



**TAMPERE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**

*Institute of Signal Processing – Transforms and Spectral Methods Group*

**Spatially adaptive local approximations  
in signal and image processing:  
varying-scale polynomials,  
anisotropic adaptation,  
shape-adaptive transforms**

*Alessandro Foi*

`www.cs.tut.fi/~foi`

## Outline:

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### PART 1

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preliminaries (best approximations, reconstruction formulas, dual frames, etc.)

Local Polynomial Approximation (moving least-squares)

LPA kernels

varying scale estimates

ideal scales

adaptive scales: the Intersection of Confidence Intervals rule

LPA-ICI algorithm

Directional LPA

Anisotropic LPA-ICI

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### PART 2

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Shape-Adaptive DCT

Pointwise Shape-Adaptive DCT filters: denoising, deblocking, deblurring

“Shape-Adapted” Transforms

Non-local approach: Block-Matching 3D filtering algorithm

A decorative graphic on the left side of the page. It features a light blue gear partially visible on the left edge. To the left of the gear are two vertical bars: a light blue one on top and a yellow one on the bottom.

# PART 1

$$\hat{\varphi} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\varphi \in \mathcal{M}} \|\varphi - f\|_{\mathcal{H}}$$

Solution:  $\hat{\varphi}$  is the orthogonal projection of  $f$  onto  $\mathcal{M}$

Let  $\{\phi_n\}_n$  be a system of generators for  $\mathcal{M}$ , then

$$\hat{\varphi} = \sum_n \langle f, \phi_n \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \phi_n \quad \text{for } \{\phi_n\}_n \text{ orthonormal system, or}$$

$$\hat{\varphi} = \sum_n \langle f, \check{\phi}_n \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \phi_n \quad \text{for } \{\phi_n\}_n \text{ frame and } \{\check{\phi}_n\}_n \text{ dual frame.}$$

window function  $w \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mu)$  ( $w \geq 0$  density of  $\mu$ )

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \int f \bar{g} d\mu = \int f(v) \overline{g(v)} w(v) dv$$

$$\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 = \langle f, f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \int |f|^2 d\mu = \int |f(v)|^2 w(v) dv$$

## Best approximation in a closed subspace $\mathcal{M} \subset L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mu) = \mathcal{H}$

$$\hat{\varphi} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\varphi \in \mathcal{M}} \|\varphi - f\|_{\mathcal{H}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\varphi \in \mathcal{M}} \int |\varphi - f|^2 d\mu = \operatorname{argmin}_{\varphi \in \mathcal{M}} \int |\varphi(v) - f(v)|^2 w(v) dv$$

Let  $\{\phi_n\}_n$  be a frame for  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\{\check{\phi}_n\}_n$  its dual frame, then

$$\hat{\varphi} = \sum_n \int f \overline{\check{\phi}_n} d\mu \phi_n = \sum_n \int f(v) \overline{\check{\phi}_n(v)} w(v) dv \phi_n$$

### Matrix form:

$$\hat{\varphi} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\varphi \in \mathcal{M}} \|\varphi - f\|_{\mathcal{H}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\varphi \in \mathcal{M}} ((\varphi - f)^T \mathbf{w} (\varphi - f))$$

$$\hat{\varphi} = \phi \check{\phi}^T \mathbf{w} f,$$

where  $\mathbf{w} = \operatorname{diag} w$  is the weight matrix,  $\phi$  is the frame matrix,  $\check{\phi} = \phi \Phi^\dagger$  is the dual frame matrix, and  $\Phi = \phi^T \mathbf{w} \phi$  is the Gramian matrix.

This is equivalent to a standard weighted least-squares problem.

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\varphi}(0) &= \sum_n \langle f, \check{\phi}_n \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \phi_n(0) = \left\langle f, \sum_n \check{\phi}_n \overline{\phi_n(0)} \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \\ &= \int f(v) \sum_n \overline{\check{\phi}_n(v)} \phi_n(0) w(v) dv = \int f(v) g_{\mathcal{M}}(v) dv\end{aligned}$$

The kernel  $g_{\mathcal{M}}$  depends only on  $\mathcal{M}$  (i.e. on  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $w$ ).

“Moving” least-squares method  $\rightsquigarrow$  convolution estimates

$$\hat{y} = z \circledast g_{\mathcal{M}} = \int z(\cdot - v) g_{\mathcal{M}}(v) dv$$

$$\hat{y}(x) = \hat{\varphi}_x(0), \text{ where } \hat{\varphi}_x = \operatorname{argmin}_{\varphi \in \mathcal{M}} \|\varphi - \tilde{z}_x\|_{\mathcal{H}} \text{ and } \tilde{z}_x = z(x - \cdot).$$

Equivalently, the convolution against  $g_{\mathcal{M}}$  yields, for every point  $x$ , the pointwise value (in  $x$ ) of the best approximation of the function  $z$  in the subspace  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}_x = \{\varphi : \varphi(x - \cdot) \in \mathcal{M}\}$ . Here, “best approximation” and the “subspace” structure are intended with respect to the windowing measure  $\tilde{\mu}_x$  (“centered” at  $x$ ) defined as  $\tilde{\mu}_x(\cdot) = -\mu(x - \cdot)$ , that is implicitly imposed on a superspace, say  $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_x = L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \tilde{\mu}_x)$ , of  $\mathcal{M}_x$ .

## ***LPA* (local polynomial approximation)**

$\mathcal{M}$  is a subspace of real polynomials

There are only two design parameters for  $\mathcal{M}$ :

polynomial order  $O_m$  :  $\mathcal{M} = \{\varphi : \varphi(v) = \sum_{o \in O_m} c_o v^o\}$

window function  $w$  :  $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \int f g d\mu = \int f(v) g(v) w(v) dv$



Clearly,  $\hat{\varphi}$  does not depend on the frame used to construct  $\mathcal{M}$ . Nevertheless, it is very convenient to use a basis whose generators are monomes, and in particular an ideal choice is to use the standard Taylor basis,

$$\{\phi_n\}_{n=1}^N = \left\{ \frac{v^o}{o!} \right\}_{o \in O_m}, \quad (1)$$

where  $o! = o_1! \cdots o_d!$ ,  $o = o(n) \in \mathbb{N}^d$ ,  $\phi_n(v) = \frac{v^{o(n)}}{o(n)!}$ . Indeed, since  $\phi_n(0) = \delta(n-1)$ , the *function-estimation kernel* is

$$g_{\mathcal{M}}(v) = w(v) \sum_{l,n} \phi_l(v) \mathbf{\Phi}^\dagger(l,n) \phi_n(0) = w(v) \sum_l \phi_l(v) \mathbf{\Phi}^{-1}(l,1). \quad (2)$$

The use of Taylor basis allows to define the *derivative-estimation kernels* as

$$g_{\mathcal{M}}^{(o(n))}(v) \triangleq w(v) \sum_l \phi_l(v) \mathbf{\Phi}^{-1}(l,n). \quad (3)$$

The convolution against them yields an estimate for the function and all its derivatives (for all orders  $o \in O_m$ )

$$\hat{y}^{(o(n))} = z \circledast g_{\mathcal{M}}^{(o(n))} = \int z(\cdot - v) g_{\mathcal{M}}^{(o(n))}(v) dv,$$

where  $\hat{y}^{(o)}(x) = \left( D^{(o)} \widetilde{\hat{\varphi}}_x \right)(x)$ , with  $\widetilde{\hat{\varphi}}_x = \hat{\varphi}_x(\cdot - x)$  being the best approximation of  $z$  in the space  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}_x$ . Thus,  $\hat{y}^{(o)}(x)$  is in fact an estimate of the  $o$ -th (partial) derivative of  $y$ .

Because of the perfect-reconstruction property for polynomials in  $\mathcal{M}$ , the following equations, or *moments conditions*, hold,

$$\int g_{\mathcal{M}}(v) dv = 1, \quad (4)$$

$$\int v^o g_{\mathcal{M}}(v) dv = 0, \quad o \in O_m \setminus \{0\}. \quad (5)$$

The relations from the last equation are often called *vanishing moments conditions*.

### Zero-order LPA

For the zero-order *LPA* (i.e.  $m = 0$ ), the set of generators consists of only the constant term,  $\{\phi_n\}_n = \{\phi_1\} = \{1\}$ , and the function estimation kernel coincides with the normalized window function,

$$g_{\mathcal{M}} = w\phi_1 \left( \int \phi_1(v) \phi_1(v) w(v) dv \right)^{-1} = \frac{w}{\int w(v) dv}. \quad (6)$$

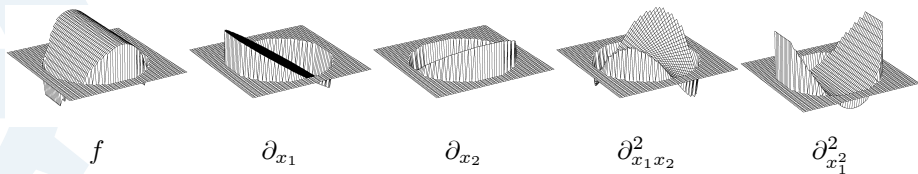


Figure 1: Function and derivative estimation *LPA* kernels obtained for  $m = (2, 1)$  using the characteristic function of a disk as the window function  $w$ .

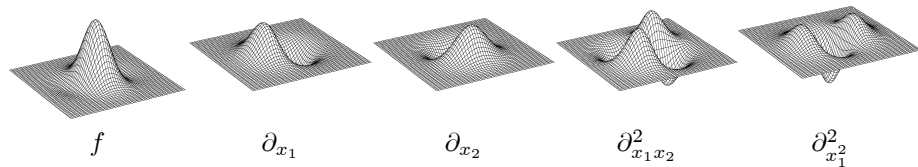


Figure 2: Function and derivative estimation *LPA* kernels obtained for  $m = (2, 1)$  using a Gaussian window function  $w$ .

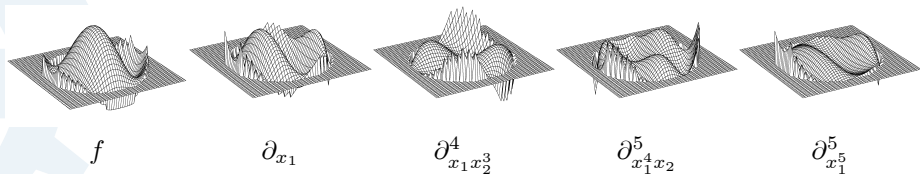


Figure 3: The function estimation *LPA* kernel and some of the derivative estimation *LPA* kernels obtained for  $m = (5, 3)$  using the characteristic function of a disk as the window function  $w$ .

## Scale parameter $h$

$$w_h(\cdot) \triangleq w(\cdot/h), \quad h \in \mathbb{R}^+, \\ g_h(\cdot) = h^{-d} g_{\mathcal{M}}(\cdot/h).$$

$h$  controls the “size” of the kernel support

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{y}_h &= \int z(\cdot - v) g_h(v) dv = \\ &= \int z(\cdot - v) h^{-d} g_{\mathcal{M}}(v/h) dv = \int z(\cdot - hv) g_{\mathcal{M}}(v) dv, \end{aligned}$$

In frequency domain, we have

$$\hat{Y}_h = ZG_h = Z\mathcal{F}(h^{-d}g_{\mathcal{M}}(\cdot/h)) = Zh^{-d}\mathcal{F}(g_{\mathcal{M}}(\cdot/h)) = ZG_{\mathcal{M}}(h\cdot),$$

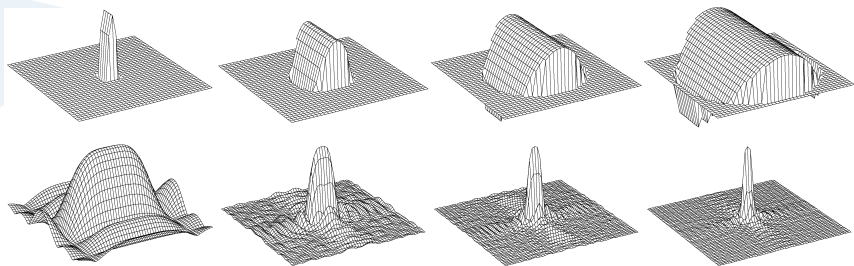


Figure 4: Function estimation *LPA* kernels obtained for  $m = (2, 1)$  using the characteristic function of disk as the window function  $w_h$ . Kernels are shown for four different values of  $h$ , from small (left) to large (right). The absolute value of the kernels' Fourier transforms are shown in the bottom row of the Figure. To improve the visualization, the vertical scale of the space-domain plots is larger for the kernels of a larger scale.

How to choose  $h$ ?

Let the observations be of the form

$$z = y + \sigma\eta, \quad \eta \text{ iid noise, } \eta(\cdot) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

and consider the *LPA* estimate

$$\hat{y}_h(x) = (z \circledast g_h)(x).$$

The bias and variance (i.e. the deterministic and stochastic error) of  $\hat{y}_h(x)$  are

$$\begin{aligned} \text{bias} \{ \hat{y}_h(x) \} &= m_{\hat{y}_h(x)} = E \{ y(x) - \hat{y}_h(x) \} = \\ &= y(x) - E \{ \hat{y}_h(x) \} = y(x) - (E \{ z \} \circledast g_h)(x) = y(x) - (y \circledast g_h)(x), \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var} \{ \hat{y}_h(x) \} &= \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2 = E \left\{ (E \{ \hat{y}_h(x) \} - \hat{y}_h(x))^2 \right\} = \\ &= E \left\{ ((y - z) \circledast g_h)(x)^2 \right\} = (\sigma_z^2 \circledast g_h^2)(x) = \sigma^2 \int g_h^2(v) dv = \sigma^2 \|g_h\|_2^2. \end{aligned}$$

The pointwise mean squared error (MSE), or (quadratic) risk, can be decomposed in the sum of the squared bias and the variance,

$$l_{\hat{y}_h(x)} = E \left\{ (y(x) - \hat{y}_h(x))^2 \right\} = m_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2 + \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2.$$

Our aim is to determine  $h$  in such a way that  $l_{\hat{y}_h(x)}$  is minimized: find the *optimal scale*.

