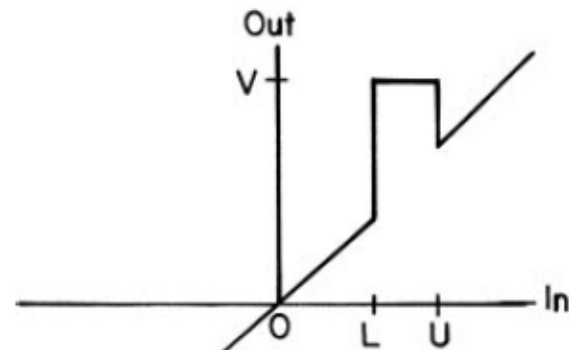
(d) Inverse function output

# Level slicing

- Pixels within the amplitude passband are rendered maximum white in the output, and pixels outside the passband are rendered black.
- Pixels outside the amplitude passband are displayed in their original state



(a) Zero background scaling transformation

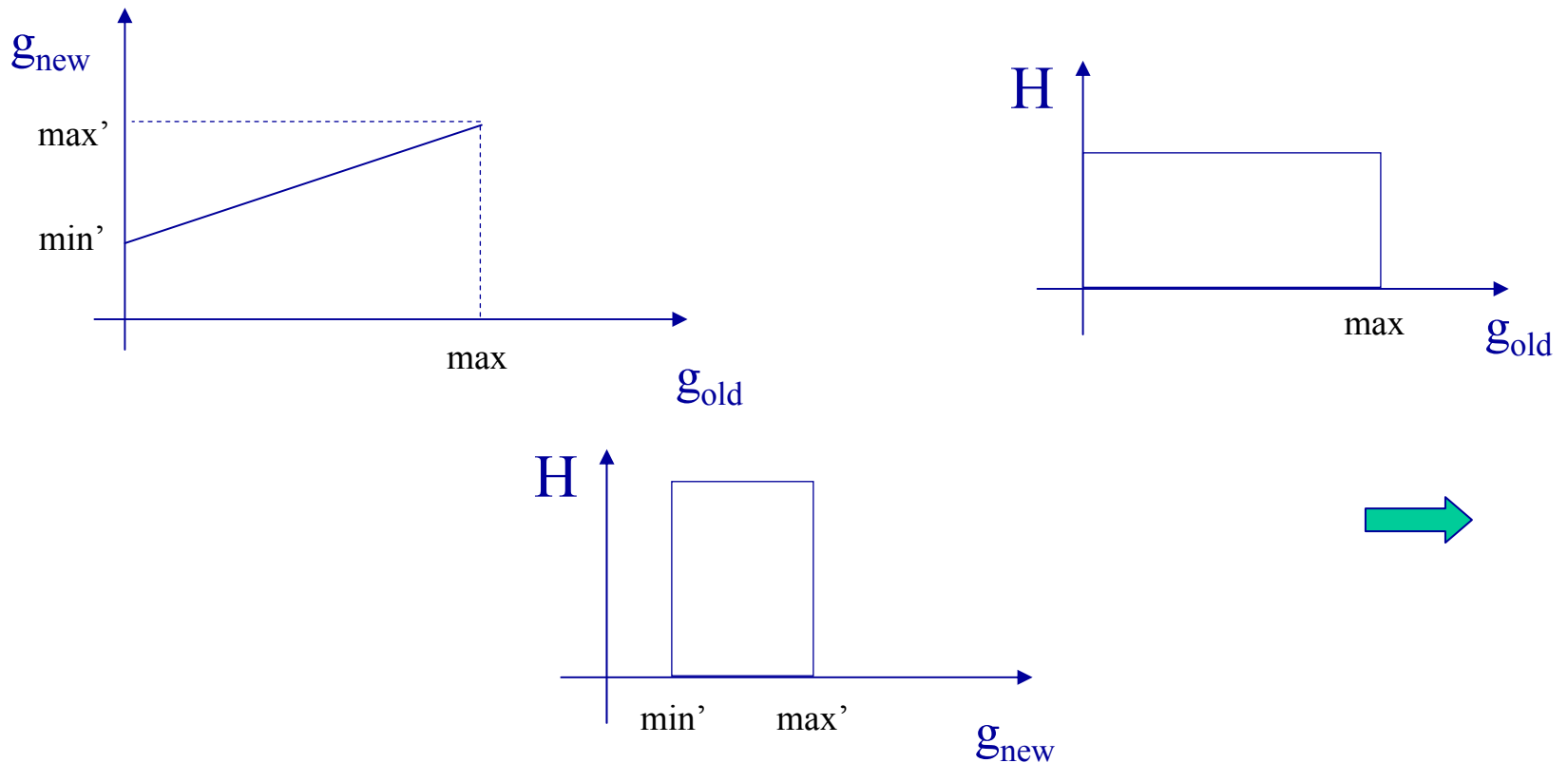


(b) Image background scaling transformation



