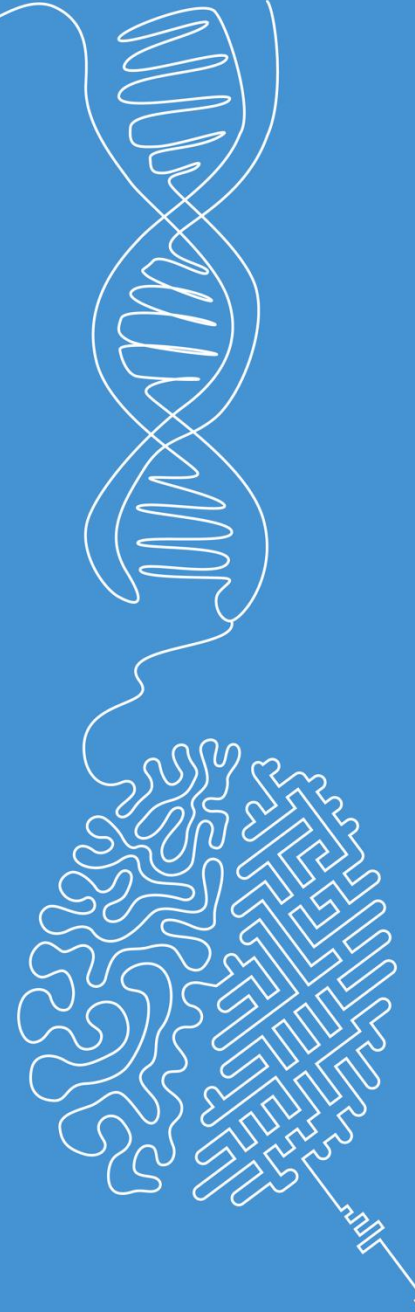


# Filtering II

## Image and Signal Processing

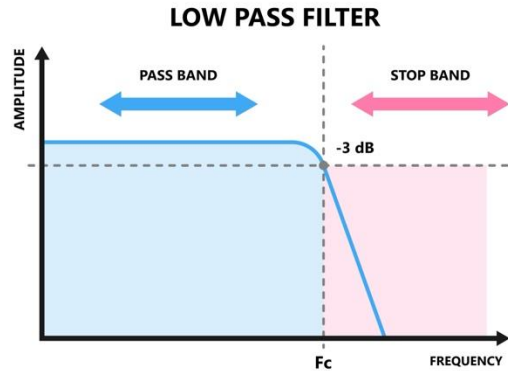
Norman Juchler



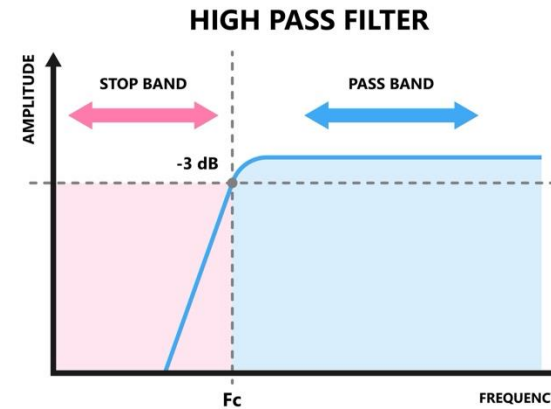
# Signal filtering

Recapitulation

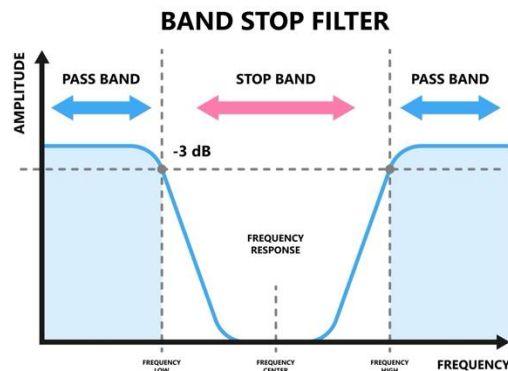
# Overview: Types of filters



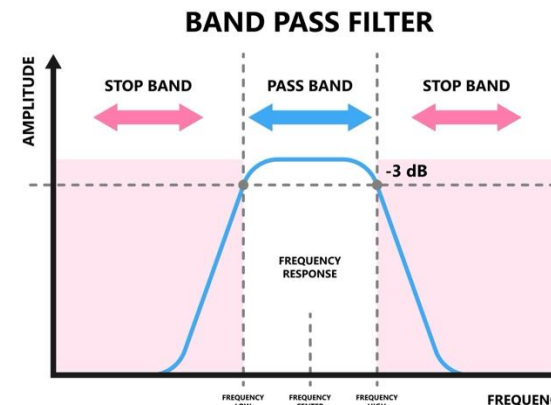
- Allows frequencies below a cutoff frequency to pass through while attenuating higher frequencies.
- Used to remove high-frequency noise, smooth signals, or extract low-frequency components.



- Allows frequencies above a cutoff frequency to pass through while attenuating lower frequencies.
- Used to remove low-frequency noise, extract high-frequency components, or emphasize high-frequency features.



