EE434 Biomedical Signal Processing Lecture # 4

I would like to thank <u>Professor Robi</u> <u>Polikar</u> for using his lecture notes.

Nonstationary Signal Processing

STFT & Wavelets

EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 How Does FT Work?

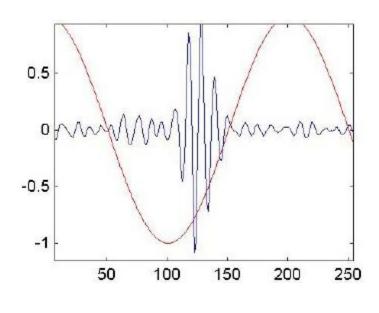
Recall that FT uses complex exponentials (sinusoids) as building blocks.

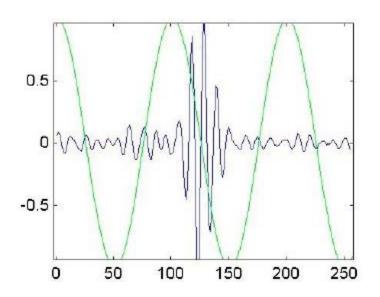
$$e^{j\omega t} = \cos(\omega t) + j\sin(\omega t)$$

 For each frequency of complex exponential, the sinusoid at that frequency is compared to the signal.

$$F(\omega) = \int f(t)e^{-j\omega t}dt \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int F(\omega)e^{j\omega t}d\omega$$

- If the signal consists of that frequency, the correlation is high → large FT coefficients.
- If the signal does not have any spectral component at a frequency, the correlation at that frequency is low / zero, → small / zero FT coefficient.

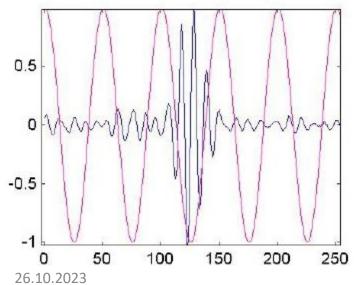


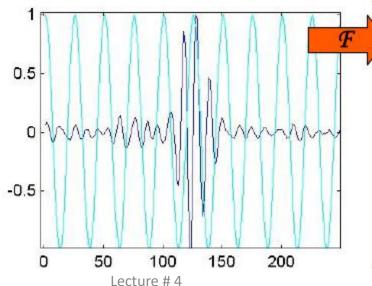


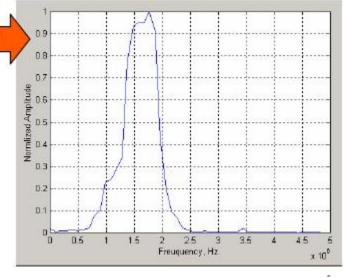
Complex exponentials (sinusoids) as basis functions:

$$X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-j\omega t}dt$$

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$





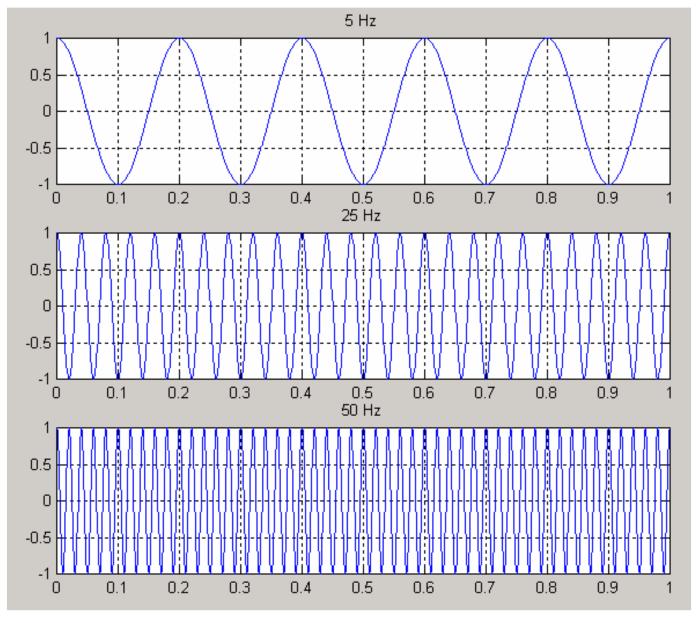


An ultrasonic A-scan using 1.5 MHz transducer, sampled at 10 MHz

$$x_1(t) = \cos(2\pi \cdot 5 \cdot t)$$

$$x_2(t) = \cos(2\pi \cdot 25 \cdot t)$$

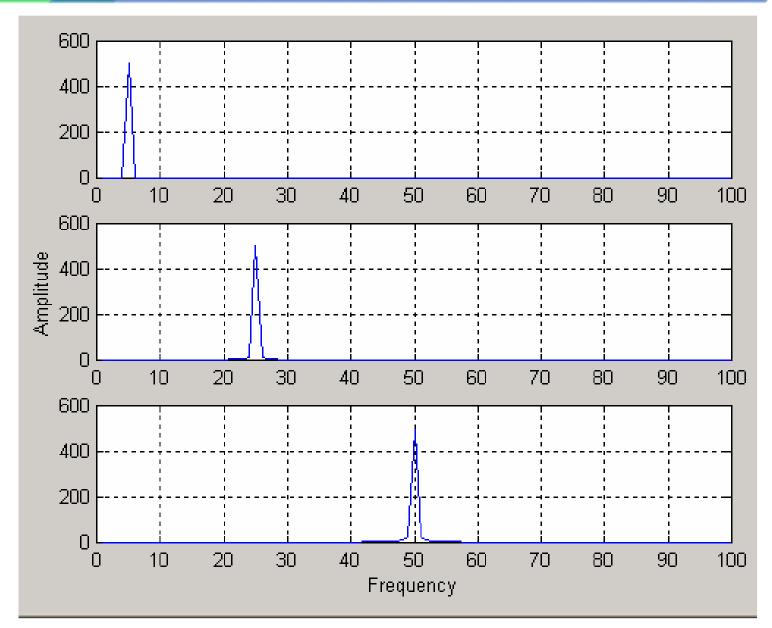
$$x_3(t) = \cos(2\pi \cdot 50 \cdot t)$$



$$x_1(t) \stackrel{\mathfrak{I}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_1(\omega)$$

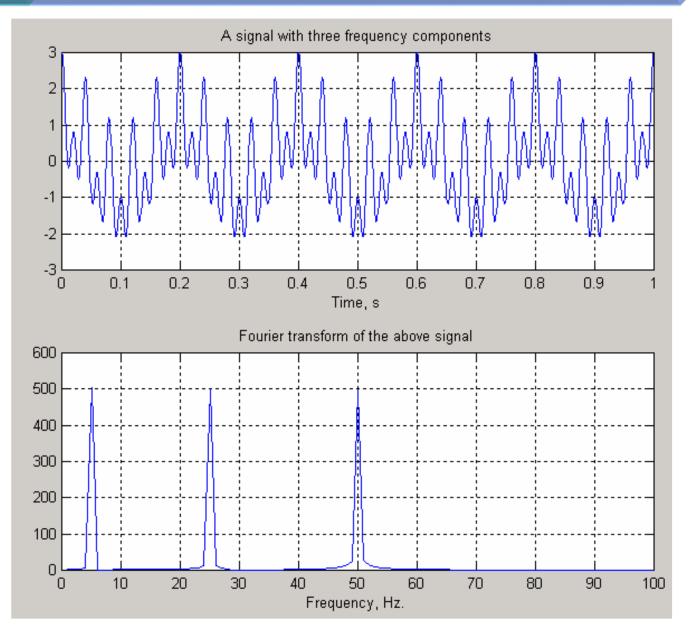
$$x_2(t) \stackrel{\mathfrak{F}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_2(\omega)$$

$$x_3(t) \stackrel{\mathfrak{I}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_3(\omega)$$



$$x_4(t) = \cos (2\pi \cdot 5 \cdot t) + \cos (2\pi \cdot 25 \cdot t) + \cos (2\pi \cdot 50 \cdot t)$$

$$x_4(t) \stackrel{\mathfrak{I}}{\longleftrightarrow} X_4(\omega)$$



EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Stationary and Non-stationary Signals

- FT identifies all spectral components present in the signal, however it does not provide any information regarding the temporal (time) localization of these components. Why?
- Stationary signals consist of spectral components that do not change in time*
 - all spectral components exist at all times
 - no need to know any time information
 - FT works well for stationary signals
- However, non-stationary signals consists of time varying spectral components
 - How do we find out which spectral component appears when?
 - FT only provides what spectral components exist, not where in time they are located.
 - Need some other ways to determine time localization of spectral components

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^{*} Formally, a **stationary signal** is one whose statistical properties (distribution) does not change in time – it is a very strict requirement that is rarely met by real world signals

EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Stationary and Non-stationary Signals

