

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

# Otsu's Binarization

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# Probability Theory

Huan

## Probability Theory

Definition

Expectation and Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's

Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class Variance

Intra-class Variance

Conclusion

References

Before we start, we'll need to know some basic probability...

# Table of Contents

Huan

Probability  
Theory

**Definition**

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- 1 Probability Theory
  - Definition
  - Expectation and Variance
- 2 *k*-means
  - Total Laws
- 3 Otsu's Binarization
  - Introduction
  - Inter-class Variance
  - Intra-class Variance
  - Conclusion
- 4 References

# Basic Definitions

Huan

Probability  
Theory

**Definition**

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's

Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Definition

The *sample space* is the set of all possible outcomes, commonly denoted  $\Omega$ . An *event* is just “something which occurs”, or formally speaking, a set which is a subset of  $\Omega$ .

## Definition

The *class of events*  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\Omega$  (that is, it is a collection of the subsets of  $\Omega$ , including  $\Omega$ , and closed under union and complement). We will assume  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ , the power set of  $\Omega$  (the set of all subsets of  $\Omega$ ).

# Probability Function

Huan

Probability  
Theory

**Definition**

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's

Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Definition

(Kolmogorov axioms) Given a sample space  $\Omega$  and event class  $\mathcal{F}$ , a probability function  $P$  has the following properties:

- 1  $P(E) \in \mathbb{R}, P(E) \geq 0$  for all  $E \in \mathcal{F}$
- 2  $P(\Omega) = 1$
- 3 If  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are disjoint sets in  $\mathcal{F}$ ,  
 $P(E_1 \cup E_2) = P(E_1) + P(E_2)$

It follows that  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  is a *probability space*.

# Law of Total Probability

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

k-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Theorem

If  $B_i$  is a partition of  $\Omega$ , then  $P(A) = \sum_i P(A \cap B_i)$

## Proof.

Let's look at the sum of the first two terms.

$P(A \cap B_1) + P(A \cap B_2) = P((A \cap B_1) \cup (A \cap B_2))$  because  $A \cap B_1$  and  $A \cap B_2$  are disjoint ( $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are disjoint).  
 $= P(A \cap (B_1 \cup B_2))$ . Extending the logic to all  $B_i$ ,

$$= P(A \cap (B_1 \cup B_2 \cup \dots \cup B_n))$$

We know  $B_1 \cup B_2 \cup \dots \cup B_n = \Omega$  since it's a partition, and  $A \cap \Omega = A$  by definition. So this is just  $P(A)$ . □

# Table of Contents

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

**Expectation and  
Variance**

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- 1 Probability Theory**
  - Definition
  - **Expectation and Variance**
- 2 *k*-means**
  - Total Laws
- 3 Otsu's Binarization**
  - Introduction
  - Inter-class Variance
  - Intra-class Variance
  - Conclusion
- 4 References**

# Random Variable

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Definition

A *random variable* (r.v.) is a function  $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , i.e. a function assigning a number to each outcome, but can more intuitively be thought of as a “dispenser” of values. We will denote random variables as a single uppercase letter, e.g.  $X$  or  $Z$ .

## Randomness

Although the probability space carries “randomness”, a random variable is neither random nor a variable — it is a deterministic function assigning a fixed number to a particular outcome. Although what outcome you get is random (from the randomness of the space), the assignment is the same.



# Expected Value

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Definition

The *expected value* is what we “expect” a random variable to dispense over many samples, or the average value:

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in X} x P(x)$$

We will also denote the expected value as  $\mu$ .

## Example

Let  $X$  take on value 1 with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ , 2 with  $\frac{1}{4}$  chance, and 3 with  $\frac{1}{4}$  chance.  $E[X] = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{4} = \frac{9}{4}$ .

