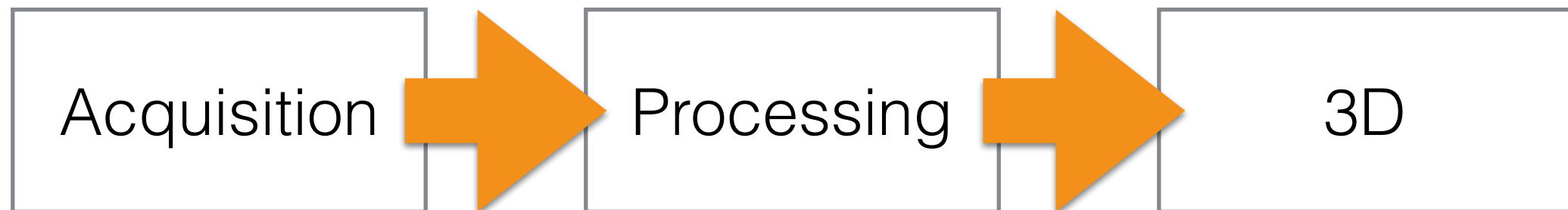


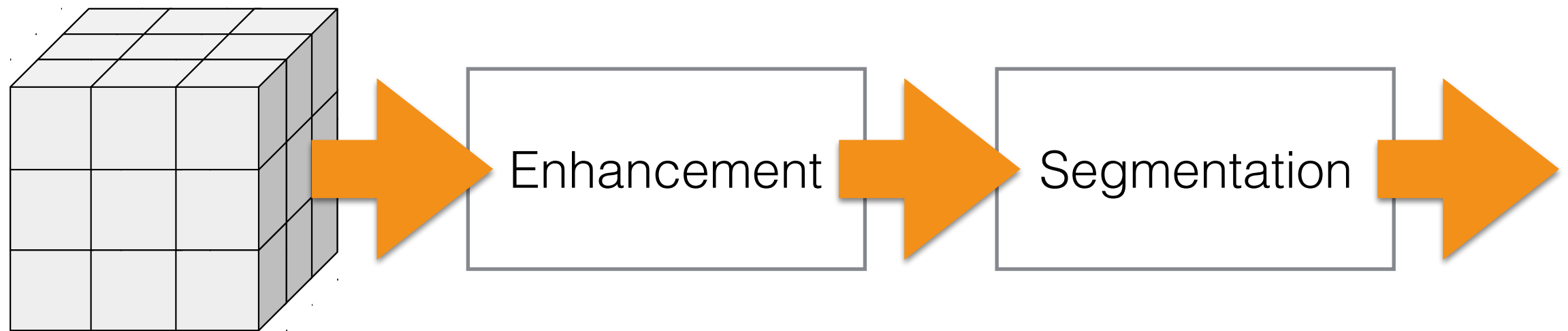
3D from Volume: Part I

Dr. Francesco Banterle,
francesco.banterle@isti.cnr.it
banterle.com/francesco

The Main Pipeline

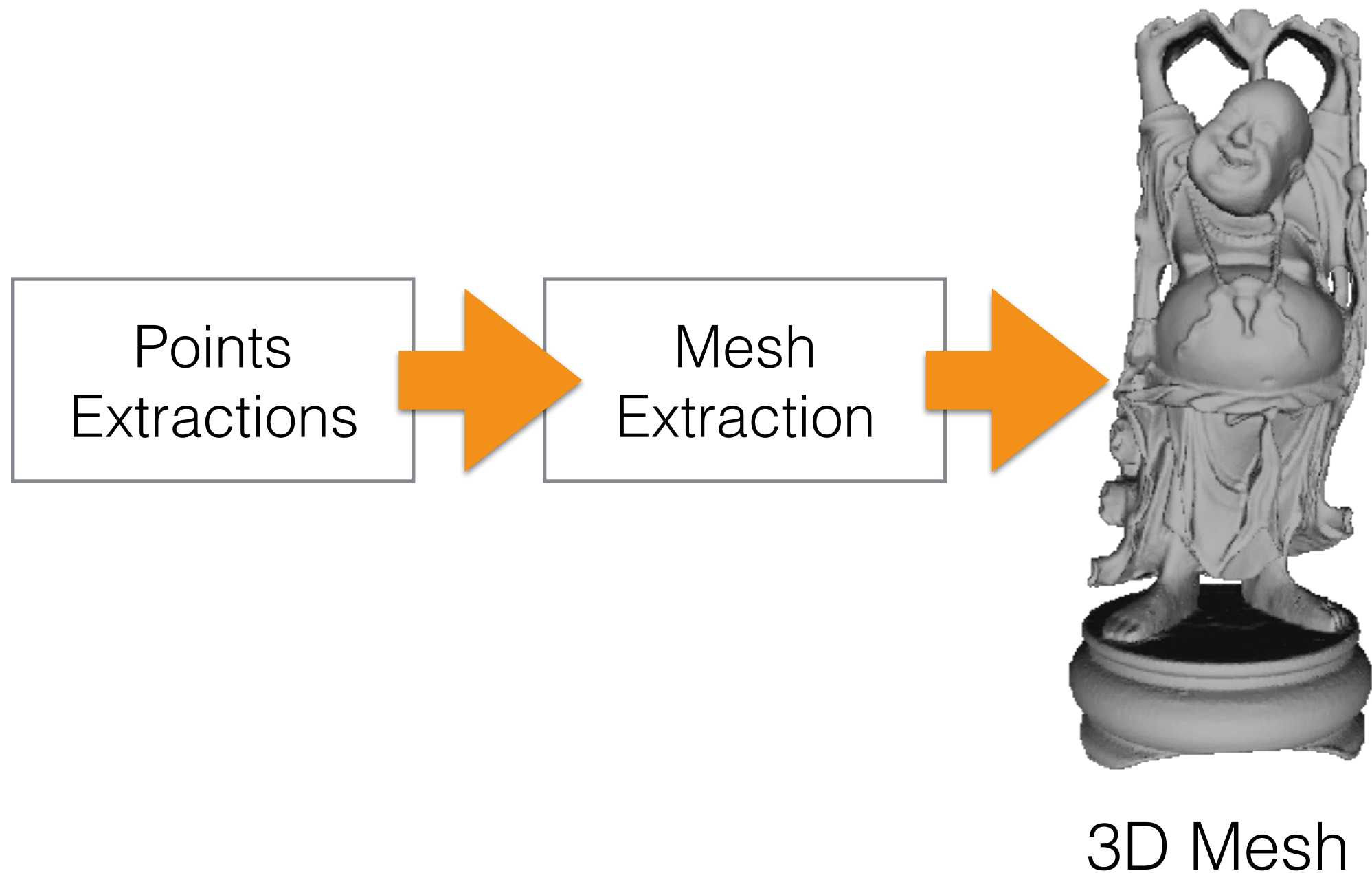


The Processing Pipeline

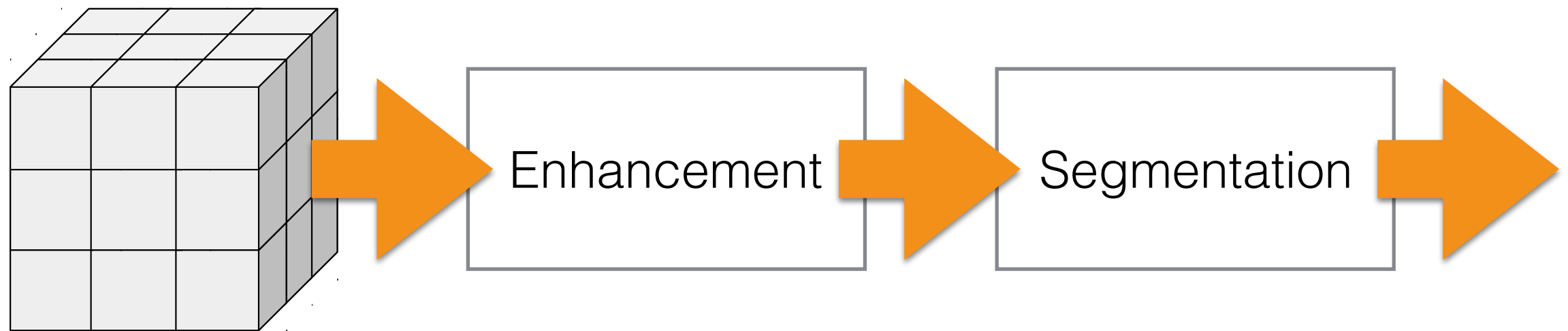


RAW Volume

The Processing Pipeline



The Processing Pipeline



RAW Volume

Image Enhancement

- **Step 1:** we have to improve the dynamic range of the input images in the volume; i.e., increase/decrease it.
- **Step 2:** we have to filter the image in order to elicit some features and/or to remove noise (salt-and-pepper, Gaussian noise, etc).

2D Images

2D Images

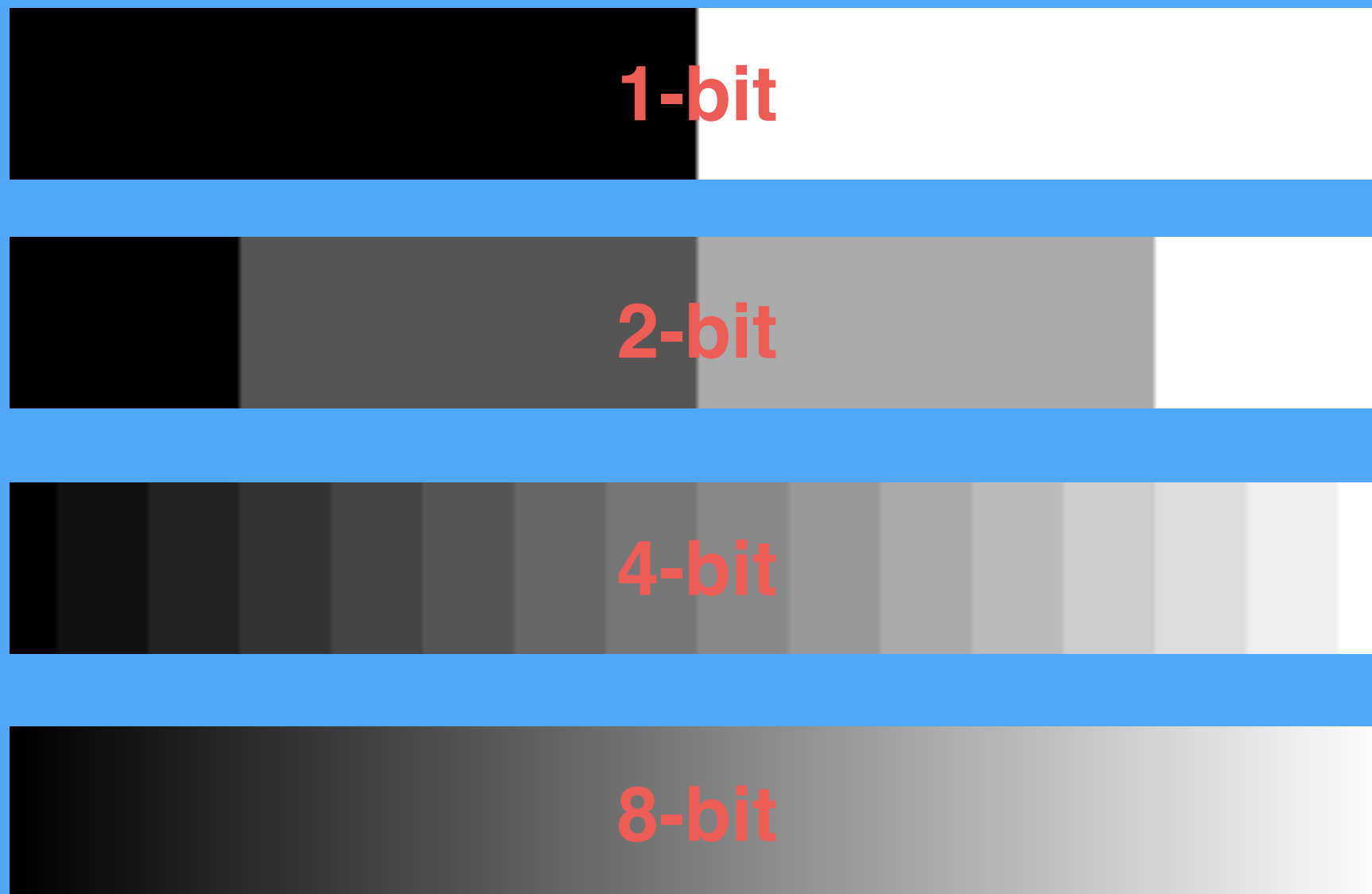


Each square is called a pixel

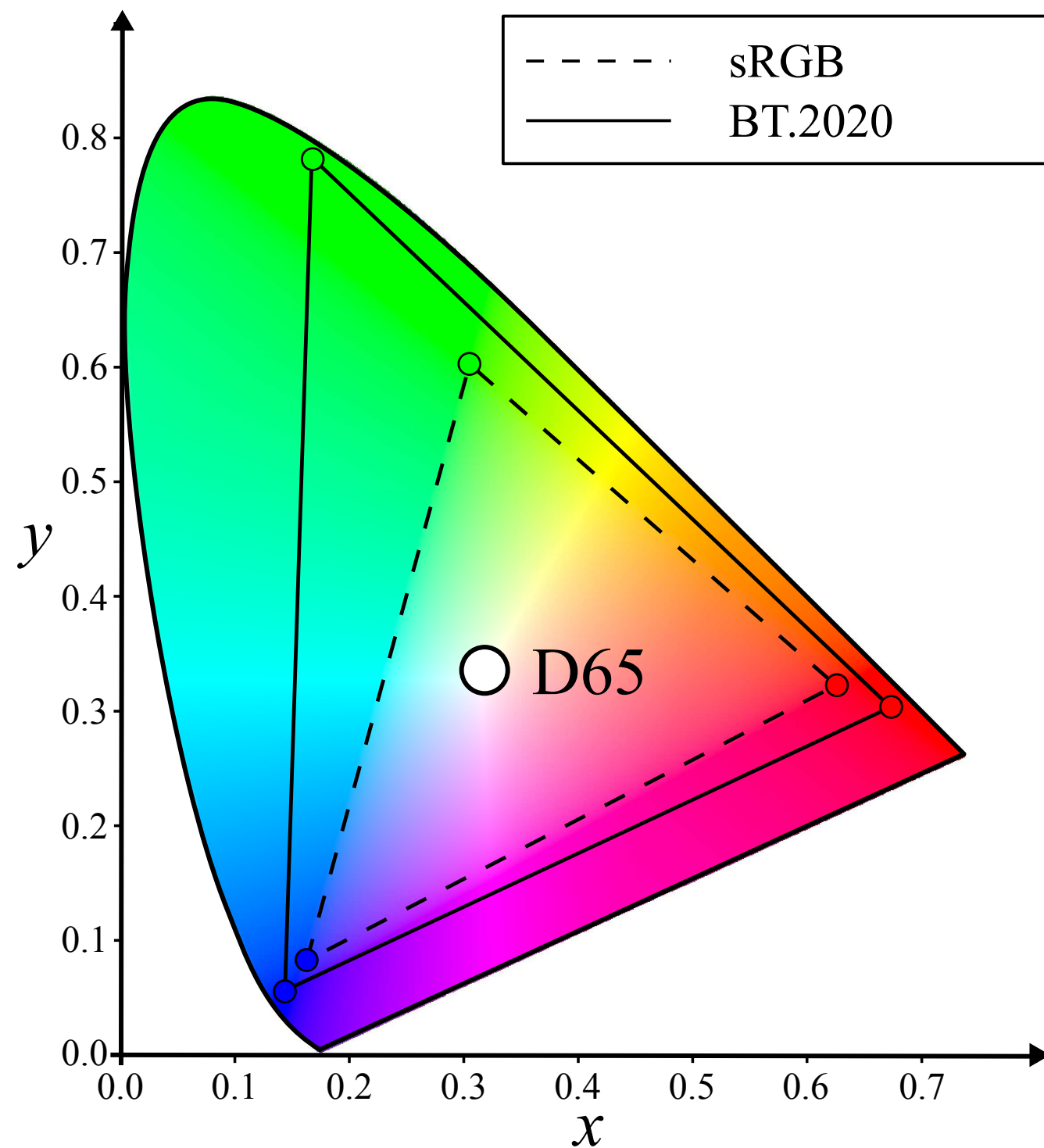
2D Images

- Each pixel is a square:
 - **Position**: (x, y)
 - **Size**: height and width \longrightarrow the same for all pixels
 - **An attribute**: color (RGB) or ***intensity***:
 - Each intensity value is typically normalized in $[0, 1]$ \longrightarrow integer values a different bit depth: 8-bit, 10-bit, 12-bit, 14-bit, and 16-bit.

2D Images: Bit-Depth



2D Images: Colors



2D Images

- A 2D image is a graph:



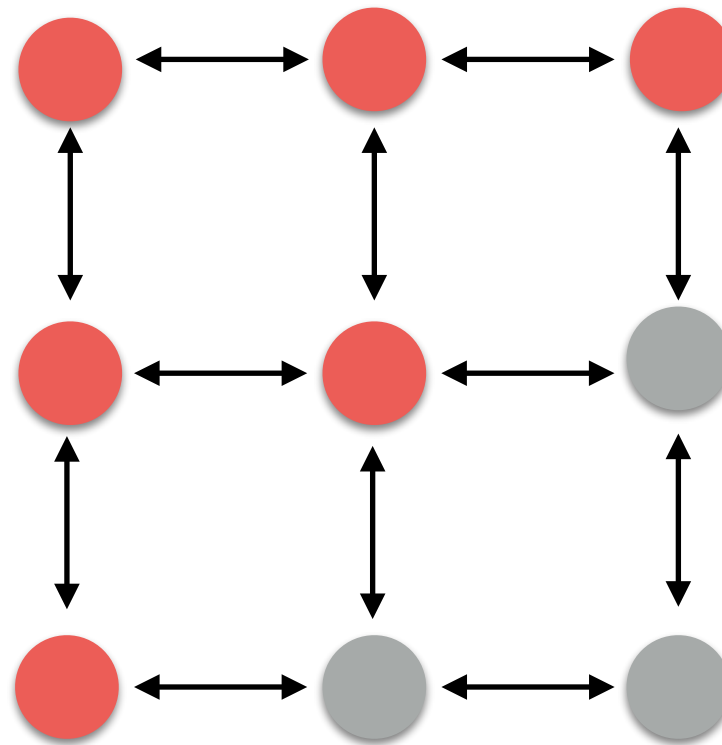
2D Image, 3x3 pixels

2D Images

- A 2D image is a graph:



2D Image, 3x3 pixels



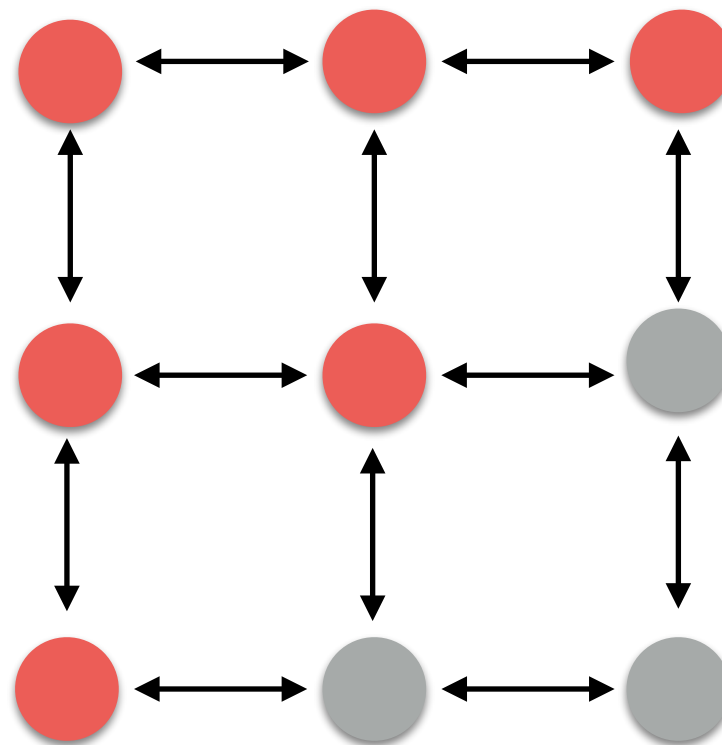
4-connected pixel
adjacency graph

2D Images

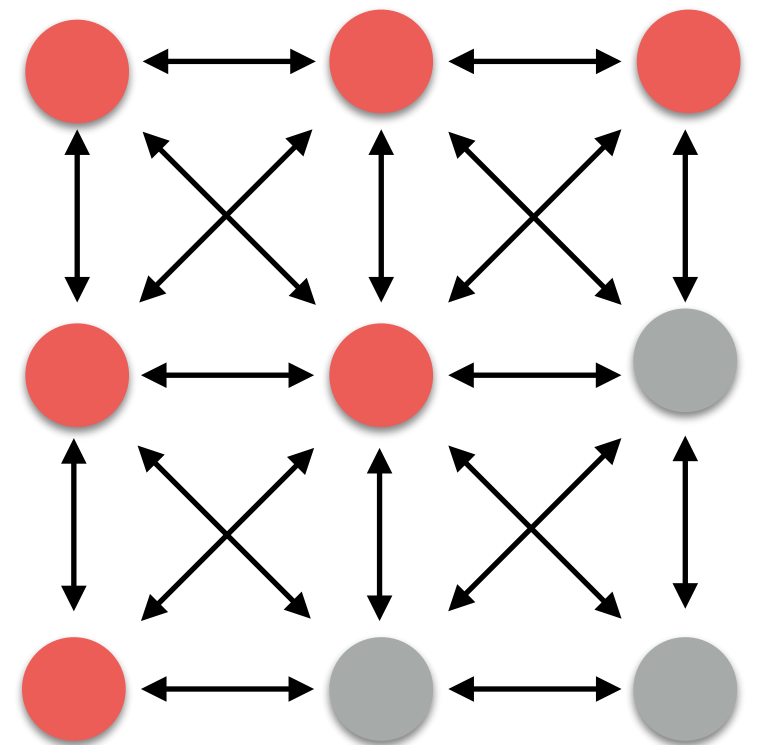
- A 2D image is a graph:



2D Image, 3x3 pixels



4-connected pixel
adjacency graph



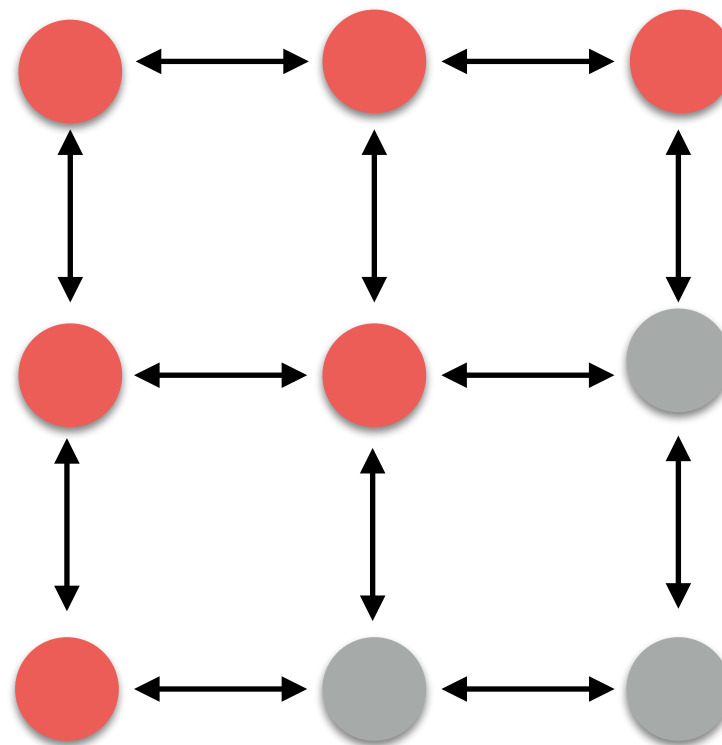
8-connected pixel
adjacency graph

2D Images

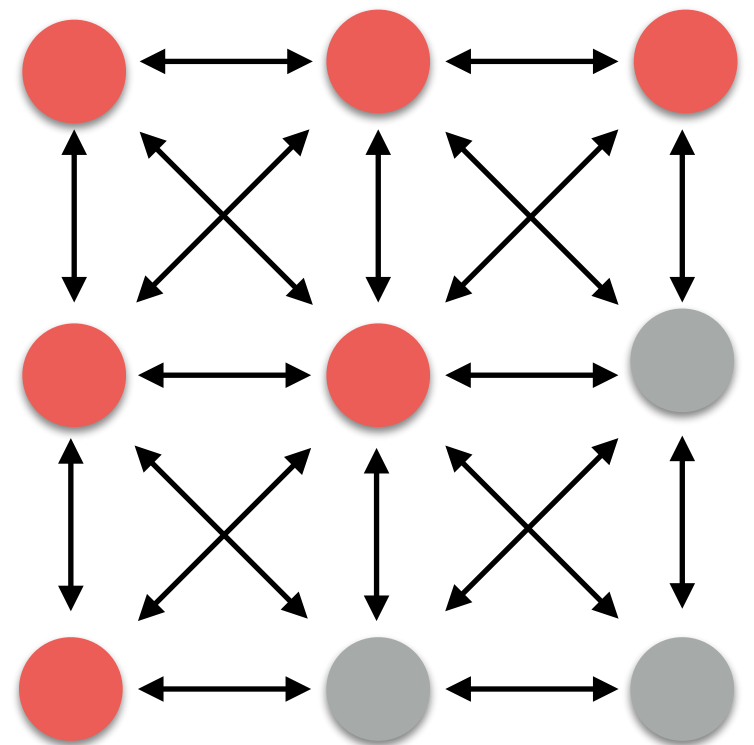
- A 2D image is a graph:



2D Image, 3x3 pixels



4-connected pixel
adjacency graph



8-connected pixel
adjacency graph

A Graph

- A graph is a pair $G = (V, E)$, where:
 - V is a set of vertices. Each element of V is called a **vertex** of G .
 - E is a pairs of elements in V ; e.g, $(V_1; V_2)$, etc. Each element of E is called an **edge** of G .

Image Coordinate System

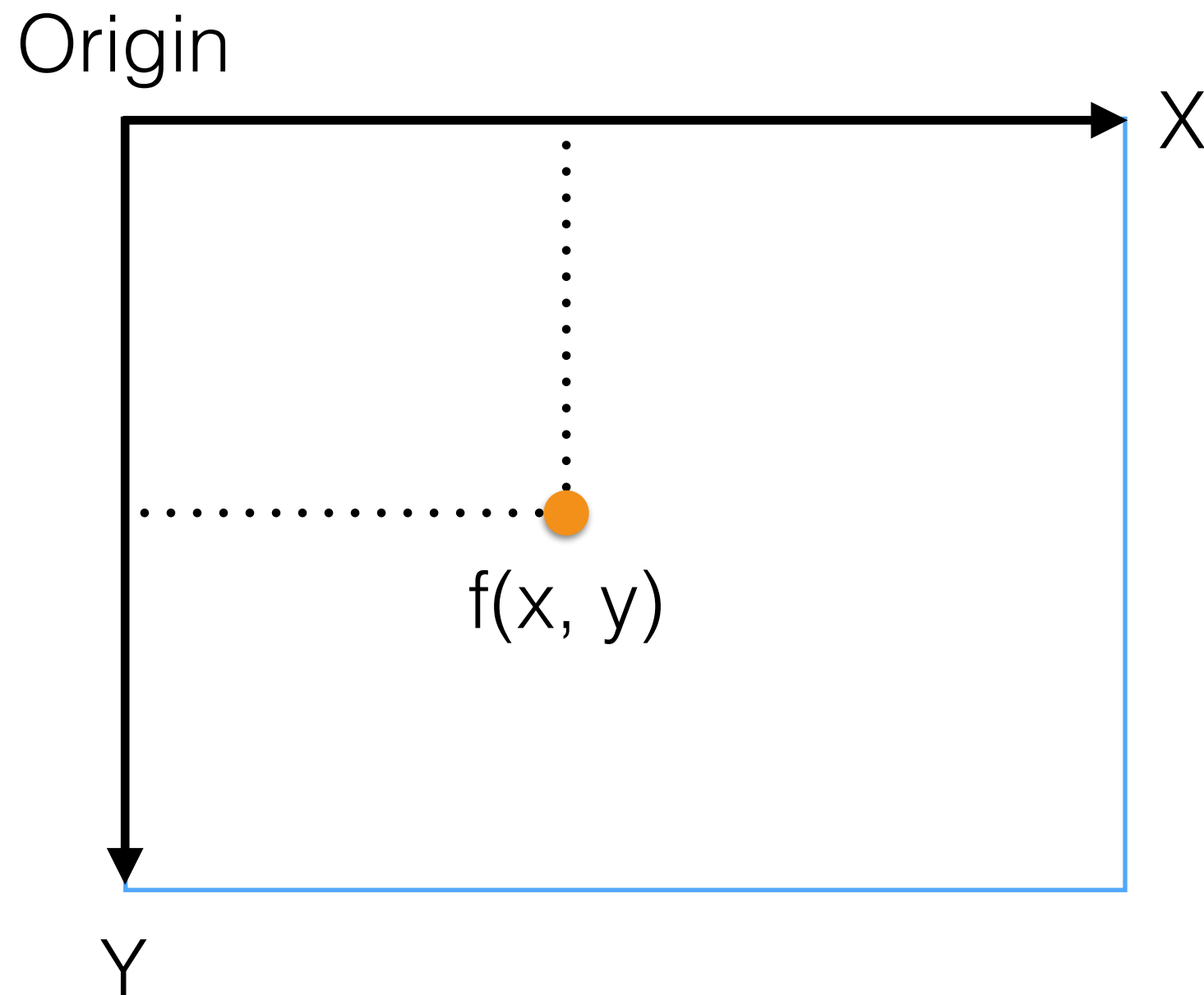


Image Coordinate System: MATLAB

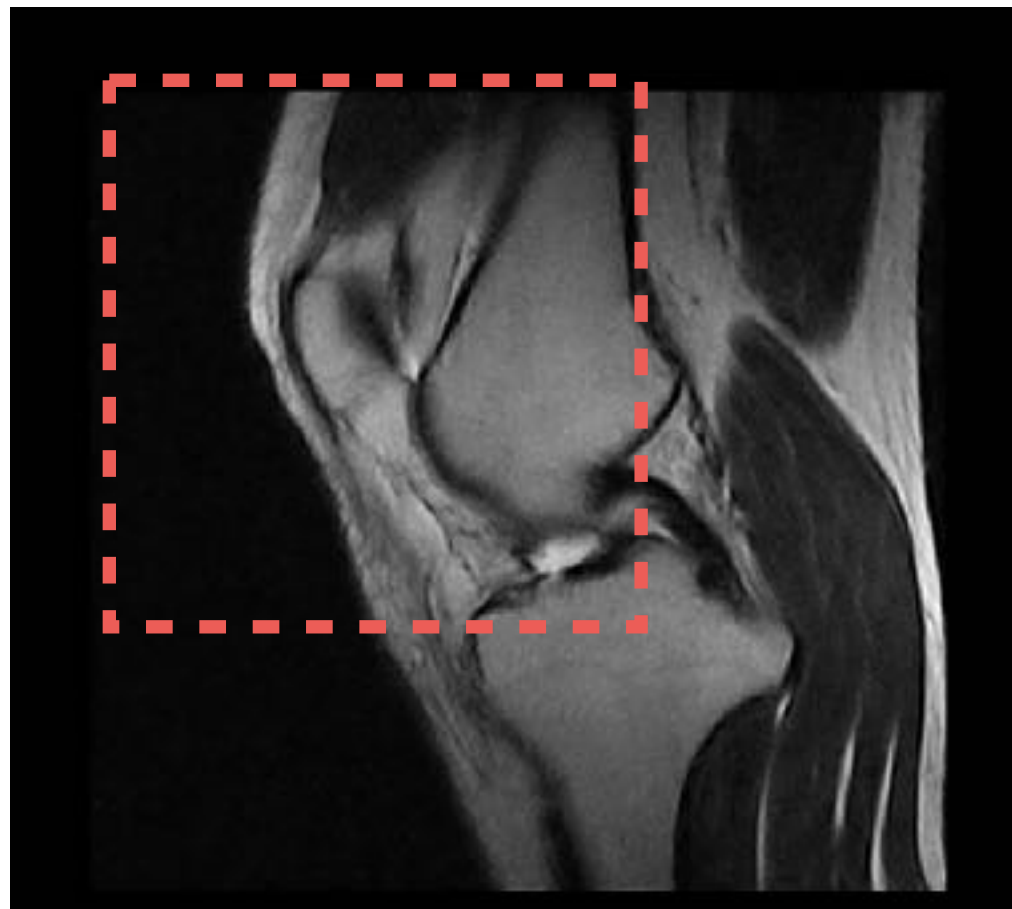
- MATLAB origin $\rightarrow (1,1)$
- Given an image, **img**, as m-n matrix to access:

$$f = \text{img}(y, x)$$

- where m is the height of the image, and n is the width of it

Region Of Interest (ROI)

- We may be interested to process not the full image/volume but an area/volume.
- This area is typically called region of interest (ROI).



Region Of Interest (ROI)

- A ROI can be defined as:
 - **Parametric region**: rectangles, circles, polygons, etc.
 - **Mask**: a binary image where:
 - 0 \longrightarrow no interest area
 - 1 \longrightarrow interest area

Medical Images

Medical Images

- Main sources:
 - CAT
 - MRI
 - Ultrasound

Noise in Medical Imaging

- Images are not perfect: device, patient moves, etc.
- What we really see is:

$$f(x, y) \approx f'(x, y)$$

$$f(x, y) = [(f' + n_T) \otimes h](x, y) \cdot g(x, y) + n(x, y)$$

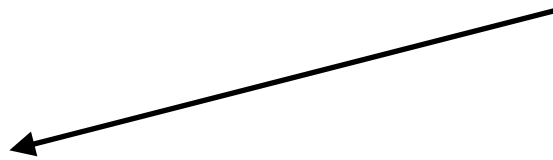
Noise in Medical Imaging

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Other tissues

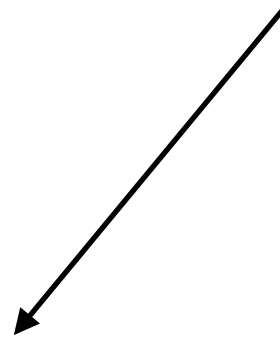


Noise in Medical Imaging

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Discrete spatial-temporal process

Noise in Medical Imaging

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- What we really see is:

$$f(x, y) \approx f'(x, y)$$

$$f(x, y) = [(f' + n_T) \otimes h](x, y) \cdot g(x, y) + n(x, y)$$



Signal Damping

Noise in Medical Imaging

- Images are not perfect: device, patient moves, etc.
- What we really see is:

$$f(x, y) \approx f'(x, y)$$

$$f(x, y) = [(f' + n_T) \otimes h](x, y) \cdot g(x, y) + n(x, y)$$



Device Noise

Noise Measure: SNR

- Given a ROI i , a definition of SNR is:

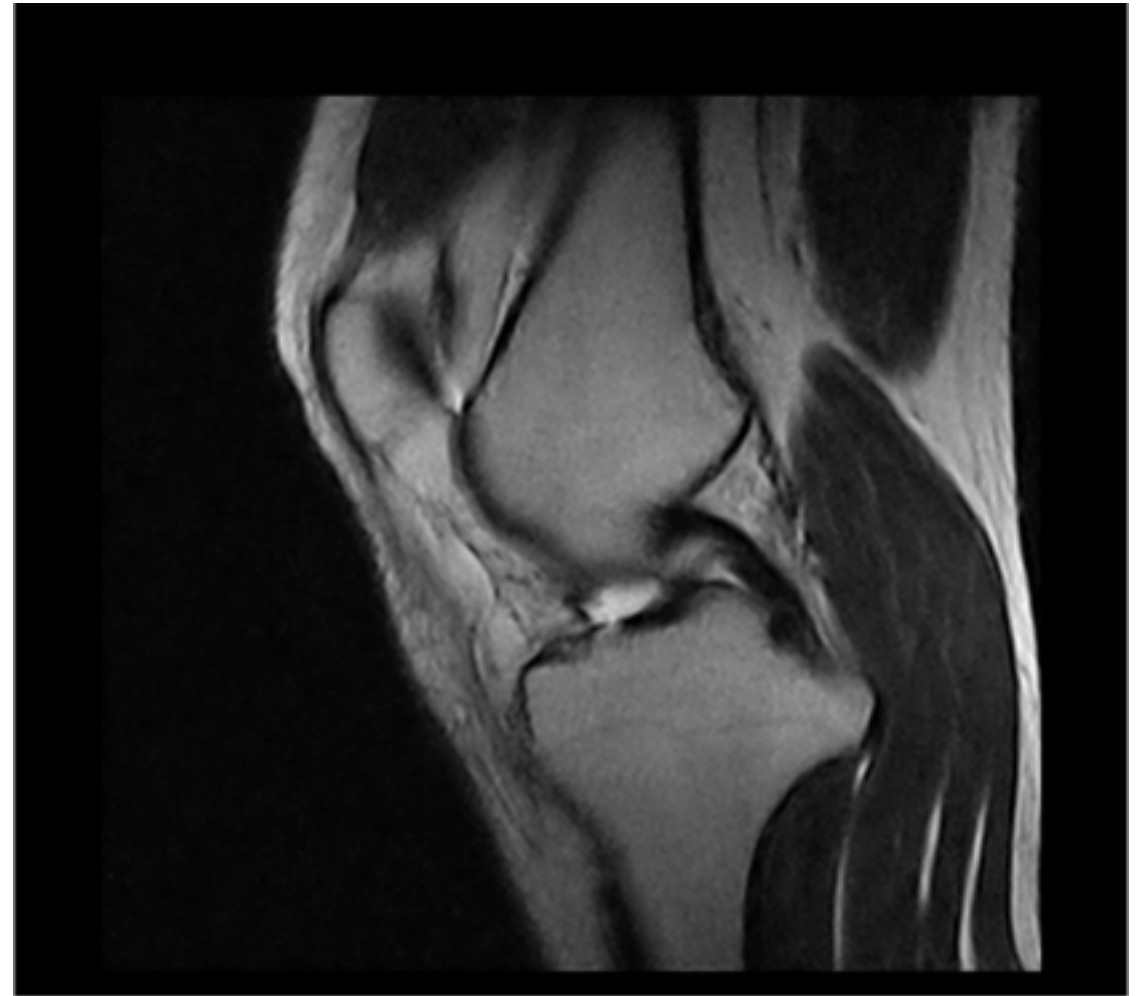
$$\text{SNR} = \frac{\mu_i}{\sigma_i}$$

- where μ_i and σ_i are, respectively, the mean of the signal in i and its noise
- To have an estimate of noise, we compute σ_i in the background of the image (i.e., low intensity values) assuming that noise does not vary in different ROIs

Noise Measure: Example



$\text{SNR} = 3.43$



$\text{SNR} = 29.26$

Medical File Format

DICOM

- **D**igital **I**maging and **CO**mmunications in **M**edicine:
- It is a standard for producing, storing, displaying, printing, and sending, retrieving, and querying medical images
- **Data**: 2D images (may be compressed using JPG/JPG2000)
- **Metadata**: bit-depth, pixel's size (mm), thickness between slices (mm), patient's personal information, date of the exam, position of the patient, etc.
- **Issue**: many extra fields, which are filled without consistency amongst different software/scanners

DICOM

- File extension: name_file.dcm
- The media format does not allow files to have and extension; the folders structure gives meaning to the file!
- Standard official web-site: <http://DICOM.nema.org>
- MATLAB and Slicer can open them natively.

Point-wise Operators

Point-wise Operators

- An operator takes as input one or two images, and the result is another image.

- Unary operator T_1 :

$$g(x, y) = T_1 \left[f(x, y) \right]$$

- Binary operator T_2 :

$$g(x, y) = T_2 \left[f(x, y); h(x, y) \right]$$

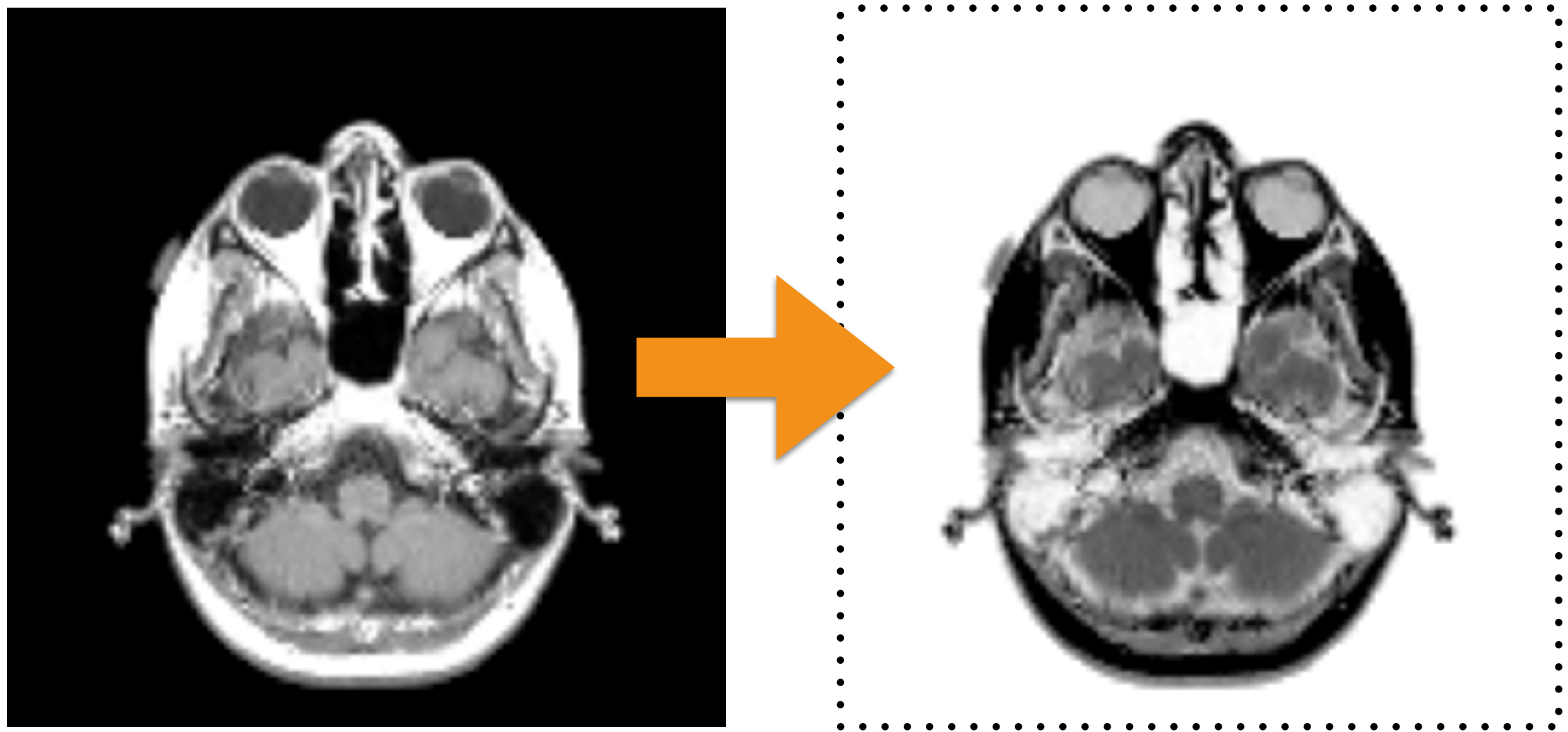
Unary Operators: Negative

- Negative or inverter:

$$g(x, y) = \text{Neg}[f(x, y)] = 1.0 - f(x, y)$$

- It is usually helpful to highlight some structures.
- Note: this operator assumes images' values are in the range $[0, 1]$.

Negative: Example



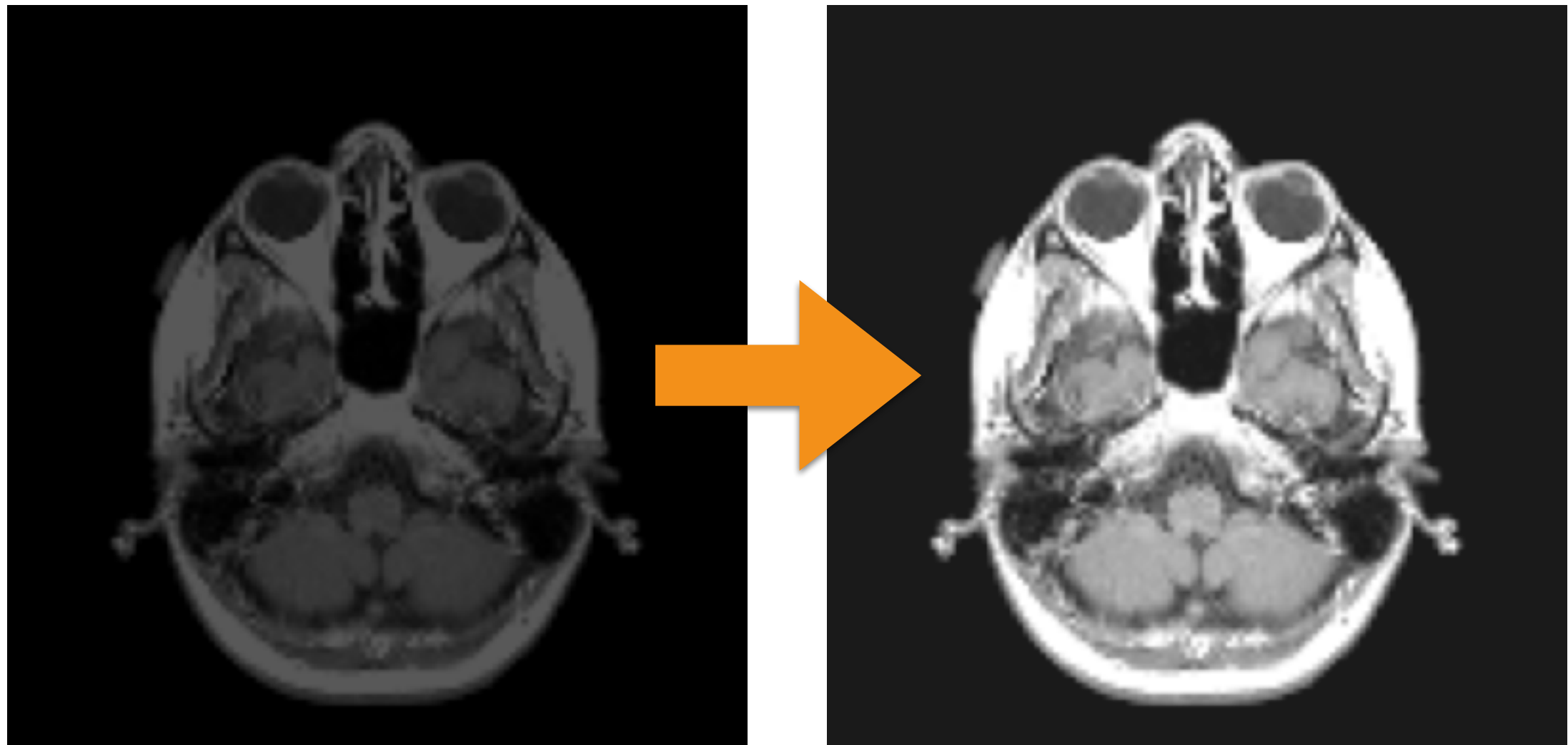
Unary Operators: Contrast Stretching

- This operator increases the dynamic range of the input image linearly:

$$\begin{aligned} g(x, y) &= \text{CS}[f(x, y); E_{\min}; E_{\max}] = \\ &= (f(x, y) - \min(f)) \frac{E_{\max} - E_{\min}}{\max(f) - \min(f)} + E_{\min} \end{aligned}$$

- It is useful when the contrast is low.

Contrast Stretching Example



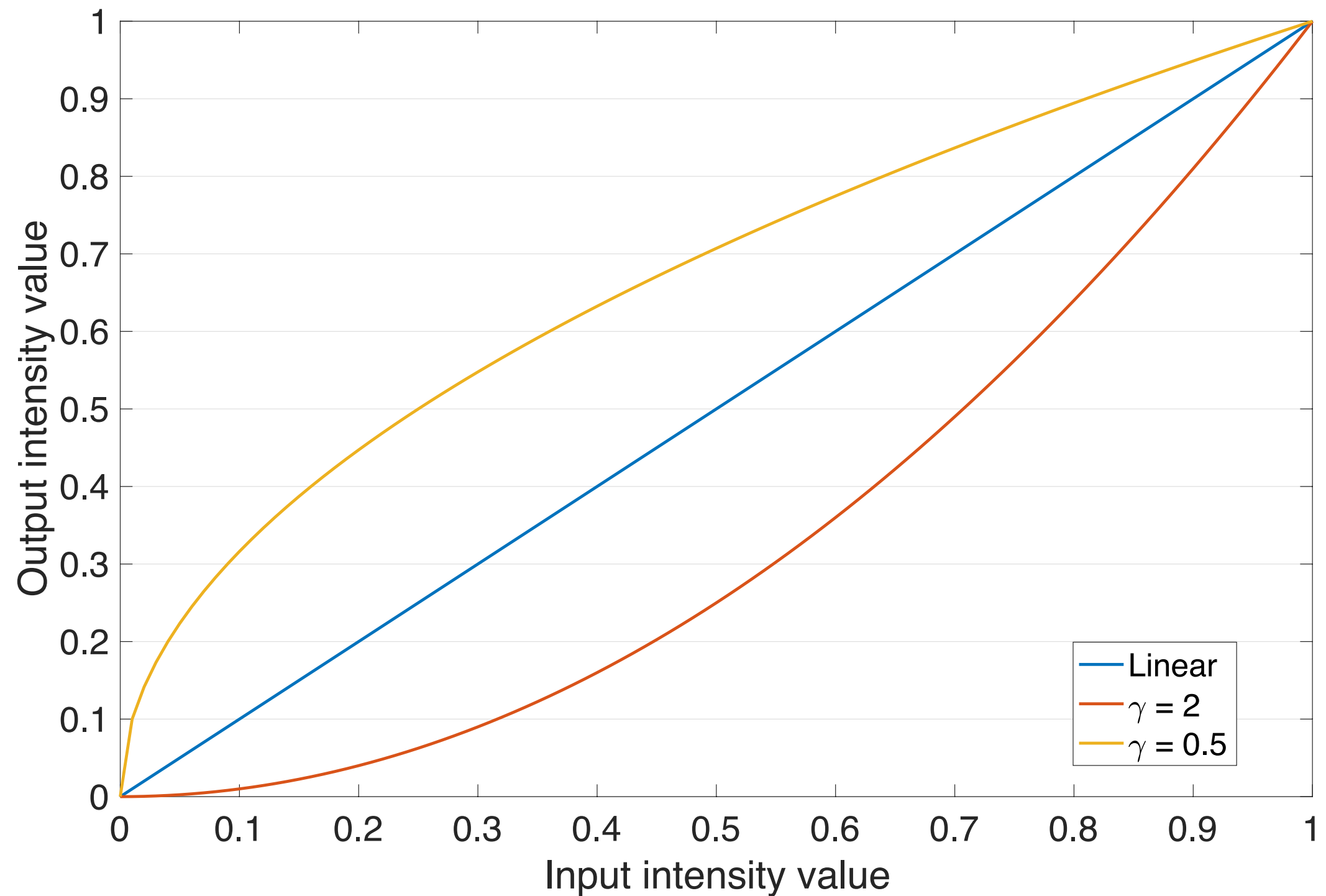
Unary Operators: Gamma

- Another method for increasing the dynamic range:

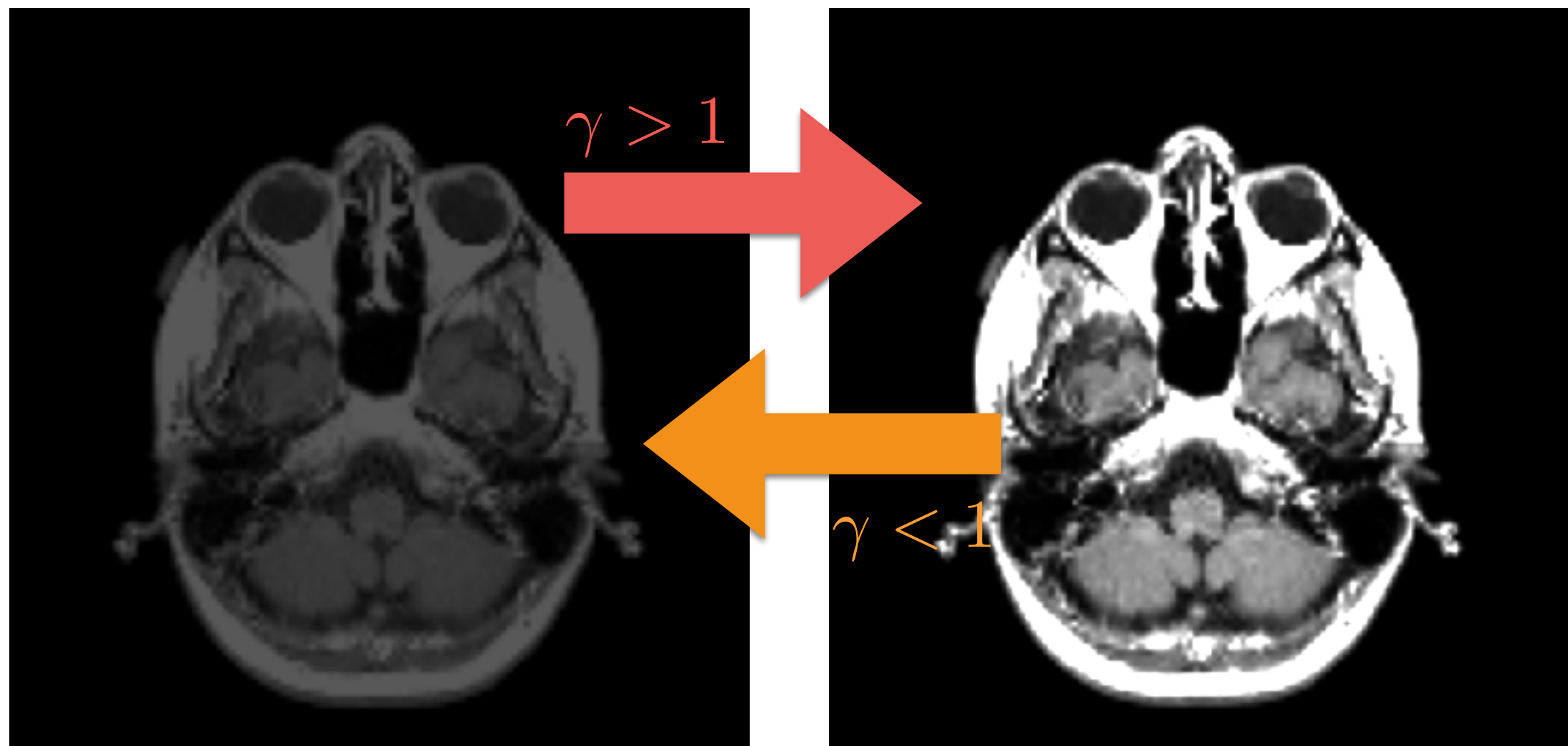
$$\begin{aligned} g(x, y) &= G[f(x, y); k; \gamma] = \\ &= k \cdot f(x, y)^\gamma \end{aligned}$$

- It is more intuitive.

Unary Operators: Gamma



Gamma Example

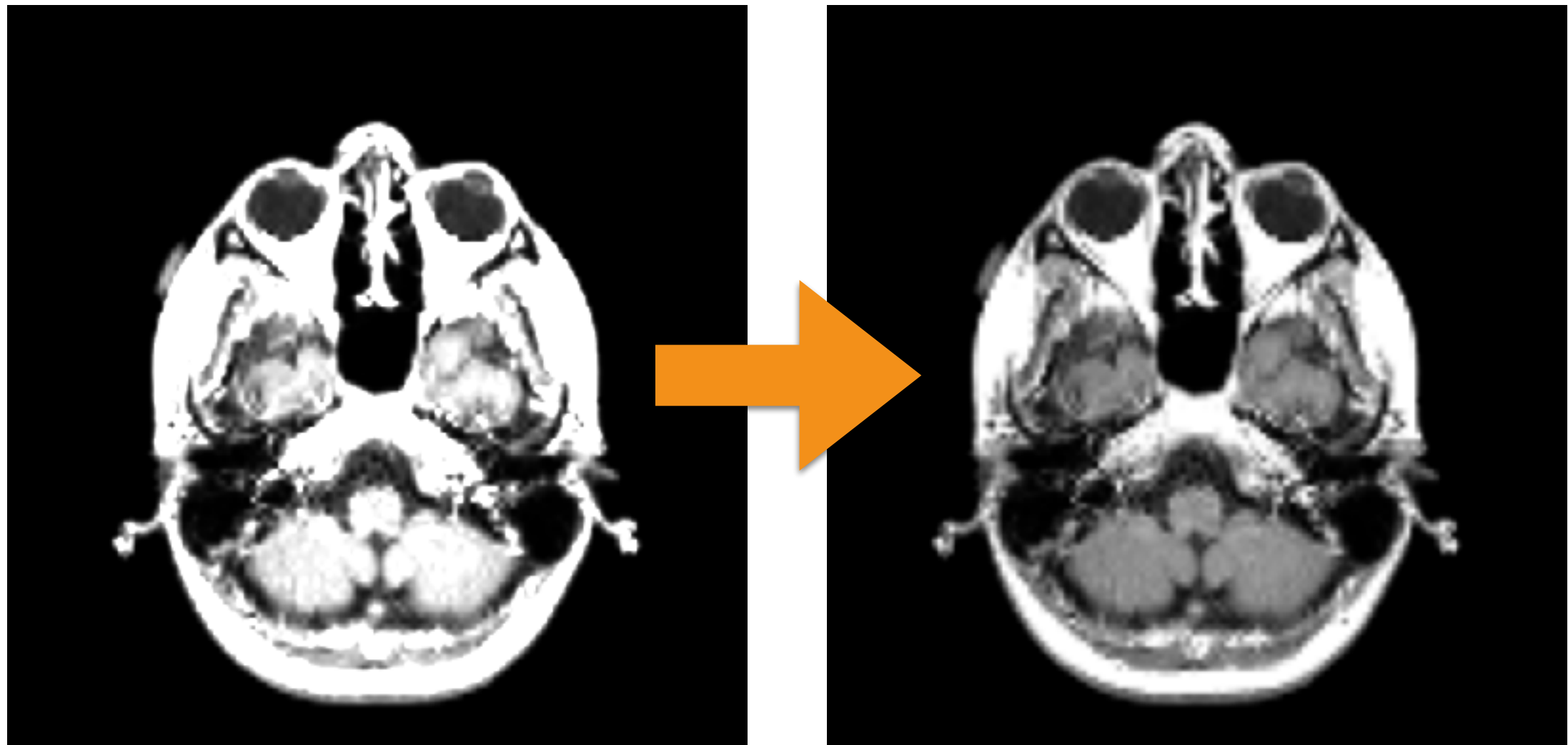


Unary Operators: Logarithmic Operator

- The dynamic range may be too large, (16-bit), and most monitors handle only 8-bit!
- The operator is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} g(x, y) &= \log[f(x, y); E_{\min}; E_{\max}] = \\ &= (E_{\max} - E_{\min}) \cdot \frac{\log(1 + f(x, y))}{\log(1 + \max(f))} + E_{\min} \end{aligned}$$

Logarithmic Example



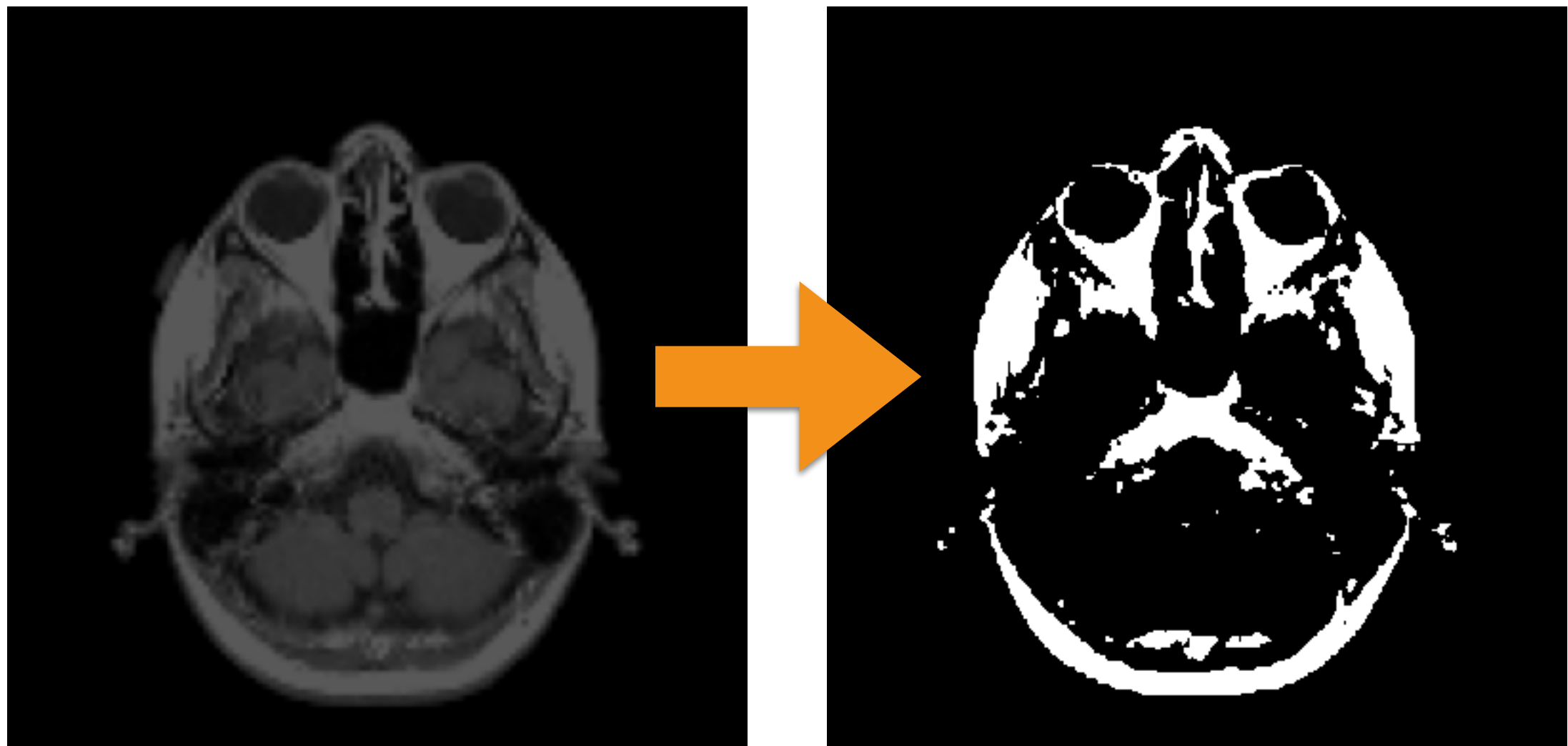
Unary Operators: Thresholding

- This operator creates a mask (0 or 1 values):

$$g(x, y) = \text{Thr}[f(x, y); a; b] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(x, y) \in [a, b], \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- It can be used for segmentation.