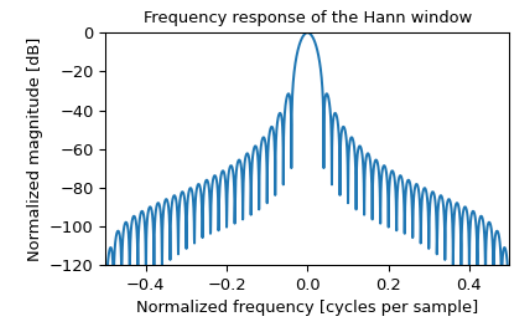
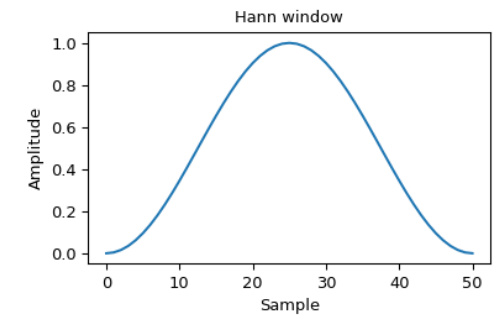
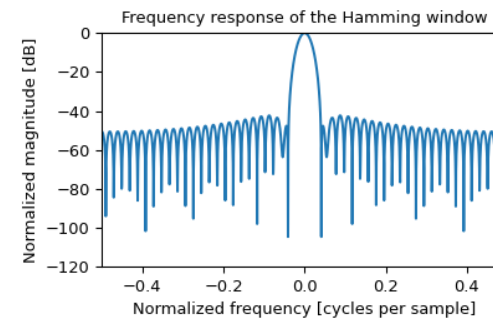
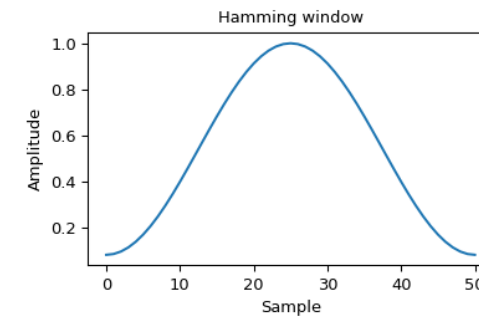
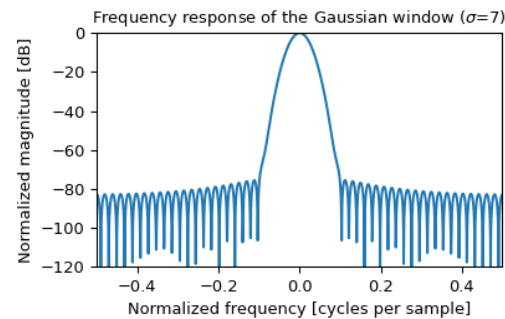
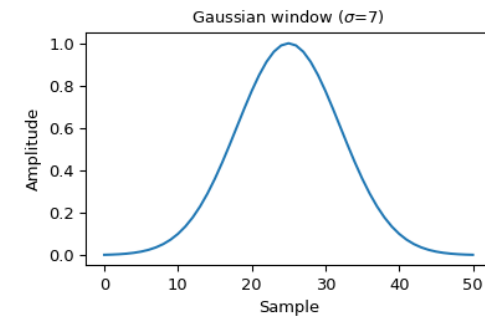
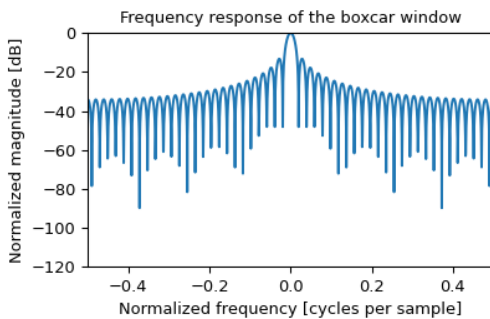
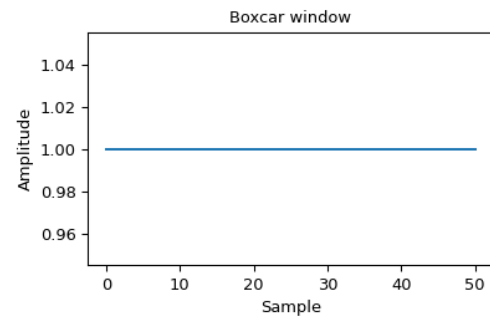
- Attenuates frequencies within a specific range, known as the stopband, while allowing frequencies outside this range to pass through.
- Used to remove unwanted interference or noise within a certain frequency range while preserving the rest of the signal.



- Allows a specific range of frequencies, known as the passband, to pass through while attenuating frequencies outside this range.
- Used to isolate or extract signals within a certain frequency band while rejecting others.