# Law of the Unconscious Statistician

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

**Expectation and  
Variance**

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Theorem

$E[f(X)] = \sum_{x \in X} f(x) P(x)$ , i.e. *the expected value of a transformation of a random variable.*

## Proof.

(informal) We can think of  $f(x)$  as partitioning  $X$  into subsets like  $S = \{x \in X \mid f(x) = y\}$  for some  $y$ . When we compute  $P(y)$ , it'll be the sum of  $P(x)$  for all  $x \in S$ . But we know each  $S(y)$  is disjoint for different values of  $y$  since they necessarily form a partition. So if we iterate over  $x$ , we cover the same set anyways, multiplying each  $P(x)$  by the  $f(x)$  it belongs to.  $\square$

# Linearity of Expectation

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

**Expectation and  
Variance**

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's

Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Corollary

*The linearity of expectation, i.e.*

- 1  $E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$  for random variables  $X, Y$
- 2  $E[cX] = c E[X]$  for  $c \in \mathbb{R}$

# Proof of Linearity of Expectation

## Proof.

Begin with the definition of expectation:

$$\begin{aligned} E[X + Y] &= \sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} (x + y) P(x, y) \\ &= \sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} x P(x, y) + \sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} y P(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

Swapping order and applying the law of total probabilities,

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{x \in X} x \underbrace{\sum_{y \in Y} P(x, y)}_{P(x)} + \sum_{y \in Y} y \underbrace{\sum_{x \in X} P(x, y)}_{P(y)} \\ &= \sum_{x \in X} x P(x) + \sum_{y \in Y} y P(y) = E[X] + E[Y] \end{aligned}$$

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

k-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

# Proof of the Linearity of Expectation, Continued

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

**Expectation and  
Variance**

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Proof.

We use the transformation  $f(x) = cx$  with the law of the unconscious statistician:

$$\begin{aligned} E[cX] &= \sum_{x \in X} (cx) P(x) \\ &= c \sum_{x \in X} x P(x) \\ &= c E[X] \end{aligned}$$



# Variance

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Definition

The *variance* is the expected squared deviation from the expected value. The larger the variance, the more “variable” the random variable is. By definition,

$$\text{Var}[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2]$$

We also denote the variance as  $\sigma^2$ , since it is the square of the standard deviation  $\sigma$ .

# Useful Alternative Form

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

**Expectation and  
Variance**

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Theorem

$\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$ , a convenient form of variance.

## Proof.

By definition,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[X] &= E[(X - E[X])^2] \\ &= E[X^2 - 2X E[X] + E[X]^2]\end{aligned}$$

From the linearity of expected value,

$$\begin{aligned}&= E[X^2] - E[2 E[X]X] + E[E[X]^2] \\ &= E[X^2] - (2 E[X]) E[X] + E[X]^2 \\ &= E[X^2] - E[X]^2\end{aligned}$$



# Table of Contents

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

**Total Laws**

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- 1 Probability Theory
  - Definition
  - Expectation and Variance
- 2 *k*-means
  - **Total Laws**
- 3 Otsu's Binarization
  - Introduction
  - Inter-class Variance
  - Intra-class Variance
  - Conclusion
- 4 References



# k-means Refresher

Given a set of points  $X$ , partition into  $S_i$ . Cost function:

$$\sum_i \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in S_i} \|\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i\|^2$$

Recall the definition of

$$\text{Var}[S_i] = \text{E}[(S_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)^2] = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in S_i} P(\mathbf{x}) \|\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i\|^2$$

Looks awfully similar, but we're missing a  $P(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{|S_i|}$ :

$$\sum_i |S_i| \text{Var}[S_i]$$

Dividing by the total number of points  $|X|$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i \frac{|S_i|}{|X|} \text{Var}[S_i] &= \sum_i P(S_i) \text{Var}[S_i] \\ &= \boxed{\text{E}[\text{Var}[X | S]]} \end{aligned}$$

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

k-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

# Conditional Probability

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

**Total Laws**

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Definition

The probability that an event  $A$  happens *conditional* on  $B$  is denoted  $P(A | B)$ , i.e. the probability  $A$  happens “given”  $B$  happens. This should not be confused for  $P(A \cap B)$ , the probability  $A$  happens *and*  $B$  happens.

