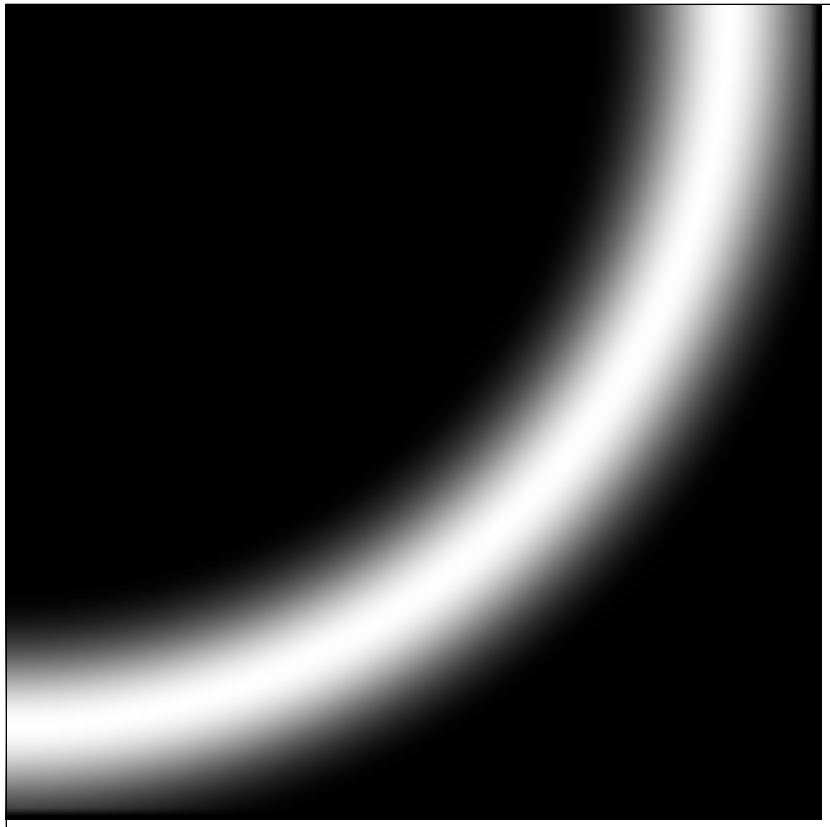
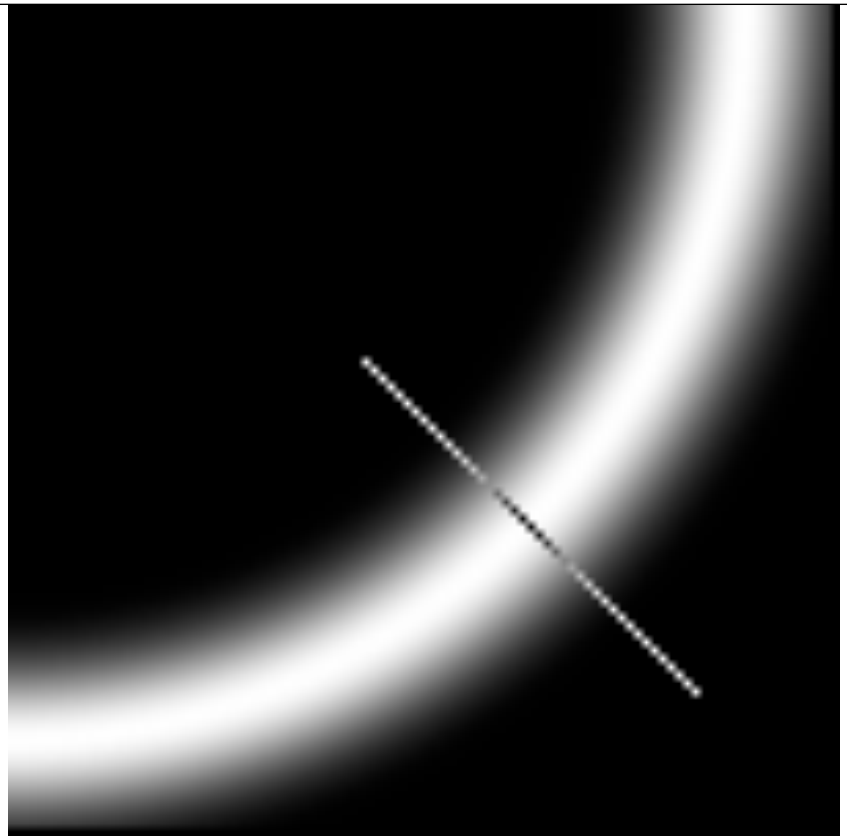
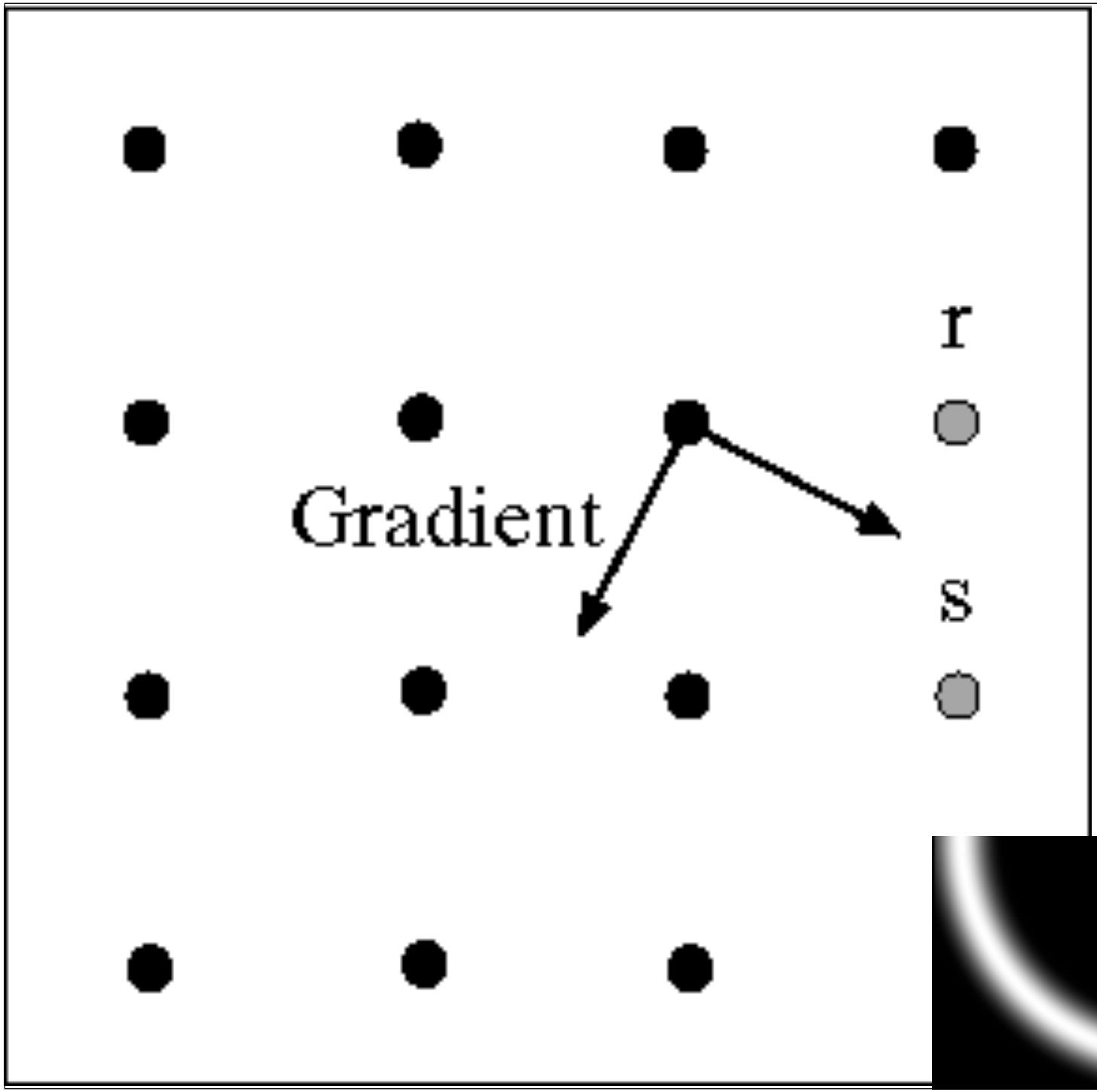




We wish to mark points along the curve where the gradient magnitude is biggest in the gradient direction (best edge points).

