

Digital Image Processing

Kenneth R. Castleman

2008/2/26

Presentation by S. Wang

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

Part Two - 1

Linear Systems Fourier Transform

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

Chapter 9

Linear System Theory

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

Introduction



- Questions to be discussed in this part:
 - Sampling effects
 - Spatial resolution
 - Linear filtering
- This chapter deals with analytical tools for solving the above problems
- The basis: the theory of linear systems.

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

Elementary Problems

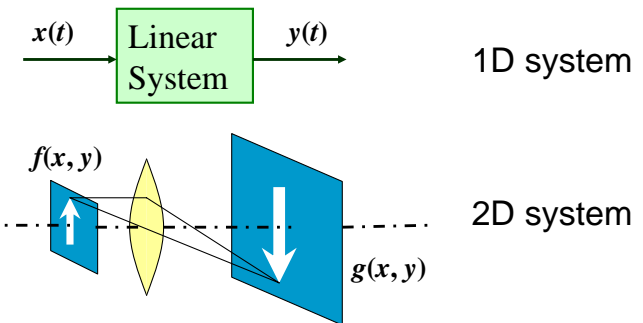


- What is a linear system?
- What is a shift invariant system?
- Does a linear system generate new frequency contents?
- Does a linear system change waveform of an input signal?
- What effects does a linear system have on an input sinusoidal signal?
- When does a system of linear equations have
 - a set of unique solutions,
 - an infinite number of solution sets, or
 - no solution?

Definition of System



- A system is a mapping, or a function, that defines relation between an input and the corresponding output.
- A system can be one-dimensional, two-dimensional, or high-dimensional.
- Consider one-dimensional functions of time first, and then generalize to two-dimensional functions of spatial variables.



Linear System — Principle of Superposition



- Linearity: Supposing

$$\begin{aligned}x_1(t) &\Rightarrow y_1(t) \\ x_2(t) &\Rightarrow y_2(t)\end{aligned}$$

The system is linear iff

$$x_1(t) + x_2(t) \Rightarrow y_1(t) + y_2(t)$$

- Corollary (a is an integer):

$$ax_1(t) \Rightarrow ay_1(t)$$

- Axiom: a may also be irrational.

Shift Invariance



- A system $x(t) \Rightarrow y(t)$ is said to be shift-invariant if $x(t-T) \Rightarrow y(t-T)$
- For a shift invariant system, delaying the input merely shifts the output by the same amount without changing the nature of the output signal.
- In images, spatially shifting an input image does not change the output image except for an identical shift.

$$f(x, y) \Rightarrow g(x, y)$$

$$f(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) \Rightarrow g(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y)$$

Shift-Invariant Linear Systems



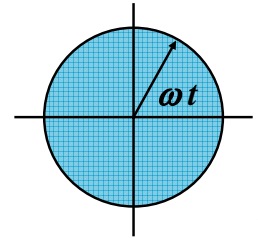
- Assumption of shift-invariance and linearity is good for many components of image processing systems:
 - Electrical networks,
 - Well-designed linear electronic networks, and
 - Optical systems.
- The next few chapters will mainly be concentrated on shift-invariant linear systems.

Harmonic Signals & Complex Signals



- Physical signals are usually real:
 - voltage
 - sound pressure
 - pixel gray-level
- Real signals can be made complex for convenience.
- The following complex-valued signal can be viewed as a unit length vector rotating in the complex plane anti-clockwise at an angular speed $\omega = 2\pi f$.

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



Response to Harmonic Input



- Assume a harmonic input: $x_1(t) = e^{j\omega t}$
- The response of a shift-invariant linear system is $y_1(t) = K(\omega, t)e^{j\omega t}$

$y_1(t) = K(\omega, t)e^{j\omega t}$

where $K(\omega, t) = y_1(t)/e^{j\omega t}$ is a function of ω and t .

Find the property of $K(\omega, t)$
- Introducing time delay T to $x_1(t)$ to generate another input:

$$x_2(t) = x_1(t - T) = e^{j\omega(t-T)} = e^{-j\omega T} x_1(t)$$

Response to Harmonic Input (cont.)



- Response of the linear system to $x_2(t)$ is $y_2(t) = K(\omega, t - T)e^{j\omega(t-T)} = K(\omega, t - T)e^{-j\omega T} x_1(t)$
- An alternative way to find $y_2(t)$: Recalling $ax_1(t) \Rightarrow ay_1(t)$
$$x_2(t) = x_1(t)e^{-j\omega T} \Rightarrow y_1(t)e^{-j\omega T} = y_2(t) = K(\omega, t)e^{-j\omega T} x_1(t)$$
- Compare the above, the following must hold for any T : $K(\omega, t - T) = K(\omega, t)$
- This can be true only when **K is independent of t** .

$$y(t) = K(\omega)x(t)$$

Response to Harmonic Input (cont.)



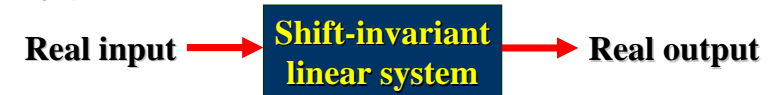
Conclusions:

- The response of a shift-invariant linear system to a harmonic input is that input multiplied by a frequency-dependent (**time-independent**) complex number.
- A harmonic input always produces a harmonic output at the same frequency.
- A linear system does not generate new frequency components, but changes magnitude and phase of harmonic components existing in the input signal.

Harmonic Signals and Sinusoids



- Add another constraint to shift-invariant linear systems:
They preserve realness.



- Real and imaginary parts go through a shift-invariant linear system independently of each other.
- Add an imaginary part to a real signal, and let it go through a linear system. The real output can be extracted from the complex output. Analysis can be simplified as:



Transfer Function



- The transfer function $K(\omega)$ is sufficient to specify the system. It contains all information about SILS.
- The polar form:

$$K(\omega) = A(\omega)e^{j\phi(\omega)}$$

where $A(\omega)$ is the **gain**, and $\phi(\omega)$ is the **phase shift**.

- Summary: 3 important properties of SILS:
 - Harmonic input \Rightarrow harmonic output
 - Completely specified by the transfer function $K(\omega)$
 - The system causes **amplitude change** and **phase shift**.

Convolution Operation



- To find a general expression of the output waveform $y(t)$ from a linear system — convolution integral may be obtained using the **superposition integral**:

Linearity property:

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t, \tau)x(\tau)d\tau$$

Shift invariance:

$$y(t-T) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t, \tau)x(\tau-T)d\tau$$

Add T to t and τ :

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t+T, \tau+T)x(\tau)d\tau$$

f only depends on $t-\tau$:

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t-\tau)x(\tau)d\tau$$

Convolution Operation (cont.)



- The convolution integral:

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t - \tau)x(\tau)d\tau = g(t) * x(t)$$

where $g(t)$ is the **impulse response** of the system, which must be **real** to maintain the realness of $y(t)$.

