

Fourier Analysis

Any image can be represented by a linear combination of basis functions:

$$f(x,y) = \sum_{k} a_k \Psi_k(x,y)$$

In the case of 2D Fourier analysis:

$$\Psi_k(x,y) = \exp(i(\mu_k x + \nu_k y))$$

$$\exp(i\theta) = \cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)$$

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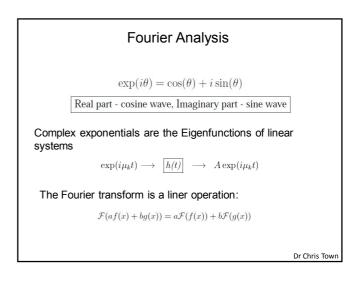
Fourier Analysis

$$f(x,y) = \sum_{k} a_k \exp(i(\mu_k x + \nu_k y))$$

The transform finds a set of coefficients a_k for every spatial frequency and orientation in the 2D Fourier domain spanned by the 2D frequency variables (u_k,v_k) . These coefficients may be computed by the **Fourier Transform**:

$$a_k = \int_X \int_Y \exp(-i(\mu_k x + \nu_k y)) f(x, y) dx dy$$
$$F(\mu, \nu) = \int_X \int_Y \exp(-i(\mu_k x + \nu_k y)) f(x, y) dx dy$$

Each $\mathsf{F}(\mathsf{u},\mathsf{v})$ is a complex coefficient which defines the magnitude and phase of a sinusoid basis function. ${}_{\text{Dr Chris Town}}$



Series expansion of transcendental functions

$$\exp(\theta) = 1 + \frac{\theta}{1!} + \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{\theta^n}{n!} + \dots,$$

$$\cos(\theta) = 1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} - \frac{\theta^6}{6!} + \dots,$$

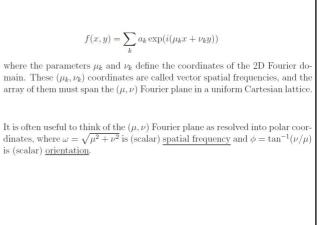
$$\sin(\theta) = \theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \frac{\theta^7}{7!} + \dots,$$

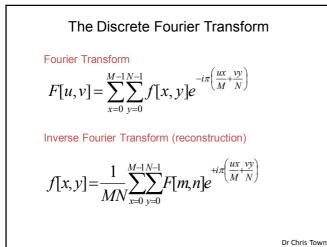
$$e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$$

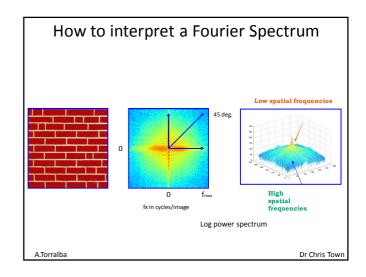
$$\{0,1\} \text{ represent arithmetic, } \pi \text{ represents geometry, } i \text{ represents algebra}$$
and $e = 2.718...$ represents analysis, since one way to define e is to compute the limit of $(1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$ as $n \to \infty$.

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The Fourier Transform coefficients are complex valued:

$$F[u,v] = \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f[x,y] e^{-i\pi \left(\frac{ux}{M} + \frac{vy}{N}\right)}$$
$$= R[u,v] + iJ[u,v]$$
$$e^{-i\pi \left(\frac{ux}{M} + \frac{vy}{N}\right)} = \cos\left(\pi \left(\frac{ux}{M} + \frac{vy}{N}\right)\right) - \sin\left(i\pi \left(\frac{ux}{M} + \frac{vy}{N}\right)\right)$$
$$\cos(-\theta) = \cos(\theta) \qquad \sin(-\theta) = -\sin(\theta)$$
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The Fourier Transform coefficients are complex:

$$F[u,v] = R[u,v] + iJ[u,v]$$

Real component:

$$R[u,v] = \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f[x,y] \cos\left(\pi \left(\frac{ux}{M} + \frac{vy}{N}\right)\right)$$

Imaginary component:

$$J[u,v] = -\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f[x,y] \sin\left(\pi \left(\frac{ux}{M} + \frac{vy}{N}\right)\right)$$