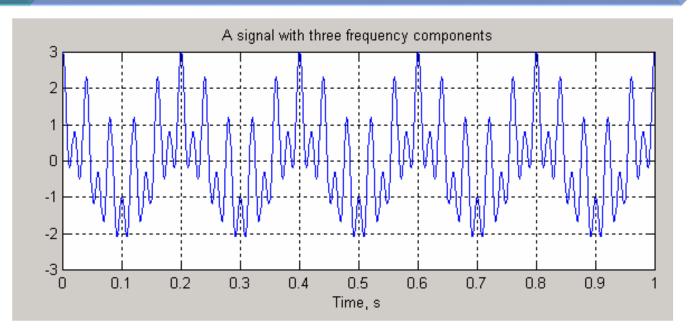
• Stationary signals' spectral characteristics do not change with time

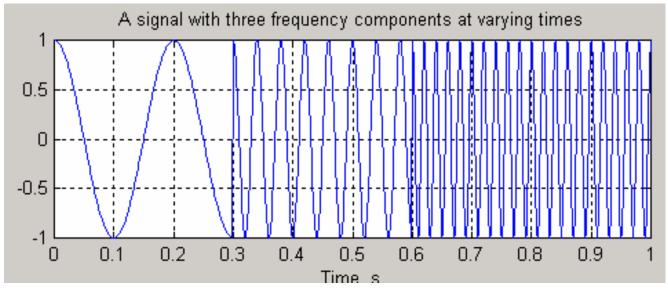
$$x_4(t) = \cos (2\pi \cdot 5 \cdot t) + \cos (2\pi \cdot 25 \cdot t) + \cos (2\pi \cdot 50 \cdot t)$$

 Non-stationary signals have time varying spectra

$$x_5(t) = [x_1(t) \bigoplus x_2(t) \bigoplus x_3(t)]$$

⊕: Concatenation

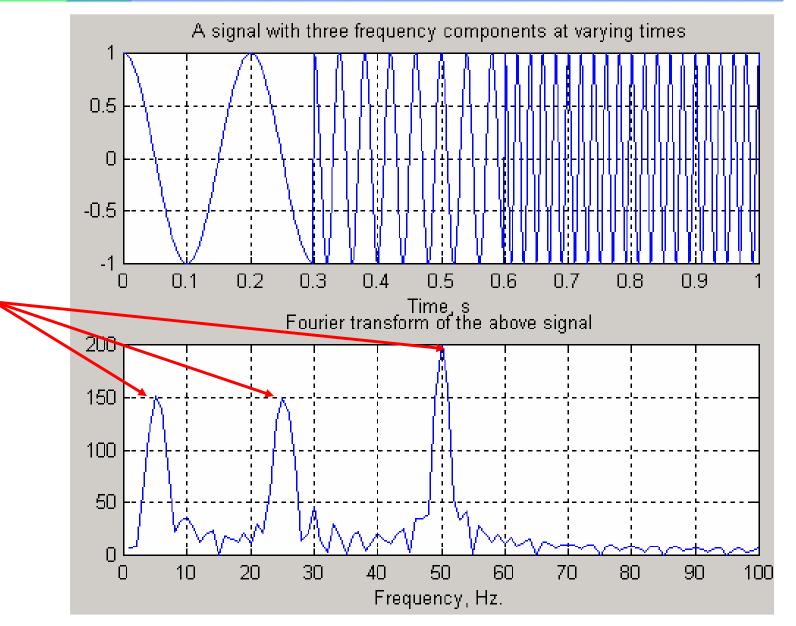




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Non-stationary Signals

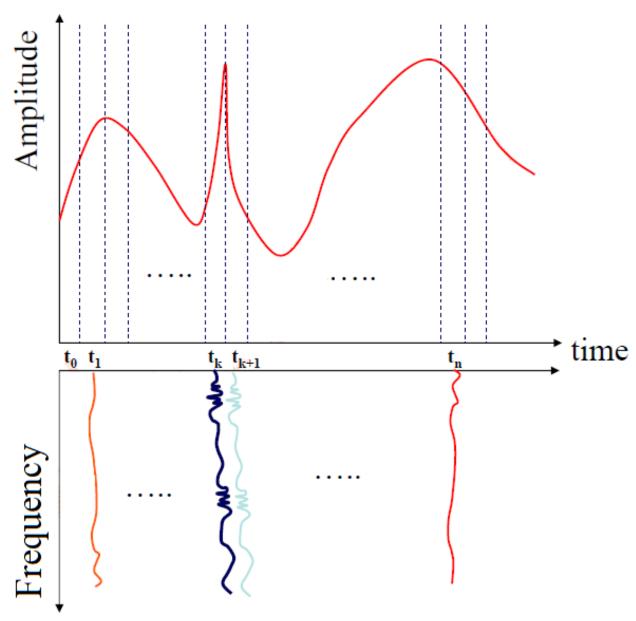
Perfect knowledge of what frequencies exist, but no information about where these frequencies are located in time



EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc Lecture # 4 FT Shortcomings

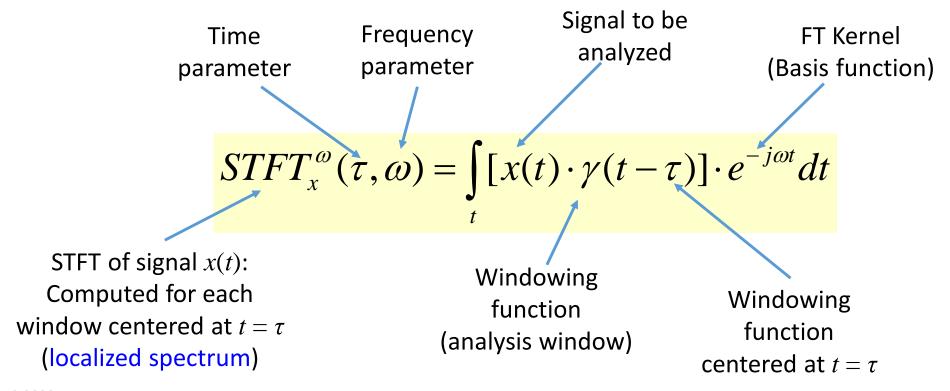
- Complex exponentials stretch out to infinity in time
 - They analyze the signal globally, not locally
 - Hence, FT can only tell what frequencies exist in the entire signal, but cannot tell, at what time instances these frequencies occur
 - In order to obtain time localization of the spectral components,
 the signal need to be analyzed locally
 - How?

EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Short Time Fourier Transform (STFT)

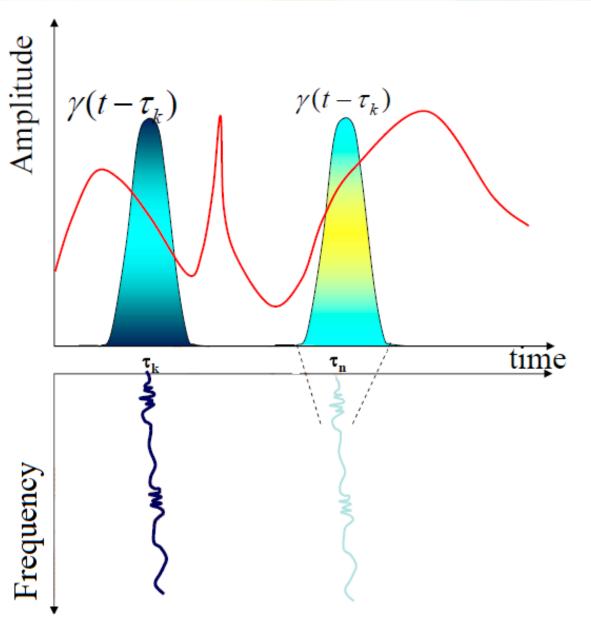


EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 The Short Time Fourier Transform

- Take FT of segmented consecutive pieces of a signal.
- Each FT then provides the spectral content of that time segment only
 - Spectral content for different time intervals
 - → Time-frequency representation



EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Resolution Issues



All signal attributes located within the local window interval around "t" will appear at "t" in the STFT

EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Time-Frequency Resolution

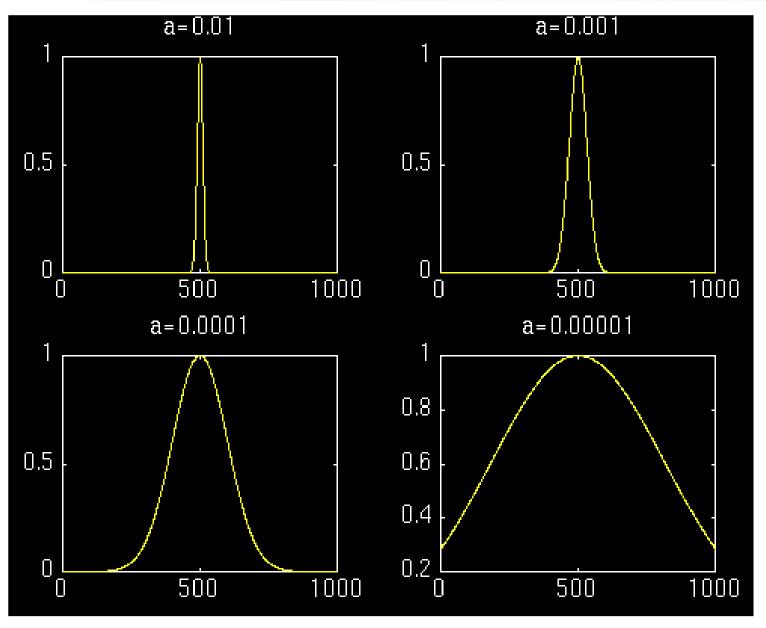
- Closely related to the choice of analysis window
 - Narrow window → good time resolution
 - Wide window (narrow band) → good frequency resolution
- Two extreme cases:
 - $\gamma(T) = \delta(t) \rightarrow$ excellent time resolution, no frequency resolution
 - $\gamma(T) = 1 \rightarrow$ excellent frequency resolution, no time info!!!
 - How to choose the window length?

