



THE UNIVERSITY *of* TEXAS

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SCHOOL OF HEALTH INFORMATION  
SCIENCES AT HOUSTON

# Complex Numbers, Convolution, Fourier Transform

For students of HI 6001-125

“Computational Structural Biology”

Willy Wriggers, Ph.D.

School of Health Information Sciences

<http://biomachina.org/courses/structures/01.html>

# Complex Numbers: Review

A complex number is one of the form:

$$a + bi$$

where

$$i = \sqrt{-1}$$

$a$ : real part

$b$ : imaginary part

# Complex Arithmetic

When you add two complex numbers, the real and imaginary parts add independently:

$$(a + bi) + (c + di) = (a + c) + (b + d)i$$

When you multiply two complex numbers, you cross-multiply them like you would polynomials:

$$\begin{aligned}(a + bi) \times (c + di) &= ac + a(di) + (bi)c + (bi)(di) \\ &= ac + (ad + bc)i + (bd)(i^2) \\ &= ac + (ad + bc)i - bd \\ &= (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i\end{aligned}$$

# Polynomial Multiplication

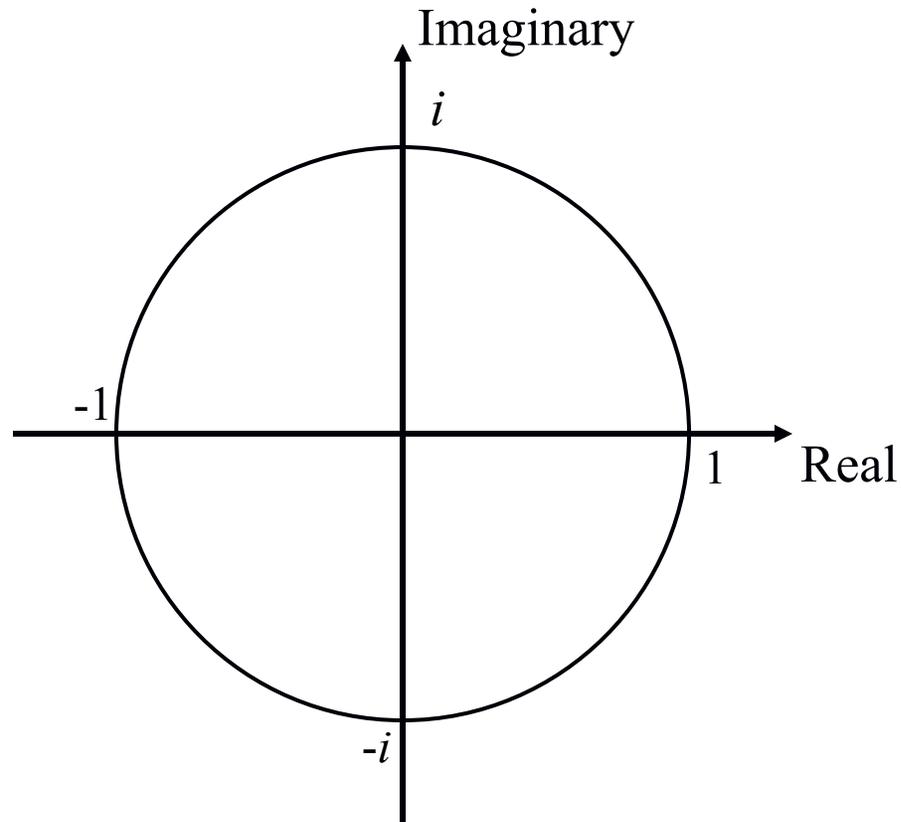
$$p_1(x) = 3x^2 + 2x + 4$$

$$p_2(x) = 2x^2 + 5x + 1$$

$$p_1(x)p_2(x) = \underline{\quad}x^4 + \underline{\quad}x^3 + \underline{\quad}x^2 + \underline{\quad}x + \underline{\quad}$$

# The Complex Plane

Complex numbers can be thought of as vectors in the complex plane with basis vectors  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, i)$ :