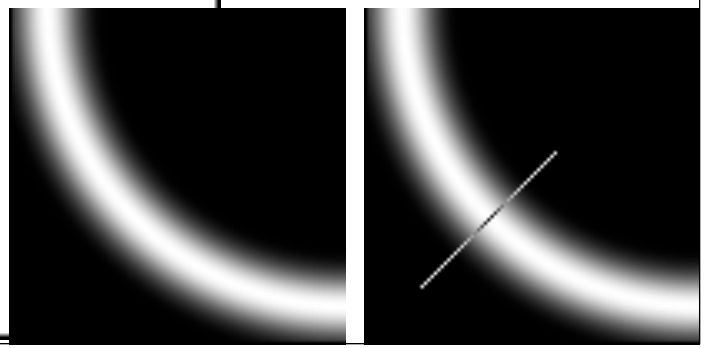
We can do this by looking for a maximum along a slice normal to the curve (non-maximum suppression).

These points should form a curve.



Predicting the next edge point

Assume the marked point is an edge point. Then we construct the tangent to the edge curve (which is normal to the gradient at that point) and use this to predict the next points (here either r or s).



Non-maximal suppression (alg 8.2)

(See book, page 180)

For non-marked points with sufficiently large gradient

Find a maximum along gradient, marking max as edge point, others as non edge.

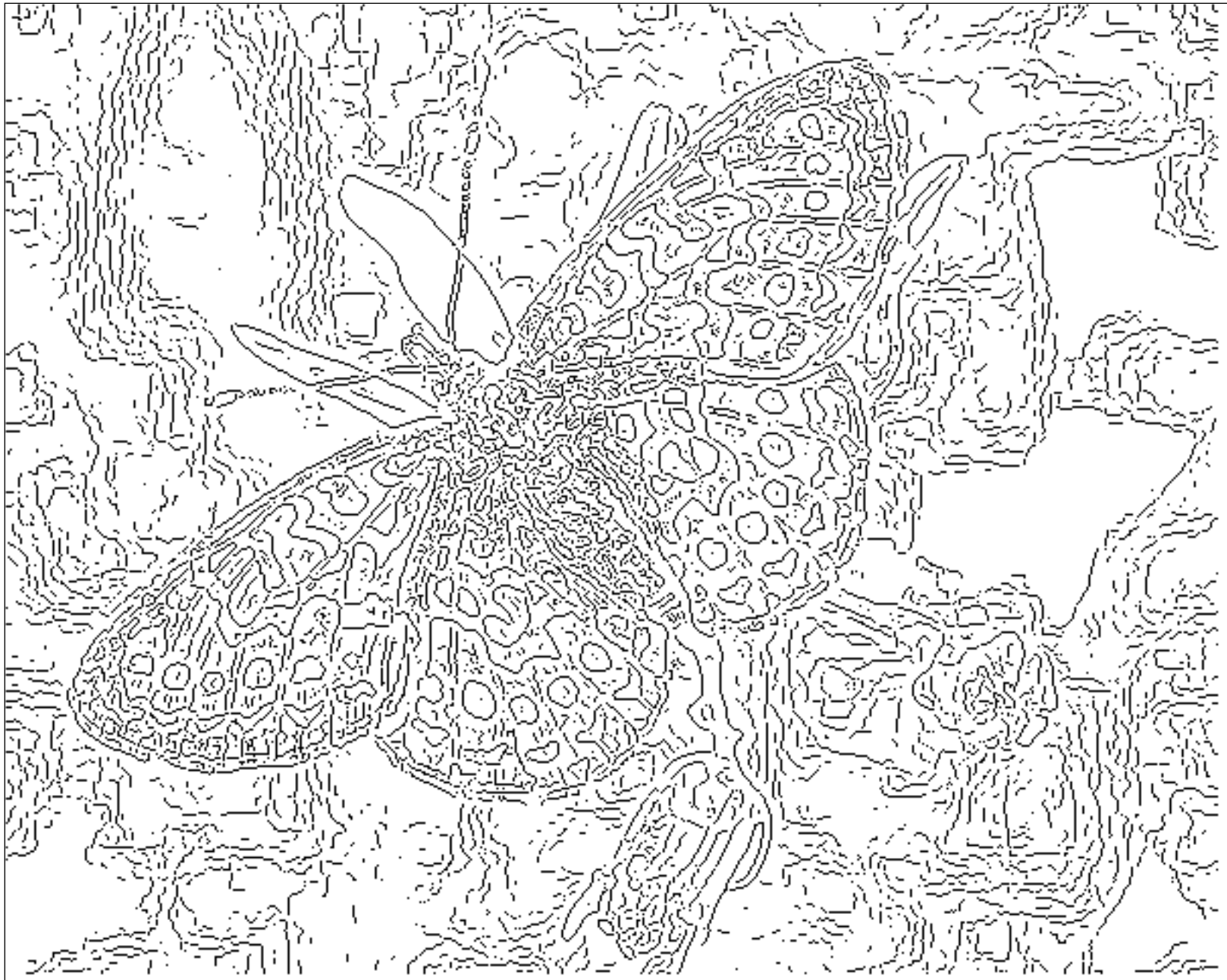
Follow chain by looking perpendicular to gradient for points which are local max in gradient direction, and marking them as edges if their gradient magnitude is big enough, and marking other visited points as non-edge.

Remaining issues

- Check that maximum value of gradient value is sufficiently large
  - **hysteresis** method
    - use a high threshold to start edge curves and a low threshold to continue them.

Difficulties

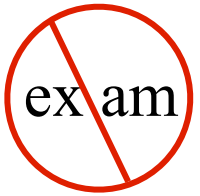
- Theory does not really match what happens at corners and edge detectors often do badly at them.
- Edges aren't bounding contours (this is the hard part!)
- Scale affects contrast. Typically one analyzes images at different scales to find different structures.



fine scale
high
threshold

coarse scale, high threshold

coarse
scale
low
threshold



Fourier methods

- Brief exposure. We don't have time to go into this topic fully!
- Fourier methods give insight into image processing.
- Interesting example of representing images as signals and signals as being represented as a linear combination of basis signals
- Provides a principled way to think about reversing the effect of a convolution (e.g., deblurring).
- Provides a way to speed up convolution (depending on the work flow).

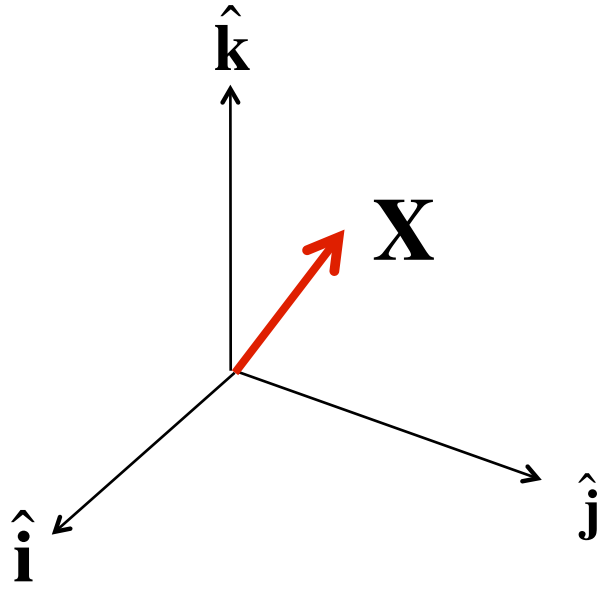
Change of Basis

Recall that $\mathbf{X}=(x_i,x_j,x_k)$ means that

$$\mathbf{X} = x_i\hat{\mathbf{i}} + x_j\hat{\mathbf{j}} + x_k\hat{\mathbf{k}}$$

Note that

$$x_i = \mathbf{X}\bullet\hat{\mathbf{i}} \qquad x_j = \mathbf{X}\bullet\hat{\mathbf{j}} \qquad x_k = \mathbf{X}\bullet\hat{\mathbf{k}}$$



