

Discrete image transforms (Castleman, 2/e, Ch.13)

$$y_i = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} t_{ij} x_j \quad \text{or} \quad \underline{y} = \underline{T} \underline{x} \quad (1)$$

↑
kernel matrix
inner product of
input vector \underline{x}
with i-th row of \underline{T}

linear transformation of vector \underline{x}

If \underline{T} is a unitary matrix

$$\underline{T}^{-1} = \underline{T}^{*t}$$

and $\underline{T}\underline{T}^{*t} = \underline{T}^{*t}\underline{T} = \underline{I}$

If \underline{T} is unitary and real it is an orthogonal matrix

$$\underline{T}^{-1} = \underline{T}^t$$

and $\underline{T}\underline{T}^t = \underline{T}^t\underline{T} = \underline{I} \quad (2)$

Note that the i,j -th element of $\underline{T}\underline{T}^t$ is the inner product of rows i and j . By (2) this is zero unless $i=j$ in which case it is zero. \Rightarrow the rows of \underline{T} are a set of orthonormal vectors.

Example: Discrete Fourier Transform

$$\underline{F}_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f_i e^{-j \frac{2\pi k i}{N}} \quad \text{or} \quad \underline{F} = \mathcal{W} \underline{f}$$

\mathcal{W} is a unitary (not orthogonal)

$$w_{ik} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} e^{-j \frac{2\pi k i}{N}}$$

In general, the rows of T (in this case \mathcal{W}) form an orthonormal basis set for all $N \times 1$ vectors.

(1) is simply a coordinate transform which rotates \underline{x} but does not change its length.

Two-dimensional discrete linear transformations

$$G_{mn} = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} F_{ik} \underbrace{J(i,k,m,n)}_{\text{kernel function of the transform}}$$

kernel matrix is a block matrix

$$\begin{matrix} & n=1 & n=2 & \dots & n=N \\ m=1 & \left[\quad \right] & \left[\quad \right] & \dots & \left[\quad \right] \\ m=2 & \left[\quad \right] & \left[\quad \right] & \dots & \left[\quad \right] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \\ m=N & \left[\quad \right] & \left[\quad \right] & \dots & \left[\quad \right] \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{If } J(i,k,m,n) = T_r(i,m) T_c(k,n)$$

then it is called separable and can be carried out as a rowwise operation followed by a column wise operation or vice versa.

$$G_{mn} = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} T(i,m) \left[\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} F_{ik} T(k,n) \right] \quad \text{or} \quad \underline{G} = \underline{T} \underline{F} \underline{T}$$

Inverse transform is

$$\underline{F} = \underline{T}^{-1} \underline{G} \underline{T}^{-1} = \underline{T}^{*t} \underline{G} \underline{T}^{*t}$$

Example: 2-D DFT

$$\underline{T} = \underline{\omega W}$$

$$\underline{T}^{-1} = \underline{\omega W^{*t}}$$

$$\therefore \underline{G} = \underline{\omega W} \underline{F} \underline{\omega W} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{F} = \underline{\omega W^{*t}} \underline{G} \underline{\omega W^{*t}}$$

Orthogonal transforms

Many transforms used in image processing have only real elements in their kernel matrix.

This is then an orthogonal matrix

The inverse transform is

$$\underline{F} = \underline{T}^t \underline{G} \underline{T}^t$$

If T is symmetric

$$\underline{G} = \underline{T} \underline{F} \underline{T} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{F} = \underline{T} \underline{G} \underline{T}$$

The rows of the kernel matrix form a set of basis vectors in an N-dimensional vector space.

The rows are orthonormal

$$\left| \begin{array}{c} j \\ | \\ k \end{array} \right. \quad T T^* = I \text{ or } \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} T_{ji} T_{ki}^* = \delta_{jk}$$

A basis image is generated by inverse transforming a coefficient matrix containing only one non-zero element which is one,

i.e. $G^{P,q} = \underbrace{\{ \delta_{i-p, j-q} \}}_{\text{only non-zero for } p=q \text{ which is 1}}$ This is the coefficient matrix

$$F_{mn} = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} T(i,m) \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \delta_{i-p, k-q} T(k,n) = T(p,m) T(q,n)$$