$$STFT_{x}^{\omega}(\tau,\omega) = \int_{t} [x(t) \cdot \gamma(t-\tau)] \cdot e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

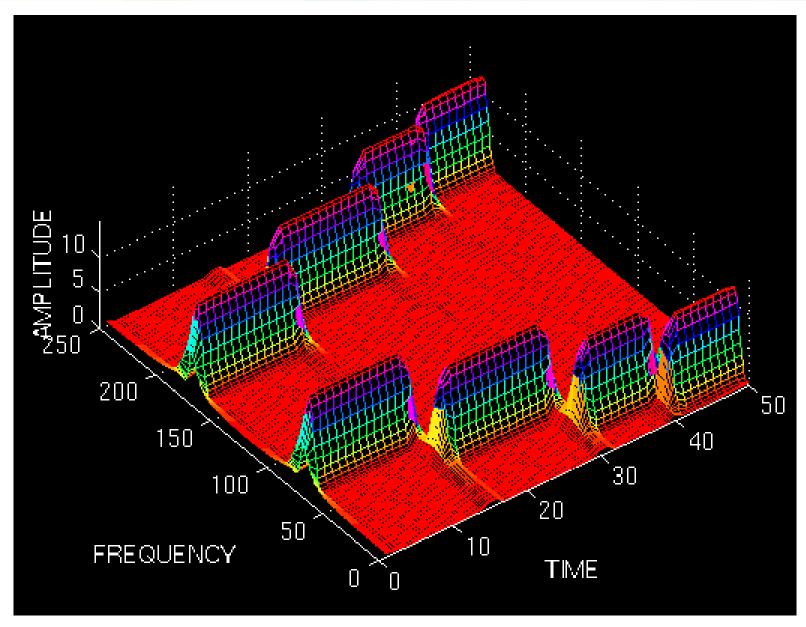
$$\gamma(t) = \delta(t) \to STFT(\tau,\omega) = x(\tau)e^{-j\omega\tau}$$

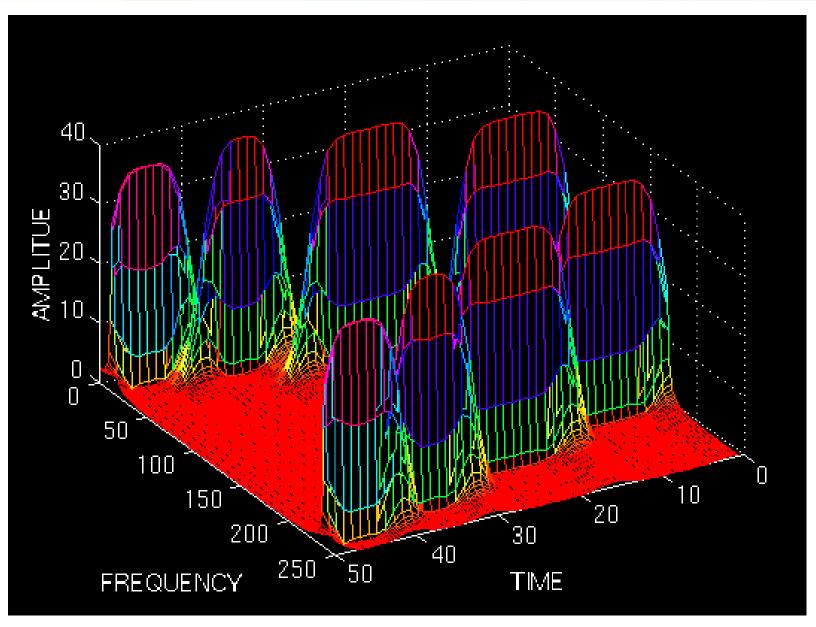
$$\gamma(t) = 1 \to STFT(\tau,\omega) = X(\omega)$$

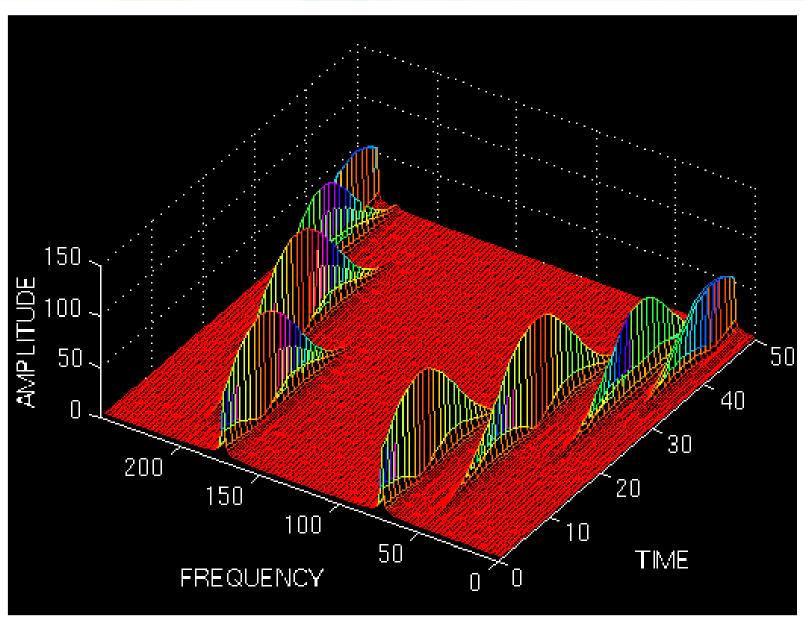
- Window length defines the time and frequency resolutions
- Heisenberg's inequality
 - Cannot have arbitrarily good time and frequency resolutions. One must trade one for the other. Their product is bounded from below.

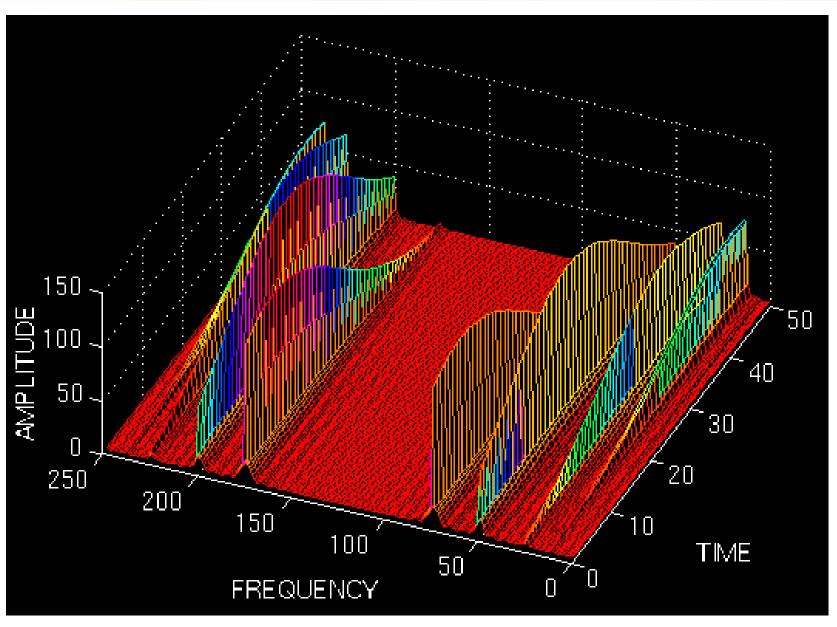


$$\gamma(t) = e^{-at^2/2}$$



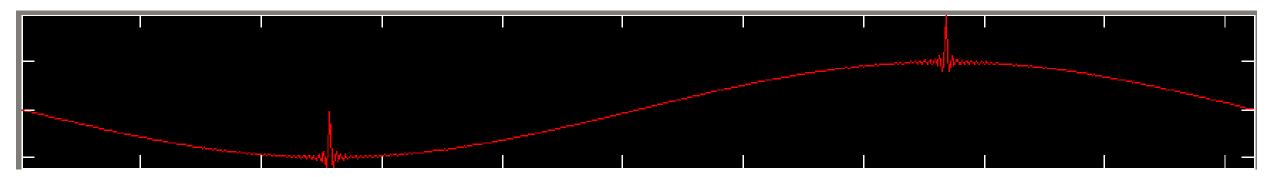






EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Time-Frequency Resolution

- Time frequency resolution problem with STFT
 - Analysis window dictates both time and frequency resolutions, once and for all
 - Narrow window → Good time resolution
 - Narrow band (wide window) → Good frequency resolution
- When do we need good time resolution, when do we need good frequency resolution?
 - Consider the following signal...



EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Heisenberg Principle

$$\Delta t \cdot \Delta f \ge \frac{1}{4\pi}$$

Time resolution: How well two spikes in time can be separated from each other in the transform domain Frequency resolution: How well two spectral components can be separated from each other in the transform domain

Both time and frequency resolutions cannot be arbitrarily high!!!

→→ We cannot precisely know at what time instance a frequency component is located. We can only know what *interval of frequencies* are present in which *time* intervals

EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 The Wavelet Transform

- Overcomes the preset resolution problem of the STFT by using a variable length window
- Analysis windows of different lengths are used for different frequencies:
 - Analysis of high frequencies → Use narrower windows for better time resolution
 - Analysis of low frequencies → Use wider windows for better frequency resolution
- This works well, if the signal to be analyzed mainly consists of slowly varying characteristics with occasional short high frequency bursts.
- Heisenberg principle still holds!!!
- The function used to window the signal is called the wavelet

EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Scale & Translation

Translation → time shift

- **Scaling** → Similar meaning of scale in maps
 - Large scale: Overall view, long term behavior
 - Small scale: Detail view, local behavior
- $f(t) \rightarrow f(a \cdot t), a > 0$
 - If 0 < a < 1 \rightarrow dilation, expansion

→ lower frequency

- If a > 1 \rightarrow contraction

→ higher frequency

- $f(t) \rightarrow f(t/a), a > 0$
 - If 0 < a < 1 \rightarrow contraction

- If a > 1 \rightarrow dilation, expansion

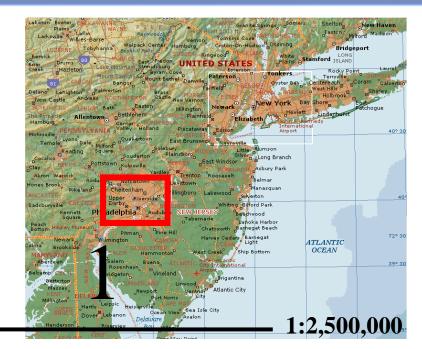
→ large scale (lower frequency)

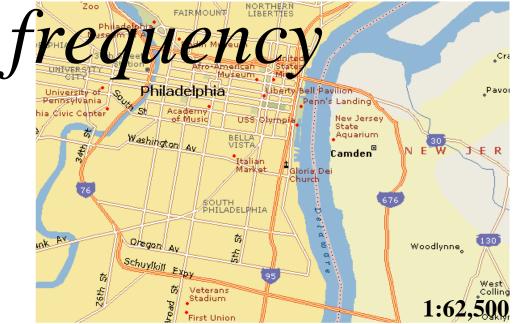
→ low scale (high frequency)

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EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Scale & Translation







EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc Lecture # 4 The Mother of All Oscillatory Little Basis Functions

- The kernel functions used in Wavelet transform are all obtained from one prototype function, by scaling and translating the prototype function.
- This prototype is called the mother wavelet

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

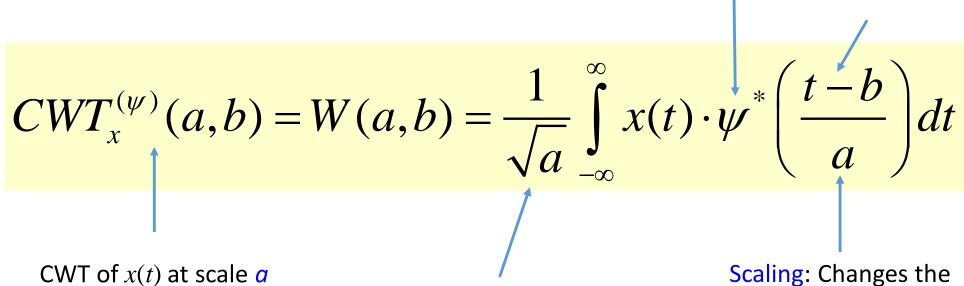
 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}$: Normalization factor to ensure that all wavelets have the same energy

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi_{(a,b)}(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi_{(1,0)}(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi(t)|^2 dt \qquad |\psi_{1,0}(t)| = |\psi(t)|$$

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EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Continuous Wavelet Transform





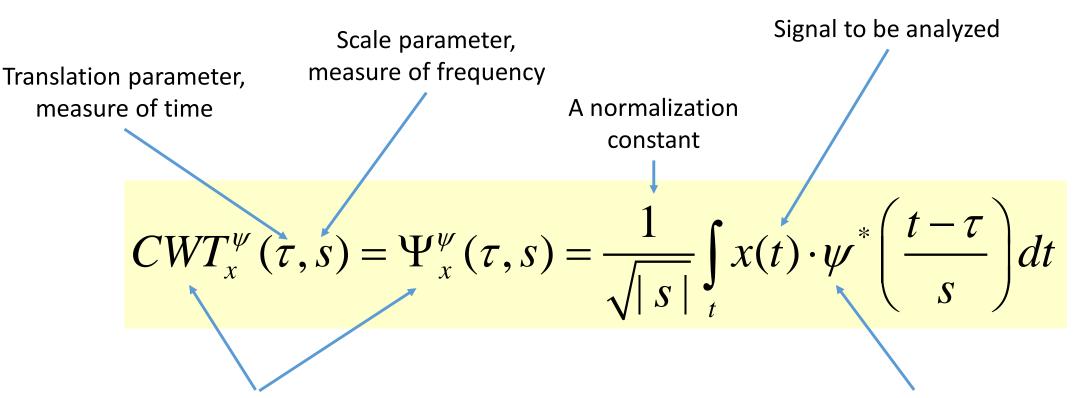
and translation bNote: low scale \rightarrow high frequency

Normalization factor

Scaling: Changes the support of the wavelet based on the scale (frequency)

Translation

EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Alternate Notation

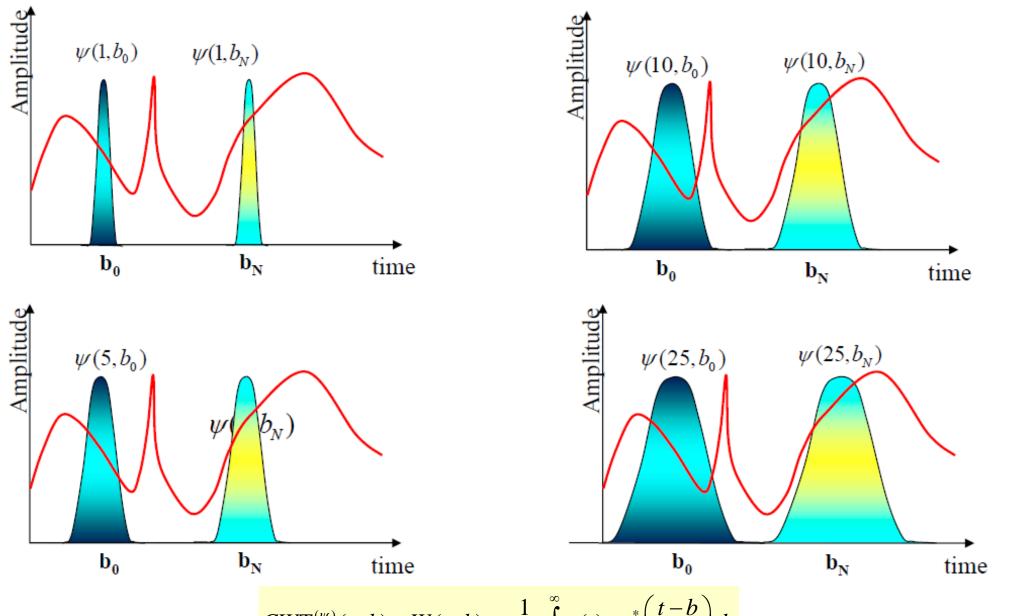


Continuous wavelet transform of the signal x(t) using the analysis wavelet $\psi(.)$

The mother wavelet. All kernels are obtained by translating (shifting) and/or scaling the mother wavelet

