TADI: Wavelets Master IMA/DIGIT Sorbonne Université

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Content

Part 1: Fourier Transform, Short Time Fourier Transform Recall: vector space espaces and important properties to know Fourier transform Short time Fourier Transform

Part 2: Wavelets

Part 3: discrete wavelet transform for images, applications

Vector space (1)

Field: (K, +, ·) a set with two operations (internal composition laws, denoted + and ·)
 In general and in this lecture K = R or C) and such as + is commutative (∀λ, μ ∈ K, λ + μ = μ + λ), 0 is the neutral element for + and 1 for ·

- ▶ internal law: $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{K}, x + y \in \mathbb{K}$
- neutral element: $\forall x \in \mathbb{K}, x + 0 = x$

• Vector space: $(E, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space over the field K if:

- K is a field (two internal composition laws also denoted + and · by abuse of language)
- \blacktriangleright + is an internal commutative law on $E: E \times E \rightarrow E$ (vector addition)
- is an external law (left multiplication): $\mathbb{K} \times E \to E$ (also called multiplication by a scalar) such as:
 - is distributive over $+ : \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{K}, \forall v, w \in E, \lambda \cdot (v + w) = \lambda \cdot v + \lambda \cdot w$
 - ► + is distributive over \cdot : $\forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{K}, \forall v \in E, (\lambda + \mu) \cdot v = \lambda \cdot v + \mu \cdot v$
 - ▶ 1 is the left neutral element of \cdot : $\forall v \in E, 1 \cdot v = v$
- An element v of E is a vector, in the remaining E is a vector space

Vector space (2)

• Vector subspace: $F \subset E$ is a vector subspace of E if:

$$\blacktriangleright \quad \forall (\lambda, v, w) \in \mathbb{K} \times F \times F, \lambda \cdot (v + w) = \lambda \cdot v + \lambda \cdot w \in F,$$

- ▶ In other words: *F* is stable for linear combination
- Example of vector spaces:

(
$$\mathbb{R}^n, +, \cdot$$
), ($\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}, +, \cdot$)

- ► The set of continuous functions from R into C is an C vector space (it is of infinite dimension)
- Scalar product: (or dot product, or inner product) the operation, denoted (.,.), such as:

$$\begin{array}{rccc} E \times E & \to & \mathbb{R} \\ (v,w) & \mapsto & \langle v,w \rangle \end{array}$$

- is a scalar product if
 - bilinear (linear on left, linear on right)
 - symmetric: $\langle v, w \rangle = \langle w, v \rangle$
 - positive: $\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$
 - definite: $\langle v, v \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow v = 0$

▶ Norm: the scalar product defines the norm $||v||^2 = \langle v, v \rangle$

Scalar product

- A fundamental operation: it allows two vectors to be compared, projecting one to another one
- Example of scalar product:

• in
$$\mathbb{R}^n$$
: $v = (v_1, \cdots, v_n), w = (w_1, \cdots, w_n)$ and

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{w}_i$$

▶ for the set of complex summable (or integrable) functions on R:

$$\langle f,g\rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t)\bar{g}(t)dt$$

- Euclidean space: a vector space with a scalar product
- Hilbert space: an Euclidean space of infinite dimension (space of functions)

Basis (1)

- A basis in E is a finite or countable (if E is of infinite dimension) set of vectors of E: B = {b₁, · · · , b_n, · · · } satisfying two conditions:
 - Innear independence property (free family): no element of B is a linear combination of others elements of B: λ₁b₁ + · · · + λ_nb_n = 0 ⇒ λ₁ = · · · = λ_n = 0
 - ▶ spanning property (spanning family): $\forall v \in E, \exists \lambda_1, \cdots, \lambda_n, \cdots$ such as $v = \sum_i \lambda_i b_i$

- Orthogonal basis: $\langle b_i, b_j \rangle = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$
- Orthonormal basis: $\langle b_i, b_j \rangle = 0$ $\forall i \neq j \text{ and } \langle b_i, b_i \rangle = 1$ $\forall i$

Basis (2)

Example in the Cartesian plane with the usual scalar product

- ▶ the set reduced to the canonical vector $\vec{i} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$: linearly independent set
- $\{\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{i} + \vec{j}\}$: spanning set
- $\{2\vec{i},\vec{i}+\vec{j}\}$: basis
- $\{2\vec{i},\vec{j}\}$: orthogonal basis
- $\{\vec{i}, \vec{j}\}$: orthonormal basis (canonical basis)
- $\left(\frac{\vec{i}+\vec{j}}{\sqrt{2}},\frac{\vec{i}-\vec{j}}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$: orthonormal basis

Consequences (without formal proof)

- with a basis or a spanning set, one can represent any vector as $v = \sum_{i} \lambda_{i} b_{i}$
- ▶ a linearly independent set can not represent all the vectors: for example, impossible to represent \vec{j} as a linear combination of \vec{i} (they are orthogonal)

Basis (3)

- Other consequences
 - Redundancy: a spanning set which is not a basis is a redundant set: there are too many vectors (at least one)
 - Redundancy: the representation of a vector is no more unique. For example with the spanning set $\{\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{i} + \vec{j}\}$ and the vector $2 \cdot \vec{i} + \vec{j}$, one can exhibit two different linear combinations:

$$2 \cdot \vec{i} + \vec{j} = 2 \cdot \vec{i} + 1 \cdot \vec{j} + 0 \cdot (\vec{i} + \vec{j})$$
$$= 1 \cdot \vec{i} + 0 \cdot \vec{j} + 1 \cdot (\vec{i} + \vec{j})$$

Non orthogonal basis: the representation is unique but the determination of coefficients \u03c6_i is not easy. In general:

$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i} \lambda_{i} \mathbf{b}_{i} \neq \sum_{i} \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{b}_{i} \rangle \mathbf{b}_{i}$$

• Orthogonal basis: we have $\langle b_i, b_j \rangle = 0, i \neq j$ and

$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i} \left\langle \mathbf{v}, \frac{\mathbf{b}_{i}}{\|\mathbf{b}_{i}\|} \right\rangle \frac{\mathbf{b}_{i}}{\|\mathbf{b}_{i}\|}$$

determination of λ_i are direct with the scalar product.
▶ Use of an orthonormal basis simplifies calculus

Conclusion

- Goals of theses recalls? Find suitable spaces of representation. Then find adapted basis.
- A well known example: Fourier Series! The T periodic functions may write as:

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n \cos\left(\frac{2\pi nt}{T}\right) + b_n \sin\left(\frac{2\pi nt}{T}\right) \\ a_n &= \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T x(t) \cos\left(\frac{2\pi nt}{T}\right) dt \quad b_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T x(t) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi nt}{T}\right) dt \end{aligned}$$

Alternative writing:

$$c_{k}(t) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} c_{k} e^{\frac{2i\pi kt}{T}}$$
(1)
$$c_{k} = \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} x(t) e^{\frac{-2i\pi kt}{T}} dt$$
(2)

Here, we recognize the scalar product of a functional space: $c_k = \left\langle x, e^{\frac{2i\pi kt}{T}} \right\rangle$ and an orthonormal basis: $\{\phi_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ with $\phi_k(t) = e^{\frac{2i\pi kt}{T}}$

Content

Part 1: Fourier Transform, Short Time Fourier Transform

Recall: vector space espaces and important properties to know Fourier transform Short time Fourier Transform

Part 2: Wavelets

Part 3: discrete wavelet transform for images, applications

Fourier Series (1)

- Representation of the periodic functions
- Coefficient c_k are called Fourier coefficients
- The periodic function f is represented by the countable sequence (c_k)_{k∈ℤ}
- ► Graphical interpretation:

Given the following periodic signal:



We have 8 non null Fourier coefficients: $c_{k_i} = c_{-k_i}, i = 1, \cdots, 4$ describing the 4 modes (pure frequencies) of this signal



Fourier Series (2)

Remark:

- x even function $\Rightarrow c_k = c_{-k}$
- x odd function $\Rightarrow c_k = -c_{-k}$

On the previous example: linear combination of 4 cosine functions with various frequencies \Rightarrow even function.

