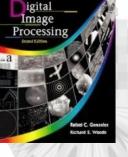
### Chapter 11 Representation & Description

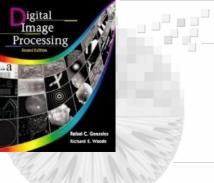
- Image segmented into regions, how to represent and describe these regions?
- In terms of its external characteristics (boundary)
- 2) In terms of its internal characteristics (pixels in the region)



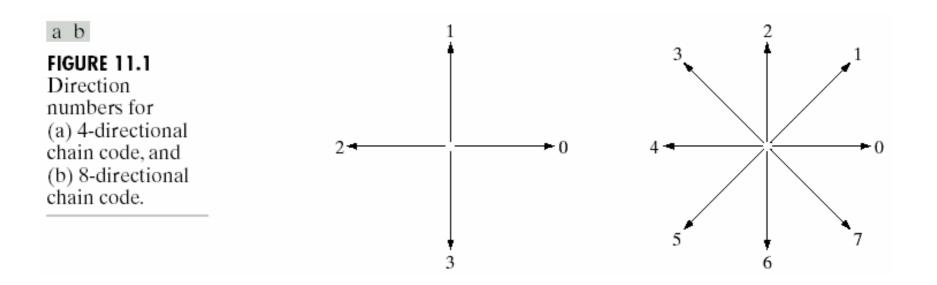
#### 11.1 Representation – Chain code

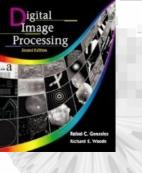
- Chain codes are used to represent a boundary as a connected sequence of straight line segments of specified length and direction.
- The representation is based on 4- or 8- connectivity.
- Chain code is generated by following a boundary in clockwise direction and assigning a direction to the segments connecting every pair of pixels.
- Disadvantages of chain codes:
  - 1) The chain code is quite long
  - 2) Any small disturbance along the boundary due to noise cause change in the code that may not related to the shape of the boundary.

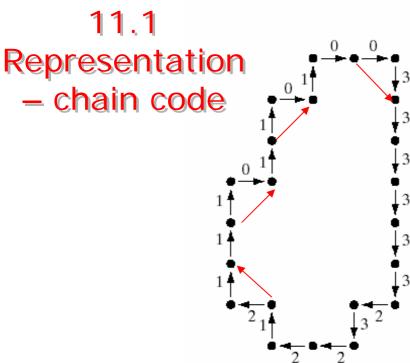
Image Comm. Lab EE/NTHU 3



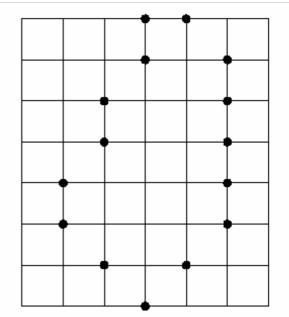
#### 11.1 Representation – Chain code







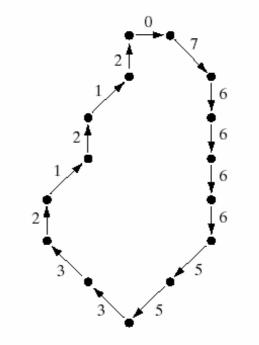


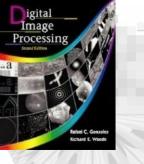




#### FIGURE 11.2

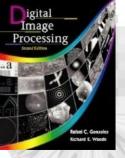
(a) Digital boundary with resampling grid superimposed.
(b) Result of resampling.
(c) 4-directional chain code.
(d) 8-directional chain code.





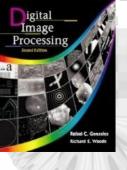
#### 11.1 Representation – Chain code

- The chain code of a boundary depends on the starting point.
- **Normalize** the chain code by using the first difference of the chain code.
- *Example*: the chain code is 10103322, the first difference is 3133030 or 33133030, the 1st "3" is obtained by connecting the last and the first element of the chain.
- *Size normalization* can be obtained by alternating the size of the sampling grid.



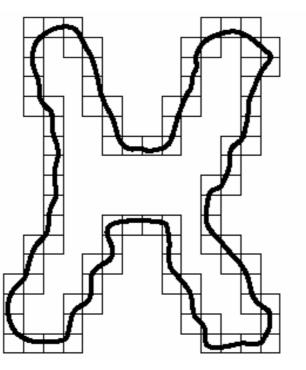
#### Minimum perimeter polygons

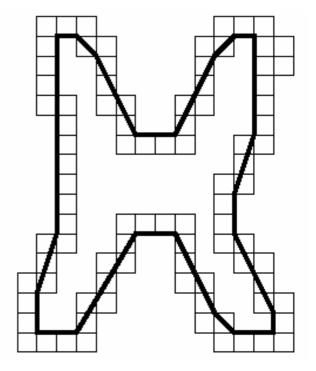
- Enclose the boundary by a set of concatenated cells (Fig. 11.3).
- The enclosure has two walls corresponding to the inside and outside boundaries of the strip of cell.
- Think of the object boundary as a rubber band contained within the wall.
- The rubber band shrinks and produces a polygon of minimum perimeter that fit the geometry established by the cell strip.

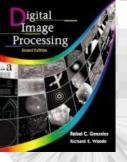


a b

FIGURE 11.3 (a) Object boundary enclosed by cells. (b) Minimum perimeter polygon.

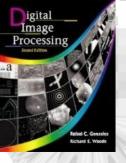






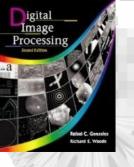
### Merging technique

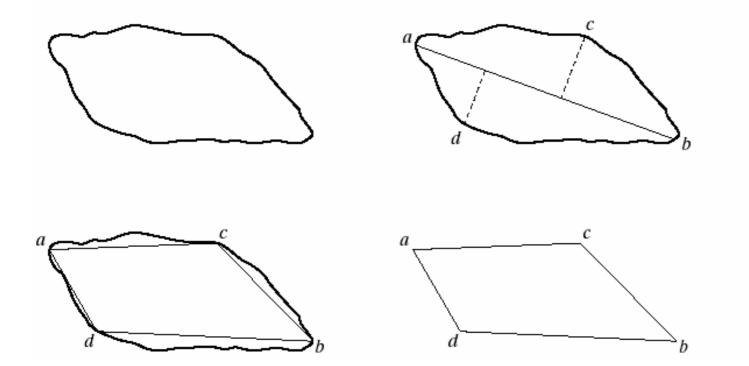
- Merge points along the boundary until the least square error line fit of the points merged so far exceeds a preset threshold.
- Difficulties: the vertices do not always correspond to inflections (corners) in the original boundary.



#### • Splitting techniques:

- Subdivide a segment successively into two parts until a specified criterion is satisfied.
- The maximum perpendicular distance from a boundary segment to the line joining its two end points not exceed a preset threshold.
- If it does, the farthest point from the line become a vertex, thus subdivide the segment into two subsegments,
- This approach has the advantage in seeking prominent inflection points





a b c d

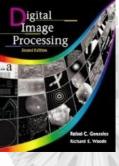
FIGURE 11.4 (a) Original boundary. (b) Boundary divided into segments based on extreme points. (c) Joining of vertices. (d) Resulting polygon.

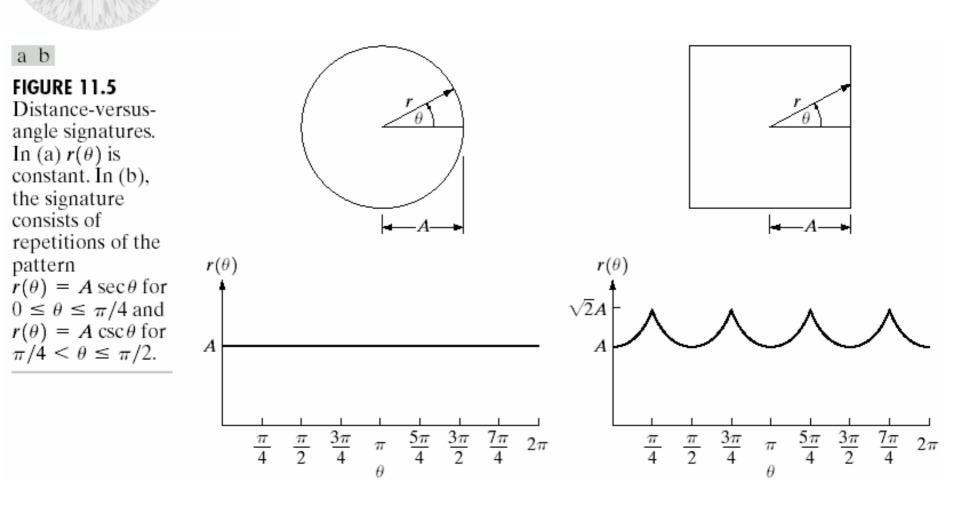
#### Image Processing Jord Ettors A Held C. Genzaler Richard E. Wender

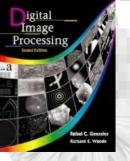
#### 11.1 Representation - Polygon approximation

- Signature
- 1-D functional representation of a boundary.
  1) Plot the distance from the centroid to the boundary as a function of angles (Fig. 11.5), *i. e.*, r(θ).
  - Invariant to translation, but depend on the rotation and scaling.
  - Normalizing with respect to rotation.
  - Select the starting point as the point farthest to the centroid.