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Representation in terms of **magnitude** and **phase**

$$F[u,v] = R[u,v] + iJ[u,v]$$

$$= |F(u,v)| e^{i\Phi(u,v)}$$
Magnitude spectrum

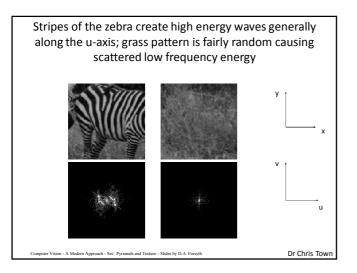
$$|F(u,v)| = \sqrt{R(u,v)^2 + I(u,v)^2} = \sqrt{F(u,v)F^*(u,v)}$$

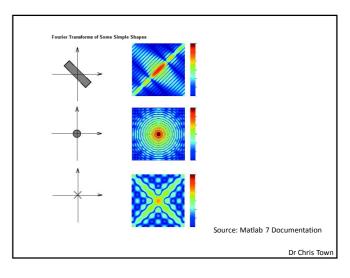
$$F(u,v)F^*(u,v) \text{ Power spectrum}$$
Phase spectrum

$$\Phi(u,v) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{I(u,v)}{R(u,v)}\right)$$

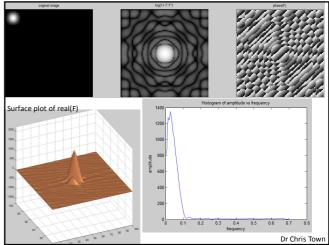
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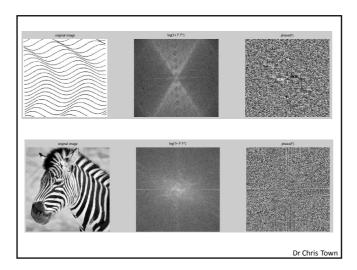
The Discrete Fourier Transform The Fourier Transform of a real-valued image is conjugate-symmetric $F[u,v] = F^*(-u,-v)$ Therefore the magnitude spectrum is even symmetric |F(u,v)| = |F(-u,-v)|and the phase spectrum is odd symmetric $\Phi(u,v) = -\Phi(-u,-v)$ Note that the Fourier spectrum is often re-arranged for display such that the zero-frequency component is in the centre.

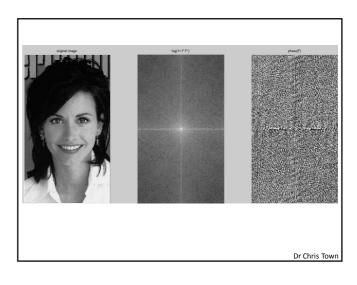


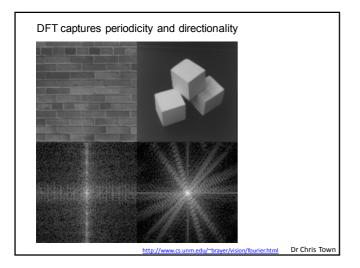


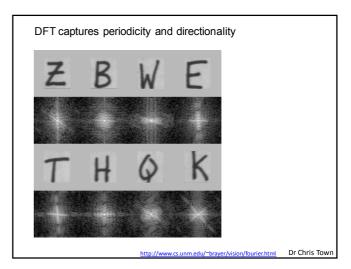
Demo Matlab code im = imread('waves.bmp'); F = fft2(im); %fft2(X) returns the two-dimensional discrete Fourier transform (DFT) of X, computed with a fast Fourier transform (FFT) algorithm. The result Y is the same size as X. F = fftshift(F); %fftshift(X) rearranges the outputs of fft, fft2, and fftn by moving the zerofrequency component to the center of the array. It is useful for visualizing a %Fourier transform with the zero-frequency component in the middle of the spectrum %angle(X): Phase angle figure; subplot(1,3,1), imagesc(im); colormap gray, axis image, axis off, title('original image'); subplot(1,3,2), imshow(log(1+F.*conj(F)), []); title('log(1+F F*)'); subplot(1,3,3), imshow(angle(F), []); title('phase(F)'); imspect(im); %IMSPECT - Plots image amplitude spectrum averaged over all orientations. showsurf(real(F)); %SHOWSURF - shows parametric surface in a convenient way