Thresholding Example



Binary Operators

- Binary operators are typically the classic arithmetic operators defined over images:
 - $+$, $-$, $*$, $/$
- Note that using $+$, $-$, and $/$, our dynamic range is not anymore in the range $[0,1]$ (it can be negative!):
 - Linear scaling in $[0,1]$
 - Logarithmic operator

Histograms

Image Histogram

- A histogram H is the distribution of intensity values of pixels.
- How do we compute it?
 - We divide the range of values into n bins
 - For each bin we count the number of pixels whose intensity values are in the range of that bin
 - MATLAB: **imhist** built-in function

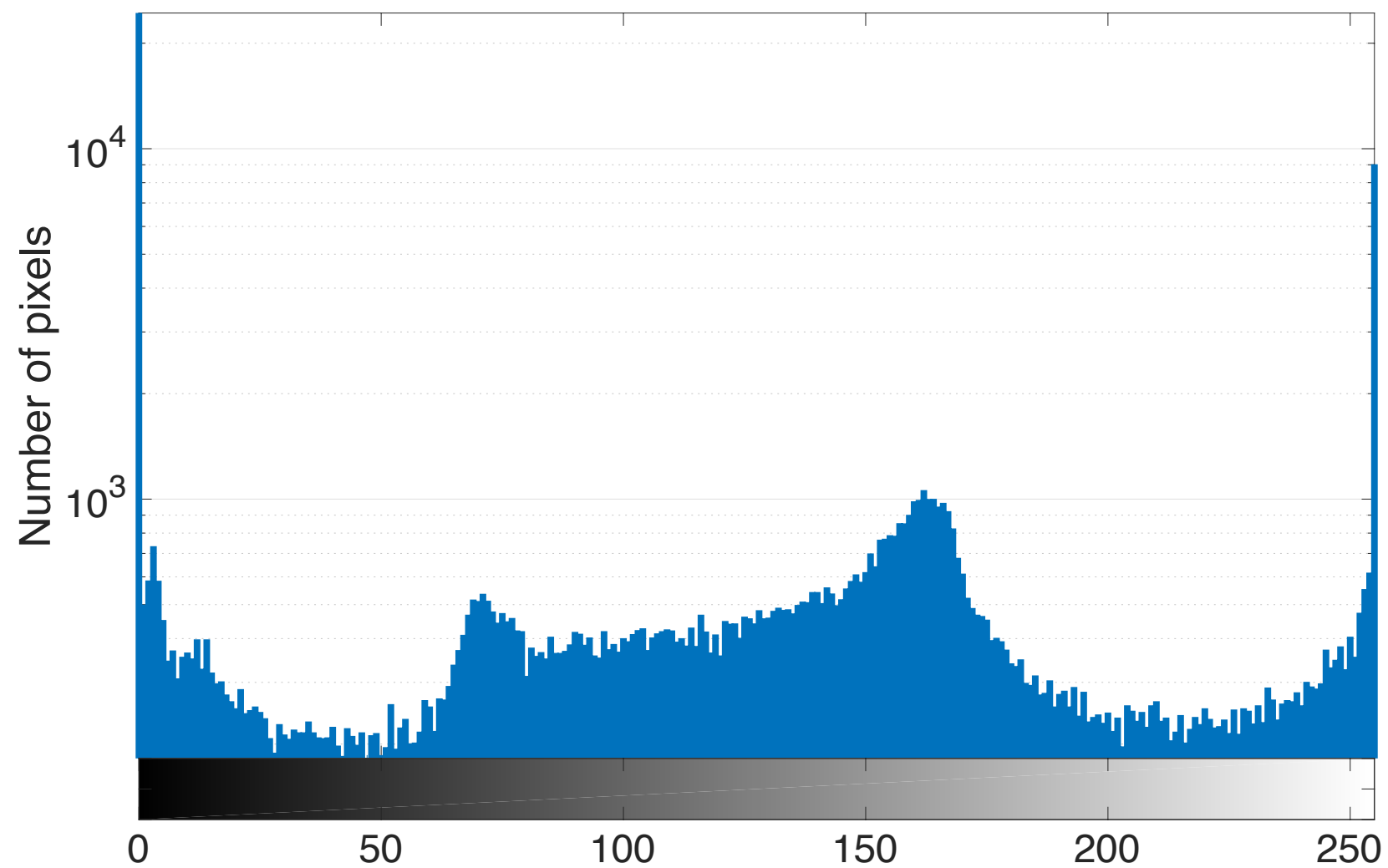
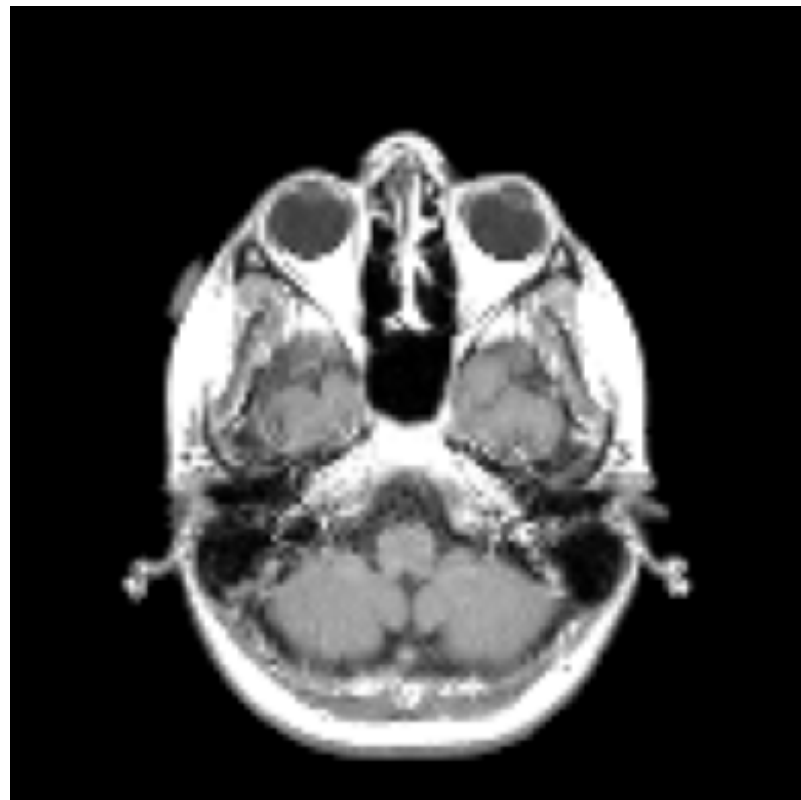
Image Histogram

- This can be seen as the **probability** of a pixel of having a given intensity value:

$$p(I(x, y) \in [H(i - 1), H(i)]) = \frac{H(i)}{N}$$

- where H is the histogram, $H(x, y)$ is a pixel of the image I at coordinate (x, y) , and N is the number of pixels of I .

Example



Histogram Equalization

- A technique to improve automatically the contrast of the image.
- The main idea is to have an histogram in which each intensity value j (or bin) has the **same** (more or less) number of pixels:

$$H(j) = \frac{N}{2^{n_bit}}$$

- where N is the number of pixels of the image, and n_bit is the bit-depth of all pixels.
- **NOTE:** we have a bin for each intensity value!

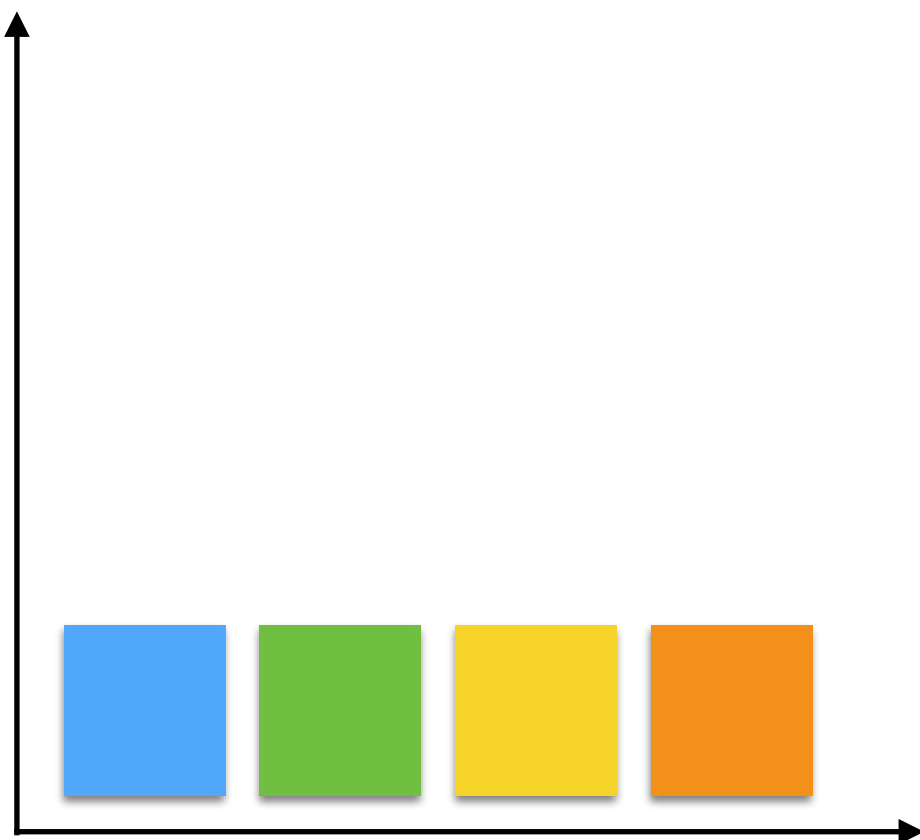
Histogram Equalization

- How?
- Matching the CDF (cumulative distribution function) of the histogram with the CDF of a uniform histogram.
- A uniform CDF is defined as:

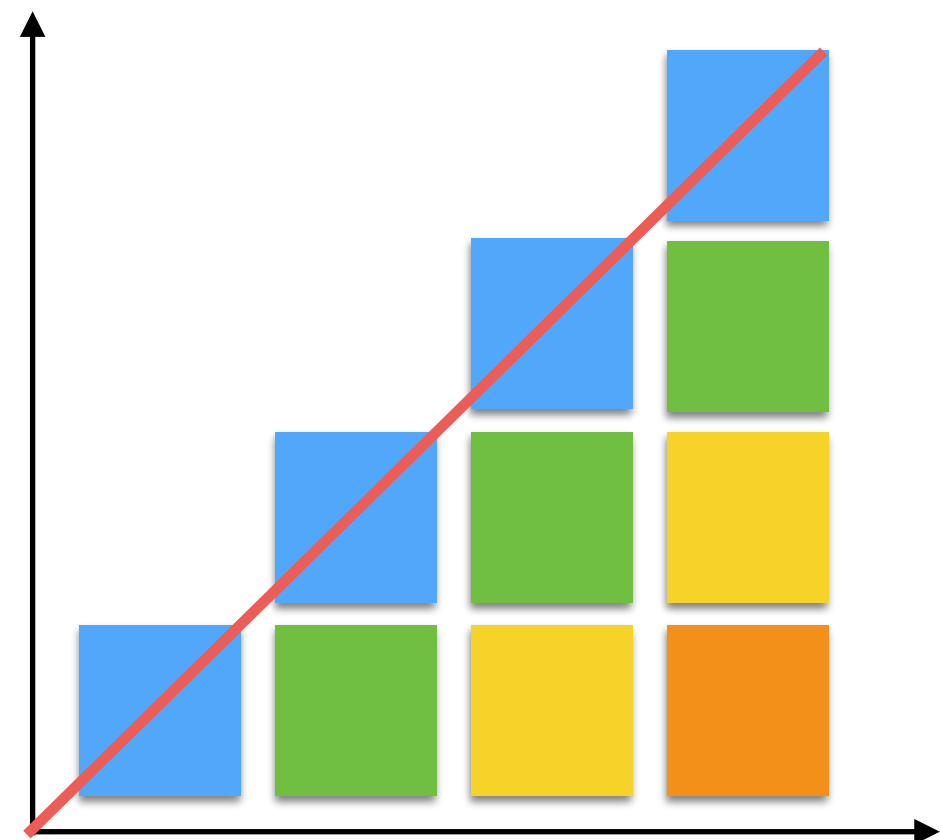
$$F(x) = x$$

- or:
$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x p(x)dx$$

Histogram Equalization



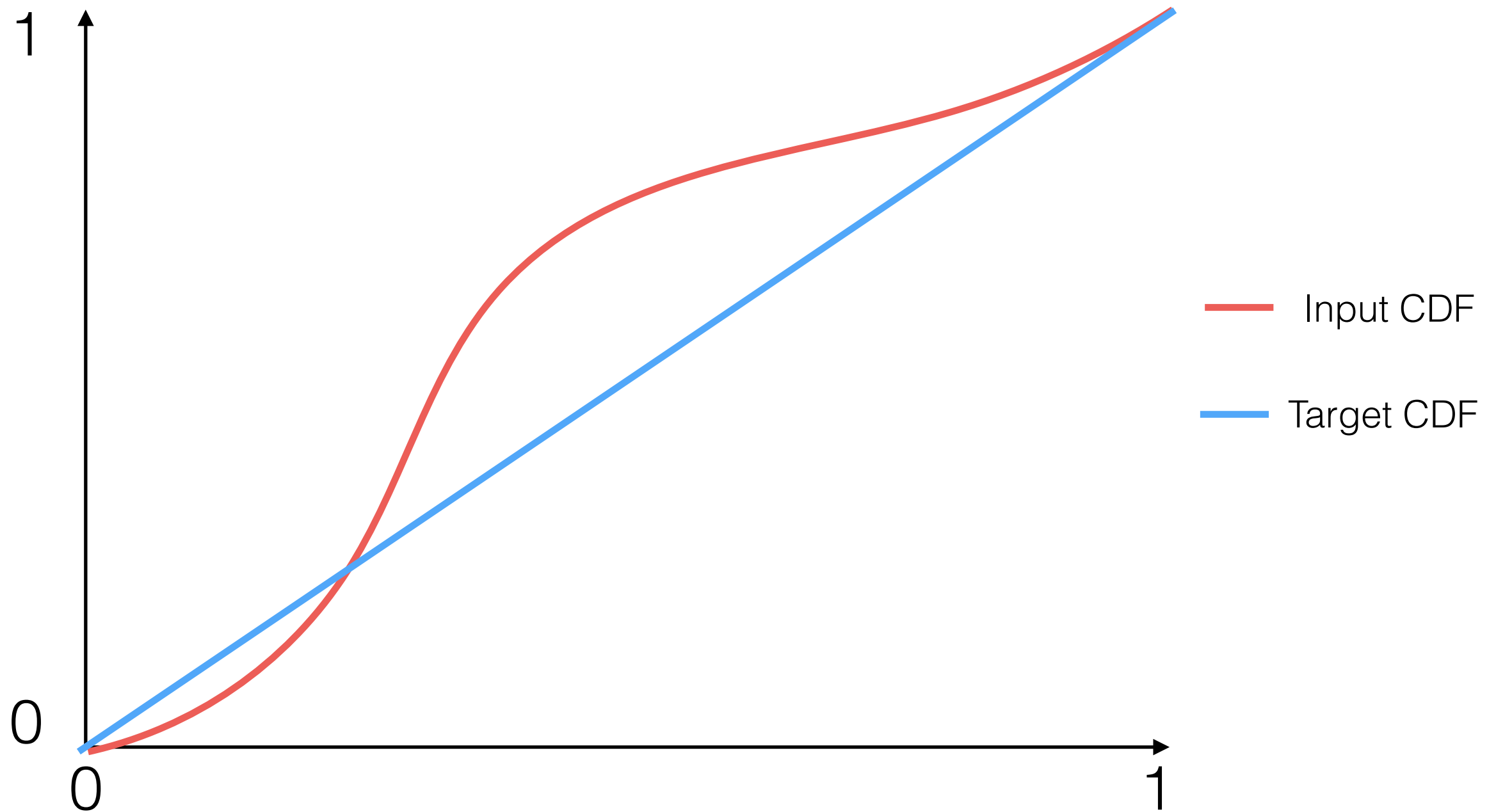
Uniform Histogram



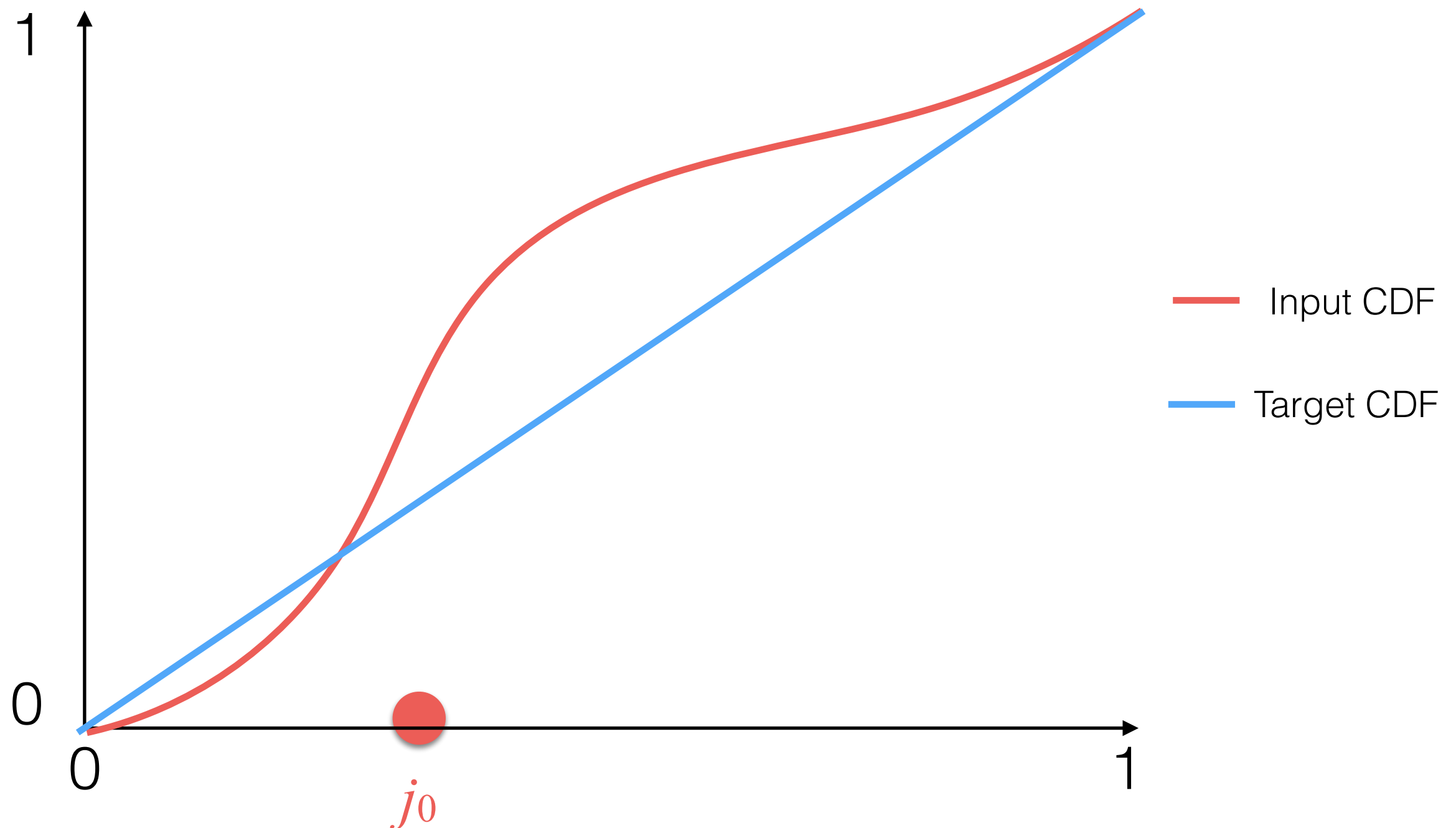
Uniform CDF

— Ideal continuous CDF

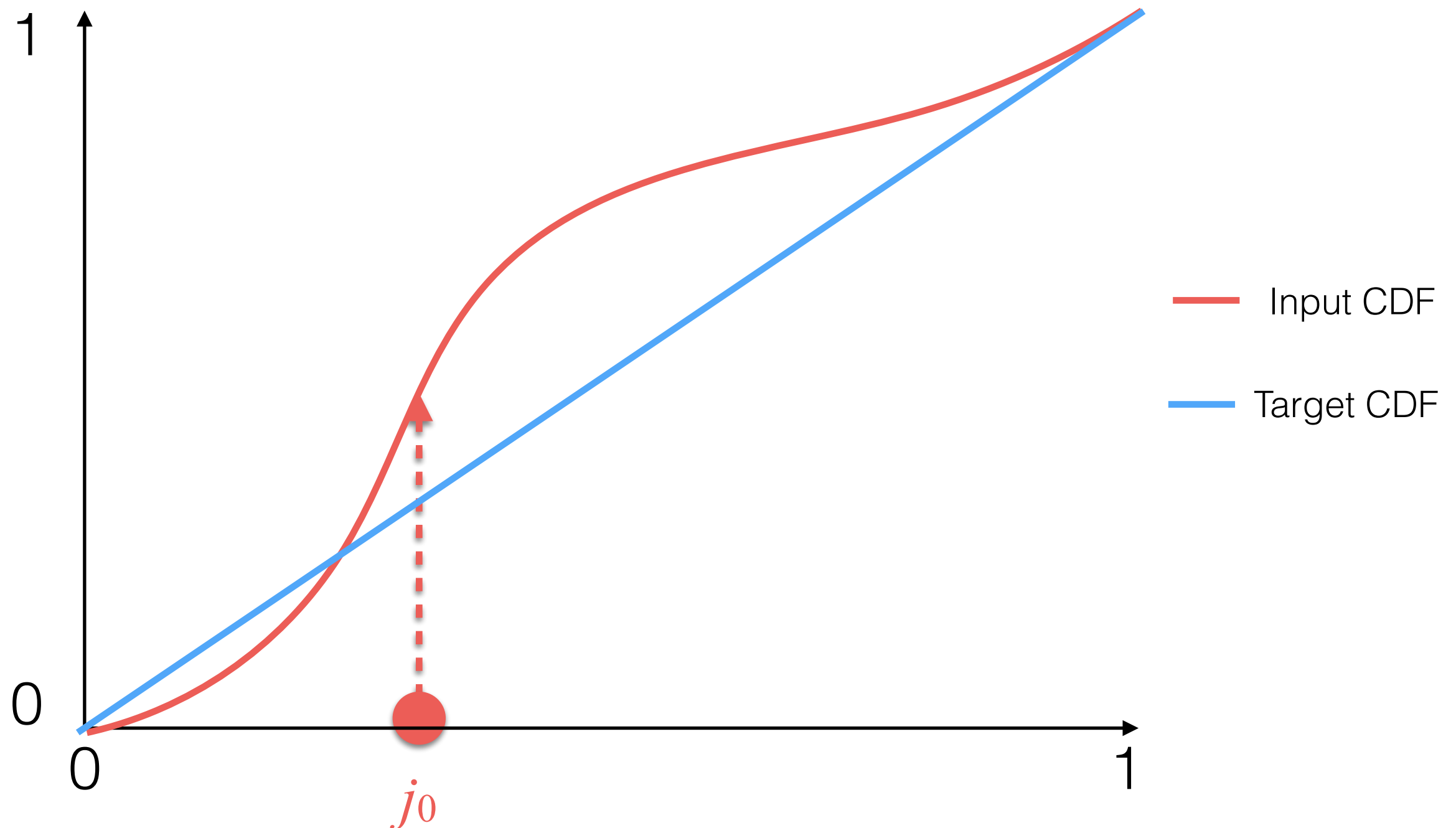
Histogram Equalization: Histogram Matching



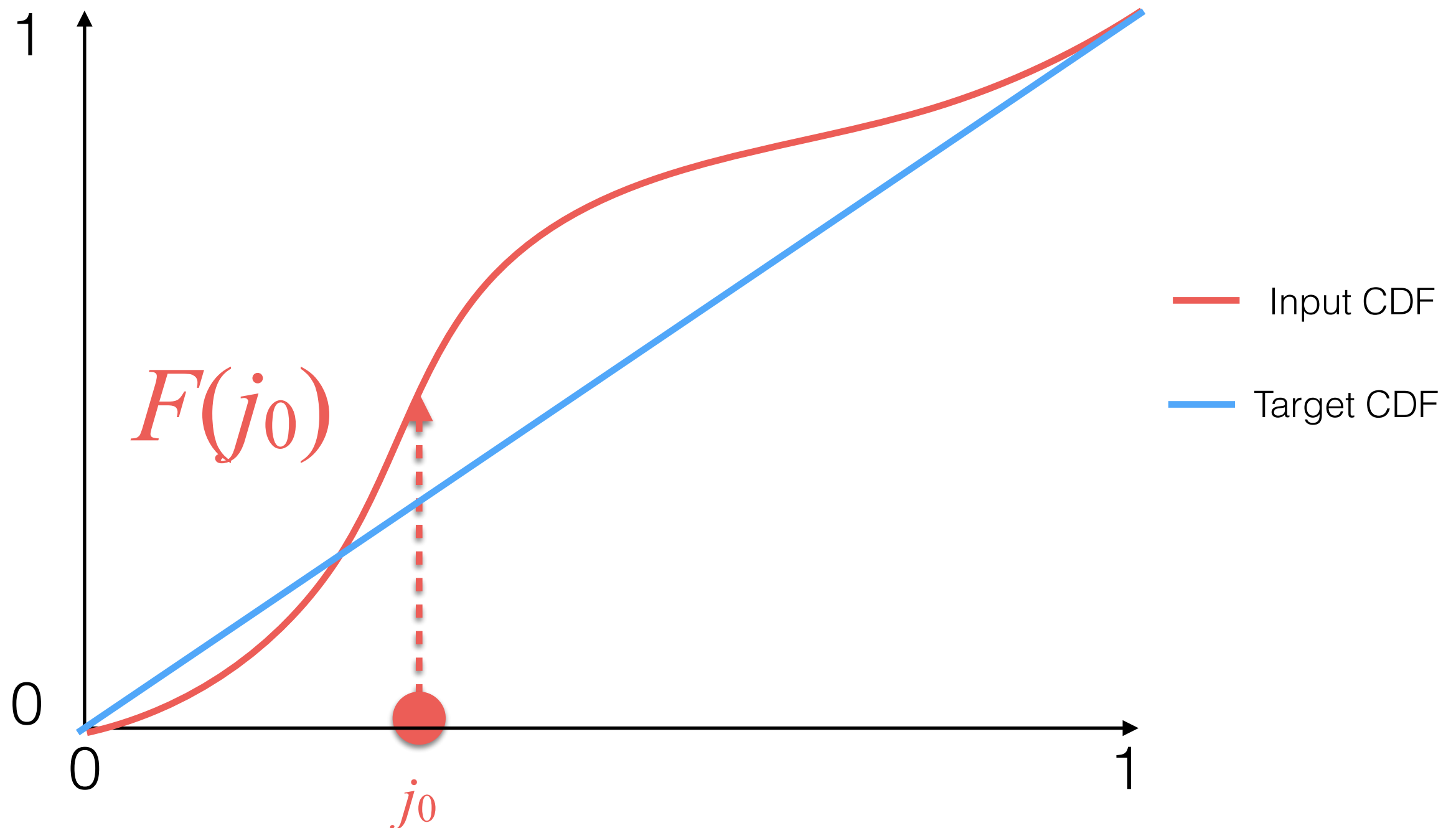
Histogram Equalization: Histogram Matching



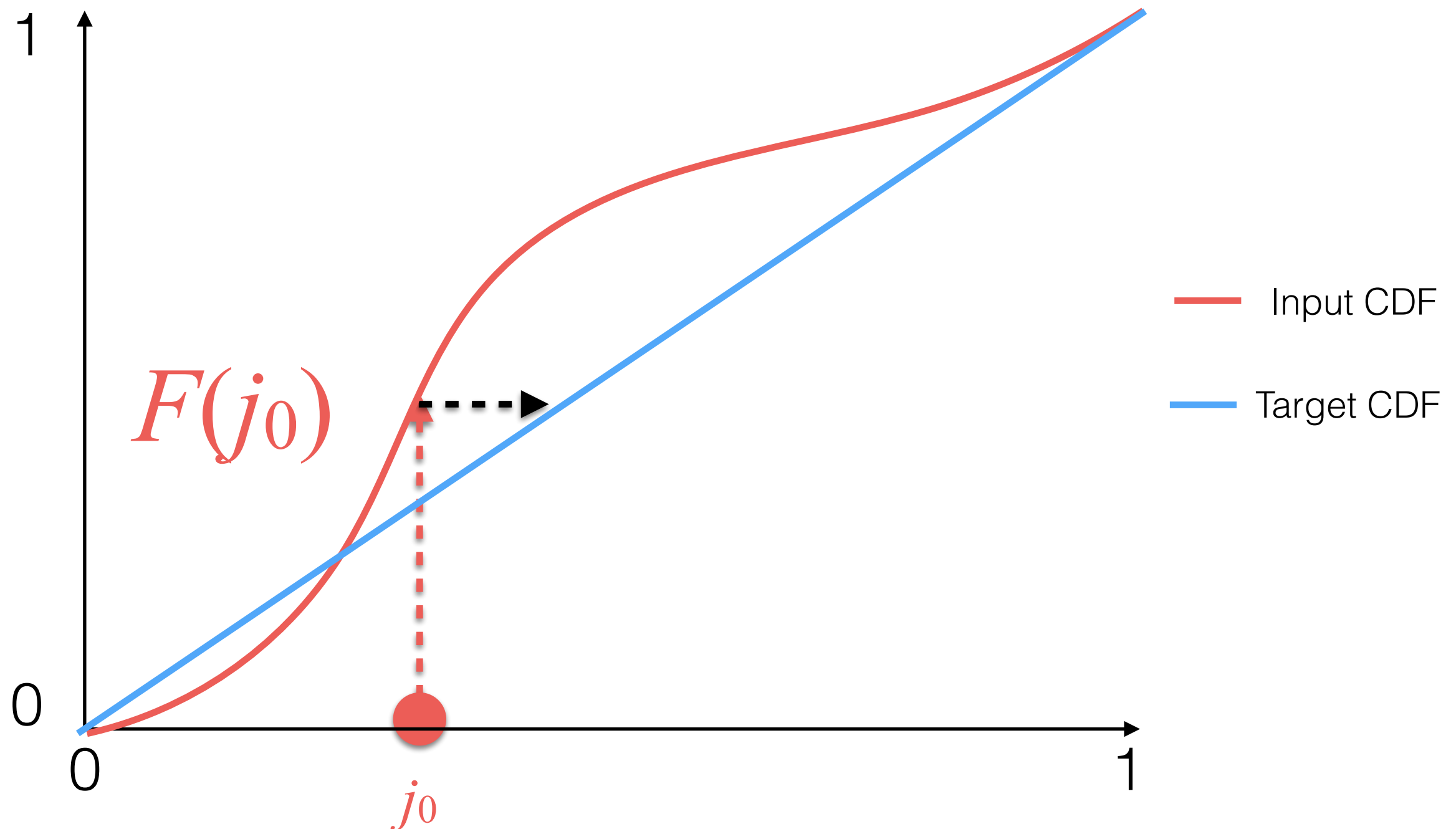
Histogram Equalization: Histogram Matching



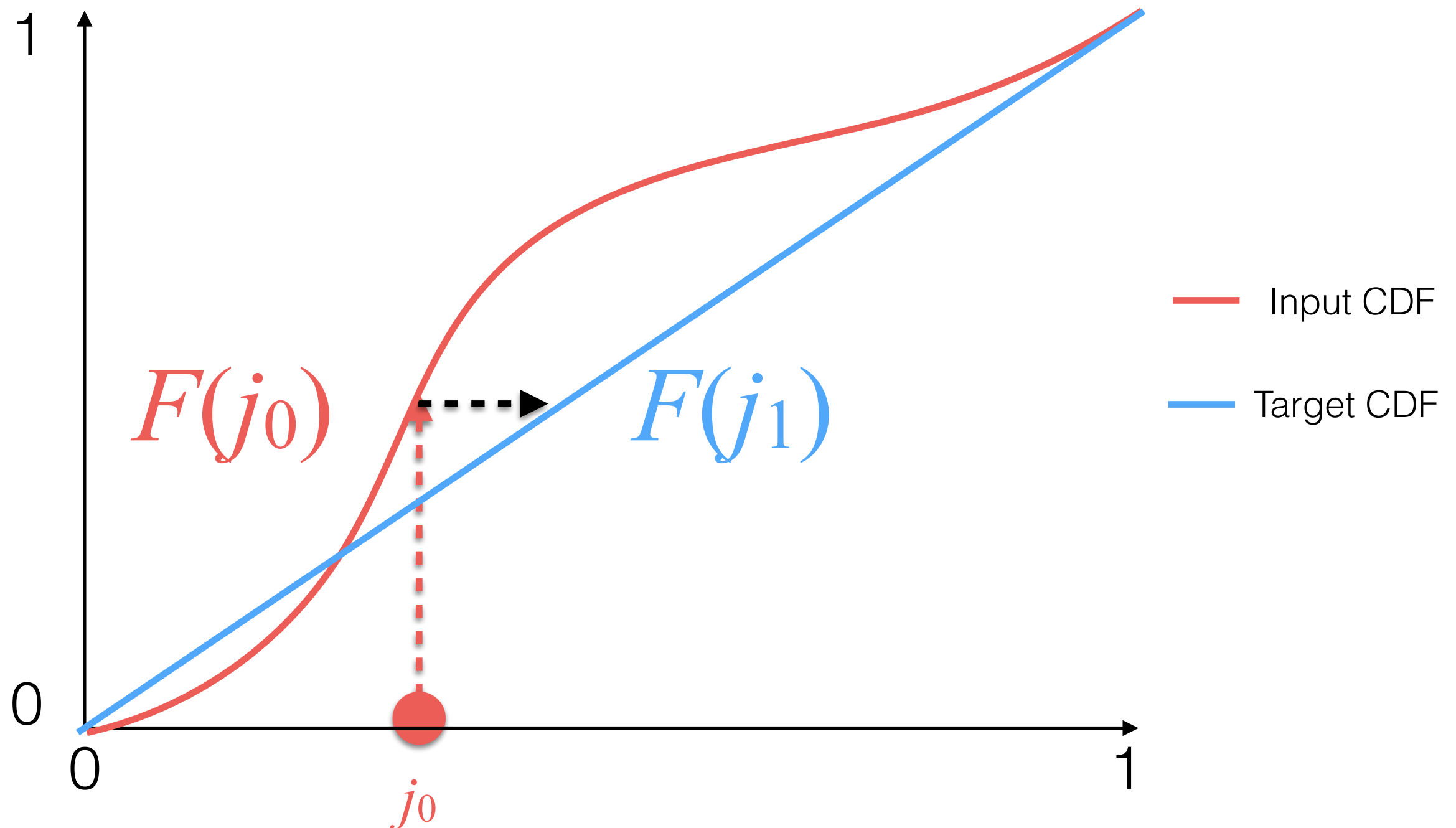
Histogram Equalization: Histogram Matching



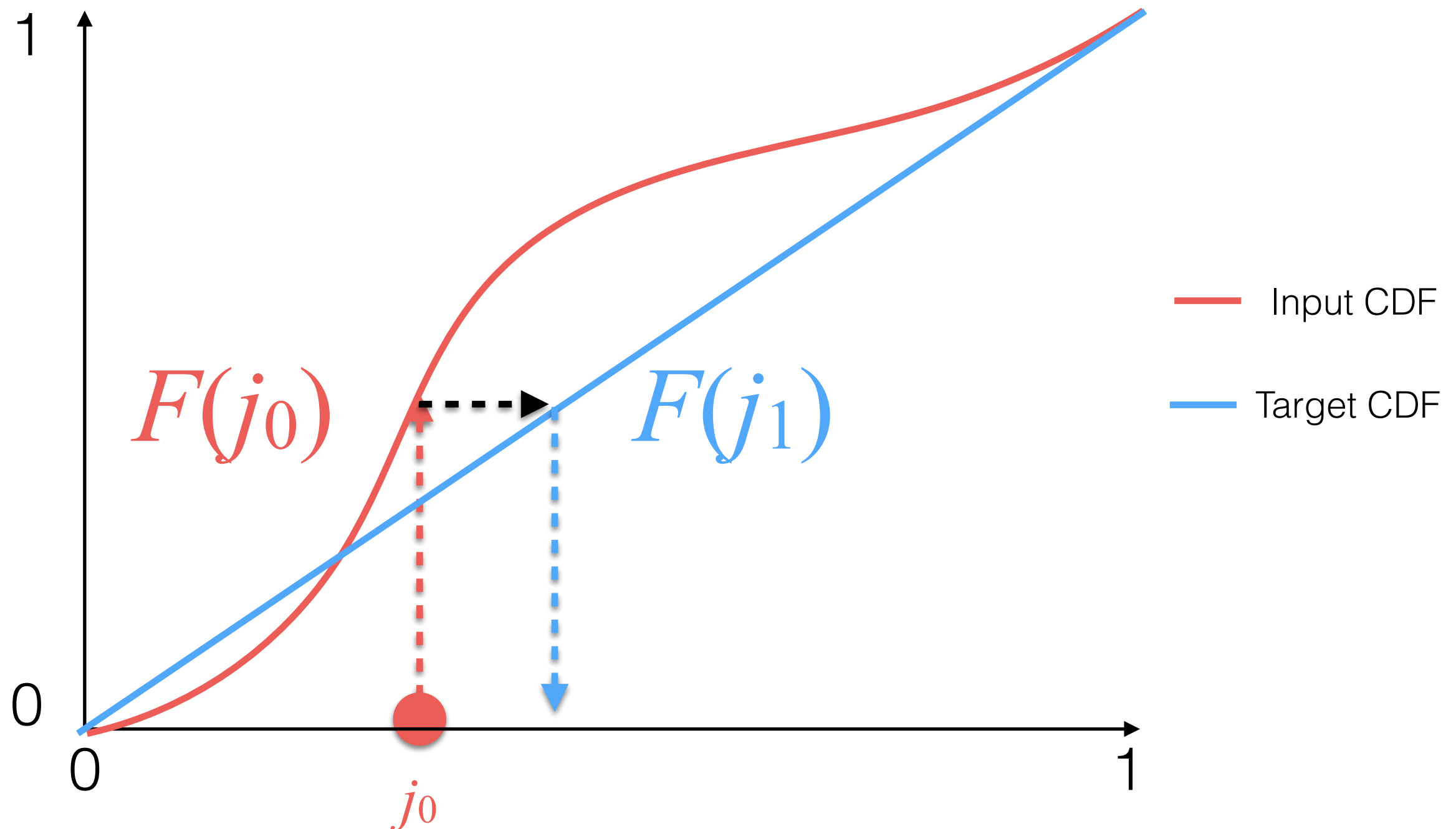
Histogram Equalization: Histogram Matching



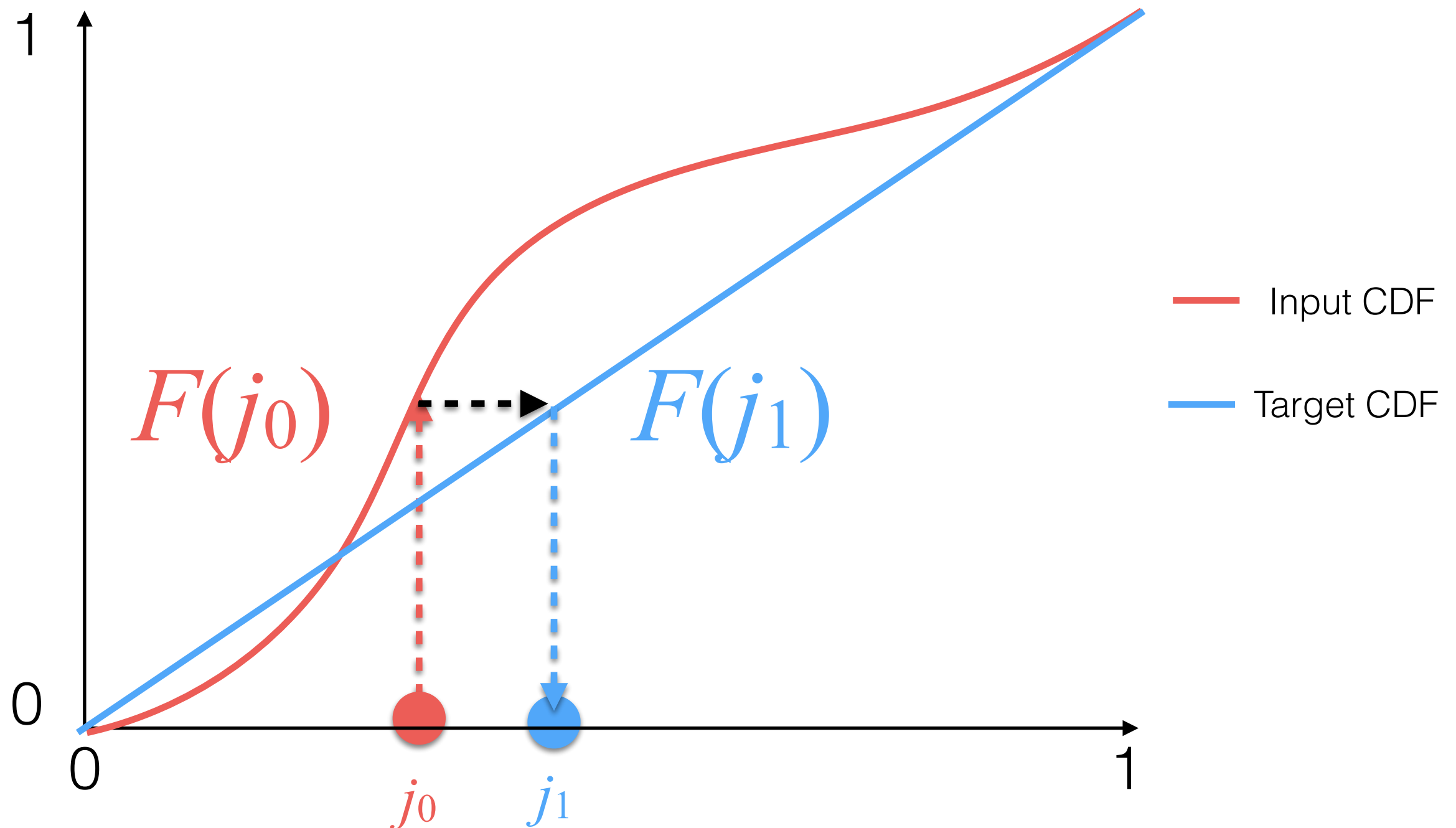
Histogram Equalization: Histogram Matching



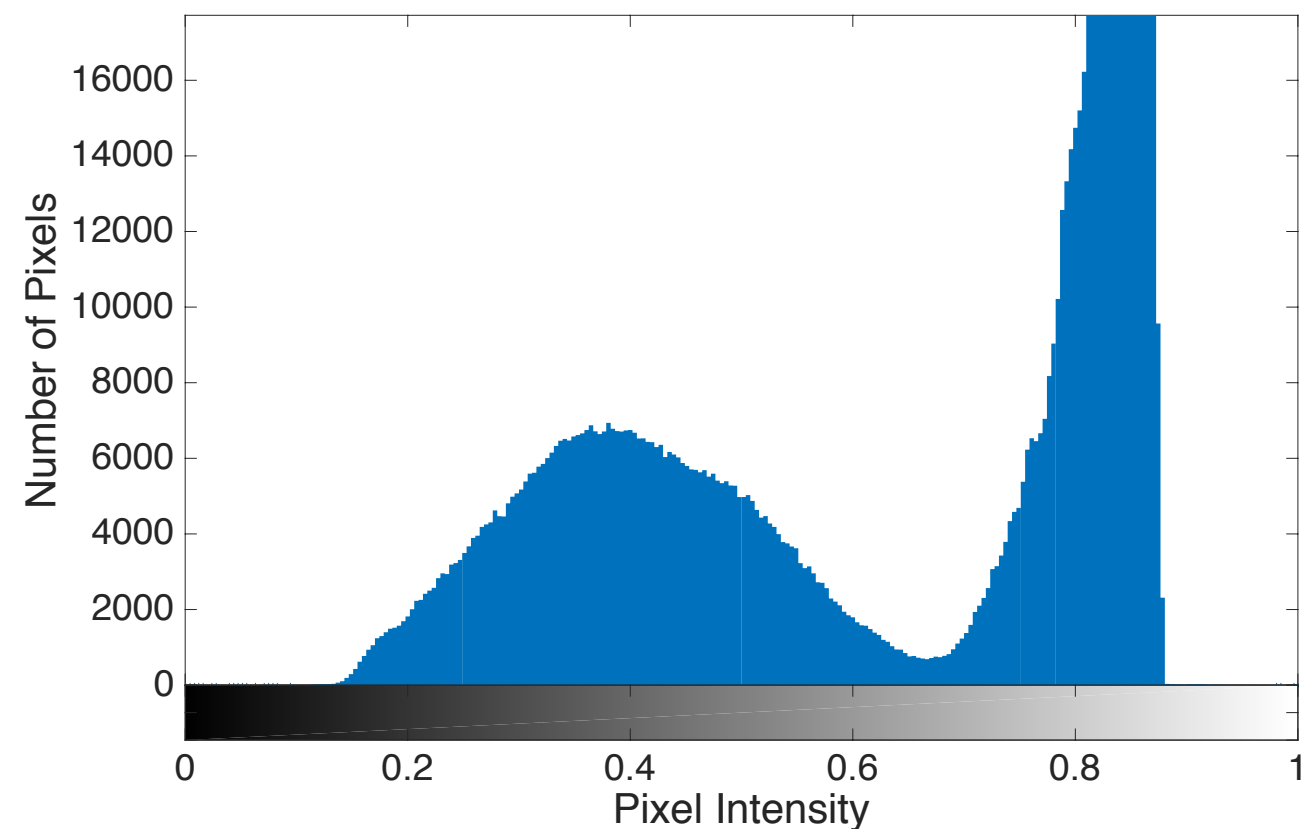
Histogram Equalization: Histogram Matching



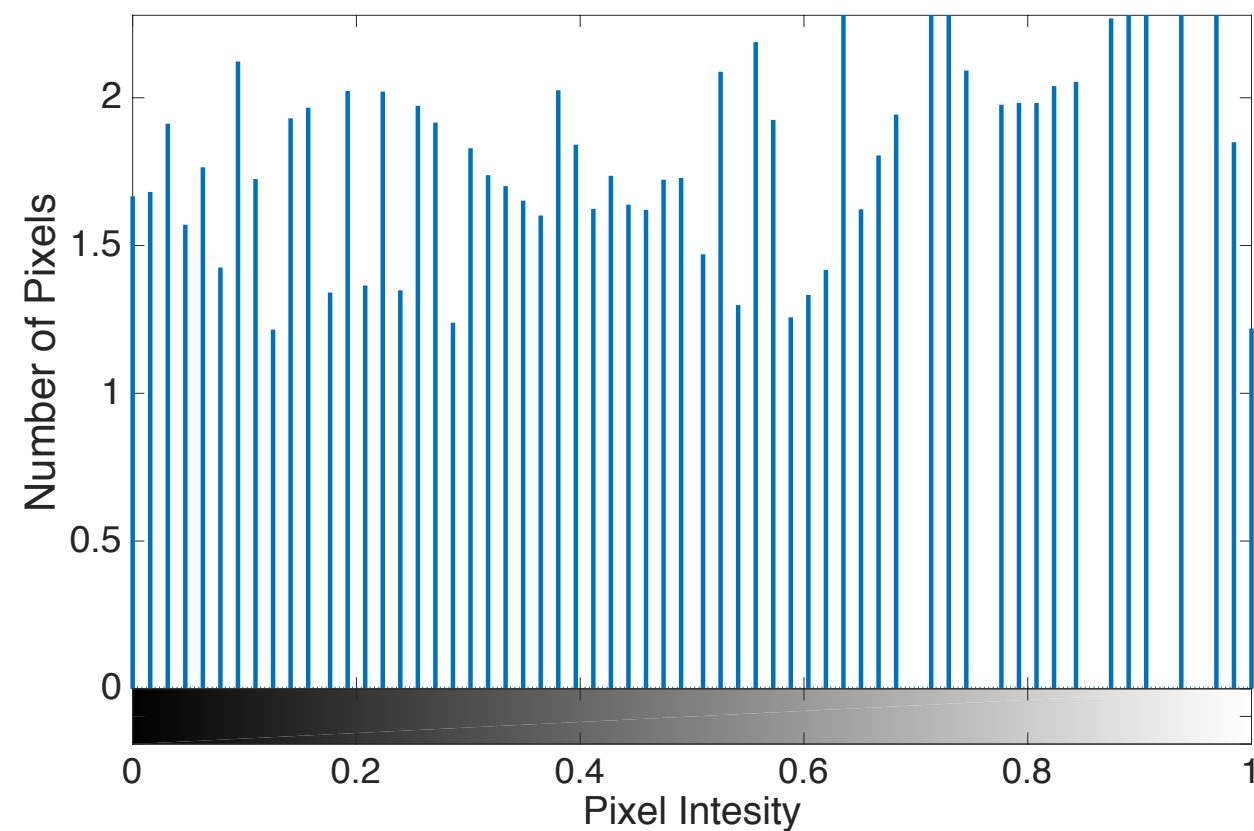
Histogram Equalization: Histogram Matching