$\left| \begin{array}{c} q \\ | \\ p \end{array} \right.$

$\underbrace{\qquad}_{\text{this is the outer product of two rows of } T}$

Sinusoidal transforms

matrix kernel for the DFT

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{00} & \dots & w_{0,N-1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ w_{N-1,0} & \dots & w_{N-1,N-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

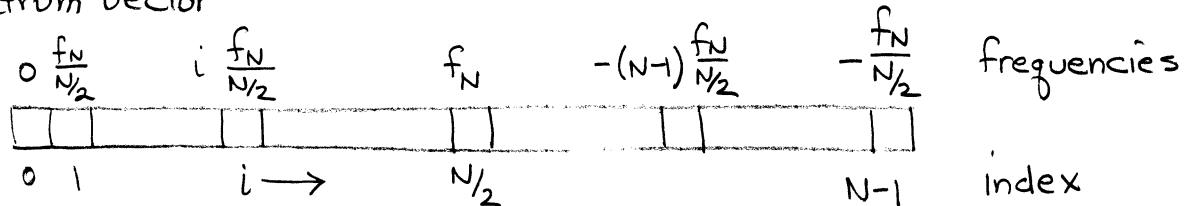
where $w_{ik} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} e^{-j2\pi \frac{ik}{N}}$

\mathbf{W} is unitary

In one dimension

$$\underline{F} = \mathbf{W} \underline{f} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{f} = \mathbf{W}^{*t} \underline{F}$$

spectrum vector



This is usually shifted

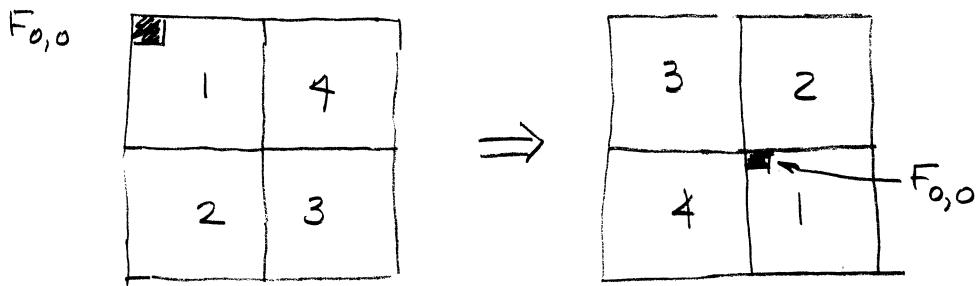
$$\begin{aligned} F(u) \Leftrightarrow f(x) &\Rightarrow F(u-u_0) \Leftrightarrow e^{j2\pi x \frac{u_0}{N}} f(x) \\ &= e^{j\pi x} f(x) \\ &= (-1)^x f(x) \end{aligned}$$

where $u_0 = \frac{\pi}{2}$

In two dimensions

$$\underline{G} = \underline{\mathbf{W}} \underline{F} \underline{\mathbf{W}} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{F} = \underline{\mathbf{W}}^{*t} \underline{G} \underline{\mathbf{W}}^{*t}$$

$$F(u, v) \Leftrightarrow f(x, y) \Rightarrow F(u - \frac{N}{2}, v - \frac{N}{2}) \Leftrightarrow (-1)^{x+y} f(x, y)$$



transformation rearranges
spectrum to be symmetric
for plotting

discrete cosine transform

$$G_c(m, n) = \alpha(m) \alpha(n) \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g(i, k) \cos \left[\frac{\pi(2i+1)m}{2N} \right] \cos \left[\frac{\pi(2k+1)n}{2N} \right]$$

$$g(i, k) = \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \alpha(m) \alpha(n) G_c(m, n) \cos \left[\frac{\pi(2i+1)m}{2N} \right] \cos \left[\frac{\pi(2k+1)n}{2N} \right]$$

where $\alpha(0) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N}}$ and $\alpha(m) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}}$ for $1 \leq m \leq N$

In matrix form, the DCT can be written as a unitary matrix operation

$$G_c = C g C^T$$

where

$$C_{im} = \alpha(m) \cos \left[\frac{\pi(2i+1)m}{2N} \right]$$

Notes

- can be computed by a fast algorithm
- real valued
- widely used in image compression

discrete sine transform

- similar to DCT but $N = 2^P$
- used in certain image compression applications

$$G_s(m, n) = \frac{2}{N+1} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g(i, k) \sin \left[\frac{\pi(i+1)(m+1)}{N+1} \right] \sin \left[\frac{\pi(k+1)(n+1)}{N+1} \right]$$

$$g(i, k) = \frac{2}{N+1} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} G_s(m, n) \sin \left[\frac{\pi(i+1)(m+1)}{N+1} \right] \sin \left[\frac{\pi(k+1)(n+1)}{N+1} \right]$$

$$T_{i,k} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N+1}} \sin \left[\frac{\pi(i+1)(k+1)}{N+1} \right]$$