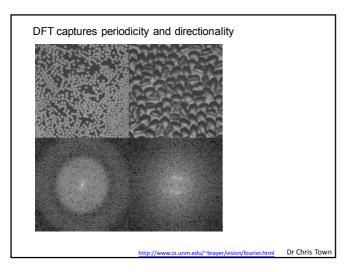


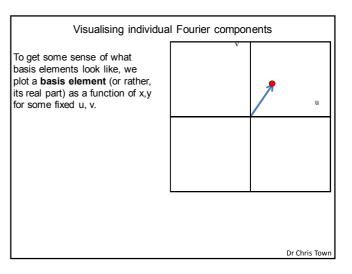


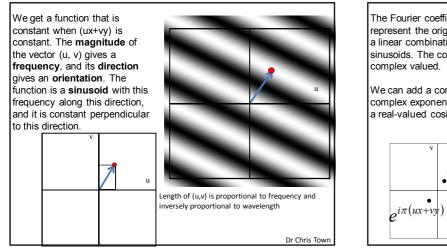


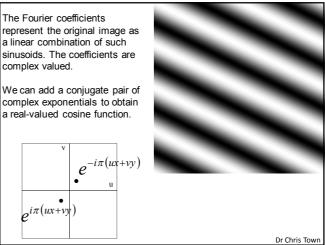


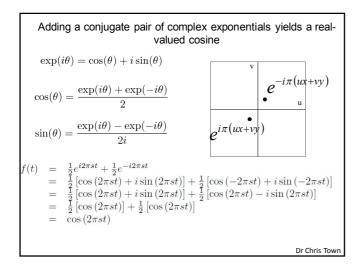


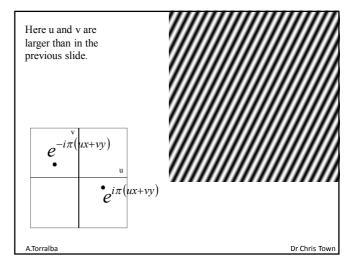


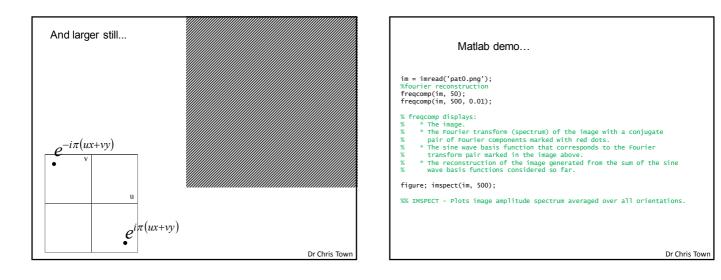


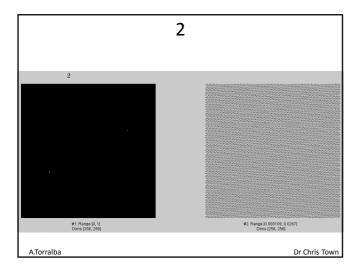


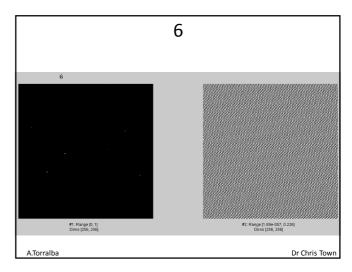


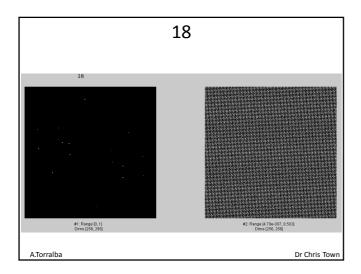


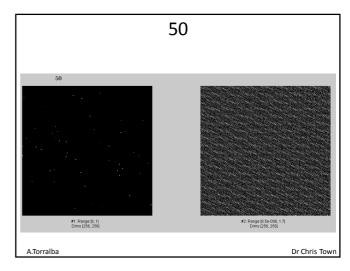


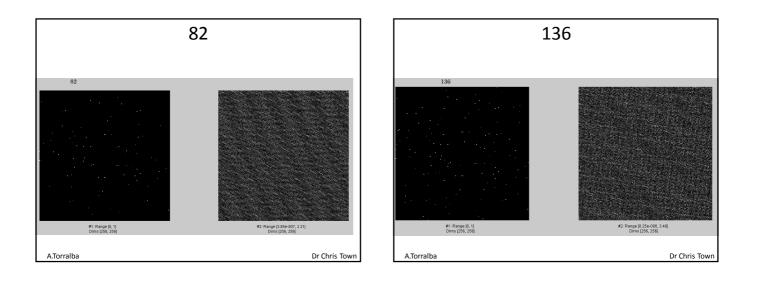


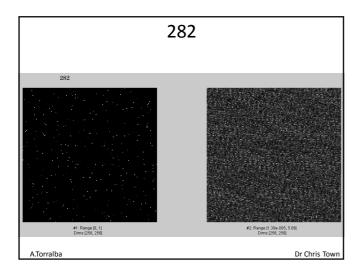


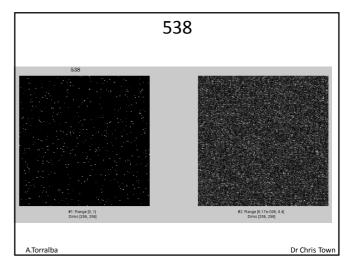


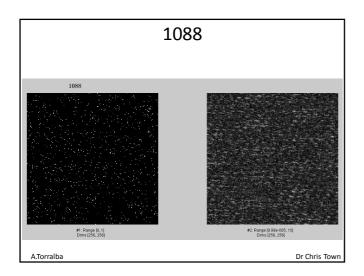


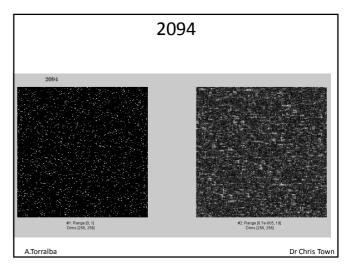


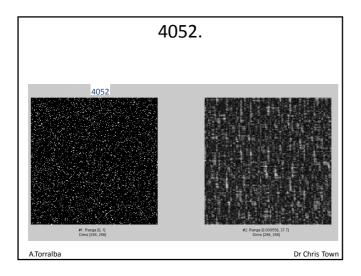


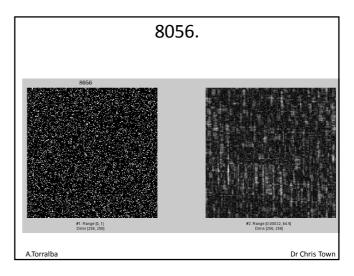


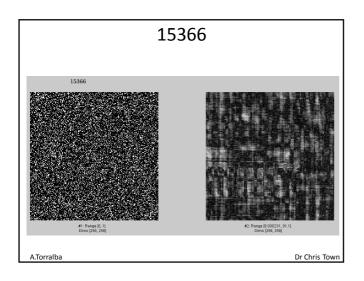


