

utility of edge information

- boundaries of objects tend to show up as intensity discontinuities in images
- often an edge can be recognized from only a crude outline
- boundary representation is easy to integrate into object recognition algorithms

edge operator detects the presence of local edges.

- most edge operators compute a direction aligned with direction of maximum grey-level change and a magnitude indicating extent of change
- sensitive to high frequency noise
- types of edge operators
 - (1) approximations of gradient operator
 - (2) template matching at different orientations
 - (3) curve fitting intensity information to edge models.

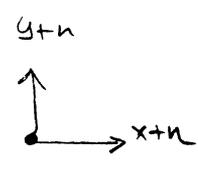
→ Laplacian has fallen into disuse

earliest edge operator - Robert's operator.
(gradient)

$$s(\underline{x}) = \sqrt{\Delta_1^2 + \Delta_2^2}$$

$$\phi(\underline{x}) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta_1} \right)$$

where $\Delta_1 = f(x+n, y) - f(x, y)$
 $\Delta_2 = f(x, y+n) - f(x, y)$



was very sensitive to noise

use local averaging to reduce noise effects.

Prewitt operator

| | | |
|----|---|---|
| -1 | 0 | 1 |
| -1 | 0 | 1 |
| -1 | 0 | 1 |

| | | |
|----|----|----|
| 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| -1 | -1 | -1 |

Sobel operator

| | | |
|----|---|---|
| -1 | 0 | 1 |
| -2 | 0 | 2 |
| -1 | 0 | 1 |

| | | |
|----|----|----|
| 1 | 2 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| -1 | -2 | -1 |

very optimal system!

center weighted.

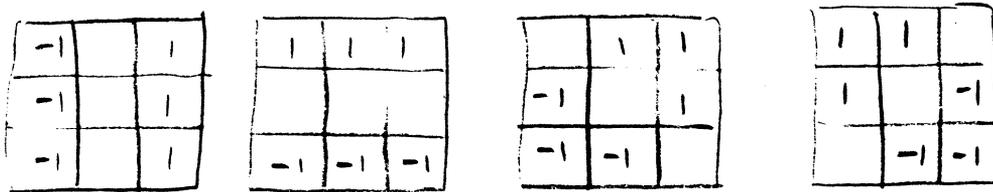
edge-templates (just really correlation)

Kirsch templates

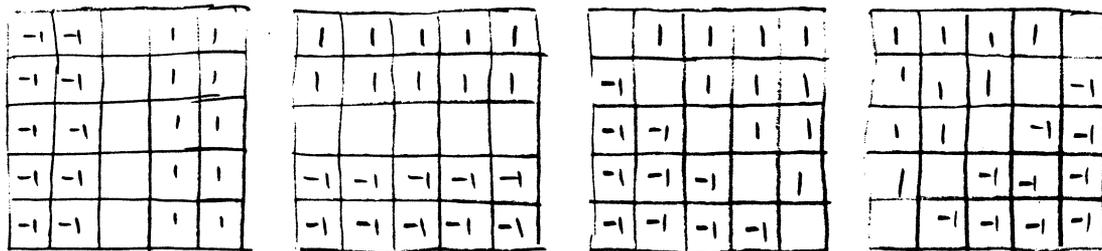
$n = \frac{1}{2}$



$n = 1$



$n = 2$



these are $f(x_k)$

Kirsch operator
(related to edge gradient)

$$S(x) = \max \left[1, \max_{k=0}^{n-1} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} |f(x_k) - f(x)| \right]$$

this part locates maximum change
the k gives direction

this part compares it with a threshold.

| | | |
|---|----------|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 7 | <u>x</u> | 3 |
| 6 | 5 | 4 |

used this to give direction

Kirsch operator has been replaced by above templates.

HUNCH: human vision uses low-level template matching edge operators.

where is an edge? gradient is rarely equal to zero
threshold gradient: edge at \underline{x} iff $\nabla f(\underline{x}) > T$
does this work? not if edge is weak.

edge activity

Frei-Chen - edge operators are actually orthogonal basis function of edginess, Represent local activity as a "Fourier" ~~like~~ series

basis functions $h_k(o)$

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

k=0

| | | |
|----|-------------|----|
| -1 | $-\sqrt{2}$ | -1 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | $\sqrt{2}$ | 1 |

k=1

| | | |
|-------------|----|------------|
| 0 | -1 | $\sqrt{2}$ |
| 1 | 0 | -1 |
| $-\sqrt{2}$ | 1 | 0 |

k=3

| | | |
|----|----|---|
| 0 | 1 | 0 |
| -1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | -1 | 0 |

k=5

| | | |
|----|----|----|
| 1 | -2 | 1 |
| -2 | 4 | -2 |
| 1 | -2 | 1 |

k=7

| | | |
|-------------|---|------------|
| -1 | 0 | 1 |
| $-\sqrt{2}$ | 0 | $\sqrt{2}$ |
| -1 | 0 | 1 |

k=2

| | | |
|------------|----|-------------|
| $\sqrt{2}$ | -1 | 0 |
| -1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | $-\sqrt{2}$ |

k=4

| | | |
|----|---|----|
| -1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | -1 |

k=6

| | | |
|----|---|----|
| -2 | 1 | -2 |
| 1 | 4 | 1 |
| -2 | 1 | -2 |

k=8

write image in neighborhood of \underline{x} as

$$f(\underline{x}_0) = \sum \frac{\langle f, h_k \rangle}{\langle h_k, h_k \rangle} h_k(\underline{x} - \underline{x}_0)$$

dot products or correlations

basically write as a Frei-Chen series

how much edginess is there?

total energy $S = \sum_{k=0}^8 \langle f, h_k \rangle^2$

these are just all the coefficients

total energy in neighborhood

edge energy $E = \sum_{k=1}^2 \langle f, h_k \rangle^2$

these are just the horizontal and vertical edges energy.

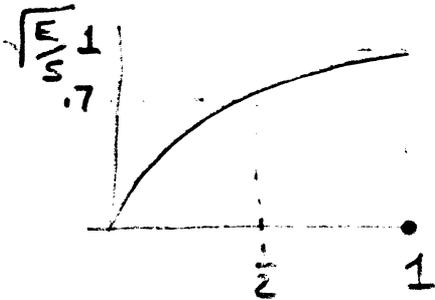
total energy in neighborhood

removes sign and does edge compression.

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{\frac{E}{S}}\right)$$

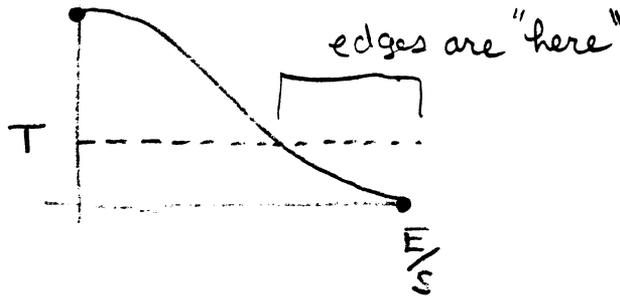
so that we are comparing energy

if $\theta < T \Rightarrow$ an edge, otherwise not.

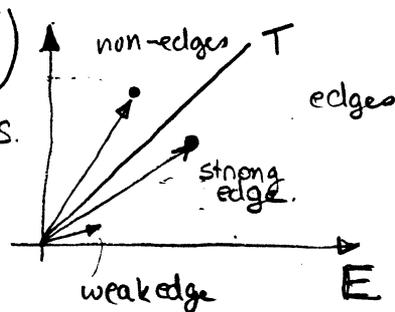
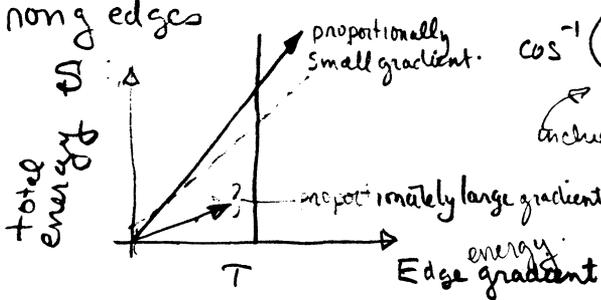


compression: limits large "edginess"

$$\cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{\frac{E}{S}}\right)$$



Frei-Chen method normalizes to produce uniform sensitivity to weak and strong edges