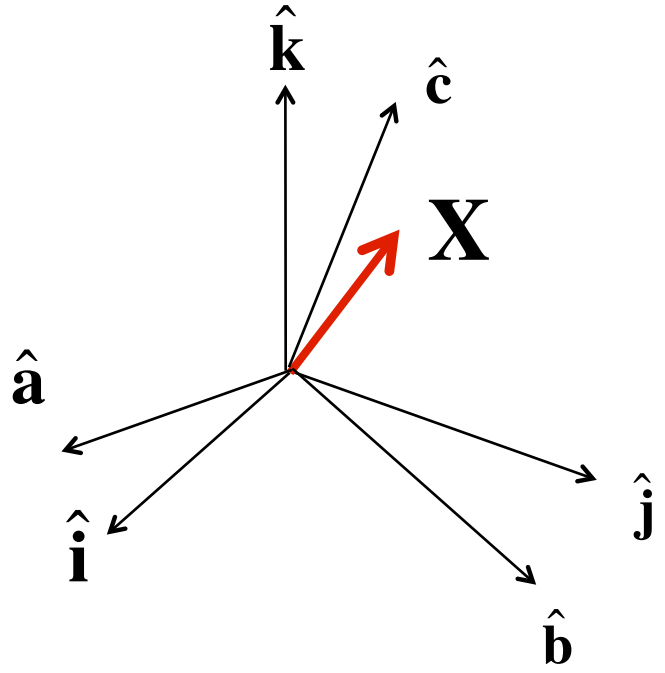
Change of Basis

Suppose that we want to express **X** relative to a different basis.

$$\mathbf{X} = x_a \hat{\mathbf{a}} + x_b \hat{\mathbf{b}} + x_c \hat{\mathbf{c}}$$

Again,

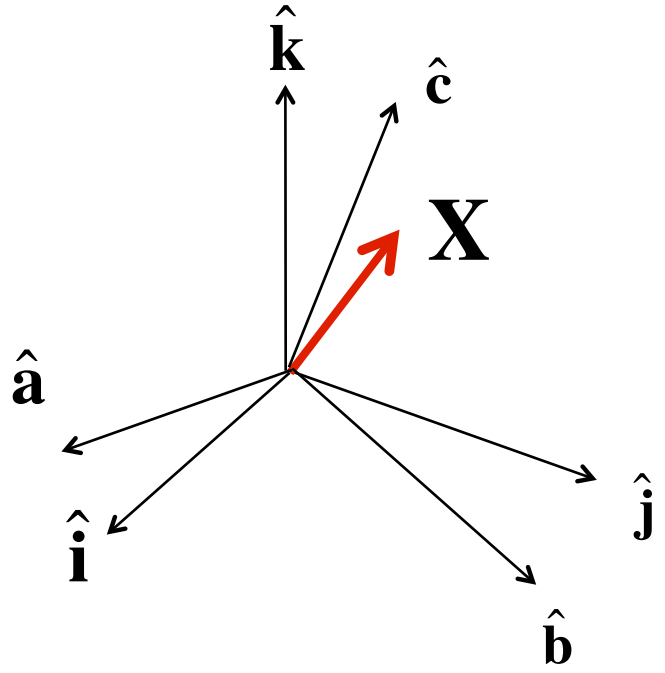
$$x_a = \mathbf{X} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{a}} \qquad x_b = \mathbf{X} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{b}} \qquad x_c = \mathbf{X} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{c}}$$



Change of Basis

$$x_a = \mathbf{X} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{a}}$$
$$= x_i \hat{\mathbf{i}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{a}} + x_j \hat{\mathbf{j}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{a}} + x_k \hat{\mathbf{k}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{a}}$$
$$= (x_i,\ x_j\ \ x_k) \bullet (\hat{\mathbf{i}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{a}},\ \hat{\mathbf{j}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{a}},\ \hat{\mathbf{k}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{a}})$$

(Similarly for b and c)



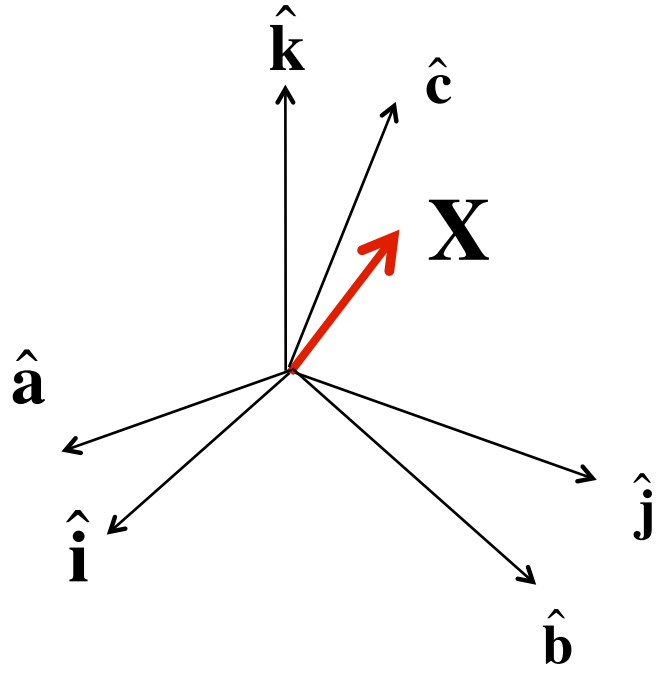
So, the change of basis can be done by a matrix multiplication

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_a \\ x_b \\ x_c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{i}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{a}} & \hat{\mathbf{j}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{a}} & \hat{\mathbf{k}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{a}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{i}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{b}} & \hat{\mathbf{j}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{b}} & \hat{\mathbf{k}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{b}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{i}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{c}} & \hat{\mathbf{j}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{c}} & \hat{\mathbf{k}} \bullet \hat{\mathbf{c}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_i \\ x_j \\ x_k \end{pmatrix}$$

Change of Basis

Main points for what follows

- We can express a vector with respect to many bases
- Typically we assume that the bases are orthogonal (most useful).
- We get the weights (coordinates) by dot products of the vector with the basis vectors



Dot (inner) product for functions

Similar to dot products, an inner product over functions looks like:

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(t) \bullet \overline{g}(t)\, dt$$

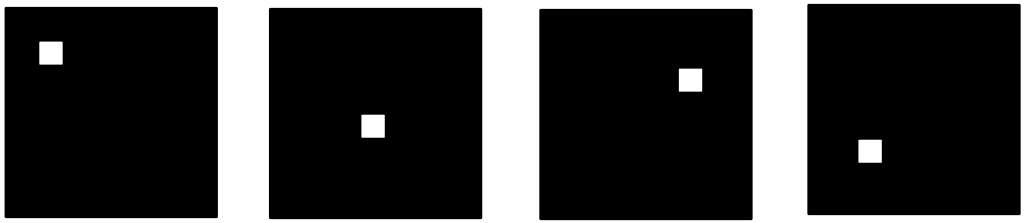
Important example

$\langle \cos(jt), \cos(kt) \rangle = 0$ (for the range $[-\pi, \pi]$, with j and k different integers)

(Similarly for sin())

