

CS 484/684

# Computational Vision

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## ***Image Modalities***

most slides are shamelessly stolen from  
Steven Seitz, Aleosha Efros, and Terry Peters

CS 484/684

# Computational Vision

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## □ Photo/Video data

- Lenses
- *Pin-hole* camera model – the basics
- Digital images and volumes

## □ Medical Images and Volumes

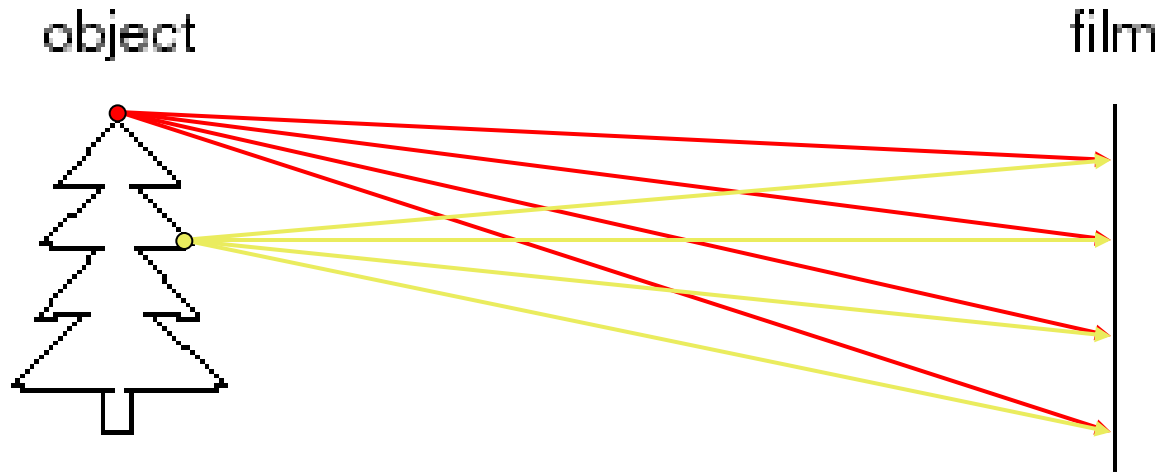
- X-ray, MRI, CT, and Ultrasound

Extra Reading: **Szeliski, Ch. 2,**  
**Gonzalez & Woods, Ch. 1**

Slide by Steve Seitz

# How do we see the world?

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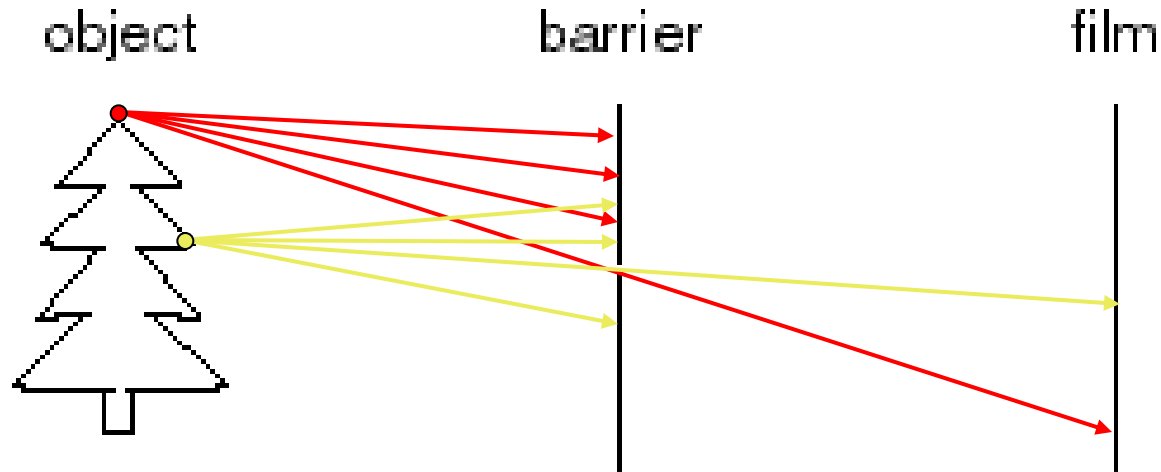
## □ Let's design a camera

- Idea 1: put a piece of film in front of an object
- Do we get a reasonable image?

Slide by Steve Seitz

# Pinhole camera

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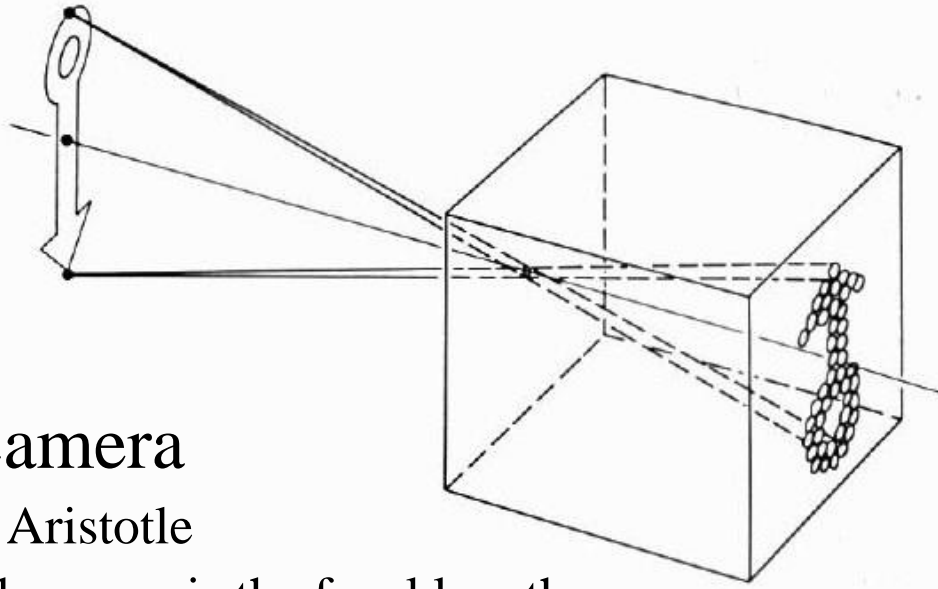


- Add a barrier to block off most of the rays
  - This reduces blurring
  - The opening known as the **aperture**
  - How does this transform the image?

Slide by Steve Seitz

# Camera Obscura (a.k.a. darkroom)

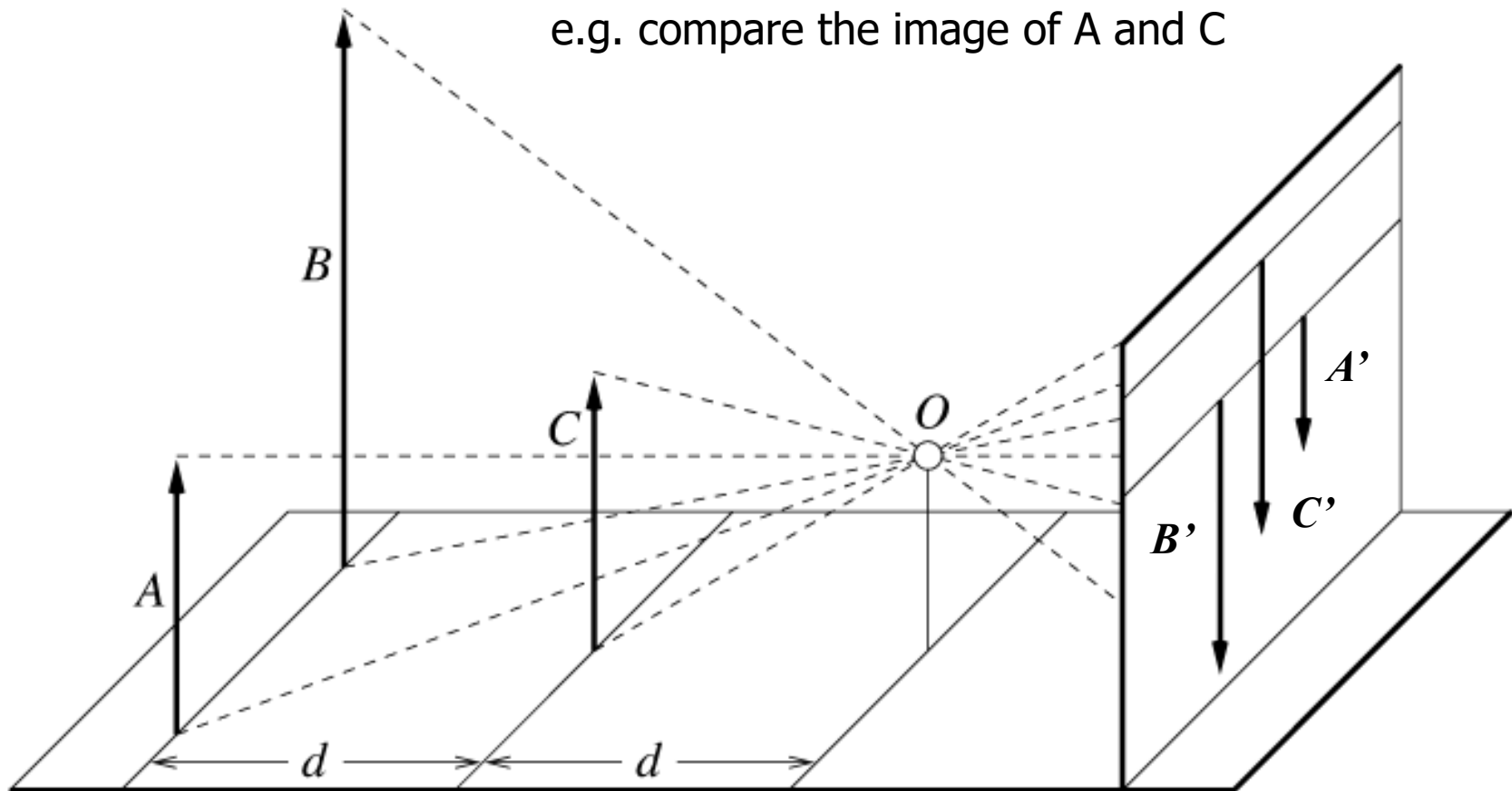
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- The first camera
  - Known to Aristotle
  - Depth of the room is the focal length
  - *Pencil of rays* – all rays through a point
- 3D world is projected on an image plane (2D)
- Can we restore 3D points from their image?
  - That is, **can we measure distances** (the lost 3<sup>rd</sup> dimension)?

# Depth is ambiguous as distant objects appear smaller

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- Eventually, we will learn methods for restoring depth  
(prior knowledge about 3D world, geometric constraints, learning)

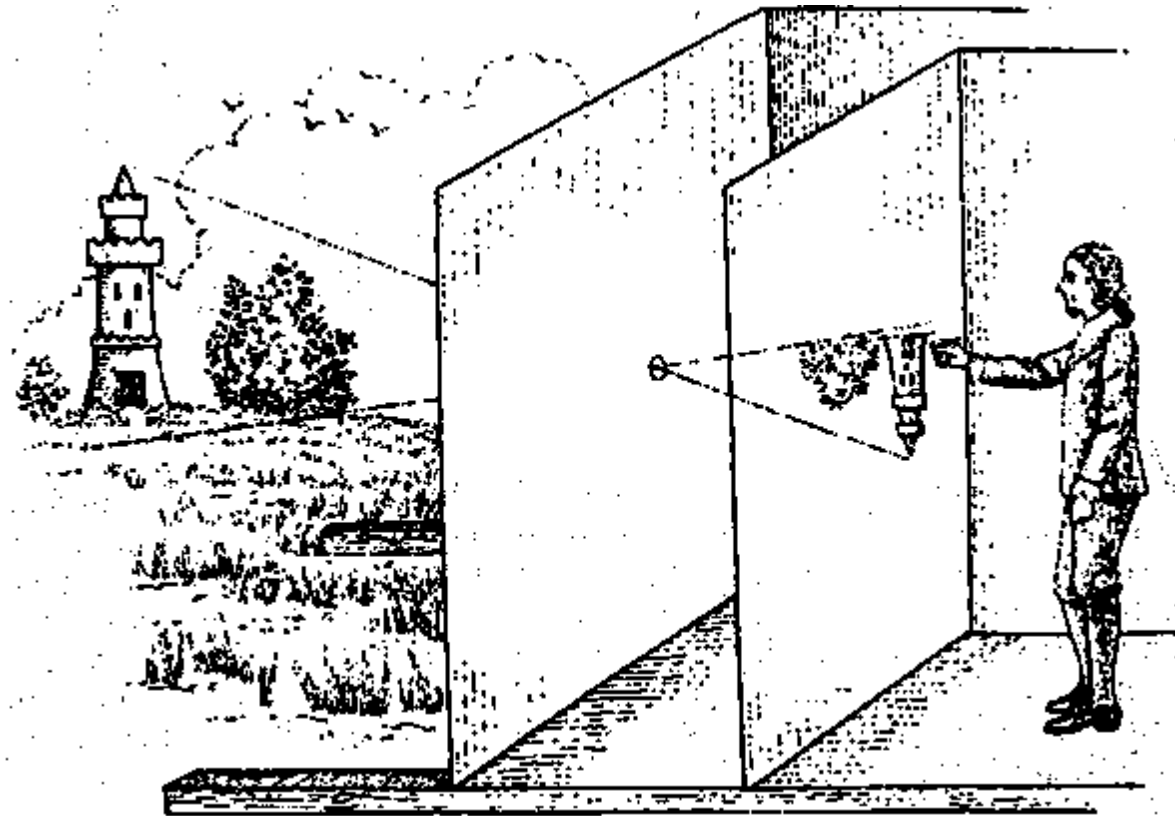
*Slide by Aleosha Efros*

# How to record an image

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*Drawing from “The Great Art of Light and Shadow”*

Jesuit Athanasius Kircher, 1646.



Camera Obscura

*Slide by Aleosha Efros*

# Home-made pinhole camera

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electronic CCD or CMOS  
image sensors



<http://www.debevec.org/Pinhole/>

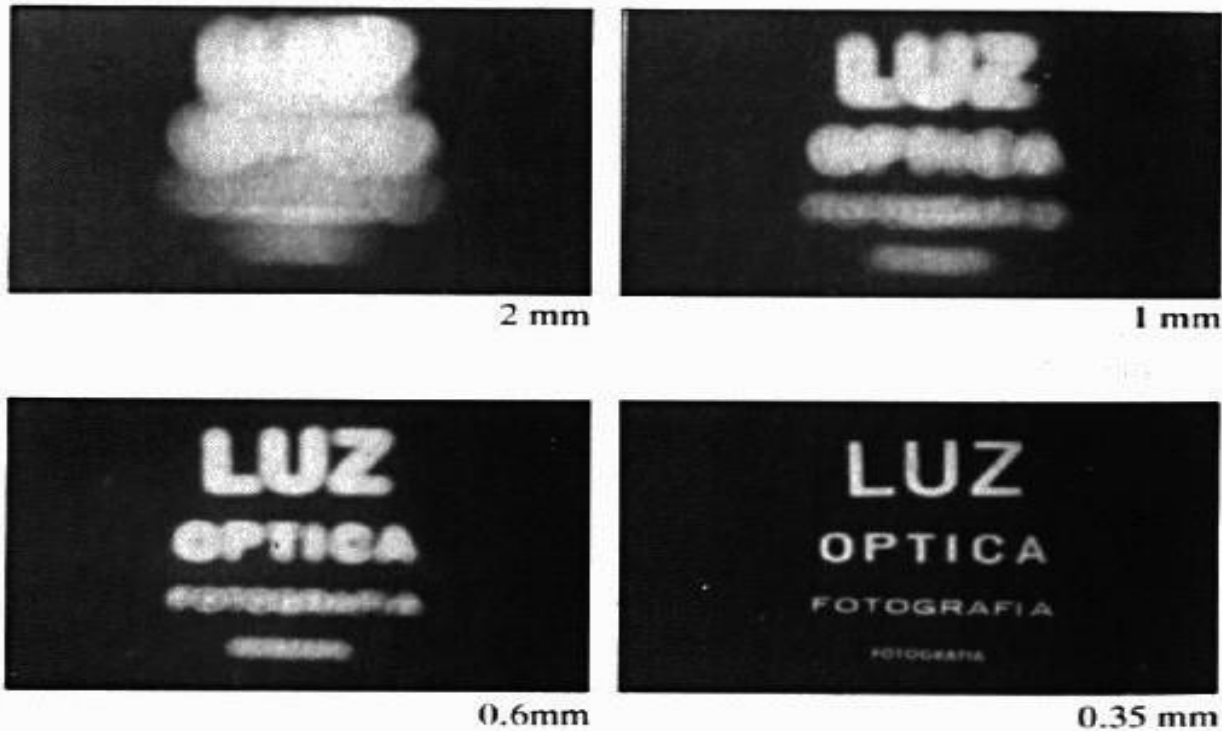
How does the aperture size affect the image?



Slide by Steve Seitz

# Shrinking the aperture

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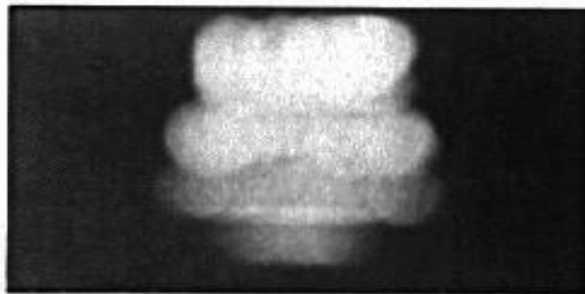


- Why not make the aperture as small as possible?
  - Less light gets through
  - Diffraction effects...