Discrete Hartley Transform (DHT)

use the basis function $\text{cas}(\theta) = \cos(\theta) + \sin(\theta) = \sqrt{2} \cos\left(\theta - \frac{\pi}{4}\right)$

Forward

$$G_{mn} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g_{ik} \text{cas}\left[\frac{2\pi(im+kn)}{N}\right]$$

$$g_{ik} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} G_{mn} \text{cas}\left[\frac{2\pi(im+kn)}{N}\right]$$

identical transforms

$$T_{ik} = \frac{1}{N} \text{cas}\left[\frac{2\pi ik}{N}\right]$$

DFT N numbers \rightarrow N complex symmetric numbers

DHT N numbers \rightarrow N real numbers

computational alternative to Fourier transform avoiding
complex arithmetic

Convolution theorem

$$g(x) = f(x) * h(x) \iff F(u)H_e(u) + F(-u)H_o(u) = G(u)$$

$F(u)$ — Hartley transform of f

$G(u)$ — Hartley transform of g

$H_e(u)$ — even components of Hartley transform of h

$H_o(u)$ — odd components of Hartley transform of h

Hadamard transform (also called the Walsh transform)

- symmetric
- separable
- unitary
- only +1 and -1 as elements.
- exists for $N = 2^n$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} H_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

can be successively generated as

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} H_N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{bmatrix} H_{N/2} & H_{N/2} \\ H_{N/2} & -H_{N/2} \end{bmatrix}$$

For example for $N=8$

$$H_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H_4 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

sequency (sign changes)

$$H_8 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 7 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ 6 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{array}$$

ordered Hadamard transform

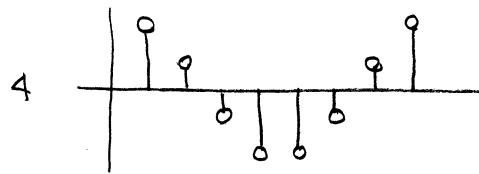
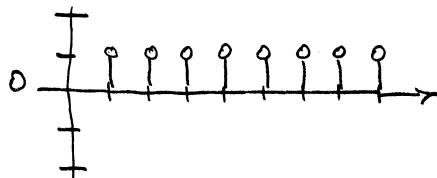
$$H_8 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \end{array}$$

The slant transform - has a fast transform, used for image compression

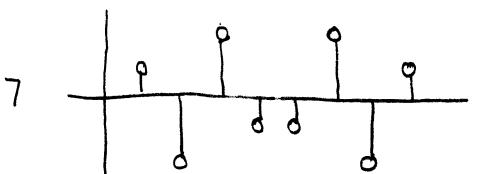
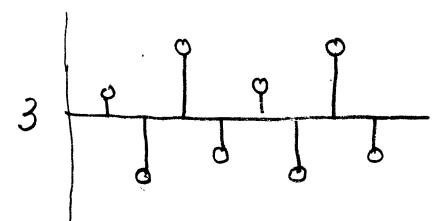
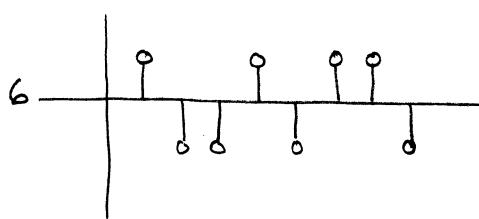
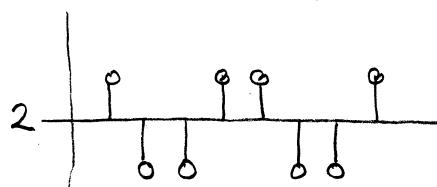
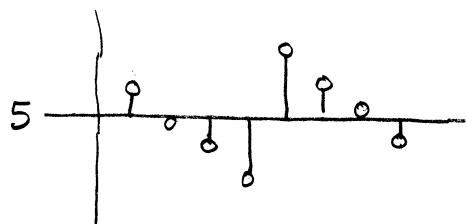
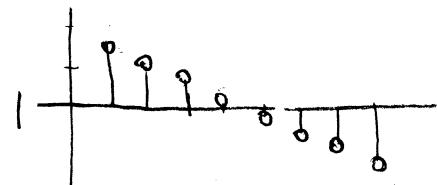
$$S_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S_N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ a_N & b_N & 0 & -a_N & b_N & 0 & \dots \\ \hline 0 & I & 0 & 0 & I & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & \dots \\ -b_N & a_N & 0 & b_N & a_N & 0 & \dots \\ \hline 0 & I & 0 & -I & 0 & -I & \dots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} S_{N/2} \\ 0 \\ S_{N/2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a_{2N} = \sqrt{\frac{3N^2}{4N^2-1}} \quad \text{and} \quad b_{2N} = \sqrt{\frac{N^2-1}{4N^2-1}}$$