# Filters have properties in the time- and frequency domain

## ■ Comparison of different window filters



$$h_{box}[n] = 1$$

$$h_{gauss}[n] = e^{\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{n}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

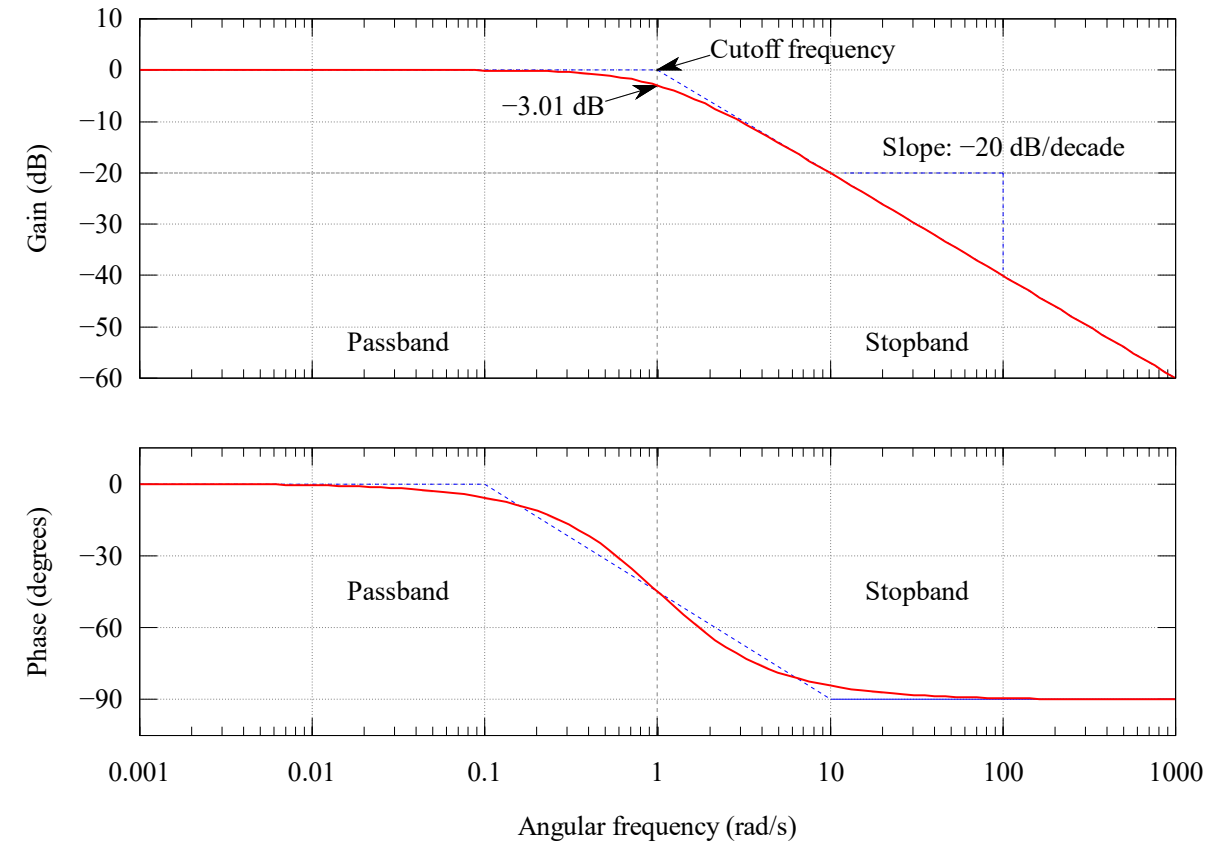
$$h_{lanc}[n] = \text{sinc}_{\pi} \left( \frac{2n}{M-1} - 1 \right)$$

$$h_{hann}[n] = 0.5 - 0.5 \cos \left( \frac{2\pi n}{M-1} \right)$$

## Example: Butterworth filter

- Common type of signal processing filter
- Analog or digital
- Design goal: Have a frequency response that is as flat as possible in the passband
- Also known as “maximally flat magnitude filter”
- Is an instance of a so-called **finite impulse response (FIR)** filter
- Can be modeled as a Linear **Time Invariant (LTI)** system. Example:

$$H(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{1}{1 + 2s + 2s^2 + s^3}$$



# Common filtering methods

- **FIR Filtering (Finite Impulse Response)**
  - Uses a finite-length impulse response to filter a signal.
  - Provides linear phase response and stable filtering.
- **IIR Filtering (Infinite Impulse Response)**
  - Utilizes feedback to achieve the desired frequency response.
  - Typically requires fewer coefficients compared to FIR filters, resulting in lower computational complexity.
- **Special filters:**
  - Butterworth filter
  - Chebyshev filter
- **Windowed filters**
- **Adaptive filters**
- ...