# Conditional Probability

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

**Total Laws**

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Corollary

$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

## Proof.

(informal) We will use an informal definition of probability as the number of ways for something to occur over the total number of ways. Since we know  $B$  occurs, the total number of ways is  $P(B)$ . The number of ways  $A$  occurs is the number of events where  $A$  occurs *and*  $B$  occurs, because we know  $B$  occurs.  $\square$

# Conditional Expectation

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition  
Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Definition

$E[X | Y]$  is the *conditional expectation* of the random variable  $X$  conditional on the random variable  $Y$ . Note that  $E[X | Y]$  is a random variable which depends on the particular value of  $Y$ ! Following a similar definition to expectation,

$$E[X | Y] = \sum_{x \in X} x P(X = x | Y = y)$$

## Example of conditional expectation

For example,  $E[X | Y = 1]$  is a real number equal to the expected value of  $X$  when  $Y$  is 1. But  $Y$  can take on many different values, so  $E[X | Y]$  in general is a random variable; by definition it assigns a real number to each outcome of  $Y$ .

# Law of Total Expectation

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

**Total Laws**

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

Because  $E[X | Y]$  is a random variable, we can treat it like any other random variable and take its expectation and variance.

## Theorem

$E[X] = E[E[X | Y]]$  for any random variables  $X, Y$

# Proof of the Law of Total Expectation

## Proof.

Starting with the definition of expectation,

$$E[E[X | Y]] = \sum_{y \in Y} P(y) E[X | Y]$$

Expanding with the definition of conditional expectation,

$$= \sum_{y \in Y} P(y) \sum_{x \in X} x P(x | y)$$

$$= \sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{x \in X} x P(x, y)$$

$$= \sum_{x \in X} x \sum_{y \in Y} P(x, y)$$

$$= \sum_{x \in X} x P(x) = E[X]$$



Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition  
Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

**Total Laws**

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

# Conditional Variance

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition  
Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Definition

$\text{Var}[X | Y]$  is the *conditional variance* of the random variable  $X$  conditional on the random variable  $Y$ . Like the conditional expectation, this is a random variable:

$$\text{Var}[X | Y] = E[(X - E[X | Y])^2 | Y]$$

Note: normally,  $\text{Var}[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2]$ . But we can't literally plug in  $X | Y$  into that formula because  $X | Y$  has no definition by itself: it must be wrapped in  $E$  or  $\text{Var}$  or some other operator to become a valid random variable.

# Conditional Variance Alternative Form

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition  
Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction  
Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Theorem

$$\text{Var}[X | Y] = E[X^2 | Y] - E[X | Y]^2$$

## Proof.

Begin with the definition of conditional variance,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[X | Y] &= E[(X - E[X | Y])^2 | Y] \\ &= E[X^2 - 2X E[X | Y] + E[X | Y]^2 | Y] \\ &= E[X^2 | Y] - 2 E[X | Y] E[X | Y] + E[X | Y]^2 \\ &= E[X^2 | Y] - E[X | Y]^2\end{aligned}$$





# Let's Play Around With This

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition  
Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

**Total Laws**

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

What if we take the expectation of the conditional variance?

$$\begin{aligned} E[\text{Var}[X | Y]] &= E[E[X^2 | Y] - E[X | Y]^2] \\ &= E[E[X^2 | Y]] - E[E[X | Y]^2] \end{aligned}$$

Using the law of total expectation,

$$= E[X^2] - E[E[X | Y]^2]$$

Re-arranging,

$$\begin{aligned} E[X^2] &= E[\text{Var}[X | Y]] + E[E[X | Y]^2] \\ &= E[\text{Var}[X | Y] + E[X | Y]^2] \end{aligned}$$

# Let's See Where This Goes

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition  
Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

Obviously,

$$E[X]^2 = E[E[X | Y]]^2$$

So we have an alternative form for  $E[X^2]$  and  $E[X]^2$  in terms of conditionals. What if we put them together?