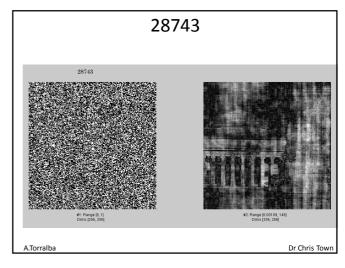


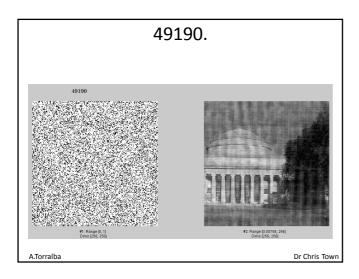


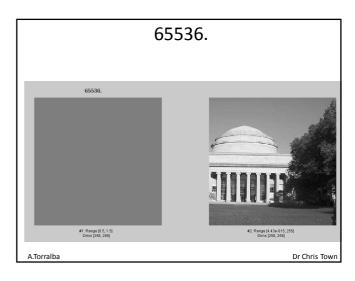


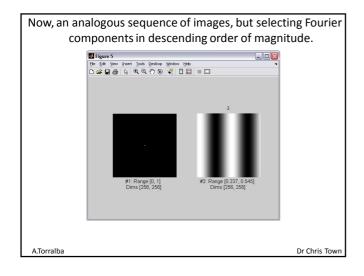


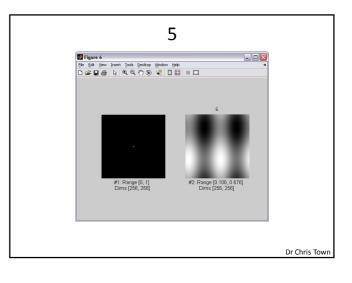


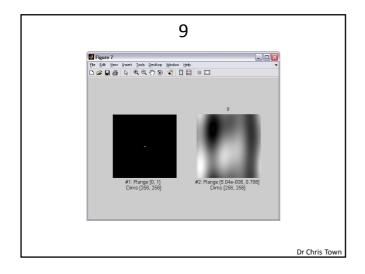


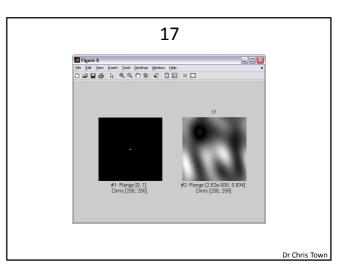


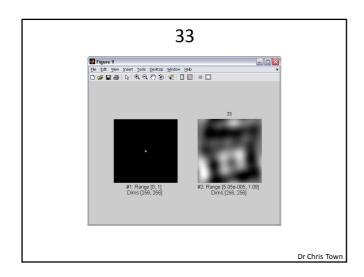


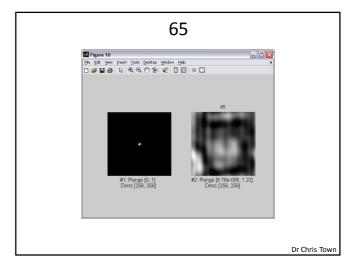


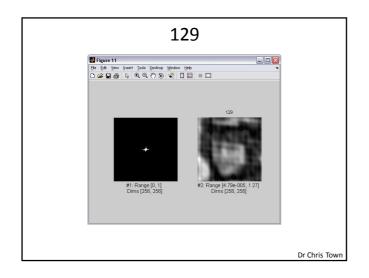


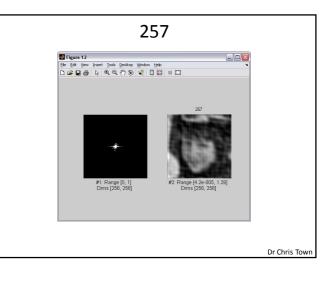


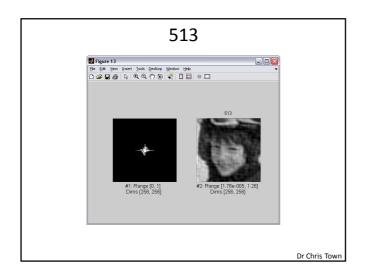


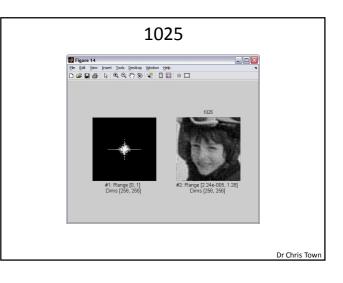


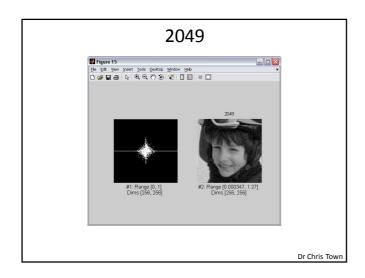


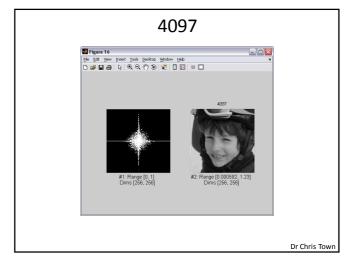


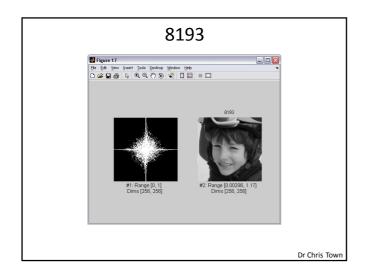


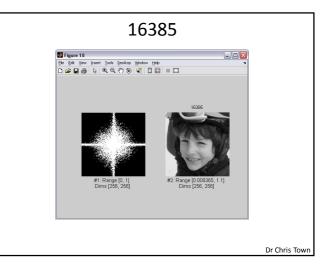


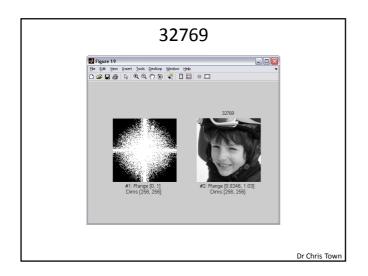


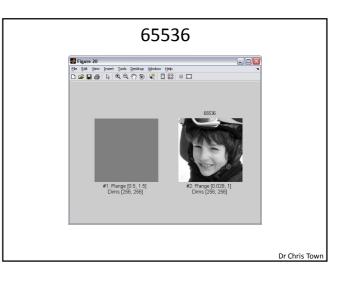