# Histogram changes

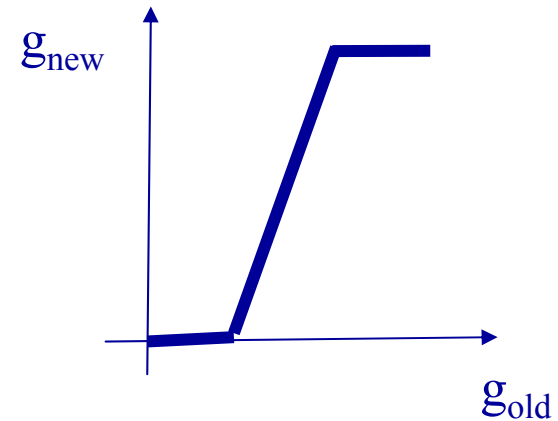
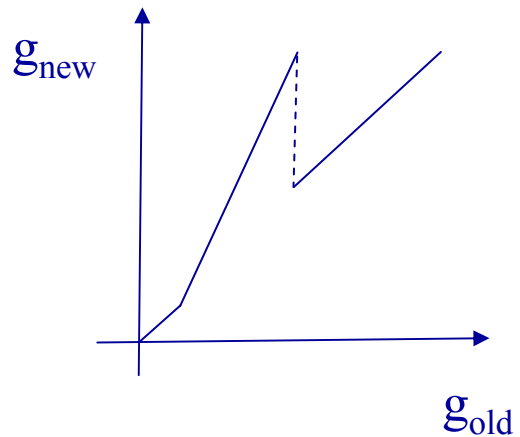
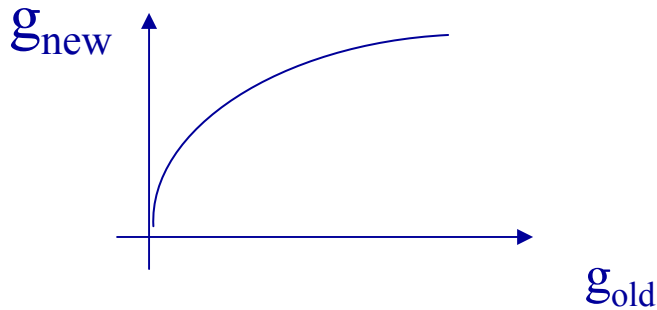
- Graylevel transformations induce histogram changes



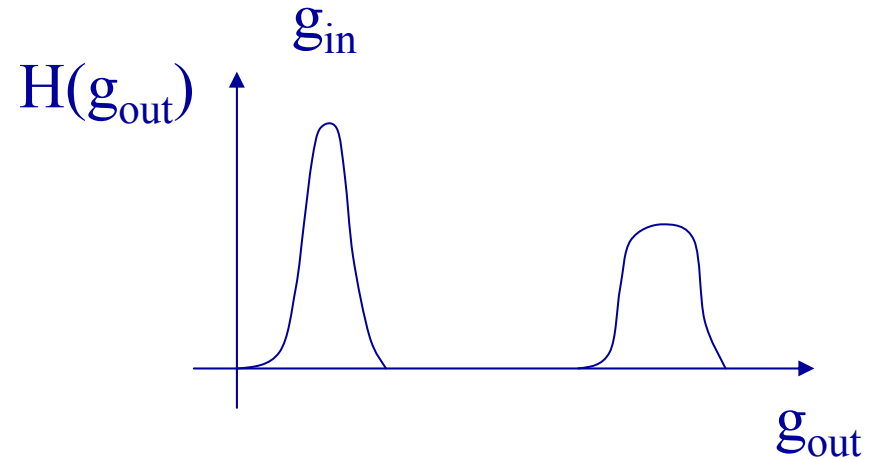
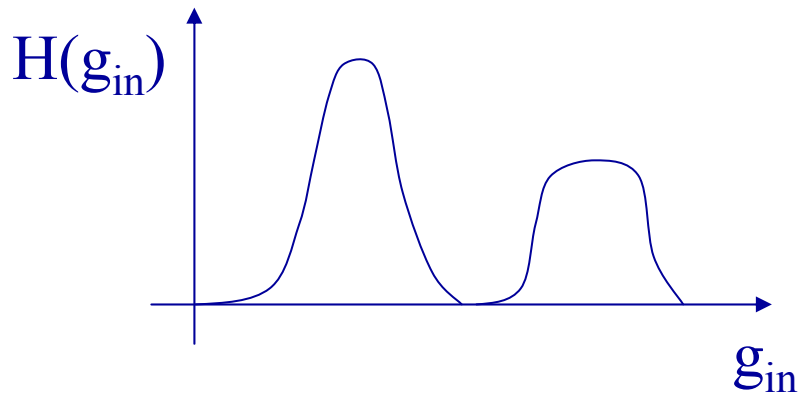
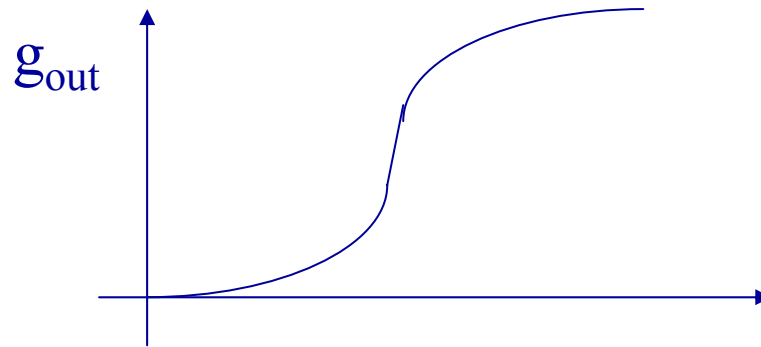
# Other non-linear transformations

- Used to emphasize mid-range levels

$$g_{\text{new}} = g_{\text{old}} + g_{\text{old}} C (g_{\text{old,max}} - g_{\text{old}})$$