# **Supplementary knowledge**

# Frequency bands

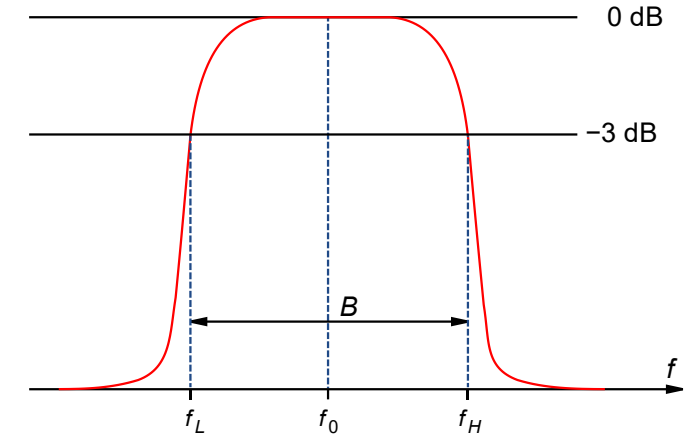
- A signal is called **band-limited** if its frequency components are limited within frequencies:

$$f_L \leq f \leq f_H$$

- The **bandwidth** of a signal is defined as the difference between the extreme frequencies:

$$B = \Delta f = f_H - f_L$$

- A strictly band-limited signal does not carry energy at frequencies outside the band limits
- In practice, a signal is considered band-limited if its energy outside of a frequency range is low enough to be considered negligible



Amplitude spectrum of a bandlimited signal. Source of illustration: [Wikimedia](#)



# The decibel scale

- Decibels (dB) are often used to measure the power of a signal relative to some reference level.
- Formally, a **bel** is defined as a logarithmic ratio between two power quantities, a measured and reference value:
- The power carried by a sinusoidal signal is proportional to the square of the signal amplitude, so one can also write: ( $c$  is a proportionality constant)
- Decibels are commonly used in **power spectra**, which are like amplitude spectra, but use a decibel scale.
- Example:
  - Acoustic signals = pressure waves traveling through a medium
  - The standard reference amplitude used for acoustic signals  $A_{ref} = p_0$  is 20  $\mu\text{Pa}$ , which corresponds approximately to the quietest sound that a person can hear.

$$\begin{aligned}
 1\text{B} &= \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_{meas}}{P_{ref}} \right) \\
 1\text{dB} = 10\text{B} &= 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_{meas}}{P_{ref}} \right) \\
 &= 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{cA_{meas}^2}{cA_{ref}^2} \right) \\
 &= 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{A_{meas}}{A_{ref}} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

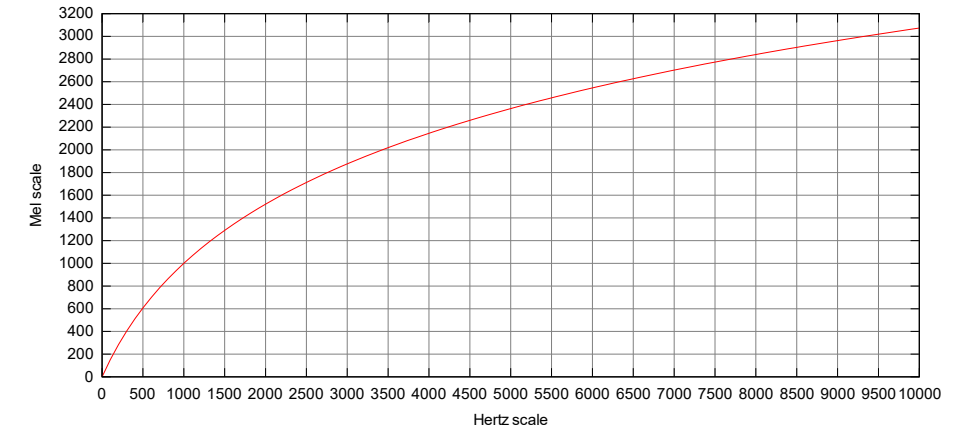
# The Mel scale

## ■ Main idea:

- The Mel scale is a frequency scale designed to match human auditory perception.
- Humans do not perceive frequencies linearly; we are more sensitive to lower frequencies than higher ones.

## ■ The Mel scale:

- Spaces frequency bins non-linearly: lower frequencies have higher resolution and higher frequencies have lower resolution.
- Transformation from Hertz (Hz) to Mel



$$m = 2595 \log_{10} \left( 1 + \frac{f}{700} \right)$$

## ■ Why Use Mel-Scaled Spectrograms?

- Closer to human hearing → Useful in speech/audio processing.
- More compact representation → Reduces unnecessary high-frequency details.
- Foundation for MFCCs (Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients) → Common in speech recognition.