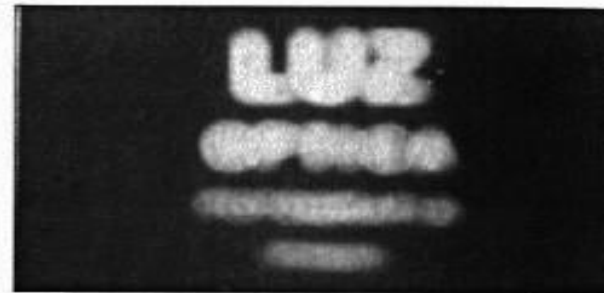
Slide by Steve Seitz

# Shrinking the aperture

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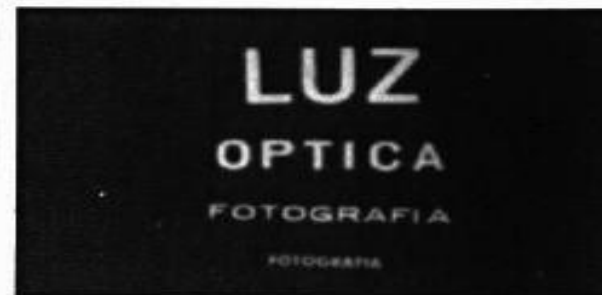
2 mm



1 mm



0.6mm



0.35 mm



0.15 mm

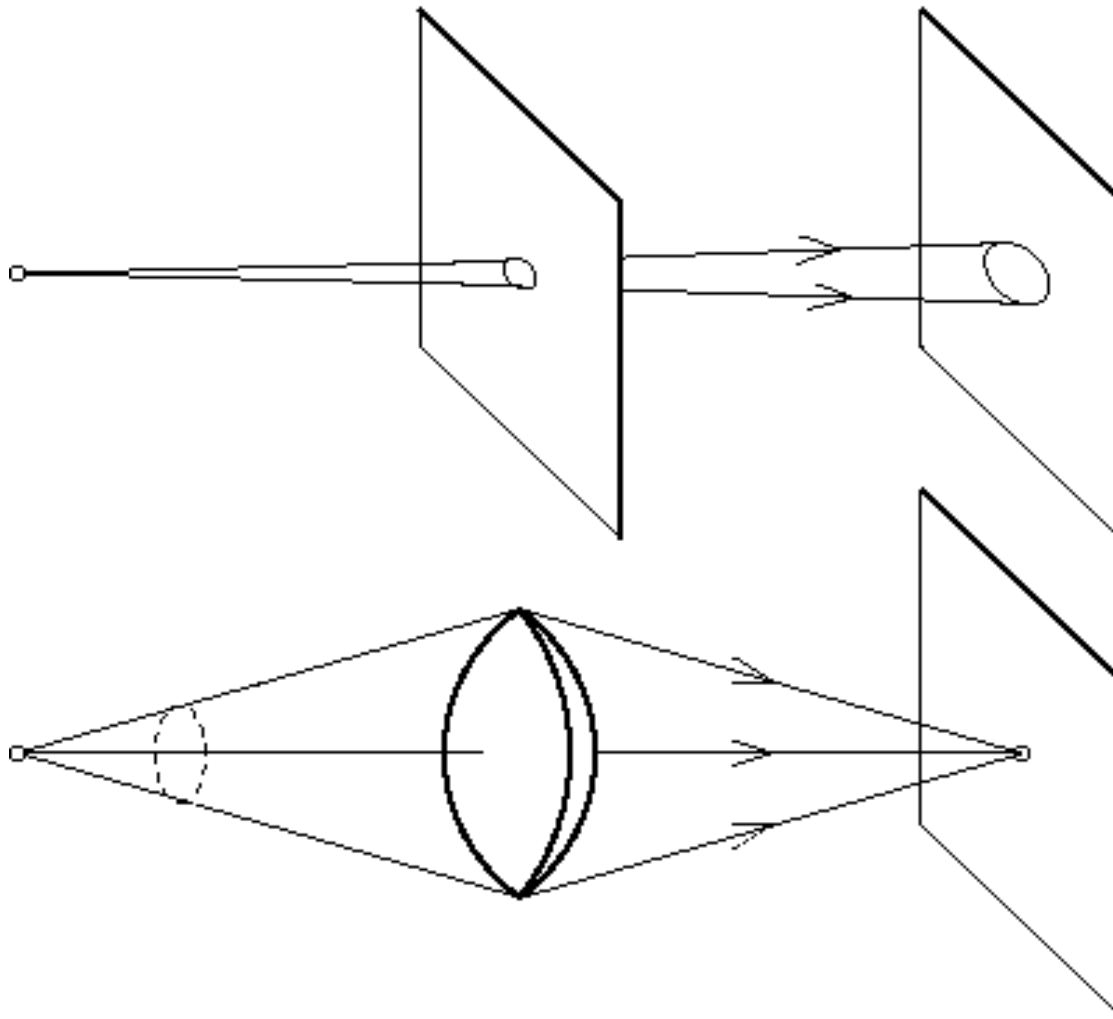


0.07 mm

Slide by Steve Seitz

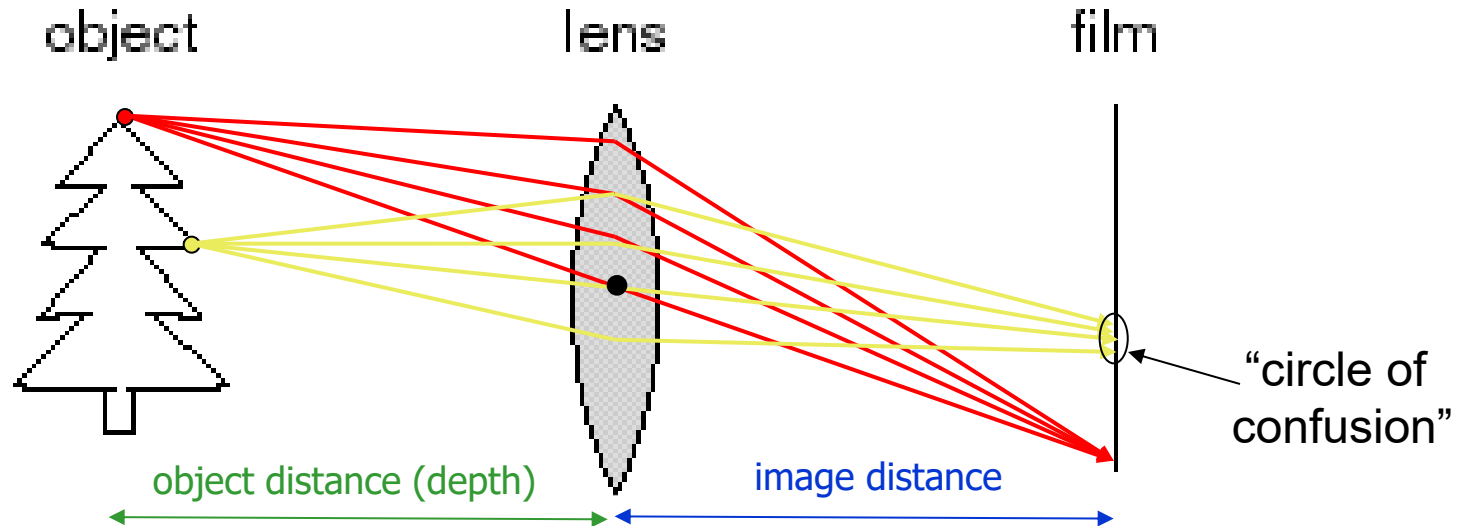
# The reason for lenses

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Slide by Steve Seitz

# Adding a lens



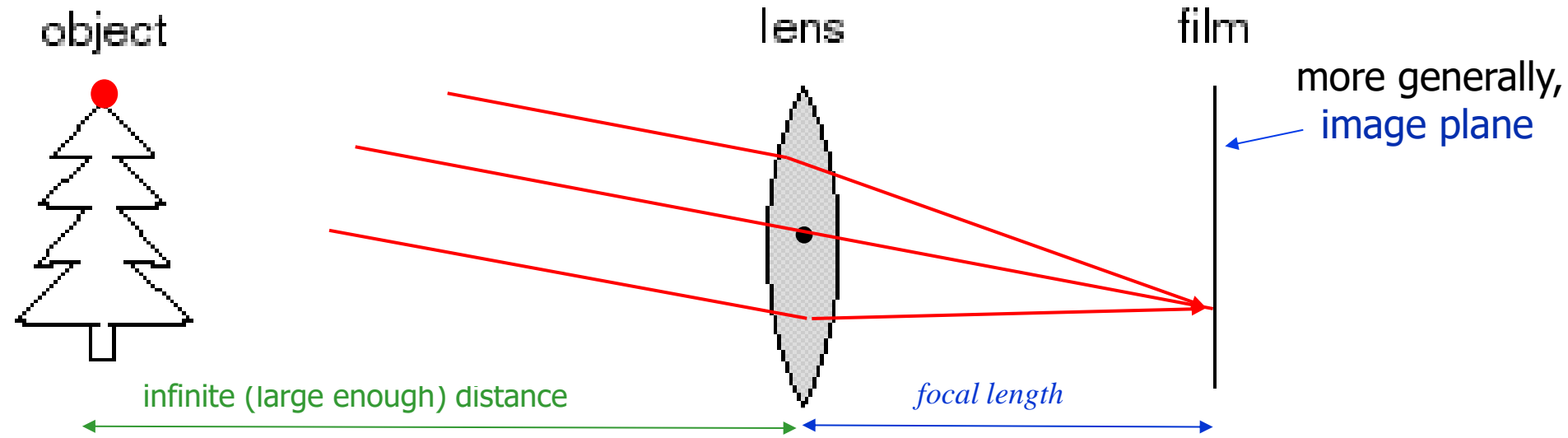
## □ A lens focuses light onto the film

- There is a specific depth at which objects are “in focus”
  - other points project to a “circle of confusion” in the image
- Changing **image distance** changes this **depth** (see a problem in HW0)

NOTE: *depth-from-focus* - estimate “depth map” by finding “sharp” image regions while changing either **image distance** or lens’ *focal length*.

Slide by Steve Seitz

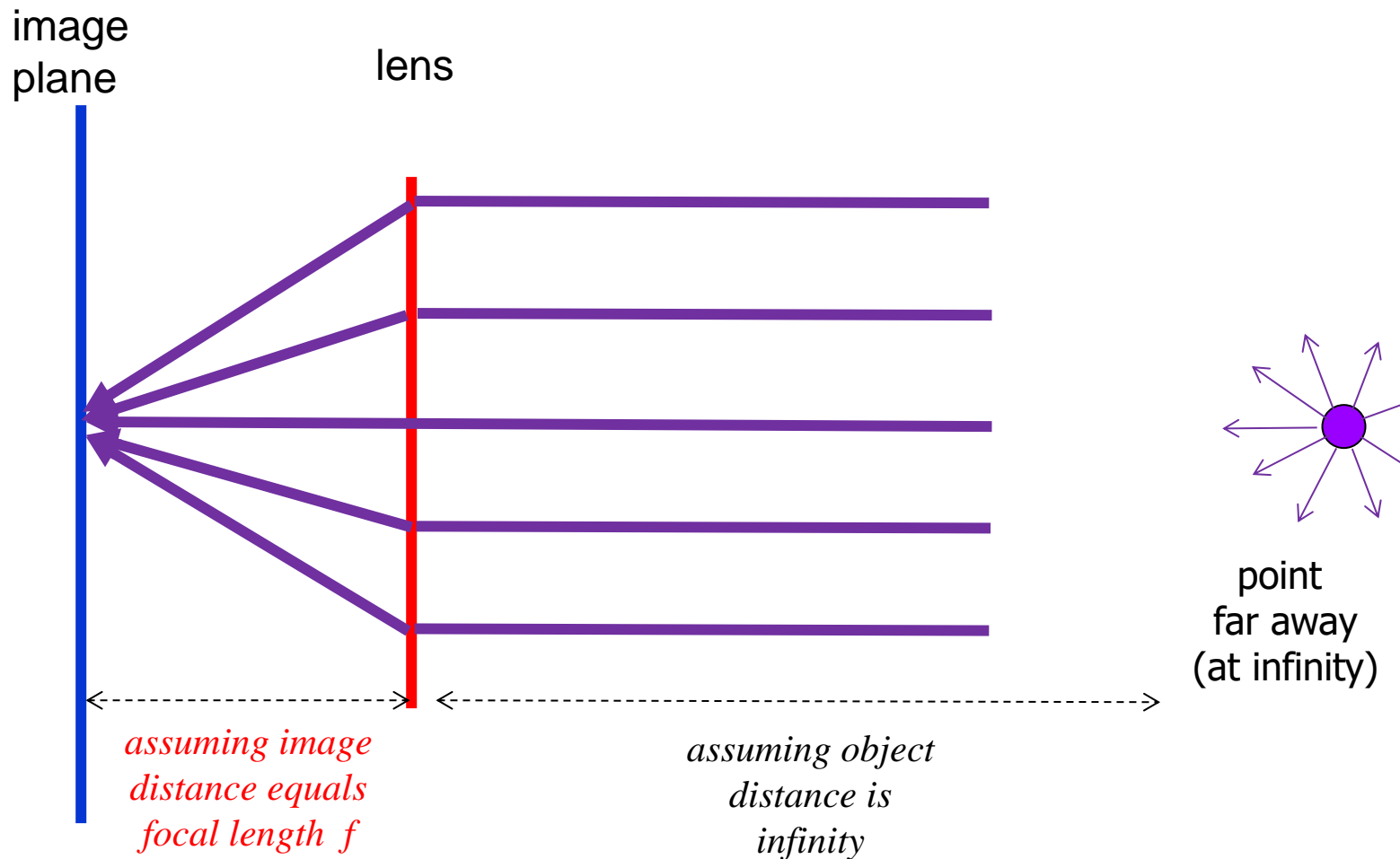
# Adding a lens



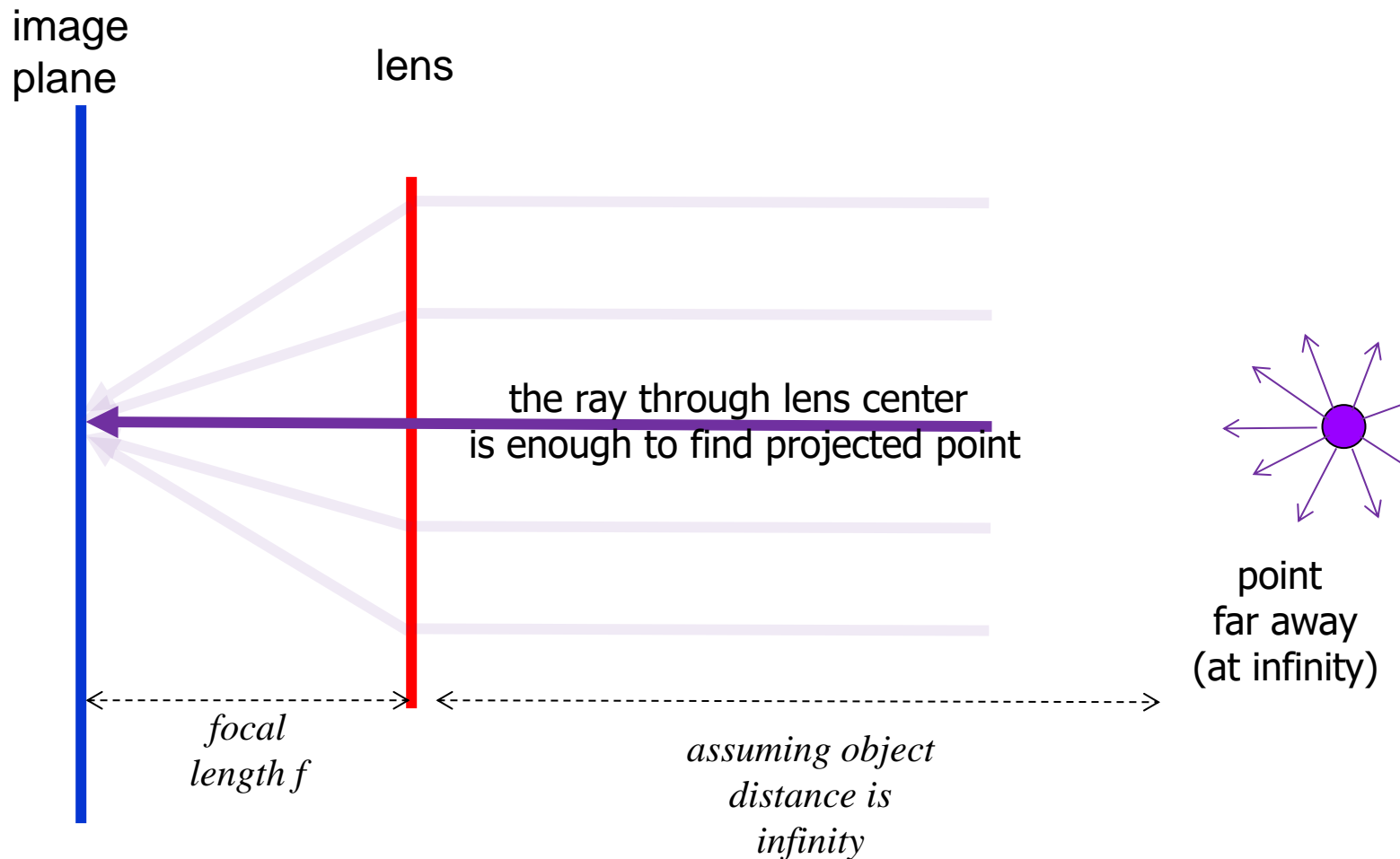
□ Lens' **focal length** is image distance where objects at infinity appear in focus.