## Asymptotic error analysis

Let  $x$  be a fixed estimation point. We can rewrite the expression for the variance as an explicit function of the scale parameter,

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2 &= \sigma^2 \|g_h\|_2^2 = \sigma^2 \|h^{-d} g_{\mathcal{M}}(\cdot/h)\|_2^2 = \\ &= \sigma^2 h^{-2d} \int g_{\mathcal{M}}^2(v/h) dv = \sigma^2 h^{-d} \int g_{\mathcal{M}}^2(v) dv = \sigma^2 h^{-d} \|g_{\mathcal{M}}\|_2^2.\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, for the bias, by exploiting a similar change of variable, we obtain

$$m_{\hat{y}_h(x)} = y(x) - \int y(x-v) h^{-d} g_{\mathcal{M}}(v/h) dv = y(x) - \int y(x-hv) g_{\mathcal{M}}(v) dv.$$

Let us consider a Taylor-type expansion at  $x$  of the function  $y$ ,

$$y(x-t) = y(x) + \sum_{o \in O_m \setminus \{0\}} \frac{(-1)^{|o|}}{o!} (D^o y)(x) w^o + R(t),$$

where the remainder term  $R(t) = \sum_{o \notin O_m} \mathcal{O}(t^o)$  and  $\mathcal{O}(t^o)$  denotes a function such that is asymptotic to  $t^o$  as  $t \rightarrow 0$ .



Because of the perfect-reconstruction property for polynomials whose monomes have orders in  $O_m$ , the bias is made only from the contribution of the remainder:

$$m_{\hat{y}_h(x)} = y(x) - \int y(x - hv) g_{\mathcal{M}}(v) dv = \int R(hv) g_{\mathcal{M}}(v) dv.$$

There are many possible representation of the remainder  $R$ . However, the standard choice is to express it in Lagrange form. It means that  $|R(w)| \leq \sum L_o |w^o|$  where  $L_o$  is some uniform bound on the  $o$ -th partial derivative of  $y$ . Depending on the order  $m$  of the *LPA*, the dimension  $d$ , of course, actual the smoothness of  $y$ , various accurate bounds the remainder can be obtained.

Nevertheless, for all the coming considerations, it is enough to consider the following generic upper bound on the modulus of the asymptotic bias of the *LPA* estimate,

$$\bar{m}_{\hat{y}_h(x)} = rh^\alpha \|g_{\mathcal{M}}\|_1 = ah^\alpha, \quad (7)$$

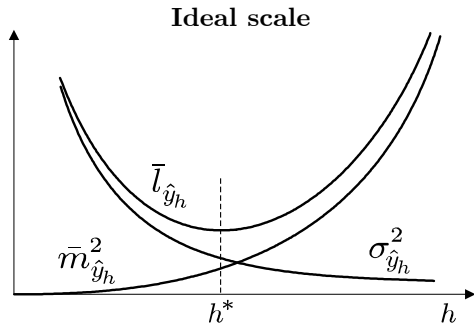
and its variance

$$\sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2 = \sigma^2 h^{-d} \|g_{\mathcal{M}}\|_2^2 = b^2 h^{-2\beta}. \quad (8)$$

The upper bound of the asymptotic risk is the *ideal risk*

$$\bar{l}_{\hat{y}_h(x)} = \bar{m}_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2 + \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2 = a^2 h^{2\alpha} + b^2 h^{-2\beta}.$$

Here  $b$  and  $\beta$  depend only on the kernel (variance of the estimate is not affected by the estimated function),  $a$  depends on the uniform bound  $L$ , and  $\alpha$  is influenced by the order of the *LPA* (i.e. by the polynomial components of the remainder).



The pointwise *ideal scale*  $h^* = h^*(x)$  is defined as the minimizer of  $\bar{l}_{\hat{y}_h(x)}$ ,

$$h^* = \operatorname{argmin}_h \bar{l}_{\hat{y}_h(x)},$$

and can be found by solving

$$\partial_h \bar{l}_{\hat{y}_h(x)} = 0.$$

It gives

$$\partial_h \bar{l}_{\hat{y}_h(x)} = 2a^2 \alpha h^{2\alpha-1} - 2b^2 \beta h^{-2\beta-1} = 0,$$

and the ideal scale  $h^*$  as

$$h^* = \left( \frac{\beta b^2}{\alpha a^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2\alpha+2\beta}}. \quad (9)$$

Let us use this ideal scale into the bias and variance expressions (7) and (8). We obtain,<sup>19</sup>

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{m}_{\hat{y}_{h^*}(x)}^2 &= a^2 \left( \frac{\beta b^2}{\alpha a^2} \right)^{\frac{2\alpha}{2\alpha+2\beta}} = a^2 \left( \frac{\beta b^2}{\alpha a^2} \right)^{\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}}, \\ \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^*}(x)}^2 &= b^2 \left( \frac{\beta b^2}{\alpha a^2} \right)^{\frac{-2\beta}{2\alpha+2\beta}} = b^2 \left( \frac{\beta b^2}{\alpha a^2} \right)^{\frac{-\beta}{\alpha+\beta}}.\end{aligned}$$

Observe that the ratio between then upper bound of the squared bias and the variance at the ideal scale  $h^*$ ,

$$\frac{\bar{m}_{\hat{y}_{h^*}(x)}^2}{\sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^*}(x)}^2} = a^2 \left( \frac{\beta b^2}{\alpha a^2} \right)^{\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}} b^{-2} \left( \frac{\beta b^2}{\alpha a^2} \right)^{\frac{\beta}{\alpha+\beta}} = a^2 b^{-2} \frac{\beta b^2}{\alpha a^2} = \frac{\beta}{\alpha} = \gamma^2, \quad (10)$$

does not depend on  $a$ . It means that it does not depend on the local behaviour of the function at  $x$ .

The upper bound of the risk at the ideal scale  $h^*$ , so-called *ideal risk*, has the following form:

$$\bar{l}_{\hat{y}_{h^*}(x)} = \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^*}(x)}^2 (1 + \gamma^2). \quad (11)$$

Since the ratio  $\bar{m}_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2 / \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2$  is a monotonically increasing function of  $h$ , we have that

$$\bar{m}_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2 \begin{cases} < \gamma^2 \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2 & \forall h < h^* \\ > \gamma^2 \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2 & \forall h > h^* \end{cases}, \quad (12)$$

These inequalities, which turn into an equality only at  $h = h^*$ , can be then used to test the hypothesis  $h \stackrel{\leq}{\geq} h^*$ .

The *ICI* rule (Goldenshluger&Nemirovski, 1997) is a practical method that selects an adaptive scale  $h^+(x)$  whose corresponding estimate  $\hat{y}_{h^+(x)}$  is close to the ideal  $\hat{y}_{h^*(x)}$ . This can be done without knowledge on smoothness of the signal, i.e. without knowing  $L$  or  $a$ . Note that the ideal scale depends on these parameters:

$$h^* = \left( \frac{\beta b^2}{\alpha a^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2\alpha+2\beta}} .$$

## Intersection of Confidence Intervals (ICI) rule: the idea (sketch of the proof)

Again, let  $x$  be a fixed estimation point and  $\hat{y}_h(x)$  an *LPA* estimate at  $x$ . The total estimation error  $|y(x) - \hat{y}_h(x)|$  can be bounded by the sum of the moduli of the bias error  $m_{\hat{y}_h(x)}$  and the random error  $r_{\hat{y}_h(x)} = E\{\hat{y}_h(x)\} - \hat{y}_h(x)$ ,

$$|y(x) - \hat{y}_h(x)| \leq |m_{\hat{y}_h(x)}| + |r_{\hat{y}_h(x)}|.$$

The random error  $r_{\hat{y}_h(x)}$  is a normal-distributed random variable with variance  $\sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2$  and zero mean,  $r_{\hat{y}_h(x)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}^2)$ . The following inequality holds with probability  $p = 1 - \lambda$ ,

$$|r_{\hat{y}_h(x)}| \leq \chi_{1-\lambda/2} \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)},$$

where  $\chi_{1-\lambda/2}$  is a  $(1 - \lambda/2)$ -th quantile of the normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ . Hence, with same probability  $p$ ,

$$|y(x) - \hat{y}_h(x)| \leq |m_{\hat{y}_h(x)}| + \chi_{1-\lambda/2} \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}.$$

From the inequalities (12) we obtain, for  $h \leq h^*(x)$ ,

$$|y(x) - \hat{y}_h(x)| \leq (\gamma + \chi_{1-\lambda/2}) \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)} = \Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}, \quad \Gamma = (\gamma + \chi_{1-\lambda/2}). \quad (13)$$

Equivalently, we can express the above inequality as

$$\hat{y}_h(x) - \Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)} \leq y(x) \leq \hat{y}_h(x) + \Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}, \quad h \leq h^*(x),$$

determining a confidence interval  $\mathcal{D}(h)$ ,

$$\mathcal{D}(h) = [\hat{y}_h(x) - \Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}, \hat{y}_h(x) + \Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_h(x)}],$$

for the estimate  $\hat{y}_h(x)$ : for  $h \leq h^*$ , with probability  $p$ , we have  $y(x) \in \mathcal{D}(h)$ . According to (8), the width of the confidence intervals  $\mathcal{D}(h)$  is a monotonically decreasing function of  $h$ . We may say that the confidence intervals “shrink” as  $h$  increases.

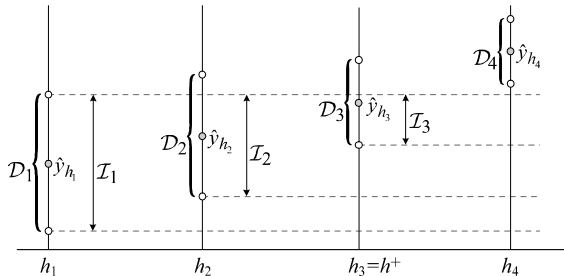
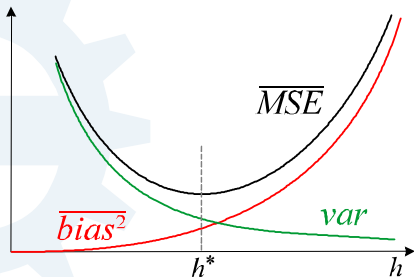
Let  $H = \{h_1, \dots, h_J\}$ ,  $h_1 < \dots < h_J$ , be an increasing set of scales and the corresponding estimates  $\{\hat{y}_{h_j}(x)\}_{j=1}^J$ . Each one of these estimates is a normal-distributed random variable with variance  $\sigma_{\hat{y}_{h_j}(x)}^2$ . With some probability  $p'$ , all confidence intervals  $\mathcal{D}(h_j)$ ,  $h_j \leq h^*(x)$  have a point in common, namely,  $y(x)$ .

Let  $j^+$  be the largest of those  $j$  for which all  $\mathcal{D}(h_i)$  with  $i \leq j$  have a point in common. Observe that  $h_{j^+} \geq h^{*-} \triangleq \max\{h_j : h_j \leq h^*(x)\}$ , i.e. all  $\mathcal{D}(h_j)$  with  $h_j \leq h^{*-}$  have non-empty intersection. This condition, together with the shrinking of the confidence intervals, ensures that the estimate  $\hat{y}_{h^+}(x)$  is within a certain range from the true signal  $y(x)$ .

Indeed,  $y(x) \in \bigcap_{h_j \leq h^{*-}} \mathcal{D}(h_j)$ , hence  $|y(x) - \hat{y}_{h^{*-}}(x)| \leq \Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^{*-}}(x)}$ . Similarly, since  $\mathcal{D}(h^{*-}) \cap \mathcal{D}(h^+) \neq \emptyset$ ,  $|\hat{y}_{h^{*-}}(x) - \hat{y}_{h^+}(x)| \leq \Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^{*-}}(x)} + \Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^+}(x)}$ . Combining these, we conclude that

$$|y(x) - \hat{y}_{h^+}(x)| \leq 2\Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^{*-}}(x)} + \Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^+}(x)} \leq 3\Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^{*-}}(x)}. \quad (14)$$

Provided that the set of scales  $H$  is sufficiently rich, one has  $h^{*-} \simeq h^*$ , and thus  $\sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^{*-}}(x)} \simeq \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^*}(x)}$ . It follows that the error of the adaptive estimate  $\hat{y}_{h^+}$  is at most  $3\Gamma$  times the ideal deviation  $\sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^*}(x)}$ .



The estimates  $\hat{y}_h(x)$  are calculated for a set  $H = \{h_j\}_{j=1}^J$  of increasing scales. The ICI rule yields a pointwise adaptive estimate  $\hat{y}_{h^+}(x)$ , where for every  $x$  an adaptive scale  $h^+(x) \in H$  is used. We have that  $\hat{y}_{h^+}(x) \approx \hat{y}_{h^*(x)}(x)$ , in practice one can think that  $h^+(x) \approx h^*(x)$ .

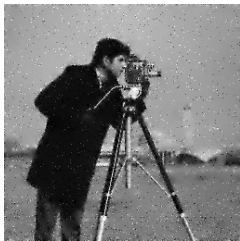
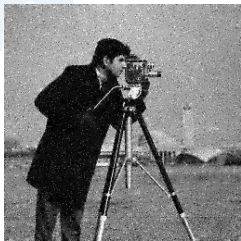
The ICI rule is as follows: *Consider the intersection of confidence intervals*

$$\mathcal{I}_j = \bigcap_{i=1}^j \mathcal{D}_i, \quad \text{where} \quad \mathcal{D}_i = \left[ \hat{y}_{h_i}(x) - \Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h_i}}, \hat{y}_{h_i}(x) + \Gamma \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h_i}} \right]$$

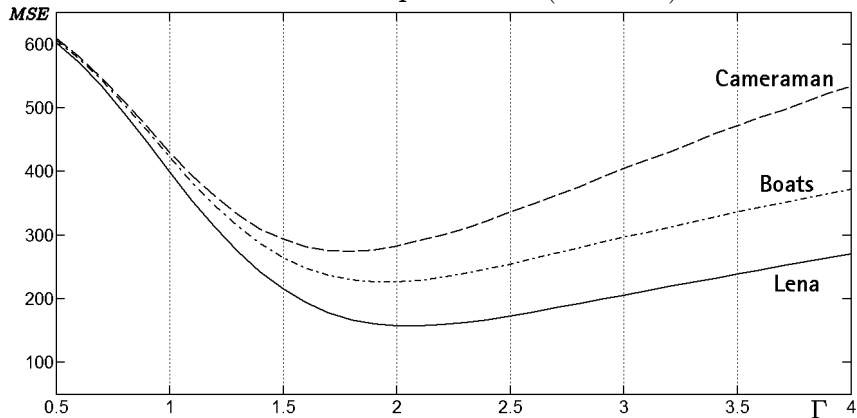
and  $\Gamma > 0$  is a threshold parameter, and let  $j^+$  be the largest of the indexes  $j$  for which  $\mathcal{I}_j$  is non-empty,  $\mathcal{I}_{j^+} \neq \emptyset$  and  $\mathcal{I}_{j^++1} = \emptyset$ . Then,  $h^+$  is defined as  $h^+ = h_{j^+}$  and the adaptive estimate is  $\hat{y}_{h^+}(x)$ .

