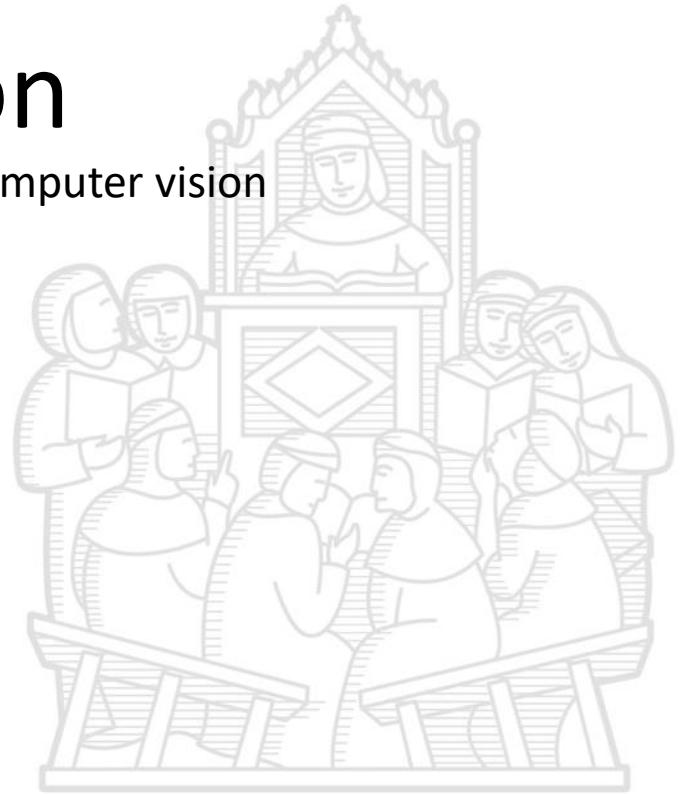


# Robot Vision

Fundamentals and applications of computer vision



**Assistant Professor:**

Marcello Calisti, PhD

[marcello.calisti@santannapisa.it](mailto:marcello.calisti@santannapisa.it)



**Sant'Anna**

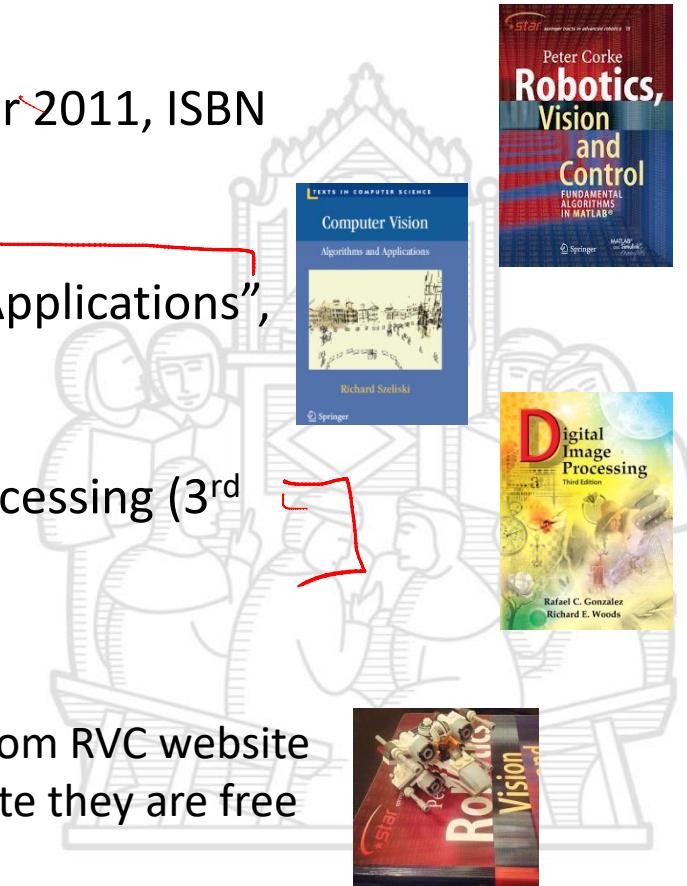
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Robotics – Computer Science, 17 Maggio 2018, Pisa

# Reference materials and credits

Most of the material presented in these lessons can be find on the brilliant, seminal books on robotics and image analysis reported hereafter:

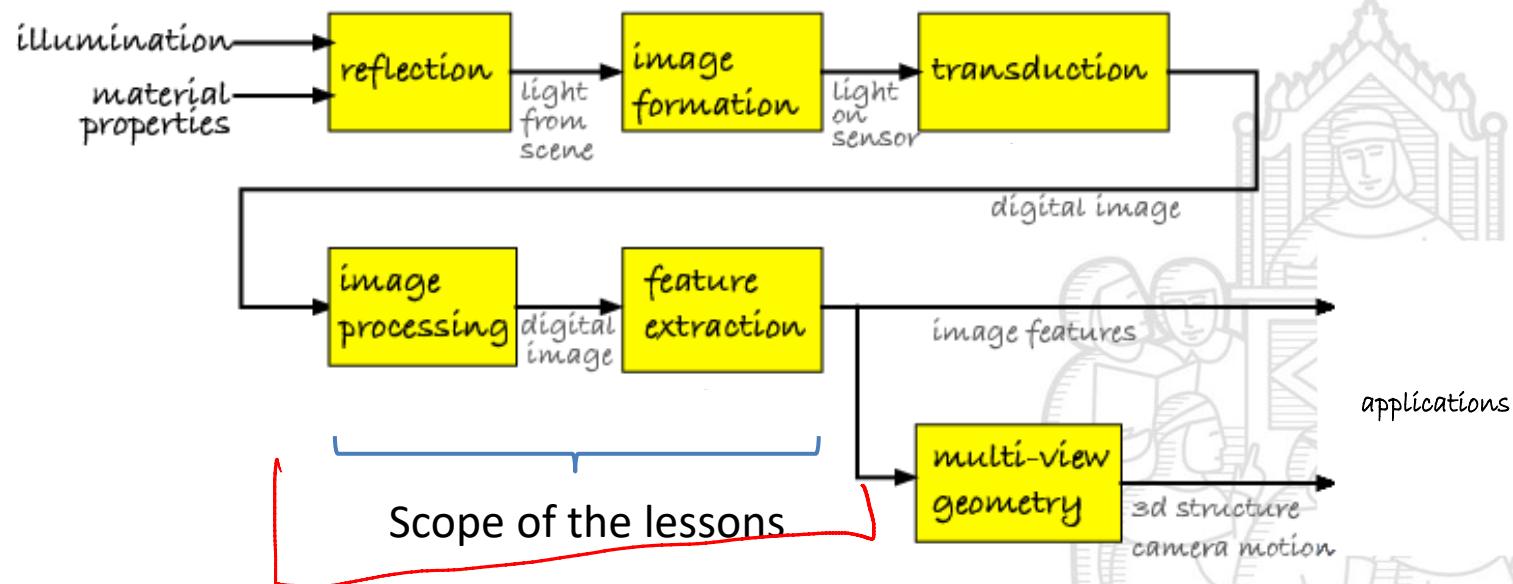
1. P.I. Corke, “Robotics, Vision & Control”, Springer 2011, ISBN 978-3-642-20143-1
2. R. Szeliski, “Computer Vision: Algorithms and Applications”, Springer-Verlag New York, 2010
3. R.C. Gonzalez & R.E. Woods, “Digital Image Processing (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)”, Prentice-Hall, 2006



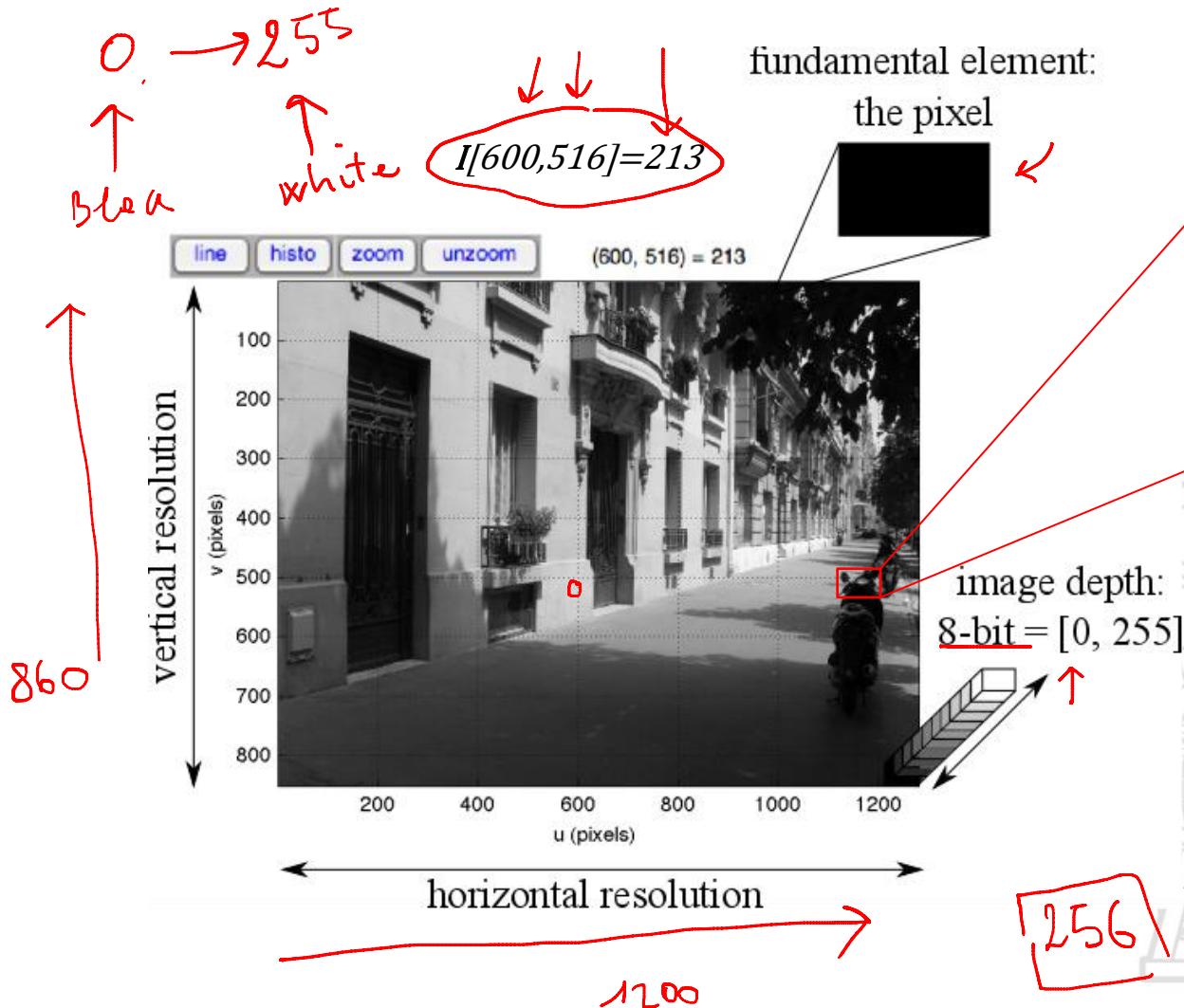
Most of the images of these lessons are downloaded from RVC website <http://www.petercorke.com/RVC/index.php> and, despite they are free to use, they belong to the author of the book.



# Overall computer vision process and scope of the lessons



# What's a digital image?



Digital images are **mosaics** made of **pixels**



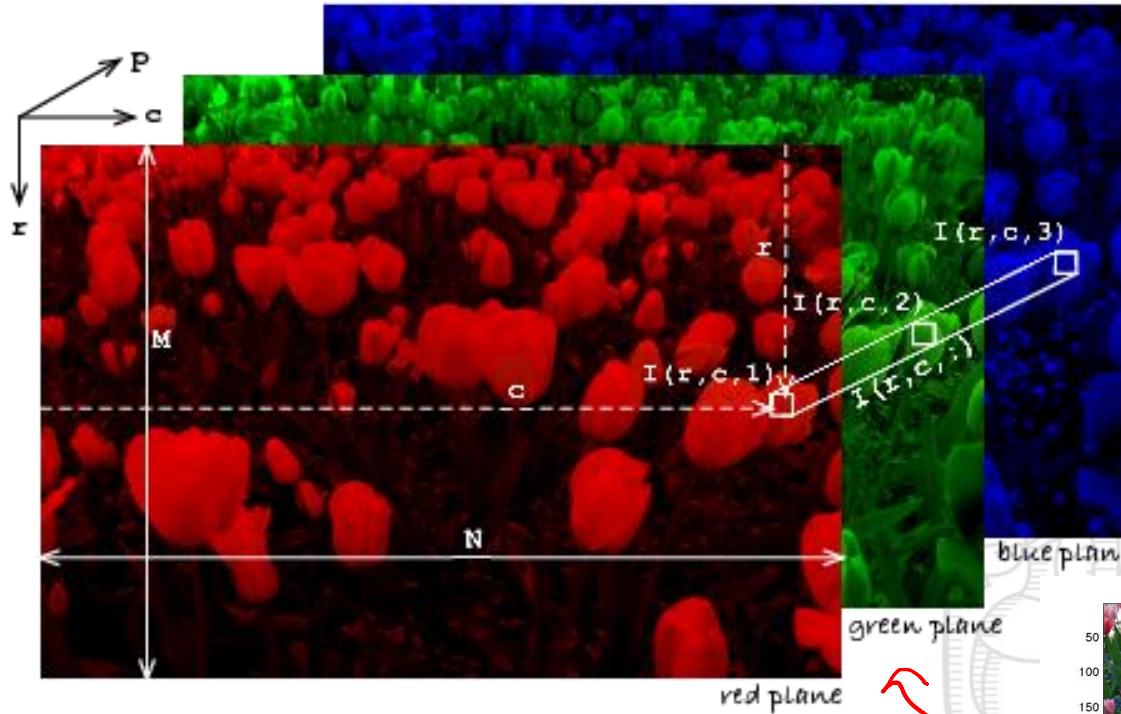
**Image resolution** is the number of pieces (pixel) used to build the mosaic (image)

**Image depth** is the number of colours (levels) of mosaic pieces

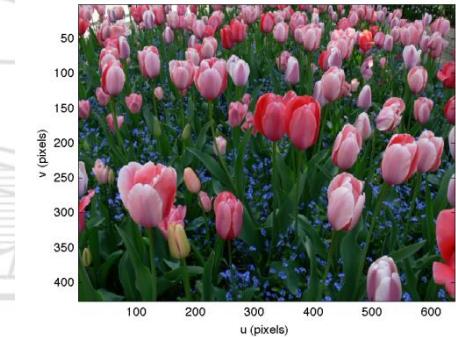


# Colour images

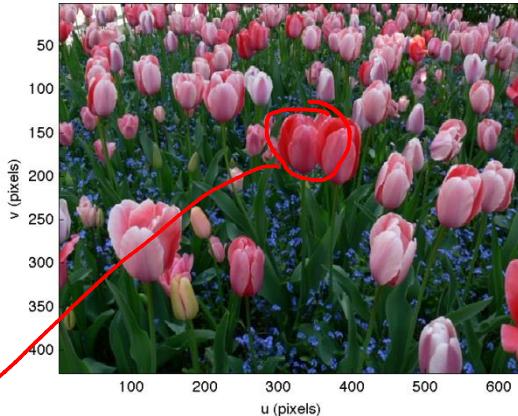
Colour images have three channels: the most common triplet is the R-G-B



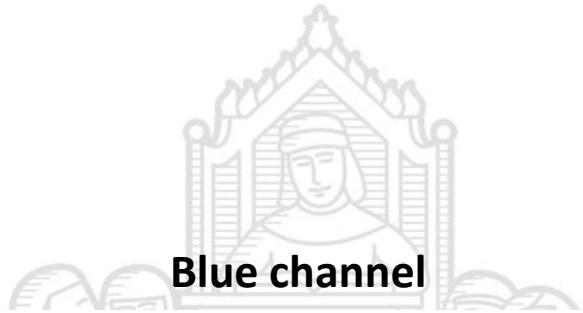
There are other very useful common space:  
HSV, XYZ, CIE, YUY, ...



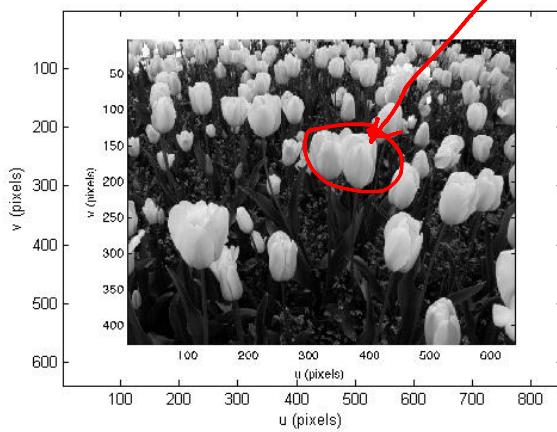
# Colour images



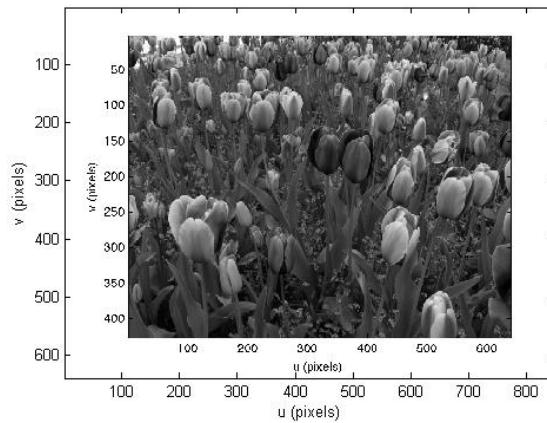
**640x854x3 uint8**



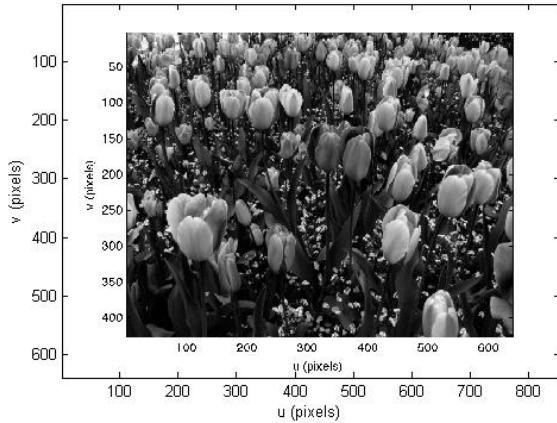
**Red channel**



**Green channel**



**Blue channel**



**640x854x1 uint8**

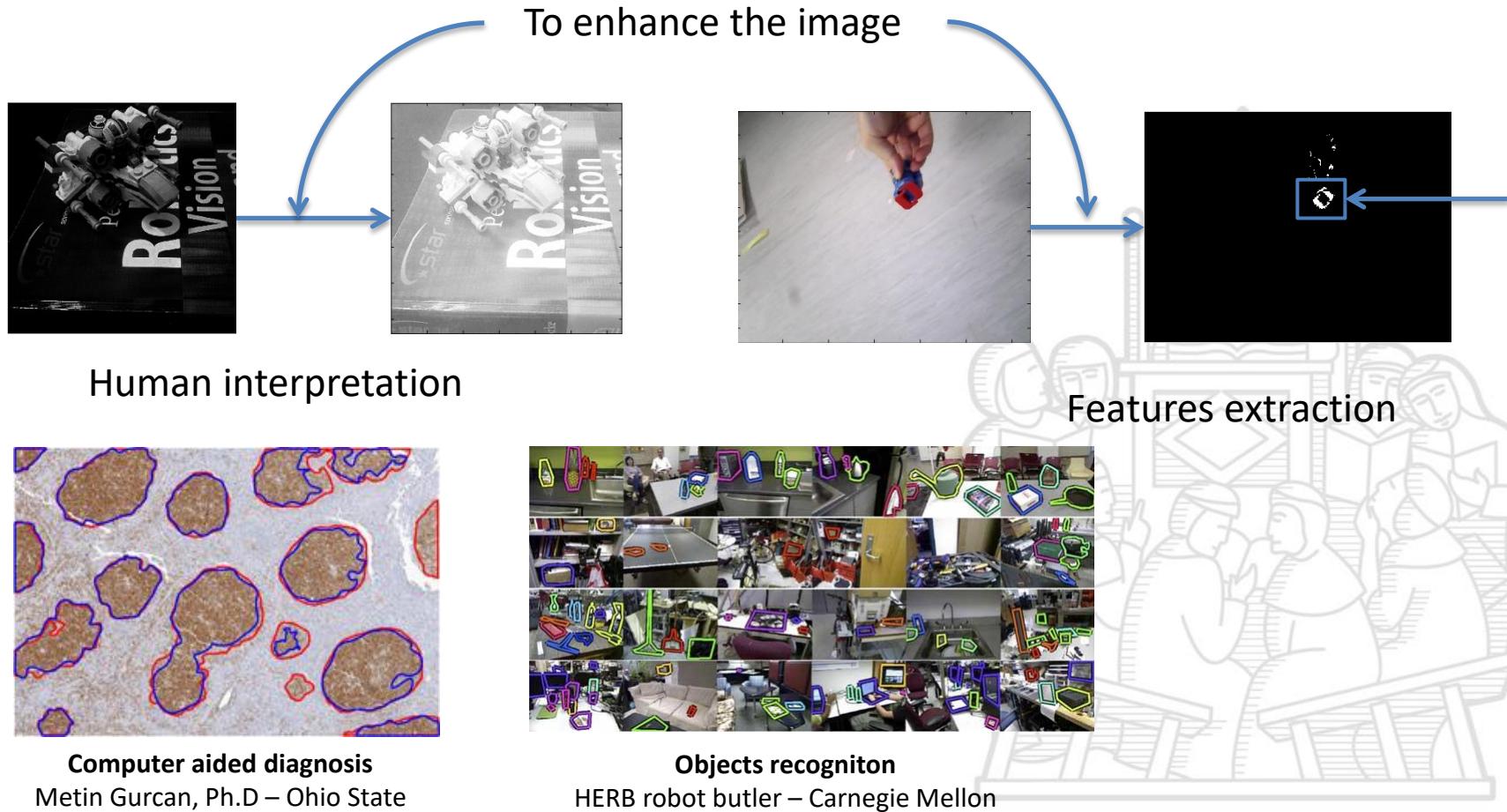


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# Image processing

Transform one or more input images into an output image.

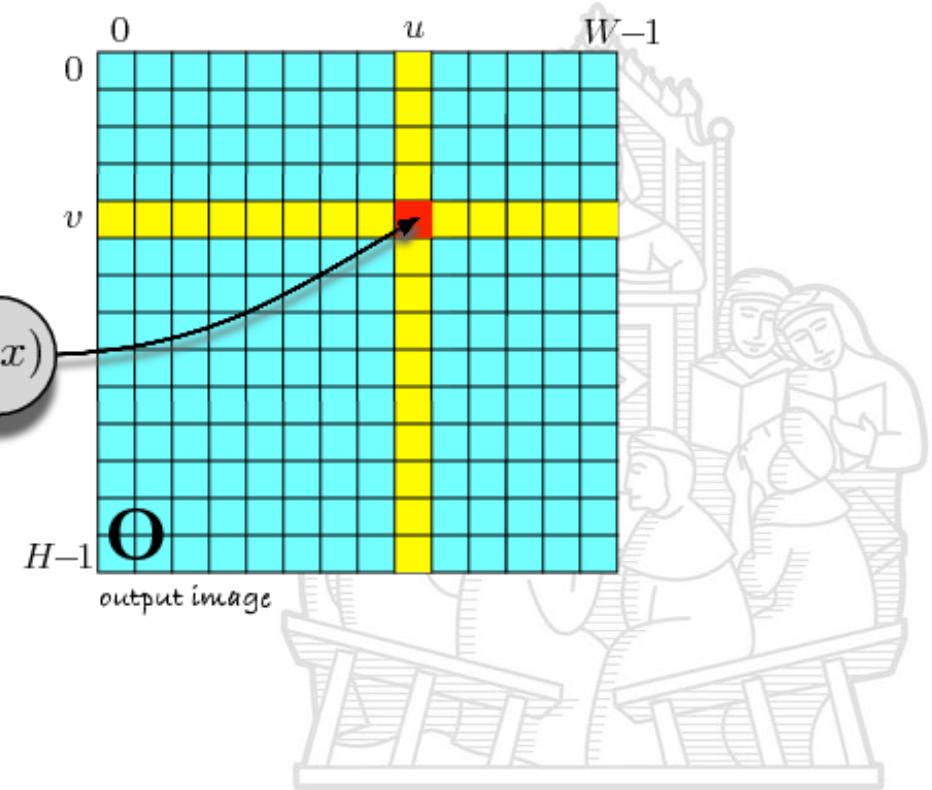
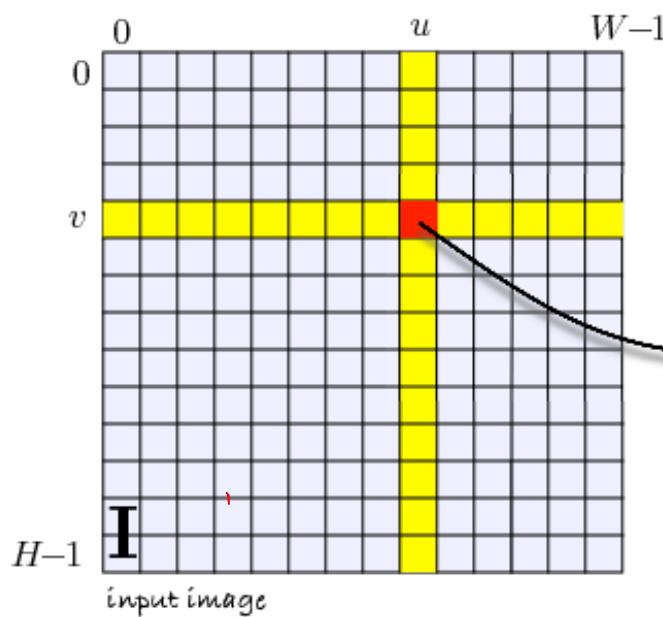


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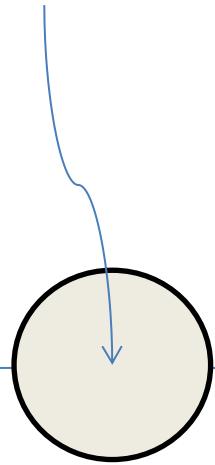
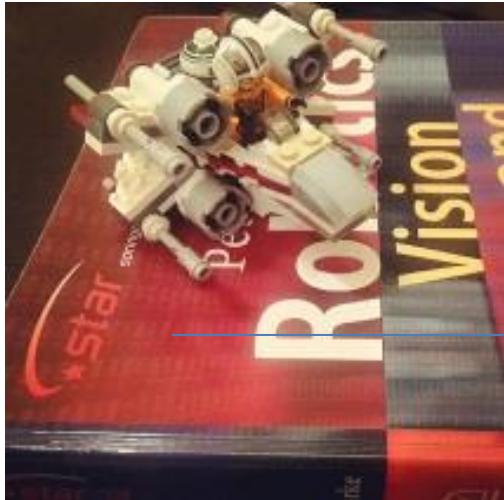
# Monadic operations (pixel operators)

$$O[u, v] = f(I[u, v]), \quad \forall (u, v) \in I$$

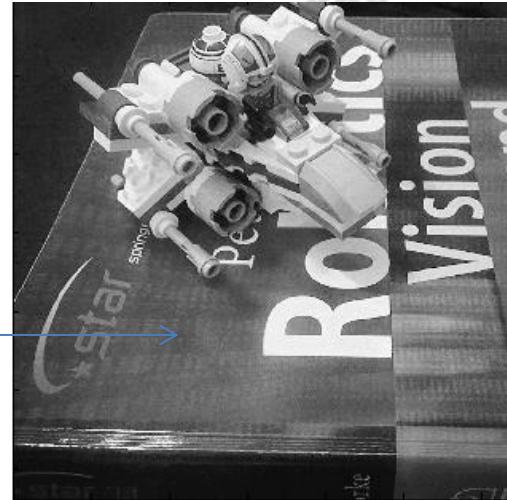


# Simple monadic operation:

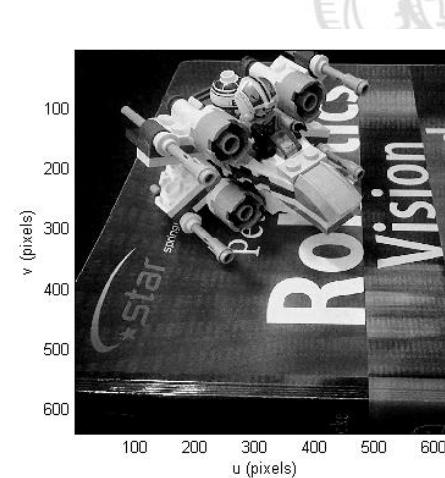
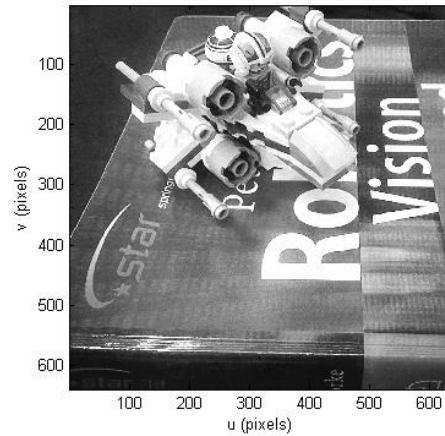
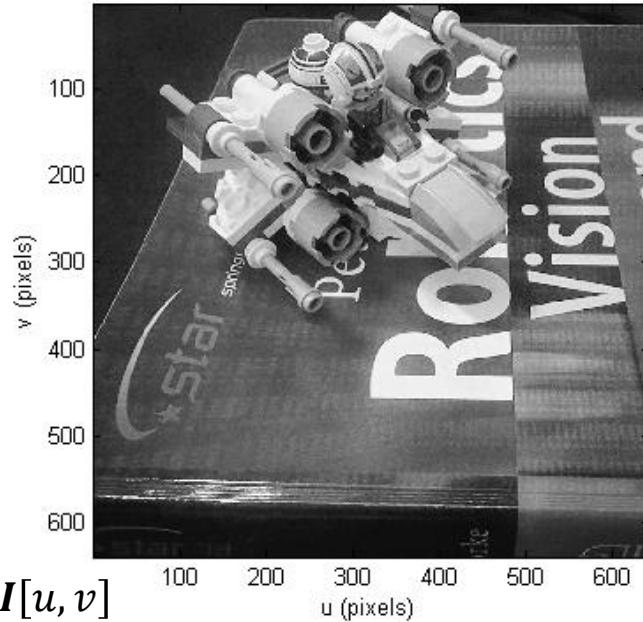
Gray-scale conversion with International  
Telecommunication Unit (ITU) recommendation 709



$$Y = 0,212R + 0,7152G + 0,0722B$$



# Lightening and darkening



Monadic operations change  
the distribution of grey levels  
on images

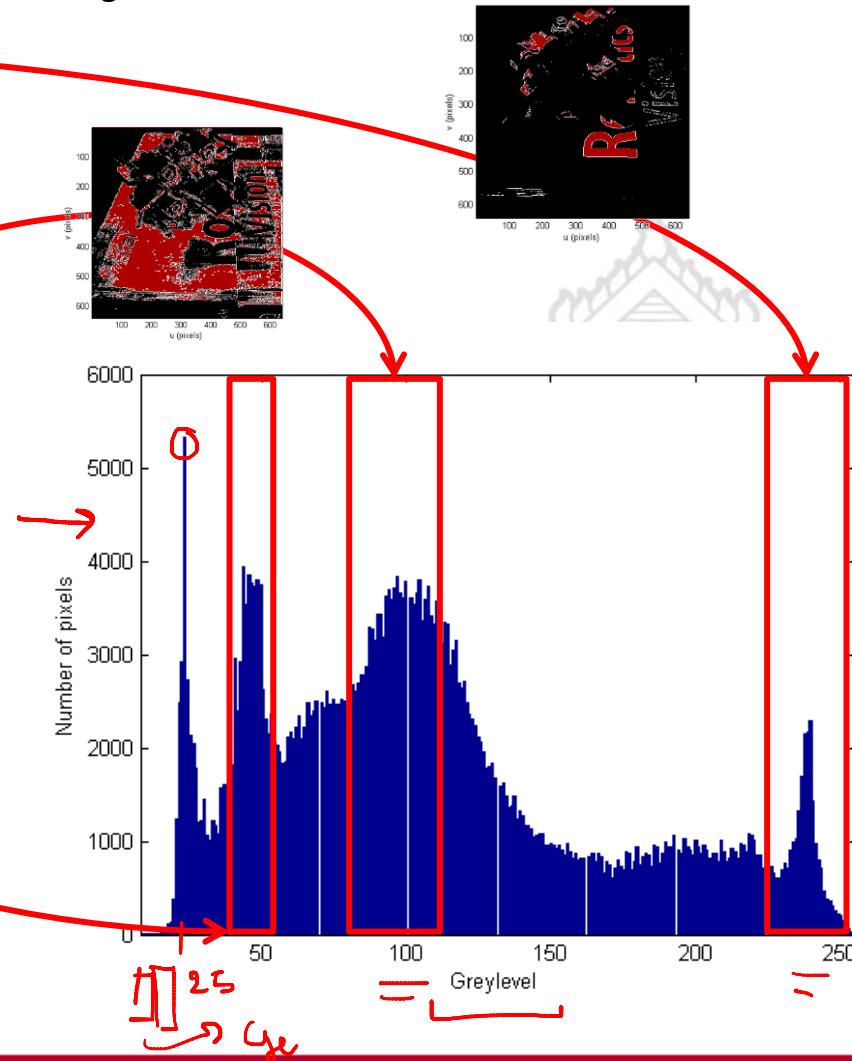
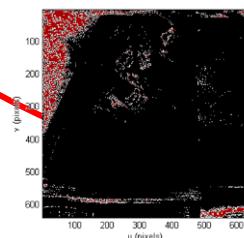
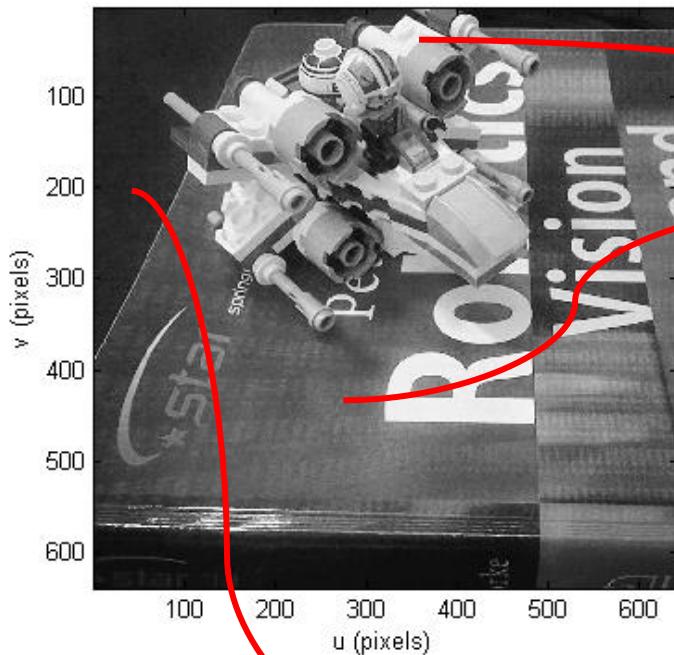
$$O[u, v] = I[u, v] + 50$$

$$O[u, v] = I[u, v] - 50$$

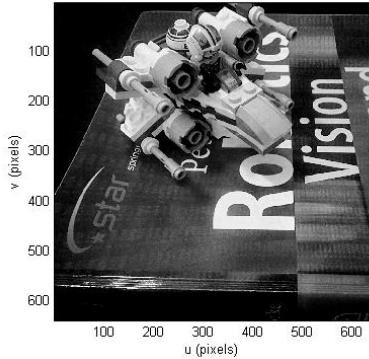


# Histogram

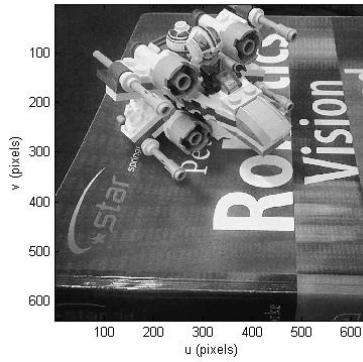
Is a graph representing the grey level occurrences of an image.