2) Traverse the boundary and plot the **angle** between a line tangent to the boundary at that point and a reference line. Then use the **Slope density function**: (**histogram** of tangent-angle values) as signature.

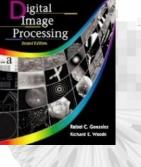




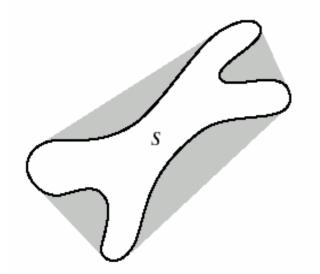


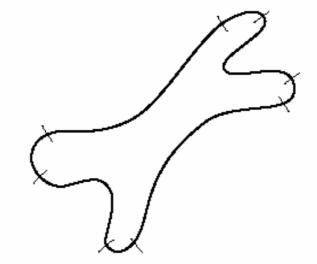
#### 11.1 Representation-boundary segment

- Convex hull *H* of an arbitrary set *S* is the smallest convex set containing S.
- The difference H S is call *convex deficiency D* of the set S.
- The region boundary can be partitioned by following the contour of S and marking the points at which a transition is made into or out of a component of the *convex deficiency*.
- The concept of *convex hull* and its *deficiency* are equally useful for describing an *entire region*, as well as just its *boundary*.



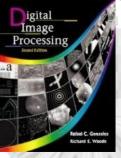
#### 11.1 Representation-boundary segment





a b

FIGURE 11.6 (a) A region, S, and its convex deficiency (shaded). (b) Partitioned boundary.

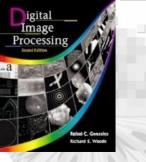


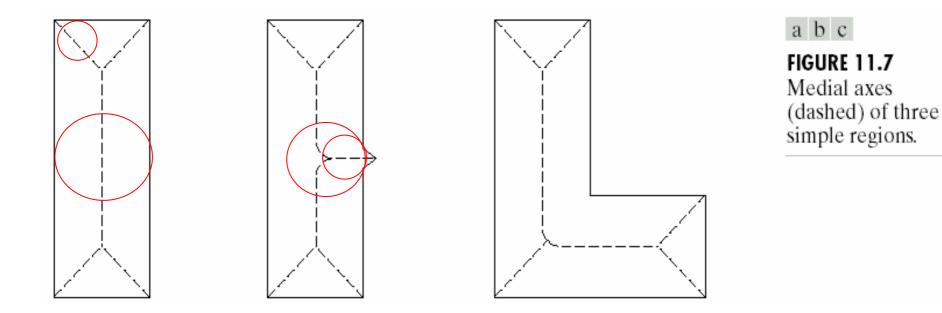
# • *Skeleton* of a region can be obtained by *thinning* algorithm

#### • *Medial axis transformation* (MAT):

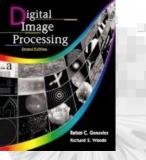
- 1) For each point in region **R**, we find its closest neighbor in border **B**.
- 2) If *p* has more than one such neighbor, it is said to belong to the medial axis (skeleton) of *R*.
- *Thinning algorithm*: iteratively delete the edge points of a region subject to
  - 1) Does not remove the end points
  - 2) Does not break connectivity
  - 3) Does not cause excessive erosion of the region.





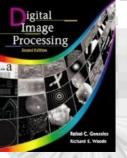






$p_9$	$p_2$	<i>p</i> <sub>3</sub>
$p_8$	$p_1$	$p_4$
$p_7$	$p_6$	<i>p</i> <sub>5</sub>

FIGURE 11.8 Neighborhood arrangement used by the thinning algorithm.



## Thinning algorithm

## Step 1) flag a contour point $p_1$ for deletion if the following conditions are satisfied:

- a)  $2 \le N(p_1) \le 6$ , where  $N(p_1)$  is the number of neighbors of  $p_1$ .
- b) T(p<sub>1</sub>)=1, where T(p<sub>1</sub>) is number of 0-1 transitions in the ordered sequence p<sub>2</sub>, p<sub>3</sub>,.... p<sub>8</sub>, p<sub>9</sub>, p<sub>2</sub>

c) 
$$p_2 \bullet p_4 \bullet p_6 = 0$$

 $d) p_4 \bullet p_6 \bullet p_8 = 0$ 

If all conditions are satisfied, the point is flagged for deletion. Step 2) Conditions (c) and (d) changed to

c')  $p_2 \bullet p_4 \bullet p_8 = 0$ d')  $p_2 \bullet p_6 \bullet p_8 = 0$ 

#### Thinning algorithm

- 1) Apply step 1 to flag border points for deletion
- 2) Deleting the flagged point
- 3) Apply step 2 to flag the remaining border points for deletion.
- 4) Delete the flagged points
- The basic procedure is applied iteratively until no further points are deleted.
- Condition (a) is violated when p1 is the end point of a skeleton stroke.
- Condition (b) is violated when it is applied to points on stroke 1 pixel thick.



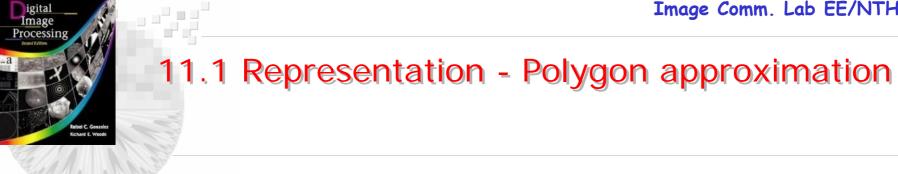


FIGURE 11.9	0	0	1
Illustration of			
conditions (a)			
and (b) in	1	$p_1$	0
Eq. (11.1-1). In			
this case			
$N(p_1) = 4$ and	1	0	1
$T(p_1)=3.$			

Image Comm. Lab EE/NTHU 21



#### 11.1 Representation - Polygon approximation

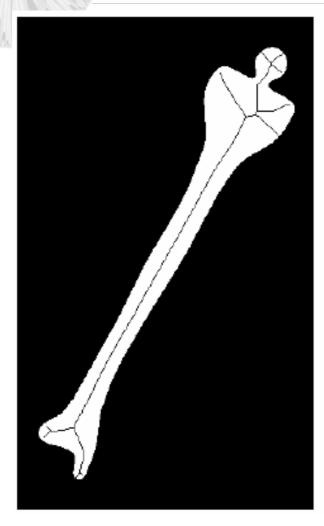
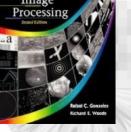


FIGURE 11.10 Human leg bone and skeleton of the region shown superimposed.

