

# Probabilities, Greyscales, and Histograms: Chapter 3a G&W

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(modified by Guido Gerig)

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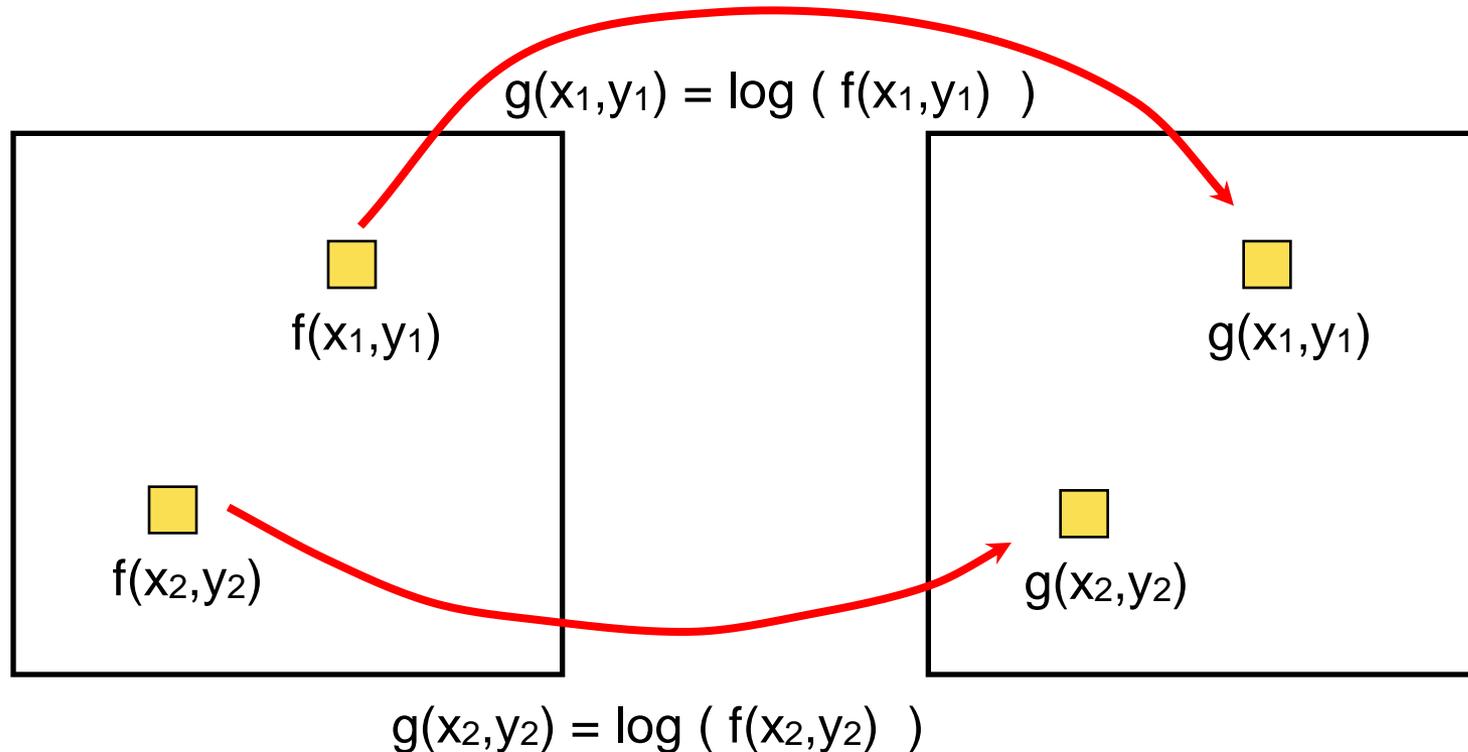
University of Utah

# Goal

- Image intensity transformations
- Intensity transformations as mappings
- Image histograms
- Relationship btw histograms and probability density distributions
- Repetition: Probabilities
- Image segmentation via thresholding
- Image segmentation using pdf's

# Intensity transformation example

$$g(x,y) = \log(f(x,y))$$

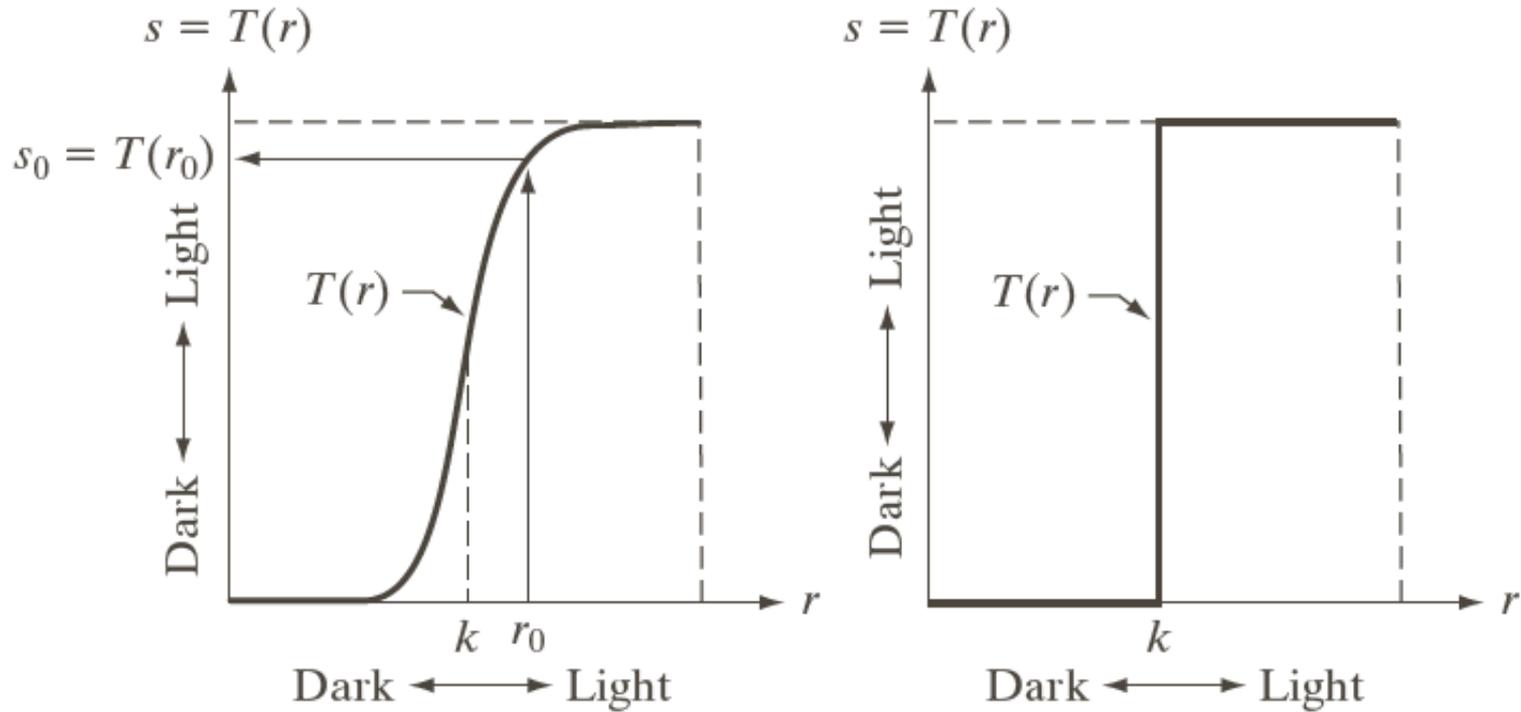


• We can **drop the  $(x,y)$**  and represent this kind of filter as an intensity transformation  $s=T(r)$ . In this case  $s=\log(r)$

-s: output intensity

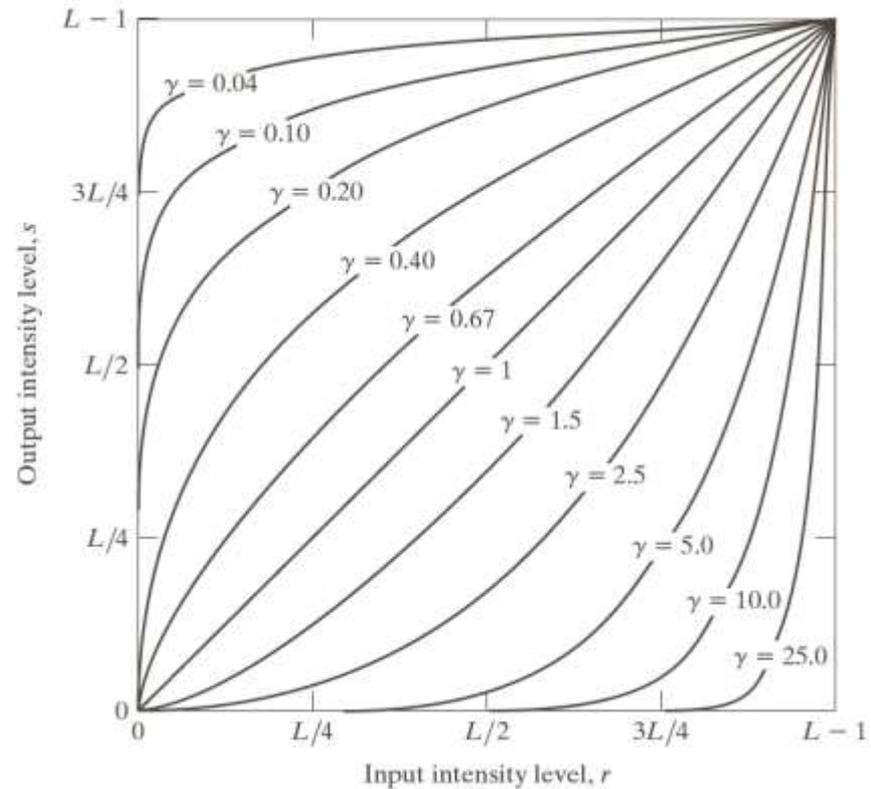
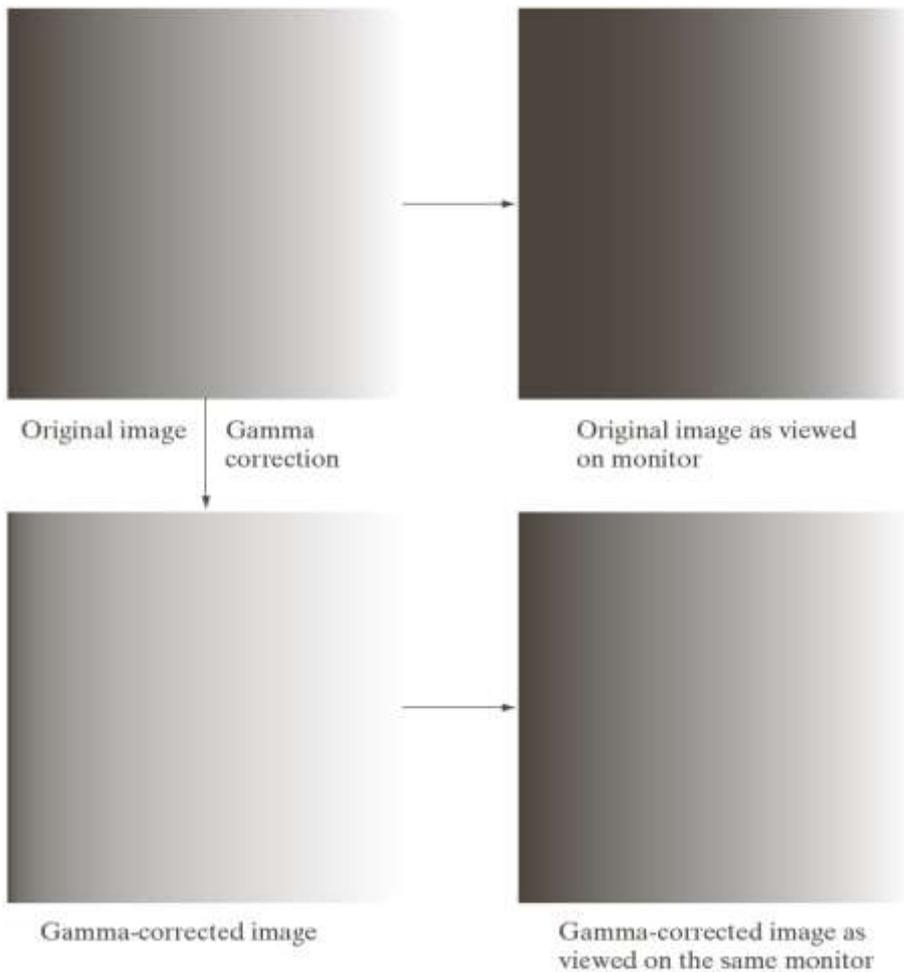
-r: input intensity