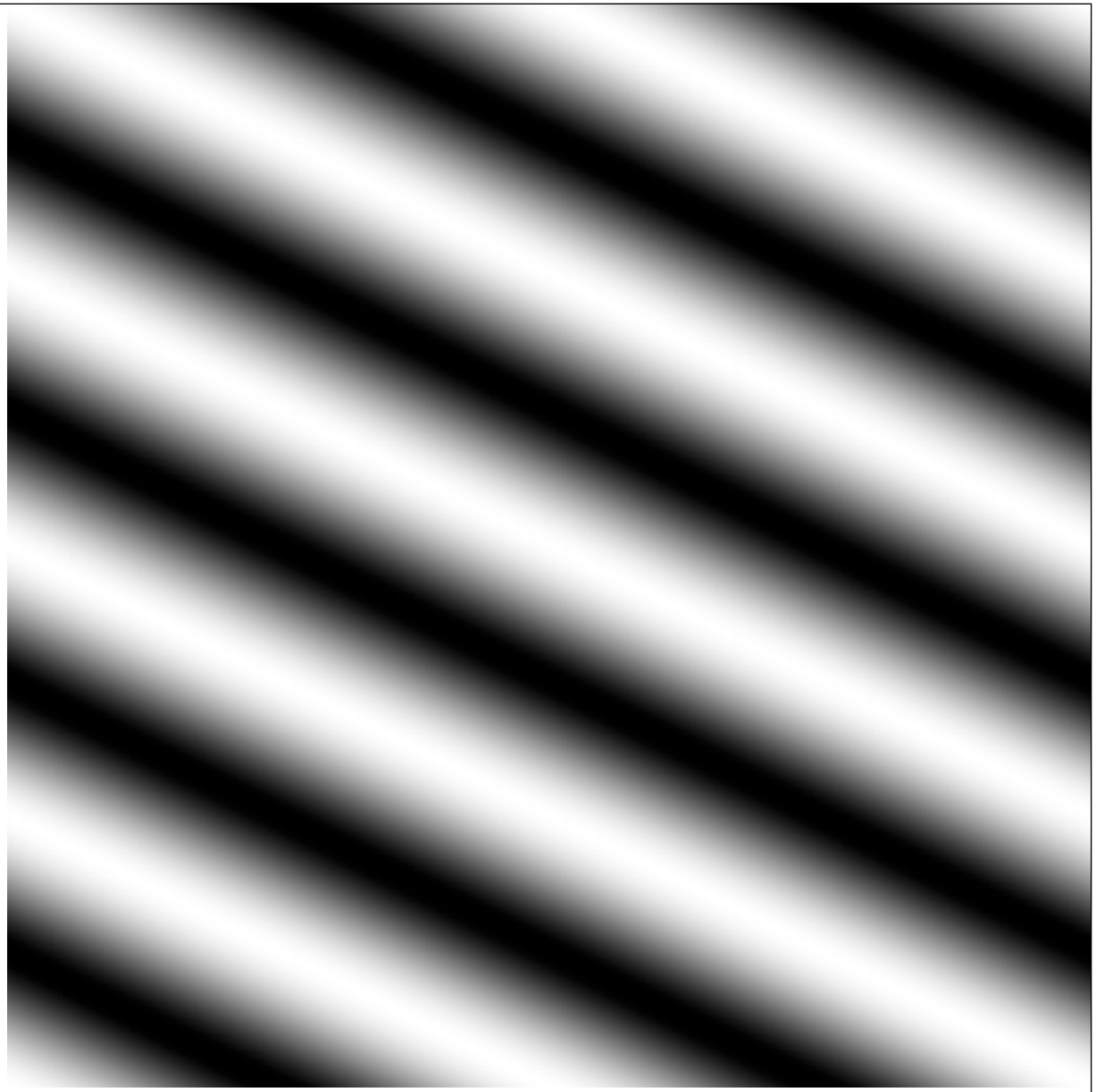
Bases for Images

- Represent function (image) with respect to a new basis
  - Think of functions (images) as vectors with many components
  - This means that they are a weighted sum (linear combination) of basis vectors
  - We can represent the same entity as a linear combination over sets of different basis vectors
  - The usual form the basis vectors are box(i,j) (discrete) or delta functions (continuous).



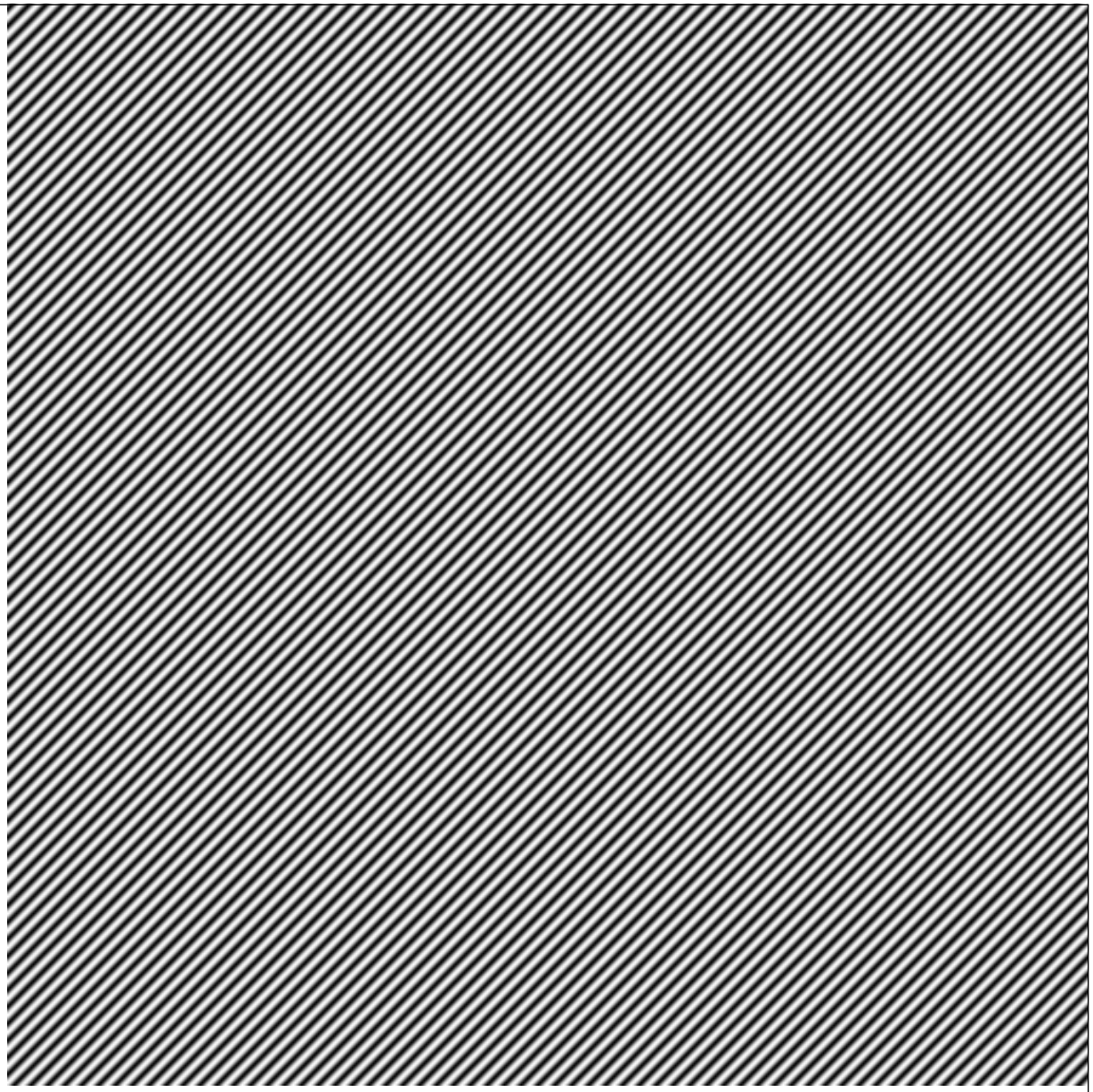
  - In Fourier analysis, the basis vectors are **sinusoids**