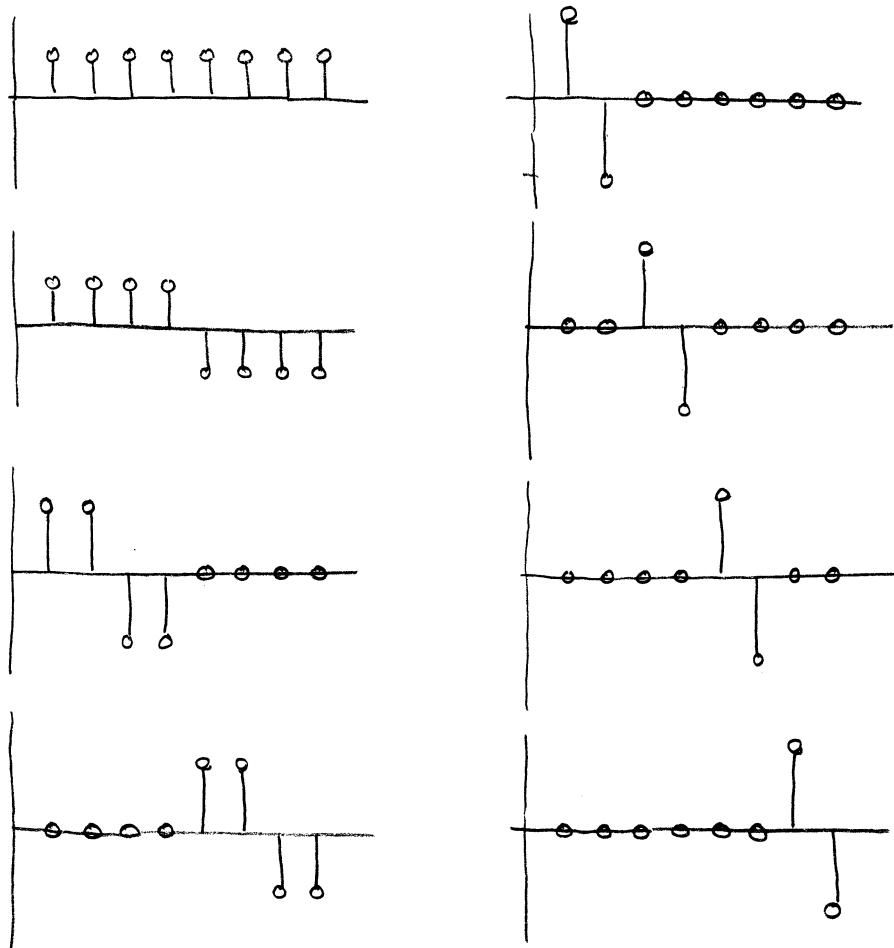


called
slant
because
it has
linear
basis
functions



Haar

- symmetric
- separable
- unitary
- $N = 2^P$
- vary in both scale (width) and position; used for wavelets



$N=8$ Haar transform basis functions
 p specifies scale, q specifies width

Mathematically,

$$h_0(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$$

$$h_k(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{cases} 2^{p/2} & \frac{q-1}{2^p} \leq x \leq \frac{q}{2^p} \\ -2^{p/2} & \frac{q-1}{2^p} \leq x \leq \frac{q}{2^p} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{where } k = 2^p + q - 1$$

2^p is the largest power of 2 such that $2^p \leq k$ and $q-1$ is the remainder.

$$H_r = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ \sqrt{2} & \sqrt{2} & -\sqrt{2} & -\sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} & \sqrt{2} & -\sqrt{2} & -\sqrt{2} \\ 2 & -2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & -2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Haar functions are scaled, shifted versions of an odd rectangular pulse.