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[X] &= E[X^2] - E[X]^2 \\ &= E[\text{Var}[X | Y] + E[X | Y]^2] - E[E[X | Y]]^2 \\ &= E[\text{Var}[X | Y]] + (E[E[X | Y]^2] - E[E[X | Y]]^2)\end{aligned}$$

But  $E[X | Y]$  is a normal random variable, so

$$\text{Var}[X] = E[\text{Var}[X | Y]] + \text{Var}[E[X | Y]]$$

This is the law of total variance!

# Law of Total Variance

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

**Total Laws**

Otsu's

Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

## Theorem

$$\text{Var}[X] = \underbrace{\text{E}[\text{Var}[X | Y]]}_{\text{intra-class variance}} + \underbrace{\text{Var}[\text{E}[X | Y]]}_{\text{inter-class variance}}$$

## Discussion

$\text{E}[\text{Var}[X | Y]]$  measures *intra*-class variance because it's the expected variance of each group (the lower the variance of each group, the lower the expected value). Likewise,  $\text{Var}[\text{E}[X | Y]]$  measures *inter*-class variance. The more different the groups are from each other (measured by the difference between their means), the larger the variance.

# Back to $k$ -means

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

$k$ -means

**Total Laws**

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- Recall that we got  $k$ -means's cost function into the form  $E[\text{Var}[X | S]]$ . Let's see what that means.

# Back to $k$ -means

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

$k$ -means

**Total Laws**

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- Recall that we got  $k$ -means's cost function into the form  $E[\text{Var}[X | S]]$ . Let's see what that means.
- Define  $S$  to be a random variable (a function from outcomes to real numbers) that assigns integer values to each point  $\mathbf{x} \in X$ , such that two points have the same  $S(\mathbf{x})$  if and only if they're in the same partition.

# Back to $k$ -means

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

$k$ -means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- Recall that we got  $k$ -means's cost function into the form  $E[\text{Var}[X | S]]$ . Let's see what that means.
- Define  $S$  to be a random variable (a function from outcomes to real numbers) that assigns integer values to each point  $\mathbf{x} \in X$ , such that two points have the same  $S(\mathbf{x})$  if and only if they're in the same partition.
- It may not seem morally correct to have  $S$  be a random variable when it has no "randomness" whatsoever. Well, we converted all the sums to expectation and variance already, so we can just fit it into the tools we have.

# $k$ -means Analysis

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

$k$ -means

Total Laws

Otsu's

Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

$$E[\text{Var}[X | S]] = \sum_i P(S = i) \text{Var}[X | S = i]$$

where  $i$  is the values  $S$  can take on

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_i \frac{|S_i|}{|X|} \sum_{\mathbf{x}|S(\mathbf{x})=i} P(\mathbf{x}) \|\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i\|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{|X|} \sum_i |S_i| \sum_{\mathbf{x}|S(\mathbf{x})=i} \frac{1}{|S_i|} \|\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i\|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{|X|} \sum_i \sum_{\mathbf{x}|S(\mathbf{x})=i} \|\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

which is just the cost function of  $k$ -means, as expected

# $k$ -means interpretation

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

$k$ -means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- $k$ -mean's cost function is  $E[\text{Var}[X | S]]$ , or the inter-class variance (we want to make the points inside each group as close to each other as possible).
- But we know from the law of total variance that  $\text{Var}[X] = E[\text{Var}[X | S]] + \text{Var}[E[X | S]]$ .



# $k$ -means interpretation

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

$k$ -means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- $k$ -mean's cost function is  $E[\text{Var}[X | S]]$ , or the inter-class variance (we want to make the points inside each group as close to each other as possible).
- But we know from the law of total variance that  $\text{Var}[X] = E[\text{Var}[X | S]] + \text{Var}[E[X | S]]$ .
- So *minimizing inter-class* variance is equivalent to *maximizing intra-class* variance. Making each group as similar as possible must make the groups different from each other.
- There's only so much variance to go around!