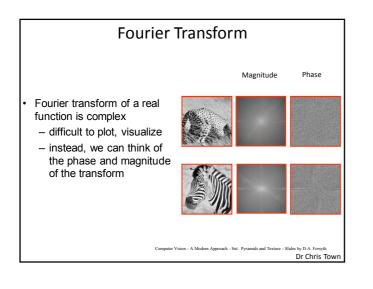




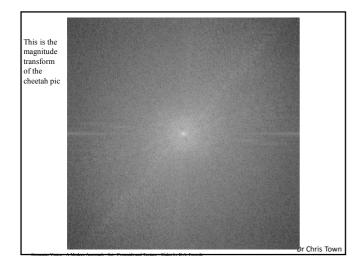


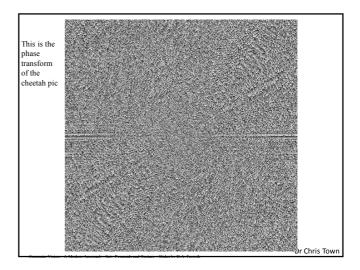




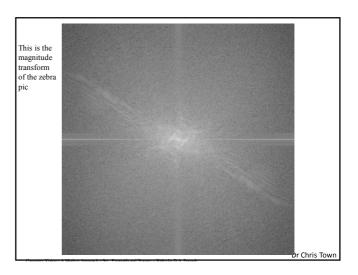


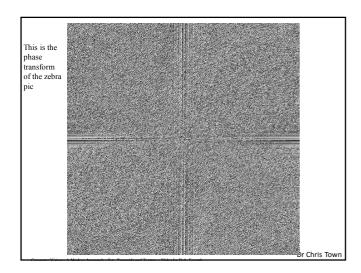


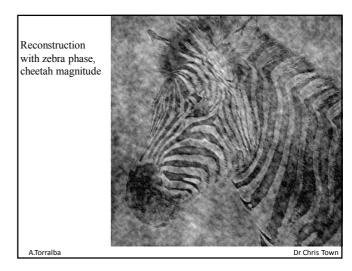


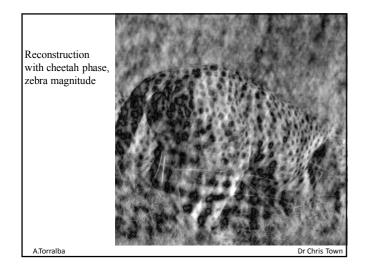


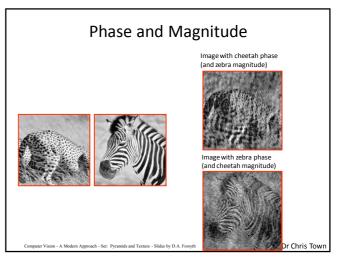


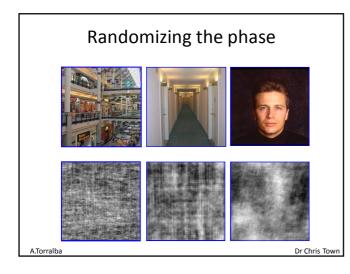


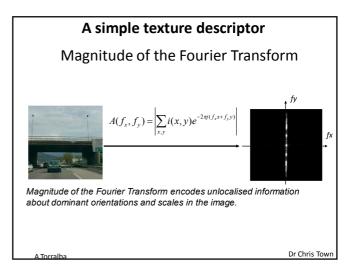


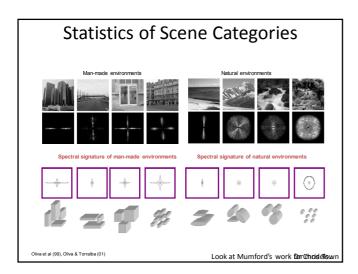


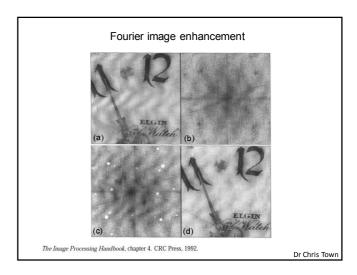










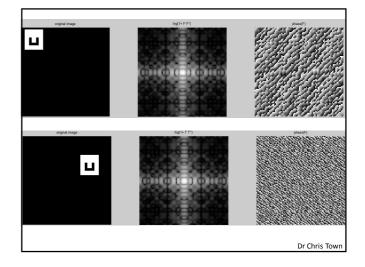


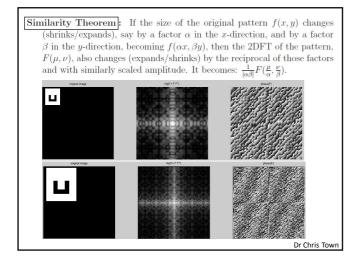
Shift Theorem: Shifting the original pattern in (x, y) by some 2D displacement (α, β) merely multiplies its 2DFT by $\exp(-i(\alpha \mu + \beta \nu))$. Thus the 2DFT of the shifted pattern $f(x - \alpha, y - \beta)$ is: $F(\mu, \nu) \exp(-i(\alpha \mu + \beta \nu))$.