Notes

- not as useful to plot in terms of k since p and q refer to scale and shift
- addresses lines and edges directly so it can be used to call attention to line and edge features

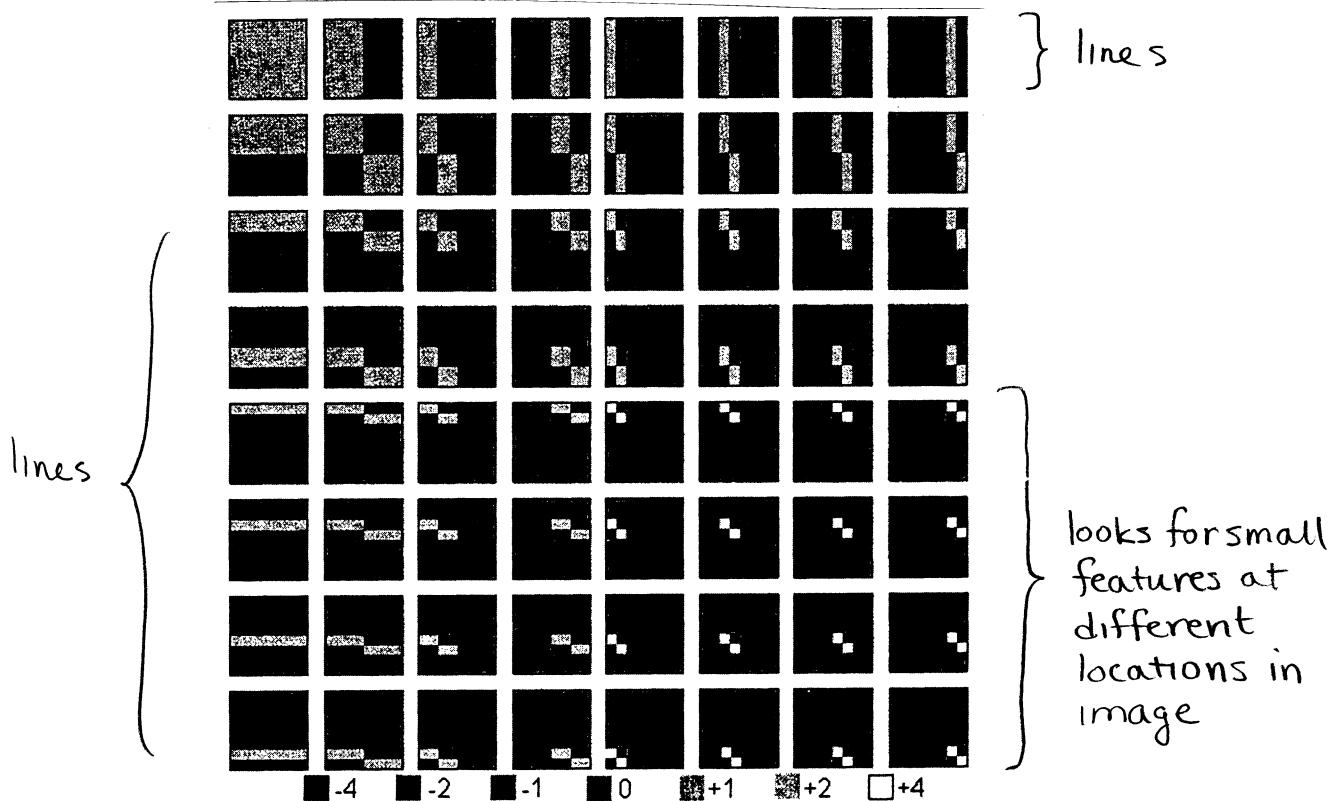


Figure 13-6 The Haar transform basis images for $N = 8$

Eigenvector based transforms

For an $N \times N$ matrix \underline{A} there are N scalars λ_k , $k=0, \dots, N-1$

$$|\underline{A} - \lambda_k \underline{I}| = 0$$

These are called the eigenvalues. There are N corresponding eigenvectors \underline{v}_k

$$\underline{A} \underline{v}_k = \lambda_k \underline{v}_k$$

The eigenvectors form an orthonormal basis set.

