# A variational model for image texture identification 

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Variational models in image processings have been extensively studied during the past decade. There are used for segmentation processes (geodesic or geometric contours) and restoration and textures extraction purpose as well. Roughly speaking image restoration problems are severely ill posed and a Tychonov- like regularization process is needed. The general form of such models consists in the mimization of a "energy" functional :

$$
\mathcal{F}(u)=\left\|u-u_{d}\right\|_{X}+\mathcal{R}(u), u \in Y \subset X
$$

where $X, Y$ are (real) Banach spaces, $\mathcal{R}$ is a regularization operator, $u_{d}$ is the observed (or measured) image and $u$ is the image to recover. The first term is the fitting data term and the second one permits to get a problem which is no longer ill posed. The most famous model is the Rudin- Osher-Fatemi denoising model (see [11]) which leads to the following problem:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{u \in B V(\Omega)} \lambda|u|_{B V(\Omega)}+\frac{1}{2}\left\|u_{d}-u\right\|_{L^{2}(\Omega)}^{2} \tag{ROF}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, we are interested in textures extraction and/or image denoising. Recently people considered that an image can be decomposed in many components, each component describing a particular property . of the image (see $[6,12,14]$ for example). We agree with this idea and assume that the image $f$ we want to recover from the data $u_{d}$ can be decomposed as $f=u+v$ where $u$ and $v$ are functions that belong to different functional spaces: $u$ is the "texture" part which involves (periodic or not) details (and noise as well) while $v$ is a more regular part (usually called the "cartoon" component).

In a first section, we present the functional framework, introducing the $B V^{2}$ space, and the general variational model we consider. In section 2 , we focus on numerical implementation and present the discretization process. Numerical tests are reported in the last section.

## 1 Functional framework and model

### 1.1 The $B V^{2}(\Omega)$ space

Let $\Omega$ be an open bounded subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}, n \geq 2$ (practically $n=2$ ). Following Demengel [9], we define the space of bounded hessian functions that we call $B V^{2}(\Omega)$. We recall that the space $B V(\Omega)$ of bounded variation functions (see $[2,4,3])$ is defined as

$$
B V(\Omega)=\left\{u \in L^{1}(\Omega) \mid \Phi(u)<+\infty\right\}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi(u)=\sup \left\{\int_{\Omega} u(x) \operatorname{div} \xi(x) d x \mid \xi \in \mathcal{C}_{c}^{1}(\Omega),\|\xi\|_{\infty} \leqslant 1\right\} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The space $B V(\Omega)$, endowed with the norm $\|u\|_{B V(\Omega)}=\|u\|_{L^{1}}+\Phi(u)$, is a Banach space. The derivative in the sense of the distributions of every $u \in B V(\Omega)$ is a bounded Radon measure, denoted $D u$, and $\Phi(u)=\int_{\Omega}|D u|$ is the total variation of $D u$. We extend this definition to the second derivative (in the distributional sense). Recall that the Sobolev space

$$
W^{1,1}(\Omega)=\left\{u \in L^{1}(\Omega) \mid \nabla u \in L^{1}(\Omega)\right\}
$$

where $\nabla u$ stands for the first order derivative of $u$ (in the sense of distributions).

Definition 1. A function $u \in W^{1,1}(\Omega)$ is Hessian bounded if

$$
|u|_{B V^{2}(\Omega)}:=\sup \left\{\int_{\Omega}\langle\nabla u, \operatorname{div}(\phi)\rangle_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \mid \phi \in \mathcal{C}_{c}^{2}\left(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}\right),\|\phi\|_{\infty} \leqslant 1\right\}<\infty
$$

where

$$
\operatorname{div}(\phi)=\left(\operatorname{div}\left(\phi_{1}\right), \operatorname{div}\left(\phi_{2}\right), \ldots, \operatorname{div}\left(\phi_{n}\right)\right)
$$

with

$$
\forall i, \phi_{i}=\left(\phi_{i}^{1}, \phi_{i}^{2}, \ldots, \phi_{i}^{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \text { and } \operatorname{div}\left(\phi_{i}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{\partial \phi_{i}^{k}}{\partial x_{k}}
$$

For more information on the $B V^{2}(\Omega)$ space, see $[9,13]$.