- Focal length depends on lens' construction (e.g. surface radius). Some lenses may allow changing their focal length (typically, these are multi-lens constructions).
- To focus on closer objects, image distance should differ from lens' focal length (see a problem in HW0)

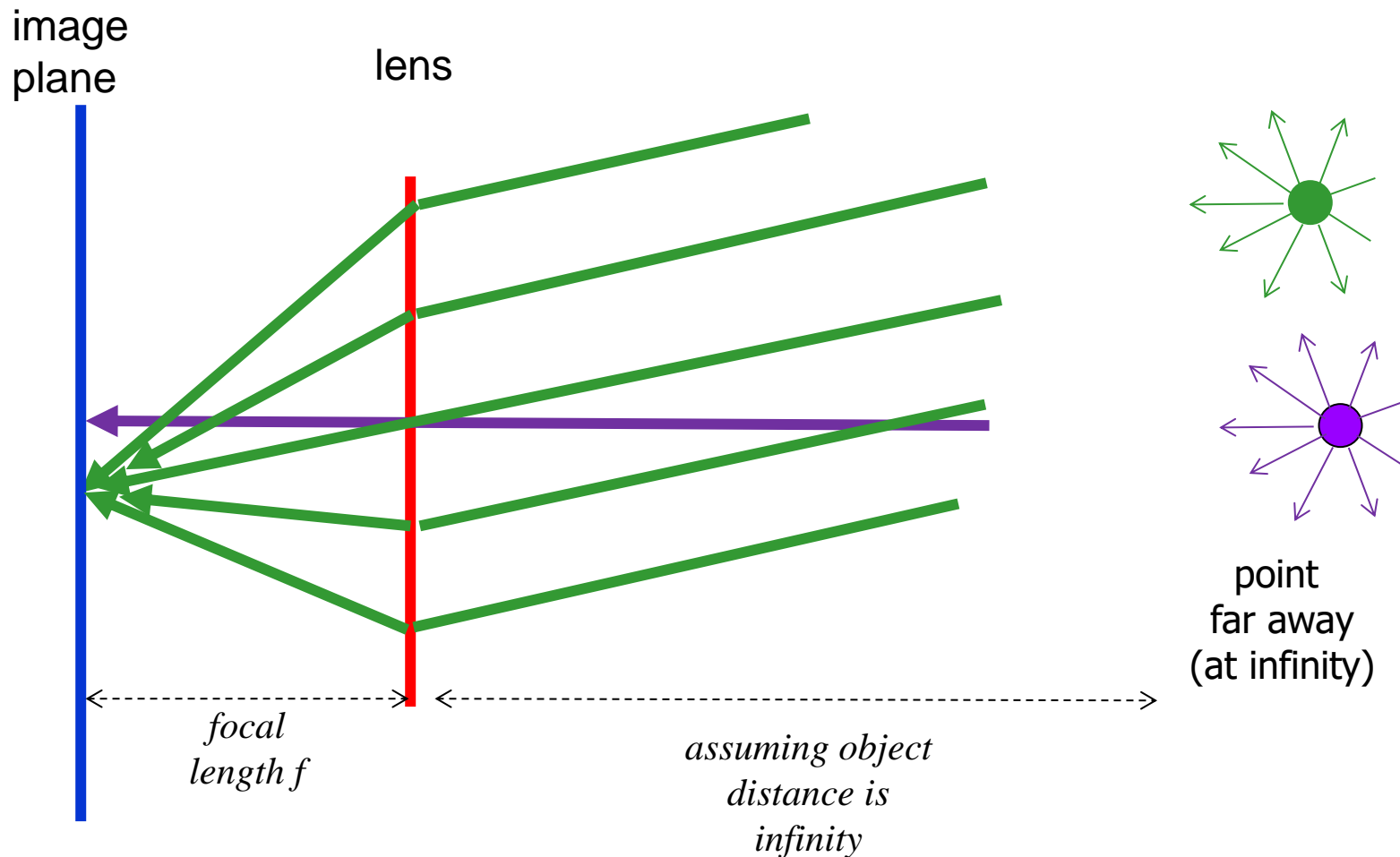
# Basic lens camera



# Basic lens camera

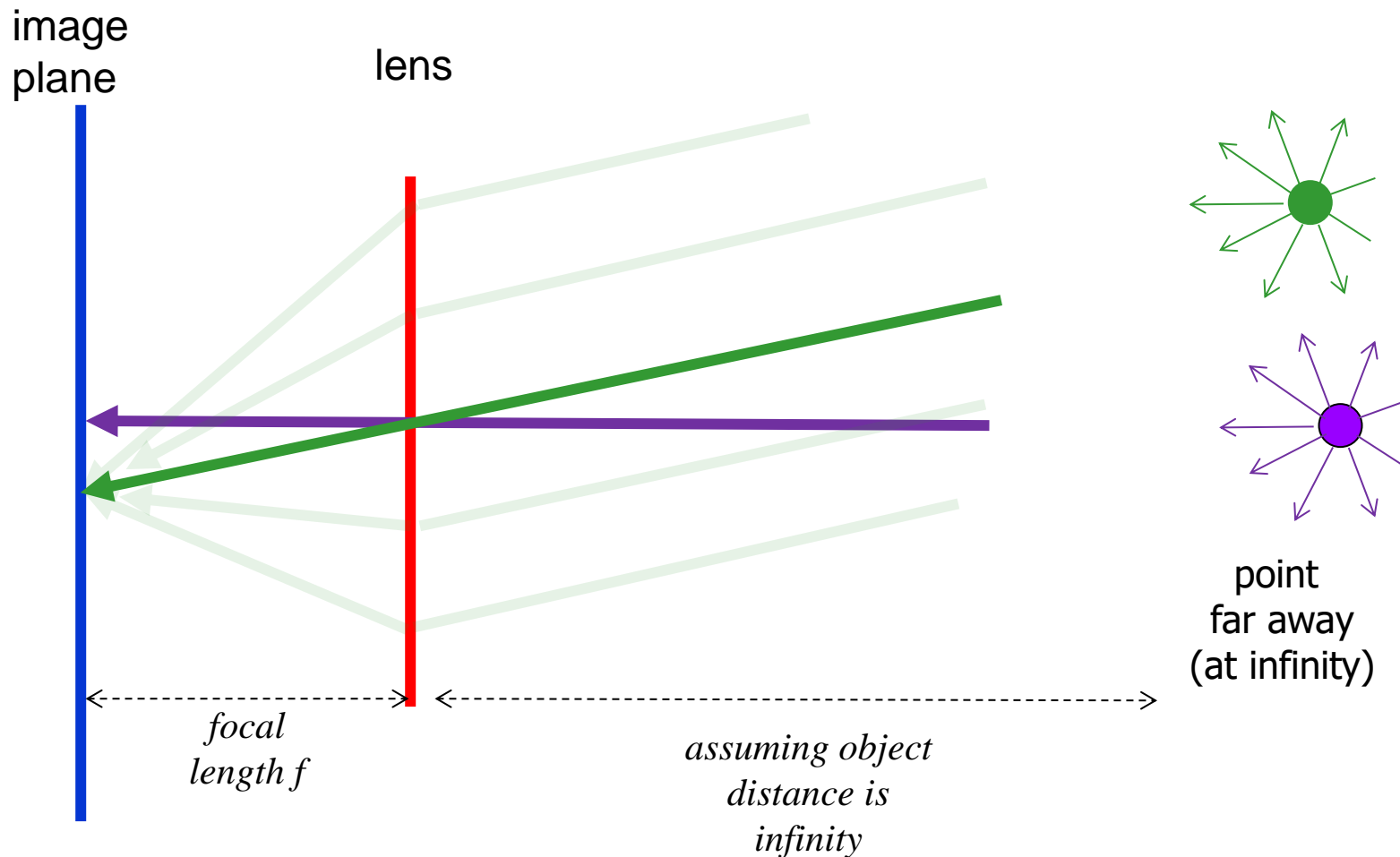


# Basic lens camera

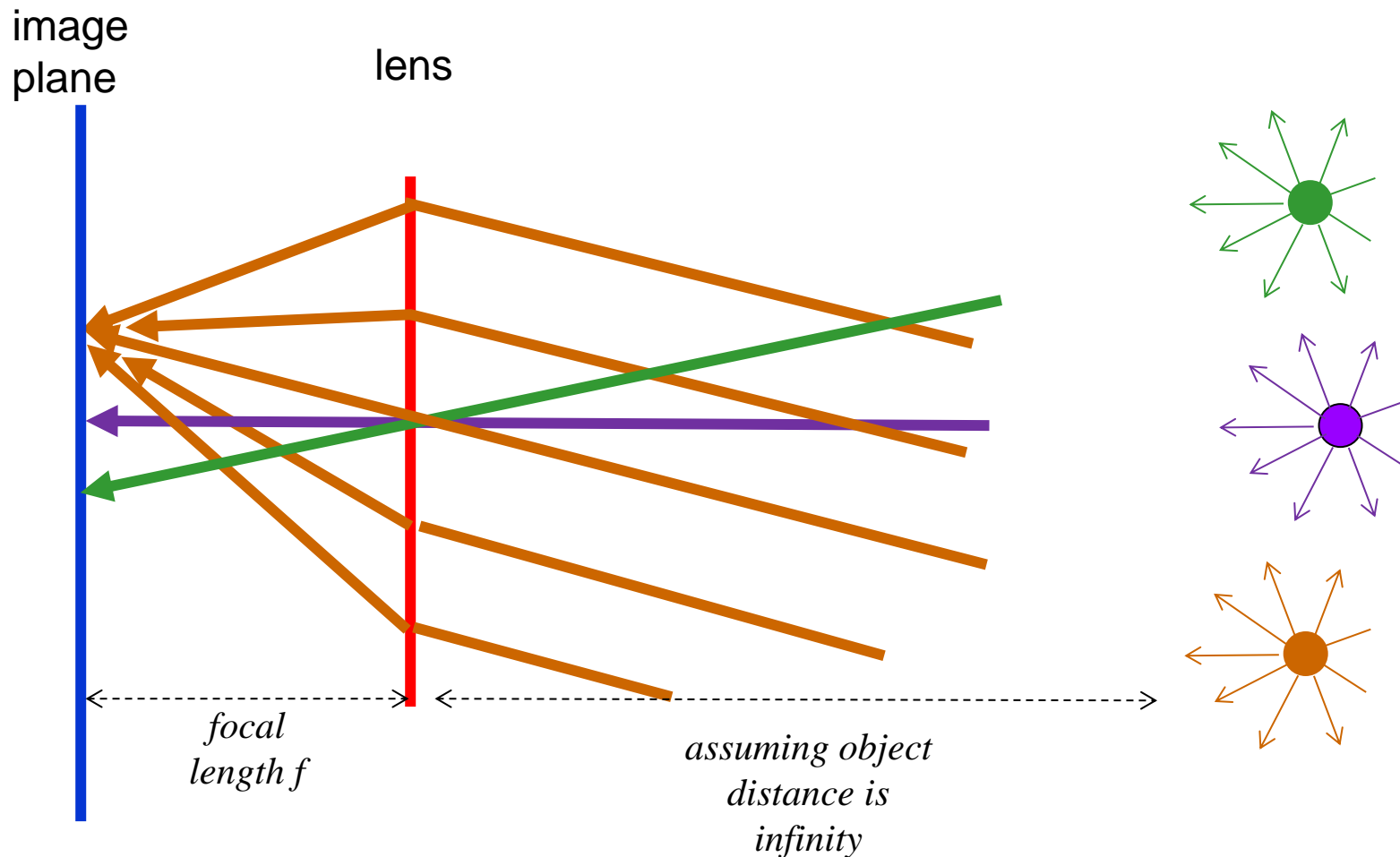




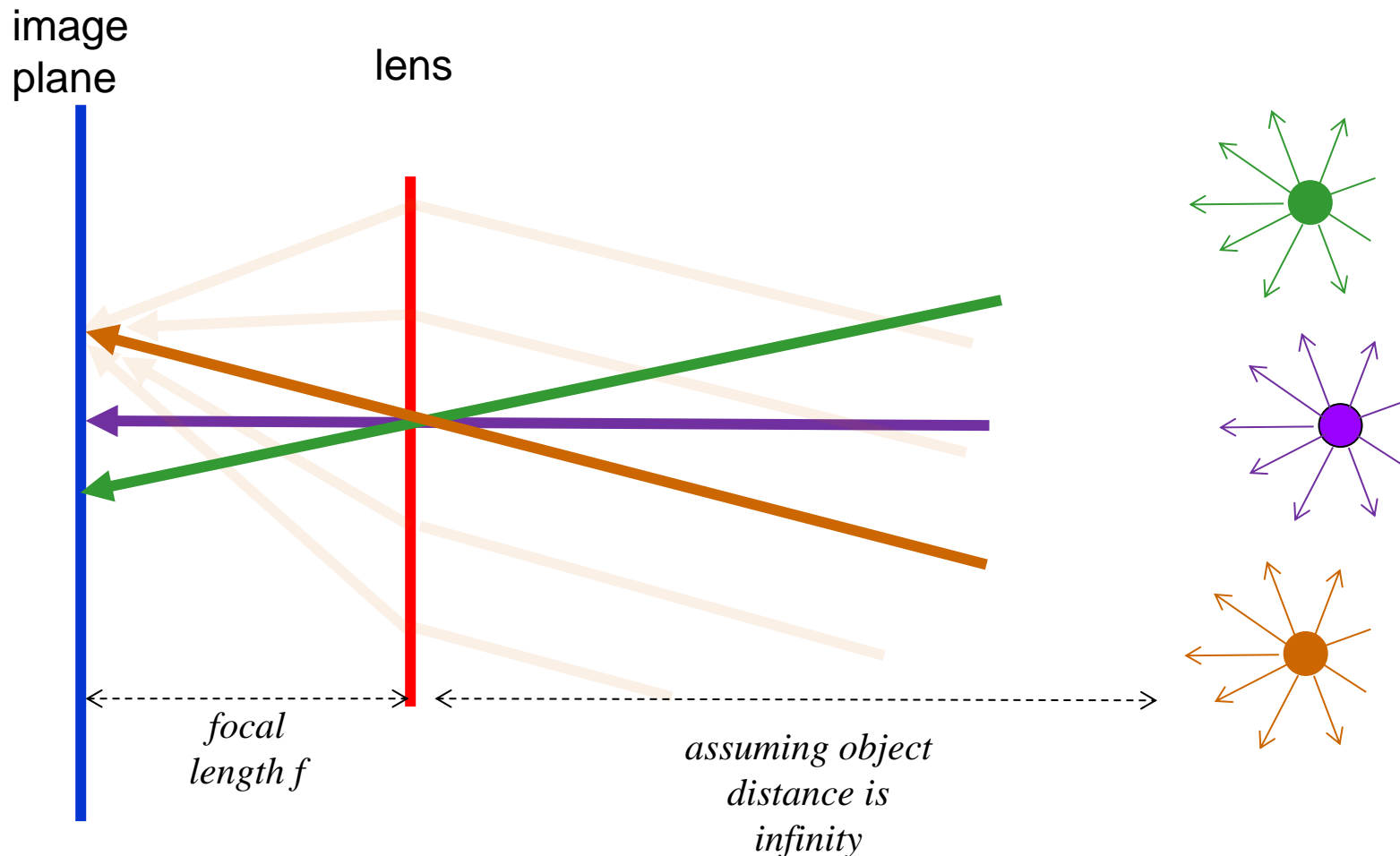
# Basic lens camera



# Basic lens camera

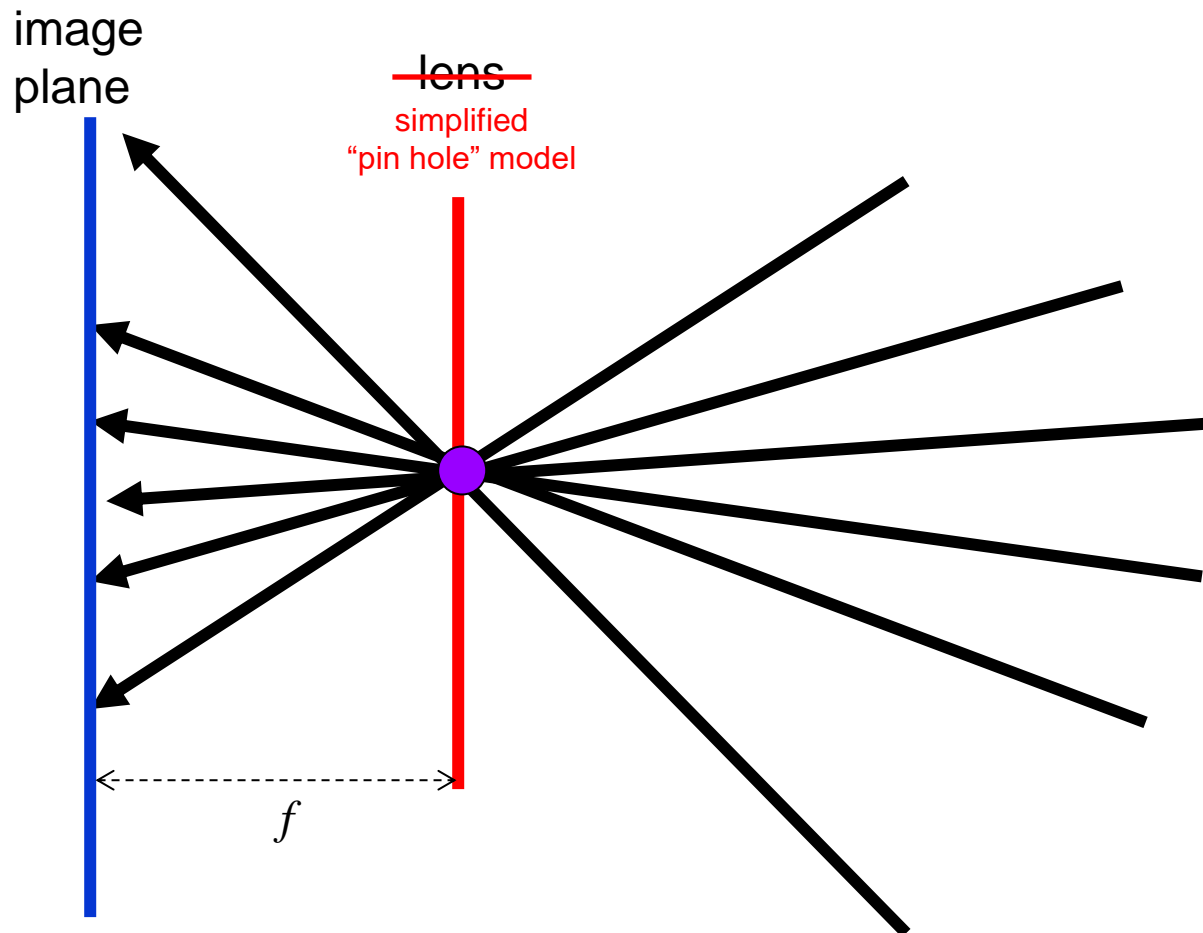


# Basic lens camera



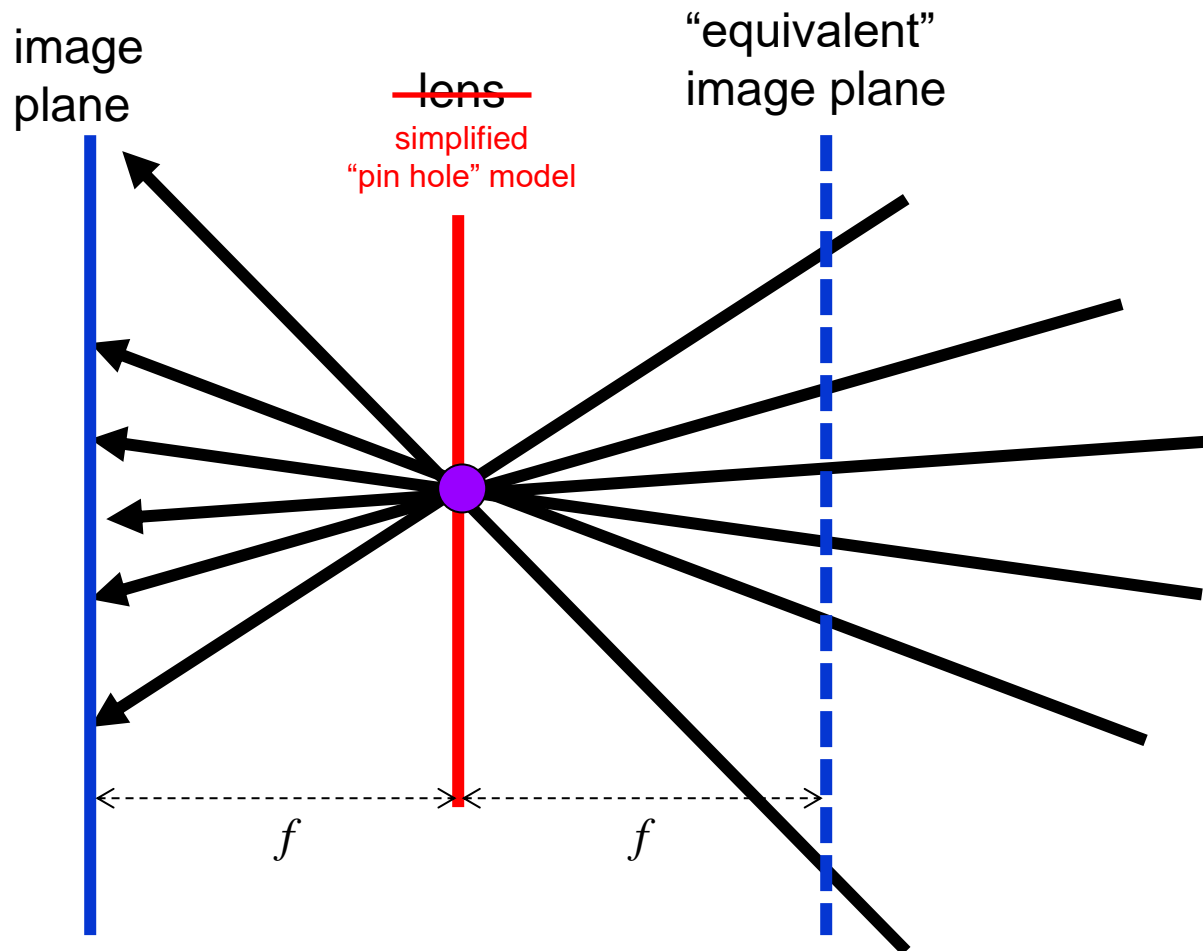
- NOTE:
- Rays from closer 3D points converge at a "circle of confusion" if image distance is lens' focal length.
  - In-focus points can be adjusted by changing image distance.
  - We use simplified "**pin hole camera model**" ignoring "out-of-focus" issues assuming 3D points are far enough.

