# CHAPTER 6

# COLOR IMAGE PROCESSING







**FIGURE 6.1** Color spectrum seen by passing white light through a prism. (Courtesy of the General Electric Co., Lamp Business Division.)



- Chromatic light spans the EM spectrum from 400nm to 700nm.
- 3 basic quantities to describe the quality of a chromatic light source:
  - Radiance (W): total amount of energy that flows from the light source.
  - Luminance (Im): the amount of energy an observer perceives from a light source.
  - Brightness: a subjective descriptor that is impossible measure in partice.
- Example: light emitted from a source operating in the far infrared region.
  - Radiance: significant!
  - **O** Luminance: hardly perceived!
- □ The cones are responsible for color vision.
  - 65% are sensitive to red light.
  - 33% are sensitive to green light.
  - 2% are sensitive to blue light (blue cones are the most sensitive)



**FIGURE 6.2** Wavelengths comprising the visible range of the electromagnetic spectrum. (Courtesy of the General Electric Co., Lamp Business Division.)





# PRIMARY AND SECONDARY COLORS OF LIGHT



eral Electric Co., Lamp Business Division.)

a b

### **COLOR TV**



When a color TV needs to create a red dot, it fires the red beam at the red phosphor. Similarly for green and blue dots.

To create a white dot, red, green and blue beams are fired simultaneously -- the three colors mix together to create white.

To create a black dot, all three beams are turned off as they scan past the dot. All other colors on a TV screen are combinations of red, green and blue. A color TV screen differs from a black-and-white screen in three ways:

There are three electron beams that move simultaneously across the screen. They are named the red, green and blue beams.

The screen is not coated with a single sheet of phosphor as in a black-and-white TV. Instead, the screen is coated with red, green and blue phosphors arranged in dots or stripes. If you turn on your TV or computer monitor, and look closely at the screen with a magnifying glass, you will be able to see the dots or stripes.

On the inside of the tube, very close to the phosphor coating, there is a thin metal screen called a shadow mask. This mask is perforated with very small holes that are aligned with the phosphor dots (or stripes) on the screen.

#### **CIE CHROMATICITY DIAGRAM**





# **RGB MODEL**

#### FIGURE 6.7

Schematic of the RGB color cube. Points along the main diagonal have gray values, from black at the origin to white at point (1, 1, 1).

Images represented with the RGB color model have 3 component images:

Red component Green component Blue component

If 8 bits are used for each pixel, we have a 24-bit RGB image.



Each color is represented by a **point** in or on the unit cube.





# SAFE RGB COLORS

Number System	<b>Color Equivalents</b>					
Hex	00	33	66	99	CC	FF
Decimal	0	51	102	153	204	255



#### TABLE 6.1

Valid values of each RGB component in a safe color.

a b FIGURE 6.10 (a) The 216 safe RGB colors. (b) All the grays in the 256-color RGB system (grays that are part of the safe color group are shown underlined).



# **CMY & CMYK COLOR MODELS**

Secondary colors of light : Cyan, magenta, yellow (primary colors of pigments)

Most devices (color printers, copiers, etc.) that deposit color pigments on paper require CMY data input or perform an internal RGB to CMY conversion.

RGB to CMY conversion (all color values are in the range [0,1]):

 $\begin{pmatrix} C \\ M \\ Y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} R \\ G \\ B \end{pmatrix}$  light reflected from a surface coated with pure <u>wagenta</u> does not contain <u>green</u> light reflected from a surface coated with pure <u>wagenta</u> does not contain <u>green</u> light reflected from a surface coated with pure <u>vellow</u> does not contain <u>blue</u>

Equal amounts of cyan, magenta, and yellow should produce black. In practice, this combination produces muddy-looking black. In order to produce true black, a fourth color is added to the model.

CMYK color model: cyan, magenta, yellow, and black







**FIGURE 6.13** Hue and saturation in the HSI color model. The dot is an arbitrary color point. The angle from the red axis gives the hue, and the length of the vector is the saturation. The intensity of all colors in any of these planes is given by the position of the plane on the vertical intensity axis.





#### **CONVERTING COLORS FROM HSI TO RGB**

The HSI values are given in the interval [0,1].