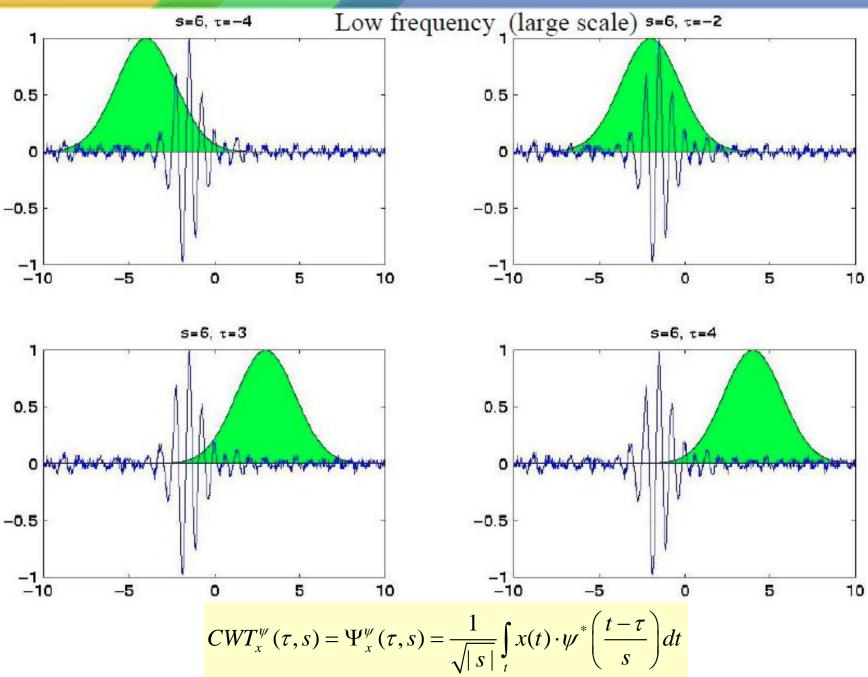
scale = 1/frequency

Computation of CWT EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4



 $CWT_{x}^{(\psi)}(a,b) = W(a,b) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \cdot \psi^{*} \left(\frac{t-b}{a}\right) dt$

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EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Why Wavelet?

We require that the wavelet functions, at a minimum, satisfy the following:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi(t)dt = 0$$

Wave...

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi(t)|^2 dt < \infty \quad ... let$$

EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 What Do Wavelets Look Like??

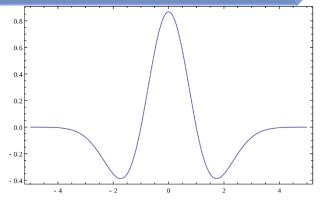
- Mexican Hat (Ricker or Marr) Wavelet
- Haar Wavelet
- Morlet (Gabor) Wavelet

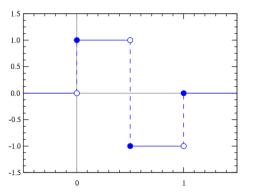
Mexican and Morlet have an effectively finite support, whereas Haar has a strictly finite support.

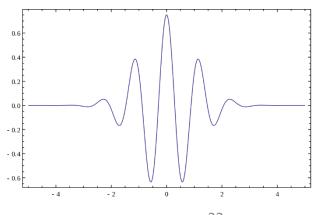
$$\psi_{\text{Mex}}(t) = \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}\pi^{-1/4}\right) \left(1-t^2\right)e^{-t^2/2}$$

$$\psi_{\text{haar}}(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \le t < 1/2 \\ -1, & 1/2 \le t < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

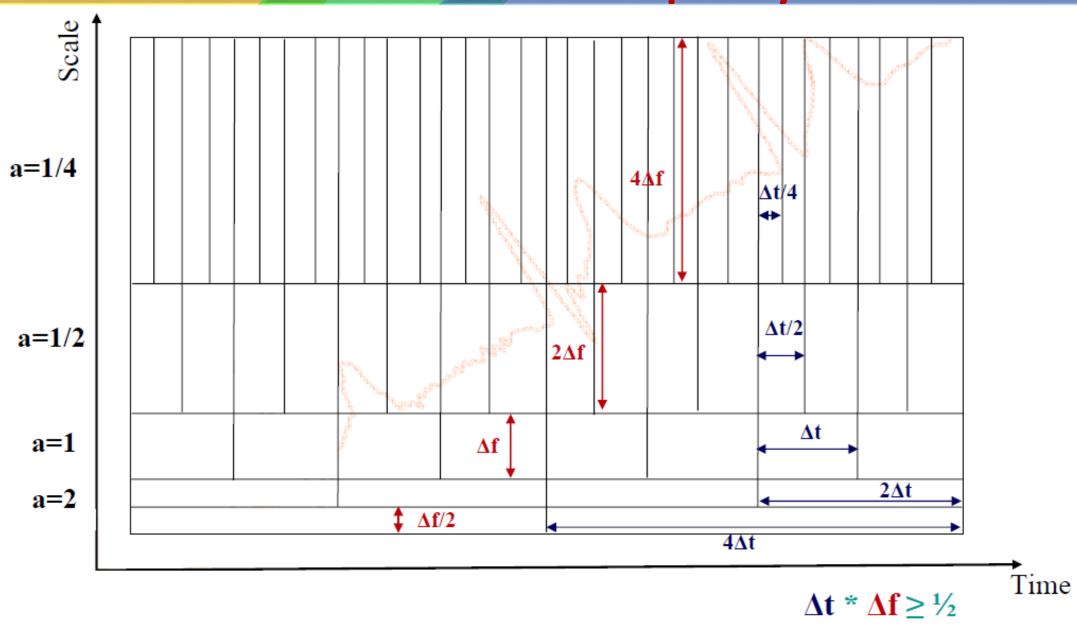
$$\psi_{\text{morlet}}(t) = e^{j\omega_0 t} e^{-t^2/2}, \quad \omega_0 = 5.336$$





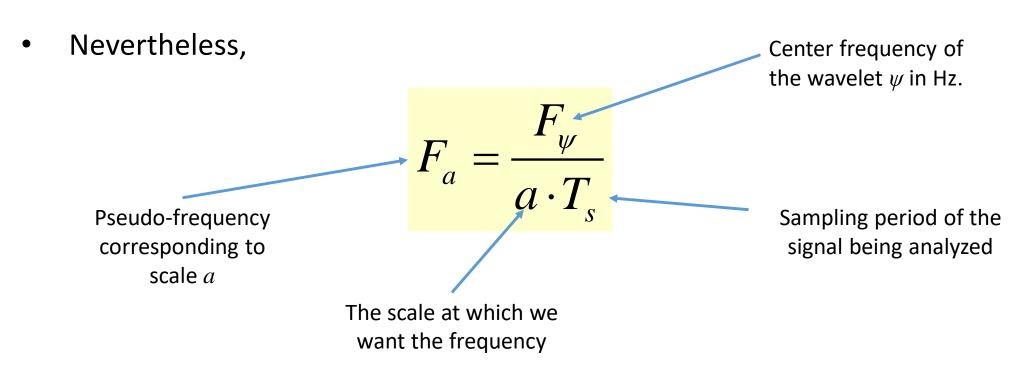


EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Time Frequency Grid in CWT



EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Scale vs. Frequency

- Can we obtain the frequency corresponding to a scale?
 - The answer depends on the wavelet used
 - We really should be talking about pseudo-frequency, since "frequency" does not appear in the analysis.



EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 The CWT Transform As a Correlation

$$CWT_{x}^{(\psi)}(a,b) = W(a,b) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \cdot \psi^{*} \left(\frac{t-b}{a}\right) dt$$

• Now, in the L^2 space (of square integrable functions) an **inner product** is defined as

$$\langle f(t), g(t) \rangle = \int f(t)g^*(t)dt$$

then

$$W(a,b) = \langle x(t), \psi_{a,b}(t) \rangle$$

Also, cross correlation is defined as:

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = \int x(t) \cdot y^*(t - \tau) dt$$
$$= \langle x(t), y(t - \tau) \rangle$$

then

$$W(a,b) = \langle x(t), \psi_{a,0}(t-b) \rangle$$

= $R_{x,\psi_{a,0}}(b)$

• Meaning of wavelets: W(a,b) is the **cross correlation** of the signal x(t) with the mother wavelet at scale a, at the lag of b. If x(t) is similar to the mother wavelet at this scale and lag, then W(a,b) will be large.

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{C} \int_{a=0}^{\infty} \int_{b=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{a^2} W(a,b) \cdot \psi_{a,b}(t) db da$$

$$C = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{|\Psi(\omega)|}{|\omega|} d\omega$$

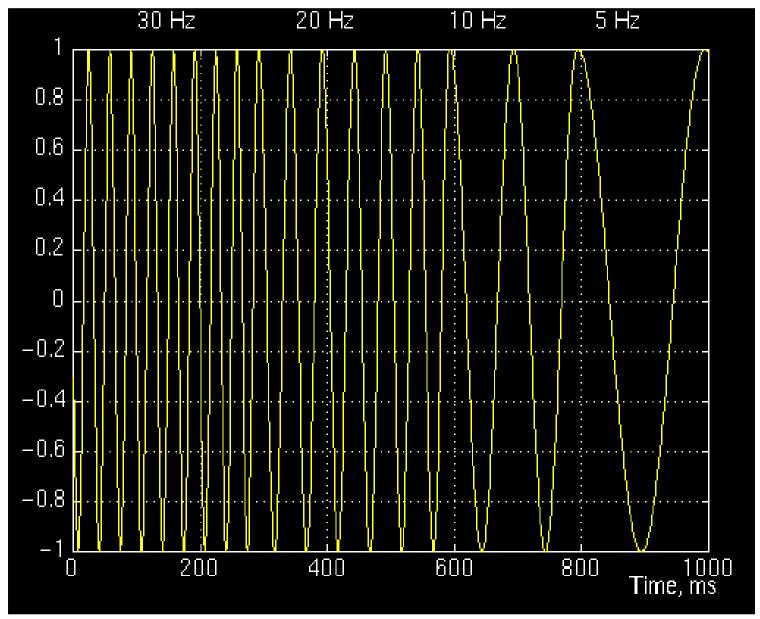
$$0 < C < \infty$$

which implies that
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi(t)dt = 0$$