# Basic camera model: “pin hole”

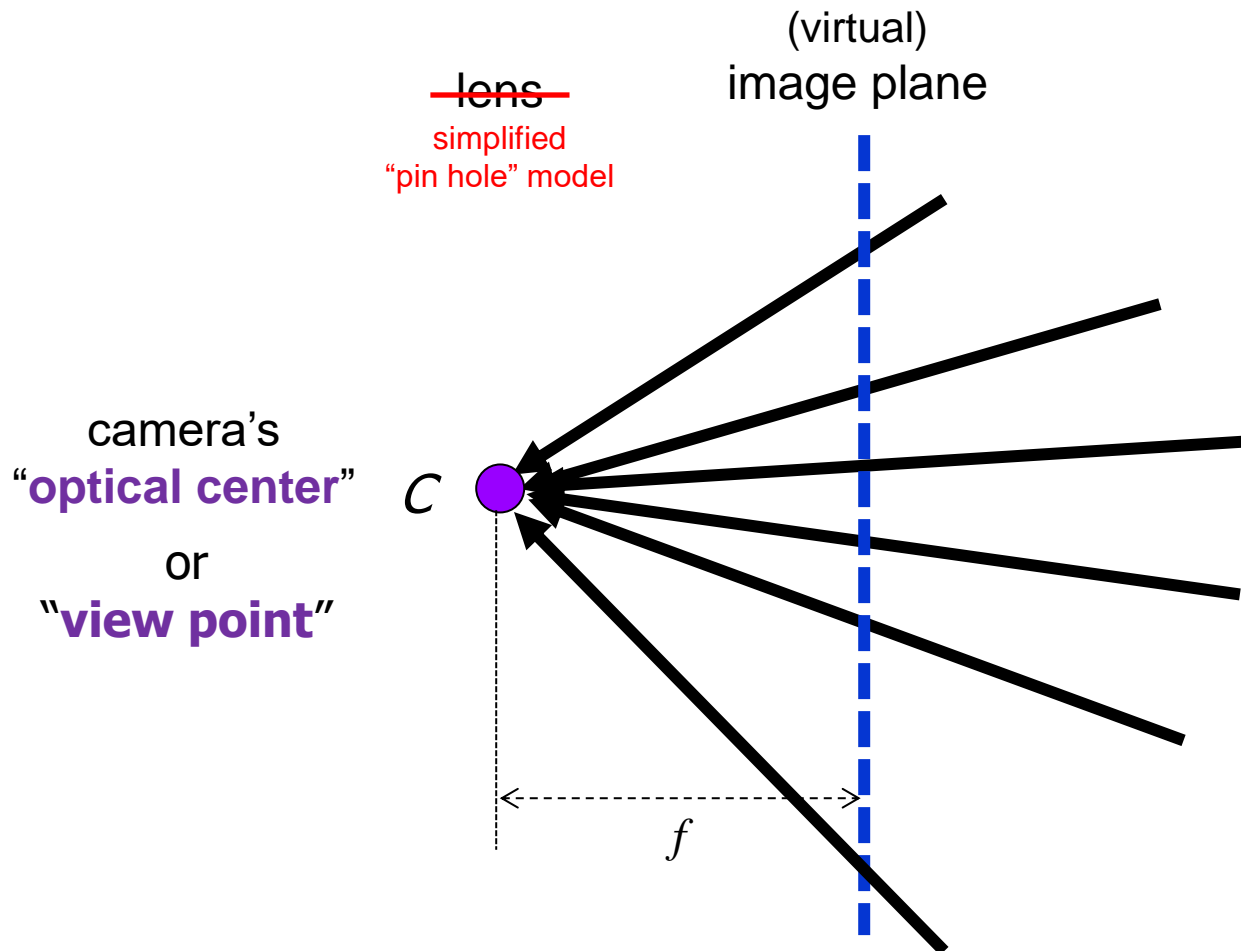


**NOTE:**  
for **pin hole camera model** “focal length” ( $f$ ) is defined as image distance (to the “hole”).  
As mentioned earlier, focal length of a lens does not have to be equal to the image distance (to the lens).

# Basic camera model: “pin hole”



# Basic camera model: “pin hole”



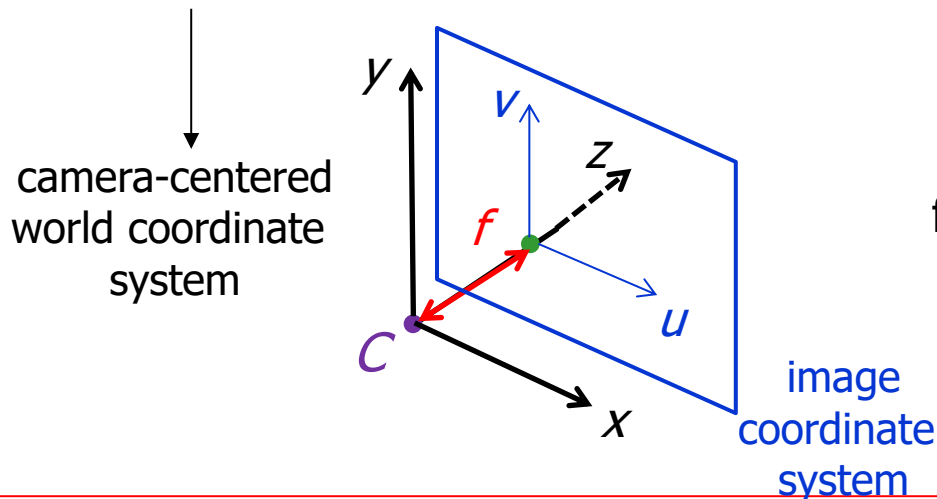
Simplified camera representation: image plane is drawn in front of the optical center.

We will use such “pin hole” camera model later in the course.

# Simple example of projective geometry (from 3D point to 2D pixel)

Consider a simple example of so-called  
**camera-centered 3D world coordinate system**  $(x, y, z)$ :

for world points (3D)



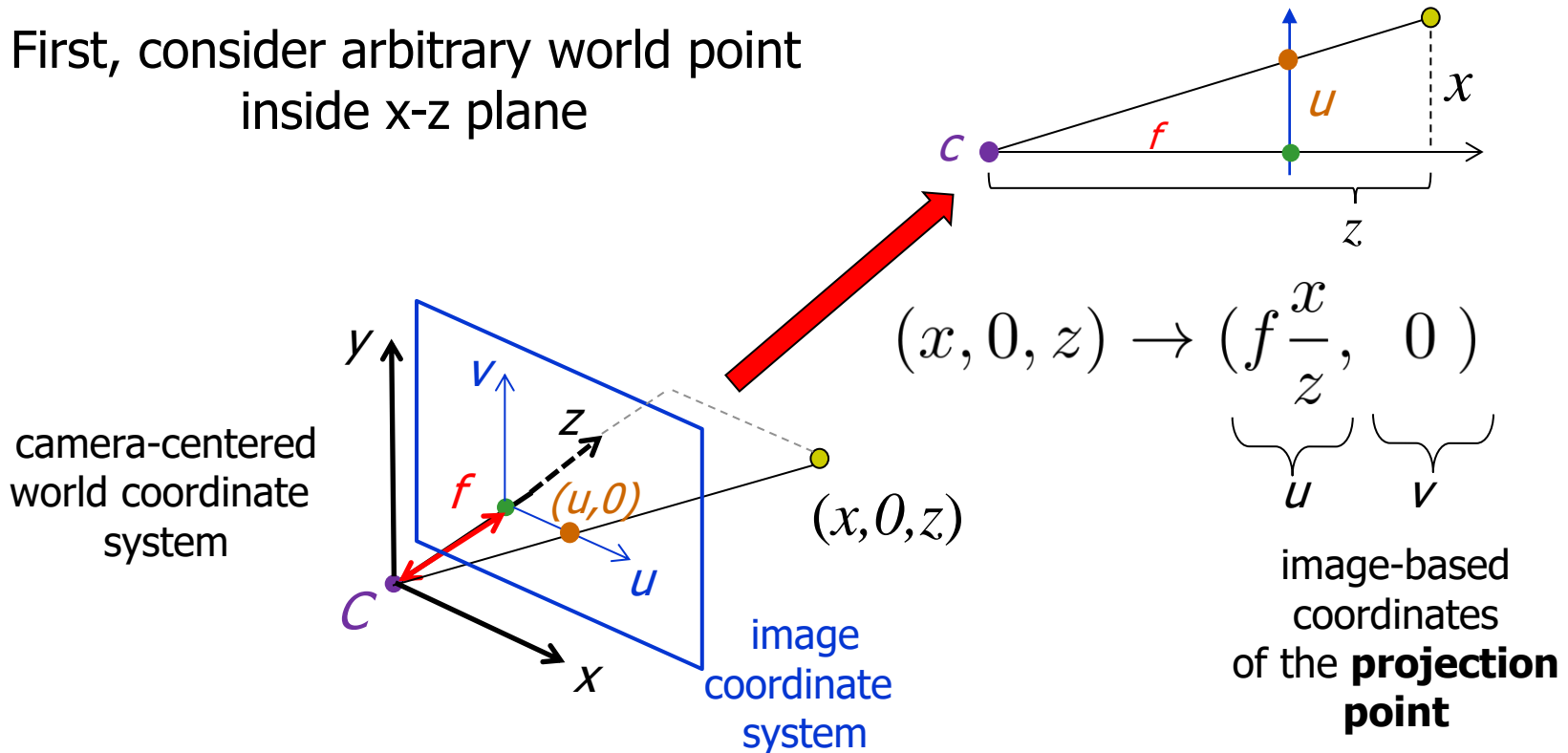
for image pixels locations (2D)

**Simplifying Assumptions**  
(more general case in Topic 7)

- world coordinate system center  $(0,0,0)$  is at optical center  $C$
- $x$ - $y$  plane is parallel to the image plane
- $x$  and  $y$  axis parallel to  $u$  and  $v$  axis of the image coordinate system
- axis  $z$  (called **optical axis**) intersects image at its coordinate center  $(0,0)$

# Simple example of projective geometry (from 3D point to 2D pixel)

First, consider arbitrary world point  
inside x-z plane

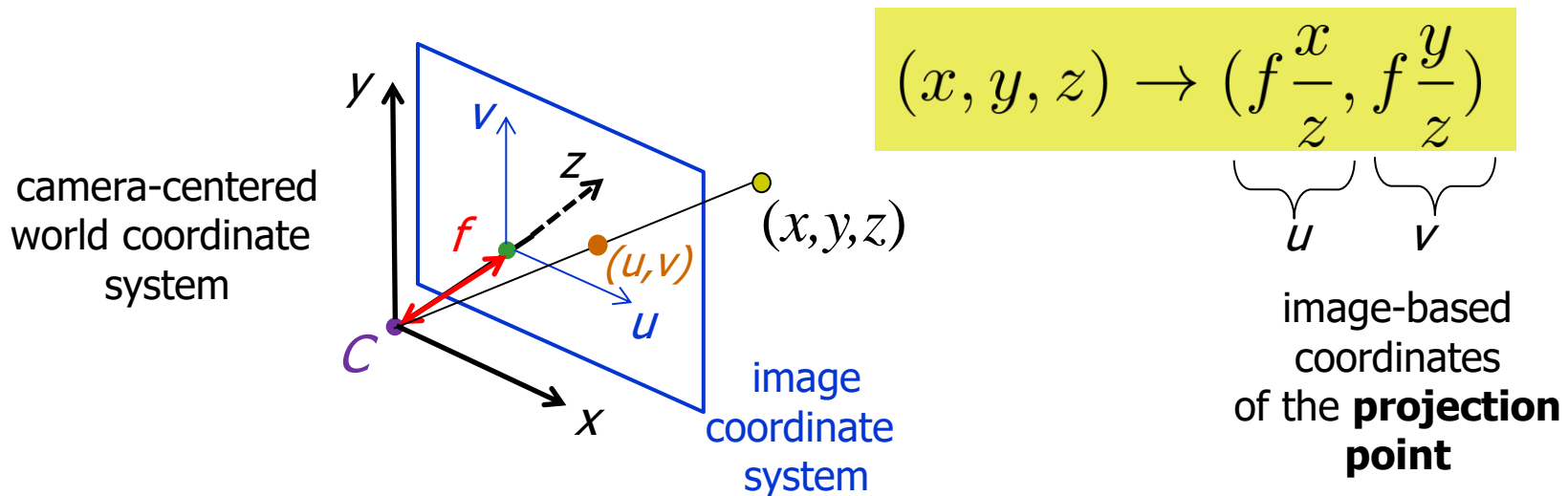


It projects onto some image point/pixel  $(u, 0)$  on axis  $u$   
(by construction, intersection of x-z plane with the image plane is axis  $u$ )



# Simple example of projective geometry (from 3D point to 2D pixel)

For a general point  $(x, y, z)$  in 3D

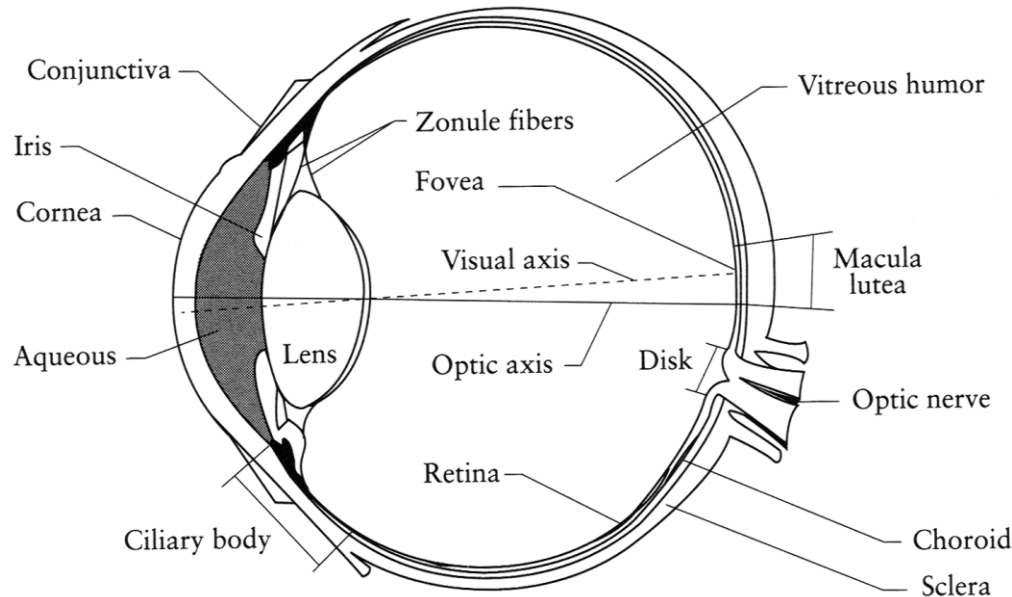


**Simple observation:** size of any 3D object image is inversely proportional to object's distance from the camera ( $z$ -coordinate value)

**We will further study projective camera models in topics 5 and 7**

Slide by Aleosha Efros

# The eye



## □ The human eye is a camera!

- **Iris** - colored annulus with radial muscles
- **Pupil** - the hole (aperture) whose size is controlled by the iris
- What's the “film”?
  - photoreceptor cells (rods and cones) in the **retina**