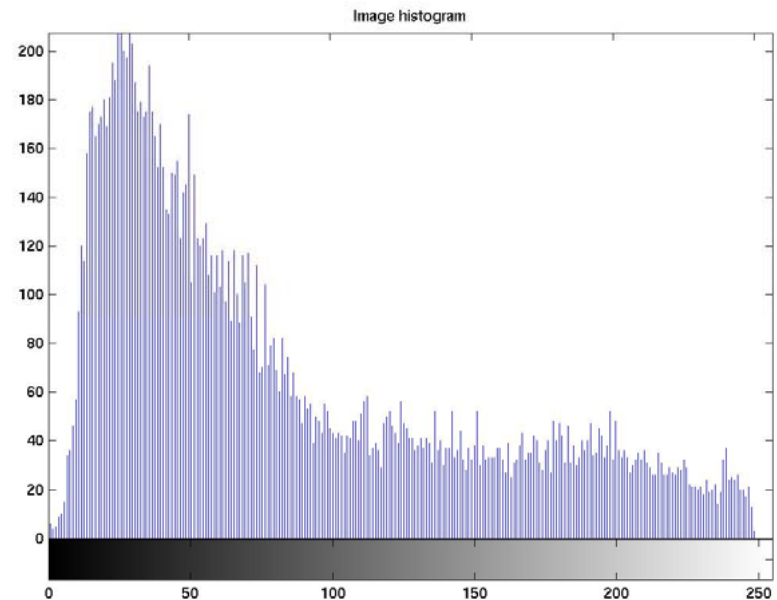


# Sigmoid transformation (*soft thresholding*)



# Pixel-wise: Histogram equalization

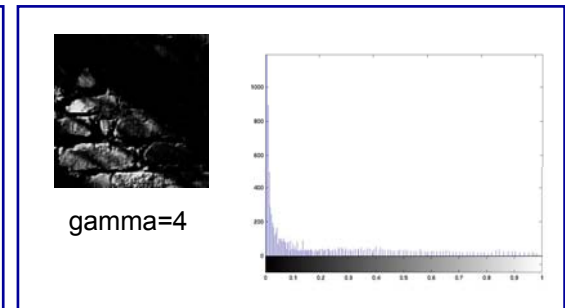
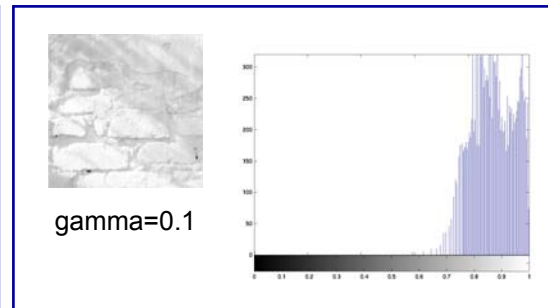
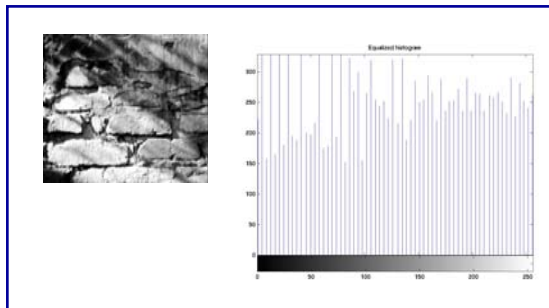
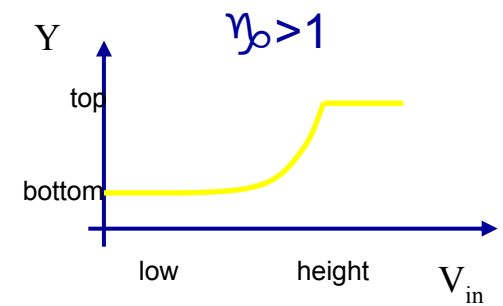
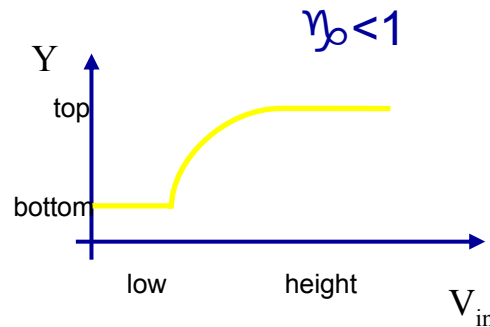
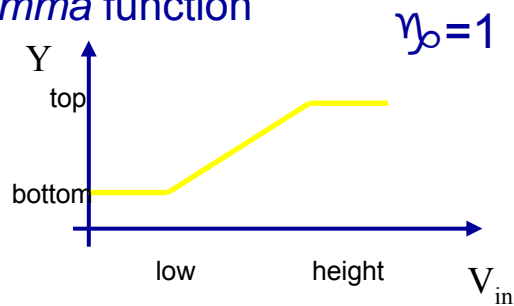
- Pixel features: luminance, color,
- Histogram equalization: shapes the intensity histogram to approximate a specified distribution
  - It is often used for enhancing contrast by shaping the image histogram to a uniform distribution over a given number of grey levels. The grey values are redistributed over the dynamic range to have a constant number of samples in each interval (i.e. histogram bin).
  - Can also be applied to colormaps of color images.