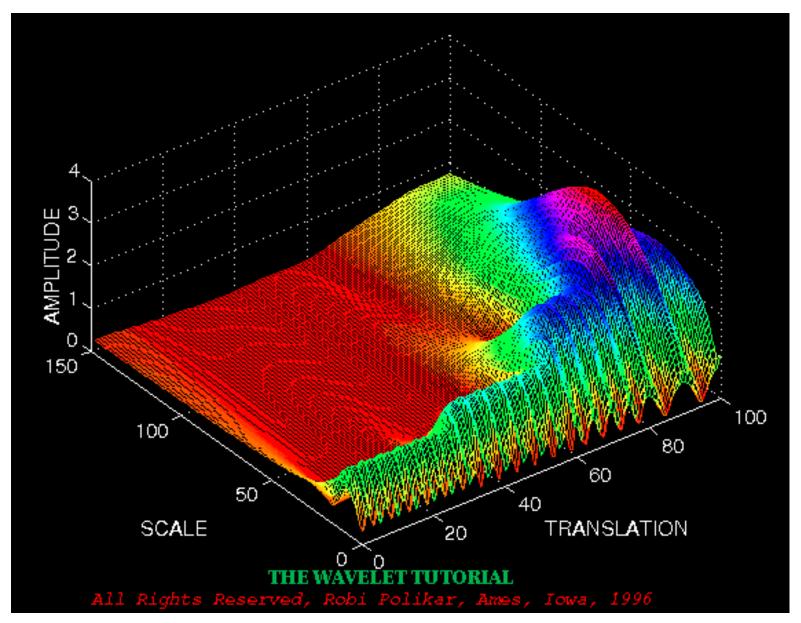
However, inverse transform is rarely performed in continuous time, because the CWT is infinitely redundant – More about this later!

EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 **EX**

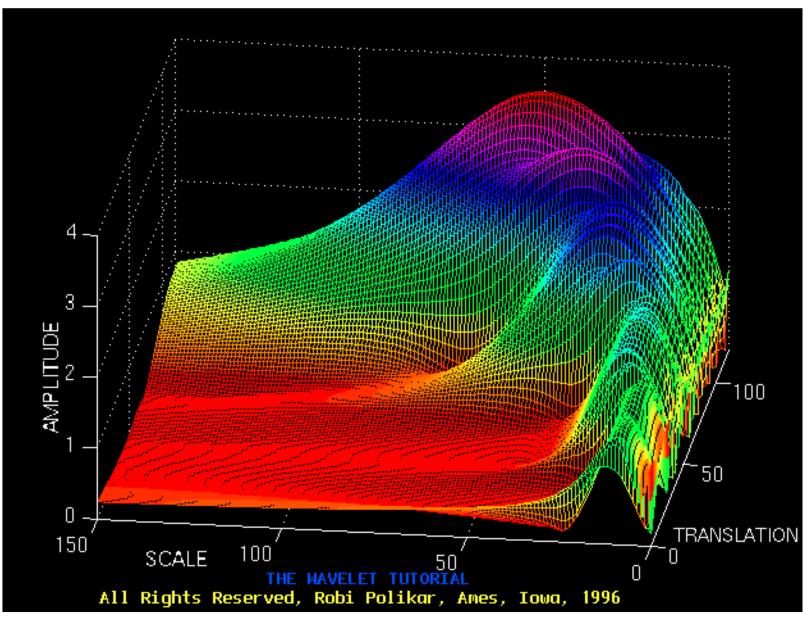
Example



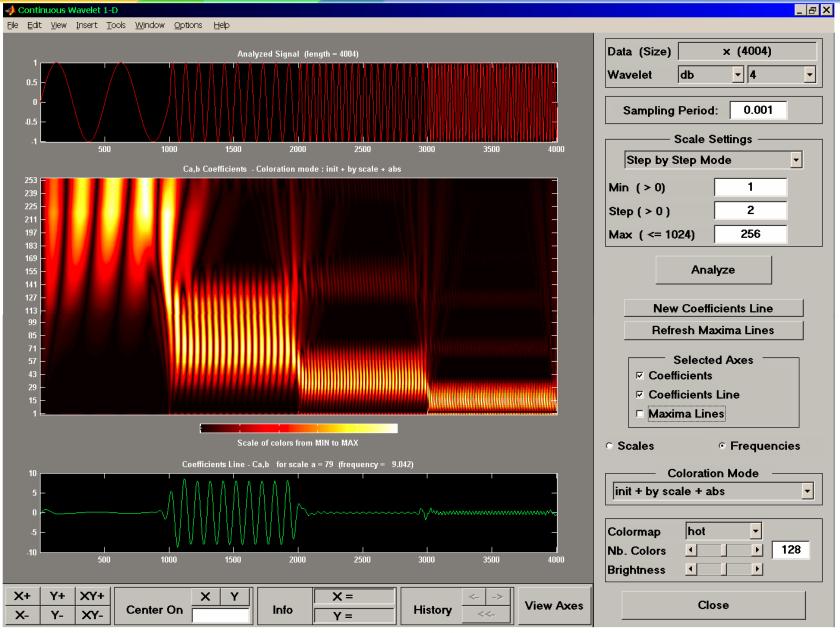
EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 **Example**



EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 **Example**

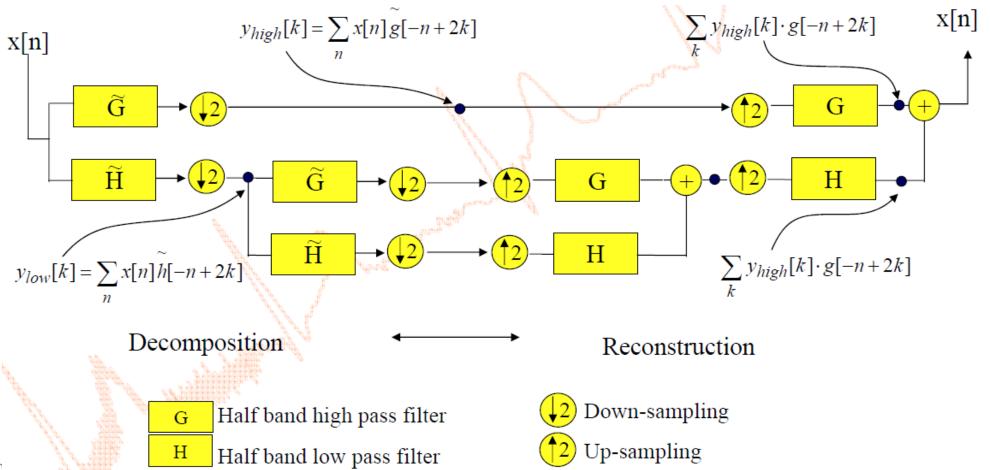


EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Matlab Demos on CWT



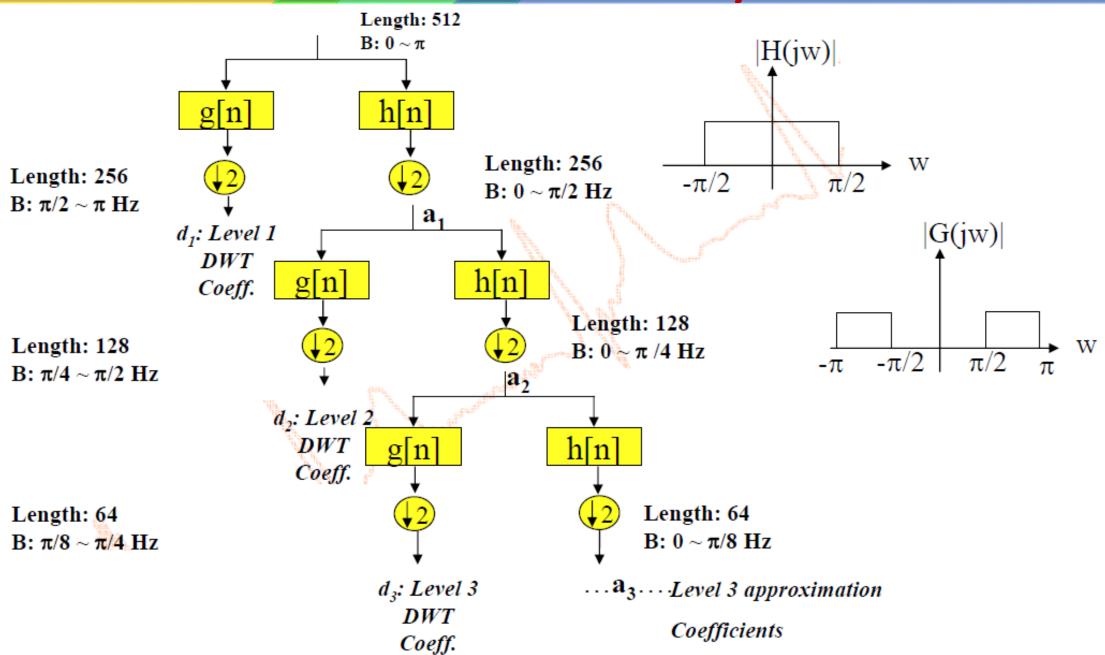
EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 DWT Wavelet Transformation Implementation

- There is a close relationship between the **DWT** and **filter banks**
 - This relationship allows us to compute the **DWT** in a very efficient manner
- In this implementation, the signal is decomposed into its approximations and details using a series of lowpass and highpass filters.