# Intensity transformation



$$s = T(r)$$

# Gamma correction



$$s = cr^\gamma$$

# Gamma transformations

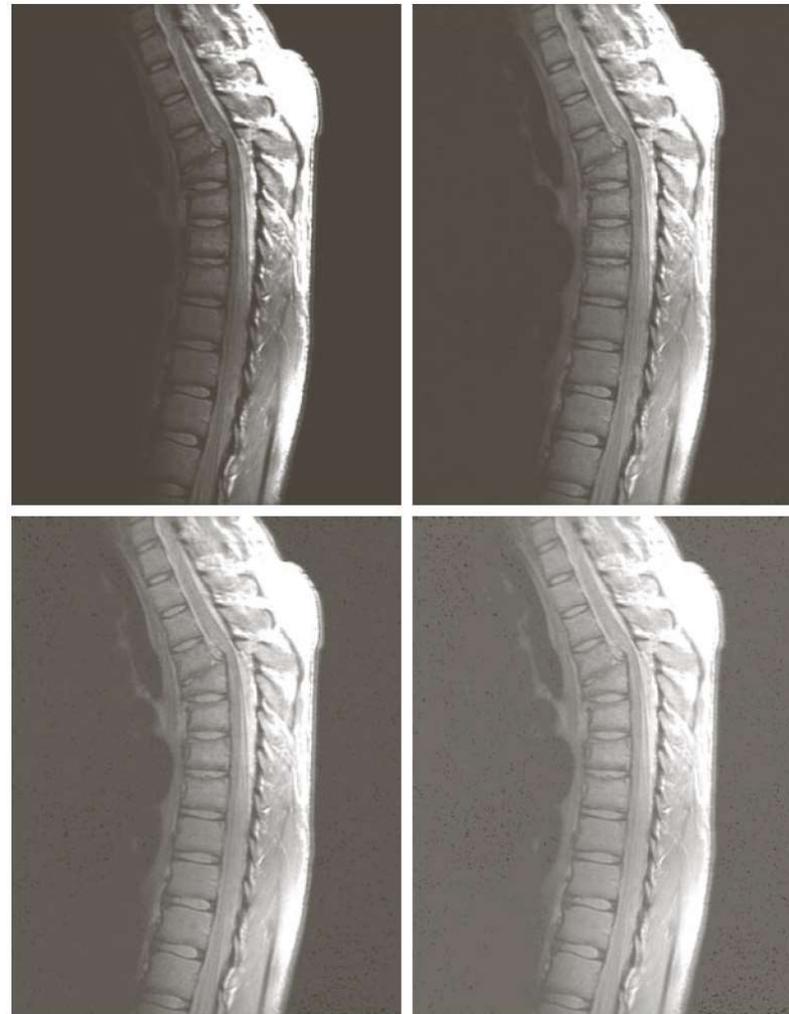


a	b
c	d

**FIGURE 3.9**

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

# Gamma transformations



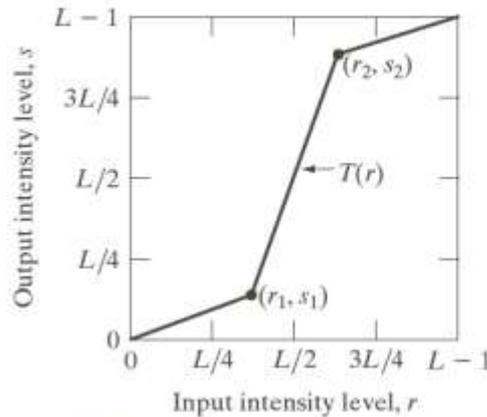
a b  
c d

**FIGURE 3.8**

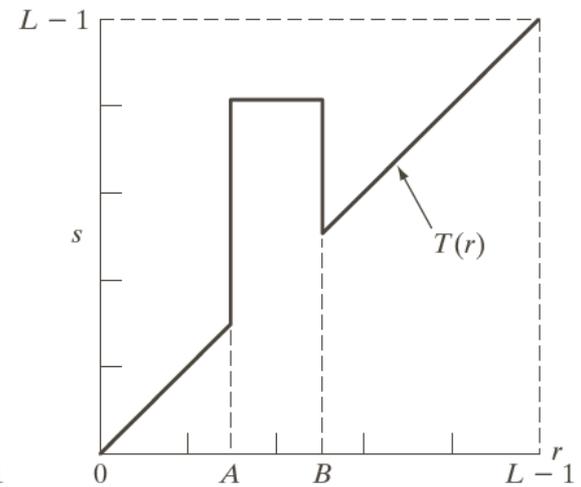
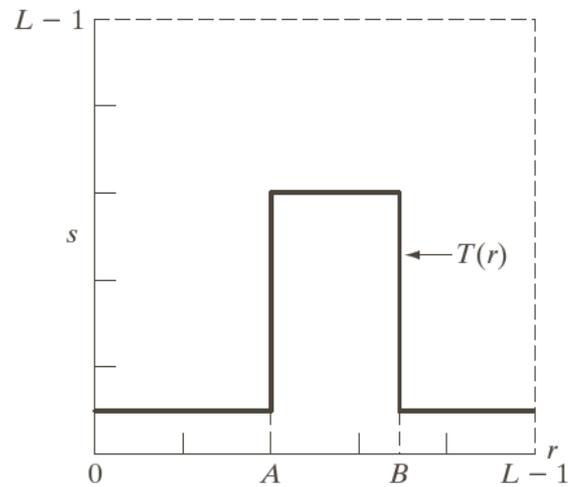
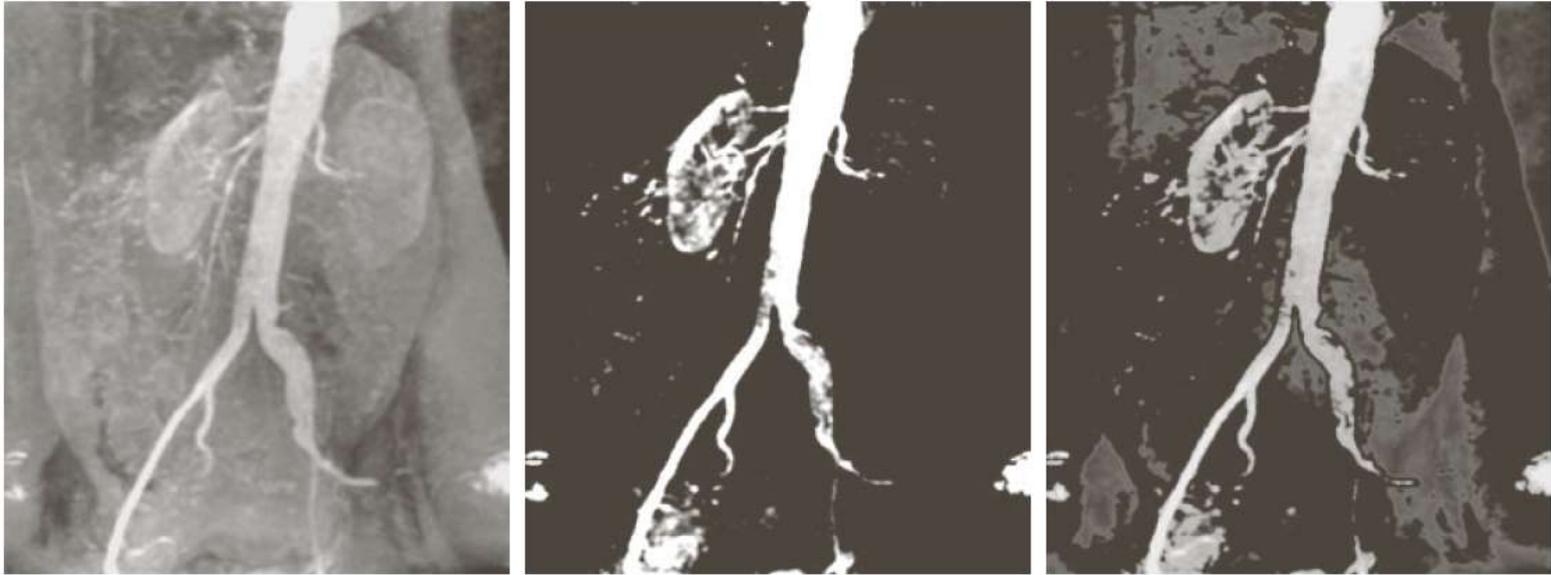
(a) Magnetic resonance image (MRI) of a fractured human spine. (b)–(d) Results of applying the transformation in Eq. (3.2-3) with  $c = 1$  and  $\gamma = 0.6, 0.4,$  and  $0.3,$  respectively. (Original image courtesy of Dr. David R. Pickens, Department of Radiology and Radiological Sciences, Vanderbilt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

# Piecewise linear intensity transformation

- More control
- But also more parameters for user to specify
- Graphical user interface can be useful

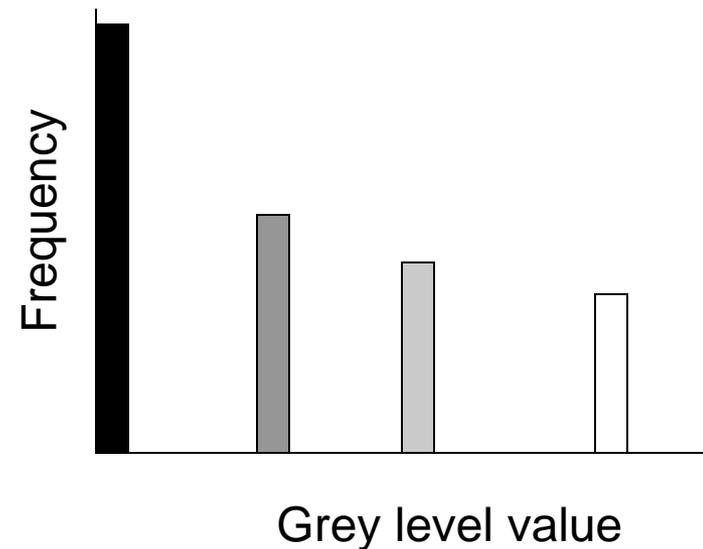
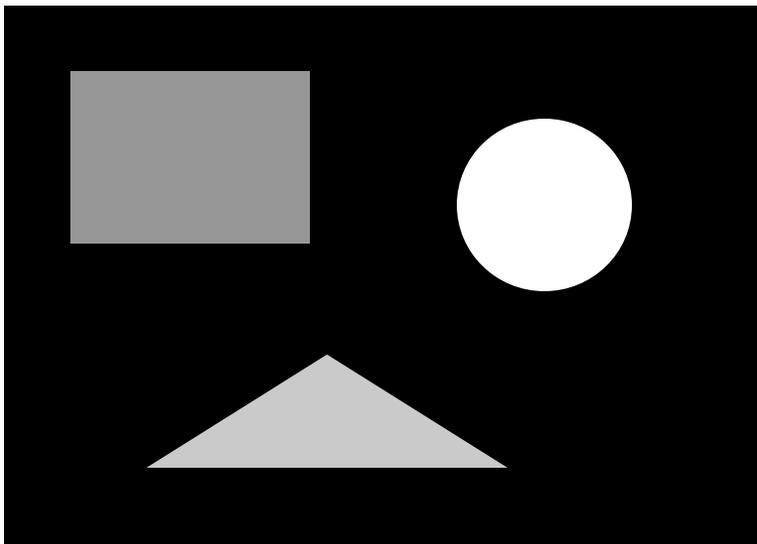