Exercises:

- ▶ show that the set $\{e^{\frac{2i\pi kt}{T}}\}_{k\in\mathbb{Z}}$ is an orthonormal basis
- determine the Fourier coefficients of the function $t \mapsto \cos(2\pi \frac{t}{T})$
- ▶ determine the Fourier coefficients of the Sawtooth wave (use a integration by parts to determine the integral of t → te^{-2iπ kt}/t)

See also: BIMA lecture on Fourier Transform

Fourier Transform (1) Definition

- Applied on non-periodic function, the Fourier Series formulae does not work: T = +∞ and e^{2iπkt}/_T = 1, not a basis
- Extension to non-periodic functions: the Fourier Transform defined by

$$X(f) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t) e^{-2i\pi f t} dt, f \in \mathbb{R}$$

- x must be an integrable function¹. X is a continuous function on C and is an element of a vector space:
 - with the scalar product $\langle f,g\rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t)\overline{g}(t)dt$
 - ▶ with the orthonormal basis: $\{t \mapsto e^{2i\pi ft}\}_{f \in \mathbb{R}}$, an element of the basis is the function $t \mapsto e^{2i\pi ft}$ indexed by the real parameter f

¹f belongs to $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ space

Fourier Transform (2)

Graphical interpretation

Same interpretation as the Fourier Series but on a continuous range of frequency

Given the following signal



8 non null values for the Fourier transform: $X(f_i) = X(-f_i), i =$ $1, \dots, 4$ describing the 4 modes of this signal



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Fourier Transform (3)

Interpretation, reconstruction

Interpretation:

- ▶ magnitude: $|X(f)| = \sqrt{X(f)\overline{X}(f)}$, or spectral amplitude, gives the quantity of "pure" frequency f available in the signal x
- ▶ phase: $\phi(f) = \arctan\left(\frac{\Re(X(j))}{\Im(X(f))}\right)$, gives the shift with the basis function $e^{2i\pi ft}$
- fundamental or null frequency, f = 0, is the integral of the signal:

$$X(0)=\int_{\mathbb{R}}x(t)dt$$

• As with Fourier Series, reconstruction is possible:

$$x(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} X(f) e^{2i\pi ft} dt$$

FS versus FT

Fourier Series	Fourier Transform
x T-periodic functions	x integrable function
$c_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T x(t) e^{-2i\pi \frac{k}{T}t} dt$	$X(f) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t) e^{-2i\pi ft} dt$
$k\in\mathbb{Z}, c_k\in\mathbb{C}$	$X: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$
$x(t) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} c_k e^{2i\pi \frac{k}{T}t}$	$x(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} X(f) e^{2i\pi ft} df$

To summary:

- Fourier Series: periodic functions, countable orthonormal basis $\left(e^{2i\pi \frac{k}{T}t}\right)_{k\in\mathbb{Z}}$
- Fourier Transform: integrable functions, uncountable orthornormal basis $(e^{2i\pi ft})_{f \in \mathbb{R}}$

2-D Fourier Transform (1)

- An image is a non stationary function with a compact support, then is a non periodic function, Fourier Series are not suitable
- The 2-D Fourier Transform (for images) is built by separability:

$$X(f,g) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t,u) e^{-2i\pi(ft+gu)} dt du$$
(3)

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left\{ \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t, u) e^{-2i\pi f t} dt \right\} e^{-2i\pi g u} du \qquad (4)$$

▶ $X : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{C}$, (f, g) is a couple of vertical and horizontal frequencies

• module of X (amplitude spectrum): $\sqrt{X\overline{X}}$, gives the amount of the element basis contained in signal x

• basis: complex sinusoid $((f,g) \mapsto e^{2\pi(ft+gu)})$

- phase of X: gives the phase change between signal x and the element basis
- Signal x can be reconstructed from its spectrum X with the inverse Fourier transform:

$$x(t, u) = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} X(t, u) e^{2i\pi (ft + gu)} df dg$$

2-D Fourier Transform (2)

Inverse Fourier transform: any image is a linear combinaision of basis images

► an element of the basis, $(t, u) \mapsto \phi_{f,g}(t, u) = e^{2i\pi(ft+gu)}$, is an image!



2-D Fourier Transform (3)

Exemple sur des images

module of spectrum: localize low and high frequencies, determine predominant orientations



Fourier transform: some mathematical tools (1) Property (1-D or 2-D)

linearity:
$$TF(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha X + \beta Y$$

scaling:

$$y(t) = x(\alpha t)$$

$$Y(f) = \frac{1}{\alpha} X\left(\frac{f}{\alpha}\right)$$

shift:

$$y(t) = x(t-t_0)$$

 $Y(f) = e^{-2i\pi f t_0} X(f)$
 $Y(f)| = |X(f)|$

rotation (for 2-D FT):

$$y(t, u) = x(t\cos\theta + u\sin\theta, -t\sin\theta + u\cos\theta)$$

$$Y(f,g) = X(f\cos\theta + g\sin\theta, -f\sin\theta + g\cos\theta)$$

Fourier transform: some mathematical tools (2) Fourier transform of some usual 1-D functions

Rectangle function: Rect(t) =

$$\begin{cases}
1 & \text{si} \quad |t| \le \frac{1}{2} \\
0 & \text{sinon}
\end{cases}$$

TF[t \mapsto Rect(\frac{t}{a})](f) = \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} e^{-2i\pi ft} dt = a \frac{\sin(\pi af)}{\pi af} = a \sin(\pi af)



Gaussian function:

• $TF(t \mapsto e^{-b^2t^2})(f) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{|b|}e^{-\frac{\pi^2f^2}{b^2}}$, also a Gaussian function!

standard deviation in the frequency domain is inversely proportional to standard deviation in the time domain

Fourier transform: some mathematical tools (3)

Fourier transform of some usual 1-D functions

• Dirac delta function: δ . A generalized function (or distribution), formally defined by:

$$\delta(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \neq 0$$

•
$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta(x) dx = 1$$

► Can be seen as the limit of normal function: $\delta(t) = \lim_{a \to 0} \frac{1}{a} \operatorname{Rect} \left(\frac{t}{a}\right)$