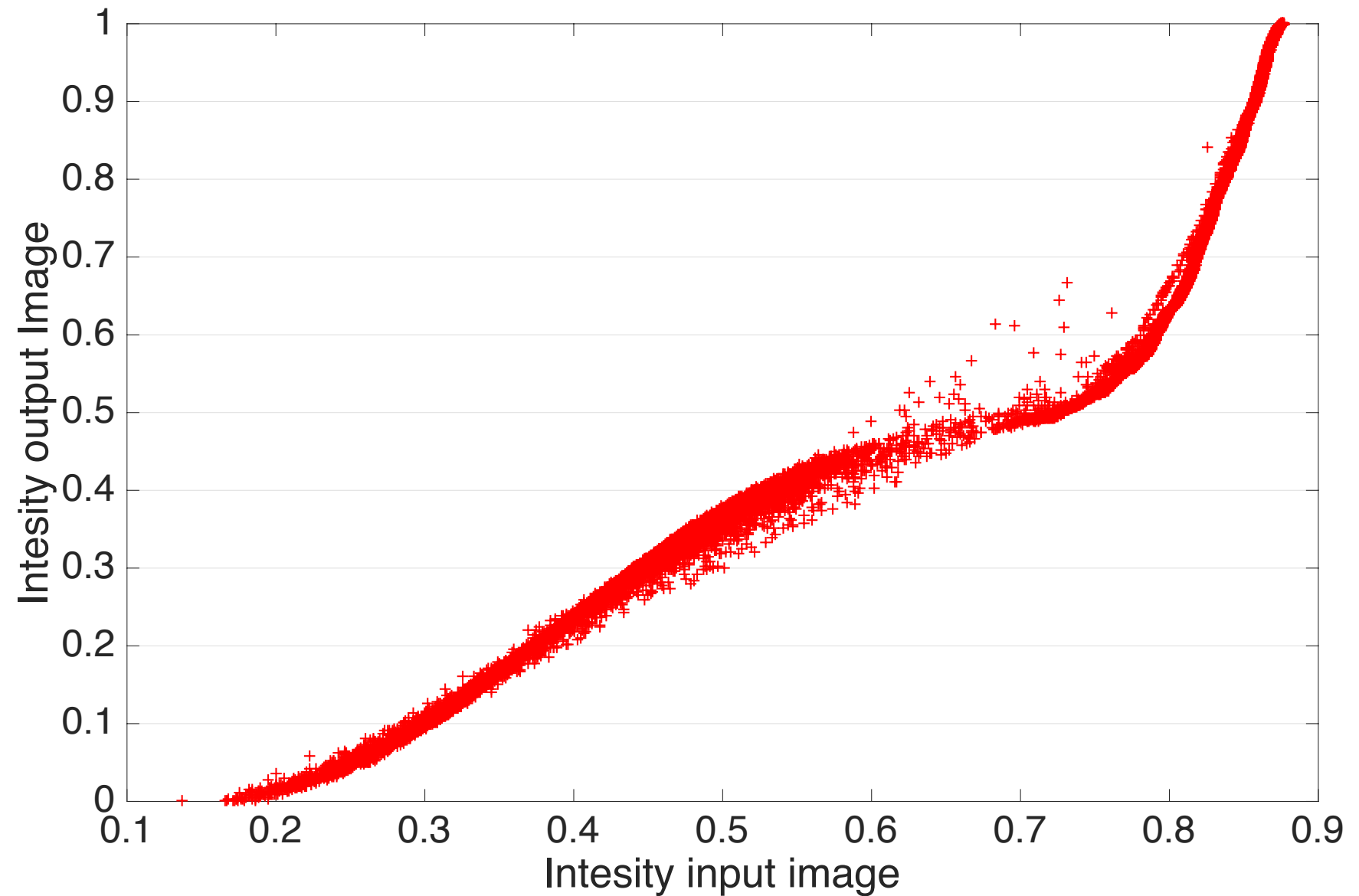
Histogram Equalization Example



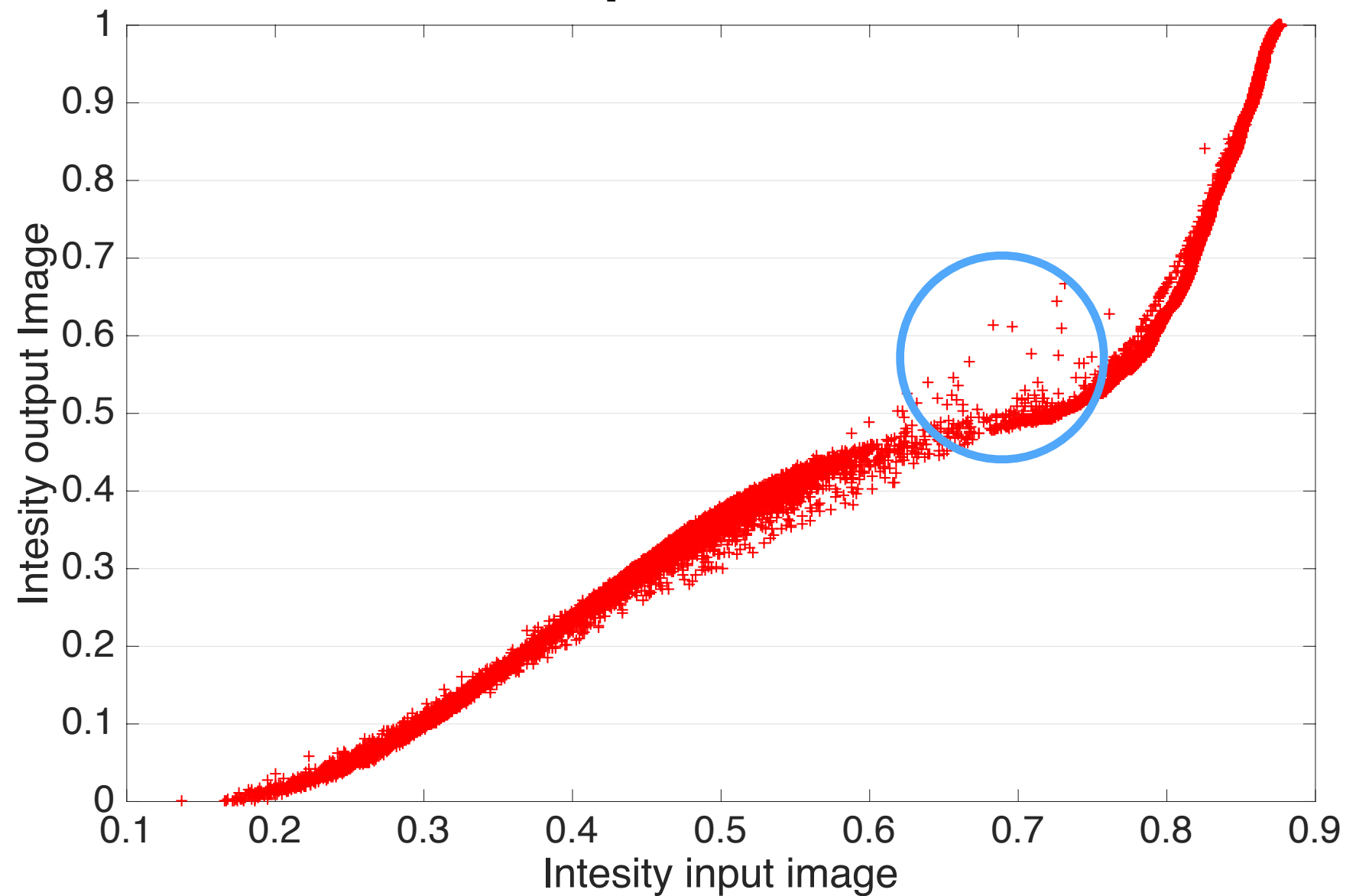
Histogram Equalization Example



Histogram Equalization Example



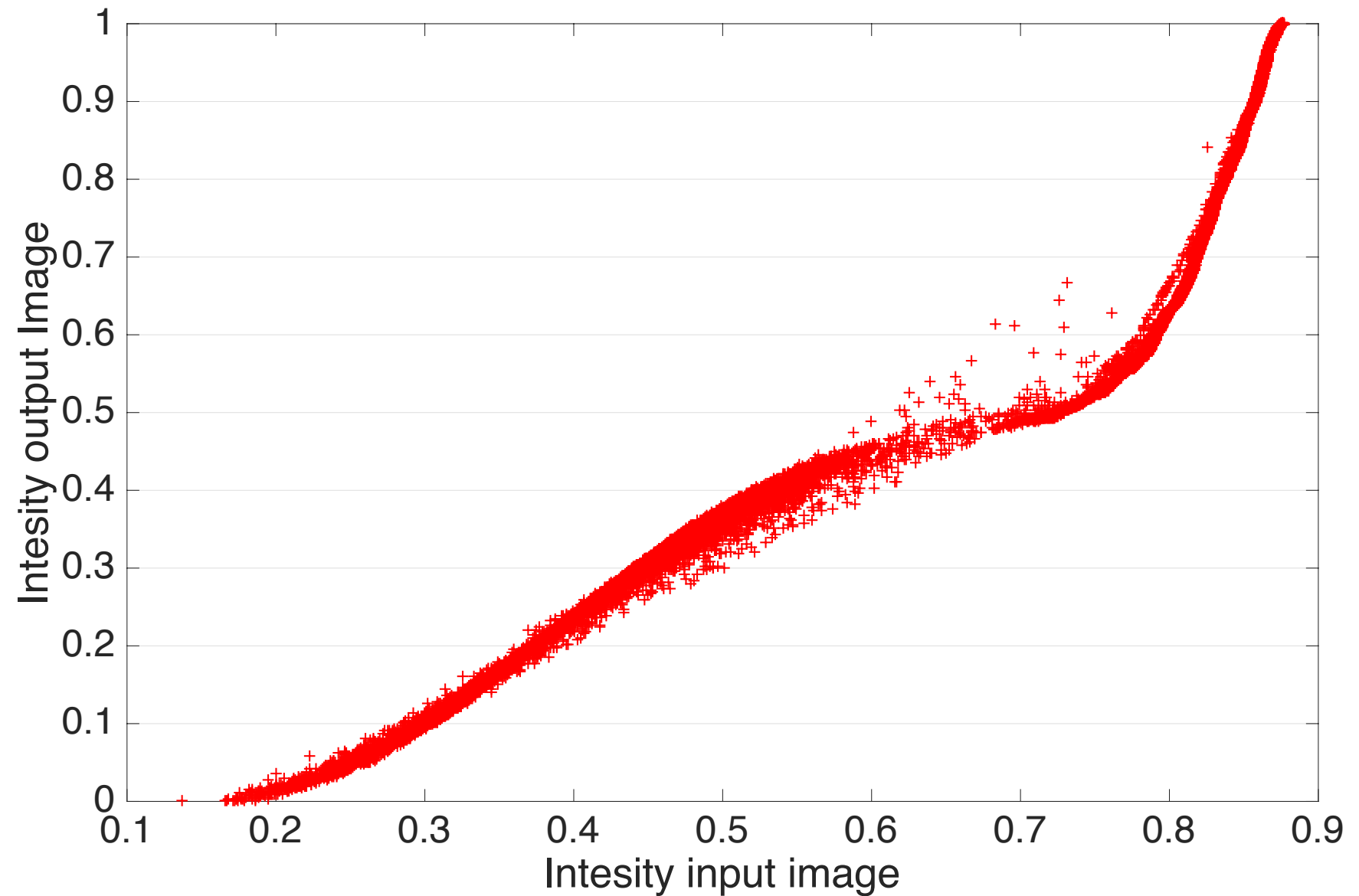
Histogram Equalization Example



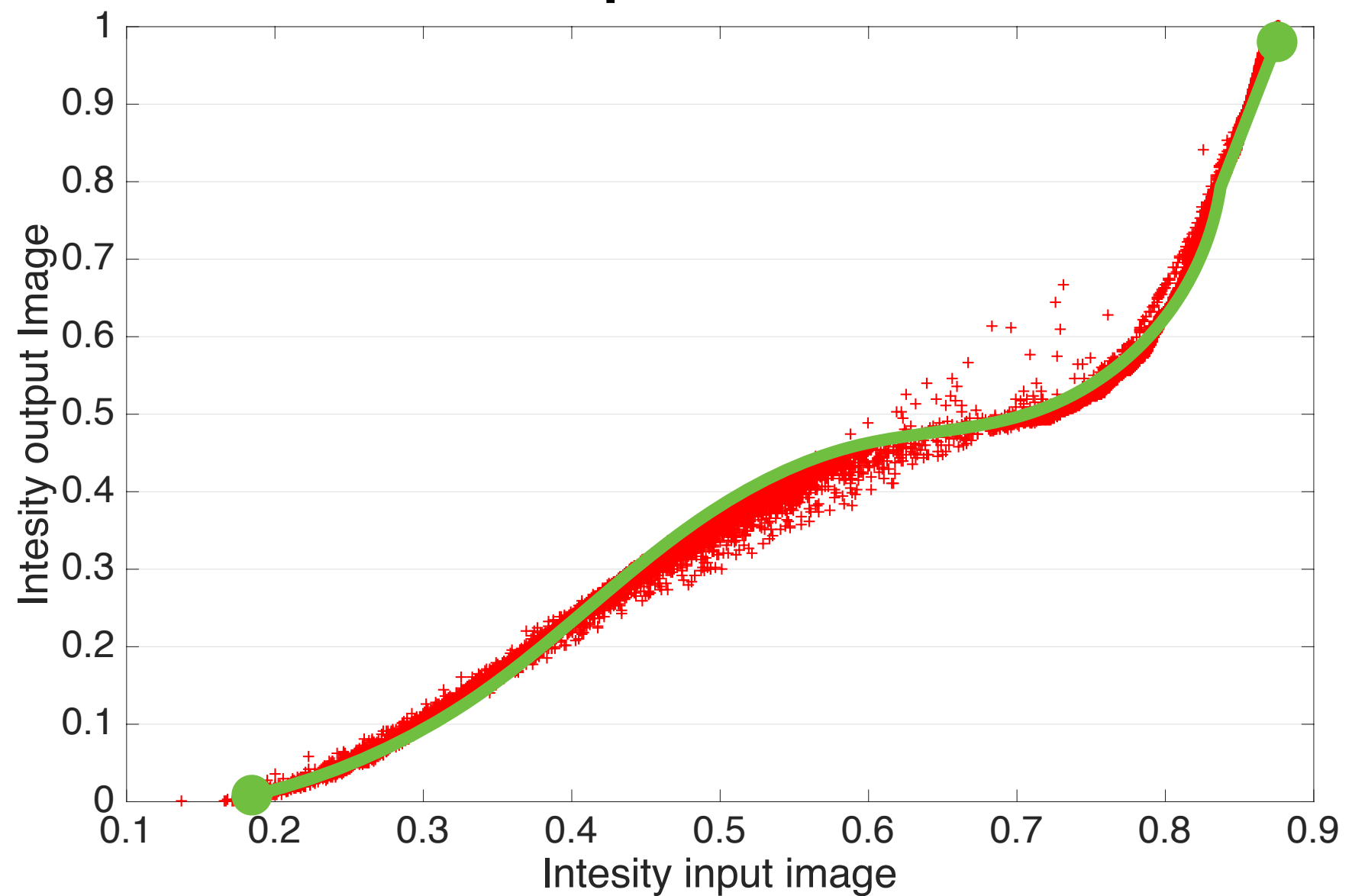
Histogram Equalization



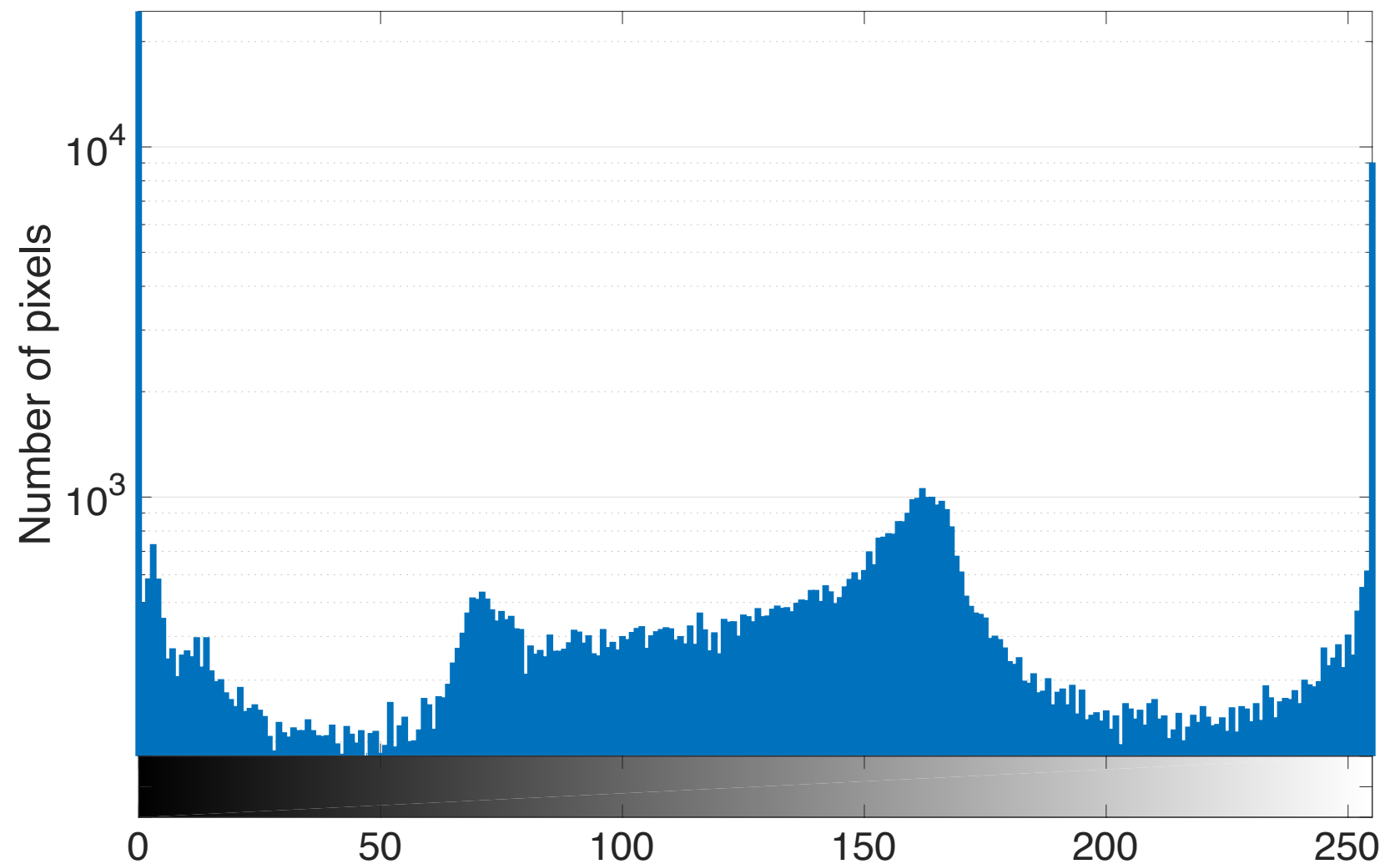
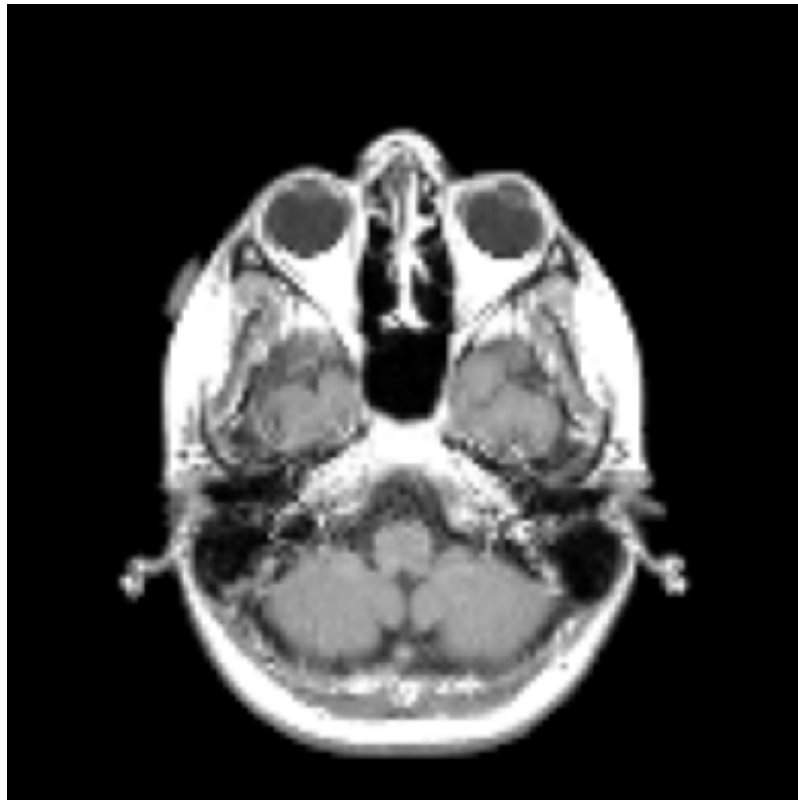
Histogram Equalization Example



Histogram Equalization Example

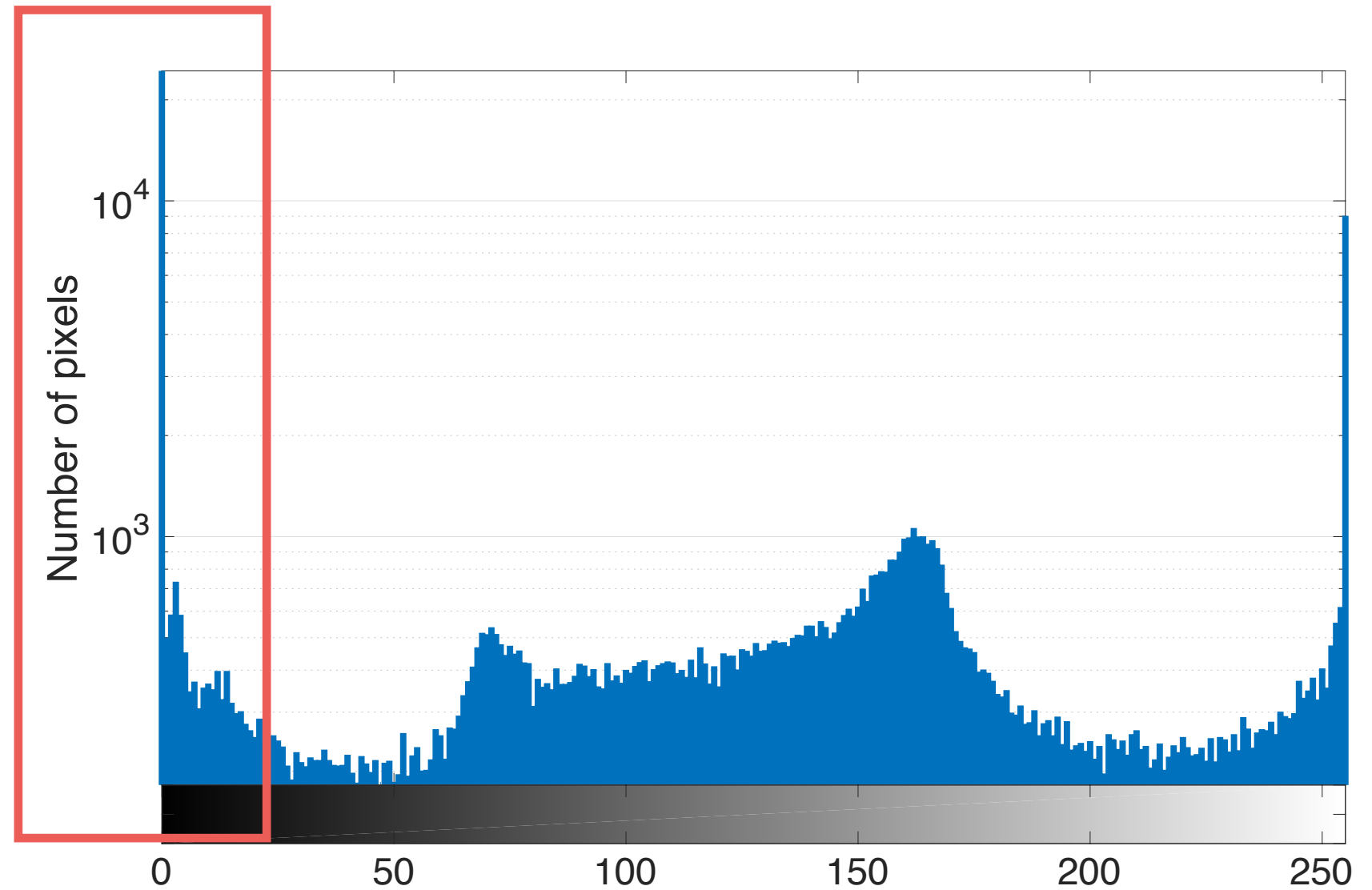
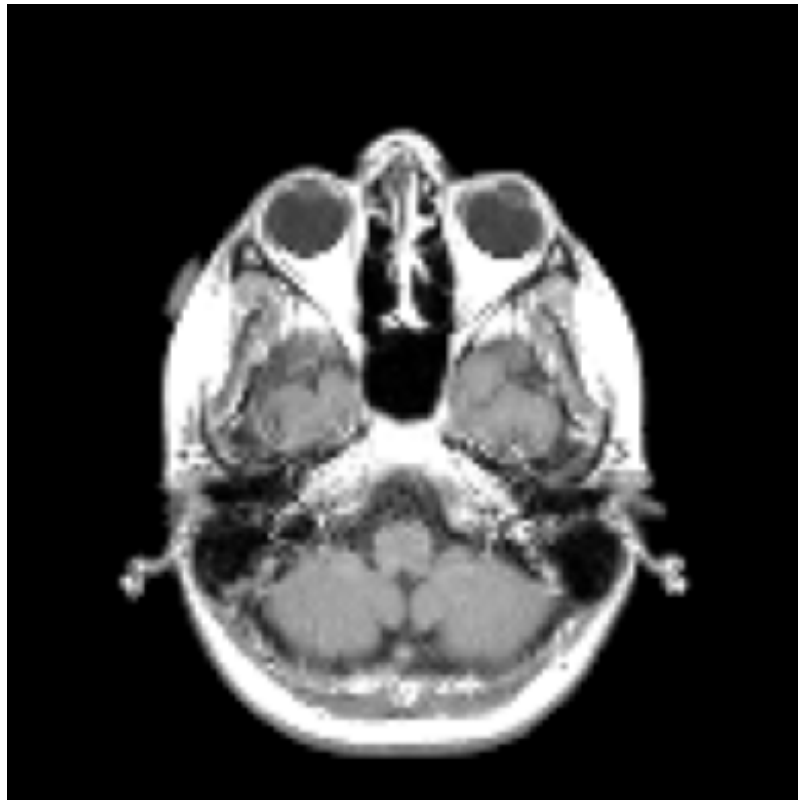


Histogram Equalization Example



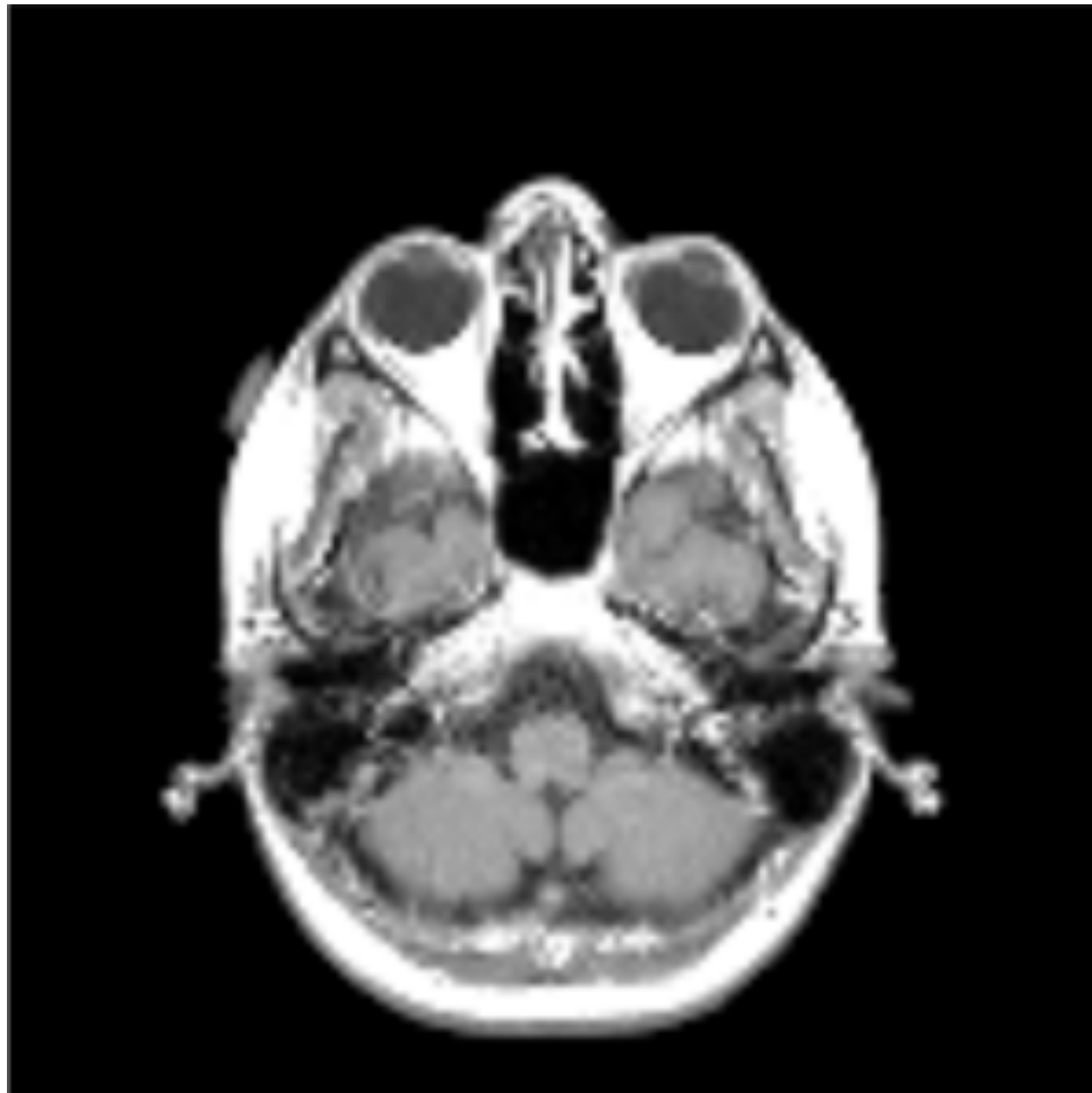
ROI helps in cases of huge peaks (see $I=0$)

Histogram Equalization Example

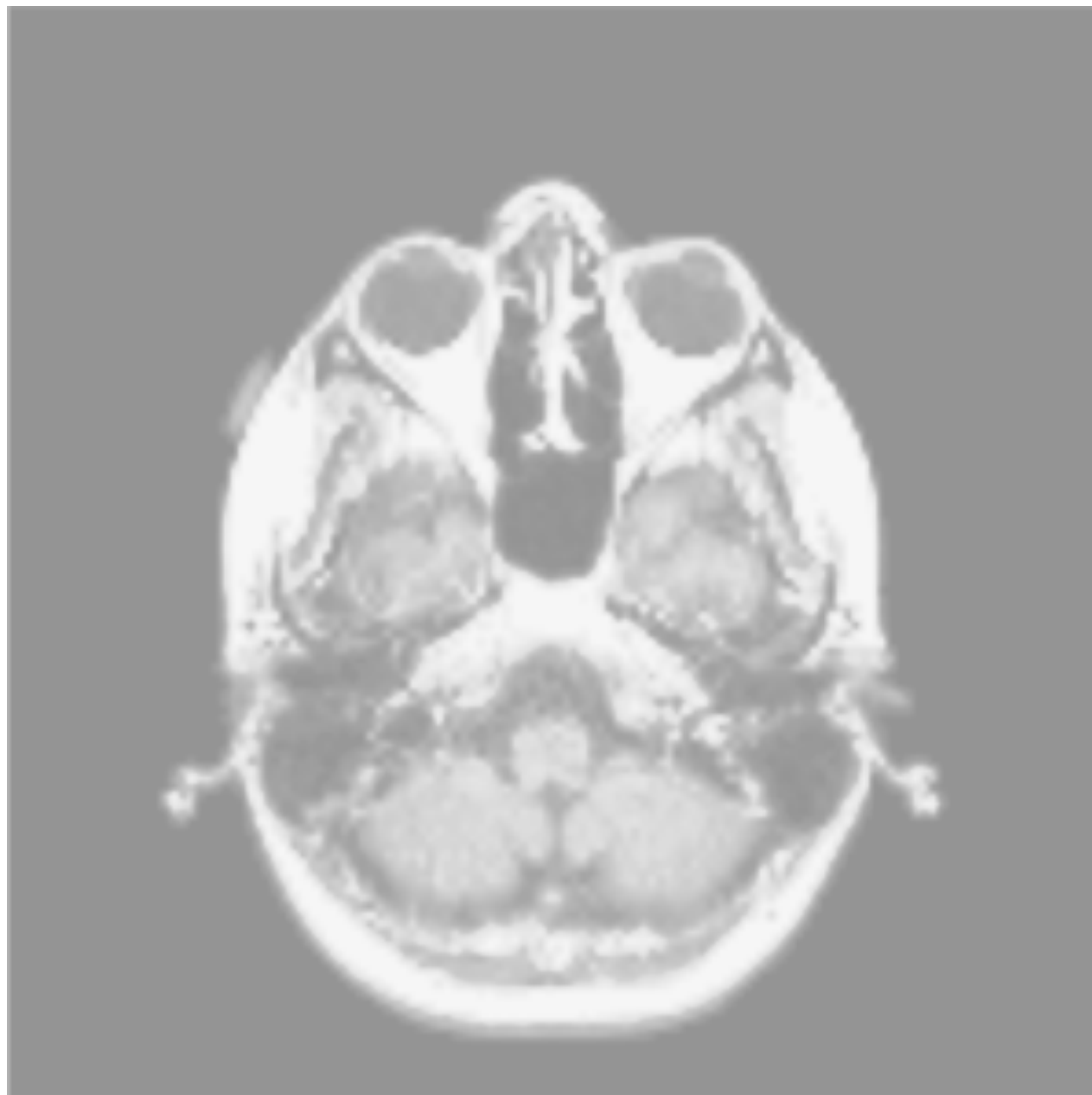


ROI helps in cases of huge peaks (see $I=0$)

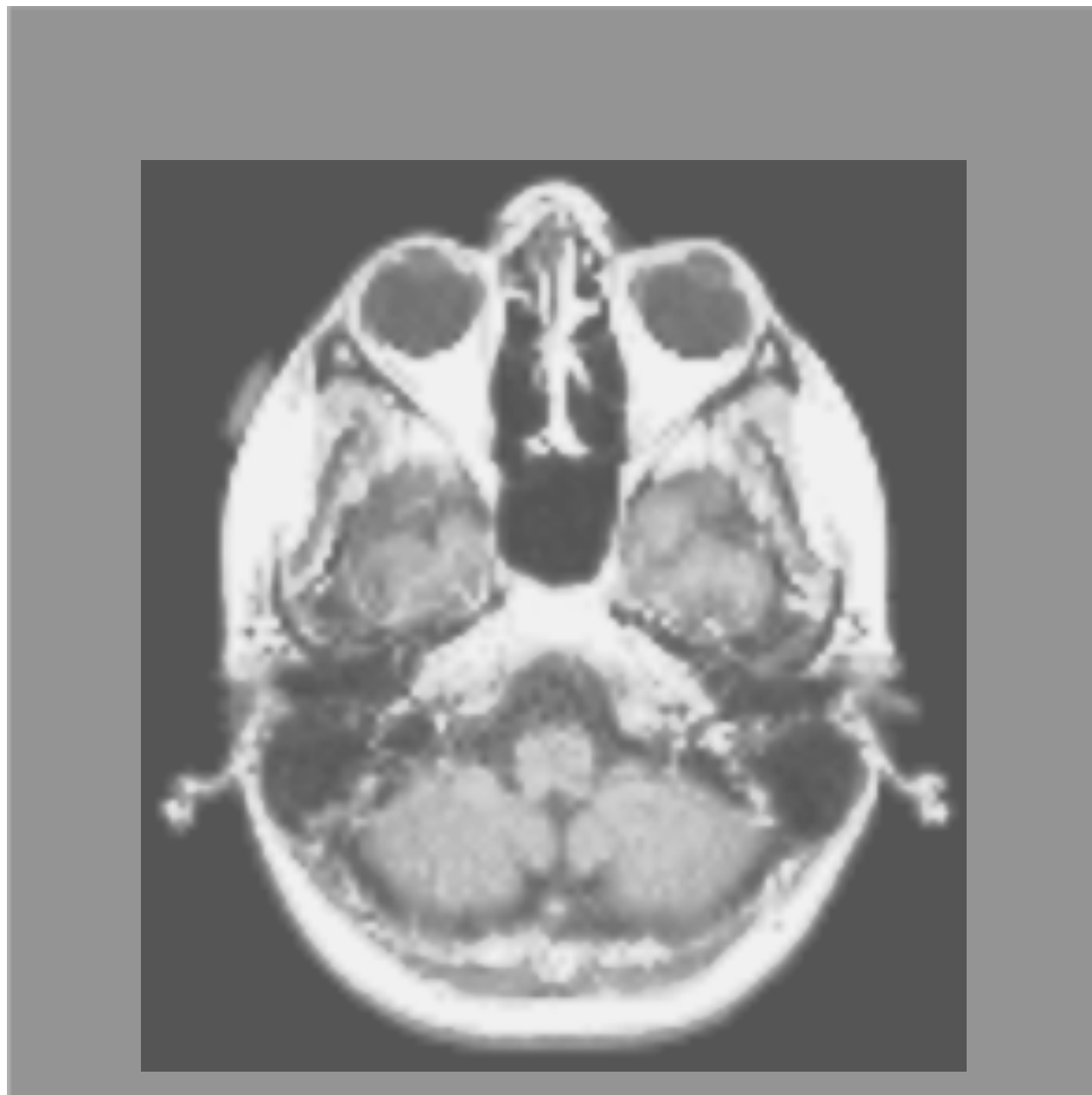
Histogram Equalization Example



Histogram Equalization Example



Histogram Equalization Example



Linear Filters

1D Convolution

- Given two functions f and g , f convolved g is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}(f \otimes g)[x] &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) \cdot g(t - x) dx = \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x - t) \cdot g(t) dx\end{aligned}$$

- In the discrete world, this leads to:

$$(f \otimes g)[i] = \sum_{j=-N}^N f[i - j] \cdot g[j]$$

2D Convolution

- In the 2D discrete world, this leads to:

$$(f \otimes g)[i, j] = \sum_{k=-N}^N \sum_{l=-M}^M f[i - k, j - l] \cdot g[k, l]$$

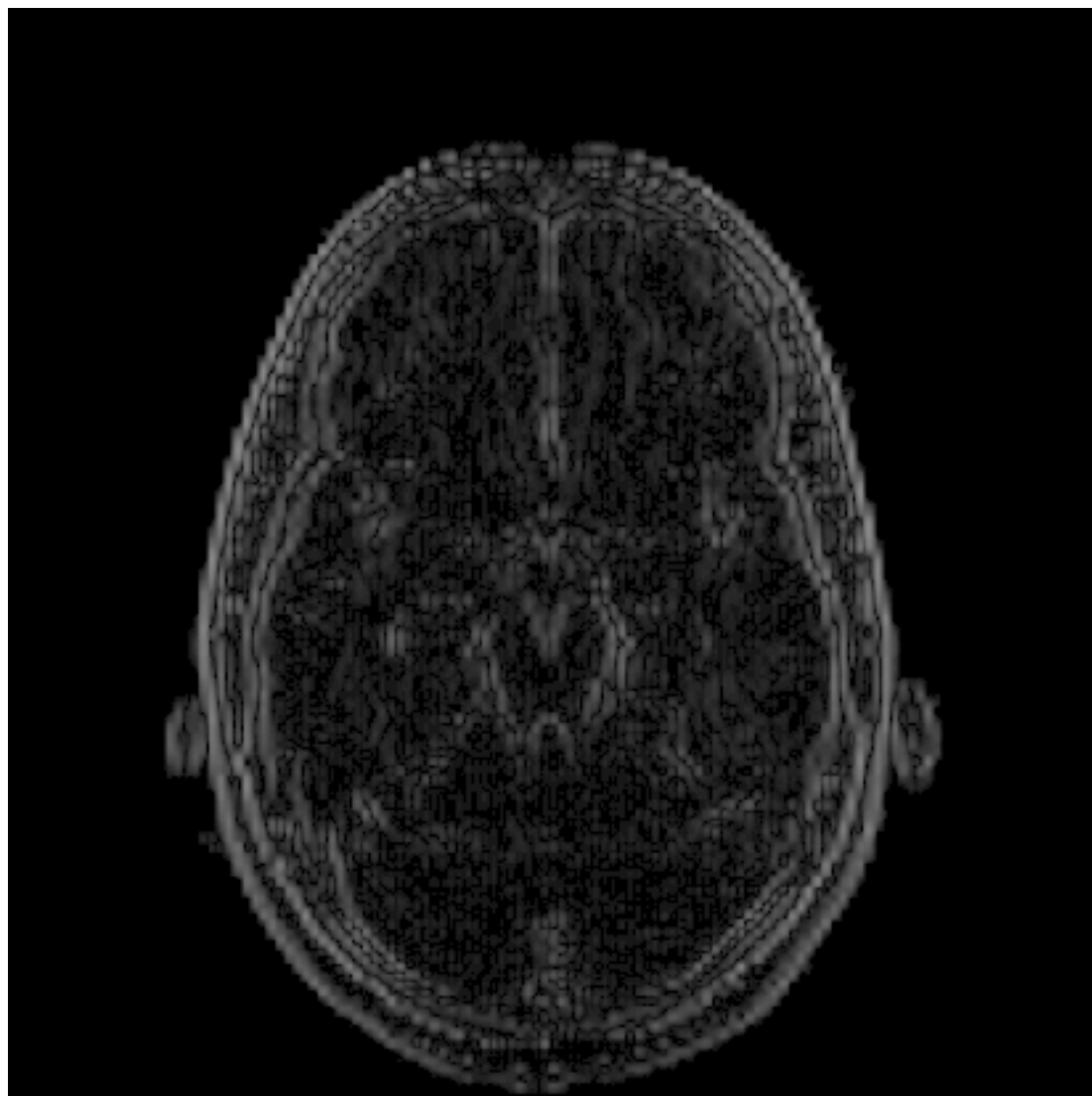
- where g is a (2n)-(2m) matrix, called kernel.
 - For sake of simplicity, let's assume negative addresses!
- MATLAB: **conv** (1D convolution), and **conv2** (2D convolution) built-in functions

Gradient Filter

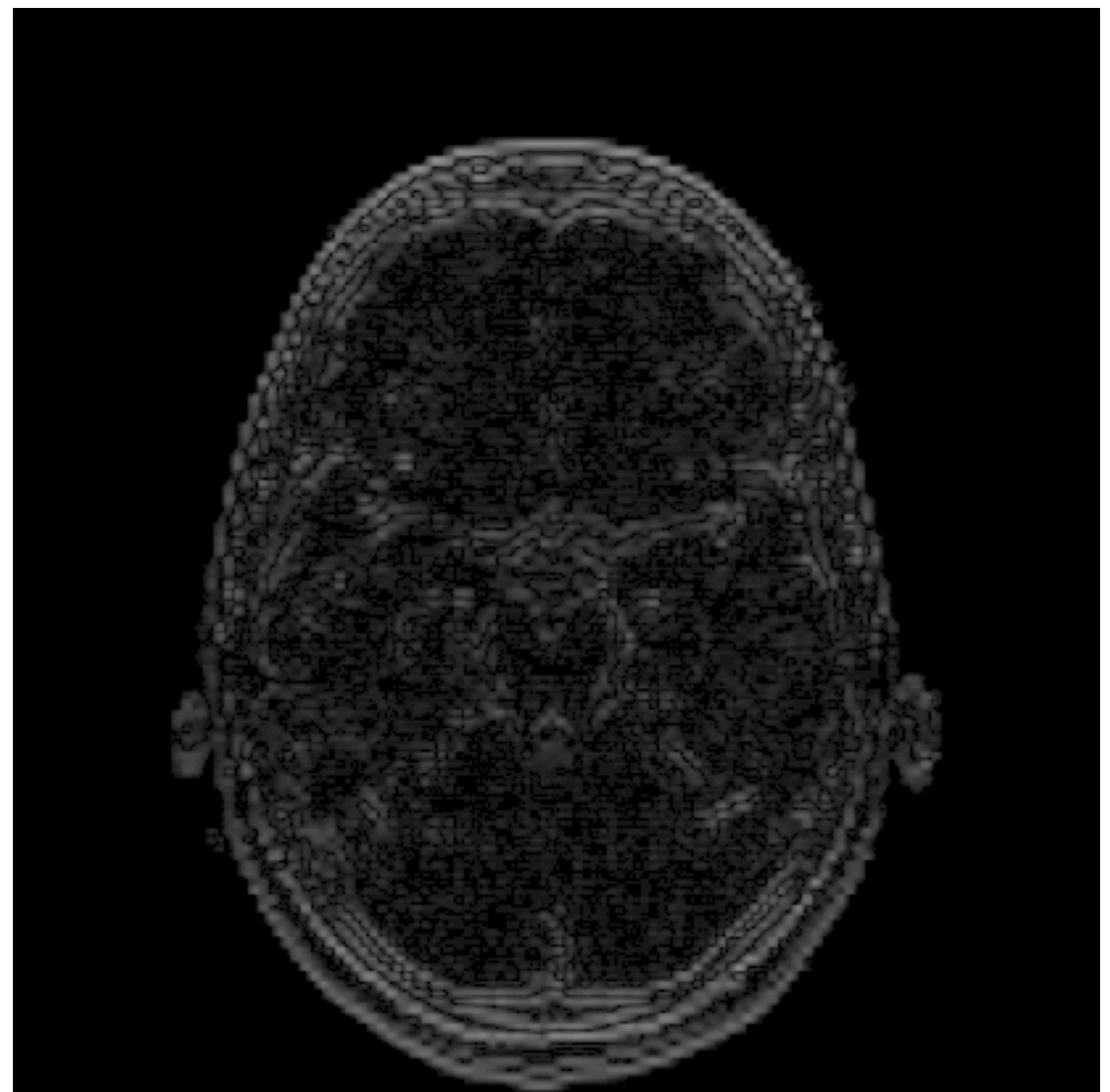
- The gradient of an image is an important piece of information:
 - Where it is high implies we may have an edge; i.e., a boundary between two different regions.
- Typically, kernels for computing gradients are defined as:

$$g_X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad g_Y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Gradient Operator Example



g_x



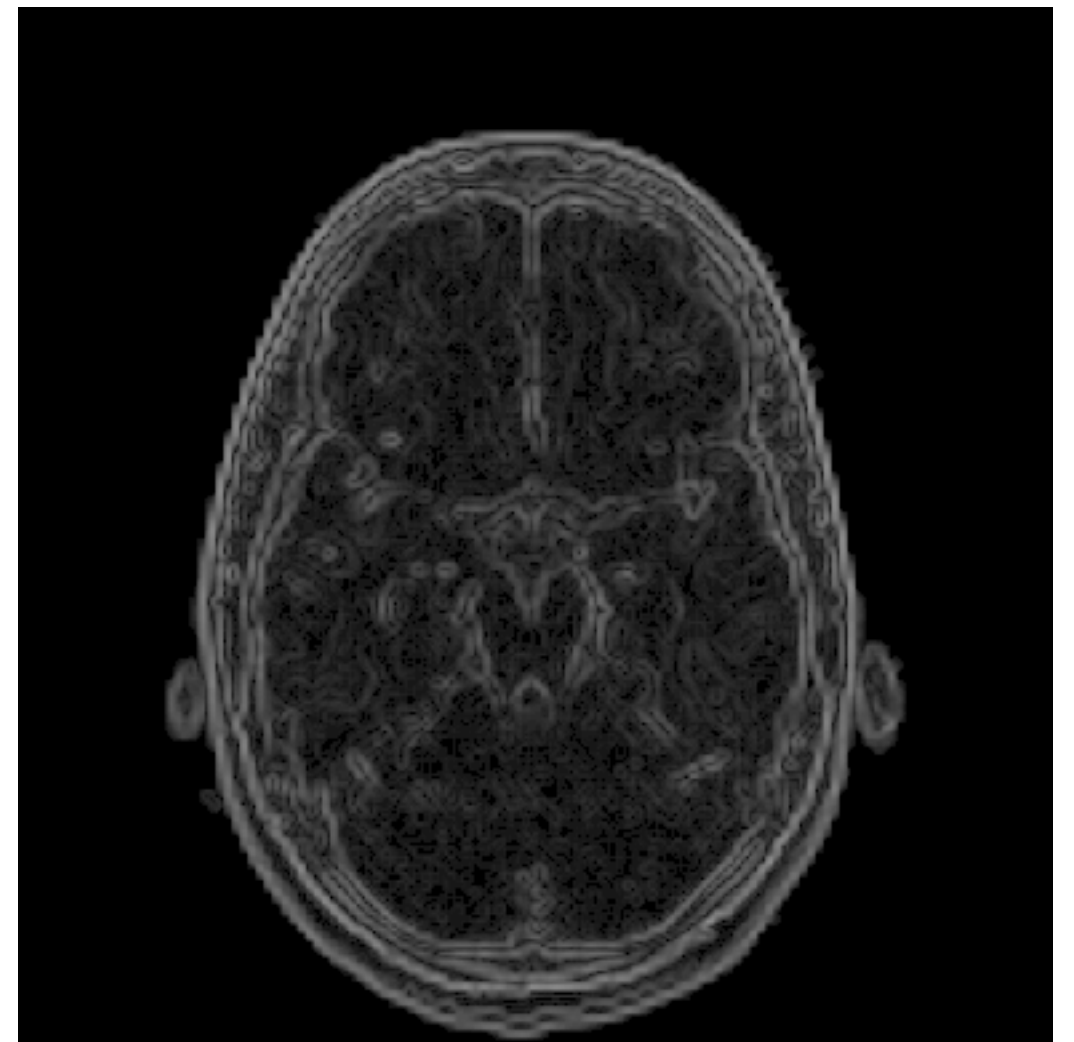
g_y

Gradient Operator Example

$$\|\nabla G\| = \sqrt{\left(\underset{g_X}{\left[\text{img} \right]^2} + \underset{g_Y}{\left[\text{img} \right]^2} \right)} =$$

Gradient Operator Example

$$\|\nabla G\| = \sqrt{\left(\underset{g_X}{\left[\text{img} \right]^2} + \left[\text{img} \right]^2 \right)} =$$

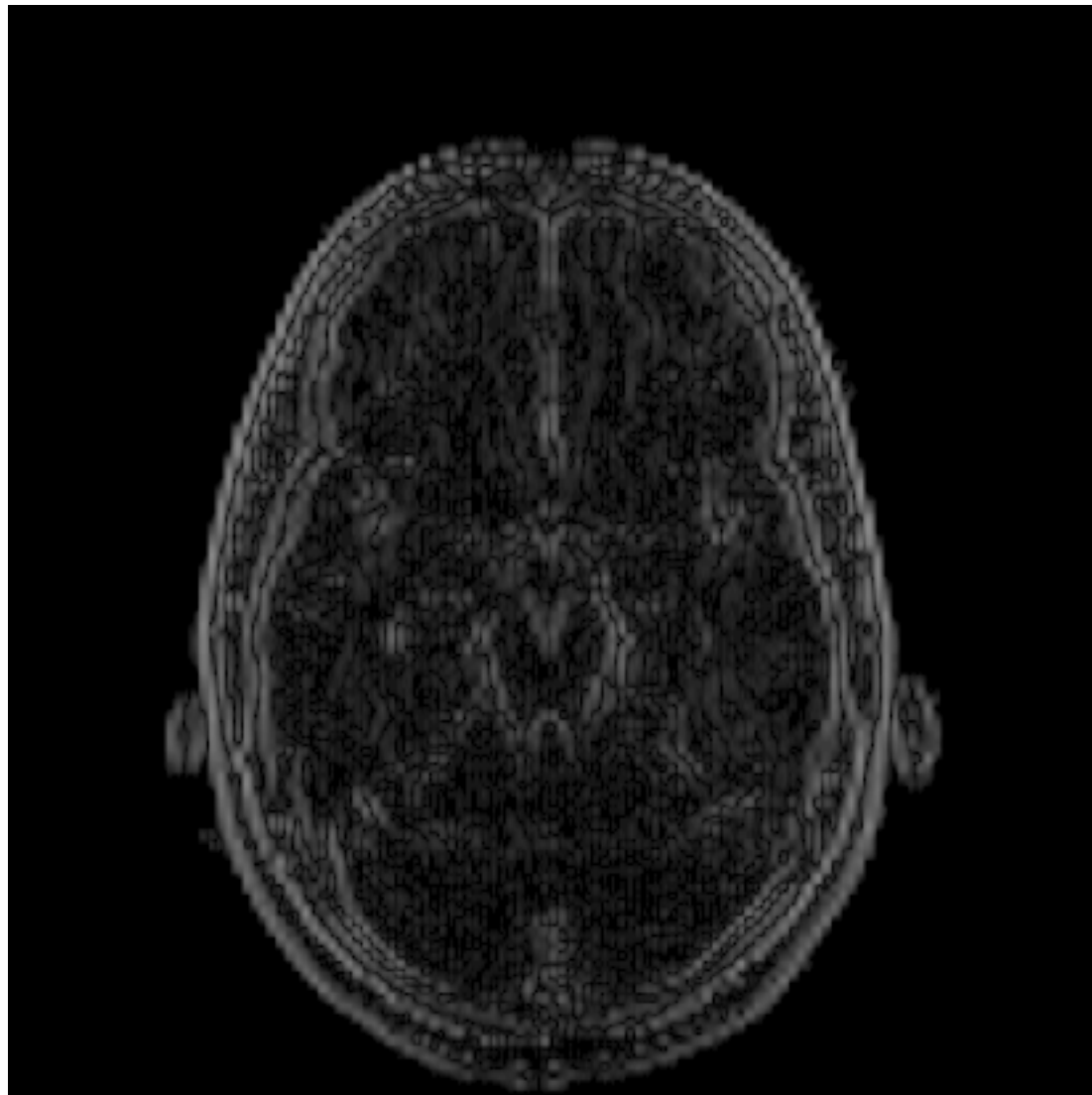


Sobel Gradient Operator

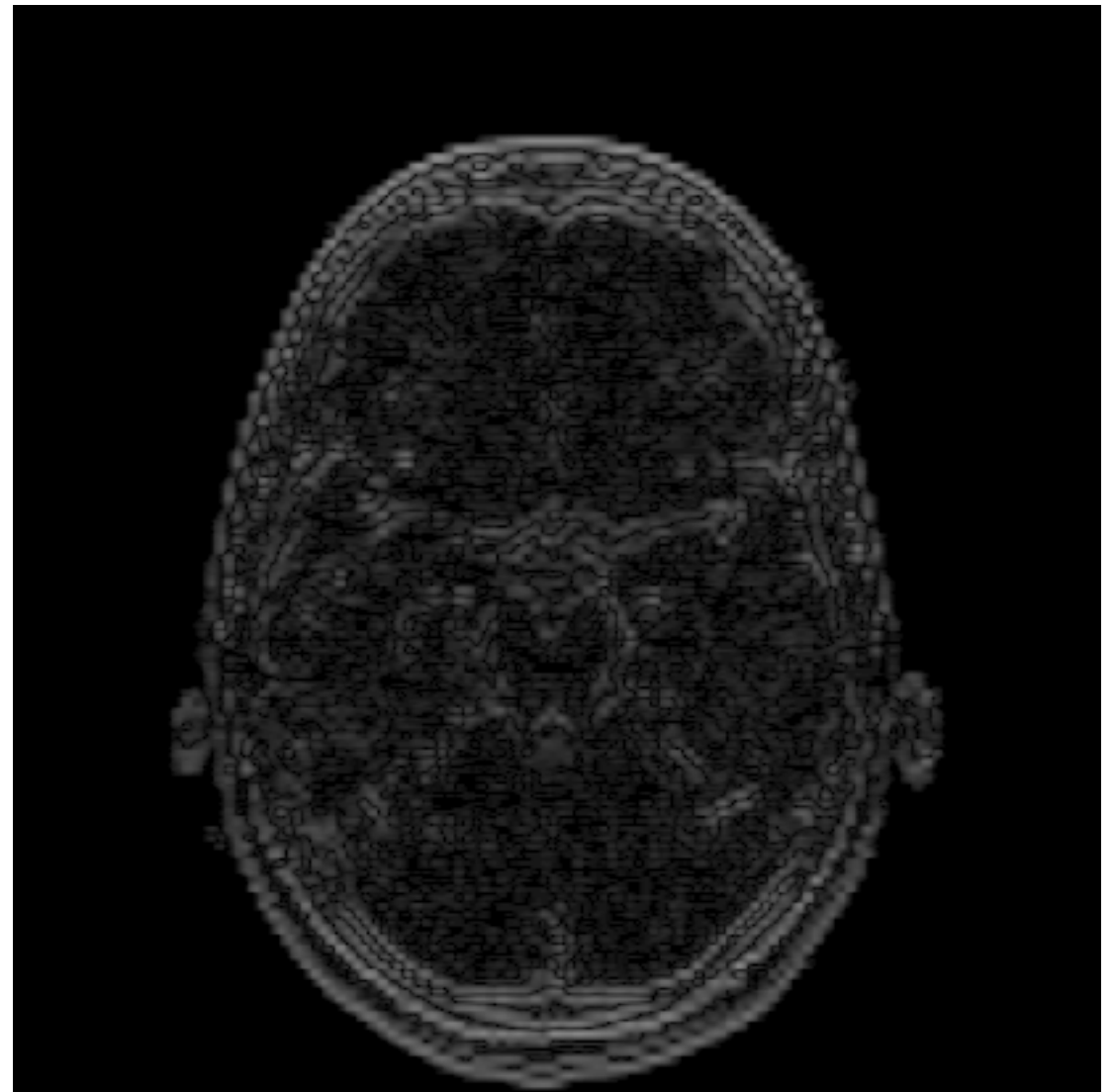
- Technically speaking, it is just another discrete differential operator!
- It emphasizes more edges, which is good.

$$g_X = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad g_Y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Sobel Gradient Operator Example

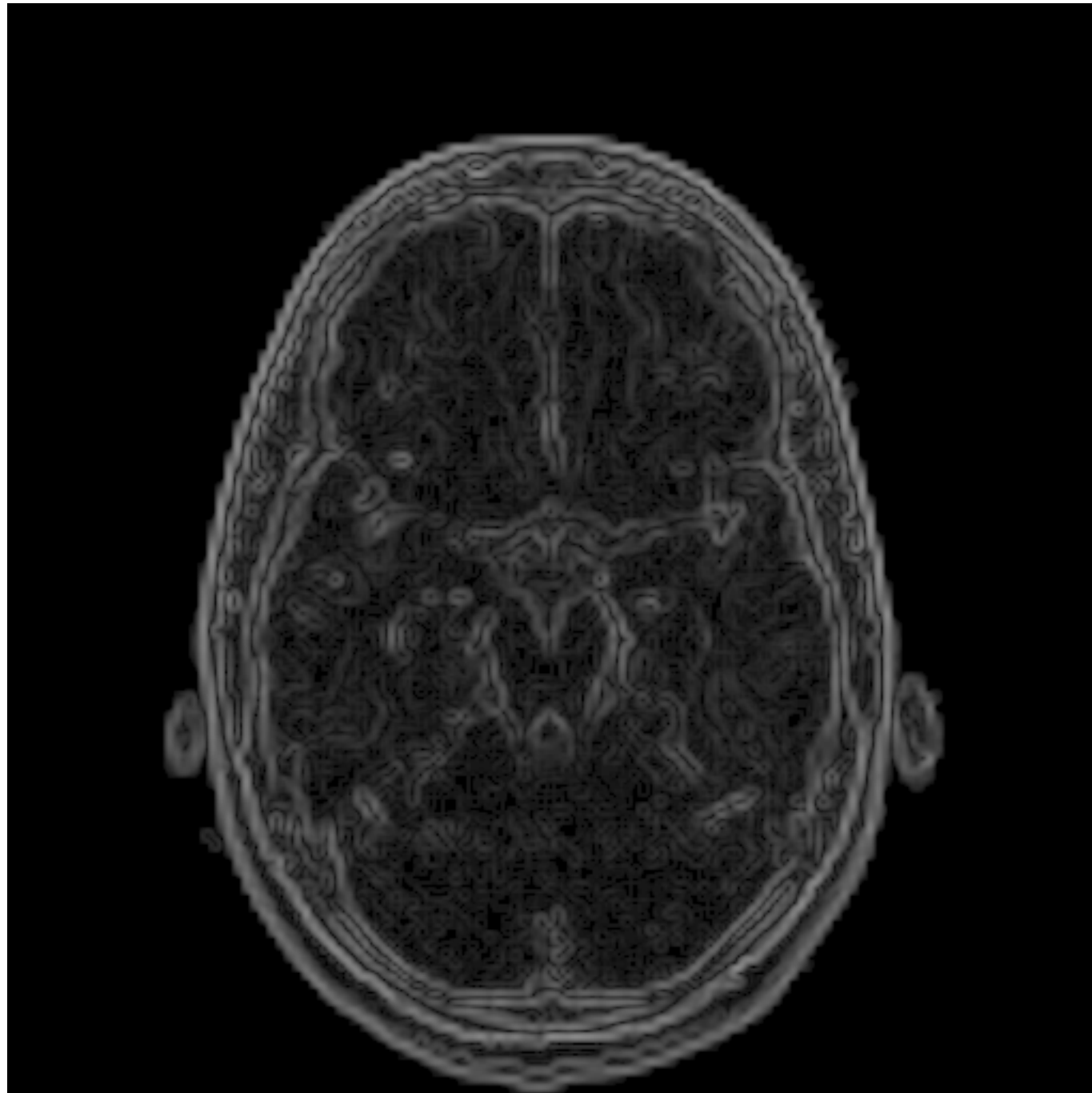


g_x



g_y

Sobel Gradient Operator Example



Edge Detectors

- Edges are can be helpful for defining regions
- They help in the visualization of what we want to segment

Edge Detectors

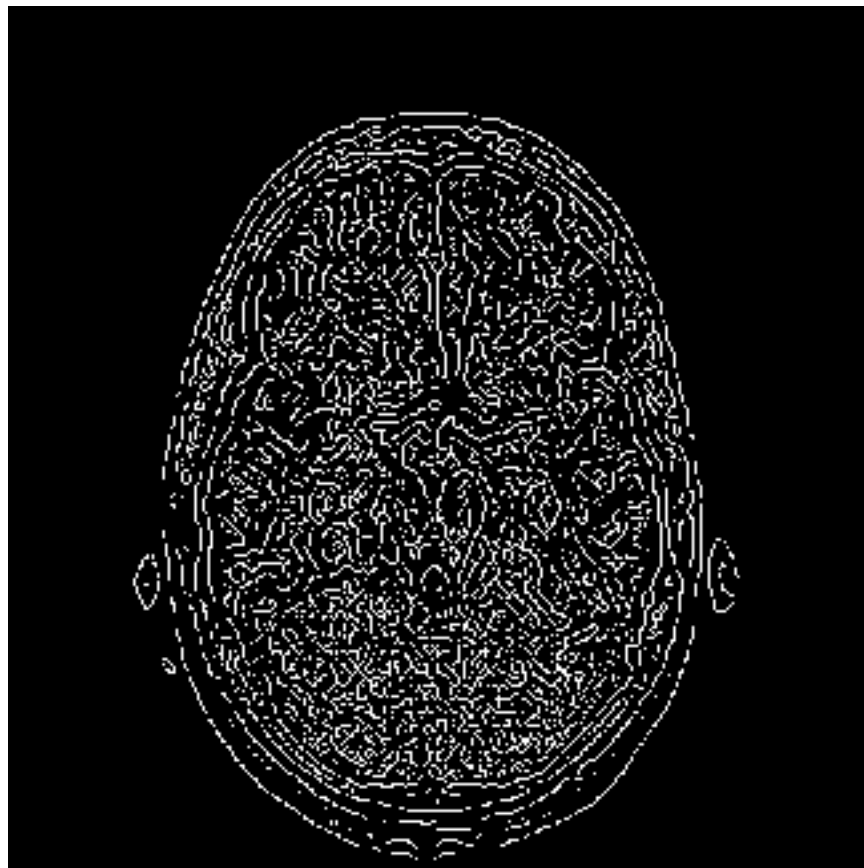
- Steps:
 - Compute gradients (magnitude and angle of orientation [**atan2**])
 - Non-maximum suppression —> remove low power stuff
 - Apply double thresholding; classification: strong, weak, and no edge
 - Edge tracking; a weak edge is a strong one if it is connected to a strong edge!

Edge Detectors

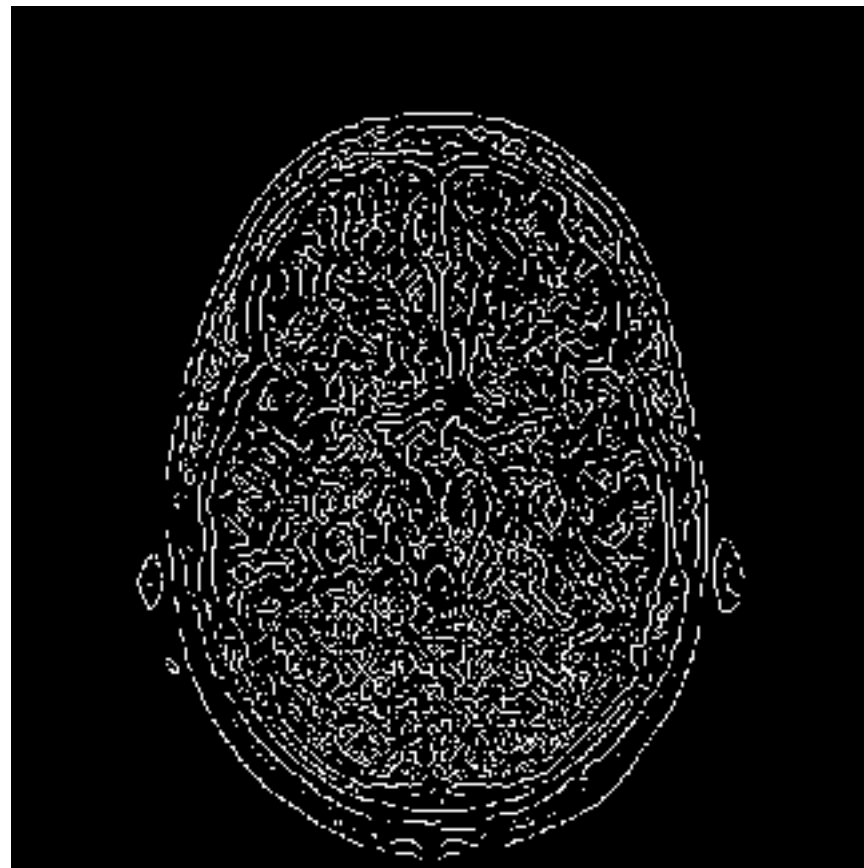
- Steps:
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 - Non-maximum suppression —> remove low power stuff
 - Apply double thresholding; classification: strong, weak, and no edge
 - Edge tracking; a weak edge is a strong one if it is connected to a strong edge!