# Histogram equalization

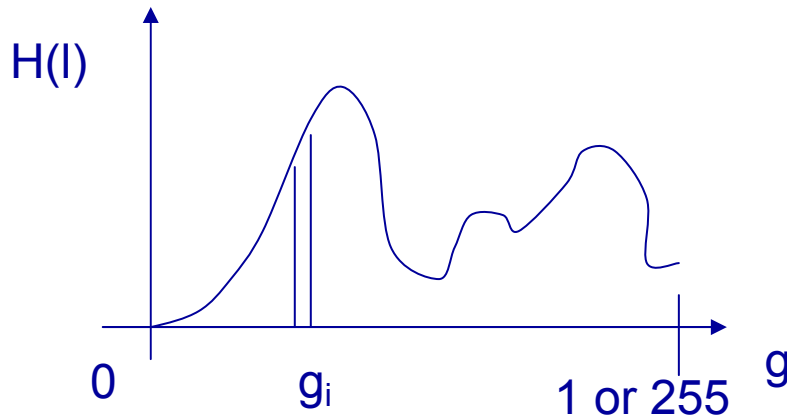
Can be used to compensate the distortions in the gray level distribution due to the non-linearity of a system component

## Gamma function



# Histogram

- Function  $H=H(g)$  indicating the number of pixels having gray-value equal to  $g$ 
  - Non-normalized images:  $0 \leq g \leq 255 \rightarrow \text{bin-size} \geq 1$ , can be integer
  - Normalized images:  $0 \leq g \leq 1 \rightarrow \text{bin-size} < 1$



$$A = \int_0^{\max} H(g) dg$$

area under the curve=number of pixels

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{N_g} H[g_i]$$

In the continuous case

$$H(g) = -\frac{dA(g)}{dg} = \lim_{\Delta g \rightarrow 0} \frac{A(g) - A(g + \Delta g)}{\Delta g}$$

# Histogram transformation

$g_{out} = f(g_{in}) \Rightarrow g_{in} = f^{-1}(g_{out}), \quad f \text{ non-decreasing function}$

$H(g_{in}) \Rightarrow H(g_{out}), \quad \text{namely}$

$$H(g_{out}) = \frac{H[f^{-1}(g_{out})]}{f'[f^{-1}(g_{out})]}, \quad f' = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g}$$

## More formally

- The histogram modification process can be considered to be a monotonic point transformation  $g_d = T\{f_c\}$  for which the input amplitude variable  $f_1 \leq f_c \leq f_C$  is mapped into an output variable  $g_1 \leq g_d \leq g_D$  such that the output probability distribution  $\Pr\{g_d = b_d\}$  follows some desired form for a given input probability distribution  $\Pr\{f_c = a_c\}$  where  $a_c$  and  $b_d$  are reconstruction values of the  $c^{\text{th}}$  and  $d^{\text{th}}$  levels.
  - Clearly, the input and output probability distributions must each sum to unity.

$$\sum_{c=1}^C P_R\{f_c = a_c\} = 1$$

$$\sum_{d=1}^D P_R\{g_d = b_d\} = 1$$

NB: C and D are caps!



# Histogram equalization

- Furthermore, the cumulative distributions must equate for any input index  $c$ .
  - the probability that pixels in the input image have an amplitude less than or equal to  $a_c$  must be equal to the probability that pixels in the output image have amplitude less than or equal to  $b_d$ , where  $b_d = T\{a_c\}$  because the transformation is monotonic. Hence

$$\sum_{n=1}^d P_R\{g_n = b_n\} = \sum_{m=1}^c P_R\{f_m = a_m\} \quad (a)$$

cumulative probability distribution of the output

cumulative probability distribution of the input

$$P_f(f) \approx \sum_{m=1}^c H_F(m)$$

histogram

- in the continuous domain (easier for calculations)

$$\int_{g_{\min}}^g p_g(g) dg = \int_{f_{\min}}^f p_f(f) df$$

$p_f(f)$  and  $p_g(g)$  are the probability densities of  $f$  and  $g$

NB: C and D are lowercase!

# Histogram equalization

cumulative probability distribution of the output

$$(a) \quad \sum_{n=1}^d P_R\{g_n = b_n\} = \sum_{m=1}^c H_F(m) \quad \longrightarrow \quad \int_{g_{\min}}^g p_g(g) dg = P_f(f) \quad (b)$$

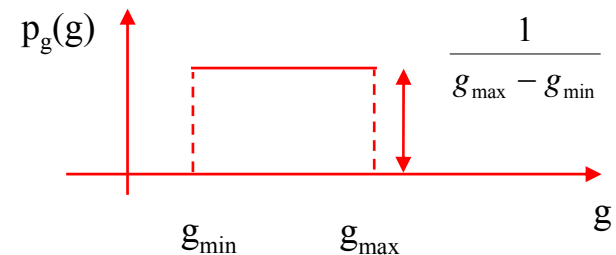
cumulative histogram

When the output density is forced to be the uniform density

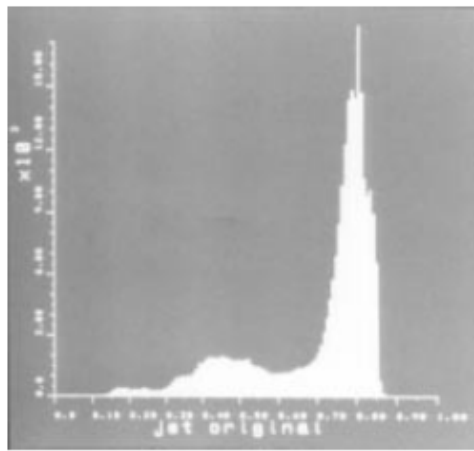
$$p_g(g) = \frac{1}{g_{\max} - g_{\min}} \quad (\text{area}=1)$$