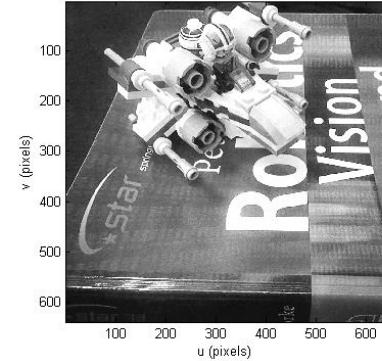
# Histograms and monadic operations



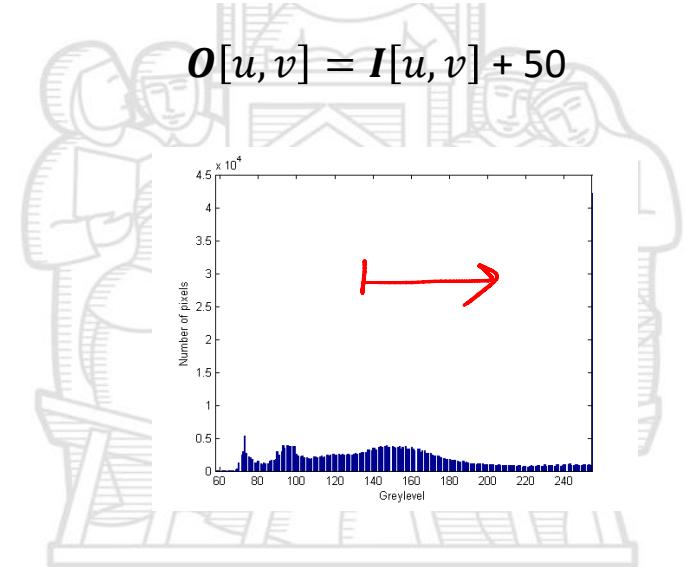
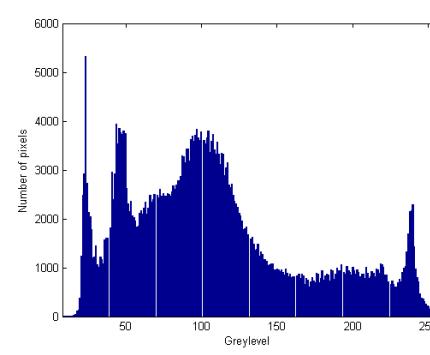
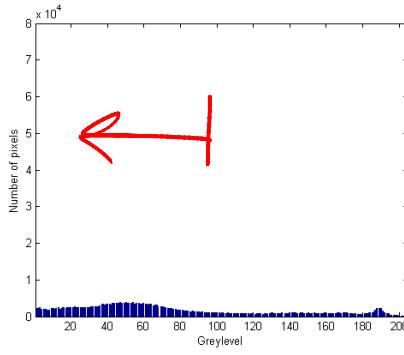
$$O[u, v] = I[u, v] - 50$$



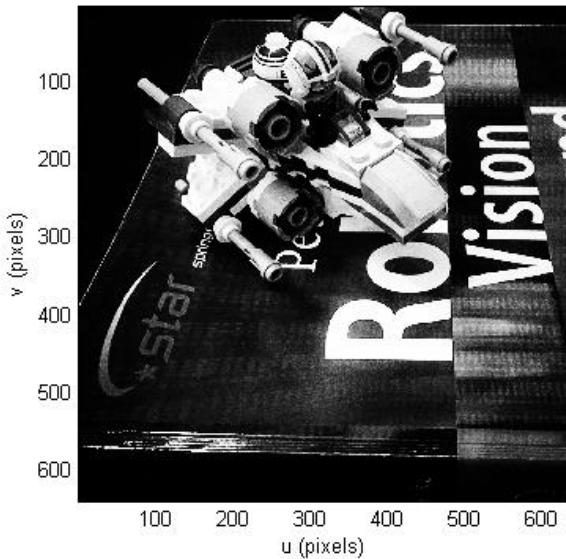
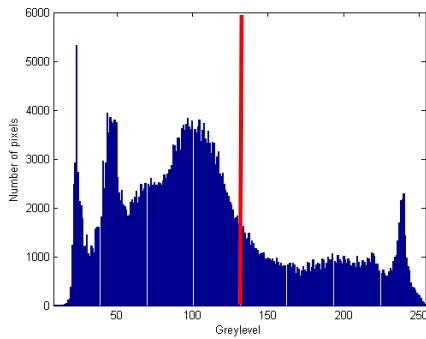
$$I[u, v]$$



$$O[u, v] = I[u, v] + 50$$



# Contrast enhancement



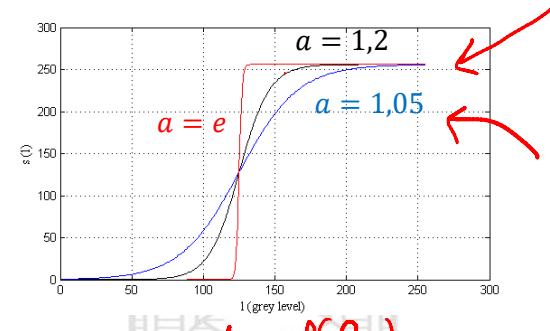
Sigmoid function

$$s(l) = \frac{256}{1 + a^{-(l-125)}}$$

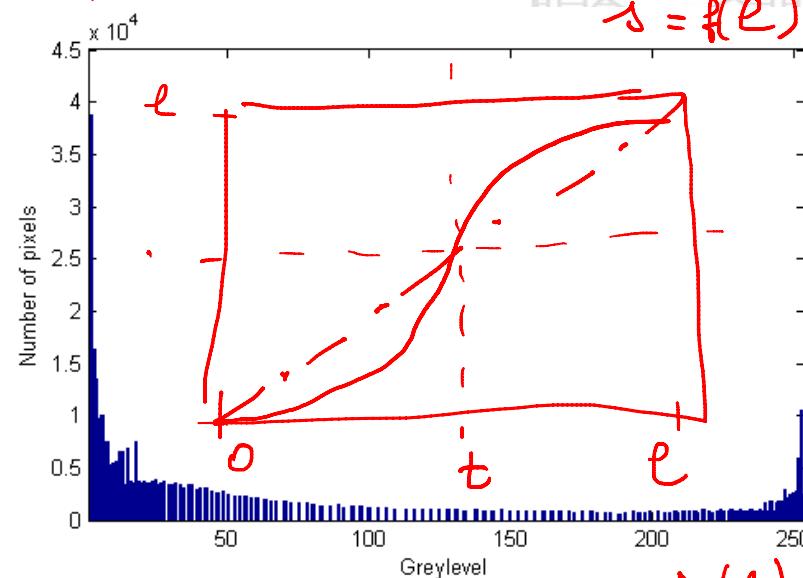
↑      ↑      =

$$\gamma(e) = f(e)$$

$$O[u, v] = f(I[u, v])$$



$$\gamma = f(e)$$



$$\gamma(l) = l$$



# Common operations

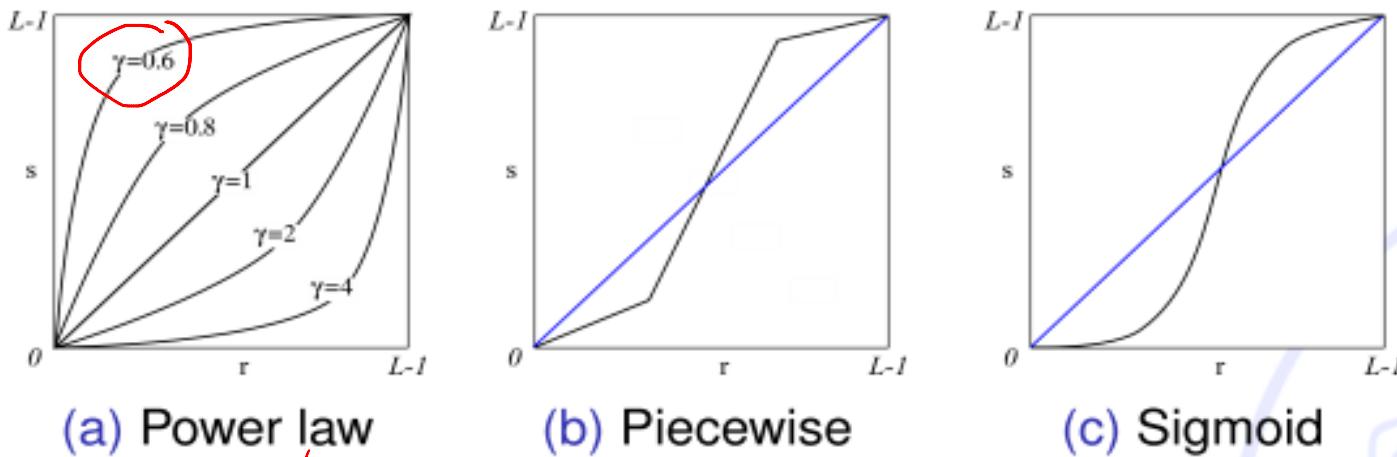


Figure: Transformations

Power law lighten or darken

Piecewise flexible

Sigmoid enhance the contrast



# Common operations

$$s(r) = c \cdot r^\gamma$$

$$s(r) = \begin{cases} c_1 \cdot r & 0 \leq r < r_{min} \\ c_2 \cdot r & r_{min} \leq r < r_{max} \\ c_3 \cdot r & r_{max} \leq r < L - 1 \end{cases}$$

$$s(r) = \frac{c_1}{1 + e^{-r}}$$

- power law
- piecewise
- sigmoid

Each function requires parameters definition



# Monadic operations

Code sample >

```
% lightening/darkening
xwing_light=xwing_grey+50;
idisp(xwing_light);
xwing_dark=xwing_grey-50;
idisp(xwing_dark);
% select areas by levels
level48 = (xwing_grey>=40) & (xwing_grey<=50) ;
idisp(level48);
level225 = (xwing_grey>=225) &
(xwing_grey<=255) ;
idisp(level225);
% contrast enhanch
xwing_contrast=zeros(r,c);
for i=1:r
    for j=1:c
        xwing_contrast(i,j)=256./(1+1.05.^-(double(xwing_grey(i,j))-150));      % Sigmoid
    end
end
idisp(xwing_contrast)
```



# Pay attention

$$L = 21$$

$$c = 1$$

$$\gamma = 2$$

$$s(r) = c \cdot r^\gamma$$

$$s(1) = 1$$

$$s(2) = 2^2 = 4$$

$$s(3) = 3^2 = 9$$

$$s(4) = 4^2 = 16$$

$$s(5) = 5^2 = 25$$

... = ...

$$s(20) = 20^2 = 400$$

???

We have only 21 levels, but:

$$s(5) = 5^2 = 25$$

# Pay attention

We need to remap the output between  $[0, L - 1]$ :

$$\frac{s'}{s} = \frac{20}{400}$$

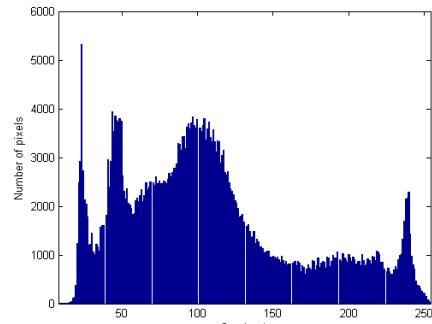
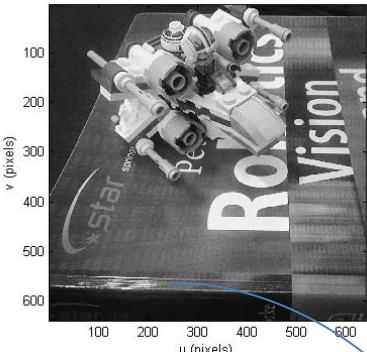
$$\frac{20}{400} = \frac{L - 1}{(L - 1)^\gamma} = (L - 1)^{1-\gamma}$$

$$s' = (L - 1)^{1-\gamma} s = c \cdot s = c \cdot r^\gamma$$

Thus  $c$  is related to  $L$  and  $\gamma$ .



# Histogram equalization



$$N = 100$$

$$c(l) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^l h(i) = c(l-1) + \frac{h(l)}{N}$$

$c(l)$	Cumulative distribution
$h(l)$	histogram
$l$	Grey level

Monadic operation

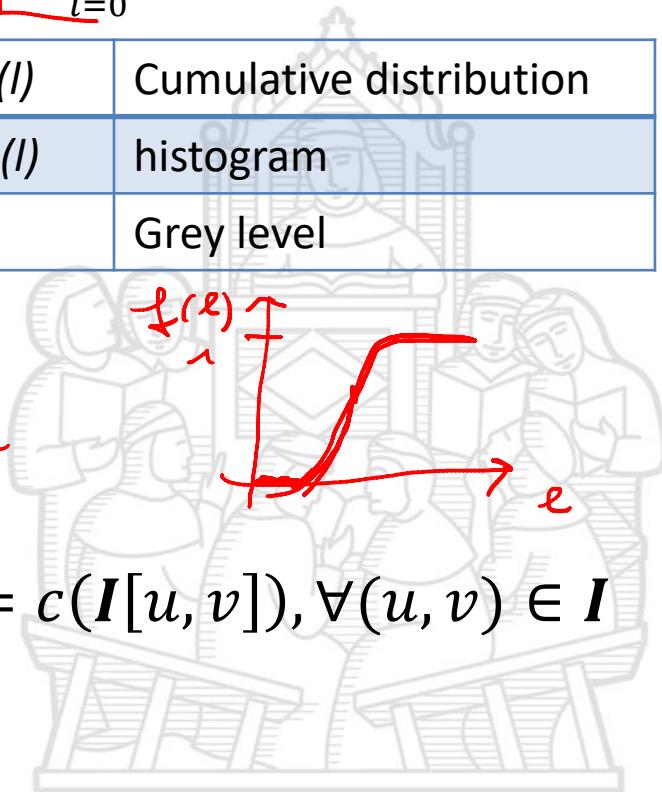
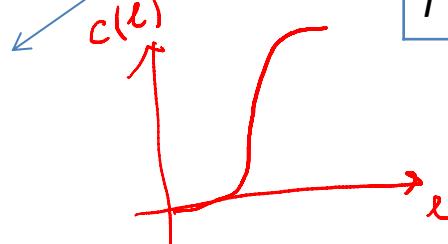
$$O[u, v] = f(I[u, v])$$

$$\Downarrow \uparrow (?)$$

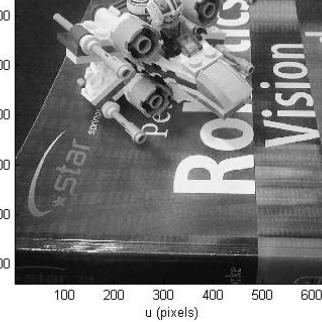
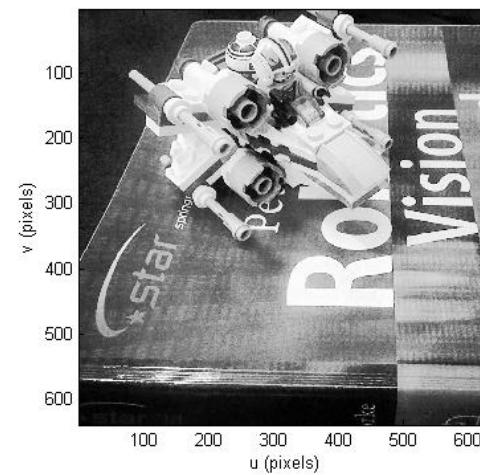
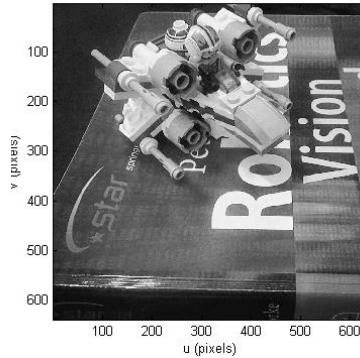
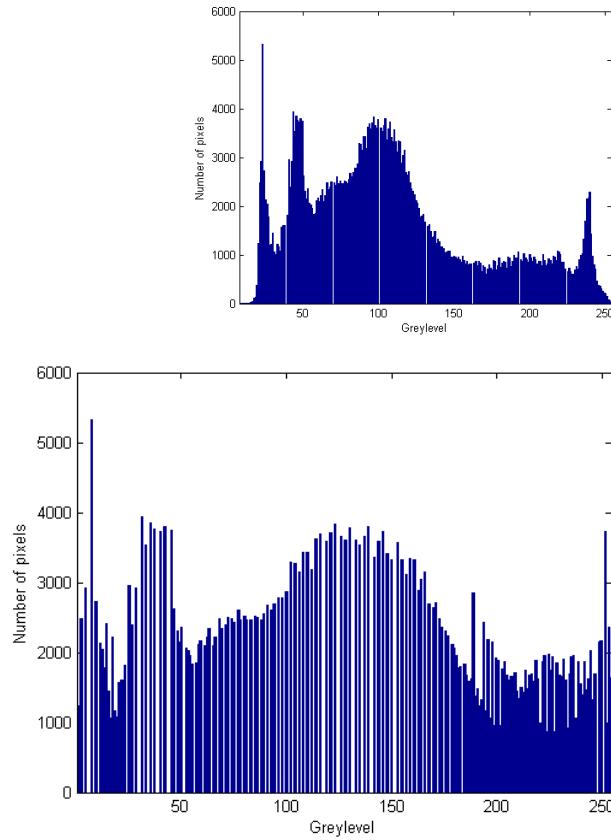
$$l=1 \rightarrow N_l=1$$

$$f(e) = \frac{f(e)}{1}$$

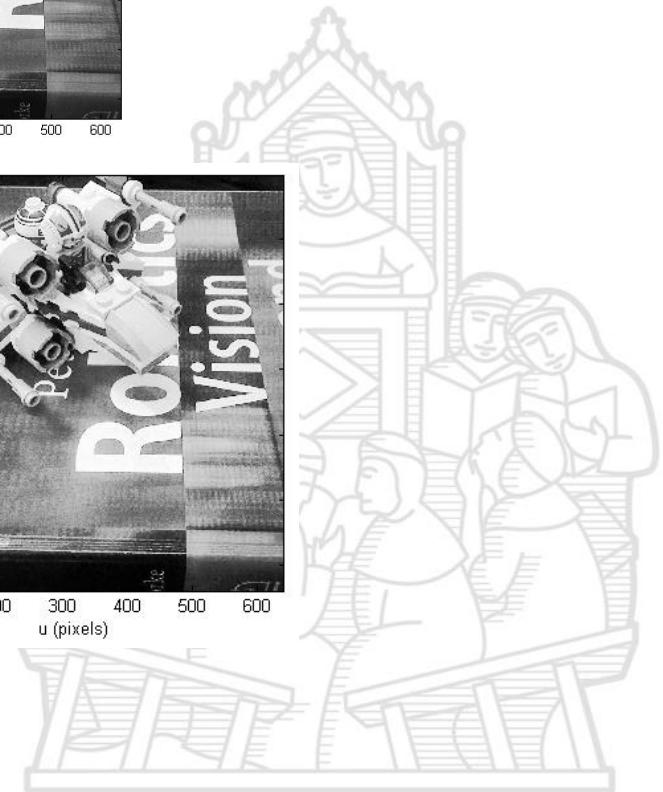
$$\Rightarrow C(e) = \rightarrow C(1) = \frac{1}{10}$$



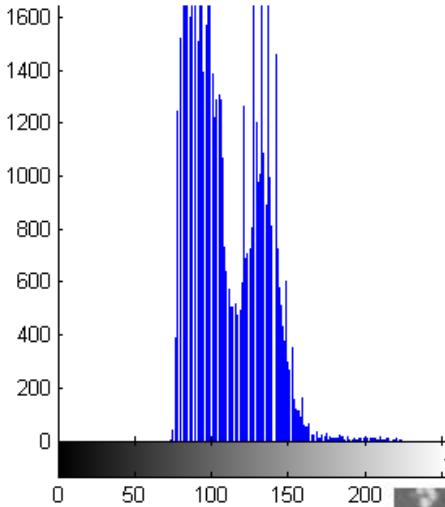
# Histogram equalization



After equalization



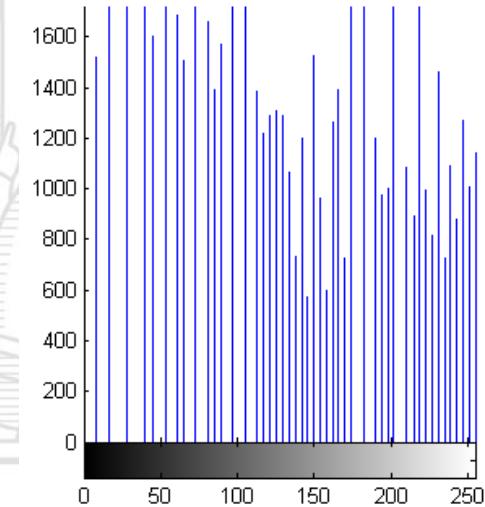
# Histogram equalization



before



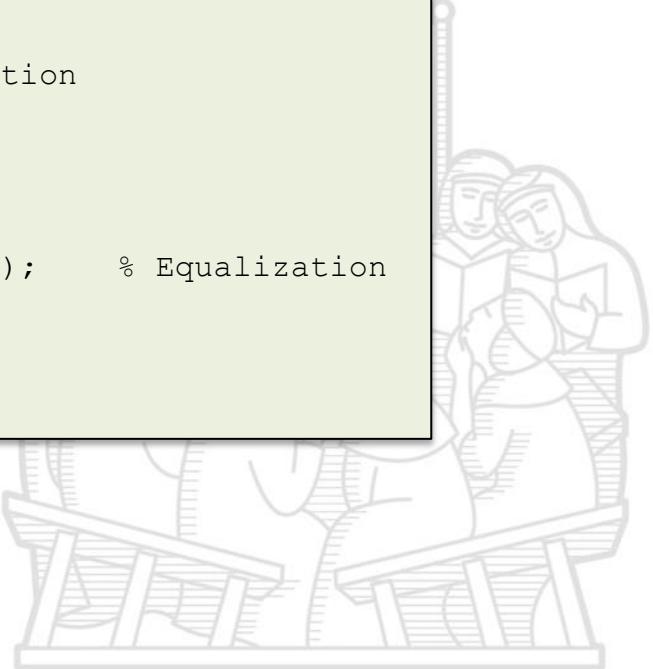
after



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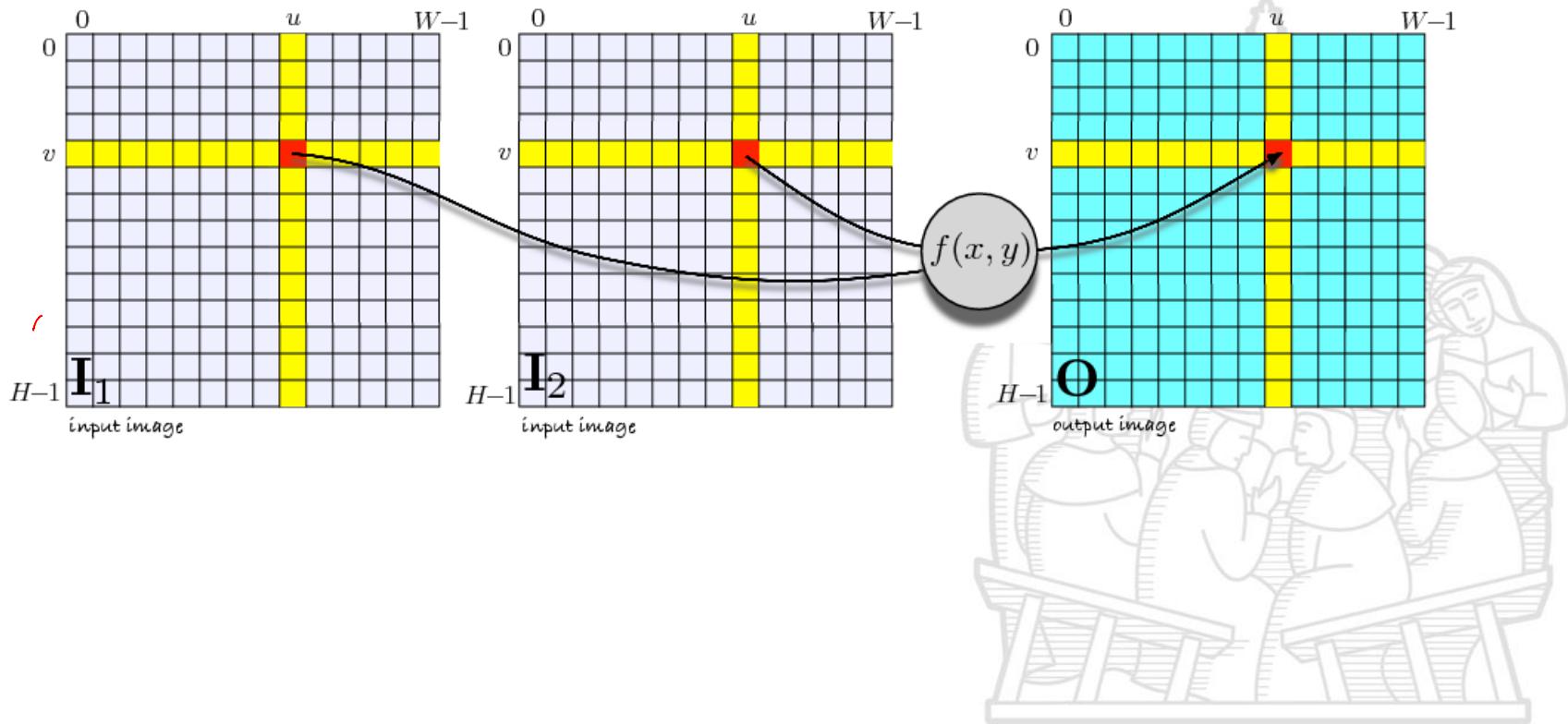
## Code sample >

```
%hist equalization
[n,v]=ihist(xwing_grey);
plot(v,n)
cd=zeros(length(v),1);
cd(1)=v(1)/(r*c);
for l=2:length(v)
    cd(l)=cd(l-1)+1/(r*c)*n(l); % cumulative distribution
end
xwing_equalized=zeros(r,c);
for i=1:r
    for j=1:c
        xwing_equalized(i,j)=255*cd(xwing_grey(i,j)+1); % Equalization
    end
end
idisp(xwing_equalized)
```

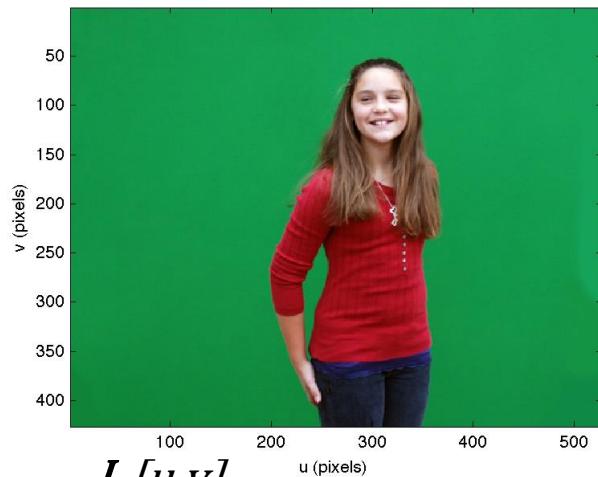


# Diadic operations

$$O[u, v] = f(I_1[u, v], I_2[u, v]), \quad \forall (u, v) \in I_1$$



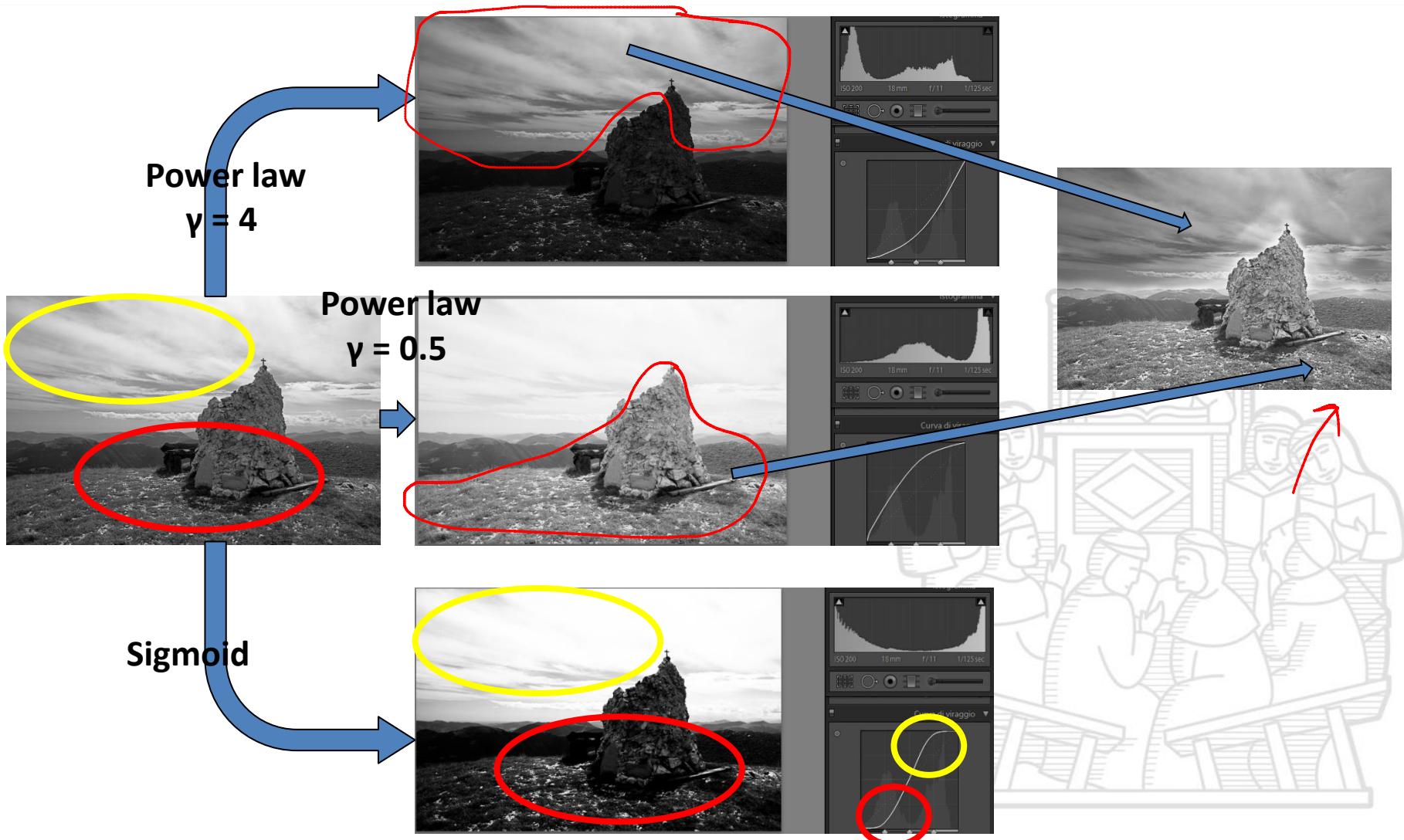
# Green screen



If  $I_1[u, v]$  isGreen  
     $O[u, v] = I_2[u, v]$   
Else  
     $O[u, v] = I_1[u, v]$



# High Dynamic Range



# Background subtraction

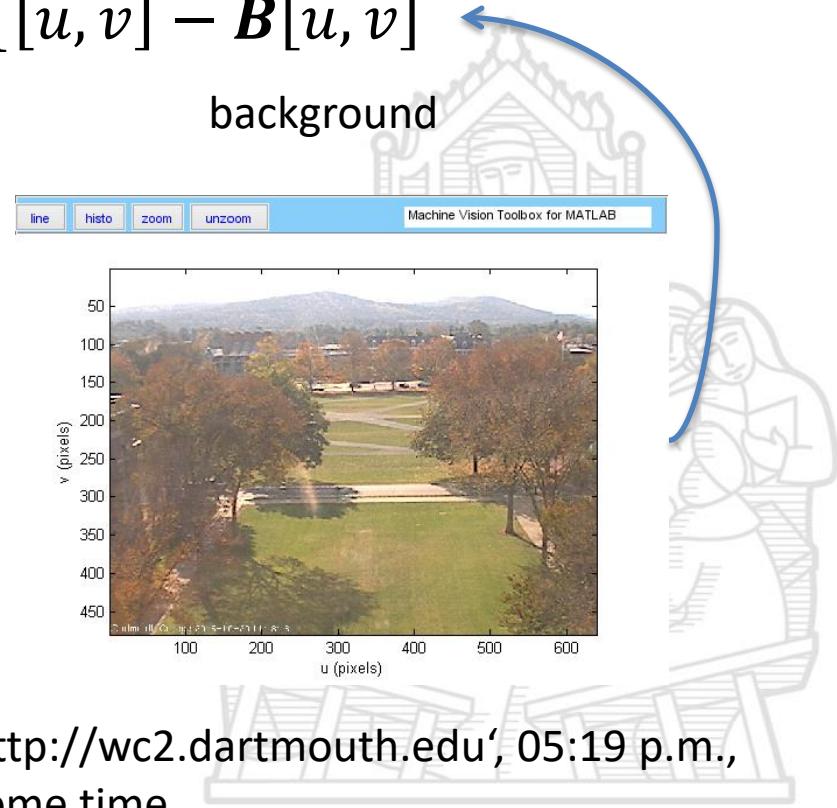
Another important diadic operation is the background subtraction to find novel elements (foreground) of a scene.

$$O[u, v] = I_1[u, v] - I_2[u, v] = I_1[u, v] - B[u, v]$$

How we estimate  
the background  
 $B[u, v]$  ?