Edge Detectors: Edge Tracking

Edge Detector Example



$\text{thr} = 0.001$



$\text{thr} = 0.01$



$\text{thr} = 0.1$

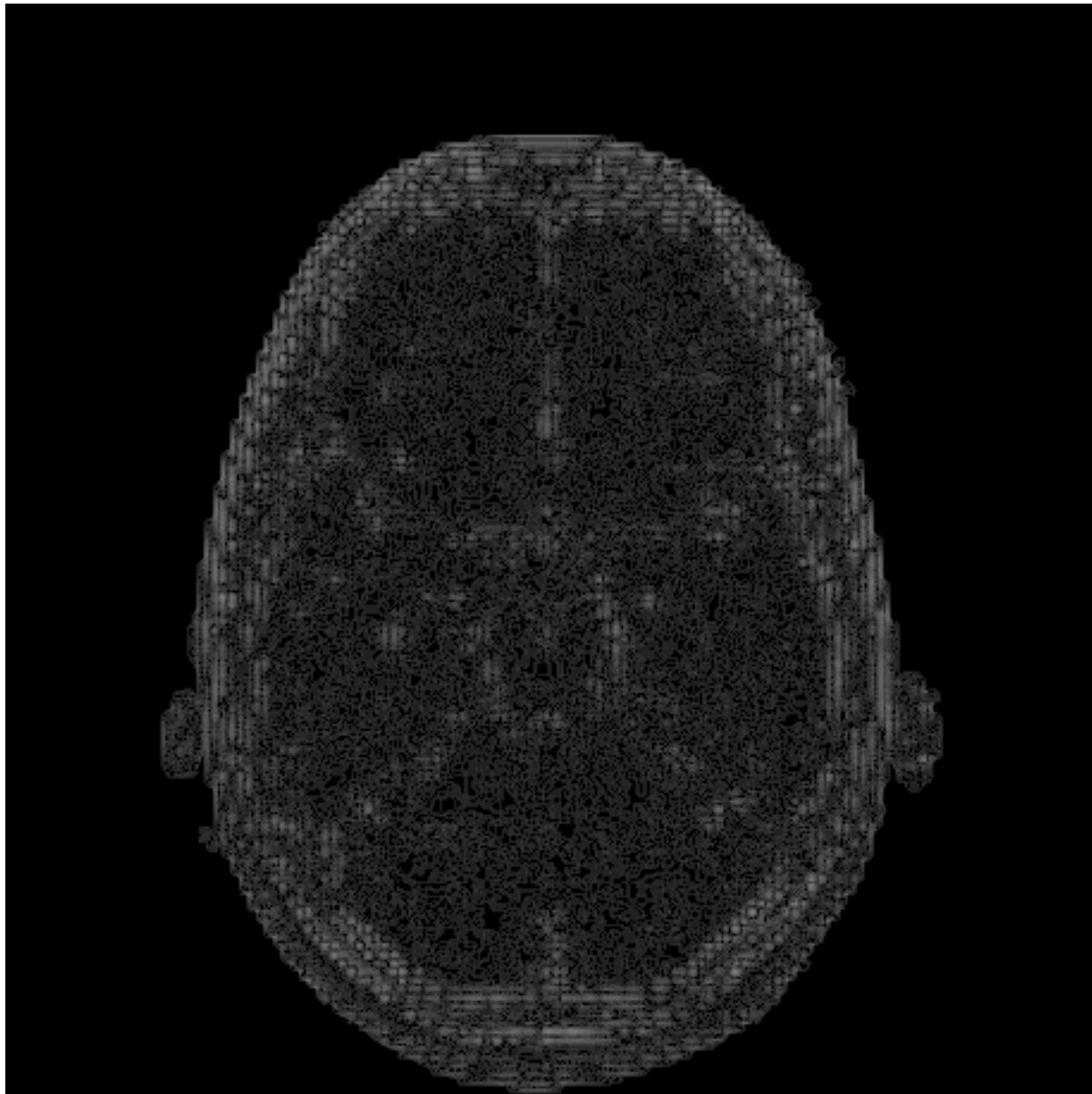
Laplacian Filter

- If you really want... we can also define a Laplacian operator... Why?
- The Laplacian of an image highlights regions of rapid intensity change and is therefore often used for edge detection
- oh, jolly good!

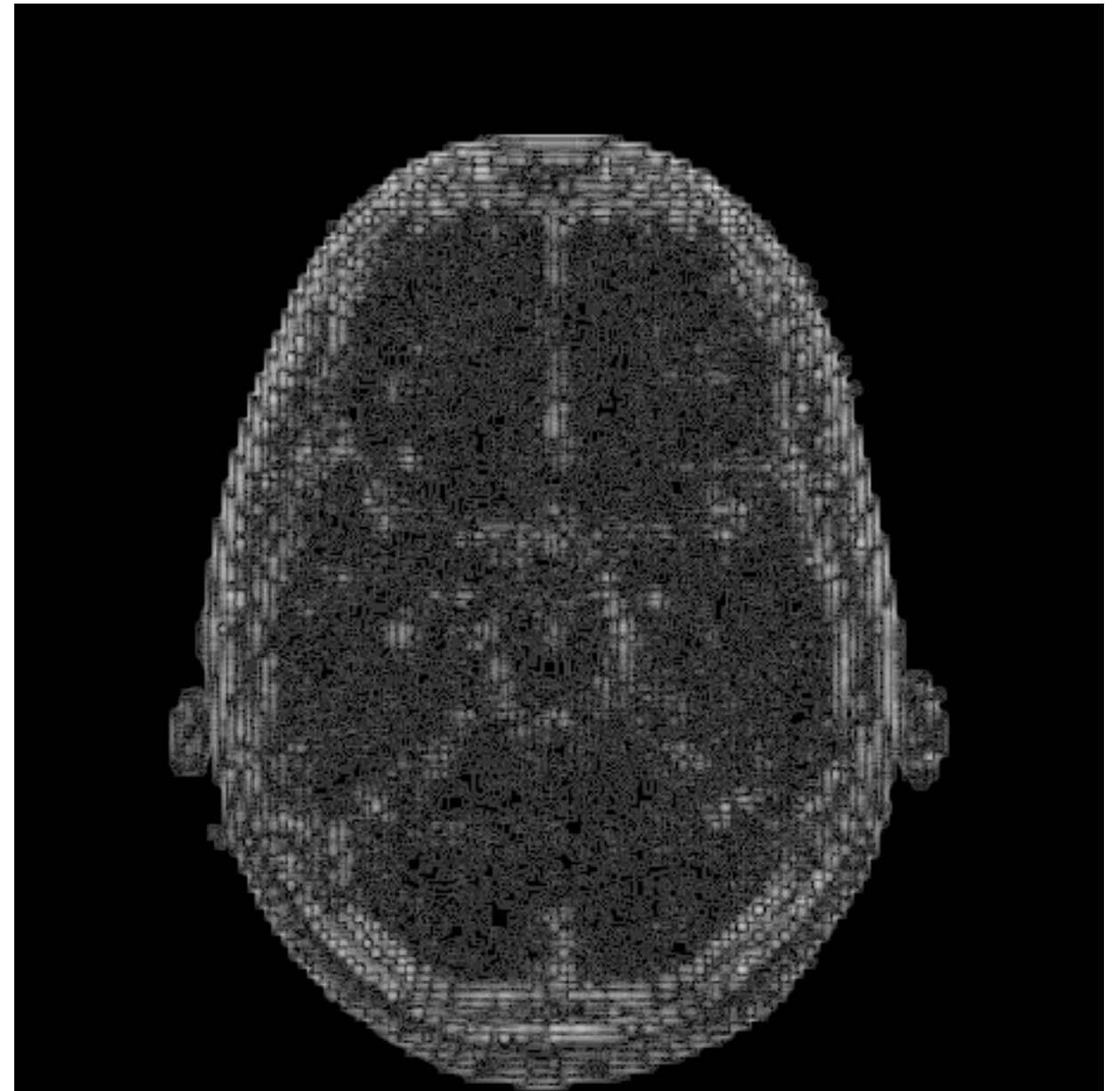
Laplacian Filter

$$g_{L_4} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad g_{L_8} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 8 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Laplacian Filter Example



g_{L4}



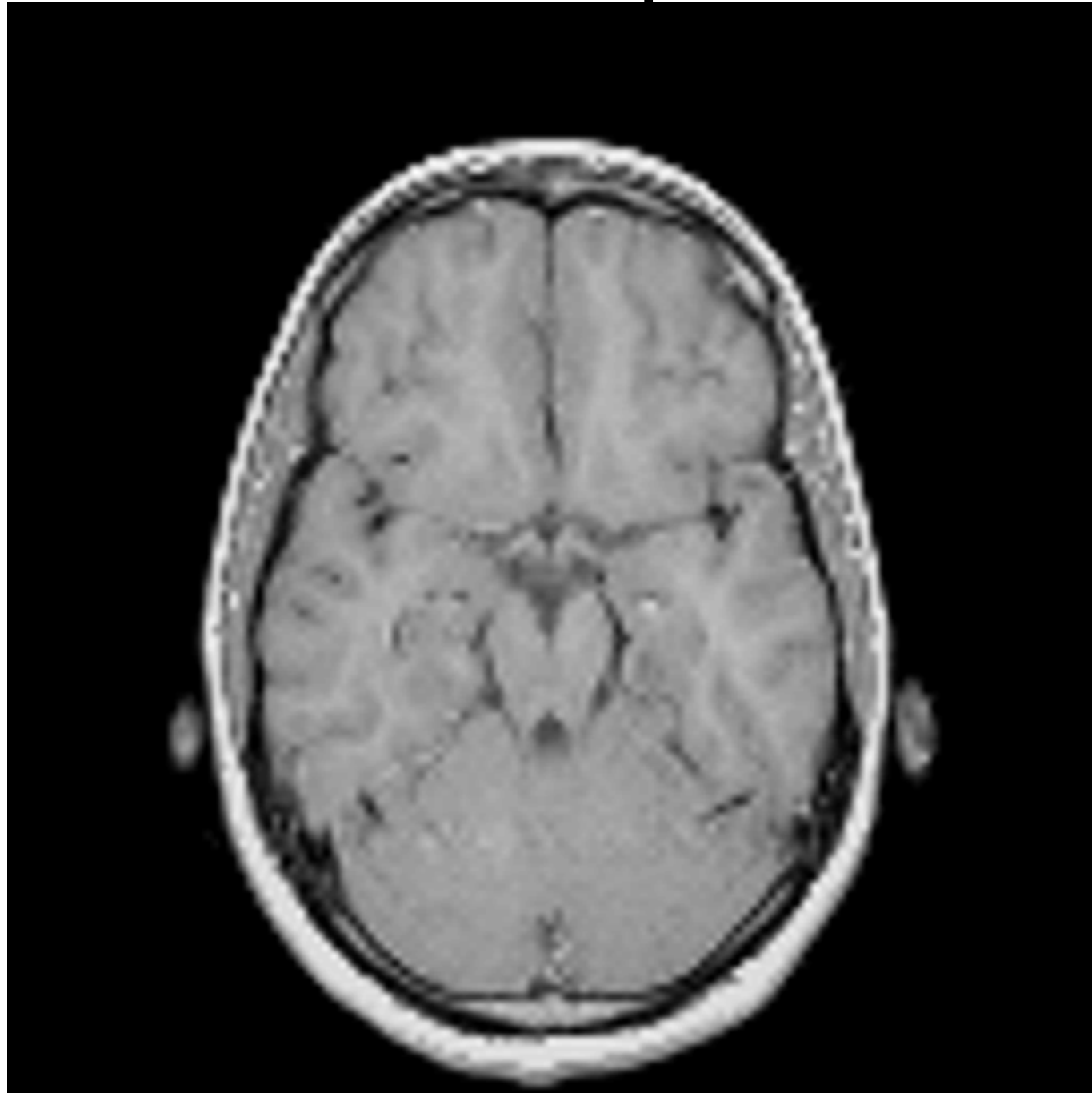
g_{L8}

Laplacian Filter Bonus

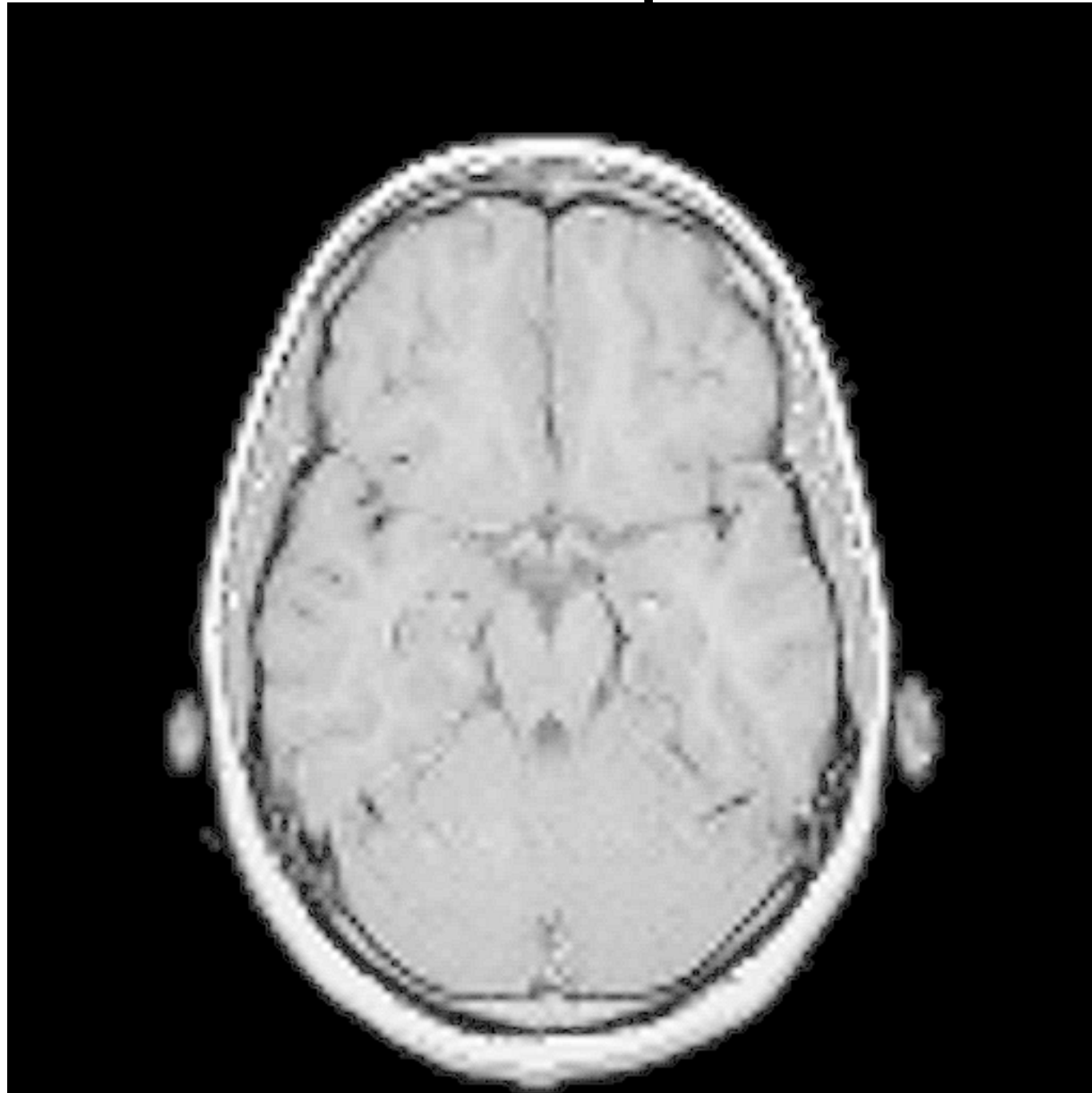
- With a small change (+1) we can increase sharpness in the image:

$$g_{\text{sharp}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 5 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Laplacian Filter Bonus Example

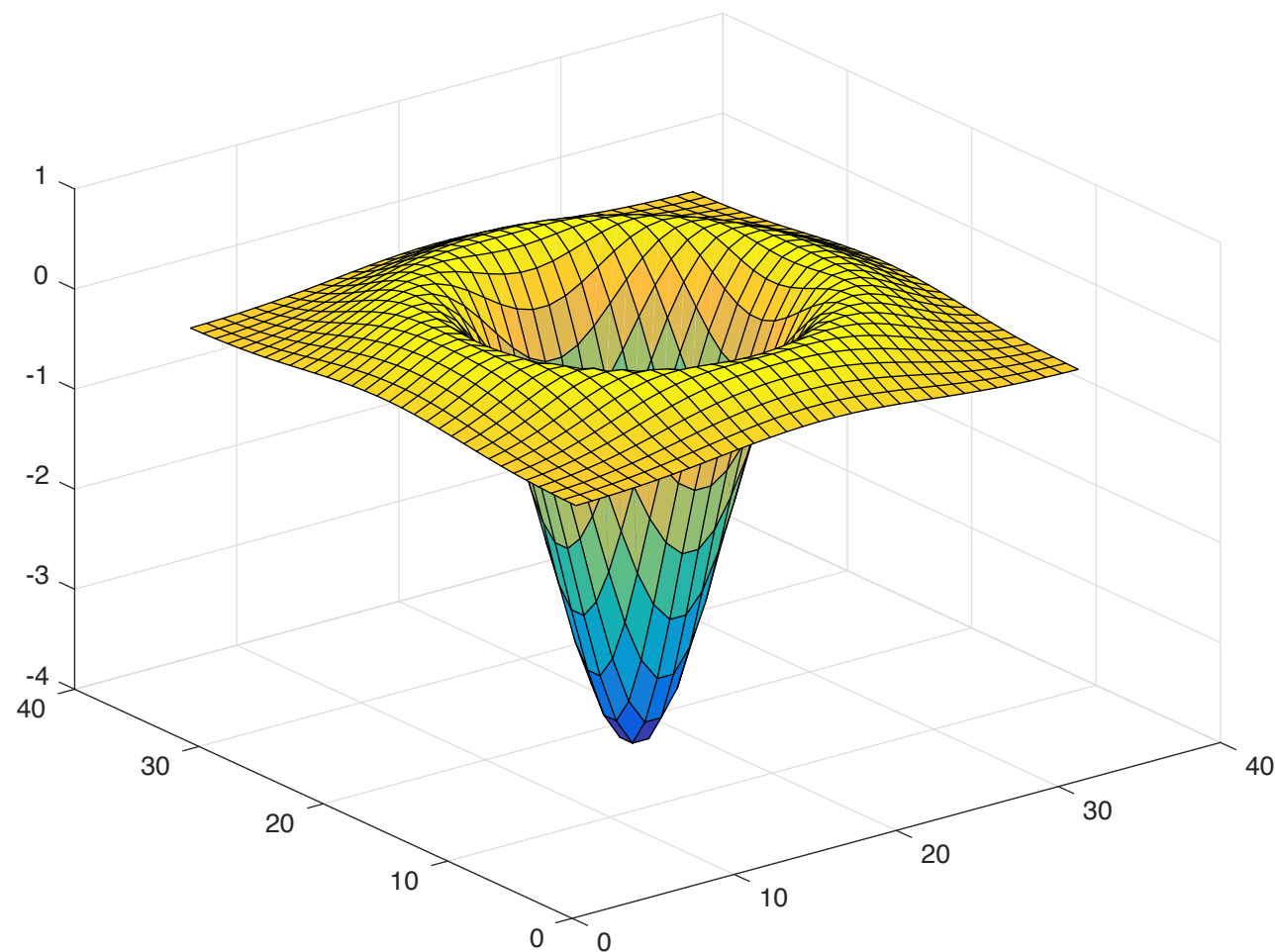


Laplacian Filter Bonus Example



Laplacian Filter Extra

$$g_{LoG}[k, l] = -\frac{1}{\pi\sigma^4} \left(1 - \frac{k^2 + l^2}{2\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{k^2 + l^2}{2\sigma^2}} \right)$$



Box Filter

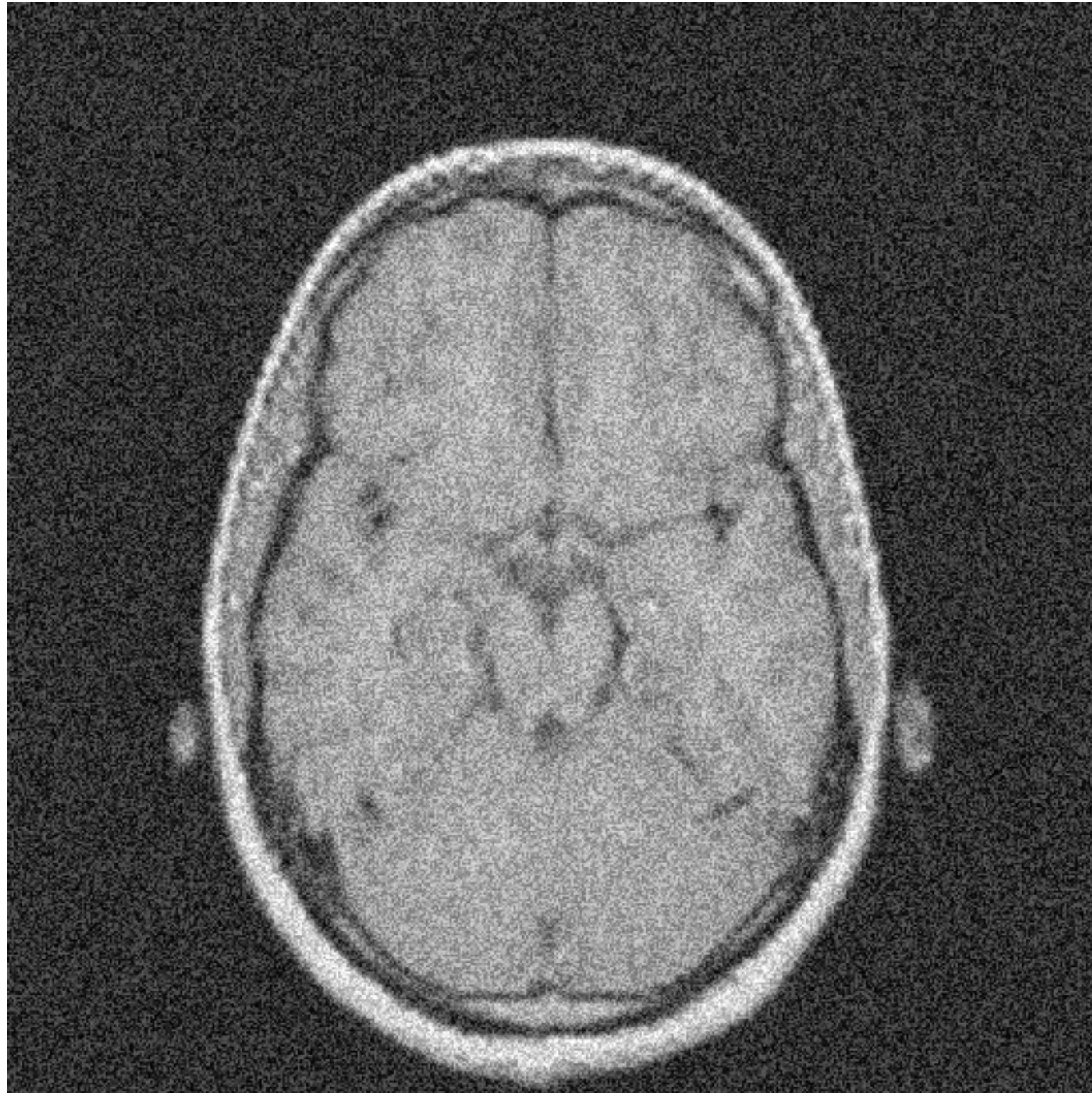
- This is a very simple filter low-pass filter:

$$g[k, l] = 1 \quad \forall k \wedge \forall l$$

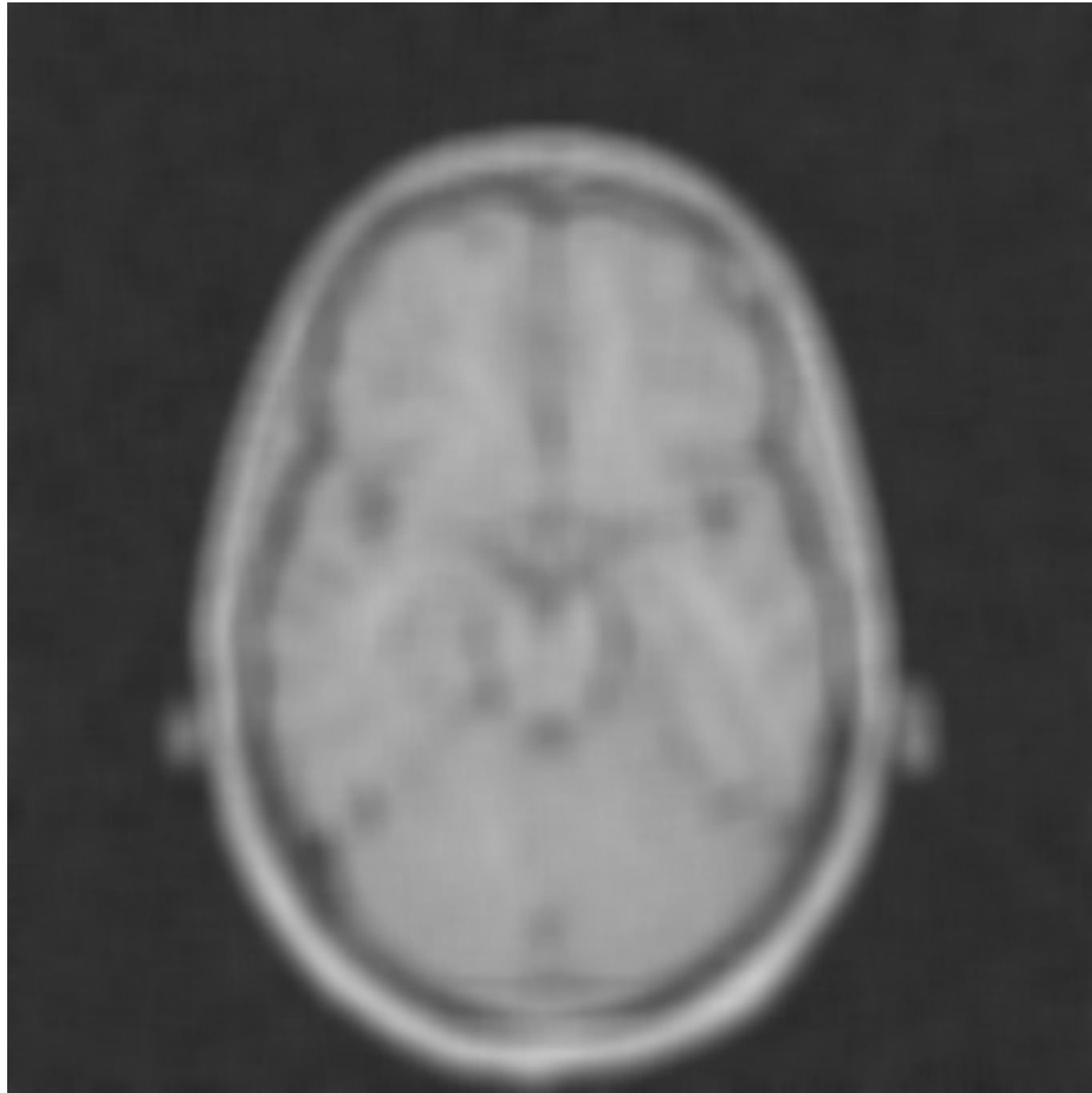
- What does it do? It blurs the signal!
- This kernel has to be normalized:

$$g[k, l] = \frac{g[k, l]}{\sum_{k=-N}^N \sum_{l=-M}^M g[k, l]}$$

Box Filter Example



Box Filter Example



Gaussian Filter

- We use a Gaussian kernel defined as

$$g[k, l] = G(\sqrt{k^2 + l^2})$$

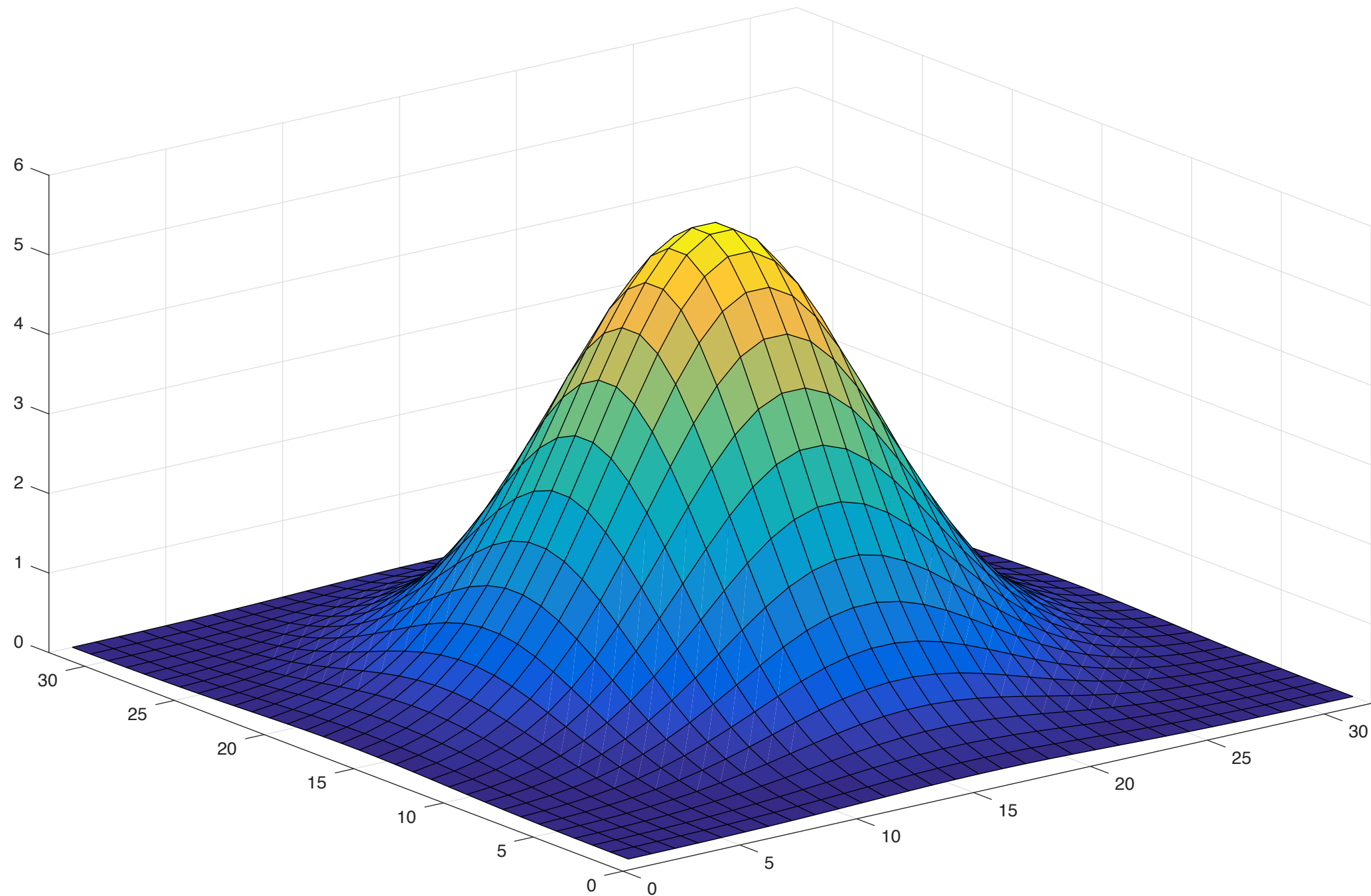
- where G is:

$$G(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- Note that g has to be normalized:

$$g[k, l] = \frac{g[k, l]}{\sum_{k=-N}^N \sum_{l=-M}^M g[k, l]}$$

Gaussian Filter



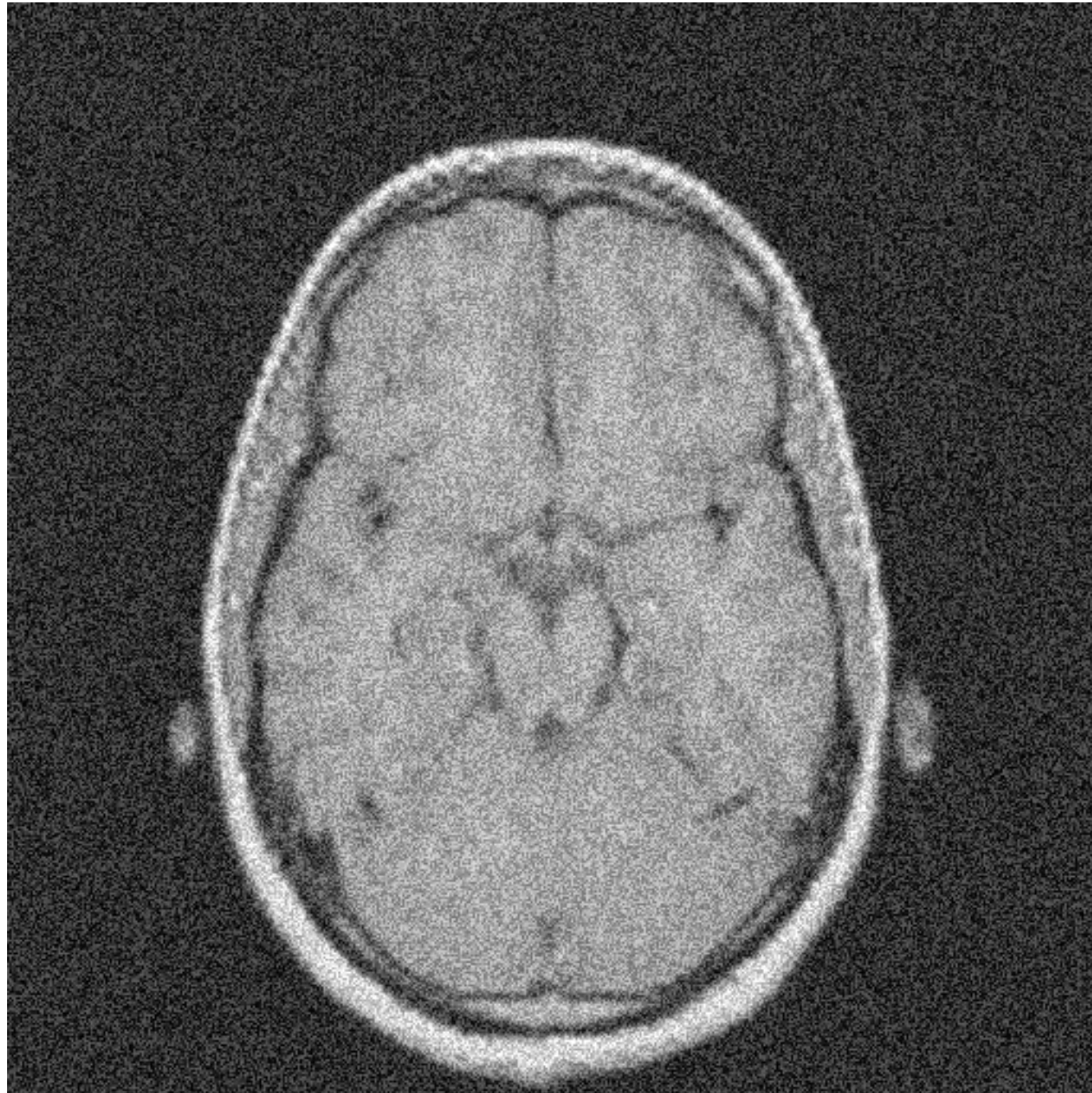
Gaussian Filter: how large?

- Typically, we have $N = M$;
- N and M depends on the sigma parameter:

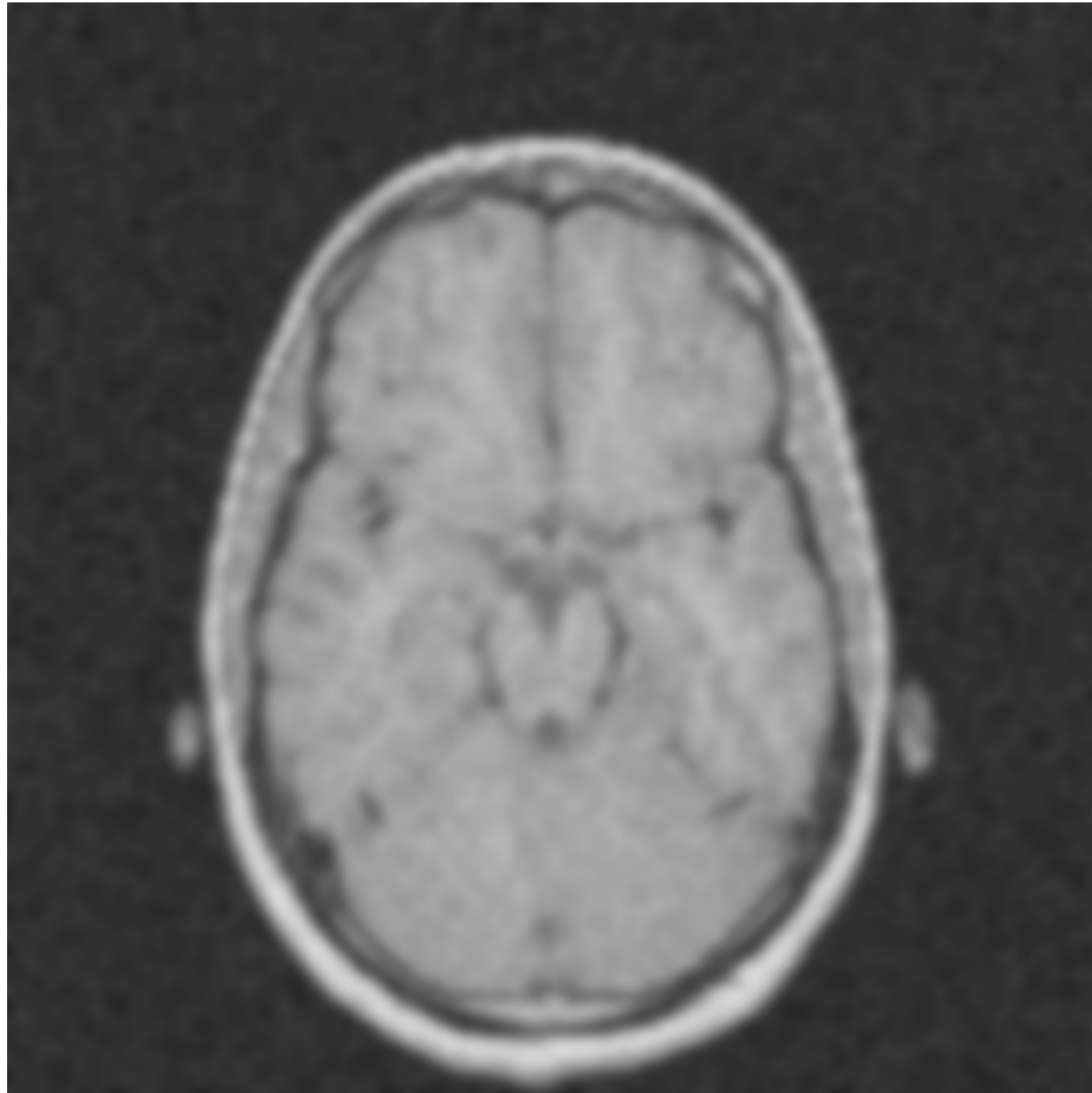
$$N = M = \frac{5}{2} \cdot \sigma \longrightarrow 98\% \text{ of energy}$$

- Larger sigma the better but the slower!
- Note: when sigma is too large (e.g., more than 128 pixels) it is better to work in the Fourier domain!

Gaussian Filter Example



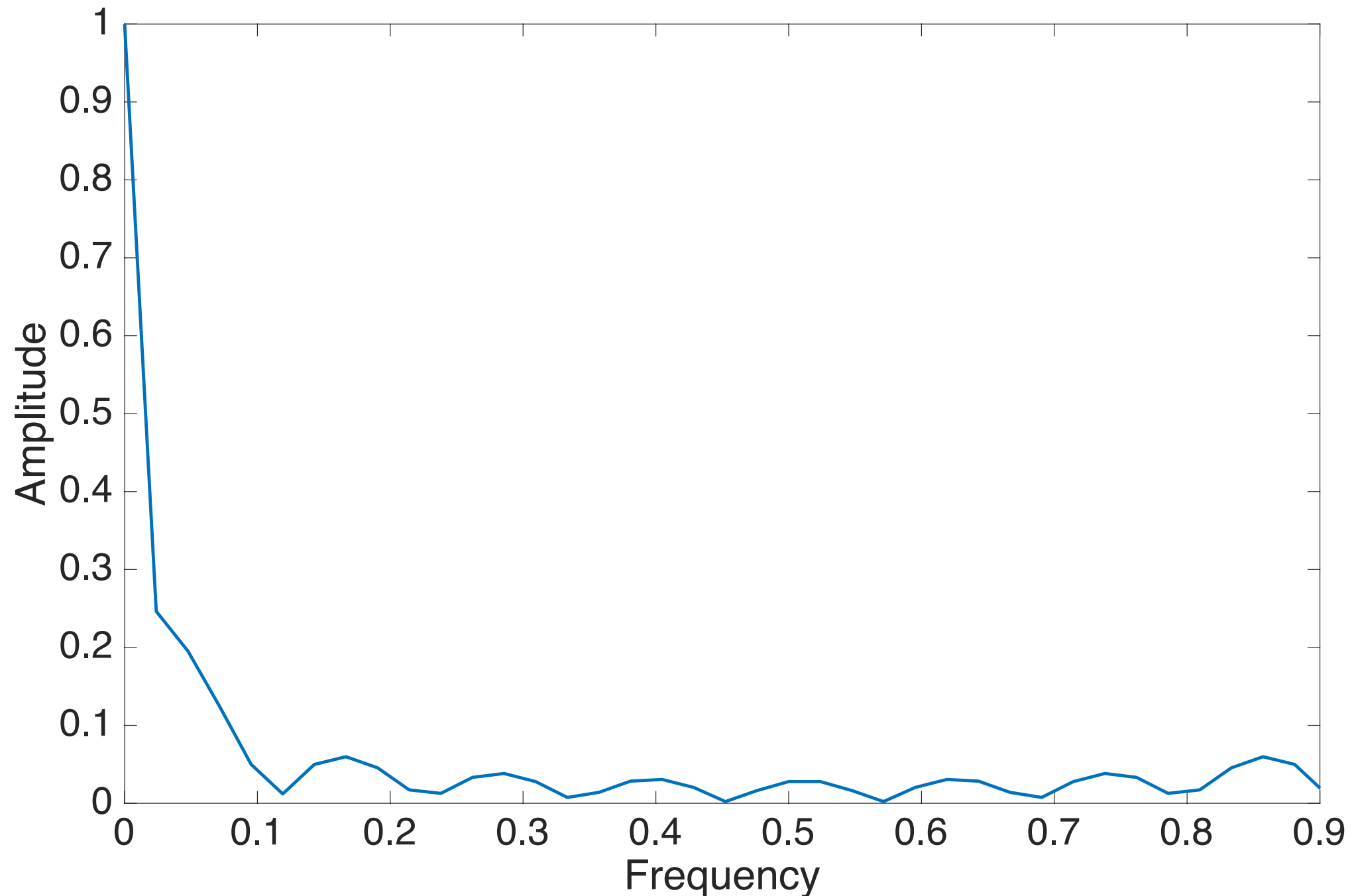
Gaussian Filter Example



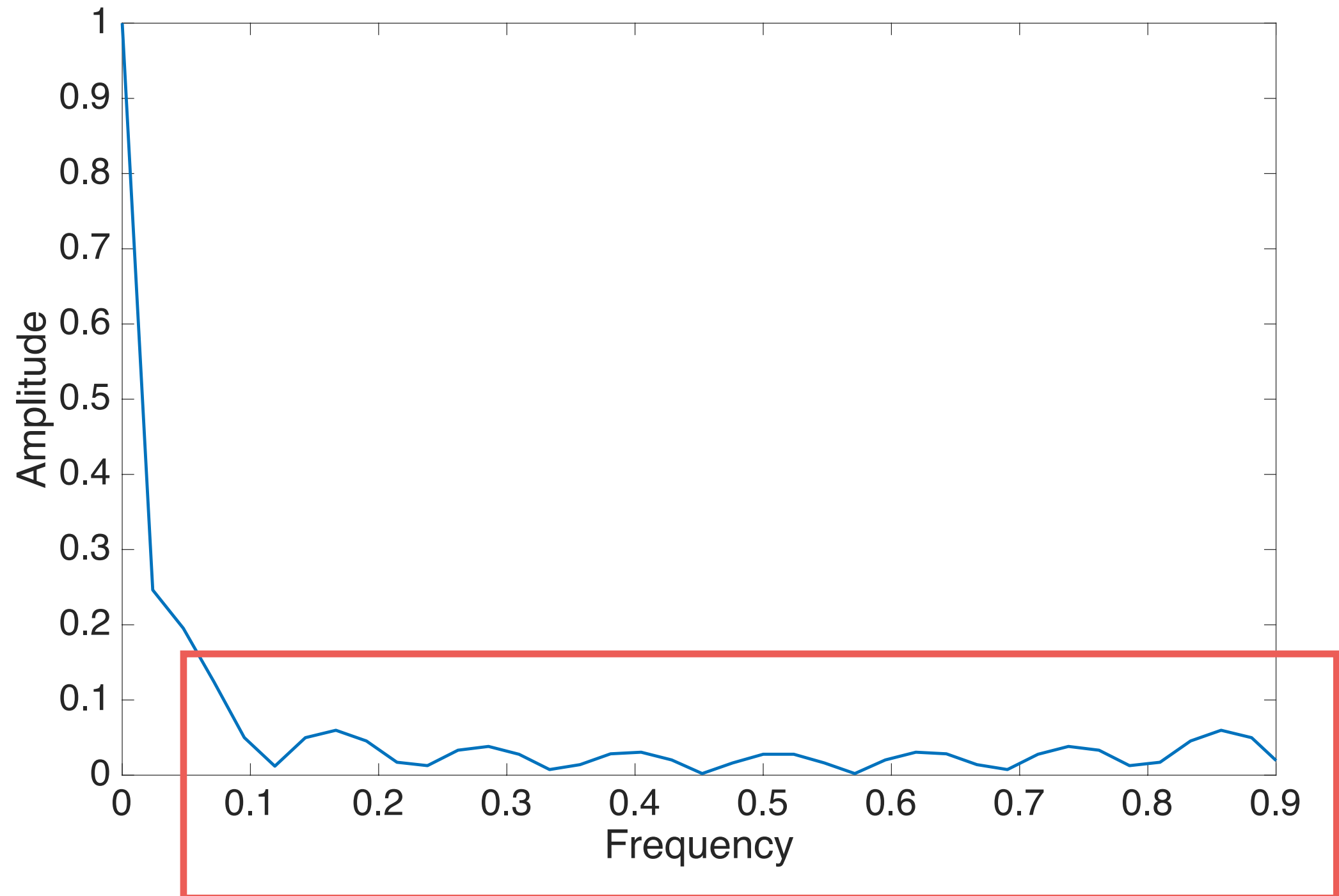
Box vs Gaussian

- As you probably know...
- The box filter cuts primarily high frequencies but it has oscillations for some low frequencies.
 - What does it mean? **That is BAD!**
- The Gaussian filter cuts mostly high frequencies!
 - **That is GOOD!**

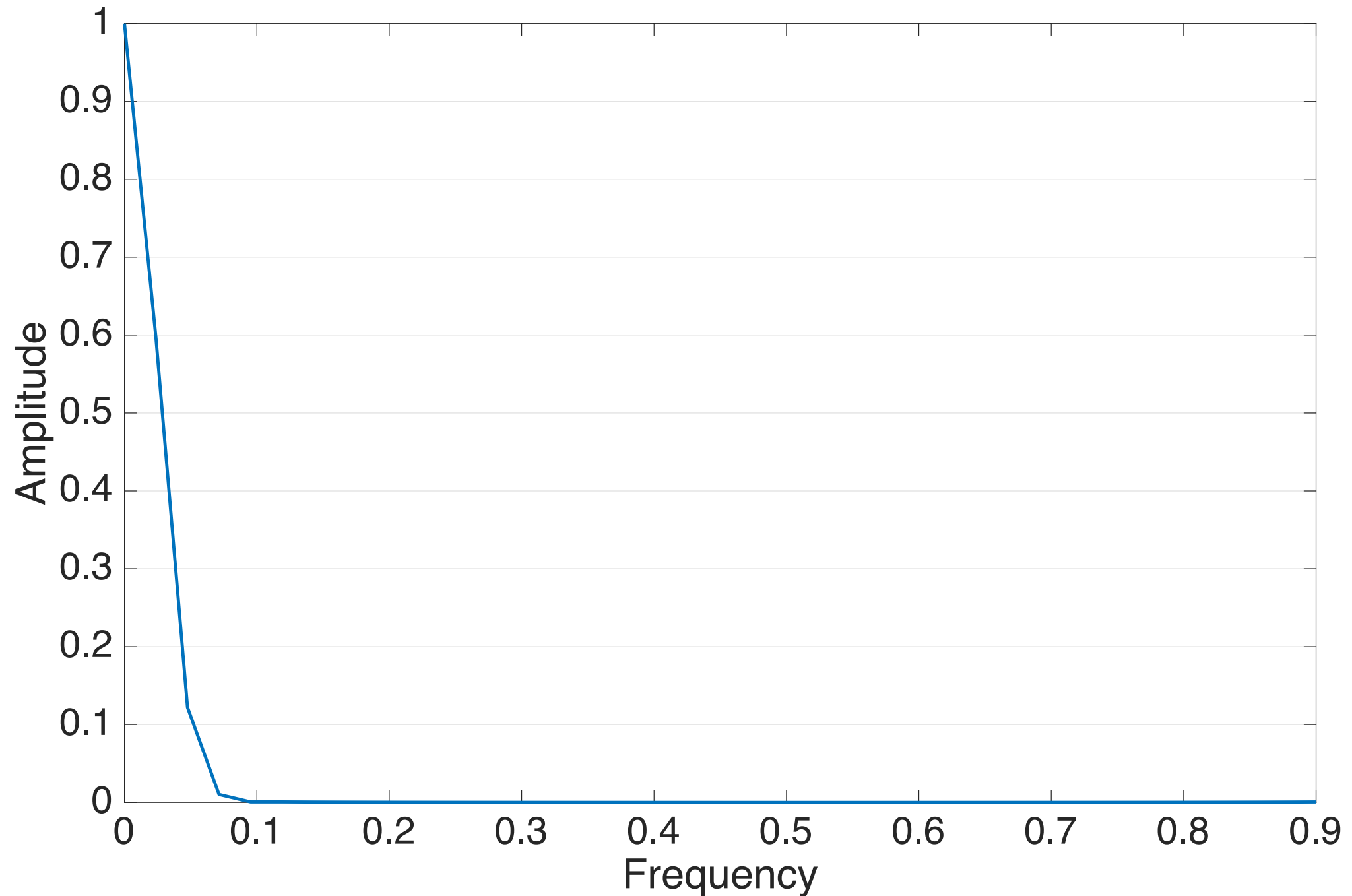
Box vs Gaussian Example



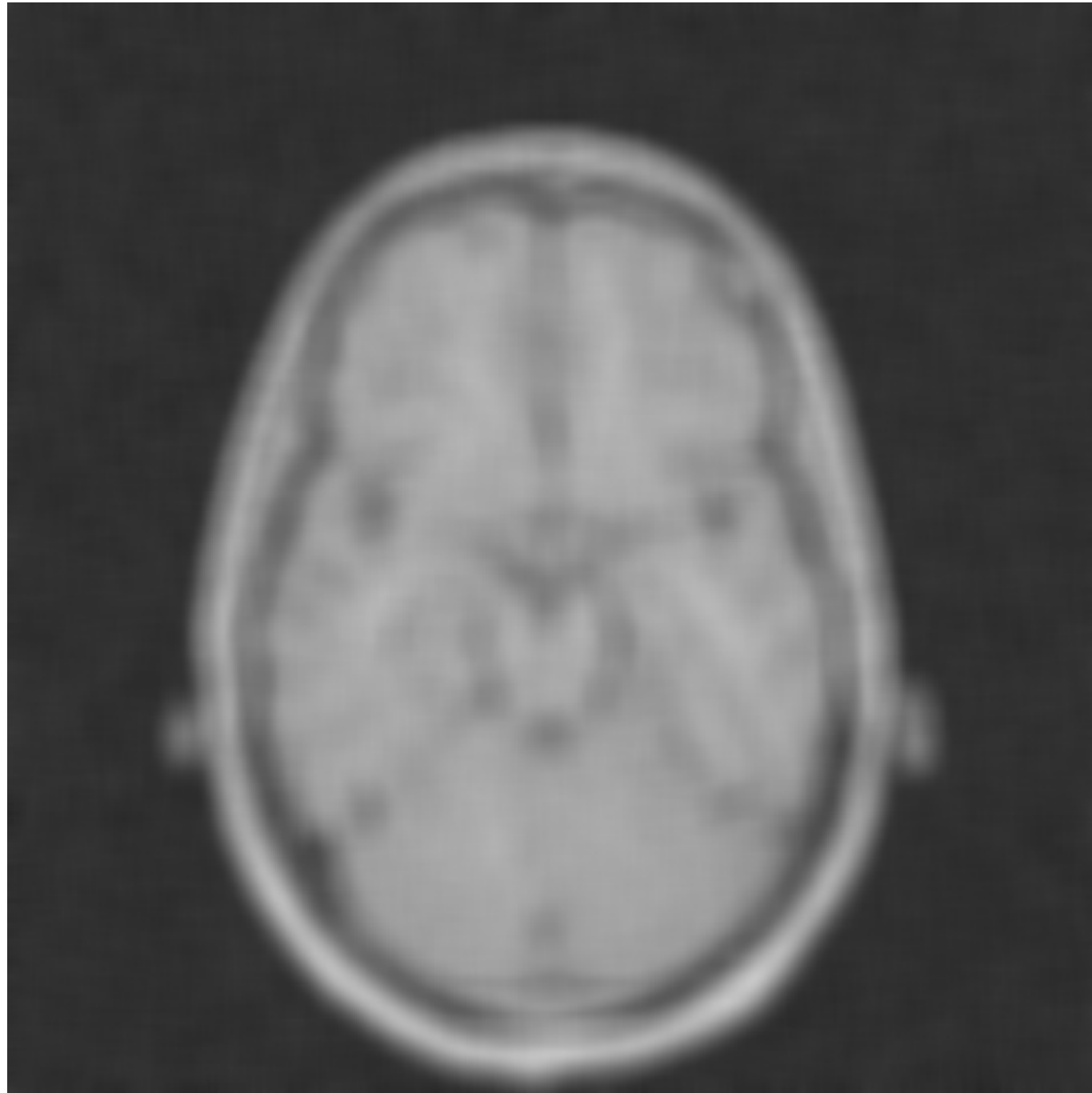
Box vs Gaussian Example



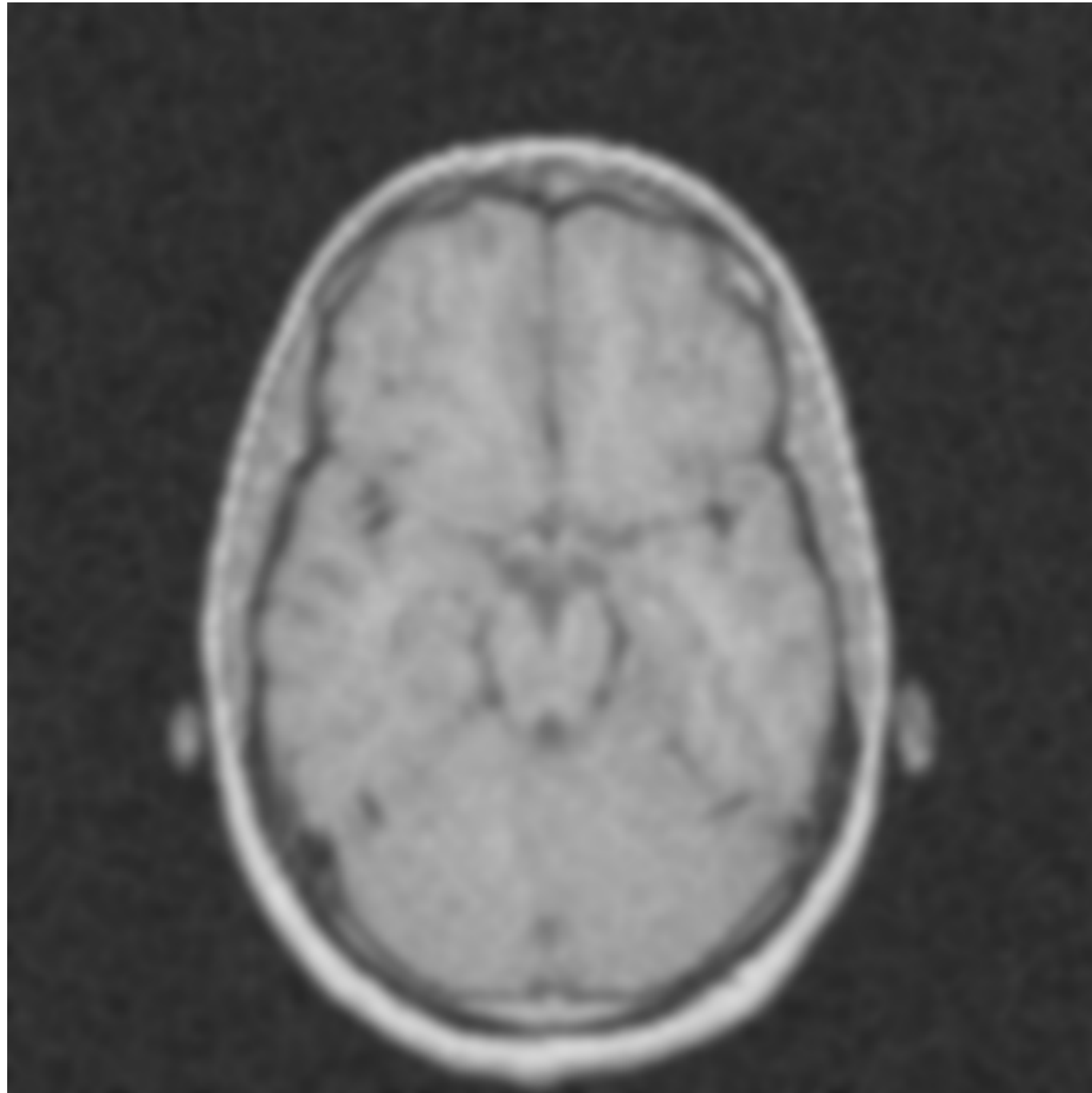
Box vs Gaussian Example



Box vs Gaussian Example

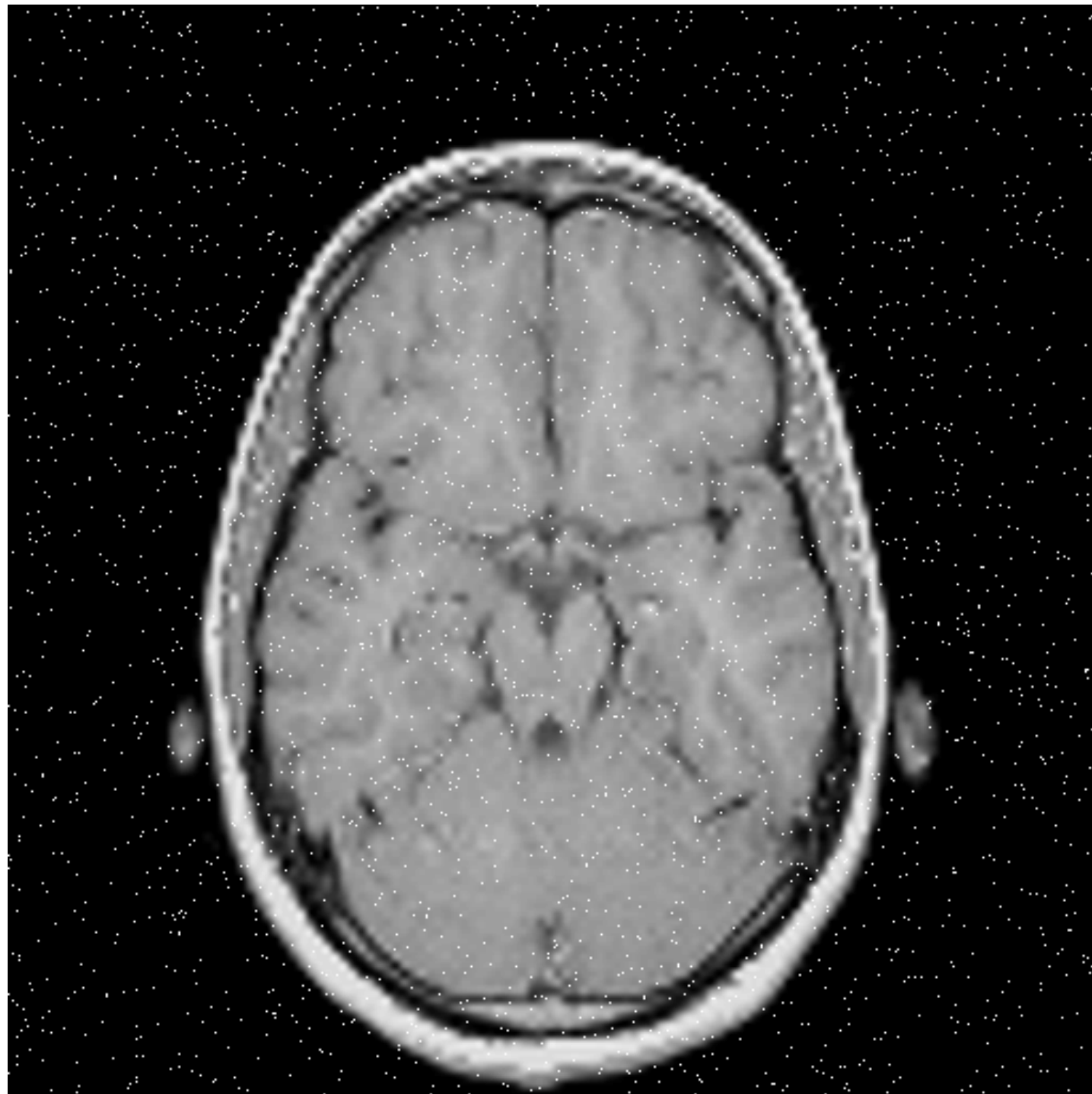


Box vs Gaussian Example

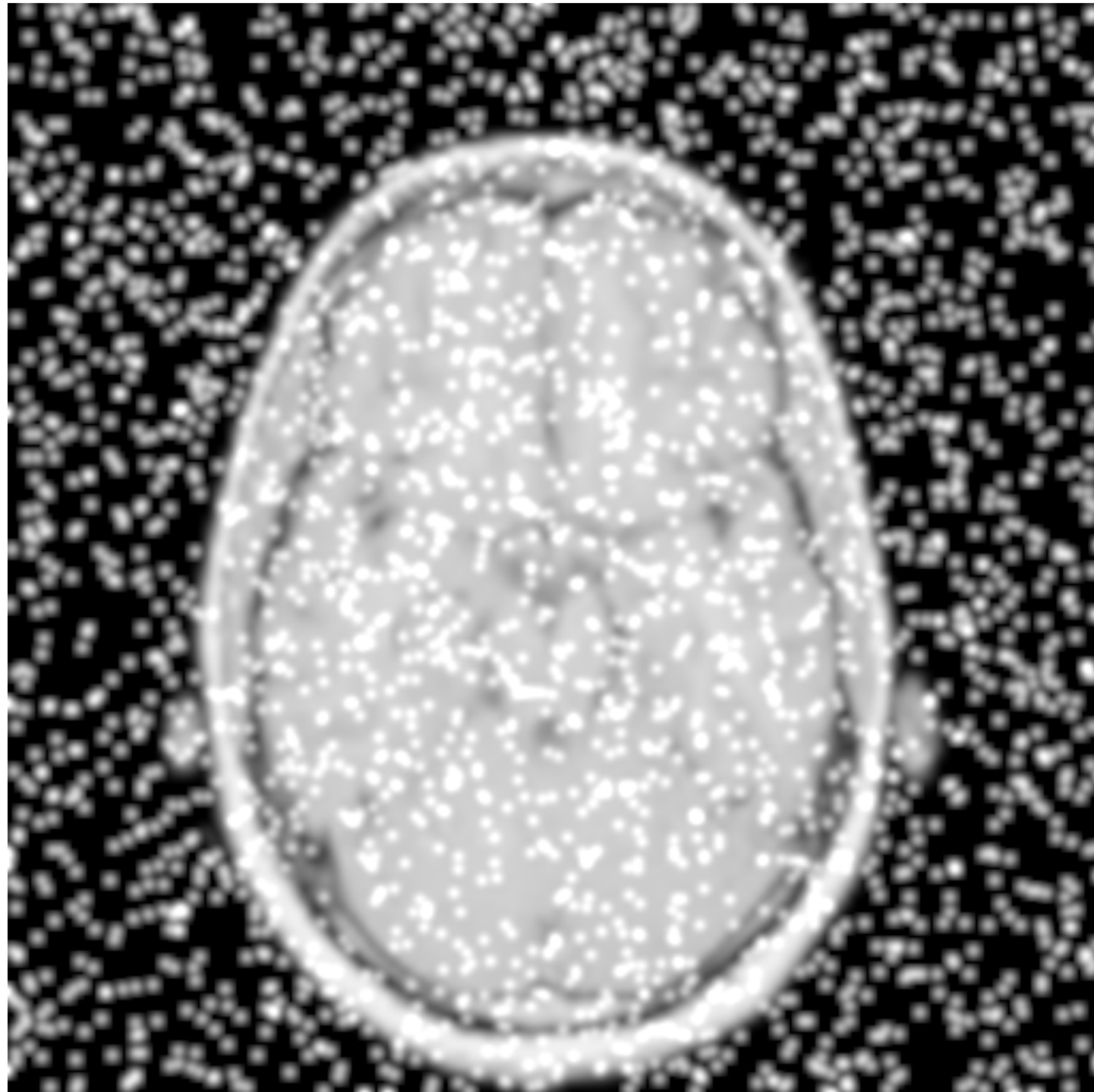


Non-Linear Filters

Salt and Pepper Noise



Salt and Pepper Noise



Median Filter

- This filter is mostly meant for tackling salt-and-pepper noise!
 - Linear filters do a mess with salt-and-pepper!
- It exploits the fact that median is robust in separating the higher half of data sample from the lower part! Classist isn't it?