Solving (b) for  $g$  we get the histogram equalization transfer function:

$$g = (g_{\max} - g_{\min})P_f(f) + g_{\min}$$



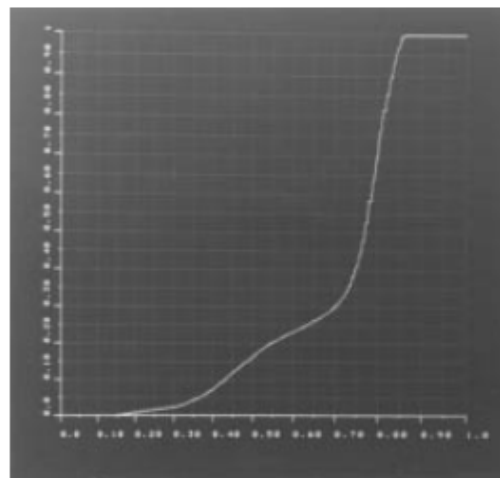
# example



(b) Original histogram



(a) Original



(b) Transfer function



(c) Histogram equalized

# Some mappings

**TABLE 10.2-1. Histogram Modification Transfer Functions**

Output Probability Density Model		Transfer Function <sup>a</sup>
Uniform	$p_g(g) = \frac{1}{g_{\max} - g_{\min}} \quad g_{\min} \leq g \leq g_{\max}$	$g = (g_{\max} - g_{\min})P_f(f) + g_{\min}$
Exponential	$p_g(g) = \alpha \exp\{-\alpha(g - g_{\min})\} \quad g \leq g_{\min}$	$g = g_{\min} - \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln\{1 - P_f(f)\}$
Rayleigh	$p_g(g) = \frac{g - g_{\min}}{\alpha^2} \exp\left\{-\frac{(g - g_{\min})^2}{2\alpha^2}\right\} \quad g \geq g_{\min}$	$g = g_{\min} + \left[2\alpha^2 \ln\left\{\frac{1}{1 - P_f(f)}\right\}\right]^{1/2}$
Hyperbolic (Cube root)	$p_g(g) = \frac{1}{3} \frac{g^{-2/3}}{g_{\max}^{1/3} - g_{\min}^{1/3}}$	$g = \left[g_{\max}^{1/3} - g_{\min}^{1/3}[P_f(f)] + g_{\max}^{1/3}\right]^3$
Hyperbolic (Logarithmic)	$p_g(g) = \frac{1}{g[\ln\{g_{\max}\} - \ln\{g_{\min}\}]}$	$g = g_{\min} \left(\frac{g_{\max}}{g_{\min}}\right)^{P_f(f)}$

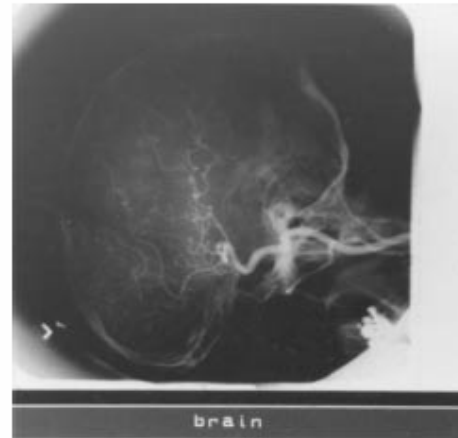
<sup>a</sup>The cumulative probability distribution  $P_f(f)$ , of the input image is approximated by its cumulative histogram:

$$P_f(f) \approx \sum_{m=0}^j H_F(m)$$

# Adaptive hist. equalization

- The mapping function can be made *spatially adaptive* by applying histogram modification to each pixel based on the histogram of pixels *within a moving window neighborhood*.
  - This technique is obviously computationally intensive, as it requires histogram generation, mapping function computation, and mapping function application at each pixel.
  - Some interpolation-based solutions can be envisioned to improve computational efficiency