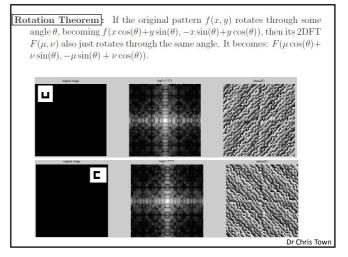
Practical Application: The power spectrum of any isolated pattern is thus <u>translation-invariant</u>: it does not depend on where the pattern is located within the image, and so you don't have to find it first. The power spectrum is defined as the product of the pattern's 2DFT, $F(\mu, \nu)$, times its complex conjugate, $F^*(\mu, \nu)$, which just requires that the sign (–) of the imaginary part of $F(\mu, \nu)$ gets reversed. You can easily see that the power spectrum of the shifted pattern $f(x - \alpha, y - \beta)$, namely:

 $\exp(-i(\alpha\mu + \beta\nu))F(\mu,\nu)\exp(i(\alpha\mu + \beta\nu))F^*(\mu,\nu)$

is equal to the power spectrum of the original unshifted pattern, namely: $F(\mu,\nu)F^*(\mu,\nu)$. Thus the power spectrum is translation-invariant.







Practical Application: Size- and orientation-invariant pattern representations can be constructed by these relationships. Specifically, if the Fourier domain (μ, ν) is now mapped into log-polar coordinates (r, θ) where $r = \log(\sqrt{\mu^2 + \nu^2})$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1}(\nu/\mu)$, then any <u>dilation</u> (size change) in the original pattern becomes simply a <u>translation</u> along the *r*-coordinate; and any <u>rotation</u> of the original pattern becomes simply a <u>translation</u> along the orthogonal θ -coordinate in this log-polar Fourier domain. But we saw earlier that translations are made immaterial by taking a power spectrum, and so these effects of dilation and rotation of the pattern are eliminated in such a representation.