$h^+ \equiv h_1$	}	/	initialization of adaptive scale and of
$\hat{y}_{h^+} = \hat{y}_{h_1}$			
$U = \hat{y}_{h_1} + \Gamma\sigma_{\hat{y}_{h_1}}$	}	/	initialization of upper and
$L = \hat{y}_{h_1} - \Gamma\sigma_{\hat{y}_{h_1}}$			
<b>for</b> $j = 2, \dots, J$		/	loop on $j$ (scale index)
$U = \min\{U, \hat{y}_{h_j} + \Gamma\sigma_{\hat{y}_{h_j}}\}$	}	/	update bounds of intersection
$L = \max\{L, \hat{y}_{h_j} - \Gamma\sigma_{\hat{y}_{h_j}}\}$			
$T = U \geq L$		/	test for non-empty intersection
$h^+ = h_j T + h^+ \text{NOT}(T)$	}	/	update adaptive scale and
$\hat{y}_{h^+} = \hat{y}_{h_j} T + \hat{y}_{h^+} \text{NOT}(T)$			
<b>end</b>		/	end loop on $j$ (scale index)



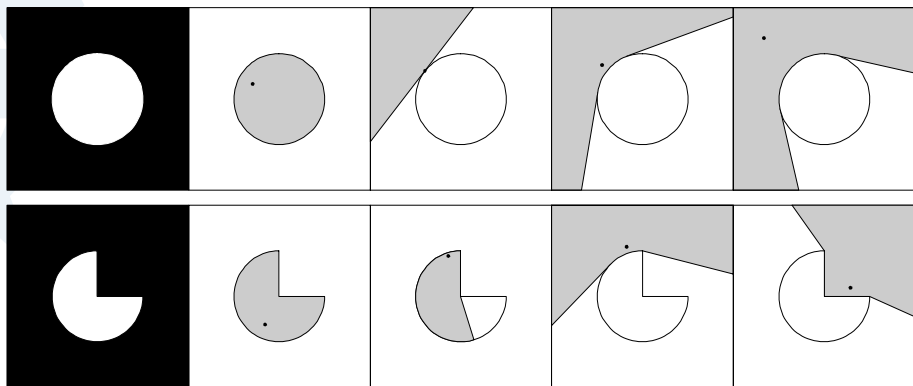
*ICI: choice of  $\Gamma$  parameter* $\Gamma = 1$  $\Gamma = 1.5$  $\Gamma = 2$  $\Gamma = 3$ 

Adaptive scales and adaptive-scale estimates obtained for different values of  $\Gamma$ . The adaptive scales are represented using a darker shade of gray for the smaller scales, black being the smallest scale (which corresponds to a Dirac-delta estimate), and white being the maximum scale (corresponding to a kernel whose support is a disc of radius 35 pixels).

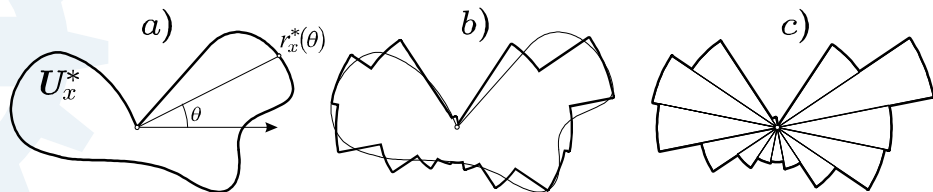
*ICI: choice of  $\Gamma$  parameter (continued)*

“MSE vs.  $\Gamma$ ” plots for three different images ( $\sigma = 25$ ). The same kernels used for the experiment shown in the previous figure are used.

The plots show that for the three images the best found values of  $\Gamma$  are all close to 2, and that variations of  $\pm 0.2$  around these best found values do not affect the objective quality of reconstruction. Therefore, with this family of kernels,  $\Gamma = 2$  can be used for all the images achieving a performance close to the one achieved with an “oracle”  $\Gamma$ .



In some cases the geometry of symmetric kernels is not sufficient to adapt to the image structure. Goal: adapt to the image using approximations of starshaped supports.



Piecewise constant approximation of  $r_x^*(\theta)$  and its representation by adaptive-size sectors.

The window is characterized by a direction  $\theta$  and is denoted as  $w_\theta$ .

The polynomials are expressed with respect to a  $\theta$ -rotated coordinate system:

$$\mathcal{M} = \left\{ \varphi : \varphi(u_1, u_2) = \sum_{i,j}^m c_{i,j} u_1^i u_2^j \right\},$$

$$(u_1, u_2) = (v_1 \cos \theta + v_2 \sin \theta, v_2 \cos \theta - v_1 \sin \theta) = \mathbf{U}_\theta v.$$

Typically,  $w_\theta$  is obtained by rotating a “basic” window  $w = w_0$  through an angle  $\theta$ ,  $w_\theta = w(\mathbf{U}_\theta v)$ . When also a scale parameter  $h$  is exploited, the resulting estimates and kernels are denoted as  $w_{h,\theta}$ ,  $g_{h,\theta}$ , respectively.

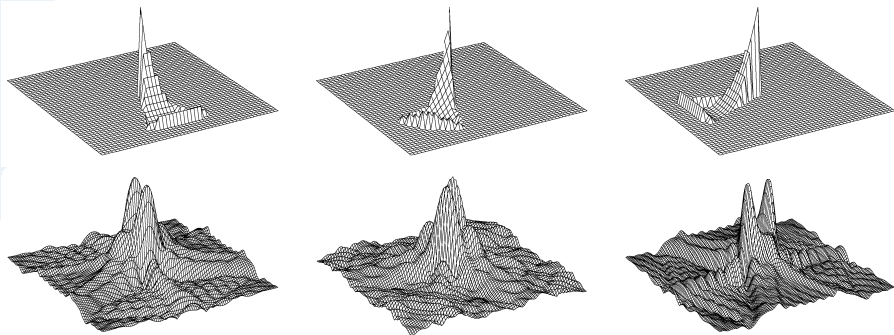
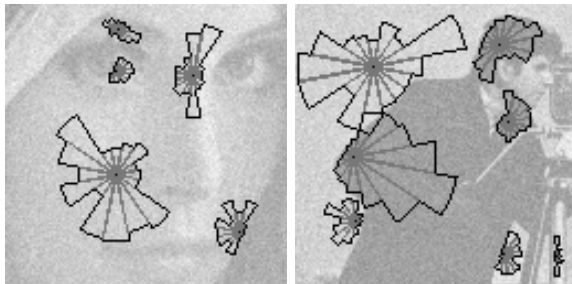
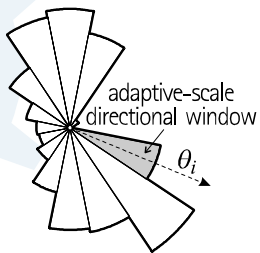
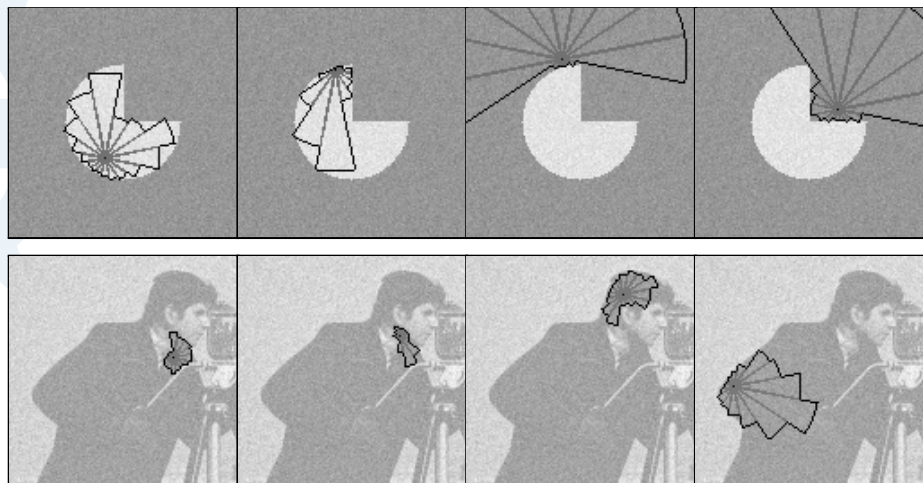


Figure 5: Function estimation directional *LPA* kernels,  $o = (0, 0)$ , obtained for  $m = (2, 1)$  using the characteristic function of a conical sector as the window function  $w_\theta$ . Kernels are shown for three different direction  $\theta$ ; the absolute value of the kernels' Fourier transforms are shown in the bottom row of the Figure.

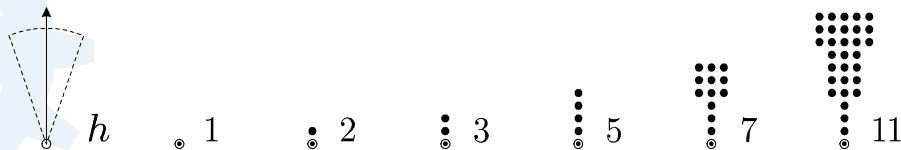
Anisotropic *LPA-ICI*

For each specified direction  $\theta_i$ , the *ICI* rule is exploited in order to find the adaptive-scale directional-*LPA* estimates  $\hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_i),\theta_i}(x)$ .

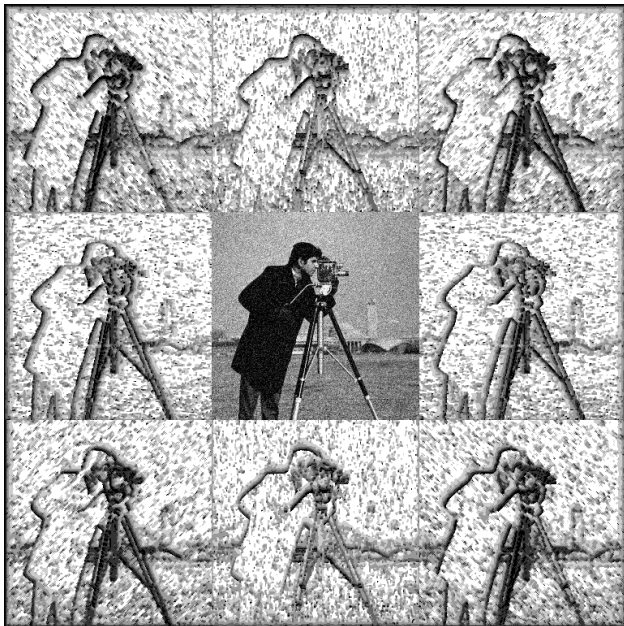


*Cheese* and *Cameraman* (detail): adaptive anisotropic neighborhoods  $\tilde{U}_x^+$  obtained through *ICI* using sectorial kernels.

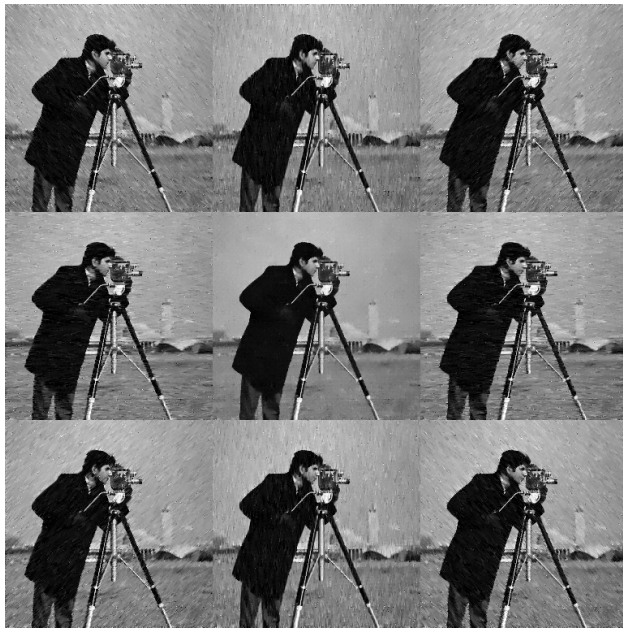




The supports of the discrete kernels  $g_{h_j, \pi/2}$ ,  $h_j = 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 11$ . The origin pixel is marked with a circle.



Smaller scales are represented using a darker shade of gray.



Clockwise from top-left, the adaptive-scale estimates  $\hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_k)}(x) \forall x$ ,  
 $\theta_k = \frac{7\pi}{4}, \frac{3\pi}{2}, \frac{5\pi}{4}, \pi, \frac{3\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 0$ , and, in the center, the fused anisotropic estimate  $\hat{y}$ .