# Magnitude and Phase

The length of a complex number is its *magnitude*:

$$|a + bi| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

The angle from the real-number axis is its *phase*:

$$\phi(a + bi) = \tan^{-1}(b / a)$$

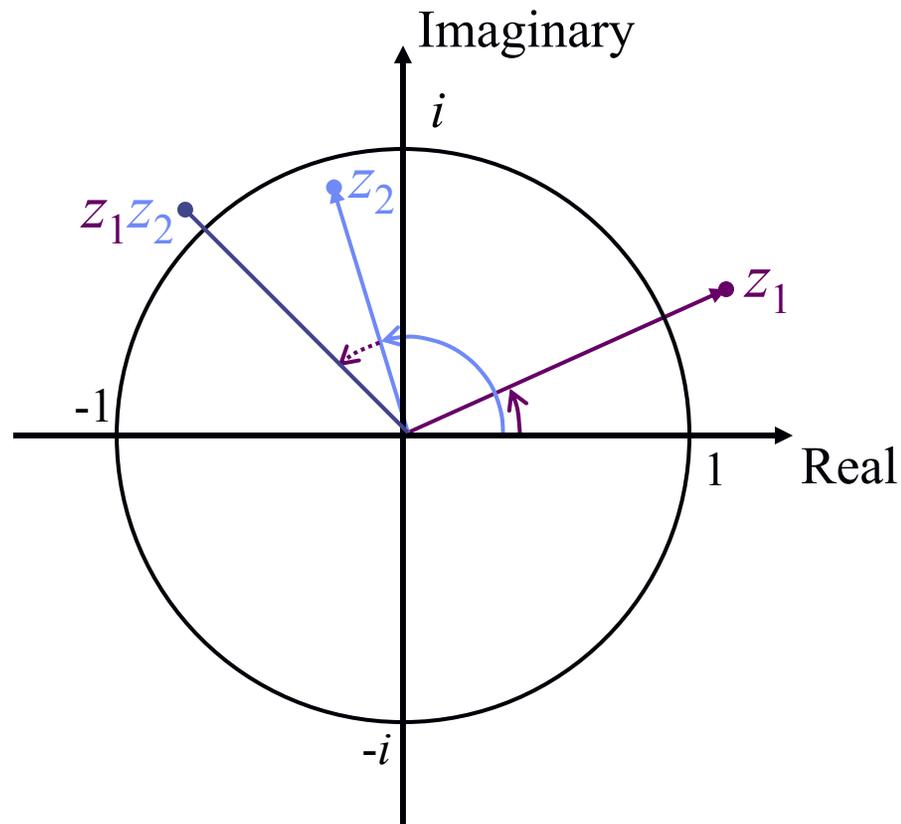
When you multiply two complex numbers, their magnitudes multiply

$$|z_1 z_2| = |z_1| |z_2|$$

And their phases add

$$\phi(z_1 z_2) = \phi(z_1) + \phi(z_2)$$

# The Complex Plane: Magnitude and Phase



# Complex Conjugates

If  $z = a + bi$  is a complex number, then its complex conjugate is:

$$z^* = a - bi$$

The complex conjugate  $z^*$  has the same magnitude but opposite phase

When you add  $z$  to  $z^*$ , the imaginary parts cancel and you get a real number:

$$(a + bi) + (a - bi) = 2a$$

When you multiply  $z$  to  $z^*$ , you get the real number equal to  $|z|^2$ :

$$(a + bi)(a - bi) = a^2 - (bi)^2 = a^2 + b^2$$

# Complex Division

If  $z_1 = a + bi$ ,  $z_2 = c + di$ ,  $z = z_1 / z_2$ ,

the division can be accomplished by multiplying the numerator and denominator by the complex conjugate of the denominator:

$$z = \frac{(a + bi)(c - di)}{(c + di)(c - di)} = \left( \frac{ac + bd}{c^2 + d^2} \right) + i \left( \frac{bc - ad}{c^2 + d^2} \right)$$

# Euler's Formula

- Remember that under complex multiplication:
  - Magnitudes multiply
  - Phases add
- Under what other quantity/operation does multiplication result in an addition?
  - Exponentiation:  $c^a c^b = c^{a+b}$  (for some constant  $c$ )
- If we have two numbers of the form  $m \cdot c^a$  (where  $c$  is some constant), then multiplying we get:

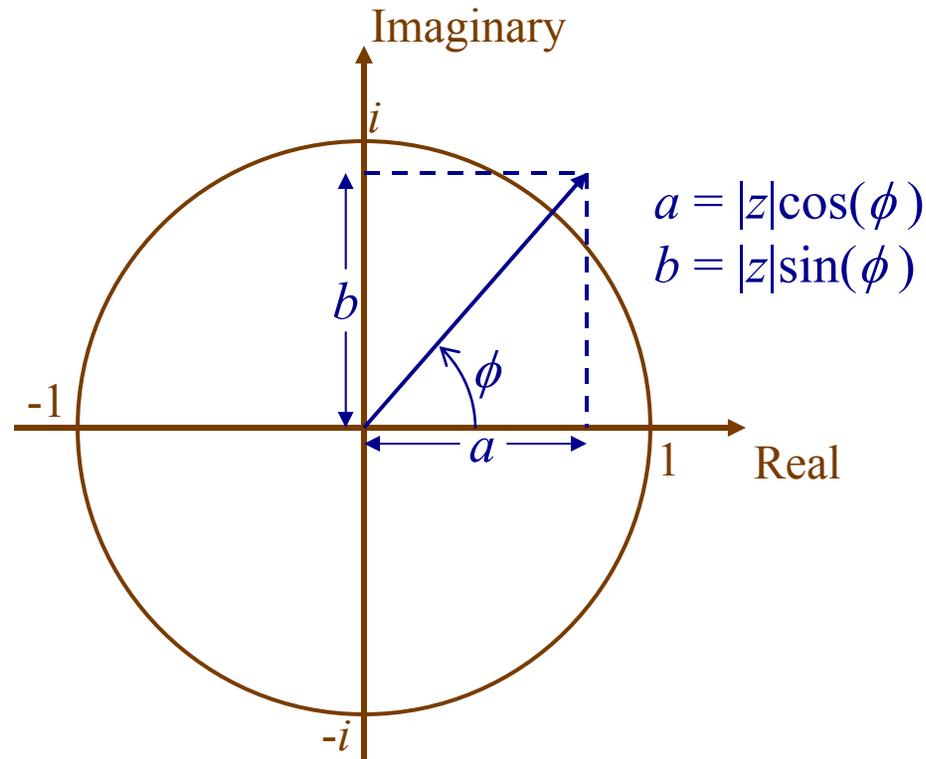
$$(m \cdot c^a) (n \cdot c^b) = m \cdot n \cdot c^{a+b}$$

- What constant  $c$  can represent complex numbers?

# Euler's Formula

- Any complex number can be represented using Euler's formula:

$$z = |z|e^{i\phi(z)} = |z|\cos(\phi) + |z|\sin(\phi)i = a + bi$$



# Powers of Complex Numbers

Suppose that we take a complex number

$$z = |z|e^{i \phi(z)}$$

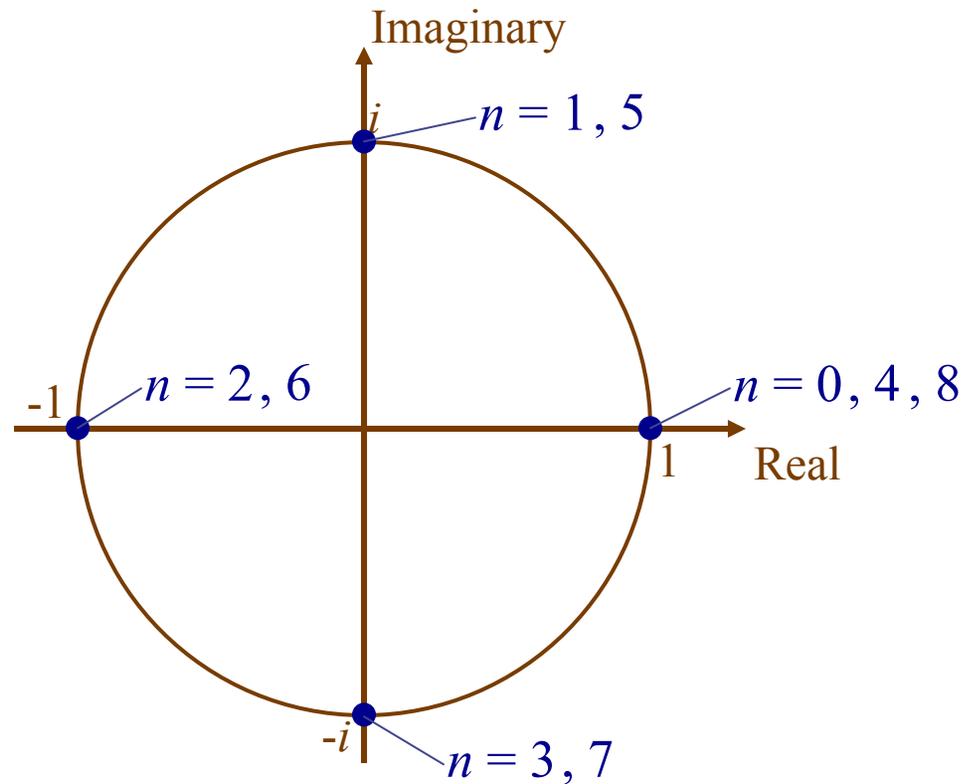
and raise it to some power

$$\begin{aligned} z^n &= [|z|e^{i \phi(z)}]^n \\ &= |z|^n e^{i n \phi(z)} \end{aligned}$$

$z^n$  has magnitude  $|z|^n$  and phase  $n \phi(z)$

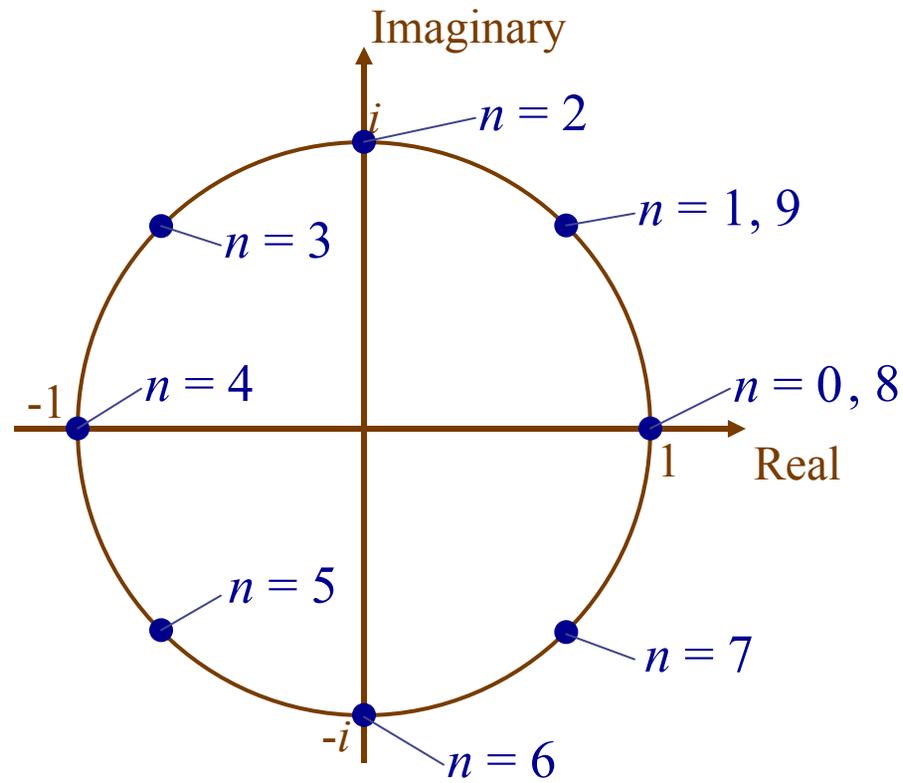
# Powers of Complex Numbers: Example

- What is  $i^n$  for various  $n$ ?