# Table of Contents

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

$k$ -means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- 1 Probability Theory
  - Definition
  - Expectation and Variance
- 2  $k$ -means
  - Total Laws
- 3 Otsu's Binarization
  - Introduction
  - Inter-class Variance
  - Intra-class Variance
  - Conclusion
- 4 References

# Binarization

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- Suppose we have an image
- We can greyscale by averaging the channels
- Then **binarize** the image (make each pixel on or off)
- This is implicitly done in edge detection

Binary image



Figure: An image binarized with Otsu's binarization.

# Cost Function

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

**Introduction**

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- How should we measure the effectiveness?

# Cost Function

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

**Introduction**

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- How should we measure the effectiveness?
- Well, we're splitting the pixels into two groups. Minimize the variance of each group, weighted by the size of the group (to minimize the expected variance).

# Cost Function

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's

Binarization

**Introduction**

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- How should we measure the effectiveness?
- Well, we're splitting the pixels into two groups. Minimize the variance of each group, weighted by the size of the group (to minimize the expected variance).
- This is identical to *k*-means with  $k = 2$ .

# Cost Function

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's

Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- How should we measure the effectiveness?
- Well, we're splitting the pixels into two groups. Minimize the variance of each group, weighted by the size of the group (to minimize the expected variance).
- This is identical to *k*-means with  $k = 2$ .
- However, the standard *k*-means algorithm is suboptimal and may take longer than we want. Can we do optimal *k*-means efficiently if we know the data is one-dimensional and  $k = 2$ ?

# Otsu's Binarization, Justification

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

**Introduction**

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- There are efficient algorithms for 1D *k*-means, see *Fast Exact k-Means, k-Medians and Bregman Divergence Clustering in 1D*.



# Otsu's Binarization, Justification

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

**Introduction**

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- There are efficient algorithms for 1D *k*-means, see *Fast Exact k-Means, k-Medians and Bregman Divergence Clustering in 1D*.
- However, these algorithms are pretty complicated.

# Otsu's Binarization, Justification

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

**Introduction**

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- There are efficient algorithms for 1D *k*-means, see *Fast Exact k-Means, k-Medians and Bregman Divergence Clustering in 1D*.
- However, these algorithms are pretty complicated.
- Can we make use of  $k = 2$ ?

# Otsu's Binarization, Justification

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- There are efficient algorithms for 1D *k*-means, see *Fast Exact k-Means, k-Medians and Bregman Divergence Clustering in 1D*.
- However, these algorithms are pretty complicated.
- Can we make use of  $k = 2$ ?
- The key observation is that if we place two centers, there's only one point equidistant to those centers, at their midpoint. Anything to the left of the midpoint is assigned to one center and anything to the right the other.

# Otsu's Binarization, Justification

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- There are efficient algorithms for 1D *k*-means, see *Fast Exact k-Means, k-Medians and Bregman Divergence Clustering in 1D*.
- However, these algorithms are pretty complicated.
- Can we make use of  $k = 2$ ?
- The key observation is that if we place two centers, there's only one point equidistant to those centers, at their midpoint. Anything to the left of the midpoint is assigned to one center and anything to the right the other.
- In 1D and with  $k = 2$ , we have exactly one *threshold* value. How many possible thresholds are there?

# Otsu's Binarization, Summary

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

**Introduction**

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- Iterate over the 256 possible thresholds
- Maintain statistics counters
- Compute the expected variance after each split
- Pick the threshold with the smallest intra-class variance

# Table of Contents

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

**Inter-class  
Variance**

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- 1 Probability Theory
  - Definition
  - Expectation and Variance
- 2 *k*-means
  - Total Laws
- 3 Otsu's Binarization
  - Introduction
  - **Inter-class Variance**
  - Intra-class Variance
  - Conclusion
- 4 References

# Inter-class Variance

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's

Binarization

Introduction

**Inter-class  
Variance**

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

Standard approach: minimizing intra-class variance is maximizing inter-class variance.