Let \underline{x} be a $N \times 1$ random vector, i.e., each x_i is a random variable

estimate mean $\underline{m}_x \approx \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \underline{x}_l$
 set of L random vectors

estimate covariance matrix $\underline{C}_x = E\{(\underline{x} - \underline{m}_x)(\underline{x} - \underline{m}_x)^t\} \approx \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L (\underline{x}_l \underline{x}_l^t - \underline{m}_x \underline{m}_x^t)$

$N \times N$, real, symmetric

define $\underline{y} = \underline{A}(\underline{x} - \underline{m}_x)$

rows are eigenvectors of \underline{C}_x

Compute $\underline{C}_y = \underline{A} \underline{C}_x \underline{A}^t = \left[\lambda_k \underline{v}_k \right] \underline{A}^t = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_N \end{bmatrix}$
 but \underline{v}_k are the rows (eigenvalues)
 of \underline{A}

IMPORTANT RESULTS

(1) \underline{A} removes correlation among the variables

(2) λ_k is the variance of the k -th transformed variable

Dimensional Reduction

Assume $\underline{m} = \underline{0}$

Drop the lower $N-M$ rows of \underline{A} , to give \underline{B}

$$\hat{\underline{y}} = \underline{B}\underline{x}$$

↑
estimate of variable y .

Invert to get

$$\hat{\underline{x}} = \underline{B}^t \hat{\underline{y}}$$

where $\hat{\underline{x}}$ is an approximation of \underline{x} using only M components.

The error is only $\sum_{k=M+1}^N \lambda_k = \text{MSE}$

Karhunen-Loéve Transform

$$\underline{y} = \underline{A}(\underline{x} - \underline{m}_x)$$

↑
eigenvectors of C_x

By dropping $M-N$ components we can dramatically reduce the dimensionality of a set of vectors (images)

Some comments

- As correlation between adjacent pixels approach one, the K-L basis functions approach those of the DCT

Example: 24 band multispectral image, 1000×1000 pixels/band

Compute covariance matrix for 1,000,000 24-element random variables.

Transform, keeping only M largest eigenvalues.
If M is small this is a terrific savings in memory.

SVD (singular value decomposition)

Write $N \times N$ matrix \underline{A} as

$$\underline{A} = \underline{U} \underline{\Lambda} \underline{V}^t \quad (1)$$

columns \underline{U} are eigenvectors of $\underline{A}\underline{A}^t$

columns \underline{V} are eigenvectors of $\underline{A}^t\underline{A}$

$\underline{\Lambda}$ is a diagonal matrix with the singular values of \underline{A} along the diagonal

$$\underline{\Lambda} = \underline{U}^t \underline{A} \underline{V} \quad (2)$$

Equations (1) and (2) define a transform pair.

- eigenvectors must be computed for each image
- has at most N non zero elements and, if some are zero, this gives data compression
- usually several of the singular values are small enough to ignore for even more data compression.

SVD example.

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 5 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{A}\underline{A}^t = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 14 & 18 & 14 & 6 \\ 14 & 36 & 48 & 36 & 14 \\ 18 & 48 & 65 & 48 & 18 \\ 14 & 36 & 48 & 36 & 14 \\ 6 & 14 & 18 & 14 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now compute eigenvectors
and eigenvalues of this matrix.

$$\underline{U} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.186 & 0.638 & 0.241 & -0.695 & -0.695 \\ 0.476 & 0.058 & -0.52 & -0.133 & -0.128 \\ 0.691 & -0.422 & 0.587 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.476 & 0.058 & -0.52 & 0.133 & 0.128 \\ 0.186 & 0.638 & 0.241 & 0.695 & 0.695 \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{\lambda} = \begin{bmatrix} 147.07 \\ 1.872 \\ 0.058 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Forward transform

$$\underline{\Lambda} = \underline{U}^t \underline{A} \underline{U} = \begin{bmatrix} 12.585 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1.142 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.557 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