Properties, for all function x

$$\blacktriangleright x(t)\delta(t-t_0) = x(t_0)\delta(t-t_0)$$

► $x \star \delta(t - t_0) = x(t - t_0)$, and then $x \star \delta(t) = x(t)$: δ neutral element of convolution

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Fourier transform:

►
$$FT(t \mapsto \delta(t - t_0))(f) = e^{-2i\pi ft_0}$$

► $FT(t \mapsto e^{2i\pi f_0 t})(f) = \delta(f - f_0)$

Fourier transform: some mathematical tools (4) Fourier transform of some usual 1-D functions



► Sine function: $FT[t \mapsto \sin(2\pi f_0 t)] = \frac{i}{2} (\delta(f - f_0) - \delta(f + f_0))$

Fourier transform: some mathematical tools (5) Convolution theorem

Recall, convolution:

$$z(t) = x \star y(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t-t')y(t')dt'$$

Any linear filtering time invariant can be expressed by a convolution
 Convolution theorem:

• if
$$z = x \star y$$
 then $Z = X \times Y$

• if
$$z = x \times y$$
 then $Z = X \star Y$

- Important tool for calculation of Fourier transform! (see the next slide as an example)
- In 2-D (image), the convolution theorem still holds:

$$z(t, u) = x \star y(t, u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t - t', u - u')y(t', u')dt'du'$$

 Consequence: filtering in the frequency domain is strictly equivalent to convolution in time (space) domain

Digitization and discrete Fourier transform (1)

- Practically: we analyze discrete signals and not real functions. A discrete tool is needed: the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)
- Formalization:
 - 1. the signal to analyze is windowed to obtain a bounded support function:

Example with a basic signal (cosine, pure frequency)



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Digitization and discrete Fourier transform (2)

- Practically: we analyze discrete signals and not real functions. A discrete tool is needed: the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)
- Formalization:
 - 1. the signal to analyze is windowed: $x(t) \Rightarrow x_L(t) = x(t) \operatorname{Rect}(t/L)$
 - 2. the windowed signal is sampled: a measure of this signal is done each T_s time step ($f_s = \frac{1}{T_c}$ is the sampling frequency):
 - ► $x_s(t) = x_L(t) \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \delta(t kT_s) (\sum_k \delta(t kT_s))$: Dirac comb or train

impulse)

- Due to the windowing and the sampling frequency, we have $N = L/T_s$ measures
- Fourier transform: $X_s(f) = X_L \star \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \delta(f k/T_s)$ (the Fourier transform of Dirac comb is a Dirac comb). Hence: $X_s(f) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} X_L(f - k/T_s)$

 \Rightarrow Sampling implies a periodic spectrum (of period $f_s = 1/T_s)!$

Digitization and discrete Fourier transform (3) Sempling: Shannon theorem



Figure: Sampling implies a periodic spectrum

Let X be a bounded frequency support and let f_m be the maximal frequency of X:

Theorem (Shannon) If $f_s \ge 2f_m \Leftrightarrow T_s \le \frac{1}{2}T_m$, then the signal can be reconstructed without loss

Digitization and discrete Fourier transform (4)

Échantillonnage: théorème de Shannon

• Spectrum overlapping if $f_m > f_s/2$ and limit case:



Recontruction: X_L is truncated with a Rectangle function, then an inverse Fourier Transform is applied: Shannon interpolation formula



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Digitization and discrete Fourier transform (5)

- Practically: we analyze discrete signals and not real functions. A discrete tool is needed: the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)
- Formalization:
 - 1. the signal to analyze is windowed:

$$x_L(t) = x(t) \operatorname{Rect}(t/L)$$

FT:
$$X_L(f) = L X \star \operatorname{sinc}(\pi L f)$$

2. the windowed signal is sampled:

$$x_s(t) = x_L(t) \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \delta(t - kT_s)$$

FT: $X_s(f) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} X_L(f - k/T_s)$

3. X_s is sampled at frequencies $f = \frac{k}{Nf_s}, k = 0 \cdots N - 1$:

► DFT(x)(k) = X_s
$$\left(\frac{k}{Nf_s}\right)$$
, $k = 0 \cdots N - 1$
► DFT(x)(k) = $\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x_s(n) e^{-2i\pi \frac{kn}{N}}$, $k = -\frac{N}{2} \cdots \frac{N}{2} - 1$

Practically: we denote x(k) = x(kT_s) as the k-th sample of signal x, and the Discrete Fourier transform is defined as:

$$\mathsf{DFT}(x)(k) = X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-2i\pi \frac{kn}{N}}, k = -\frac{N}{2} \cdots \frac{N}{2} - 1 \quad (5)$$

Discrete Fourier transform

Properties, and 2-D DFT

DFT 2-D:

$$X(k, l) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} x(n, m) e^{-2i\pi \left(\frac{kn}{N} + \frac{lm}{M}\right)}$$

The DFT has the same properties than the continuous Fourier transform:

linearity, translation and rotation of the signal/image

 Practically, DFT is used for filtering discrete signal/image in the frequency domain

Inverse 2-D DFT:

$$x(n,m) = \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} X(k,l) e^{2i\pi \left(\frac{kn}{N} + \frac{lm}{M}\right)}$$

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2-D discrete Fourier transform

Filtering in frequency domain vs time domain

Filtering in the time domain:

$$y(n,m) = x \star h(n,m)$$



Filtering in the frequency domain: $v(n,m) = TFD^{-1}[X(u,v) \times H(u,v)]$



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Filtering in the frequency domain

Several types of filters:

- Iow-pass: low frequencies are kept, high frequencies are attenuated
- high-pass: low frequencies are attenuated, high frequencies are attenuated
- band-pass: a range of frequencies is kept, others frequencies are attenuated: allow an multi-scale analysis (scale=size of structures)

See BIMA course (https://www-master.ufr-info-p6.jussieu. fr/parcours/ima/bima/): lectures 3, 4, 5 and associated tutorial and practical works.

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Recall: vector space espaces and important properties to know Fourier transform Short time Fourier Transform

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FT: limitations, issues (1)

Compression, denoising: impossible to correctly represent edges (non derivable functions): Gibbs ringing artifacts appear after removing highest frequencies



Visible in JPEG compression for example

FT: limitations, issues (2)

- In the Fourier space, structure size and orientation can be measured but it is not possible to localize (translation invariant): a wave has a period (size), an orientation (in 2-D), a phase, but not a localization.
- Two ways to represent a signal:
 - representation in time (or spatial if image) domain:

$$x(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(u) \delta(t-u) du$$

=> this basis localizes in time, but not in frequency (it can't see the size of structures)

representation in the frequency domain (inverse FT):

$$x(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} X(f) e^{2i\pi ft} df$$

=> this basis localizes in frequency but not in time

FT: limitations, issues (3)

- Representation in time domain: null resolution in frequency, infinite resolution in time
- Representation frequency domain: infinite resolution in frequency, null resolution in time



(a) DIRAC

(b) Fourier

Consider two signals:

- $y(t) = \sin(2\pi f_1 t) + \sin(2\pi f_2 t)$
- ► $z(t) = \sin(2\pi f_1 t)u(t) + \sin(2\pi f_2 t)u(-t)$ with u(t) = 1 if t > 0 and 0 otherwise (Heavyside function)

y and z has the same spectrum!