#### 11.2 Boundary descriptor

#### Simple descriptors

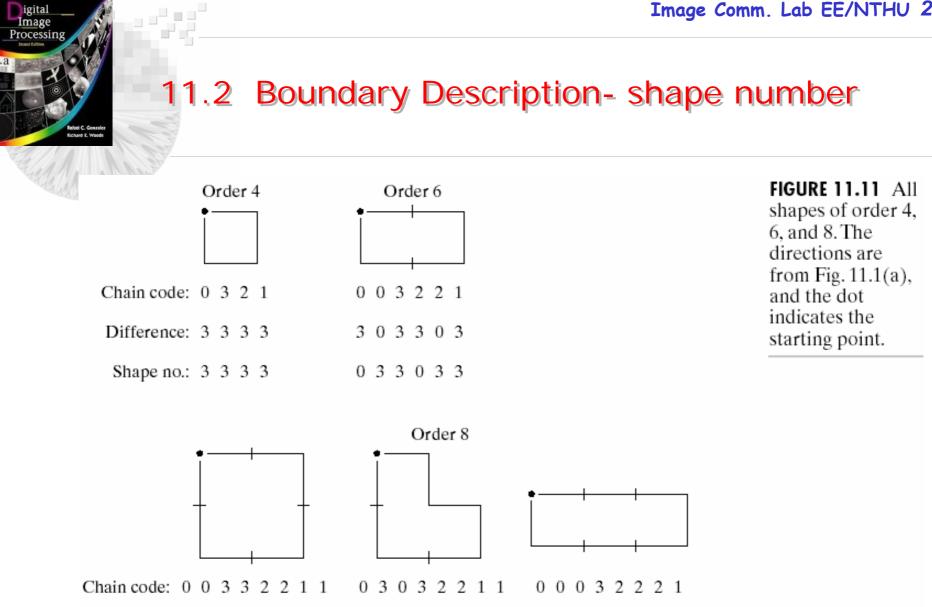
- 1) Length
- 2) Diameter:  $Diam(B)=max[D(p_i, p_j)]$  where  $p_i$  and  $p_j$  are points on the boundary.
- 3) Major axis and minor axis
- 4) Basic rectangle
- 5) Eccentricity = major axis/minor axis
- 6) Curvature: changes of slope.
- 7) Point *p* belongs to a segment which is convex if the change of slope at *p* is nonnegatoive and concave otherwise.
- 8) P is a *corner* depends on the curvature.



11.2 Boundary Description - shape number

- The *first difference* of a chain-coded boundary depends on the starting point.
- The *shape number* of a chain coded boundary is defined as the first difference of smallest magnitude.
- The *difference* of a chain code is independent of it rotation, it depend on the orientation of the grid.
- The order *n* of a shape number is defined as the number of digits in its representation.





3 3 1 3 3 0 3 0

0 3 0 3 3 1 3 3

30033003

0 0 3 3 0 0 3 3

Difference: 3 0 3 0 3 0 3 0 3 0

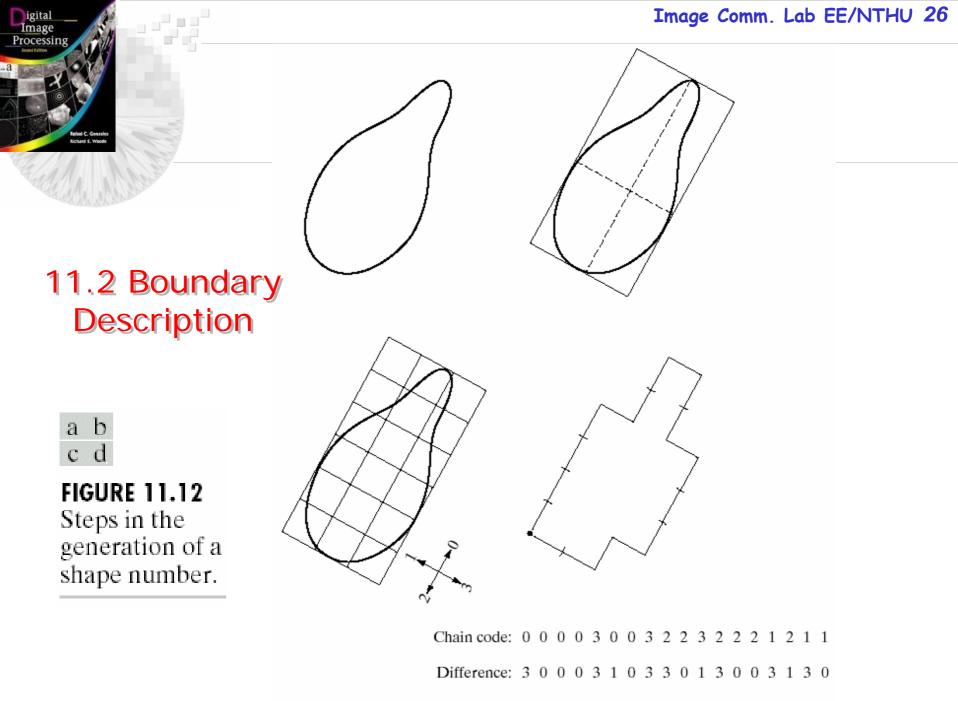
Shape no.: 0 3 0 3 0 3 0 3 0 3

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11.2 Boundary Description- shape number

## • Example (Fig. 11.12)

- 1. Find the basic rectangle for n=18 (boundary)
- 2. Find the major and minor axis
- 3. Find the closest rectangle of order 18 is 3x6
- 4. obtain chain code
- 5. find the difference
- 6. find the shape no.



Shape no.: 0 0 0 3 1 0 3 3 0 1 3 0 0 3 1 3 0 3

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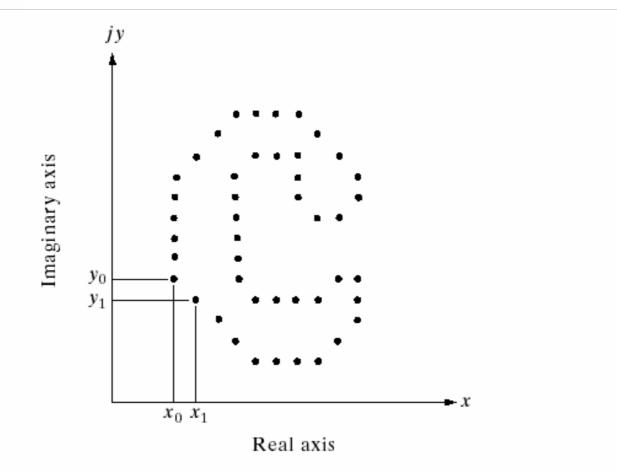
#### 11.2 Boundary Description–Fourier Descriptor

- For a K-point digital boundary, starting at an arbitrary point  $(x_0, y_0)$ , K coordinate pairs  $(x_0, y_0)$ ,  $(x_{01}, y_{01}), \dots, (x_{K-1}, y_{K-1})$  are encountered in counterclockwise direction.
- Let s(k) = [x(k), y(k)] for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, K-1$ , or s(k) = x(k) + jy(k)
- The *1-D DFT* of s(k) is  $a(u) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} s(k) e^{-j2\pi uk/K}$

• The inverse DFT of a(u) is  $s(k) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} a(u) e^{j2\pi uk/K}$ 

#### 11.2 Boundary Description- Fourier Descriptor

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**FIGURE 11.13** A digital boundary and its representation as a complex sequence. The points  $(x_0, y_0)$  and  $(x_1, y_1)$  shown are (arbitrarily) the first two points in the sequence.

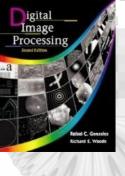
#### 11.2 Boundary Description - Fourier Descriptor

If only the first P coefficients (P<K) are used then

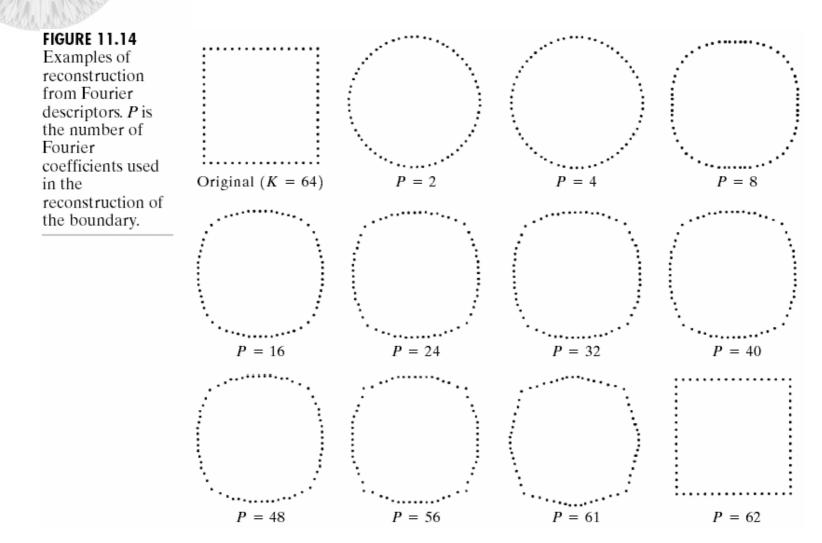
$$\hat{s}(k) = \sum_{u=0}^{P-1} a(u) e^{j 2\pi u k / K}$$