The applicable equations depend on the values of *H*.

*RG* sector ( $0^0 \circ H < 120^0$ ):

$$B = I(1-S) \qquad R = I \left[ 1 + \frac{S \cos H}{\cos(60^{\circ} - H)} \right] \qquad G = 3I - (R+B)$$

**GB** sector (120°  $\bigcirc$  H < 240°): first subtract 120° from it.

$$R = I(1-S) \qquad G = I \left[ 1 + \frac{S \cos H}{\cos(60^{\circ} - H)} \right] \qquad B = 3I - (R + G)$$

**BR** sector (240<sup> $\circ$ </sup> **O H O** 360<sup> $\circ$ </sup>): first subtract 240<sup> $\circ$ </sup> from it.

$$G = I(1-S) \qquad B = I \left[ 1 + \frac{S \cos H}{\cos(60^{\circ} - H)} \right] \qquad R = 3I - (G+B)$$





#### **INTENSITY SLICING INTO 8 COLORS**

A different color is assigned to each region without regard for the meaning of the gray levels in the image.



#### a b

**FIGURE 6.20** (a) Monochrome image of the Picker Thyroid Phantom. (b) Result of density slicing into eight colors. (Courtesy of Dr. J. L. Blankenship, Instrumentation and Controls Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory.)

#### **INTENSITY SLICING INTO 2 COLORS**

a b

#### FIGURE 6.21

(a) Monochrome X-ray image of a weld. (b) Result of color coding. (Original image courtesy of X-TEK Systems, Ltd.)



When there is a porosity or crack in a weld, the full strength of the X-rays going through the object saturates the sensor on the other side of the object.

Hence, gray levels of value 255 in an 8-bit image coming from such a system automatically imply a problem with the weld!

If a human is the ultimate judge in inspecting welds, this simple color coding would result in lower error rates!



# **3 INDEPENDENT COLOR TRANSFORMATIONS**





# **PSEUDO-COLOR ENHANCEMENT: AN EXAMPLE**

a b c





FIGURE 6.25 Transformation functions used to obtain the images in Fig. 6.24.

a b



Why do we have the same color for the explosives and background?

Why do we have the same color for the explosives and garment bag?



**FIGURE 6.26** A pseudocolor coding approach used when several monochrome images are available.



#### **COMBINING IMAGES FROM A SPACECRAFT**

One way to combine the sensed image data is by how they show differences in surface chemical composition.

Bright red depicts material newly ejected from an active volcano.

Surrounding yellow materials are older sulfur deposits.





a b

FIGURE 6.28 (a) Pseudocolor rendition of Jupiter Moon Io. (b) A close-up. (Courtesy of NASA.)

This image was obtained by combining several of the sensor images from the Galileo spacecraft.

# **BASICS OF FULL-COLOR IMAGE PROCESSING**

a b

FIGURE 6.29

ŘGB color

images.

#### Two major categories of fullcolor IP approaches

Each component image is processed individually, and a composite color image is formed from the components.

Color pixels (which are vectors) are directly processed.

Two conditions have to be satisfied for per-colorcomponent and vector-based processing to be equivalent.

> The process has to be applicable to both scalars and vectors.

The operation on each component of a vector must be independent of the other components.

#### Example:

Suppose the process is neighborhood averaging.

Same result would be obtained using the scalar and vector methods.



# **COLOR TRANSFORMATIONS - FORMULATION**

□ g(x,y) = T[f(x,y)]: pixels values are triplets or quartets. □  $s_i = T_i(r_1, r_2, ..., r_n)$ :

- $\bigcirc$  s<sub>i</sub> and r<sub>i</sub>: variables denoting the color components
- $\bigcirc$  { $T_1, T_2, ..., T_n$ }: set of transformation functions

• For RGB color space, *n*=3.

• For CMYK color space, *n*=4.

#### **Example:**

- $\bigcirc$  g(x,y)=kf(x,y), 0<k<1: intensity modification
- Any color space can be used.
- HSI color space:  $s_3 = kr_3$ ,  $s_1 = r_1$ ,  $s_2 = r_2$
- **RGB** color space:  $s_i = kr_i$ , i=1,2,3
- CMY color space:  $s_i = kr_i + (1-k)$ , i=1,2,3
- In this case, although the HSI transformation involves the <u>fewest # of operations</u>, the computations required to convert an RGB or CMY(K) image <u>more than offsets the advantages</u>!