Example 2D Fourier basis function



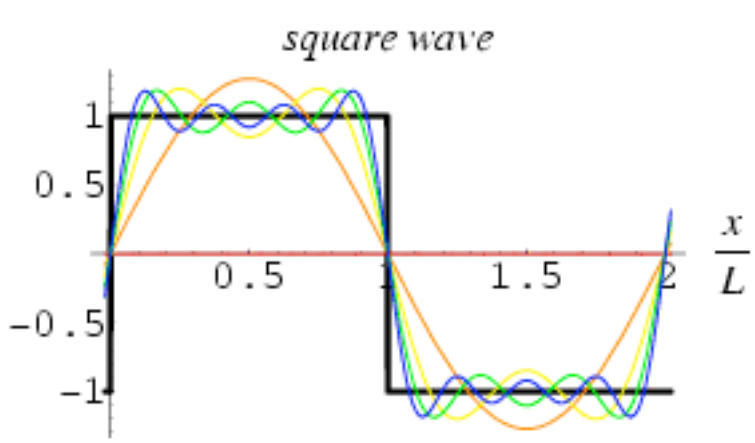
Another example

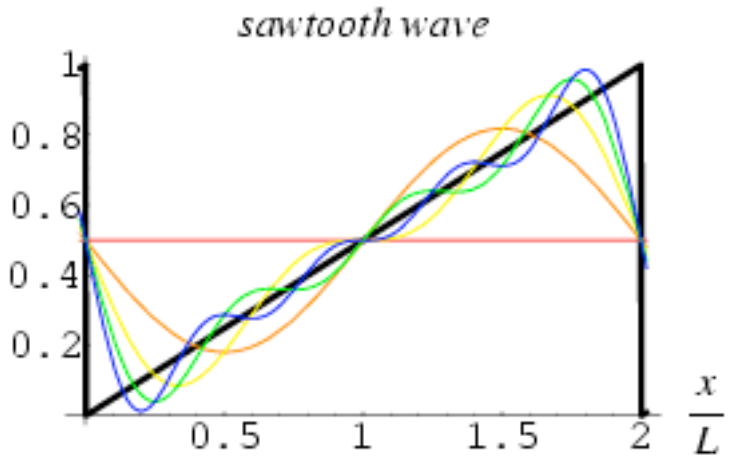
Yet another

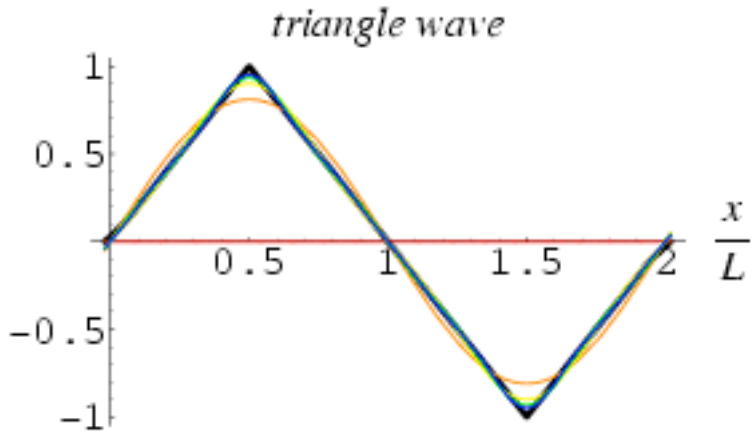


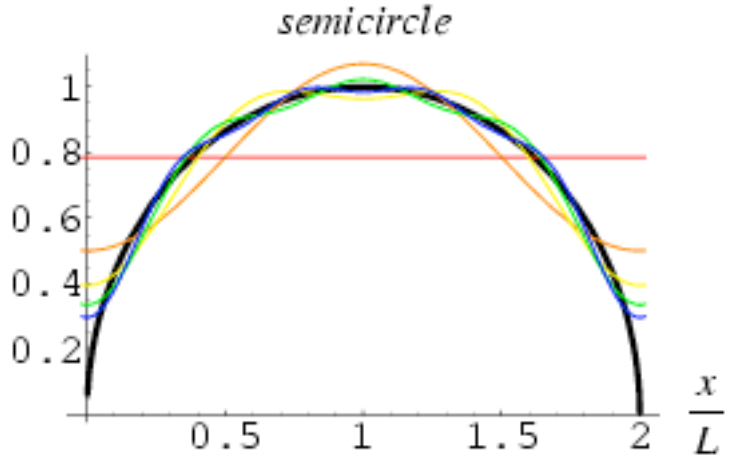
Introduction to Fourier methods

- A periodic function (vector) can be decomposed into a sum of sines and cosines
- Sines and cosines are **orthogonal**
- This forms a new basis for the function (vector)







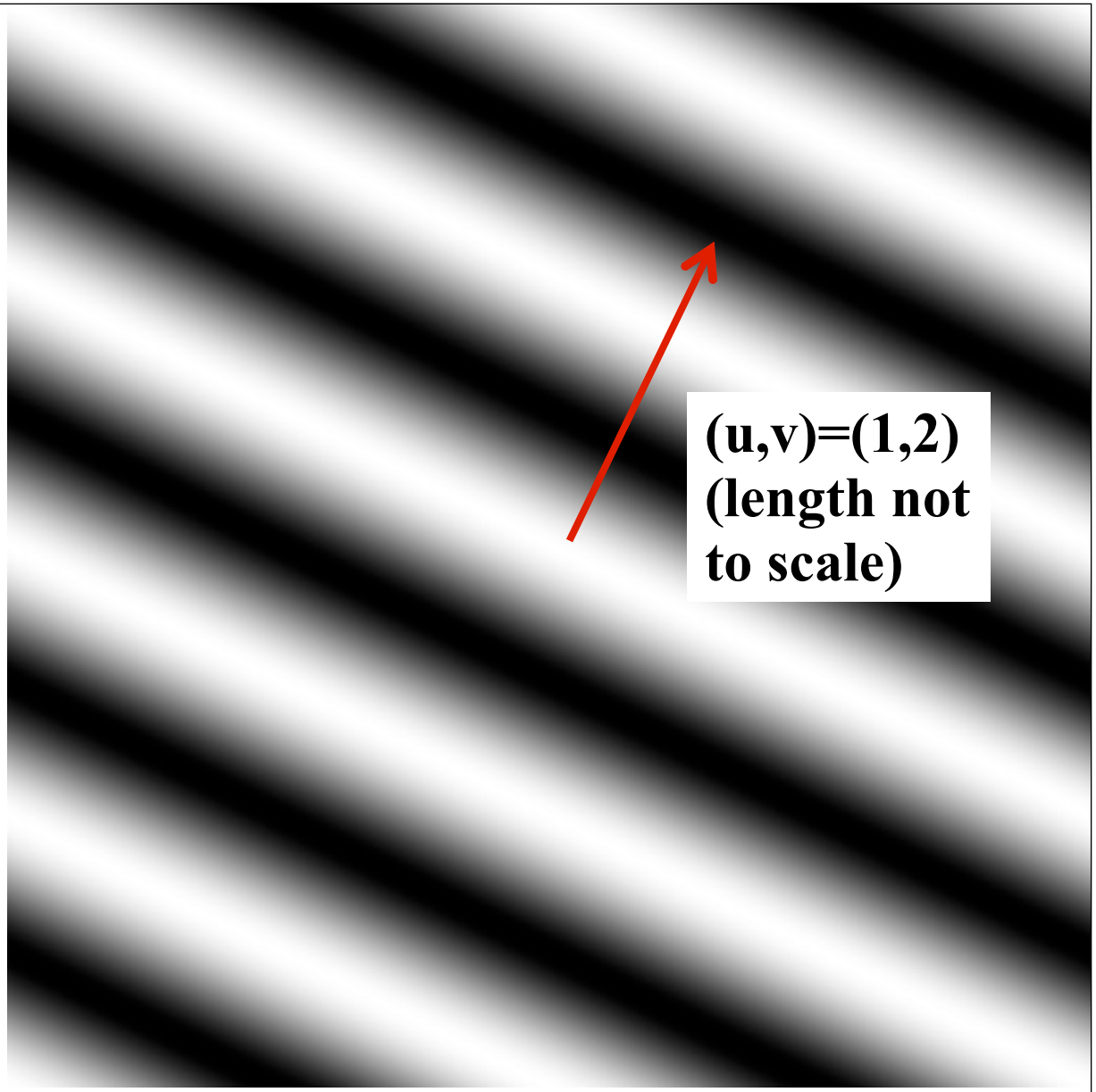


http://mathworld.wolfram.com/FourierSeries.html

The 2D Fourier Transform

- Need both sines and cosines (in the general case)
- In 1D the frequency (a single number) tells us which sine (or cosine)
- In 2D we have frequency and orientation (period and direction)
- Encode these with a pair of numbers, (u,v)

To get some sense of what basis elements look like, we plot a basis element --- or rather, its real part --- as a function of x,y for some fixed u, v. We get a function that is constant when (ux+vy) is constant. The magnitude of the vector (u, v) gives a frequency, and its direction gives an orientation. The function is a sinusoid with this frequency along the direction, and constant perpendicular to the direction.