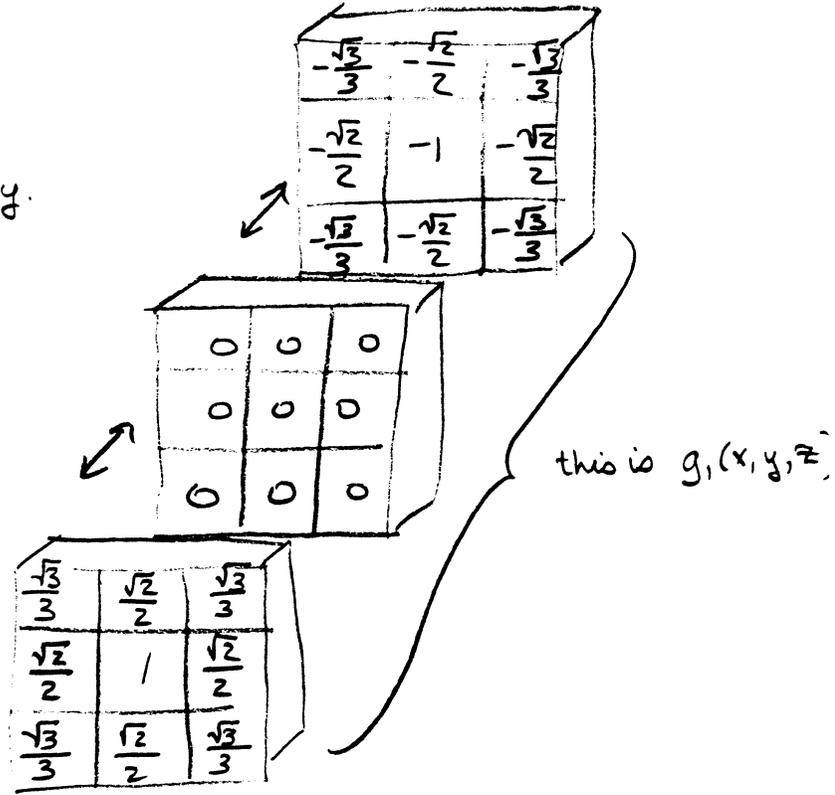
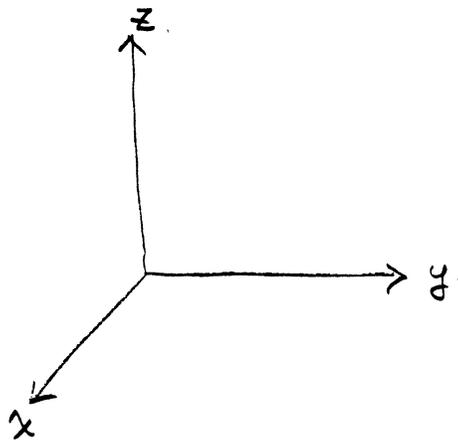


normalizes "edginess"

weak edges only are lost strong edges survive

a large fraction of edges energy identifies edges!

three-dimensional edge operators (Zucker-Hummel)



x directed basis function.

y-directed

z-directed

$g_1(x, y, z)$

$g_2(x, y, z)$

$g_3(x, y, z)$

this is x directed.
 $\underline{n} = (a, b, c)$.

compute $a = \langle g_1, f(x) \rangle$

$b = \langle g_2, f(x) \rangle$

$c = \langle g_3, f(x) \rangle$

surface normal $\underline{n} = (a, b, c)$

surface element detected if $|\underline{n}| > T$, some threshold.

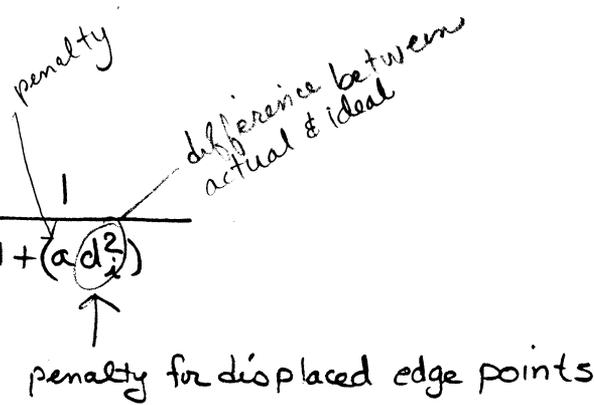
How good is an edge operator?

Pratt's figure of merit

$$F = \frac{1}{\max(N_A, N_I)}$$

$$\sum_{L=1}^{N_A} \frac{1}{1 + (ad^2)}$$

normalizes to 1
in other words # of edges



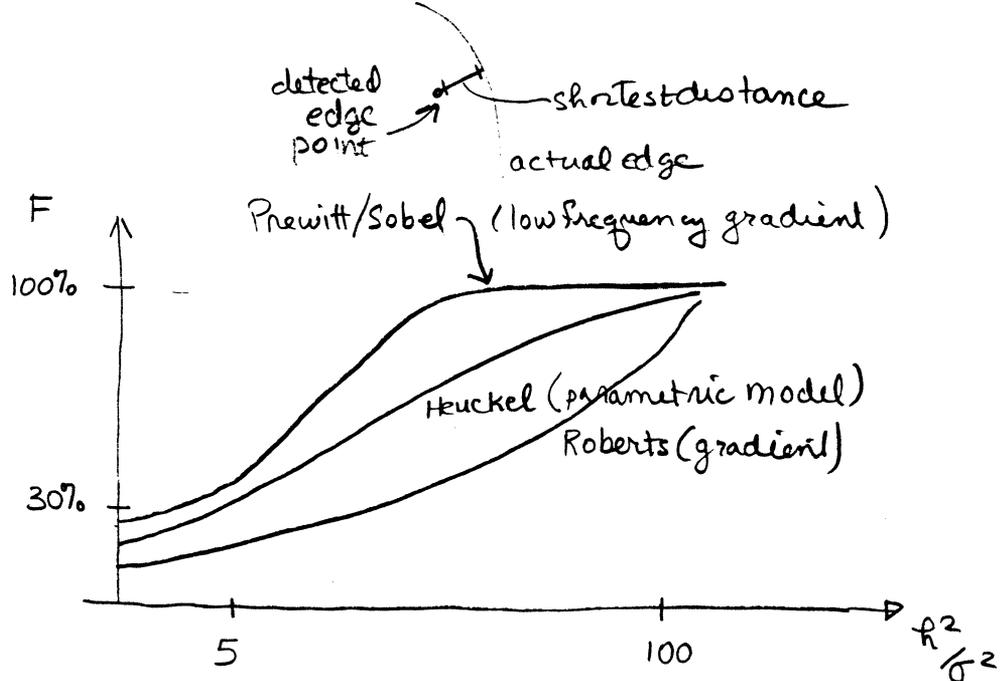
penalty for displaced edge points

N_A = detected edge points

N_I = actual edge points

a = scaling constant

d = signed separation distance of an actual edge point normal to a line of ideal edge points.



high $\frac{S}{N} \rightarrow$ $h = \frac{\text{step}}{\text{edge amplitude}}$
 $\sigma = \text{standard deviation of Gaussian white noise}$

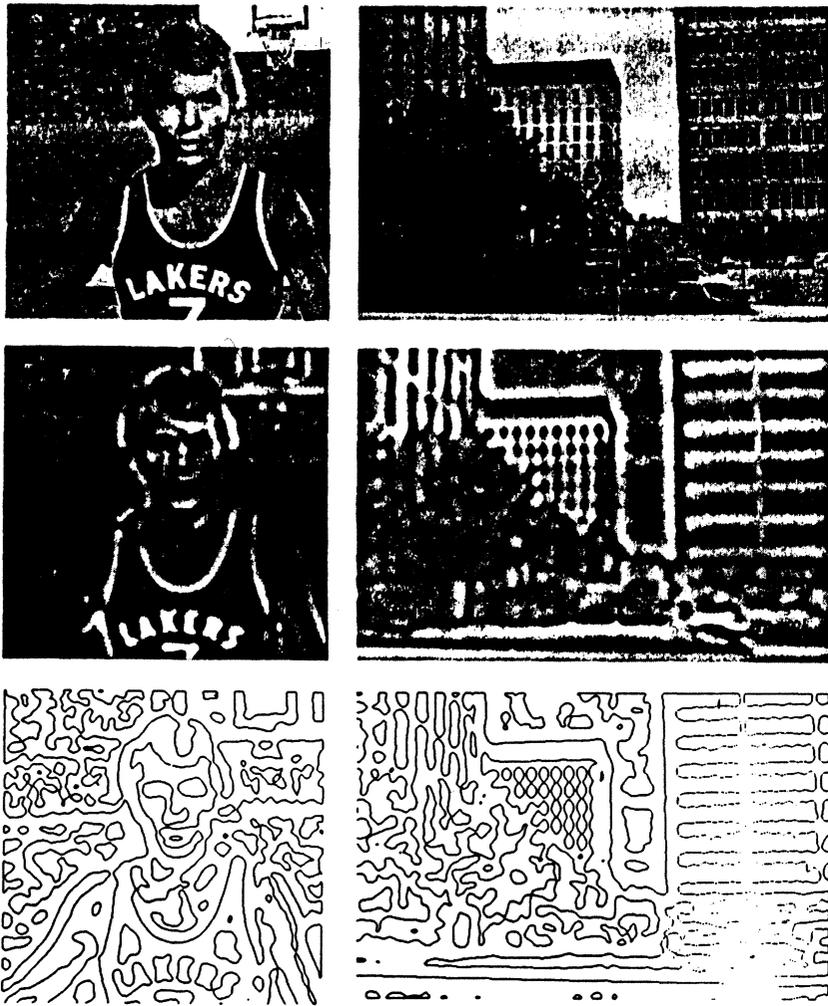


Figure 2.7
 Examples of $\nabla^2 G$ Convolution and Zero-Crossings, Coarse Filter. Sample images are shown in (a). The convolutions of the images with a coarse $\nabla^2 G$ operator are shown in (b). In (c) the zero-crossings of (b) are illustrated.