### 1.2 The variational model

We now assume that the image we want to recover from the data $u_{d}$ can be written as $f=u+v$ where . where $u$ is in $B V(\Omega)$ and $v$ is in $B V^{2}(\Omega)$. Such decompositions have already been performed [5, 6, 4] using the "Meyer" space of oscillating function [10] instead of $B V^{2}(\Omega)$. So far, the modelization we propose is not the same: the oscillating component will be included in the
non regular part $u$ while $v$ involves the cartoon and the contours. We consider the following function defined on $B V(\Omega) \times B V^{2}(\Omega)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(u, v)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|u_{d}-u-v\right\|_{L^{2}(\Omega)}^{2}+\lambda|u|_{B V(\Omega)}+\mu|v|_{B V^{2}(\Omega)}+\delta\|\nabla v\|_{W^{1,1}(\Omega)}, \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\lambda, \mu, \delta \geq 0$. We are looking for a solution to the optimisation problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\inf _{(u, v) \in B V(\Omega) \times B V^{2}(\Omega)} F(u, v) \tag{P}
\end{equation*}
$$

The first term $\left\|u_{d}-u-v\right\|_{L^{2}(\Omega)}^{2}$ of $F$ is the fitting data term. Other terms are Tychonov-like regularization terms. Note that the $\delta$-term is not useful from the modelling point of view. It is only a tool that allows to prove existence of solutions. We shall choose $\delta=0$ for numerical tests.

If the image is noisy, the noise is considered as a texture and will be involved in $u$ : more precisely $v$ will be the part of the image without the oscillating component, that is the denoised part. In [7] we focus on the denoising process taking only $v$ into account (and assuming that $u=0$ so that $u_{d}-v$ is the noise). We now give an existence and uniqueness result for the general problem $(\mathcal{P})$ (see [7] for the proof).

Theorem 1. Assume that $\lambda>0, \mu>0$ and $\delta>0$. Problem ( $\mathcal{P}$ ) has a unique solution $(u, v)$.

## 2 Numerical implementation

### 2.1 Discretization of the problem

We assume for simplicity that the image is squared with size $N \times N$. We note $X:=\mathbb{R}^{N \times N} \simeq \mathbb{R}^{N^{2}}$ endowed with the usual inner product and the associated euclidean norm

$$
\begin{equation*}
\langle u, v\rangle_{X}:=\sum_{1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant N} u_{i, j} v_{i, j}, \quad\|u\|_{X}:=\sqrt{\sum_{1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant N} u_{i, j}^{2}} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is classical to define the discrete total variation as following (see for example [4]) : the discrete gradient of the numerical image $u \in X$ is $\nabla u \in X^{2}$ defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\nabla u)_{i, j}=\left((\nabla u)_{i, j}^{1},(\nabla u)_{i, j}^{2}\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
(\nabla u)_{i, j}^{1}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
u_{i+1, j}-u_{i, j} & \text { if } i<N \\
0 & \text { if } i=N,
\end{array} \text { and }(\nabla u)_{i, j}^{2}= \begin{cases}u_{i, j+1}-u_{i, j} & \text { if } j<N \\
0 & \text { if } j=N\end{cases}\right.
$$

The (discrete) total variation $|u|_{B V(\Omega)}$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{1}(u)=\sum_{1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant N}\left\|(\nabla u)_{i, j}\right\|_{\mathbb{R}^{2}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\left\|(\nabla u)_{i, j}\right\|_{\mathbb{R}^{2}}=\left\|\left((\nabla u)_{i, j}^{1},(\nabla u)_{i, j}^{2}\right)\right\|_{\mathbb{R}^{2}}=\sqrt{\left((\nabla u)_{i, j}^{1}\right)^{2}+\left((\nabla u)_{i, j}^{2}\right)^{2}} .
$$

The discrete divergence operator div is the adjoint operator of the gradient operator $\nabla$ :

$$
\forall(p, u) \in X^{2} \times X, \quad\langle-\operatorname{div} p, u\rangle_{X}=\langle p, \nabla u\rangle_{Y}
$$

so that

$$
(\operatorname{div} p)_{i, j}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
p_{i, j}^{1}-p_{i-1, j}^{1} & \text { if } 1<i<N  \tag{6}\\
p_{i, j}^{1} & \text { if } i=1 \\
-p_{i-1, j}^{1} & \text { if } i=N
\end{array}+ \begin{cases}p_{i, j}^{1}-p_{i, j-1}^{2} & \text { if } 1<j<N \\
p_{i, j}^{2} & \text { if } j=1 \\
-p_{i, j-1}^{1} & \text { if } i=N\end{cases}\right.
$$