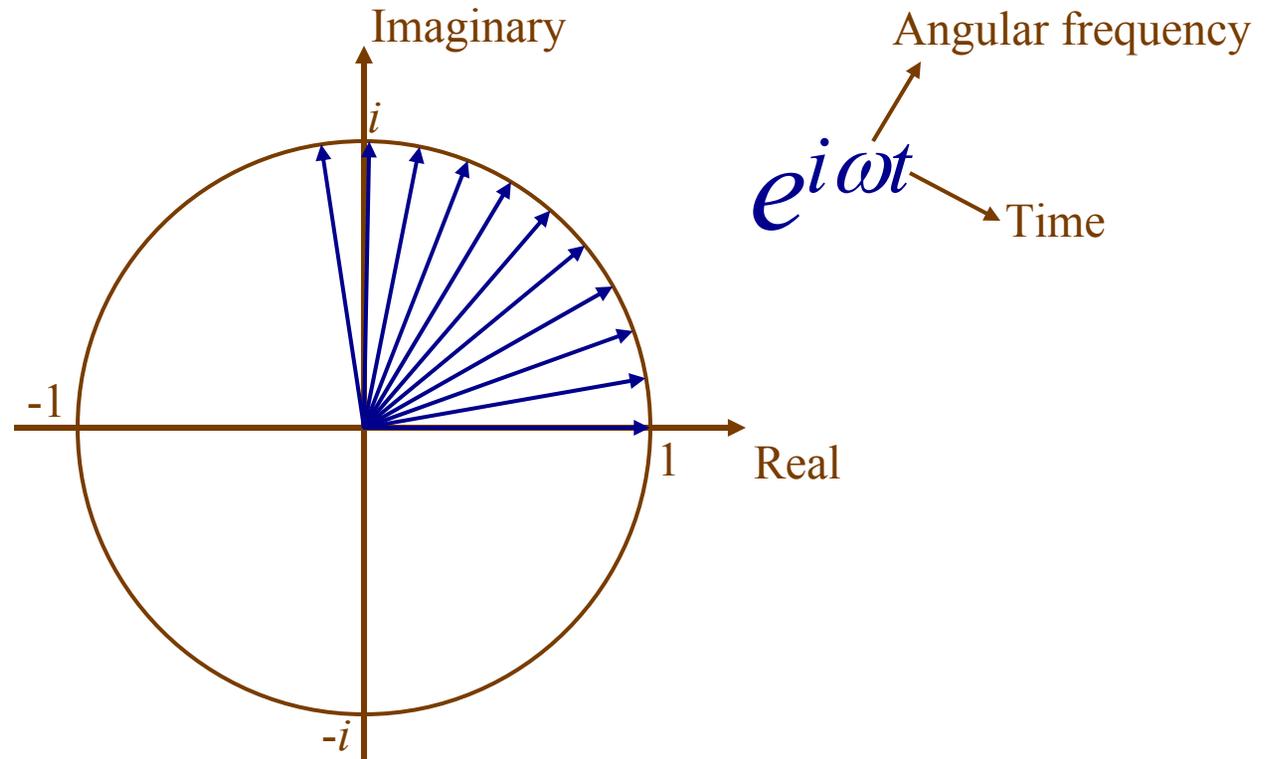
# Powers of Complex Numbers: Example

- What is  $(e^{i\pi/4})^n$  for various  $n$ ?



# Harmonic Functions

- What does  $x(t) = e^{i\omega t}$  look like?
- $x(t)$  is a harmonic function (a building block for later analysis)



# Harmonic Functions as Sinusoids

Real Part	Imaginary Part
$\Re(e^{i\omega t})$	$\Im(e^{i\omega t})$
$\cos(\omega t)$	$\sin(\omega t)$

# Questions: Complex Numbers

# Convolution

Convolution of an input  $x(t)$  with the impulse response  $h(t)$  is written as

$$x(t) * h(t)$$

That is to say,

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

# Convolution of Discrete Functions

For a discrete function  $x[j]$  and impulse response  $h[j]$ :

$$x[j] * h[j] = \sum_k x[k] \cdot h[j - k]$$

# One Way to Think of Convolution

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

$$x[j] * h[j] = \sum_k x[k] \cdot h[j - k]$$

Think of it this way:

- Shift a copy of  $h$  to each position  $t$  (or discrete position  $k$ )
- Multiply by the value at that position  $x(t)$  (or discrete sample  $x[k]$ )
- Add shifted, multiplied copies for all  $t$  (or discrete  $k$ )

# Example: Convolution – One way

$$x[j] = [ 1 \ 4 \ 3 \ 1 \ 2 \ ]$$

$$h[j] = [ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5 \ ]$$

$$x[0] \ h[j-0] = [ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ ]$$

$$x[1] \ h[j-1] = [ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ ]$$

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$$x[3] \ h[j-3] = [ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ ]$$