# More intensity transformations



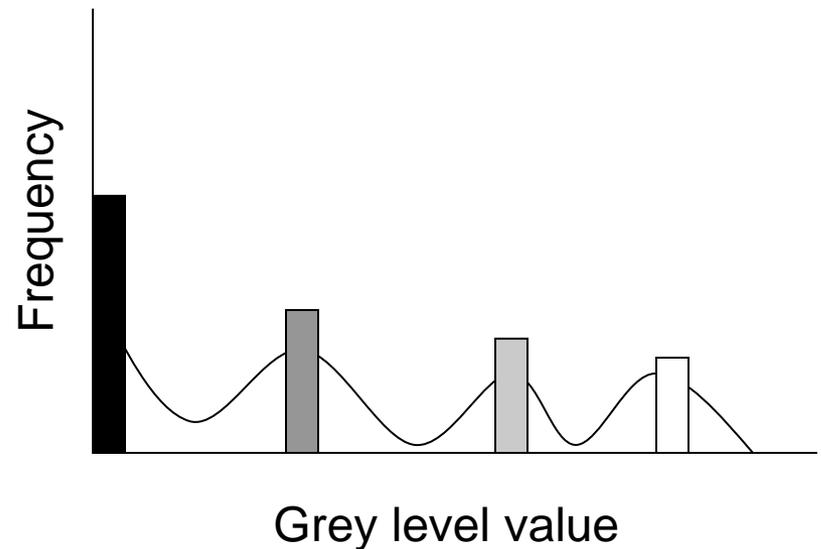
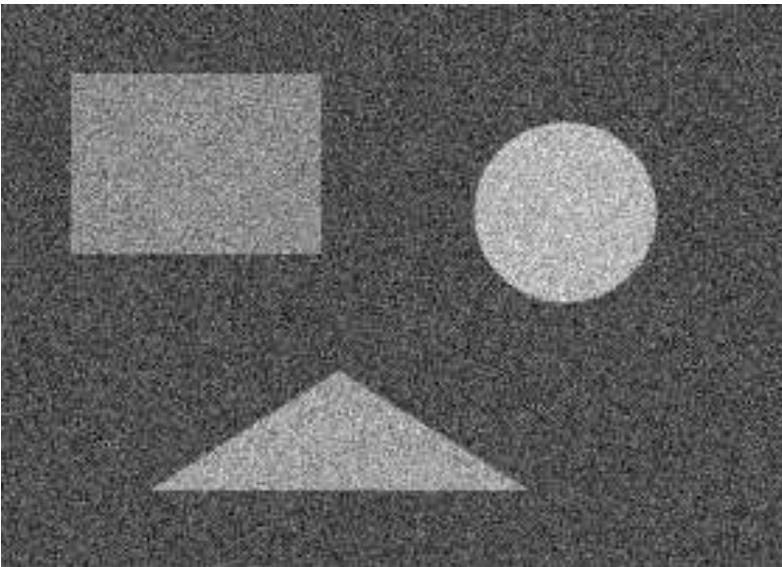
# Histogram of Image Intensities

- Create bins of intensities and count number of pixels at each level
  - Normalize or not (absolute vs % frequency)



# Histograms and Noise

- What happens to the histogram if we add noise?
  - $g(x, y) = f(x, y) + n(x, y)$

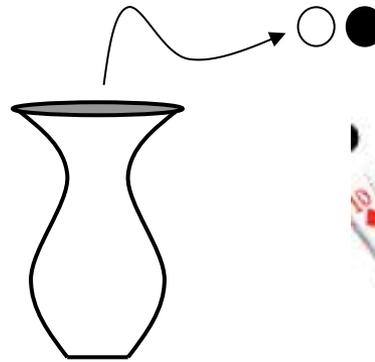


# Sample Spaces

- $S =$  Set of possible outcomes of a random event

- Toy examples

- Dice
- Urn
- Cards



- Probabilities

$$P(S) = 1 \quad A \in S \Rightarrow P(A) \geq 0$$

$$P(\cup_{i=1}^n A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) \quad \text{where } A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$$

$$\cup_{i=1}^n A_i = S \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) = 1$$

# Conditional Probabilities

- Multiple events
  - $S_2 = S_1 \times S_1$  Cartesian product - sets
  - Dice - (2, 4)
  - Urn - (black, black)
- $P(A|B)$  - probability of A in second experiment knowledge of outcome of first experiment
  - This quantifies the effect of the first experiment on the second
- $P(A, B)$  - probability of A in second experiment and B in first experiment
- $P(A, B) = P(A|B)P(B)$

# Independence

- $P(A|B) = P(A)$ 
  - The outcome of one experiment does not affect the other
- Independence  $\rightarrow P(A,B) = P(A)P(B)$
- Dice
  - Each roll is unaffected by the previous (or history)
- Urn
  - Independence  $\rightarrow$  put the stone back after each experiment
- Cards
  - Put each card back after it is picked

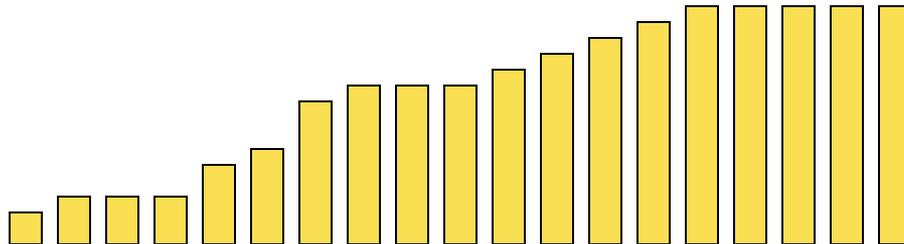
# Random Variable (RV)

- Variable (number) associated with the outcome of an random experiment
- Dice
  - E.g. Assign 1-6 to the faces of dice
- Urn
  - Assign 0 to black and 1 to white (or vise versa)
- Cards
  - Lots of different schemes - depends on application
- A function of a random variable is also a random variable

# Cumulative Distribution Function (cdf)

- $F(x)$ , where  $x$  is a RV
- $F(-\infty) = 0$ ,  $F(\infty) = 1$
- $F(x)$  non decreasing

$$F(x) = \sum_{i=-\infty}^x P(i)$$

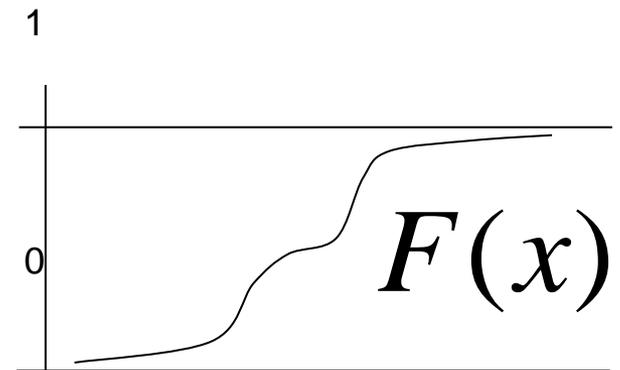
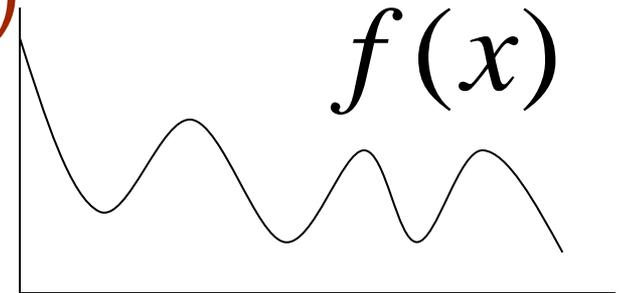


# Continuous Random Variables

- $f(x)$  is pdf (normalized to 1)
- $F(x)$  – cdf continuous  
-->  $x$  is a continuous RV

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(q) dq$$

$$f(x) = \left. \frac{dF(q)}{dq} \right|_x = F'(x)$$



# Probability Density Functions

- $f(x)$  is called a probability density function (pdf)

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) = 1 \quad f(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x$$

- A probability density is not the same as a probability
- The probability of a specific value as an outcome of continuous experiment is (generally) zero
  - To get meaningful numbers you must specify a range

$$P(a \leq x \leq b) = \int_a^b f(q) dq = F(b) - F(a)$$

# Expected Value of a RV

$$E[x] = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} i p(i)$$

$$E[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} q f(q) dq$$

- **Expectation is linear**
  - $E[ax] = aE[x]$  for a scalar (not random)
  - $E[x + y] = E[x] + E[y]$
- **Other properties**
  - $E[z] = z$  ————— if  $z$  is not random

# Mean of a PDF

- Mean:  $E[x] = m$ 
  - also called “ $\mu$ ”
  - The mean is not a random variable—it is a fixed value for any PDF
- Variance:  $E[(x - m)^2] = E[x^2] - 2E[mx] + E[m^2] = E[x^2] - m^2 = E[x^2] - E[x]^2$ 
  - also called “ $\sigma^2$ ”
  - Standard deviation is  $\sigma$
  - If a distribution has zero mean then:  $E[x^2] = \sigma^2$

# Sample Mean

- Run an experiments
  - Take  $N$  samples from a pdf (RV)
  - Sum them up and divide by  $N$
- Let  $M$  be the result of that experiment
  - $M$  is a random variable

$$M = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$$

$$E[M] = E\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i\right] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N E[x_i] = m$$

# Sample Mean

- How close can we expect to be with a sample mean to the true mean?
- Define a new random variable:  $D = (M - m)^2$ .
  - Assume independence of sampling process

$$D = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_i x_i \sum_j x_j - \frac{1}{N} 2m \sum_i x_i + m^2$$

Independence  $\rightarrow E[xy] = E[x]E[y]$

$$\begin{aligned} e[D] &= \frac{1}{N^2} E[\sum_i x_i \sum_j x_j] - \frac{1}{N} 2m E[\sum_i x_i] + m^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{N^2} E[\sum_i x_i \sum_j x_j] - m^2 \end{aligned}$$

Number of terms off diagonal

$$\frac{1}{N^2} E[\sum_i x_i \sum_j x_j] = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_i E[x_i^2] + \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_i \sum_j E[x_i x_j] = \frac{1}{N} \cancel{\sum_i} E[x^2] + \frac{N(N-1)}{N^2} m^2$$

$$E[D] = \frac{1}{N} E[x^2] + \frac{N(N-1)}{N^2} m^2 - \frac{N^2}{N^2} m^2 = \frac{1}{N} (E[x^2] - m^2) = \frac{1}{N} \sigma^2$$

Root mean squared difference between true mean and sample mean is  $\text{stdev}/\sqrt{N}$ .  
**As number of samples  $\rightarrow$  infity, sample mean  $\rightarrow$  true mean.**

# Application: Noisy Images

- Imagine  $N$  images of the same scene with random, independent, zero-mean noise added to each one
  - Nuclear medicine—radioactive events are random
  - Noise in sensors/electronics
- Pixel value is  $s+n$

True pixel  
value



Random noise:

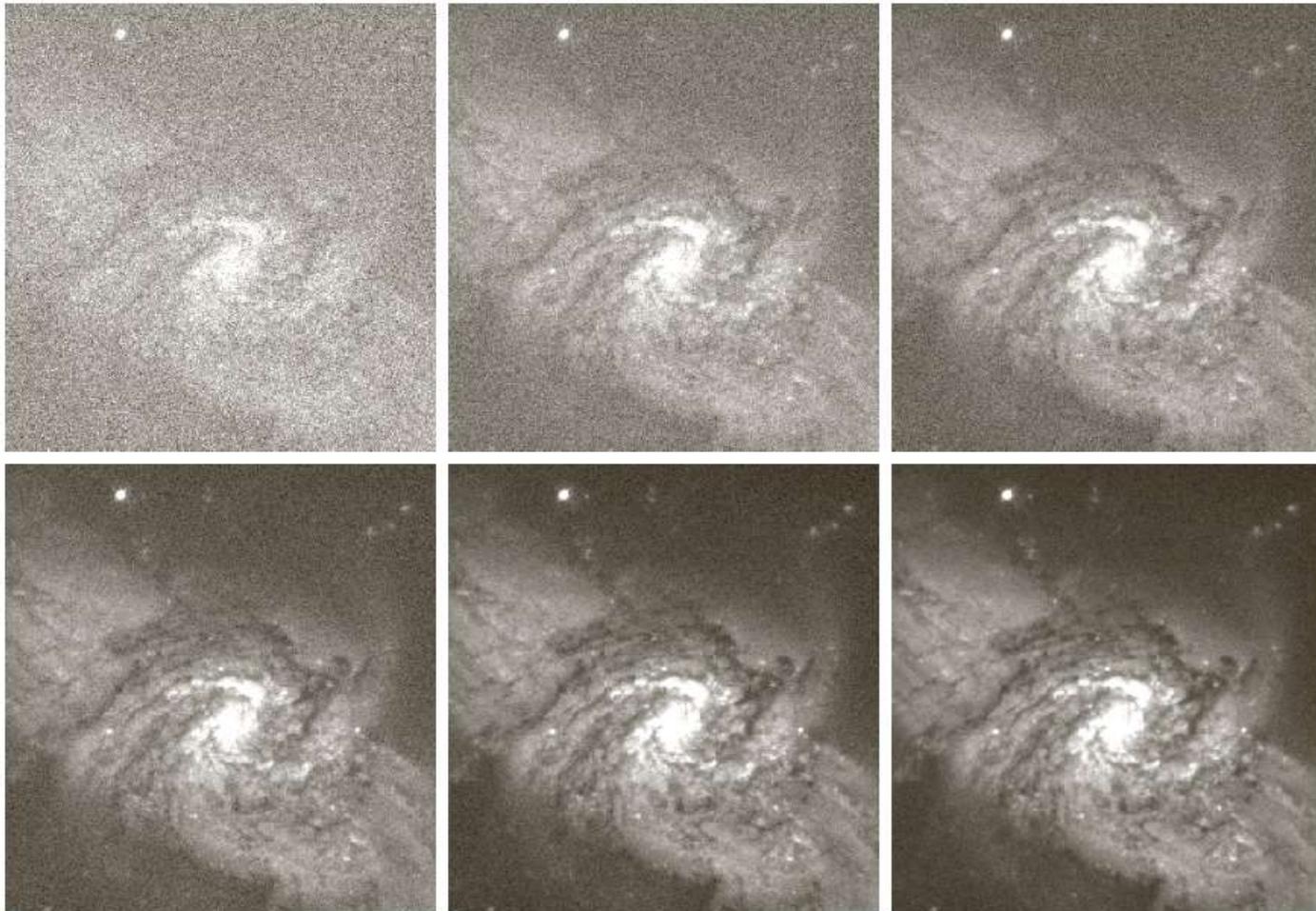
- Independent from one image to the next
- Variance =  $\sigma$

# Application: Noisy Images

- If you take multiple images of the same scene you have
  - $s_i = s + n_i$
  - $S = (1/N) \sum s_i = s + (1/N) \sum n_i$
  - $E[(S - s)^2] = (1/N) E[n_i^2] = (1/N) E[n_i^2] - (1/N) E[n_i]^2 = (1/N)\sigma^2$
  - Expected **root mean squared error** is  $\sigma/\text{sqrt}(N)$
- **Application:**
  - Digital cameras with large gain (high ISO, light sensitivity)
  - Not necessarily random from one image to next
    - Sensors CCD irregularity
  - How would this principle apply

Zero mean

# Averaging Noisy Images Can Improve Quality

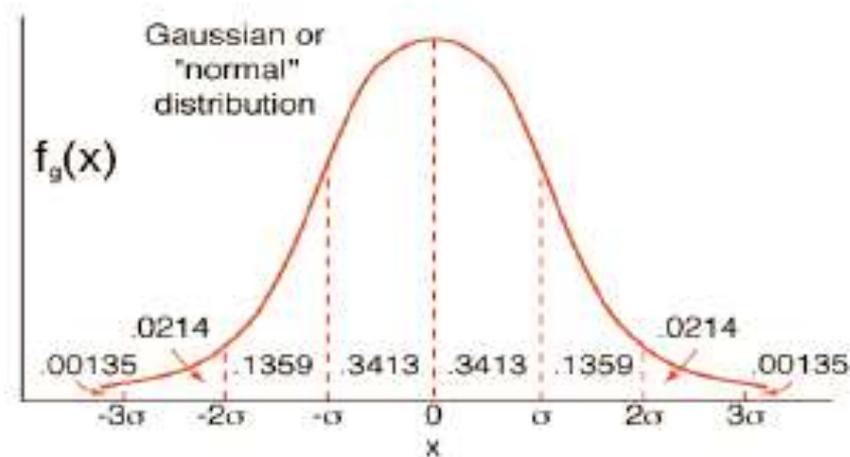


a b c  
d e f

**FIGURE 2.26** (a) Image of Galaxy Pair NGC 3314 corrupted by additive Gaussian noise. (b)–(f) Results of averaging 5, 10, 20, 50, and 100 noisy images, respectively. (Original image courtesy of NASA.)

# Gaussian Distribution

- “Normal” or “bell curve”
- Two parameters:  $\mu$  - mean,  $\sigma$  – standard deviation



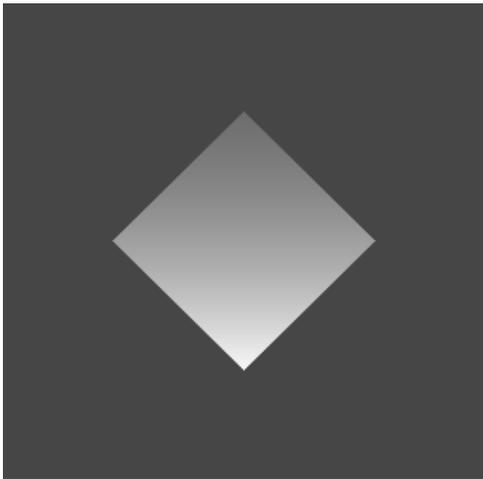
$$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

# Gaussian Properties

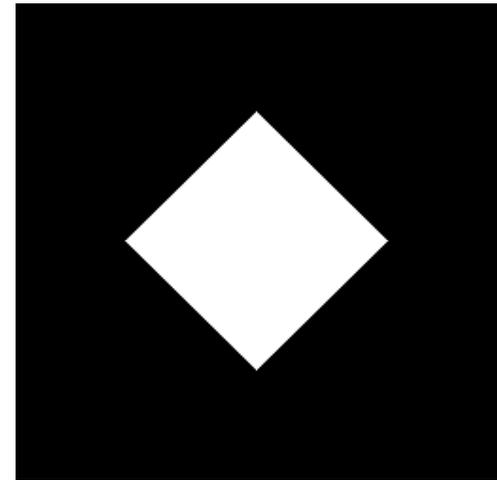
- Best fitting Gaussian to some data is gotten by mean and standard deviation of the samples
- Occurrence
  - Central limit theorem: result from lots of random variables
  - Nature (approximate)
    - Measurement error, physical characteristic, physical phenomenon
    - Diffusion of heat or chemicals

# What is image segmentation?

- Image segmentation is the process of subdividing an image into its constituent regions or objects.
- Example segmentation with two regions:



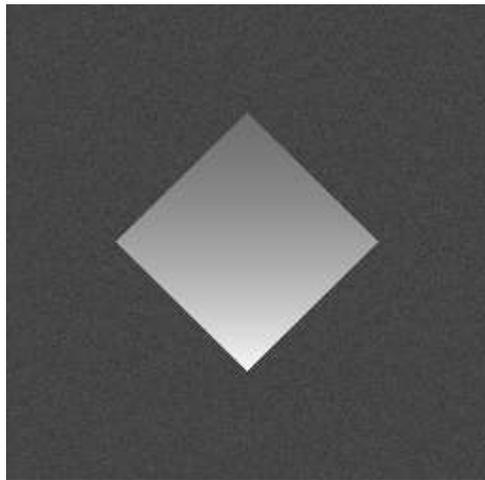
Input image  
intensities 0-255



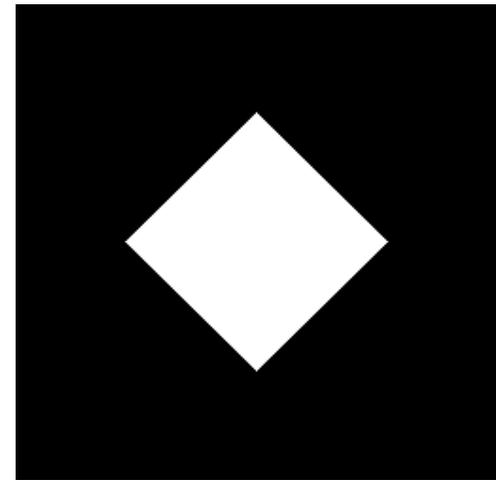
Segmentation output  
0 (background)  
1 (foreground)

# Thresholding

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(x, y) > T \\ 0 & \text{if } f(x, y) \leq T \end{cases}$$



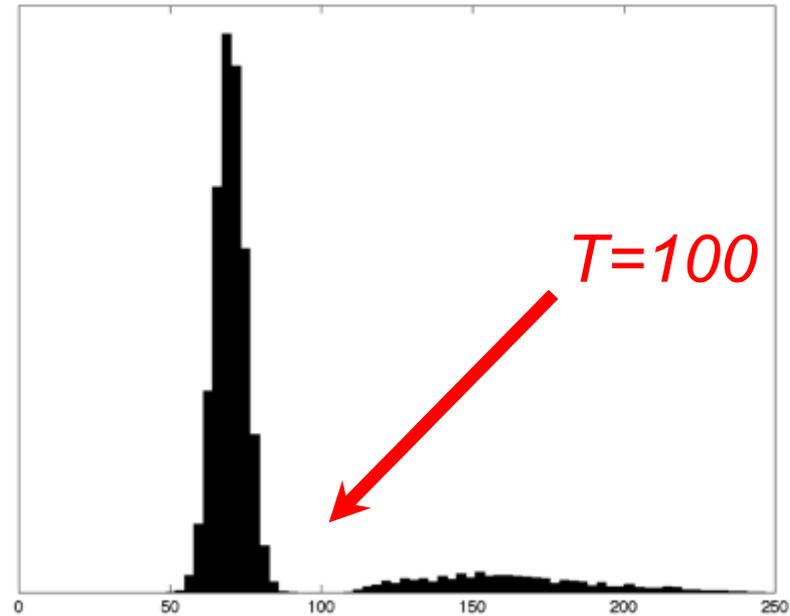
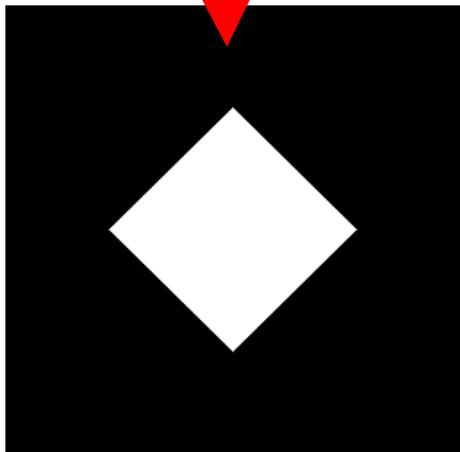
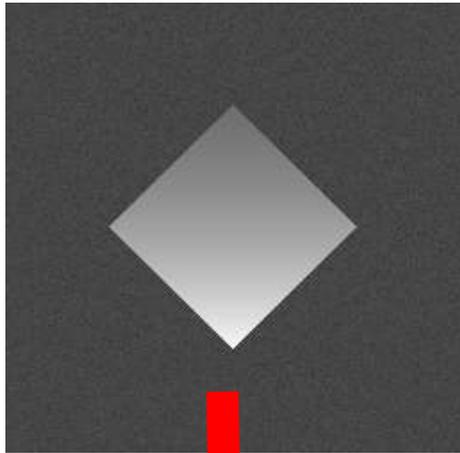
Input image  $f(x,y)$   
intensities 0-255