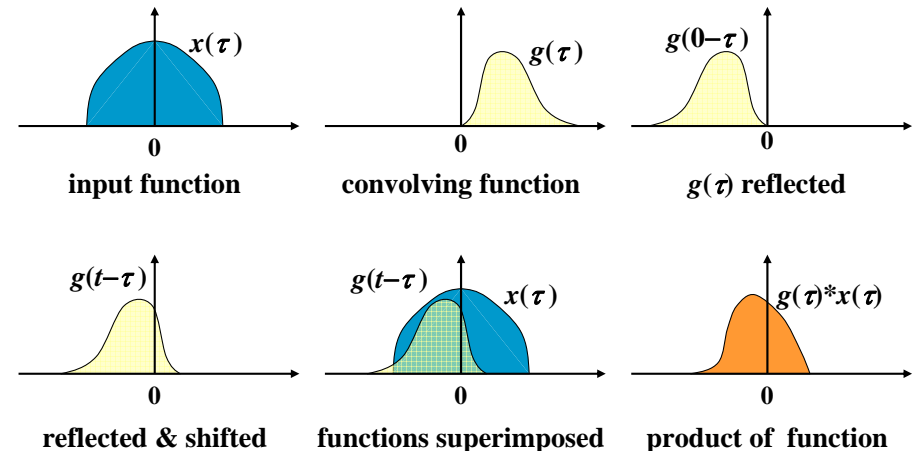
- There are two ways to specify input/output relationship:
 - Complex transfer function $K(\omega)$, and
 - Real impulse response $g(t)$.

$K(\omega)$ and $g(t)$ must be related.

One Dimensional Convolution



- The process of 1D convolution:



[Demo_conv1_cont](#)

Properties of Convolution



Commutative:

$$f * g = g * f$$

Distributive:

$$f * (g + h) = f * g + f * h$$

Associative:

$$f * (g * h) = (f * g) * h$$

Differentiation:

$$\frac{d}{dt}[f * g] = f' * g = f * g'$$

Discrete 1D Convolution



- Definition:

$$h(i) = f(i) * g(i) = \sum_j f(j)g(i - j)$$

- If lengths of f and g are n and m , respectively, the length of h is $N=(n+m-1)$.
- Although discrete convolution and continuous convolution are different, they have many properties in common.
- Discrete convolution can be implemented on digital images, and is useful in image processing operations, especially in image enhancement and restoration.

[Demo_conv1_disc](#)

Matrix Formulation of Convolution



- Discrete convolution in the form of summation:

$$h(i) = f(i) * g(i) = \sum_j f(j)g(i-j)$$

Lengths of f , g and h are m , n and $N=(n+m-1)$, respectively.

- To take advantage of matrix operations, convolution must be re-formulated:
- First, zero-pad $f(i)$ and $g(i)$ to extend their length to N :

$$f_p(i) = \begin{cases} f(i) & 1 \leq i \leq m \\ 0 & m < i \leq N \end{cases}$$

$$g_p(i) = \begin{cases} g(i) & 1 \leq i \leq n \\ 0 & n < i \leq N \end{cases}$$

Matrix Formulation of Convolution (cont.)



- Form an $N \times 1$ column vector \mathbf{f} with elements $f_p(i)$, and a circulant matrix \mathbf{G} whose rows are zero-padded $g_p(i)$ in a reversed order and its circularly right-shifted versions:

$$\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{G} \cdot \mathbf{f} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{bmatrix} h(1) \\ h(2) \\ \vdots \\ h(N) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} g_p(1) & g_p(N) & \cdots & g_p(2) \\ g_p(2) & g_p(1) & \cdots & g_p(3) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ g_p(N) & g_p(N-1) & \cdots & g_p(1) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_p(1) \\ f_p(2) \\ \vdots \\ f_p(N) \end{bmatrix}$$

- The output is an $N \times 1$ column vector \mathbf{h} .
- Each row of \mathbf{G} contributes to one element in \mathbf{h} .

Two Dimensional Convolution



- For 2D continuous functions:

$$h(x, y) = f * g = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(u, v)g(x-u, y-v)dudv$$

- For graphic illustration, see Fig 9-6 on p.153, where

$$f(x, y) = A \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (x^2 + y^2) \right]$$

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & -1 \leq x \leq 1, -1 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

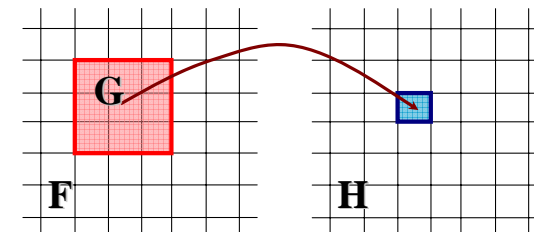
- Discrete 2D convolution: double integral becomes double summation:

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{F} * \mathbf{G} \quad \text{or} \quad H(i, j) = \sum_m \sum_n F(m, n)G(i-m, j-n)$$

Two Dimensional Convolution (cont.)



- Consider a 3×3 matrix \mathbf{G} , called the kernel, which is convolved with a larger image, \mathbf{F} :

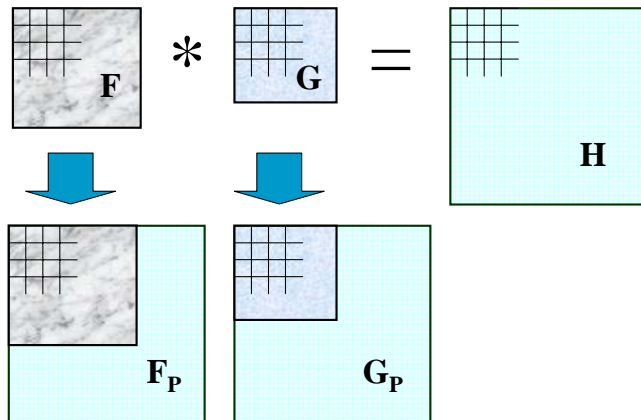


- Numbers of addition and multiplication operations:
 $\text{Number of elements in } \mathbf{G} \times \text{Number of pixels in } \mathbf{F}$
- Border effect: extend image by (1) repeating the border, (2) filling in a constant, (3) periodically wrapping image, or (4) simply cutting borders to produce a smaller output.

Matrix Formulation for 2D Convolution



- As in the 1D case, \mathbf{F} ($m_1 \times n_1$) and \mathbf{G} ($m_2 \times n_2$) are extended to ($M \times N$) and made periodic, where $M \geq m_1 + m_2 - 1$ and $N \geq n_1 + n_2 - 1$. For simplicity, only consider $M=N$.



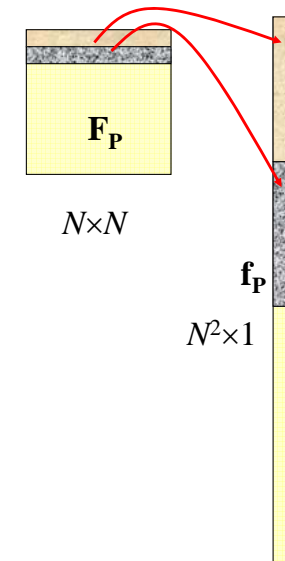
Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

24

Matrix Formulation (cont.)