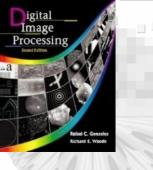
- The coefficients {*a*(*u*)} carry shape information which are insensitive to translation, rotation, and scale change of the shape.
- The descriptors are insensitive to the change of starting point.
- Rotation of a point by an angle  $\theta$  about the origin of the complex plane is accomplish by multiplying the point by  $e^{j\theta}$ .
- The rotated sequence  $s(k)e^{j\theta}$  whose Fourier descriptors are

$$a_{r}(u) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} s(k) e^{j\theta} e^{-j2\pi u k/K} = a(u) e^{j\theta}$$



#### 11.2 Boundary Description - Fourier-Descriptor





#### 11.2 Boundary Description -Fourier-Descriptor

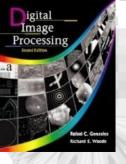
Transformation	Boundary	Fourier Descriptor	TABLE 11.1 Some basic
Identity Rotation Translation Scaling Starting point	s(k) $s_r(k) = s(k)e^{j\theta}$ $s_t(k) = s(k) + \Delta_{xy}$ $s_s(k) = \alpha s(k)$ $s_p(k) = s(k - k_0)$	$a(u) = a(u)e^{j\theta}$ $a_r(u) = a(u) + \Delta_{xy}\delta(u)$ $a_s(u) = \alpha a(u)$ $a_p(u) = a(u)e^{-j2\pi k_0 u/K}$	properties o Fourier descriptors.

1) Translation:  $s_t(k) = s(k) + \Delta_{xy} = [x(k) + \Delta x] + j[y(k) + \Delta y]$ 

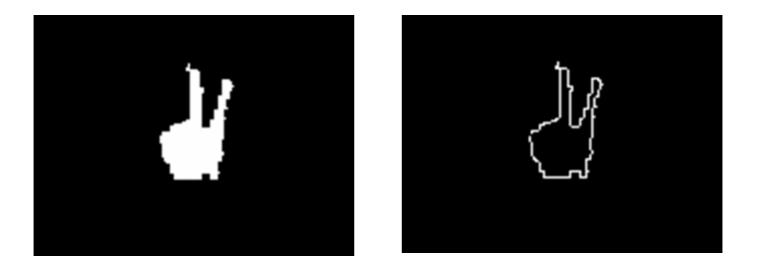
2) Change the starting point of the sequence to  $k=k_0$  from k=0 as

 $s_p(k) = s(k-k_0) = x(k-k_0) + j y(k-k_0)$ 

Image Comm. Lab EE/NTHU 32



#### 11.2 Boundary Description – Fourier Descriptor



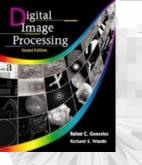
#### The contour of hand silhouette.



• Fourier series of a sequence of points {x(m), y(m)} can be defined as  $x(m) = \sum a(n)e^{j2\pi nm/N}$   $y(m) = \sum b(n)e^{j2\pi nm/N}$ 

where a(n) and b(n) are the Fourier coefficient

$$a(n) = \sum_{m=1}^{N} x(m) e^{-j2\pi nm/N} \quad b(n) = \sum_{m=1}^{N} y(m) e^{-j2\pi nm/N}$$

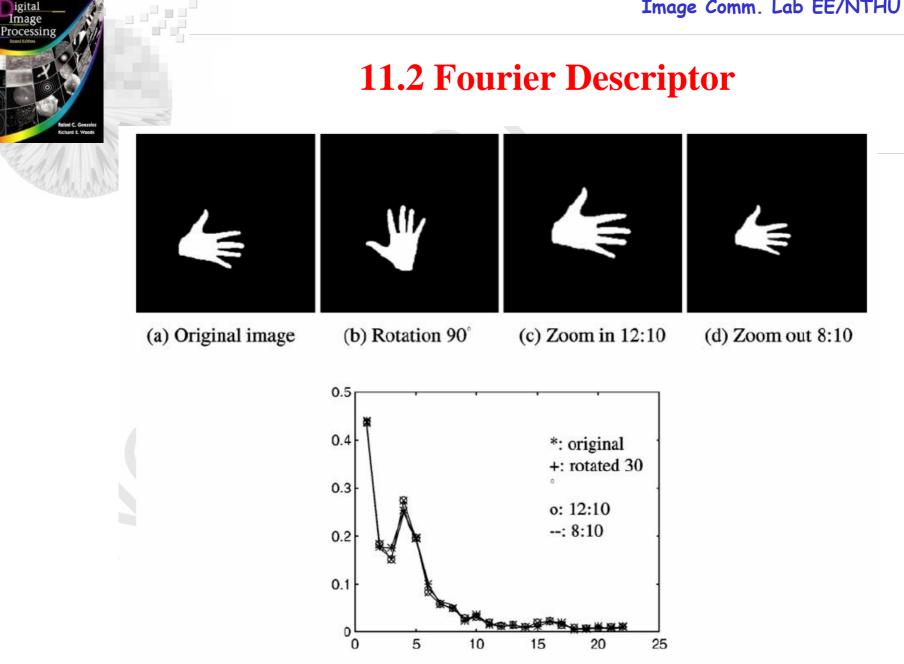


## **11.2 Fourier Descriptor**

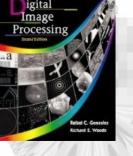
- Assuming local variation of hand shape is smooth so that the higher order terms of the Fourier descriptor are not necessary.
- To normalize the size of hand gesture we let S(n)=r(n)/r(1) (normalization), and we have

$$r(n) = \sqrt{|a(n)|^2 + |b(n)|^2}$$
 n=1,2,....,22

- Using 22 harmonics of the FD's coefficient, S(n), is enough to describe the macroscopic information of the hand shape.
- FD is translation, rotation, and scaling invariance.

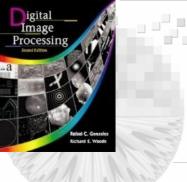


(e) Fourier descriptor vectors of the four different shapes without the first term.

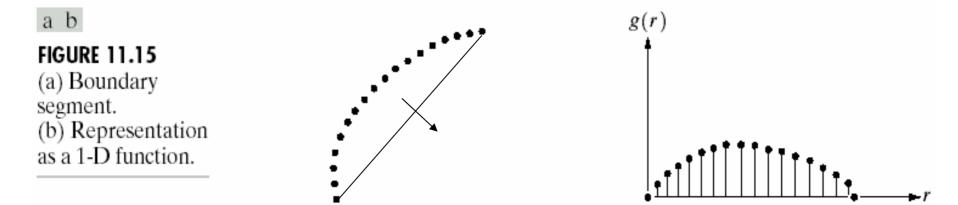


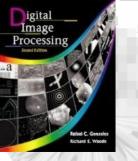
#### 11.2 Boundary Description -Statistical moment

- The shape of boundary segments can be described quantitatively by using simple statistical moments such as *mean*, *variance*, and *higher-order moments*.
- Figure 11.5 represented as 1-D function g(r).
- Treat the amplitude of g as a discrete random variable v and form an amplitude histogram p(v<sub>i</sub>), i=0,1,...A-1, where A is the number of discrete amplitude increments in which we divide the amplitude scale.



## 11.2 Boundary Description -Statistical moment



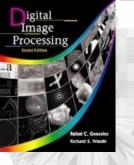


## 11.2 Boundary Description -Statistical moment

• The *nth* moment of *v* about its mean *m* is  $\mu_n(v) = \sum_{i=0}^{A-1} (v_i - m)^n p(v_i)$ 

where the mean is 
$$m = \sum_{i=0}^{A-1} v_i p(v_i)$$

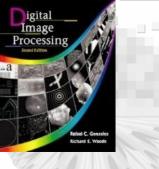
• The *m* is the mean and  $\mu_2$  is the variance.



11.2 Boundary DescriptionStatistical moment

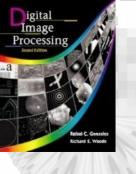
- An alternative approach is normalize g(r) to unit area and treat it as histogram.
- $g(r_i)$  is treated as the probability of value  $r_i$  occuring.
- The moments are  $\mu_n(r) = \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} (r_i m)^n g(r_i)$

where 
$$m = \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} r_i g(r_i)$$



11.3 Regional Descriptors -Simple Descriptor

- Area is the number of pixels in the regions
- Perimeter is the length of the boundary.
- Compactness=(perimeter)<sup>2</sup>/area.



