

From Fourier Series to Analysis of Non-stationary Signals – II

Jan Přikryl, Miroslav Vlcek

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Signals

Common Image Processing Problems

Signals and A to D conversion

Vector Space for Signals and Images

Matlab project

Home work



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Signals

We recognize fundamentally 1-dimensional, 2-dimensional, and multidimensional signals.

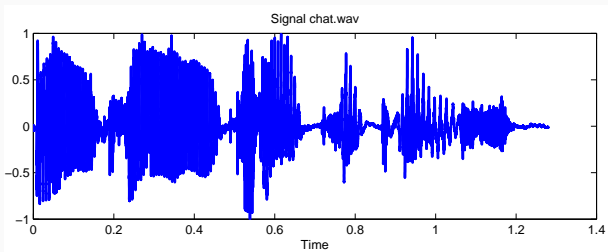
1D

1. a real piano tone A



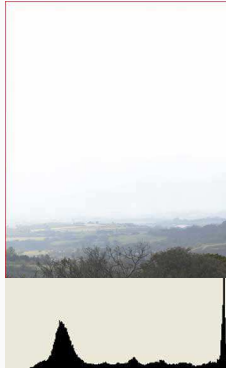
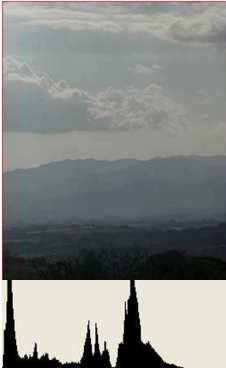
2. a speech







Histogram is a graph showing the number of pixels in an image at each different intensity value.



Common Image Processing Problems



- Image restoration and denoising
- Edge detection and denoising
- Image compression



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Images can be of poor quality for variety reasons:

- low-quality image capture (security video cameras)
- blurring when the picture is taken
- physical damage to an actual photo
- noise contamination during the image capture process

Restoration seeks to return the image to its original quality.

The features of interest in an image are the edges, areas of transition that indicate the end of one object and beginning of another.

Applicable in image processing — see Lena¹, or in automated vision and robotics.



¹Lena Soderberg (*Sjööblom*) 1972

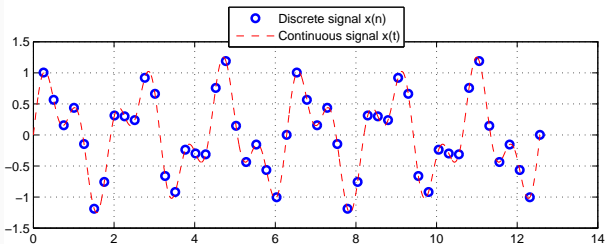
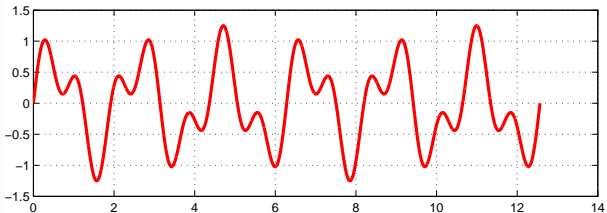
Memory requirement for a typical photograph:

- 24-bit colour \equiv 1 byte for each of the red, green, and blue components
- for 2048×1526 pixel image we need $2048 \times 1526 \times 3 = 9431040$ bytes
- 9 MB a picture, what can be stored in a 2 GB memory stick ?

Compression algorithms !!! and their drawbacks

Signals and A to D conversion

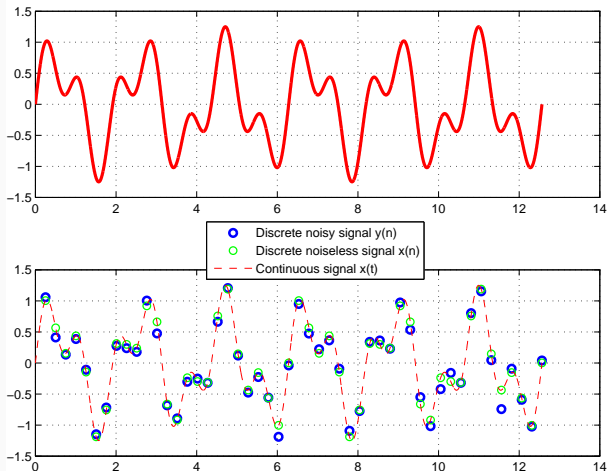
- An **analog** or **continuous** signal $x(t)$ is a real-valued function of an independent variable t in the definition domain $a \leq t \leq b$; variable t is usually time.
- The function $x(t)$ can represent the intensity of a sound (audio signal), the speed of an object, ...
- For $N \geq 1$ we define the **sampling period** $T_s = \frac{b-a}{N}$, the quantity $f_s = \frac{1}{T_s}$ is proportional to number of samples taken during each time period and it is called **sampling frequency**.
- Finally we obtain **digital** or **sampled** signal $x(n) = x(a + n \times T_s)$ for $0 \leq n \leq N$.