- Form an $N^2 \times 1$ column vector \mathbf{f}_p from \mathbf{F}_p by row-stacking:



Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

25

Matrix Formulation (cont.)



- Each row of \mathbf{G}_p forms $N \times N$ circulant matrix as in 1D case:

$$\mathbf{G}_1, \mathbf{G}_2, \dots, \mathbf{G}_i, \dots, \mathbf{G}_N$$

where

$$\mathbf{G}_i = \begin{bmatrix} g_i(1) & g_i(N) & \cdots & g_i(2) \\ g_i(2) & g_i(1) & \cdots & g_i(3) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ g_i(N) & g_i(N-1) & \cdots & g_i(1) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Form a block circulant matrix, sized $N^2 \times N^2$:

$$\mathbf{G}_p = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{G}_1 & \mathbf{G}_N & \cdots & \mathbf{G}_2 \\ \mathbf{G}_2 & \mathbf{G}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{G}_3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{G}_N & \mathbf{G}_{N-1} & \cdots & \mathbf{G}_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Remarks:

- Using matrix algebra, computation load is huge.
- Useful in filter design such as in image restoration.

$$\mathbf{h}_p = \mathbf{G}_p \mathbf{f}_p$$

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

26

Matrix Formulation: an Example



$$\mathbf{F} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{F}_p = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{G}_p = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{h}_p = \mathbf{G}_p \cdot \mathbf{f}_p = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & -2 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & -2 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & -2 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \\ -5 \\ -3 \\ 8 \\ -6 \\ -2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{F} * \mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -5 & -3 & 8 \\ -6 & -2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

27

Exercises: Discrete Convolution



- Assume

$$\mathbf{F} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

calculate $\mathbf{F} * \mathbf{G}$ by using the matrix representation.

- Calculate the above convolution using Matlab functions `conv` and `conv2`.
- Calculate $\mathbf{F} * \mathbf{G}$ using Matlab with different border treatments.

$$\mathbf{F} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 & 5 & 4 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 & 4 & 2 & 5 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 6 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 5 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

28

Applications of Convolution



- Filtering operations** such as smoothing, sharpening, etc.
- Deconvolution**, removing the effects of imperfect linear systems that have operated on the image. For example:
 - Defects in the lens
 - Motion blurring
- Noise removal or reduction:**
 - Estimating what was the signal before the noise was added.
 - Detecting presence of known features buried in noisy background.
 - Removing coherent (periodical) noise interference.
- Feature Enhancement:** increase the contrast of specific features (edges, spots, etc.), usually at the expense of other objects in the image.

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

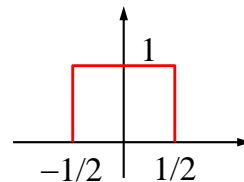
29

Useful Functions in Linear System Theory



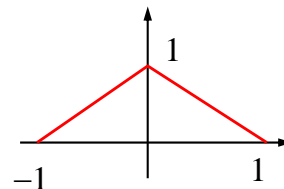
- Rectangular pulse: useful for modeling sampling windows and smoothing functions.

$$\Pi(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & -1/2 < x < 1/2 \\ 1/2 & x = \pm 1/2 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$



- Triangular pulse: convolution of two rectangles.

$$\Lambda(x) = \Pi(x) * \Pi(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - |x|, & |x| \leq 1 \\ 0, & |x| > 1 \end{cases}$$



Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

30

Useful Functions (cont.)



- Gaussian Function: a smooth and unimodal function, useful for modeling sampling windows, display spots, etc.

$$f(x) = \exp\left[-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right]$$

- When used as a probability density function, the area under the curve is normalized (x_0 is the mean):

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right]$$

- An important property: Convolution of two Gaussians produces another Gaussian:

$$A \exp\left[-\frac{(x-a)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}\right] * B \exp\left[-\frac{(x-b)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}\right] = AB \exp\left[-\frac{x-(a+b)}{2(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)}\right]$$

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

31

Useful Functions (cont.)

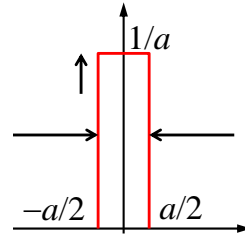


- The impulse: Dirac delta function $\delta(x)$, a symbolic function defined by the following integral property:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon} \delta(x) dx = 1, \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \delta(x) dx = f(0)$$

- The impulse can also be considered as the limit of a rectangular pulse with the width $\rightarrow 0$:

$$\delta(x) = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{a} \Pi\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)$$



- Impulse is an identity function under convolution:

$$\delta(x) * f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\tau) f(x - \tau) d\tau = f(x - \tau)|_{\tau=0} = f(x)$$

Useful Functions (cont.)



- Properties of the impulse function:

- Shifting

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \delta(x - x_0) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x + x_0) \delta(x) dx = f(x_0)$$

- Scaling

$$\delta(ax) = \frac{1}{|a|} \delta(x)$$

- Output of a linear system to the impulse function is the system's impulse response. This explains the term **impulse response**.

$$\delta(x) * h(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\tau) h(x - \tau) d\tau = h(x)$$

Useful Functions (cont.)



- Step function: derivative of delta function.

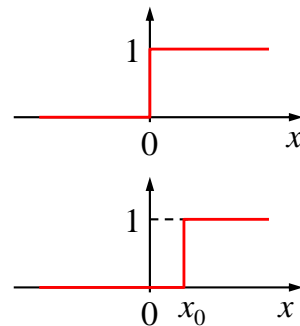
$$u(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ 1/2 & x = 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$u(x - x_0) = \begin{cases} 1 & x > x_0 \\ 1/2 & x = x_0 \\ 0 & x < x_0 \end{cases}$$

$$u'(x) = \delta(x)$$

$$u(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx$$

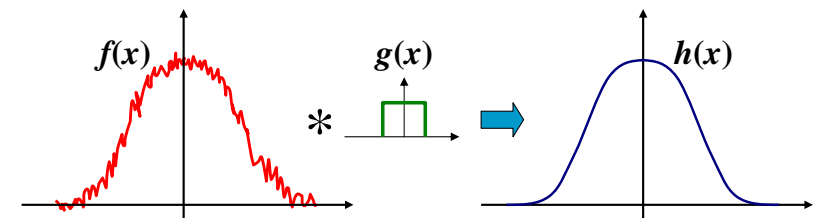
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u(x) f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} f(x) dx$$



Convolution Filtering



- Smoothing — moving average



- Main feature of the convolution kernel for smoothing: **non-negativity**.
- The convolution window can be triangular or Gaussian: weighted moving average.

[Demo_conv1_m](#)

Edge Enhancement: Sharpening



- A convolution kernel with a positive peak and negative side-lobes is a high-pass operator. The effects:
 - Increasing slope.
 - Producing overshoot (ringing).