Slide by Aleosha Efros

# Cameras

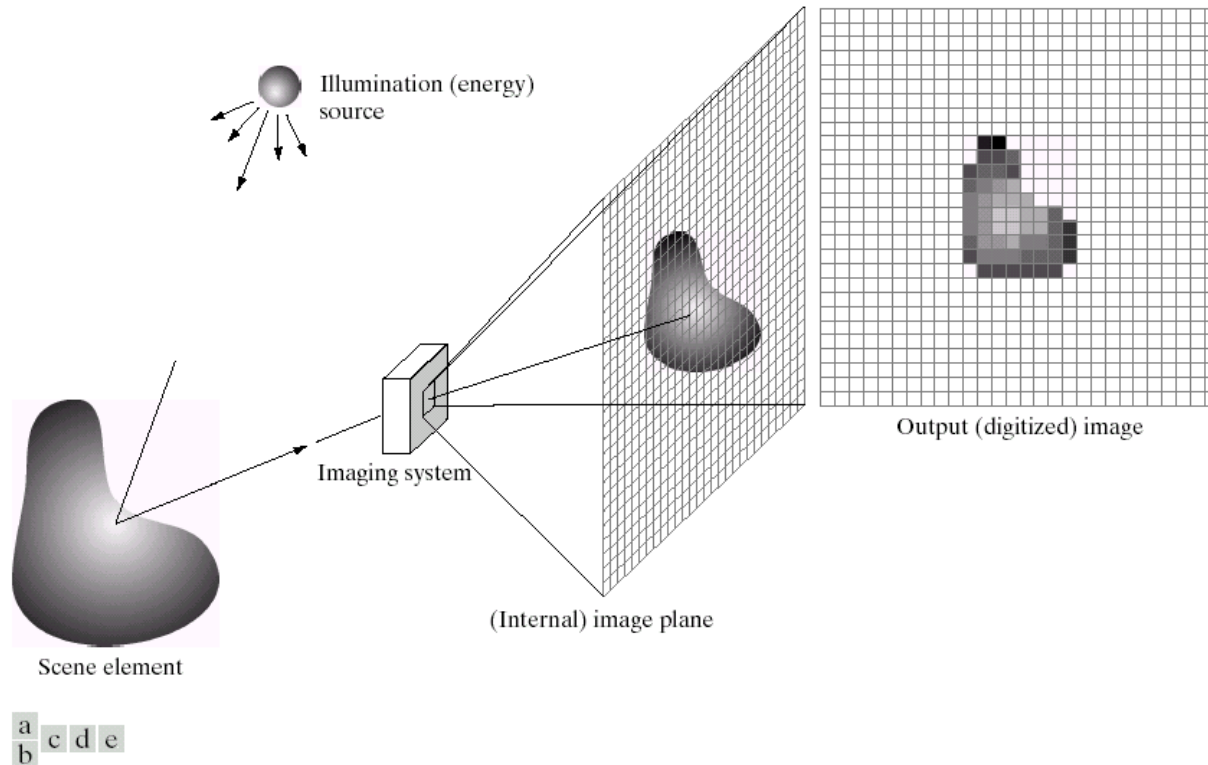
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- Widely available



Figure by Gonzalez & Woods

# Digital Image Formation



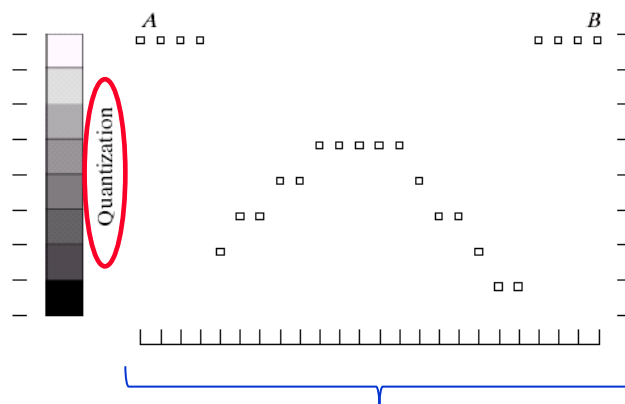
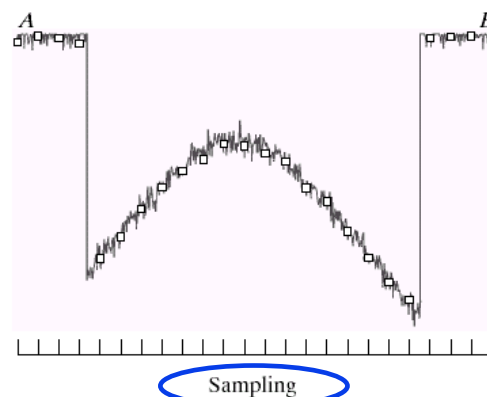
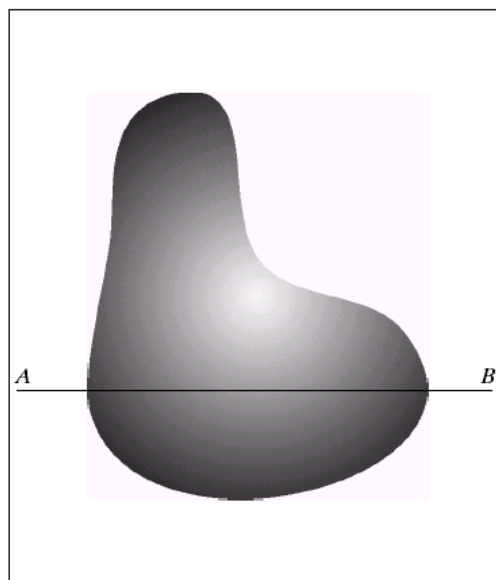
**FIGURE 2.15** An example of the digital image acquisition process. (a) Energy (“illumination”) source. (b) An element of a scene. (c) Imaging system. (d) Projection of the scene onto the image plane. (e) Digitized image.

$$f(x,y) = \text{reflectance}(x,y) * \text{illumination}(x,y)$$

*Reflectance in  $[0, 1]$ , illumination in  $[0, \infty]$*

Figure by Gonzalez & Woods

# Sampling and Quantization



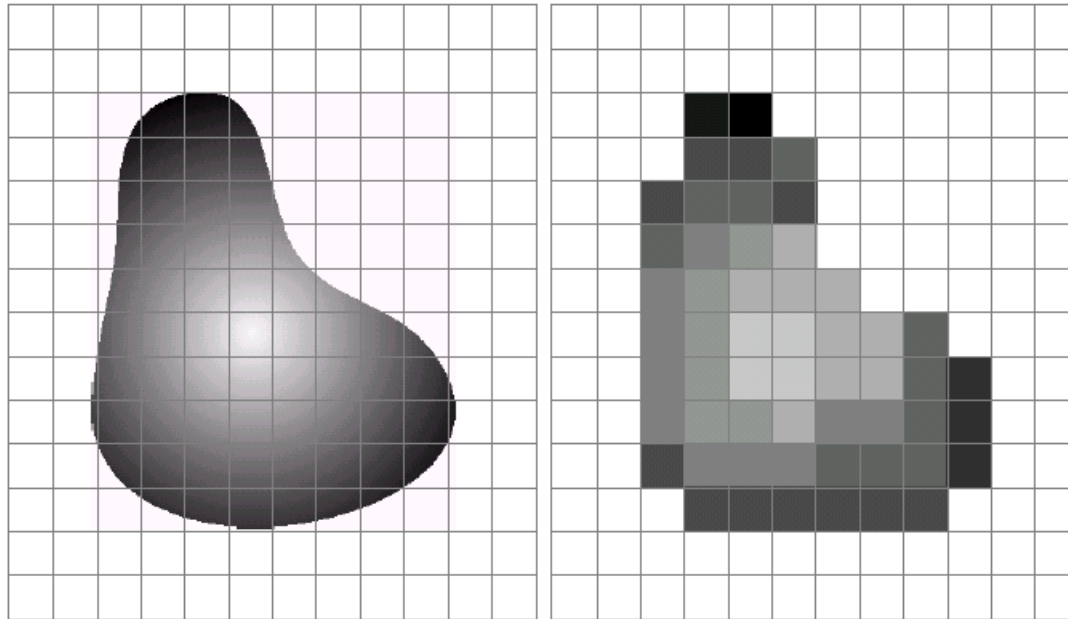
intensity (color) depth  
a.k.a. **bit depth**

**spatial resolution**  
(number of pixels, pixel size)

Figure by Gonzalez & Woods

# Sampling and Quantization

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a b

**FIGURE 2.17** (a) Continuous image projected onto a sensor array. (b) Result of image sampling and quantization.

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# What is an image?

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- We can think of an **image** as a function  $f(x,y)$  from  $\mathbb{R}^2$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ :
  - $f(x, y)$  gives the **intensity** at position  $(x, y)$
  - Realistically, we expect the image only to be defined over a rectangle, with a finite range:

$$-f: [a,b] \times [c,d] \rightarrow [0,1]$$

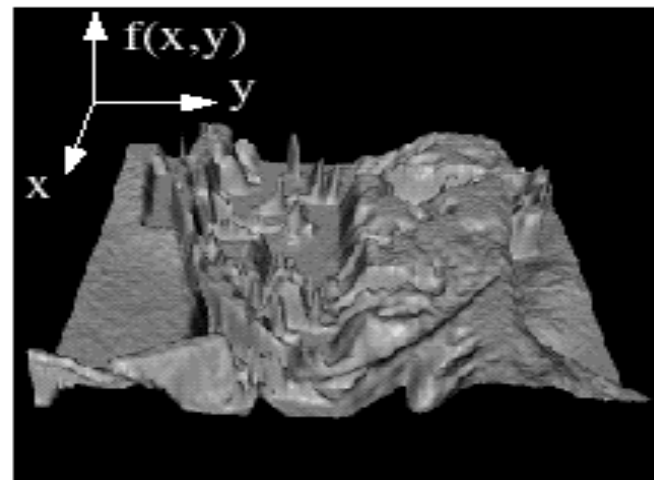
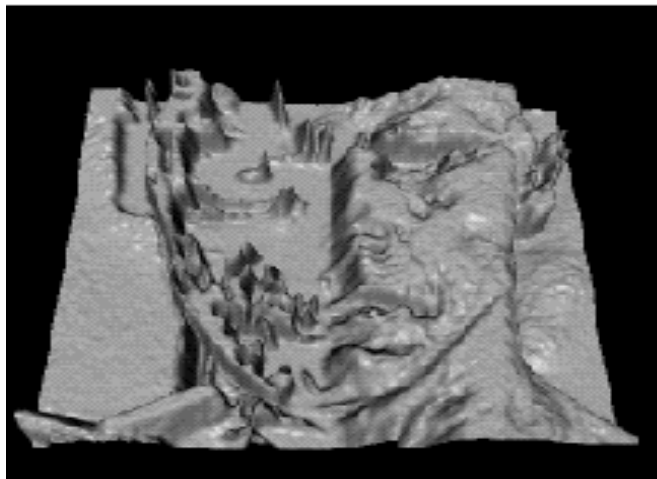
- A color image is just three functions pasted together. We can write this as a “vector-valued” function:

$$f(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} r(x, y) \\ g(x, y) \\ b(x, y) \end{bmatrix}$$

Slide by Aleosha Efros

# Images as functions

$$f(x, y) : \mathcal{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$$





# What is a digital image?

- We usually operate on **digital (discrete)** images:
  - **Sample** the 2D space (XY) on a regular grid
  - **Quantize** each intensity sample (round to nearest integer)
- If our samples are  $\Delta$  apart, we can write this as:

$$f[i, j] = \text{Quantize}\{ f(i \Delta, j \Delta) \}$$

- The image can be represented as a matrix (2D array) of integers

$j \longrightarrow$

|                |     |     |     |     |     |     |    |     |
|----------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|-----|
| $i \downarrow$ | 62  | 79  | 23  | 119 | 120 | 105 | 4  | 0   |
|                | 10  | 10  | 9   | 62  | 12  | 78  | 34 | 0   |
|                | 10  | 58  | 197 | 46  | 46  | 0   | 0  | 48  |
|                | 176 | 135 | 5   | 188 | 191 | 68  | 0  | 49  |
|                | 2   | 1   | 1   | 29  | 26  | 37  | 0  | 77  |
|                | 0   | 89  | 144 | 147 | 187 | 102 | 62 | 208 |
|                | 255 | 252 | 0   | 166 | 123 | 62  | 0  | 31  |
|                | 166 | 63  | 127 | 17  | 1   | 0   | 99 | 30  |

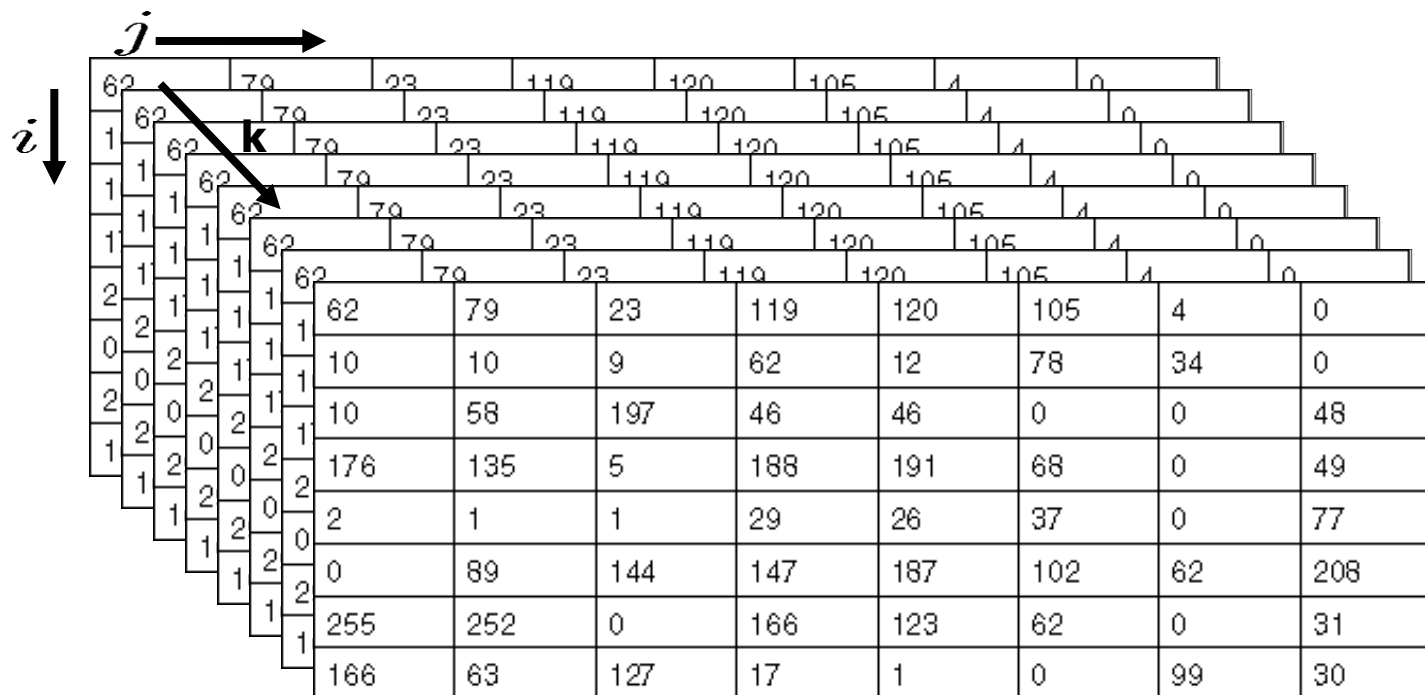
quantized  
intensities

- $$f[i,j] = \text{Quantize}\{f(i\Delta, j\Delta)\}$$

- 
- The diagram illustrates a 3D volume of feature maps. The top layer is a 1x1x8 grid of feature maps, each 8x8. Below it are 8 more layers, each 8x8x8. The layers are indexed by  $i$  (vertical) and  $j$  (horizontal). An arrow points from the top layer to a color bar labeled RGB.

# Image Data “Tensors” (multidimensional arrays)

- Video - 3D =  $X * Y * \text{Time}$
- Medical volumetric data (MRI, CT) - 3D =  $X * Y * Z$



Combine multiple images (slices) into a volume

# Image Modalities

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## PART II: Medical images and volumes

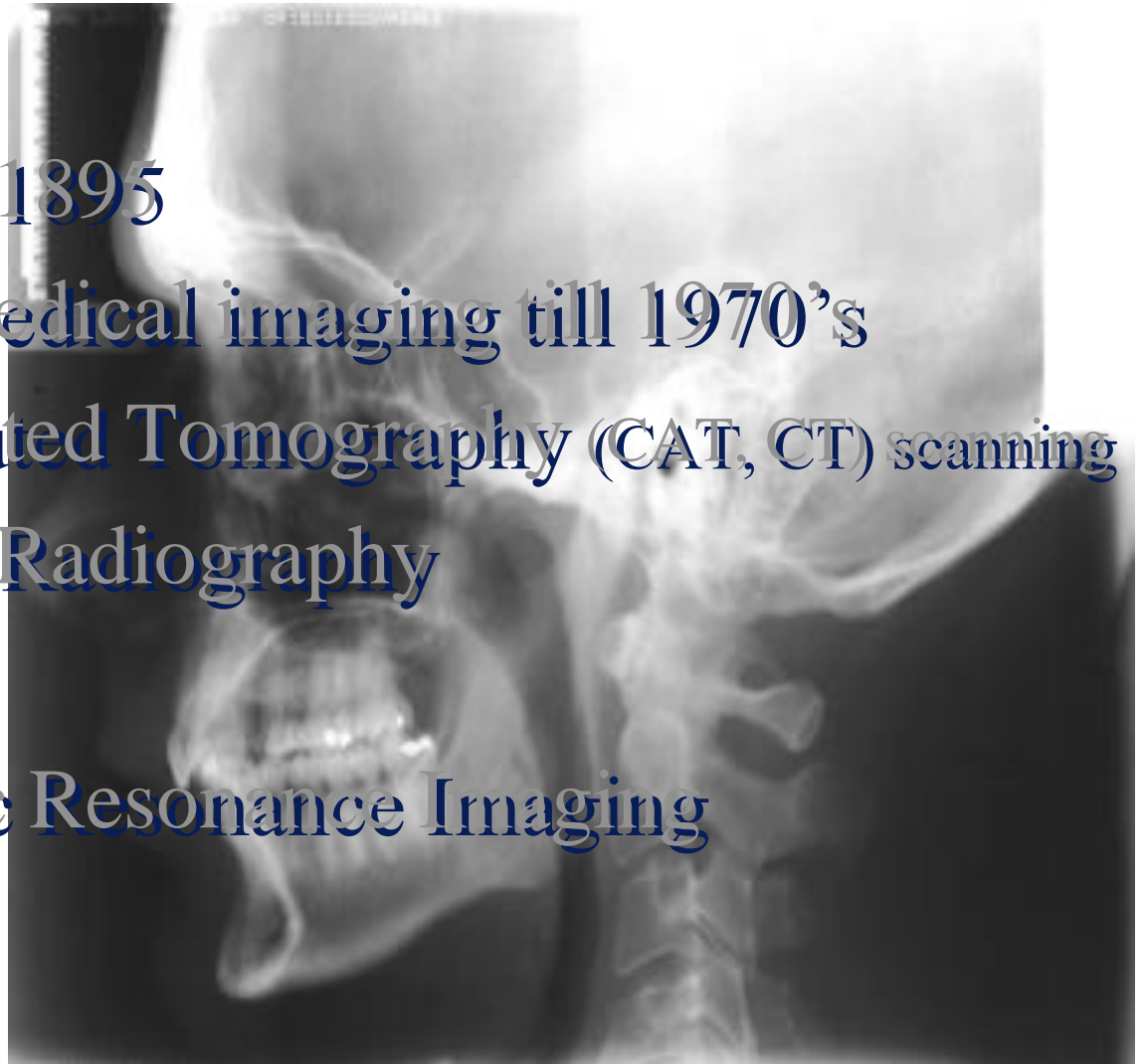
- X-ray
- CT
- MRI
- Ultrasound

*Slides from Terry Peters*

# In the beginning.....X-rays

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- ❑ Discovered in 1895
- ❑ Mainstay of medical imaging till 1970's
- ❑ 1971 – Computed Tomography (CAT, CT) scanning
- ❑ 1978 - Digital Radiography
- .....
- ❑ 1980 Magnetic Resonance Imaging