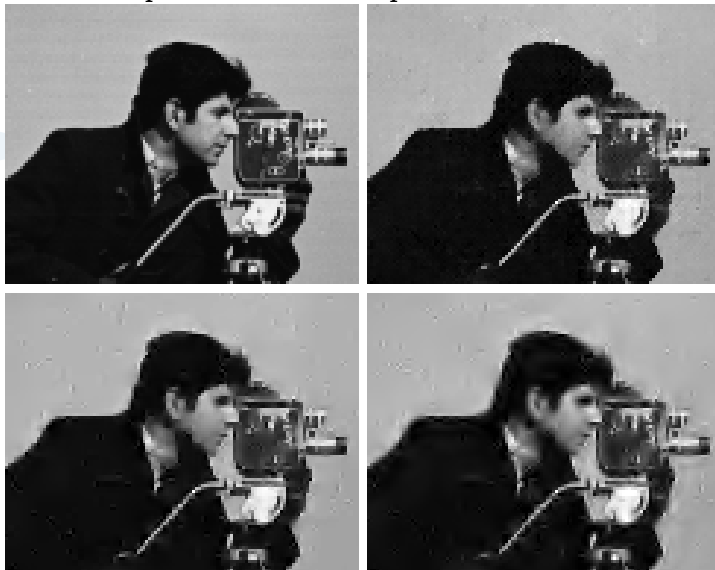
The adaptive-scale directional estimates  $\hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_i),\theta_i}(x)$  are “fused” into the final *anisotropic estimate*  $\hat{y}$  by the convex linear combination

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y}(x) &= \sum_i \lambda(x, \theta_i) \hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_i),\theta_i}(x), \\ \lambda(x, \theta_i) &= \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_i),\theta_i}(x)}^{-2} / \sum_j \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_j),\theta_j}(x)}^{-2},\end{aligned}\quad (15)$$

where the inverse of the variance of the adaptive estimates is used as the weighting factor.

$\theta_k$	0	$\pi/4$	$\pi/2$	$3\pi/4$	$\pi$	$5\pi/4$	$3\pi/2$	$7\pi/4$	$\hat{y}$
<i>ISNR</i> (dB)	4.13	3.57	4.08	3.56	4.11	3.44	4.07	3.55	8.07
<i>SNR</i> (dB)	18.52	17.96	18.47	17.95	18.50	17.83	18.46	17.95	22.46
<i>MAE</i> ( $\ell^1$ )	10.67	11.55	10.80	11.59	10.69	11.70	10.82	11.58	6.44
<i>RMSE</i> ( $\ell^2$ )	15.90	16.95	16.00	16.98	15.93	17.21	16.01	16.98	10.10
<i>MAX</i> ( $\ell^\infty$ )	131.6	114.7	124.2	117.0	112.6	142.5	114.4	125.9	85.3

Criteria values for the denoising of the *Cameraman* image using 8 directional adaptive estimates. The fused estimate is much better than each of the directional ones.

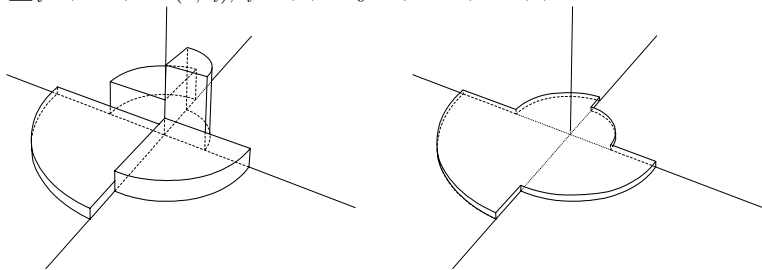


Noisy image, not shown,  $\sigma = 255/10$ . Clockwise from top-left: original image, anisotropic *LPA-ICI* estimate,  $ISNR=8.1\text{dB}$ , translation-invariant (TI) Daubechies Db4 wavelets (oracle threshold),  $ISNR=7.4\text{dB}$ , TI Haar wavelets (oracle threshold),  $ISNR=7.8\text{dB}$ .

1. for uniform kernels, the fused estimate is exactly the average of the signal over the anisotropic adaptive neighborhood  $\tilde{U}_x^+$  (as shown in figure below);
2. assuming that the directional adaptive estimates are independent and unbiased, such fusing is the maximum-likelihood estimate of  $y(x)$  given  $\{\hat{y}_{h^+(x,\theta_k),\theta_k}(x)\}_{k=1}^K$ .

### (1.) Uniform anisotropic kernel

The anisotropic estimate can also be obtained as the integration against the anisotropic kernel  $g_x^+ = \sum_i \lambda(x, \theta_i) g_{h^+(x,\theta_i),\theta_i}$ ,  $\hat{y}(x) = \int z(x-v) g_x^+(v) dv$ . This is **not** a convolution.



Directional *LPA* (uniform  $w$  and  $m = 0$ ) adaptive kernels  $g_{h^+(x,\theta_i),\theta_i}$  and the resulting fused anisotropic kernel  $g_x^+$ .

Let us assume that the directional adaptive estimates  $\hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_k),\theta_k}(x)$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, K$ , are independent and unbiased. This latter condition is generally never satisfied. However, when combining multidirectional estimates, the choice of the  $\Gamma$  parameter (in ICI) is such that the resulting bias is much smaller than the variance. Independency is guaranteed if the kernels supports are non-overlapping.

Distribution:  $\hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_k),\theta_k}(x) \sim \mathcal{N}\left(y(x), \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_k),\theta_k}(x)}}^2\right)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log-likelihood } L &= \ln \prod_k (2\pi\sigma_k^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_k^2} (\hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_k),\theta_k}(x) - y(x))^2} = \\ &= \sum_k -\frac{1}{2}\sigma_k^{-2} (\hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_k),\theta_k}(x) - y(x))^2 + \ln \left( (2\pi)^{-1/2} \sigma_k^{-1} \right), \\ &\quad \text{where } \sigma_k^2(x) \triangleq \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h+(x,\theta_k),\theta_k}(x)}}^2. \end{aligned}$$

Differentiating  $L$  with respect to  $y$ , we obtain

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial y} = \sum_k \sigma_k^{-2} (\hat{y}_{h^+(x, \theta_k), \theta_k}(x) - y(x)).$$

By solving  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial y} = 0$ , we come to the fusing formula

$$y(x) \sum_k \sigma_k^{-2} = \sum_k \sigma_k^{-2} \hat{y}_{h^+(x, \theta_k), \theta_k}(x),$$

$$y(x) = \frac{\sum_k \sigma_k^{-2} \hat{y}_{h^+(x, \theta_k), \theta_k}(x)}{\sum_k \sigma_k^{-2}} = \sum_k \frac{\sigma_k^{-2}}{\sum_j \sigma_j^{-2}} \hat{y}_{h^+(x, \theta_k), \theta_k}(x).$$



We wish to recover an image  $y$  from blurred and noisy observations

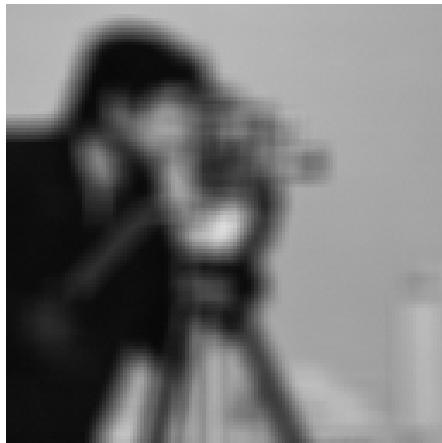
$$z = (v \circledast y) + \sigma\eta,$$

where  $v$  is the point-spread function (*PSF*) of the optical system. For simplicity, it is assumed that the *PSF* is known and that the noise  $\eta$  is standard Gaussian.

In the frequency domain the observation equation has the form

$$Z = YV + \sigma\eta, \tag{16}$$

where capital letters are used for the discrete Fourier transform of the corresponding variables. We assume an orthonormal Fourier transform.



Original *Cameraman* image (left) and noisy blurred observation ( $9 \times 9$  boxcar  $v$ , BSNR=40dB) (right)

## Anisotropic LPA-ICI RI-RWI deconvolution algorithm: directional estimates<sup>43</sup>

The considered technique is based on the following regularized inversion (*RI*) and regularized Wiener inversion (*RWI*) algorithms, using the directional-*LPA* kernels  $g_{h,\theta_k}$ :

$$\hat{Y}_{h,\theta_k}^{RI} = \frac{\bar{V}G_{h,\theta_k}}{|V|^2 + \varepsilon_1^2}Z, \quad (RI), \quad (17)$$

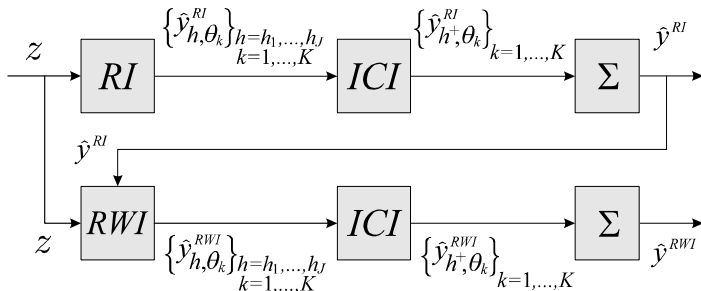
$$\hat{Y}_{h,\theta_k}^{RWI} = \frac{\bar{V}|Y|^2G_{h,\theta_k}}{|VY|^2 + \varepsilon_2^2\sigma^2}Z, \quad (RWI), \quad (18)$$

where  $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 > 0$  are regularization parameters. Equivalently, using the standard convolutions in space domain:

$$\hat{y}_{h,\theta_k}^{RI} = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left( \frac{\bar{V}Z}{|V|^2 + \varepsilon_1^2} \right) \circledast g_{h,\theta_k}, \quad (RI),$$

$$\hat{y}_{h,\theta_k}^{RWI} = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left( \frac{\bar{V}|Y|^2Z}{|VY|^2 + \varepsilon_2^2\sigma^2} \right) \circledast g_{h,\theta_k}, \quad (RWI).$$

The final estimate of  $y$  is given as an anisotropic *RWI* estimate which uses an anisotropic *RI* estimate as the reference signal  $Y$  in (18). Thus, we arrive to a two steps procedure (see figure in the next slide).



(1) Estimates  $\{\hat{y}_{h, \theta_k}^{RI}\}_{h \in H}$  are calculated according to (17) for a set of scales  $H$  and  $ICI$  selects the best scales for each direction and for each pixel. In this way, we obtain the directional adaptive-scale estimates  $\hat{y}_{h^+(x, \theta_k), \theta_k}^{RI}$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, K$ , which are fused into anisotropic  $\hat{y}^{RI}$  according to (15) (i.e., inverse variances).

(2) The  $\hat{y}^{RI}$  serves as the reference signal in the  $RWI$  procedure. The adaptive  $RWI$  algorithm is similar and gives the  $ICI$  adaptive varying scales estimates  $\hat{y}_{h^+(x, \theta_k), \theta_k}^{RWI}$  for each direction and  $x$ . Then, the final estimate  $\hat{y}^{RWI}$  is obtained by fusing these directional ones again according to (15).

ICI rule requires the standard deviations of the individual varying scale directional estimates  $\{\hat{y}_{h,\theta_k}^{RI}\}_{h \in H}$  and  $\{\hat{y}_{h,\theta_k}^{RWI}\}_{h \in H}$ . These standard deviations can be easily calculated by the  $l^2$ -norm of the frequency response of the corresponding filters:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{\hat{y}_{h,\theta_k}^{RI}} &= \sigma \left\| \frac{\bar{V}G_{h,\theta_k}}{|V|^2 + \varepsilon_1^2} \right\|_2, \\ \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h,\theta_k}^{RWI}} &= \sigma \left\| \frac{\bar{V}|Y|^2 G_{h,\theta_k}}{|VY|^2 + \varepsilon_2^2 \sigma^2} \right\|_2.\end{aligned}$$

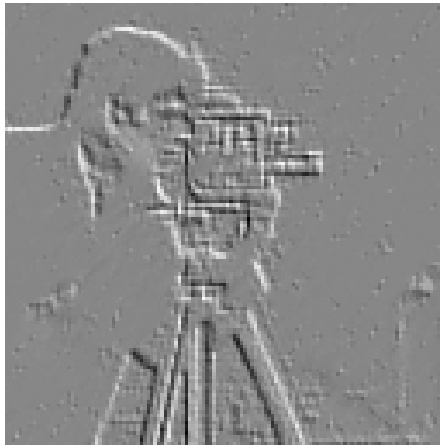
### Fusing: RI

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y}^{RI}(x) &= \sum_k \lambda_k^{RI}(x) \hat{y}_{h^+(x,\theta_k),\theta_k}^{RI}(x), \\ \lambda_k^{RI}(x) &= \sigma_k^{RI-2}(x) / \sum_i \sigma_i^{RI-2}(x), \\ \sigma_i^{RI-2}(x) &= 1 / \sigma_{\hat{y}_{h^+(x,\theta_i),\theta_i}^{RI}}^2(x).\end{aligned}$$

Fusing of RWI estimates  $\hat{y}_{h^+(x,\theta_k),\theta_k}^{RWI}$  is analogous.



Anisotropic RWI estimate  $\hat{y}^{RWI}$  (final restored image),  $ISNR=8.23\text{dB}$  (left) and adaptive scales  $h^+(\cdot, \pi/4)$  (right). Smaller scales are darker. The *ICI* adaptive scales  $h^+(\cdot, \theta_k)$  represent the distribution of image features across the direction  $\theta_k$ .



Let us replace in the *RWI* stage of the algorithm (18) the function estimation (smoothing) kernels by the derivative-estimation kernels. Then, the ICI output  $\hat{y}_{h^+, \theta_k}^{RWI}$  is the estimate of the directional right-hand derivative  $\partial_{+\theta_k} y$ . The figure shows the diagonal derivative estimate  $\hat{\partial}_{\theta_2}$  calculated for  $\theta = \pi/4$  as the mean of the two one-sided directional derivatives with  $\theta_2 = \pi/4$  and  $\theta_5 = \theta_2 + \pi = 5\pi/4$ ,  $\hat{\partial}_{\theta_2} = (\hat{y}_{h^+, \theta_2}^{RWI} - \hat{y}_{h^+, \theta_5}^{RWI})/2$ .



Further, for the edge detection, we calculate the sum of the absolute values of the directional derivative estimates  $\sum_{k=1}^4 |\hat{\partial}_{\theta_k}|$ .



A decorative graphic on the left side of the slide. It features a light blue gear partially visible on the left edge. To the left of the gear are two vertical bars: a light blue one on top and a yellow one on the bottom.

## PART 2

“ Use the adaptive neighborhoods  $\tilde{U}_x^+$  defined by the Anisotropic LPA-ICI as supports for some transform. ”

By demanding the local fit of a polynomial model, we are able to avoid the presence of singularities or discontinuities within the transform support. In this way, we ensure that data are represented sparsely in the transform domain, significantly improving the effectiveness of shrinkage (e.g., thresholding).