■ Example 2:

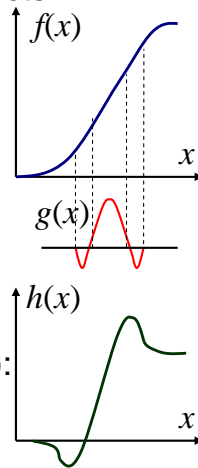
$$g(x) = 2\delta(x) - \exp(-x^2/2\sigma^2)$$

$$h = f * g = 2f(x) - f(x) * \exp\left(\frac{-x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- Unsharp masking (old darkroom technique):

Original – Blurred image \Rightarrow Sharpened edge

Refer to Fig 9-18 on p.166.



Summary



- Linear system: principle of superposition holds.
- Shift-invariance: system property independent of time.
- Harmonic signals: used to simplify analysis of linear systems.
- A linear system does not generate new frequency components.
- A shift-invariant linear system is specified by transfer function.

Summary (cont.)



- Output waveform of a shift-invariant linear system is the convolution of the input with the impulse response.
- Convolution may be implemented to perform digital filtering.
- Convolution may be used for deconvolution, noise reduction, and feature enhancement.
- Convolution of two Gaussians produces another Gaussian.
- The delta function is an identity function under convolution.

Chapter 10

Fourier Transform

Introduction



- Fourier transform is a powerful tool in linear system analysis.
 - It is important to combine a theoretical knowledge of FT properties with a practical knowledge of their physical interpretation.
 - **Time spent to get familiar with the FT is well invested.**
- Two alternate ways to handle signal processing problems:
 - Time/spatial domain techniques
 - Frequency/transform domain techniques

Introduction (cont.)



- It is useful to be able to think freely in either the spatial or the frequency domain.
- We first consider 1D problems, and then generalize to 2D.
- Laplace and Z-transforms will not be considered since image processing is not restricted to the requirement of **causality**.

Causality



- A system is said to be causal, or physically realizable, if the output is caused by input of the past and present. **The output does not depend on the future input.**
- The impulse response of a causal system is one-sided: It must be zero for $t < 0$.
- In image processing, we are working with recorded data: Data in the **future** are available, or the present input can influence the past.
- As a result, convolution kernels can either be even or odd, and the coordinate origin can be chosen arbitrarily.

The Continuous Fourier Transform



- One-dimensional Fourier transform pair:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}\{f(t)\} &= F(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-j2\pi st} dt \\ \mathcal{F}^{-1}\{F(s)\} &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(s)e^{j2\pi st} ds \end{aligned}$$

- Example: Gaussian function (for derivation, see p.173)

$$\exp[-\pi t^2] \Leftrightarrow \exp[-\pi s^2]$$

- Existence of FT: for many realistic signals, $f(t)$ either dies out rapidly for large t , or is truncated to a limited period or space, thus the absolute-integrability holds:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t)| dt < \infty$$

Existence: Periodic & Constant Functions

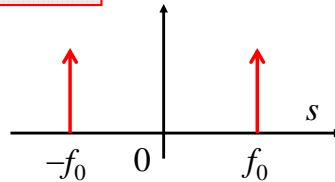


- Strictly speaking, periodic functions such as $f(t) = \cos \omega t$ and constant functions such as $f(t) = 1$ do not satisfy the condition of absolute integrability.
- The problem can be handled with the help of delta function:

$$\mathcal{F}\{\cos(2\pi f_0 t)\} = \frac{1}{2}[\delta(s + f_0) + \delta(s - f_0)]$$

$$\mathcal{F}\{\sin(2\pi f_0 t)\} = \frac{j}{2}[\delta(s + f_0) - \delta(s - f_0)]$$

$$\mathcal{F}\{1\} = \delta(s)$$



Existence: Random Functions



- Random signals are aperiodic and do not die out with time, therefore are not absolutely integrable.
- Consider autocorrelation function of a random process:

$$R_f(\tau) = E\{f(t)f(t+\tau)\} \underset{\text{For ergodic process}}{=} \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T f(t)f(t+\tau) dt$$

- $R(\tau)$ is always real and even, and its Fourier transform is the power spectrum of the process.

$$P_f(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_f(\tau) \exp[-i\omega\tau] d\tau$$

Remark: The existence of Fourier transform is not a problem for image processing.

The Discrete Fourier Transform



- View truncated function $g(t)$ as a cycle of periodic function.
- By making s a discrete variable and taking integration only over $[-T/2, T/2]$, the FT of $g(t)$ becomes ($\Delta s = 1/T$)

$$G_n = G(n\Delta s) = \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} g(t) \exp[-j2\pi(n\Delta s t)] dt$$

- For a **periodic** signal, the frequency domain representation is **discrete**. $G(s)$ is non-zero only at equally spaced discrete intervals.

Periodic in time domain \Leftrightarrow Discrete in frequency domain

- The inverse transform:

$$g(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} G(n\Delta s) \exp[j2\pi(n\Delta s t)] \Delta s = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} G_n \exp\left[j2\pi\left(\frac{n}{T}t\right)\right]$$

The Discrete Fourier Transform (cont.)



$$G_n = G(n\Delta s) = \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} g(t) \exp[-j2\pi(n\Delta s t)] dt$$

- Discretize both time and frequency, and the FT becomes

$$G_n = G(n\Delta s) = \sum_{i=-N/2}^{N/2} g(i\Delta t) \exp[-j2\pi(n\Delta s)i\Delta t] \Delta t$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{T}{N} \sum_{i=-N/2}^{N/2} g_i \exp\left[-j2\pi \frac{n}{N} i\right] \quad \left(\because \Delta t = \frac{T}{N}, \Delta s = \frac{1}{T}\right)$$

$$g_i = g(i\Delta t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} G(n\Delta s) \exp[j2\pi(n\Delta s)i\Delta t] \Delta s$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{T} \sum_{n=-N/2}^{N/2} G_n \exp\left[j2\pi \frac{i}{N} n\right]$$

- Finally, range of summation becomes finite because

Discrete in time domain \Leftrightarrow Periodic in frequency domain

The Discrete Fourier Transform (cont.)



- Changing range of indices, and making the forward and inverse transforms symmetric, DFT can be expressed as

$$F_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f_i \exp\left[-j2\pi \frac{n}{N} i\right], \quad 0 \leq n \leq N-1$$

$$f_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} F_n \exp\left[j2\pi \frac{i}{N} n\right], \quad 0 \leq i \leq N-1$$

- DFT is closely related to CFT so that they can be viewed essentially equivalent in most image processing problems.
- We can use CFT when **analyzing** an image processing problem, and then **implement** the solution with DFT.