- **Sampling** is not the only source of error in **A/D conversion**.
- Consider an analog voltage signal that ranges from 0 to 1 volt.
- An A-to-D converter divides up this 1 volt range into $2^8 = 256$ equally sized intervals.
- the k th interval given by $k\Delta x \leq x < (k + 1)\Delta x$ where $\Delta x = 1/256$ and $0 \leq k \leq 255$.
- If a measurement of the analog signal at an instant in time falls within the k th interval, then the A-to-D converter records the voltage at this time as $k\Delta x$.

- This is the **quantization step**, in which a continuously varying quantity is truncated or rounded to the nearest of a finite set of values \Rightarrow **quantization error**.
- An A-to-D converter as above would be said to be **8-bit**, because each analog measurement is converted into an 8-bit quantity.
- The combination of sampling and quantization allows us to digitize a signal or image, and thereby convert it into a form suitable for computer storage and processing.

Quantization Error $y(n) = x(n) + \epsilon(n)$



Vector Space for Signals and Images

A vector space over the real numbers \mathbb{R} is a set V with two operations, vector addition and scalar multiplication, with the properties that

1. for all vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$ the vector sum $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ is defined and lies in V (closure under addition);
2. for all $\mathbf{u} \in V$ and scalars $a \in \mathbb{R}$ the scalar multiple $a\mathbf{u}$ is defined and lies in V (closure under scalar multiplication);
3. the *familiar* rules of arithmetic apply, specifically, for all scalars a, b and $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$:
 - a) $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$, e.g. addition is commutative,
 - b) $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$ e.g. addition is associative,



- c) there is a *zero vector* $\mathbf{0}$ such that $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{u} \equiv \mathbf{u}$ (additive identity),
- d) for each $\mathbf{u} \in V$ there is an additive inverse vector \mathbf{w} such that $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$, we conventionally write $-\mathbf{u}$ for the additive inverse of \mathbf{u} ,
- e) $(ab)\mathbf{u} = a(b\mathbf{u})$,
- f) $(a + b)\mathbf{u} = a\mathbf{u} + b\mathbf{u}$,
- g) $a(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = a\mathbf{u} + a\mathbf{v}$.

If we replace \mathbb{R} above by the field of complex numbers \mathbb{C} , then we obtain the definition of a vector space over the **complex numbers**.

Example

The vector space \mathbb{R}^N consists of vectors \mathbf{x} of the form $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$ where the x_k are all real numbers. Prove all the properties of the vector space, e.g. multiplication, addition . . .

Warning: In later work we will almost always find it convenient to index the components of vectors in \mathbb{R}^N or \mathbb{C}^N starting with index 0, that is, as $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{N-1})$, rather than the more traditional range 1 to N .



Example

The sets $\mathbb{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$ or $\mathbb{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{C})$, $m \times n$ matrices with real or complex entries respectively, form vector spaces.

Note:

Any multiplicative properties of matrices are irrelevant in this context!!

The vector space $\mathbb{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$ is an appropriate model for the discretization of images on a rectangle. Analysis of images is often facilitated by viewing them as members of space $\mathbb{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{C})$.

notation	vector space description
\mathbb{R}^N	$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N) : x_k \in \mathbb{R}$, finite sampled signals
\mathbb{C}^N	$\mathbf{x} = (z_1, \dots, z_N) : z_k \in \mathbb{C}$, analysis of sampled signals
$L^\infty(\mathbb{N})$ or ℓ^∞	$\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N) : \mathbf{x}_k = (x_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, x_i \in \mathbb{R}, \forall k : \mathbf{x}_k \leq M$ bounded, sampled signals, infinite time
$L^2(\mathbb{N})$ or ℓ^2	$\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N) : \mathbf{x}_k$ dtto, $\sum_k \mathbf{x}_k ^2 < \infty$ sampled signals, finite energy, infinite time
$\mathbb{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$	Real $m \times n$ matrices, sampled rectangular image
$\mathbb{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{C})$	Complex $m \times n$ matrices, analysis of images