# X-rays

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## □ Wilhelm Conrad Röntgen (1845-1923)

Nobel Prize in Physics, 1901



- "X" stands for "unknown"
- *X-ray imaging* is also known as
  - radiograph
  - Röntgen imaging

# X-rays

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*Bertha Röntgen's Hand 8 Nov, 1895*



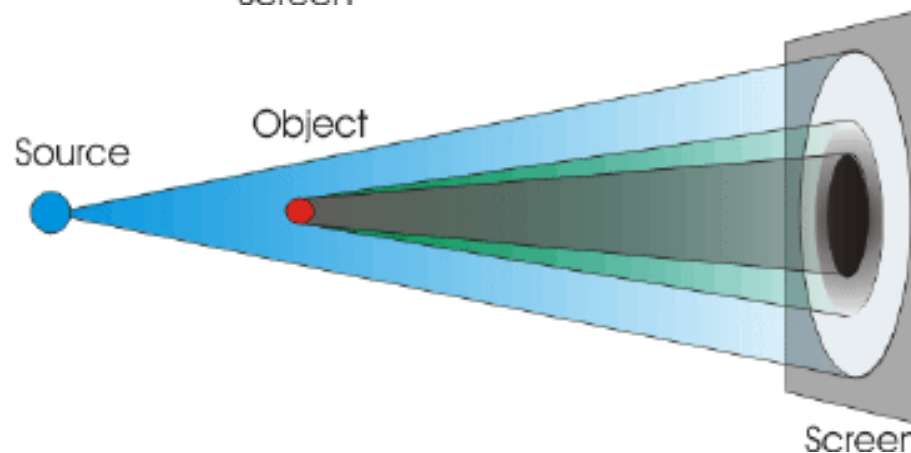
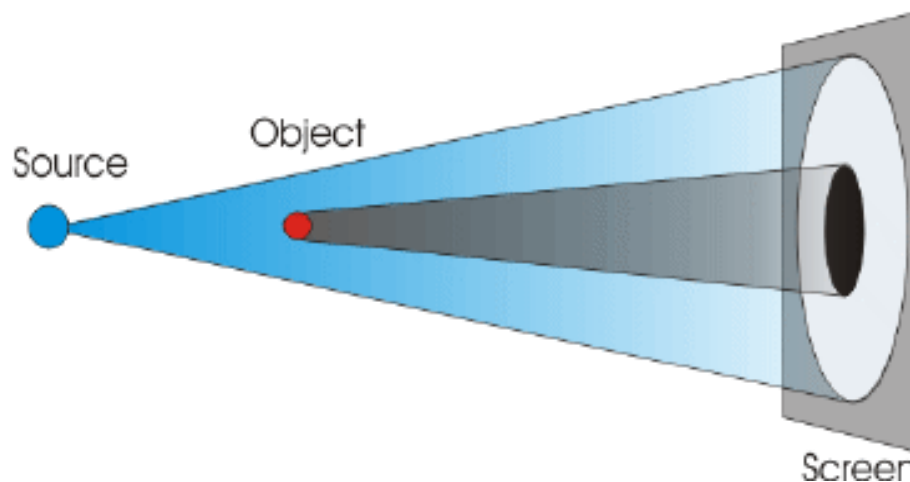
*A modern radiograph of a hand*

- Calcium in bones absorbs X-rays the most
- Fat and other soft tissues absorb less, and look gray
- Air absorbs the least, so lungs look black on a radiograph

# X-rays

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2D “**projection**” imaging 1895 - 1970’s





# From Projection Imaging Towards True 3D Imaging

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X-ray imaging  
1895

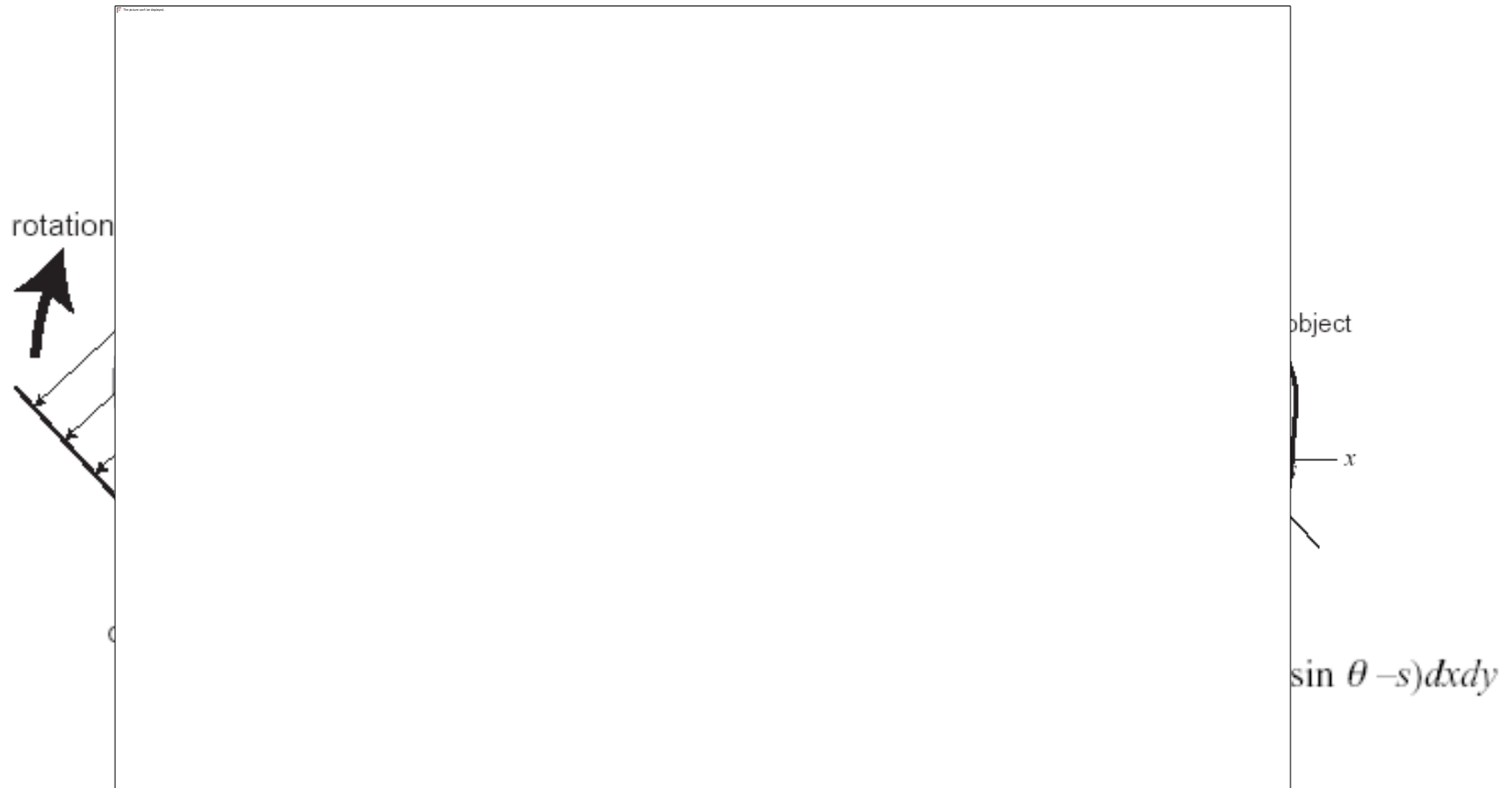
Mathematical results:  
Radon transformation  
1917

Computers can perform  
complex mathematics to  
reconstruct and process images  
Late 1960's:

**Development of CT**  
(computed tomography)  
1972

- Image reconstruction from projection
- Also known as CAT  
(Computerized Axial Tomography)
- "tomos" means "slice" (Greek)

# Radon Transformation

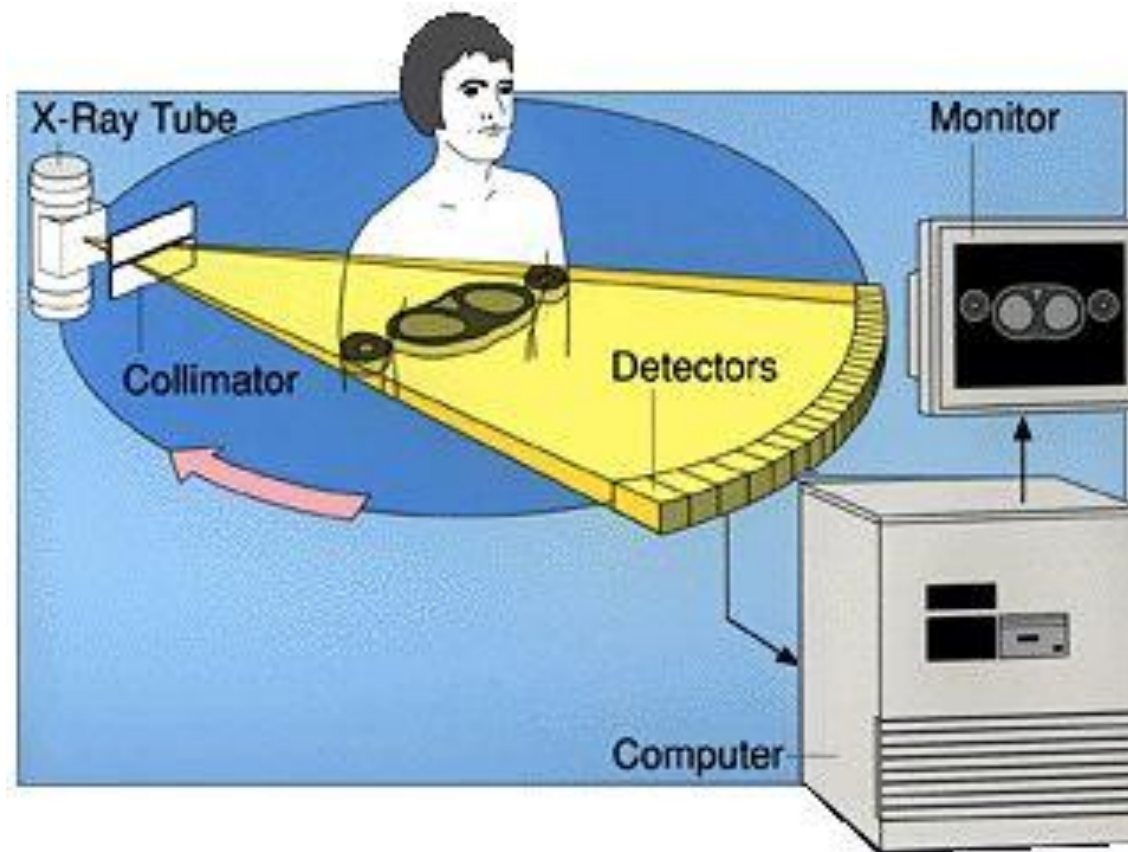


- Mathematical transformation (related to Fourier)
- Reconstruction of the shape of object (distribution  $f(x,y)$ ) from the multitude of 2D projections  $g(s, \theta)$

Figure from [www.imaginis.com/ct-scan/how\\_ct.asp](http://www.imaginis.com/ct-scan/how_ct.asp)

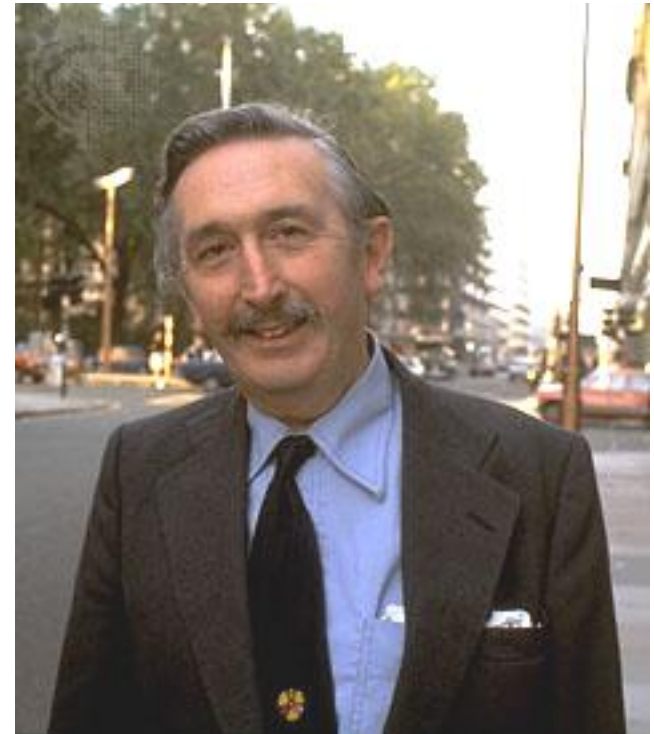
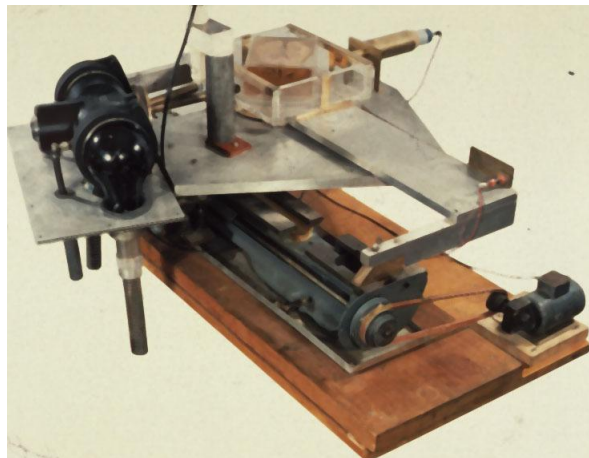
# CT imaging

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# CT imaging, inventing (1972)

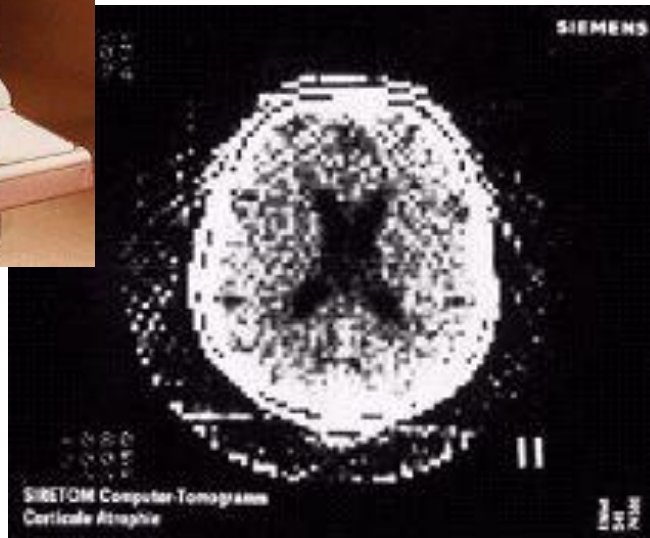
- Sir Godfrey Hounsfield  
Engineer for EMI PLC  
1972
- Nobel Prize 1979 (with  
Alan Cormack)



# CT imaging, availability (since 1975)



1974



*Original axial CT image from the dedicated Siretom CT scanner circa 1975. This image is a coarse 128 x 128 matrix; however, in 1975 physicians were fascinated by the ability to see the soft tissue structures of the brain, including the black ventricles for the first time (enlarged in this patient)*

25 years later

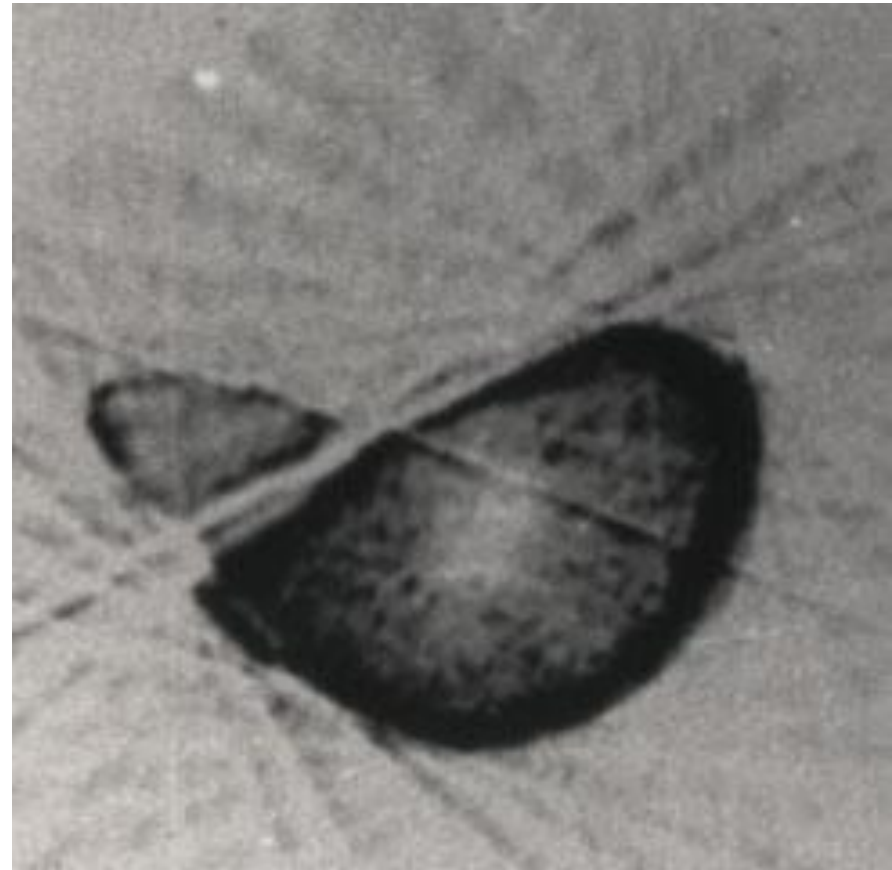


*Axial CT image of a normal brain using a state-of-the-art CT system and a 512 x 512 matrix image. Note the two black "pea-shaped" ventricles in the middle of the brain and the subtle delineation of gray and white matter (Courtesy: Siemens)*