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$$x[3] h[j-3] = [ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5 \ \_ ]$$

$$x[4] h[j-4] = [ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ \_ \ 2 \ 4 \ 6 \ 8 \ 10 ]$$

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$$\begin{aligned} x[j] * h[j] &= \sum_k x[k] h[j-k] \\ &= [ 1 \ 6 \ 14 \ 23 \ 34 \ 39 \ 25 \ 13 \ 10 ] \end{aligned}$$

# Another Way to Look at Convolution

$$x[j] * h[j] = \sum_k x[k] \cdot h[j - k]$$

Think of it this way:

- Flip the function  $h$  around zero
- Shift a copy to output position  $j$
- Point-wise multiply for each position  $k$  the value of the function  $x$  and the flipped and shifted copy of  $h$
- Add for all  $k$  and write that value at position  $j$

# Convolution in Higher Dimensions

In one dimension:

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

In two dimensions:

$$I(x, y) * h(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} I(\tau_x, \tau_y)h(x - \tau_x, y - \tau_y)d\tau_x d\tau_y$$

Or, in discrete form:

$$I[x, y] * h[x, y] = \sum_k \sum_j I[j, k]h[x - j, y - k]$$



# Properties of Convolution

- Commutative:  $f * g = g * f$
- Associative:  $f * (g * h) = (f * g) * h$
- Distributive over addition:  $f * (g + h) = f * g + f * h$
- Derivative: 
$$\frac{d}{dt}(f * g) = f' * g + f * g'$$

Convolution has the same mathematical properties as multiplication

(This is no coincidence)

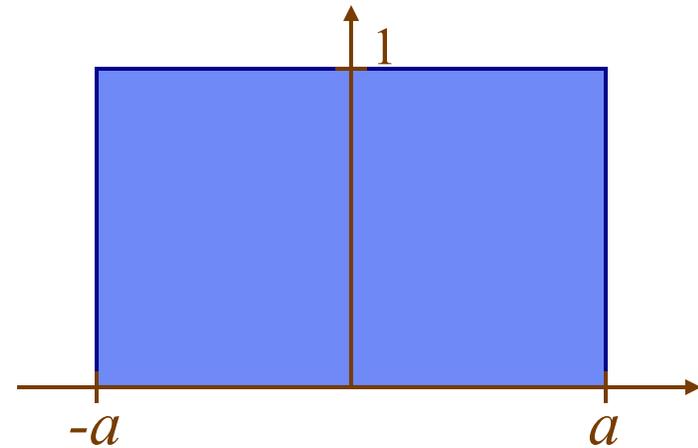
# Useful Functions

- Square:  $\Pi_a(t)$
- Triangle:  $\Lambda_a(t)$
- Gaussian:  $G(t, s)$
- Step:  $u(t)$
- Impulse/Delta:  $\delta(t)$
- Comb (Shah Function):  $\text{comb}_h(t)$

Each has their two- or three-dimensional equivalent.

# Square

$$\Pi_a(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |t| \leq a \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

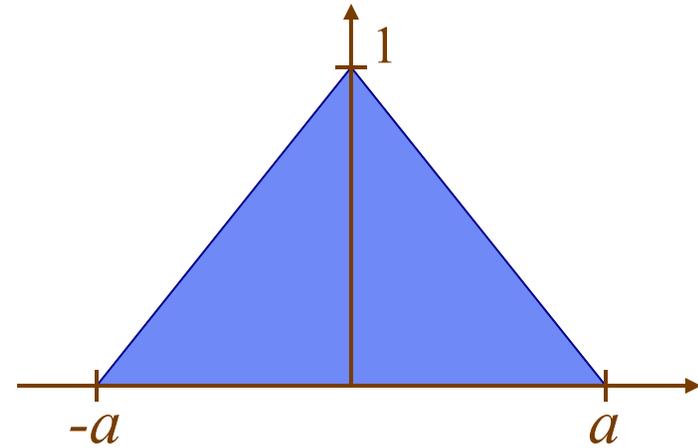


What does  $f(t) * \Pi_a(t)$  do to a signal  $f(t)$ ?

What is  $\Pi_a(t) * \Pi_a(t)$ ?