Matlab project



1. Start Matlab and open a new m-file.
2. Consider sampling the function

$$f(t) = \sin(2\pi(440)t)$$

on the interval $0 \leq t < 1$, at 8192 points

Hint: Choose sampling interval $\Delta t = 1/8192$ to obtain samples $f(k) = f(k\Delta t) = \sin(2\pi(440)k/8192)$ for $0 \leq k \leq 8191$. The samples can be arranged in a vector \mathbf{f} ; you can do this in Matlab with

```
f = sin(2*pi * 440 * (0:8191)/8192);
```



Note: The sample vector \mathbf{f} is stored in double precision floating point, about 15 significant digits. However, we'll consider \mathbf{f} as not yet quantized. That is, the individual components $f(k)$ of \mathbf{f} can be thought of as real numbers that vary continuously, since 15 digits is pretty close to continuous for our purposes.

Questions and tasks:

- What is the frequency in Hertz of the harmonic function $f(t)$?
- Plot the sampled signal with the command `plot(f)`. It probably doesn't look too good, as it goes up and down 440 times in the plot range. Plot a smaller range, say the first 100 samples.
- At the sampling rate 8192 Hz, what is the Nyquist frequency? Is the frequency of $f(t)$ above or below the Nyquist frequency?
- Type `sound(f)` to play the sound out of the computer speaker.

Note: By default, Matlab plays all sound files at 8192 samples per second, and assumes the sampled audio signal is in the range -1 to 1.

Consider a second signal

$$g(t) = \sin(2\pi(8632)t) = \sin(2\pi(440 + 8192)t).$$

Repeat parts (a) through (d) from previous part with sampled signal

```
g = sin(2*pi * (440+8192) * (0:8191)/8192);
```

The analog signal $g(t)$ oscillates much faster than $f(t)$, and we could expect it to yield a higher pitch. However, when sampled with $f_s = 8192$ Hz, $f(t)$ and $g(t)$ are **aliased** and yield precisely the same sampled vectors **f** and **g**. They should sound the same too.

Questions and tasks:

- a) To illustrate the effect of quantization error, construct a 2-bit (4 quantization levels) version of the audio signal $f(t)$. The command

```
qf2 = ceil(2 * (f+1))-1;
```

applied to f produces the quantized signal $qf2$.

Sample values of $f(t)$ in the ranges $(-1, -0.5]$, $(-0.5, 0]$, $(0, 0.5]$, and $(0.5, 1]$ are mapped to the integers 0, 1, 2, 3, respectively.

- b) To approximately reconstruct the quantized signal, apply the dequantization formula to reconstruct f as $fr2$ using

```
fr2 = -1 + 0.5 * (qf2+0.5);
```

This maps the integers 0, 1, 2 and 3 to values -0.75 , -0.25 , 0.25 , and 0.75 , respectively.

- c) Plot the first hundred values of `fr2` with `plot(fr2(1:100))`.
- d) Play the quantized signal with `sound(fr2)`.
- e) Compute the distortion (as a percentage) between the quantized signal vector \mathbf{f} and the dequantized signal vector \mathbf{f}_r using

$$\epsilon = \frac{\|\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{f}_r\|^2}{\|\mathbf{f}\|^2}$$

The `norm(f)` command in MATLAB computes the standard Euclidean norm of the vector $\|\mathbf{f}\|$.

Home work

- Repeat the quantization process from Project 2 using 4-,5-,6-, and 8-bit quantization.

Example: 5-bit quantization is accomplished with

```
qf5 = ceil(16*(f+1))-1}
```

and dequantization with

```
fr5 = -1 + (qf+0.5)/16
```

Hint for other quantization levels: Note that $16 = 2^{5-1}$.

- Make sure to play the sound in each case.
- Make up a table showing the number of bits in the quantization scheme, the corresponding distortion ϵ , and your subjective rating of the sound quality.
- At what point can your ear no longer distinguish the original audio signal from the quantized version?