

Lecture 2. Elements of the theory of 2D signal processing.

Mathematical models of image signals. Signals as mathematical functions. 1-D, 2-D, and multidimensional signals. Continuous signals, discrete signals, quantized signals, digital signals. Scalar and vectorial signals.

Linear signal space, metrics and bases.

The signal space is called linear if:

1. An operation of signal summation ($+$) is defined such that, for any two signals $a^{(1)}$ and $a^{(2)}$, a third signal $a^{(3)} = a^{(1)} + a^{(2)}$ can be uniquely found.
2. The summation operation obeys the commutative and associative laws:

$$a^{(1)} + a^{(2)} = a^{(2)} + a^{(1)}$$

$$a^{(1)} + a^{(2)} + a^{(3)} = (a^{(1)} + a^{(2)}) + a^{(3)} = a^{(1)} + (a^{(2)} + a^{(3)})$$

3. There exists a “zero-signal” \emptyset such that $a + \emptyset = a$ for all signals of the space.
4. Each element a of the space may be put into the correspondence with a unique opposite signal $(-a)$ such that

$$a + (-a) = a - a = \emptyset .$$

5. An operation (\times) of multiplying signal by a scalar number is defined such that, for any number a and any signal a , a signal $a \times a$ can be uniquely found.
6. The following properties hold for the multiplication operation:

$$a_1 a_2 a = a_1 (a_2 a) = a_2 (a_1 a);$$

$$(a_1 + a_2) a = a_1 a + a_2 a ; a (a_1 + a_2) = a a_1 + a a_2 ;$$

$$1 \times a = a ; 0 \times a = \emptyset ;$$

In linear signal space, one can specify a set of N signals and use them to generate an arbitrary large set of other signals as a linear combination (weighted sum)

$$a = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k j_k$$

of the selected signals that are called basis signals (*basis functions*). The set of basis functions should be selected from functions that can't be represented as a linear combination of the rest of the functions from the set, otherwise the set of basis functions will be redundant.

Each signal a in N -dimensional signal space corresponds to a unique linear combination of basis functions $\{j_k\}$, i.e. is defined by a unique set of scalar coefficients $\{a_k\}$. An (ordered) set of scalar coefficients of decomposition of a given signal over the given basis is the *signal's representation* with respect to this basis.

The “zero-signal” may be treated as a reference signal of the signal space. The distinction of signal a from the “zero-signal” displays the individual characteristic of this signal. Mathematically, this characteristic is described through the concept of the signal's norm $\|a\|$:

$$\|a\| = d(a, \emptyset)$$

The geometrical interpretation of the vector norm is its length.

Signal representation as an expansion over a set of basis functions is meaningful only when for each signal a , its representation $\{a_k\}$ for the given basis j_k can be found. To this goal, the concept of the *scalar product (inner product, dot product)* (a_1, a_2) of two signals is introduced as a method for computing a (generally, complex) number that satisfies the following conditions:

$$(a_1, a_2) = (a_2, a_1)^* ; (a, a) \geq 0 ; (a, a) = 0, \quad \text{iff } a = \emptyset ;$$

$$(a_1 a_1 + a_2 a_2, a_3) = a_1 (a_1, a_3) + a_2 (a_2, a_3).$$

Usually the scalar product of two signals is calculated as an integral over their product:

$$(a_1, a_2) = \int_X a_1(x) a_2^*(x) dx$$

Functions whose scalar product is zero are called mutually *orthogonal functions*. If functions are mutually orthogonal, then they are linearly-independent and may be used as bases of linear signal spaces.

Scalar product can be used to establish a correspondence between signals and their representation for the given basis. For $\{j_k\}$ the basis functions and $\{f_l\}$ the reciprocal set of functions orthogonal to $\{j_k\}$ normalized such that

$$(j_k, f_l) = d_{k,l} = \begin{cases} 1 & k=l \\ 0 & k \neq l \end{cases}$$

(symbol $d_{k,l}$ is called the *Kronecker delta*), signal representation coefficients $\{a_k\}$ over basis $\{j_k\}$ can be found as

$$a_k = (a, f_k) = \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} a_l (j_l, f_k) = \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} a_l d_{k,l}$$

If basis $\{j_k\}$ is composed of mutually orthogonal functions of unit norm: $(j_k, j_l) = d_{k,l}$, it is reciprocal to itself and is called *orthonormal basis*. In such a basis signals are representable as

$$a = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k j_k, \text{ where } a_k = \int_X a(x) j_k^*(x) dx$$

Knowing the signal representation over an orthonormal basis, one can calculate signal scalar product

$$(a, b) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} b_l (j_k, j_l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} b_l d_{k,l} = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k b_k^*$$

Signal norm is defined as scalar product of the signal with its complex conjugate:

$$\|a\| = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} |a_k|^2$$

Representations $\{a_k^{(1)}\}, \{b_k^{(1)}\}$ and $\{a_k^{(2)}\}, \{b_k^{(2)}\}$ of signals a and b over two orthonormal bases $\{j_k^{(1)}\}$ and $\{j_k^{(2)}\}$ are related by means of the *Parseval's relationship*

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k^{(1)} (b_k^{(1)})^* = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k^{(2)} (b_k^{(2)})^*$$

Signal norm is invariant to the orthonormal bases.