# Triangle

$$\Lambda_a(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - |t/a| & \text{if } |t| \leq a \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



# Gaussian

Gaussian: maximum value = 1

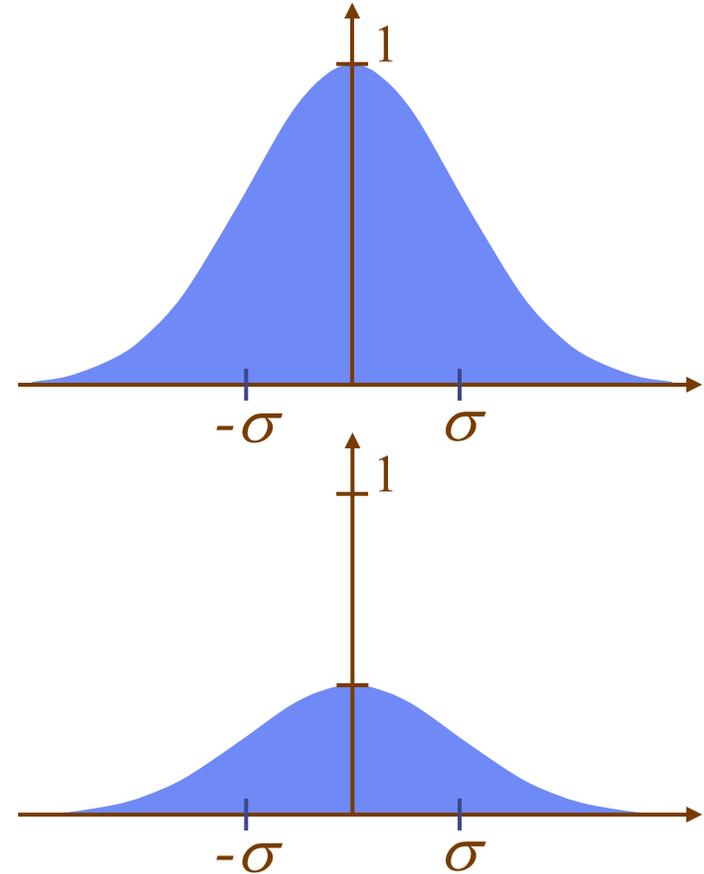
$$G(t, \sigma) = e^{-t^2/2\sigma^2}$$

Normalized Gaussian: area = 1

$$G(t, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-t^2/2\sigma^2}$$

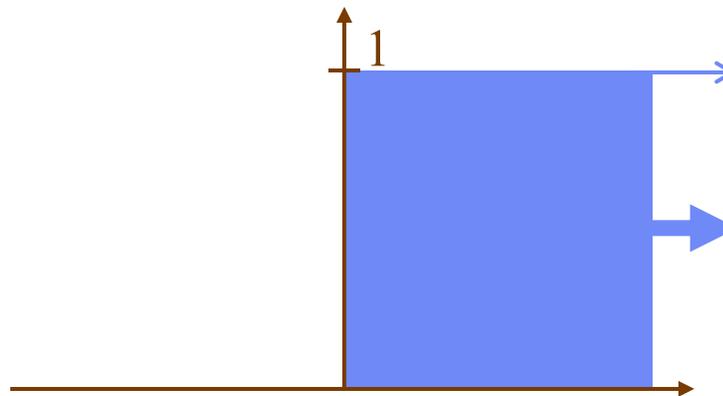
Convolving a Gaussian with another:

$$G(t, \sigma_1) * G(t, \sigma_2) = G(t, \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2})$$



# Step Function

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

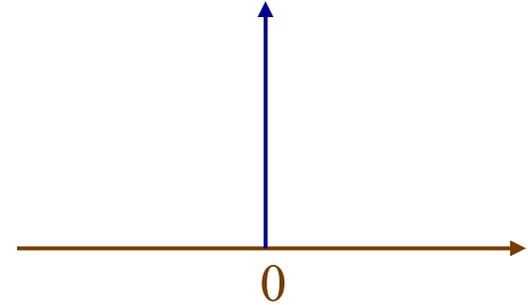


What is the derivative of a step function?