The 2D Fourier Transform

- We use complex numbers for convenient representation
- Recall that $e^{i\theta} = \cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)$
- We use the basis functions

$$e^{-i2\pi(ux+vy)} = \cos(2\pi(ux+vy)) - i\sin(2\pi(ux+vy))$$

- (u,v) gives the frequency and orientation of the sinusoids

Phase and Magnitude

- Fourier transform of a real function is complex valued
  - transform of image becomes two images (real and imaginary part)
  - difficult to understand the images
  - instead, we can think of the phase and magnitude of the transform

- z = a + bi
  - Phase angle: theta=arctan(b/a)
  - Magnitude: |z|=sqrt(a^2 + b^2)

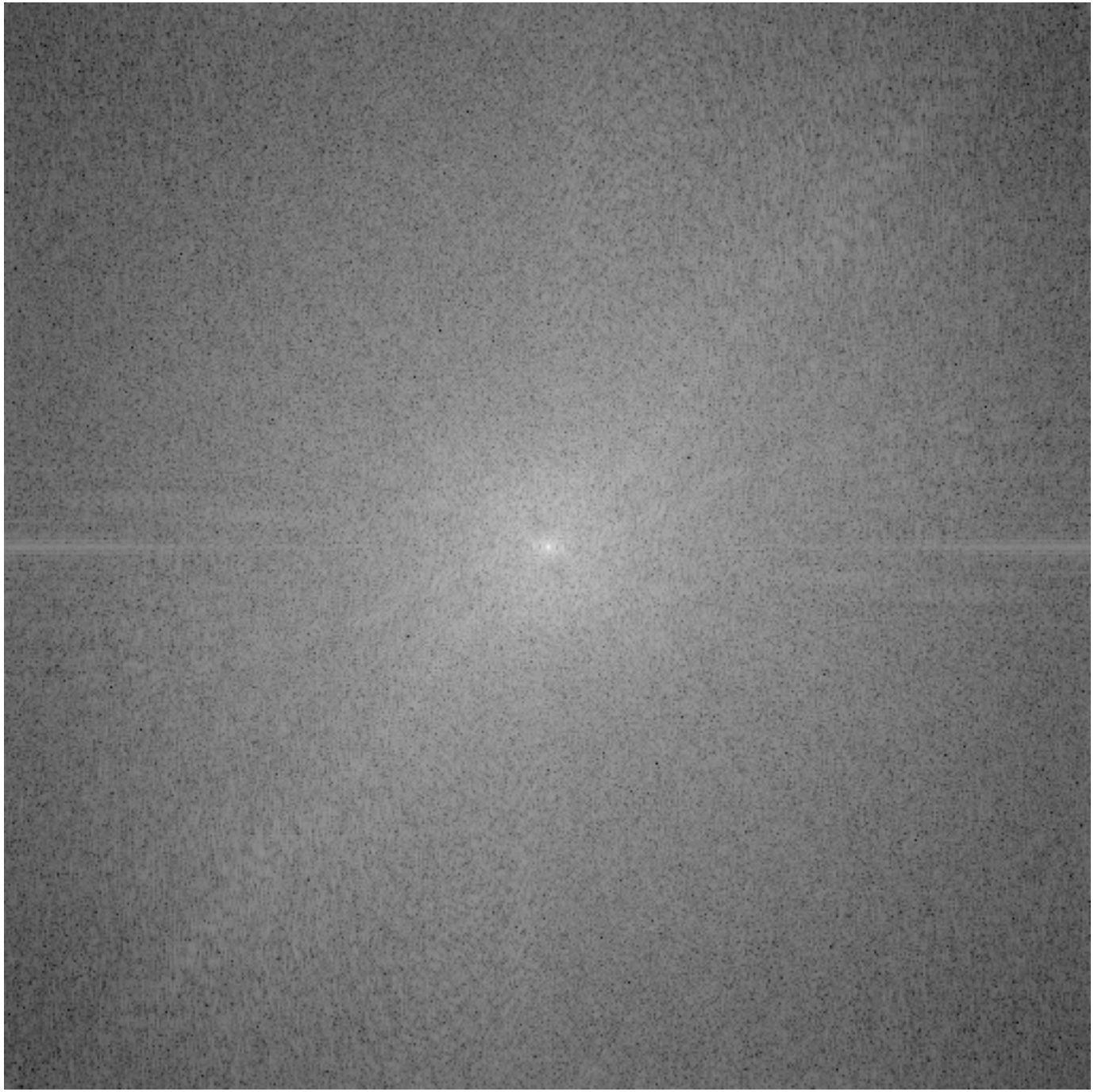
- Magnitude combines both cosine (real) and sine (imaginary) terms
  - Large magnitude means large energy for that (u,v)

- Phase is the relation between with cosine and sine terms

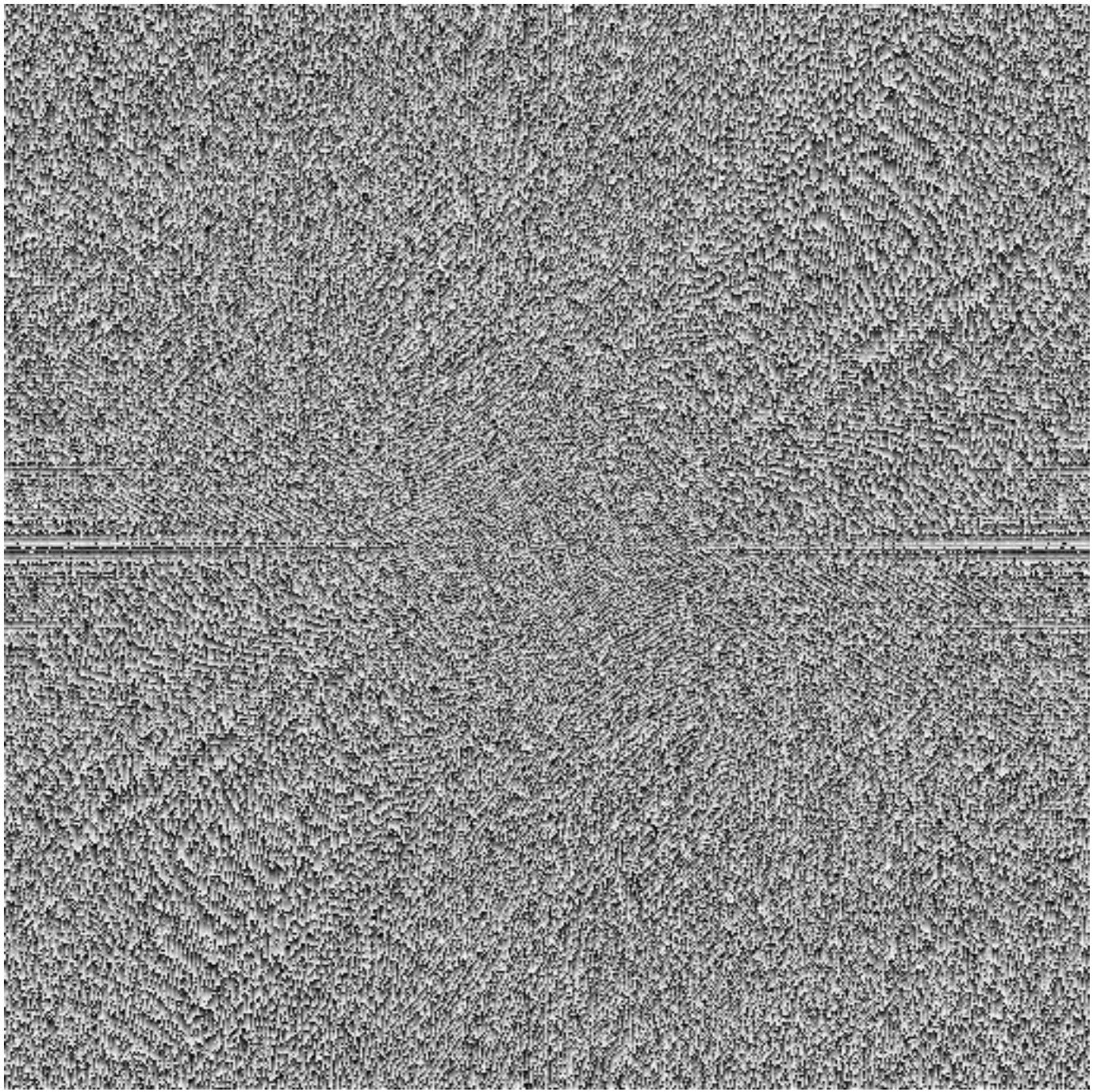
Phase and Magnitude

- Curious fact
  - all natural images have about the same magnitude transform
  - hence, phase seems to matter, but magnitude largely doesn't
- Demonstration
  - Take two pictures, swap the phase transforms, compute the inverse - what does the result look like?