Demo_CFT_DFT

The Fast Fourier Transform



- For DFT, number of multiplications and additions $\propto N^2$.
- Using the fast Fourier transform algorithm, the number of operations is reduced to the order of $N \log_2 N$.
- Matrix form of DFT:

$$\begin{bmatrix} F_0 \\ F_1 \\ \vdots \\ F_{N-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} W_{0,0} & W_{0,1} & \cdots & W_{0,N-1} \\ W_{1,0} & W_{1,1} & \cdots & W_{1,N-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W_{N-1,0} & W_{N-1,1} & \cdots & W_{N-1,N-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_0 \\ f_1 \\ \vdots \\ f_{N-1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{or } \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{W} \mathbf{f}$$

- The FFT algorithm can be derived by considering the symmetry and periodicity of the terms in \mathbf{W} :

$$W_{n,i} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \exp\left[-j2\pi \frac{ni}{N}\right]$$

FT of Some Useful Functions



$$\begin{aligned} \exp(-\pi t^2) &\Leftrightarrow \exp(-\pi s^2) \\ \Pi(t) &\Leftrightarrow \sin(\pi s)/(\pi s) \\ \Lambda(t) &\Leftrightarrow \sin^2(\pi s)/(\pi s)^2 \\ \delta(t) &\Leftrightarrow 1 \\ u(t) &\Leftrightarrow 1/2 [\delta(s) - j/(\pi s)] \\ \cos 2\pi ft &\Leftrightarrow 1/2 [\delta(s+f) + \delta(s-f)] \\ \sin 2\pi ft &\Leftrightarrow j/2 [\delta(s+f) - \delta(s-f)] \\ \exp(2\pi f t) &\Leftrightarrow \delta(s-f) \end{aligned}$$

Properties of Fourier Transform



- Symmetry properties: in general, **complex** \Leftrightarrow **complex**.
- Even and odd: a function can always be broken into even components and odd components:

$$f(t) = f_e(t) + f_o(t) \Leftrightarrow F(s) = F_e(s) + F_o(s)$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_e(t) &= \frac{1}{2} [f(t) + f(-t)] \Leftrightarrow F_e(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_e(t) \cos(2\pi s t) dt \\ f_o(t) &= \frac{1}{2} [f(t) - f(-t)] \Leftrightarrow F_o(s) = -j \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_o(t) \sin(2\pi s t) dt \end{aligned}$$

- An even component produces an even component in FT, without introducing a j .
- An odd component produces an odd component in FT, introducing a j .

Properties of Fourier Transform (cont.)



- Real and imaginary:
 - The real even part produces a real even part.
 - The real odd part produces an imaginary odd part.
 - The imaginary even part produces an imaginary even part.
 - The imaginary odd part produces a real odd part.

For an even part, the realness is preserved.

For an odd part, the realness is flipped.

- Of particular importance, the Fourier transform of a real signal is Hermitian (conjugate symmetric):

$$F(s) = F^*(-s)$$

Evenness, Oddness and Symmetry



$f(t)$	$F(s)$
Even	Even
Odd	Odd
Real and even	Real and even
Real and odd	Imaginary and odd
Imaginary and even	Imaginary and even
Imaginary and odd	Real and odd
Complex and even	Complex and even
Complex and odd	Complex and odd
Real	<u>Hermit</u>
Imaginary	<u>Anti-Hermit</u>
<u>Hermit</u>	Real
<u>Anti-Hermit</u>	Imaginary

Properties of FT: Addition Theorem



- Linearity of the Fourier transform:

$$f(t) \Leftrightarrow F(s)$$

$$g(t) \Leftrightarrow G(s)$$

$$f(t)+g(t) \Leftrightarrow F(s)+G(s)$$

$$c f(t) \Leftrightarrow c F(s)$$

- See Fig.10-1 on p.181 for an example.
- Programming: plot waveform $x(t) = a \cos(2\pi ft)$ and its spectrum using proper axis scales, and study effects of truncation, windowing, and frequency changes.**

Properties of FT (cont.)



- The shift theorem:

$$\mathcal{F}\{f(t-a)\} = \exp(-j2\pi as)F(s)$$

The exponent represents rotation in the transform domain — The amplitude is unchanged, while the phase redistributed.

- Convolution theorem: $f(t) * h(t) \Leftrightarrow F(s)H(s)$

- Scaling property:
See Fig.10-2 on p.184

$$f(at) \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{|a|} F\left(\frac{s}{a}\right)$$

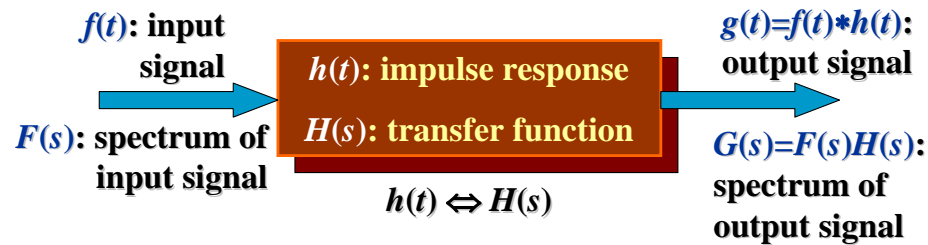
- Parseval's theorem:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |F(s)|^2 ds$$

Linear Systems and Fourier Transform



- Terminology:



- Linear system identification:** find the impulse response of a system given input and output signals.

$$G(s) = F(s)H(s) \Rightarrow H(s) = G(s)/F(s), \quad F(s) \neq 0$$

therefore,

$$h(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{G(s)}{F(s)} \right\} = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{\mathcal{F}[g(t)]}{\mathcal{F}[f(t)]} \right\}$$

System Identification (cont.)



- Example 1: When $f(t) = \delta(t)$, the impulse response is identical to the output signal: $h(t) = g(t)$.
- Example 2: When input signal is $\Pi(t)$ and output is $\Lambda(t)$, the impulse response is also $\Pi(t)$. See Fig.10-4, p. 187.

$$F(s) = \frac{\sin(\pi s)}{(\pi s)}$$

$$G(s) = \frac{\sin^2(\pi s)}{(\pi s)^2}$$

$$h(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{\sin^2(\pi s)}{(\pi s)^2} \bigg/ \frac{\sin(\pi s)}{(\pi s)} \right\} = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{\sin(\pi s)}{(\pi s)} \right\} = \Pi(t)$$

System Identification (cont.)

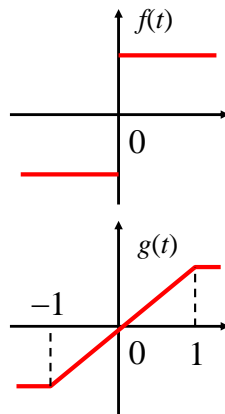


- Example 3: given

$$f(t) = u(t) - \frac{1}{2} = \begin{cases} -1/2 & t < 0 \\ 0 & t = 0 \\ 1/2 & t > 0 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow F(s) = \frac{-j}{2\pi s}$$

and

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} -1/2 & t < -1 \\ t & -1 \leq t \leq 1 \\ 1/2 & t > 1 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow G(s) = \frac{-j \sin(\pi s)}{2(\pi s)^2}$$



$$\Rightarrow H(s) = \frac{G(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\sin(\pi s)}{\pi s} \Rightarrow h(t) = \Pi(t)$$

System Identification (cont.)



- In general cases, no analytical expressions for the input and output signals are available. The system identification problem must be solved numerically.

$$H(s) = G(s)/F(s)$$

- Zeros in the input spectrum should be avoided.
- If both $F(s)$ and $G(s)$ have zeros at the same frequencies, obtain $H(s)$ at these frequencies by interpolation.