Median Filter

- How does it work?
 - We define the size of the filter; e.g., 9x9
 - For each pixel (i, j):
 - We collect all pixel values around (i, j)
 - We sort pixel values
 - We take the median value!

Median Filter: Example

100	89	20
10	30	20
10	20	20

Median Filter: Example

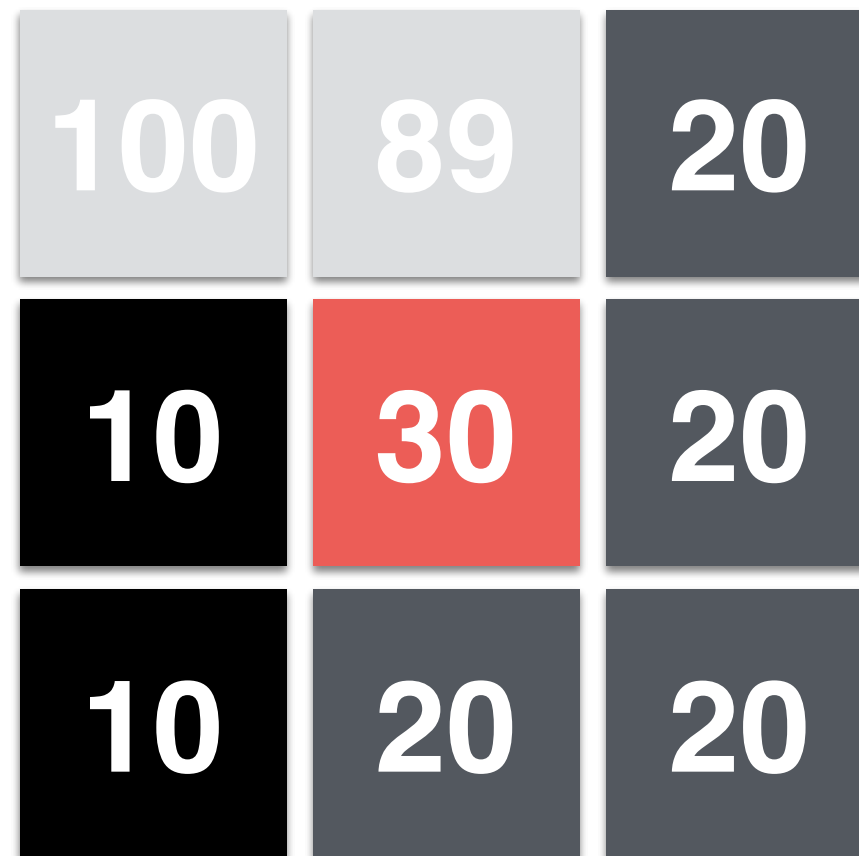
100	89	20
10	30	20
10	20	20

Median Filter: Example

100	89	20
10	30	20
10	20	20

[100, 89, 20, 10, 30, 20, 10, 20, 20]

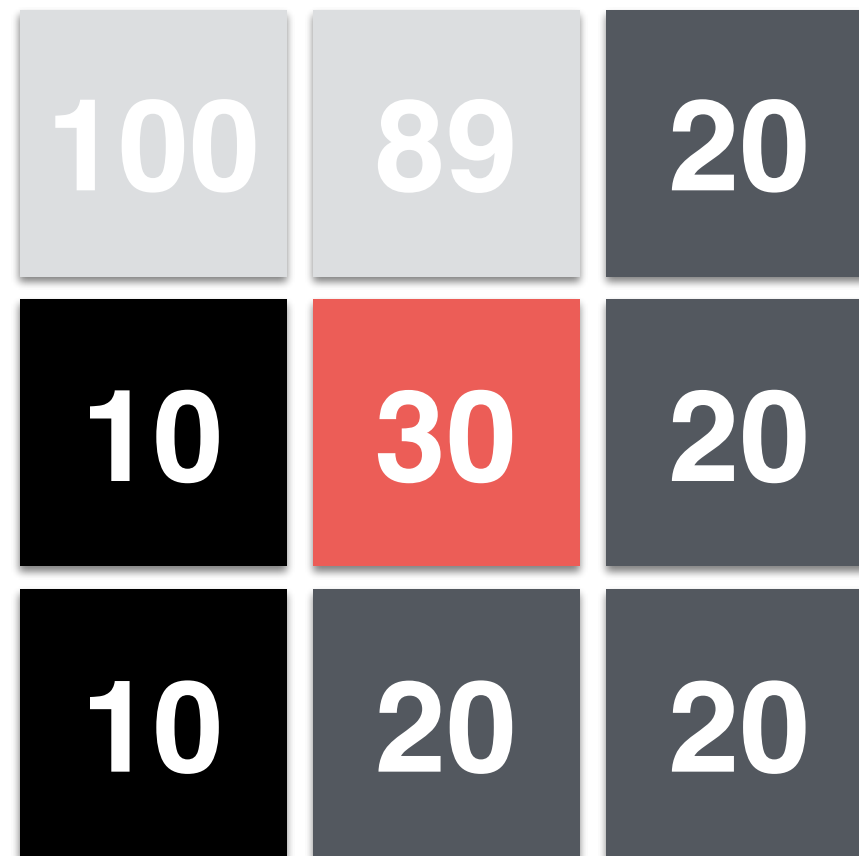
Median Filter: Example



100	89	20
10	30	20
10	20	20

[10, 10, 20, 20, 20, 20, 30, 89, 100]

Median Filter: Example



100	89	20
10	30	20
10	20	20

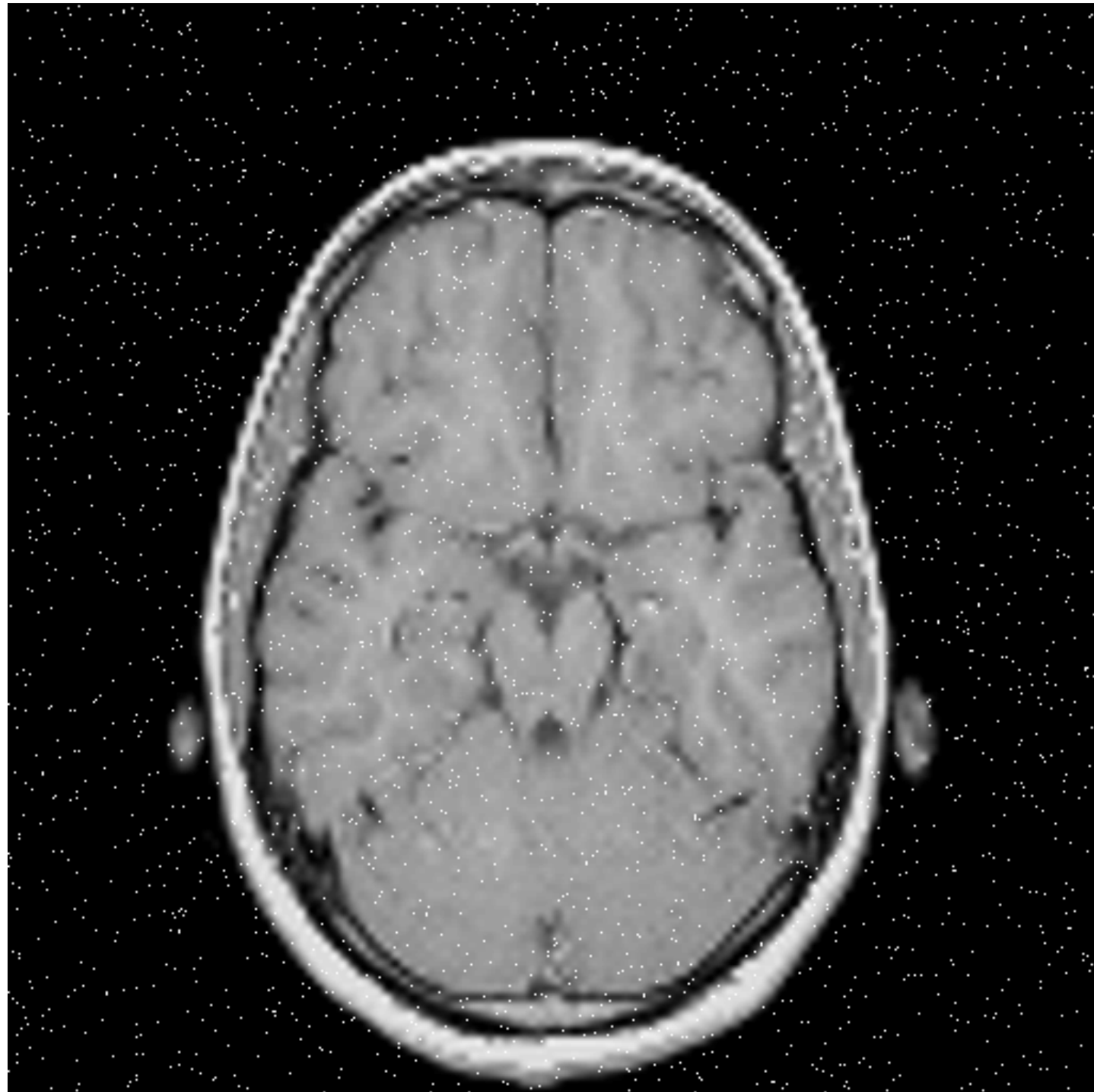
[10, 10, 20, 20, 20, 20, 30, 89, 100]

Median Filter: Example

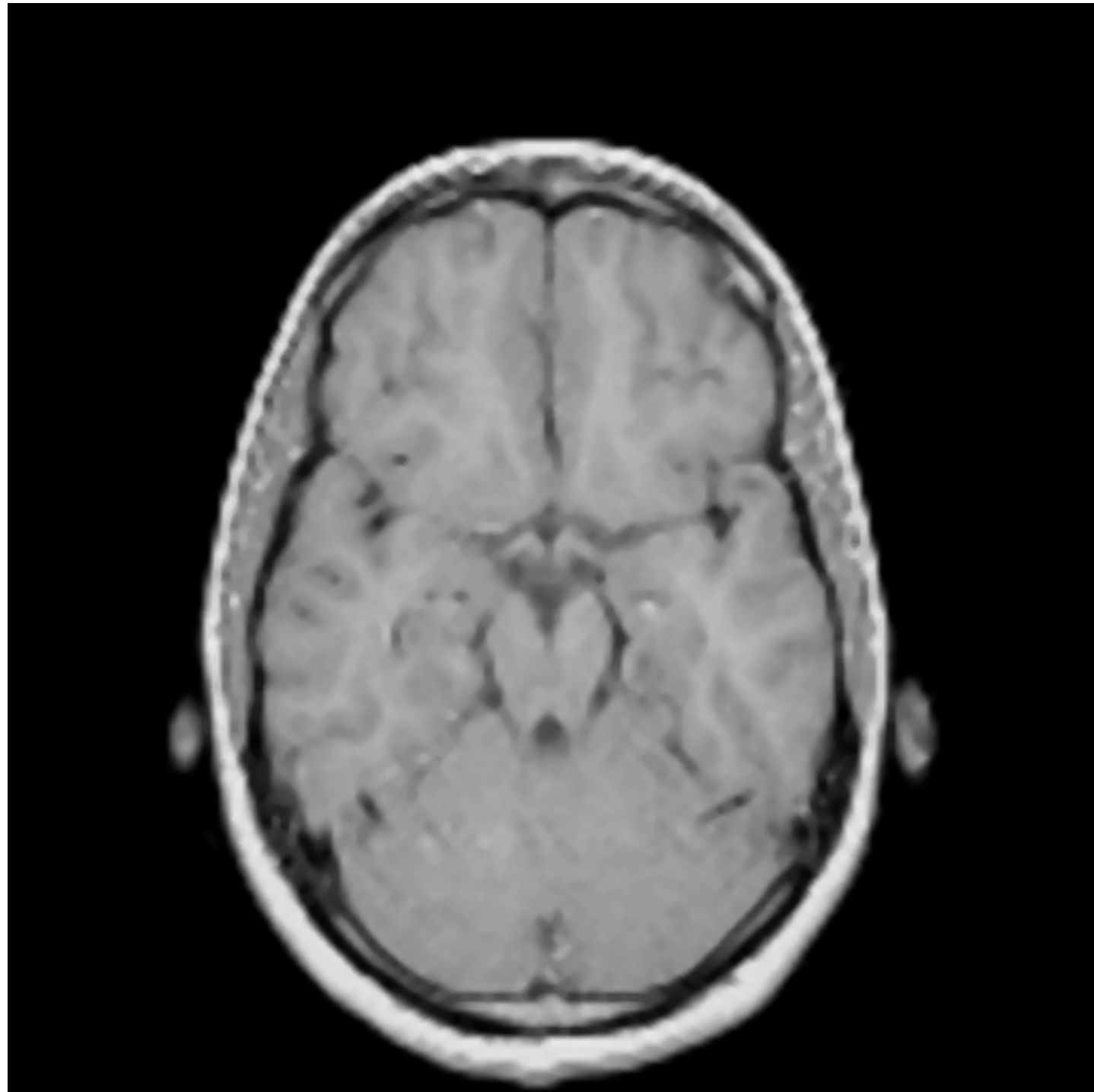
100	89	20
10	20	20
10	20	20

[10, 10, 20, 20, 20, 20, 30, 89, 100]

Median Filter Example



Median Filter Example



The Bilateral Filter

- It is a non-linear filter, oh really?
- It works both spatial domain and intensity/range domain of the image.
- Basically, it is an adaptive linear filter:
 - It behaves as a linear filter in flat regions;
 - At strong edges (step-edge), filtering is “limited”.

The Bilateral Filter

$$BF[I](\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r) = \frac{1}{K(\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r)} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \Omega(\mathbf{x})} I(\mathbf{y}) f_s(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|) g_r(\|I(\mathbf{y}) - I(\mathbf{x})\|),$$

$$K[I](\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r) = \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \Omega(\mathbf{x})} f_s(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|) g_r(\|I(\mathbf{y}) - I(\mathbf{x})\|),$$

The Bilateral Filter

Spatial Function

$$BF[I](\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r) = \frac{1}{K(\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r)} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \Omega(\mathbf{x})} I(\mathbf{y}) f_s(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|) g_r(\|I(\mathbf{y}) - I(\mathbf{x})\|),$$
$$K[I](\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r) = \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \Omega(\mathbf{x})} f_s(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|) g_r(\|I(\mathbf{y}) - I(\mathbf{x})\|),$$

The Bilateral Filter

$$BF[I](\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r) = \frac{1}{K(\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r)} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \Omega(\mathbf{x})} I(\mathbf{y}) f_s(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|) g_r(\|I(\mathbf{y}) - I(\mathbf{x})\|),$$

$$K[I](\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r) = \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \Omega(\mathbf{x})} f_s(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|) g_r(\|I(\mathbf{y}) - I(\mathbf{x})\|),$$

The Bilateral Filter

Range Function

$$BF[I](\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r) = \frac{1}{K(\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r)} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \Omega(\mathbf{x})} I(\mathbf{y}) f_s(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|) g_r(\|I(\mathbf{y}) - I(\mathbf{x})\|),$$

$$K[I](\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r) = \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \Omega(\mathbf{x})} f_s(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|) g_r(\|I(\mathbf{y}) - I(\mathbf{x})\|),$$

The Bilateral Filter

$$BF[I](\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r) = \frac{1}{K(\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r)} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \Omega(\mathbf{x})} I(\mathbf{y}) f_s(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|) g_r(\|I(\mathbf{y}) - I(\mathbf{x})\|),$$

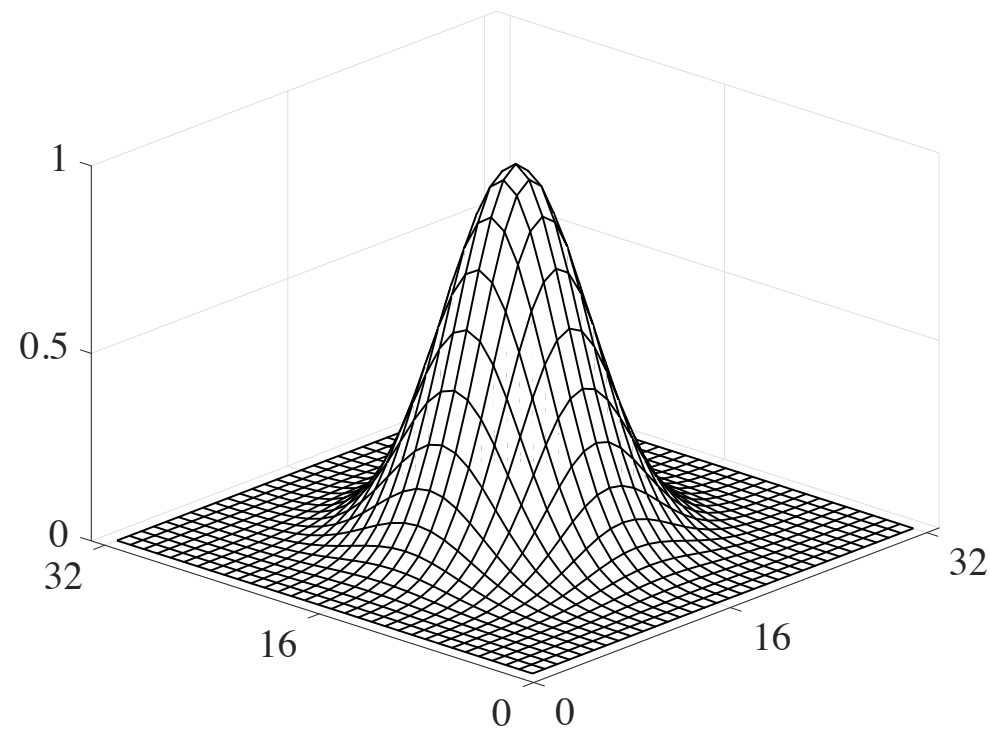
$$K[I](\mathbf{x}, f_s, g_r) = \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \Omega(\mathbf{x})} f_s(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|) g_r(\|I(\mathbf{y}) - I(\mathbf{x})\|),$$

The Bilateral Filter

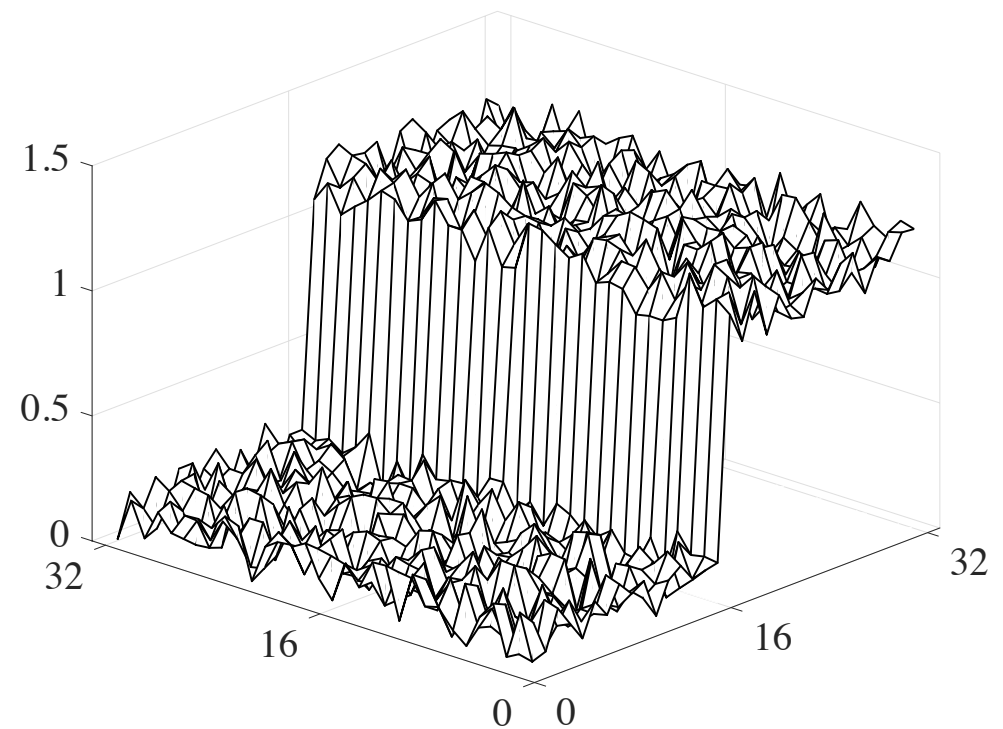
- f_s (Spatial function): a Gaussian function
- g_r (Range function): a Gaussian function
- How large is the kernel?
 - If the spatial function is a Gaussian:

$$N = M = \frac{5}{2}\sigma_s$$

The Bilateral Filter Explained

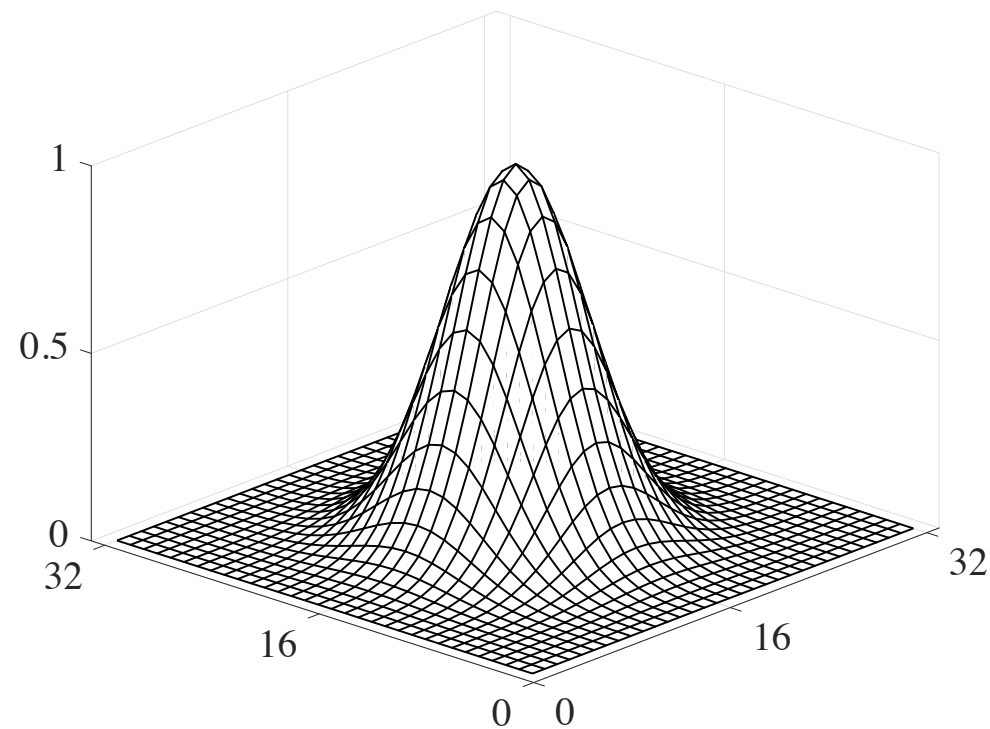


Kernel

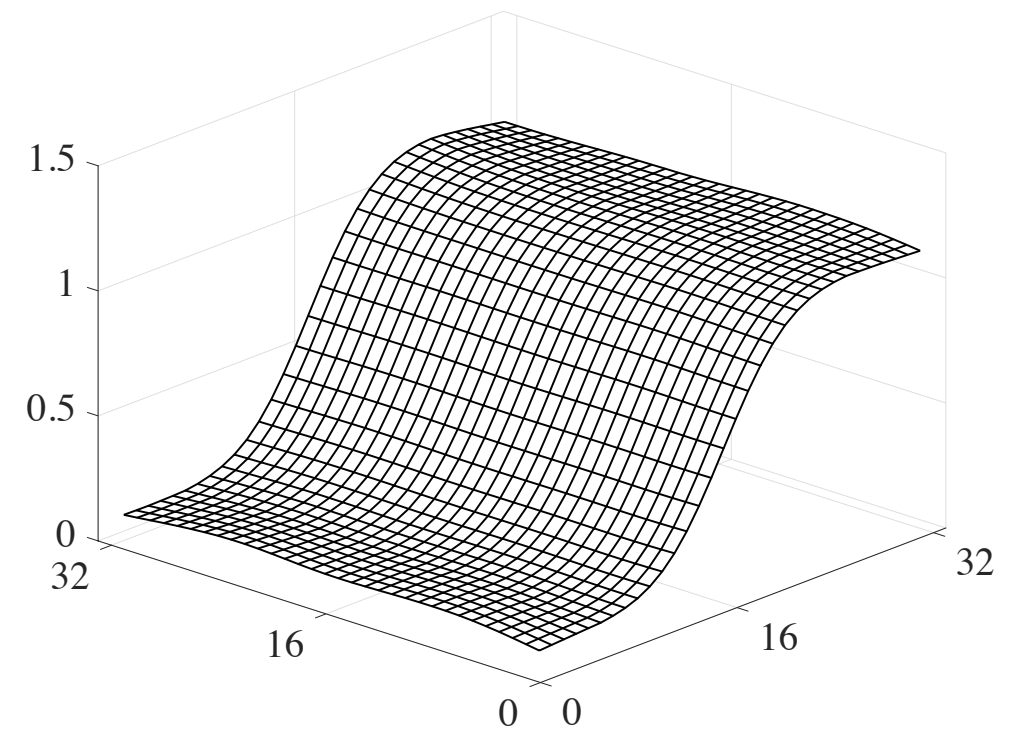


Image

The Bilateral Filter Explained

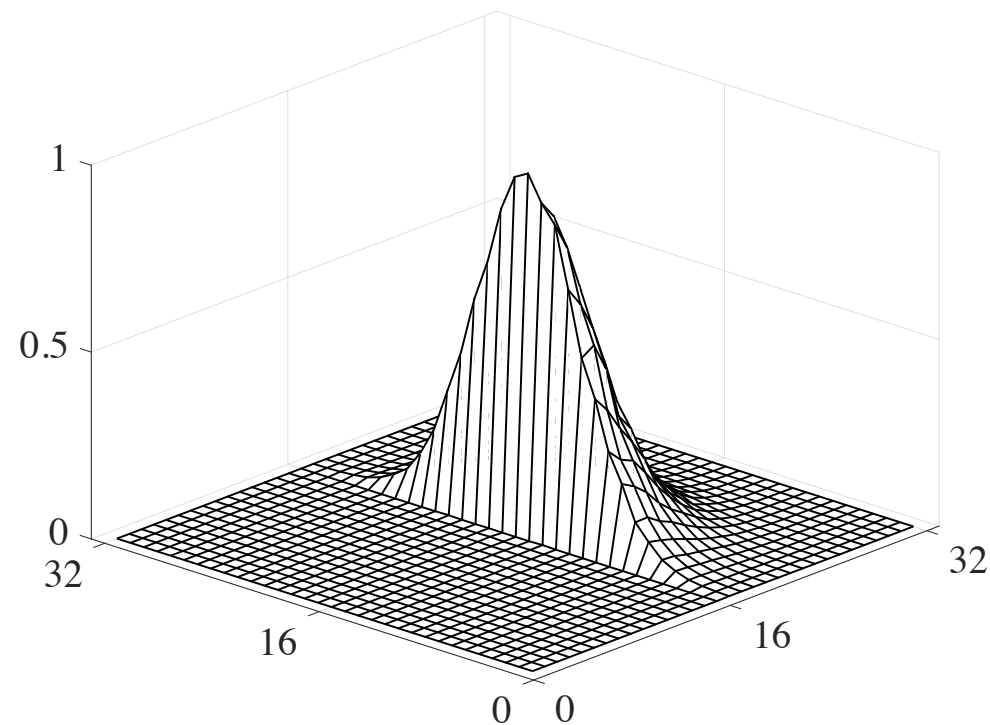


Kernel

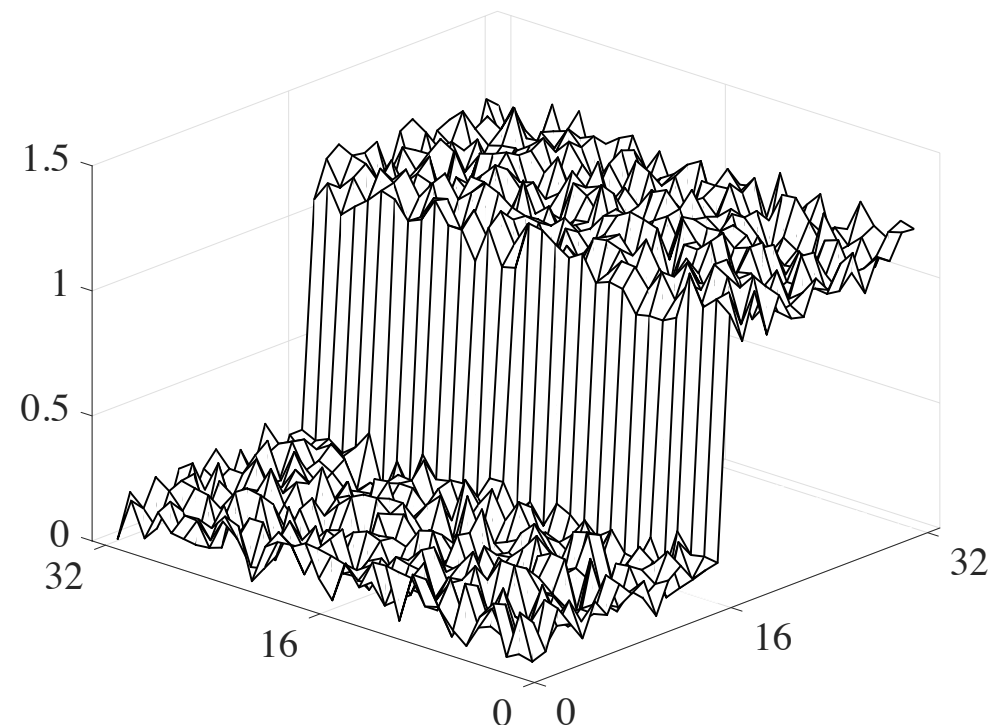


Image

The Bilateral Filter Explained

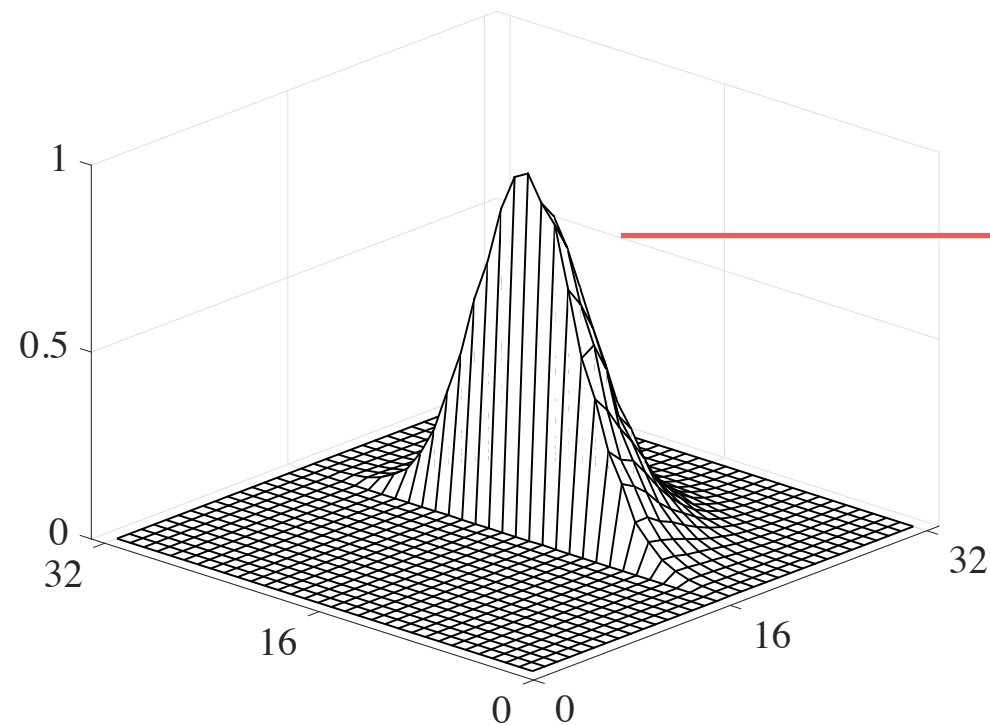


Kernel
(change for each pixel!!)

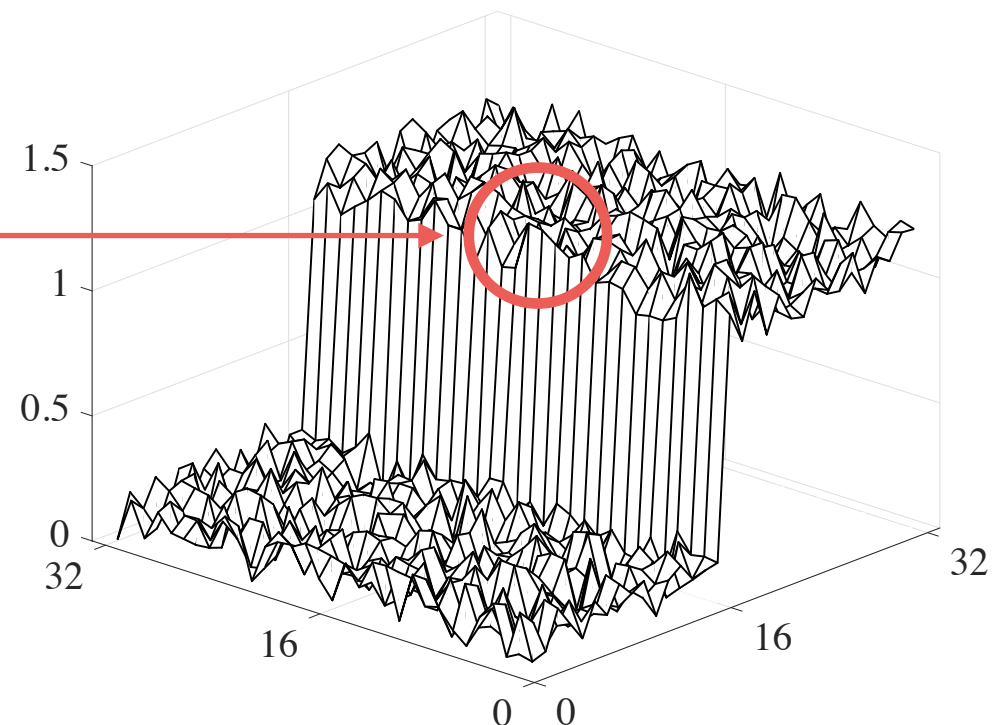


Image

The Bilateral Filter Explained

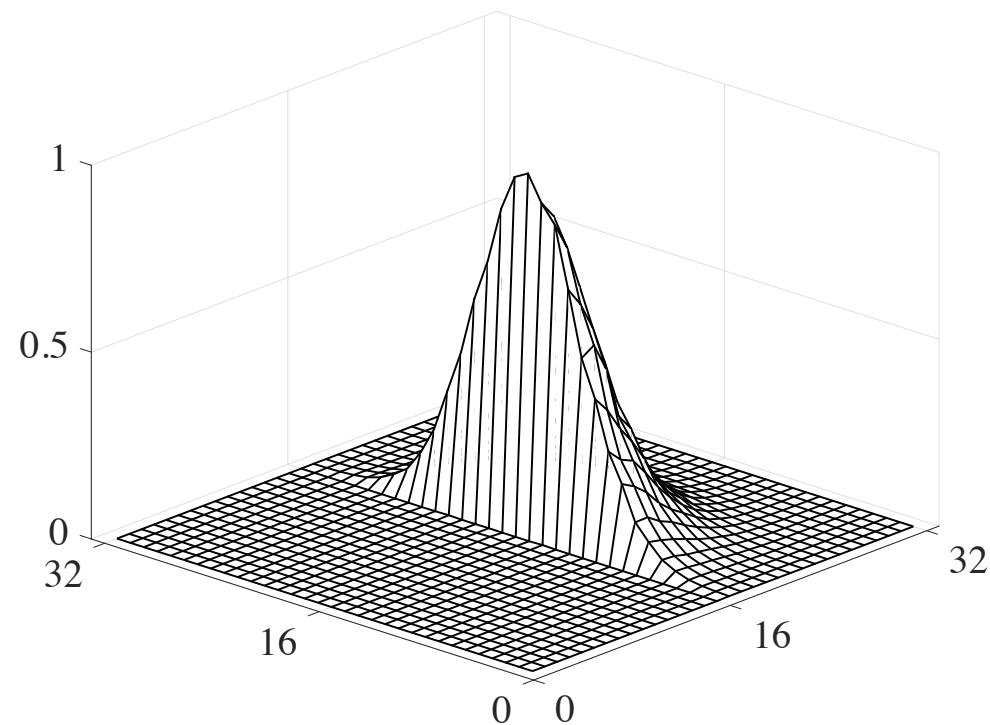


Kernel
(change for each pixel!!)

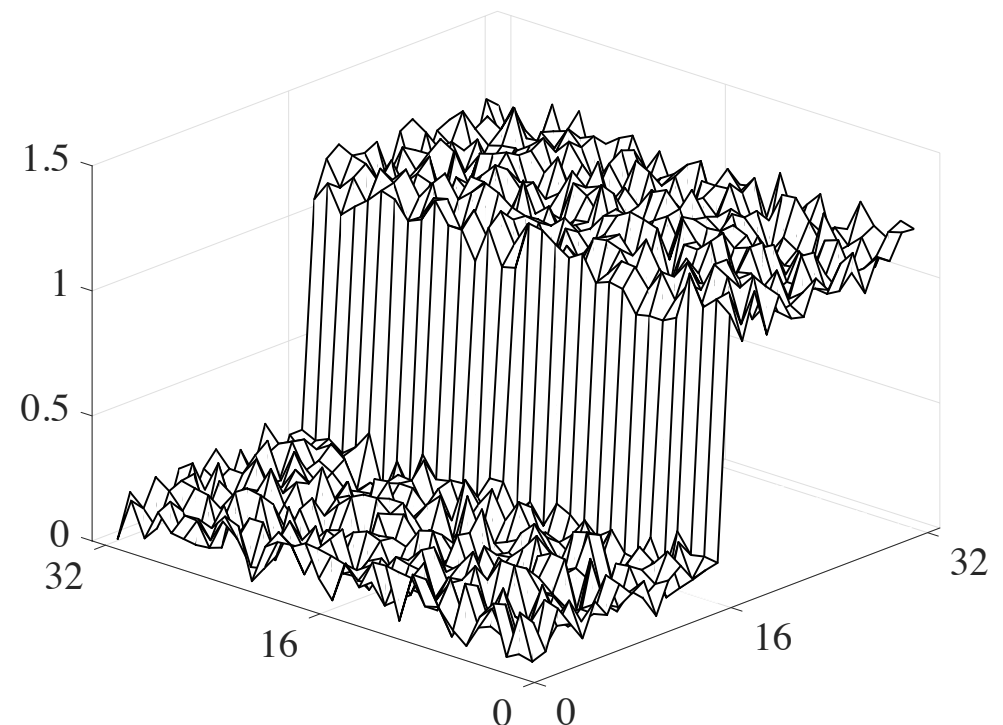


Image

The Bilateral Filter Explained

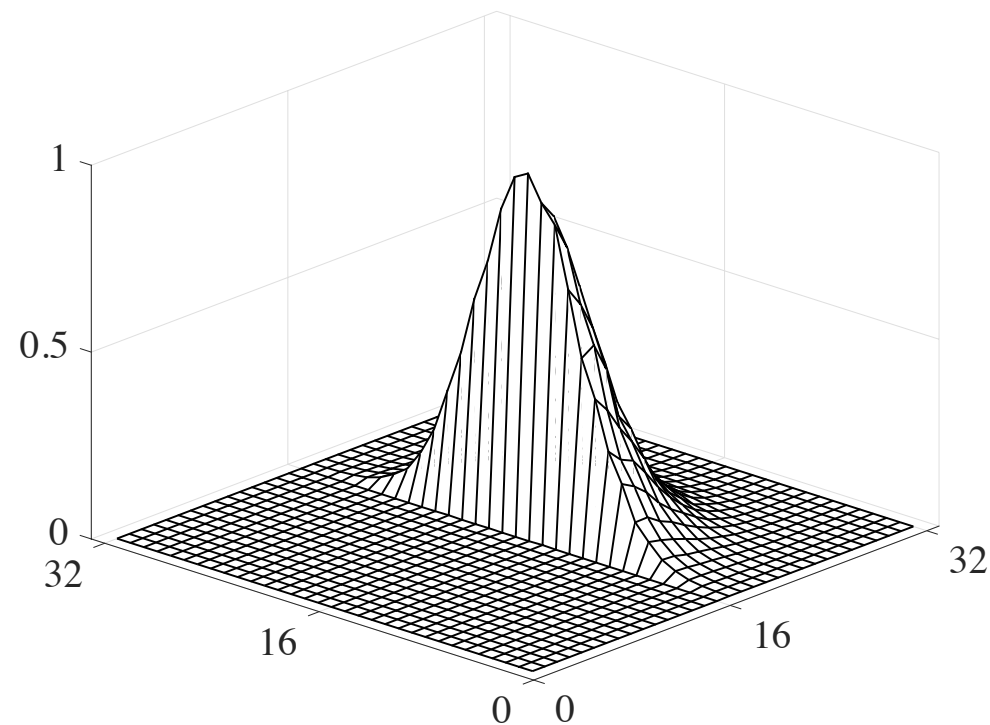


Kernel
(change for each pixel!!)

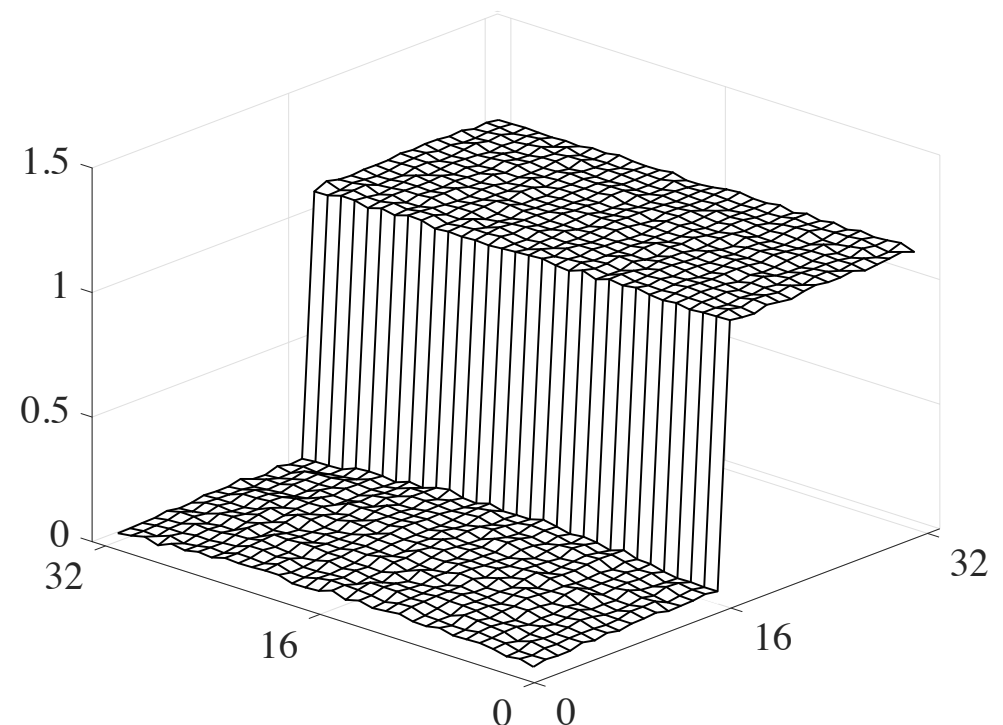


Image

The Bilateral Filter Explained

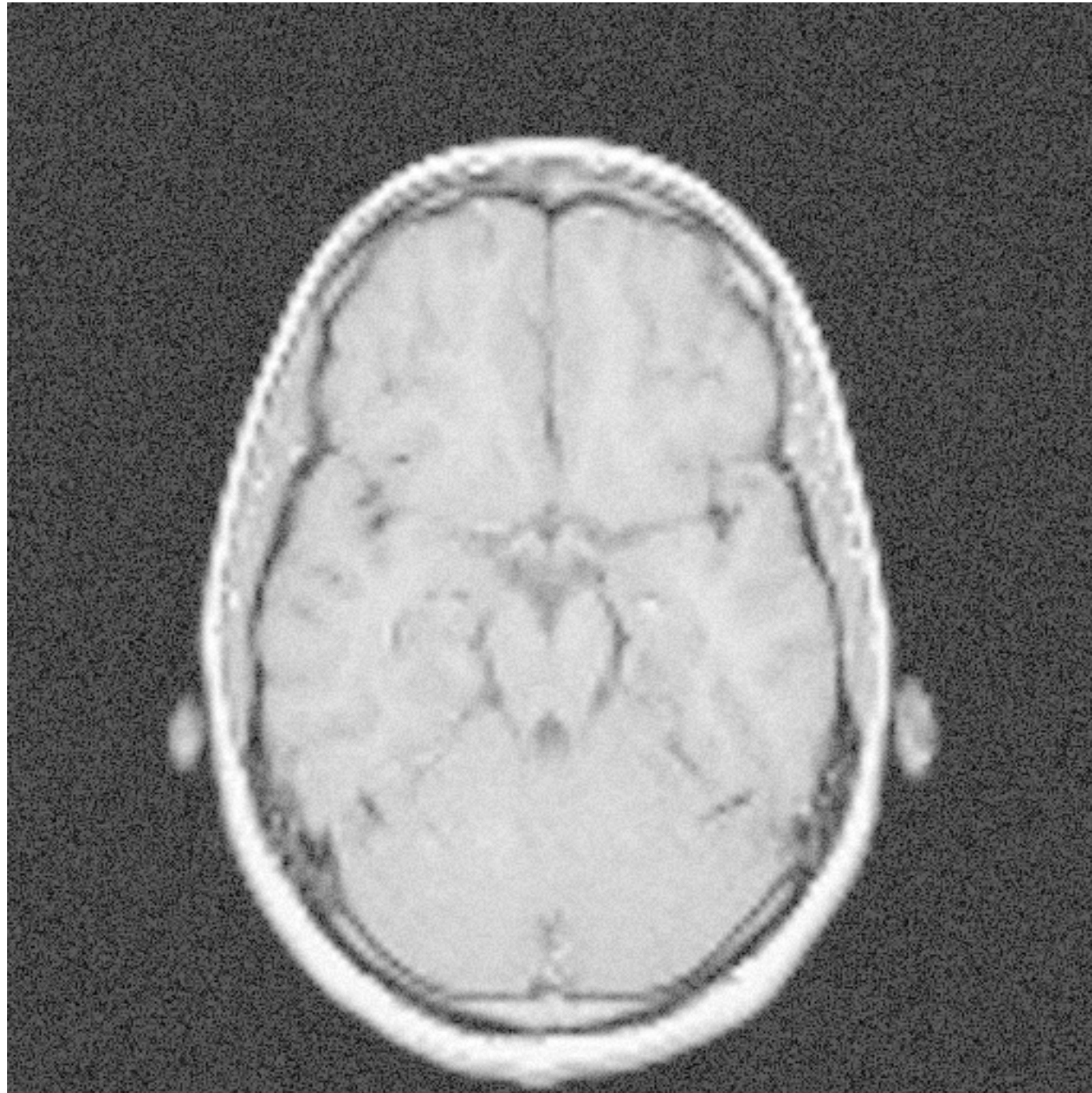


Kernel
(change for each pixel!!)

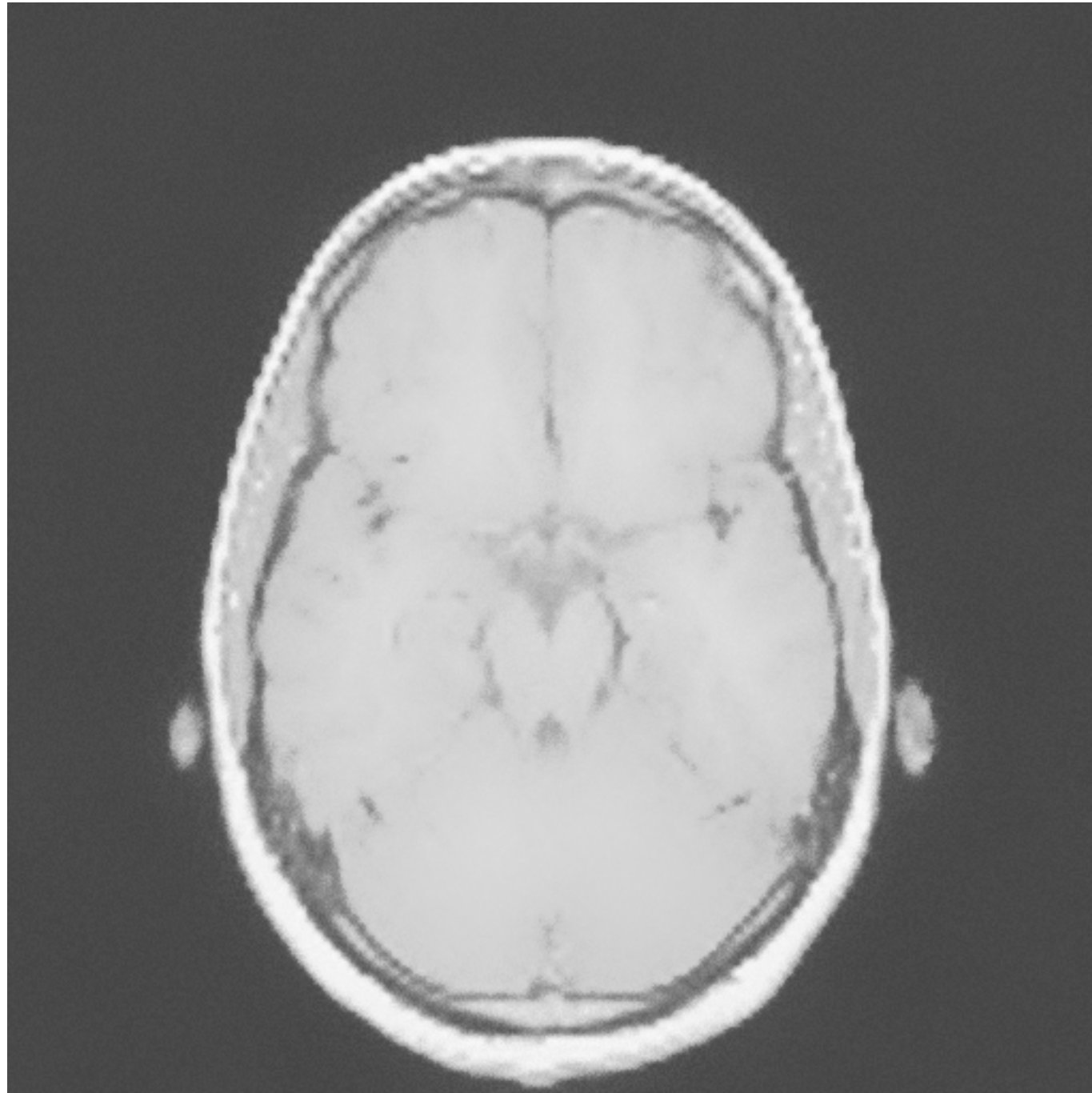


Image

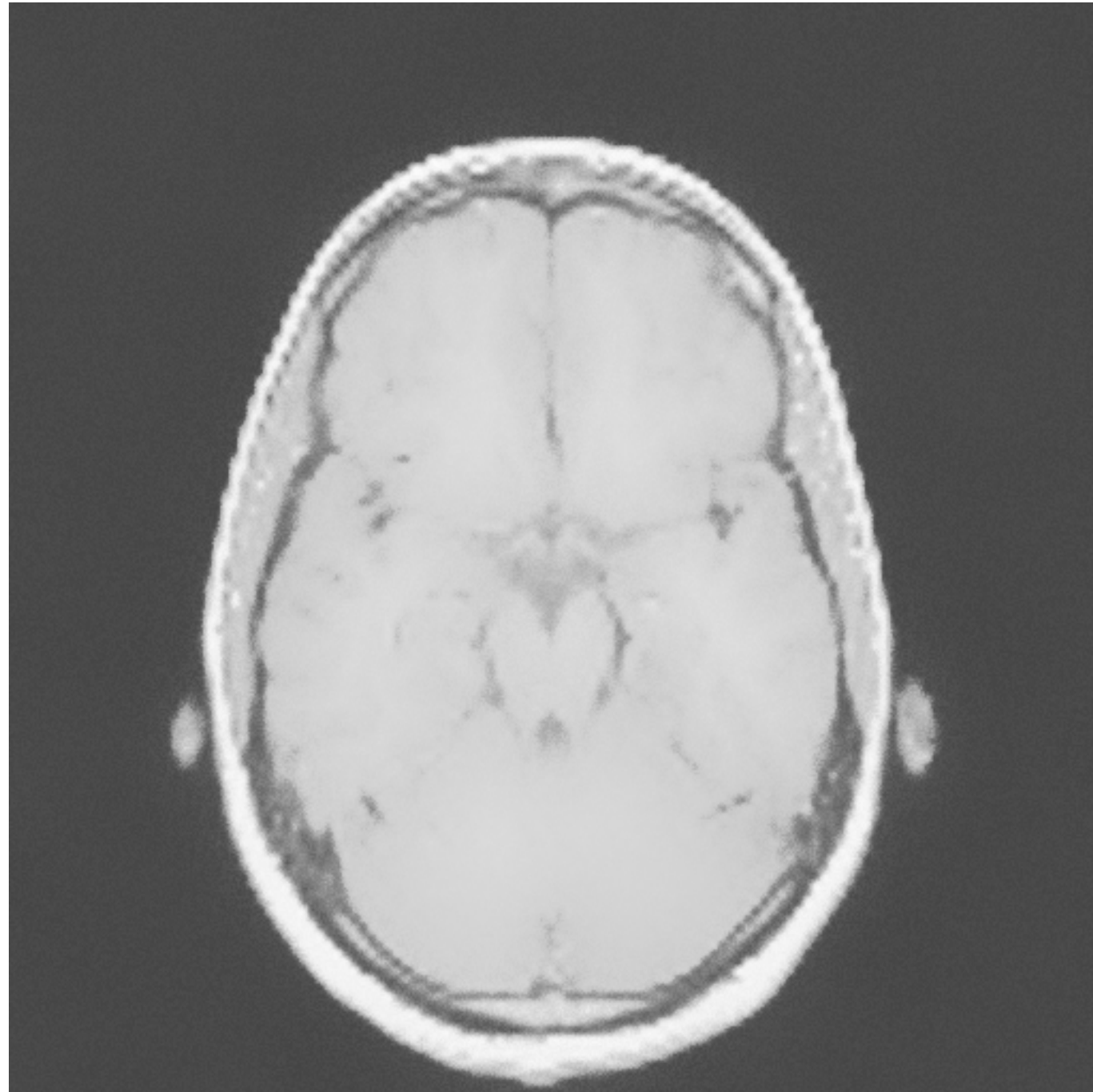
The Bilateral Filter Example



The Bilateral Filter Example

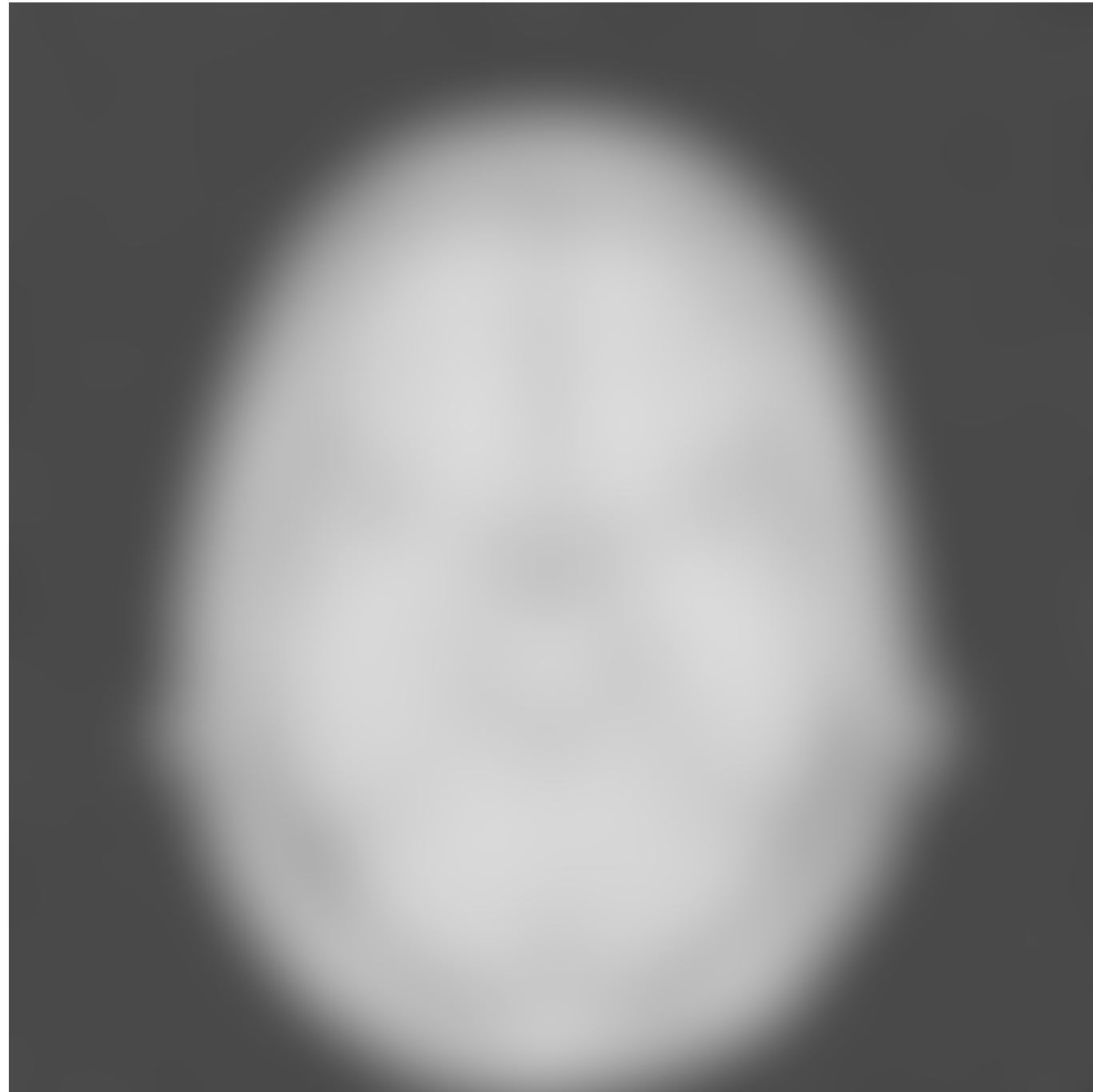


The Bilateral Filter Example



Result of using a Gaussian filter with the same kernel size of previous slide

The Bilateral Filter Example



Result of using a Gaussian filter with
the same kernel size of previous slide

Local Contrast Enhancement

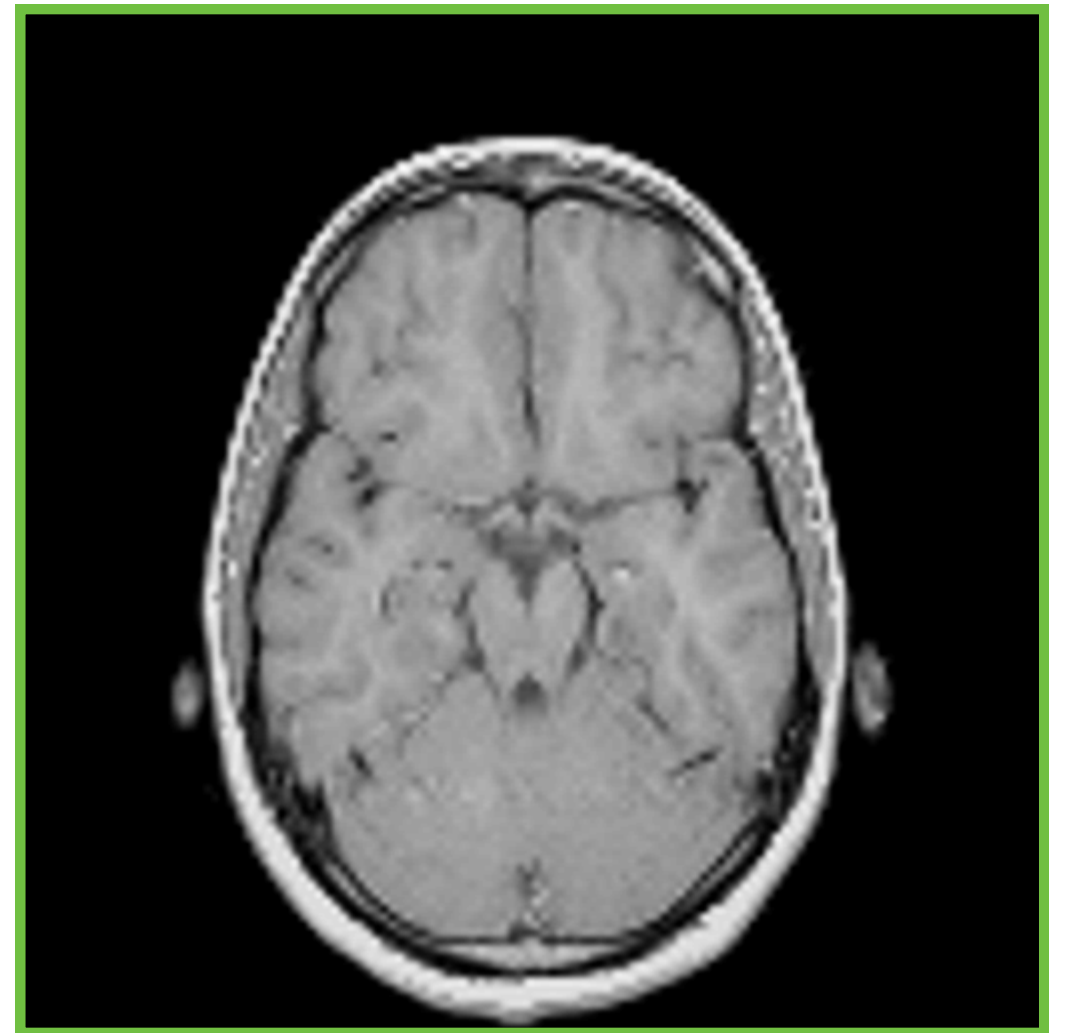
- Before, we have seen how to increase local contrast using the sharpening operator (or modified Laplacian).
- We can achieve better results using a more general framework