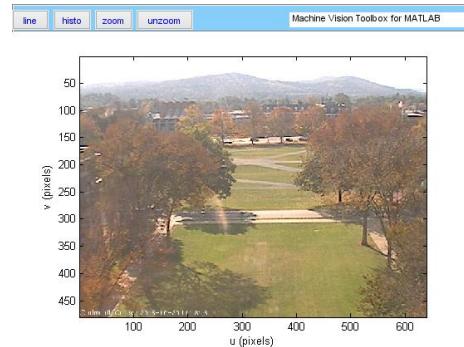
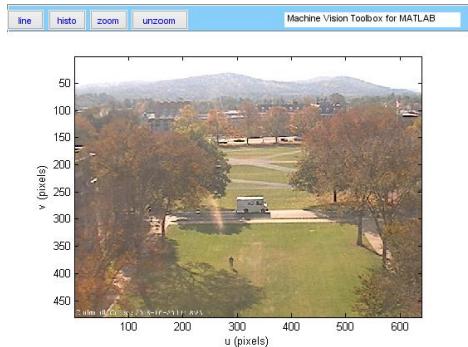
We can take a  
shoot when we  
know that only  
background is  
visible



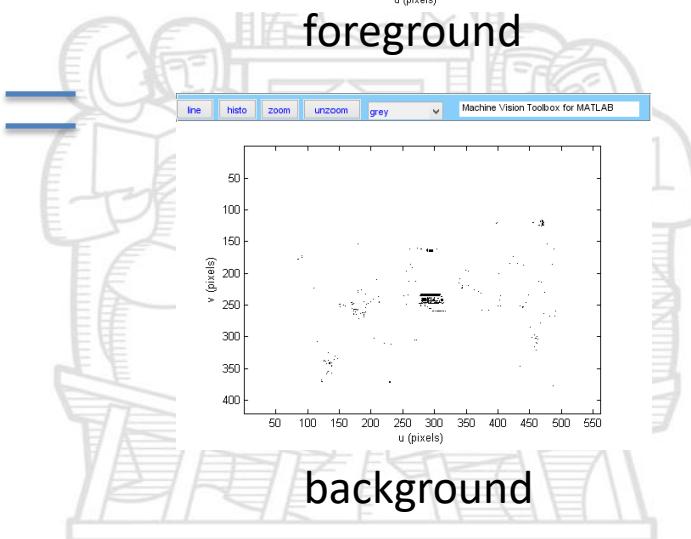
# Background subtraction

'<http://wc2.dartmouth.edu>', 05:19 p.m., Rome time

$$I_1[u, v] - B[u, v] = O[u, v]$$



foreground



background

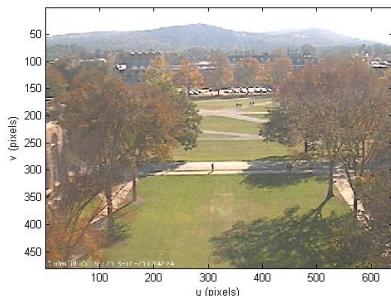


# Background subtraction

'<http://wc2.dartmouth.edu>', 07:48 p.m., Rome time

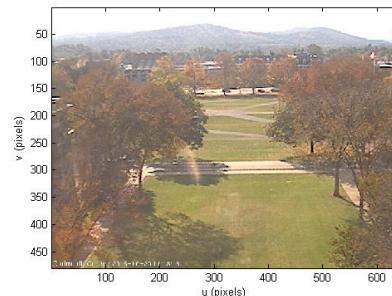
$$I_1[u, v] - B[u, v] = O[u, v]$$

Machine Vision Toolbox for MATLAB

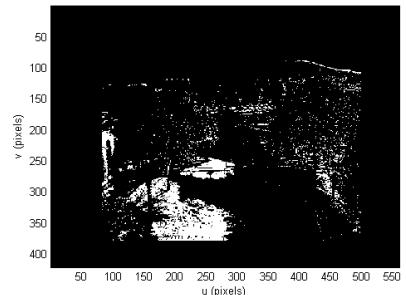


Machine Vision Toolbox for MATLAB

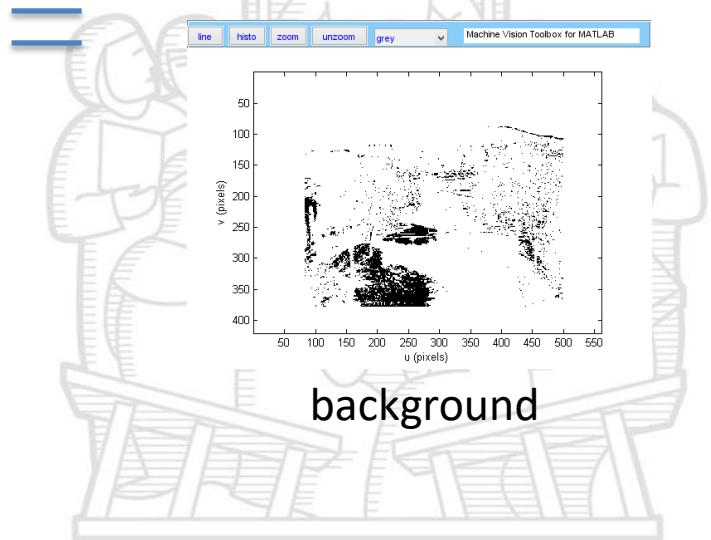
Machine Vision Toolbox for MATLAB



Machine Vision Toolbox for MATLAB



foreground



What went wrong?

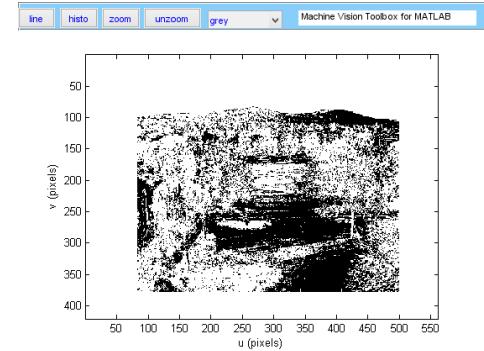
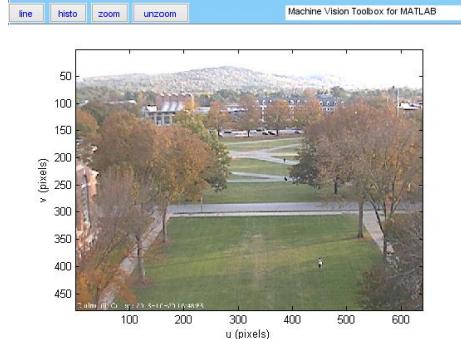
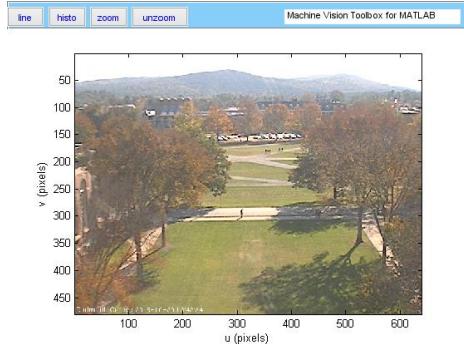


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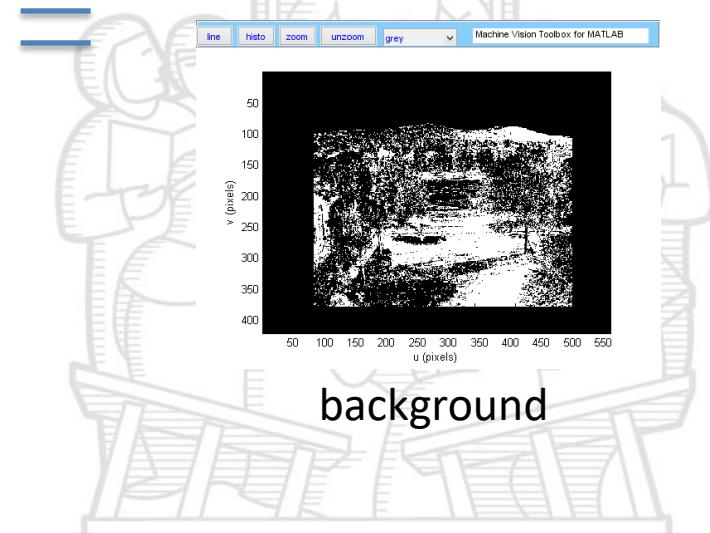
# Background subtraction

'<http://wc2.dartmouth.edu>', 10:55 p.m., Rome time

$$I_1[u, v] - B[u, v] = O[u, v]$$



foreground



background

What went wrong?



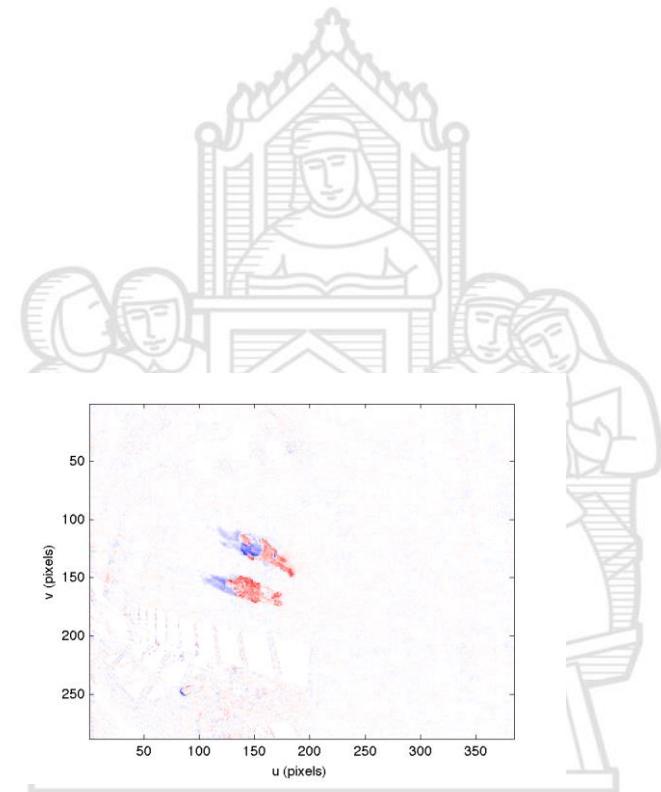
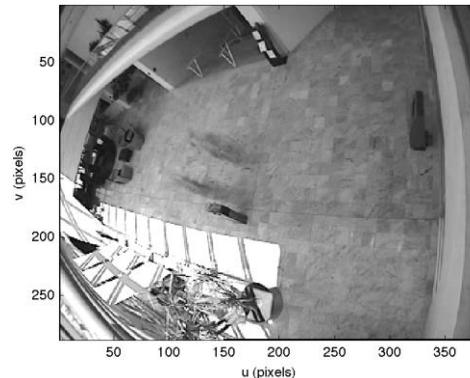
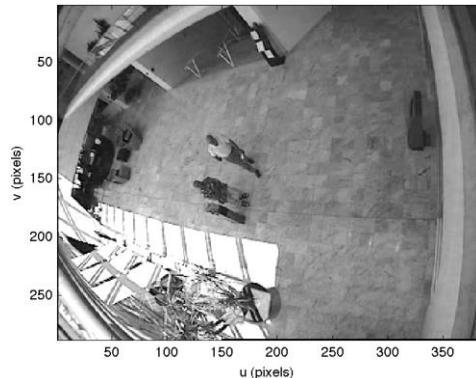
# Background estimation

We require a progressive adaptation to small, persistent changes in the background.

Rather than take a static image as background, we estimated it as follow:

$$\mathbf{B}\langle k+1 \rangle = \mathbf{B}\langle k \rangle + c(I\langle k \rangle - \mathbf{B}\langle k \rangle)$$

$$c(x) = \begin{cases} \cancel{\sigma}, & x > \sigma \\ x, & -\sigma \leq x \leq \sigma \\ -\sigma, & x < -\sigma \end{cases}$$



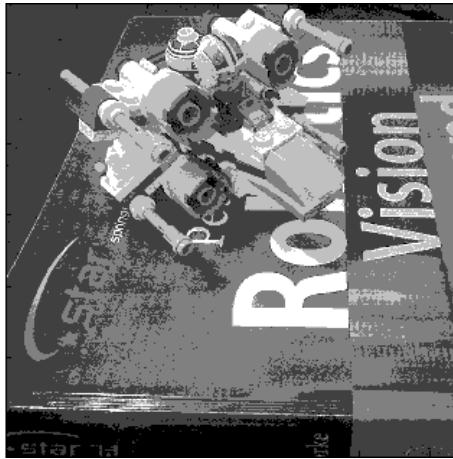
# Background subtraction

Code sample >

```
% background estimation  
sigma=0.01;  
vid = videoinput('winvideo', 1);  
bg=getsnapshot(vid);  
bg_small=idouble(imono(bg));  
while 1  
    img=getsnapshot(vid);  
    img_small=idouble(imono(img));  
    if isempty(img), break; end  
    d=img_small-bg_small;  
    d=max(min(d,sigma), -sigma);  
    bg_small=bg_small+d;  
    idisp(bg_small); drawnow  
end
```

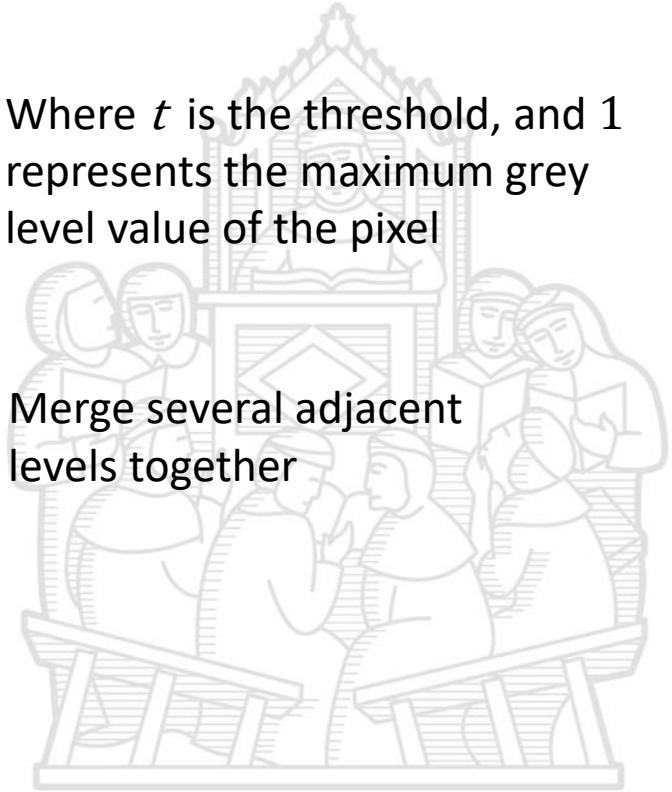


# Thresholding and posterization



$$O[u, v] = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } I[u, v] > t \\ 0, & \text{if } I[u, v] \leq t \end{cases}$$

Where  $t$  is the threshold, and 1 represents the maximum grey level value of the pixel

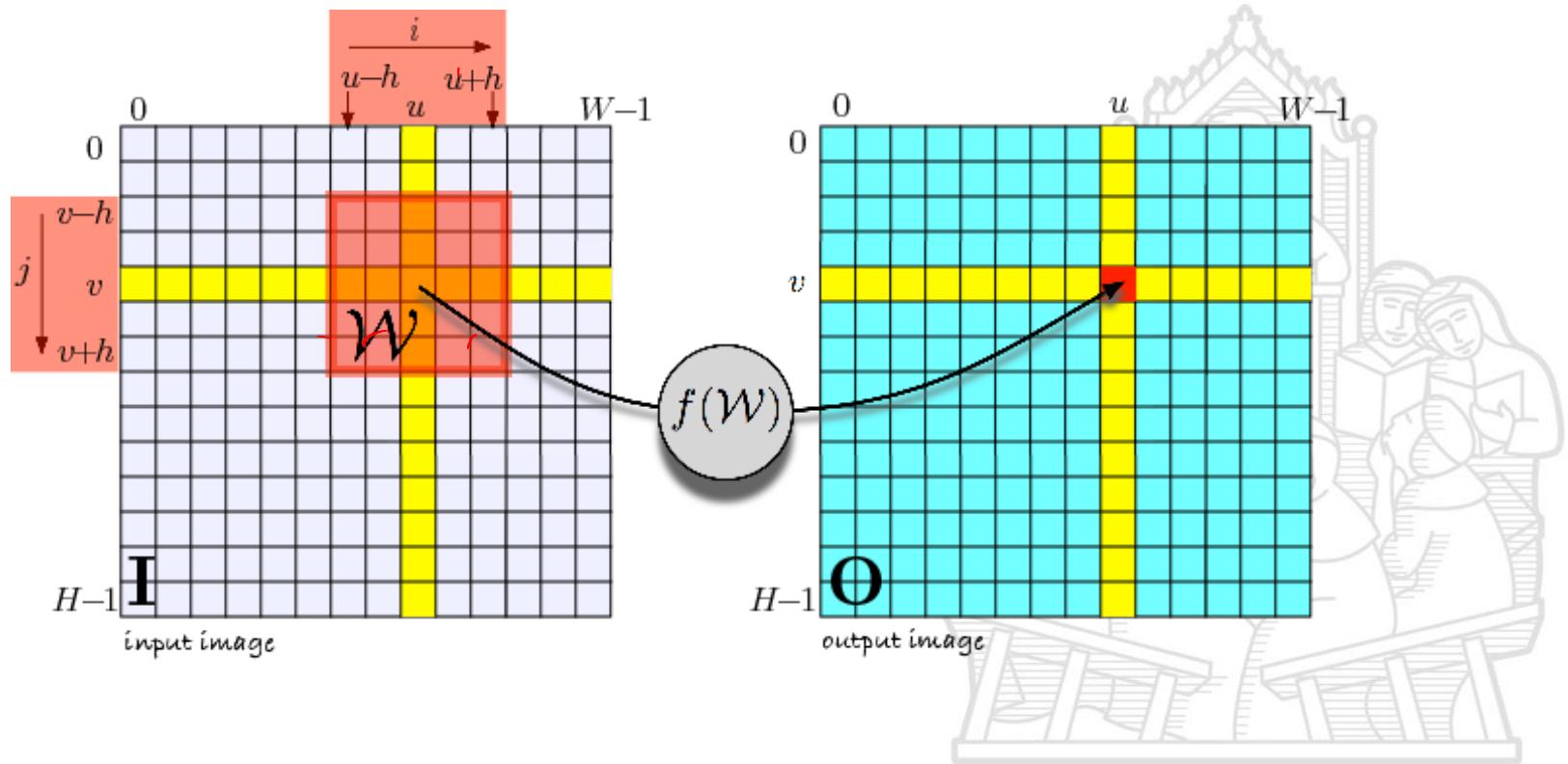


Merge several adjacent levels together



# Spatial operation (local operators)

$$O[u, v] = f(I[u + i, v + j]), \quad \forall (i, j) \in W, \forall (u, v) \in I$$

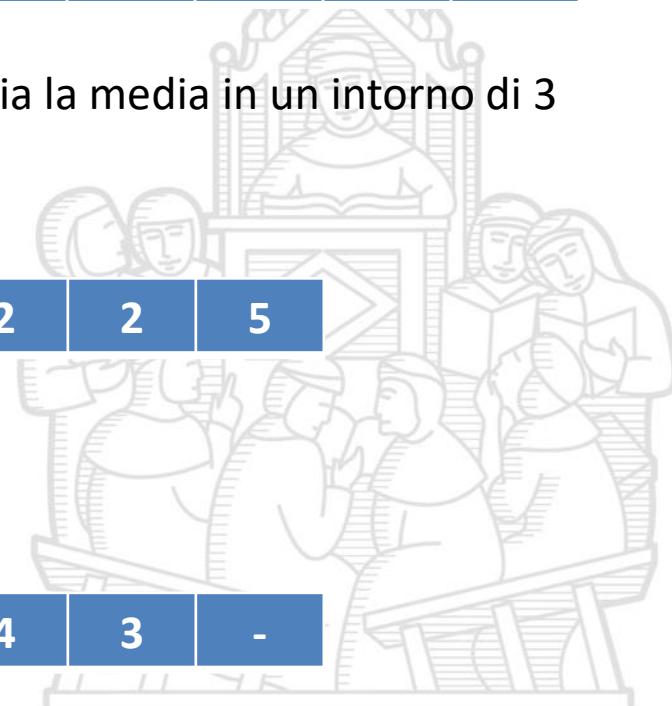


# Correlazione e convoluzione

Immaginiamo di avere una immagine “monodimensionale”, oppure una sola linea di una immagine

$$I = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 2 & 2 & 5 & 2 & 5 & 8 & 8 & 2 & 2 & 5 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Supponiamo di voler creare una nuova immagine **O** che sia la media in un intorno di 3 pixel dell’immagine originale **I**.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 2 & 2 & 5 & 2 & 5 & 8 & 8 & 2 & 2 & 5 \\ \hline \end{array}$$


$$O(2) = \frac{I(1) + I(2) + I(3)}{3}$$

$$O = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline - & 3 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 7 & 6 & 4 & 3 & - \\ \hline \end{array}$$



# Effetti di bordo

Dovrebbe essere subito venuto all'occhio un problema: cosa succede nei bordi?

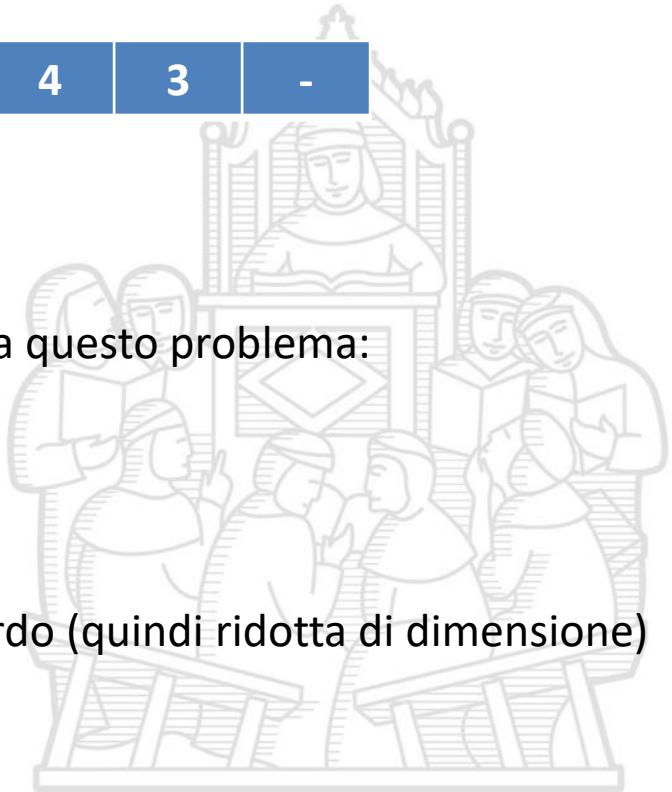
$$I = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 2 & 2 & 5 & 2 & 5 & 8 & 8 & 2 & 2 & 5 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$O = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline - & 3 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 7 & 6 & 4 & 3 & - \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$I(0)$  non esiste, per cui  $O(1)$  non può essere definito.

Generalmente vengono usati quattro metodi per ovviare a questo problema:

1. L'immagine I viene estesa con degli zero
2. L'immagine I viene estesa con l'ultimo valore di bordo
3. L'immagine I viene ripetuta in maniera ciclica
4. L'immagine O viene considerata non definita per il bordo (quindi ridotta di dimensione)



# Correlazione

Vediamo l'operazione di media con una veste grafica, un po' più intuitiva da generalizzare

Nell'operazione di media che abbiamo visto, noi moltiplichiamo un certo pixel e i valori adiacenti per  $1/3$ , quindi sommiamo i tre valori tra loro.

Possiamo chiamare i tre valori che moltiplichiamo ( $1/3, 1/3, 1/3$ ) come un **filtro** che facciamo scorrere su tutta l'immagine

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \begin{array}{cccccccccc} 2 & \boxed{2} & 5 & 2 & 5 & 8 & 8 & 2 & 2 & 5 \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{array} \\ &\quad \begin{array}{ccc} 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \end{array} \\ &\quad = \\ &\quad \begin{array}{ccc} 2/3 & 2/3 & 5/3 \end{array} \\ &\quad \Sigma \\ O &= \begin{array}{cccccccccc} \boxed{3} & \quad \end{array} \end{aligned}$$



# Correlazione

$$I = \begin{array}{cccccccccc} 2 & | & 2 & | & \boxed{5} & | & 2 & | & 5 & | & 8 & | & 8 & | & 2 & | & 2 & | & 5 \\ \cdot & | & \cdot \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 1/3 & | & 1/3 & | & 1/3 \end{array}$$

=

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 2/3 & | & 5/3 & | & 2/3 \end{array}$$

$\Sigma$

$O =$

$$\begin{array}{cccccccccc} 3 & | & \boxed{3} & | & \text{blank} \end{array}$$



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# Correlazione

Scrivendo una definizione formale, possiamo definire la correlazione come:

$$F \circ I(x) = \sum_{i=-N}^N F(i) \cdot I(x+i)$$

Dove  $F$  è il filtro di correlazione, che ha  $2N+1$  elementi (dispari) con centro in  $F(0)$ , mentre  $I$  è l'immagine.

Il filtro per la media, è semplicemente definito come:

$$F(i) = \begin{cases} 1/3 & \text{per } i = -1, 0, 1 \\ 0 & \text{altrimenti} \end{cases}$$

E' immediata l'estensione a una qualsiasi funzione continua che può essere discretizzata ed essere usata come filtro



# Derivate discrete

Intuitivamente, la derivata misura la variazione di una funzione rispetto due posizioni della funzione stessa. Rigorosamente, la derivata è definita per funzioni continue, tuttavia possiamo implementarne una sua versione discreta, per esempio attraverso un filtro.

$$D = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline -1/2 & 0 & 1/2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Che realizzerebbe nell'immagine di uscita:

$$O(i) = \frac{I(i+1) - I(i-1)}{2}$$



# Derivate discrete

Consideriamo un vettore di esempio,  $I(i)=i^2$

$$I = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 4 & 9 & 16 & 25 & 36 & 49 & 64 & 81 & 100 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline -1/2 & 0 & 1/2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

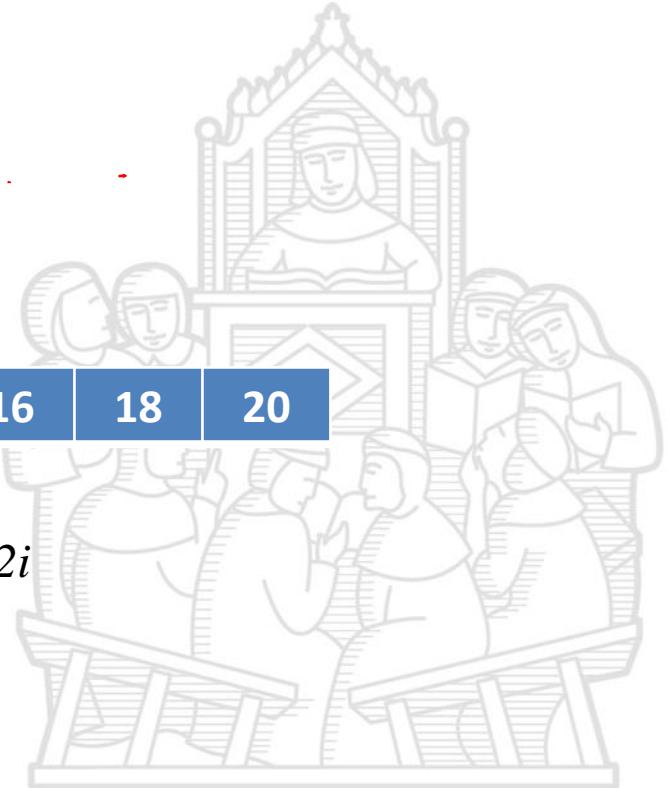
=

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline -1/2 & 0 & 9/2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$\sum$

$$O = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 4 & 6 & 8 & 10 & 12 & 14 & 16 & 18 & 20 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Ed effettivamente  $O(i)=2i$



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# Convoluzione

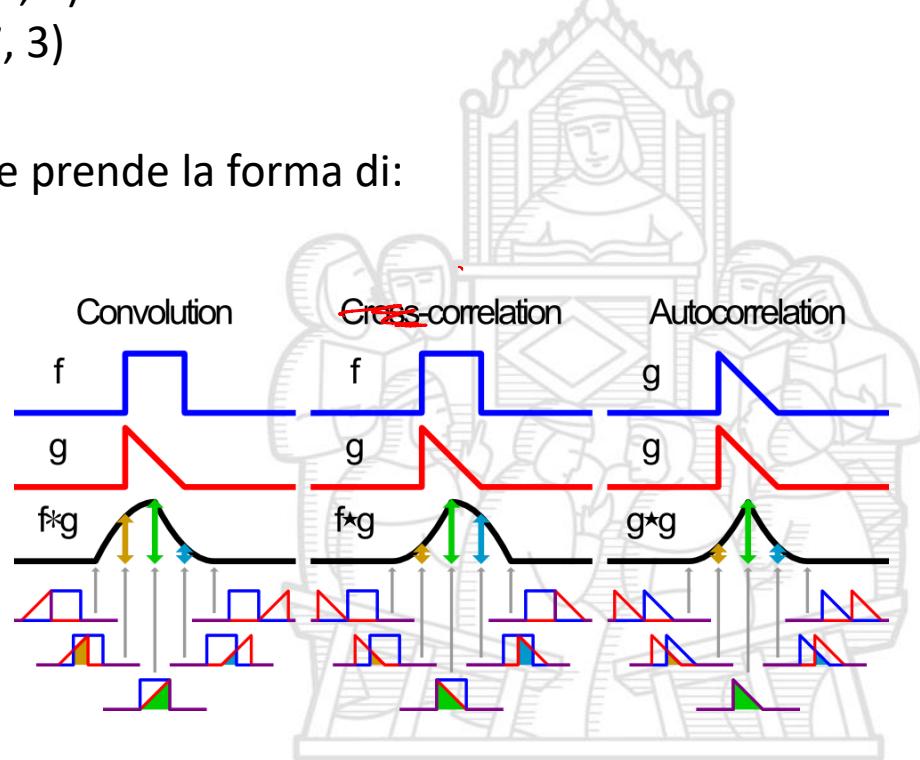
La convoluzione è molto simile alla correlazione: la differenza sta nel fatto che il filtro (o l'altro segnale) viene *invertito* prima di correlarlo.

In pratica, la convoluzione con un filtro (3, 7, 5) è esattamente la stessa cosa che effettuare una correlazione con il filtro (5, 7, 3)

La convoluzione discreta monodimensionale prende la forma di:

$$F \otimes I(x) = \sum_{i=-N}^N F(i) \cdot I(x-i)$$

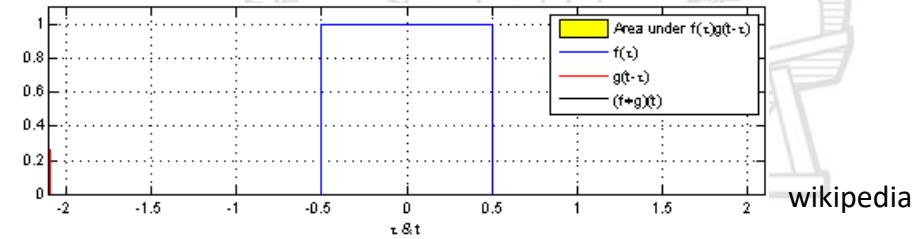
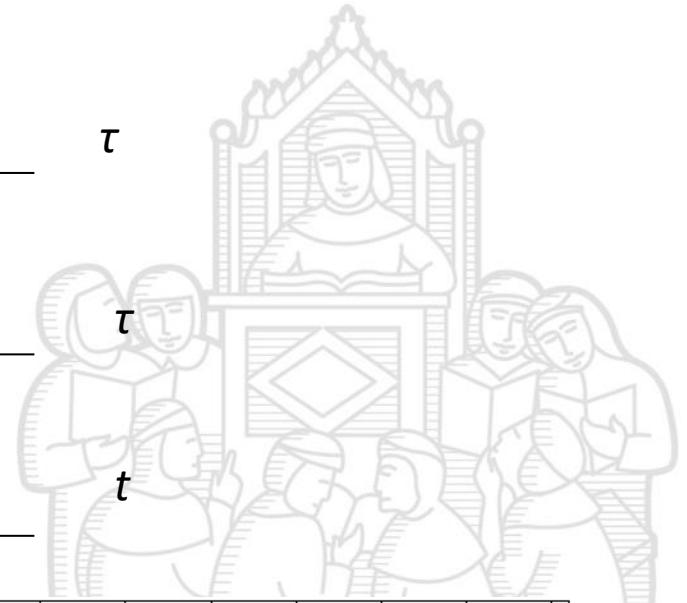
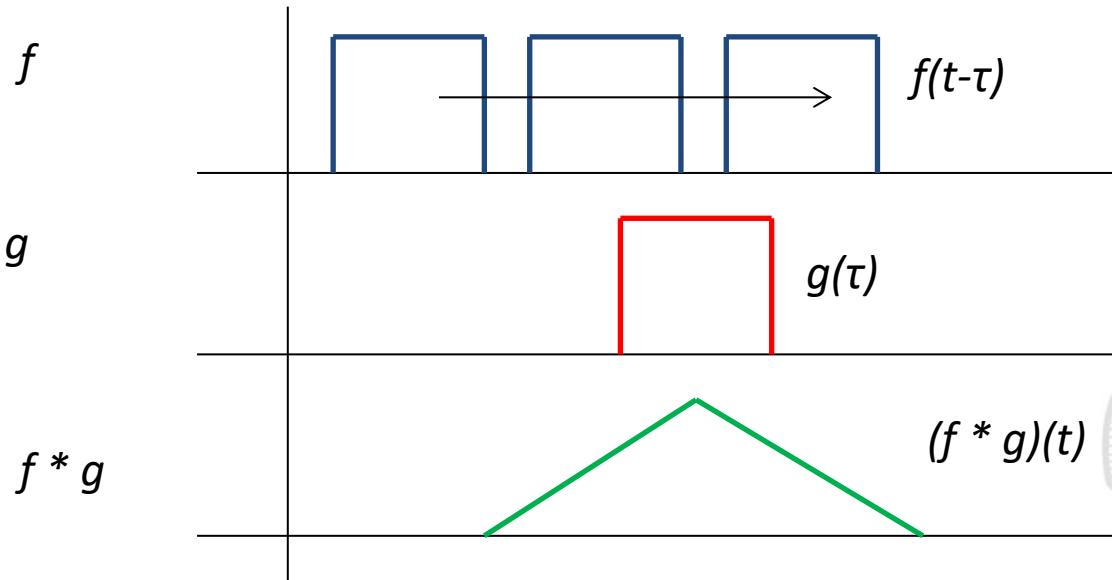
La differenza chiave tra le due è che la convoluzione gode della proprietà **associativa**



# 1D Convolution

One important local operator is the convolution:

$$(f * g)(t) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t - \tau)g(\tau)d\tau$$



wikipedia



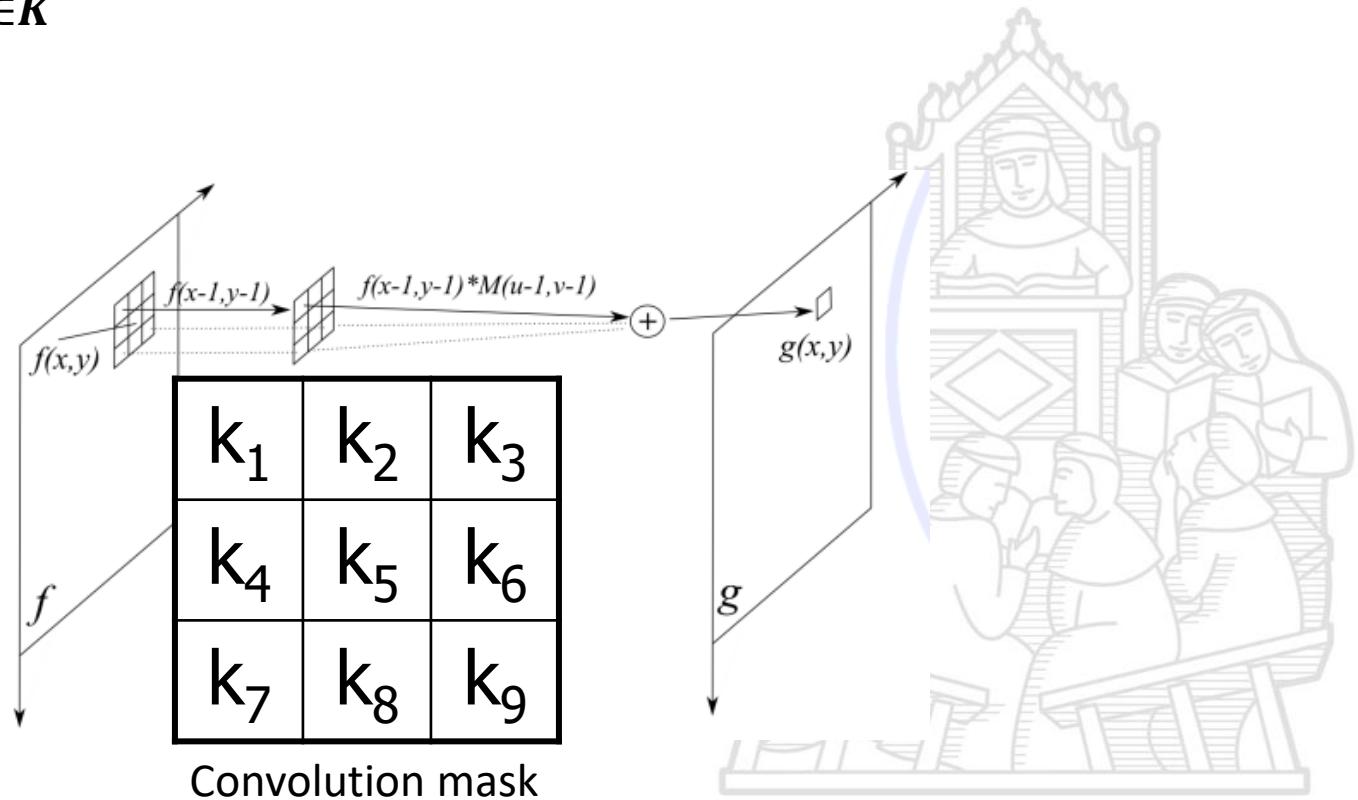
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# 2D Convolution

$$O[u, v] = \sum_{i,j \in K} K[i, j] I[u - i, v - j], \quad \forall (u, v) \in I$$

$$O = K \otimes I$$



# 2D Convolution

kernel

·1+	·1+	·1+
·1+	·1+	·1+
·1+	·1+	·1

Input image

0	1	2	0	12	5	0	1
5	2	6	0	0	1	1	1
5	0	0	4	5	6	1	0
12	25	0	24	56	8	2	3
1	2	6	0	0	1	5	2
1	2	0	2	1	2	1	0
12	0	12	25	3	5	0	1
1	1	1	35	57	5	3	1