Sinusoidal Decomposition



- (This section is for self-study)

Some Concluding Remarks



- A linear system can change the amplitude and phase of a sinusoidal input, but cannot change the frequency.
- A linear system cannot generate new frequency contents.
- Two ways of viewing operation of linear system:
 - **Convolution with functions being reflected, shifted, multiplied, and integrated.**
 - **Sinusoidal decomposition followed by multiplication and re-summation.**
- Evenness and oddness are preserved between the two domains.
- In the Fourier domain, the negative frequencies are redundant, but convenient for mathematical operations.

Fourier Transform in Two Dimensions

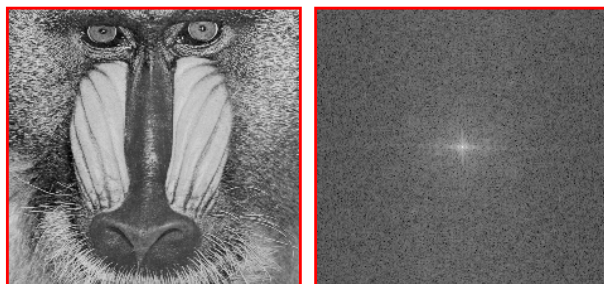


- Definition:

$$F(u, v) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) \exp[-j2\pi(ux + vy)] dx dy$$

$$f(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(u, v) \exp[j2\pi(ux + vy)] du dv$$

where u and v are spatial frequencies.



[More examples](#)

Discrete 2D Fourier Transform



- Definition:

$$G(m, n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g(i, k) \exp\left[-j2\pi\left(m \frac{i}{N} + n \frac{k}{N}\right)\right], \quad \begin{matrix} m = 0, 1, \dots, N-1 \\ n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1 \end{matrix}$$

$$g(i, k) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} G(m, n) \exp\left[j2\pi\left(i \frac{m}{N} + k \frac{n}{N}\right)\right], \quad \begin{matrix} i = 0, 1, \dots, N-1 \\ k = 0, 1, \dots, N-1 \end{matrix}$$

- A 2D DFT can be separated into two 1D DFT (row-wise and column-wise):

$$G(m, n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g(i, k) \exp\left[-j2\pi\left(n \frac{k}{N}\right)\right] \right\} \exp\left[-j2\pi\left(m \frac{i}{N}\right)\right]$$

Fourier Basis Functions



- The 2D Fourier transform:

$$G(m, n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g(i, k) A(i, k; m, n)$$

where $A(i, k; m, n)$ are the basis functions:

$$\begin{aligned} A(i, k; m, n) &= \exp\left[-j \frac{2\pi}{N} (im + kn)\right] \\ &= \cos\left[-\frac{2\pi}{N} (im + kn)\right] + j \sin\left[-\frac{2\pi}{N} (im + kn)\right] \end{aligned}$$

- 2D basis functions are outer products of 1D basis.
- Any image can be viewed as a linear combination of basis functions.

Demo_2DFT

Matrix Formulation of 2D DFT



- It can be shown that the DFT can be expressed in the following matrix notation:

$\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{F} \mathbf{g} \mathbf{F}$ where \mathbf{F} is a unitary and symmetrical matrix:

$$\mathbf{F} = [f_{ik}] = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \exp\left(-j2\pi \frac{ik}{N}\right) \right] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{bmatrix} W^0 & W^0 & \dots & W^0 \\ W^0 & W^1 & \dots & W^{N-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W^0 & W^{N-1} & \dots & W^{(N-1)^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

where $W = \exp[-j2\pi/N]$

- Unitary transform:

$$\mathbf{F}^{-1} = \mathbf{F}^{*T}$$

Properties of 2D Fourier Transform



The following properties are unique to 2D FT:

- Separability:

$$\text{If } f(x, y) = f_1(x)f_2(y) \Rightarrow F(u, v) = F_1(u)F_2(v)$$

- Similarity (scaling property):

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}\{f(a_1x + b_1y, a_2x + b_2y)\} \\ = (A_1B_2 + A_2B_1)F(A_1u + A_2v, B_1u + B_2v) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &= \frac{b_2}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1} & B_1 &= \frac{-b_1}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1} \\ A_2 &= \frac{-a_2}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1} & B_2 &= \frac{a_1}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1} \end{aligned}$$

Properties of 2D Fourier Transform (cont.)



- Rotation: The spectrum rotates by the same angle as the image. Using the similarity property, and with

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= \cos \theta, & b_1 &= \sin \theta, & a_2 &= -\sin \theta, & b_2 &= \cos \theta \\ \therefore A_1 &= a_1, & A_2 &= b_1, & B_1 &= a_2, & B_2 &= b_2 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}\{f(x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta, -x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta)\} \\ = F(u \cos \theta + v \sin \theta, -u \sin \theta + v \cos \theta) \end{aligned}$$

- Projection: When an image is collapsed into a 1D function:

$$p(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy \Leftrightarrow P(u) = F(u, 0)$$

Try to prove.

This can be generalized to an arbitrary direction.

Properties of 2D Fourier Transform (cont.)



- Circular symmetry and Hankel transform:

Suppose $f(x, y) = f_r(r), \quad r^2 = x^2 + y^2$

$$\begin{aligned} F(u, v) &= \iint f(x, y) \exp[-j2\pi(ux + vy)] dx dy \\ &= \iint f_r(r) \exp[-j2\pi q r \cos(\theta - \phi)] r dr d\theta \\ &= \int_0^\infty f_r(r) \left[\int_0^{2\pi} \exp[-j2\pi q r \cos \theta] d\theta \right] r dr \\ &= 2\pi \int_{-\infty}^\infty f_r(r) J_0(2\pi q r) r dr = F_r(q) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x &= r \cos \theta \\ y &= r \sin \theta \\ u &= q \cos \phi \\ v &= q \sin \phi \end{aligned}$$

- Therefore, $F_r(q) = 2\pi \int_0^\infty f_r(r) J_0(2\pi q r) r dr$
 $f_r(q) = 2\pi \int_0^\infty F_r(q) J_0(2\pi q r) q dq$

Hankel
transform of
zero-order:
p.200

Bessel functions

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

68

Amplitude and Phase of Fourier Transform



- The amplitude specifies **how much** of each sinusoidal components is present.
- The phase information specifies **where** each of these components resides within the image.
- As long as components are kept in proper positions, the amplitudes appear to be less critical.
- Therefore, most practical filters affect amplitudes only while doing little or nothing to the phase in the spectrum.