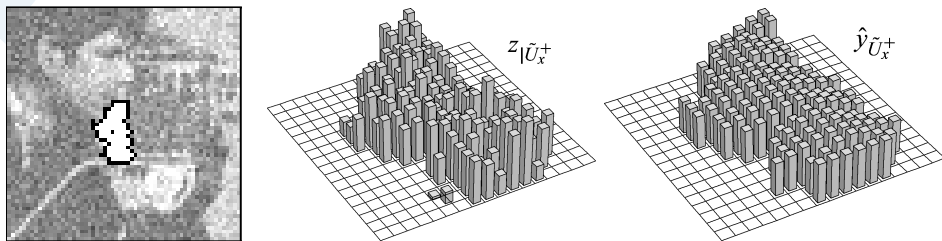
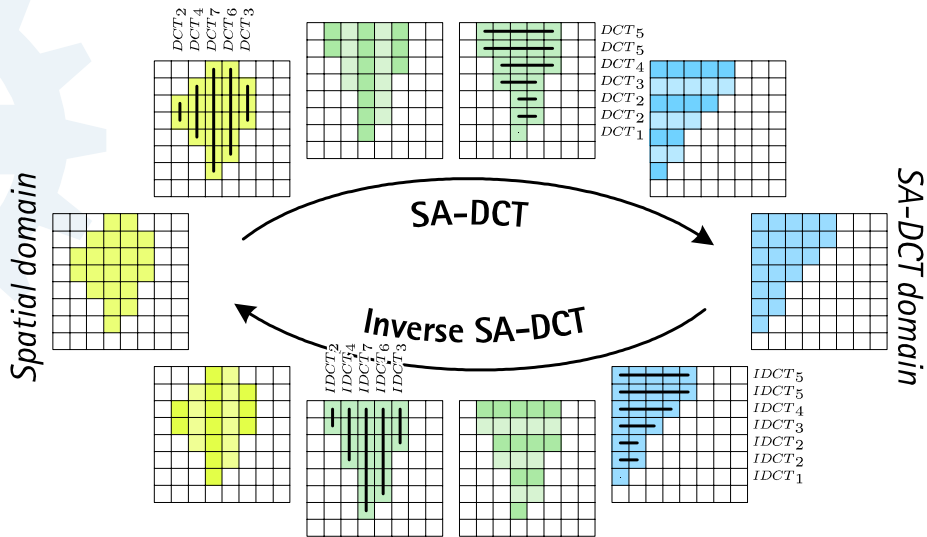


Figure 6: From left to right: a detail of the noisy *Cameraman* showing an adaptive-shape neighborhood  $\tilde{U}_x^+$  determined by the Anisotropic LPA-ICI procedure, and the image intensity corresponding to this region before and after hard-thresholding in SA-DCT domain.

# Shape-Adaptive Discrete Cosine Transform (SA-DCT) (Sikora et al., 1995) <sup>51</sup>



Shape-Adaptive Discrete Cosine Transform (SA-DCT) and its inverse. Transformation is computed by cascaded application of one-dimensional varying-length DCT transforms, along the columns and along the rows.

- direct generalization of the classical block-DCT (B-DCT);
- on rectangular domains (e.g., squares) the SA-DCT and B-DCT coincide;
- the same computational complexity as the B-DCT (separable);
- SA-DCT is part of the MPEG-4 standard;
- efficient (low-power) hardware implementations available;
  
- shape must be coded separately (constitutes some overhead);
- before 2005, it had been used only for image and video compression.

The orthonormalization of the SA-DCT is obtained by normalization of the individual one-dimensional transforms that are used for transforming the columns and rows. In terms of their basis elements, they are defined as:

$$\psi_{L,m}^{\text{1D-DCT}}(n) = c_m \cos\left(\frac{\pi m(2n+1)}{2L}\right), \quad m, n = 0, \dots, L-1, \quad (19)$$

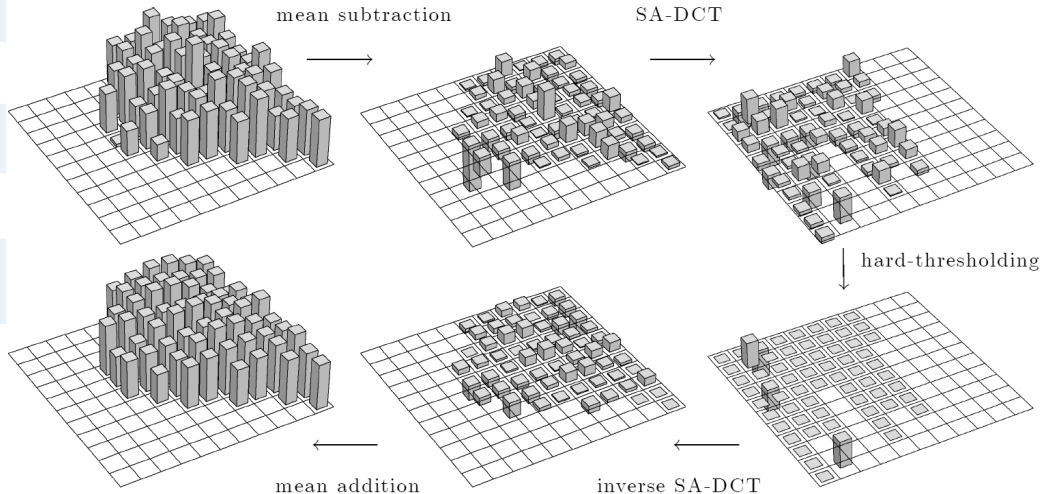
$$c_0 = \sqrt{1/L}, \quad c_m = \sqrt{2/L}, \quad m > 0. \quad (20)$$

Here  $L$  stands for the length of the column or row to be transformed. A different normalization of the 1D transforms would produce, on an arbitrary shape, a 2D transform that is non-orthogonal.

### Notation

We denote by  $T_U : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}_U$  the orthonormal SA-DCT transform obtained for a region  $U \subset X$ , where  $\mathcal{U} = \{f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$  and  $\mathcal{V}_U = \{\varphi : V_U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$  are function spaces and  $V_U \subset \mathbb{Z}^2$  indicates the domain of the transform coefficients. Let  $T_U^{-1} : \mathcal{V}_U \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$  be the inverse transform of  $T_U$ . We indicate the thresholding (or quantization) operator as  $\Upsilon$ . Thus, the SA-DCT-domain processing of the observations  $z$  on a region  $U$  can be written as  $\hat{y}_U = T_U^{-1}(\Upsilon(T_U(z|_U)))$ ,  $\hat{y}_U : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

## Hard-thresholding in SA-DCT domain: DC separation



The image data on an arbitrarily shaped region is subtracted of its mean. The zero-mean data is then transformed and thresholded. After inverse transformation, the mean is added back.

(Orthonormal SA-DCT with DC separation and  $\Delta$ DC compensation, Kauff et al. 1997)

# Pointwise SA-DCT: fast implementation of anisotropic neighborhood $\tilde{U}_x^+$ 55

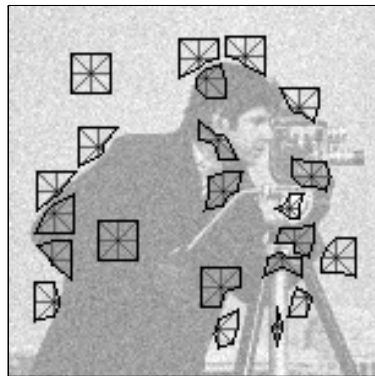
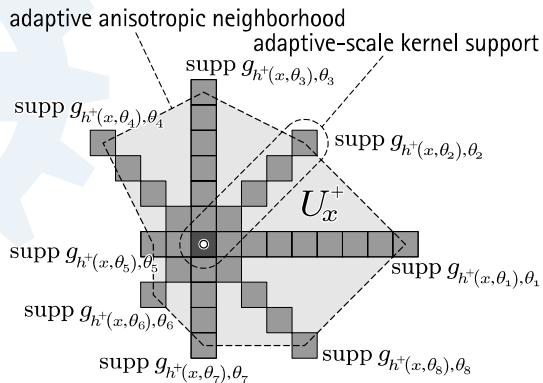


Figure 7: “Linewise” one-dimensional directional LPA kernels are used for 8 directions. The anisotropic neighborhood  $U_x^+$  is constructed as the polygonal hull of the adaptive-scale kernels’ supports (left). Thus, only the adaptive scales  $h^+$  are needed to construct the neighborhood. Some examples of the anisotropic neighborhoods  $\tilde{U}_x^+$  used for SA-DCT filtering of the noisy *Cameraman* image (right),  $\sigma=25$ . In our implementation we use  $h \in H = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ .

For every point  $x \in X$ , we take the anisotropic neighborhood  $\tilde{U}_x^+$  and construct a *local* estimate  $\hat{y}_{\tilde{U}_x^+} : \tilde{U}_x^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of the signal  $y$  by thresholding in SA-DCT domain

$$\hat{y}_{\tilde{U}_x^+} = T_{\tilde{U}_x^+}^{-1} \left( \Upsilon_x \left( \varphi_{z,x} \right) \right) + m_{\tilde{U}_x^+} (z), \quad (21)$$

where the transform-domain coefficients  $\varphi_{z,x} : V_{\tilde{U}_x^+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are calculated as

$$\varphi_{z,x} = T_{\tilde{U}_x^+} \left( z|_{\tilde{U}_x^+} - m_{\tilde{U}_x^+} (z) \right), \quad (22)$$

and  $\Upsilon_x$  is a hard-thresholding operator based on the threshold

$$\sigma \sqrt{2 \ln |\tilde{U}_x^+| + 1}. \quad (23)$$

This threshold is essentially Donoho's "universal" threshold.

### Overcompleteness

Anisotropic neighborhoods corresponding to nearby points are usually overlapping, and since the SA-DCT is a complete system (basis) for an individual support  $\tilde{U}_x^+$ , the overall approach is obviously overcomplete. As a consequence, different local estimates  $\hat{y}_{\tilde{U}_{x'}^+}$  and  $\hat{y}_{\tilde{U}_{x''}^+}$  do not coincide where they overlap (i.e., on  $\tilde{U}_{x'}^+ \cap \tilde{U}_{x''}^+$ ).



In order to obtain a single *global* estimate  $\hat{y} : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined on the whole image domain, all the local estimates (21) are averaged together using adaptive weights  $w_x \in \mathbb{R}$  in the following convex combination:

$$\hat{y} = \frac{\sum_{x \in X} w_x \hat{y}_{\tilde{U}_x^+} |X|}{\sum_{x \in X} w_x |\tilde{U}_x^+|}, \quad (24)$$

$$w_x = \frac{\sigma^{-2}}{(1 + N_x^{\text{har}}) |\tilde{U}_x^+|}, \quad (25)$$

where  $N_x^{\text{har}}$  is the number of non-zero coefficients after thresholding (so-called “number of harmonics”).

Here,  $\sigma^2 (1 + N_x^{\text{har}})$  is an estimate of the total sample variance of  $\hat{y}_{\tilde{U}_x^+}$ , given as sum of variances of the transform coefficients which are used for reconstruction.

*These weights favour estimates which correspond to sparser representations.*

Using the same approach as for thresholding, we introduce an empirical Wiener filter in the SA-DCT domain. It assumes that an estimate  $\hat{y}$  of  $y$  is known. In practice, we obtain this estimate using the above hard-thresholding technique.

For every  $x \in X$ , let  $\varphi_{\hat{y},x} : V_{\tilde{U}_x^+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the SA-DCT (on  $\tilde{U}_x^+$ ) coefficients of  $\hat{y}$  where the mean  $m_{\tilde{U}_x^+}(z)$  of  $z$  is subtracted before applying the transform:

$$\varphi_{\hat{y},x} = T_{\tilde{U}_x^+} \left( \hat{y}|_{\tilde{U}_x^+} - m_{\tilde{U}_x^+}(z) \right). \quad (26)$$

The *local* Wiener estimate  $\hat{y}_{\tilde{U}_x^+}^{\text{wi}}$  is defined as

$$\hat{y}_{\tilde{U}_x^+}^{\text{wi}} = T_{\tilde{U}_x^+}^{-1} \left( \omega_x \varphi_{z,x} \right) + \varpi_x m_{\tilde{U}_x^+}(z), \quad (27)$$

where the SA-DCT coefficients  $\varphi_{z,x}$  of  $z$  are calculated as in (22), and  $\omega_x \in \mathcal{V}_{\tilde{U}_x^+}$  and  $\varpi_x \in \mathbb{R}$  are respectively the Wiener attenuation factors for  $\varphi_{z,x}$  and for the subtracted mean value  $m_{\tilde{U}_x^+}(z)$ ,

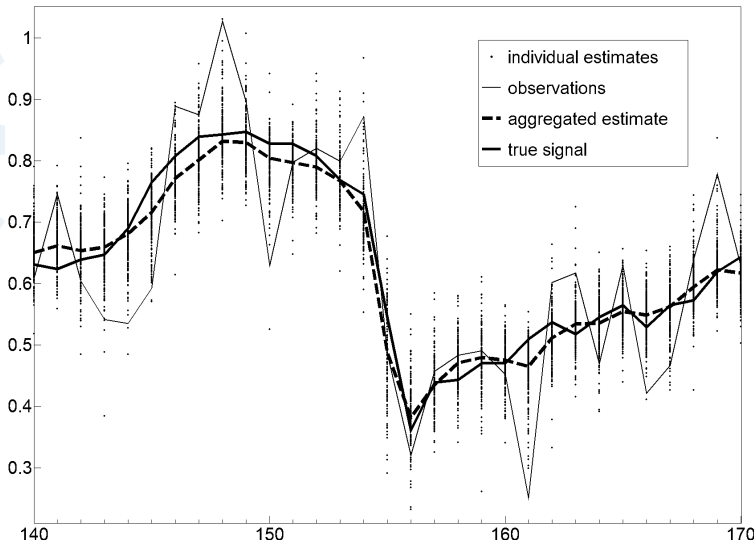
$$\omega_x = \frac{\varphi_{\hat{y},x}^2}{\varphi_{\hat{y},x}^2 + \sigma^2}, \quad \varpi_x = \frac{m_{\tilde{U}_x^+}^2(\hat{y})}{m_{\tilde{U}_x^+}^2(\hat{y}) + \sigma^2/|\tilde{U}_x^+|}. \quad (28)$$

The *global* estimate  $\hat{y}^{\text{wi}}$  can be obtained analogously as in (24), using the convex combination with the adaptive weights  $w_x^{\text{wi}}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y}^{\text{wi}} &= \frac{\sum_{x \in X} w_x^{\text{wi}} \hat{y}_{\tilde{U}_x^+}^{\text{wi}} |X|}{\sum_{x \in X} w_x^{\text{wi}} \chi_{\tilde{U}_x^+}}, \\ w_x^{\text{wi}} &= \frac{\sigma^{-2}}{(\varpi_x^2 + \sum_{V_{\tilde{U}_x^+}} \omega_x^2) |\tilde{U}_x^+|}.\end{aligned}$$

Again, the term  $\sigma^2(\varpi_x^2 + \sum_{V_{\tilde{U}_x^+}} \omega_x^2)$  in the adaptive weights corresponds to an estimate of the total sample variance of  $\hat{y}_{\tilde{U}_x^+}^{\text{wi}}$ .