# Clinical Acceptance of CT!?

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- Dr James Ambrose 1972
  - Radiologist, Atkinson - Morley's Hospital London
  - Recognised potential of EMI-scanner
  
- “Pretty pictures, but they will never replace radiographs” –  
Neuroradiologist 1972



# Then .....and Now

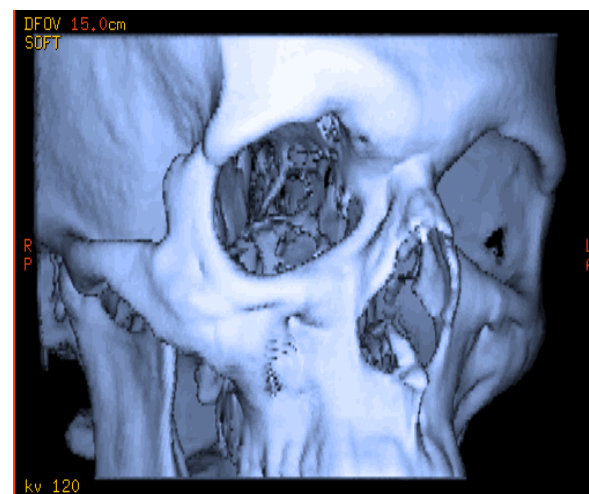
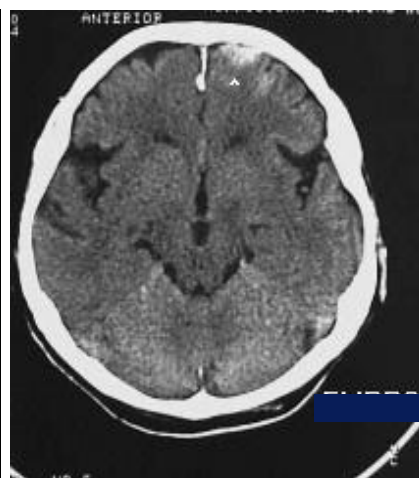
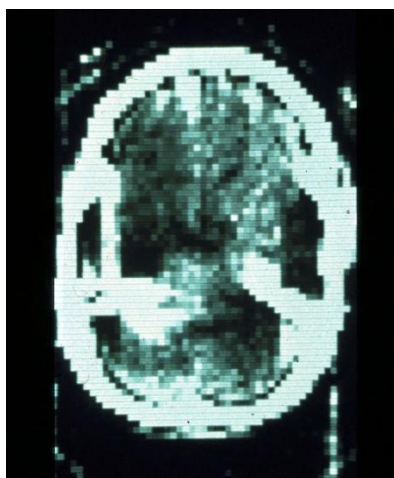
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- 80 x 80 image
- 3 mm pixels
- 13 mm thick slices
- Two simultaneous slices!!!
- 80 sec scan time per slice
- 80 sec recon time
- 512 x 512 image
- <1mm slice thickness
- <0.5mm pixels
- 0.5 sec rotation
- 0.5 sec recon per slice
- Isotropic resolution
- Spiral scanning - up to 16 slices simultaneously



*Slides from Terry Peters*

# 30 Years of CT



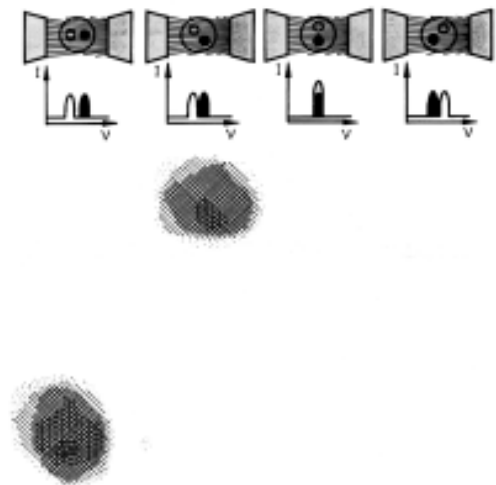
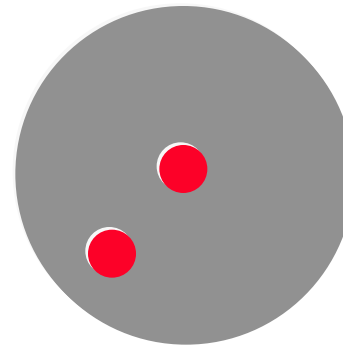


*Slides from Terry Peters*

# Birth of MRI

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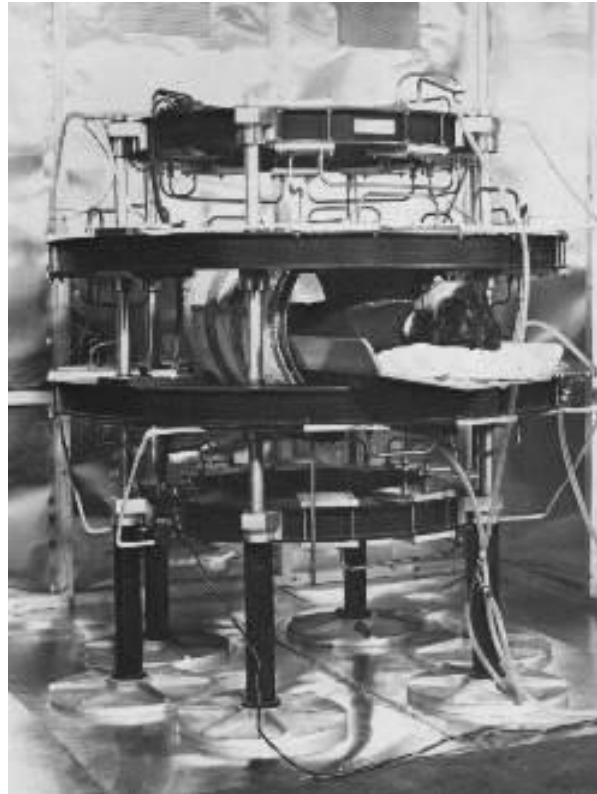
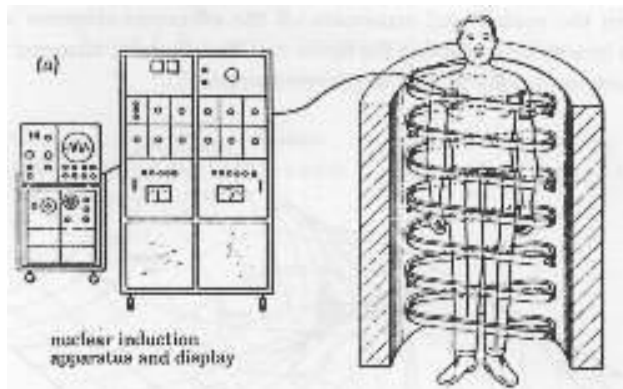
- Paul Lauterbur 1975
  - Presented at Stanford CT meeting
  - “Zeugmatography”
- Raymond Damadian 1977 –
- Sir Peter Mansfield early 1980’s



*Slides from Terry Peters*

# Birth of MRI

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- Electro Magnetic signal emitted (in harmless radio frequency) is acquired in the time domain
- image has to be reconstructed (Fourier transform)

# Birth of MRI



Lauterbur  
and the  
first  
magnetic  
resonance  
images  
(from  
*Nature*)

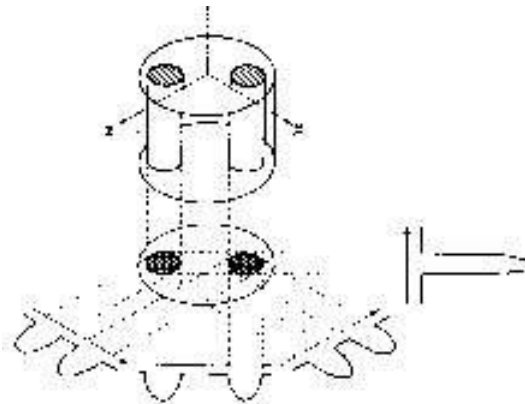


Fig. 1 Relationship between a three-dimensional object, its two-dimensional projection along the Y-axis, and four one-dimensional signal projections at 45° intervals in the XZ-plane. The arrows indicate the gradient directions.



Fig. 2 Thorax nuclear magnetic resonance tomograms of the object described in the text, using four relative orientations of object and gradients as diagrammed in Fig. 1.

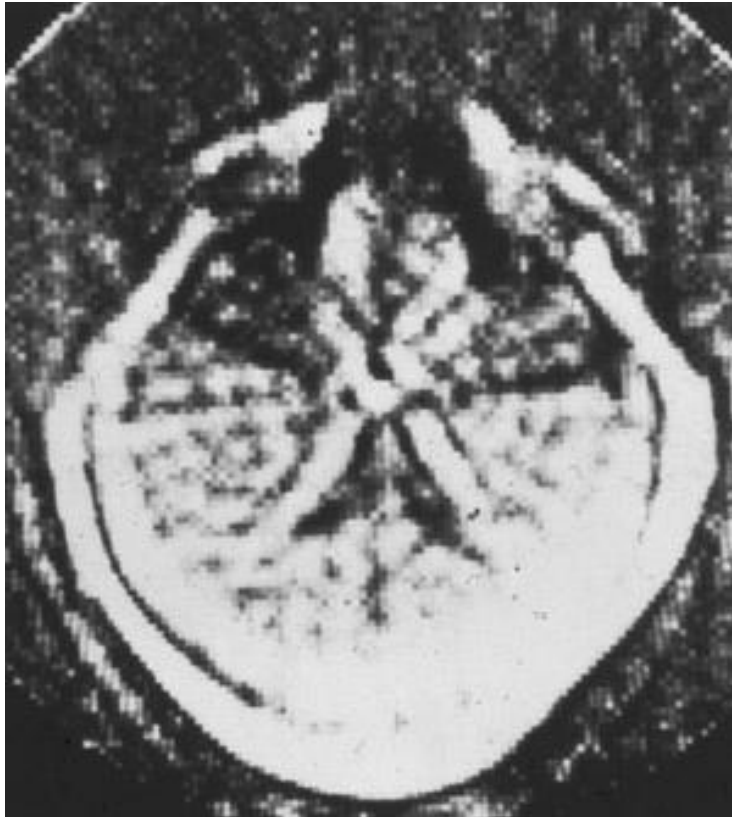
In 1978, Mansfield presented his first image through the abdomen.



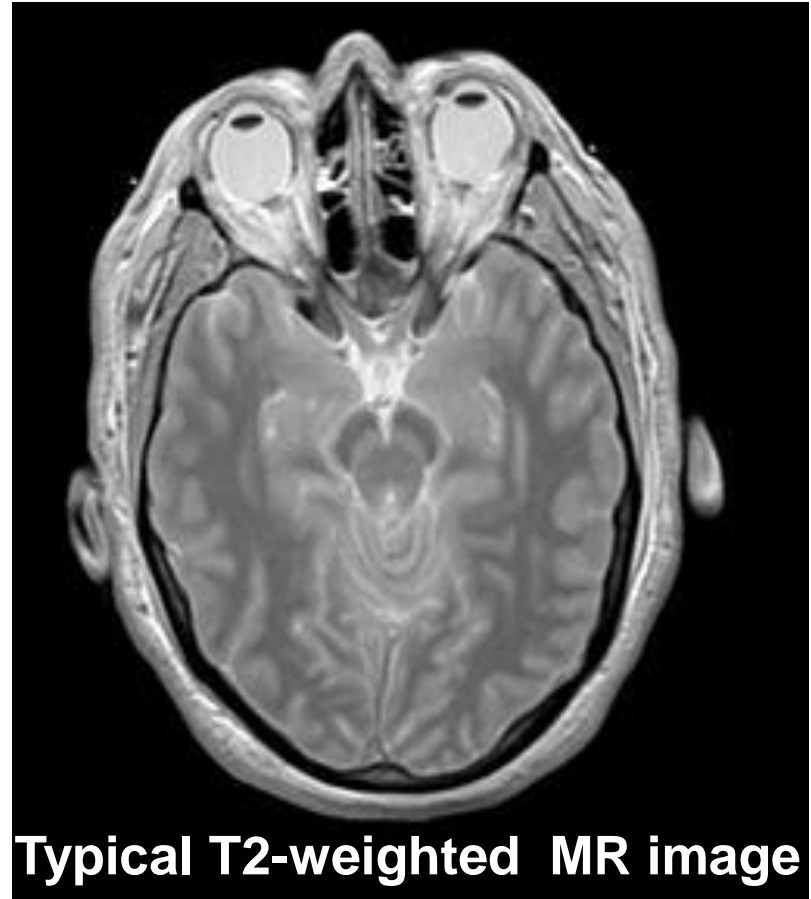
*Slides from Terry Peters*

# 30 Years of MRI

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**First brain MR image**



**Typical T2-weighted MR image**

# MR Imaging

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- “Interesting images, but will never be as useful as CT”
  - (A different) neuroradiologist, 1982

*Slides from Terry Peters*

# MR Imaging ...more than T1 and T2

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- MRA - Magnetic resonance angiography
  - images of vessels
- MRS - Magnetic resonance spectroscopy
  - images of chemistry of the brain and muscle metabolism
- fMRI - functional magnetic resonance imaging
  - image of brain function
- PW MRI – Perfusion-weighted imaging
- DW MRI – Diffusion-weighted MRI
  - images of nerve pathways

*Slides from Terry Peters*

# Magnetic Resonance Angiography

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- ❑ MR scanner tuned to measure only moving structures
- ❑ “Sees” only blood - no static structure
- ❑ Generate 3-D image of vasculature system
- ❑ May be enhanced with contrast agent (e.g. Gd-DTPA)



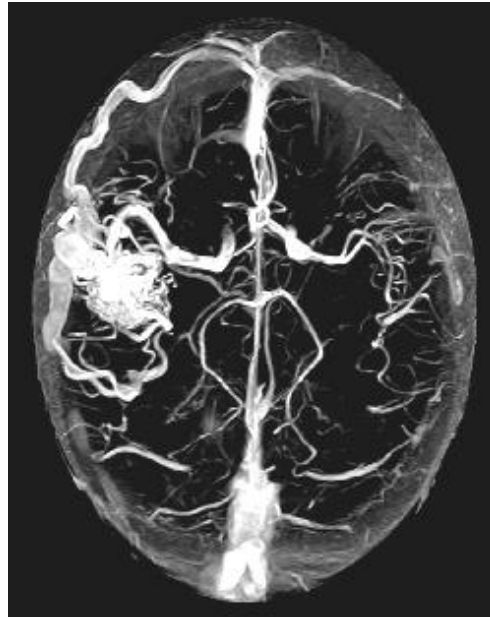
*Slides from Terry Peters*

# MR Angiography

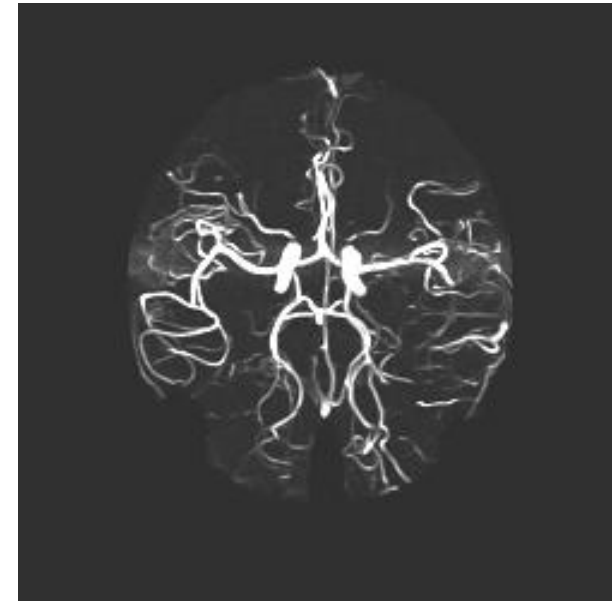
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**GD-enhanced**