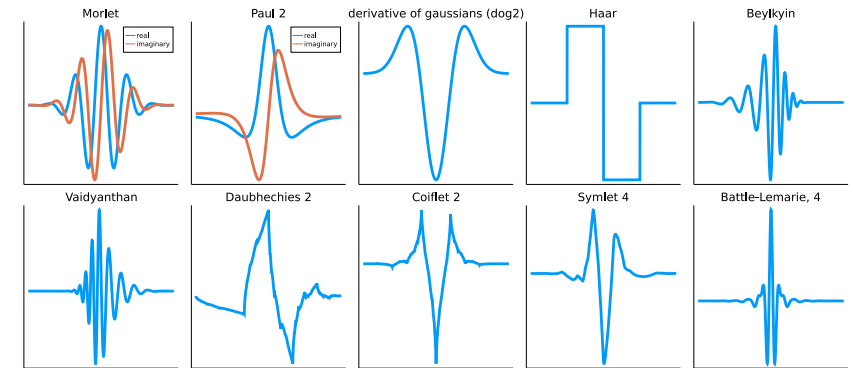
# Wavelet decomposition

## ■ Problems with Fourier transform:

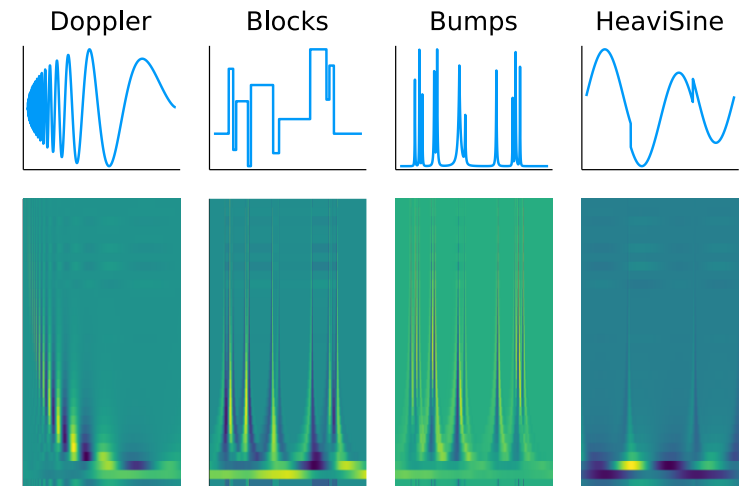
- Fourier representation: Functions are expressed as linear combinations of sinusoidal functions.
- Sinusoids: They have infinite extent in the time domain – they have no distinct start or end.
- Localization issue: The Fourier transform provides frequency information but lacks time localization
- Limitations: It is not well-suited for capturing transient features or localized events in a signal.

## ■ Solution: Wavelet transform

- Introduce new basis functions that are localized in both time and frequency domains.
- Decompose a signal using scaled and shifted versions of these basis functions.
- Advantage: Wavelets provide good frequency resolution while maintaining good time localization.



Exemplary mother functions for Wavelets, from which the base functions are derived by scaling in x- and y-direction.



Wavelet decomposition result: Like an STFT representation, but achieved without requiring multiple transformations.

# Compression

# Compression

- Signal compression refers to the process of reducing the size (in bytes) of a signal while preserving essential information.
- Goal:
  - Eliminate redundancy or irrelevant information.
  - Trade-off: Compression ratio / information loss / method complexity
- Methods:
  - **Lossless compression:** Exact reconstruction is possible
    - Run-length encoding (RLE)
    - Huffman coding
    - Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW)

**Example:** Run length encoding (RLE).

**Input:**

```
WWWWWWWWWWWWBWWWWWWWWWW  
WWWBWWWWWWWWWWWWWWWWWW  
WWWWWWWWBWWWWWWWWWWWWWW
```

**Output:** Compressed data

```
12W1B12W3B24W1B13W
```

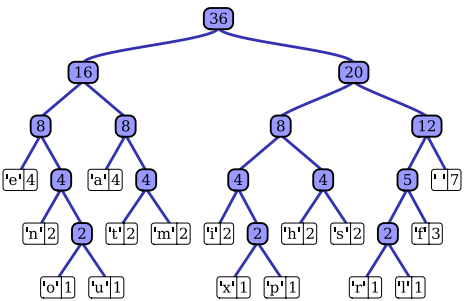
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**Example:** Huffmann coding.

**Idea:** Use a variable-length code for different tokens (or byte sequences), assigning shorter codes to the most frequent tokens.

**Input:** “this is an example of a huffman tree”. Tokens by frequency:



**Output:** Huffmann code table

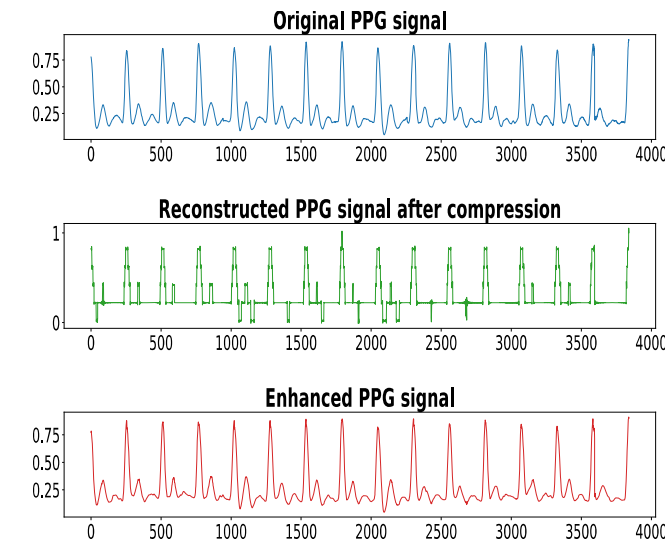
Char ↕	Freq ↕	Code ↕	Char ↕	Freq ↕	Code ↕
space	7	111	s	2	1011
a	4	010	t	2	0110
e	4	000	l	1	11001
f	3	1101	o	1	00110
h	2	1010	p	1	10011
i	2	1000	r	1	11000
m	2	0111	u	1	00111
n	2	0010	x	1	10010