# example



(a) Original

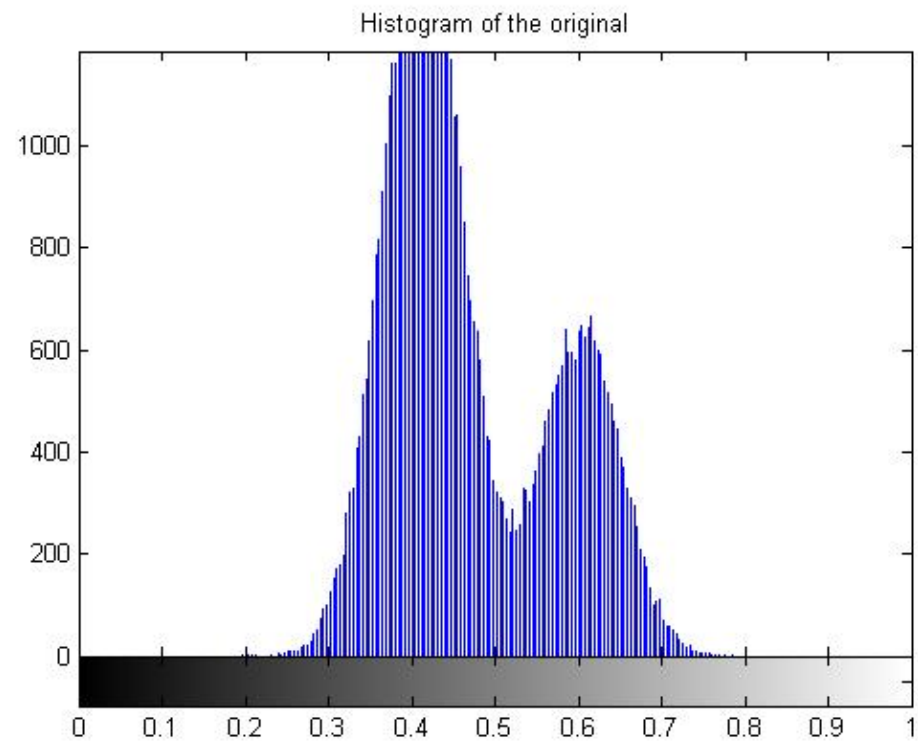
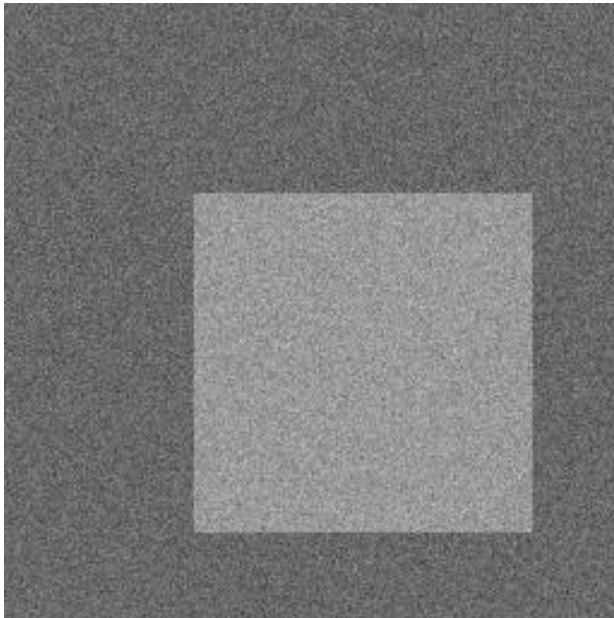


(b) Nonadaptive

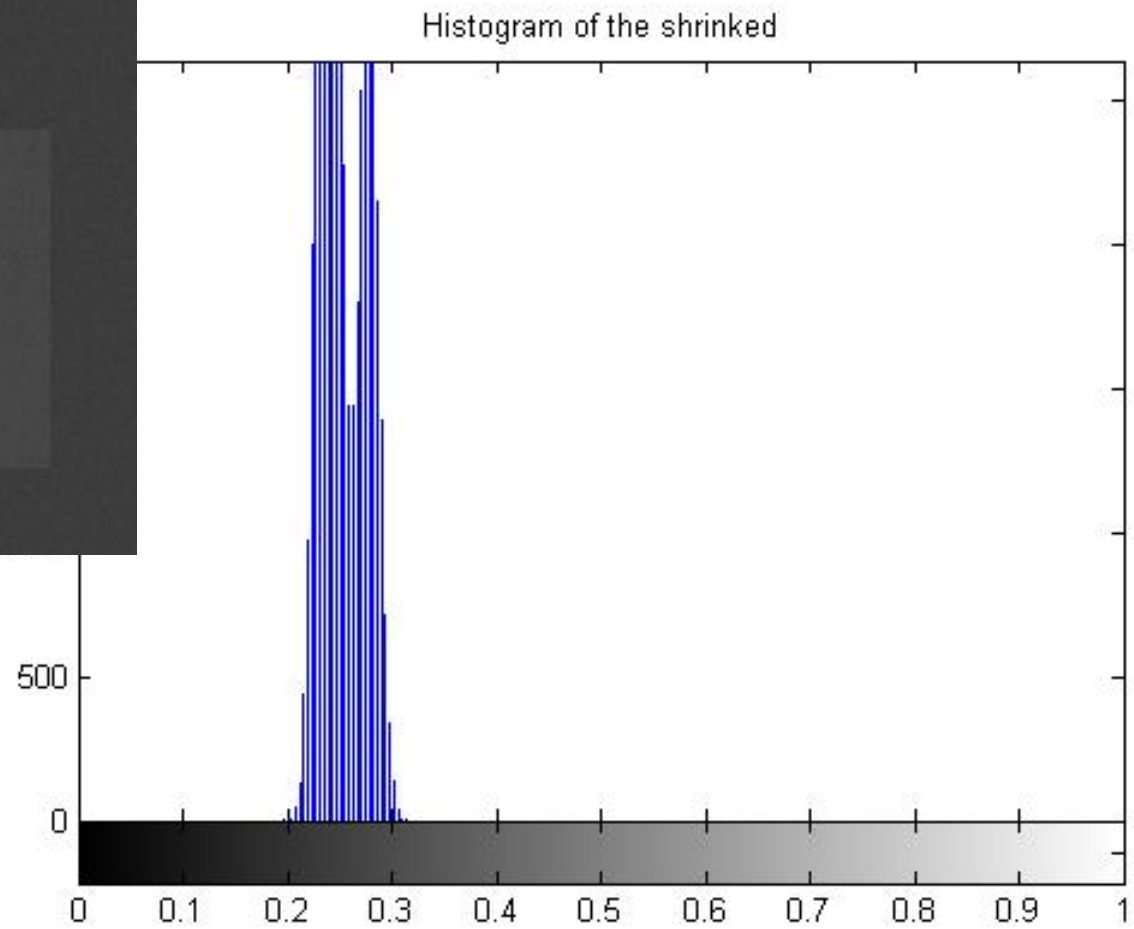
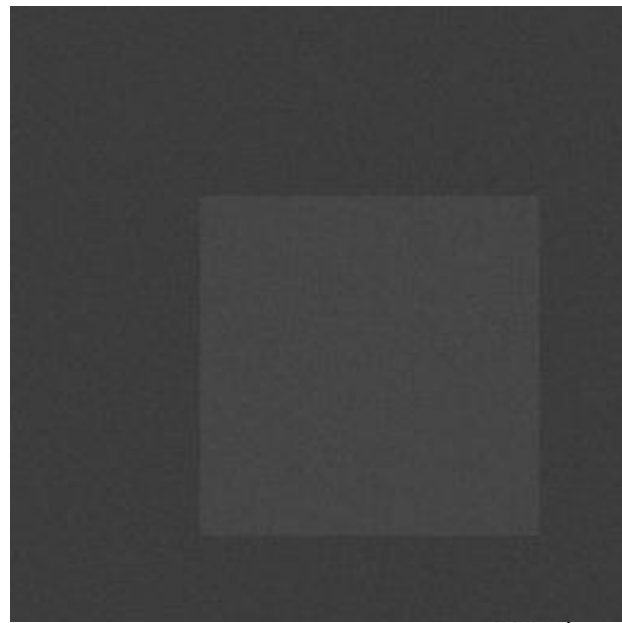