Need to analyze the signal both in time and in frequency domains!
Short Time Fourier Transform (1)

Principe: perform a Fourier analysis on a window.

- first the signal is windowed, the window being localized in the time domain, second a Fourier Transform is applied
- the STFT has two parameters:
 - a parameter of time localization
 - a parameter of frequency localization



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• Other name: Windowed Fourier Transform

Short Time Fourier Transform (2)

Definition:

$$STFT(x)(f,b) = X(f,b) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t) \bar{w}(t-b) e^{-2i\pi ft} dt$$

with w an *admissible* window, i.e. $\int_{\mathbb{R}} |w(t)|^2 dt = 1$

- Examples for w: Rectangle function, Triangle function, Gaussian function, ...
- The family of functions $\phi_{f,b}(t) = w(t-b)e^{2i\pi ft}$ is spanning but redundant set (two parameters f and b)
 - STFT: $\phi_{f,b}(t) = w(t-b)e^{2i\pi ft}$: localization in frequency f and in time b

FT: $\phi_f(t) = e^{2i\pi ft}$: localization only in frequency

Reconstruction is available if w is an admissible window:

$$X(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} X(t,b) w(t-b) e^{2i\pi ft} df db$$

Exercise: prove the reconstruction formula

Short Time Fourier Transform (3) Example

► Time-varying frequency signal:



$$x(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{4} \cos(2\pi f_k t) \operatorname{Rect}\left(rac{t-t_k}{w}
ight)$$

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Short Time Fourier Transform (4) Exemple

▶ Fourier transform of *x*: no localization in time!



Short Time Fourier Transform (5)

Example: representation time-frequency



1 window: it is the standard Fourier Transform, so no localization in time



2 windows: gain in time resolution

Short Time Fourier Transform (6)

Example: representation time-frequency



4 windows: gain in time resolution



8 windows: loss of frequency localization and then frequency resolution! why?

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Short Time Fourier Transform (6)

Example: representation time-frequency



4 windows: gain in time resolution



8 windows: loss of frequency localization and then frequency resolution! why? as the window becomes smaller, the FT (sinc) is lesser accurate

Short Time Fourier Transform (7)

Example: representation time-frequency



16 windows: loss of frequency resolution!



32 windows: loss of frequency resolution!

Short Time Fourier Transform (8)

Example: representation time-frequency

- Conclusion: there is an optimal configuration to analyze the x signal
 - with less than 4 windows: low time resolution but good frequency resolution
 - more than 4 windows: maximal time resolution, but low frequency resolution résolution fréquentielle moins bonne

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- 4 windows is the optimal in this case
- See Exercise 5 in tutorial works

Short Time Fourier Transform (9)

Limitations, issues

- Window length is a critical parameter:
 - must be the same order of value than the period of the signal to be analyzed
 - but not so large, because the time resolution will be degraded
- Let us formally define the time and frequency resolution of a x signal:

< t >=
$$\frac{1}{E} \int_{\mathbb{R}} t |x(t)|^2 dt$$
, < f >= $\frac{1}{E} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f |X(f)|^2 df$
 with E = $\int_{\mathbb{R}} |x(t)|^2 dt$

 Time resolution (standard deviation, dispersion):

$$\sigma_t = \int_{\mathbb{R}} (t - \langle t \rangle)^2 |x(t)|^2 dt$$

Frequency resolution (standard deviation, dispersion):

$$\sigma_f = \int_{\mathbb{R}} (f - \langle f \rangle)^2 |X(f)|^2 df$$

▶ small standard deviation \Rightarrow high localization \Rightarrow high resolution

Heisenberg uncertainty principle

- A general principle apply to any waves (and more):
 - impossible to localize both in time and in frequency with a infinite precision a signal
 - time and frequency resolution are bounded: $\sigma_t \sigma_f \geq \frac{1}{4\pi}$



Figure: Left: Gaussian signal (red) and its spectrum, right: Cosine signal and its spectrum

The bound is reached with the Gaussian function!

Heisenberg boxes

1. Time and frequency resolution can be represented using the Heisenberg boxes:



- 2. Here: σ_t and σ_f are constant.
- 3. Too large window: impossible to analyze non stationary signals (loss of localization in time)
- 4. Too small window: loss of localization in frequency
- Idea of wavelets: analyze in time and frequency more suitable (i.e. Heisenberg boxes of various size), and design of an orthonormal basis (STFT is not a basis)

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Continuous wavelet transform (CWT): definition

E = L²(ℝ) set of real function squared integrable (a vector space)
 Let x ∈ E be a signal, the continuous wavelet transform is a function (a, b) → g(a, b) defined by:

$$g(a,b) = rac{1}{\sqrt{a}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} x(t) ar{\psi}_{a,b}(t) dt = \langle x, \psi_{a,b}
angle$$

such as $a \neq 0$ and:

$$\psi_{\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}\psi\left(\frac{t-b}{a}\right)$$

where ψ is called mother wavelet

- Functions $\psi_{a,b}$ are translated/dilated version of ψ
- b: position (localization in time), a: scale (analog of the period of Fourier analysis)

Mother wavelet

- ψ must be *admissible*:
 - has a bounded support
 - is of mean null $(\int \psi = 0)$
 - be oscillating $|\psi| \neq \psi$
 - $\psi \in E$ (squared integrable)
 - ▶ $\psi(t) \in \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C}
- Examples:



CWT versus STFT

- Similarity:
 - Both are redundant analysis (projection onto redundant spanning) families)
 - Both localize in time and in frequency domains:

STFT:
$$\phi_{f,b} = w(t-b)e^{2i\pi ft}$$

• CWT:
$$\psi_{a,b}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}\psi\left(\frac{t-b}{a}\right)$$

Difference:

- STFT: has a fixed resolution in time and in frequency (Heiseinberg boxes have the same size)
- CWT: has a variable resolution in time and in frequency

Interpretation for the CWT:

allow a multiscale analyze: the support in the time domain is more or less large (the mother wavelet is dilated at various size)

• Let $\sigma_{t}^{a,b}$ et $\sigma_{t}^{a,b}$ be the respective time and frequency resolution of $\psi_{a,b}$:

$$\sigma_t^{a,b} = a\sigma_t^{1,0}$$

$$\sigma_f^{a,b} = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_f^{1,0}$$

with $\sigma_t^{1,0}$ and $\sigma_f^{1,0}$ the time and frequency resolution of mother wavelet ψ ・
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Heisenberg boxes

▶ Recall: Heinsenberg incertitude principle, $\sigma_t \sigma_f \ge \frac{1}{4\pi}$, boxes have a minimal area



Figure: Heisenberg box of CWT

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CWT: interpretation

Wavelet as a multi-scale analysis tool

Findings:

- 1. low frequencies are less localized in time: a low frequency signal has a long period and is almost stationary
- 2. high frequencies are better localized in time (small period) and non stationary, their localization in time are important for analysis

▶ Wavelets: a frequency is analyzed at a suitable time resolution:

- 1. low frequency (scale *a* is large): low time resolution, high frequency resolution
- 2. high frequency (scale *a* is small): high time resolution, low frequency resolution

There is a compromise between time and frequency resolution (Heisenberg)