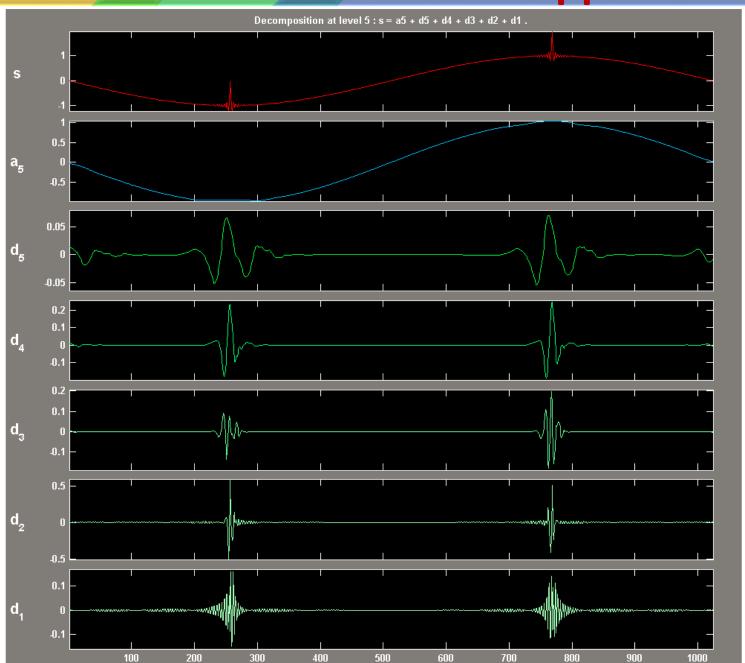


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EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 DWT – Demystified



EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Details vs. Approximations



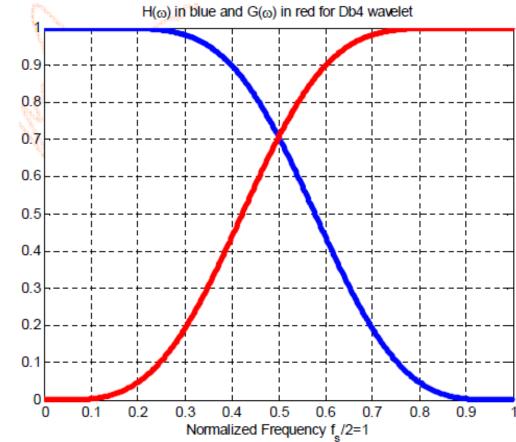
EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Quadrature Mirror Filters

It can be shown that

$$|H(j\omega)| + |H(j\omega + \pi/2)| = 1$$

$$|H(j\omega)|^2 + |G(j\omega)|^2 = 1 \Leftrightarrow |\tilde{H}(j\omega)|^2 + |\tilde{G}(j\omega)|^2 = 1$$

that is, h[] and g[] filters are related to each other: In fact, $h[L-1-n] = (-1)^n g[n]$ that is, h[] and g[] are mirrors of each other, with every other coefficient negated. Such filters are called **quadrature mirror filters**. For example, Daubechies wavelets with 4 vanishing moments.....



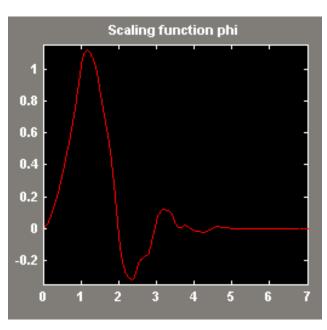
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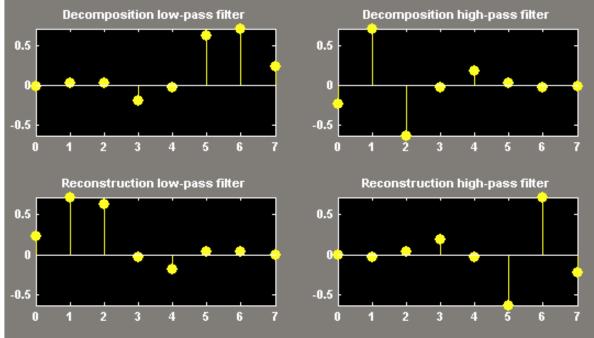
EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 DB-4 Wavelets

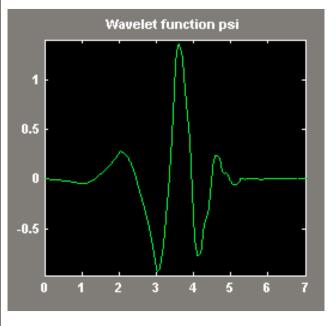
$$h[L-1-n] = (-1)^n g[n]$$

 $h[n] = \tilde{h}[-n], \quad g[n] = \tilde{g}[-n]$

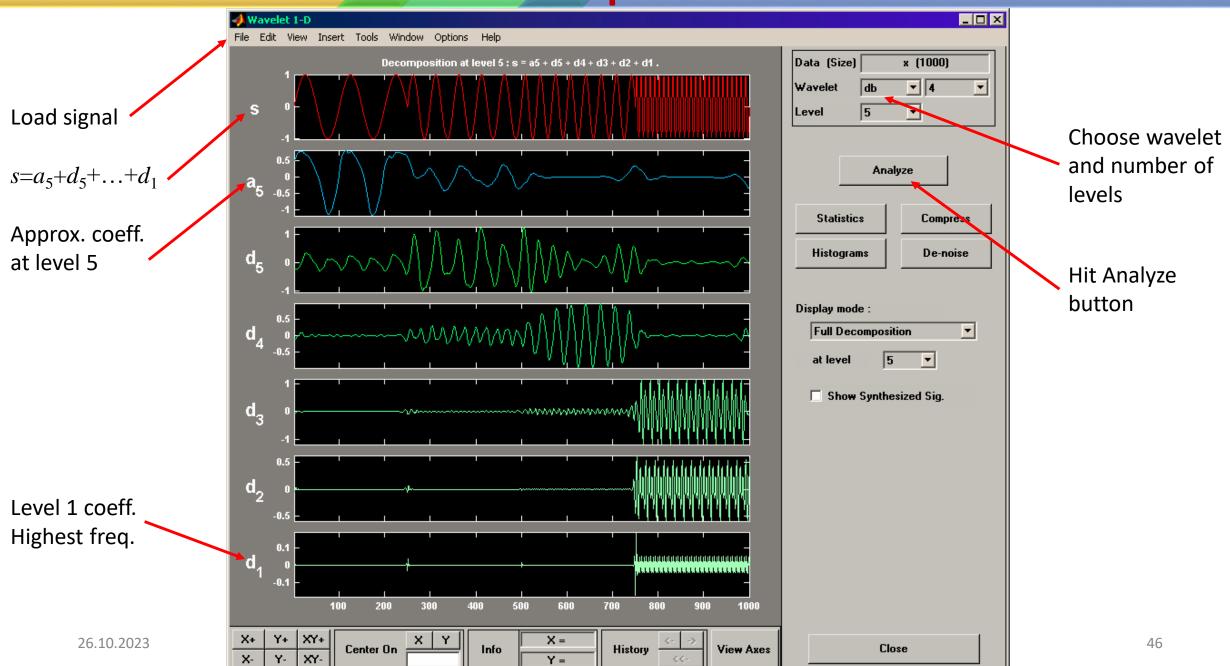
$$L = 8, n = 0,1,...,L-1$$







EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Implementation of DWT on Matlab



EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 Matlab Implementation Command Line

- Single level decomposition and reconstruction
 - [cA1 cD1]=dwt(x, 'db4') : single level decomposition
 - x=idwt(cA1, cD1, 'db4') : single level inverse transform
- Direct reconstruction of approximation and detail signals
 - D1=upcoef('d', cD1, 'db4', 1, N) : one-level reconstruction of detail signal from detail coefficient
 - A1=upcoef('a', cA1, 'db4', 1, N) : one level reconstruction of approximation signal from approximation coefficients
- Multi-level decomposition & reconstruction
 - [C L]=wavedec(x, K, 'db4') : k-level decomposition
 - A0=waverec(C, L, 'db4') : reconstruct the signal