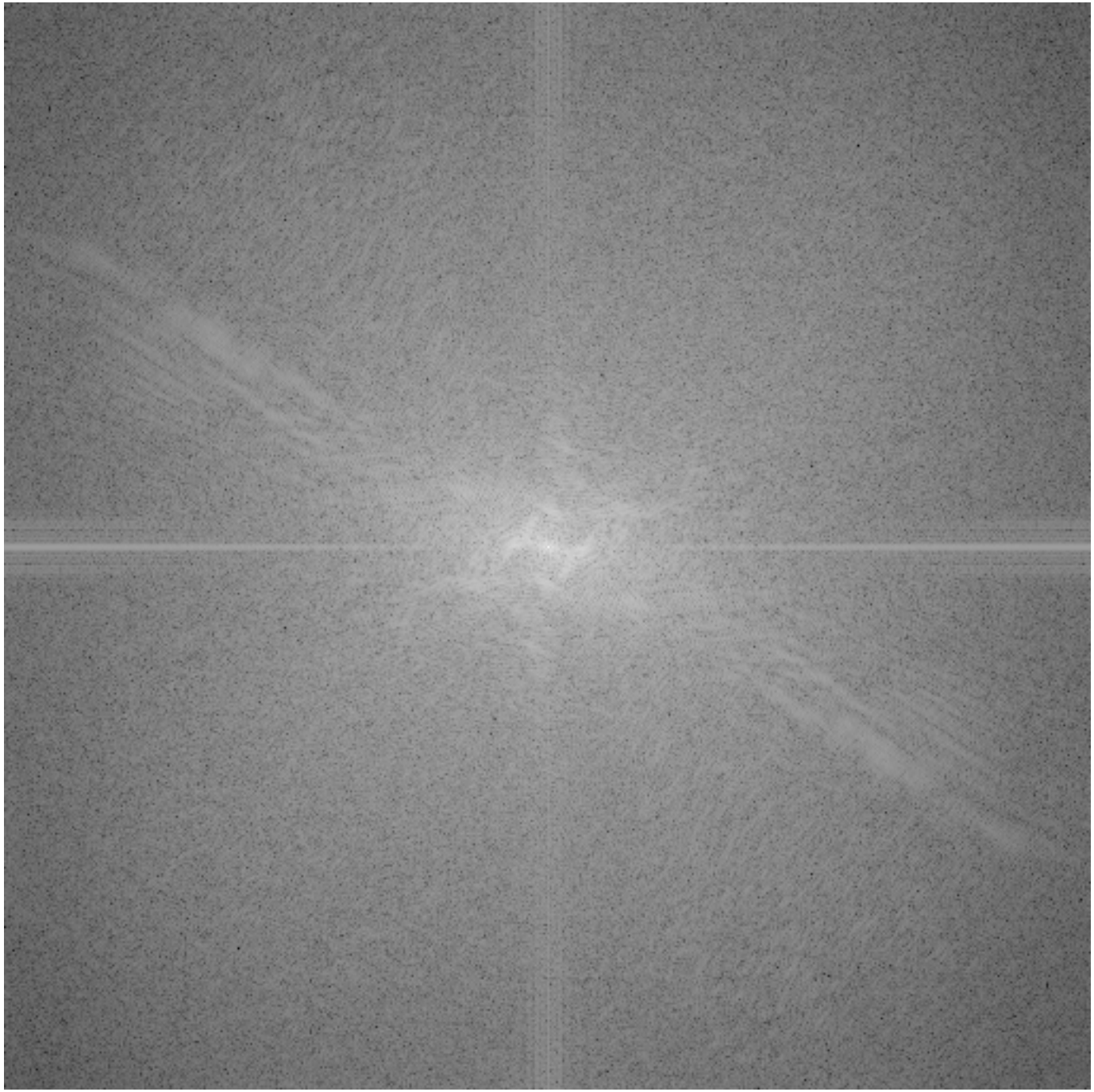
This is the magnitude transform of the cheetah pic



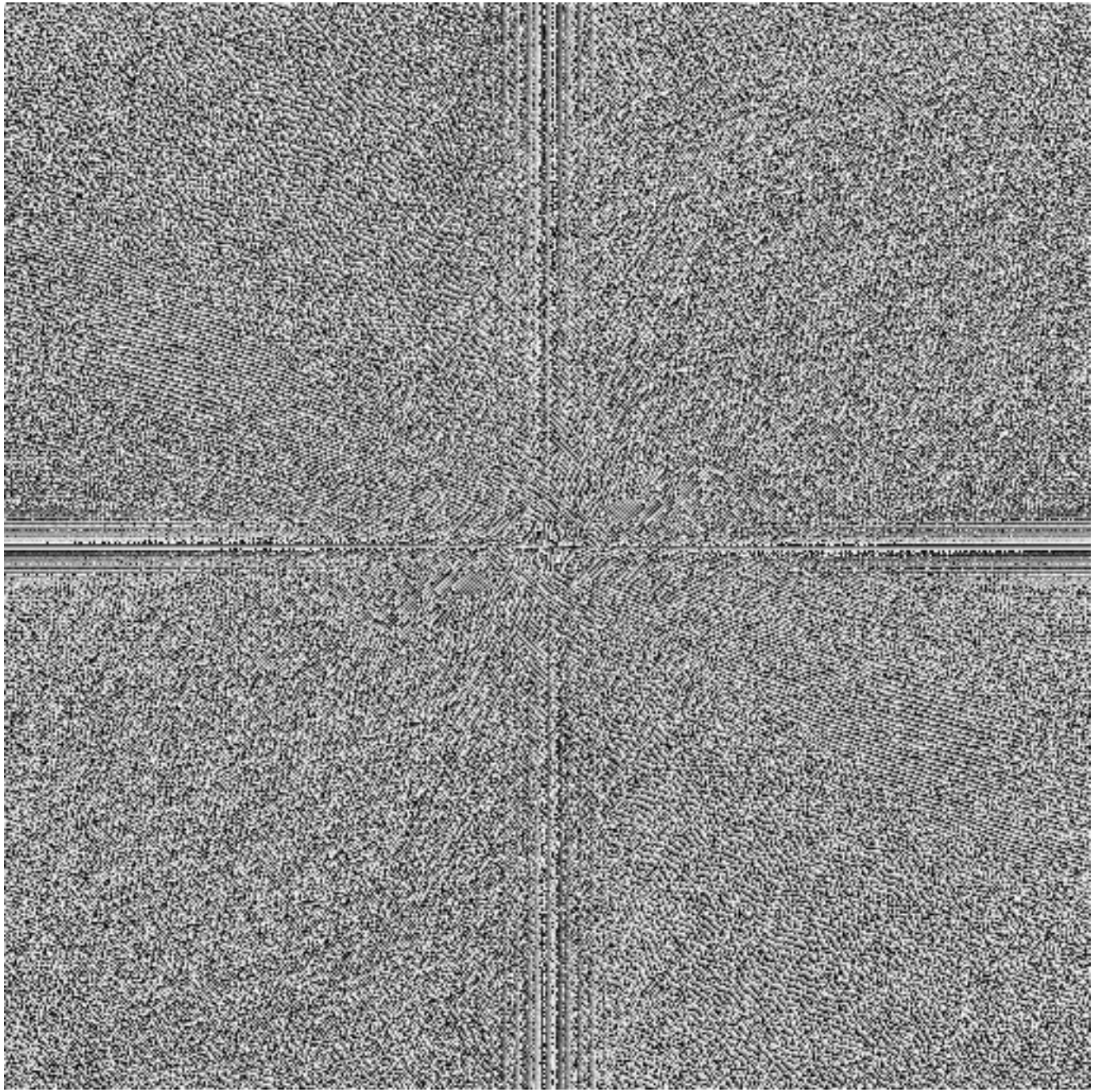
This is the phase transform of the cheetah pic