Segmentation output  $g(x,y)$   
0 (background)  
1 (foreground)

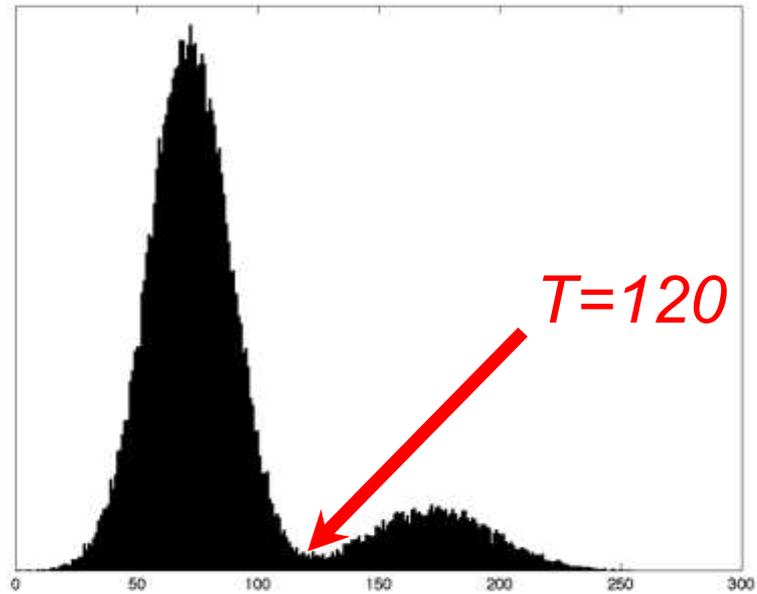
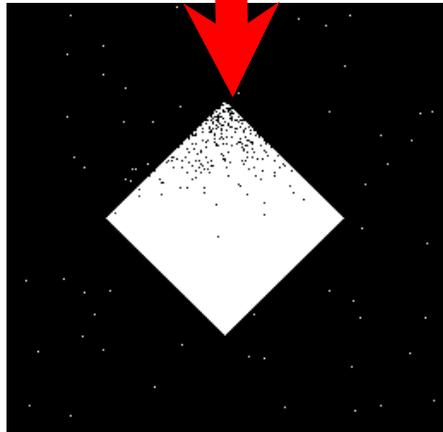
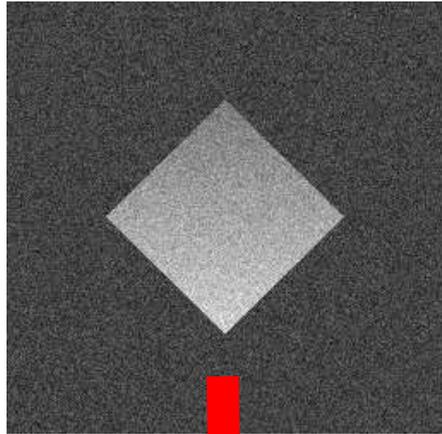
- How can we choose  $T$ ?
  - Trial and error
  - Use the histogram of  $f(x,y)$

# Choosing a threshold

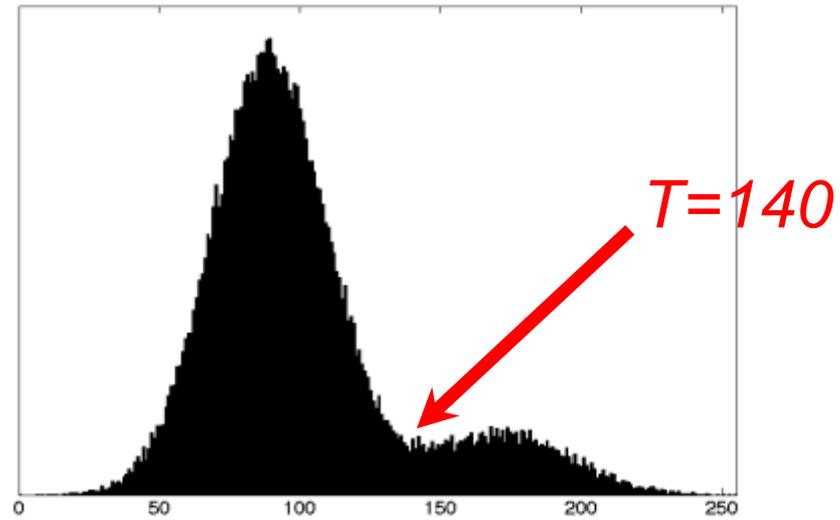
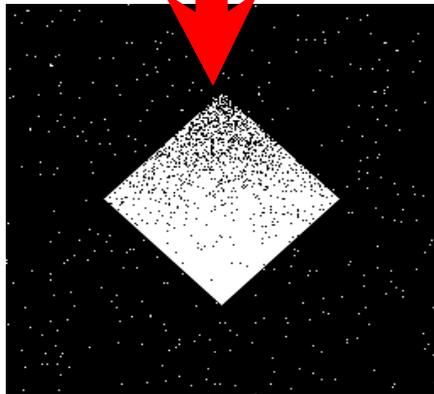
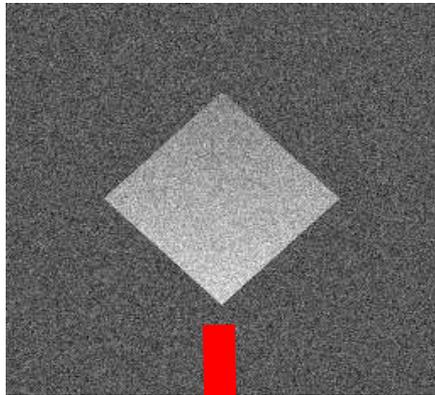