## Pointwise SA-DCT: aggregation in action, an illustration



Details of a cross-section of length 31 pixels from the *Peppers* image ( $\sigma=25$ ): the dots show all the individual estimates which are aggregated in order to obtain the final estimates at each position. For each pixel there are about 200 individual estimates.



A fragment of *Lena*: original, noisy observation ( $\sigma=25$ , PSNR=20.18dB), BLS-GSM estimate (Portilla et al.) (PSNR=31.69dB), and the proposed Pointwise SA-DCT estimate (PSNR=31.66).



A fragment of *Cameraman*: noisy observation ( $\sigma=25$ , PSNR=20.14dB), BLS-GSM estimate (Portilla et al.) (PSNR=28.35dB), and the proposed Pointwise SA-DCT estimate (PSNR=29.11dB).

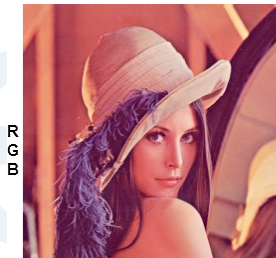
## Pointwise SA-DCT: deblocking results

JPEG



$\hat{y}^{wi}$

## Pointwise SA-DCT: extension to color, motivation



color transformation

$$\mathbf{A}_{opp} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & 0 & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} & \frac{-\sqrt{2}}{3} & \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$



Y



U



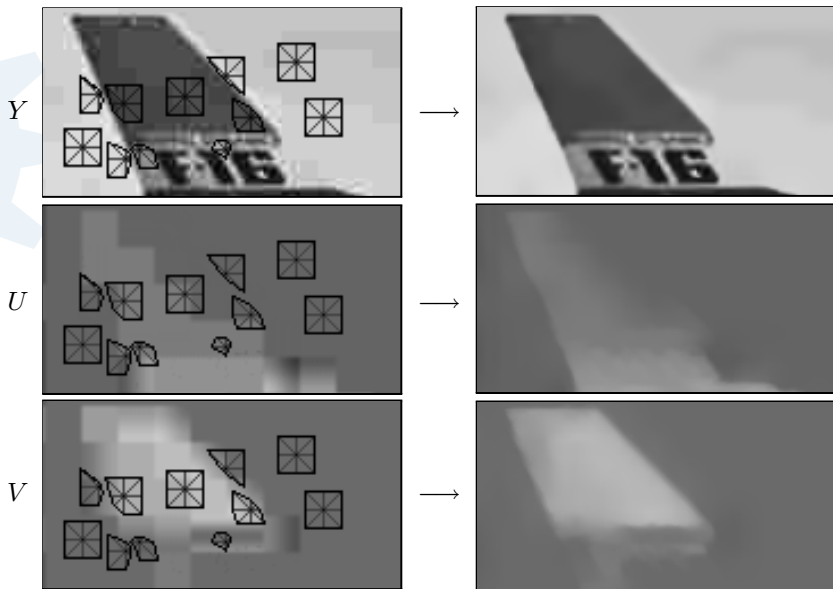
V

Luminance-chrominance decompositions: “structural correlation”

Thus, separate denoising of the three channels (even luminance-chrominance channels) is often inadequate, and obviously far from optimal.



# Pointwise SA-DCT: structural constraint in luminance-chrominance space<sup>65</sup>



*Use for all three channels the adaptive neighborhoods defined by the anisotropic LPA-ICI for the luminance channel.*



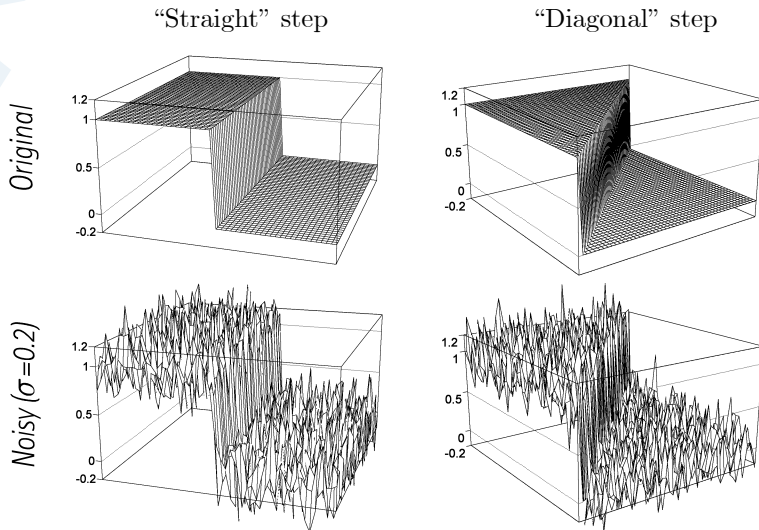
Fragments of the JPEG-compressed ( $Q=10$ , 0.25bpp, PSNR=26.87dB), and restored *F-16* color image (PSNR=28.30dB) using the proposed Pointwise SA-DCT deblocking filter in luminance-chrominance space.



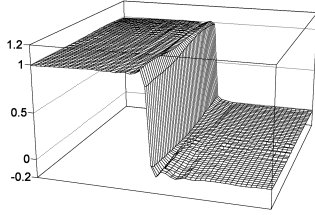
Fragments of the noisy *F-16* ( $\sigma=30$ , PSNR=18.59dB), of ProbShrink-MB (Pizurica et al.) estimate (PSNR=30.50dB), and of Pointwise SA-DCT estimate (PSNR=31.59dB).

How important is the shape-adaptive transform?

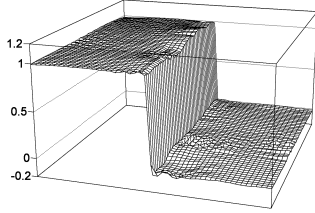
Let us replace SA-DCT with square block-DCT with fixed or adaptive block-size.



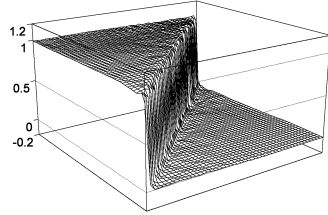
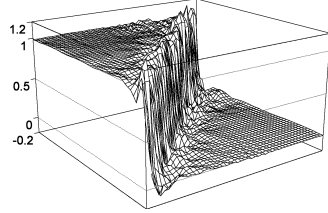
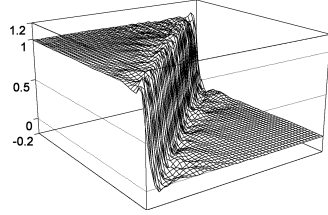
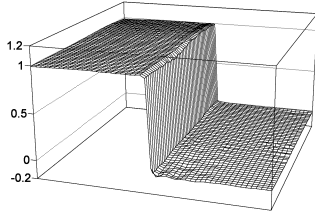
*Fixed B-DCT 16x16*



*Adaptive-size B-DCT*



*Pointwise SA-DCT*



- Proposed by Gilge (1989): “shape-adapted” DCT or “shape-adapted” polynomials
- Better decorrelating performance than basic SA-DCT of Sikora (1995)
- Slightly better than o.n. SA-DCT with DC separation of Kauff (1997)
- Computationally very demanding (requires orthonormalization, is not separable, implemented as matrix multiplication)
- Not obvious what to do: elements are linearly dependent, which to discard (prune), how to order? (excellent study by W. Philips, 1993)

### Procedure

**Start** with a conventional basis (e.g., DCT basis) defined on a rectangular superset of the arbitrary-shape domain of interest.

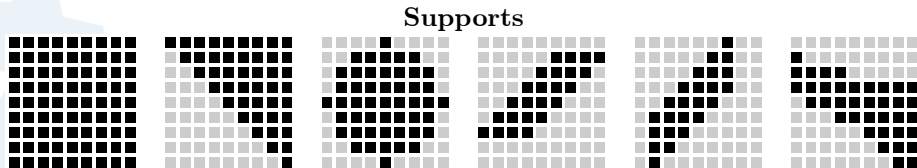
**Restrict** the basis elements on the domain of interest (drop samples outside domain).

**Sort** basis elements (e.g., zig-zag).

**Prune** restricted basis to remove linearly dependent elements.

**Orthonormalize.** E.g., Gram-Schmidt  $QR$ -decomposition: the starting basis, after restriction and pruning, is represented as a matrix  $A$  whose column vectors are the individual elements (vectorized, e.g., by raster scan of the support) and  $Q$  and  $R$  are, respectively, an orthogonal and an upper-triangular matrix, such that  $QR = A$ . Depending on the particular basis, there may exist faster orthonormalization procedures than G.-S. (e.g., for polynomials see W. Philips, 1997).

We compare the SA-DCT basis elements with the basis elements of the “shape-adapted” DCT and “shape-adapted” polynomials.



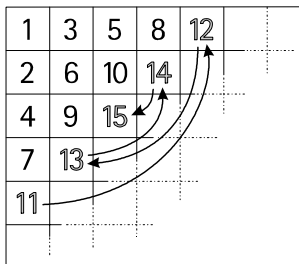
Six different supports, each of which is a subset of the  $9 \times 9$  square. The coordinates within the  $9 \times 9$  square support are denoted as  $(n_1, n_2)$ ,  $n_1, n_2 = 0, \dots, 8$ . Thus, the centre will have coordinates  $(4, 4)$ .

For each shape, the figures of the basis elements are arranged as in a long horizontal table (spanning four pages), where the rows are organized as follows:

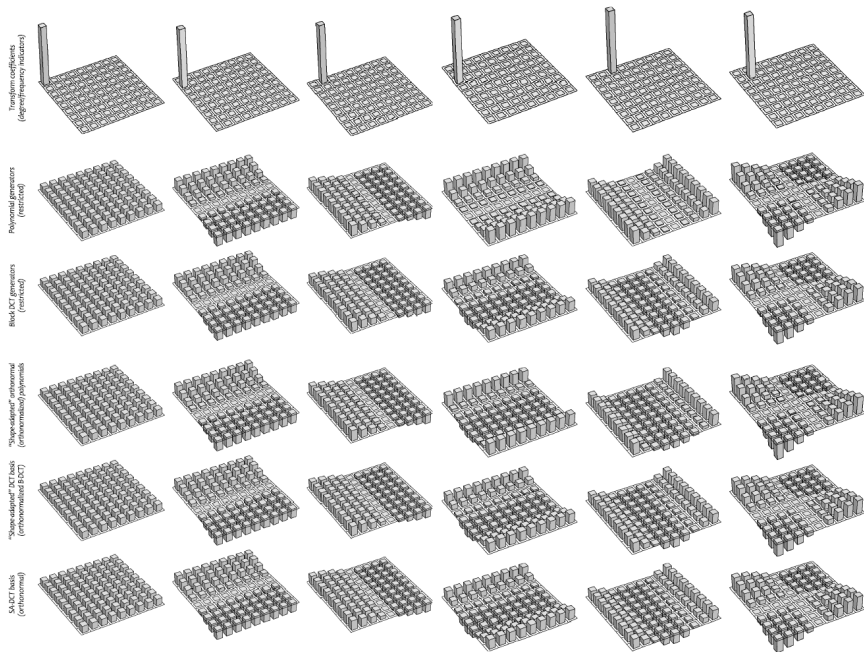
indicators (in transform domain)
polynomial generators
cosine (DCT) generators
shape-adapted polynomials
shape-adapted DCT
shape-adaptive DCT (SA-DCT)



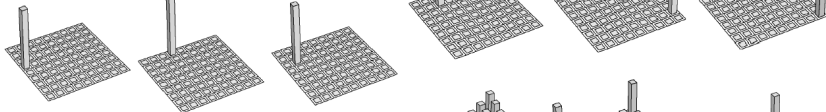
In each column, the SA-DCT basis element is obtained by applying the inverse SA-DCT on the indicator. Whereas for the “shape-adapted” bases, the indicator coincides with that of the last generator used in the linear combination that yields the orthonormalized basis element. In accordance with the “zig-zag” order, these generators are arranged column by column in the following manner (for polynomials and DCT) (next page):



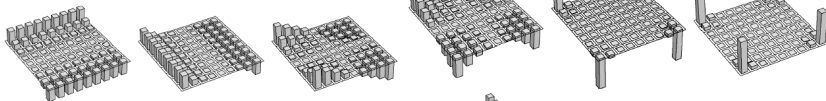
1	$n_1 - 4$	$n_2 - 4$	
1	$\cos\left(\frac{\pi(2n_1+1)}{18}\right)$	$\cos\left(\frac{\pi(2n_2+1)}{18}\right)$	
	$(n_1 - 4)^2$	$(n_2 - 4)^2$	
	$\cos\left(\frac{2\pi(2n_1+1)}{18}\right)$	$\cos\left(\frac{2\pi(2n_2+1)}{18}\right)$	
	$(n_1 - 4)(n_2 - 4)$	$(n_1 - 4)^3$	
	$\cos\left(\frac{\pi(2n_1+1)}{18}\right)\cos\left(\frac{\pi(2n_2+1)}{18}\right)$	$\cos\left(\frac{3\pi(2n_1+1)}{18}\right)$	
	$(n_2 - 4)^3$	$(n_1 - 4)^2(n_2 - 4)$	
	$\cos\left(\frac{3\pi(2n_2+1)}{18}\right)$	$\cos\left(\frac{2\pi(2n_1+1)}{18}\right)\cos\left(\frac{\pi(2n_2+1)}{18}\right)$	...