To define a discrete version of the second order total variation we have to introduce the discrete Hessian operator. As for the gadient operator, we define it by finite deferences. So, for any $v \in X$, the Hessian matrix of $v$, denoted $H v$ is identified to a $X^{4}$ vector:

$$
(H v)_{i, j}=\left((H v)_{i, j}^{11},(H v)_{i, j}^{12},(H v)_{i, j}^{21},(H v)_{i, j}^{22}\right) .
$$

The discrete second order total variation $|v|_{B V^{2}(\Omega)}$ of $v$ is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{2}(v)=\sum_{1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant N}\left\|(H v)_{i, j}\right\|_{\mathbb{R}^{4}} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

As in the $B V$ case, we may compute the adjoint operator of $H$ (which is the dicretized "second divergence" operator) :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall p \in X^{4}, \forall v \in X \quad\left\langle H^{*} p, v\right\rangle_{X}=\langle p, H v\rangle_{X^{4}} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and we deduce an numerical expression for $H^{*}$ from the equality (8). The discretized problem stands

$$
\begin{equation*}
\inf _{(u, v) \in X^{2}} \frac{1}{2}\left\|u_{d}-u-v\right\|_{X}^{2}+\lambda J_{1}(u)+\mu J_{2}(v)+\delta\left(|v|+J_{1}(v)\right) \tag{d}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
|v|:=\sum_{1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant N}\left|v_{i, j}\right|
$$

In the finite dimensional case we have an existence result with $\delta=0$.
Theorem 2. Problem $\mathcal{P}_{d}$ has a unique solution for every $\delta \geq 0$ and $\lambda>0$.
For numerical purpose we shall set $\delta=0$. In fact, we have performed tests with $\delta=0$ and very small $\delta \neq 0$ (as required by the theory to get a solution to problem $\tilde{\mathcal{P}}$ ) and results where identical. So, to simplify numerical implementation, we consider the following discretized problem :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\inf _{(u, v) \in X^{2}} \frac{1}{2}\left\|u_{d}-u-v\right\|_{X}^{2}+\lambda J_{1}(u)+\mu J_{2}(v) \tag{P}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 2.2 Algorithm

Using non smooth analysis tools (for convex functions) it is easy to derive (necessary and sufficient) optimality conditions. More precisely $(u, v)$ is solution of $\left(\tilde{\mathcal{P}}_{d}\right)$ if and only if

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
0 \in \partial\left(\lambda J_{1}(u)+\frac{1}{2}\left\|u_{d}-u-v\right\|^{2}\right)  \tag{9}\\
0 \in \partial\left(\mu J_{2}(v)+\frac{1}{2}\left\|u_{d}-u-v\right\|^{2}\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $\partial J$ is the classical subdifferential of $J$. Using subdifferential properties, we see that (9) is equivalent to

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
u=u_{d}-v-\Pi_{\lambda K_{1}}\left(u_{d}-v\right)  \tag{10}\\
v=u_{d}-u-\Pi_{\mu K_{2}}\left(u_{d}-u\right) .
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ are closed convex sets. Chambolle [8] proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{1}=\left\{\operatorname{div} p \mid p \in Y,\left\|p_{i, j}\right\|_{\mathbb{R}^{2}} \leqslant 1 \forall i, j=1, \ldots, N\right\} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

in the $B V(\Omega)$ setting and we may prove similarly that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{2}=\left\{H^{*} p \mid p \in Z,\left\|p_{i, j}\right\|_{\mathbb{R}^{4}} \leqslant 1, \forall i, j=1, \ldots, N\right\} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