Histogram

# Role of noise

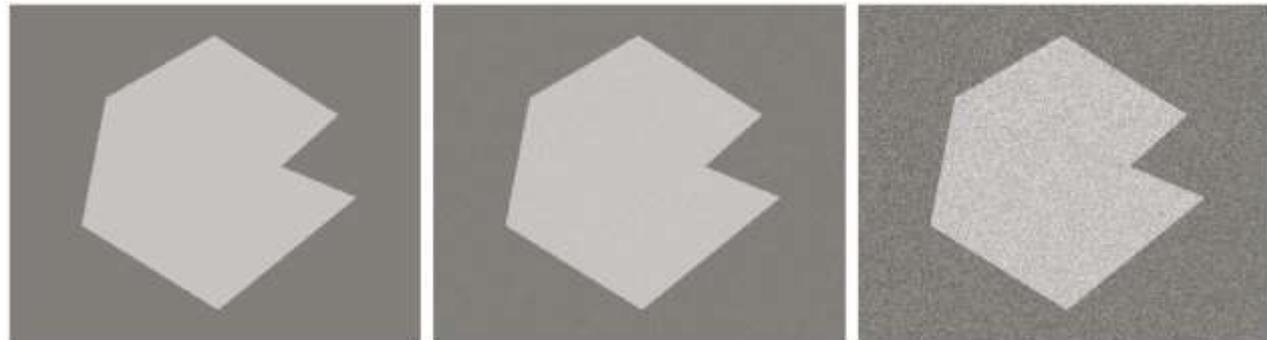


# Low signal-to-noise ratio

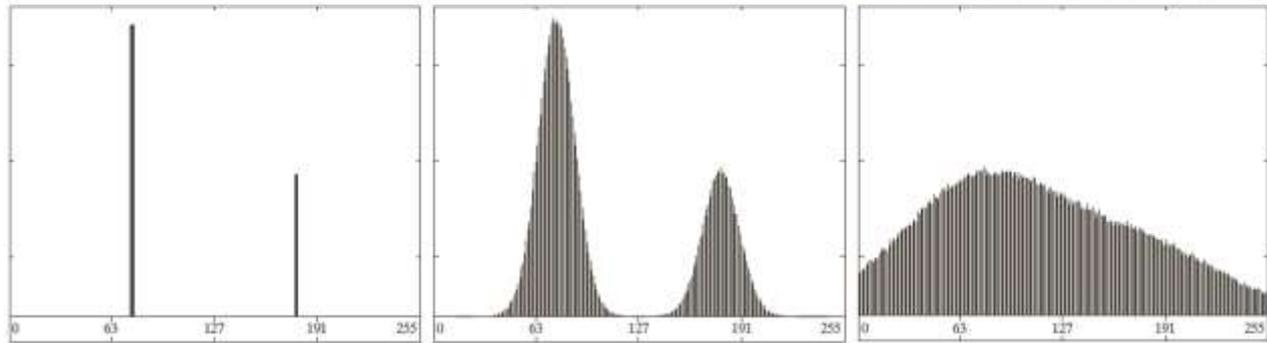


# Effect of noise on image histogram

Images



Histograms



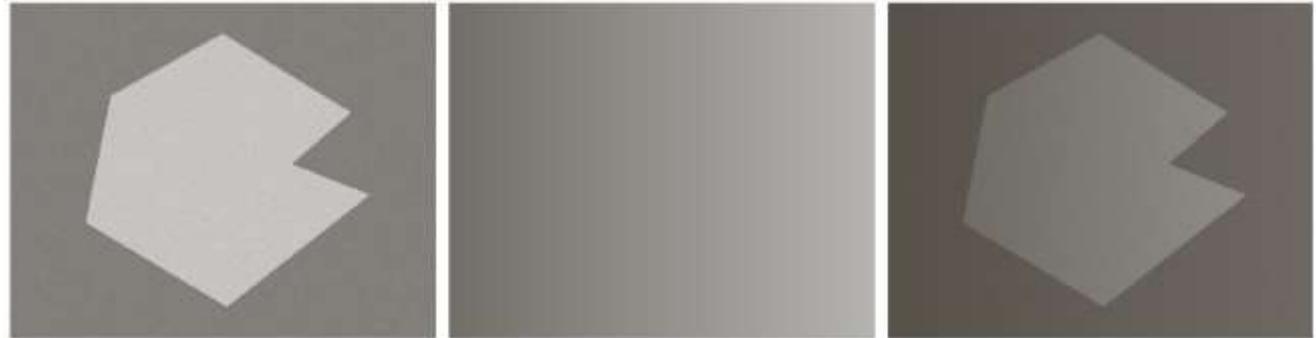
No noise

With noise

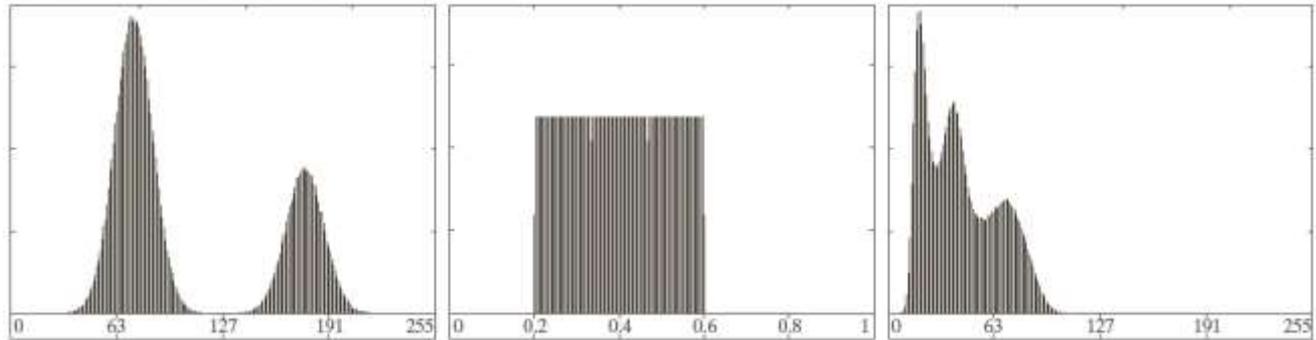
More noise

# Effect of illumination on histogram

Images



Histograms



f  
Original  
image

x

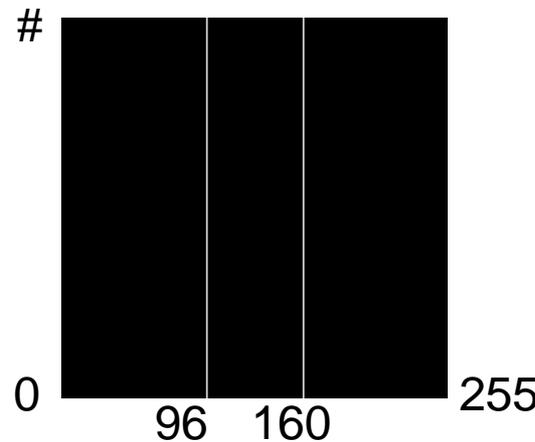
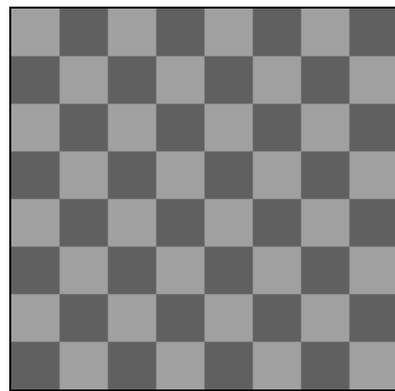
g  
Illumination  
image

=

h  
Final  
image

# Histogram of Pixel Intensity Distribution

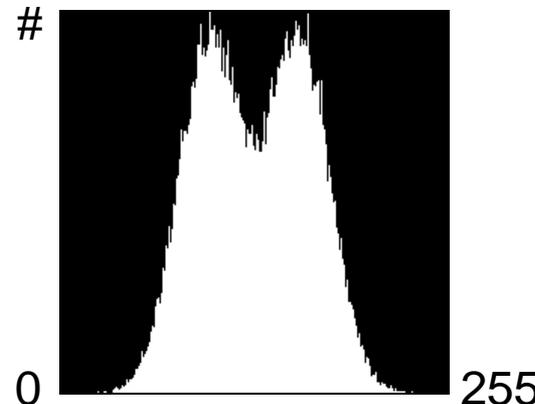
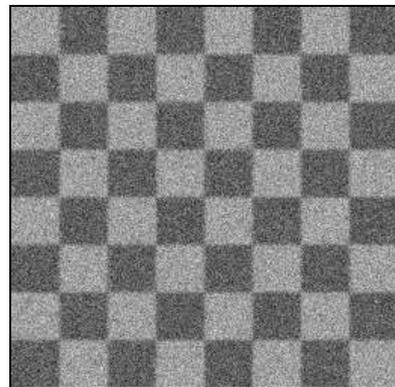
**Histogram:** Distribution of intensity values  $p(v)$   
(count #pixels for each intensity level)



Checkerboard with values 96 and 160.

Histogram:

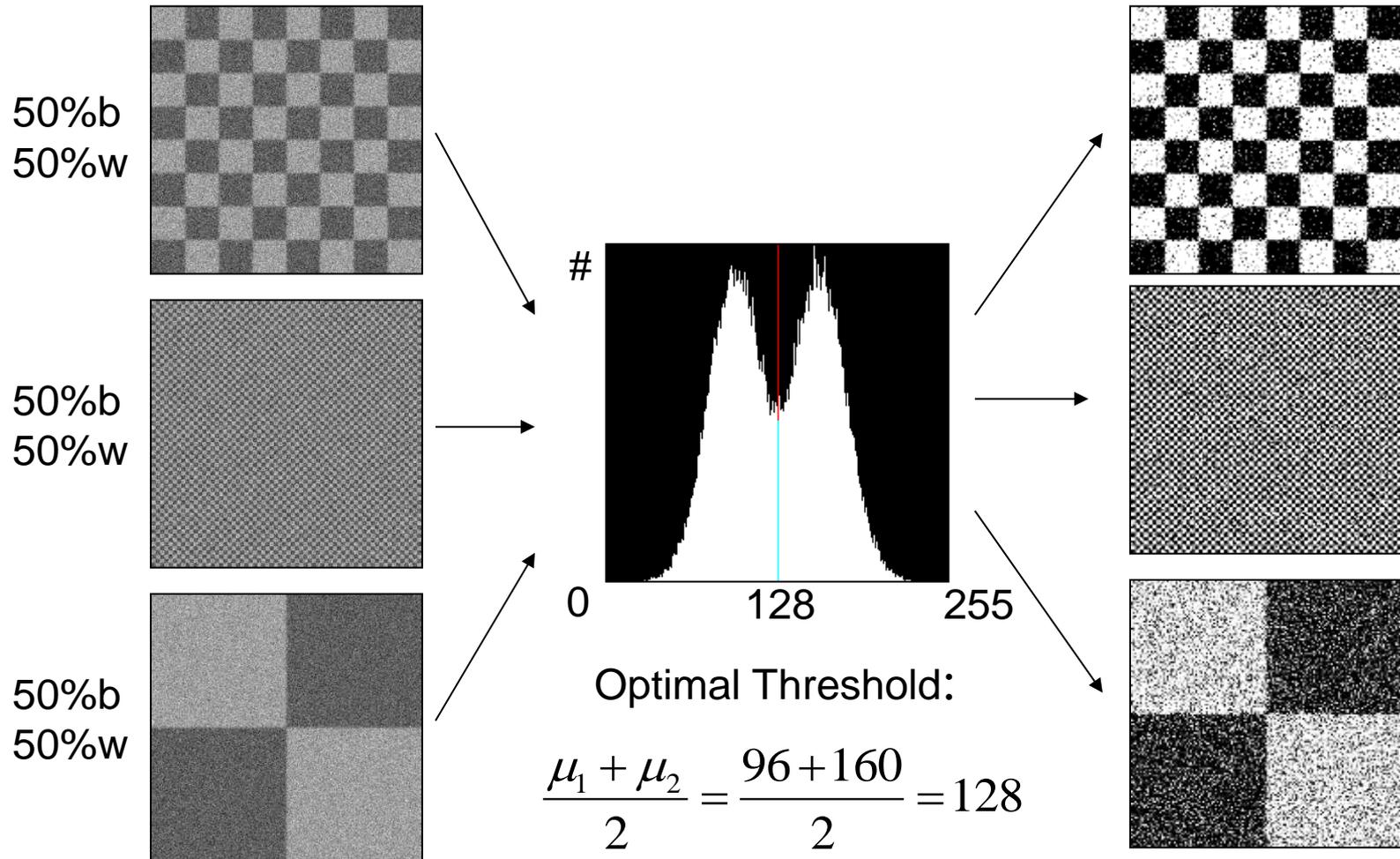
- horizontal: intensity
- vertical: # pixels



Checkerboard with additive Gaussian noise (sigma 20).

Regions: 50% b, 50% w

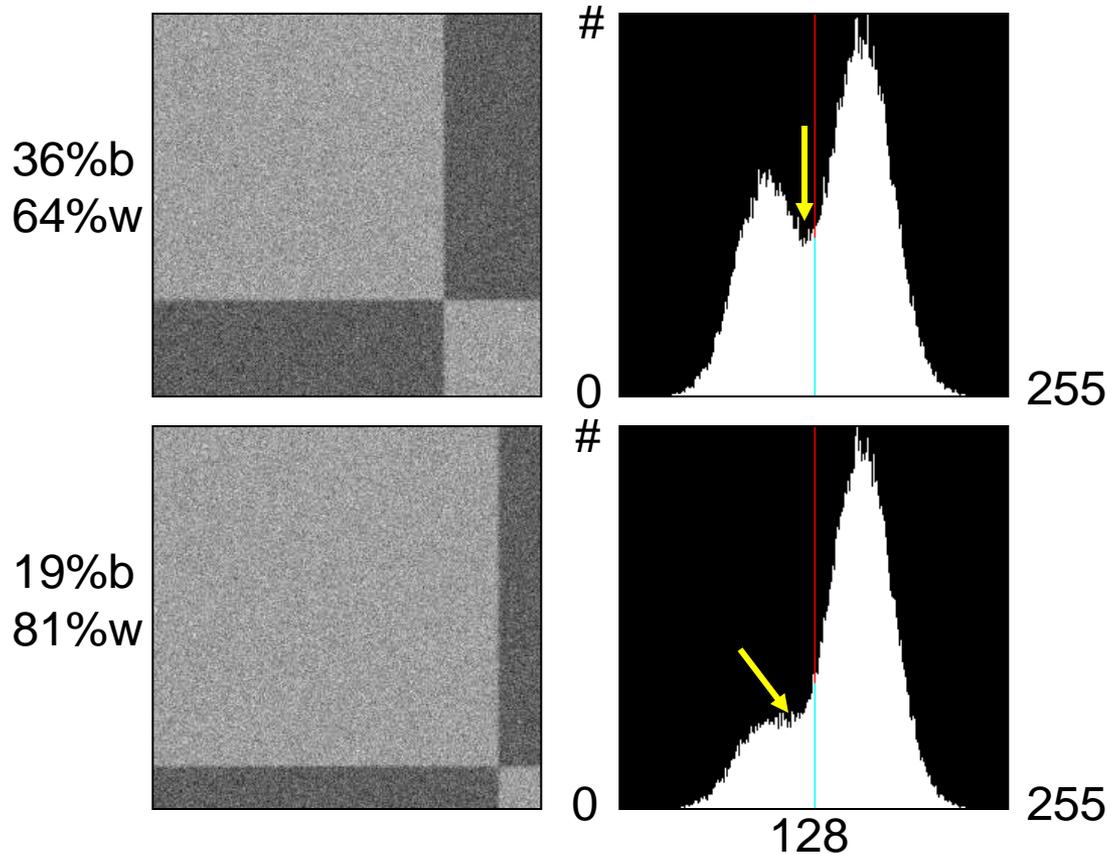
# Classification by Thresholding



# Important!

- Histogram does not represent image structure such as regions and shapes, but only distribution of intensity values
- Many images share the same histogram