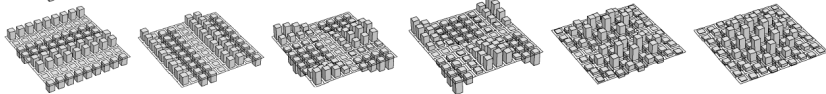
Transform coefficients  
(log/linear histogram)



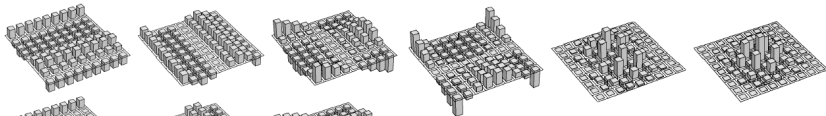
Polynomial generators  
(matrix)



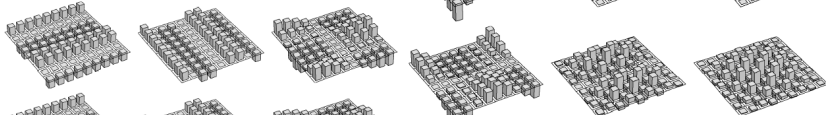
Block DCT generators  
(matrix)



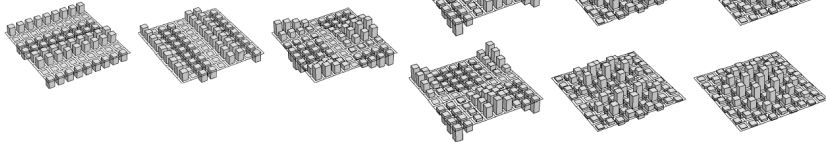
"Shape-adaptive" orthonormal  
(orthonormal) polynomials

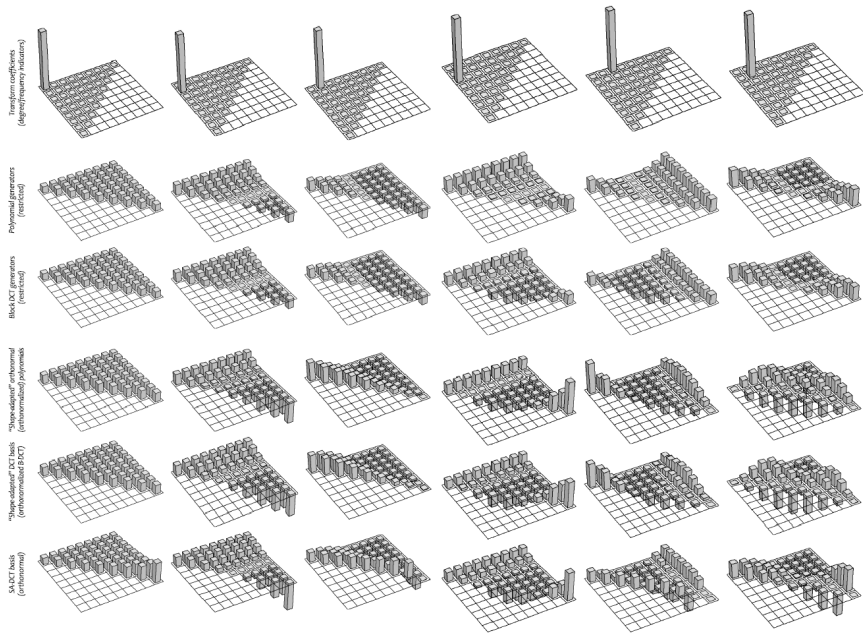


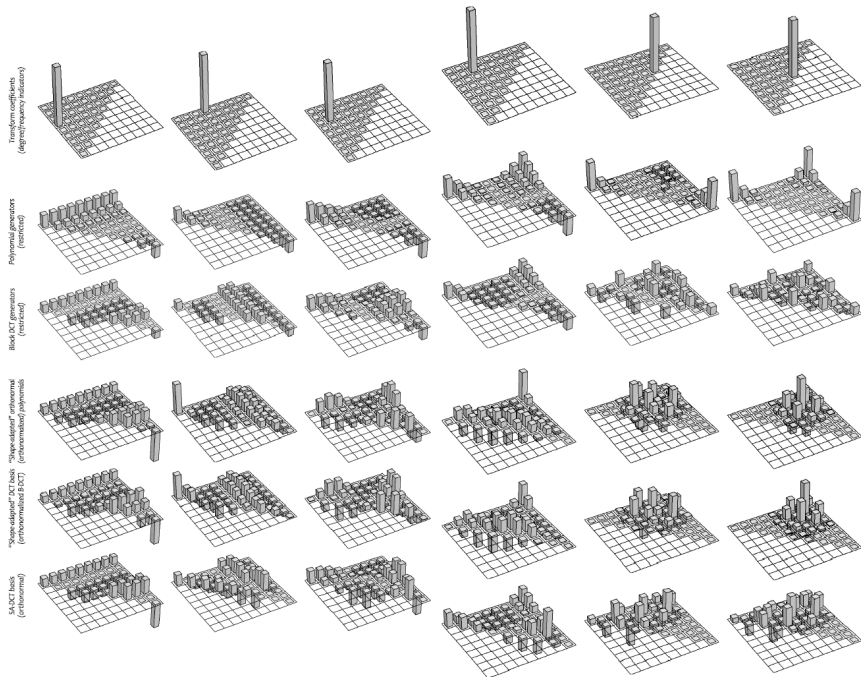
"Shape-adaptive" DCT basis  
(orthonormal) B-DCT

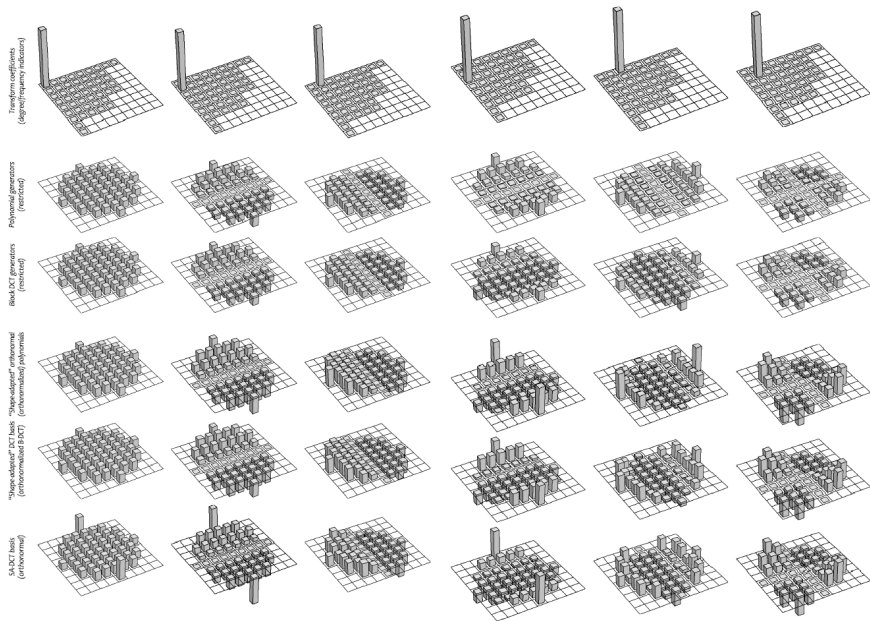


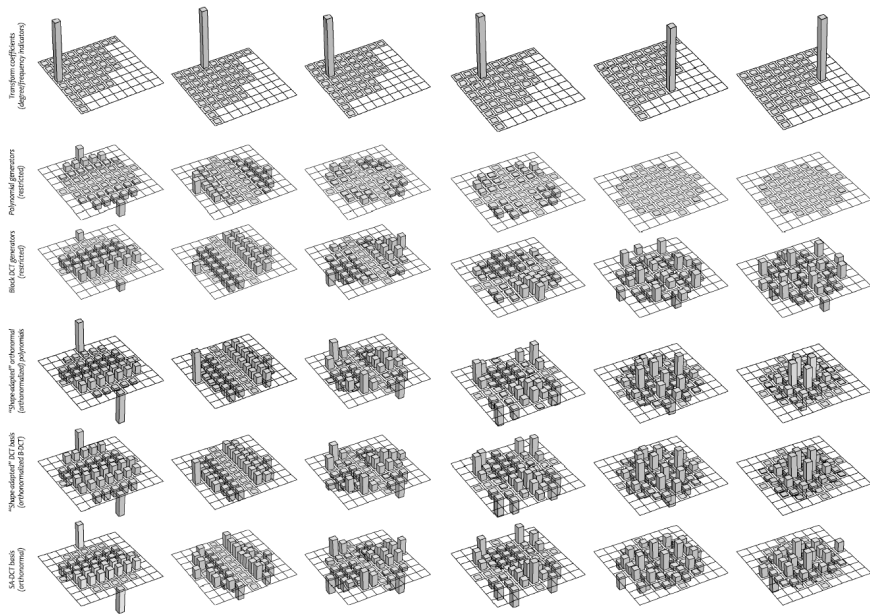
SA-DCT basis  
(orthonormal)