#### COLOR-SPACE COMPONENTS OF A FULL-COLOR IMAGE



# **MODIFIED INTENSITY OF THE FULL-COLOR IMAGE**



#### FIGURE 6.31 Adjusting the intensity of an image using color transformations. (a) Original image. (b) Result of decreasing its intensity by 30% (i.e., letting k = 0.7). (c)-(e) The required RGB, CMY, and HSI transformation functions. (Original image courtesy of MedData Interactive.)



#### **COLOR COMPLEMENTS**

The hues directly opposite one another on the color circle are called complements.

Complements are analogous to gray-scale negatives: they are useful in enhancing detail embedded in dark region of a color image.





The RGB complement transformation functions used here do not have a straightforward HSI color space equivalent.

# **COLOR SLICING**

Highlighting a specific range of colors in an image is useful for separating objects from their surroundings.

The most straightforward approach is to extend the gray-level slicing techniques.

 $s_i = T_i(r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n)$ :  $s_i$  is a function of all  $r_i$ .

Colors of interest are enclosed by a cube:

$$s_{i} = \begin{cases} 0.5 & \text{if } [|r_{j} - a_{j}| > W/2]_{\text{any } 10j0n} \\ r_{i} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$

Colors of interest are enclosed by a sphere:

$$s_{i} = \begin{cases} 0.5 & \text{if } \mathbf{\bullet}(r_{j} - a_{j})^{2} > (R_{0})^{2} \\ r_{i} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \qquad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

The width of the cube and the radius of the sphere were determined interactively.



#### **HISTOGRAM PROCESSING**

It is generally unwise to histogram equalize the components of a color image independently. This results in erroneous color.

A more logical approach is to spread the color intensities uniformly, leaving the colors themselves (e.g., hues) unchanged.

The HSI color space is ideally suited to this approach.



### **COLOR IMAGE SMOOTHING**

$$\overline{c}(x, y) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{(x, y) \in S_{xy}} c(x, y)$$

$$\overline{C}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{K} \sum_{(x, y) \in S_{xy}} R(x, y) \\ \frac{1}{K} \sum_{(x, y) \in S_{xy}} G(x, y) \\ \frac{1}{K} \sum_{(x, y) \in S_{xy}} B(x, y) \end{pmatrix}$$

Smoothing by neighborhood averaging can be carried out using either individual color planes or the RGB color vectors.

# AN RGB IMAGE AND ITS COLOR PLANES



a b c d FIGURE 6.38 (a) RGB image. (b) Red component image. (c) Green component. (d) Blue component.







#### a b c

**FIGURE 6.40** Image smoothing with a  $5 \times 5$  averaging mask. (a) Result of processing each RGB component image. (b) Result of processing the intensity component of the HSI image and converting to RGB. (c) Difference between the two results.

# **COLOR IMAGE SHARPENING**

$$\nabla^{2}[c(x, y)] = \begin{cases} \nabla^{2}R(x, y) \\ \nabla^{2}G(x, y) \\ \nabla^{2}B(x, y) \end{cases}$$
  
The Laplacian

The Laplacian of a fullcolor image can be obtained by computing the Laplacian of each component plane separately.

# SHARPENED IMAGES

Obtained by combining the Laplacian of the intensity plane with the unmodified <u>hue</u> and <u>saturation</u> planes.



a b c

**FIGURE 6.41** Image sharpening with the Laplacian. (a) Result of processing each RGB channel. (b) Result of processing the intensity component and converting to RGB. (c) Difference between the two results.

# **COLOR SEGMENTATION IN HSI COLOR SPACE**

c d

e f

g h

Assume we want to segment an image based on color, and to carry out the process on individual planes.

HSI space:

Hue plane conveniently represents the color.

**Saturation plane** is used as a masking image.

Intensity plane is seldom used because it carries no color information.

The binary mask is generated by thresholding the saturation plane with T = 0.1x (maximum value in the saturation plane).