Reconstruction

Formally:

$$x(t) = rac{1}{C_\psi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} a^{-2} g(a,b) \psi_{a,b}(t) dadb$$

with

$$C_{\psi} = \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{|\psi(f)|^2}{f} df$$

▶ If $C_{\psi} < \infty$ (admissibility condition), reconstruction is possible

- The family is redundant: practically, reconstruction is costly, but:
 - a countable set of values for (a, b) → g(a, b) is sufficient to reconstruct x,
 - practically, a continuous wavelet transform is not suitable for discrete signal: a discrete formulation of wavelet is requested

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Reducing redundancies: Dyadic wavelets

The continuous wavelet transform is sampled using a dyadic position:

•
$$a = 2^{-j}$$

• $b = k \times 2^{-j}, \quad k = 0, \dots, 2^{j} - 1$

- ▶ $j \in \mathbb{N}$ is the time resolution (or representation scale)
- $\psi_{a,b}(t) = \sqrt{2^j}\psi(2^jt k) = \psi_k^j(t)$ has a support of length 2^{-j} and a position at k
- For j fixed, ψ^j_k(t) functions have disjoint and contiguous supports. Let ψ be a mother wavelet with support on [0, 1]:
 - ▶ j = 0: k = 0. Only one function for this scale, $\psi_0^0(t) = \psi(t)$ ▶ j = 1: k = 0 or 1. Two functions for this scale:
 - position 0: $\psi_0^1(t) = \sqrt{2}\psi(2t)$ with support on $[0, \frac{1}{2}]$
 - position 1: $\psi_1^1(t) = \sqrt{2}\psi(2t-1)$ with support on $[\frac{1}{2},1]$

•
$$j = 2$$
: $k = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$ functions:

. . .

- position 0: $\psi_0^1(t) = \sqrt{2}\psi(4t)$, support on $[0, \frac{1}{4}]$
- position 1: $\psi_1^1(t) = \sqrt{2}\psi(4t-1)$, support on $[\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}]$
- position 2: $\psi_2^1(t) = \sqrt{2}\psi(4t-2)$, support on $[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}]$
- position 3: $\psi_3^1(t) = \sqrt{2}\psi(4t-3)$, support on $[\frac{3}{4}, 1]$

Dyadic wavelets

▶ Redundancy is reduced: $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \Rightarrow (j, k), j \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \le k < 2^j$: countable family

We obtain a discrete sequence of coefficients:

$$g_k^j = \left\langle x, \psi_k^j \right\rangle$$

$$x(t) = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{j} g_k^j \psi_k^j(t)$$

Remark: this transform applies on continuous signal (x is continuous as well the elements of the family, t → ψ^j_k(t)). We do not yet have a discrete transform.

Dyadic wavelets transform versus FT, STFT



- (a) Localization in time domain
- (b) Localization in frequency domain (FT)
- (c) Localization in time and frequency domains (STFT)
- (d) Localization in scale and time domains (dyadic wavelet)

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Motivations

- ▶ Dyadic wavelets: the family is not redundant but the basis is not orthogonal (eg: $\left\langle \psi_k^j, \psi_{2k}^{j+1} \right\rangle \neq 0$)
- Multiresolution analysis: formalism to build wavelet orthornormal basis
- Principle: project the signal into nested vector subspaces



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Definition

- A multiresolution analysis of E = L²(ℝ) is a sequence of subspaces (V^j)_{j∈ℤ} such as:
 - 1. information contained in resolution j is also contained in resolution $j+1: \; \forall j \in \mathbb{Z} \quad V^j \subset V^{j+1}$
 - 2. intersection of all V^j is empty: $\bigcap_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} V^j = \lim_{j \to -\infty} V^j = \emptyset$
 - 3. union of all V^j is $E: \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} V^j = \lim_{j \to +\infty} V^j = E$
 - 4. resolution j derives from resolution j + 1 by a dilation of factor 2: $\forall j \in \mathbb{Z} \quad f \in V^j \Leftrightarrow f(2.) \in V^{j+1}$
 - 5. it exists a function $\phi \in E$ such as the family $(\phi(.-k))_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is an orthonormal basis in V^0

Consequences:

- ▶ from 4. and 5. it comes: $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}$ $f \in V^j \Leftrightarrow f(.-k2^j) \in V^j$. In other words $(\phi(.-k2^j))_{k\in\mathbb{Z}}$ is a basis in V^j
- From 3.: one can reconstruct a signal $x \in E$ from its projections into V^j
- ϕ is known as scaling function (or wavelet father)
- V^j are known as the approximation subspaces

scaling function: one example

1. Consider $\phi(t) = 1$ on [0, 1[, null otherwise

- 2. This is Haar scaling function
- 3. What does V^0 represent?, V^j ?

scaling function: one example

- 1. Consider $\phi(t) = 1$ on [0, 1[, null otherwise
- 2. This is Haar scaling function
- 3. What does V^0 represent?, V^j ?

•
$$E = L^2(\mathbb{R})$$
, scalar product: $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t)\overline{g}(t)dt$
• suppose $\phi(t-k)$ is a basis in V^0 then if $f \in V^0$,
 $f(t) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle f, \phi(.-k) \rangle \phi(t-k) = \sum_k c_k \phi(t)$ with
 $c_k = \int f(t)\overline{\phi}(t-k)dt = \int^{k+1} f(t)dt$

• then V^0 is the space of functions constant on intervals [k, k+1[

- and then V^1 is the set of functions constant on intervals [k/2, (k+1)/2[if condition 4 holds.
- and then V^{j} is the set of functions constants on intervals $[2^{-j}k, 2^{-j}(k+1)]$

scaling function: one example

- 1. Consider $\phi(t) = 1$ on [0, 1[, null otherwise
- 2. This is Haar scaling function
- 3. What does V^0 represent?, V^j ?
- 4. Is Haar scaling function admissible to perform a multiresolution analysis of $E = L^2(\mathbb{R})$?

scaling function: one example

- 1. Consider $\phi(t) = 1$ on [0, 1[, null otherwise
- 2. This is Haar scaling function
- 3. What does V^0 represent?, V^j ?
- 4. Is Haar scaling function admissible to perform a multiresolution analysis of $E = L^2(\mathbb{R})$?
 - ► condition 5. is true: \(\phi(. k)\) is an orthonormal basis in \(V^0\), easy to verify
 - condition 1. $(V^j \subset V^{j+1})$: if $f \in V^j$ then f constant on intervals $[2^{-j}k, 2^{-j}(k+1)]$, and also constant on intervals $[2^{-(j+1)}k, 2^{-(j+1)}(k+1)]$ and we conclude $f \in V^{j+1}$
 - conditions 2. and 3. intuitively: integral of a function may be approximated by piecewise constant functions (integral definition in sense of Riemann)
 - condition 4. (transition j to j + 1): similar proof than for condition 1, f(2.) is a dilatation of f by a factor 2, then $f(2.) \in V^{j+1}$
- 5. Haar scaling function is an admissible solution for a multiresolution analysis of E (see Ex 6 tutorial works)