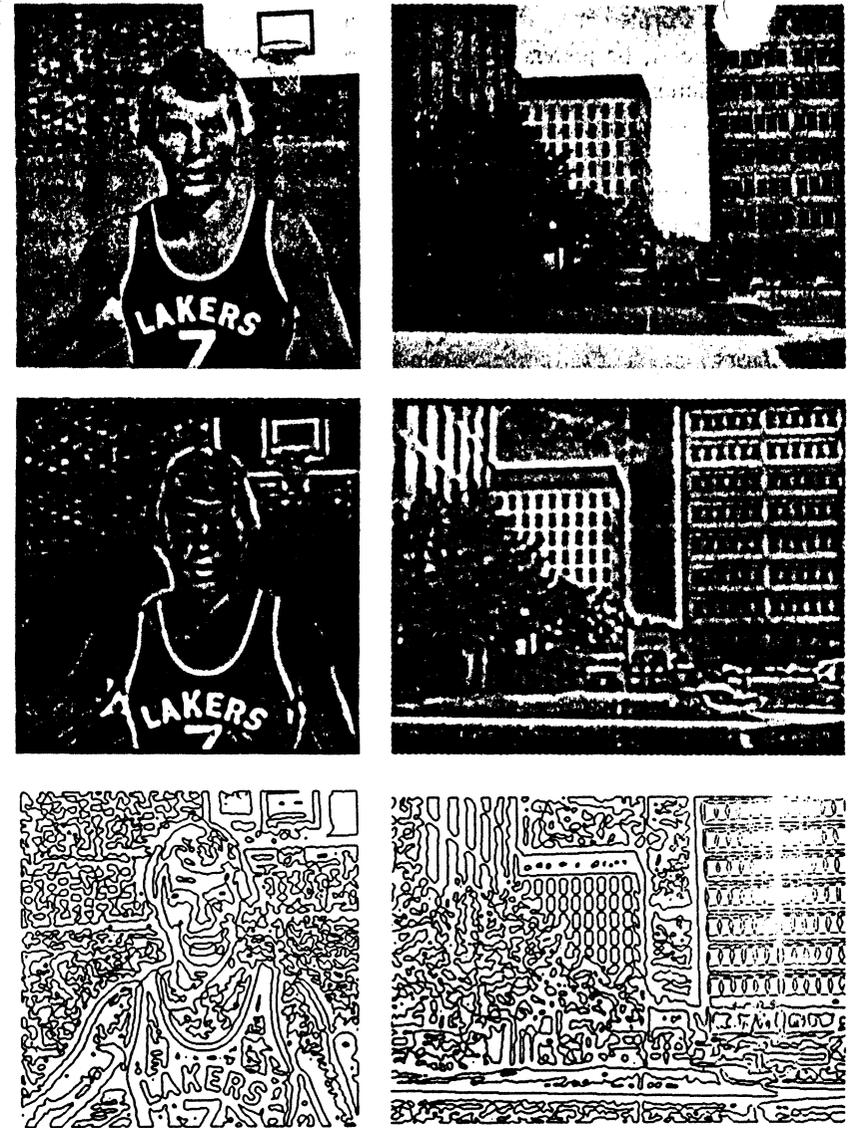


Figure 2.6
 Examples of $\nabla^2 G$ Convolution and Zero-Crossings, Fine Filter. Sample images are shown in (a). The convolution of the images with a fine $\nabla^2 G$ operator are shown in (b). In (c) the zero-crossings of (b) are illustrated.

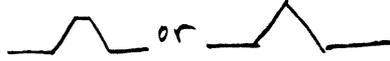
Chapter 5 - Edge Detection

used to eliminate noise

edge - significant local change in the image, i.e. a point operator
usually image intensity or first derivative of edge intensity

(Chap. 5 only covers detection & localization).

discontinuities can be step  } both rare in real images
line 

ramp 
roof  or 

edges can have both line & step characteristics

Definitions

1. edge point - point $P(i, j)$ at the location of a significant local intensity change in the image
can be integer, or sub-pixel usually in coordinate frame of image.
2. edge fragment - (i, j, θ) edge point coordinates + edge orientation
"small" line segment.
3. edge detector - algorithm that produces edge points or fragments (uses local info).
from an image \rightarrow generates correct and false edges + edges that were missed (false-).
4. contour - list of edges or the mathematical curve that models the list of edges.
5. edge linking - process of forming an ordered list of edges from an unordered list. Convention, order in clockwise direction
6. edge following - searching a (filtered) image to find contours. (uses global info).

5.1 Gradient

gradient is the two dimensional approx. to the first derivative.

$$\underline{G} [f(x, y)] = \begin{bmatrix} G_x \\ G_y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

vector \underline{G} points in direction of maximum rate of increase of $f(x, y)$
 magnitude = max. rate of increase in direction of \underline{G}

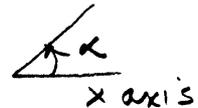
$$|\underline{G} [f(x, y)]| = \sqrt{G_x^2 + G_y^2}$$

more common approximation is

$$G [f(x, y)] \cong |G_x| + |G_y|$$

$$\text{or } G [f(x, y)] \cong \max [|G_x|, |G_y|]$$

direction of \underline{G} $\alpha(x, y) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{G_y}{G_x} \right)$



magnitude $\neq f(\alpha) \Rightarrow$ isotropic operator.

Numerical approx:

$$G_x \cong f[i, j+1] - f[i, j]$$

$$G_y \cong f[i+1, j] - f[i, j]$$

$$\begin{array}{cc} - & + \\ - & \boxed{\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline i, j & i+1, j \\ \hline \end{array}} \\ + & \boxed{\begin{array}{|c|} \hline i, j+1 \\ \hline \end{array}} \end{array}$$

convolution masks.

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline -1 & +1 \\ \hline \end{array}}_{G_x}$$

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{|c|} \hline -1 \\ \hline +1 \\ \hline \end{array}}_{G_y}$$

BAD. actually gradient G_x at $[i, j + \frac{1}{2}]$ and G_y at $[i + \frac{1}{2}, j]$.

BETTER. $G_x = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & +1 \\ -1 & +1 \end{bmatrix}$ $G_y = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ +1 & +1 \end{bmatrix}$

interpolated point is $[i + \frac{1}{2}, j + \frac{1}{2}]$ for both.

better yet to use 3×3 operators.

5.2.3 Prewitt

Same operator as Sobel but $c=1$.

$$S_x = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & +1 \\ -1 & 0 & +1 \\ -1 & 0 & +1 \end{bmatrix} \quad S_y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

no emphasis on pixels closer to center of mask.

5.2.4 Comparison

5.3 Second Derivative Operators.

Laplacian

second directional derivative

use 2nd derivatives because they let us find local maxima in gradient values, i.e., find zero crossings of the 2nd derivative of edge intensity.

5.3.1. Laplacian

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

approximate with difference equations

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} &= \frac{\partial G_x}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (f[i, j+1] - f[i, j]) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f[i, j+1] - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} [i, j] \end{aligned}$$

$$= (f[i, j+2] - f[i, j+1]) - (f[i, j+1] - f[i, j])$$

$$= f[i, j+2] - 2f[i, j+1] + f[i, j]$$

this is centered at $[i, j+1]$

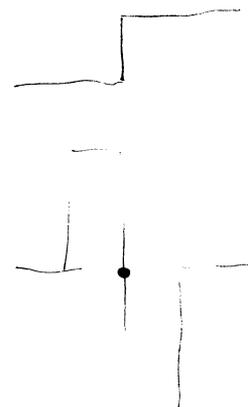
replace j by $j-1$ to center about $[i, j]$.