## **11.3 Regional Descriptors**

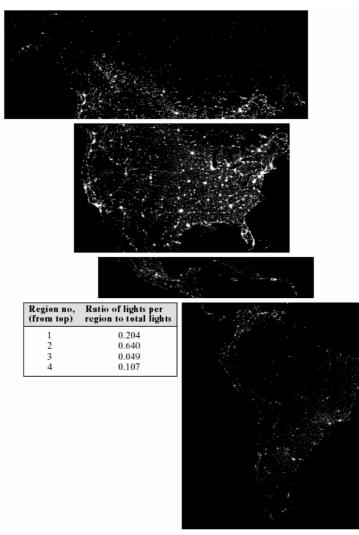
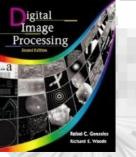


FIGURE 11.16 Infrared images of the Americas at night. (Courtesy of NOAA.)



# 11.3 Regional Descriptors-Topological Descriptor

- Topology is the study of properties of a figure that are unaffected by any deformation (rubber-sheet distortion).
- The number of *holes*: *H*
- The number of *connected components*: *C*
- *Euler number* E: E=C-H.



## 11.3 Regional Descriptors -Topological Descriptor

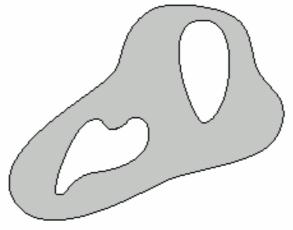


FIGURE 11.17 A region with two holes.

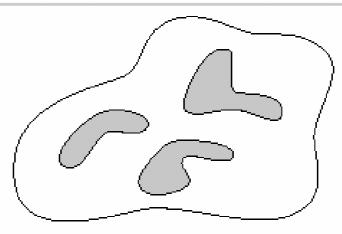
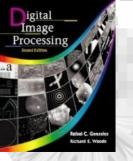


FIGURE 11.18 A region with three connected components.



## 11.3 Regional Descriptors-Topological Descriptor

• Regions represented by straight-line segments (polygonal networks), such as Fig. 11.20, has the following relationship in topology as

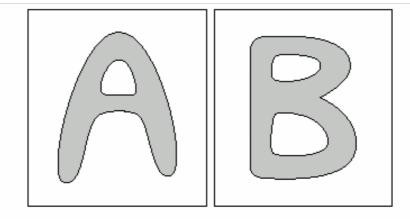
E = V - Q + F = C - H

where V is the number of vertices and Q is the number of edges.

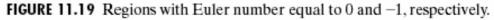
- Segmentation is based on the thresholding.
- How the connected components can be used to "finish" the segmentation.
- Figure 11.21(b) has 1591 connected components, C=1591, and its Euler number E=1552, and H=39. Figure 11.21(c) shows the connected component with 8479 elements



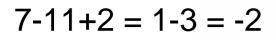
## 11.3 Regional Descriptors -Topological Descriptor

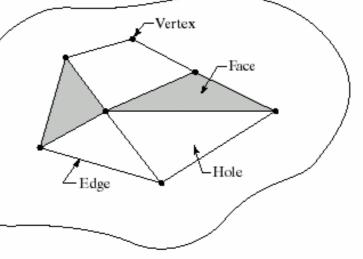




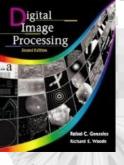


## V-Q+F = C-H = E

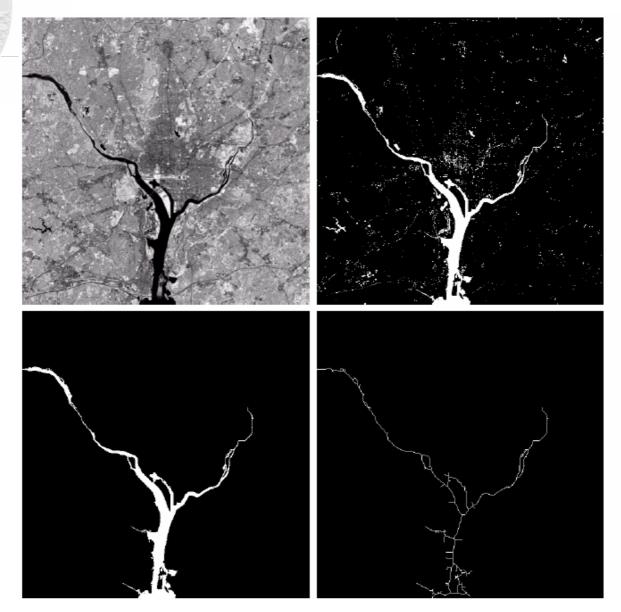








## 11.3 Regional Descriptors - Topological Descriptor



#### a b c d

FIGURE 11.21 (a) Infrared image of the Washington, D.C. area. (b) Thresholded image. (c) The largest connected component of (b). Skeleton of (c).



- The texture measurement provides the properties such as *smoothness, coarseness, and regularity*.
- Three principal approaches: *statistical, structure, and spectral.*
- Statistical approaches:

Let z be a random variable and  $p(z_i)$ , i=0,1,...L-1 is the corresponding histogram, L is the number of gray-levels. The *n*th moment of z about the mean (m) is  $\mu_n(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} (z_i - m)^n g(z_i)$ 

The second moment  $\mu_2$  (=variance  $\sigma^2$ ) can be used to define the measure R as  $R = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \sigma^2(z)}$ 

R=0 (for constant density,  $\sigma$ =0), R→1 (for large  $\sigma$ )

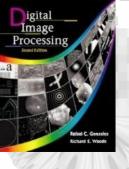


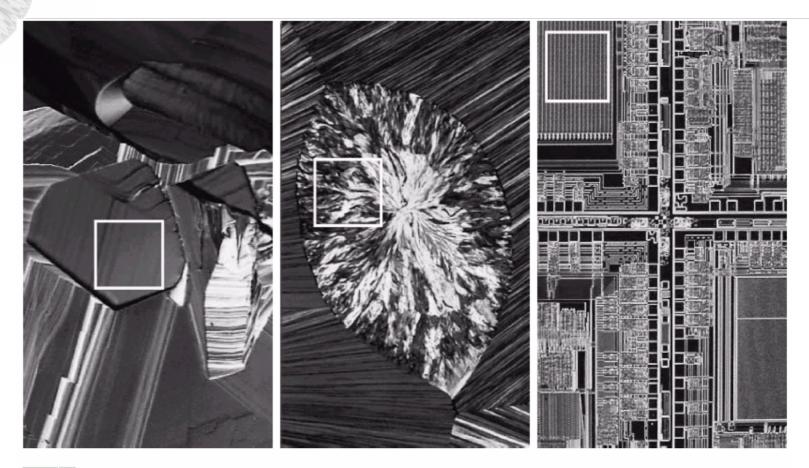
- Statistical approach
  - The 2<sup>nd</sup> moment  $\mu_2$  (=variance  $\sigma^2$ ) is used to measure the contrast. The 3<sup>rd</sup> moment  $\mu_3$  is used to measure the skewness of the histogram.
  - The 4<sup>th</sup> moment  $\mu_4$  is used to measure the relative flatness of the histogram.

The measure of "uniformity" of the histogram as  $U = \sum_{i=0}^{D-1} p^2(z_i)$ 

The average entropy measure as  $e = -\sum_{i=0}^{L-1} p(z_i) \log_2 p(z_i)$ 

This approach measure no information regarding to the relative position of pixels with respect to each other.





#### a b c

**FIGURE 11.22** The white squares mark, from left to right, smooth, coarse, and regular textures. These are optical microscope images of a superconductor, human cholesterol, and a microprocessor. (Courtesy of Dr. Michael W. Davidson, Florida State University.)



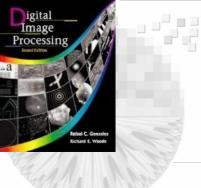
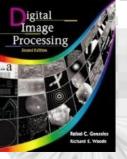
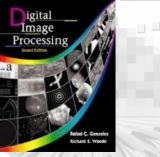


TABLE 11.2
Texture measures
for the subimages
shown in
Fig. 11.22.