Projection into V^{j}

Let φ be an admissible scaling function in E = L²(ℝ)
Let's define: φ^j_k(t) = √2^jφ(2^jt - k), then:
(φ^j_k)_{k∈ℤ} is an orthonormal basis in V^j
derives from conditions 4. and 5.
Given x ∈ E, its projection into V^j is:

$$x^j(t) = (P_j x)(t) = \sum_k s^j_k \phi^j_k(t)$$

with:

$$s_k^j = \left\langle x, \phi_k^j \right\rangle_{V^j} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \sqrt{2^j} x(t) \phi(2^j t - k) dt$$

we recognize a scalar product for V^{j}

- \triangleright s_k^j are the approximation coefficients at resolution j
- Subspaces V^j are dyadic spaces

Complementary subspaces (1)

- Last step: obtain an orthonormal basis
- Fundamental idea: as $V^j \subset V^{j+1}$ then

$$\exists W^j$$
 such as $V^{j+1} = V^j \oplus W^j$

 W^{j} is known as the details subspace for resolution j

- ► W^j is a complementary subspace orthogonal to V^j in V^{j+1}
- ▶ We call wavelets (or details functions) the set of functions $\left(\psi_k^j\right)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ spanning W^j and pairwise orthogonal
- ► Having an orthonormal basis in V^j and in W^j , we have an orthonormal basis in $V^{j+1} : (\phi^j_k)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \cup (\psi^j_k)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ and

$$x^{j+1}(t) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} s_k^j \phi_k^j(t) + \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} d_k^j \psi_k^j(t)$$

projection into V^j projection into W^j

• $d_k^j = \left\langle x, \psi_k^j \right\rangle$ are known as the details coefficients

Complementary subspaces (2)

Recursively we have:

$$V^{j+1} = V^{j} \oplus W^{j} = V^{j-1} \oplus W^{j-1} \oplus W^{j}$$
$$= V^{0} \oplus W^{0} \oplus W^{1} \oplus \dots \oplus W^{j-1} \oplus W^{j}$$
$$x^{j+1}(t) = \sum_{k} s^{0}_{k} \phi^{0}_{k}(t) + \sum_{i=0}^{j} \sum_{k} d^{i}_{k} \psi^{i}_{k}(t)$$

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Basis in V^{j+1} contains:

▶ that of V⁰

▶ that of W^0 , W^1 , up to W^j

►
$$j \to +\infty$$
:
► $E = L^2(\mathbb{R}) = V^0 \bigoplus_{i=0}^{+\infty} W^i$
► $x(t) = \sum_k s_k^0 \phi_k^0(t) + \sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} \sum_k d_k^i \psi_k^i(t)$

Complementary subspaces (3)

Subspaces V^j are also nested when j < 0: $\cdots \subset V^{-1} \subset V^0$

Then:

$$E = V^{0} \bigoplus_{i=0}^{+\infty} W^{j}$$

$$= V^{-1} \oplus W^{-1} \bigoplus_{i=0}^{+\infty} W^{j}$$

$$= V^{-j} \oplus W^{-j} \oplus \dots \oplus W^{-1} \bigoplus_{i=0}^{+\infty} W^{j}$$

$$= \bigoplus_{j=-\infty}^{+\infty} W^{j}$$

$$x(t) = \sum_{j=-\infty}^{+\infty} \sum_{k} d_{k}^{j} \psi_{k}^{j}(t)$$

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- \blacktriangleright The multiresolution analysis allows to build a basis of orthogonal wavelets $\left(\psi_k^j\right)$
- Subspaces V^j have a dyadic basis (ϕ_k^j) derived from the scaling function ϕ (also named father wavelet): $\phi_k^j(t) = \sqrt{2^j}\phi(2^jt k)$
- Complementary subspaces W^j also have a dyadic basis derived from the mother wavelet ψ : $\psi_k^j(t) = \sqrt{2^j}\psi(2^jt k)$

lssue: choose ψ

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Haar wavelet (1)

- ► $E = L^2([0,1[), x : E \to \mathbb{R})$
- Scaling function (Haar):

$$\phi(t) = egin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq t < 1 \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• Bases of subspaces V^j : $\phi^j_k(t) = \sqrt{2^j}\phi(2^jt - k)$:

$$\phi^j_k(t) = egin{cases} \sqrt{2^j} & rac{k}{2^j} \leq t < rac{k+1}{2^j} \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We conclude that:

- V^0 is the set of constant functions on [0, 1[, spanned by ϕ_0^0
- ▶ V^1 is the set of constant functions on $[0, \frac{1}{2}]$ and $[\frac{1}{2}, 1]$, spanned by ϕ_0^1 and ϕ_1^1
- V^j is the set of constant functions on $\left[\frac{k}{2^{j}}, \frac{k+1}{2^{j}}\right]$, $k = 0, \dots, 2^{j} 1$
- V⁻¹ do not make sense

Haar wavelet (2)

The mother wavelet can be chosen as:

$$\psi(t) = egin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq t < rac{1}{2} \ -1 & rac{1}{2} \leq t < 1 \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• And for other wavelets: $\psi_k^j(t) = \sqrt{2^j}\psi(2^jt - k)$:

$$\psi_k^j(t) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{2^j} & \frac{k}{2^j} \le t < \frac{k}{2^j} + \frac{1}{2^{j+1}} \\ -\sqrt{2^j} & \frac{k}{2^j} + \frac{1}{2^{j+1}} \le t < \frac{k+1}{2^j} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Haar wavelet (3) $V^2 = \phi_0^2 \oplus \phi_1^2 \oplus \phi_2^2 \oplus \phi_3^2 = \phi_0^1 \oplus \phi_1^1 \oplus \psi_0^1 \oplus \psi_1^1$



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Easy to verify that (tutorial work):

$$\left\langle \psi_{k}^{j}, \psi_{k'}^{j} \right\rangle = 0 \ k \neq k'$$

$$\left\langle \psi_{k}^{j}, \psi_{k'}^{j'} \right\rangle = 0 \ j \neq j'$$

Haar wavelet (4)

Transition from resolution j + 1 to j (compression)

- ϕ_k^j scaling functions: approximation at resolution j
- ψ_k^j wavelet functions: details at resolution j
- By definition of ϕ_k^j and ψ_k^j , we have:

$$\phi_k^j = \frac{\phi_{2k}^{j+1} + \phi_{2k+1}^{j+1}}{\sqrt{2}} \quad \psi_k^j = \frac{\phi_{2k}^{j+1} - \phi_{2k+1}^{j+1}}{\sqrt{2}} \tag{6}$$

• And:
$$x^{j+1}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{2^j-1} s_k^j \phi_k^j(t) + \sum_{k=0}^{2^j-1} d_k^j \psi_k^j(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{2^{j+1}-1} s_k^{j+1} \phi_k^{j+1}(t)$$

We derive:

$$s_k^j = rac{s_{2k}^{j+1} + s_{2k+1}^{j+1}}{\sqrt{2}} \quad d_k^j = rac{s_{2k}^{j+1} - s_{2k+1}^{j+1}}{\sqrt{2}}$$

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Haar wavelet (5)

Transition from resolution j to j + 1 (decompression)

Inversion of system (6)

$$\phi_{2k}^{j+1} = \frac{\phi_k^j + \psi_k^j}{\sqrt{2}} \quad \phi_{2k+1}^{j+1} = \frac{\phi_k^j - \psi_k^j}{\sqrt{2}}$$