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = f[i, j+1] - 2f[i, j] + f[i, j-1]$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = f[i+1, j] - 2f[i, j] + f[i-1, j]$$

Combining, we get the following mask.

$$\nabla^2 \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



If we want to weigh center more

$$\nabla^2 \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 4 & -20 & 4 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example of row:

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|----|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | |
| result of Laplacian on image w/simple step | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | -6 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

← this should be edge location
has to be interpolated.

| | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|----|---|---|
| | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | -3 | 0 | 0 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|----|---|---|

result of Laplacian
to ramp edge.

↑
this is ideal and exactly on pixel.
again, usually need to interpolate

5.3.2. Second Directional Derivative

and derivative computed in direction of gradient

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial u^2} = \frac{f_x^2 f_{xx} + 2f_x f_y f_{xy} + f_y^2 f_{yy}}{f_x^2 + f_y^2}$$

rather this
or Laplacian
frequently used
due to their being
severely affected by
noise more than
first derivative.

5.5 Image Approximation

come up with a function that approximates image and compute image properties from estimated function

let $z = f(x, y)$, a continuous intensity function.

a straight polynomial approx. would be too high a degree do piecewise functions called facets.

Fig. 5.15 shows original image.

5.16 shows a local coordinate system for a 5x5 facet model.

Approximate image function locally at every pixel. Use these functions ~~to~~ to locate edges.

- simple images { piecewise constant
- { piecewise bilinear
- more complex images { biquadratic
- { bi cubic
- { or higher.

done

model $f(x, y)$ as a bi/cubic polynomial

$$f(x, y) = k_1 + k_2x + k_3y + k_4x^2 + k_5xy + k_6y^2 + k_7x^3 + k_8x^2y + k_9xy^2 + k_{10}y^3$$

use least squares to compute the k's can also do with masks (no figures) in 5.17 or SVD singular-value decomposition

edges - extreme maxima in 1st deriv, zero crossing in 2nd deriv.

first deriv. in direction θ $f'_\theta(x, y) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cos \theta + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \sin \theta.$

2nd deriv. in direction θ $f''_\theta(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \cos^2 \theta + 2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \cos \theta \sin \theta + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \sin^2 \theta.$

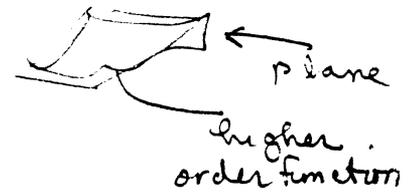
} in general

local image intensity approximated by bicubic polynomial.

pick θ = angle of approximating plane. i.e. only low order coefficients

$$\text{i.e. } \sin \theta = \frac{k_2}{\sqrt{k_2^2 + k_3^2}}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{k_3}{\sqrt{k_2^2 + k_3^2}}$$



\Rightarrow with this choice

$$f''_{\theta} = 2(3k_7 \sin^2 \theta + 2k_8 \sin \theta \cos \theta + k_9 \cos^2 \theta) x_0 \\ + 2(k_4 \sin^2 \theta + 2k_9 \sin \theta \cos \theta + 3k_{10} \cos^2 \theta) y_0 \\ + 2(k_4 \sin^2 \theta + k_5 \sin \theta \cos \theta + k_6 \cos^2 \theta).$$

for derivative only consider line in direction θ , i.e.

$$x_0 = \rho \cos \theta, \quad y_0 = \rho \sin \theta$$

along line

$$f''_{\theta}(x, y) = 6(k_7 \sin^3 \theta + k_8 \sin^2 \theta \cos \theta + k_9 \sin \theta \cos^2 \theta + k_{10} \cos^3 \theta) \rho \\ + 2(k_4 \sin^2 \theta + k_5 \sin \theta \cos \theta + k_6 \cos^2 \theta) \\ = Ap + B.$$

$$\therefore \text{edge if } \left. \begin{array}{l} f''_{\theta}(x_0, y_0; \rho) = 0 \\ \text{and } f'_{\theta}(x_0, y_0; \rho) \neq 0. \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{for some } |\rho| < \rho_0 \\ \text{where } \rho_0 = \text{length of side} \\ \text{of pixel.} \end{array}$$

mark pixel as edge pixel if location of edge falls within pixel boundaries, otherwise no.

5.6 Gaussian Edge Detection

real step edges - smoothed by ^① LPF of camera optics
 ② BW limitations of camera electronics

approx. to image gradient

tradeoff between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{① must suppress effects of noise} \\ \text{② must locate edge as accurately as possible} \end{array} \right.$

best compromise achieved with first derivative of a Gaussian

i.e. smooth an image with a Gaussian
 then compute gradient

this operator is NOT rotationally symmetric
 its symmetric along edge.
 anti-symmetric \perp to edge.

i.e. sensitive to edge in direction of steepest change,
 but insensitive to edge itself and acts as a
 smoothing filter in the direction along edge.

5.6.1. Canny Edge Detector $\overset{\text{Gaussian}}{S} [i, j] = G [i, j; \sigma] * \overset{\text{Image}}{I} [i, j]$.

① Smoothed image

② compute gradient using 2×2 first difference approximations

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline i & j \\ \hline \hline \hline \hline \end{array}$$

$$P[i, j] \approx \frac{1}{2} (S[i+1, j] - S[i, j] + S[i+1, j+1] - S[i, j+1])$$

$$Q[i, j] \approx \frac{1}{2} (S[i, j] - S[i, j-1] + S[i+1, j] - S[i+1, j-1])$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline -1 & +1 \\ \hline -1 & +1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

computed derivatives at $[i + \frac{1}{2}, j + \frac{1}{2}]$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline -1 & -1 \\ \hline +1 & +1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

③

Magnitude
& angle
images

$$M[i, j] = \sqrt{P[i, j]^2 + Q[i, j]^2}$$

$$\theta[i, j] = \arctan\left(\frac{Q[i, j]}{P[i, j]}\right)$$

can be done mostly in integer by look up methods.

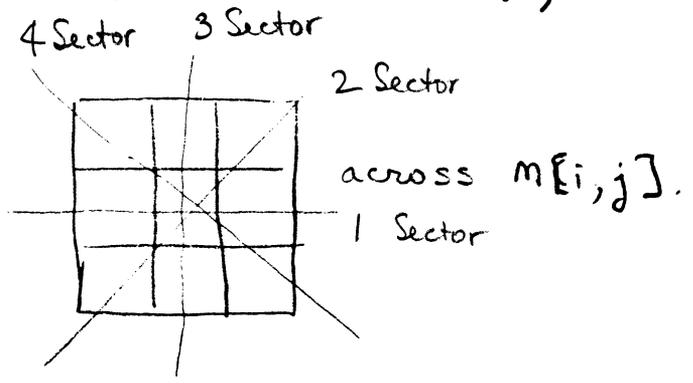
Non-maxima suppression

$M[i, j]$ will have large values where gradient is large.
 still need to find local maxima in this array to locate edges.
 → must thin so only points of greatest local change remain

① reduce angle θ to one of four sectors.

$$\psi[i, j] = \text{Sector}(\theta[i, j])$$

② pass.



③ compare M to the two neighbors in direction specified by $\psi[i, j]$.

④ If $M[i, j]$ not larger, then $M[i, j] = 0$.

→ denote this entire process $N[i, j] = \text{nm s}(M[i, j], \psi[i, j])$

this image will still contain many ^{false} edge fragments caused by noise & fine texture.

Typically threshold $N[i, j]$

a single threshold usually is hard to achieve

use double thresholding

use $N[i, j]$ as input

use T_1 and $T_2 \approx 2T_1$, to produce two

thresholded images $T_1[i, j]$ and $T_2[i, j]$.

link into contours
 if a gap is encountered go to T_1
 until budged to edge in T_2

Algorithm 5.1 Canny Edge Detection

1. Smooth image with a Gaussian filter
2. compute gradient magnitude & orientation using finite-difference approximations
3. apply non maxima suppression to the gradient magnitude
4. use double thresholding algorithm to detect and link edges.

5.7 Sub-pixel Location Estimation

gradient & 2nd-order edge detection require very different algorithms.

2nd order doesn't work.

2nd order, i.e. Laplacian of Gaussian LoG

in principle, interpolate to locate zero crossing

in practice, too noisy even w/ Gaussian smoothing

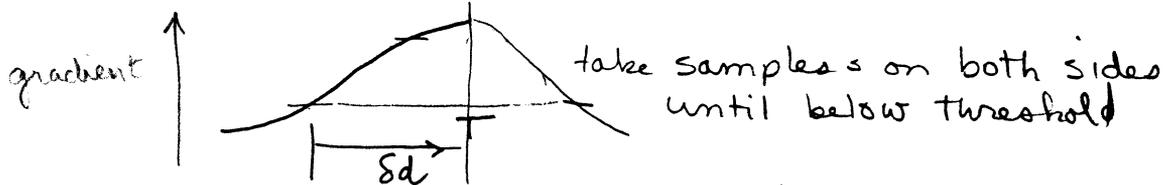
gradient (still subject to noise)

Gaussian smoothing followed by gradient



If not ideal simply becomes broader.

estimate mean value.



compute weighted sum of position

$$\text{i.e. } S_d = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n g_i d_i \text{ position}}{\sum_{i=1}^n g_i \text{ gradient}}$$

could also compute first moment

lots of statistical techniques since Gaussian profile.