Local Contrast Enhancement

$$O[i, j] = f[i, j] \cdot \left(\frac{f[i, j]}{(f \otimes g)[i, j]} \right)$$

Local Contrast Enhancement

$$O[i, j] = \boxed{f[i, j]} \cdot \left(\frac{f[i, j]}{(f \otimes g)[i, j]} \right)$$

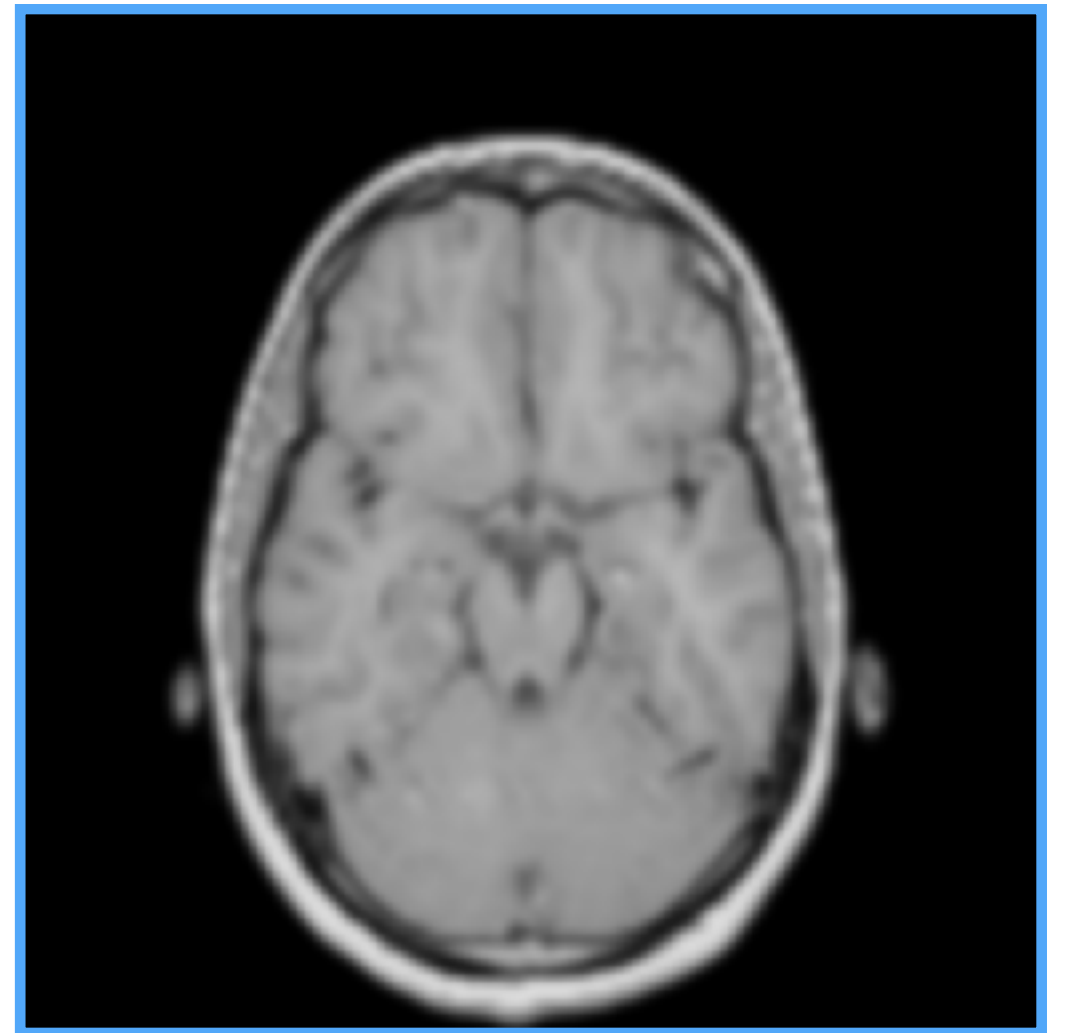


Local Contrast Enhancement

$$O[i, j] = f[i, j] \cdot \left(\frac{f[i, j]}{(f \otimes g)[i, j]} \right)$$

Local Contrast Enhancement

$$O[i, j] = f[i, j] \cdot \left(\frac{f[i, j]}{(f \otimes g)[i, j]} \right)$$

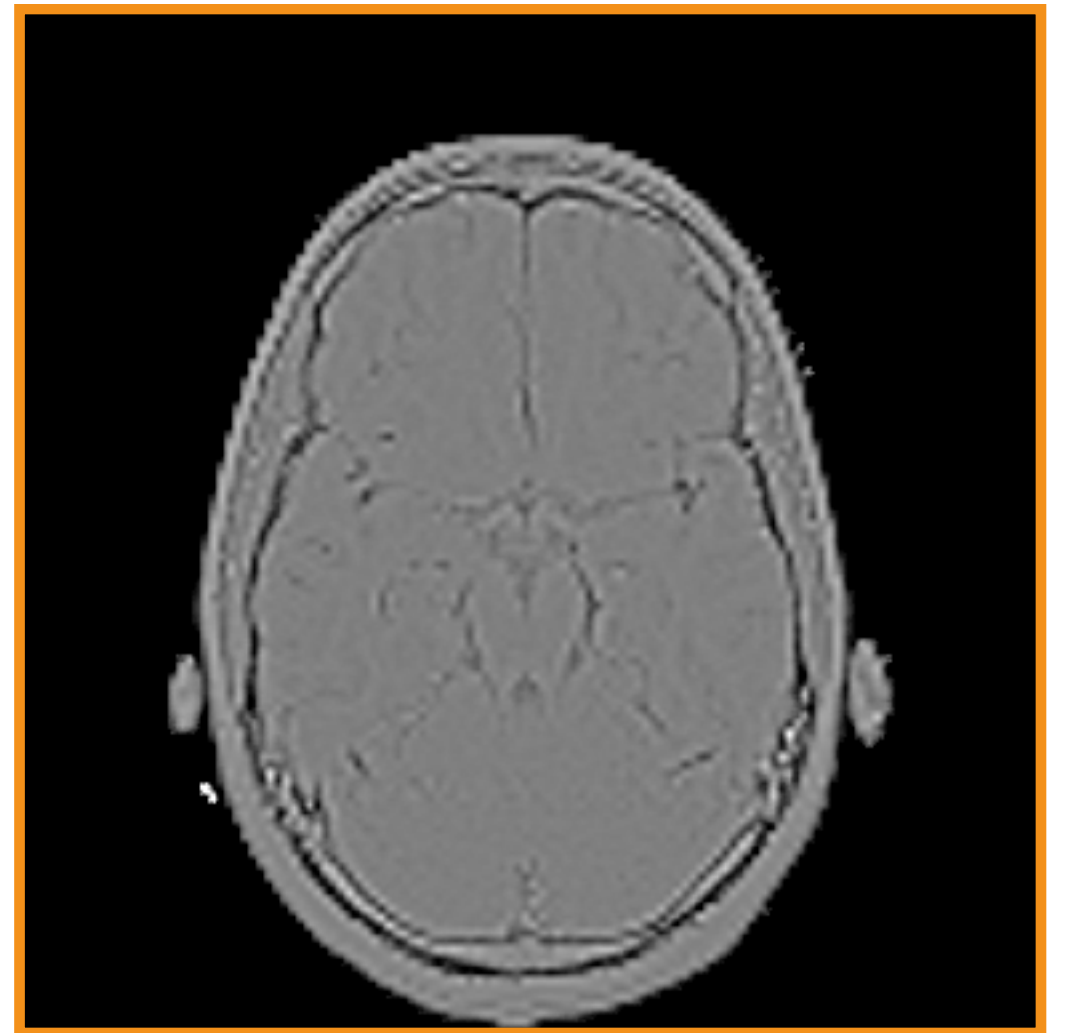


Local Contrast Enhancement

$$O[i, j] = f[i, j] \cdot \left(\frac{f[i, j]}{(f \otimes g)[i, j]} \right)$$

Local Contrast Enhancement

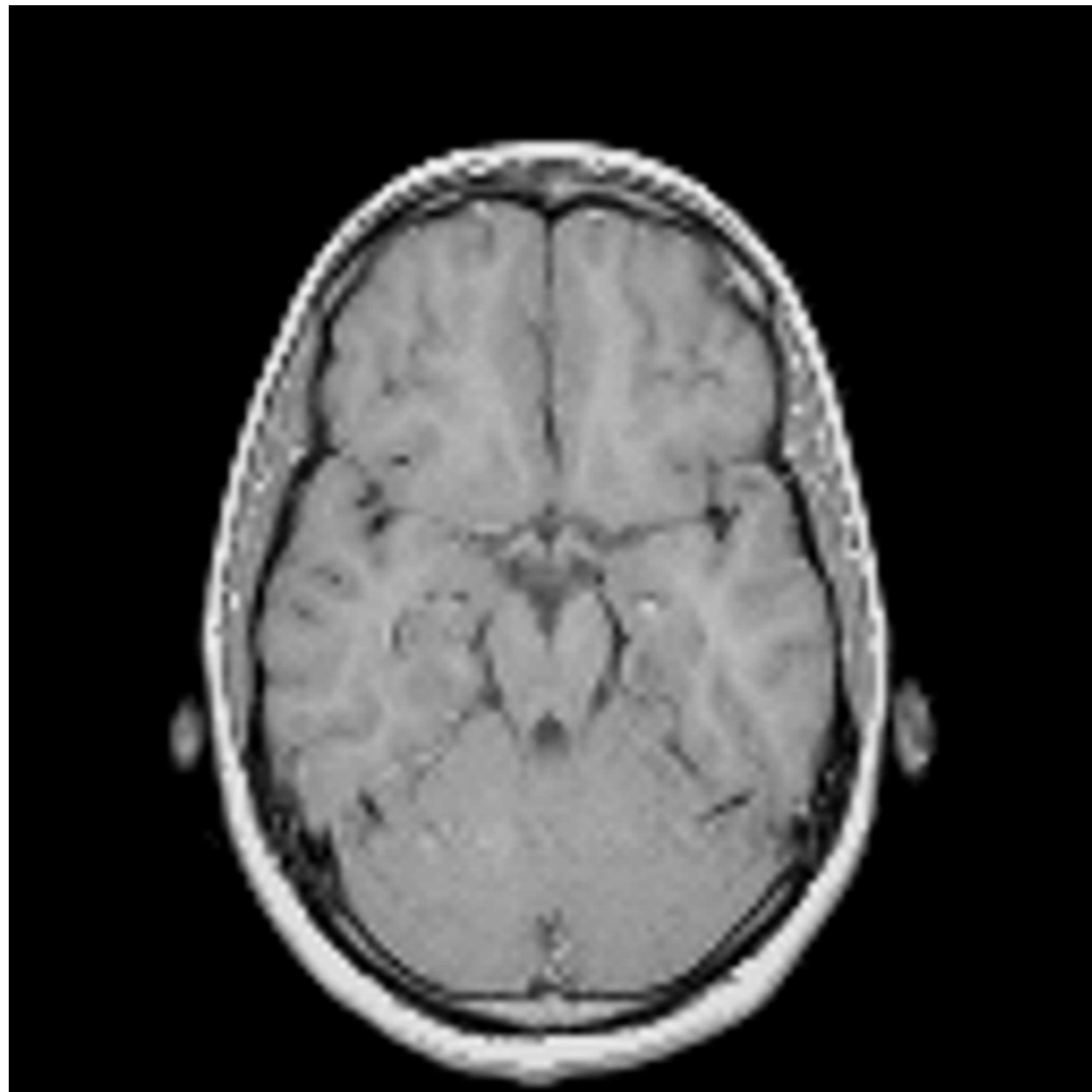
$$O[i, j] = f[i, j] \cdot \left(\frac{f[i, j]}{(f \otimes g)[i, j]} \right)$$



Local Contrast Enhancement

$$O[i, j] = f[i, j] \cdot \left(\frac{f[i, j]}{(f \otimes g)[i, j]} \right)$$

Local Contrast Enhancement Example



Input Image

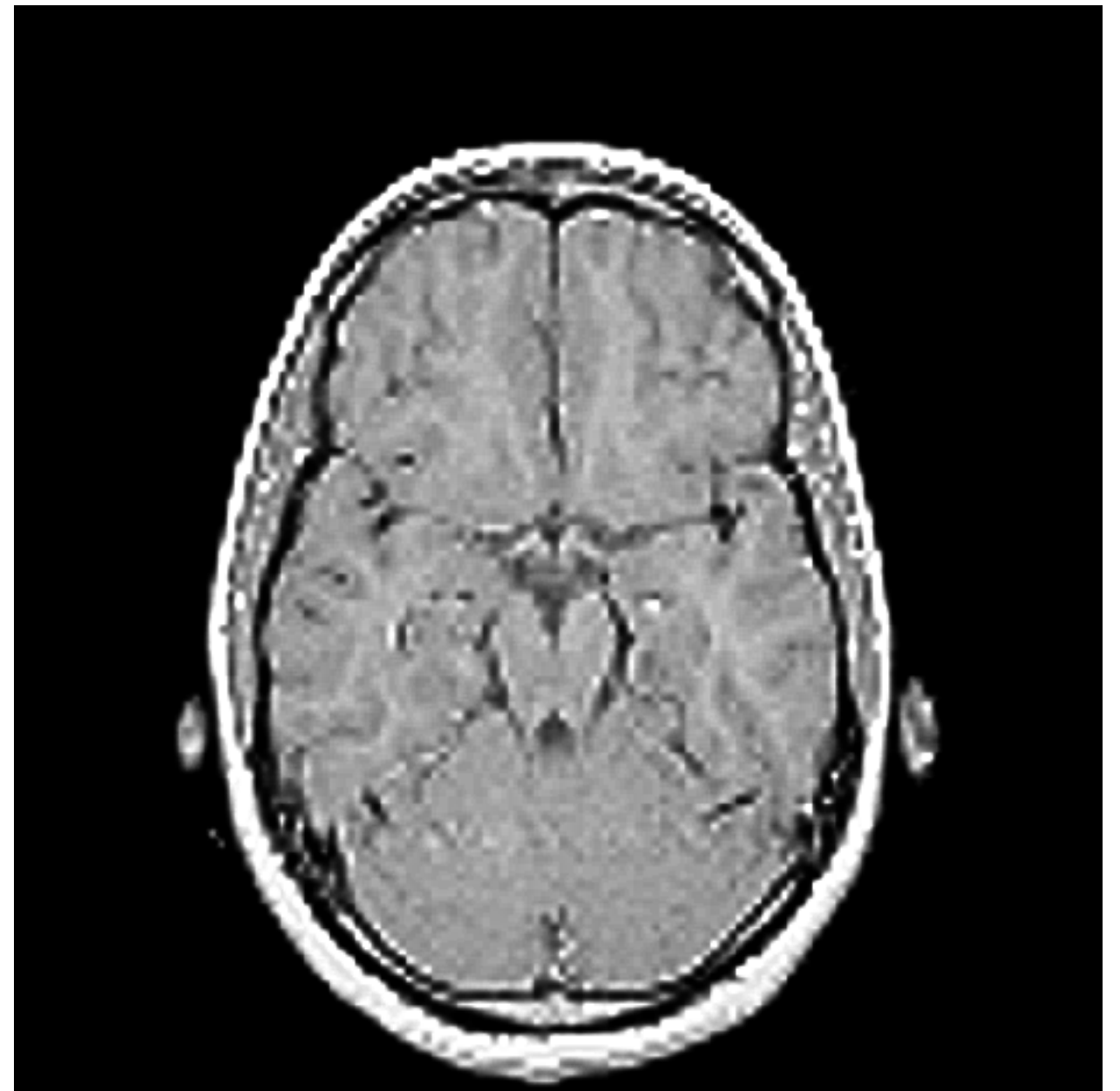


Image After Enhancement

Local Contrast Enhancement

- When using linear filters we may introduce halos!
 - halos \longrightarrow BIAS!
- It is better to use non-linear filters such as the bilateral filter, the guided filter, WLS, etc.

Deconvolution

- In some cases, we have to reduce “blur” (e.g., the patient moved during the scan):

$$I \otimes K = J$$

- where I is ideal image, K is a convolution kernel, and J is the input blurred image.
- **NOTE:** the real case is:

$$(I \otimes K) + n = J$$

- where n is noise

Deconvolution

- Assuming that we know K :
- We need to find an I such that:

$$I \otimes K = J$$

- which means:

$$\arg \min_I \left(I \otimes K - J \right)^2$$

Deconvolution

$$\begin{cases} I_0 = 0.5 \\ I_{i+1} = I_i \cdot \left(\frac{J}{I_i \otimes K} \otimes K^\top \right) \end{cases}$$

Richardson–Lucy's method

Deconvolution

$$\begin{cases} I_0 = 0.5 \text{Input Blurred Image} \\ I_{i+1} = I_i \cdot \left(\frac{\boxed{J}}{I_i \otimes K} \otimes K^\top \right) \end{cases}$$

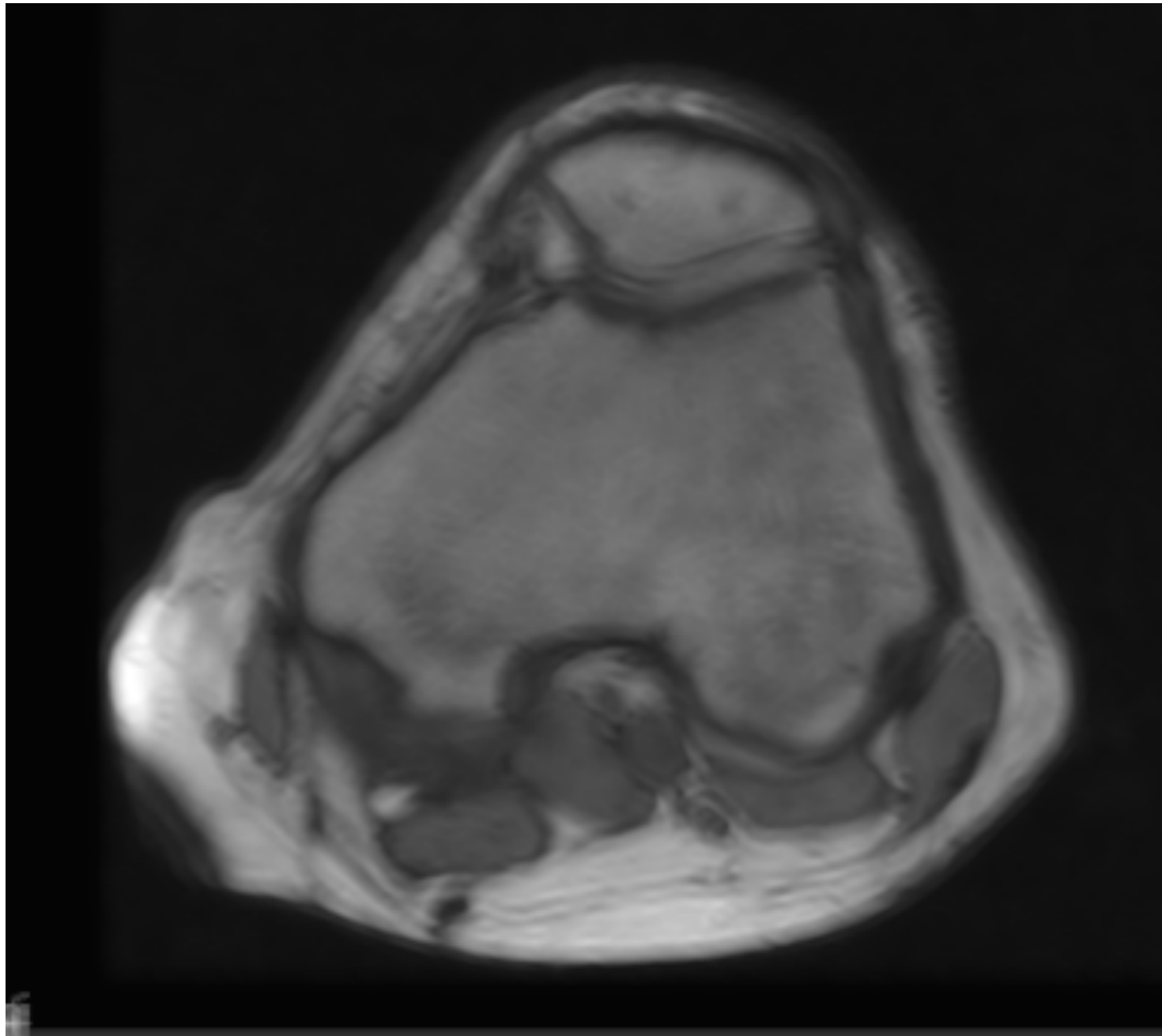
Richardson–Lucy's method

Deconvolution

$$\begin{cases} I_0 = 0.5 \\ I_{i+1} = I_i \cdot \left(\frac{J}{I_i \otimes K} \otimes K^\top \right) \end{cases}$$

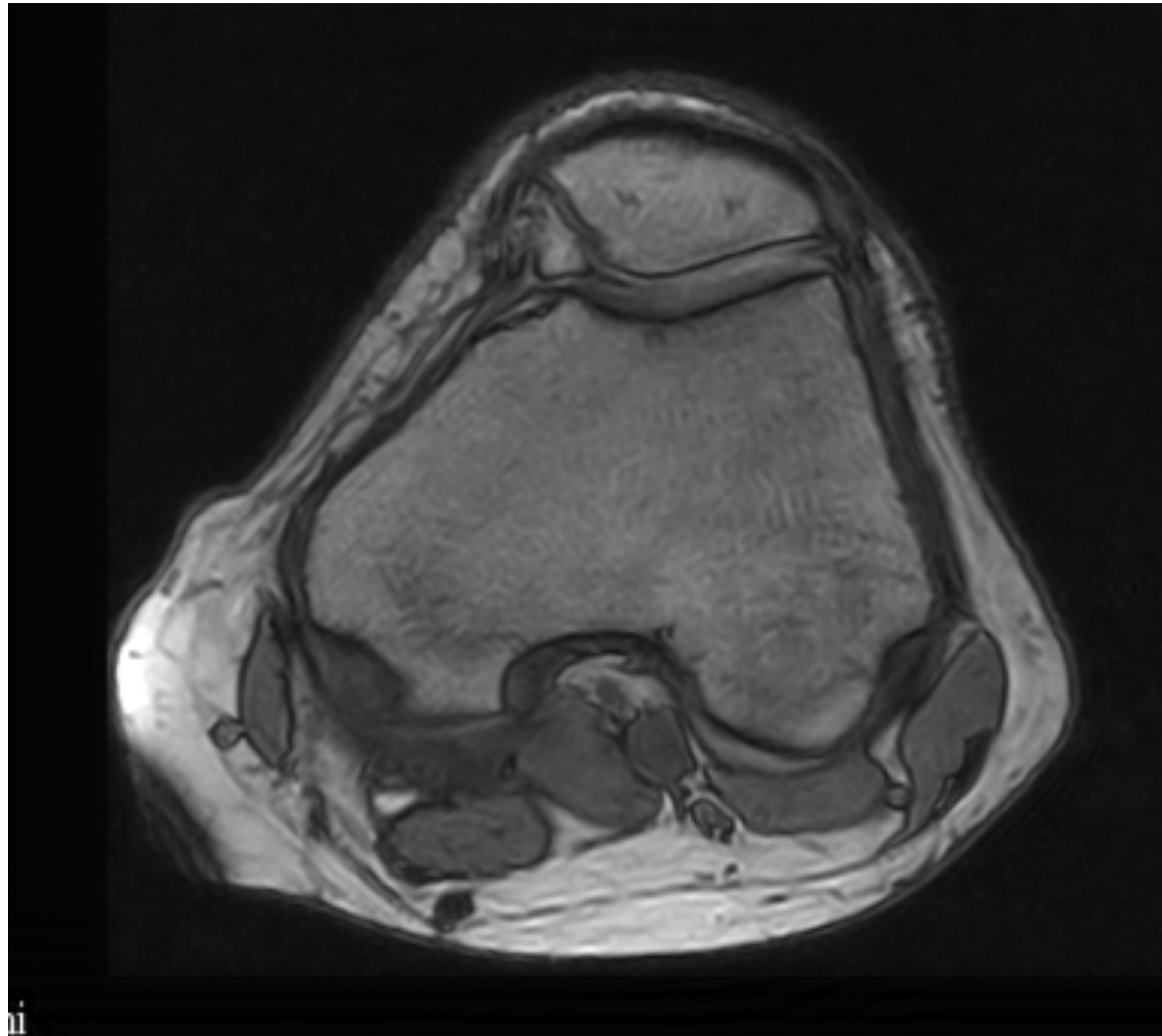
Richardson–Lucy's method

Deconvolution Example



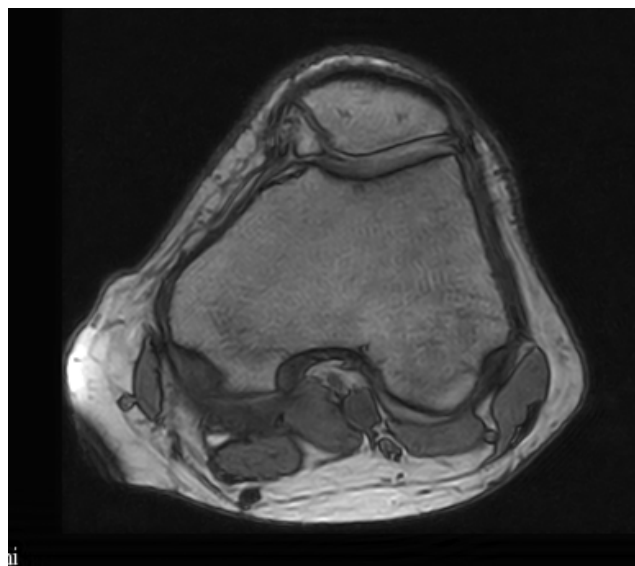
After 1000 iterations

Deconvolution Example



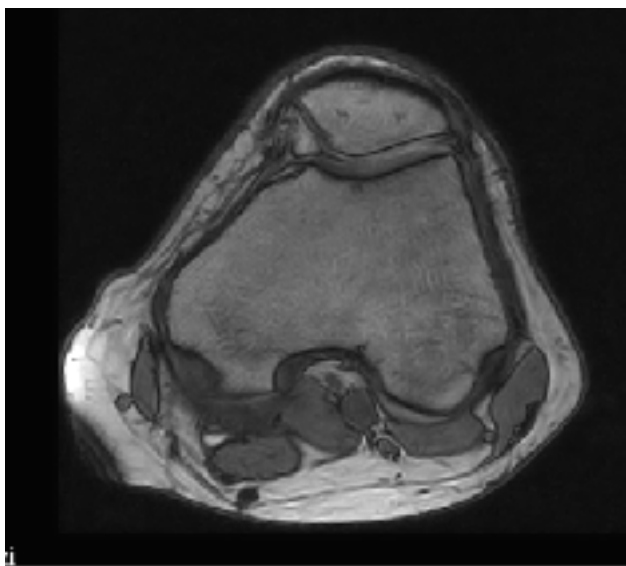
After 1000 iterations

Deconvolution Example



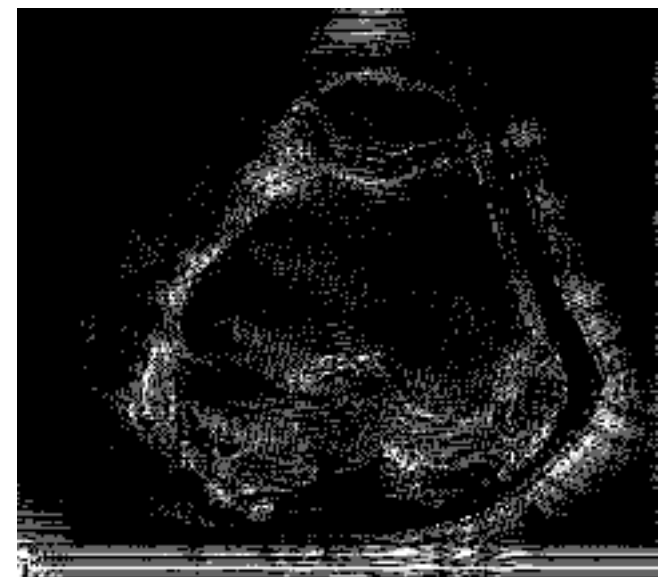
original

-



deconvolution

=



difference

Deconvolution

- To make it work, we need to:
 - Run many iterations (more than thousands)!
 - Known exactly the size and shape of K ; we can estimate it. This may create artifacts!

Image Upsampling

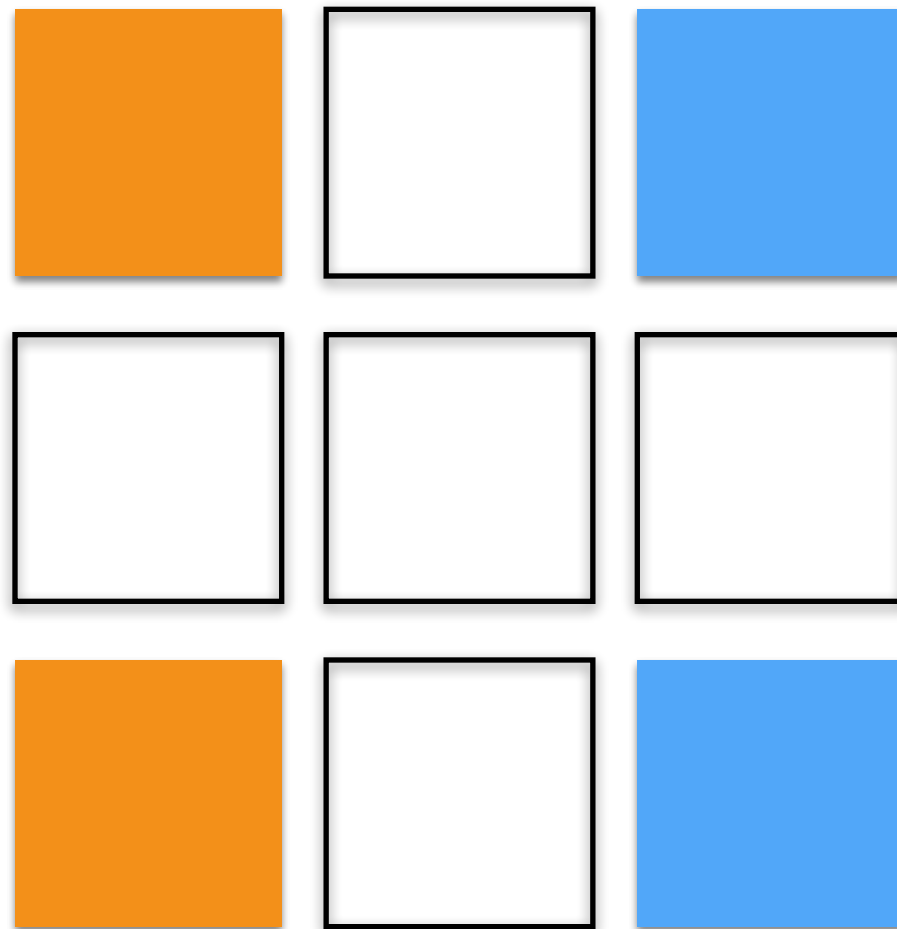
Why Upsampling?

- The main reason why we want to upsample (we invent data basically) our input data is that they have a very low resolution
- Forget 4K for your flicks, we have 512x512 resolution in happy days

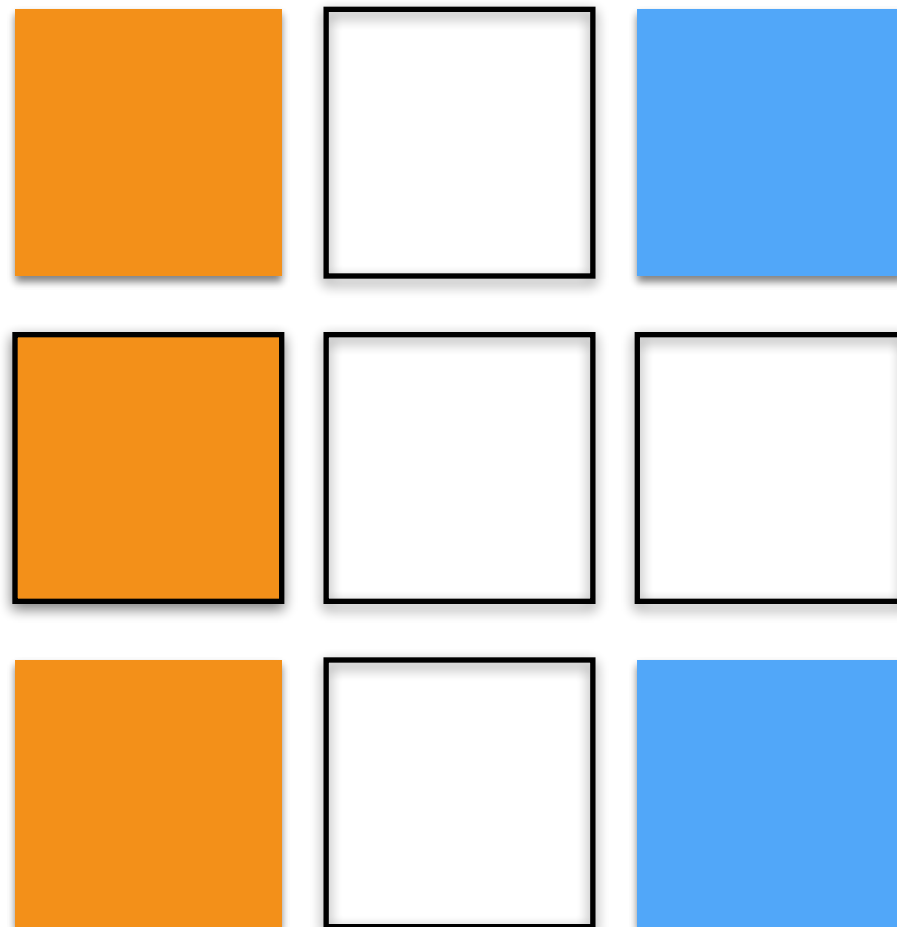
Upsampling

- When we upsample we need to invent the pixel in between the original ones...
- Basic solution:
 - For each missing pixel:
 - find the closest (norm 1, 2, whatever) “real” pixel with intensity/color C_n
 - Set the intensity/color of the missing pixel equals to C_n

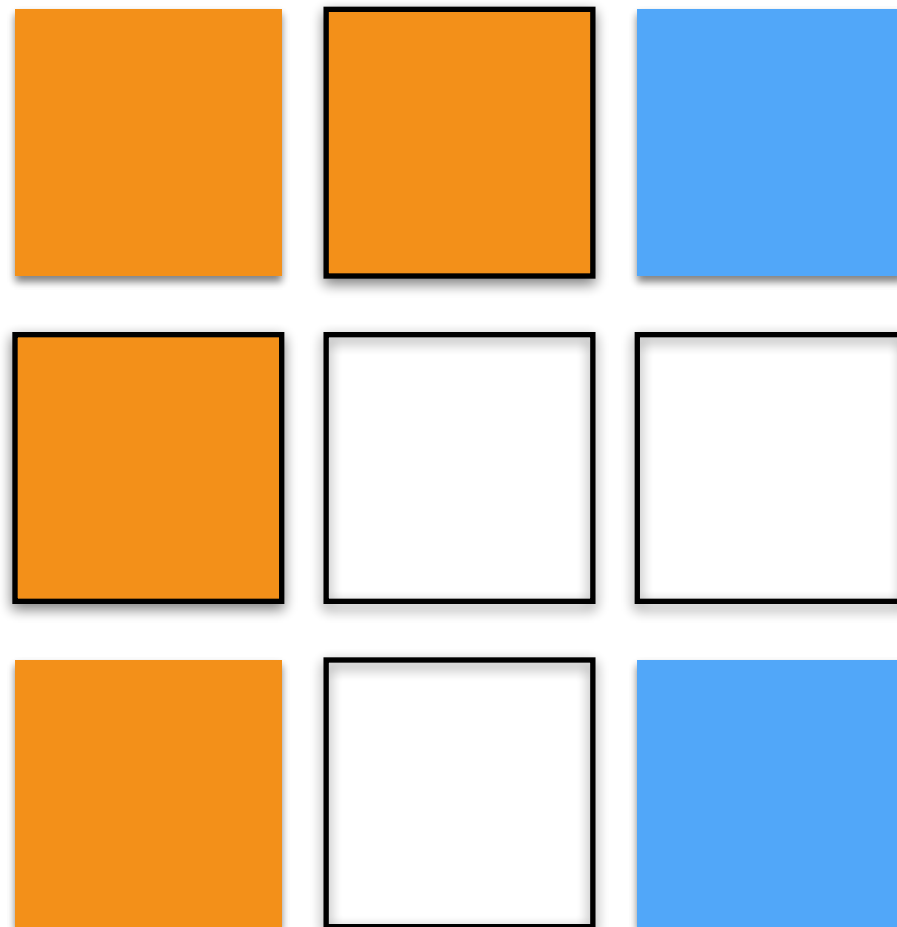
Upsampling: Nearest Neighbors



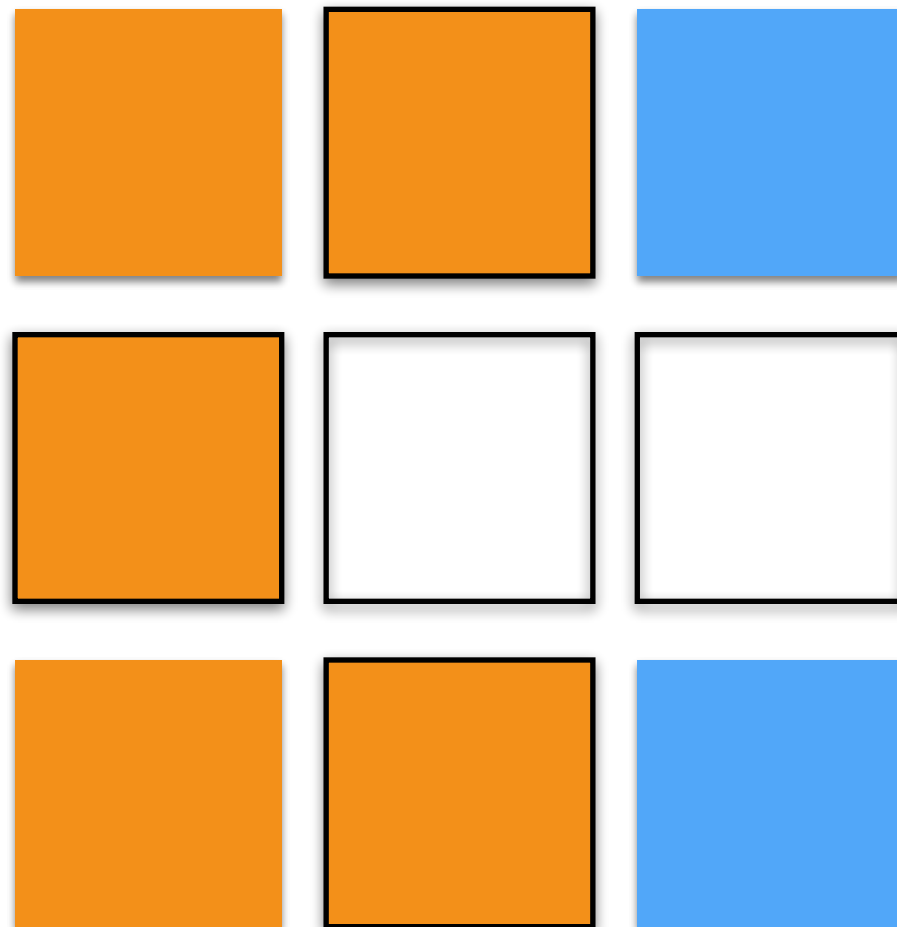
Upsampling: Nearest Neighbors



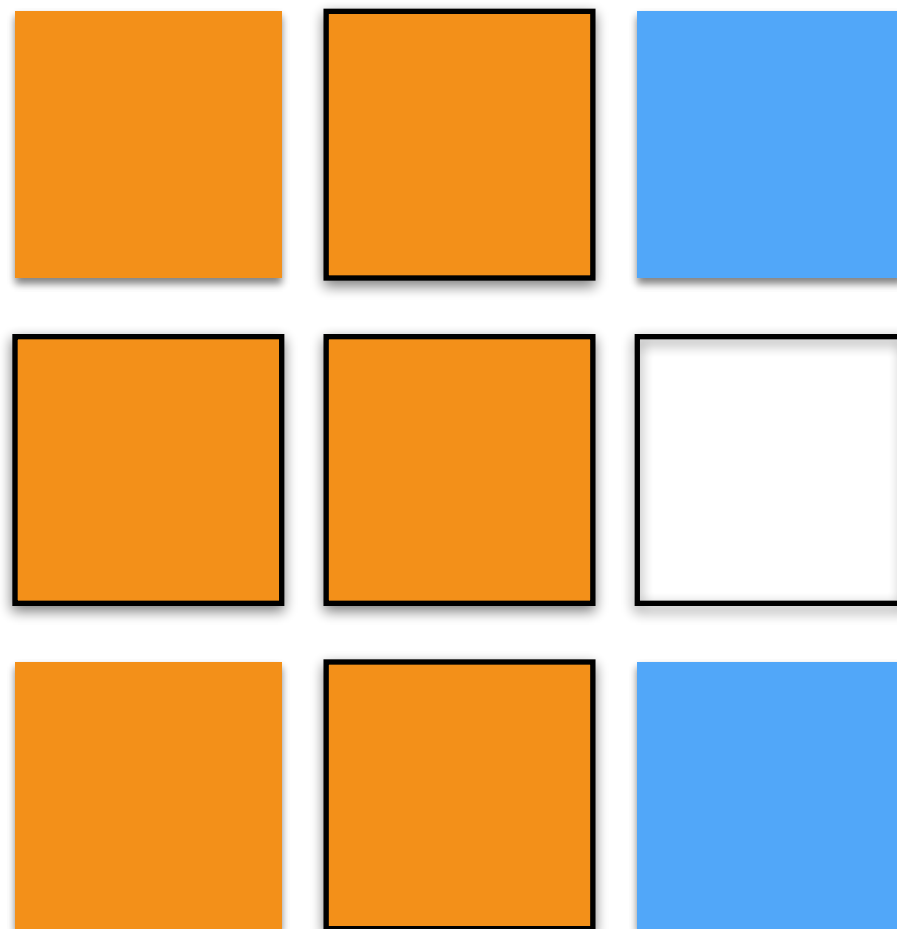
Upsampling: Nearest Neighbors



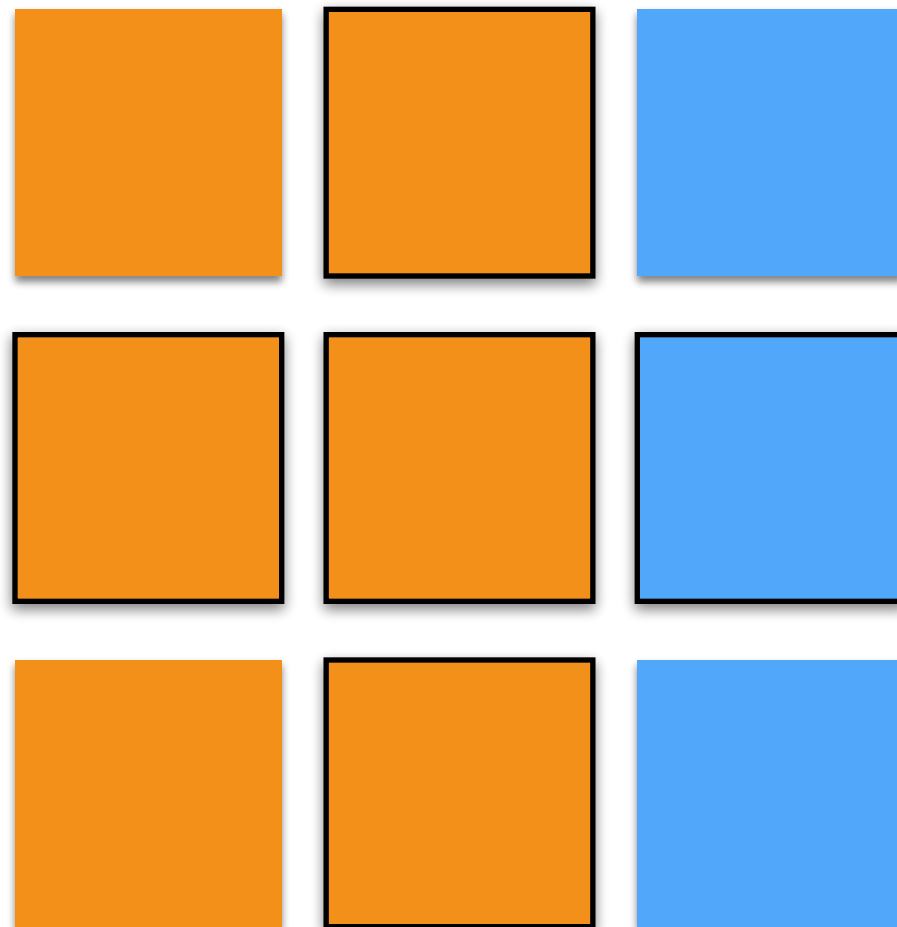
Upsampling: Nearest Neighbors



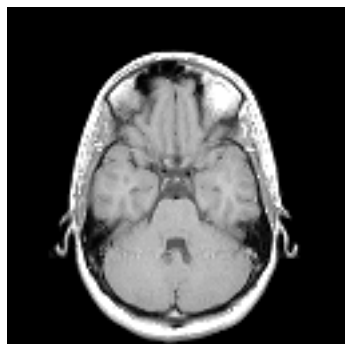
Upsampling: Nearest Neighbors



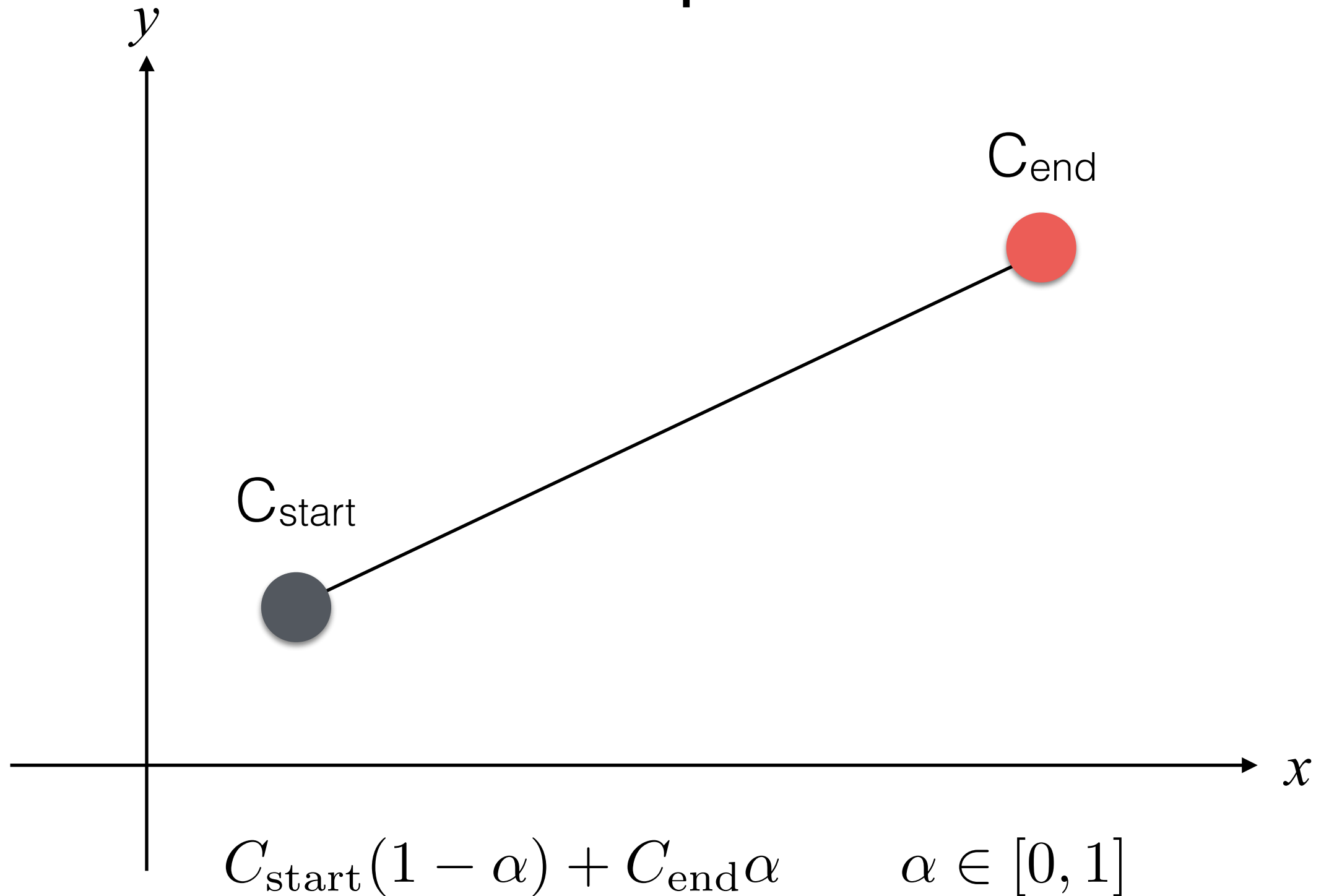
Upsampling: Nearest Neighbors



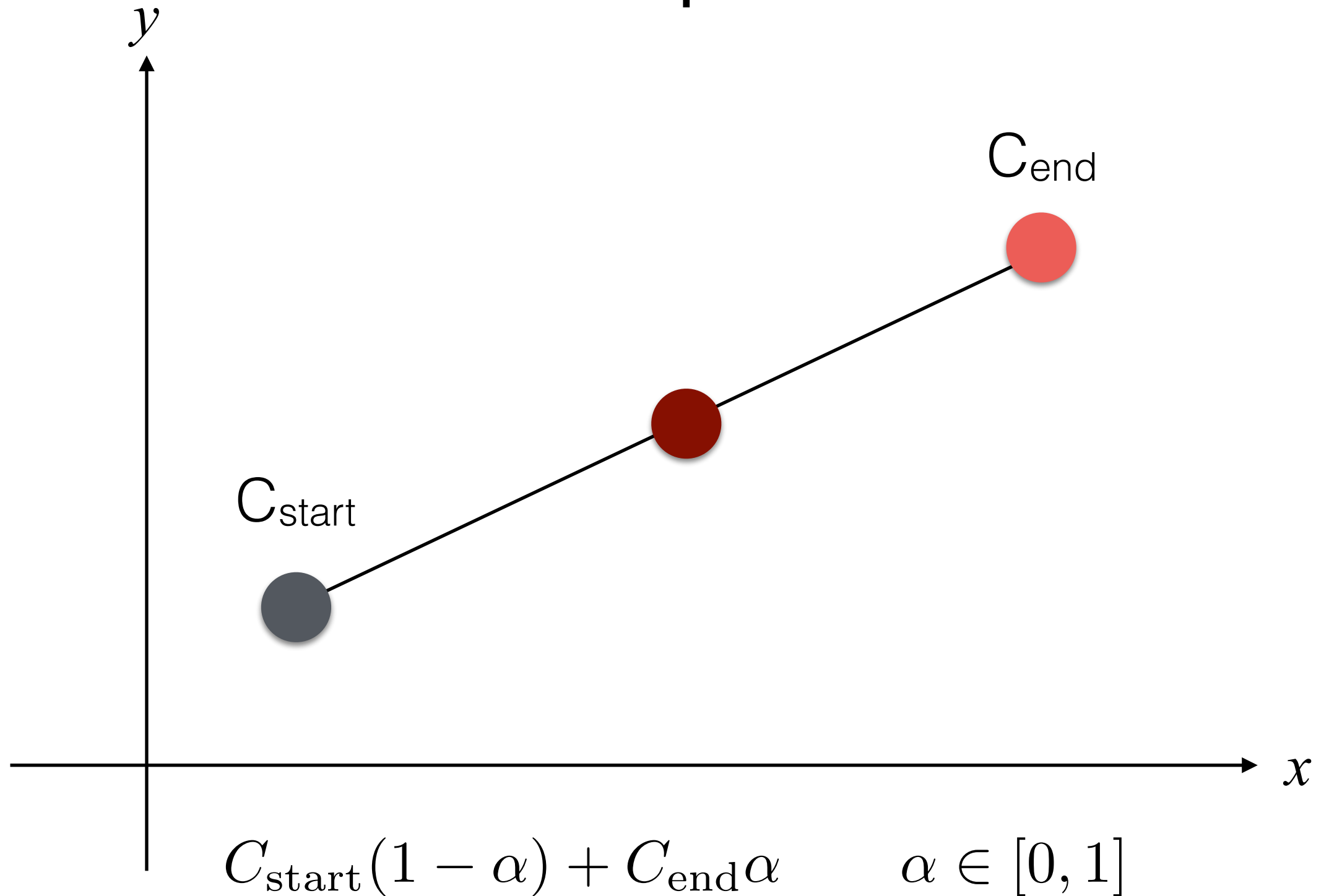
Upsampling: Nearest Neighbors



Upsampling 1D: Linear Interpolation

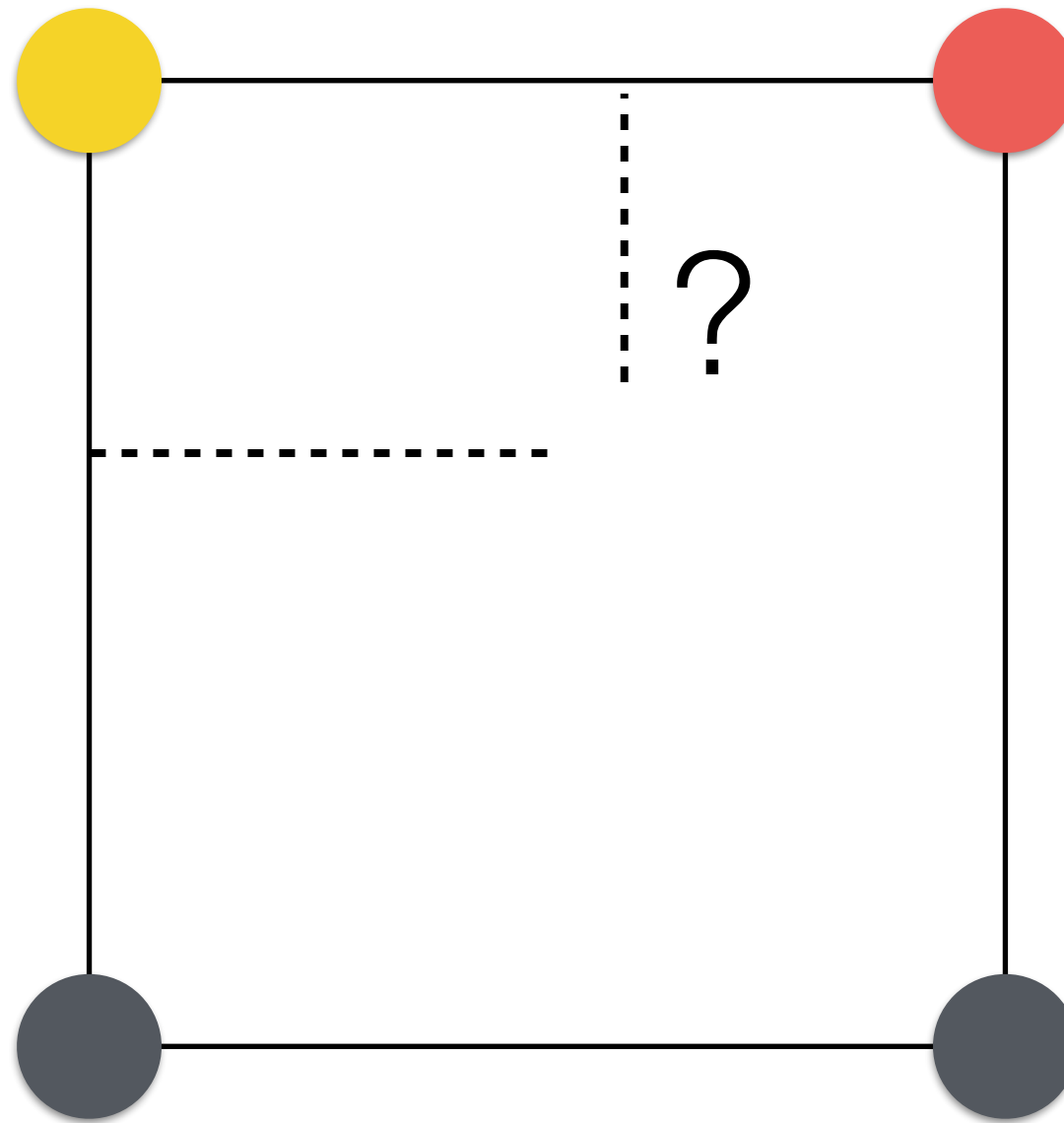


Upsampling 1D: Linear Interpolation

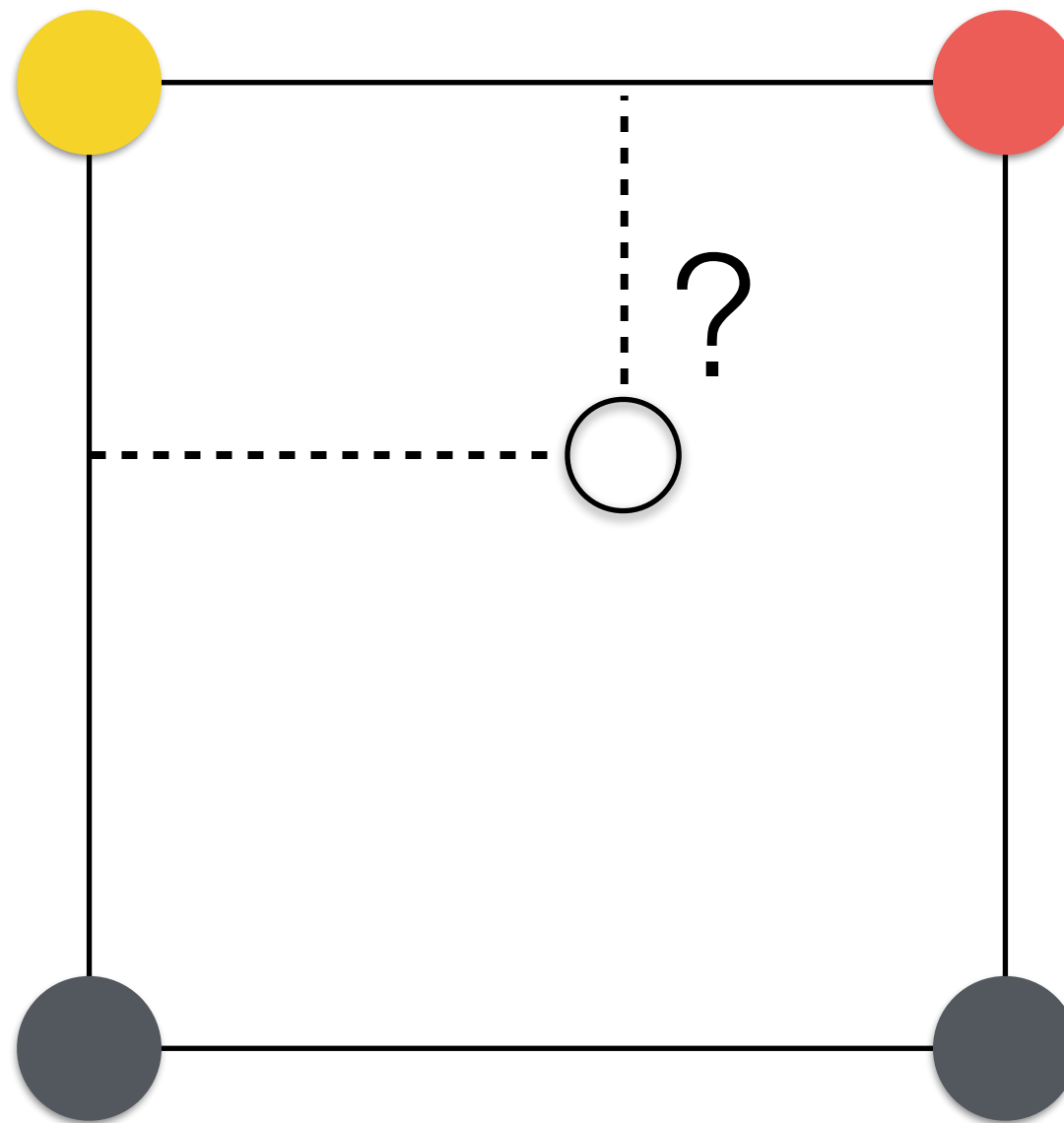


This becomes a bi-linear
interpolation in 2D!