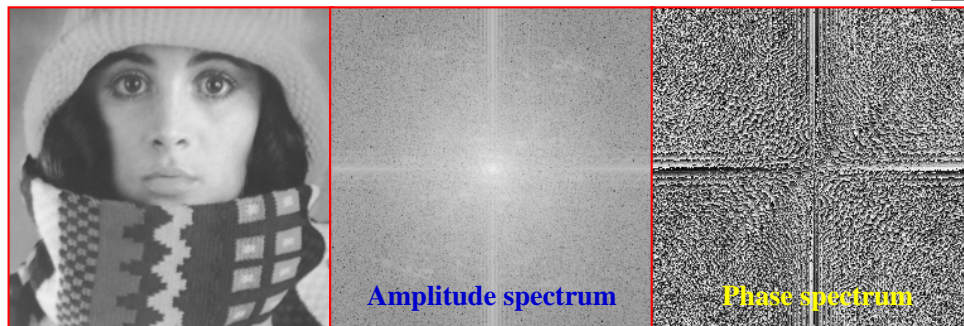
Demo_FFT2

Demo_FFT_mag_ang

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

69

Amplitude and Phase of Fourier Transform



Amplitude spectrum

Phase spectrum

Programming
practice: Write
Matlab codes for
this experiment.

**A sample
program**

Reconstructed from
amplitude spectrum

Reconstructed from
phase spectrum

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

Correlation and Power Spectrum



- Auto-correlation:

$$R_f(\tau) = f(t) * f(-t) = \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(t) f(t + \tau) dt$$

- Power spectrum: Fourier transform of $R_f(\tau)$:

$$\begin{aligned} P_f(s) &= \mathcal{F}\{R_f(\tau)\} = \mathcal{F}\{f(t) * f(-t)\} \\ &= F(s)F(-s) = F(s)F^*(s) = |F(s)|^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Cross-correlation:

$$R_{fg}(\tau) = f(t) * g(-t) = \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(t) g(t + \tau) dt$$

- Cross power spectrum

$$P_{fg}(s) = \mathcal{F}\{R_{fg}(\tau)\}$$

Shuozhong Wang, SCIE, Shanghai University

71

Summary of FT Properties



Property	Time (space) domain	Frequency domain
Terminology	signal, impulse response	spectrum, transfer function
Definition	$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(s) \exp[j2\pi st] ds$	$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \exp[-j2\pi st] dt$
Addition theorem	$af(x) + bg(x)$	$aF(s) + bF(s)$
Similarity theorem	$f(ax)$	$(1/ a)F(s/a)$
Shift theorem	$f(x-a)$	$\exp[-j2\pi as]F(s)$
Convolution	$f(x) * g(x)$	$F(s)G(s)$
Differentiation	$df(x)/dx$	$j2\pi s F(s)$
Autocorrelation	$R_f(\tau) = f(x) * f^*(-x)$	$ F(s) ^2 = P_f(s)$
Parseval theorem	$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) ^2 dx = E$	$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(s) ^2 ds = E$
Power theorem	$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)g^*(x)dx = P$	$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(s)G^*(s)ds = P$

Summary of Important Points



- FT establishes unique correspondence between a complex valued function of space and that of frequency.
- FT of Gaussian is another Gaussian.
- Evenness and oddness are preserved.
- FT of a real signal is Hermitian.
- FT is a linear transformation so that addition theorem holds.
- Shifting a waveform introduces phase shift in the spectrum.
- Convolution of two functions corresponds to multiplication of their spectra.
- Squeezing a signal broadens its spectrum, and vice versa.
- The energy of a signal is equal to that of its spectrum.
- Impulse response and transfer function are an FT pair.

Summary of Important Points (cont.)



- The transfer function can be obtained from the input and output spectra.
- FT of a sinusoid is an impulse pair.
- Signal can be decomposed into infinite sum of sinusoids.
- A linear system operates separately on sinusoidal components of the input, and summing up at the output.
- If a function is separable, so is its FT.
- Rotating image rotates the spectrum by the same angle.
- Collapsing a 2D function onto a line L results in a profile of spectrum taken along a line in the same direction as L .
- The auto-correlation function and the power spectrum are a Fourier transform pair.

Hermite and Anti-Hermite



- Hermite function:

$$f(x) = f_e(x) + j f_o(x)$$

$$f(-x) = f_e(-x) + j f_o(-x) = f^*(x)$$

- Anti-Hermite function:

$$f(x) = f_o(x) + j f_e(x)$$

$$f(-x) = f_o(-x) + j f_e(-x) = -f^*(x)$$

Fourier Series



- A periodical signal can be expanded in to an infinite series:

$$f(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos\left(2\pi \frac{n}{T} t\right) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin\left(2\pi \frac{n}{T} t\right), \quad t \in \left[-\frac{T}{2}, \frac{T}{2}\right]$$

where

$$a_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} f(t) \cos\left(2\pi \frac{n}{T} t\right) dt$$

$$b_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} f(t) \sin\left(2\pi \frac{n}{T} t\right) dt$$

Zero-Order Bessel Function



$$J_0(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \exp[-jz \cos \theta] d\theta$$

The Schwartz Inequality



- It can be shown that

$$\int f^2(t) dt \int g^2(t) dt \geq \left[\int f(t) g(t) dt \right]^2 \quad (1)$$

- First, define a nonnegative function of the variable λ :

$$Q(\lambda) = \int [\lambda f(t) + g(t)]^2 dt \geq 0$$

- Expanding the integrand:

$$\int [\lambda f(t) + g(t)]^2 dt = \lambda^2 \int f^2(t) dt + 2\lambda \int f(t) g(t) dt + \int g^2(t) dt \quad (2)$$

- This is a quadratic form in the variable λ . The following inequality must hold to make (2) nonnegative.

$$\left[2 \int f(t) g(t) dt \right]^2 - 4 \int f^2(t) dt \int g^2(t) dt \leq 0$$

- This proves (1).

$(b^2 - 4ac) < 0 \Rightarrow$
The quadratic
equation has no
real roots.

Waveform and Spectrum



```
T=1;N=512;
dt=T/(N-1);           % Sampling interval
fs=1/dt;               % Sampling frequency
fn=fs/2;               % Nyquist frequency
df=fs/N;
t=linspace(0,T,N);     % time axis
f1=linspace(0,fs-df,N);f2=linspace(-fn,fn-df,N);
freq1=df*25;freq2=df*56;
A=1;B=.8;
s=A*cos(2*pi*freq1*t)+B*sin(2*pi*freq2*t);
S1=abs(fft(s));S2=fftshift(S1);
subplot 311;plot(t,s);axis([0 T -2 2]);
subplot 312;plot(f1,S1);
axis([0 fs-df 0 max(S1(:))*1.2]);
subplot 313;plot(f2,S2);
axis([-fn fn-df 0 max(S2(:))*1.2]);
```

2D Fourier Transform: Magnitude & Phase



```
x=getimage;
[M,N,L]=size(x);
if L==3, d=rgb2ycbcr(x);x=d(:,:,1); end
X=fft2(double(x));
Xphase=exp(j*angle(X));Xmag=abs(X);    % Mag n phase
yphase=ifft2(Xphase);ymag=ifft2(Xmag); % reconstruct

a=5;b=800-M;
figure('Pos',[a b N M], 'Menu','none',...
      'Num','off','Name','original');
imshow(x);

a=a+min(N,300);
figure('Pos',[a b N M], 'Menu','none',...
      'Number','off','Name','FFT: abs');
imshow(uint8(rescale(log(fftshift(Xmag+eps)))));
```