**FIGURE 6.42** Image segmentation in HSI space. (a) Original. (b) Hue. (c) Saturation. (d) Intensity. (e) Binary saturation mask (black = 0). (f) Product of (b) and (e). (g) Histogram of (f). (h) Segmentation of red components in (a).

#### **COLOR SEGMENTATION IN RGB COLOR SPACE**

RGB color vectors generally result in better segmentation results.

A set of sample points representative of the colors of interest is given.

Obtain an estimate of the average color that will be segmented.

Classify each pixel in the given image with according to the specified range. One measure of similarity is the Euclidean distance:



#### AN EXAMPLE OF COLOR SEGMENTATION IN RGB COLOR SPACE

Compute the mean vector a using the points contained within the rectangle.

#### Center the box at a.

Compute the standard deviation of the R,G,B values of the sample points.

Determine the dimension along each axis by computing 1.25xSD.

•<sub>*R*</sub>: SD of red components

Dimension along the *R*-axis:

 $(a_R - 1.25 \bullet_R)$  to  $(a_R + 1.25 \bullet_R)$ 





a b

#### FIGURE 6.44

Segmentation in RGB space. (a) Original image with colors of interest shown enclosed by a rectangle. (b) Result of segmentation in RGB vector space. Compare with Fig. 6.42(h).

# **COLOR EDGE DETECTION**

The gradient introduced in Chapter 3 is not defined for vector quantities.

So, computing the gradient on individual planes, and then using the results to form a color image will lead to erroneous results.

We need to define the gradient for  $c(x,y) = [R(x,y) G(x,y) B(x,y)]^T$ 

A method has been proposed by Di Zenzo in 1986:

Direction of max rate of change: 
$$\theta = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left[ \frac{2g_{xy}}{(g_{xx} - g_{yy})} \right]$$

Value the rate of change: 
$$F(\theta) = \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[ (g_{xx} + g_{yy}) + (g_{xx} - g_{yy}) \cos 2\theta + 2g_{xy} \sin 2\theta \right] \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

#### AN EXAMPLE OF COLOR EDGE DETECTION USING 2 APPROACHES

a b c d

#### FIGURE 6.46

(a) RGB image.
(b) Gradient
computed in RGB
color vector
space.
(c) Gradients
computed on a
per-image basis
and then added.
(d) Difference
between (b)
and (c).

Both approaches yielded reasonable results. Is the extra detail worth the added computational burden of the vector approach?



# **COMPONENT GRADIENT IMAGES**



#### a b c

**FIGURE 6.47** Component gradient images of the color image in Fig. 6.46. (a) Red component, (b) green component, and (c) blue component. These three images were added and scaled to produce the image in Fig. 6.46(c).

# **NOISE IN COLOR IMAGES**

The noise models discussed in Chapter 5 are applicable to color images.

Gaussian noise Rayleigh noise Erlang noise Exponential noise Uniform noise Impulse (salt and pepper) noise

Usually, the noise content of a color image has the same characteristics in each color channel.

However, it is possible for color channels to be affected differently by noise.

#### **GAUSSIAN NOISE IN A COLOR IMAGE**

a b c d

#### FIGURE 6.48

(a)-(c) Red, green, and blue component images corrupted by additive Gaussian noise of mean 0 and variance 800. (d) Resulting RGB image. [Compare (d) with Fig. 6.46(a).]



Fine grain noise tends
to be less noticeable in color images.



#### ONE NOISY RGB CHANNEL AFFECTS ALL HSI PLANES



a b c d FIGURE 6.50 (a) RGB image with green plane corrupted by saltand-pepper noise. (b) Hue component of HSI image. (c) Saturation component. (d) Intensity component.

> The noise spreads from the green channel to all the HSI planes.

#### **COLOR IMAGE COMPRESSION**

Compression reduces the amount of data required to represent a digital image.

The data that are the object of any compression are the components of each color pixel.

Compressed with JPEG 2000.

The compressed image contains only 1 data bit for every 230 bits of data in the original image.



#### a b c d

FIGURE 6.51 Color image compression. (a) Original RGB image. (b) Result of compressing and decompressing the image in (a).