Combined with the translation-invariant property of the power spectrum, we now see how it becomes possible to represent patterns in a manner that is independent of their position in the image, their orientation, and their size (i.e. the Poincaré group of transformations).

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Convolution Theorem: Let function f(x, y) have 2DFT $F(\mu, \nu)$, and let function g(x, y) have 2DFT $G(\mu, \nu)$. The <u>convolution</u> of f(x, y) with g(x, y), which is denoted f * g, combines these two functions to generate a third function h(x, y), whose value at location (x, y) is equal to the integral of the product of functions f and g after one is flipped and undergoes a <u>relative shift</u> by amount (x, y):

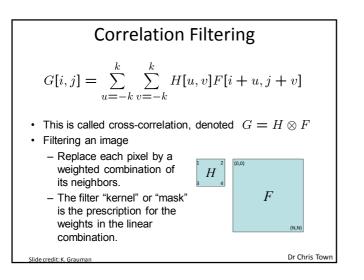
$$h(x,y) = \int_{\alpha} \int_{\beta} f(\alpha,\beta) g(x-\alpha,y-\beta) d\alpha d\beta$$
(9)

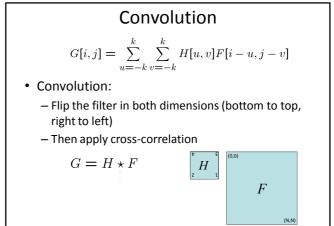
The Convolution Theorem states that convolving two functions f(x, y)and g(x, y) together in the image domain, simply <u>multiplies</u> their two 2DFT's together in the 2D Fourier domain:

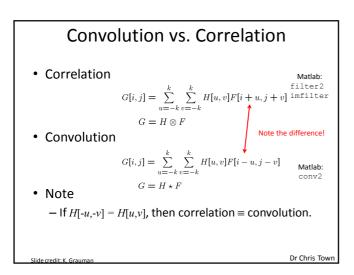
$$H(\mu,\nu) = F(\mu,\nu)G(\mu,\nu) \tag{10}$$

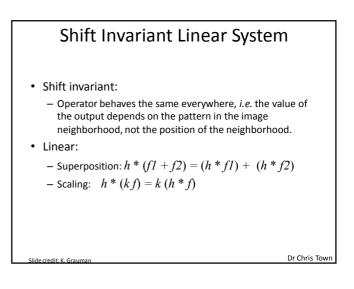
where $H(\mu, \nu)$ is the 2DFT of the desired result h(x, y).

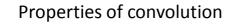
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- Linear & shift invariant
- Commutative:
 - f * g = g * f
- Associative
- (f * g) * h = f * (g * h)
- Identity:

unit impulse e = [..., 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, ...]. f * e = f

• Differentiation:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f * g) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} * g$$

```
result(i, j) = \sum \sum kernel(m, n) \cdot image(i - m, j - n)
    i, j, m, n, sum, image[iend][jend],
int
     kernel[mend][nend], result [iend][jend];
for (i = mend; i < iend; i++) {</pre>
    for (j = nend; j < jend; j++) {
        sum = 0;
        for ( m = 0; m < mend; m++) {
            for ( n = 0; n < nend; n++ ) {
                sum += kernel[m][n] * image[i-m][j-n];
            }
        }
        result[i][j] = sum/(mend*nend);
   }
}
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Differentiation Theorem: Computing the derivatives of an image f(x, y) is equivalent to <u>multiplying</u> its 2DFT, $F(\mu, \nu)$, by the corresponding frequency coordinate raised to a power equal to the <u>order</u> of differentiation:

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)^m \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)^n f(x,y) \stackrel{2DFT}{\Longrightarrow} (i\mu)^m (i\nu)^n F(\mu,\nu) \tag{11}$$

A particularly useful implication of this theorem is that isotropic differentiation, which treats all directions equally (for which the lowest possible order of differentiation is 2nd-order, known as the Laplacian operator ∇^2) is equivalent simply to multiplying the 2DFT of the image by a paraboloid:

$$\nabla^2 f(x,y) \equiv \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}\right) f(x,y) \stackrel{2DFT}{\Longrightarrow} -(\mu^2 + \nu^2) F(\mu,\nu) \tag{12}$$

Practical Application: Multi-Resolution Edge Detection.

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