Output image




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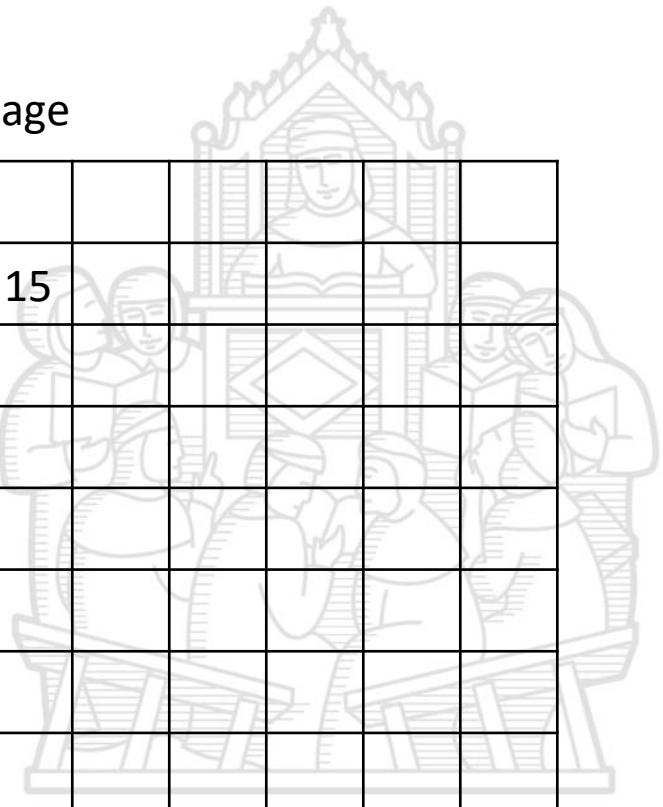
Scuola Universitaria Superiore Pisa

# Convolution

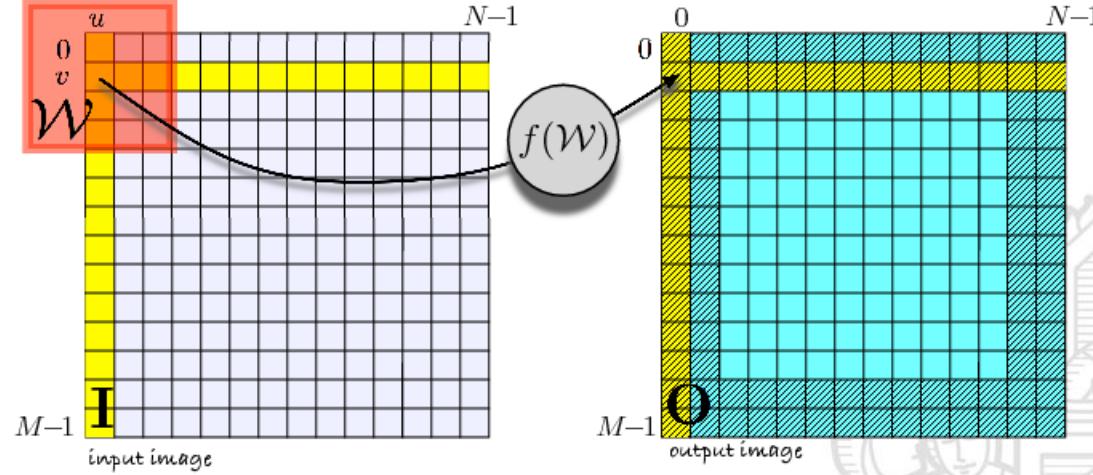
## Input image

0·1+	1·1+	2·1+	0	12	5	0	1
5·1+	2·1+	6·1+	0	0	1	1	1
5·1+	0·1+	0·1	4	5	6	1	0
12	25	0	24	56	8	2	3
1	2	6	0	0	1	5	2
1	2	0	2	1	2	1	0
12	0	12	25	3	5	0	1
1	1	1	35	57	5	3	1

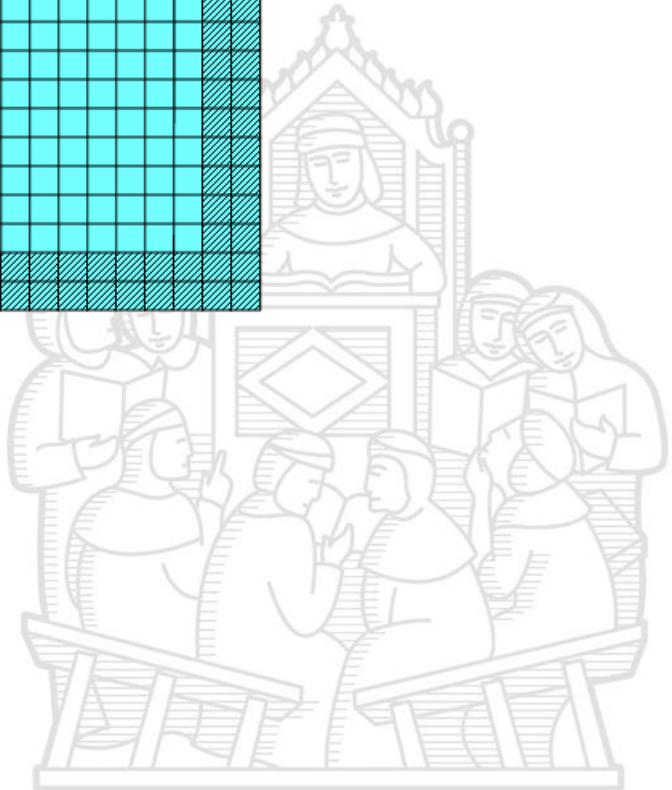
## Output image



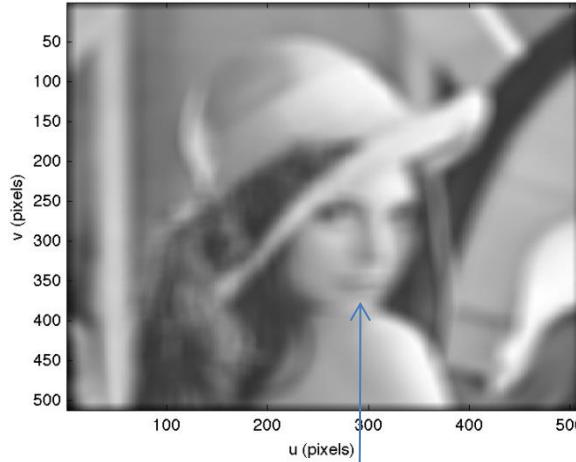
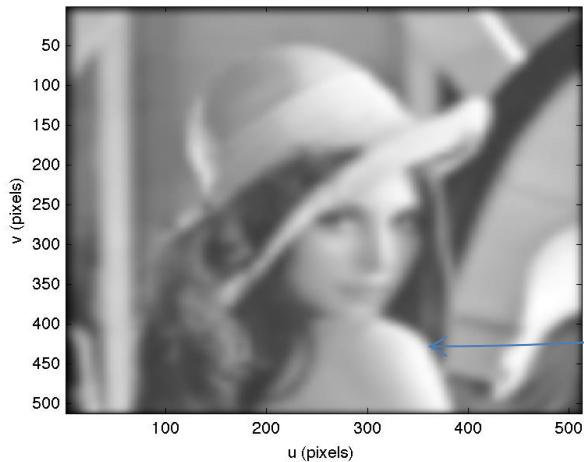
# Boundary effect



- Duplicate
- All black
- Reduce size
- ...



# Smoothing



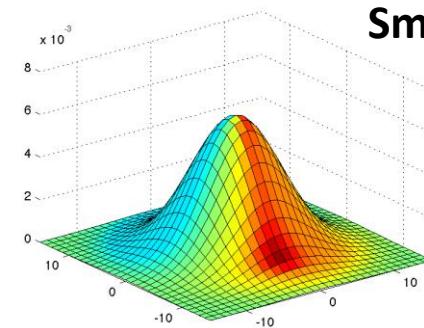
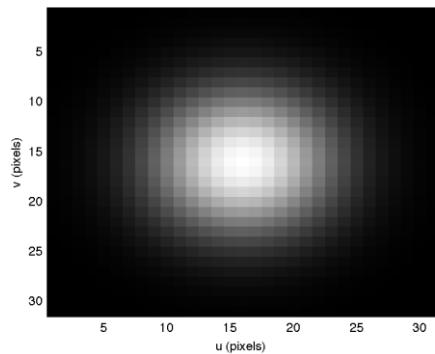
$$K = \text{ones}(21, 21) / 21^2$$

$$O = K \otimes I$$

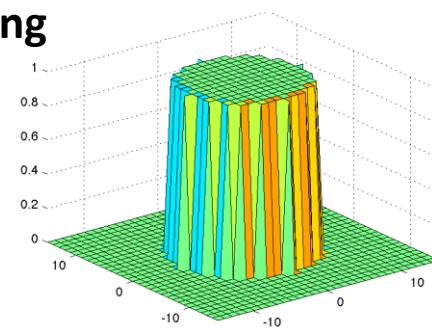
$$G[u, v] = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{u^2+v^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



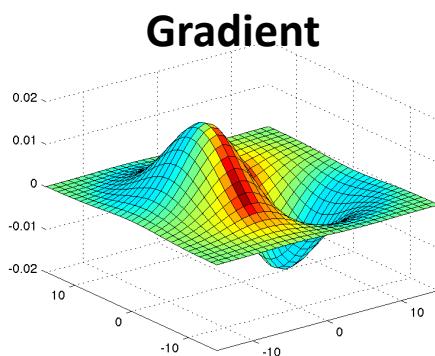
# Kernel examples



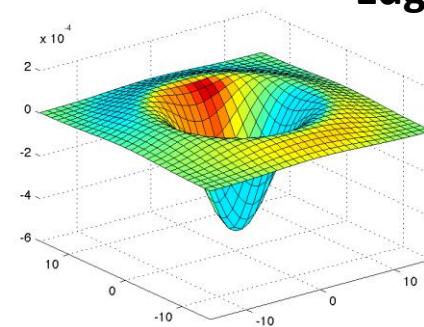
**Smoothing**



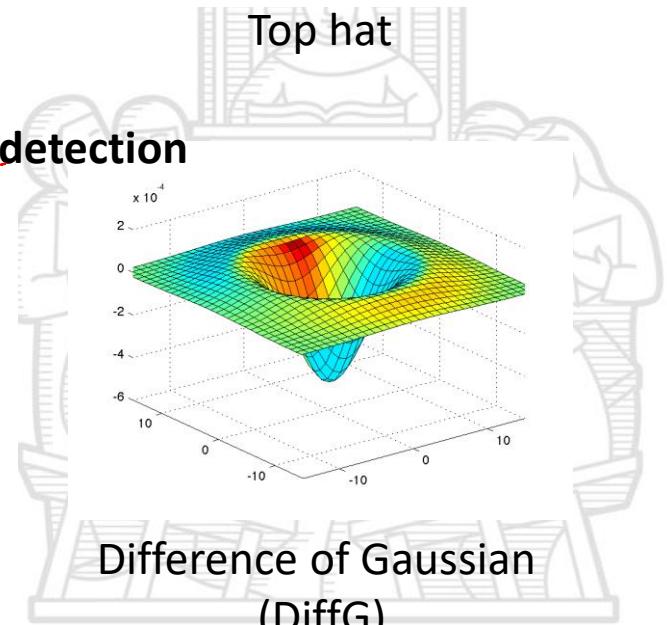
**Top hat**



**Gradient**



**Edge detection**



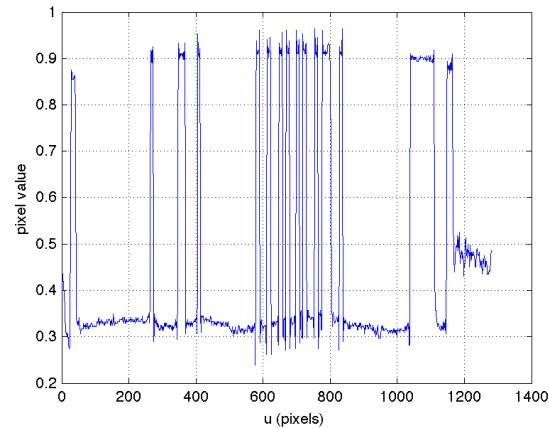
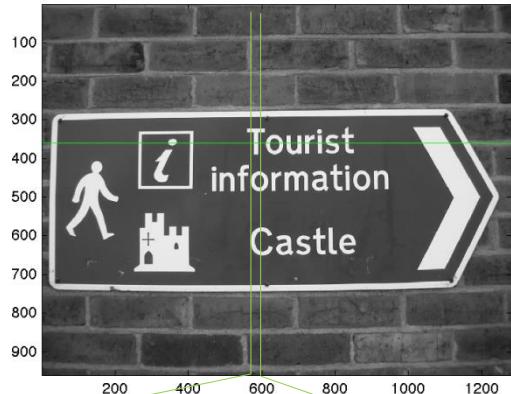
**Derivative of Gaussian  
(DoG)**

**Laplacian of Gaussian  
(LoG)**

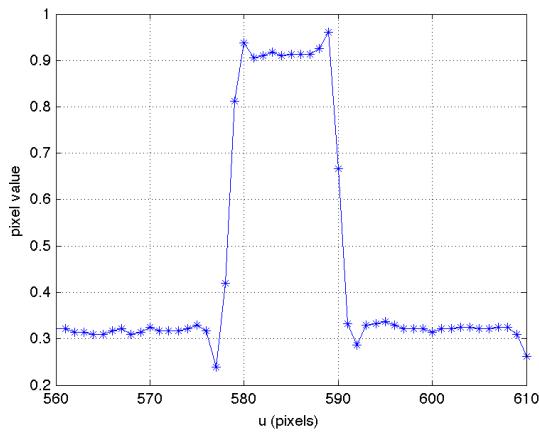
**Difference of Gaussian  
(DiffG)**



# Edge detection



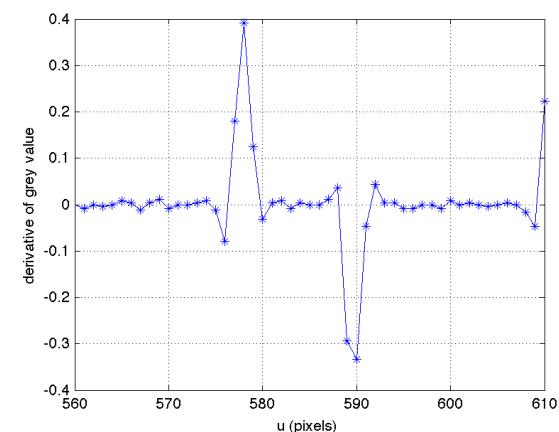
Horizontal profile of the image at  $v=360$



$$p'[u] = p[u] - p[u - 1]$$

$$p'[u] = \frac{1}{2} (p[u + 1] - p[u - 1])$$

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

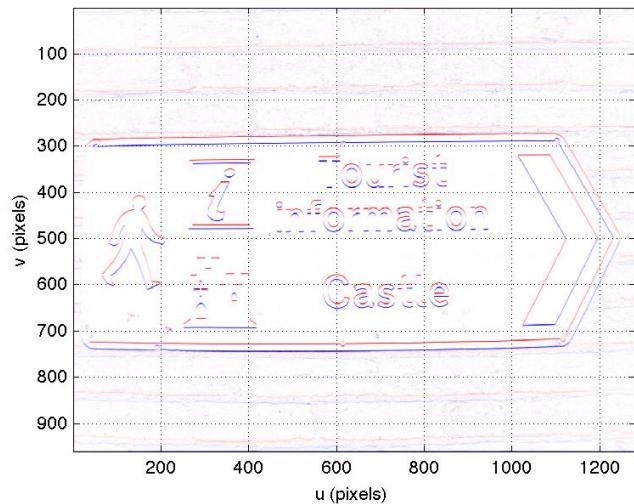


# Gradient computation

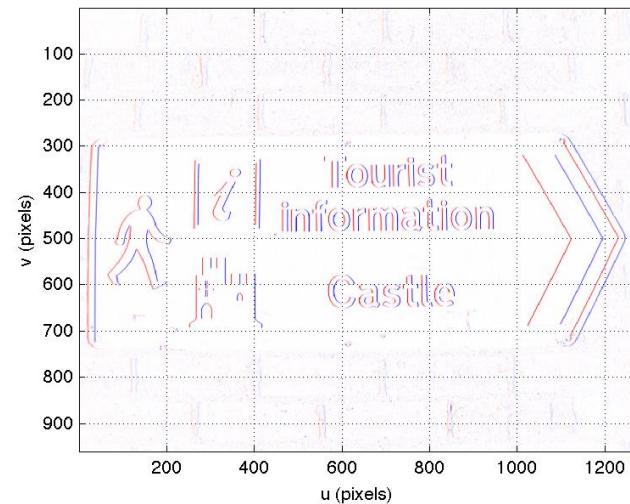
Common convolution kernel: Sobel, Prewitt, Roberts, ...

Sobel       $\mathbf{D}_v = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\mathbf{D}_u = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\mathbf{I}_v = \mathbf{D}_v \otimes \mathbf{I}$$



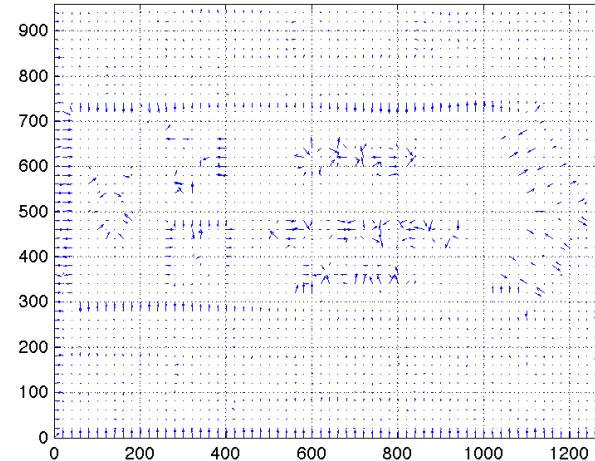
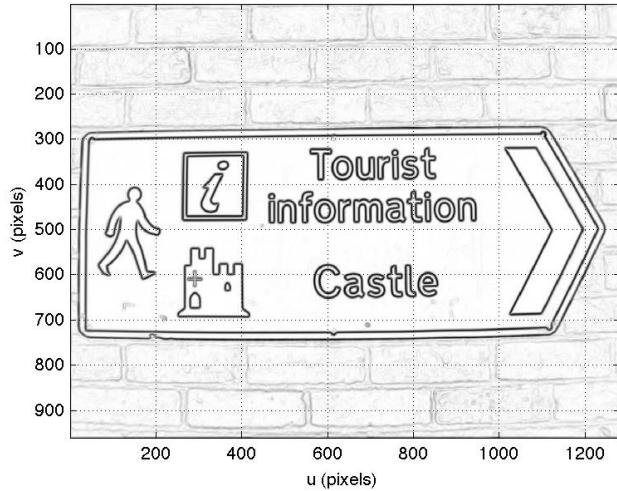
$$\mathbf{I}_u = \mathbf{D}_u \otimes \mathbf{I}$$



# Direction and magnitude

$$m = \sqrt{I_v^2 + I_u^2}$$

$$\theta = \text{atan}(I_v, I_u)$$



# Noise amplification

Derivative amplifies high-frequency noise. So, firstly we can smooth the image, after that we can take the derivative:

$$I_u = D_u \otimes (G \otimes I)$$

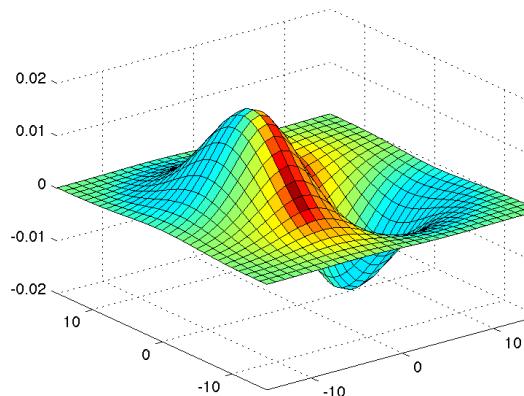
5x5      5x5      50x60

Associative property:

$$I_u = (\underbrace{D_u \otimes G}_{\text{Derivative of Gaussian}}) \otimes I$$

Derivative of Gaussian  
(DoG)

$$G_u = -\frac{u}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{u^2+v^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



Derivative of Gaussian  
(DoG)



<<DoG acts as a bandpass filter!>>



# Canny edge detection

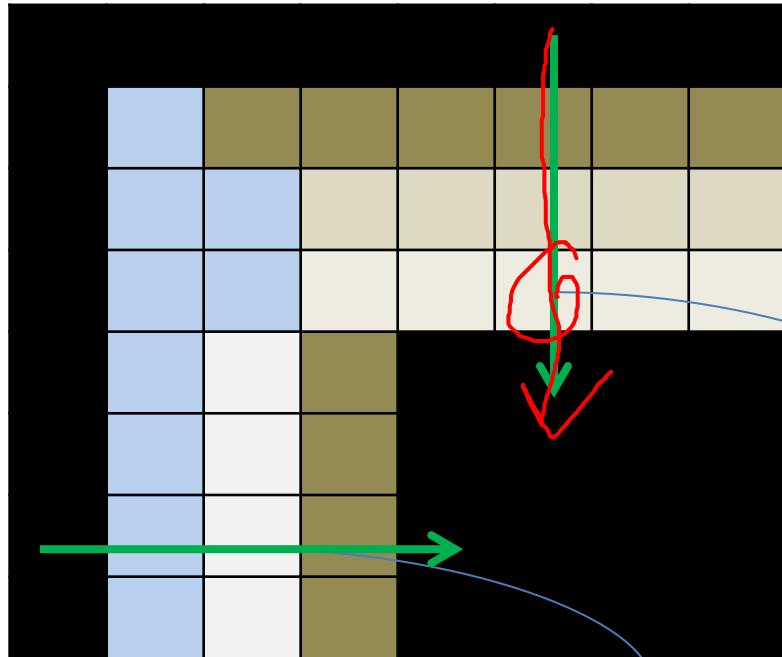
The algorithm is based on a few steps:

- 1. Gaussian filtering
- 2. Gradient intensity and direction
- 3. non-maxima suppression (edge thinning)
- 4. hysteresis threshold

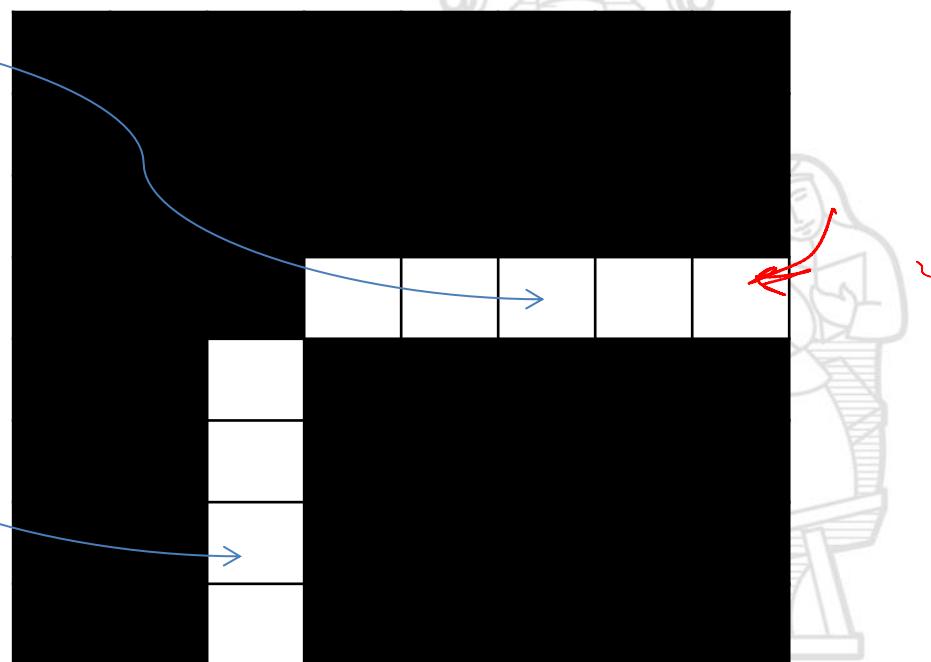


# Canny edge detection

## 3. Non local maxima suppression



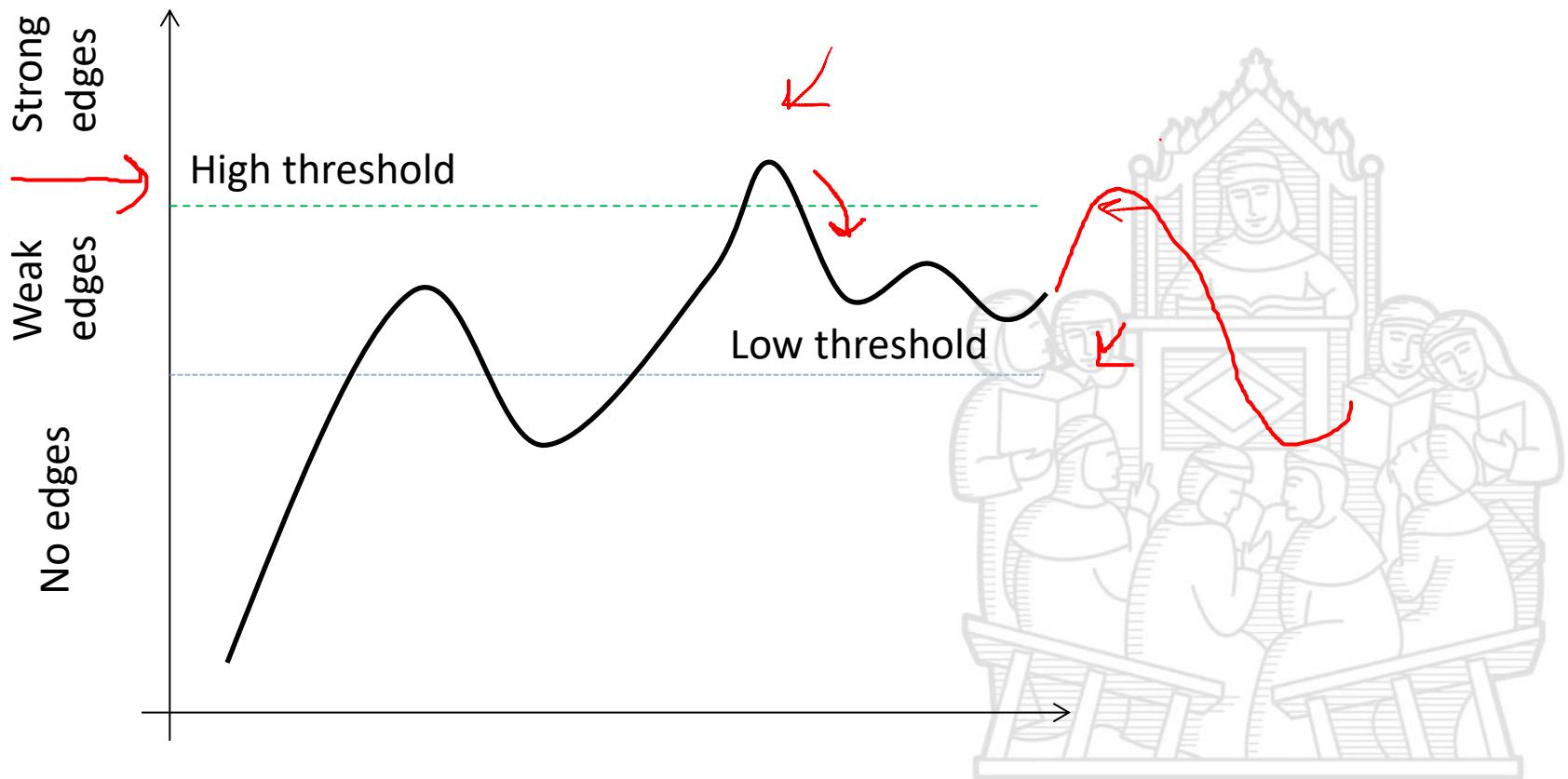
Evaluation along gradient direction



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# Canny edge detection

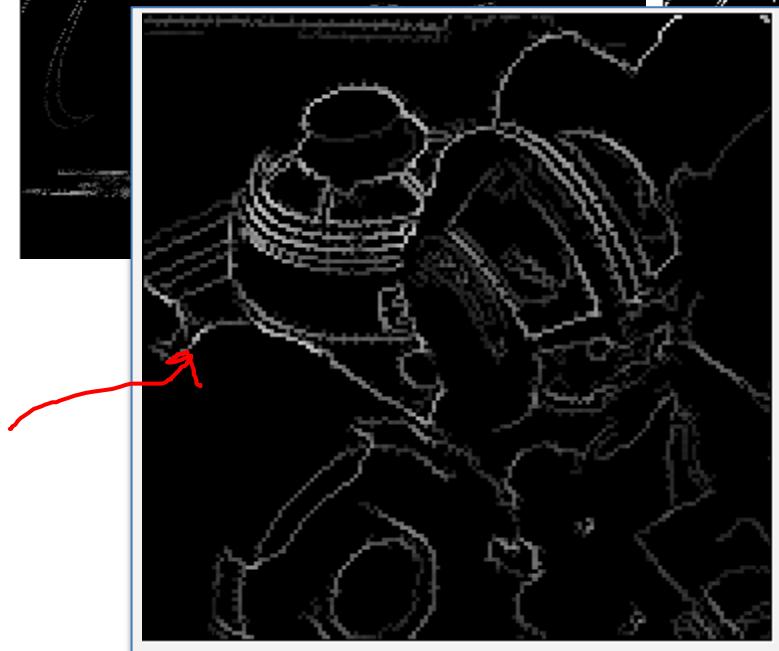
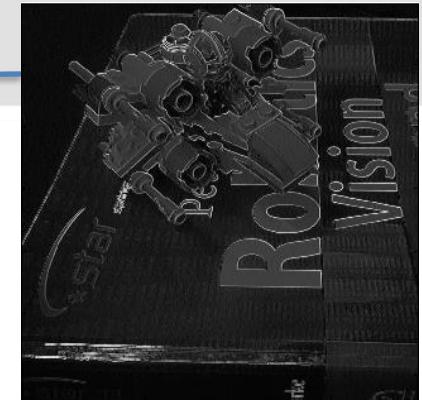
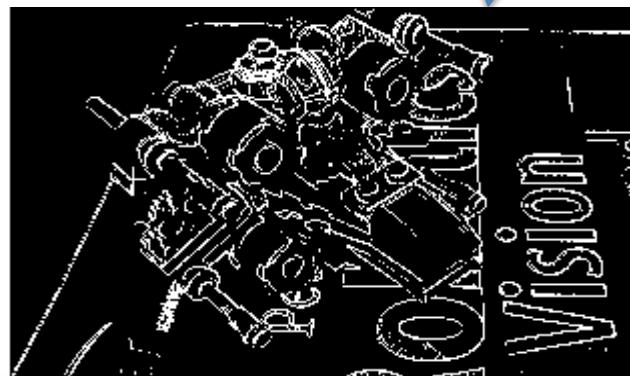
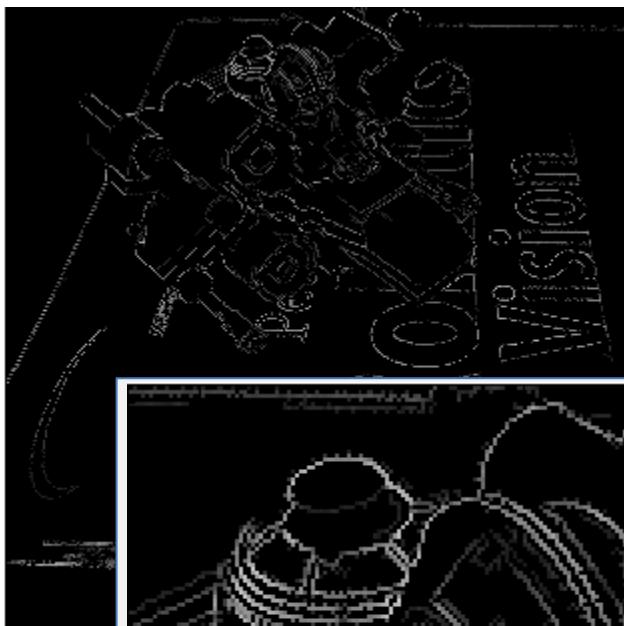
## 4. hysteresis threshold



Magnitude of the gradient

Thresholding

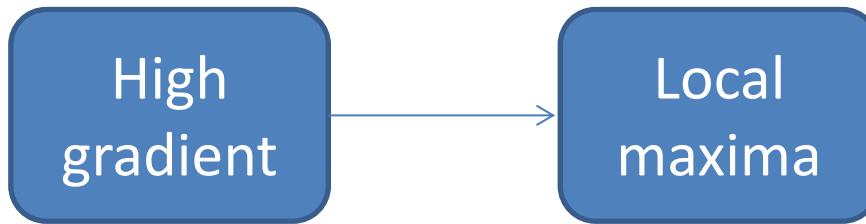
canny



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# → Edge detection

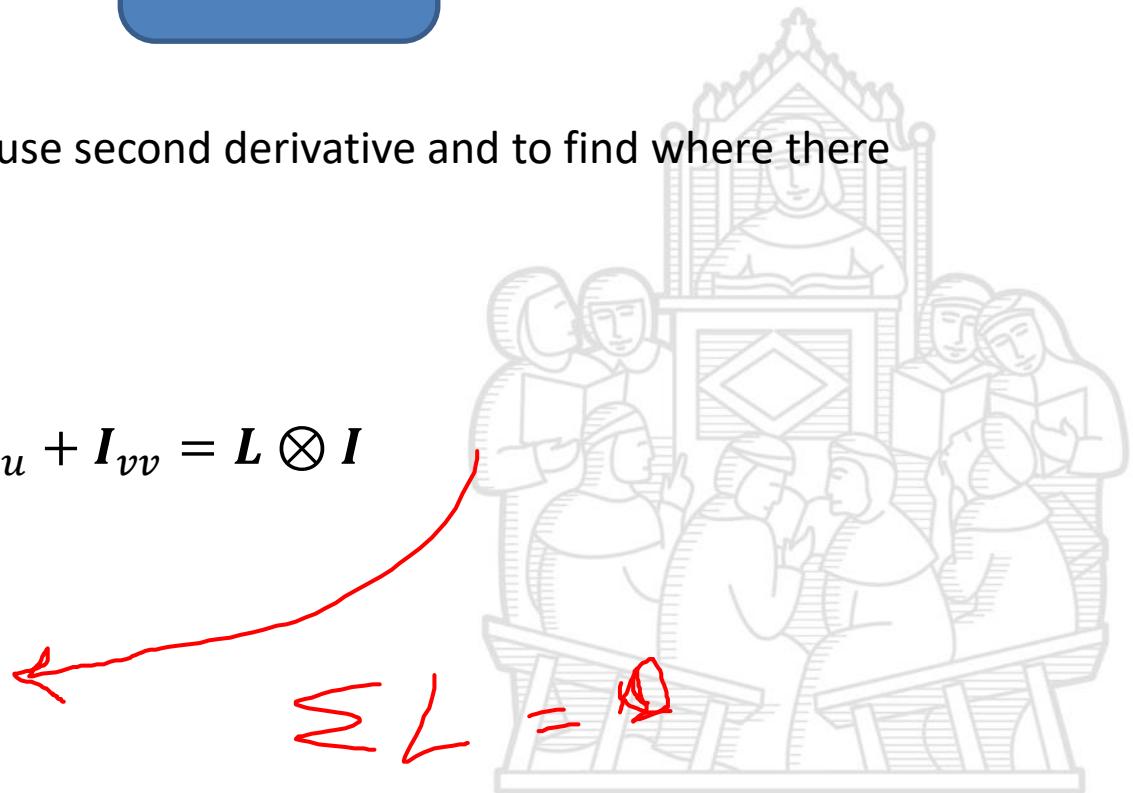


Alternative approach is to use second derivative and to find where there is a zero