**GD-enhanced**



**Phase-contrast**



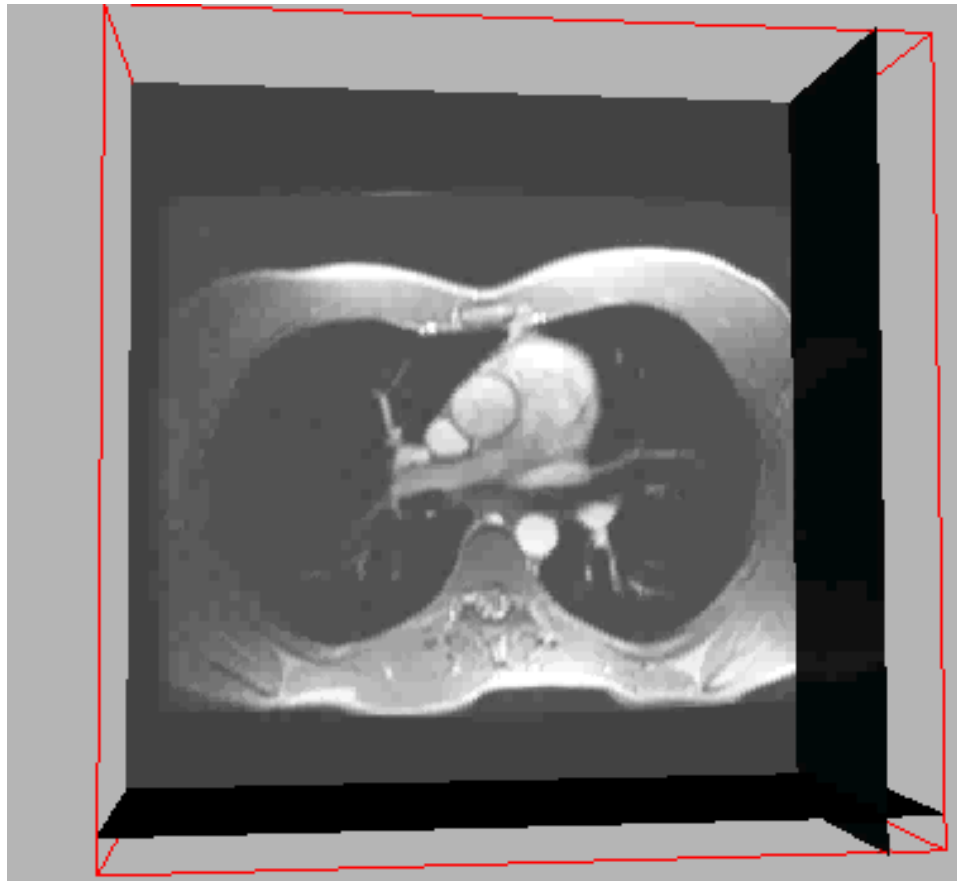
**In-flow**



*Slides from Terry Peters*

# Dynamic 3-D MRI of the thorax

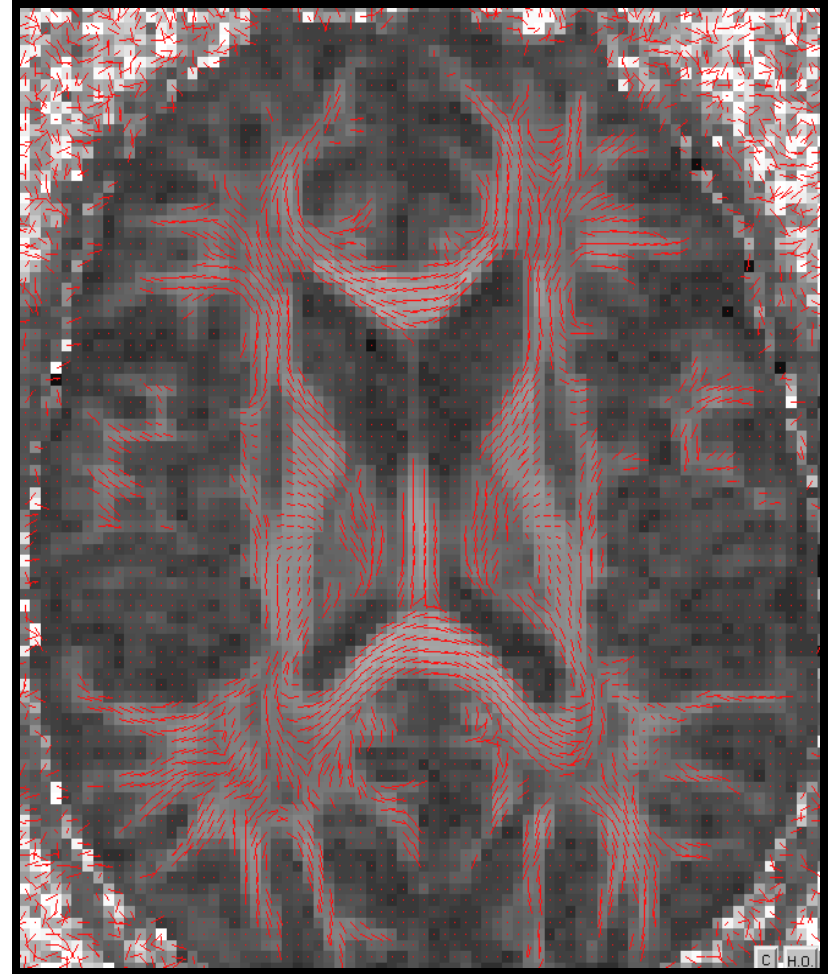
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*Slides from Terry Peters*

# Diffusion-Weighted MRI

- Image diffuse fluid motion in brain
- Construct “Tensor image” – extent of diffusion in each direction in each voxel in image
- Diffusion along nerve sheaths defines nerve tracts.
- Create images of nerve connections/pathways

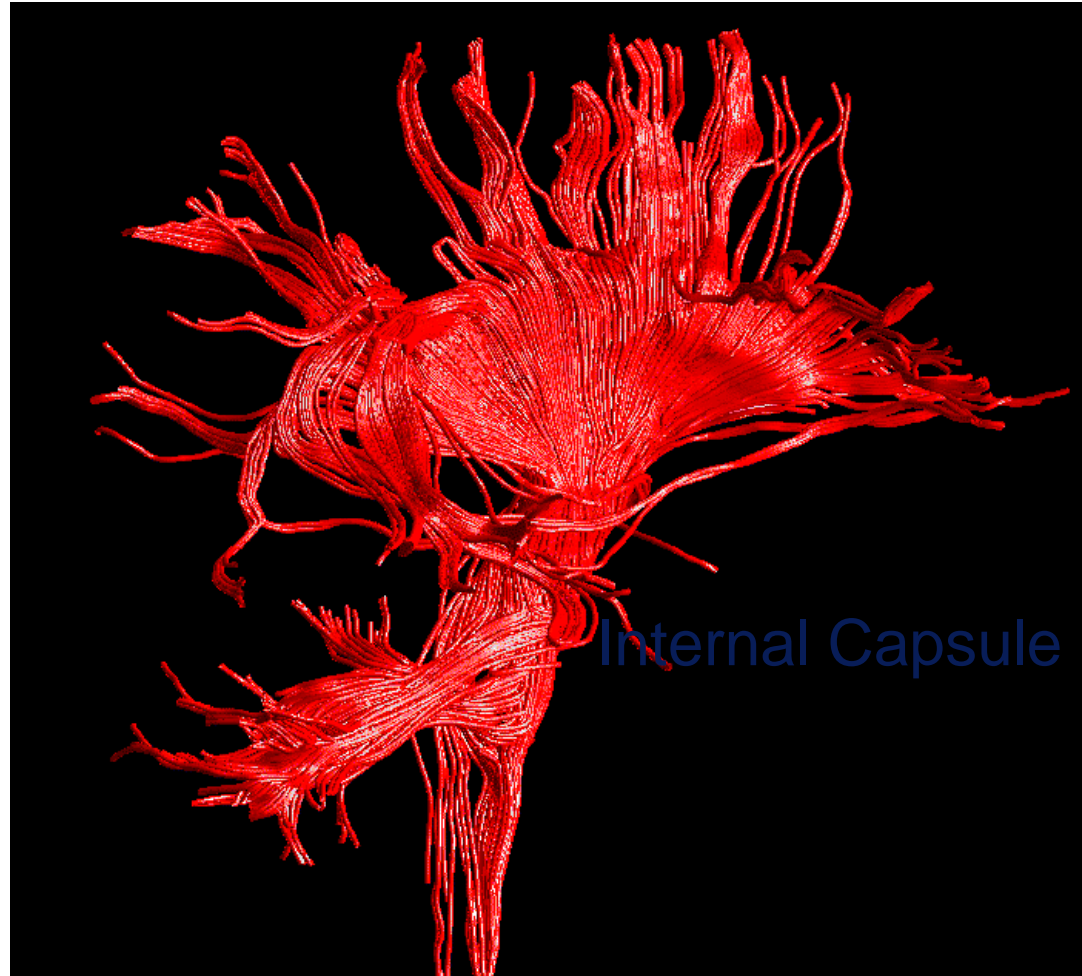


*Slides from Terry Peters*

# Tractography

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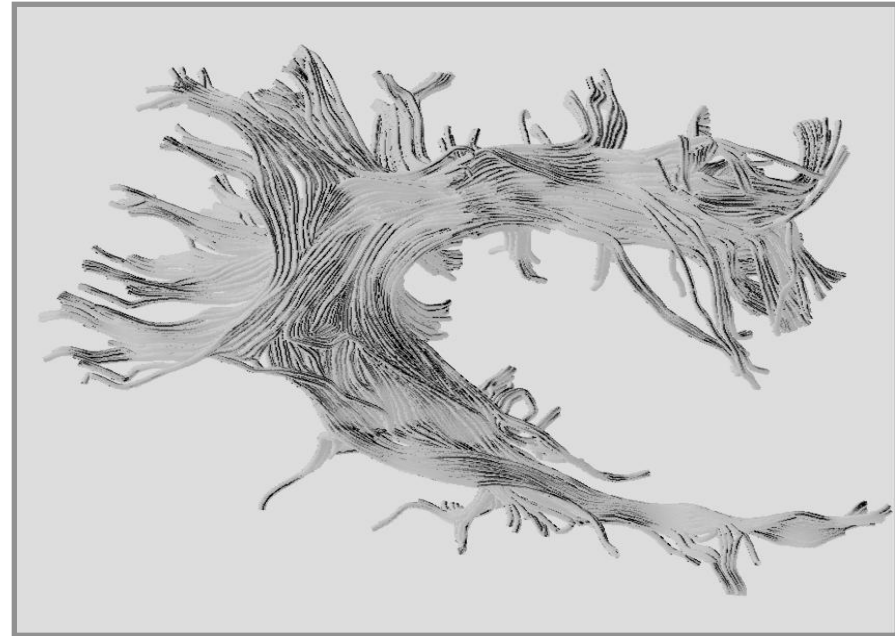
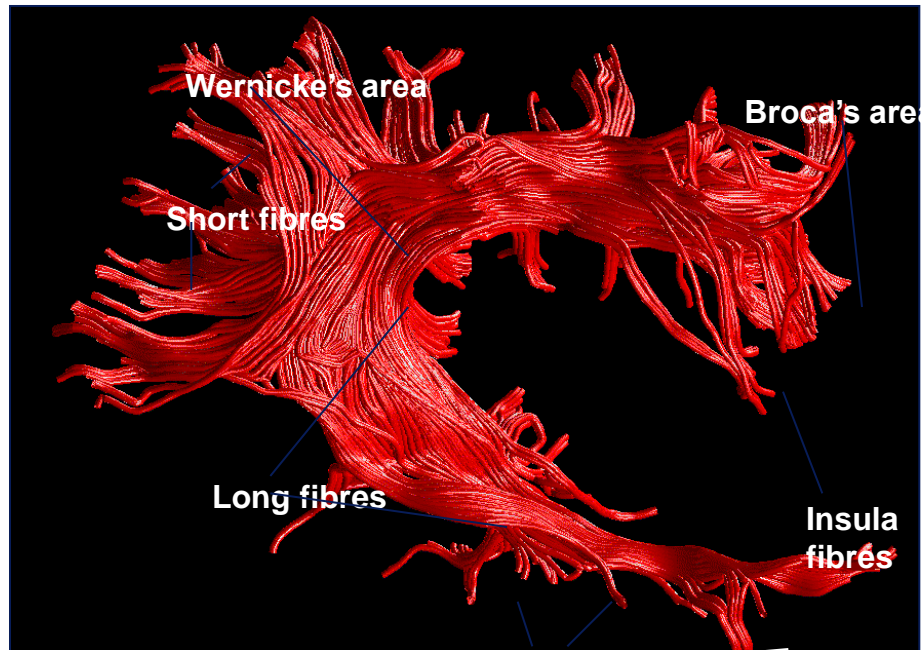
- Data analysed after scanning
- Identify “streamlines” of vectors
- Connect to form fibre tracts
- 14 min scan time



*Slides from Terry Peters*

# Tractography

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# Functional MRI (fMRI)

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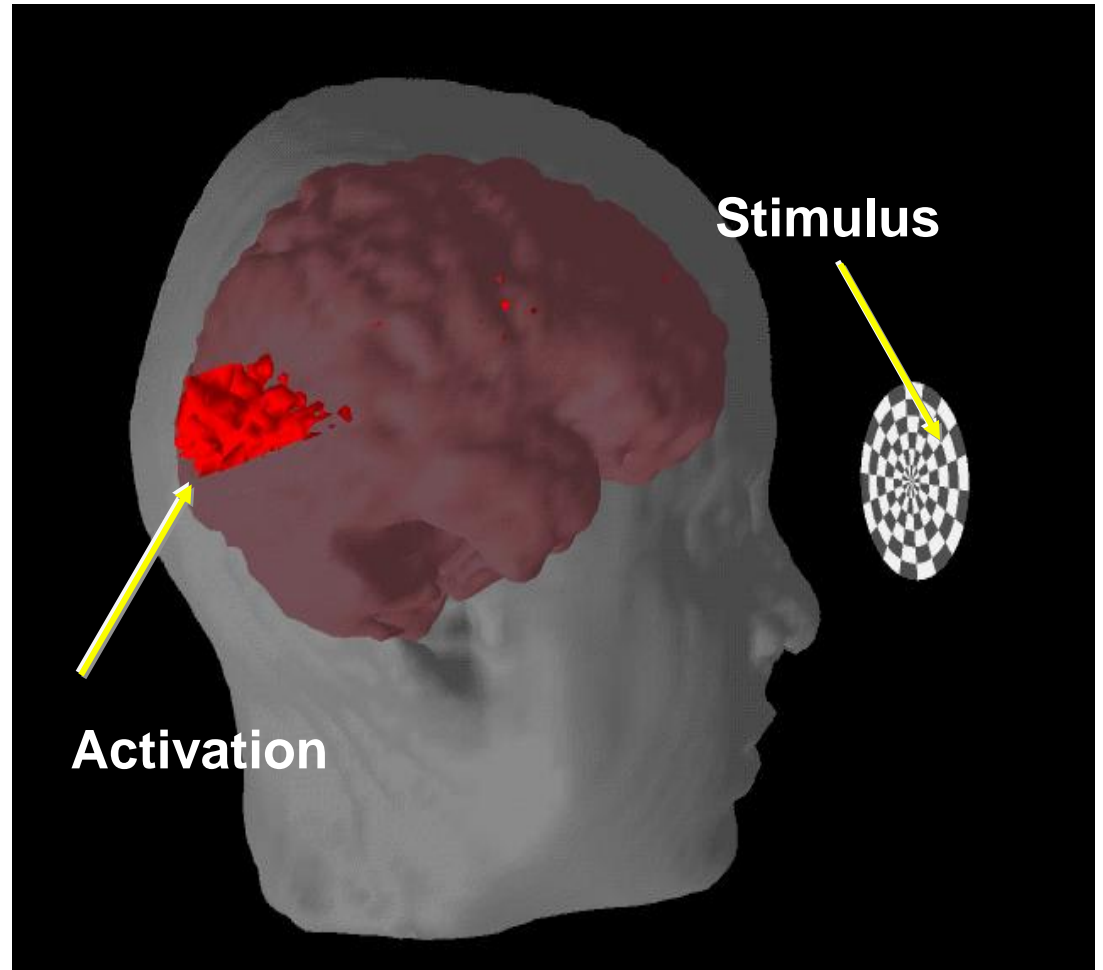
- Active brain regions demand more fuel (oxygen)
- Extra oxygen in blood changes MRI signal
- Activate brain regions with specific tasks
- Oxygenated blood generates small ( $\sim 1\%$ ) signal change
- Correlate signal intensity change with task
- Represent changes on anatomical images

*Slides from Terry Peters*

# fMRI

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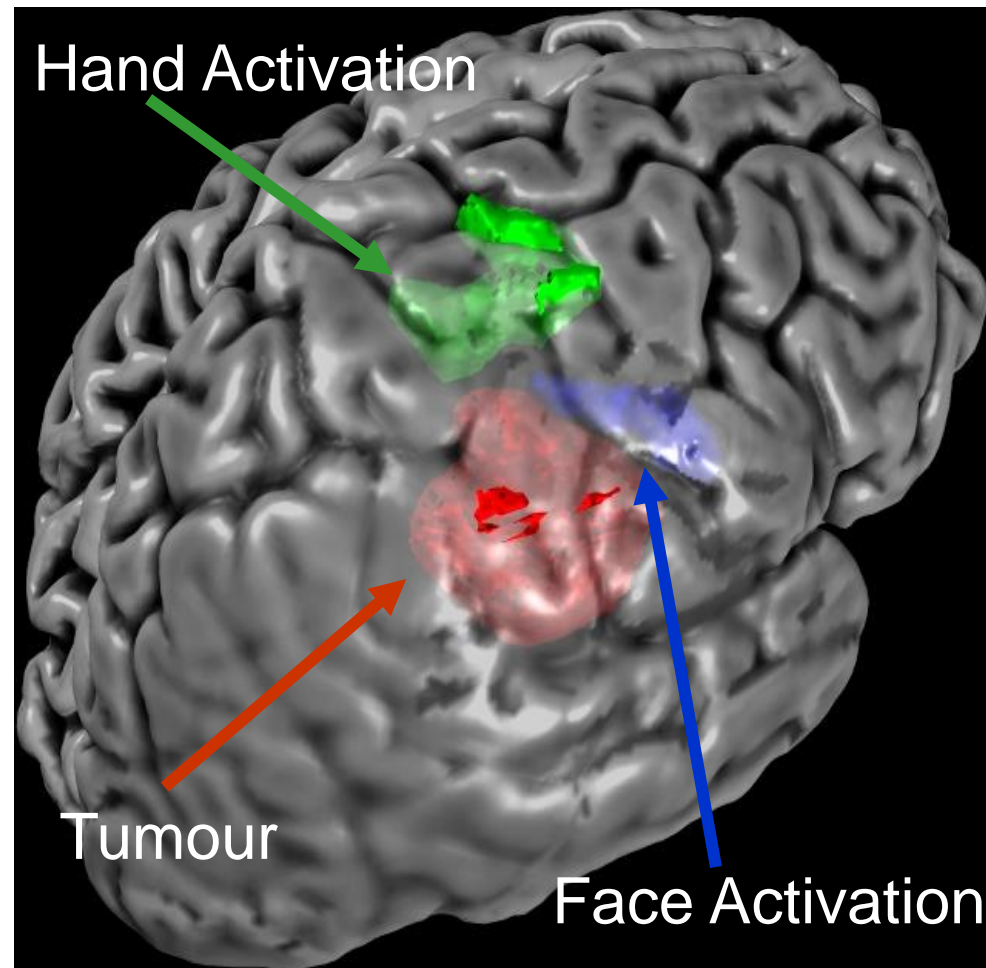
Subject looks at  
flashing disk while  
being scanned  
“Activated” sites  
detected and  
merged with 3-D  
MR image



*Slides from Terry Peters*

# fMRI in Neurosurgery Planning

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*Slides from Terry Peters*

# Ultrasound

2D



2D FETAL PROFILE

3D



3D FETAL PROFILE

4D



4D FETAL PROFILE

Images from GE Medical