# Compression

- Signal compression refers to the process of reducing the size (in bytes) of a signal while preserving essential information.
- Goal:
  - Eliminate redundancy or irrelevant information.
  - Trade-off: Compression ratio / information loss / method complexity
- Methods:
  - **Lossless compression:** Exact reconstruction is possible
    - Run-length encoding (RLE)
    - Huffmann coding
    - Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW)
  - **Lossy Compression:** Higher compression ratios by discarding some signal information. Exact reconstruction is not possible.
    - Subsampling / down-sampling
    - Transform coding (e.g., discrete cosine transform, discrete wavelet tr.)
  - **Hybrid compression:** Lossless + lossy. Examples: MP3, JPEG...

**Example:** Lossy data compression with AI-based signal reconstruction. Reference: [Link](#)

**Data:** PPG sensor data (top), after SZ compression (middle), and after enhanced reconstruction (bottom)



# **A look back**

Signal processing in a nutshell



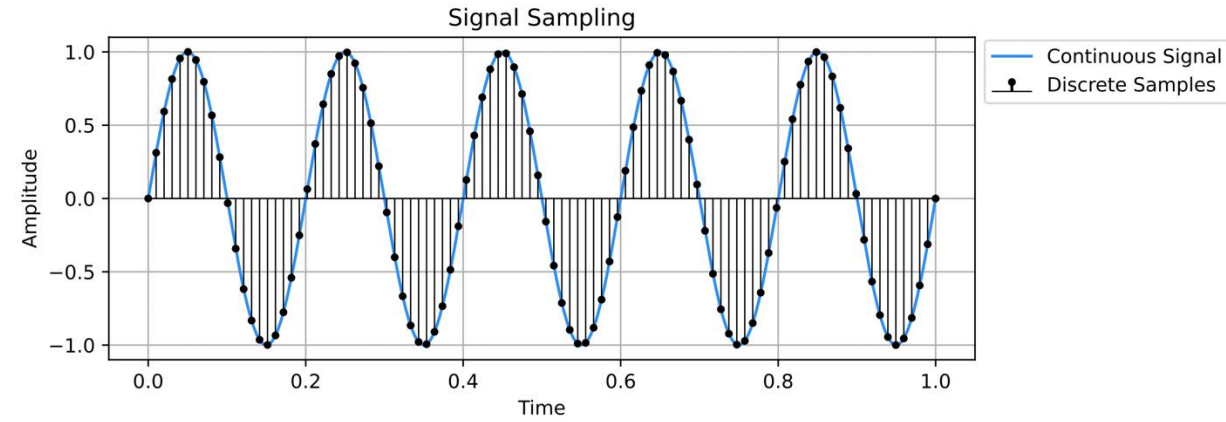
# Signal representations

**Discretization**  
Sampling, quantization

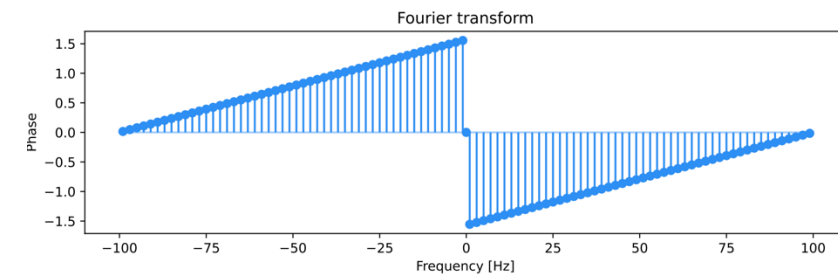
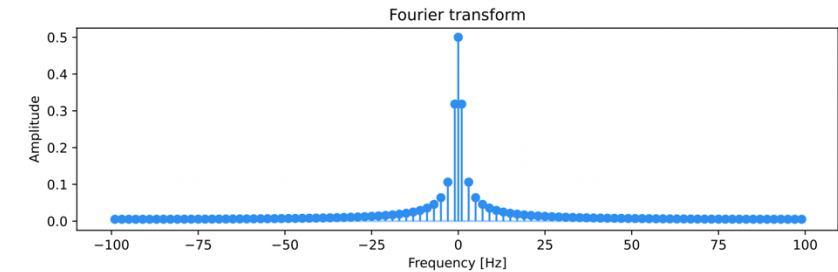
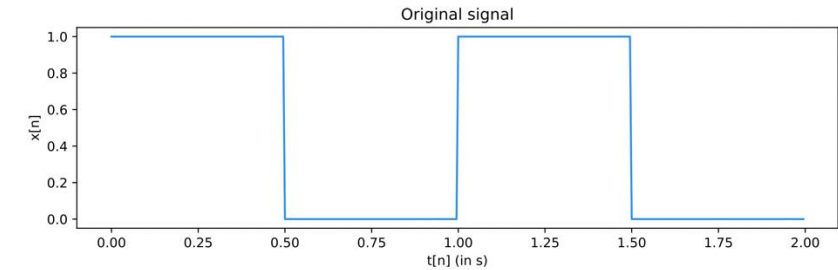
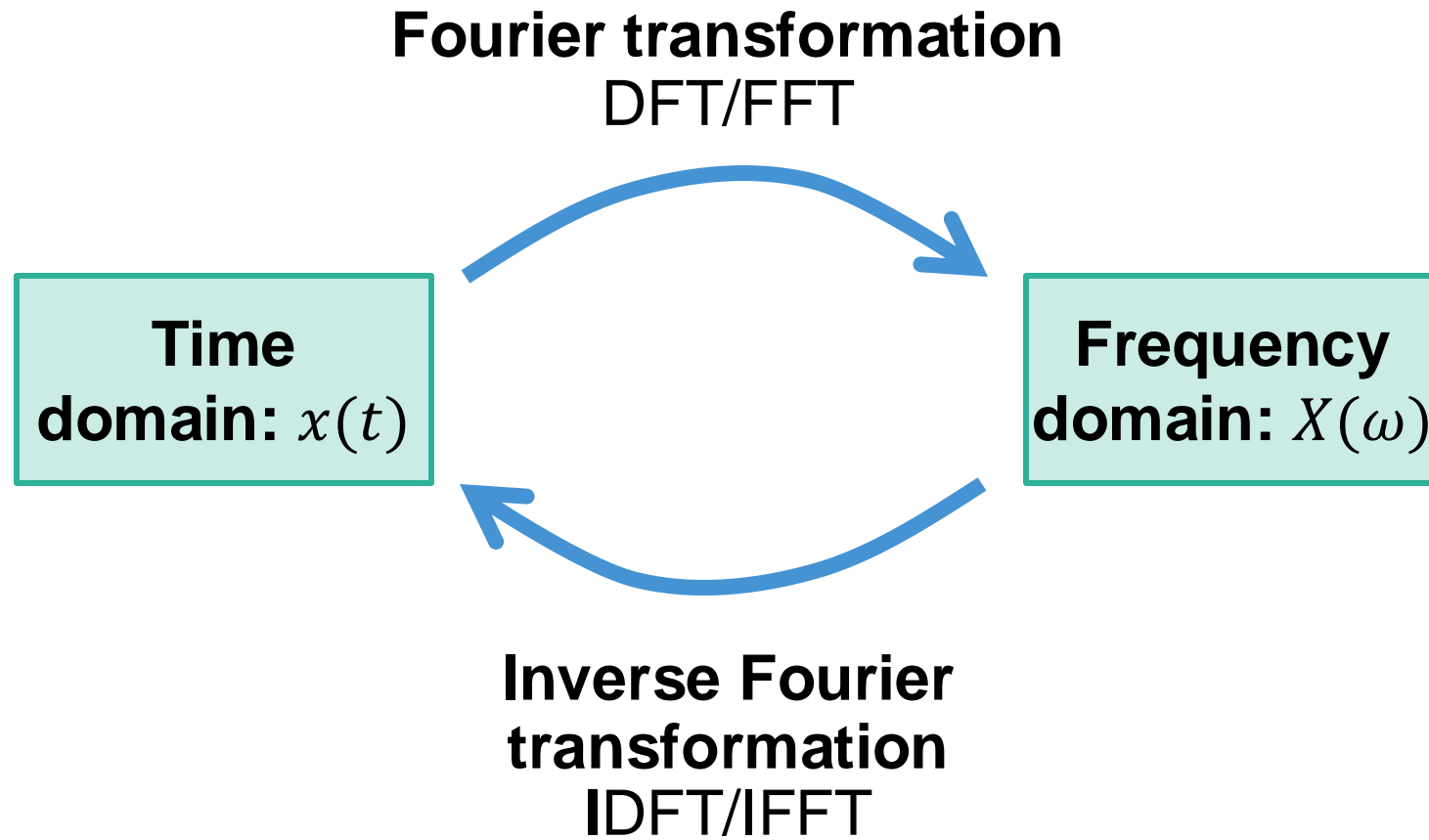
**Continuous  
signal**