5.8. Edge Detector Performance.

criteria

1. Probability of false edges.
2. Prob. of missing edges.
3. error in estimation of edge angle
4. mean squared error of edge estimate from true edge.
5. tolerance to distorted edges and other features such as corners and junctions

Pratt's figure of merit:

$$FM = \frac{1}{\max(I_A, I_I)} \sum_{i=1}^{I_A} \frac{1}{1 + d_i \alpha^2}$$

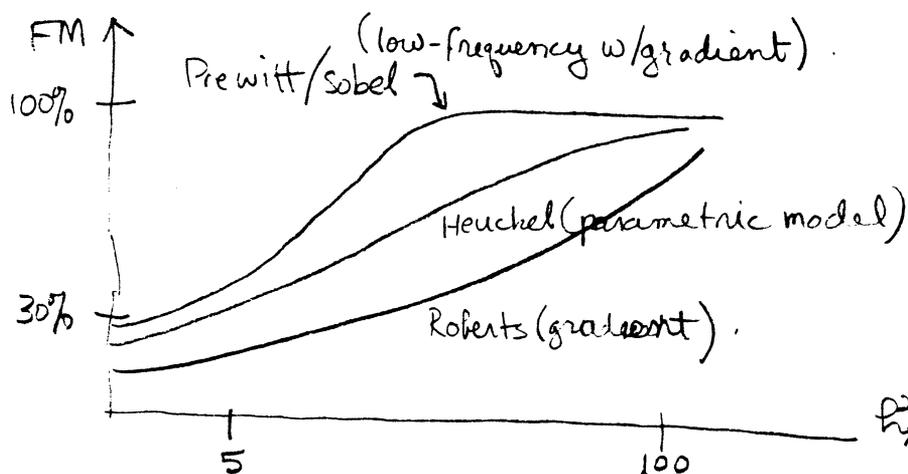
looks primarily at

I_A - detected edges.

I_I - ideal edges

d - distance error.

α - penalty for displaced edges.



$\frac{h^2}{\sigma^2}$

high $\frac{S}{N}$ →

h = step edge amplitude
 σ = std. deviation of Gaussian white noise.

edge relaxation - improve edge operator estimate by re-adjusting edge estimate based upon local information

algorithm: of any edge.

$$c^0(e) = \frac{\text{gradient magnitude}}{\text{maximum gradient amplitude in image}}$$

$k=1$

initial confidence of edge is normalized gradient

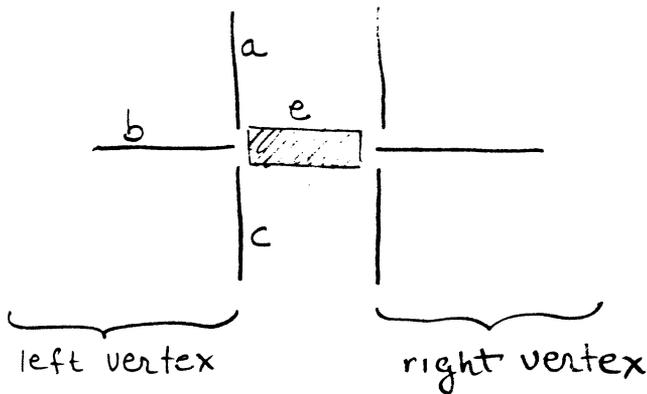
while any $c^k(e) \neq (0 \text{ or } 1)$ do
begin

algorithm forces all points in edge image to converge to 0 or 1

classify edge. $\text{edge_type} = f(\text{edge_neighbors})$
 adjust confidence. $c^k(e) = f(\text{edge_type}, c^{k-1}(e))$
 iteration counter $k = k + 1$
 end

original relaxation work done by

edge type classified by vertex type



e = edge to be updated
 a, b, c are normalized gradient magnitudes

$$m = \max(a, b, c, q)$$

q = constant (a threshold)

left vertex types and associated confidences

Example
 Strong = 0.8
 weak = 0.1
 m = 0.9

| type | figure | confidence |
|------|--|--|
| 0 | <p>all weak edges</p> | $(m-a)(m-b)(m-c)$ <i>fall weak decrease confidence.</i> |
| 1 | <p>strong edge</p> <p>basically one strong edge</p> <p>increase confidence</p> | $a(m-b)(m-c)$ <i>confidence actually increases</i> |
| 2 | <p>basically two strong edges</p> | $a b (m-c)$ <i>ambiguous so keep about same.</i> |
| 3 | <p>basically three strong local edges</p> | $a b c$ |

increasing strength (confidence).

actual edge type is concatenation of left and right vertex types

edge $(e) = (i, j)$ with 3,3 being the strongest edge.

to update edge confidence in algorithm

increment : $C^k(e) = \min(1, C^{k-1}(e) + \delta)$

decrement : $C^k(e) = \max(0, C^{k-1}(e) - \delta)$

leave as is : $C^k(e) = C^{k-1}(e)$

where $0.1 < \delta < 0.3$ typically.

jump to here.

examples :

left vertex - right vertex

decrement

0-0



0-2



0-3



neglect isolated edges

increment

1-1



1-2



1-3



connect edges whenever possible.

leave as is :

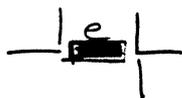
0-1



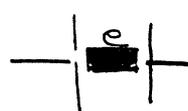
2-2



2-3



3-3



uncertain connectivity

The idea is, if a strong edge is nearby update (increase) the confidence of nearby edges. As the number of nearby edges increases

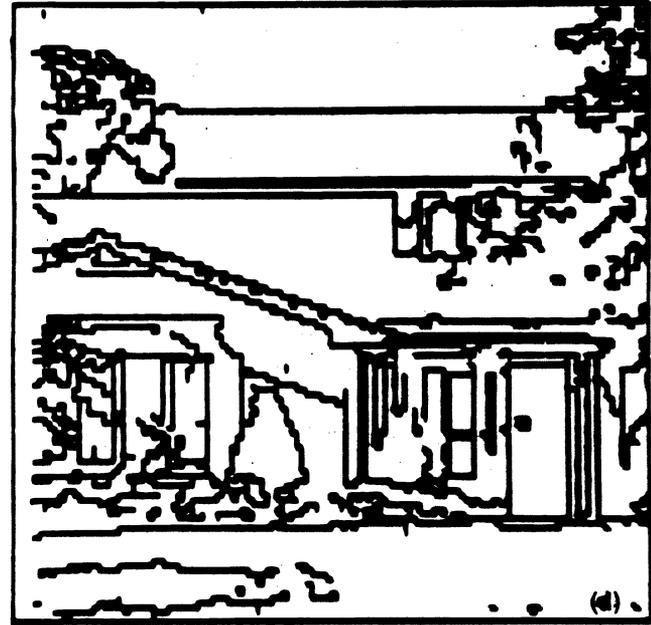
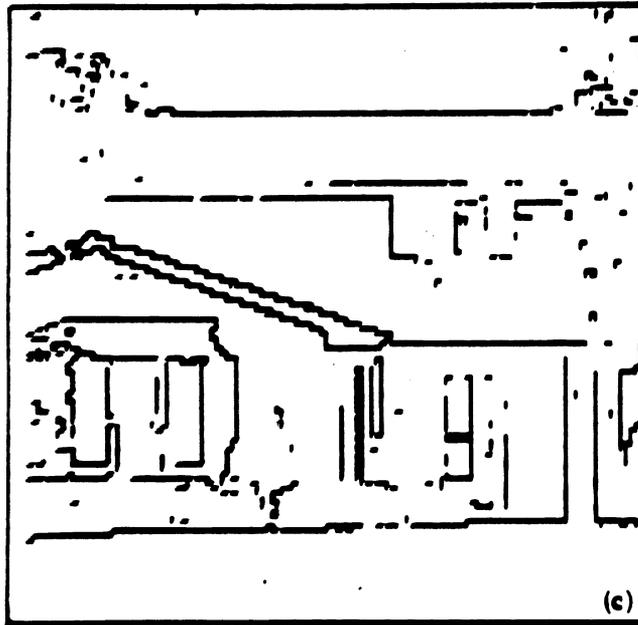


Fig. 3.22 Edge relaxation results. (a) Raw edge data. Edge strengths have been thresholded at 0.25 for display purposes only. (b) Results after five iterations of relaxation applied to (a). (c) Different version of (a). Edge strengths have been thresholded at 0.25 for display purposes only. (d) Results after five iterations of relaxation applied to (c).