→ Laplacian operator

$$\nabla^2 I = \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial u^2} + \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial v^2} = I_{uu} + I_{vv} = L \otimes I$$

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



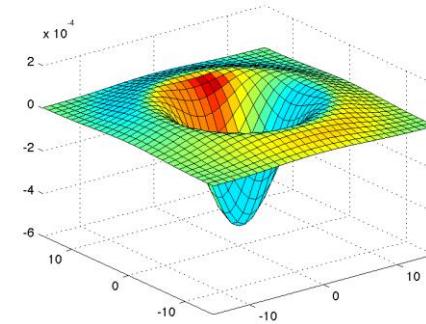
# Noise sensitivity

Again, derivative amplifies high-frequency noise. So firstly we can smooth the image, after that we take the derivative:

$$L \otimes (G \otimes I) = \underbrace{(L \otimes G)}_{\text{Laplacian of Gaussian}} \otimes I$$

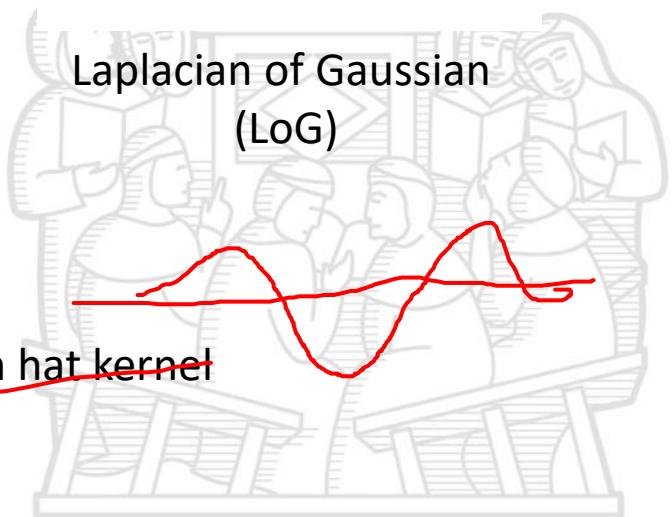
Laplacian of Gaussian  
(LoG)

$$LoG(u, v) = \frac{1}{\pi\sigma^4} \left( \frac{u^2 + v^2}{2\sigma^2} - 1 \right) e^{-\frac{u^2+v^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

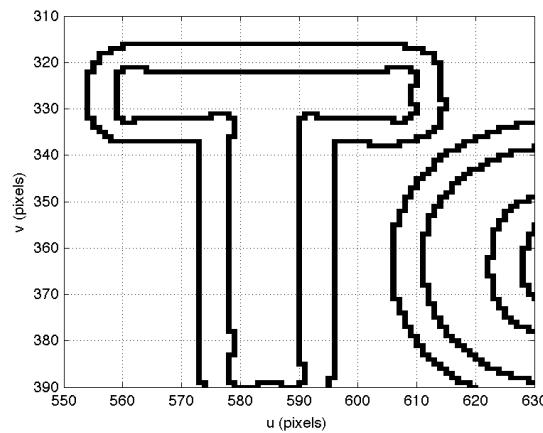
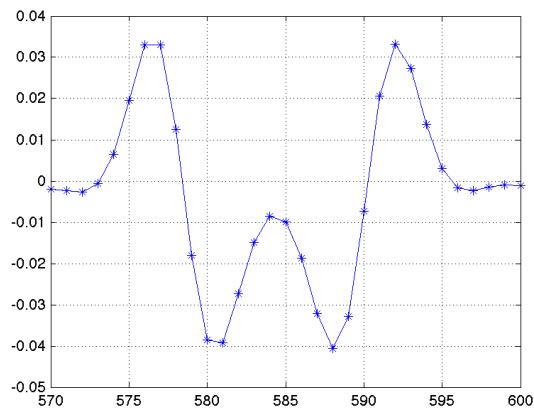
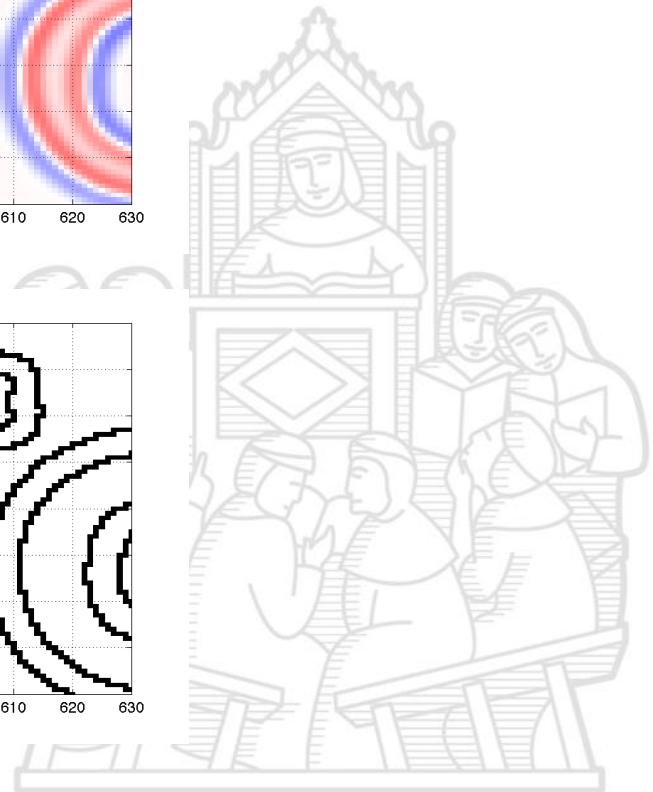
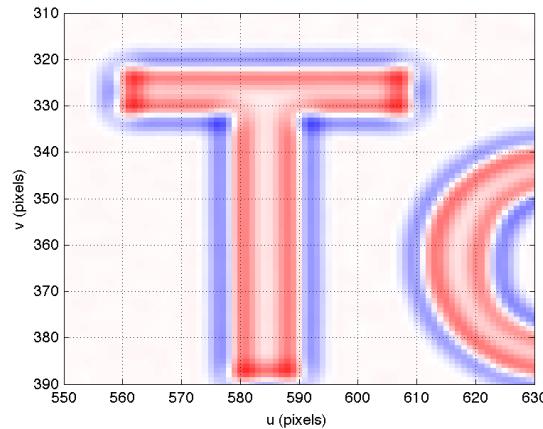
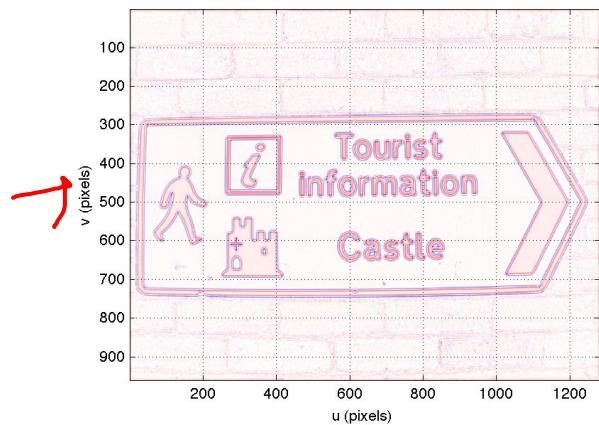


Laplacian of Gaussian  
(LoG)

Marr-Hildreth operator or the Mexican hat kernel



# Edge detection



# Gradient and Laplacian

Example

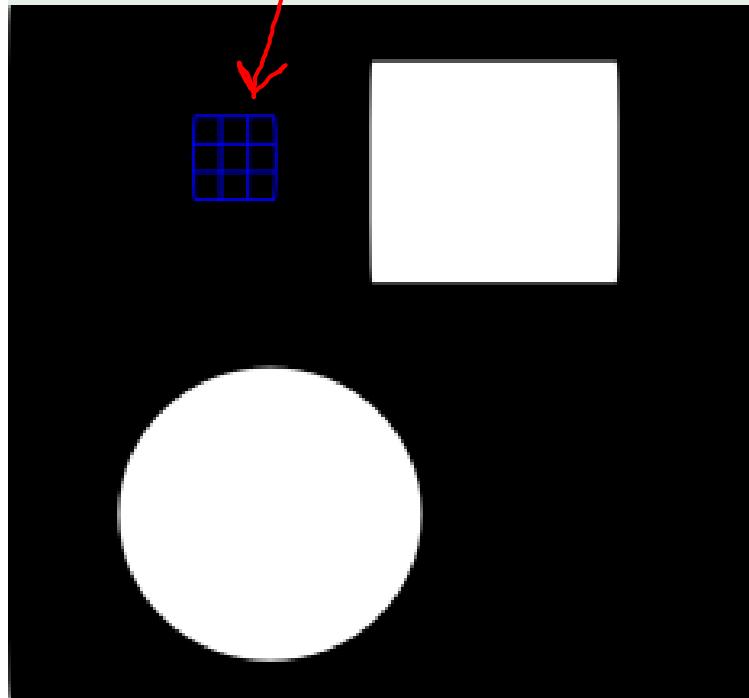


Image window:

$$f(x, y) =$$

0	0	0
0	0	0
0	0	0

$$\nabla^2 =$$

0	-1	0
-1	4	-1
0	-1	0

$$G_x =$$

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

Products are:

$$\nabla^2 \otimes f(x, y) = 0$$

$$G_x \otimes f(x, y) = 0$$



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# Gradient and Laplacian

255

## Example

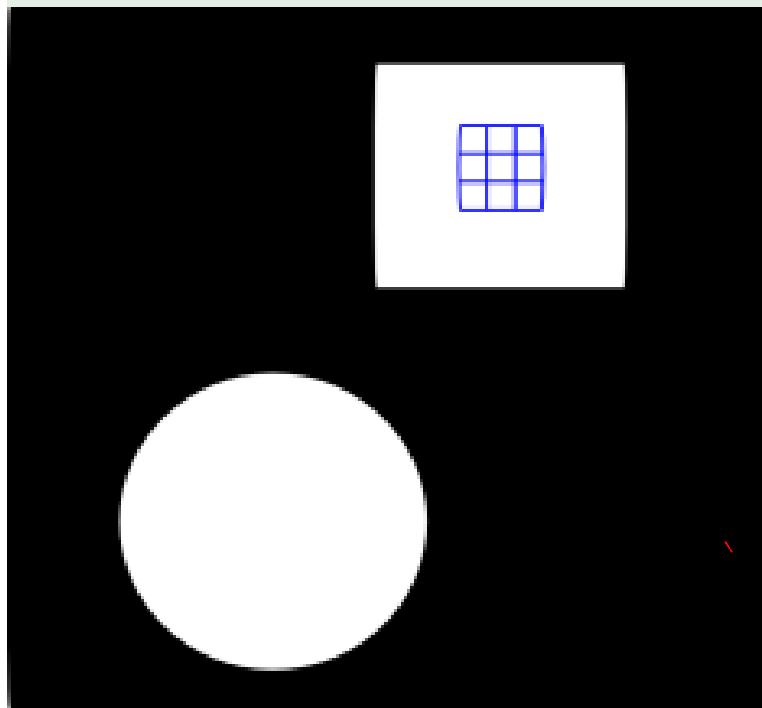


Image window:

$$f(x, y) =$$

1	1	1
1	1	1
1	1	1

$$\nabla^2 =$$

0	-1	0
-1	4	-1
0	-1	0

$$G_x =$$

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

Products are:

$$\rightarrow \nabla^2 \otimes f(x, y) = 0$$

$$G_x \otimes f(x, y) = 0$$



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# Gradient and Laplacian

## Example

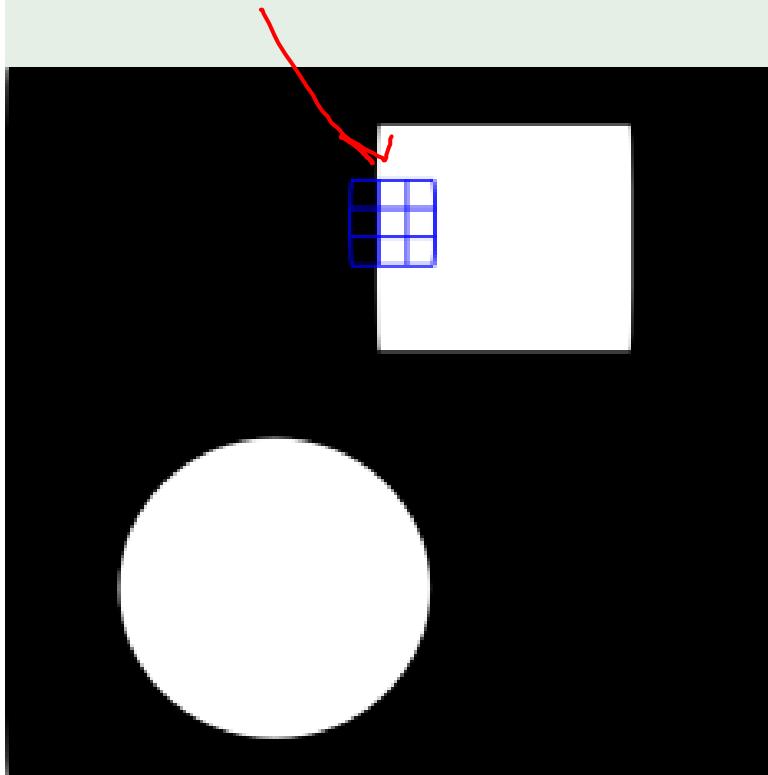


Image window:

$$f(x, y) =$$

0	1	1
0	1	1
0	1	1

$$\nabla^2 =$$

0	-1	0
-1	4	-1
0	-1	0

$$G_x =$$

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

Products are:

$$\nabla^2 \otimes f(x, y) = 1$$

$$G_x \otimes f(x, y) = 4$$



# Gradient and Laplacian

## Example

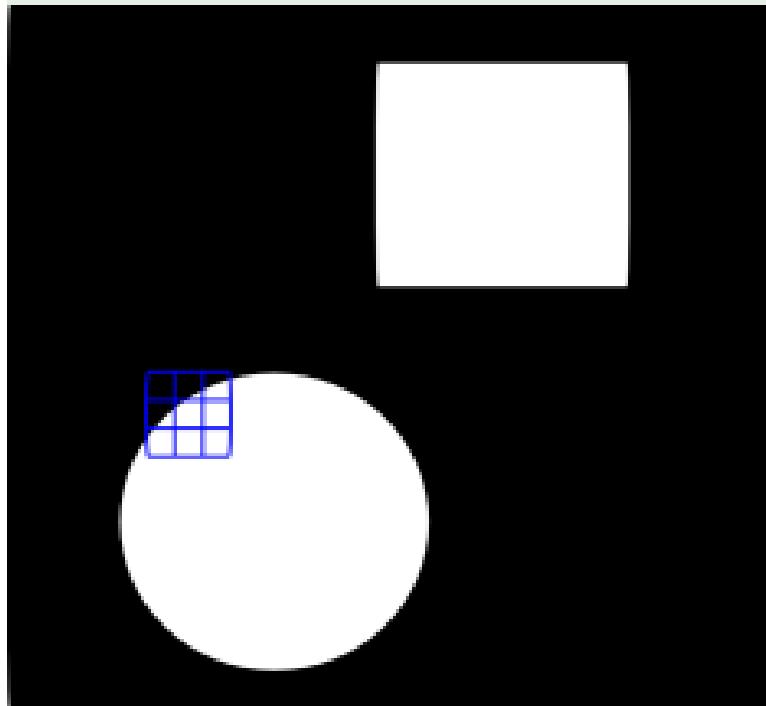


Image window:

$$f(x, y) =$$

0	0	1
0	1	1
1	1	1

$$\nabla^2 =$$

0	-1	0
-1	4	-1
0	-1	0

$$G_x =$$

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

Products are:

$$\nabla^2 \otimes f(x, y) = 2$$

$$G_x \otimes f(x, y) = 3$$



# Gradient and Laplacian

## Example

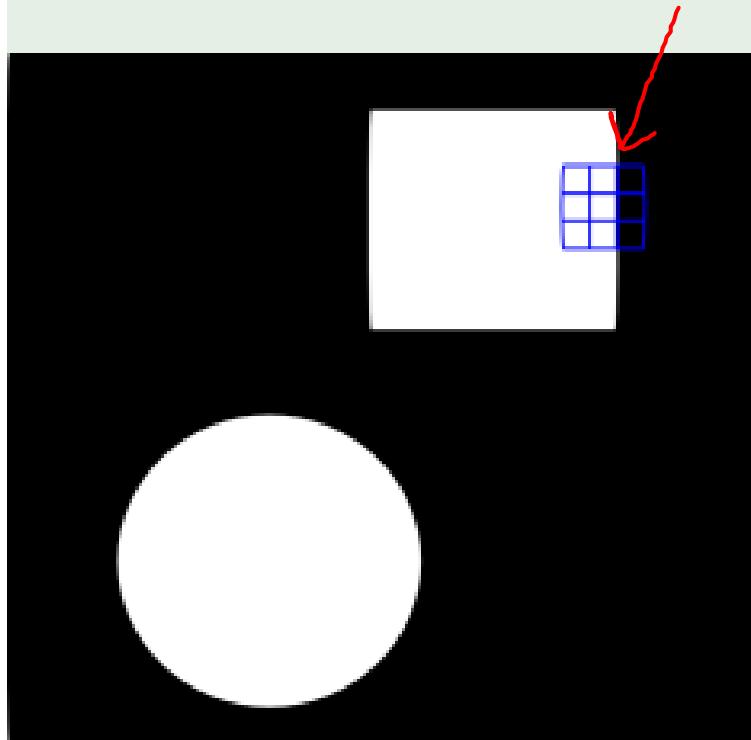


Image window:

$$f(x, y) = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\nabla^2 = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & -1 & 0 \\ \hline -1 & 4 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & -1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$G_x = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline -1 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline -2 & 0 & 2 \\ \hline -1 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Products are:

$$\rightarrow \nabla^2 \otimes f(x, y) = 1$$

$$\rightarrow G_x \otimes f(x, y) = -4$$



## Code sample >

```
% denoising/edge detection
dx=[-1 0 1;-2 0 1; -1 0 1];
dy=[-1 -2 -1;0 0 0;1 2 1];
K=kgauss(3);
K1=ones(19,19).*1/(19*19);
xwingDenoisMean=iconv(K1,xwing_grey);
idisp(xwingDenoisMean)
xwingDenoisGaus=iconv(K,xwing_grey);
idisp(xwingDenois)
xwingIx=iconv(dx,xwing_grey);
idisp(xwingIx)
xwingIy=iconv(dy,xwing_grey);
idisp(xwingIy)
magnGrad=sqrt(xwingIx.^2+xwingIy.^2);
idisp(magnGrad)
edgeGrad=magnGrad>250;

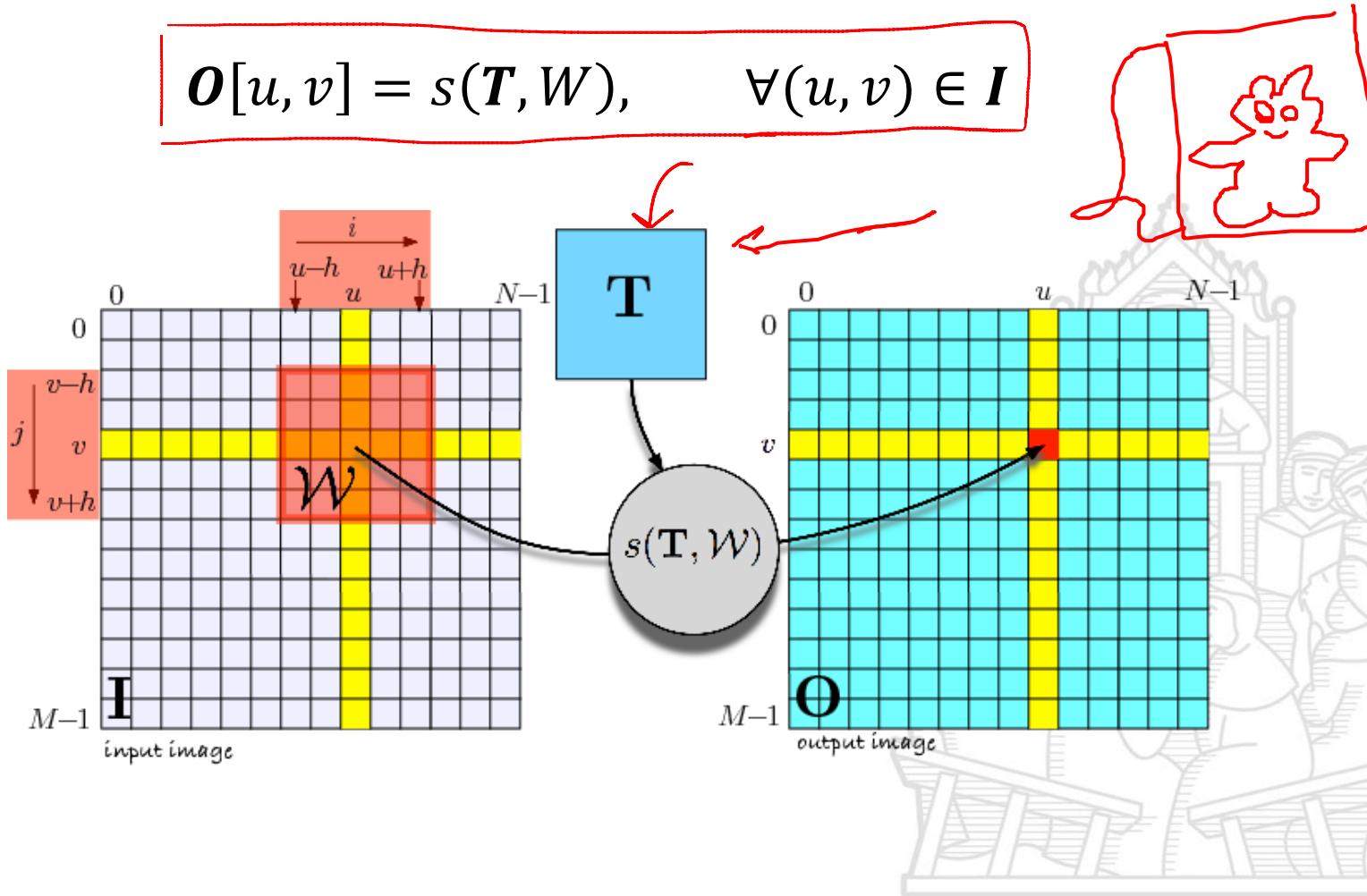
edgeLapl=iconv(klog(2),xwing_grey);
idisp(iint(edgeLapl)>250);

edgeLapl=iconv(klog(1),xwing_grey);
idisp(iint(edgeLapl)>250);

edgeLapl=iconv(klog(3),xwing_grey);
idisp(iint(edgeLapl)>250);
```



# Template matching



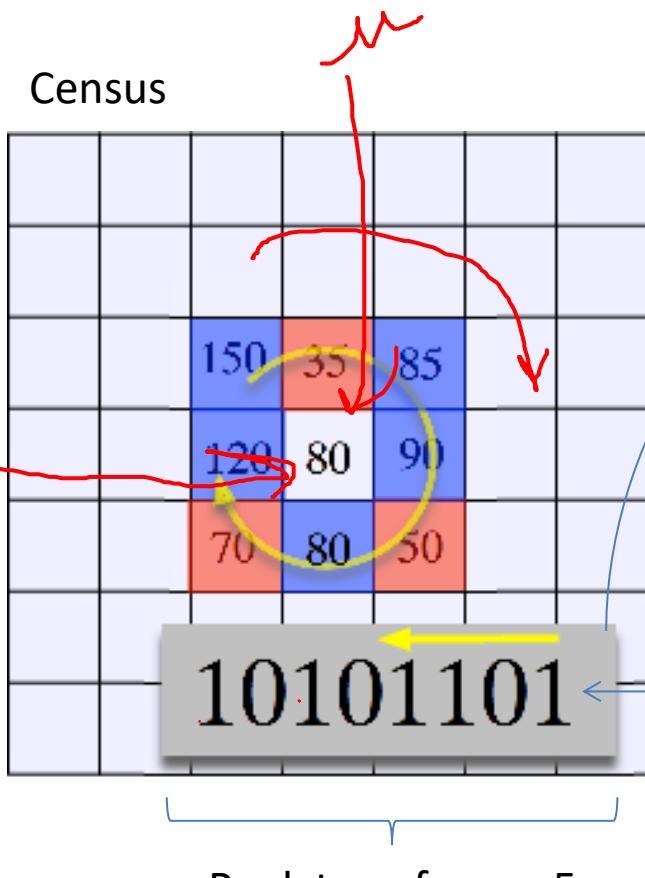
# Template matching

## Similarity measures

Sum of absolute differences	
SAD	$s = \sum_{(u,v) \in I}  \mathbf{I}_1[u, v] - \mathbf{I}_2[u, v] $
ZSAD	$s = \sum_{(u,v) \in I}  (\mathbf{I}_1[u, v] - \bar{\mathbf{I}}_1) - (\mathbf{I}_2[u, v] - \bar{\mathbf{I}}_2) $
Sum of squared differences	
SSD	$s = \sum_{(u,v) \in I} (\mathbf{I}_1[u, v] - \mathbf{I}_2[u, v])^2$
ZSSD	$s = \sum_{(u,v) \in I} ((\mathbf{I}_1[u, v] - \bar{\mathbf{I}}_1) - (\mathbf{I}_2[u, v] - \bar{\mathbf{I}}_2))^2$
Cross correlation	
NCC	$s = \frac{\sum_{(u,v) \in I} \mathbf{I}_1[u, v] \cdot \mathbf{I}_2[u, v]}{\sqrt{\sum_{(u,v) \in I} \mathbf{I}_1^2[u, v] \cdot \sum_{(u,v) \in I} \mathbf{I}_2^2[u, v]}}$
ZNCC	$s = \frac{\sum_{(u,v) \in I} (\mathbf{I}_1[u, v] - \bar{\mathbf{I}}_1) \cdot (\mathbf{I}_2[u, v] - \bar{\mathbf{I}}_2)}{\sqrt{\sum_{(u,v) \in I} (\mathbf{I}_1[u, v] - \bar{\mathbf{I}}_1)^2 \cdot \sum_{(u,v) \in I} (\mathbf{I}_2[u, v] - \bar{\mathbf{I}}_2)^2}}$

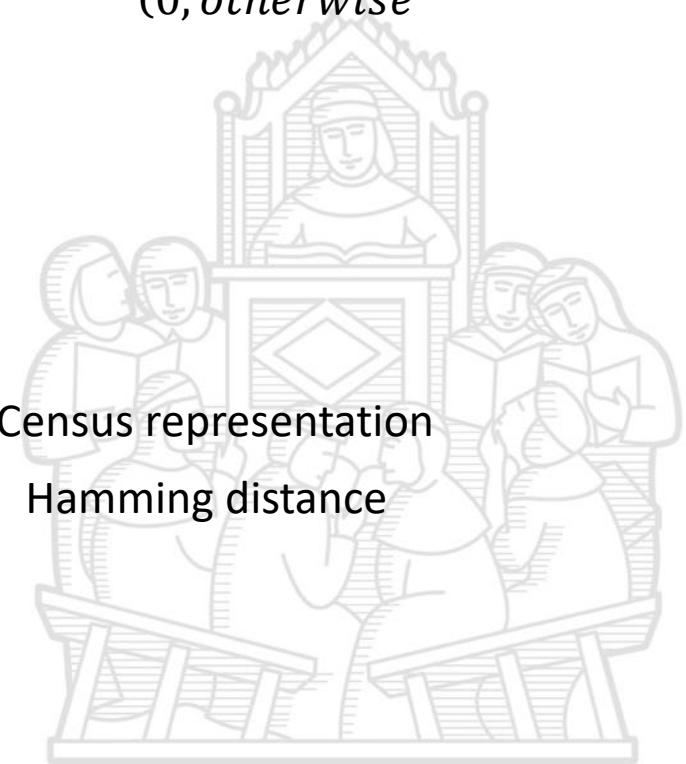


# Non-parametric similarity measures



10110101

$$s(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x > R \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Census representation  
Hamming distance



# Non-parametric similarity measures

Rank transform is more compact but does not encode position information

50	10	205
1	25	2
102	250	240

10	26	2
101	25	202
1	250	214

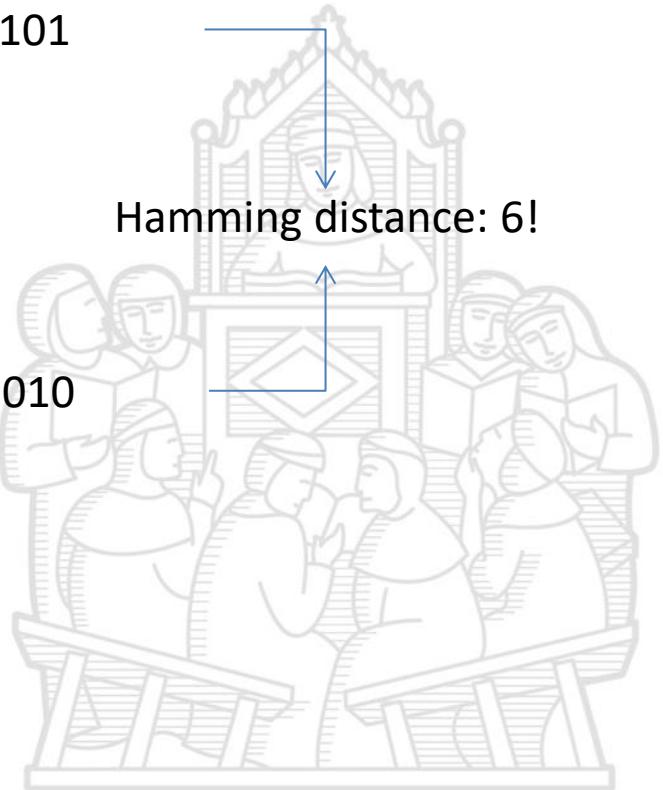
Census: 01110101

Rank: 5

Census: 10111010

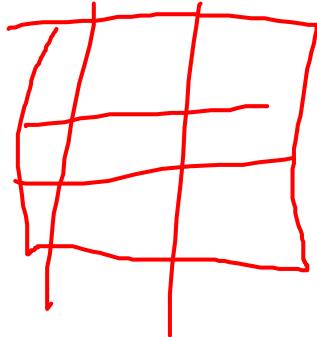
Rank: 5

Hamming distance: 6!