2D Fourier Transform (cont.)



```
a=a+min(N,300);
figure('Pos',[a b N M], 'Menu','none',...
      'Number','off','Name','abs-reconstructed');
imshow(uint8(clip(10*rescale(abs(ymag)),0,255)));

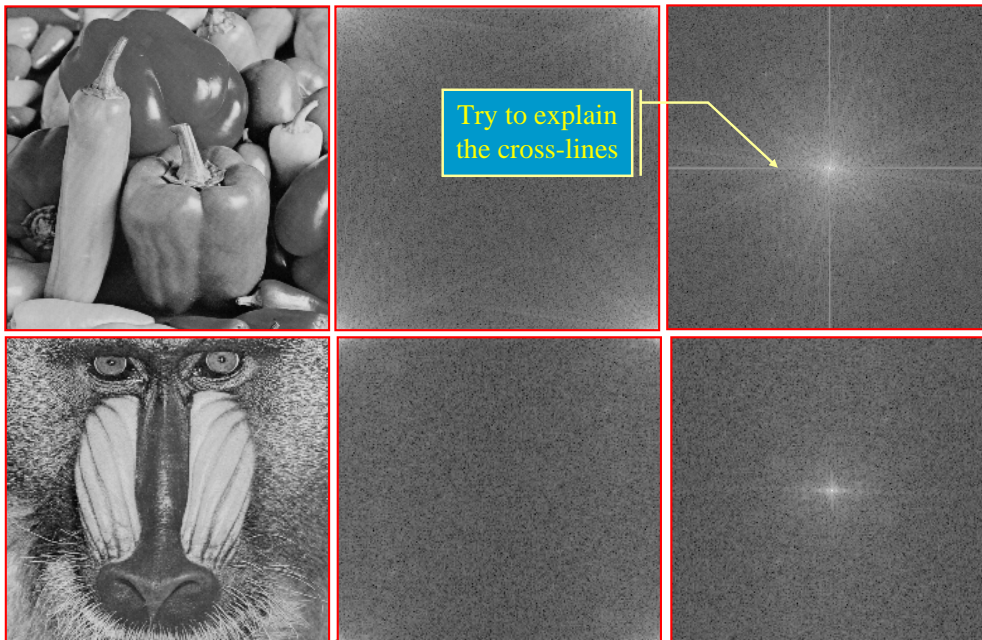
a=a+min(N,300);
figure('Pos',[a b N M], 'Menu','none',...
      'Number','off','Name','FFT: angle');
imshow(uint8(rescale(log(fftshift(Xphase+eps)))));

a=a+min(N,300);
figure('Pos',[a b N M], 'Menu','none',...
      'Number','off','Name','angle-reconstructed');
imshow(uint8(clip(5*rescale(abs(yphase)),0,255)));
```

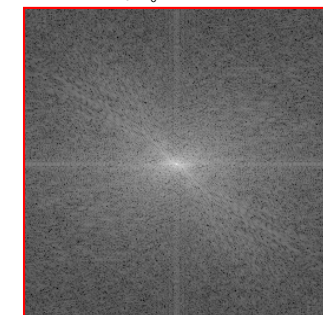
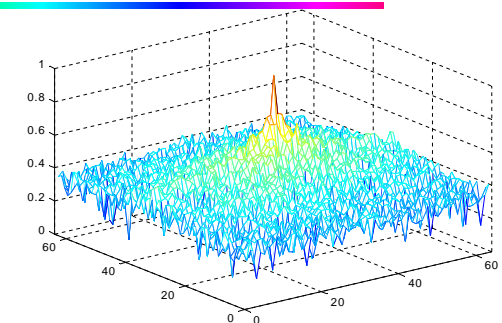
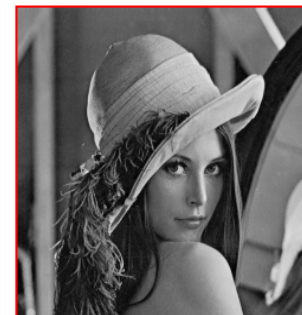
[Go back](#)

[Demo: testFFT](#)

Two-Dimensional DFT



FFT of Lena



[Go back](#)

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors



- For an $N \times N$ matrix \mathbf{C} , there are N scalars λ_k ($k = 0, \dots, N-1$) such that

$$|\mathbf{C} - \lambda \mathbf{I}| = 0$$

λ_k are called the **eigenvalues** of the matrix.

- The set of N vectors \mathbf{a}_k ($k = 0, \dots, N-1$) such that

$$\mathbf{C} \mathbf{a}_k = \lambda_k \mathbf{a}_k$$

are called the **eigenvectors** of the matrix \mathbf{C} . They are $N \times 1$, and each corresponds to an eigenvalue.

- The eigenvectors form an **orthonormal** basis set.

Orthogonal Basis



- Rows of \mathbf{T} form an orthogonal basis for the N -dimensional vector space of all $N \times 1$ vectors.

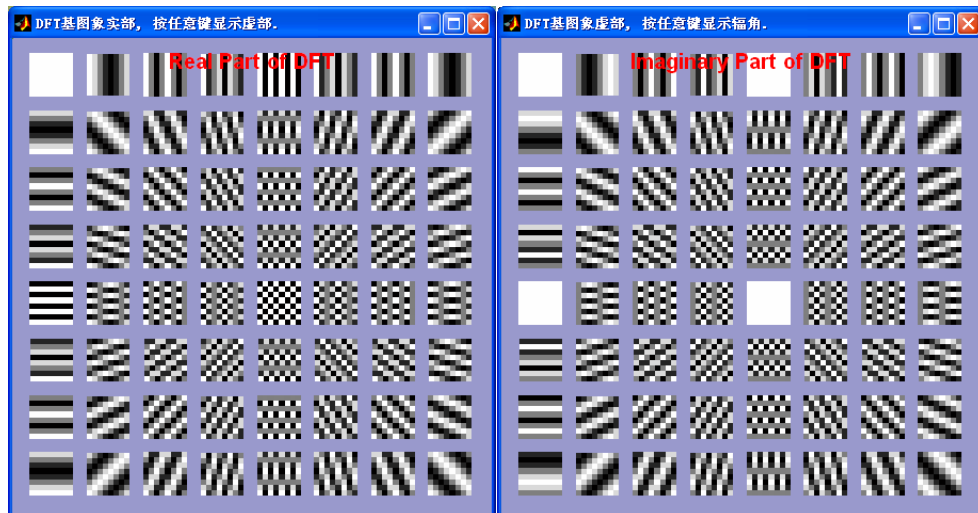
- Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.866 & -0.5 \\ 0.5 & 0.866 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{if } \theta = \frac{\pi}{6}$$

- The basis** — rows of \mathbf{T} : $\mathbf{t}_1 = [0.866 \ -0.5]$, $\mathbf{t}_2 = [0.5 \ 0.866]$.
- Any 2×1 vector can be expressed as a linear combination of \mathbf{t}_1 and \mathbf{t}_2 .

Fourier Basis Functions (Images)



Any 8×8 image can be viewed as a linear combination of these basis functions.