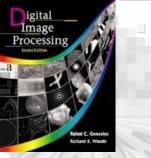
Texture	Mean	Standard deviation	R (normalized)	Third moment	Uniformity	Entropy
Smooth	82.64	11.79	0.002	-0.105	0.026	5.434
Coarse	143.56	74.63	0.079	-0.151	0.005	7.783
Regular	99.72	33.73	0.017	0.750	0.013	6.674



- Let P be a position operator, A be a k×k matrix whose element  $a_{ij}$  is the number of times that points 1 with gray level  $z_i$ , occur (in position specified by P) 2 relative to points with gray level  $z_j$ , with  $1 \le i, j \le k$ .
- For example, an image with  $z_1 = 0$ ,  $z_2 = 1$ ,  $z_3 = 2$  as
- Define the position operator *P* as "one pixel below and one-pixel to the right yields a 3×3 matrix A as
- *a*<sub>11</sub> is the number of times that a point with level
   *z*<sub>1</sub>=0 appears related with another point *of the same level*
- $a_{13}$  is the number of times that a point with level  $z_1=0$  appears related with another point with gray-level  $z_3=2$

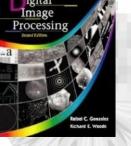


- Let *n* be the number of point pairs in the image that satisfy P (*n*=16).
- If C=A/n then  $c_{ij}$  is the estimate of the joint probability that a pair of points satisfying **P** will have values  $(z_i, z_j)$
- The matrix **C** is called *gray-level co-occurence matrix*.
- C depends on P.
- To analyze a given *C* to categorize the texture of region over which *C* was computed.



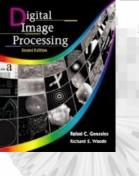
A set of descriptors based on **C** are

- 1) Maximum probability
- 2) Element difference moment of order *k*
- 3) Inverse element difference moment of order *k*
- 4) Uniformity
- 5) Entropy



*Structural approach*: a simple "texture" primitive can be used to form more complex texture pattern.

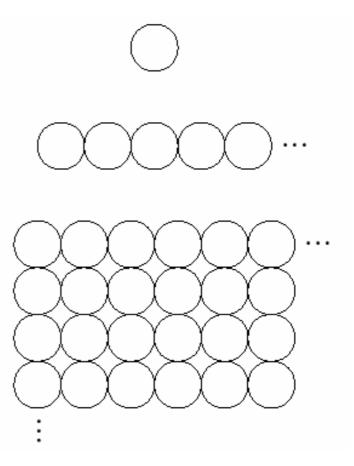
- 1) Define a rule of the form :  $S \rightarrow aS$ , which indicates that the symbol S may be written as aS.
- 2) Let *a* represents a circle, and the meaning of "*circles to the right*" is assign a string of the form *aaa*..., and the rule  $S \rightarrow aS$  generates *Fig11.23(b)*.
- 3) Define new rules:  $S \rightarrow bA$ ,  $A \rightarrow cA$ ,  $A \rightarrow c$ ,  $A \rightarrow bS$ ,  $S \rightarrow a$ , where *b* represents "*circle down*" and *c* means "*circle to the left*"
- 4) Generate a string of the form *aaabccbaa* that corresponding to a  $3 \times 3$  matrix of circles.



#### a b c

#### FIGURE 11.23

(a) Texture primitive. (b) Pattern generated by the rule  $S \rightarrow aS$ . (c) 2-D texture pattern generated by this and other rules.



#### Digital Image Processing Dur et all Based C. Gonzalez Echard E. Vesoes

## 11.3 Regional Descriptors -Texture

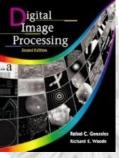
- Spectral approach
- Fourier spectrum is suitable for describing the directionality of periodic in 2-D image.
- Three features in Fourier spectrum:
  - *1) Prominent peaks* give the principal direction of the texture patterns.
  - 2) The *location of the peaks* give the fundamental spatial period of the patterns.
  - 3) By filtering the periodic component, the other nonperiodic pattern can be described by statistical technique.

#### Digital Image Processing Jurk Elimer Histor C. Genzaler Echard E. Yonede

## 11.3 Regional Descriptors -Texture

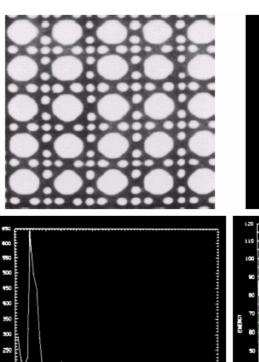
## • Spectral approach

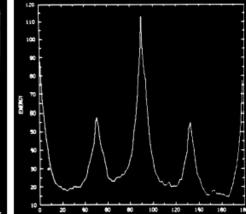
- Express the spectral in polar coordinates as  $S(r, \theta)$ .
- For each direction  $\theta$ , we have a 1-D expression of the spectrum as  $S_{\theta}(r)$ .
- Global description as  $S(r) = \Sigma_{\theta} S_{\theta}(r)$ .
- For each frequency *r*, we have a 1-D expression of the spectrum as  $S_r(\theta)$ .
- Global description as  $S(\theta) = \Sigma_r S_r(\theta)$ .
- Constitute  $[S(r), S(\theta)]$  for each pair of  $(r, \theta)$

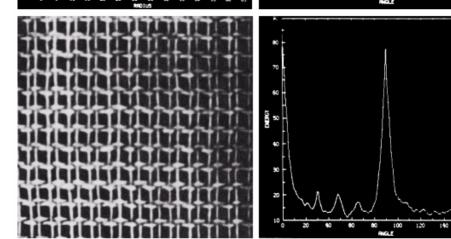


a b **FIGURE 11.24** (a) Image showing periodic texture. (b) Spectrum. (c) Plot of S(r). (d) Plot of  $S(\theta)$ . (e) Another image with a different type of periodic texture. (f) Plot of  $S(\theta)$ . (Courtesy of Dr. Dragana Brzakovic, University of Tennessee.)









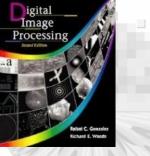


## • Moment of two dimensional functions

- For 2-D continuous function f(x, y), the moment of order (p+q)is defined as  $m_{pq} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^p y^q f(x, y) dx dy = \sum \sum x^p y^q f(x, y)$
- The central moments are

$$\mu_{pq} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \overline{x})^p (y - \overline{y})^q f(x, y) dx dy$$
  
or 
$$\mu_{pq} = \sum_x \sum_y (x - \overline{x})^p (y - \overline{y})^q f(x, y)$$
  
where  $\overline{x} = m_{10}/m_{00}$  and  $\overline{y} = m_{01}/m_{00}$ 

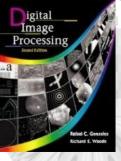
The central moments are  $\mu_{00}$ , (=m<sub>00</sub>),  $\mu_{10}$  (=0),  $\mu_{01}$ (=0),  $\mu_{11}$ ,  $\mu_{20}$ ,  $\mu_{02}$ ,  $\mu_{21}$ ,  $\mu_{12}$ ,....



• The *normalized central moment* is defined as

 $\eta_{pq} = \mu_{pq} / \mu_{00}^{\gamma}$ where  $\gamma = (p+q)/2+1$ , for p+q=2, 3,...

- Seven invariant moments  $\Phi_1, \dots, \Phi_7$  are shown in textbook
- Examples of the invariant moments are shown in Figure 11.25.



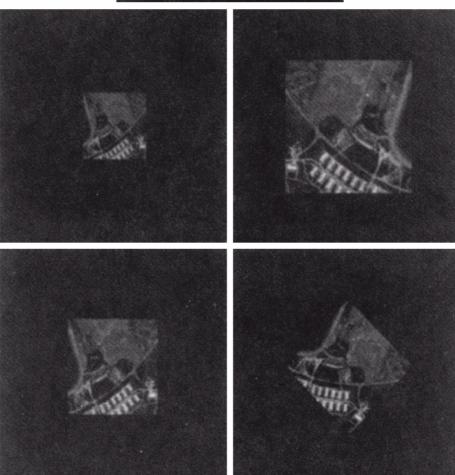


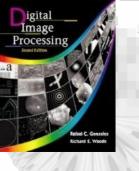
#### EE/NTHU 61



#### FIGURE 11.25

Images used to demonstrate properties of moment invariants (see Table 11.3).