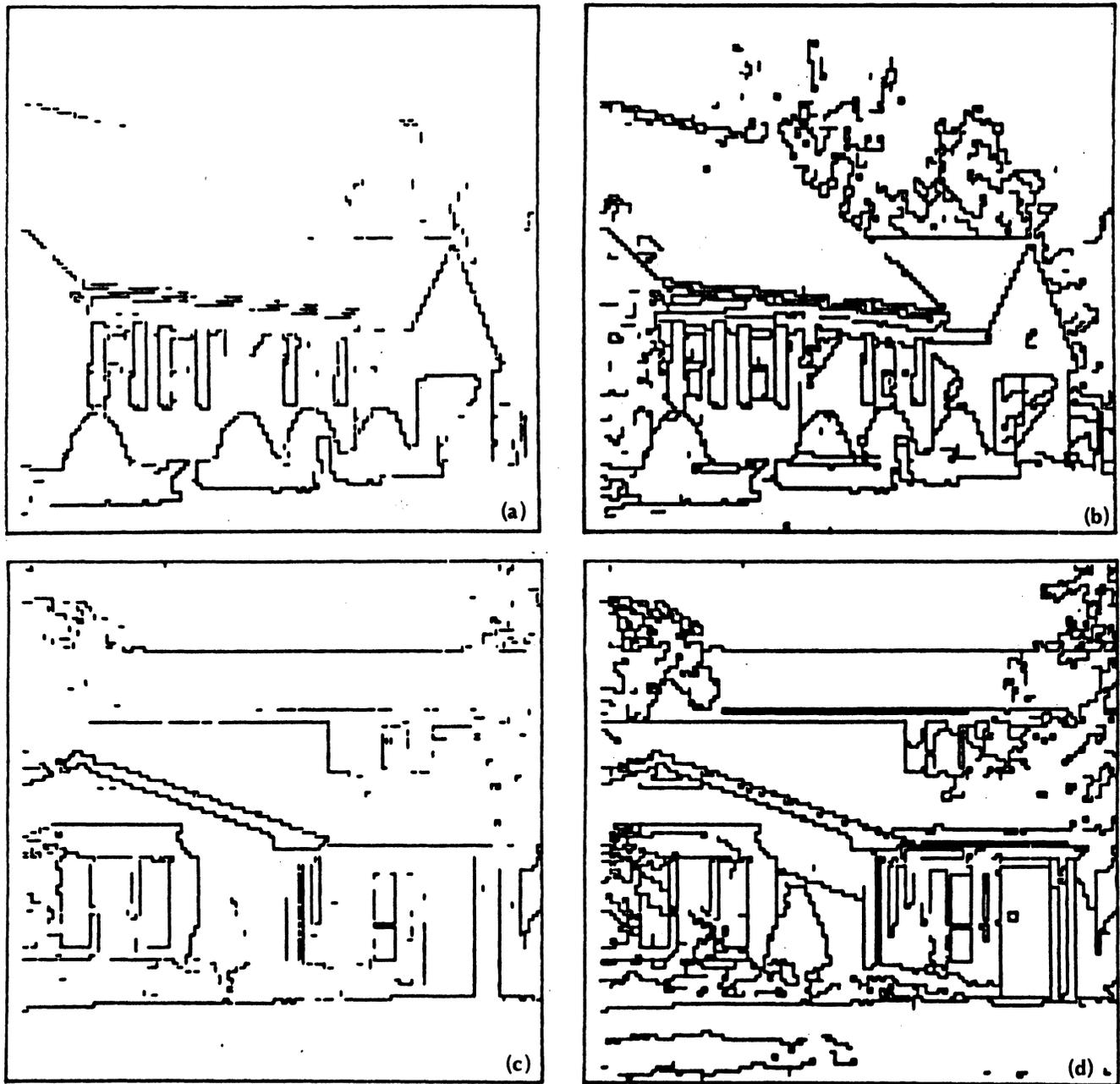


Fig. 3.22 Edge relaxation results. (a) Raw edge data. Edge strengths have been thresholded at 0.25 for display purposes only. (b) Results after five iterations of relaxation applied to (a). (c) Different version of (a). Edge strengths have been thresholded at 0.25 for display purposes only. (d) Results after five iterations of relaxation applied to (c).

edge relaxation — improve edge operator estimate by re-adjusting edge estimate based upon local information

algorithm: of any edge.

$$c^0(e) = \frac{\text{gradient magnitude}}{\text{maximum gradient amplitude in image}}$$

$k=1$

initial confidence of edge is normalized gradient

while any $c^k(e) \neq (0 \text{ or } 1)$ do
begin

classify edge. $\text{edge_type} = f(\text{edge_neighbors})$

adjust confidence. $c^k(e) = f(\text{edge_type}, c^{k-1}(e))$

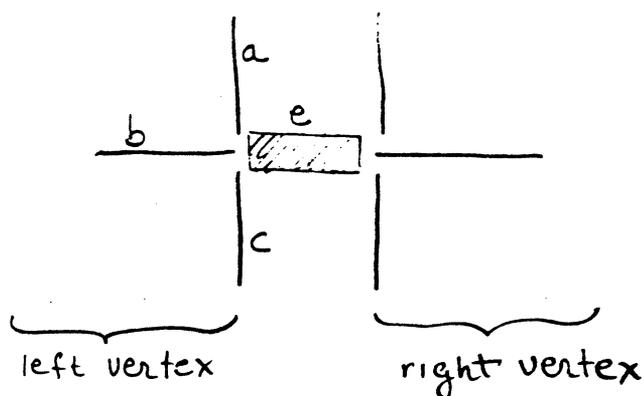
iteration counter $k = k + 1$

end

algorithm forces all points in edge image to converge to 0 or 1

original relaxation work done by

edge type classified by vertex type



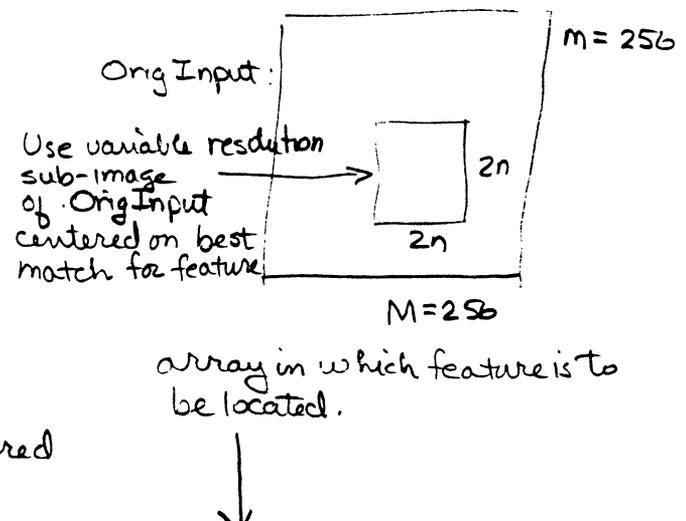
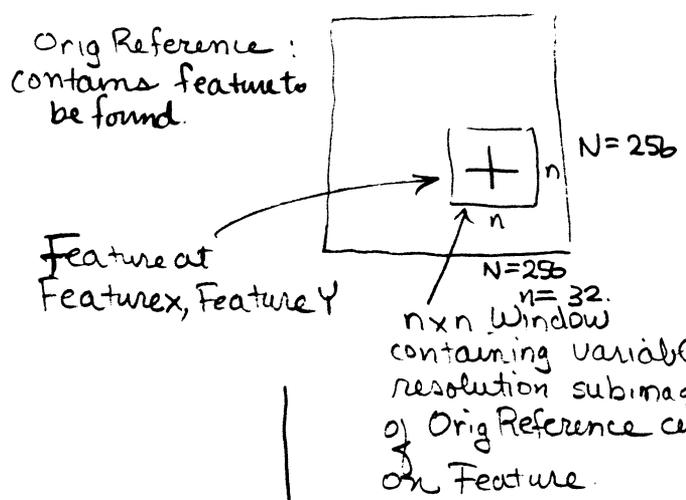
e = edge to be updated
 a, b, c are normalized gradient magnitudes

$$m = \max(a, b, c, q)$$

q = constant (a threshold)

Binary search correlation algorithm (Good for coarse to fine matching).

Used to locate a feature at some unknown location in the input image using variable resolution subimages of the input image.



Reference is a temporary array.

2n x 2n Input is a temporary array containing variable resolution sub-image of Orig Input centered on the best match.