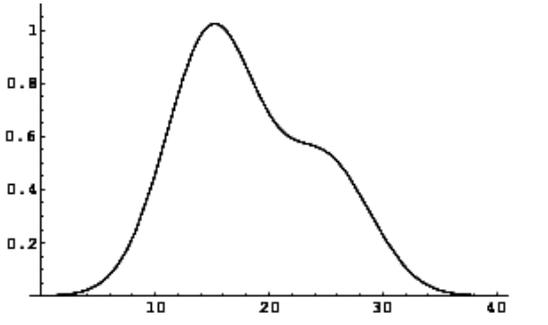
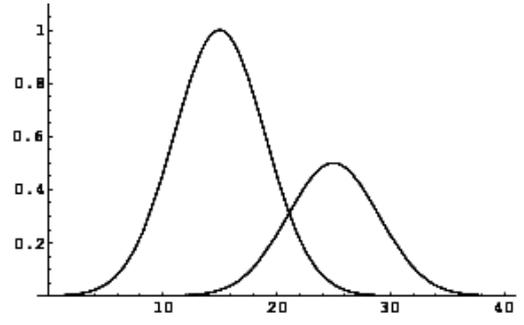
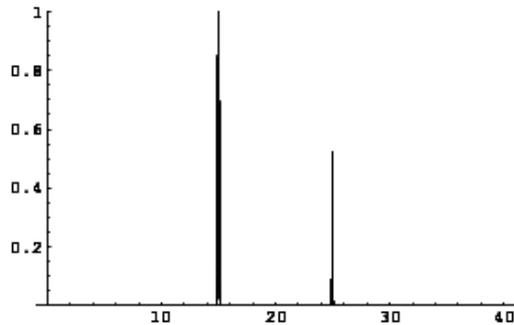
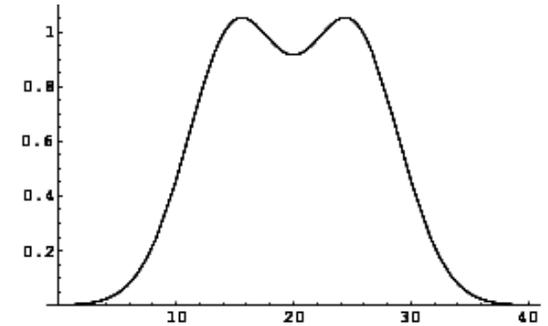
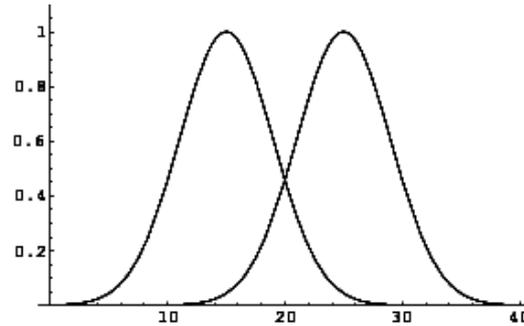
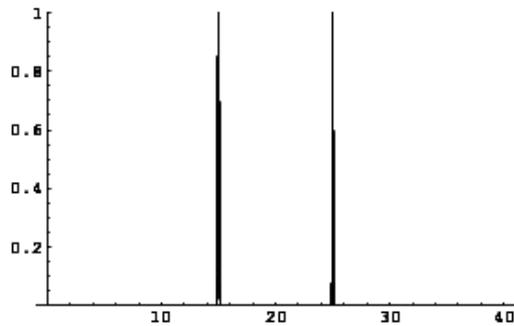
# Is the histogram suggesting the right threshold?



Proportions of bright and dark regions are different  $\Rightarrow$  Peak presenting bright regions becomes dominant.

Threshold value 128 does not match with valley in distribution.

# Histogram as Superposition of PDF's (probability density functions)



Regions with  
2 brightness levels,  
different proportions

Corruption with  
Gaussian noise,  
individual distributions

Histogram:  
Superposition of  
distributions

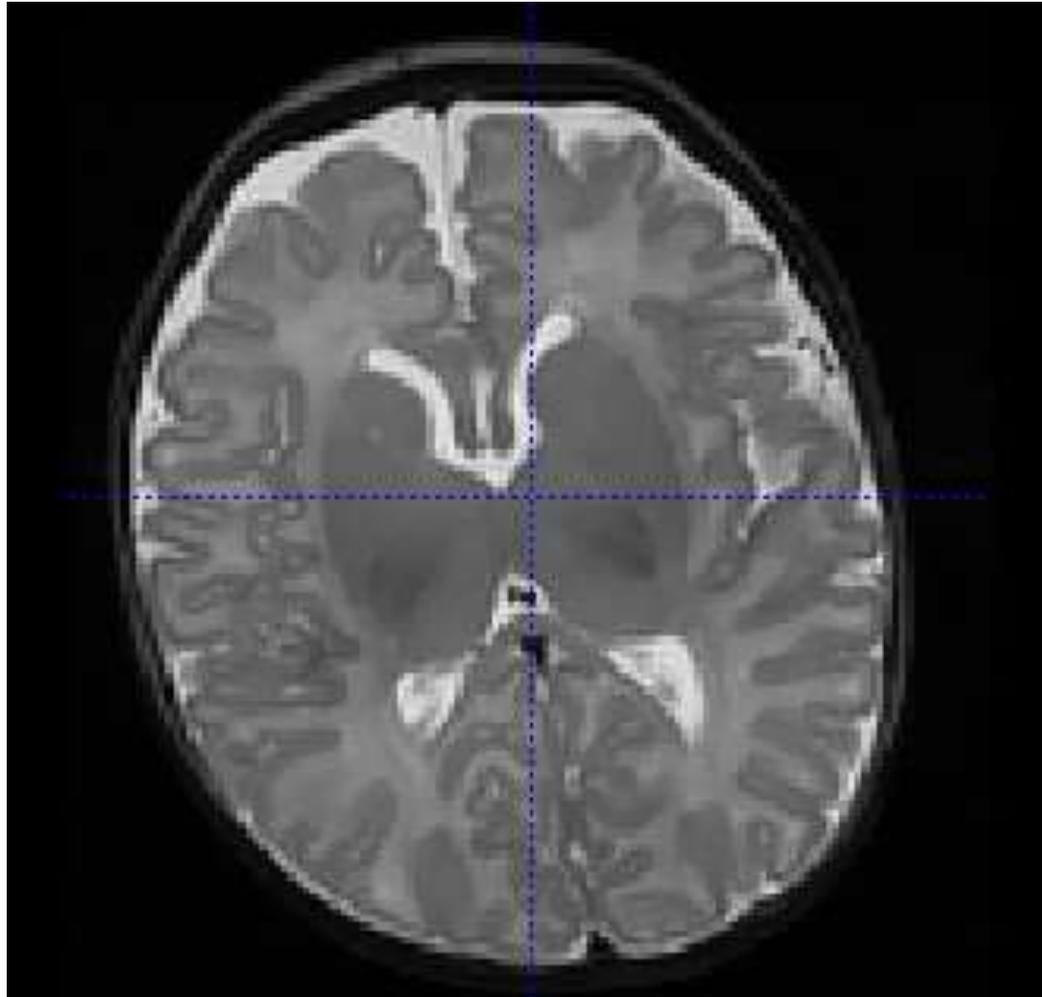
# Gaussian Mixture Model

$$hist = a_1 G(\mu_1, \sigma_1) + a_2 G(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$$

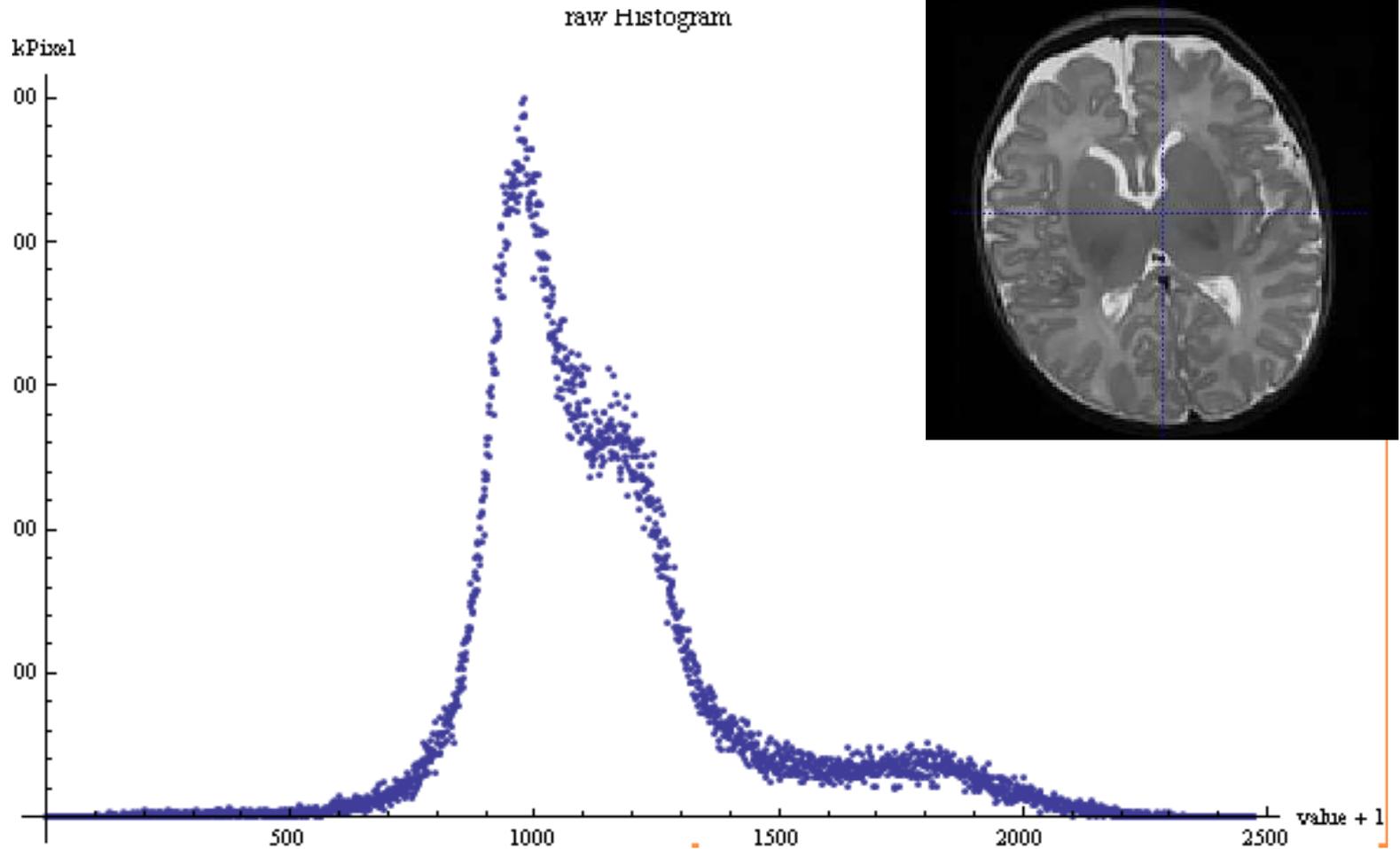
*more general with  $k$  classes :*

$$hist = \sum_k a_k G(\mu_k, \sigma_k)$$

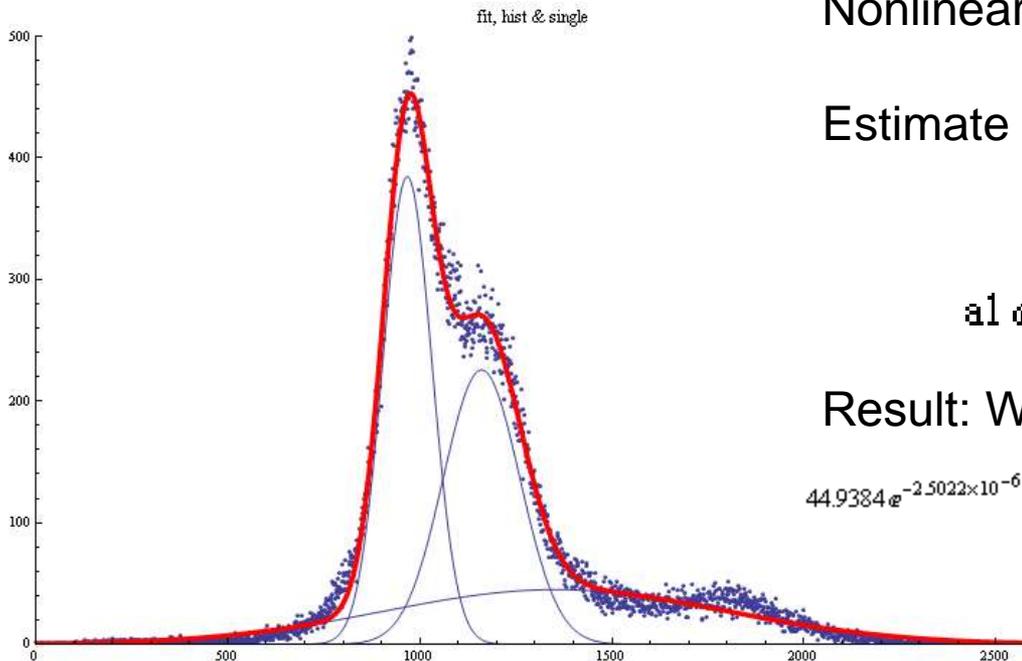
# Example: MRI



# Example: MRI



# Fit with 3 weighted Gaussians



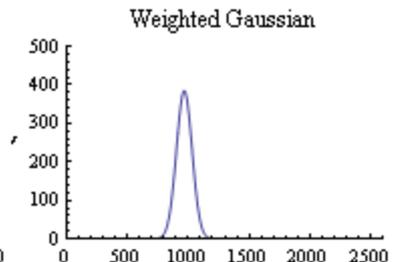
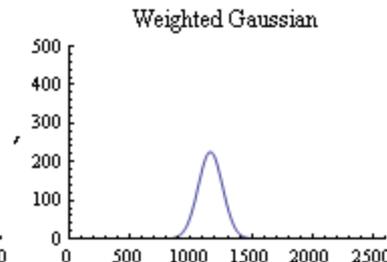
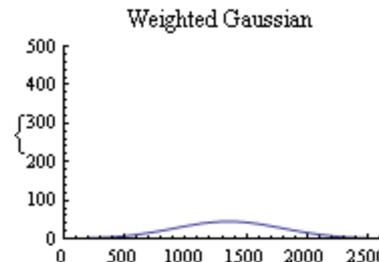
Nonlinear optimization