(see [7]). Moreover, Chambolle [8] proposed a fixed point algorithm to compute $\Pi_{\lambda K_{1}}$ and we are able to extend this result to the second order case. Therefore, we set the following fixed point algorithm:

$$
\begin{gather*}
p^{0}=0  \tag{13a}\\
p_{i, j}^{n+1}=\frac{p_{i, j}^{n}-\tau\left(H\left[H^{*} p^{n}-u_{d} / \lambda\right]\right)_{i, j}}{1+\tau\left\|\left(H\left[H^{*} p^{n}-u_{d} / \lambda\right]\right)_{i, j}\right\|_{\mathbb{R}^{4}}} . \tag{13b}
\end{gather*}
$$

which convergence is proved in [7]:
Theorem 3. Let be $\tau \leqslant 1 / 64$. Then $\lambda\left(H^{*} p^{n}\right)_{n}$ converges to $P_{\lambda K_{2}}\left(u_{d}\right)$.
So, we propose the following algorithm :

- Step 1 : We choose $u_{0}$ et $v_{0}$ (for example, $u_{0}=0$ et $v_{0}=u_{d}$ ) and $0<\alpha<1$.
- Step 2 : define the sequences $\left(\left(u_{n}, v_{n}\right)\right)_{n}$ as follows:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
u_{n+1}=u_{n}+\alpha\left(u_{d}-v_{n}-\Pi_{\lambda K_{1}}\left(u_{d}-v_{n}\right)-u_{n}\right) \\
v_{n+1}=v_{n}+\alpha\left(u_{d}-u_{n}-\Pi_{\mu K_{2}}\left(u_{d}-u_{n}\right)-v_{n}\right) .
\end{array}\right.
$$

- Step 3 : if a stopping criterion is not satisfied, set $k:=k+1$ and go back to 2.

We are not able to prove the convergence of this algorithm, but we observed that, numerically, it always converges for appropriate values of $\alpha$. Nevertheless, we propose in [13] another algorithm which convergence is rigorously proved.

## 3 Numerical tests and comments

We test the model on two images: The first one is a synthetic image wher texture has been artificially added, and the second one is the well known "Barbara" benchmark, often used in texture extraction.
(a)

(b)


Fig. 1. Original images.

We perform many tests with respect to the different parameters. We only present here the most significant : $\alpha=0.6, \lambda=0.5$ and $\mu=100$. Let us first report on the iterations number effect with image (a).

If we are only interested in the texture part, we can observe in fig 2 that we get back all the texture. Unfortunately, most of geometrical information (that we don't want to get back here) is also kept, and we observe the involved geometric part is getting more important as the iteration number is growing.


Fig. 2. Number of iterations: first line: 60; second line: 200; third line: 2000.

We see in fig 3 that we can choose a large number of iterations for the image (b) texture extraction because of the inner structure of image (b). On the other hand, we have to limit this number for the image (a). We give an example image (b) with a very large iterations number:


Fig. 3. Number of iterations: 2000.

In addition, we see that the too many geometrical information remains together with the texture in the oscillating part: this is a bad point. Nevertheless, our main goal is to locate the texture and we don't need to work with the cartoon part anymore once it has been identified. We do not need to recover all the texture but only a significant part to identify it. In that case, we propose a method that permits to improve the results significantly: we modify the hessian operator to make it anisotropic. More precisely, we reinforce chosen directions. As texture is made of oscillating information, we hope that we shall keep most of it while many contour lines disappear. We specially, act on the vertical and horizontal components of the hessian operator. To deal with non vertical and horizontal lines, we just have to let the image rotate. In the following test, we have replaced the hessian operator by the operator $H^{\prime}$ defined for all $v \in X^{4}$ by :

$$
\forall(i, j) \in\{1, \ldots, N\}^{2}, \quad\left(H^{\prime} v\right)_{i, j}=\left(0,(H v)_{i, j}^{12},(H v)_{i, j}^{21}, 0\right)
$$



Fig. 4. Test with the anisotropic operator $H^{\prime}$. Number of iterations: first line: 60; second line: 2000.

We can see on fig 4 that we keep most of the texture without geometrical information. Of course, this method is only efficient on contour lines which are beelines.

## 4 Conclusion

The model permits to extract texture from an image, but the texture part still contains too much geometric information. Thus, to recover what we are interested in, we have to use the algorithm with a limited number of iterations. Moreover, we have noticed that we recover too many contour lines as well. The asset of this model is that we can make it anisotropic, modifying the hessian operator in an appropriate way. Therefore we get rid of geometrical
information, but we lose part of the texture as well. Nevertheless, if our goal is just to locate texture on an image, this loss remains acceptable.

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