Algorithm

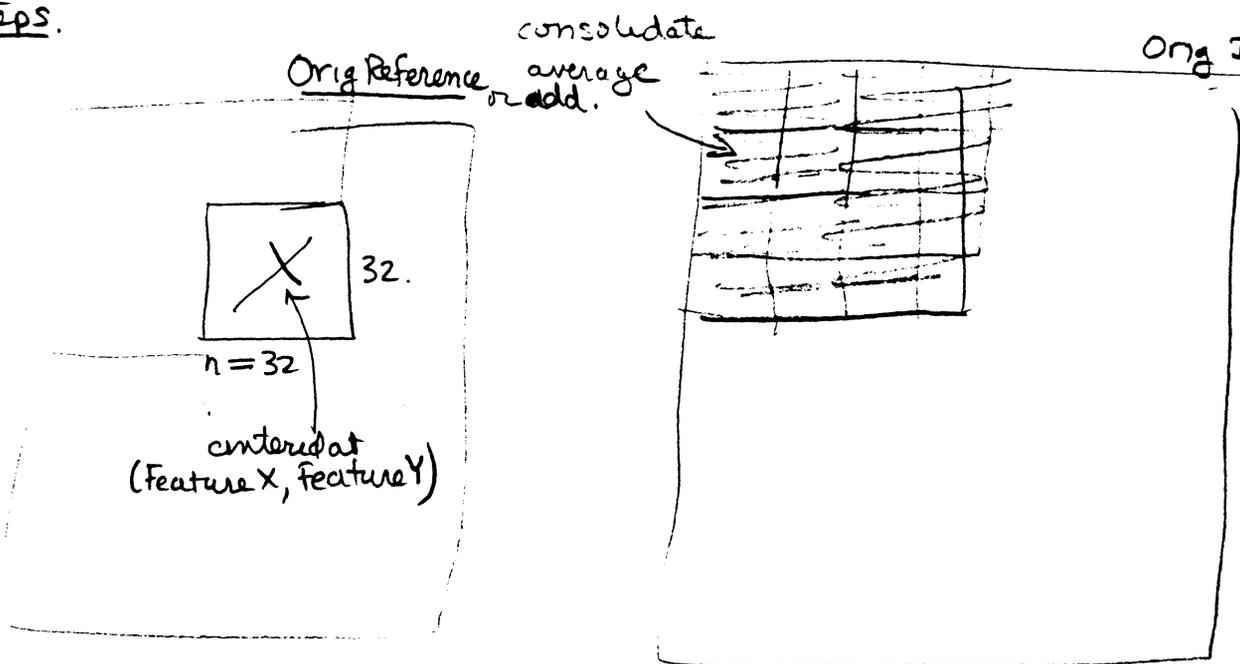
1. Input := Consolidate Orig Input by a factor of $\frac{2n}{M}$ to size $2n \times 2n$.
2. Reference := Consolidate Orig Reference by the same factor.

$$\frac{2n}{M} \text{ to size } 2n \frac{N}{M} \times 2n \frac{N}{M}$$

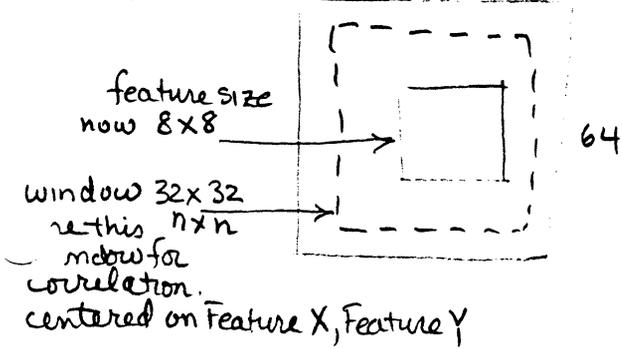
$$\frac{2(32)}{256} = \frac{1}{4} \quad \frac{1}{4}(256) = 64 \times 64$$

3. Window := n x n window from Reference centered on (Feature X, Feature Y)
4. Calculate the correlation at $(n+1)^2$ locations in input. Normalize if necessary, Do NOT wrap around.
5. Input := n x n window from input enlarged by a factor of 2. centered at (Best Match X, Best Match Y)
6. Reference := reference enlarged by a factor of 2. Takes feature to new (Feature X, Feature Y)
7. Go to 3 Repeat as necessary.

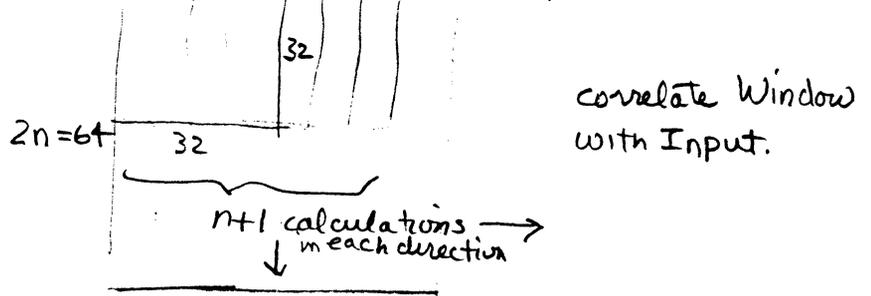
first steps.



Consolidate to Reference 64

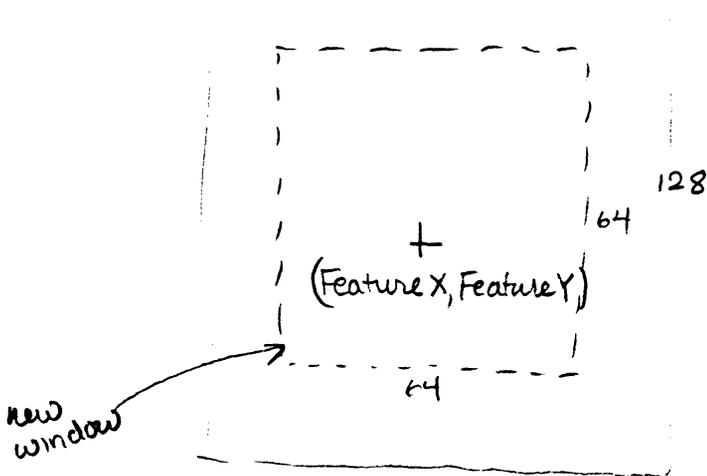


Consolidate to Input 2n=64

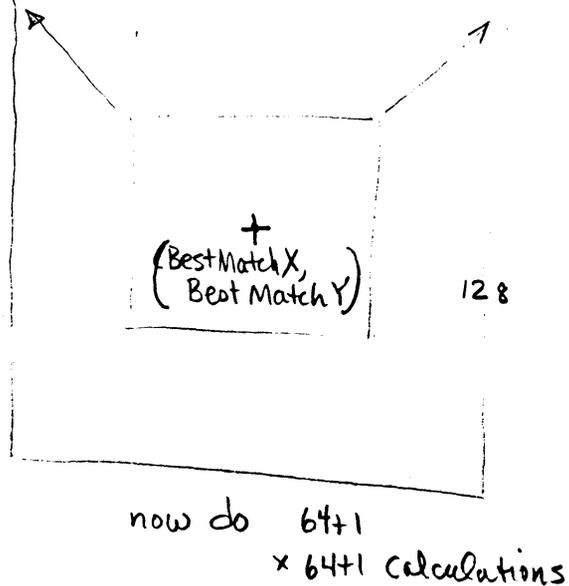


Iterate.

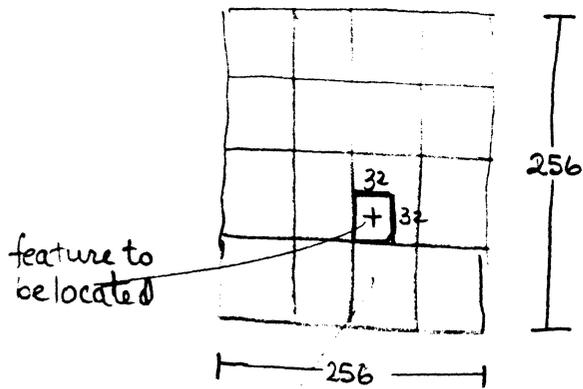
Enlarge reference by factor of 2 128



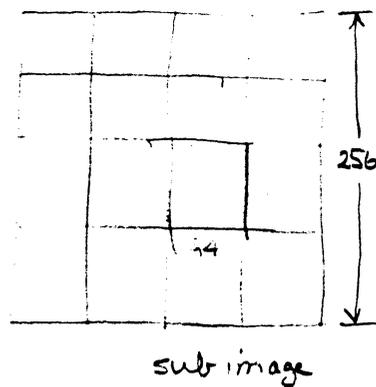
Enlarge Input by a factor of 2. 128



Orig Reference $N \times N$

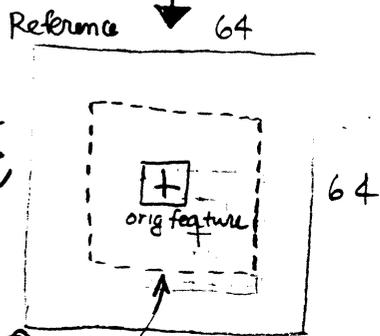


Orig Input $M \times M$

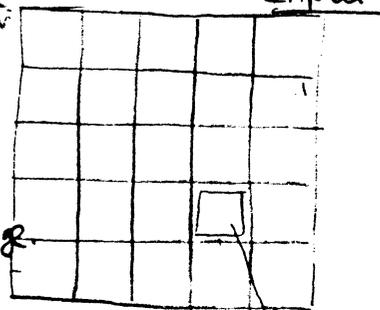


Input $2n \times 2n$ array centered on best match.