Estimate 9 parameters for best fit:

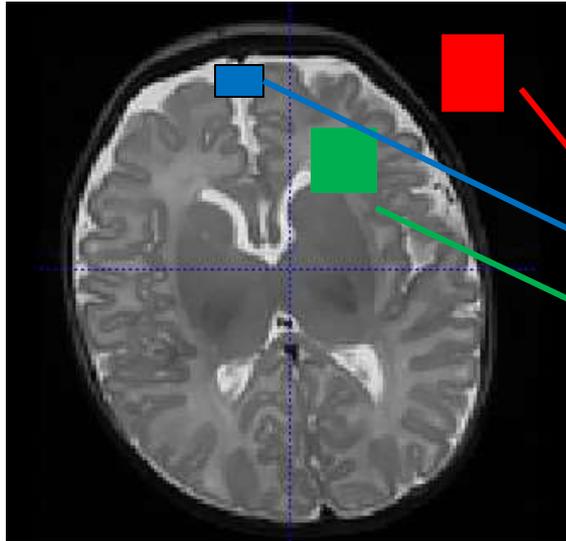
$$a_1 e^{-\frac{(x-\mu y_1)^2}{2 \text{sig}1^2}} + a_2 e^{-\frac{(x-\mu y_2)^2}{2 \text{sig}2^2}} + a_3 e^{-\frac{(x-\mu y_3)^2}{2 \text{sig}3^2}}$$

Result: Weighted sum of Gaussians (pdf's):

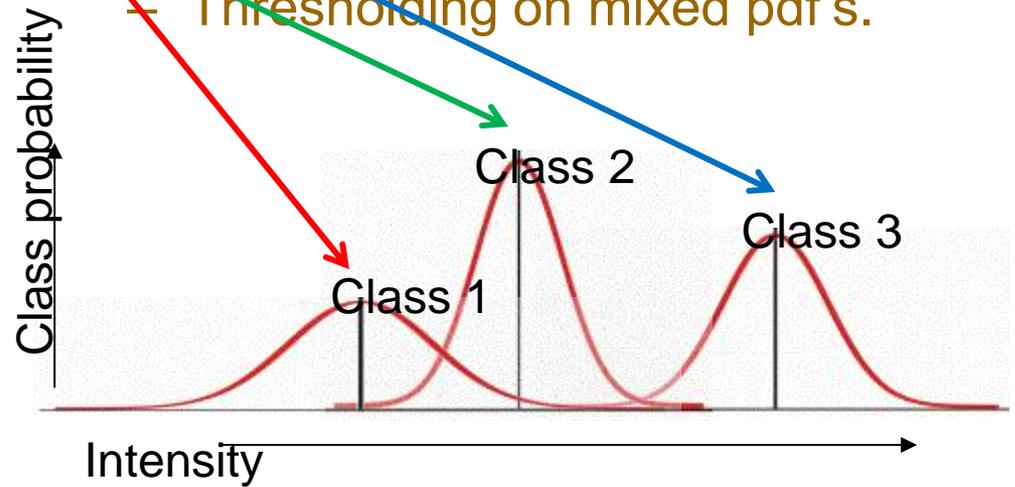
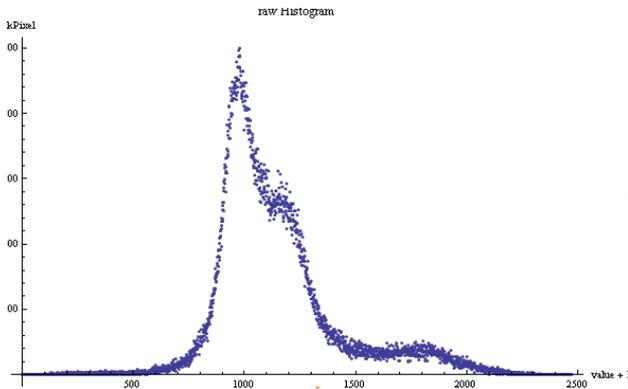
$$44.9384 e^{-2.5022 \times 10^{-6} (x-1353.63)^2} + 225.575 e^{-0.0000503733 (x-1160.5)^2} + 384.58 e^{-0.000122748 (x-967.112)^2}$$



# Segmentation: Learning pdf's



- We learned: histogram can be misleading due to different size of regions.
- **Solution:**
  - Estimate class-specific pdf's via training (or nonlinear optimization)
  - Thresholding on mixed pdf's.



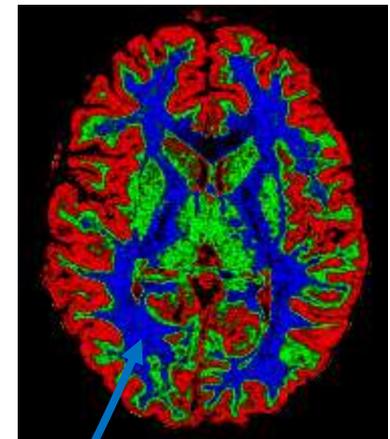
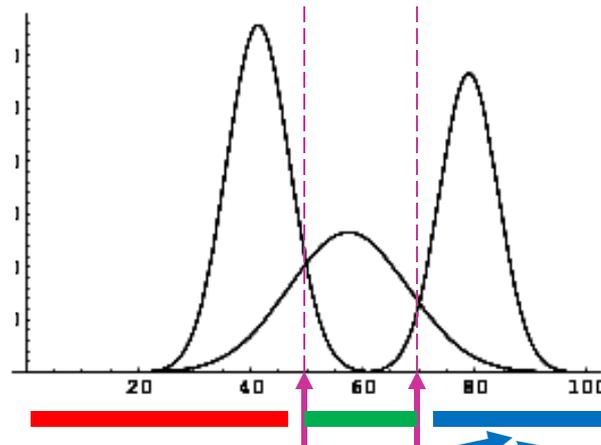
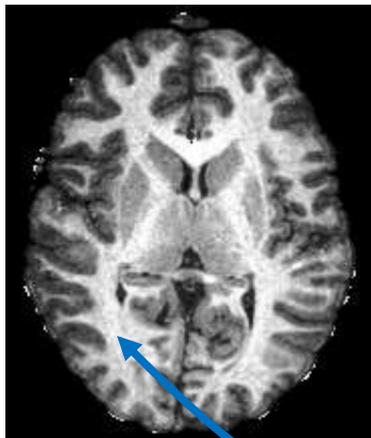
# Segmentation: Learning pdf's

*set of pdf's:*

$$G_k(\mu_k, \sigma_k | k), \quad (k = 1, \dots, n)$$

*calculate thresholds*

*assign pixels to categories*



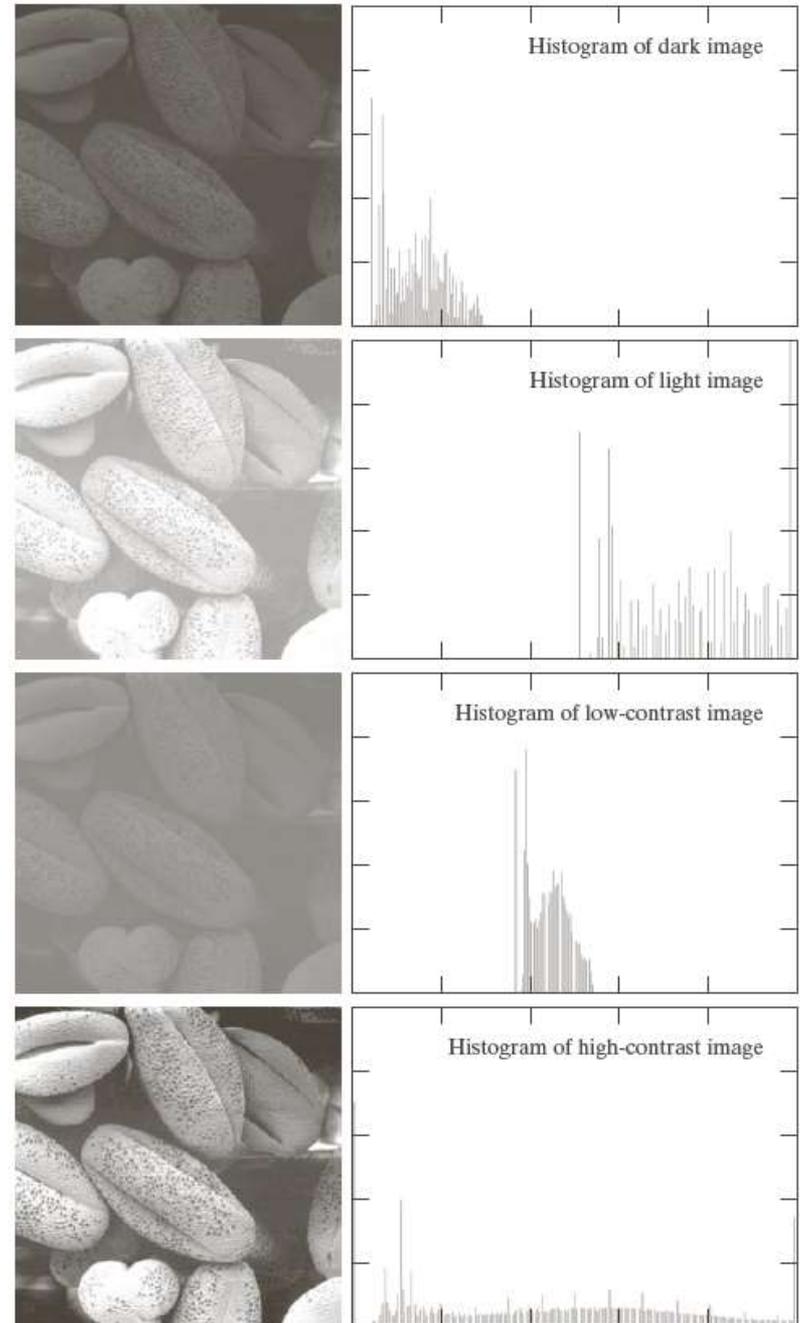
Classification

# Histogram Processing and Equalization

- Notes

# Histograms

- $h(r_k) = n_k$ 
  - Histogram: number of times intensity level  $r_k$  appears in the image
- $p(r_k) = n_k / NM$ 
  - normalized histogram
  - also a probability of occurrence



# Histogram equalization

- Automatic process of enhancing the contrast of any given image



# Histogram Equalization



# Adaptive Histogram Equalization: AHE



# Next Class

- Continue with histogram equalization and matching
- Read chapters 3.1/3.2 (repetition) and 3.3 as introduction to next class.