• We derive: $s_{2k}^{j+1} = \frac{s_k^j + d_k^j}{\sqrt{2}} \quad s_{2k+1}^{j+1} = \frac{s_k^j - d_k^j}{\sqrt{2}}$

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The discrete wavelet transform (1)

 Haar: scaling and details functions or coefficients at a given resolution derive from a linear combination of scaling and wavelet functions or coefficients at the superior resolution.
 This can be generalized...

$$\blacktriangleright$$
 $V^0 \subset V^1$:

• then
$$\phi(t) \in V^0 \Rightarrow \phi(t) \in V^1$$

• then $\exists h(n)$ such as $\phi(t) = \sum_n h(n)\phi_n^1(t)$

• then
$$\phi(t) = \sqrt{2} \sum_{n} h(n) \phi(2t - n)$$

▶ This holds for any $V^{j-1} \subset V^j$ and generalizes as follow:

Consequence on approximation coefficients:

$$s_k^{j-1} = \left\langle x, \phi_k^{j-1} \right\rangle$$

$$s_k^{j-1} = \sum_n h(n) \left\langle x, \phi_{n+2k}^j(t) \right\rangle$$

$$s_k^{j-1} = \sum_n h(n) s_{n+2k}^j = \sqrt{2} \sum_{n'} h(n'-2k) s_{n'}^j$$

$$s_k^{j-1} = h^* \star s^j(2k) \text{ (with } h^* \text{ the mirror filter of } h)$$

$$\phi \leftrightarrow h$$

The discrete wavelet transform (2)

Same discussion on details subspaces W^j

•
$$W^0 \subset V^1$$
:

- $\blacktriangleright \ \psi(t) \in W^{0} \Rightarrow \psi(t) \in V^{1}$
- ▶ $\exists g \text{ such as } \psi(t) = \sum_{n} g(n) \phi_n^1(t) = \sqrt{2} \sum_{h} g(n) \phi(2t n)$
- Superior resolutions:

•
$$\psi_k^{j-1}(t) = \sum_n g(k) \phi_{n+2k}^j(t) = \sqrt{2^j} \sum_n g(n) \phi(2^j t - n - 2k)$$

Consequence on details coefficients:

$$d_{k}^{j-1} = \left\langle x, \psi_{k}^{j-1} \right\rangle$$

$$d_{k}^{j-1} = \sum_{n} g(n) \left\langle x, \psi_{n+2k}^{j} \right\rangle$$

$$d_{k}^{j-1} = \sum_{n} g(n) s_{n+2k}^{j}$$

$$d_{k}^{j-1} = g^{*} \star s^{j}(2k)$$

• $\psi \leftrightarrow g$

Reconstruction:

$$s_{k}^{j+1} = \sum_{n} s_{n}^{j} h(k-2n) + \sum_{m} d_{m}^{j} g(k-2m)$$

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The discrete wavelet transform (3)

Link between ϕ and h

Build an orthonormal basis, two ways: choose \u03c6 (see Haar scaling function), or choose h

Indeed:

- ϕ and h are linked $(V^0 \subset V^1)$: $\phi(t) = \sqrt{2} \sum_n h(n) \phi(2t n)$
- Apply FT on previous equation, introduce $\omega = 2\pi f$, denote $\Phi = FT(\phi)$, and $H(\omega) = \sum_n h(n)e^{-in\omega}$
- We have:

$$\Phi(\omega) = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \Phi\left(rac{\omega}{2}
ight) H\left(rac{\omega}{2}
ight) = \prod_{j=1}^{+\infty} rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} H\left(rac{\omega}{2^j}
ight)$$

- Then H can be derived from Φ and reciprocally
- ► *H* is a low-pass filter. Indeed:
 - ► $H(0) = \sqrt{2}\Phi(0)/\Phi(0/2) = \sqrt{2} (\Phi(0) \neq 0$ because $\int \phi(t)dt$ can not be null)

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From relation between Φ and H, it can been shown that $|H(\omega)|^2 + |H(\omega + \pi)|^2 = 2$, then $H(\pi) = 0$

The discrete wavelet transform (4)

Link between ψ and g, and h!

• Similarly, we have $(W^0 \subset V^1)$: $\psi(t) = \sqrt{2} \sum_n g(n) \phi(2t - n)$ then:

$$\Psi(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \Phi\left(\frac{\omega}{2}\right) G\left(\frac{\omega}{2}\right) = \prod_{j=1}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} G\left(\frac{\omega}{2^j}\right)$$

- ► *G* is a high-pass filter:
 - G(0) = 0 as $\Psi(0) = \int \psi(t) dt = 0$ by definition (oscillating)
 - Again: $|G(\omega)|^2 + |G(\omega + \pi)|^2 = 2$ and then $G(\pi) = \sqrt{2}$

Moreover, one can prove that:

- $G(\omega) = -\Lambda(\omega)\overline{H}(\omega + \pi)$ with Λ verifying this two conditions: $\Lambda(\omega + 2\pi) \pm \Lambda(\omega) = 0$
- A solution is $\Lambda(\omega) = -e^{-i\omega}$

Finally g can be derived from h:

$$G(\omega) = -e^{-i\omega}\bar{H}(\omega+\pi)$$

$$g(n) = (-1)^n h(1-n)$$
(7)

g is the conjugate and mirror filter of h

The discrete wavelet transform (5)

Cascade algorithm with mirror and conjugate filters

The DWT is efficiently implemented using a series of low and high-pass filtering and sub-sampling (due to dyadic nature of MRA)



- Iow-pass filtering: low frequencies are captured with accurate frequency resolution, but poor time resolution
- high-pass filtering: high frequencies are captured with poor frequency resolution but an accurate time resolution



Other wavelet transforms (1)

Shannon wavelet

- ▶ We only know Haar wavelet: $h(n) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, and $g(n) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ (Important: do not forget to divide by $\sqrt{2}$ in practice!)
- Shannon wavelet (dual of Haar):
 - Haar: $\phi(t) = \operatorname{Rect}(t) \Rightarrow \Phi(f) = \operatorname{sinc}(\pi f)$
 - Shannon: $\phi(t) = \operatorname{sinc}(\pi t) \Rightarrow \Phi(\omega) = \operatorname{Rect}(\omega)$
 - We derive $H(\omega)$ then h: $h(n) = \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$
 - then $G(\omega)$ from $g(n) = (-1)^n h(1-n) = (-1)^n \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{(1-n)\pi}{2}\right)$
 - then $\Psi(\omega)$ and finally $\psi(t) = \frac{\cos(\pi t) \sin(2\pi t)}{\pi t}$



Other wavelet transforms (2)

Daubechies wavelet (1)

- Motivation: build a basis with n null moments and compact support
- ψ has *n* null moments if:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} t^k \psi(t) dt = 0 \quad \forall k = 1, \cdots, n$$

- ▶ In other words: $\langle \psi(t), t^k \rangle = 0$, the mother wavelet is orthogonal to polynomials of degree $\leq n$
- Interest: the more a wavelet function has null moments, the more the signal representation is sparse. Essential property for compression.
- Properties of wavelet basis having many null moments:
 - the scaling function better approximates smooth signals
 - the wavelet function is dual: it better captures signal discontinuities