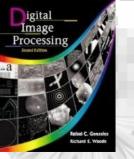


## 11.3 Regional Descriptors -Texture

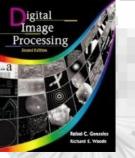
Invariant (Log)	Original	Half Size	Mirrored	Rotated 2°	Rotated 45°
$\phi_1$	6.249	6.226	6.919	6.253	6.318
$\phi_2$	17.180	16.954	19.955	17.270	16.803
$\phi_3$	22.655	23.531	26.689	22.836	19.724
$\phi_4$	22.919	24.236	26.901	23.130	20.437
$\phi_5$	45.749	48.349	53.724	46.136	40.525
$\phi_6$	31.830	32.916	37.134	32.068	29.315
$\phi_7$	45.589	48.343	53.590	46.017	40.470

TABLE 11.3

Moment invariants for the images in Figs. 11.25(a)-(e).

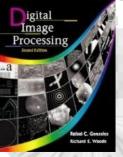


- Treat the vectors **x** as a random quantity.
- The mean vector is  $\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}} = E\{\mathbf{x}\}$
- The covariance matrix:  $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}} = E\{(\mathbf{x} \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x} \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}})^{\mathrm{T}}\}$ which is real and symmetric.
- $c_{ii}$  is variance of  $x_i$ , and  $c_{ij}$  is the covariance between elements  $x_i$  and  $x_j$ .
- If element  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  are uncorrelated then  $c_{ij}=c_{ji}=0$ .



- For *K* vector samples from random population, the mean vector is  $\mathbf{m}_{x} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathbf{x}_{k}$
- By expanding the product  $(\mathbf{x} \mathbf{m}_x)(\mathbf{x} \mathbf{m}_x)^T$ , the covariance matrix can be approximated as

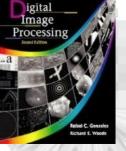
$$\mathbf{C}_{x} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathbf{x}_{k} \mathbf{x}_{k}^{T} - \mathbf{m}_{k} \mathbf{m}_{k}^{T}$$



- Example 11.9.  $\mathbf{x}_1 = [0, 0, 0]^T$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_2 = [1, 0, 0]^T \mathbf{x}_3 = [1, 1, 0]^T \mathbf{x}_4 = [1, 0, 1]^T$ .
- We may compute  $\mathbf{m}_{x}$  and  $\mathbf{C}_{x}$  as

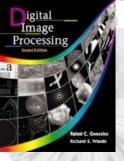
$$\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}} = 1/4[3, 1, 1]^{\mathrm{T}}$$
  $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{16} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ 

- The diagonal terms indicate that the three components of the vectors have the same variance.
- $x_1$  and  $x_2$ ,  $x_1$  and  $x_3$  are positive related.
- $x_2$  and  $x_3$  are negative related.



- Because  $C_x$  is real and symmetric, we may find a set of *n* orthonormal eigenvectors.
- Let  $e_i$  and  $\lambda_i$ , i=1, 2, ..., n be the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of  $C_x$ , with  $\lambda_i \ge \lambda_{i+1}$ .
- Let A be the matrix whose rows are formed from the eigenvectors of  $C_x$  ordered so that the first row of A is eigenvector corresponding to the largest eigenvalue, and the last row is the eigenvector corresponding to the smallest eigenvalue.
- Suppose A is used as a transformation matrix to map the x's into vector denoted by y's as follows:

 $y=A(x-m_x)$ 

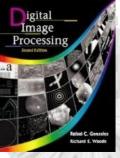


 The above expression is called *Hotelling transform* or *Principal component transform*.

- $\mathbf{m}_{y} = E\{\mathbf{y}\} = 0$
- $\mathbf{C}_y$  is= $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{C}_x\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}}$ .
- $\mathbf{C}_{y}$  is a diagonal matrix.

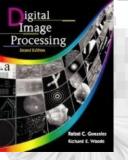
X.
$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{y}} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{1} & & & 0 \\ & \lambda & & \\ 2 & & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & & \lambda_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

• The reconstruction of **x** is  $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{y}+\mathbf{m}_{x}$ 



- Instead of using all eigenvectors of  $C_x$ , we form matrix  $A_k$  from k eigenvector corresponding to k largest eigenvalues.
- $\mathbf{A}_k$  is a transformation matrix of order *k*X*n*.
- The **y** vector would be *k* dimension.
- The reconstructed vector is no longer exact as

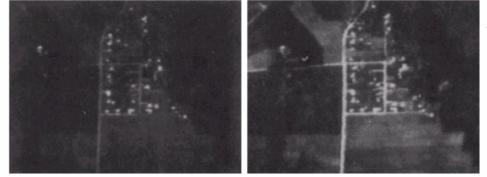
$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}_k^T \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}}$$



## FIGURE 11.26 Six scanner.

## 11.4 Use of Principal Component Description

spectral images from an airborne (Courtesy of the Laboratory for Applications of Remote Sensing, Purdue University.)

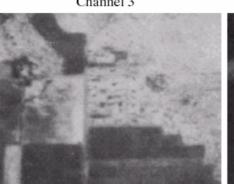


Channel 1

Channel 2



Channel 3



Channel 4



Channel 5

Channel 6



#### TABLE 11.4 Channel numbers and wavelengths.

Channel	Wavelength band (microns)
1	0.40-0.44
2	0.62-0.66
3	0.66-0.72
4	0.80-1.00
5	1.00-1.40
6	2.00-2.60

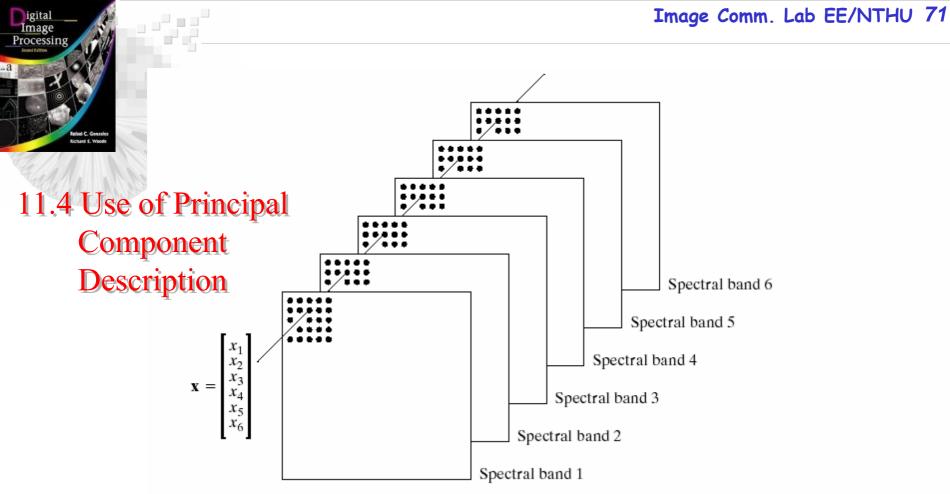
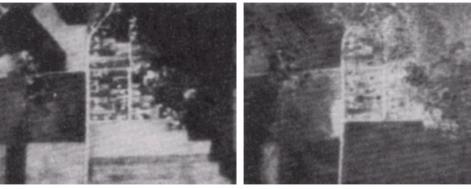


FIGURE 11.27 Formation of a vector from corresponding pixels in six images.

<b>TABLE 11.5</b> Eigenvalues o	$\lambda_6$	$\lambda_5$	$\lambda_4$	$\lambda_3$	$\lambda_2$	$\lambda_1$
the covarianc	13.40	64.00	83.88	118.5	931.4	3210
matrix obtain from the imag						

of e ied ges in Fig. 11.26.

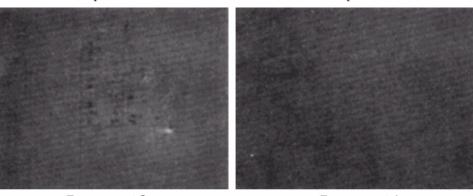




Component 1

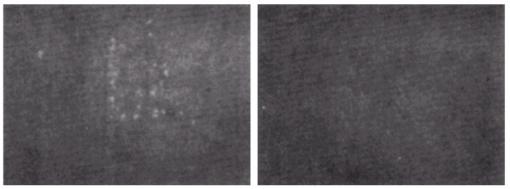


## 11.4 Use of Principal Component Description



Component 3



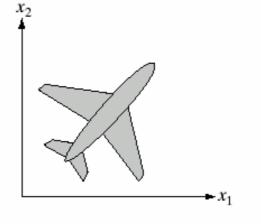


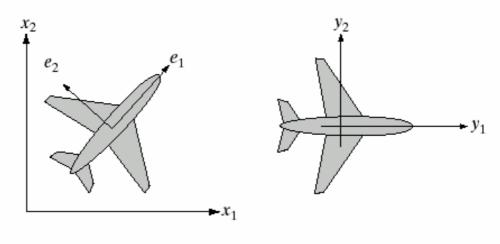
Component 5

Component 6

**FIGURE 11.28** Six principal-component images computed from the data in Fig. 11.26. (Courtesy of the Laboratory for Applications of Remote Sensing, Purdue University.)







a b c

**FIGURE 11.29** (a) An object. (b) Eigenvectors. (c) Object rotated by using Eq. (11.4-6). The net effect is to align the object along its eigen axes.