② Consolidate Orig Reference to same size,



① Consolidate Orig Input to get same resolution as $2 \times$ orig. sub image. i.e. 64×64



③ 32×32 new window at (Feature X, Feature Y) (new resolution) keep centered on feature.

consolidate to same resolution

(best match)

④ Find best match, for window in consolidated orig input

⑤ enlarge reference by a factor of 2; enlarge Input by a factor of 2 centered at best match.

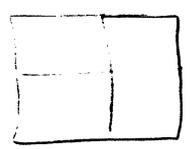
Note: Typically use twice the dimension of the original feature size to allow for tolerances in feature centering as pyramiding occurs.

basically matches gross features then fine detail.

pyramid edge detection

(Tanimoto)

fundamental idea: no change in grey scale values in a consolidated neighborhood implies that no grey-scale change (edge) occurs in that neighborhood.



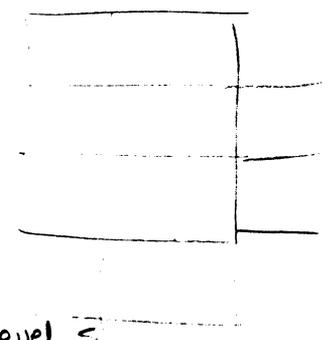
problem: too much starting consolidation loses all edges.

recursive procedure refine (k,x,y)

```

begin
  if k ≤ Maxlevel then
    for dx=0 until 1 do
    for dy=0 until 1 do
      if EdgeOp(k, x+dx, y+dy) > Threshold(k)
      then refine(k+1, x+dx, y+dy)
    } expand by factor of 2.
  end;

```



procedure Find Edges:

```

begin
  comment apply operator to every pixel in the starting level S,
  refining as necessary.
  for x:=0 until 2^S-1 do
  for y:=0 until 2^S-1 do
    if EdgeOp(s, x, y) > Threshold(s)
    then refine(s+1, x, y);
  end;

```

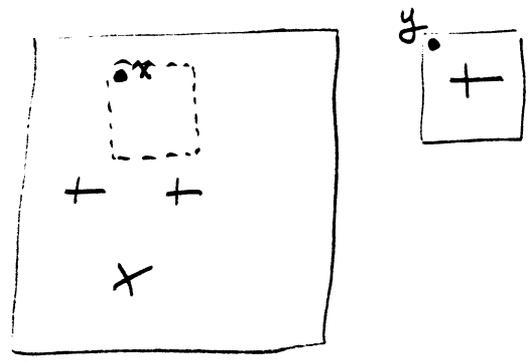
i.e. 4x4 or whatever.
S = level of resolution in starting image.

use whatever edge of you desire

can have different thresholds at different levels.
can have different operators at different levels.

Ballard and Brown

some notes on correlation using a sub-image.



how to find objects of interest in image?

range of \underline{x}

define an Euclidian distance d
 if template matches $d=0$
 otherwise $d>0$

$$d^2(\underline{y}) = \sum_{\underline{x}} [f(\underline{x}) - t(\underline{x}-\underline{y})]^2$$

\underline{x} over the image
 $f(\underline{x})$ image function
 \underline{y} slide template to location \underline{y}

$$= \sum_{\underline{x}} [f^2(\underline{x}) - 2f(\underline{x})t(\underline{x}-\underline{y}) + t^2(\underline{x}-\underline{y})]$$

can be nearly constant depending upon spatial uniformity of image

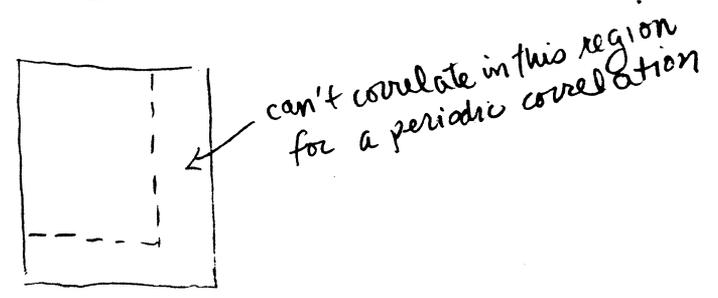
constant term, the energy of the template

cross-correlation function $\phi_{ft}(\underline{y})$ (looks like a convolution and can be treated as a filter)

this is a correlation or dot product which is maximized when $t(\underline{x}-\underline{y})$ matches $f(\underline{x})$.

two cases of template matching (correlation) - periodic (template wraps around image)
 aperiodic (no wrap around can have various amounts of overlap)

to eliminate false responses normalize



Normalization of correlation to prevent false errors:

Problems can occur due to intense noise in the image.

Example:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

template

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 |

Correlation

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7 | 4 | 2 | x | x |
| 5 | 3 | 2 | x | x |
| 2 | 1 | 9 | x | x |
| x | x | x | x | x |
| x | x | x | x | x |

correct best response

error due to large noise

$x = \text{undefined}$

To prevent such errors we must normalize according to the statistics of each image.

$f_1(x)$

$f_2(x)$

images to be matched

q_1

q_2

patches to be matched.

Typically q_1 is all of f_1 , q_2 is the patch of f_1 that is covered by the displaced patch q_2 .

$$\sigma(q_1) = \sqrt{E(q_1^2) - E^2(q_1)}$$

$$\sigma(q_2) = \sqrt{E(q_2^2) - E^2(q_2)}$$

standard deviations
 E is the normal expectation operator,

Normalized correlation

$$N(y) = \frac{E(q_1 q_2) - E(q_1) E(q_2)}{\sigma(q_1) \sigma(q_2)}$$

← this is some sort of cross correlation
← normalized by the variances

Correlation is very expensive in terms of computer time. If we could quickly determine which areas of the picture contained "interesting" information we could limit detailed calculations to those "interesting" areas.

Sequential similarity detection algorithm (SSDA)

$$\text{Correlation } \phi_{ab}(y) = \sum_{i,j} \overset{\text{image}}{a_{ij}(\underline{x})} \overset{\text{shifted template image}}{b_{ij}(\underline{x}-\underline{y})}$$

If a & b are highly correlated, this summation will be essentially all 1's and yield a large ϕ_{ab} . Threshold the summation after say 10 summations. If the sum is less than T (the threshold) it is probably uncorrelated and summation will stop.

Moravec Interest Operator - produces candidate interest points based upon image activity.

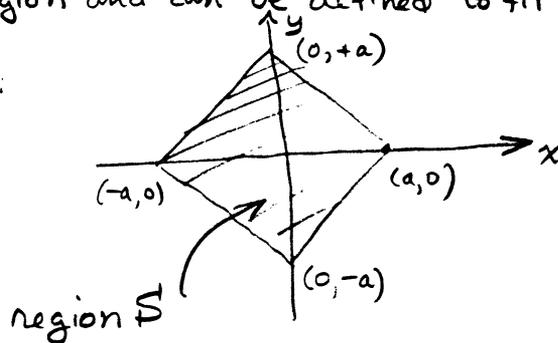
define the variance operator

$$\text{Var}(\underline{x}) = \text{Var}(x,y) = \sqrt{\sum_{k,l \in S} [f(x,y) - f(x+k, y+l)]^2}$$

Note that uniform image areas will have little if any variance.

The region S is a local region and can be defined to fit the application.

Moravec's original operator:



Algorithm

$$1. \text{IntOpVal}(\underline{x}) := \min_{|y| \leq 1} [\text{var}(\underline{x}+\underline{y})]$$

$$2. \text{IntOpVal}(\underline{x}) := 0 \text{ unless } \text{IntOpVal}(\underline{x}) \geq \text{IntOpVal}(\underline{x}+\underline{y}) \text{ for } |y| \leq 1$$

$$3. \underline{x} \text{ is an interesting point only if } \text{IntDoVal}(\underline{x}) > T$$

initially set to local minimum of variance. This tells us in an average sense how much information is nearby

Now find only local maxima.

T is an empirically set threshold.