By definition of variance,

$$\text{Var}[E[X | Y]] = E[(E[X | Y] - E[E[X | Y]])^2]$$

Using the law of total expectation,

$$= E[(E[X | Y] - E[X])^2]$$

$$= \sum_i P(Y = i)(E[X | Y = i] - E[X])^2$$

To make the notation more concise, let the inter-class variance be  $\sigma_B^2$ ,  $P(Y = i)$  be  $\omega_i$ , and  $E[X | Y = i]$  be  $\mu_i$ :

$$\sigma_B^2 = \omega_0(\mu_0 - \mu)^2 + \omega_1(\mu_1 - \mu)^2$$

## Inter-class Variance, Continued

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition  
Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

**Inter-class  
Variance**

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_B^2 &= \omega_0(\mu_0 - \mu)^2 + \omega_1(\mu_1 - \mu)^2 \\ &= \omega_0[\mu_0^2 - 2\mu_0\mu + \mu^2] + \omega_1[\mu_1^2 - 2\mu_1\mu + \mu^2] \\ &= \omega_0\mu_0^2 + \omega_1\mu_1^2 - 2\mu(\omega_0\mu_0 + \omega_1\mu_1) + \mu^2(\omega_0 + \omega_1)\end{aligned}$$

We know  $\omega_0 + \omega_1 = 1$  because they're probabilities and  $\omega_0\mu_0 + \omega_1\mu_1 = E[E[X | Y]] = E[X] = \mu$  so

$$\begin{aligned}&= \omega_0\mu_0^2 + \omega_1\mu_1^2 - \mu^2 \\ &= \omega_0\mu_0^2 + \omega_1\mu_1^2 - (\omega_0\mu_0 + \omega_1\mu_1)^2 \\ &= (\omega_0 - \omega_0^2)\mu_0^2 - 2\omega_0\omega_1\mu_0\mu_1 + (\omega_1 - \omega_1^2)\mu_1^2 \\ &= \omega_0(1 - \omega_0)\mu_0^2 - 2\omega_0\omega_1\mu_0\mu_1 + \omega_1(1 - \omega_1)\mu_1^2\end{aligned}$$

We know  $1 - \omega_0 = \omega_1$  and likewise for  $1 - \omega_1$ ,

$$= \omega_0\omega_1\mu_0^2 - 2\omega_0\omega_1\mu_0\mu_1 + \omega_0\omega_1\mu_1^2 = \boxed{\omega_0\omega_1(\mu_0 - \mu_1)^2}$$



# Algorithm Overview

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

**Inter-class  
Variance**

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- 1 Precompute the number of pixels of each intensity
- 2 Iterate over possible thresholds, maintaining counters
- 3 Compute threshold which maximizes inter-class variance
- 4 Binarize image with optimal threshold

# Image distribution

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition  
Expectation and  
Variance

k-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

**Inter-class  
Variance**

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

---

```
_____ frequency counts of each pixel _____  
def histogram(img: np.array) -> np.array:  
    """ Computes the distribution of the image. """  
    p = np.zeros(256, dtype=np.int)  
    for x in img.flatten():  
        p[x] += 1  
    return p
```

---

# Algorithm Details

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition  
Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

**Inter-class  
Variance**

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- We need to keep track of  $\omega_0$  and  $\mu_0$
- Can compute  $\omega_1$  and  $\mu_1$  by subtraction
- Easier if they are not fractions but integer counts, i.e.  
 $W_0 = |S_0| = |X|\omega_0$  and  
 $A_0 = \sum_{x|S(x)=0} x = |S_0|\mu_0$
- We know we're scanning in terms of increasing threshold  $t$
- So the only change is going to be pixels with intensity  $t$
- Then the update is just  $W_0 + p[t]$  and  $A_0 + t p[t]$
- $\omega_0 = \frac{W_0}{|X|}$  and  $\mu_0 = \frac{A_0}{W_0}$