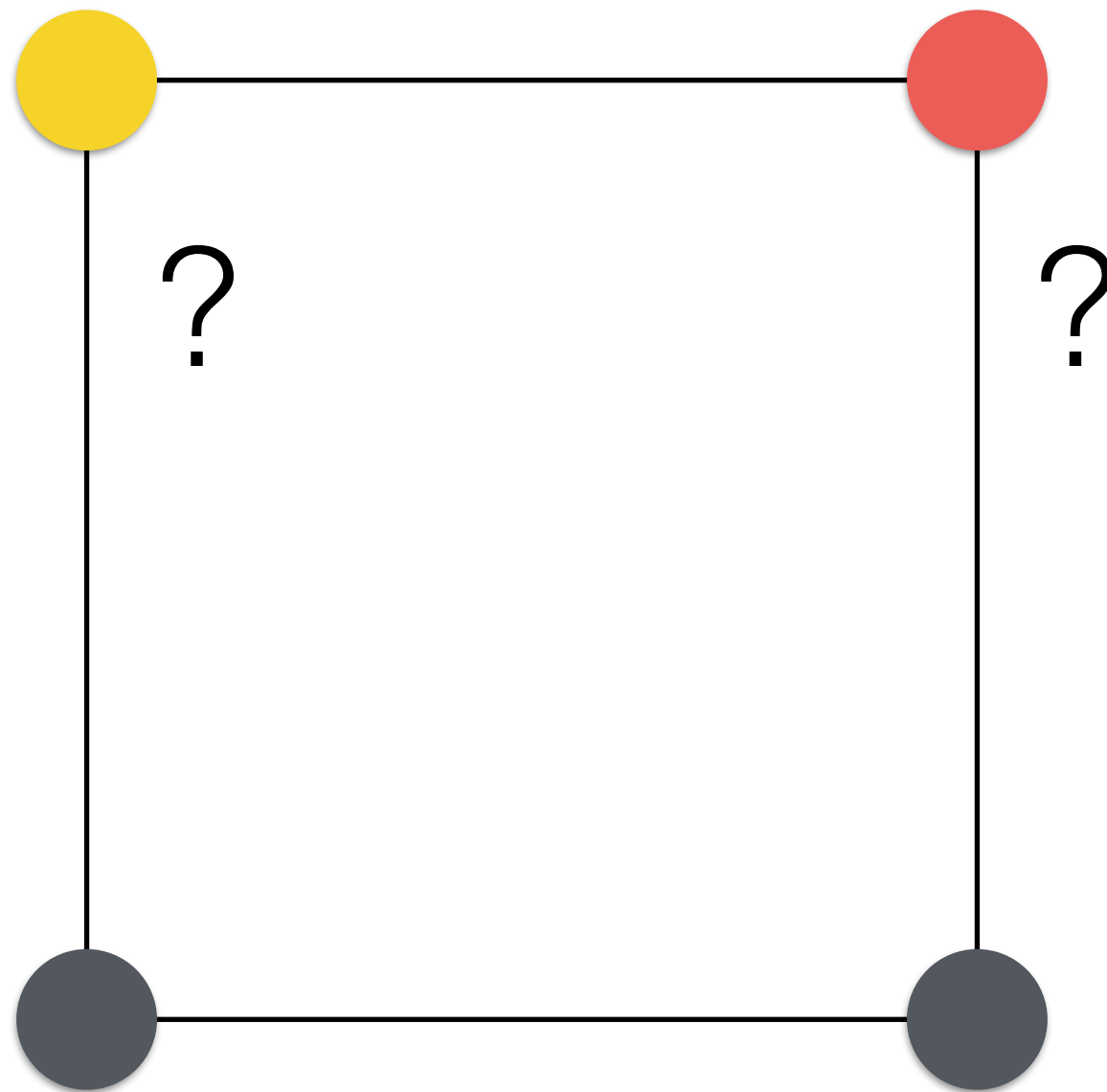
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



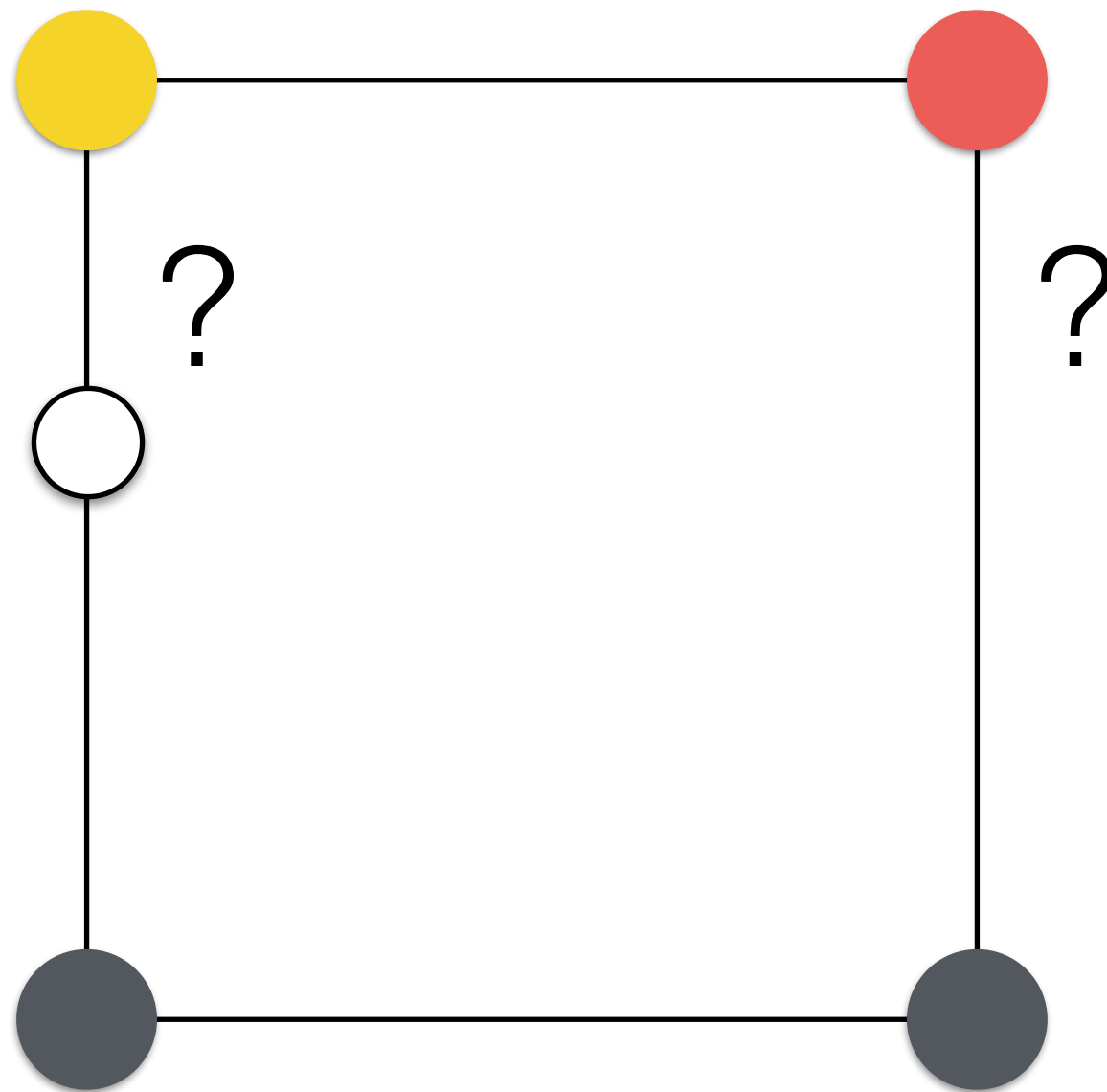
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



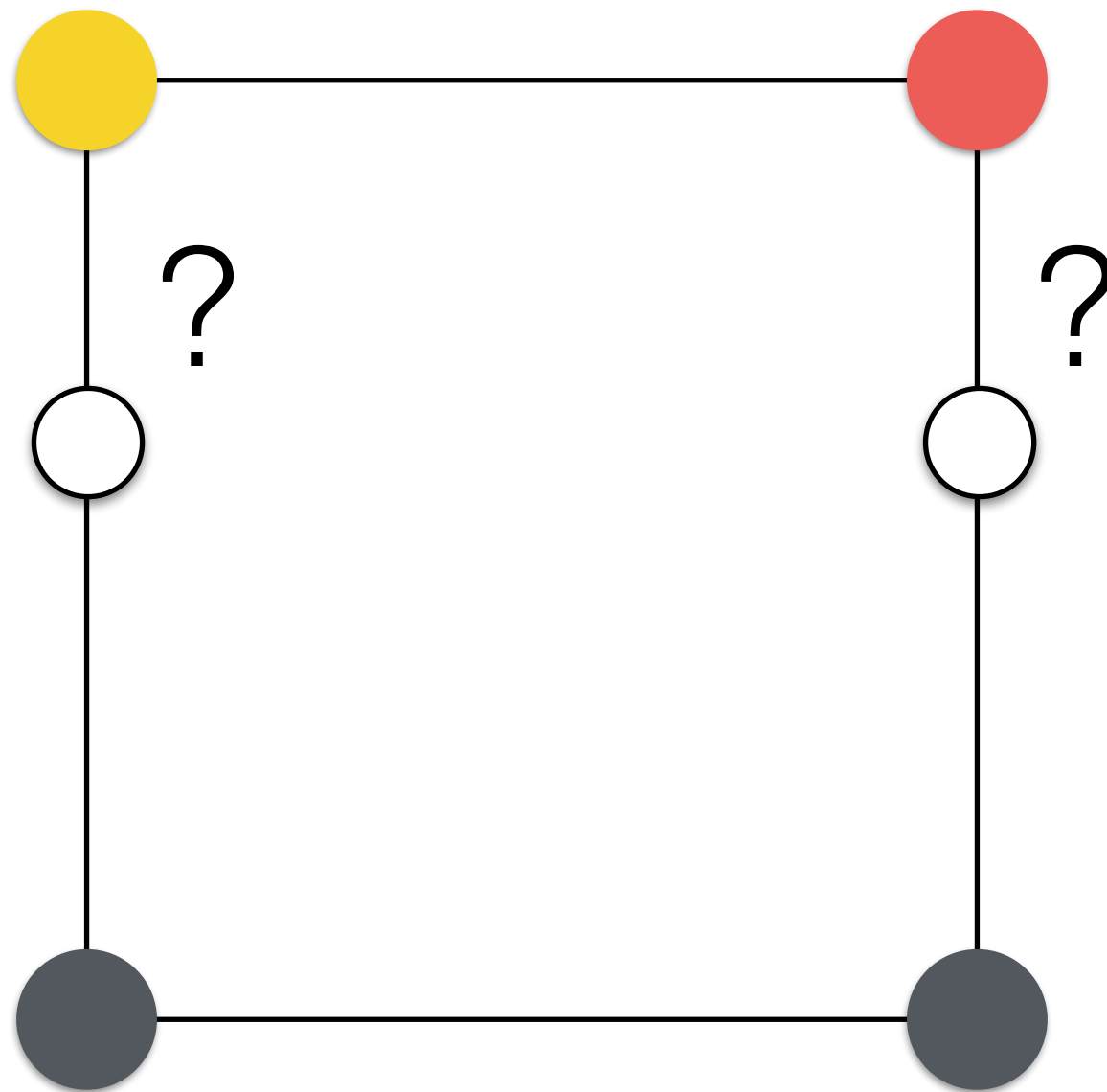
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



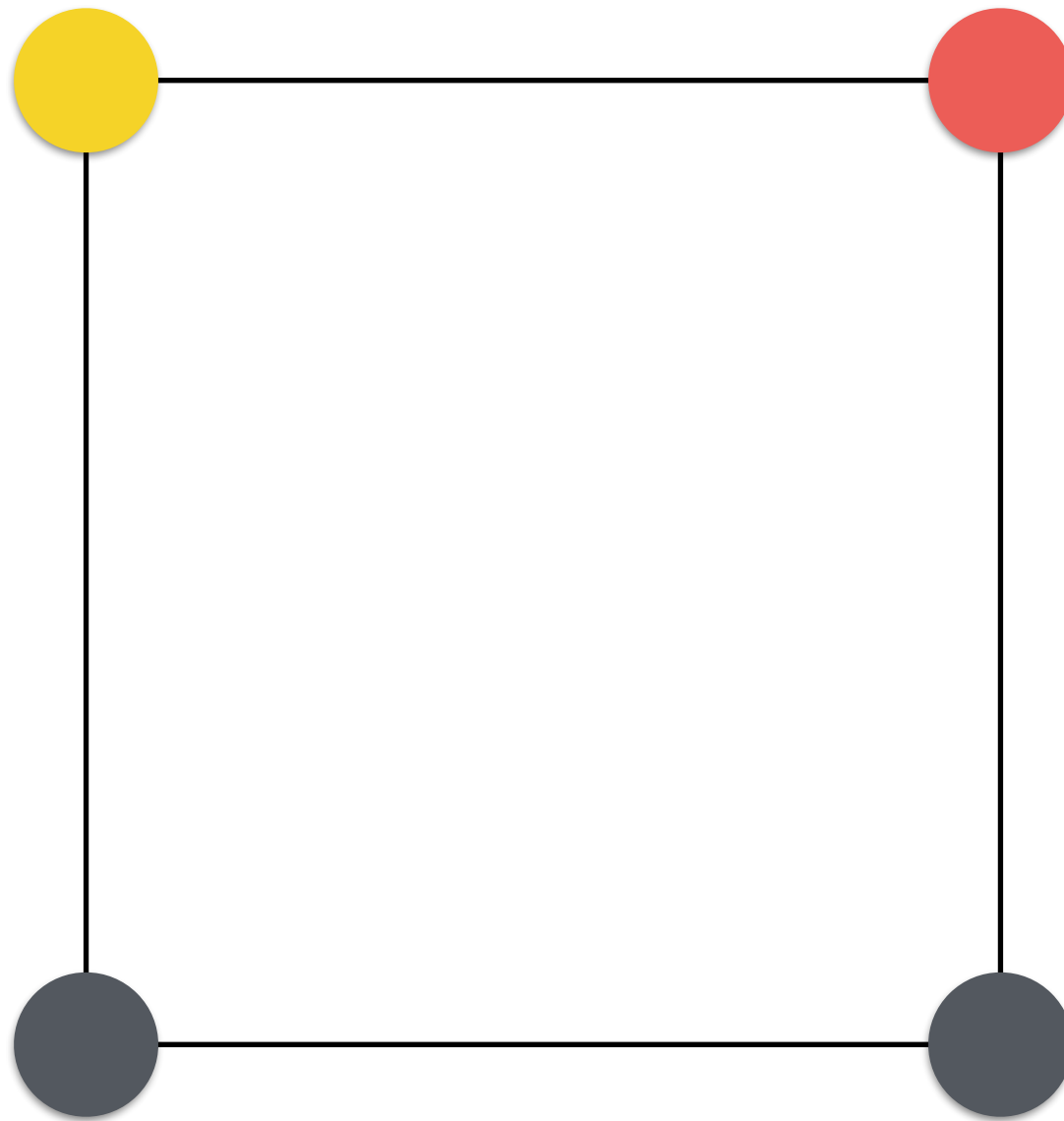
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



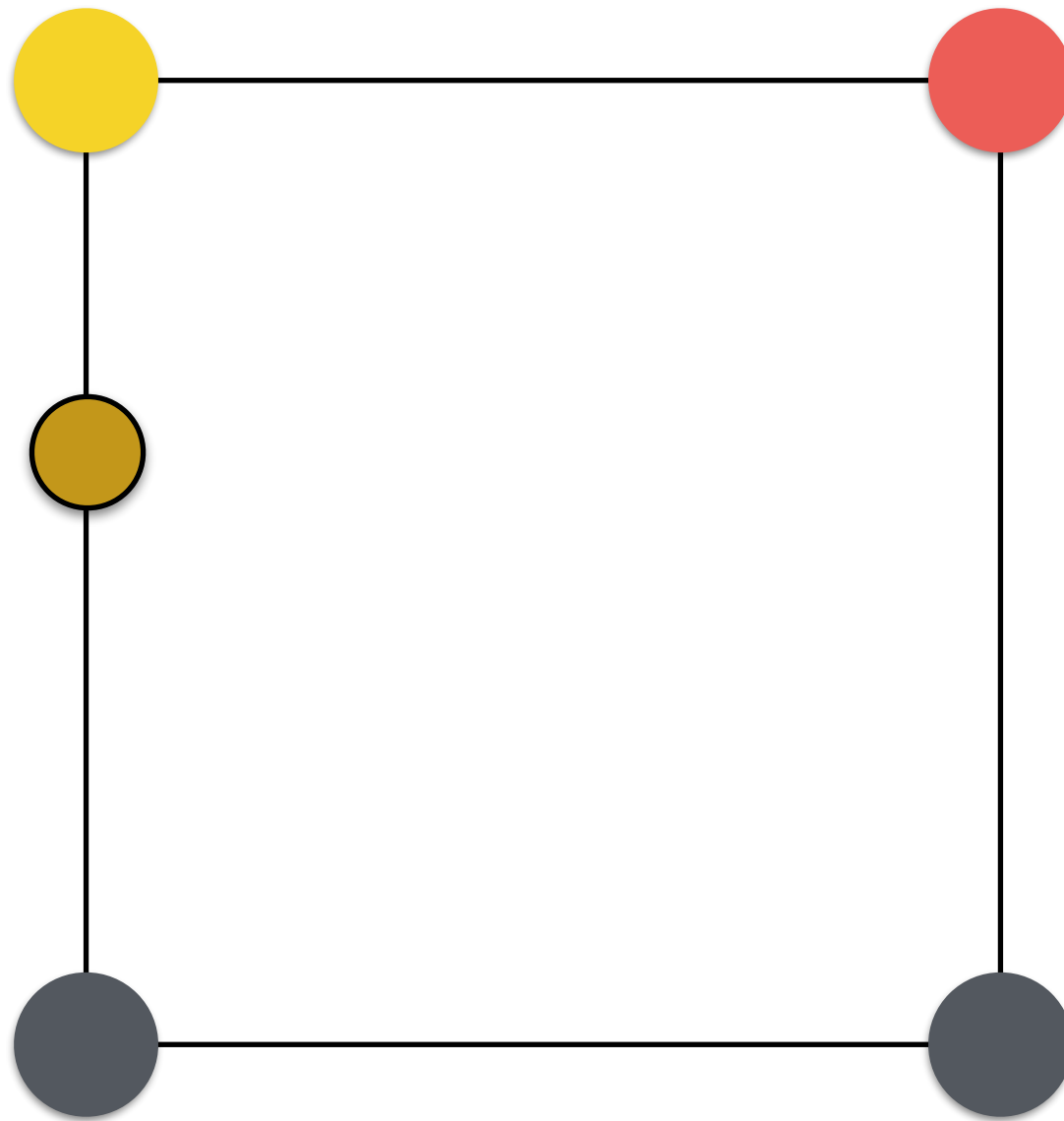
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



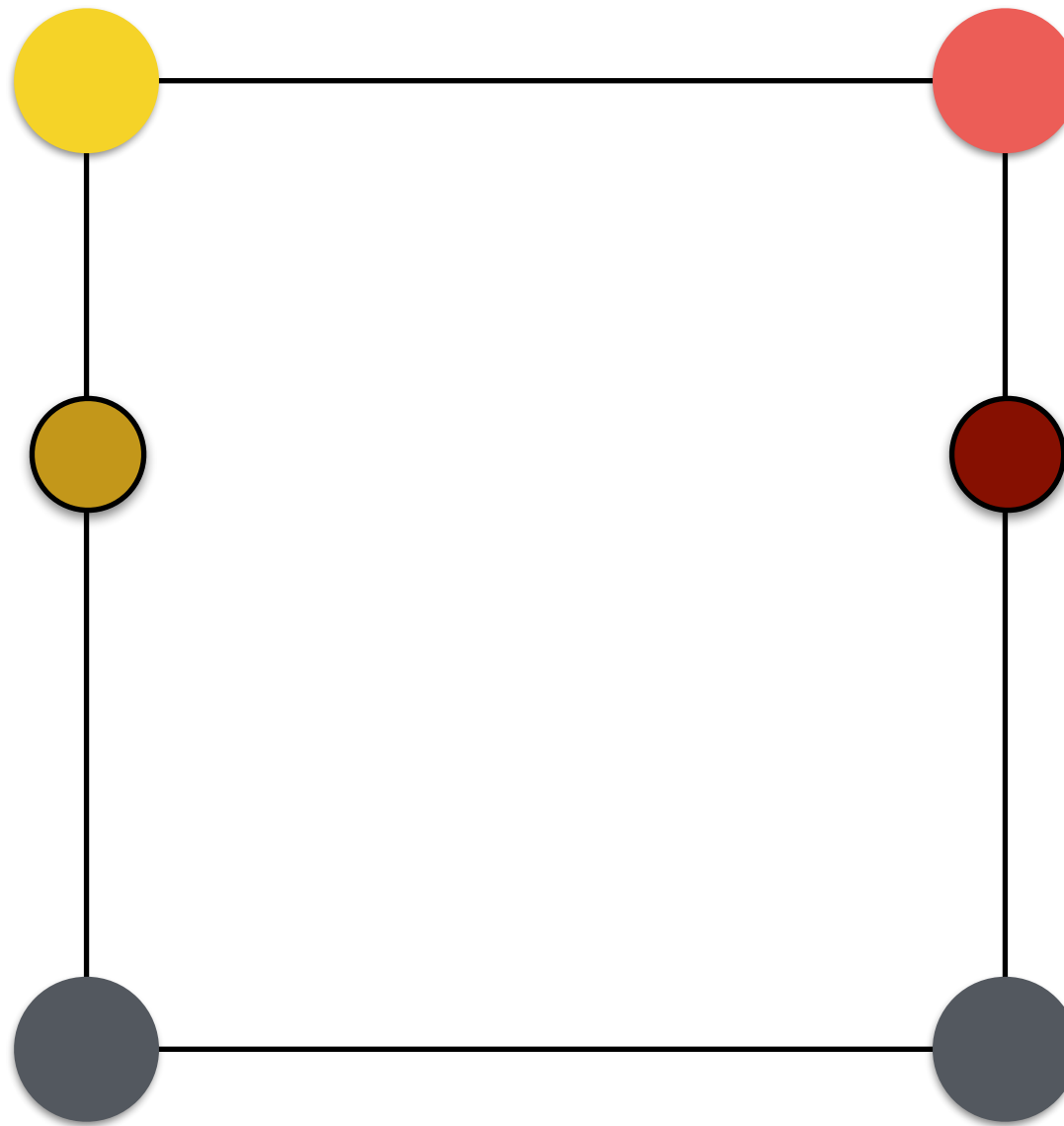
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



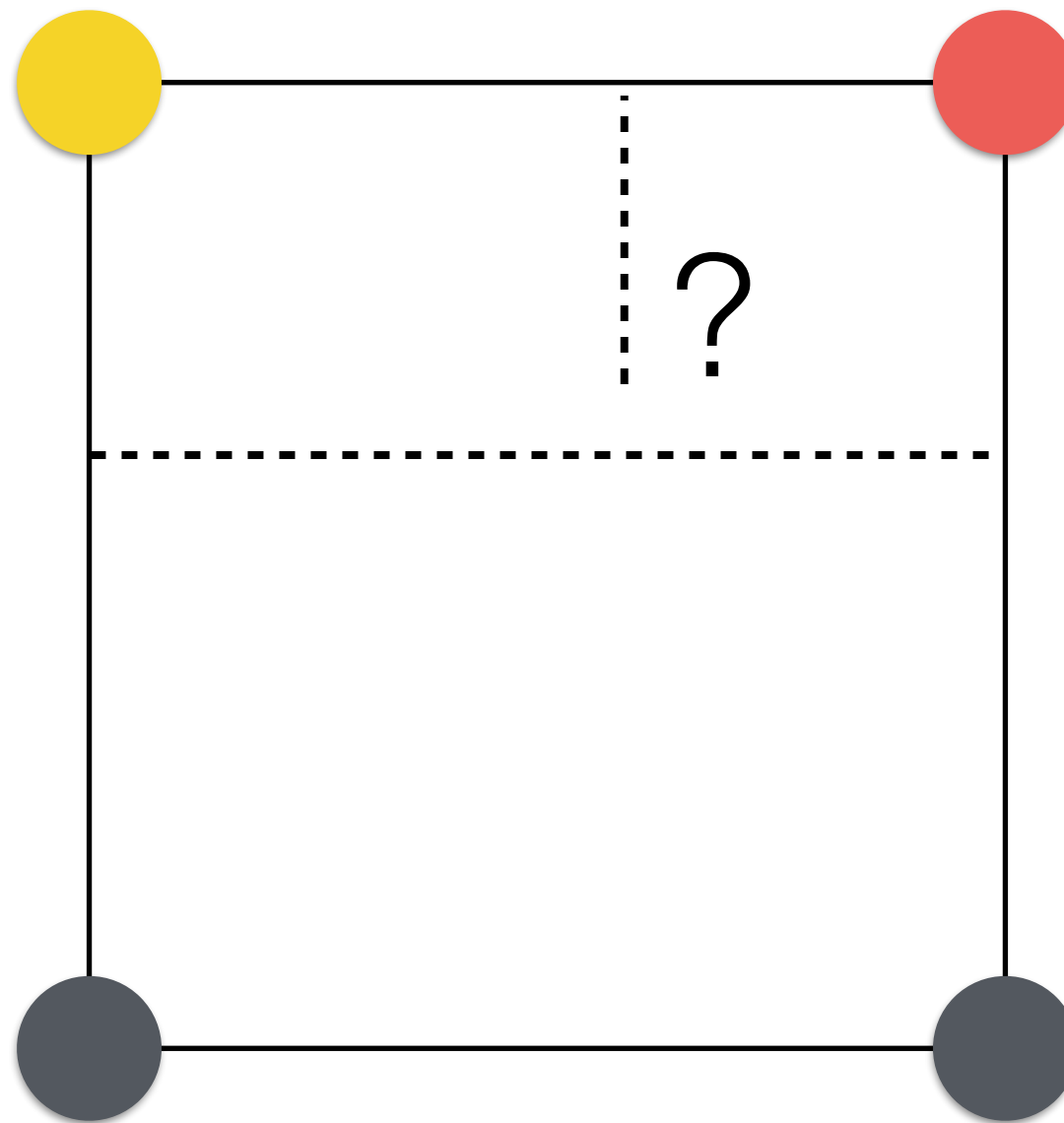
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



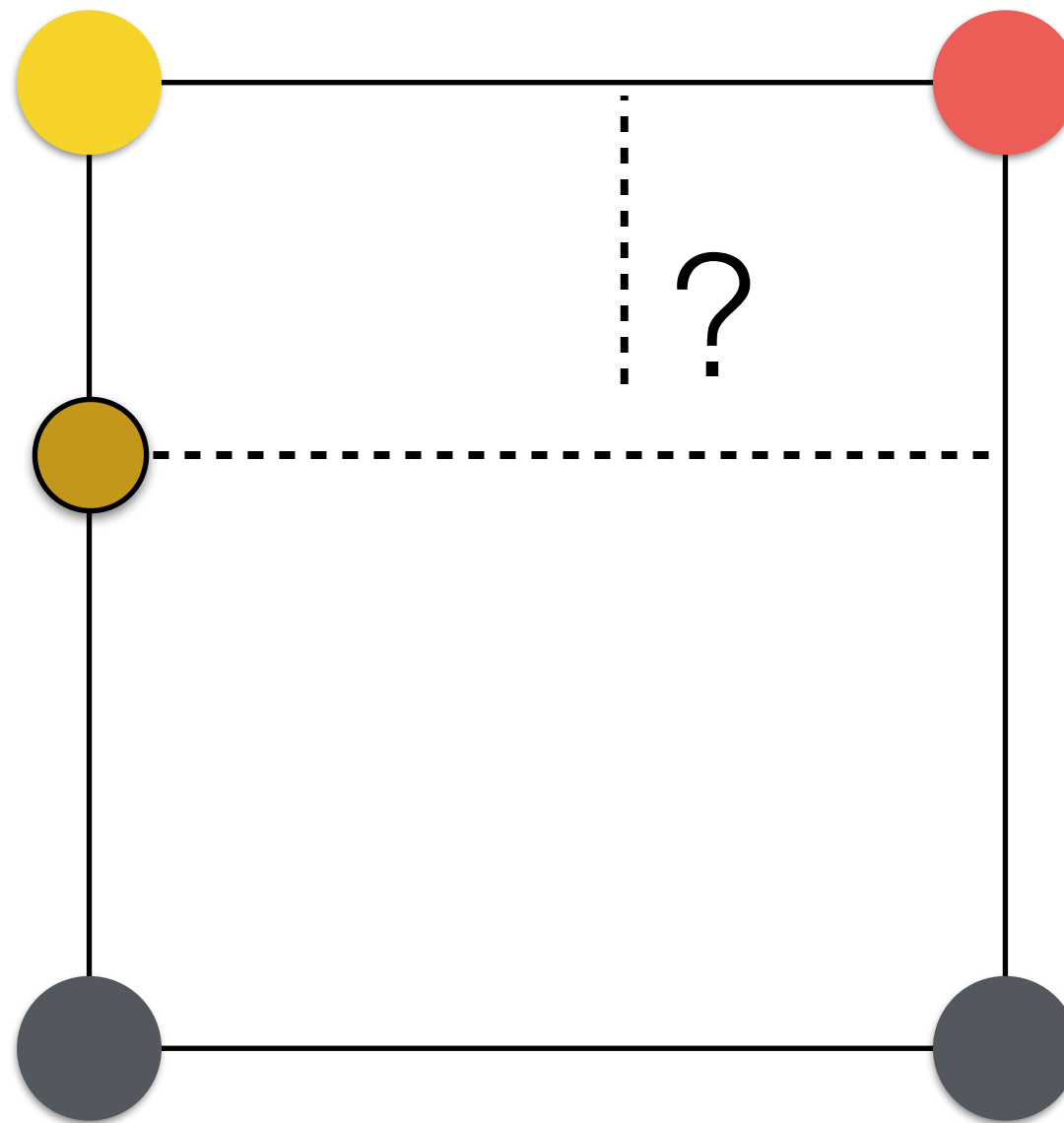
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



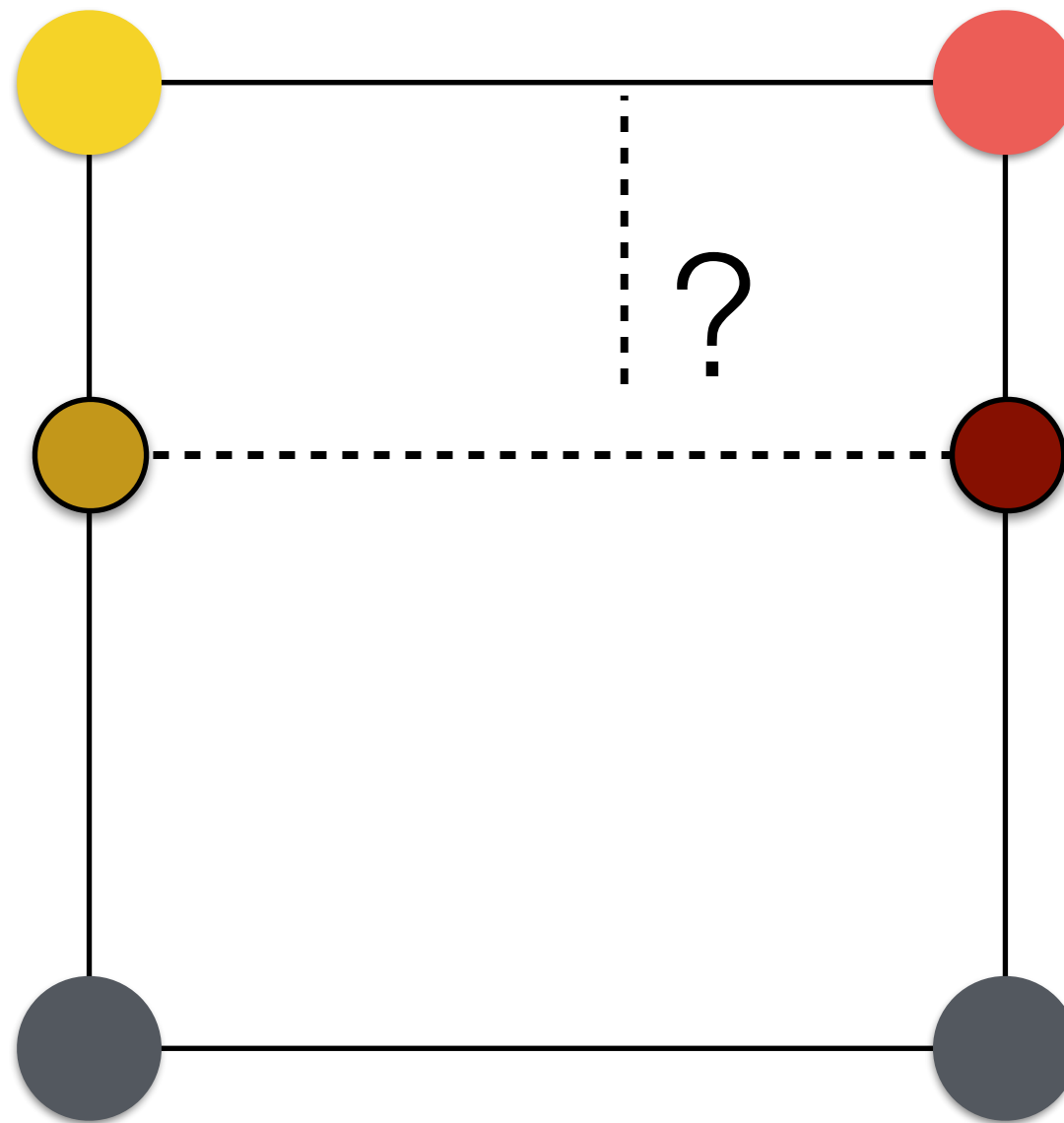
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



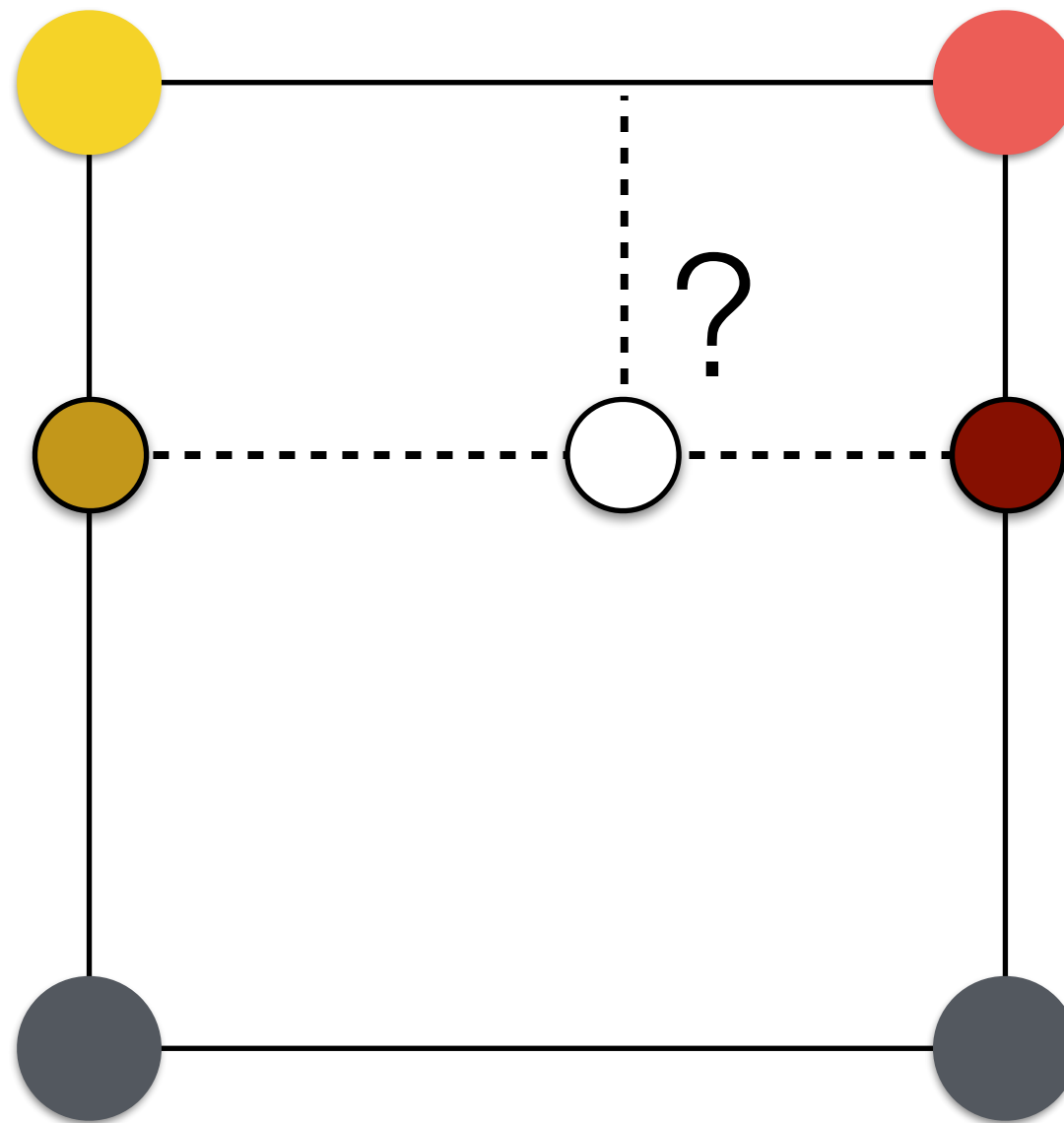
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



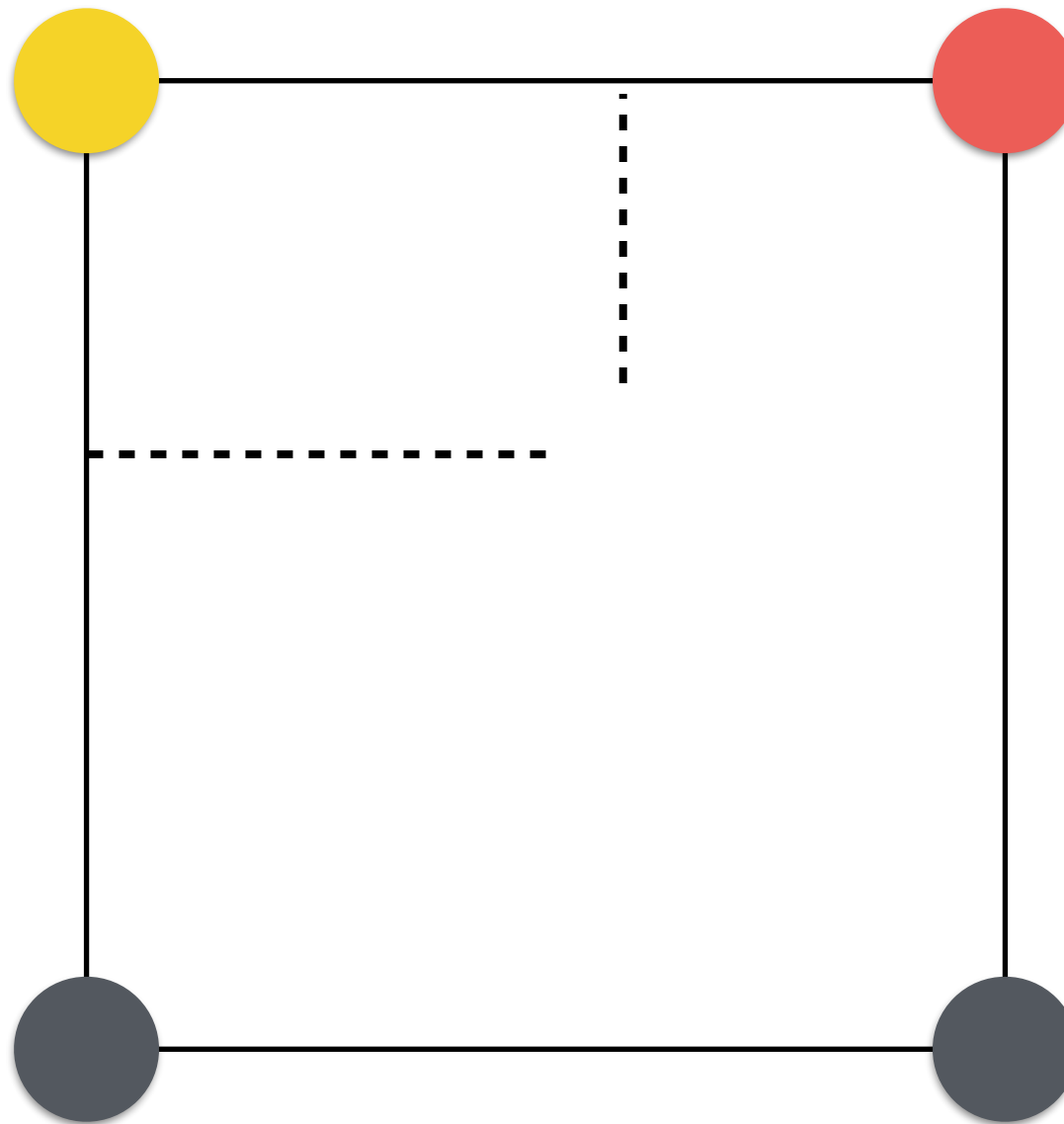
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



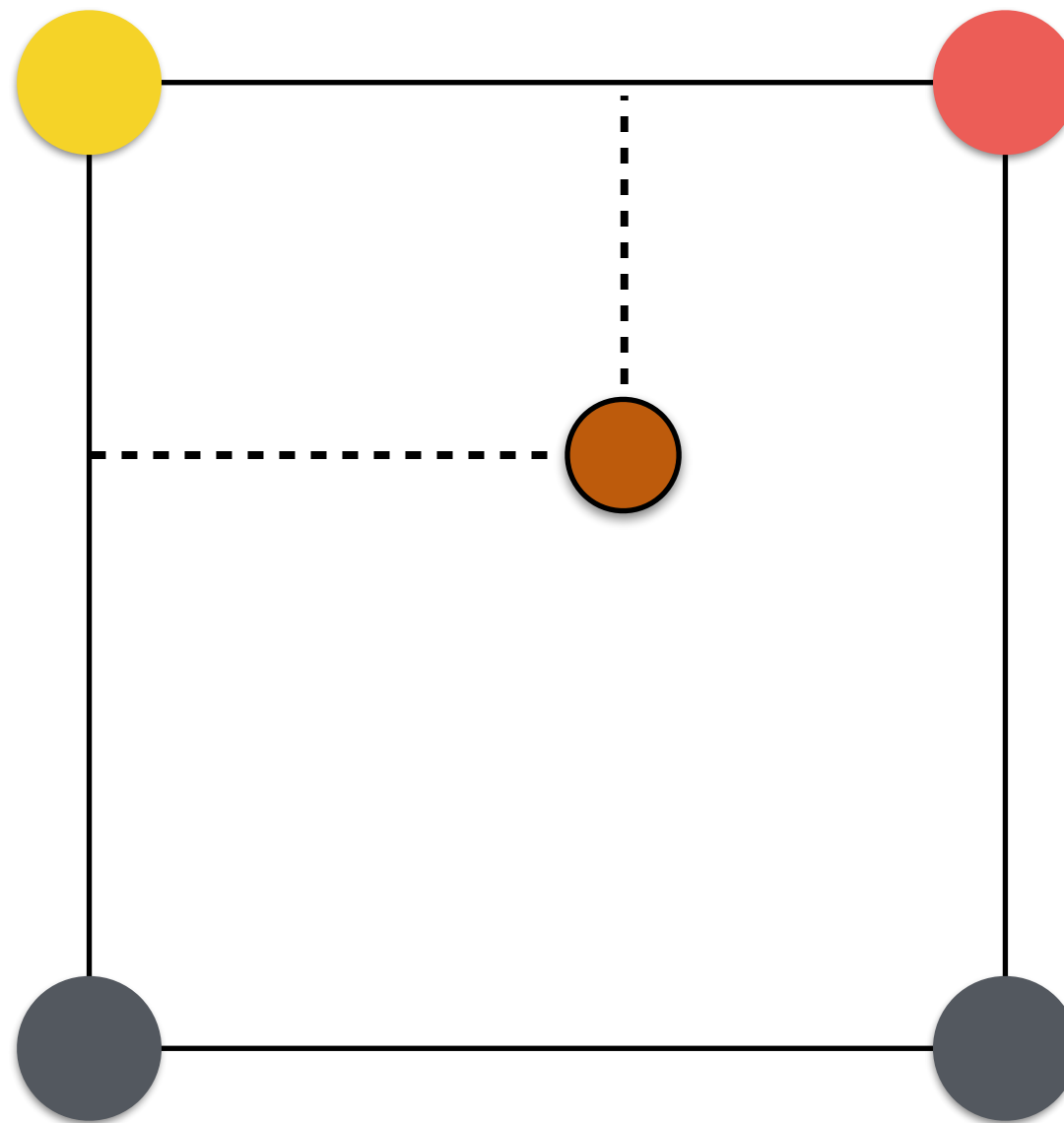
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



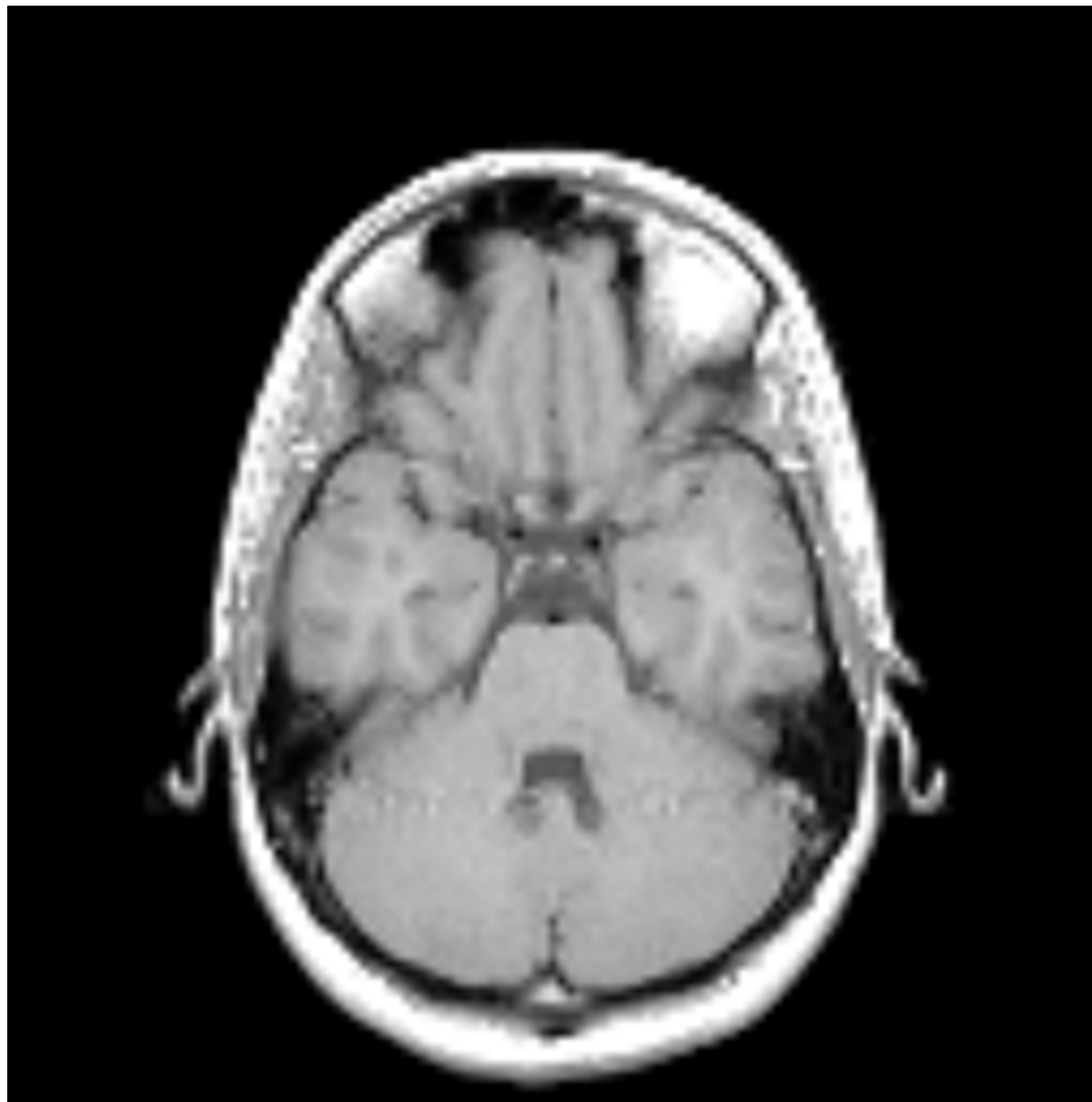
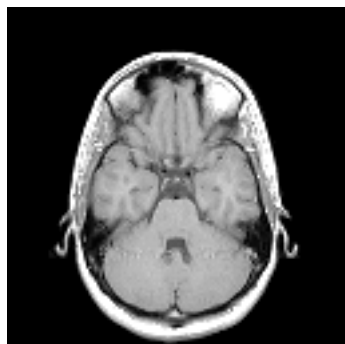
Bilinear Upsampling 2D



Bilinear Upsampling 2D



Bilinear Upsampling Example

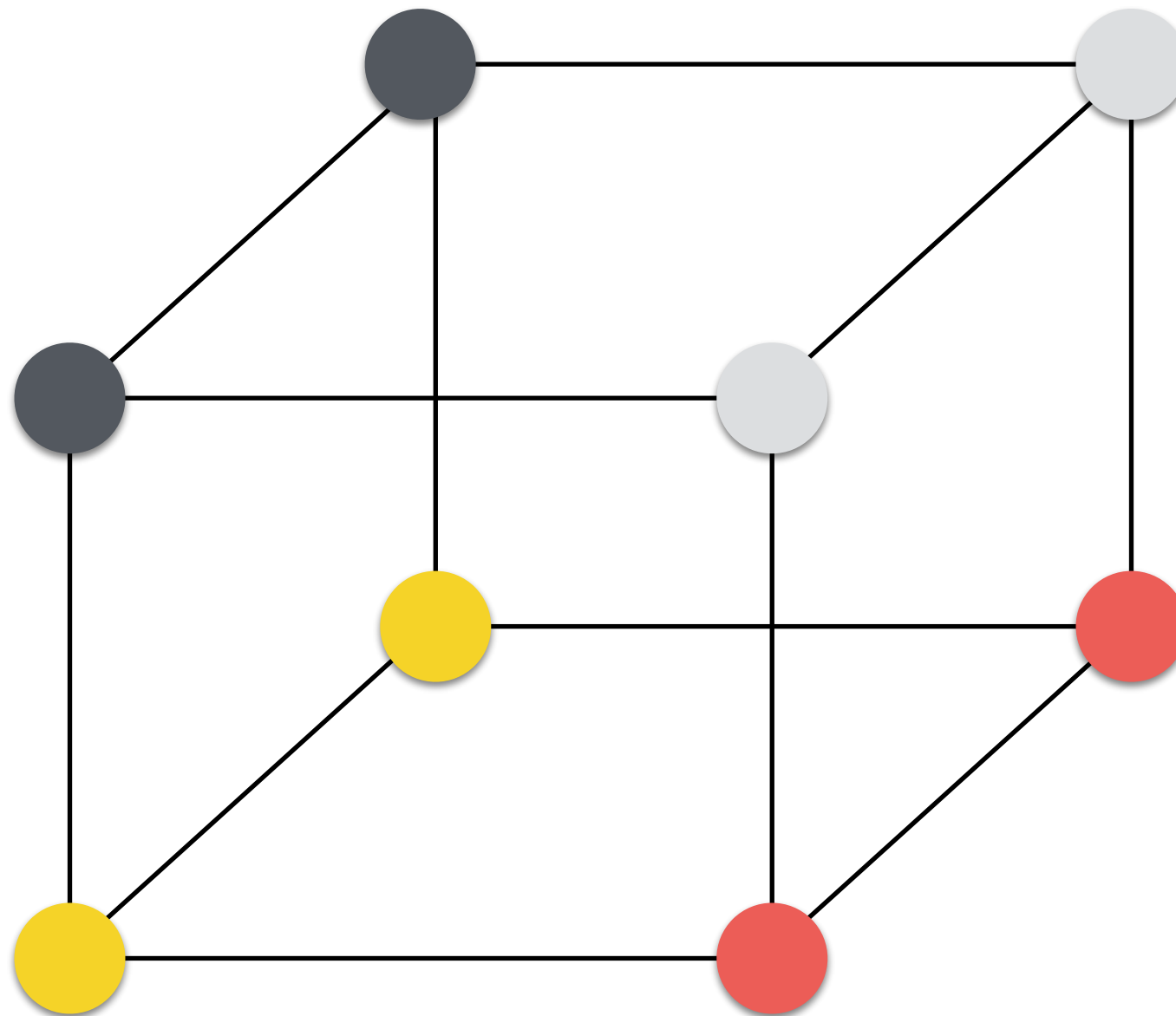


What's about 3D?