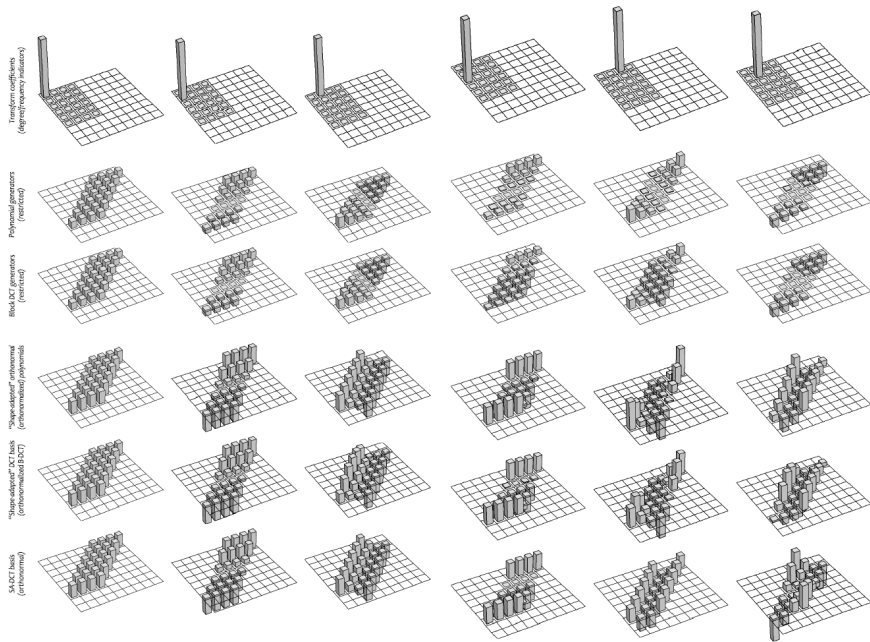


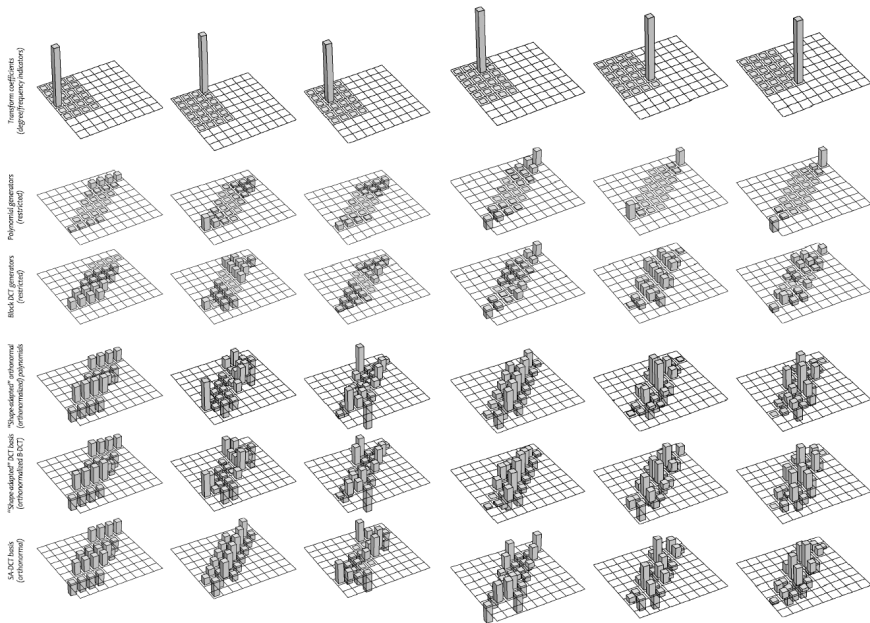


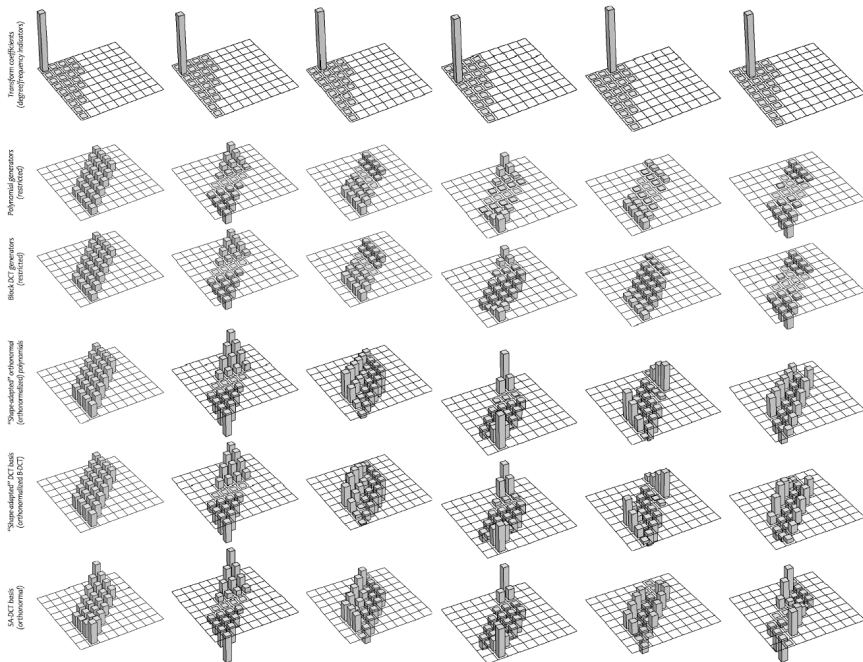


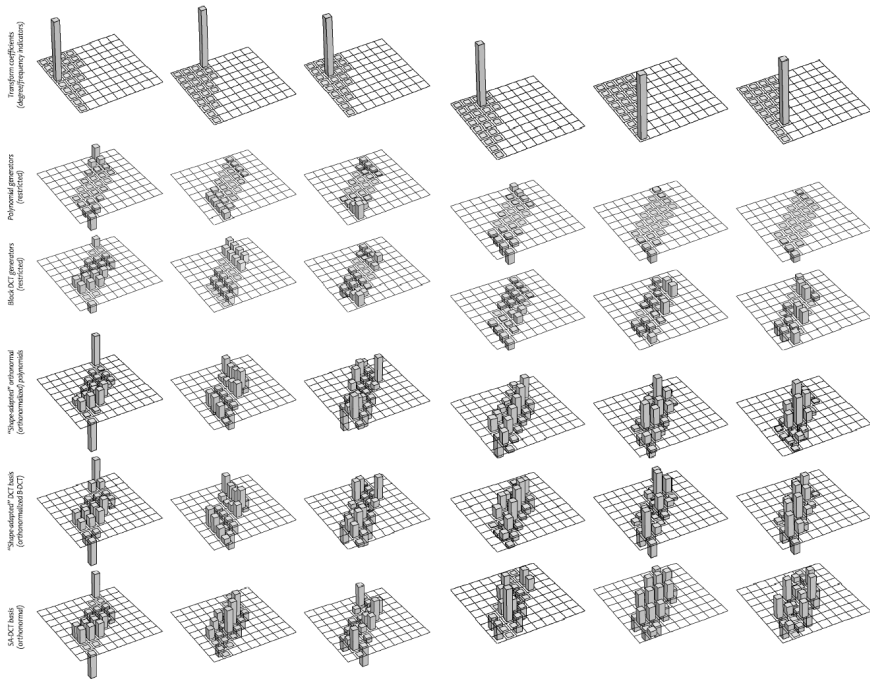


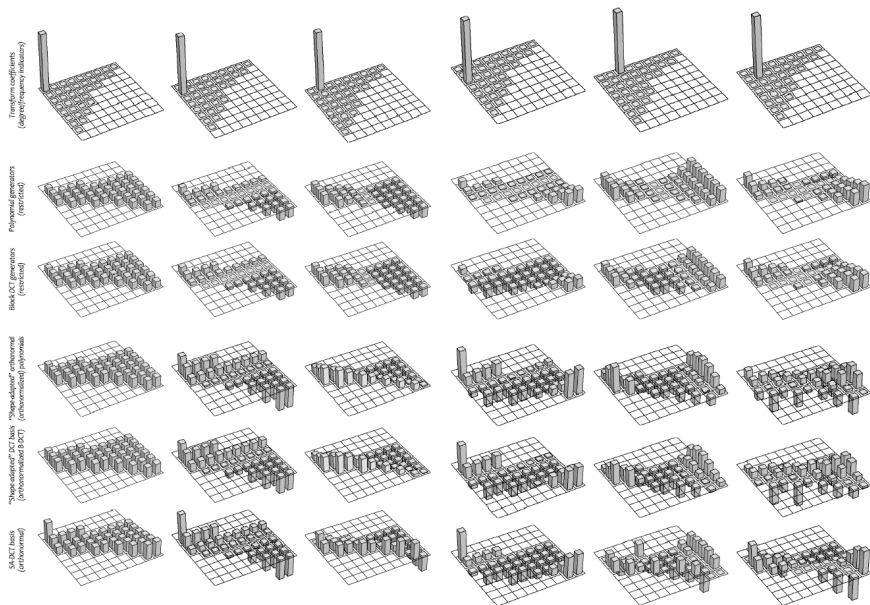


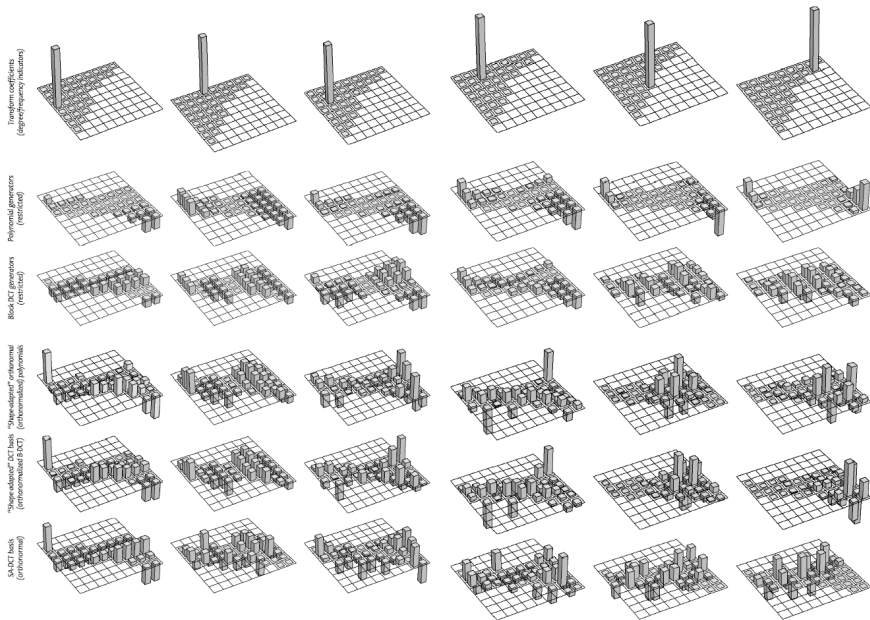




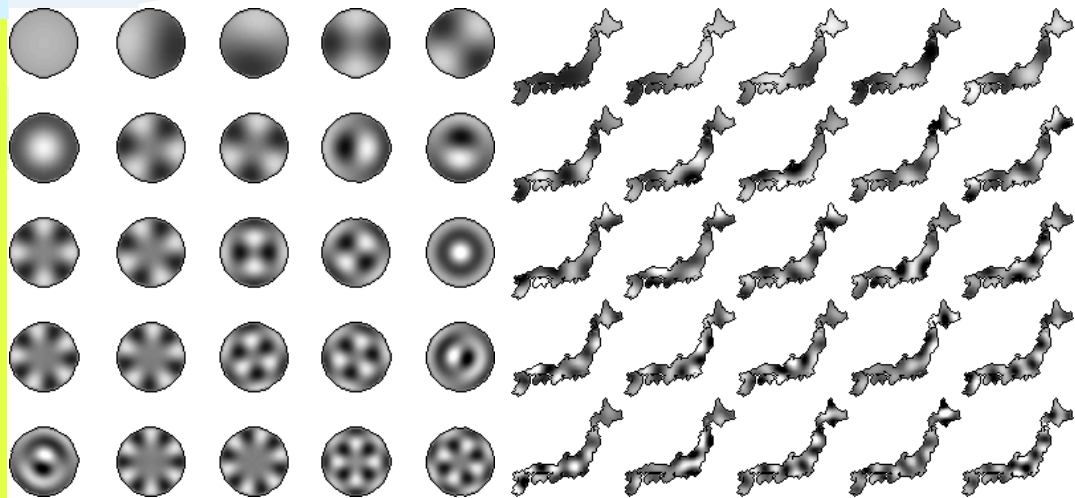








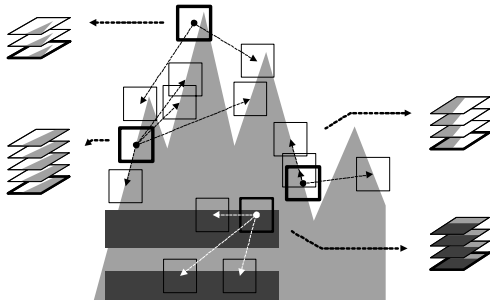
N. Saito, "Data analysis and representation on a general domain using eigenfunctions of Laplacian", submitted to *Applied and Computational Harmonic Analysis*, 27 August 2007 (available online at <http://math.ucdavis.edu/~saito/publications/lapeig.html>)



## Non-local approach

Idea: *replace conventional local neighborhoods with data-driven non-local estimation domains, where the mutual similarity between different local regions determines the weights or the shape of the non-local domain.*

- Non-local means (Buades+Coll+Morel, 2005)
- Patch-based (Kervrann+Boulanger, 2006)
- Grouping and collaborative filtering (Dabov+Foi+Katkovnik+Egiazarian, 2006)



A simple example of grouping in an artificial image, where for each reference block (with thick borders), there exist perfectly matching ones, pointed to by corresponding arrows.



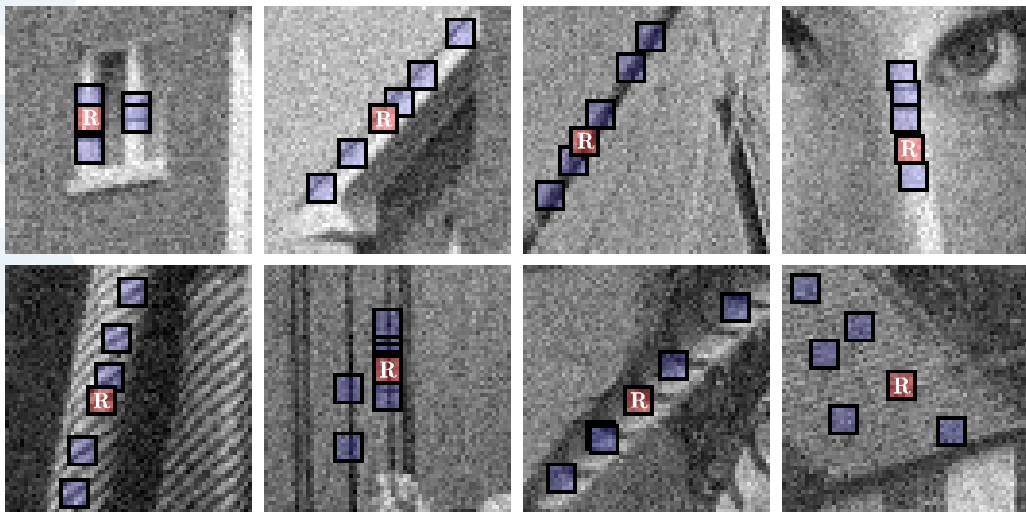
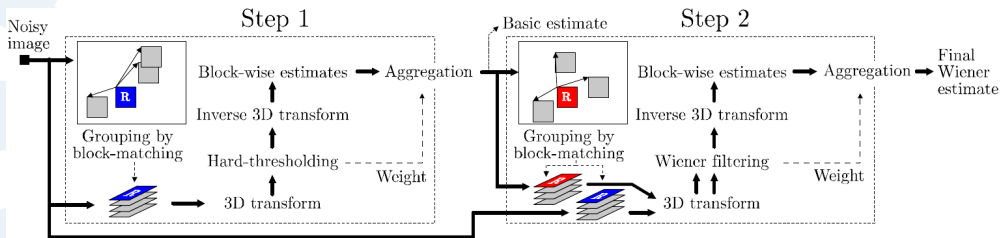


Illustration of grouping blocks from noisy natural images corrupted by white Gaussian noise with  $\sigma=15$  and zero mean. Each fragment shows a reference block marked with “R” and a few of its matched ones.



Flowchart of the BM3D algorithm

- ▷ Process overlapping blocks in a raster scan. For each such block, do the following:
  1. (a) Use block-matching to find the locations of the blocks that are similar to the currently processed one. Form a 3D array (group) by stacking the blocks located at the obtained locations.
  - (b) Apply a 3D transform on the formed group.
  - (c) Attenuate the noise by shrinkage the 3D transform spectrum.
  - (d) invert the 3D transform to produce filtered grouped blocks.
- ▷ Return the filtered blocks to their original locations in the image domain and compute the resultant filtered image by a weighted average of these filtered blocks (aggregation).

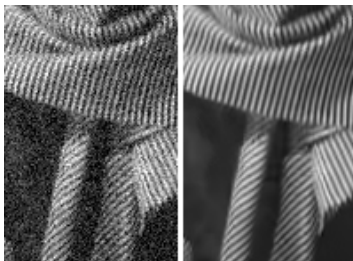
- Collaborative filtering on the group is realized as shrinkage in 3D transform-domain.
- The algorithm structure is similar to Pointwise SA-DCT:
  - uses overcomplete local estimates aggregation;
  - two-stage scheme with hard-thresholding/empirical Wiener filtering.
- It is fast:
  - uses predictive-search for block-matching;
  - uses separable wavelets for the 3D transform (Haar/biorthogonal);
  - scalable (controlling the level of overcompleteness and predictive-search).
- Extensions to color image denoising, video denoising, as well as to joint sharpening and denoising have been reported.

To the best of our knowledge, it is currently the best performing denoising algorithm.

(Matlab software is publicly available)



(a) *Lena* (PSNR 32.08 dB)



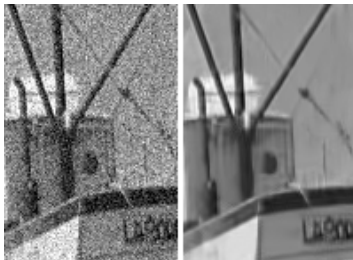
(b) *Barbara* (PSNR 30.73 dB)



(e) *Cameraman* (PSNR 29.45 dB)



(c) *Man* (PSNR 29.62 dB)



(d) *Boats* (PSNR 29.91 dB)



(f) *Couple* (PSNR 29.72 dB)

BM3D denoising algorithm: fragments of noisy ( $\sigma=25$ ) and denoised test images.

## Publications, software, examples:

<http://www.cs.tut.fi/~lasip> (LPA-ICI)

<http://www.cs.tut.fi/~foi/SA-DCT>

<http://www.cs.tut.fi/~foi/GCF-BM3D>

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