Integral representation of signals

The discrete representation of signals can be extended to a continuous representation

$$a(x) = \int_F a(f) j(x, f) df$$

The function $a(f)$ is called the *integral transform* of signal $a(x)$, or its *spectrum*, over continuous basis $\{j(f, x)\}$ called *transform kernel*. The transform is reversible if a reciprocal kernel $f(f, x)$ exist such that

$$a(f) = \int_X a(x) f(f, x) dx$$

The reciprocity condition for functions $j(x, f)$ and $f(f, x)$:

$$a(x) = \int_F \int_X a(x) f(f, x) dx \int_F j(x, f) df = \int_X a(x) d(x, x) dx, \text{ where } d(x, x) = \int_F j(x, f) f(f, x) df$$

is called the *delta-function* (Dirac delta). A basis satisfying the relationship

$$\int_F \mathbf{j}(x, f) \mathbf{j}^*(x, f) df = \mathbf{d}(x, \mathbf{x})$$

is called *self-conjugate*. For self-conjugate bases, signal scalar product is invariant to the bases

$$\int_X \mathbf{a}_1(x) \mathbf{a}_2^*(x) dx = \int_F \mathbf{a}_1(x) \mathbf{a}_2^*(f) df \cdot \int_X \mathbf{a}_1(x) dx = \int_F \mathbf{a}_1(x) dx$$

This is the Parseval's relation for continuous signals.

Metrics of signal space and signal norm

The *signal space metrics* associates with each pair of signals in the space, say, $\mathbf{a}^{(1)}$ and $\mathbf{a}^{(2)}$, a nonnegative real number $d(\mathbf{a}^{(1)}, \mathbf{a}^{(2)})$. The method for obtaining this number normally has the following properties:

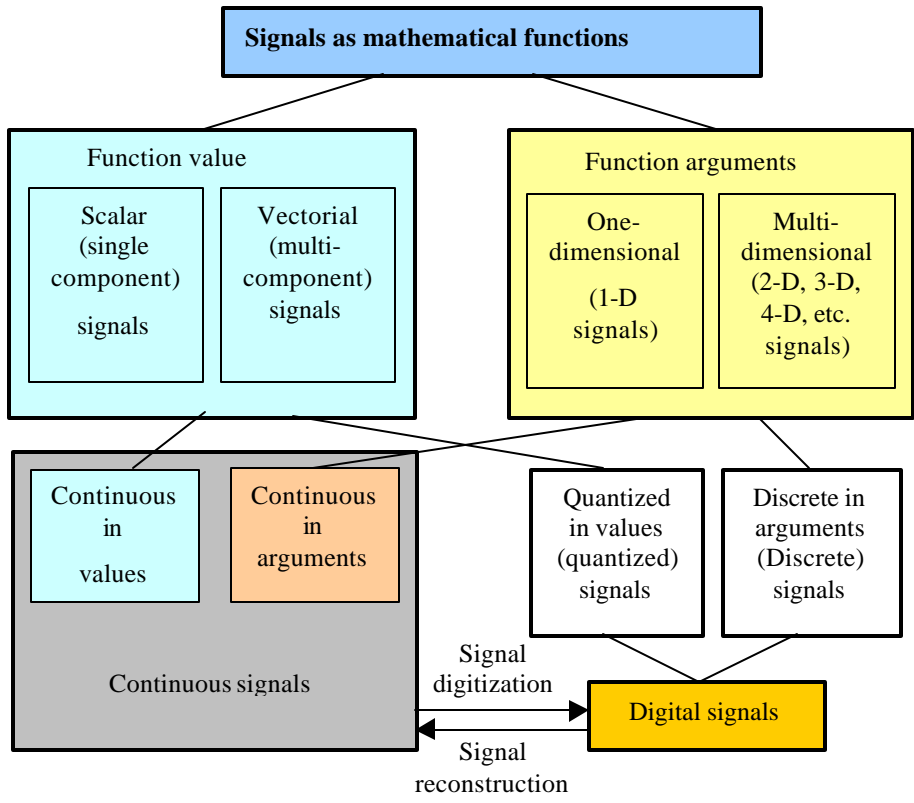
$$d(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{a}) = 0; \quad d(\mathbf{a}^{(1)}, \mathbf{a}^{(2)}) \geq 0;$$

$$d(\mathbf{a}^{(1)}, \mathbf{a}^{(2)}) = d(\mathbf{a}^{(2)}, \mathbf{a}^{(1)}); \quad d(\mathbf{a}^{(1)}, \mathbf{a}^{(3)}) \leq d(\mathbf{a}^{(1)}, \mathbf{a}^{(2)}) + d(\mathbf{a}^{(2)}, \mathbf{a}^{(3)})$$

Typical signal space metrics

Signal type	Designation	Deterministic definition	Statistical definition AV is a statistical averaging operator
Discrete signals	L_N	$\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k^{(1)} - a_k^{(2)} $	$AV\{ a_k^{(1)} - a_k^{(2)} \}$
	L_N^2	$\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k^{(1)} - a_k^{(2)} ^2$	$AV\{ a_k^{(1)} - a_k^{(2)} ^2\}$
	L_N^p	$\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k^{(1)} - a_k^{(2)} ^p$	$AV\{ a_k^{(1)} - a_k^{(2)} ^p\}$
	LMh_N	$\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} W_k^2 a_k^{(1)} - a_k^{(2)} ^2$ ($\{W_k^2\}$ are scalar weight coefficients)	-
	M_N	$\max_k a_k^{(1)} - a_k^{(2)} $	-
Continuous signals	L_x	$\int_X a_1(x) - a_2(x) dx$	$AV\{ a_1(x) - a_2(x) \}$
	L_x^2	$\int_X a_1(x) - a_2(x) ^2 dx$	$AV\{ a_1(x) - a_2(x) ^2\}$
	L_x^p	$\int_X a_1(x) - a_2(x) ^p dx$	$AV\{ a_1(x) - a_2(x) ^p\}$
	M_x	$\sup_X (a_1(x) - a_2(x))$, where $\sup_X(a(x))$ - minimal value that is not exceeded by $a(x)$	-

Statistical treatment of signals: averaging metrics measures over a set or an ensemble of signals



Signal space