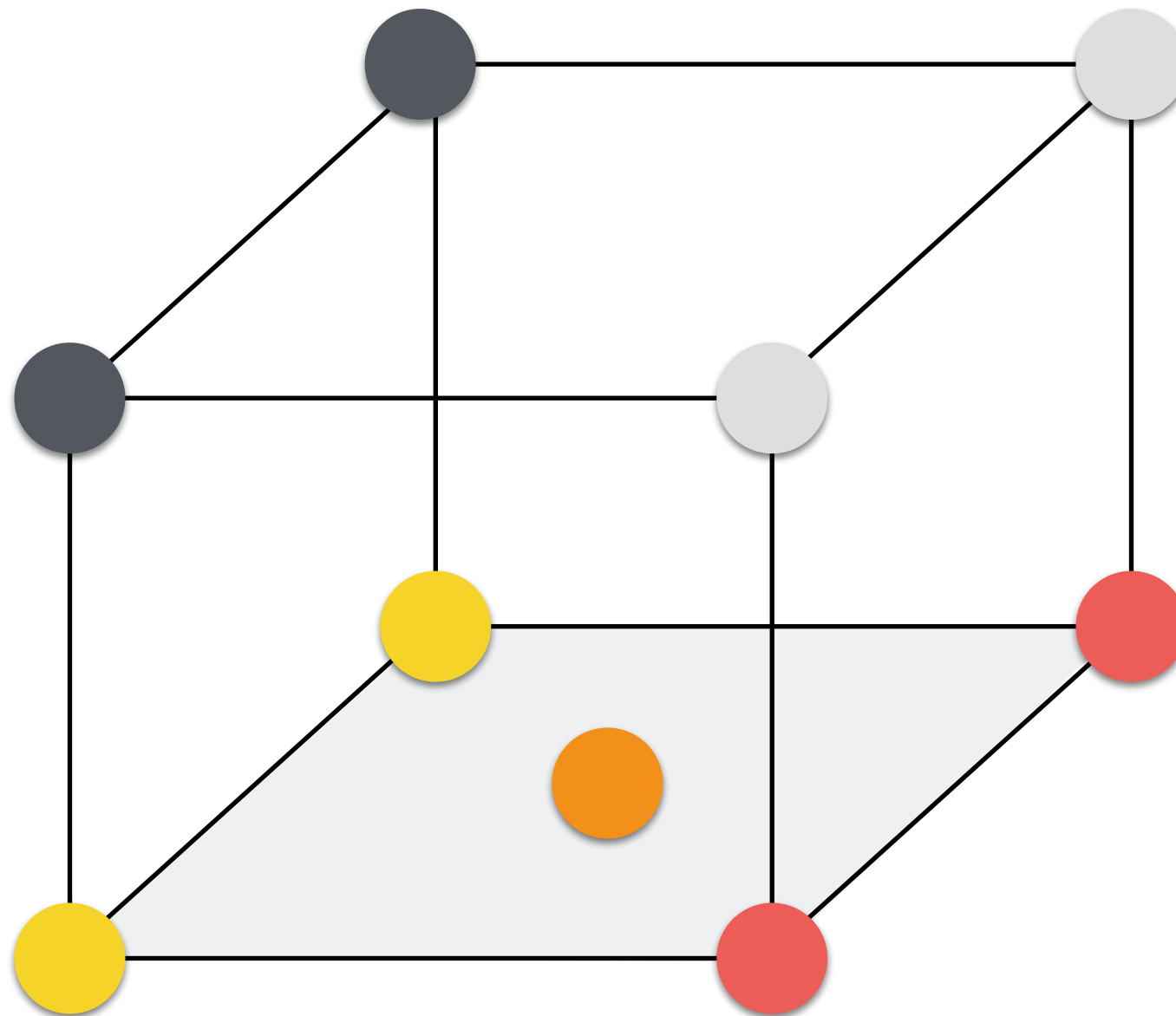
Trilinear Upsampling

- We want to upsample the whole volume:
 - First, we apply bilinear upsampling to all slices of the volume; i.e., 2D images
 - Second, we linearly interpolate between slices to obtain a new slice

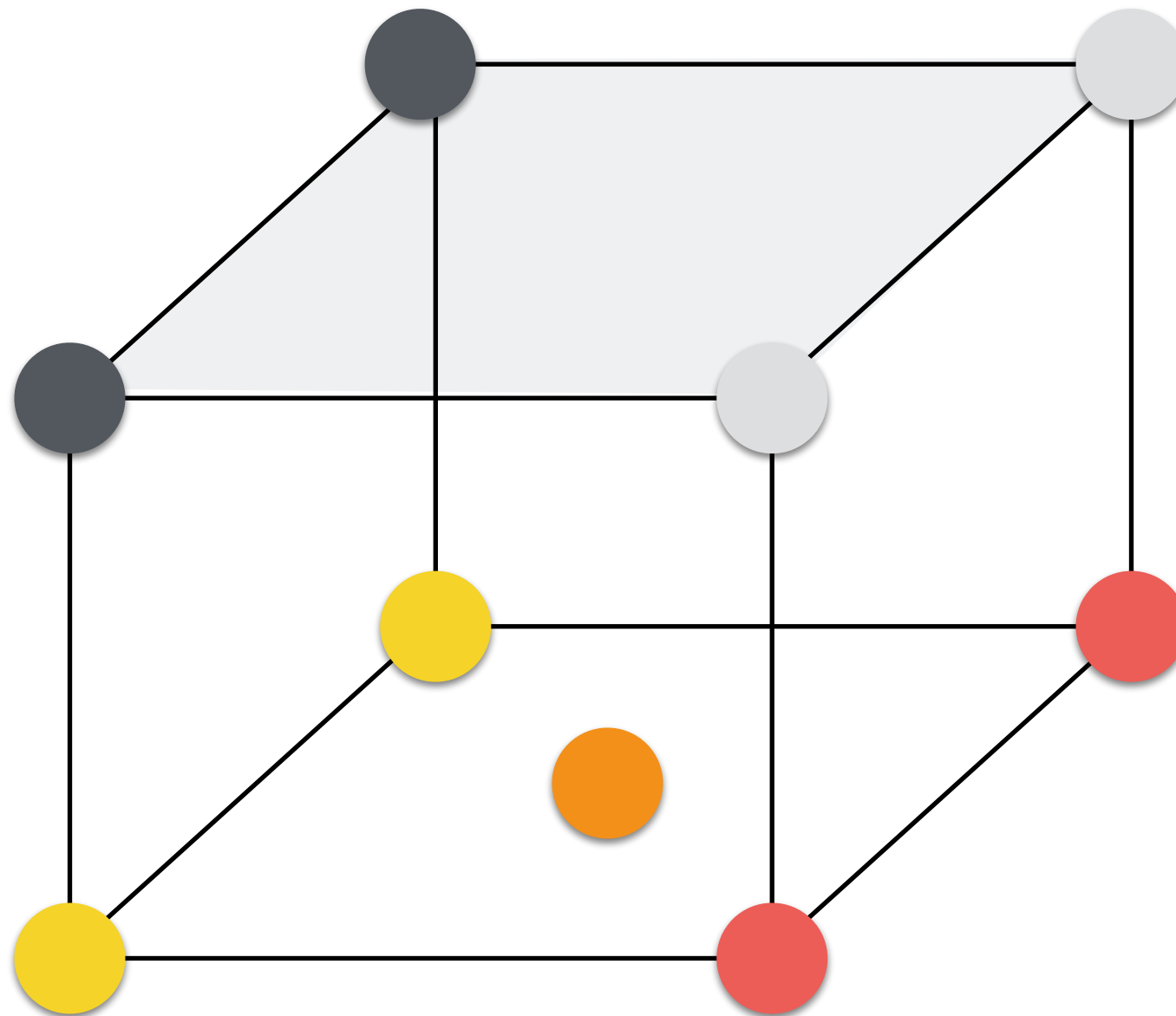
Trilinear Upsampling



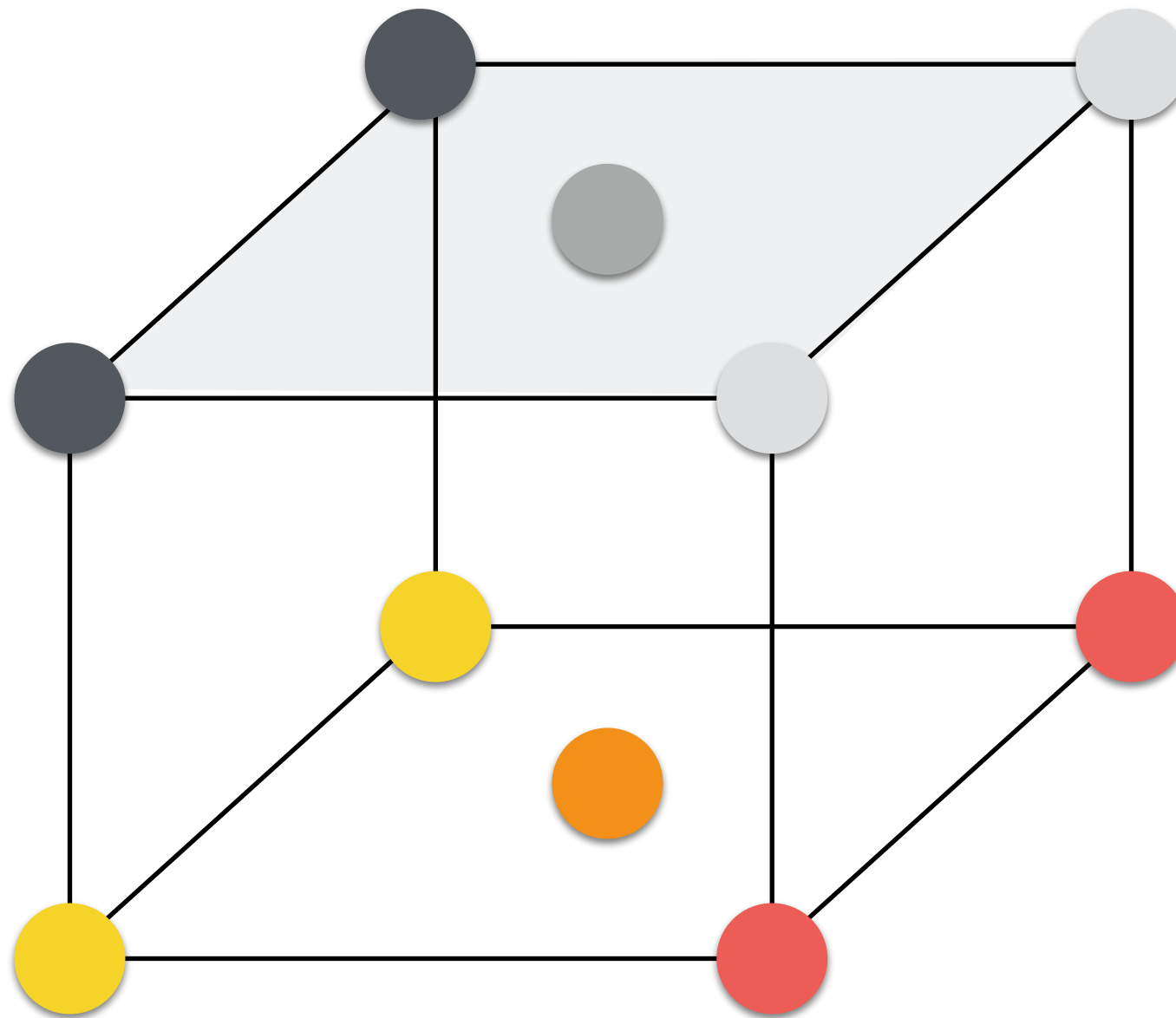
Trilinear Upsampling



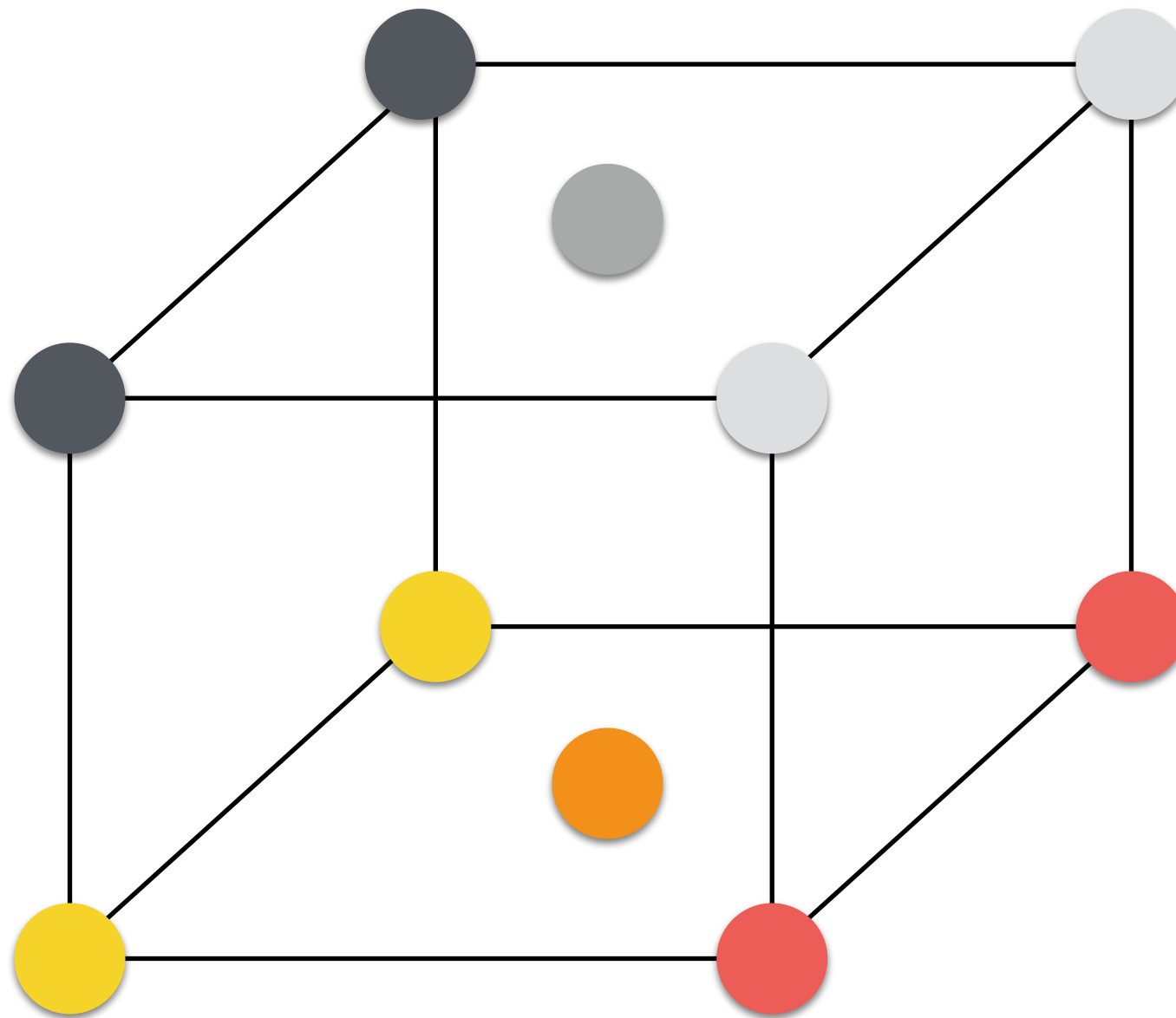
Trilinear Upsampling



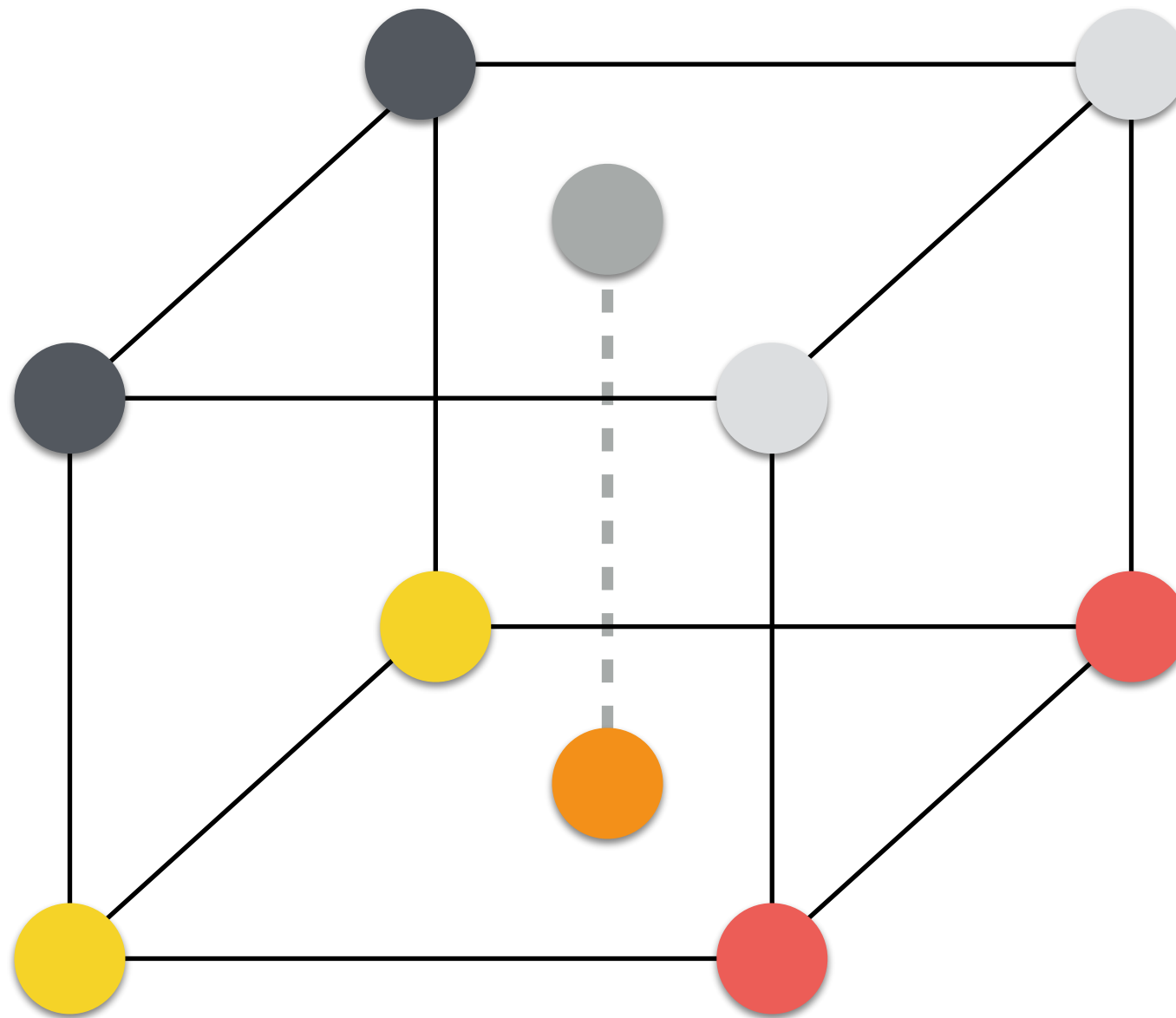
Trilinear Upsampling



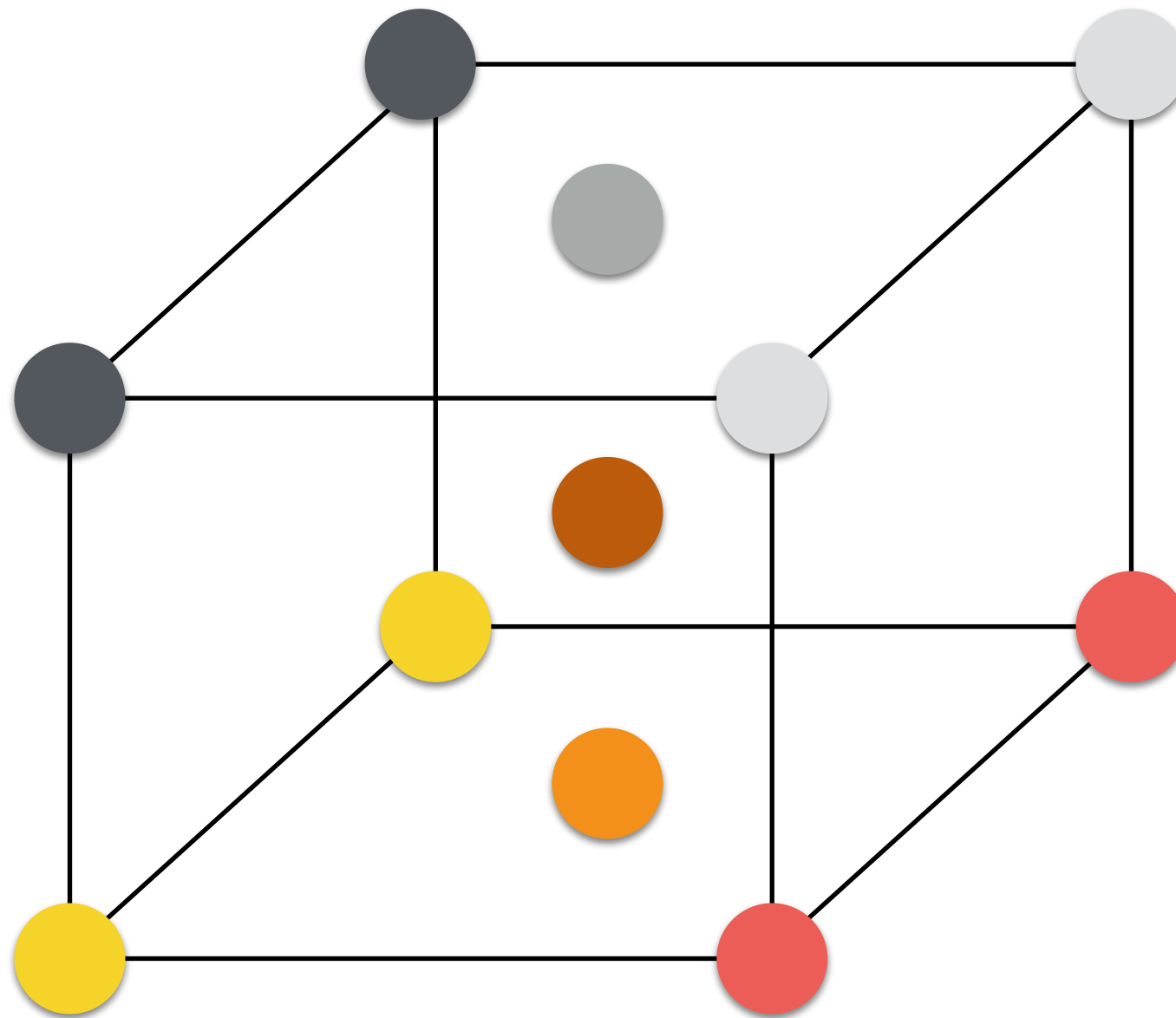
Trilinear Upsampling



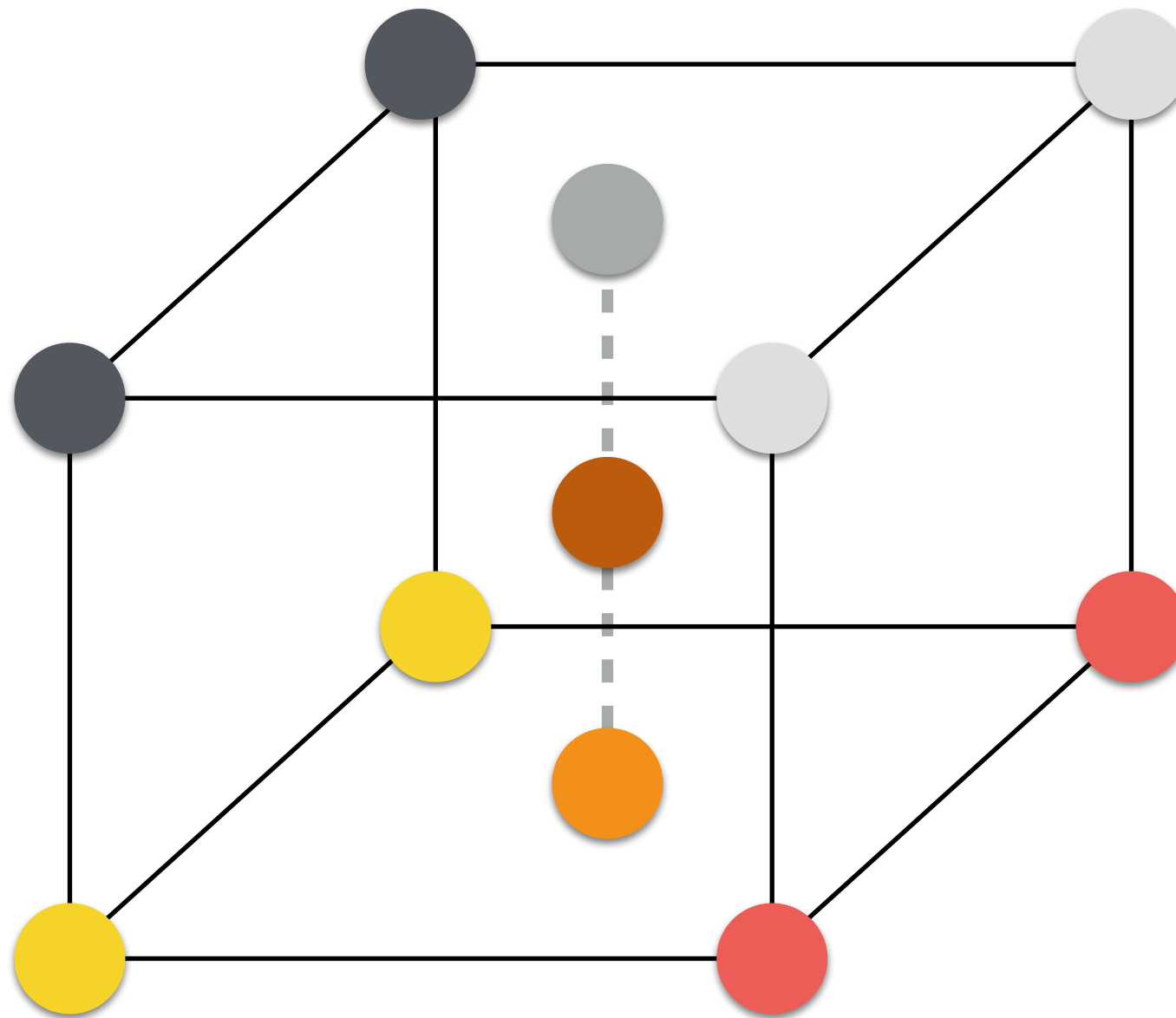
Trilinear Upsampling



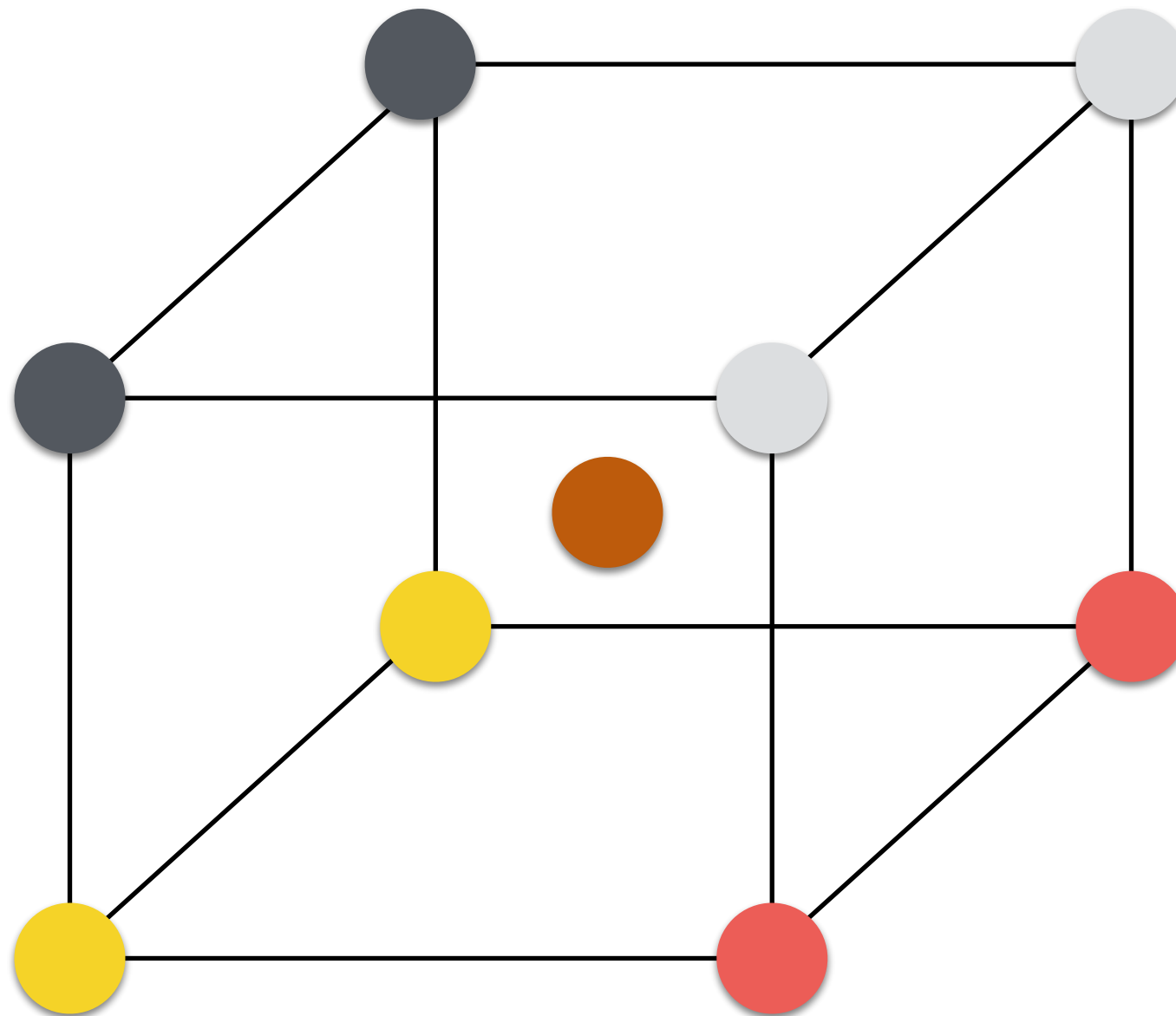
Trilinear Upsampling



Trilinear Upsampling

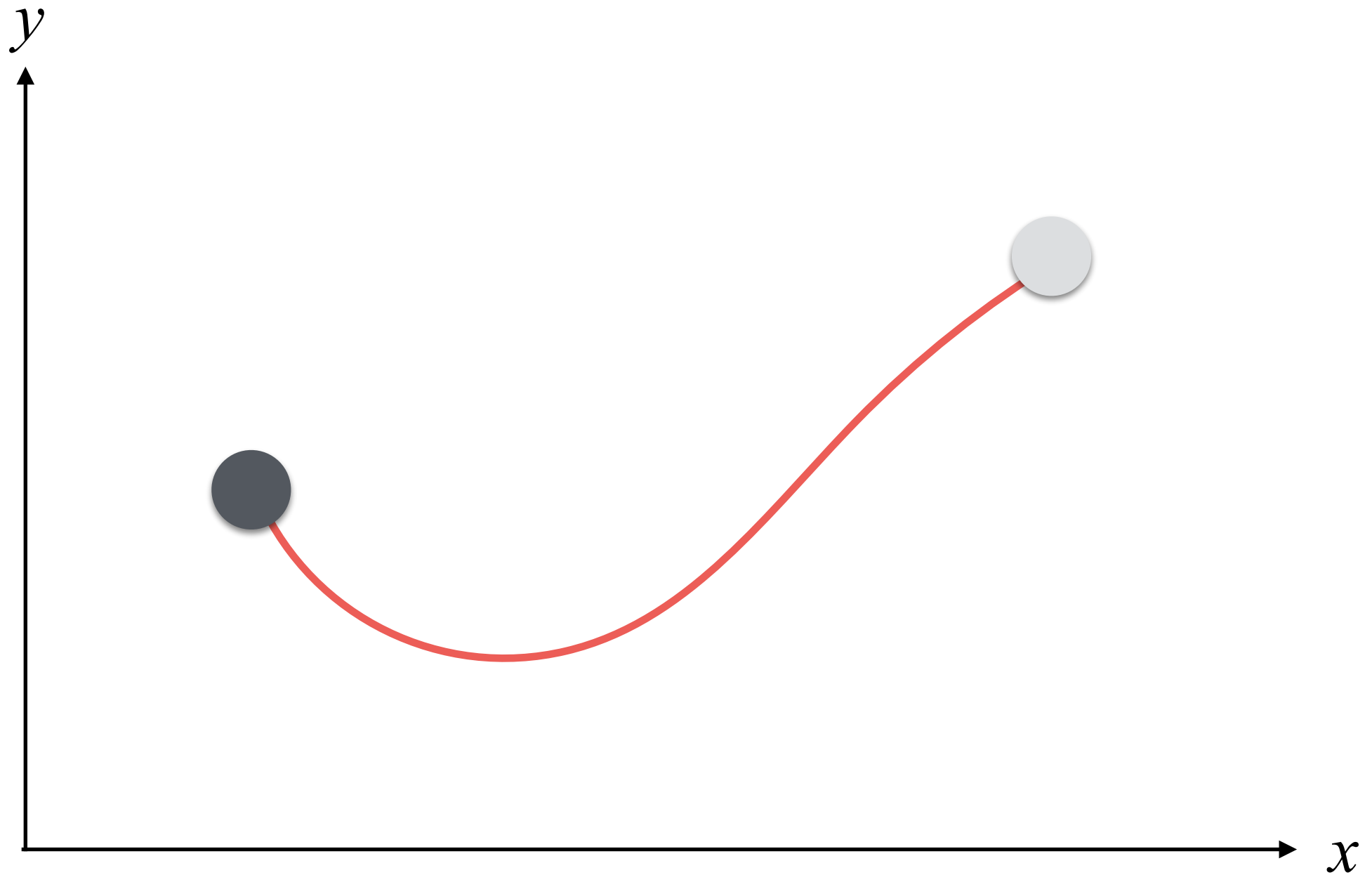


Trilinear Upsampling



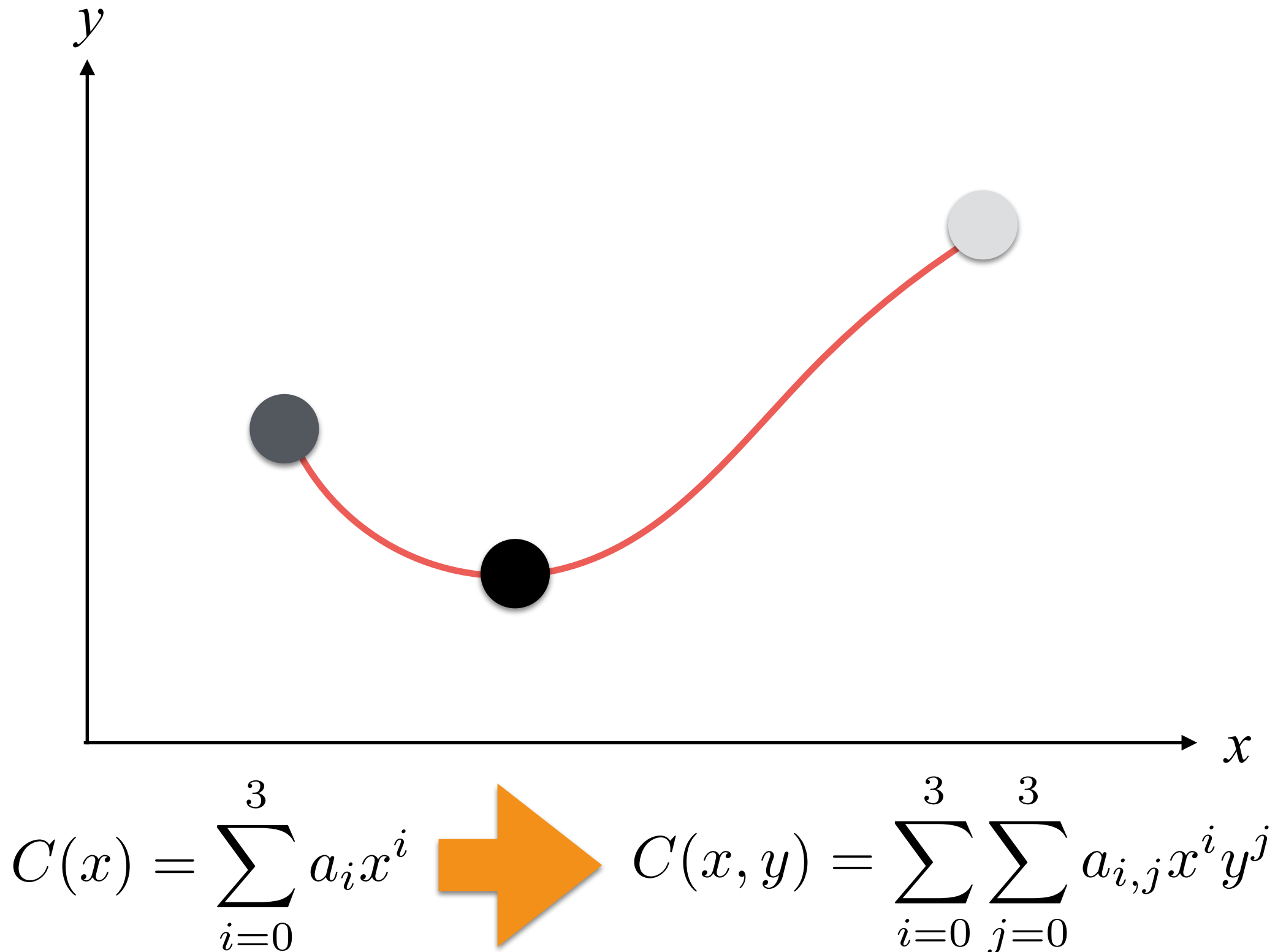
Can we do it better?

Bicubic Usampling (2D)

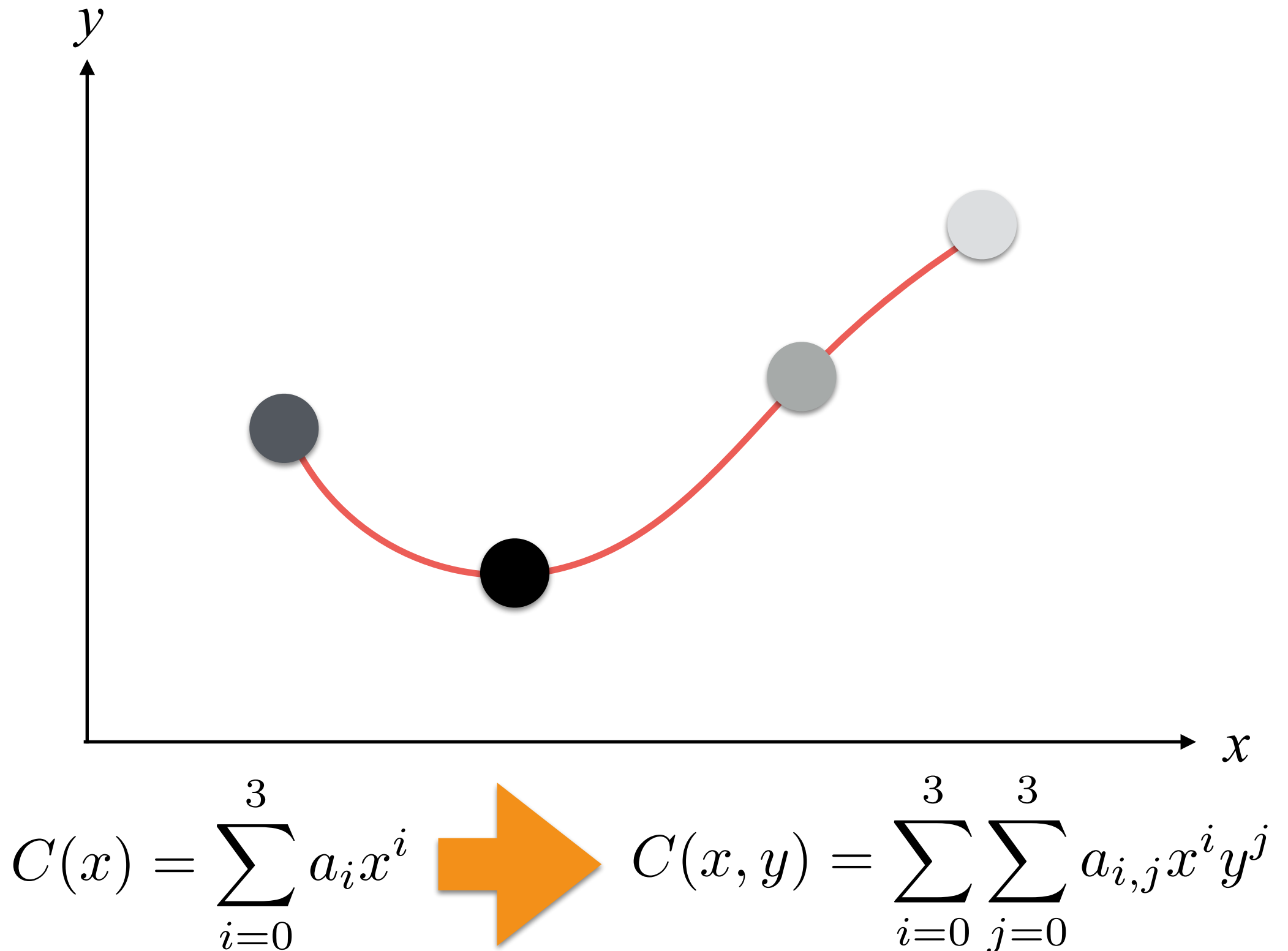


$$C(x) = \sum_{i=0}^3 a_i x^i \quad \rightarrow \quad C(x, y) = \sum_{i=0}^3 \sum_{j=0}^3 a_{i,j} x^i y^j$$

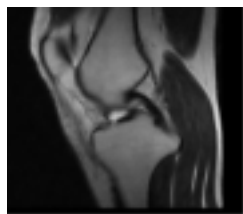
Bicubic Usampling (2D)



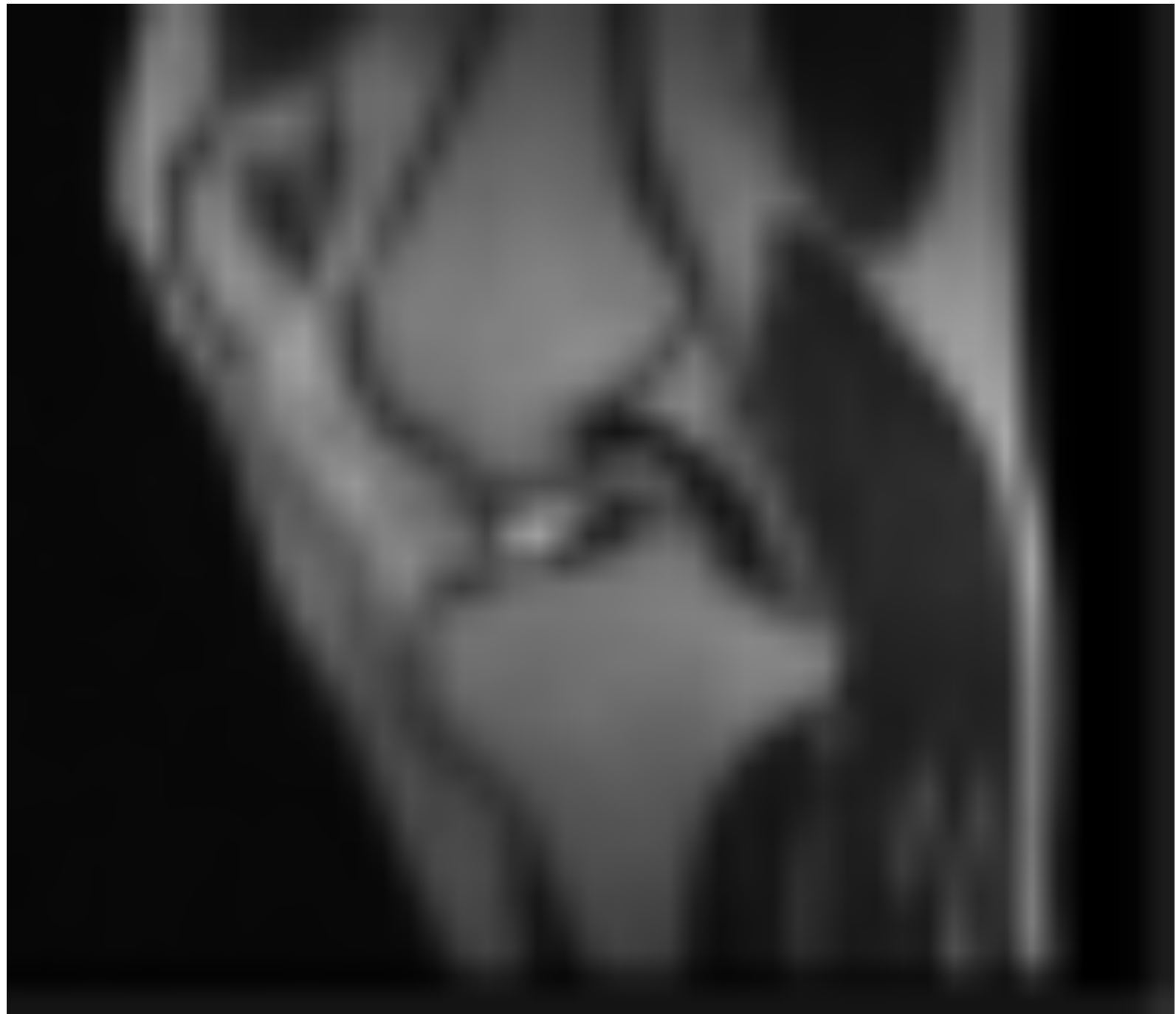
Bicubic Usampling (2D)



Bicubic Upsampling

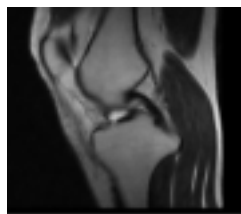


Input

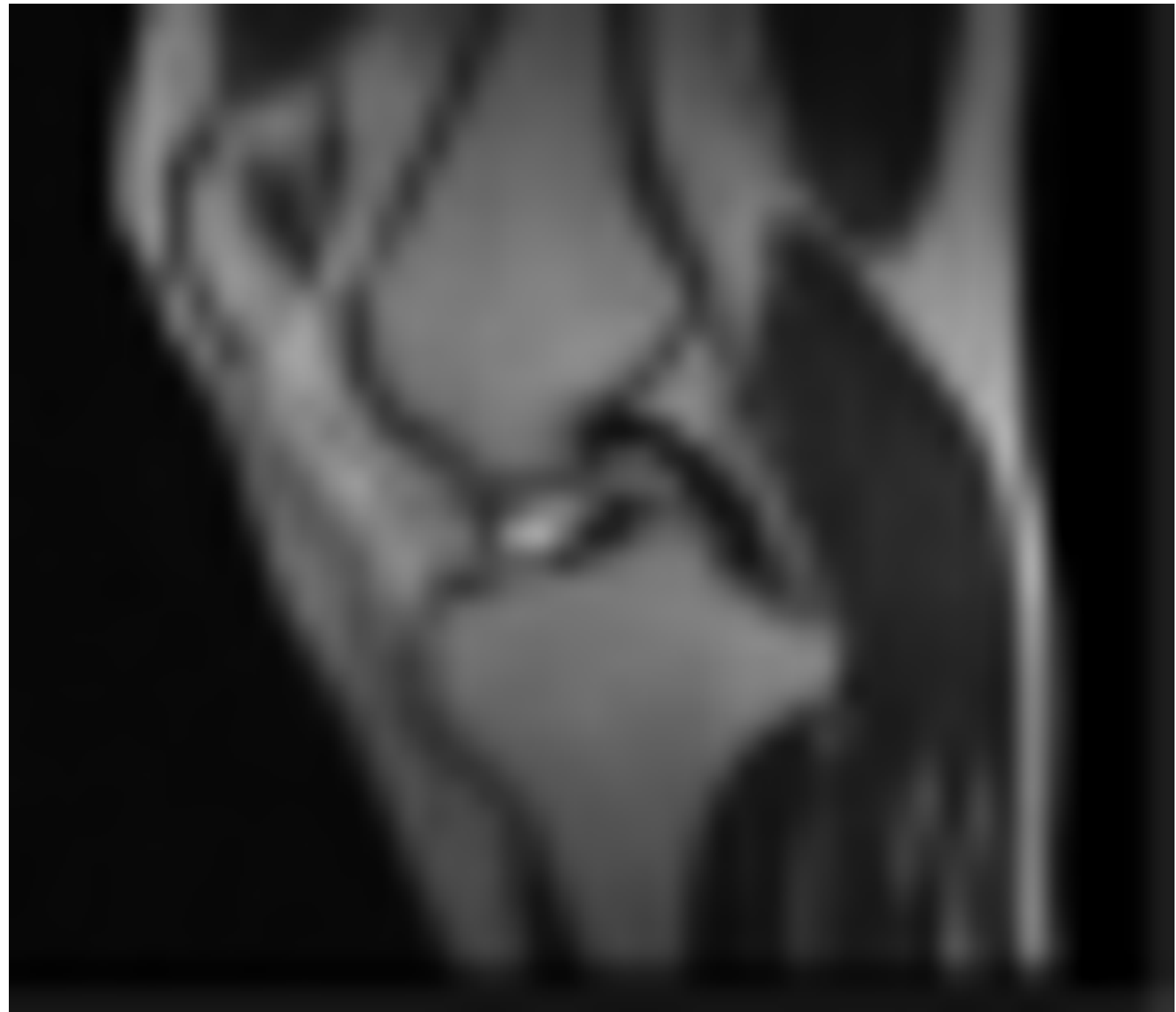


Upsampling

Bicubic Upsampling

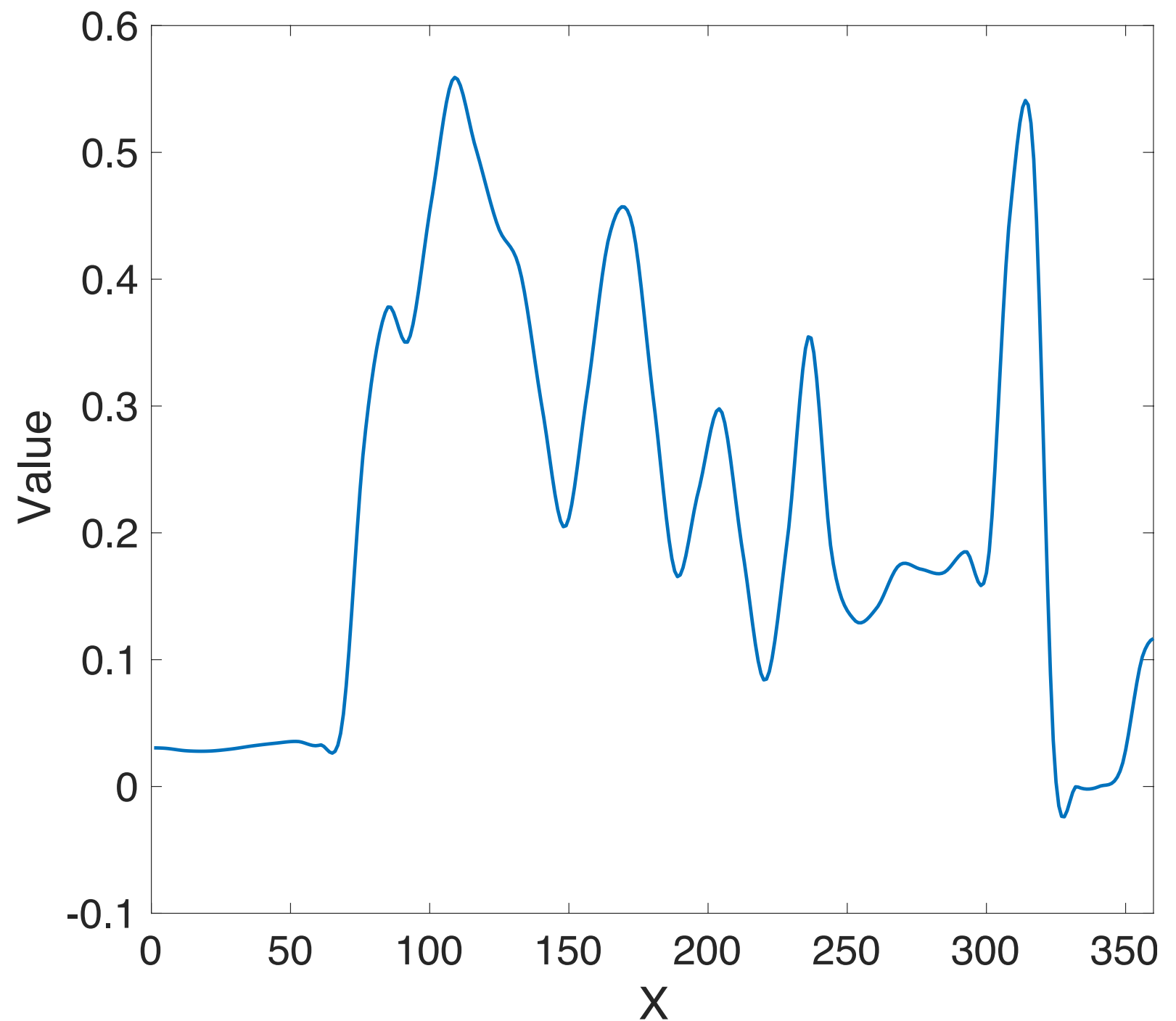
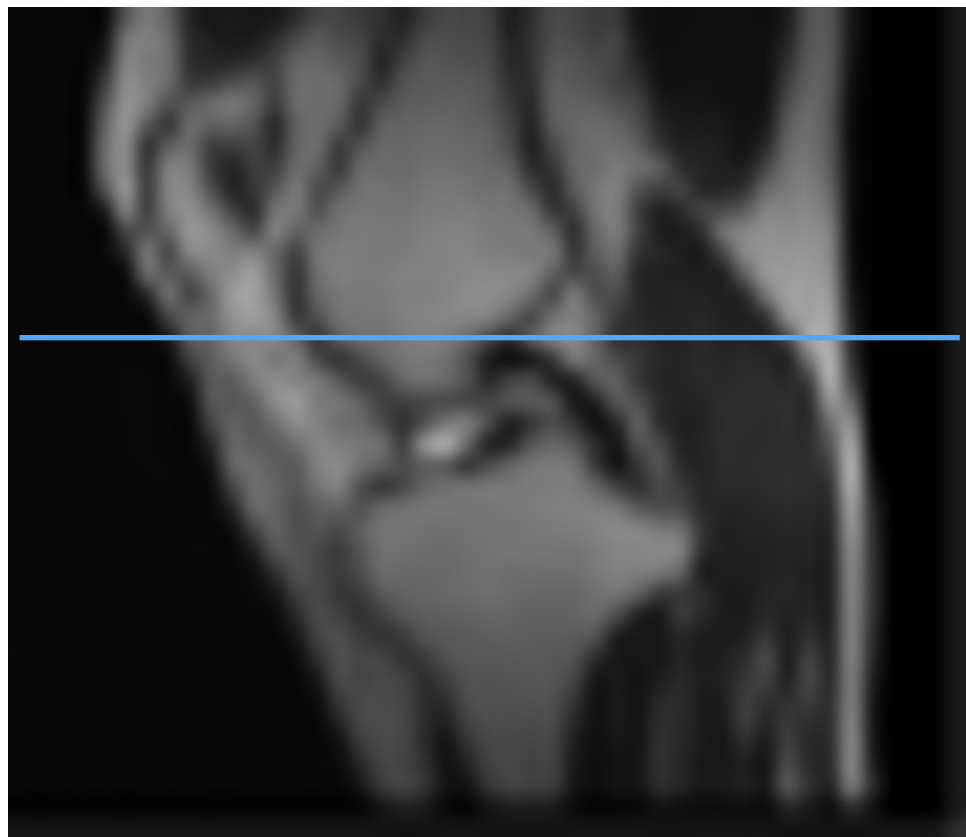


Input

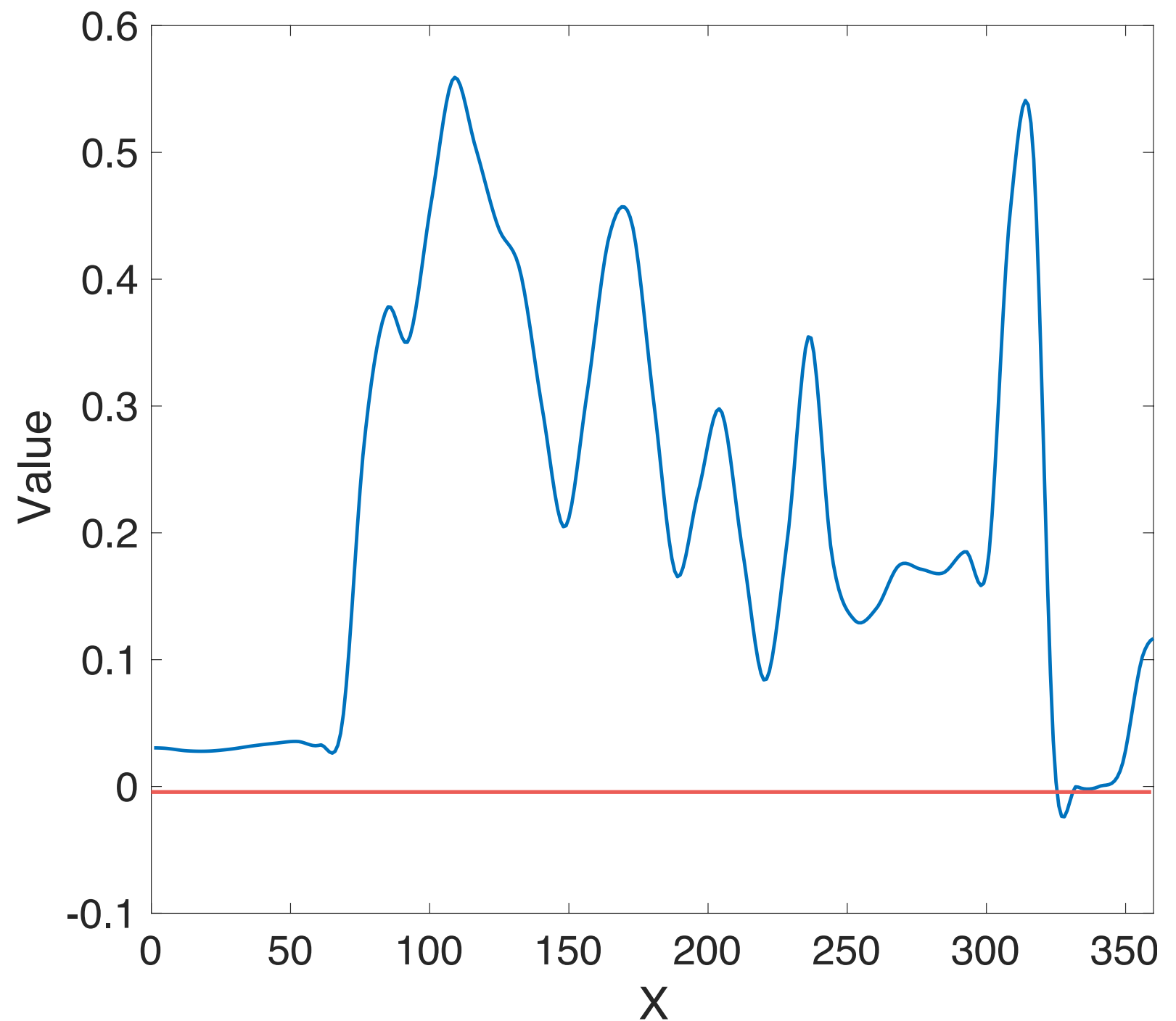
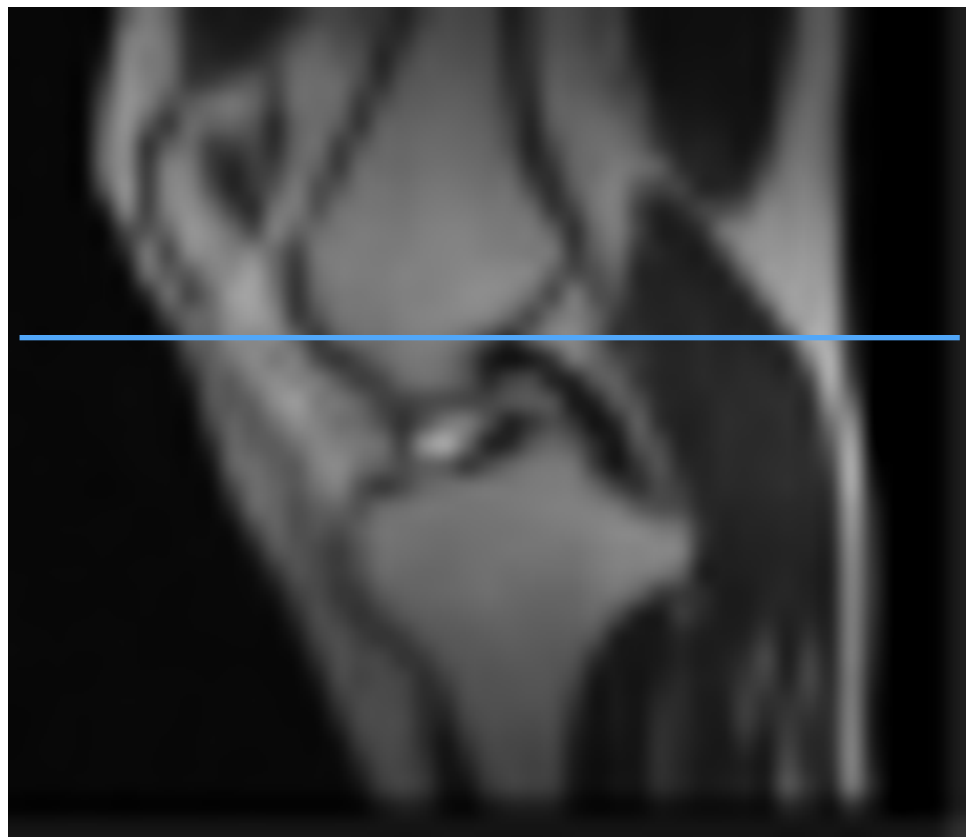


Upsampling

Bicubic Upsampling



Bicubic Upsampling



that's all folks!