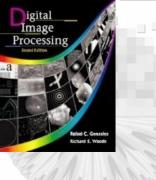
- Rules for describing the context of relation.
- Apply equally to boundaries and regions.
- Define two primitives *a* and *b* as shown in Fig. 11.30.
- We define rewriting rules as
  - (a)  $S \rightarrow aA$

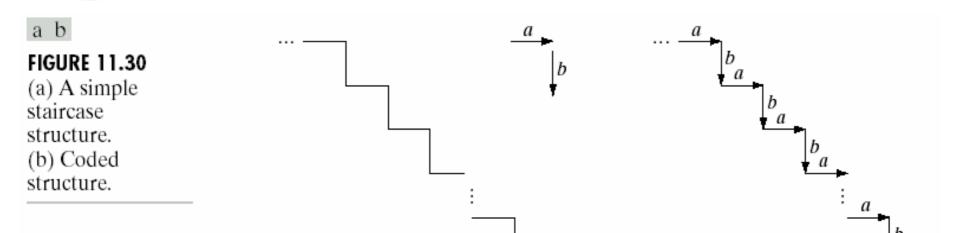
$$(b) A \rightarrow bS$$

(c)  $A \rightarrow b$ .

where *A* and *S* are variables, and the elements *a* and b are constant corresponding o the primitives.

Rule 1 indicates the staring symbols S can be replaced by aA.

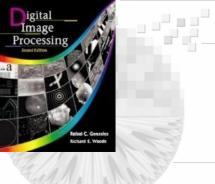




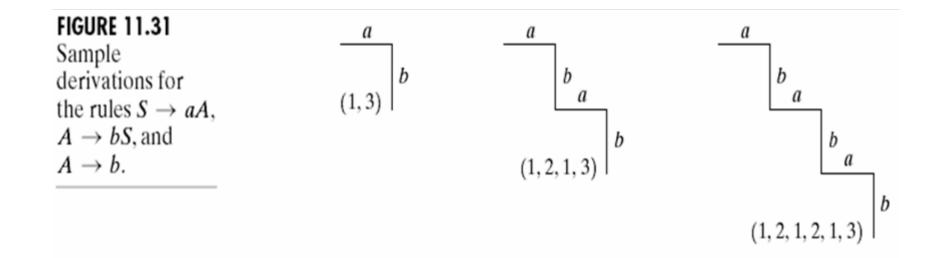
Let A and S are variables, define rewriting rules as

(a)  $S \rightarrow aA$ 

(b)  $A \rightarrow bS$ (c)  $A \rightarrow b$ .

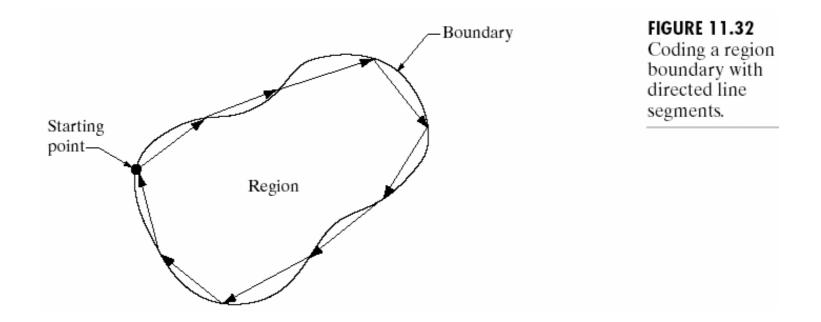


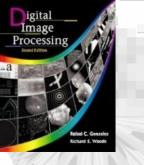
## 11.5 Relational Description



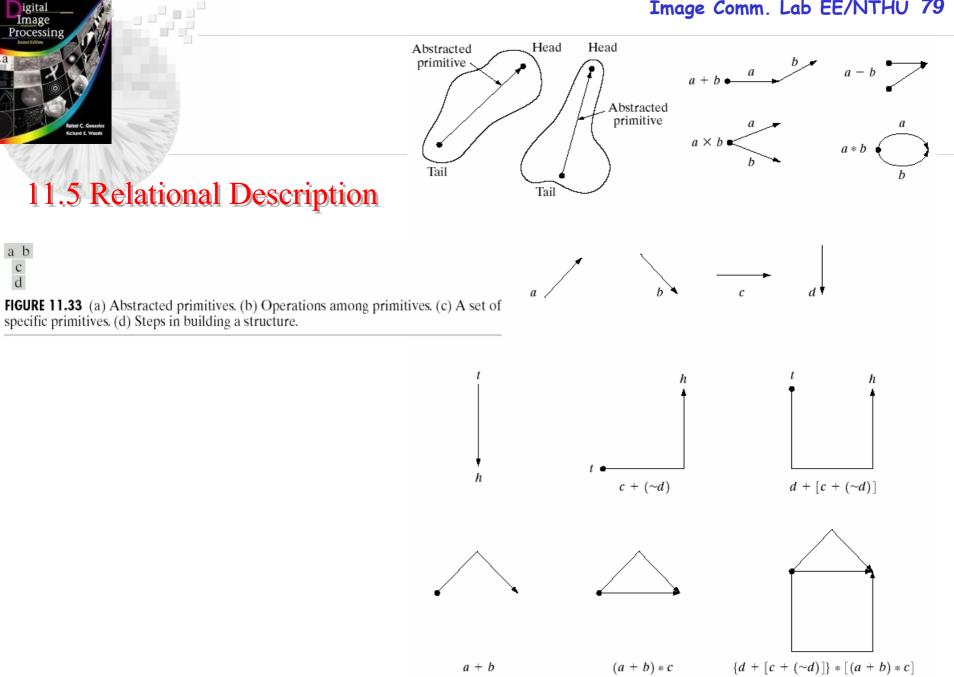


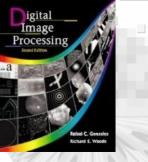
# • For 2-D object description, we follow the contour of an object and code the result with segments of specific direction and/or length as shown in Figure 11.32.





- Another description is to describe the sections of an image (small homogeneous region) by direct line segments, which can be joined in other ways besides head-to-tail connections as shown in Figure 11.33.
- Sting descriptions are best suited for applications in which connectivity of primitives can be expressed in a head-to-tail or other connected manner.



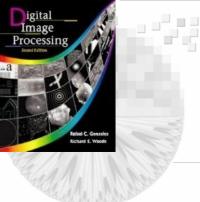


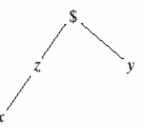
- Sometimes regions may not be contiguous, and we use Tree to describe such regions.
- A tree T is a finite set of one or more nodes for which

  a) there is a unique node \$ designated the root
  b) the remaining nodes are partitioned into *m* disjoint sets *T*<sub>1</sub>, ..., *T*<sub>m</sub>, each of which in turn is a tree called a subtree of T.
- The tree frontier is a set of nodes at the bottom of the tree (the leaves), taken in order from left to right, (see Figure 11.34).

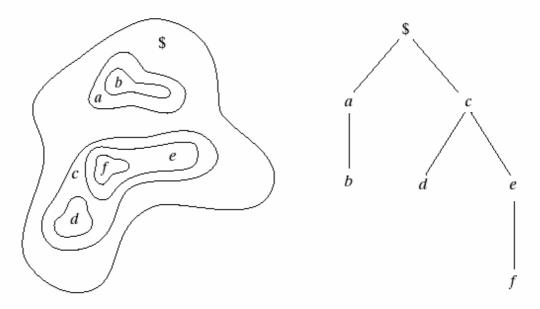


Two types of information in a tree a) information about a node b) information relating a node to its neighbors For image description, the 1<sup>st</sup> type of information identifies an image structure, whereas the 2<sup>nd</sup> type of information defines the physical relationship of that substructure to other substructure.





**FIGURE 11.34** A simple tree with root \$ and frontier xy.



#### a b

**FIGURE 11.35** (a) A simple composite region. (b) Tree representation obtained by using the relationship "inside of."