 $L=[\boldsymbol{\ell_{a3}} \; \boldsymbol{\ell_{D3}} \; \boldsymbol{\ell_{D2}} \; \boldsymbol{\ell_{D1}} \boldsymbol{\ell_{signal}}]$

D1

D2

- Extracting coefficients
 - cA3=**appcoef**(C, L, 'db4', 3);
 - cD5=**detcoef**(C, L, 5);
- Single branch reconstruction
 - A3=wrcoef('a', C, L, 'db4', 3); : Reconstruct level 3 approx. signal
 - D2=wrcoef('d', C, L, 'db4', 2); : Reconstruct level 2 detail signal

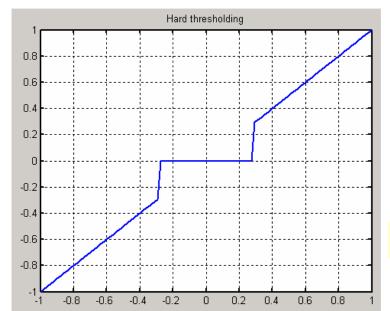
EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 **Denoising Using Wavelets**

Wavelet Shrinkage Denosing:

- Based on reducing the values of certain coefficients (at each level) that are believed to correspond to noise.
- Better then regular filtering, because no significant signal information is lost, even when signal and noise spectra overlap!
- Two types of thresholding are used:

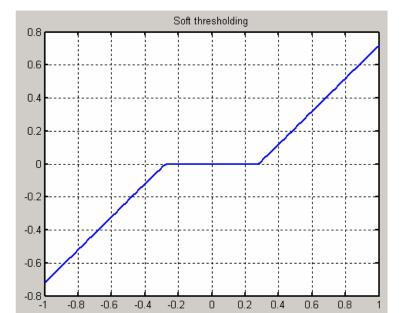
$$y_{\text{hard}}(t) = \begin{cases} x(t), & |x(t)| > \delta \\ 0, & |x(t)| < \delta \end{cases}$$

$$y_{\text{hard}}(t) = \begin{cases} x(t), & |x(t)| > \delta \\ 0, & |x(t)| < \delta \end{cases}$$
$$y_{\text{soft}}(t) = \begin{cases} \text{sgn}(x(t)) \cdot (|x(t) - \delta|), & |x(t)| > \delta \\ 0, & |x(t)| < \delta \end{cases}$$



$$\delta = 0.28$$

Lecture #4

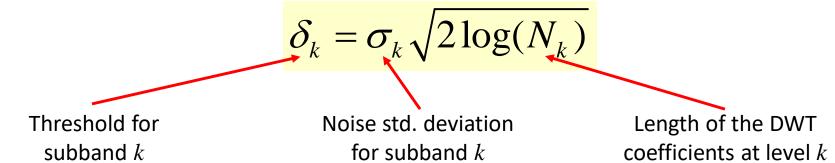


Three step procedure:

- 1. Decompose signal using DWT; choose wavelet and number of decomposition levels
- 2. Shrink coefficients by thresholding (hard /soft). Do we pick a single threshold or pick different thresholds at different levels?
- 3. Reconstruct the signal from thresholded DWT coefficients

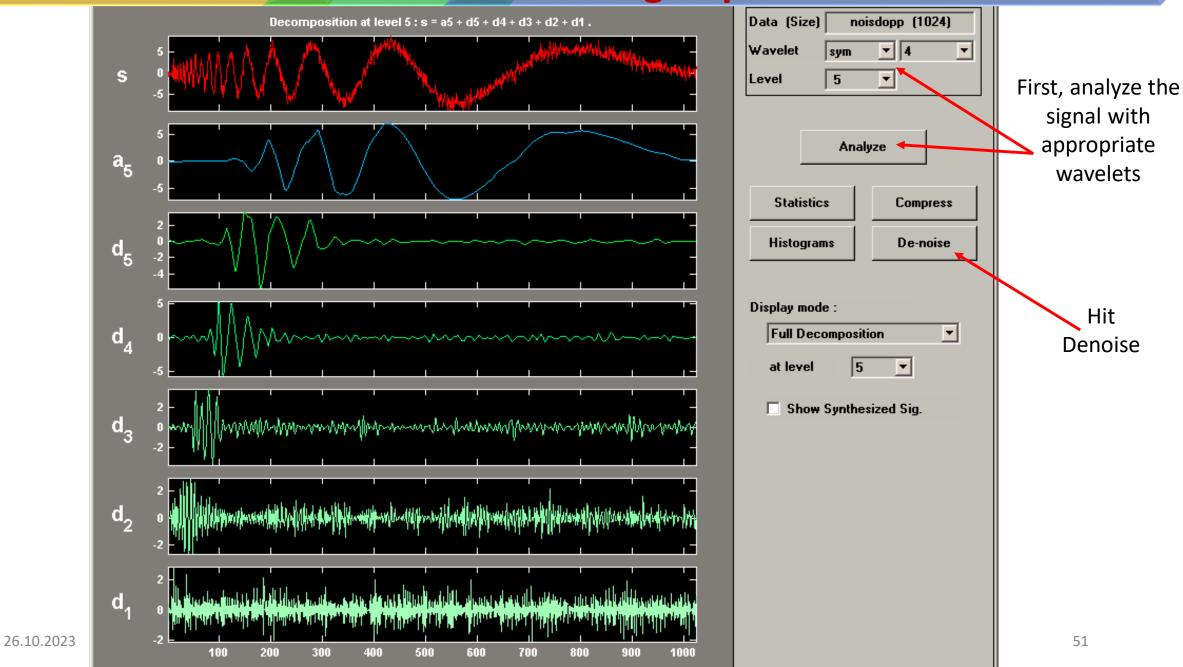
EE434 Biomedical Sig. Proc. Lecture # 4 How Do We Choose The Threshold?

- There are many models, such as Stein's unbiased risk estimate, universal threshold estimate, combination of the above two, minimax criterion, etc.
 Among them, universal threshold estimate is the one used most often.
- According to this model, $x[n] = s[n] + \sigma e[n]$, where s[n] is the clean signal, e[n] is the noise, σ^2 is the noise power, and x[n] is the noisy signal. The noise is considered as Additive White Gaussian Noise (AWGN).
- This model estimates the universal threshold (subband dependent, of course)

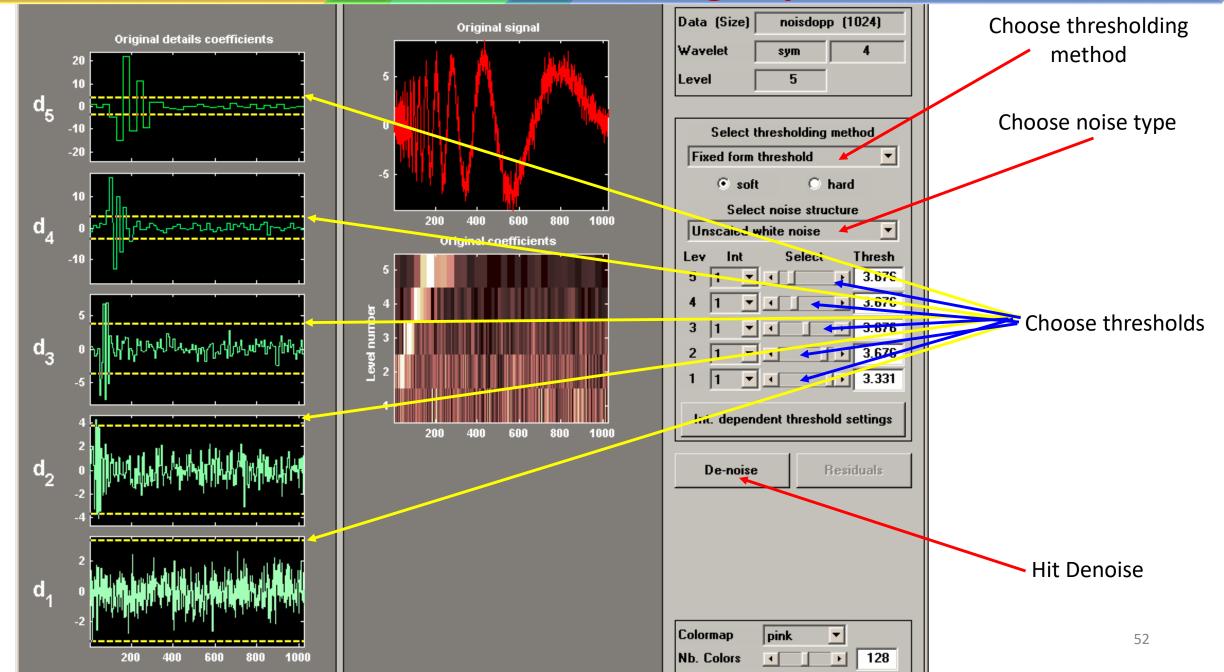


[XD, CXD, LXD]=wden(X, TPTR, SORH, SCAL, N, 'wname');

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