---

## Algorithm Otsu's binarization with inter-class variance

---

```
def otsu(img: np.array) -> np.array:
    """ Applies Otsu's binarization to the image. """
    h, n = histogram(img)
    X0, X1, p = 0, img.sum(), 0
    threshold, best = -1, 0
    for t in range(256):
        u1, u0 = t*h[t], h[t]
        X0, X1, p = X0 + u1, X1 - u1, p + u0
        if p > 0 and n - p > 0:
            # divide by n^2 to get the true variance
            var = p*(n - p)*(X0/p - X1/(n - p))**2
            if var > best:
                threshold, best = t, var
    return __threshold(img, threshold)
```

---

# Binarization

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

**Inter-class  
Variance**

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

Otsu's binarization computes the optimal threshold.  
We want a binary image.

---

```
thresholding
def __threshold(img: np.array, t: int) -> np.array:
    """ Binarizes an image given a threshold. """
    return 255*(img > t)
```

---

Whether it's  $>$  or  $\geq$  is arbitrary, just needs to be consistent.

# Table of Contents

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

**Intra-class  
Variance**

Conclusion

References

- 1 Probability Theory
  - Definition
  - Expectation and Variance
- 2 *k*-means
  - Total Laws
- 3 Otsu's Binarization
  - Introduction
  - Inter-class Variance
  - **Intra-class Variance**
  - Conclusion
- 4 References

# Intra-class Variance

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition  
Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

**Intra-class  
Variance**

Conclusion

References

- We just spent a lot of time deriving inter-class variance.
- We needed to use the law of total variance to show that it's the same as minimizing intra-class variance.
- Why not just directly attack intra-class variance?

By the definition of expectation,

$$E[\text{Var}[X | Y]] = \sum_i P(Y = i) \text{Var}[X | Y = i]$$

As usual, let the intra-class variance be  $\sigma_W^2$ ,  $P(Y = i)$  be  $\omega_i$ , and  $\text{Var}[X | Y = i]$  be  $\sigma_i^2$ :

$$\sigma_W^2 = \omega_0 \sigma_0^2 + \omega_1 \sigma_1^2$$

# Intra-class Variance, Continued

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

k-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

**Intra-class  
Variance**

Conclusion

References

Now let's re-write the conditional variances using  $\text{Var}[X | Y] = E[X^2 | Y] - E[X | Y]^2$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_W^2 &= \omega_0 \sigma_0^2 + \omega_1 \sigma_1^2 \\ &= \omega_0 \left[ \frac{\sum_{x|S(x)=0} x^2}{|S_0|} - \left( \frac{\sum_{x|S(x)=0} x}{|S_0|} \right)^2 \right] \\ &\quad + \omega_1 \left[ \frac{\sum_{x|S(x)=1} x^2}{|S_1|} - \left( \frac{\sum_{x|S(x)=1} x}{|S_1|} \right)^2 \right]\end{aligned}$$

To make the notation more concise,

let  $W_i = |S_i|$  and  $\sum x_i^k = \sum_{x|S(x)=i} x^k$ :

$$= \frac{W_0}{|X|} \left[ \frac{\sum x_0^2}{W_0} - \left( \frac{\sum x_0}{W_0} \right)^2 \right] + \frac{W_1}{|X|} \left[ \frac{\sum x_1^2}{W_1} - \left( \frac{\sum x_1}{W_1} \right)^2 \right]$$



## Intra-class Variance, Continued

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

k-means

Total Laws

Otsu's

Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

**Intra-class  
Variance**

Conclusion

References

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_W^2 &= \frac{W_0}{|X|} \left[ \frac{\sum x_0^2}{W_0} - \left( \frac{\sum x_0}{W_0} \right)^2 \right] + \frac{W_1}{|X|} \left[ \frac{\sum x_1^2}{W_1} - \left( \frac{\sum x_1}{W_1} \right)^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{|X|} \left( \left[ \sum x_0^2 - \frac{(\sum x_0)^2}{W_0} \right] + \left[ \sum x_1^2 - \frac{(\sum x_1)^2}{W_1} \right] \right)\end{aligned}$$