# Non-linear operators

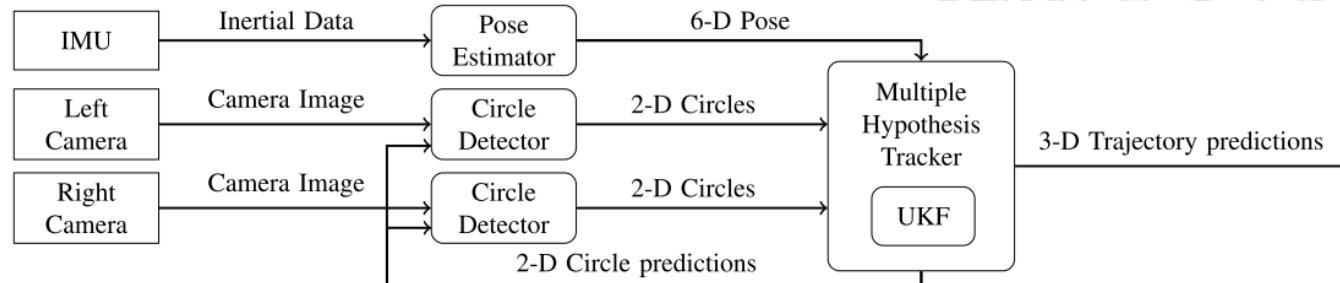
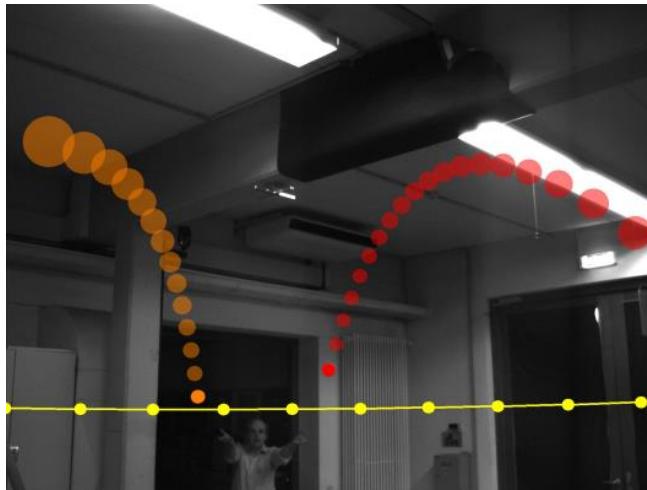
- Variance measure (on windows): Edge detection
- Median filter: noise removal ←
- Rank transform: non-local maxima suppression



3 · 3 →



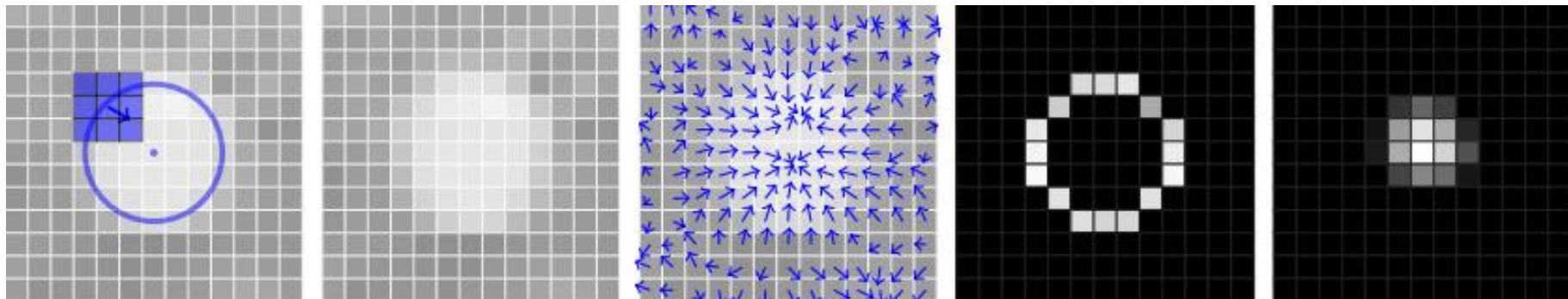
# Example DLR



Oliver Birbach, Udo Frese and Berthold Baumjohann, (2011) 'Realtime Perception for Catching a Flying Ball with a Mobile Humanoid'



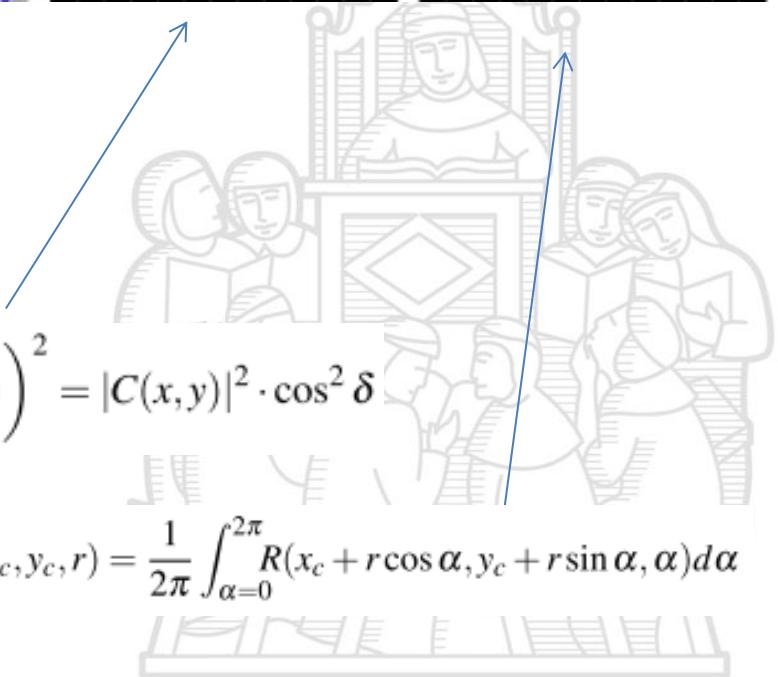
# Example DLR



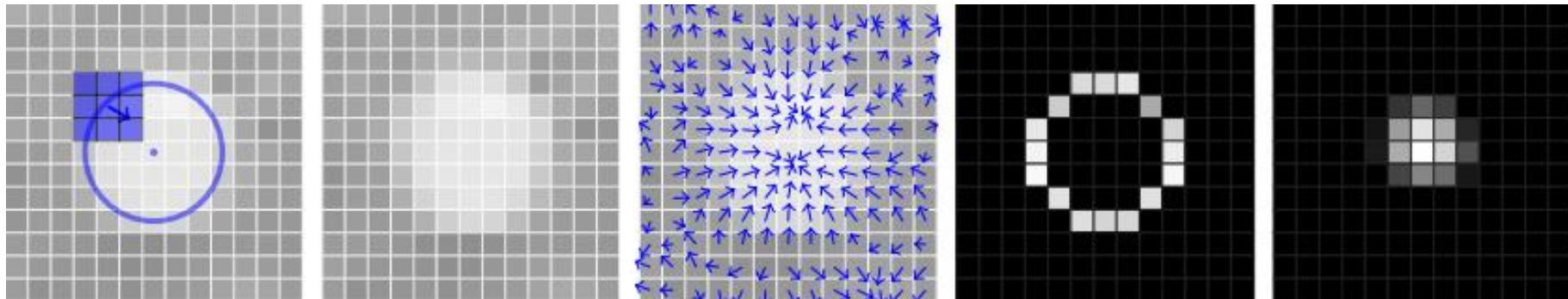
$$C = \frac{\sqrt{2} \left( \begin{pmatrix} +1 & 0 & -1 \\ +2 & 0 & -2 \\ +1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} * I, \begin{pmatrix} +1 & +2 & +1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} * I \right)^T}{\sqrt{16 \left( \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} * I^2 - \left( \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} * I \right)^2 + \epsilon^2}}$$

$$R(x, y, \alpha) = \left( \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha \\ \sin \alpha \end{pmatrix} \cdot C(x, y) \right)^2 = |C(x, y)|^2 \cdot \cos^2 \delta$$

$$CR(x_c, y_c, r) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\alpha=0}^{2\pi} R(x_c + r \cos \alpha, y_c + r \sin \alpha, \alpha) d\alpha$$



# Example DLR



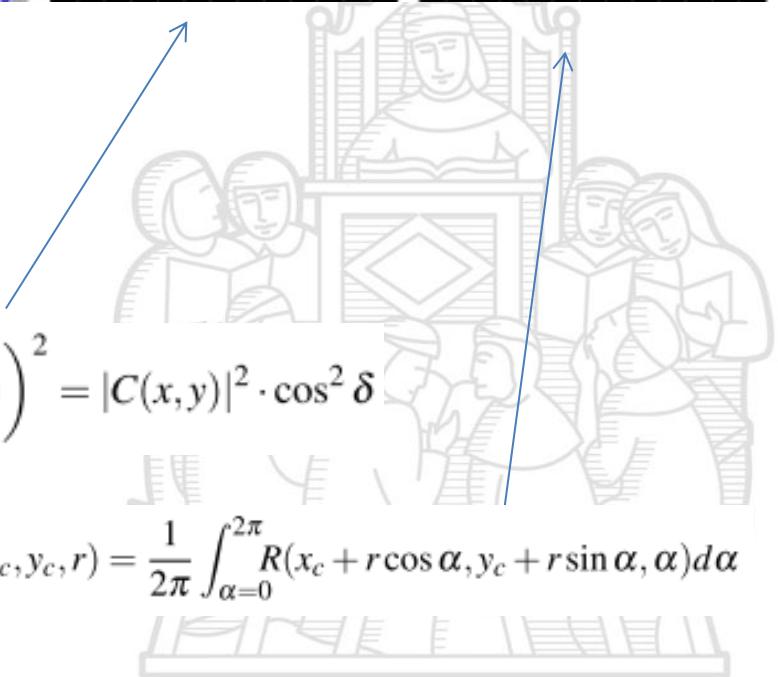
Filtraggio con Sobel

$$C = \frac{\sqrt{2} \left( \begin{pmatrix} +1 & 0 & -1 \\ +2 & 0 & -2 \\ +1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} * I, \begin{pmatrix} +1 & +2 & +1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} * I \right)^T}{\sqrt{16 \left( \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} * I^2 - \left( \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} * I \right)^2 + \epsilon^2}}$$

Normalizzazione rispetto alla varianza locale

$$R(x, y, \alpha) = \left( \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha \\ \sin \alpha \end{pmatrix} \cdot C(x, y) \right)^2 = |C(x, y)|^2 \cdot \cos^2 \delta$$

$$CR(x_c, y_c, r) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\alpha=0}^{2\pi} R(x_c + r \cos \alpha, y_c + r \sin \alpha, \alpha) d\alpha$$



# Part 2

## Feature extraction

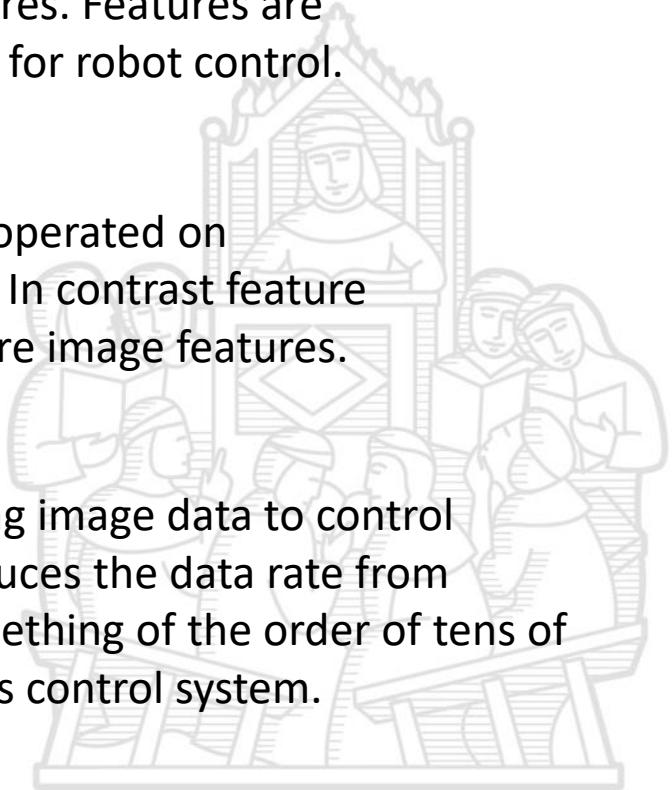


# Image feature extraction

We need to be able to answer pithy questions such as what is the pose of the object? what type of object is it? how fast is it moving? how fast am I moving? and so on. The answers to such questions are measurements obtained from the image and which we call image features. Features are the gist of the scene and the raw material that we need for robot control.

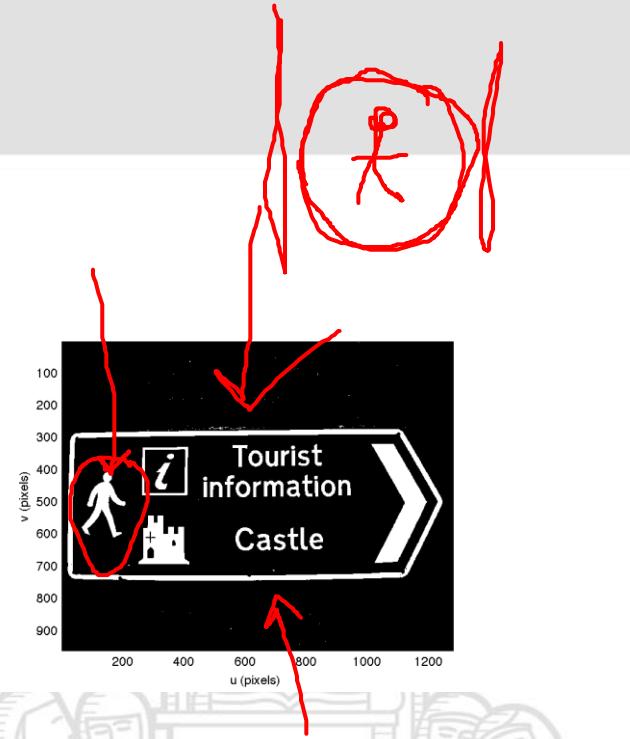
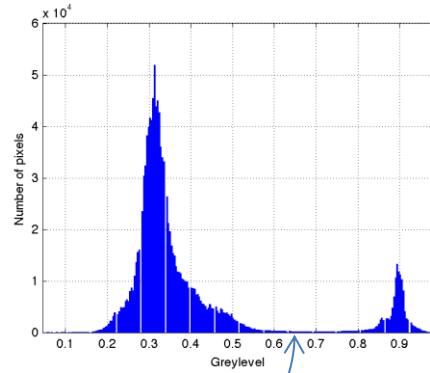
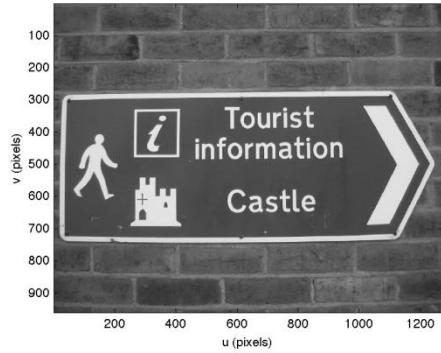
The image processing operations from the last chapter operated on one or more input images and returned another image. In contrast feature extraction operates on an image and returns one or more image features.

Image feature extraction is a necessary first step in using image data to control a robot. It is an information concentration step that reduces the data rate from  $10^6 - 10^8$  bytes s<sup>-1</sup> at the output of a camera to something of the order of tens of features per frame that can be used as input to a robot's control system.



# Region-features classification

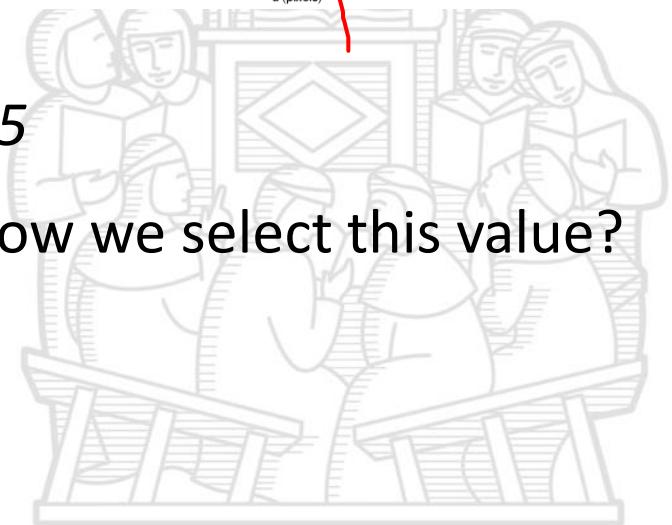
## Thresholding



$$t = 0.65$$

$$\mathbf{o}[u, v] = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } I[u, v] > t \\ 0, & \text{if } I[u, v] \leq t \end{cases}$$

How we select this value?



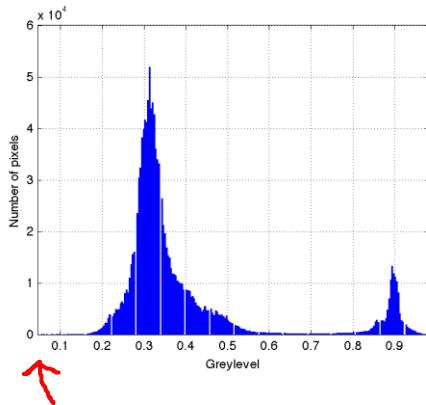
# Otsu

Background and object can be described as classes of the image histogram

Otsu thresholding method maximize the variance between classes.

One implementation can be defined as follow:

1. Obtaining the image histogram
2. For each threshold value,  $t = 0, \dots, L - 1$  the following variables should be derived
3. Compute:



$$\mu_s^t = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^t \#(i) \cdot i}{\#s}$$

$$\mu_o^t = \frac{\sum_{i=t+1}^{L-1} \#(i) \cdot i}{\#o}$$

$$W_s = \frac{\#s}{\#s + \#o}$$

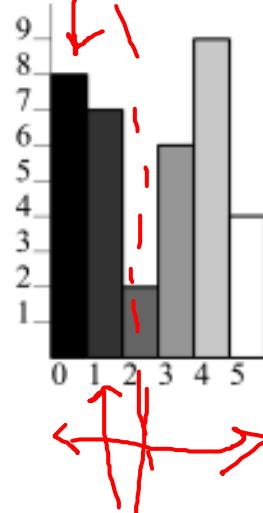
$$W_o = \frac{\#o}{\#s + \#o}$$

$$\sigma_b^2 = W_s W_o (\mu_s^t - \mu_o^t)^2$$

4. Maximum  $\sigma_b^2(t)$  defines the correct threshold  $t$ .



# Otsu



Per  $t = 0$ :

$$W_s = \frac{8}{36} = 0.22$$

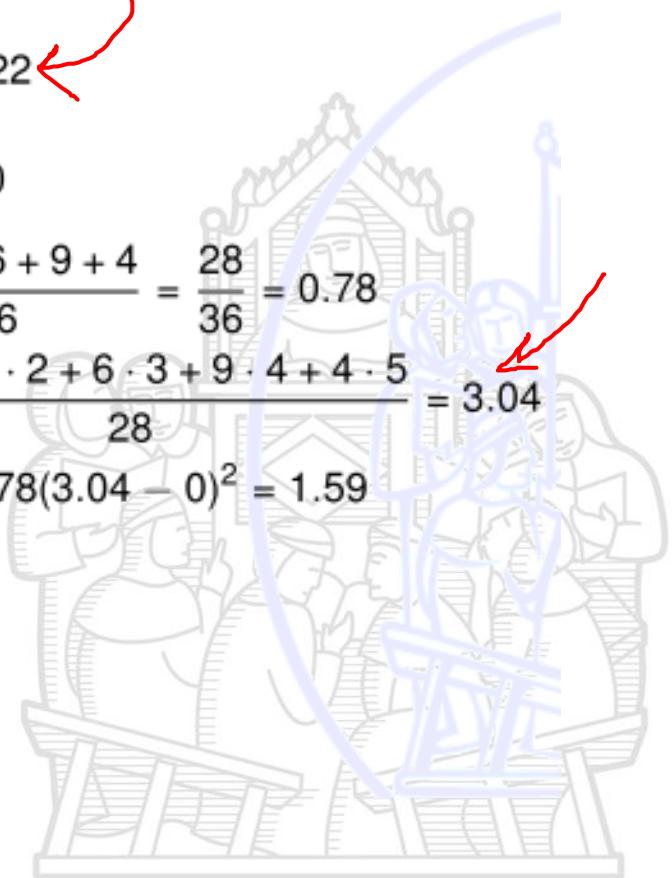
$$\mu_s = \frac{8 \cdot 0}{8} = 0$$

$$W_o = \frac{7 + 2 + 6 + 9 + 4}{36} = \frac{28}{36} = 0.78$$

$$\mu_o = \frac{7 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 2 + 6 \cdot 3 + 9 \cdot 4 + 4 \cdot 5}{28} = 3.04$$

$$\sigma_b^2 = 0.22 \cdot 0.78(3.04 - 0)^2 = 1.59$$

Threshold	$t=0$	$t=1$	$t=2$	$t=3$	$t=4$
Variance	1.59	2.56	2.63	2.14	0.87



## Code sample >

```
%OTSU
street=iread('street.png');
idisp(street);
idisp(street>t);
[rig,col]=size(street);
[n,v]=ihist(street);
plot(v,n)

max=0;
occ=n;
for t=1:256
    sum_tmp=0;
    sum_sf=0;
    media_sf=0;
    sum_ogg=0;
    media_ogg=0;
    peso_sf=0;
    peso_ogg=0;

    for i=1:t
        sum_tmp=occ(i)*i+sum_tmp;
        sum_sf=occ(i)+sum_sf;
    end

    media_sf=sum_tmp/sum_sf;
    sum_tmp=0;

    for j=t+1:256
        sum_tmp=occ(j)*j+sum_tmp;
        sum_ogg=occ(j)+sum_ogg;
    end
    media_ogg=sum_tmp/sum_ogg;

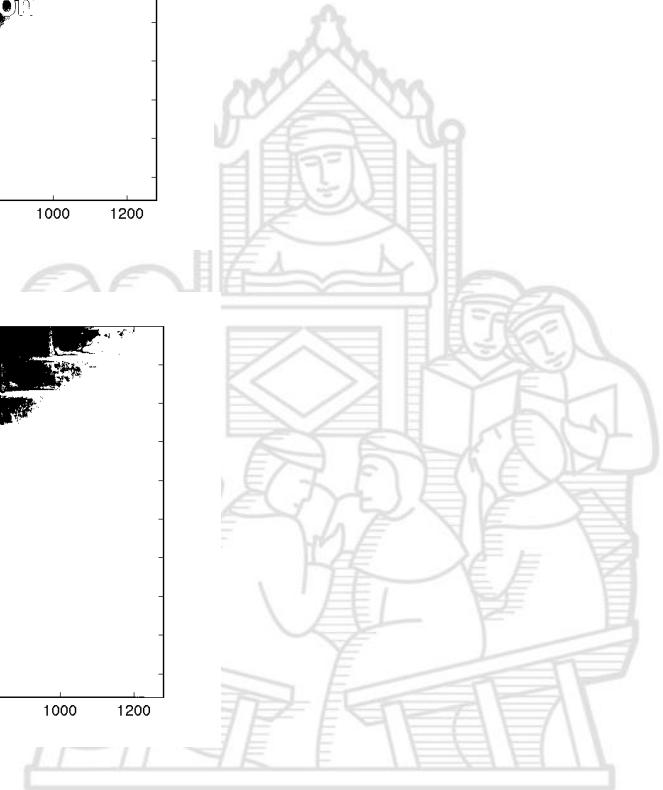
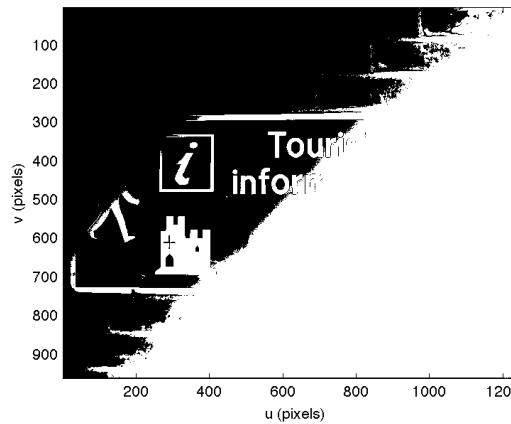
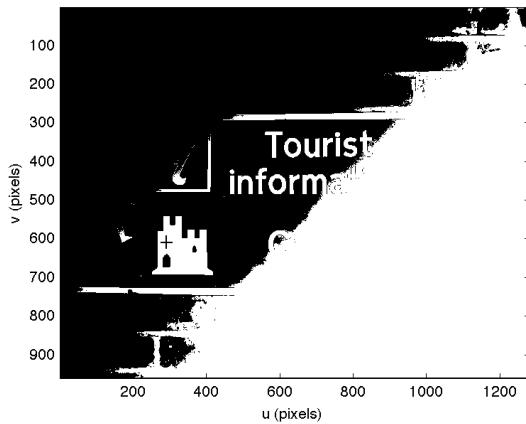
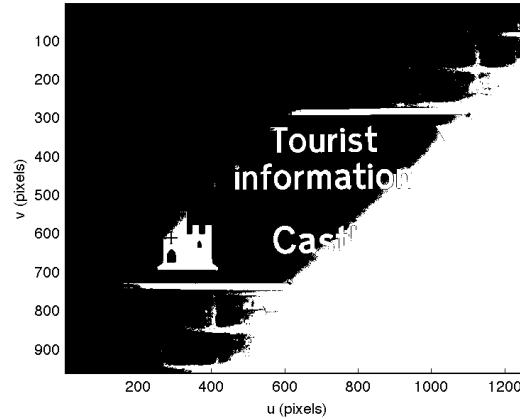
    peso_sf=sum_sf/(sum_ogg+sum_sf);
    peso_ogg=sum_ogg/(sum_ogg+sum_sf);

    var=peso_sf*peso_ogg*(media_sf-media_ogg)^2;

    if var>max
        max=var;
        soglia=t;
    end

end
```

# Illumination problem

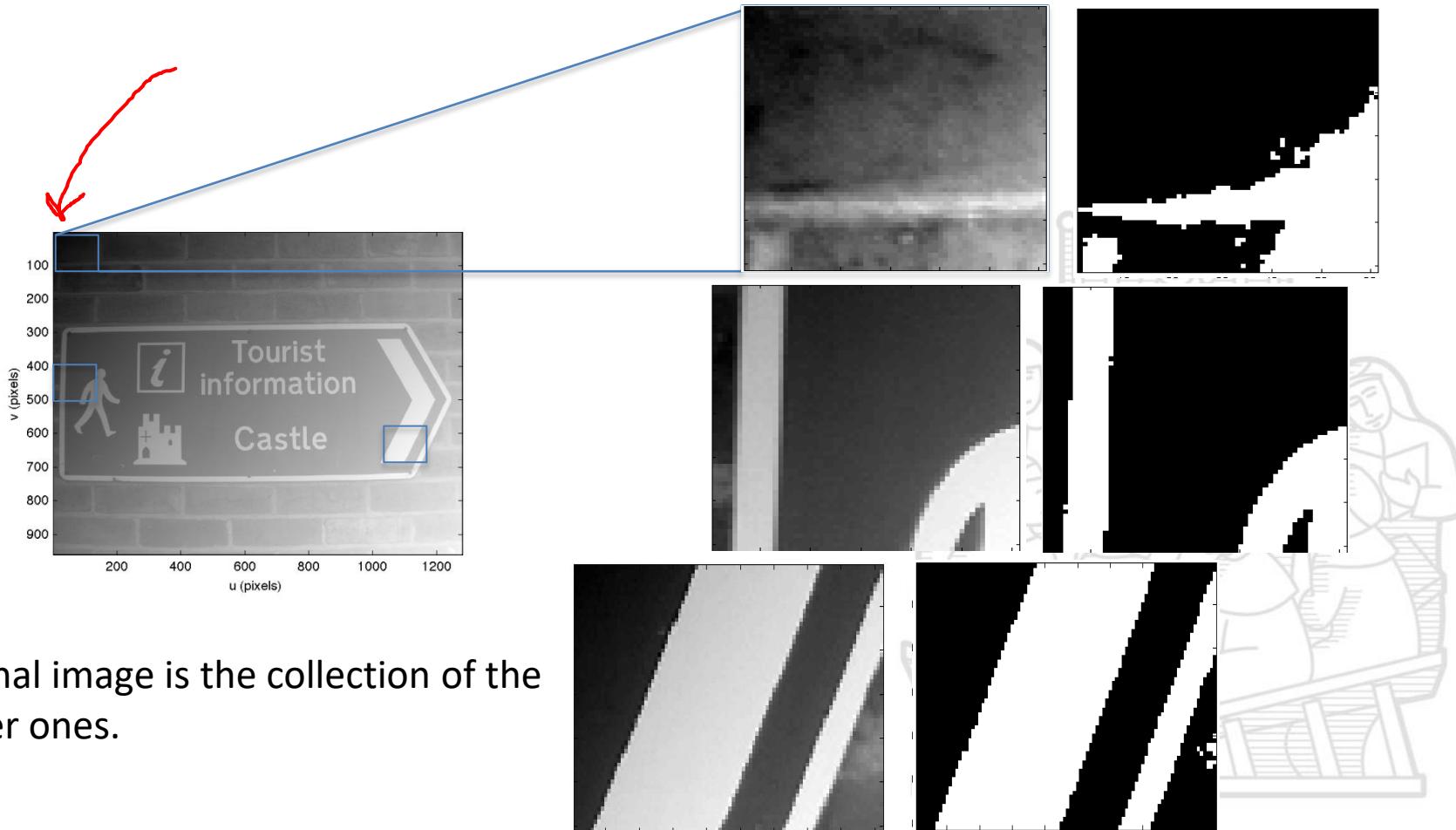


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# Local thresholding

We can split the image in smaller ones, and thresholding **locally** the various portions.



The final image is the collection of the smaller ones.



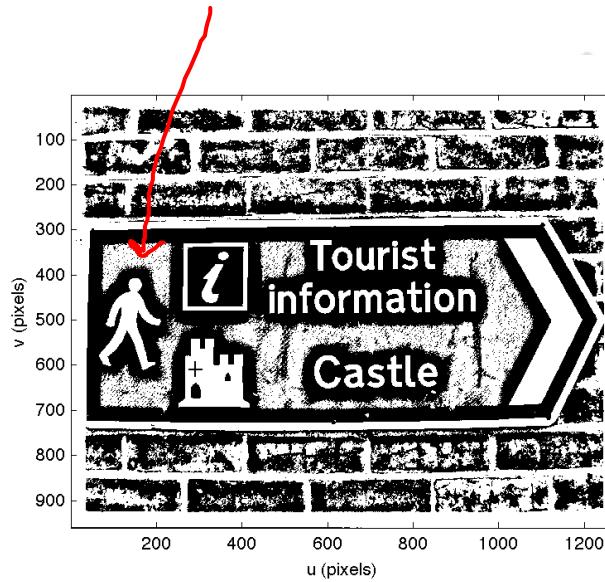
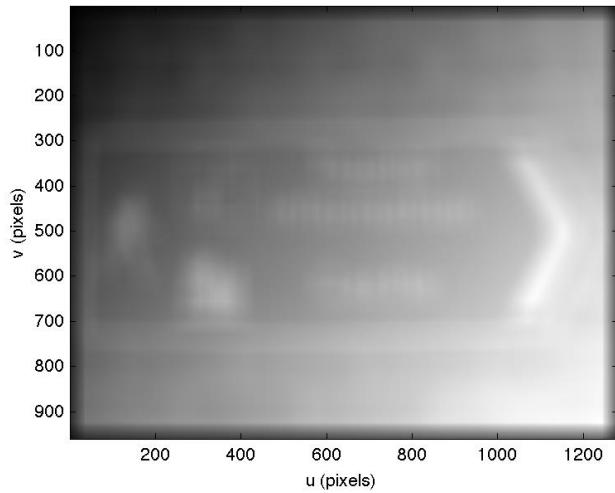
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# Local thresholding

Niblack algorithm used a local threshold

$$t[u, v] = \mu(W) + k\sigma(W)$$



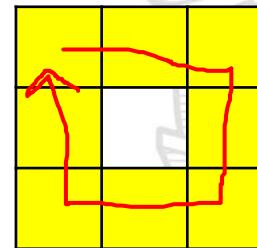
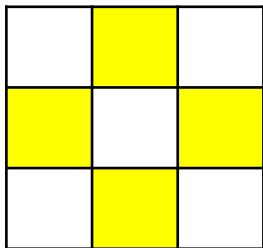
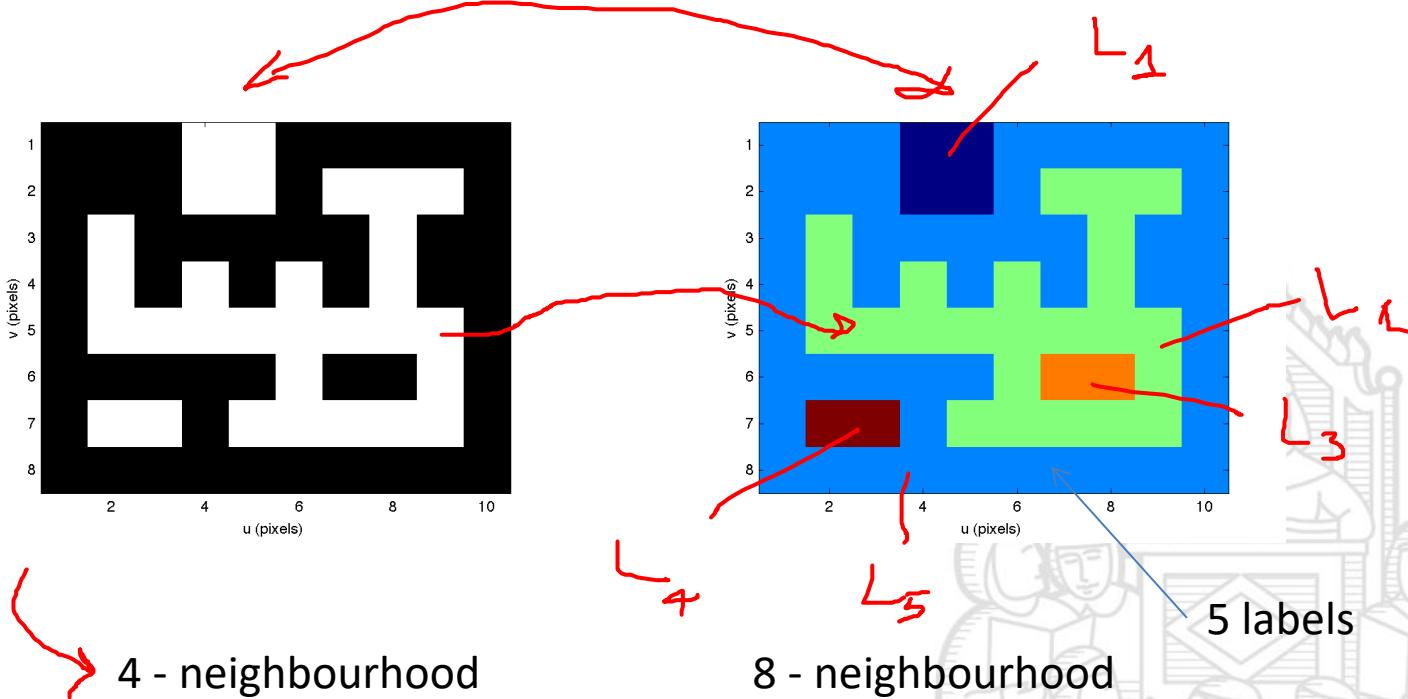
$$k=-2$$



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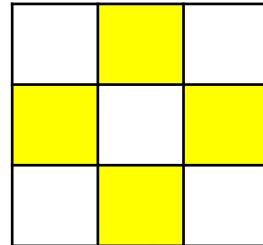
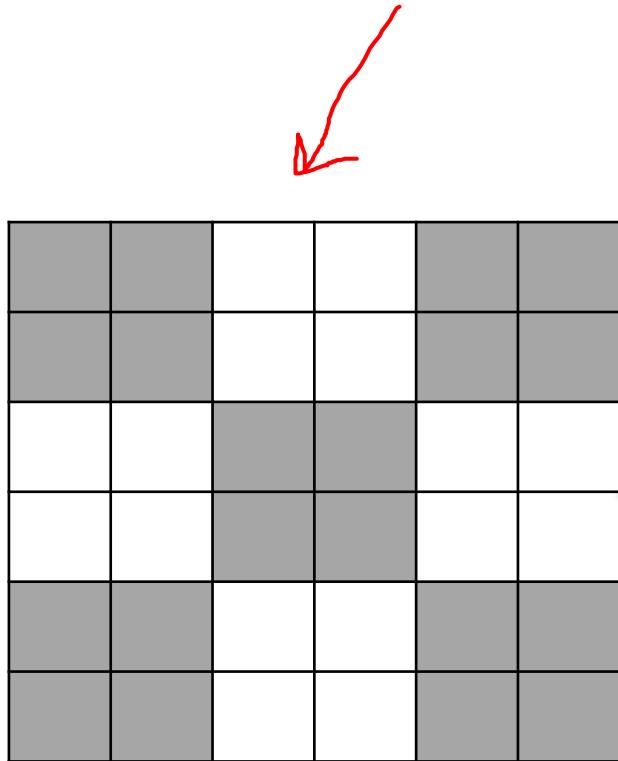
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# Connected components

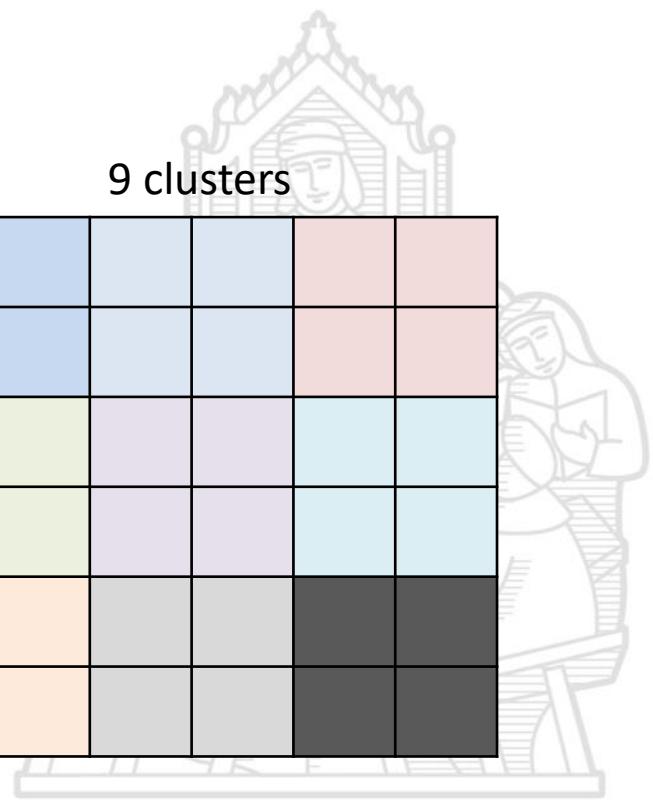
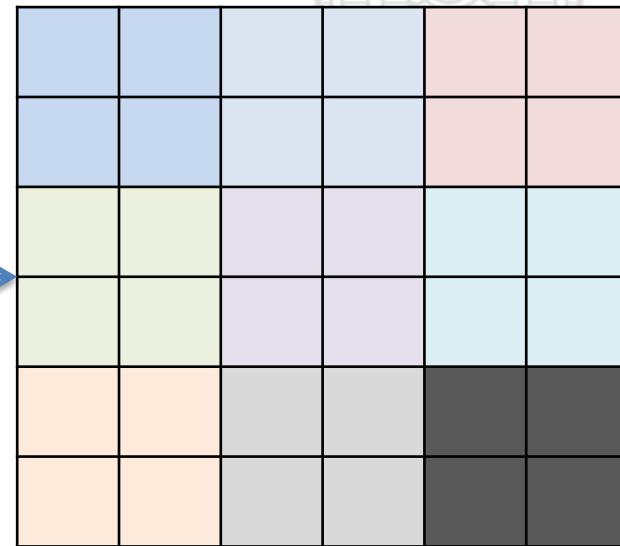