**Discrete  
signal**

**Interpolation**



# Signal representations

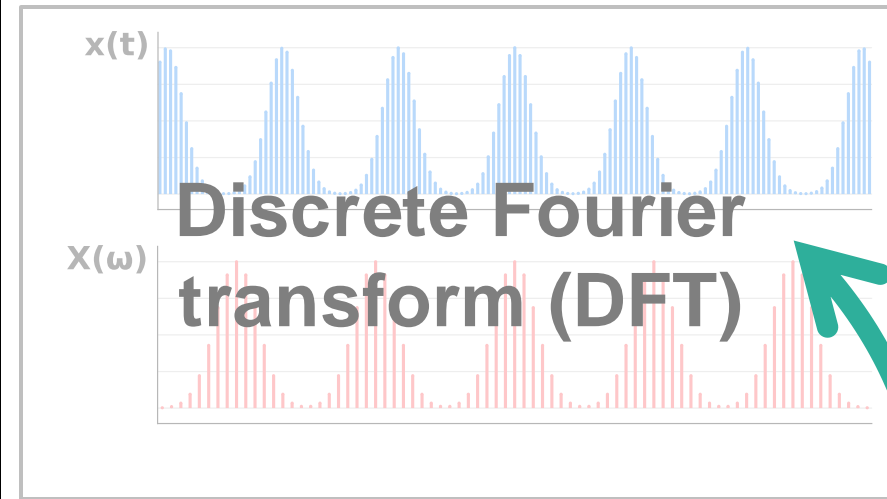
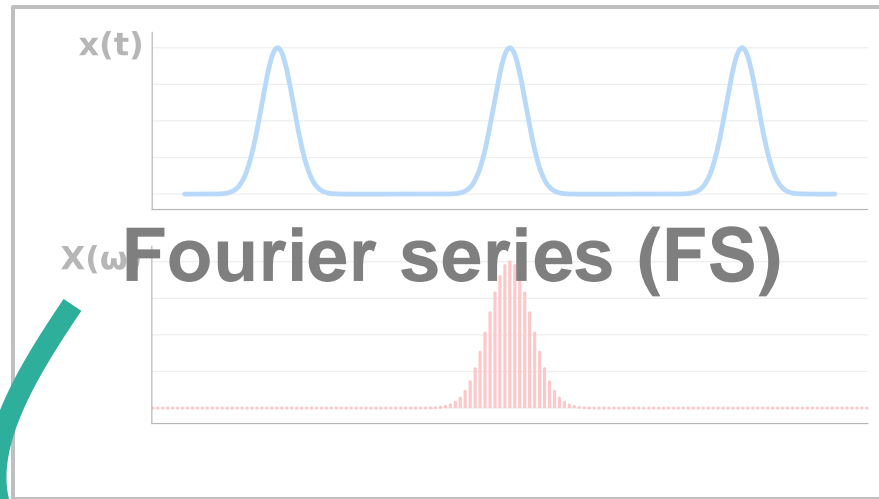


# Fourier's landscape

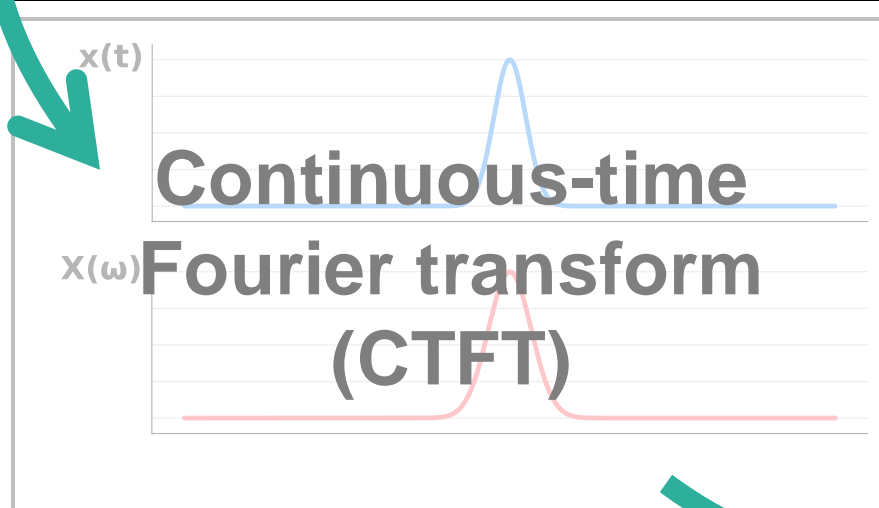
*Time-continuous*

*Time-discrete*

*Periodic*



*Aperiodic*



# Signal representations

- Single- and multi-channel data

- Mono audio (1 channel)
- Stereo audio (2 channels)
- Surround sound (5.1, 7.1, ambisonic)
- Accelerometer and gyroscope data (3 or 6 channels)
- EEG (16+ channels)
- ...
- (Note: Multi-channel data may require specialized synchronization mechanisms.)

# Observations

- Frequency representation of time-series data is universal, and not limited to signals that are inherently periodic!
- This is useful for many applications, such as
  - Filtering
  - Feature extraction
  - Classification
  - ...
- With the convolution operation, we apply linear filters

# What can we do with a signal?

- **Acquisition:** Capture signals using sensors or measurement systems.
- **Processing:** Filter, enhance, or manipulate signals
- **(Transmission:** Send signals over communication channels.)
- **(Storage:** Store signals in digital or analog formats for later use.)
- **Analysis:** Extract meaningful information or identify patterns within the signal.
- **Modeling:** Develop mathematical models to represent and understand signals.
- **Visualization:** Graphically display signals for easier interpretation and analysis.
- **(Control:** Use signals as inputs for feedback and control systems.)
- **Communication:** Encode information into signals for reliable transmission.
- **(Interpretation:** Understand signals within the context of specific applications.)