(c) Adaptive

# H. original

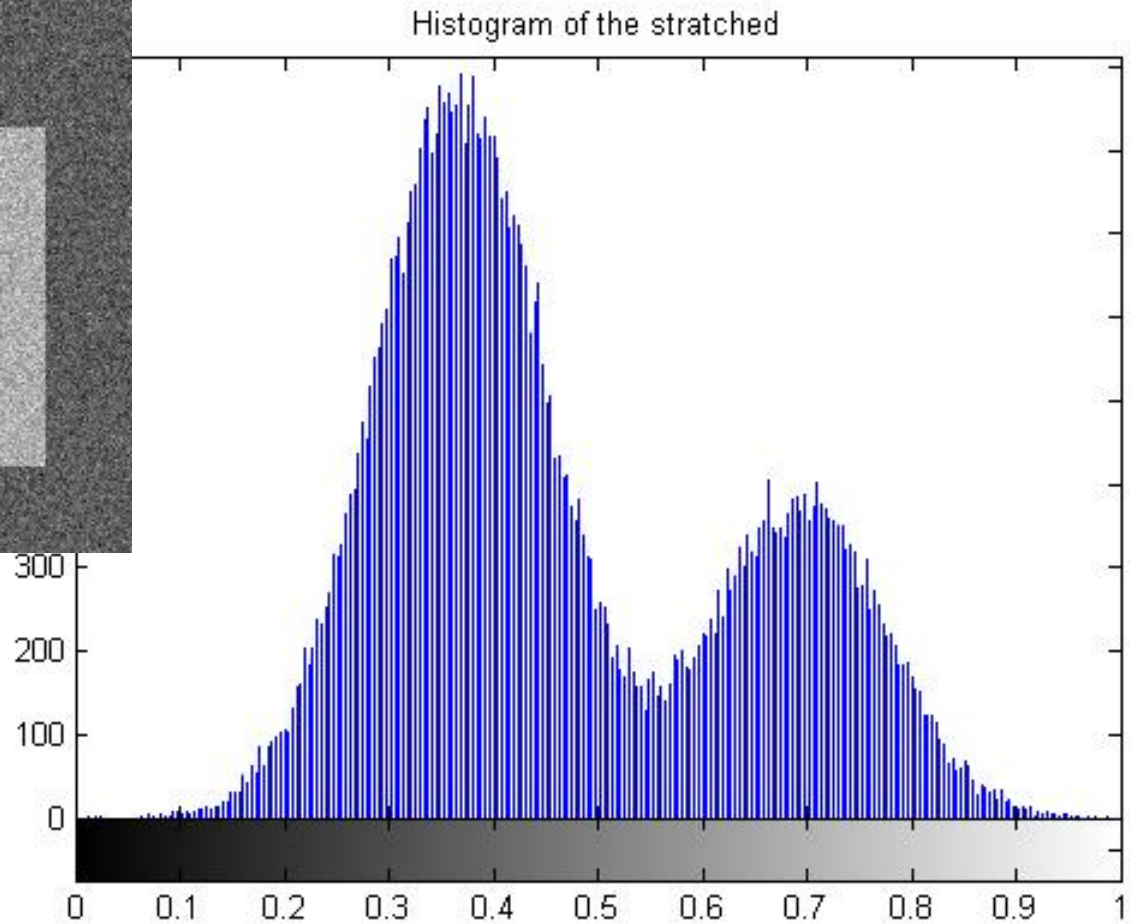
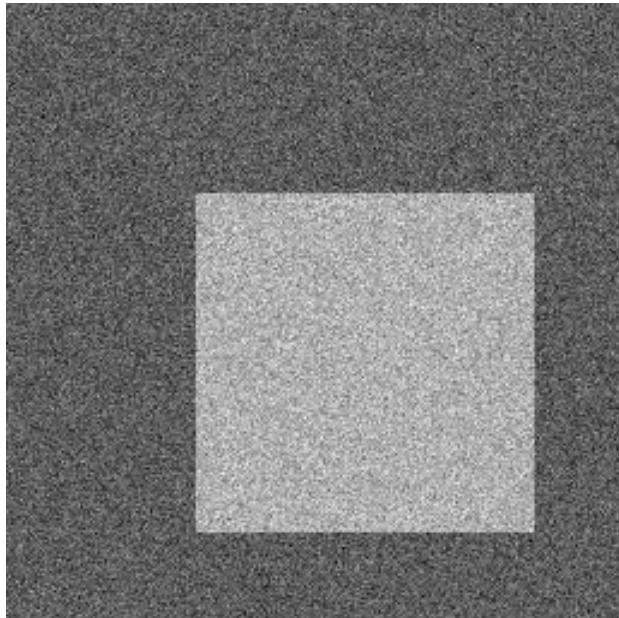