# Connected components

4 - neighbourhood



9 clusters

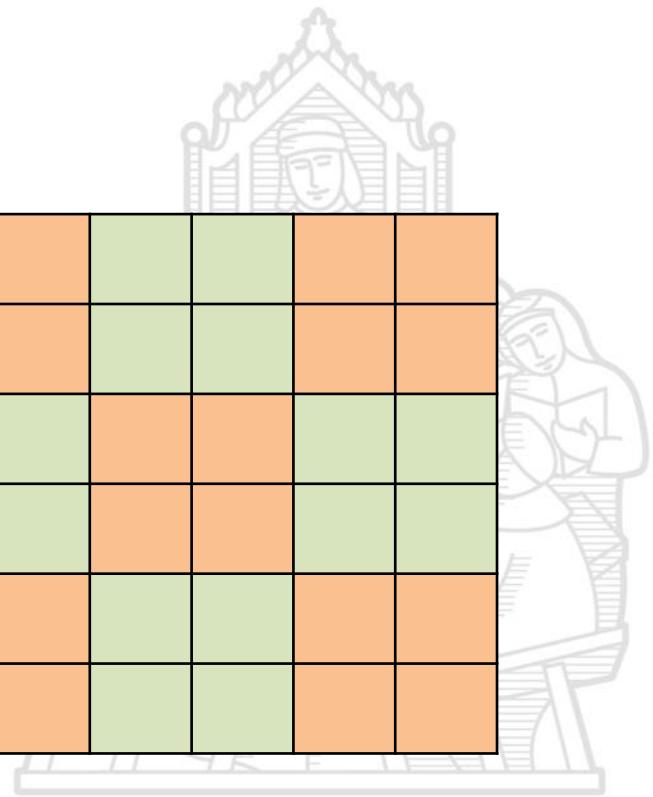
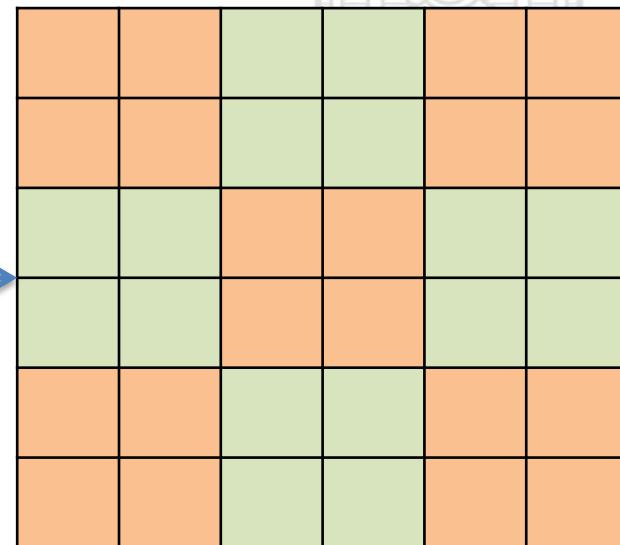
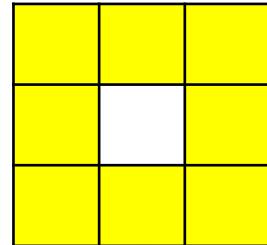
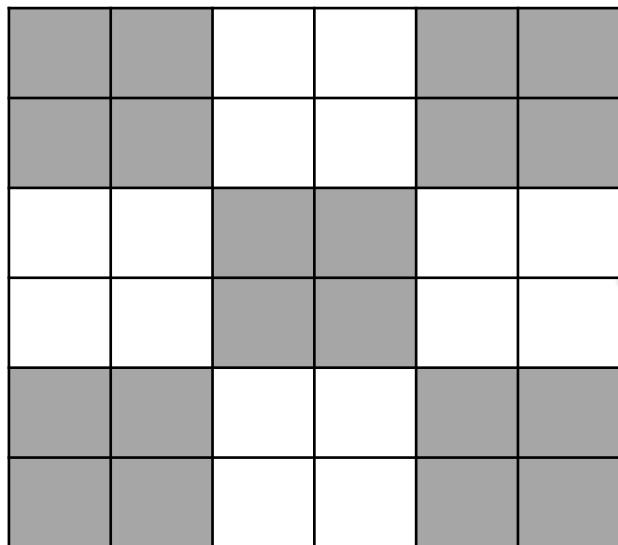


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# Connected components

8 - neighbourhood



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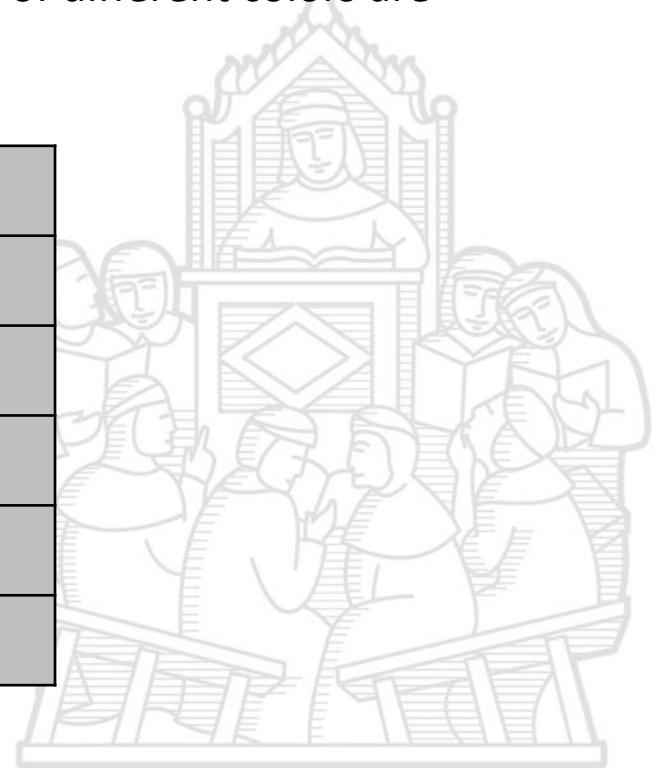
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# The motivated student algorithm



To compute the connected components of an image, we first (conceptually) split the image into horizontal runs of adjacent pixels, and then color the runs with unique labels, re-using the labels of vertically adjacent runs whenever possible. In a second phase, adjacent runs of different colors are then merged.

Light Gray					
Dark Gray	White	White	Dark Gray	Dark Gray	Dark Gray
Dark Gray	White	White	Dark Gray	Dark Gray	Dark Gray
Dark Gray	White	Dark Gray	White	Dark Gray	Dark Gray
Dark Gray	Dark Gray	Dark Gray	Dark Gray	Light Gray	Light Gray



# The motivated student algorithm

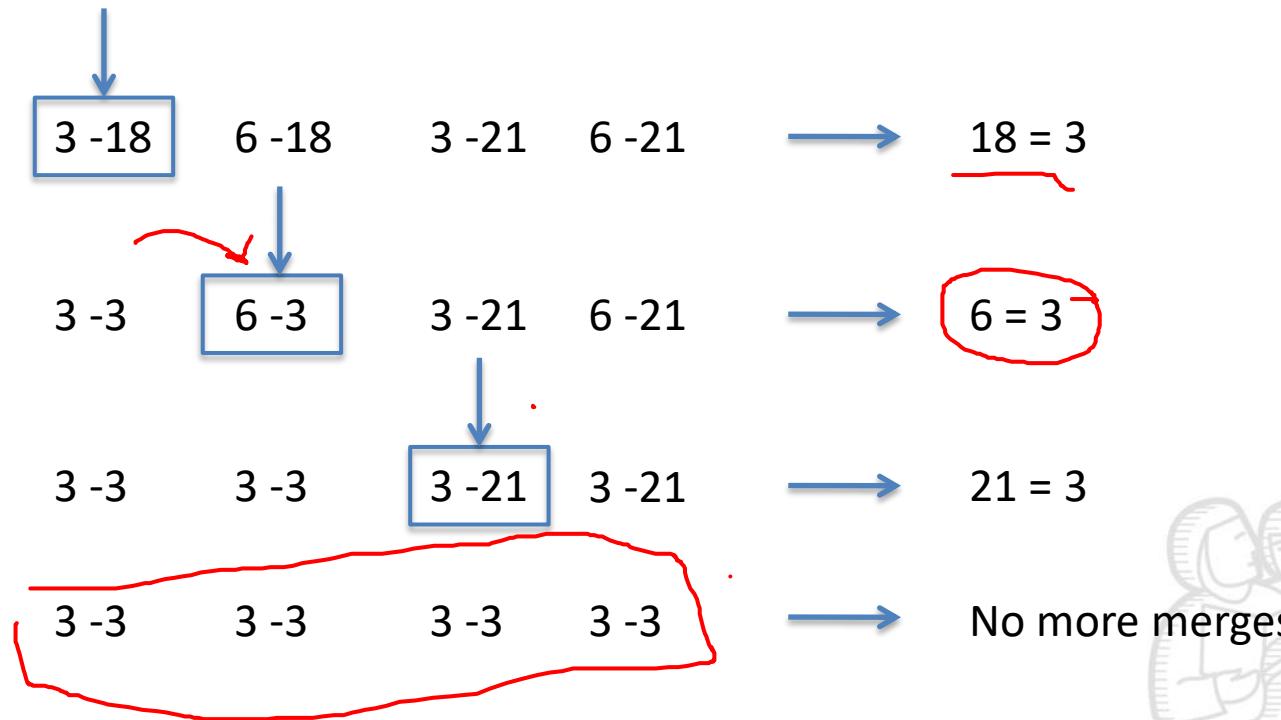
To compute the connected components of an image, we first (conceptually) split the image into horizontal runs of adjacent pixels, and then color the runs with unique labels, re-using the labels of vertically adjacent runs whenever possible. In a second phase, adjacent runs of different colors are then merged.

1	1	1	1	1	1
2	3	3	4	4	4
5	6	6	7	7	7
8	8	8	8	9	10
11	11	11	12	12	13
14	14	14	14	14	15

16	17	20	23	26	29
16	18	21	23	26	29
16	18	21	23	26	29
16	19	22	23	27	29
16	19	22	24	27	29
16	19	22	25	28	29



# The motivated student algorithm



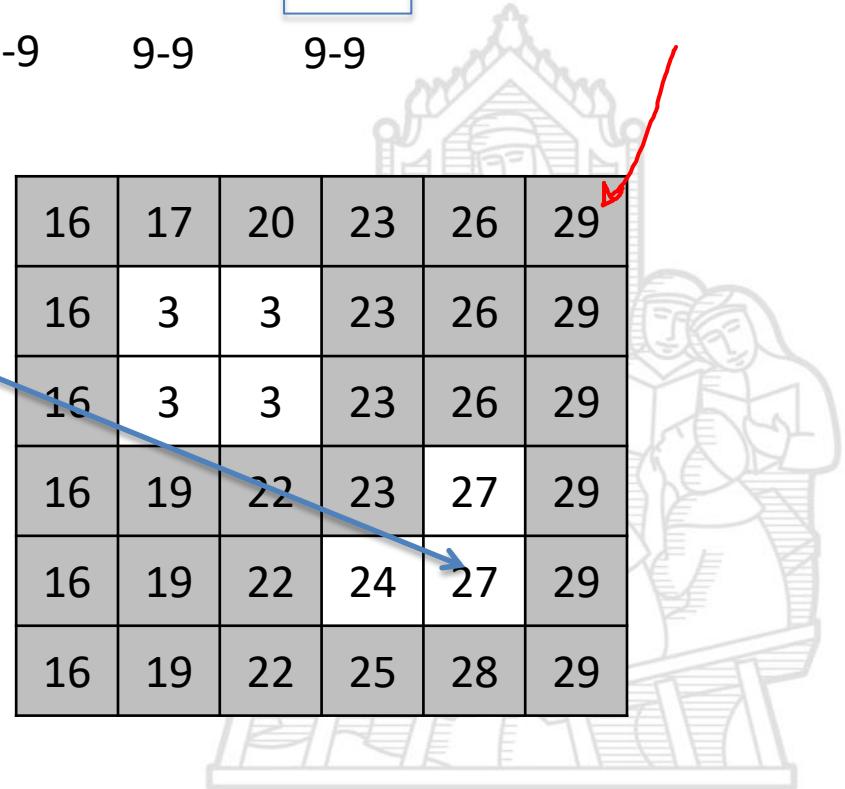
# The motivated student algorithm

9-27    12-24    12-27

1	1	1	1	1	1
2	3	3	4	4	4
5	3	3	7	7	7
8	8	8	8	9	10
11	11	11	12	12	13
14	14	14	14	14	15

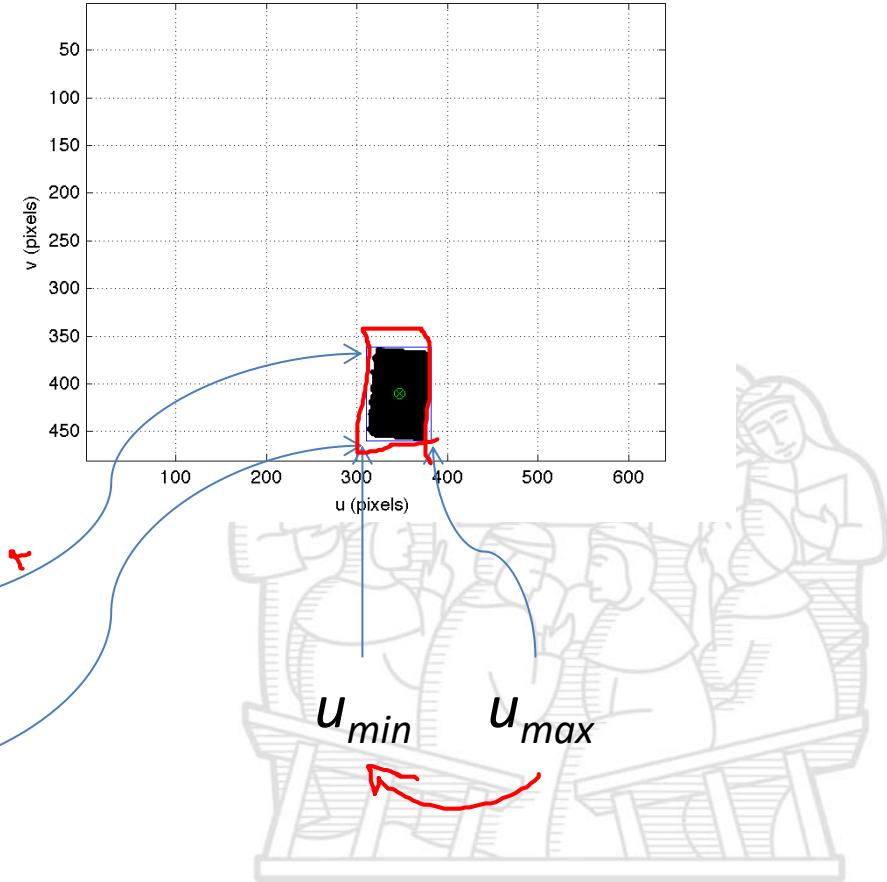
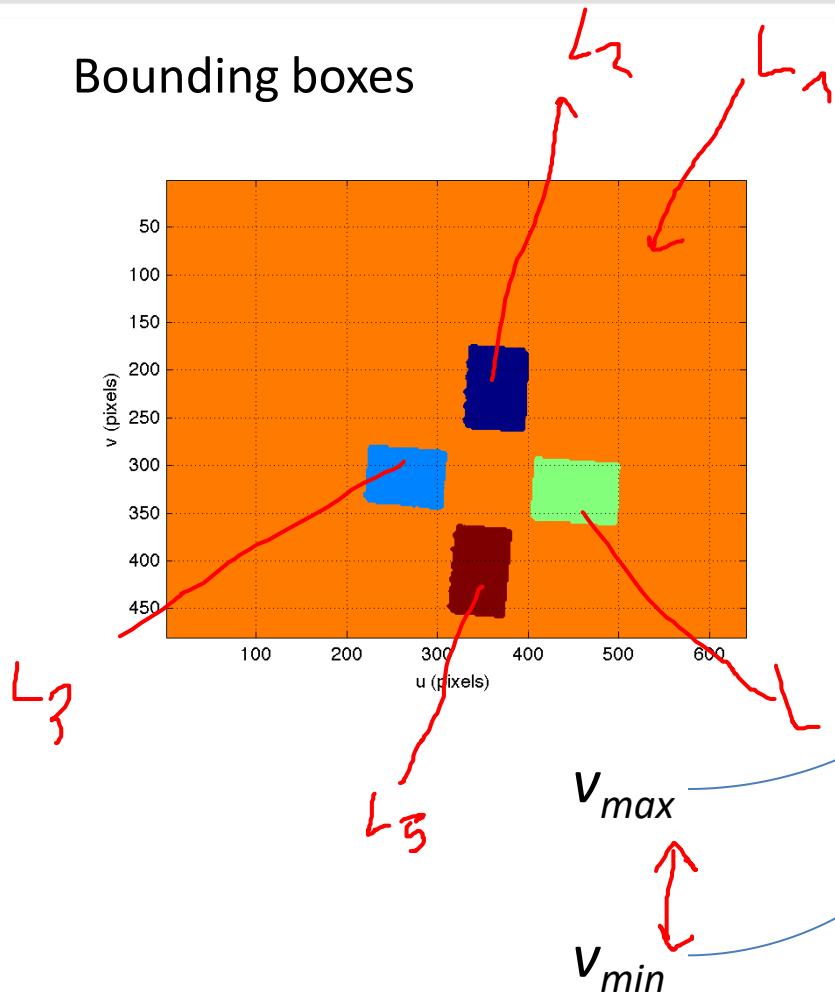
9-27    12-24    12-27  
9-9              12-24      12-9  
9-9              12-12      12-9  
9-9              9-9          9-9

16	17	20	23	26	29
16	3	3	23	26	29
16	3	3	23	26	29
16	19	22	23	27	29
16	19	22	24	27	29
16	19	22	25	28	29



# Concise description:

Bounding boxes



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# Concise description:

Moments

$$m_{pq} = \sum_{(u,v) \in I} u^p v^q I[u, v]$$

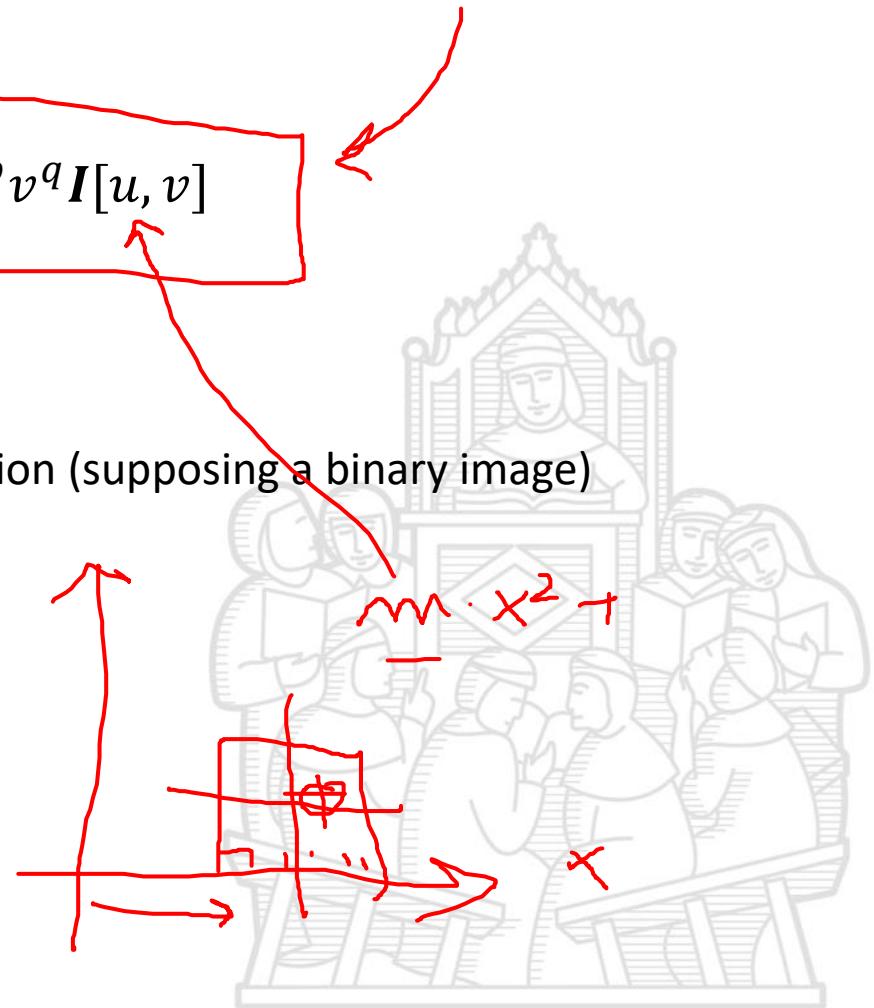
→ Where  $(p+q)$  is the order of the moment

→  $m_{00} = \sum I[u, v]$  is the area of a region (supposing a binary image)

Centroid of the region is located in:

$$u_c = \frac{m_{10}}{m_{00}}$$

$$v_c = \frac{m_{01}}{m_{00}}$$



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Central moments  $\mu_{pq}$  are computed with respect to the centroid

$$\rightarrow \mu_{pq} = \sum_{(u,v) \in I} (u - u_c)^p (v - v_c)^q I[u, v]$$

Central moments are related to moments  $m_{pq}$  by:

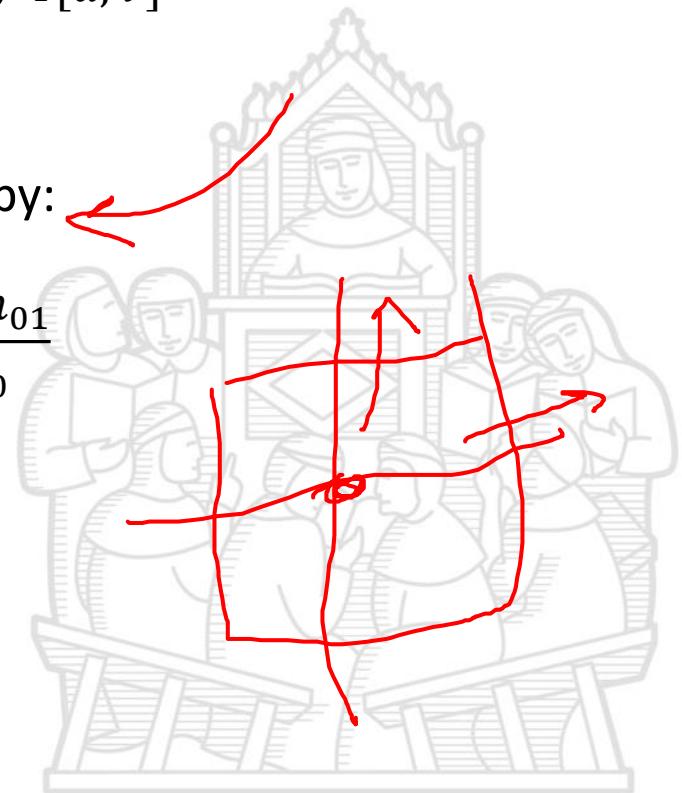
$$\mu_{10} = 0$$

$$\mu_{01} = 0$$

$$\mu_{11} = m_{11} - \frac{m_{10}m_{01}}{m_{00}}$$

$$\mu_{20} = m_{20} - \frac{m_{10}^2}{m_{00}}$$

$$\mu_{02} = m_{02} - \frac{m_{01}^2}{m_{00}}$$



By using a thin plate analogy we can write the inertia matrix:

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_{20} & \mu_{11} \\ \mu_{11} & \mu_{02} \end{bmatrix}$$

About axis parallel to  $u$ - $v$ -axes and intersecting the centroid

Computing eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$ , we can compute an equivalent ellipse from  $J$ :

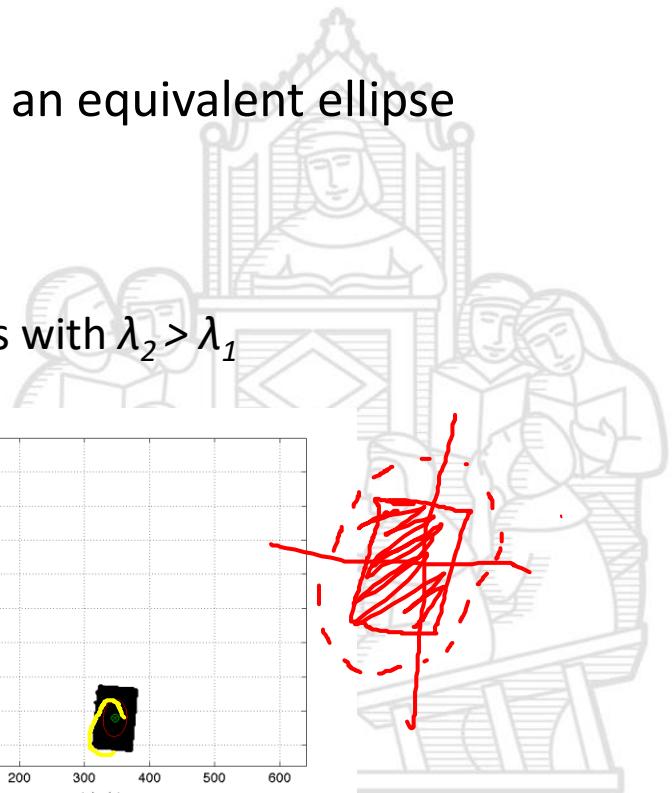
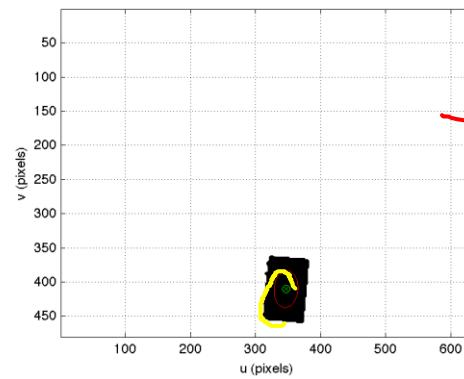
$$a = 2 \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_2}{m_{00}}} \quad b = 2 \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_1}{m_{00}}}$$

Principal axis with  $\lambda_2 > \lambda_1$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{v_y}{v_x}$$

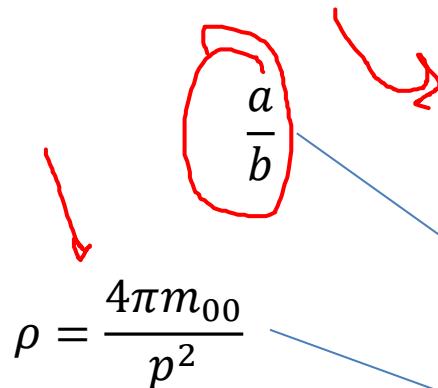
Eigenvectors

Orientation



# Features invariance

Some region features are invariant with respect to certain transformations.

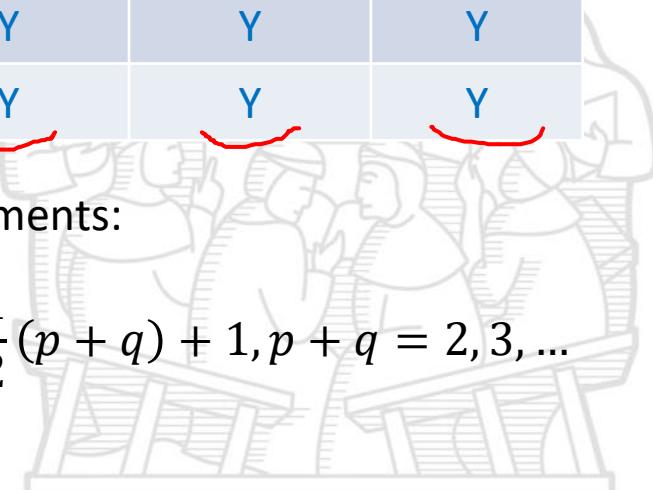


$$\begin{aligned}\phi_1 &= \eta_{20} + \eta_{02} \\ \phi_2 &= (\eta_{20} - \eta_{02})^2 + 4\eta_{11}^2 \\ \phi_3 &= (\eta_{30} - 3\eta_{12})^2 + (3\eta_{21} - \eta_{03})^2 \\ \phi_4 &= (\eta_{30} + \eta_{12})^2 + (\eta_{21} + \eta_{03})^2 \\ \phi_5 &= (\eta_{30} - 3\eta_{12})(\eta_{30} + \eta_{12})[(\eta_{30} + \eta_{12})^2 - 3(\eta_{21} + \eta_{03})^2] \\ &\quad + (3\eta_{21} - \eta_{03})(\eta_{21} + \eta_{03})[3(\eta_{30} + \eta_{12})^2 - (\eta_{21} + \eta_{03})^2] \\ \phi_6 &= (\eta_{20} - \eta_{02})[(\eta_{30} + \eta_{12})^2 - (\eta_{21} + \eta_{03})^2] \\ &\quad + 4\eta_{11}(\eta_{30} + \eta_{12})(\eta_{21} + \eta_{03}) \\ \phi_7 &= (3\eta_{21} - \eta_{03})(\eta_{30} + \eta_{12})[(\eta_{30} + \eta_{12})^2 - 3(\eta_{21} + \eta_{03})^2] \\ &\quad + (3\eta_{12} - \eta_{30})(\eta_{21} + \eta_{03})[3(\eta_{30} + \eta_{12})^2 - (\eta_{21} + \eta_{03})^2]\end{aligned}$$

	Translation	Rotation	Scale
Area	Y	Y	N
Centroid	N	Y	Y
Aspect ratio	Y	Y	Y
Orientation	Y	N	Y
Circularity	Y	Y	Y
Hu moments	Y	Y	Y

With normalized moments:

$$\eta_{pq} = \frac{\mu_{pq}}{\mu_{00}^\gamma}, \gamma = \frac{1}{2}(p+q) + 1, p+q = 2, 3, \dots$$



# Line features

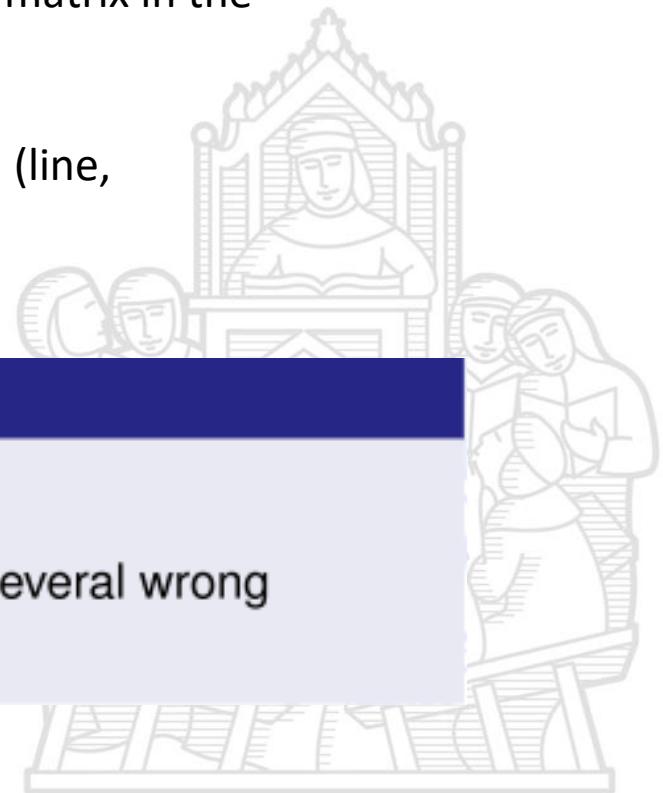
## Hough transformation

It transforms the original image in an accumulation matrix in the parameters plane.

Every points that belong to the researched function (line, circle, . . . ) increase the accumulation value.

### Few disadvantages

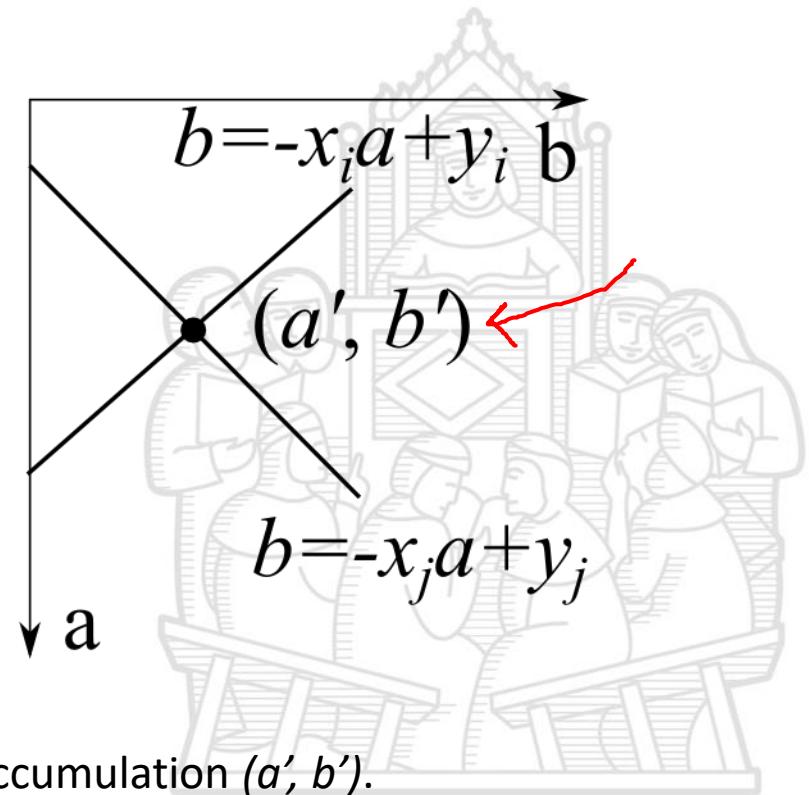
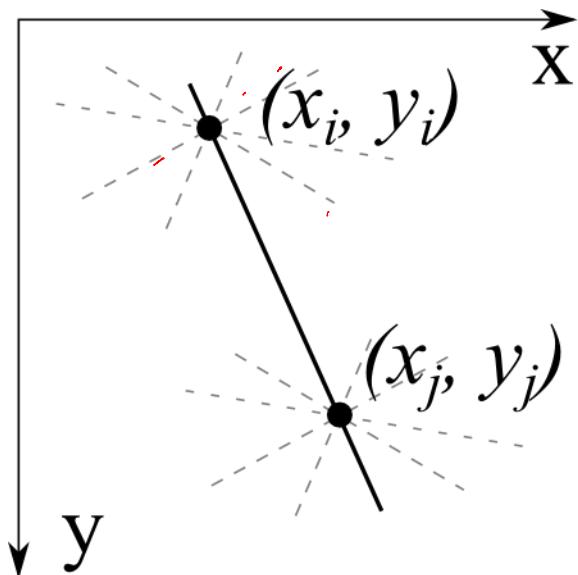
- high computational cost
- requires perfect shapes or produces several wrong detections



# Line in parameters plane

$$\rightarrow y = a \cdot x + b \rightarrow b = -x_i \cdot a + y_i$$

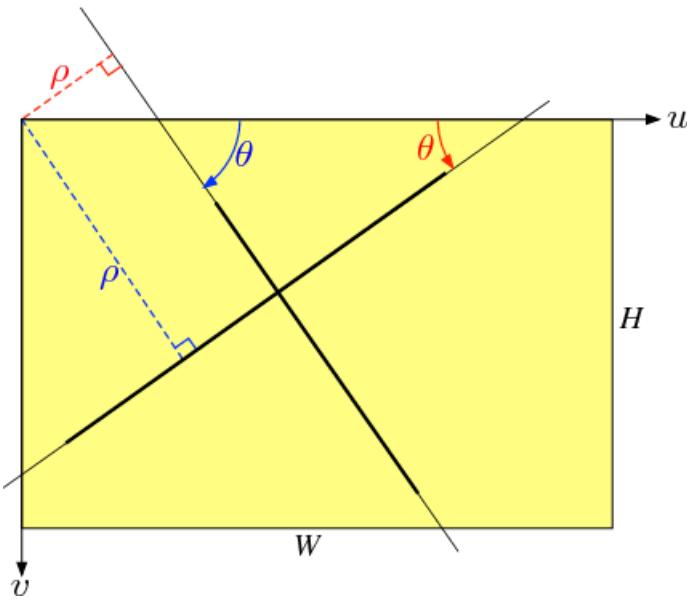
The linear function  $b = -x_i \cdot a + y_i$  in the parameters plane represents all the linear functions that belong to the generic point  $(x_i, y_i)$ .