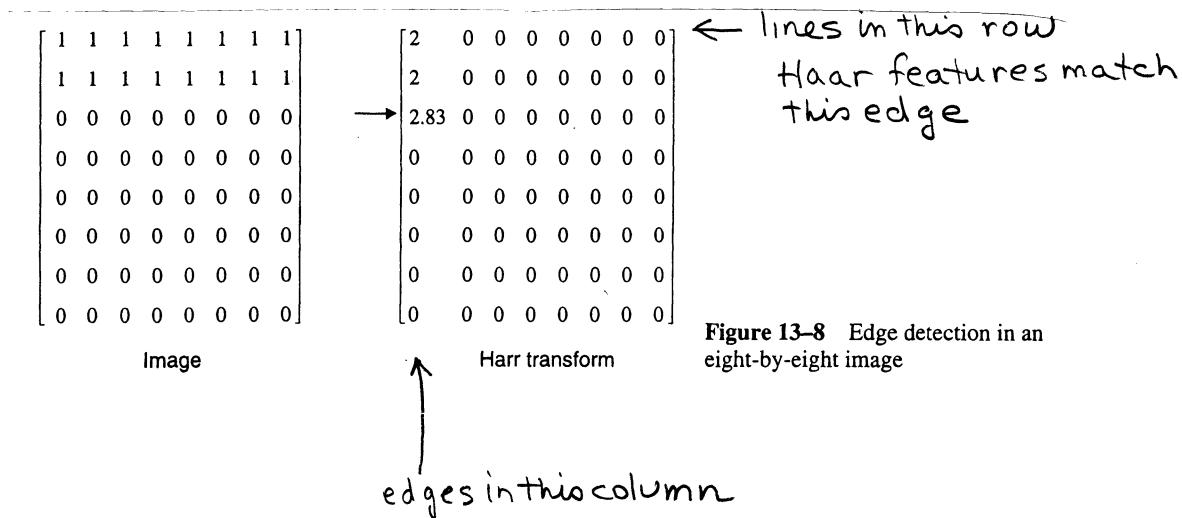
Inverse transform

$$\underline{A} = \underline{U} \underline{\Lambda} \underline{U}^t = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

as expected.

Transform domain filtering

- modify weighting coefficients prior to reconstructing image via inverse transform
- if either (desirable) signal or (undesirable) noise components of the image resemble one or a few of the basis images of a particular transform, then that transform will be useful in separating the two.
- The Haar transform is a good candidate for detecting vertical and horizontal lines and edges since several of its basis images match those features.



Examples of various transforms of a impulse at $(0,0)$

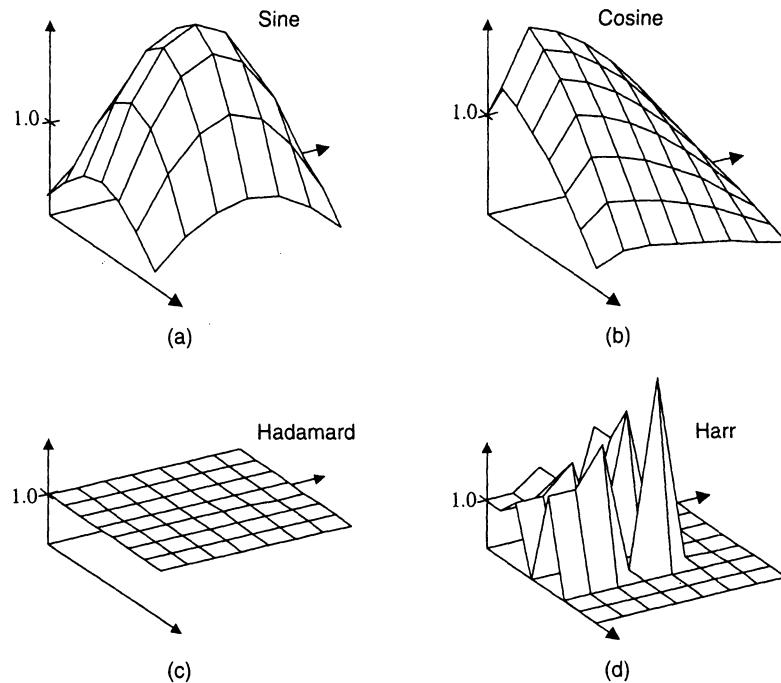


Figure 13-9 Transforms of an image containing an impulse: (a) DST; (b) DCT; (c) Hadamard; (d) Haar. The input is an eight-by-eight matrix, zero everywhere except the upper left element, which has value eight