# H. shrunked

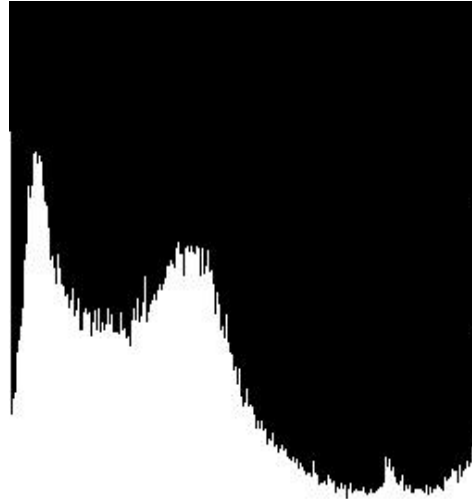




# H. stretched



## H. stratching/shrinking

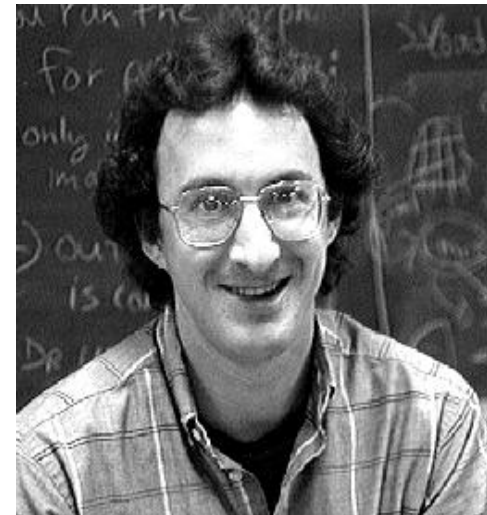
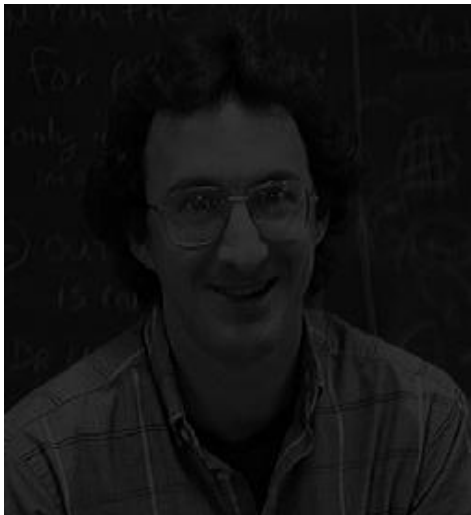


stratching

shrinking



## H. stretching/shrinking

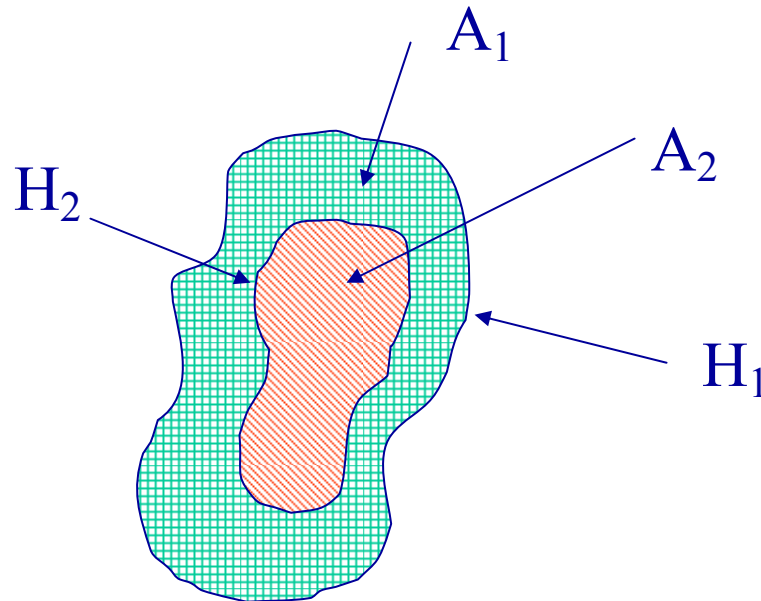






# Example: region-based segmentation

- If the two regions have different graylevel distributions (histograms) then it is possible to split them by exploiting such an information



# Example: region-based segmentation