Each point of the same function increase the accumulation  $(a', b')$ .



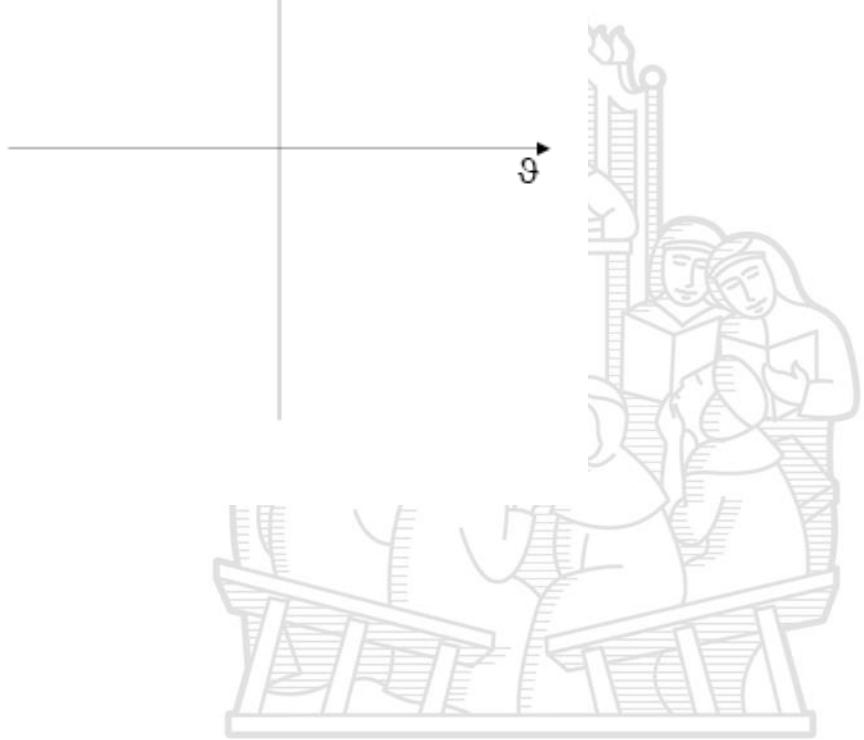
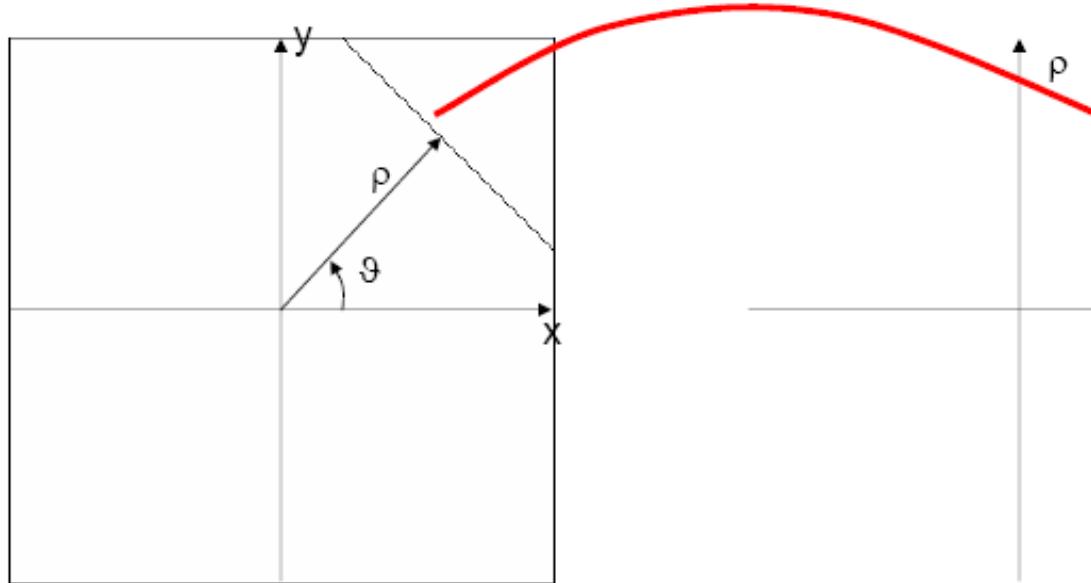
# Polar parametrization



- The line shown can be described by the function  
$$y=ax+b$$
and identified by the couple of parameters:  
 $(a,b)=(-0.5,0.5)$
- or by the function  
$$\rho = x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta$$
- and identified by the couple:  
 $(\rho,\theta)=(0.447,1.107)$



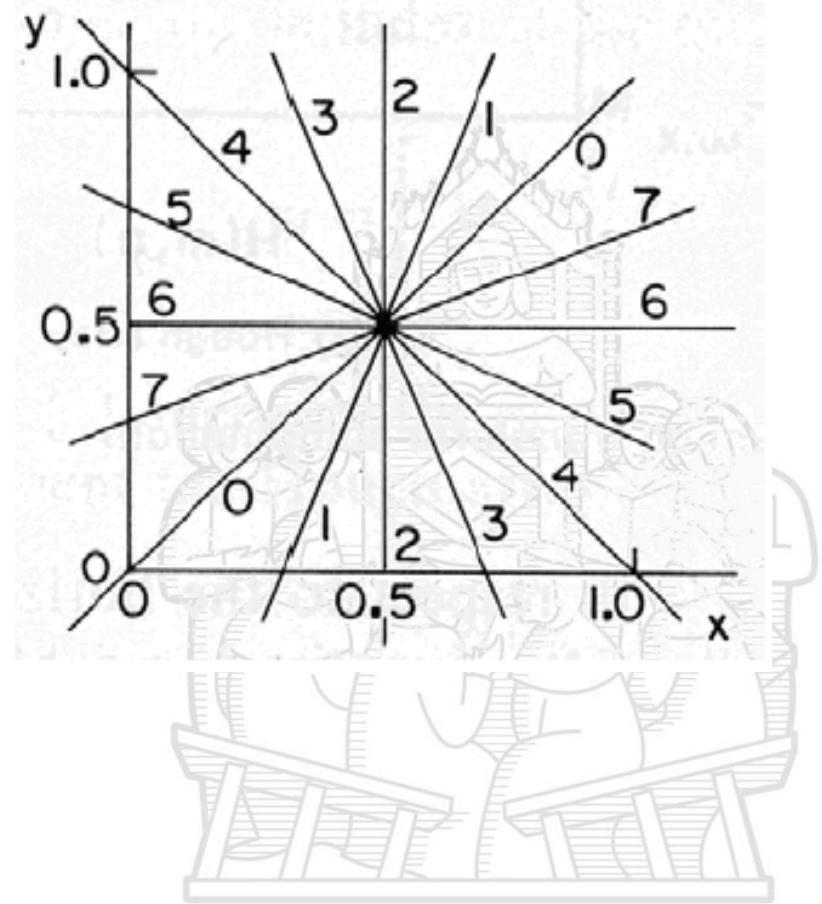
# Transformation of the plane



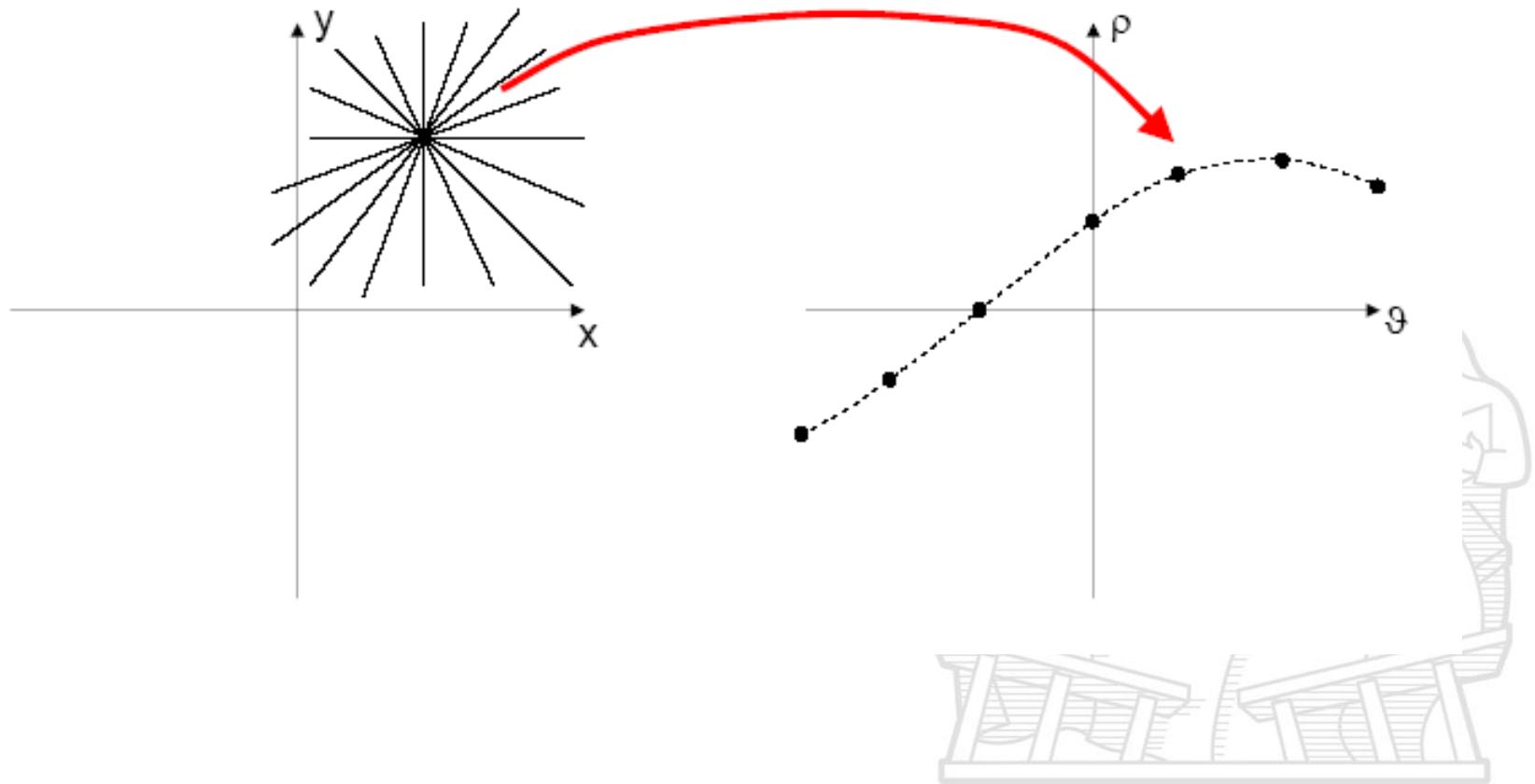
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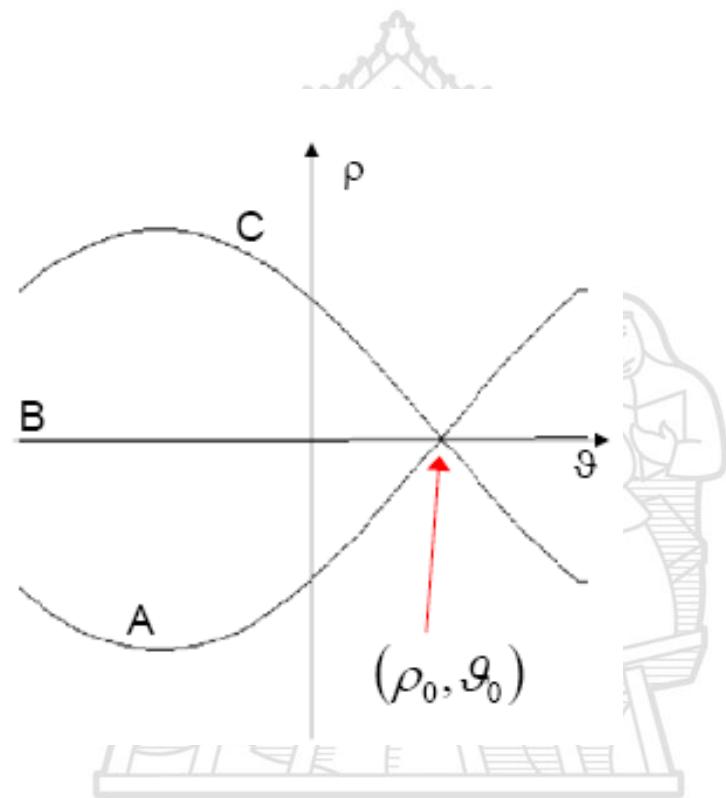
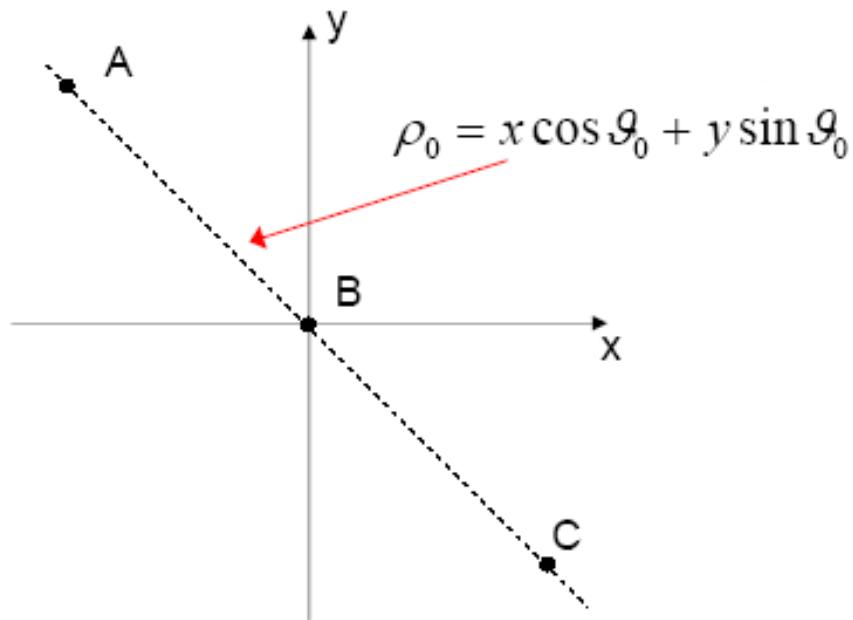
- In the image plane, one point is identified by the intersection of lines.
- Each point  $P$  corresponds, in the parameter plane, to the curve given by the image points of the lines passing through  $P$



# Transformation of a point

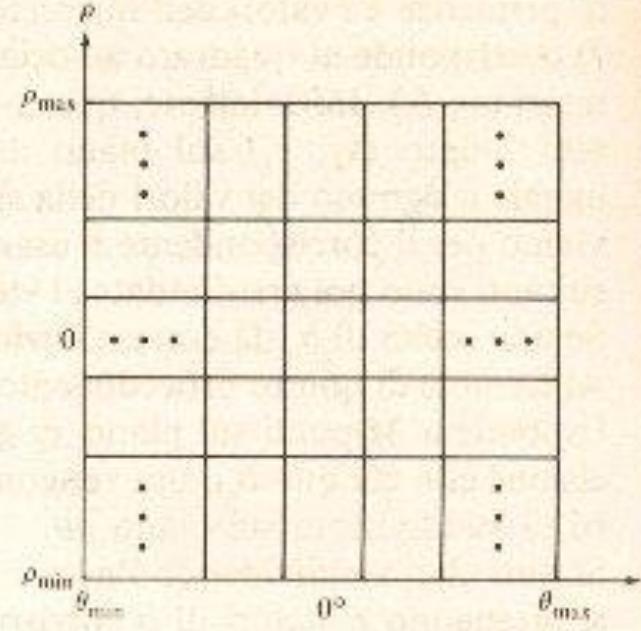
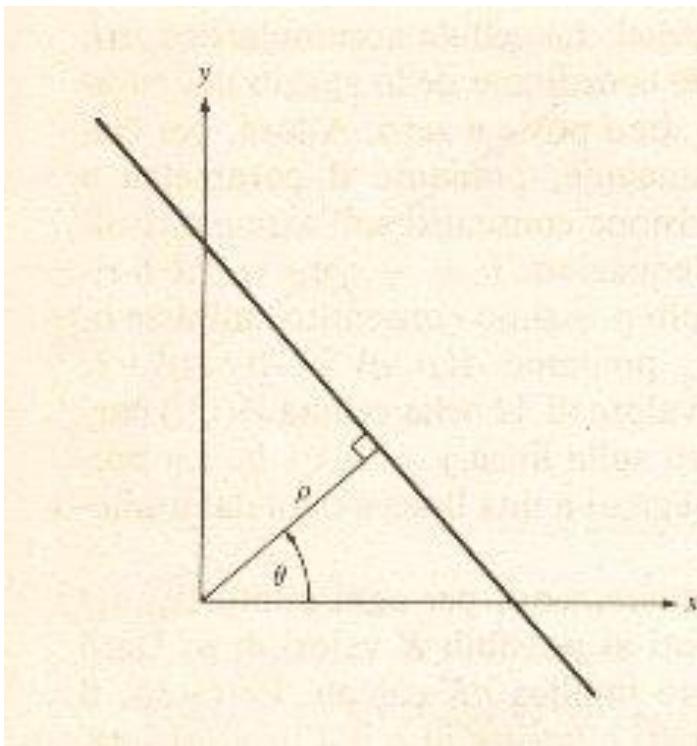


# Detection of a lines on the transformed plane



# Hough's method with the polar representation of the line

$$\rho = x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta$$

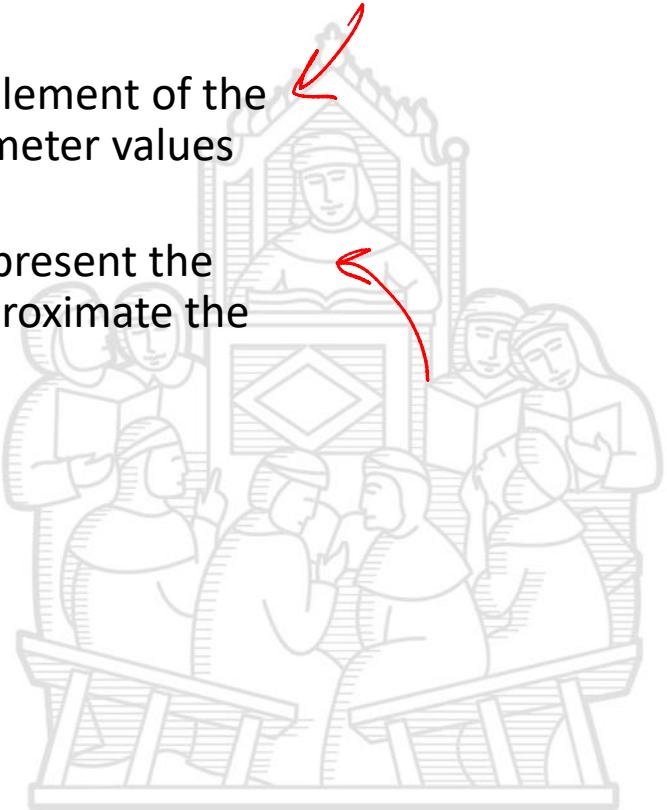


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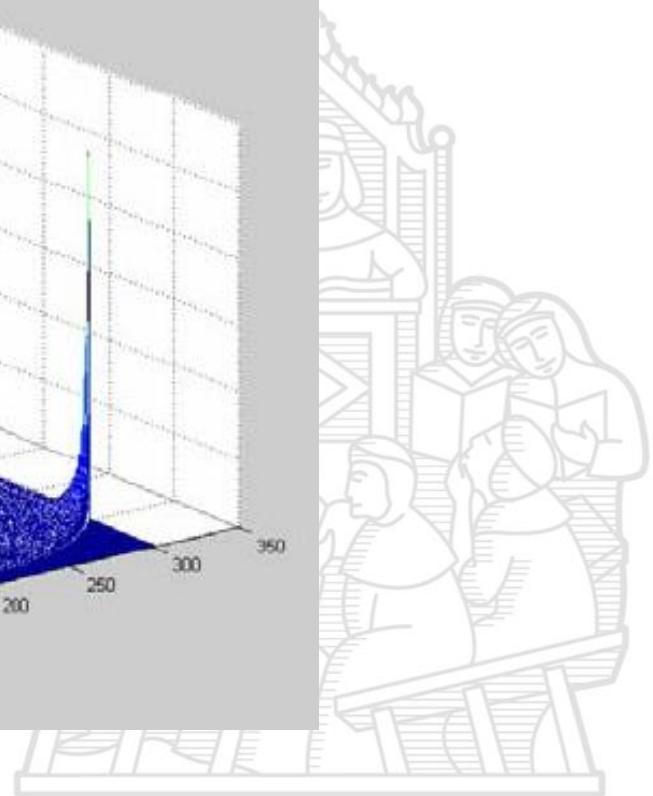
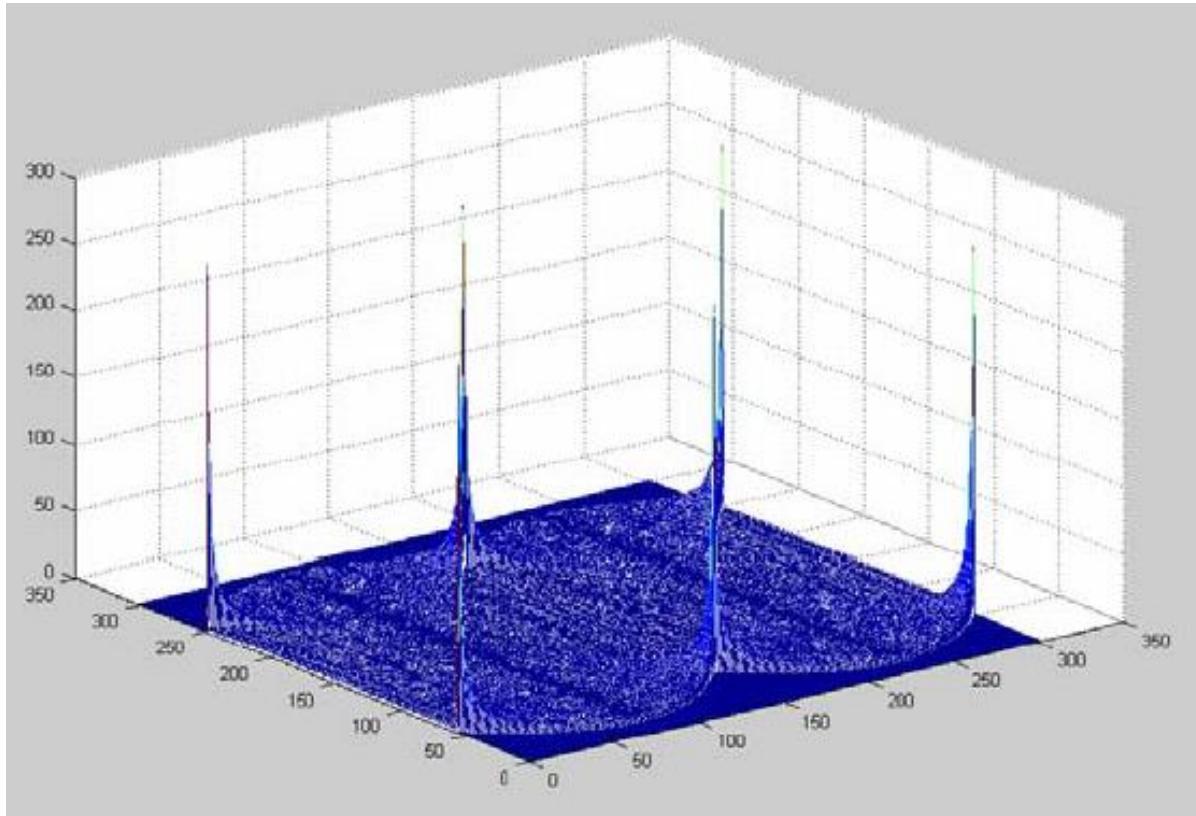
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# Hough's algorithm

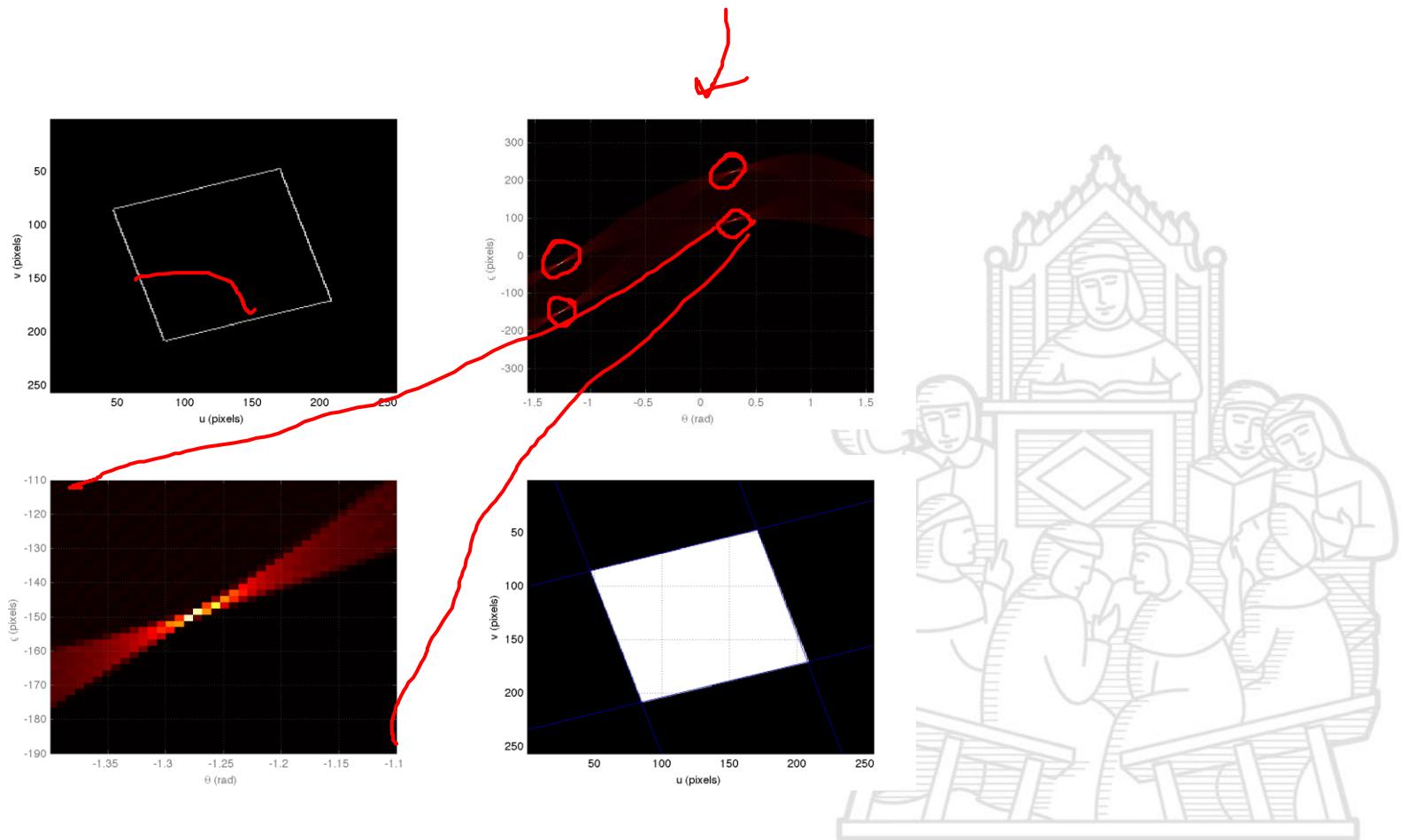
1. Quantize the parameter space between appropriate minimum and maximum values
2. Create an accumulation array with size equal to the number of parameters, initialized to 0
3. For each edge in the image, increment ~~of the element of the~~ accumulation array corresponding to ~~the~~ parameter values of the curves on which the edge lays
4. The local maxima in the accumulation array represent the parameter values of the curves that better approximate the boundary



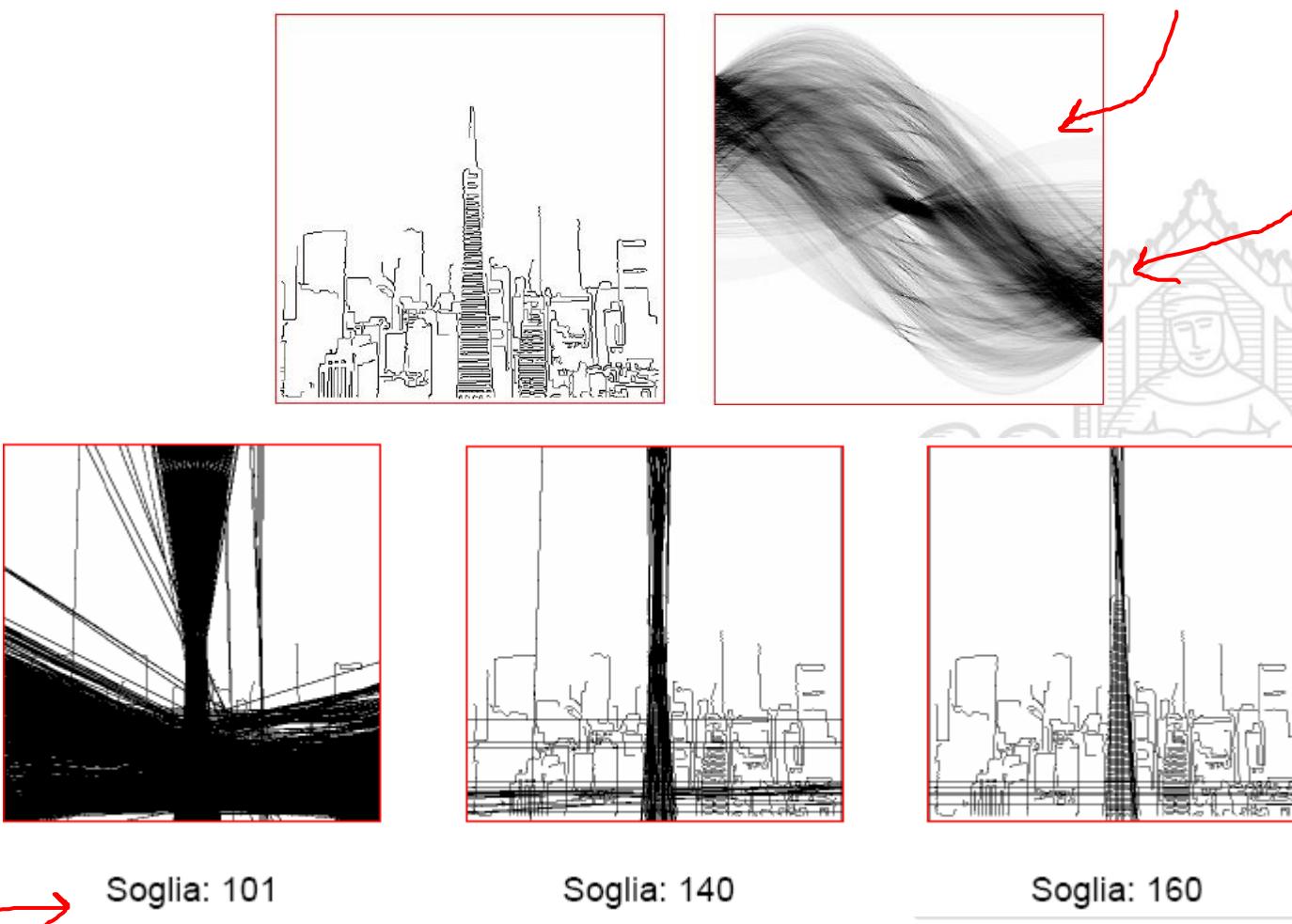
# Example of accumulation matrix



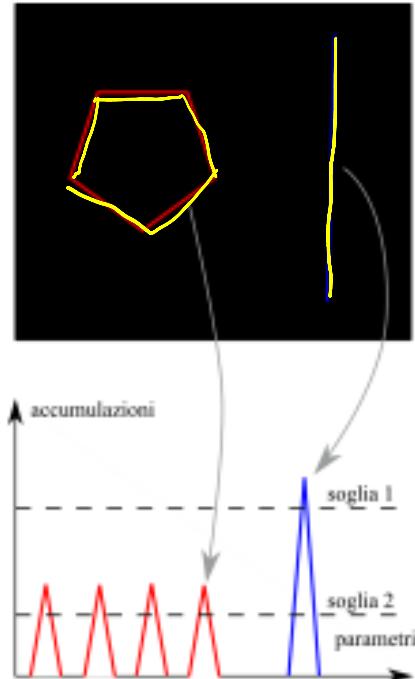
# Example of the Hough's method to a rectangle



# The problem of selecting the ‘right’ curves

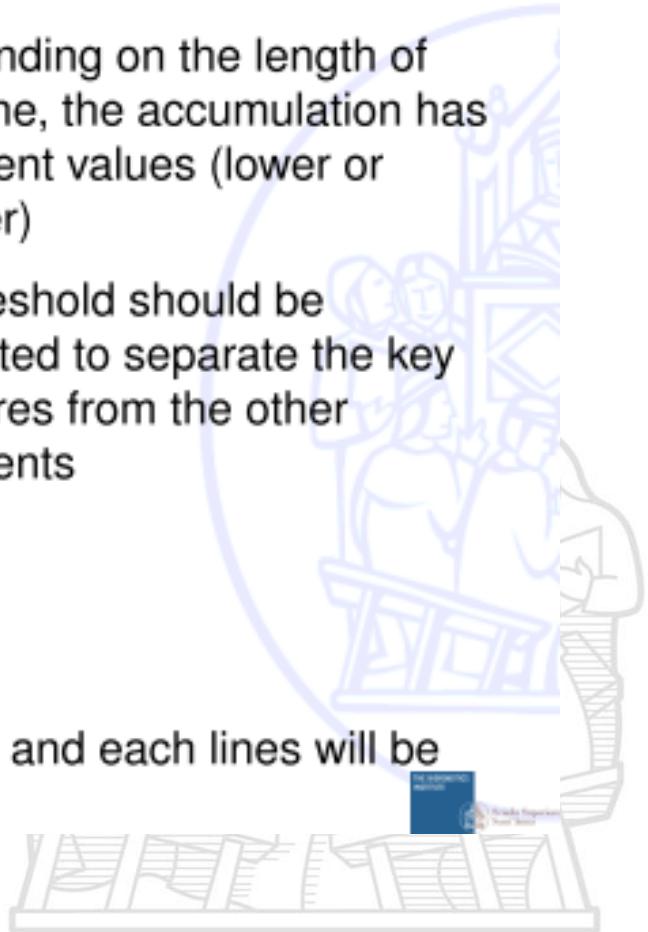


# Square and lines

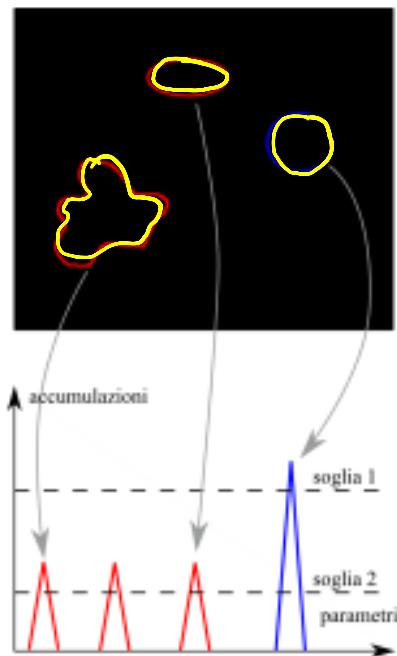


- depending on the length of the line, the accumulation has different values (lower or higher)
- a threshold should be selected to separate the key features from the other elements

In this case, it is possible to lower the threshold and each lines will be detected.



# Ellipsis and circles



- same procedure can be used to detect circles
- in this case is difficult to identify the right threshold