Multiplying by  $|X|$  and re-arranging,

$$= \left[ \sum x_0^2 + \sum x_1^2 \right] - \left[ \frac{(\sum x_0)^2}{W_0} + \frac{(\sum x_1)^2}{W_1} \right]$$

The first term is just the sum of squares for each  $x \in X$ , which is a constant, and we can negate the second term, swapping the objective. Finally, putting in terms of the counter variables:

$$= \frac{(\sum x_0)^2}{W_0} + \frac{(\sum x_1)^2}{W_1} = \boxed{\frac{A_0^2}{W_0} + \frac{A_1^2}{|X| - W_0}}$$

---

## Algorithm Otsu's binarization with intra-class variance

---

```
def otsu(img: np.array) -> np.array:
    """ Applies Otsu's binarization to the image. """
    h, n = histogram(img)
    X0, X1, p = 0, img.sum(), 0
    threshold, best = -1, X1*X1/n
    for t in range(256):
        u1, u0 = t*h[t], h[t]
        X0, X1, p = X0 + u1, X1 - u1, p + u0
        if p > 0 and n - p > 0:
            # for true intra-class variance
            # divide by -n then add  $E[X^2]$ 
            var = X0*X0/p + X1*X1/(n - p)
            if var > best:
                threshold, best = t, var
    return __threshold(img, threshold)
```

---

# Commentary

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

**Intra-class  
Variance**

Conclusion

References

- Both approaches are  $O(n)$  (assuming fixed 8-bit color)
- Both approaches generate identical thresholds (and images)
- However, intra-class variance is simpler and easier to derive
- It's also easier to convert to pure integer arithmetic, by storing fractions as numerator/denominator

# Table of Contents

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

$k$ -means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

**Conclusion**

References

- 1 Probability Theory
  - Definition
  - Expectation and Variance
- 2  $k$ -means
  - Total Laws
- 3 Otsu's Binarization
  - Introduction
  - Inter-class Variance
  - Intra-class Variance
  - **Conclusion**
- 4 References

# Example

Otsu's binarization ran on an image

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References



(a) The original image.



(b) After Otsu's binarization.

Figure: Before and after Otsu's binarization.

# Histogram and Inter-class Variance over Thresholds

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

**Conclusion**

References

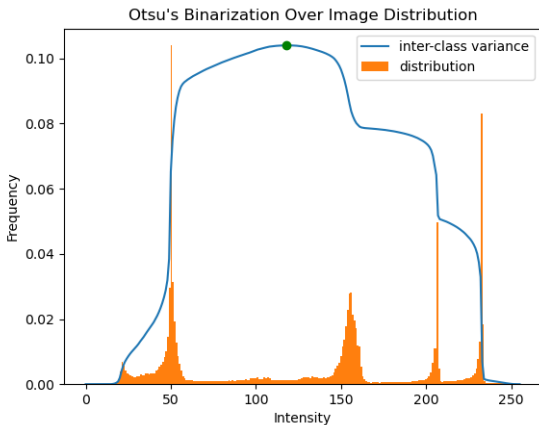


Figure: Inter-class variance over increasing threshold value.

# Last Comments

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

References

- The image might have noise. Reduce noise with a Gaussian kernel, averaging, or other techniques.
- We've been using 8 bits per color channel for a pretty long time. But there's no reason why images with 16-bit color or even 48-bit color won't catch on. In that case Otsu's takes  $O(N2^b)$  where  $b$  is the number of bits per channel, which will not scale with increasing color depth.
- People may need to quantize their images or apply a sophisticated 1D *k*-means algorithm, optimized for  $k = 2$ .

# References

Huan

Probability  
Theory

Definition

Expectation and  
Variance

*k*-means

Total Laws

Otsu's  
Binarization

Introduction

Inter-class  
Variance

Intra-class  
Variance

Conclusion

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