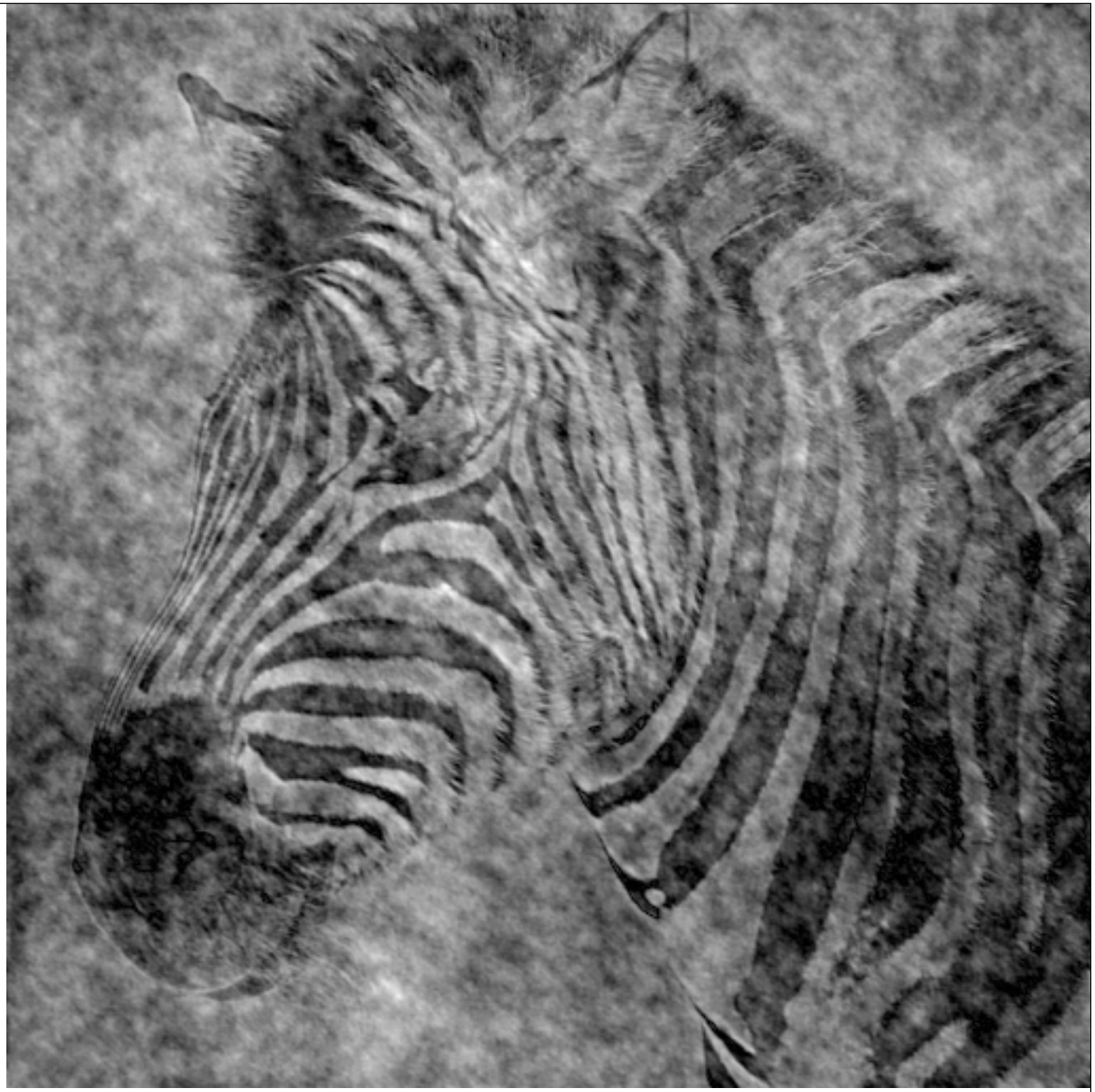
This is the magnitude transform of the zebra pic



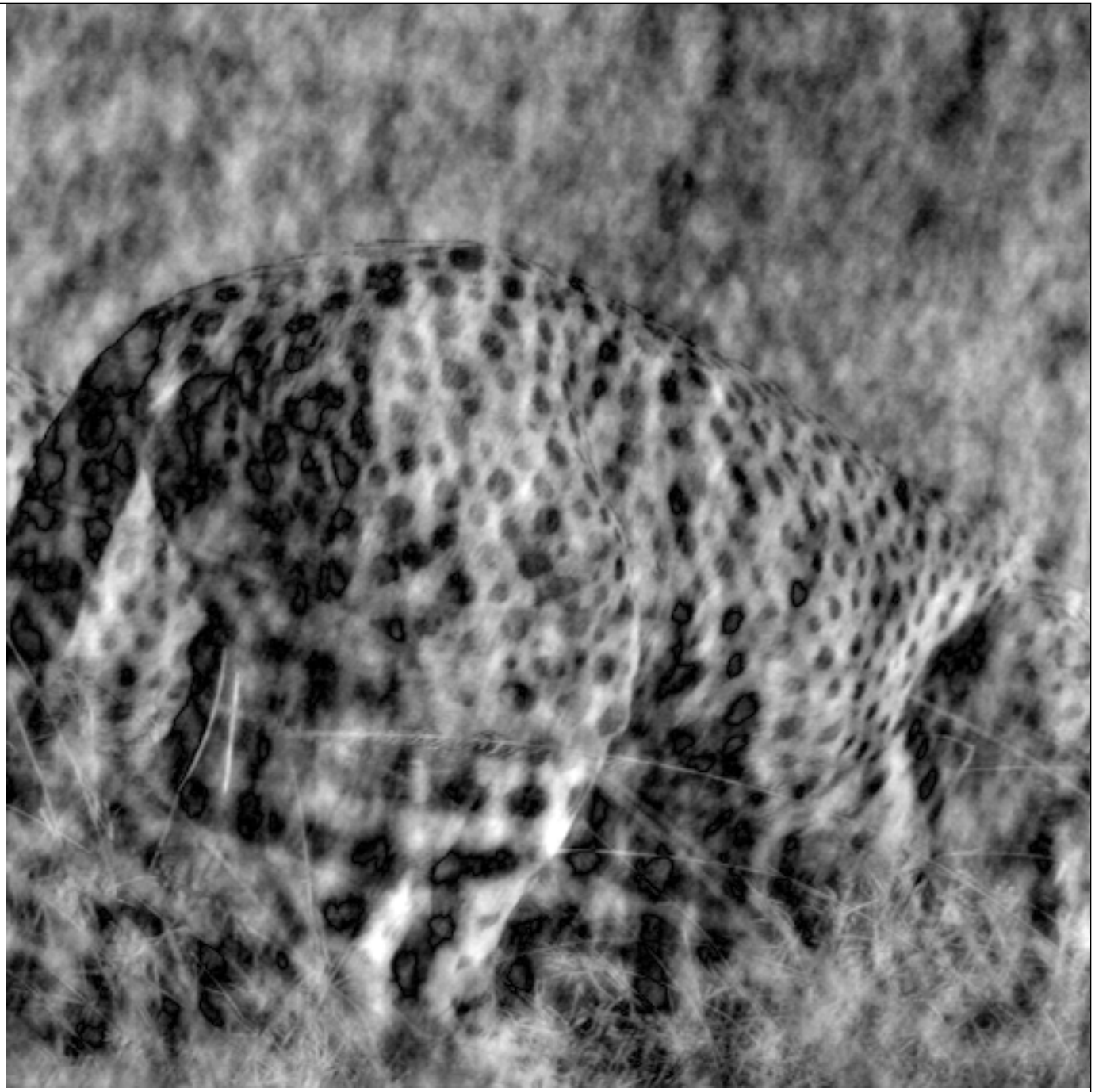
This is the phase transform of the zebra pic



Reconstruction with zebra phase, cheetah magnitude



Reconstruction with cheetah phase, zebra magnitude



Fourier Transform (continued)

- Important facts
  - The Fourier transform is linear
  - There is an inverse FT
- Important observation
  - The Fourier transform is global--the value for each (u,v) is a function of the **entire** image.
  - (This is why it is difficult to visualize/understand)
- Relationship to noise and smoothing
  - Noise is generally high frequency
  - Smoothing strategy
    - Take FT
    - Threshold higher frequency
    - Invert

The Convolution Theorem

- Important result which can have practical impact (convolution theorem)

$$F(a \otimes b) = F(a)F(b)$$

- (Depending on your workflow, using the DFT for convolution can save time).

- A strategy for inverting the effect of a convolution

$$a = F^{-1}\big(F(a)\big) = F^{-1}\left(\frac{F(a \otimes b)}{F(b)}\right)$$

Fourier Transform (practice)

- Because of the convolution theorem, the FT gives a convenient way to invert the effect of convolution.
  - For example, often blurring can be modeled as a convolution, and the FT gives a convenient way to think about de-blurring.

- Fast (O(n*log(n)) methods exist to compute discrete version of Fourier transform (DFT2 in Matlab, IDFT2 for the inverse).

- If we assume that the image is periodic and symmetric then only the cosine terms count and we can avoid imaginary components which can speed up and simplify some tasks (cosine transform; DCT2 in Matlab, IDCT2 for the inverse).