Other wavelet transforms (3)

Daubechies wavelet (2)

- Daubechies with 4 null moments (denoted D₄ or db2 with Matlab)
- Filters h et g are of length 4

▶ If
$$h = (h_0, h_1, h_2, h_3)$$
 then $g = (h_3, -h_2, h_1, -h_0)$ (eq.(7))

Constraints to determine the coefficients:

▶
$$\psi$$
 of null mean \Rightarrow $h_3 - h_2 + h_1 - h_0 = 0$
▶ ψ with 4 null moments \Rightarrow $h_3 - 2h_2 + 3h_1 - 4h_0 = 0$
▶ $\langle \psi(t), \psi(t-1) \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow h_1h_3 + h_2h_0 = 0$
▶ $||\phi|| = 1 \Rightarrow h_0 + h_1 + h_2 + h_3 = 2$
▶ We find: $h_0 = \frac{1+\sqrt{3}}{4}$ $h_1 = \frac{3+\sqrt{3}}{4}$ $h_2 = \frac{3-\sqrt{3}}{4}$ $h_3 = \frac{1-\sqrt{3}}{4}$

Other wavelet transforms (3)

Daubechies wavelet (3)



Figure: Daubechie scaling and wavelet functions with 4 null moments (db2) and 6 null moments (db3)

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Content

Part 1: Fourier Transform, Short Time Fourier Transform

Part 2: Wavelets

Part 3: discrete wavelet transform for images, applications Discrete wavelet transform for images

Applications

2-D DWT for images

- 2-D Haar decomposition for a 2-D signal
- Two approaches:
 - the standard decomposition: 1-D DWT on one direction (lines), than 1-D DWT on the other direction (columns)
 - non standard decomposition: the 1-D DWT is alternated on lines and columns
 - both approaches lead to two specific 2-D Haar bases
- Advantages:
 - standard: only 1-D transforms
 - ▶ non standard, faster: $\frac{8}{3}(n^2 1)$ operations against $4(n^2 n)$ for standard one

2-D DWT: standard decomposition (1)

Basis of the Haar standard decomposition is a tensor product between the 1-D bases:

$$\Psi_{k,k'}^{j,j'}(x,y) = \psi_k^j(x)\psi_{k'}^{j'}(y)$$

Algorithm:

- 1. apply a DWT on each line to obtain an intermediary image, repeat up to the finest resolution j = 0.
- 2. then, apply a DWT on each column of this image, repeat up to the finest resolution

we obtain an unique approximation coefficient and a set of details coefficients for all resolutions

2-D DWT: standard decomposition (2)



transform rows

procedure StandardDecomposition(C: array [1..h, 1..w] of reals) for $row \leftarrow 1$ to h do Decomposition(C[row, 1..w]) end for for $col \leftarrow 1$ to w do Decomposition(C[1..h, col]) end for end procedure

> transform columns



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2-D DWT: standard decomposition (3)



Figure: Haar standard basis

2-D DWT: non standard decomposition (1)

- Principle: perform an MRA of $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$
- Let's define $\mathcal{V}^j = \mathcal{V}^j \otimes \mathcal{V}^j$
- ▶ The details spaces are \mathcal{W}^j such as $\mathcal{V}^{j+1} = \mathcal{V}^j \oplus \mathcal{W}^j$
- ► Then, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{V}^{j+1} &= V^{j+1} \otimes V^{j+1} \\ &= (V^j \oplus W^j) \otimes (V^j \oplus W^j) \\ &= (V^j \otimes V^j) \oplus (W^j \otimes V^j) \oplus (V^j \otimes W^j) \oplus (W^j \otimes W^j) \\ &= \mathcal{V}^j \oplus \mathcal{W}^j \end{aligned}$$

► Basis of \mathcal{W}^j : $\psi^j_k(x)\phi^j_{k'}(y), \phi^j_k(x)\psi^j_{k'}(y), \psi^j_k(x)\psi^j_{k'}(y), \quad k, k' \in \mathbb{Z}$

2-D DWT: non standard decomposition (2)



The DWT is alternated on lines and columns:

- 1. one iteration of 1-D DWT on each lines
- 2. one iteration of 1-D DWT on each column
- 3. repeat stages 1. and 2. on approximation image up to resolution j = 0

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2-D DWT: non standard decomposition (3)



Figure: Base non standard de Haar 2-D

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2-D DWT: Examples with Matlab²



[S1,H1,V1,D1] = dwt2(X,'haar'); imagesc([S1,H1;V1,D2])



[S2,H2,V2,D2] = dwt2(S1,'haar'); imagesc([[S2,H2;V2,D2],H1;V1,D1])

²Python: use PyWavelets package

Content

Part 1: Fourier Transform, Short Time Fourier Transform

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Part 3: discrete wavelet transform for images, applications Discrete wavelet transform for images Applications

Application: compression (1)

- ► Famous application (JPEG2000)
- ▶ JPEG compression (Fourier based): suppression of high frequencies
 ⇒ edges are degraded (Gibbs phenomena)
- Suitable wavelet basis for edges representation: Haar (the Haar scaling function is basically an edge)



Jpeg





Jpeg 2000



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Application: compression (2)

- Principle: keep only the biggest details coefficients
- We apply an threshold:



Image

Reconstruction with a threshold value of 10

error: 1%

- ▶ 47% of details coefficients are zero (hence lesser than 10)
- without compression: 10% are zero

Application: compression (3)



Image







error: 4.3 %

- ▶ 89% of the details coefficients are zero.
- Drawback (Haar): high compression rate makes appear blocs in the image

Application: denoising (1)

- Y image acquisition having an additive noise B
- Retrieve X such as

$$Y = X + B$$

Practically, we look for an operator D minimizing the reconstruction error:

$$E(||X - D(Y)||) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} E(X(i) - D(Y)(i))^{2}$$
(8)

- Many methods! Depending on the noise characteristics
- ▶ If *B* centered Gaussian, a wavelet filtering gives good results
- Method:
 - projection on a wavelet basis (encoding)
 - hard threshold: details coefficients lesser than threshold S are nullified
 - soft threshold: details coefficients lesser than threshold S are nullified, other are attenuated
 - How to choose *S* ?

Application: denoising (2)

An optimal value minimizing (8) with respect to B be Gaussian of standard deviation σ:

$$S = \sigma \sqrt{2 \ln N}$$

Estimation of σ ?

$$\hat{\sigma} = \frac{M_s}{0,6745}$$

with M_s median value of details coefficients at the finest resolution • Wavelet basis?

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- Haar
- Daubechies
- others: curvelets, ridgelets, ...

Application: denoising (3)



Haar

Daubechies (db3)

Other applications

- 3-D mesh: approximation of a volume by decomposition on Haar wavelets
- Pattern recognition: for example, faces characterization, by projection on a wavelets basis
- Texture characterization and modeling
- Image watermarking: the trademark is projected on a wavelets basis, highest coefficients are retained and added to image details coefficients

Sparse representation: wavelets allow sparse representations i.e. having a minimal number of coefficients