# Impulse/Delta Function

- We've seen the delta function before:

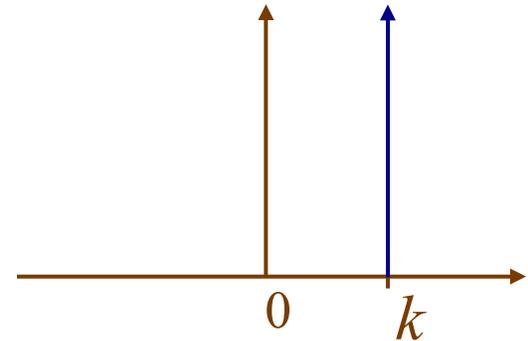
$$\delta(t) = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } t = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = 1$$



- Shifted Delta function: impulse at  $t = k$

$$\delta(t - k) = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } t = k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- What is a function  $f(t)$  convolved with  $\delta(t)$ ?



- What is a function  $f(t)$  convolved with  $\delta(t - k)$ ?

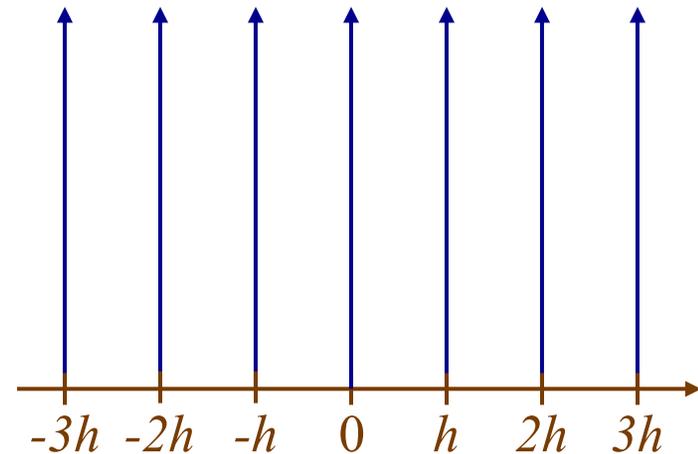
# Comb (Shah) Function

A set of equally-spaced impulses: also called an impulse train

$$\text{comb}_h(t) = \sum_k \delta(t - hk)$$

$h$  is the spacing

What is  $f(t) * \text{comb}_h(t)$ ?



# Convolution Filtering

- Convolution is useful for modeling the behavior of filters
- It is also useful to do ourselves to produce a desired effect
- When we do it ourselves, we get to choose the function that the input will be convolved with
- This function that is convolved with the input is called the *convolution kernel*

# Convolution Filtering: Averaging

Can use a square function (“box filter”) or Gaussian to locally average the signal/image

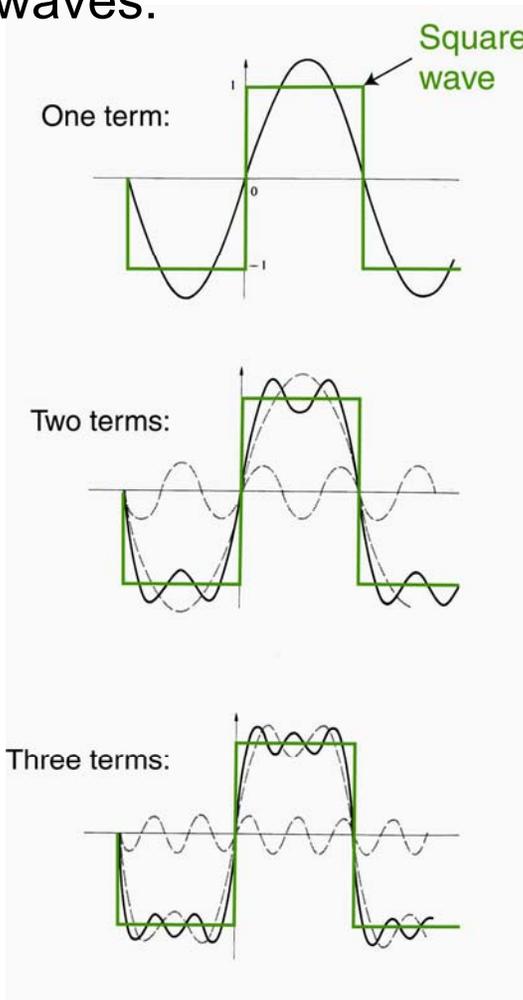
- Square (box) function: uniform averaging
- Gaussian: center-weighted averaging

Both of these blur the signal or image

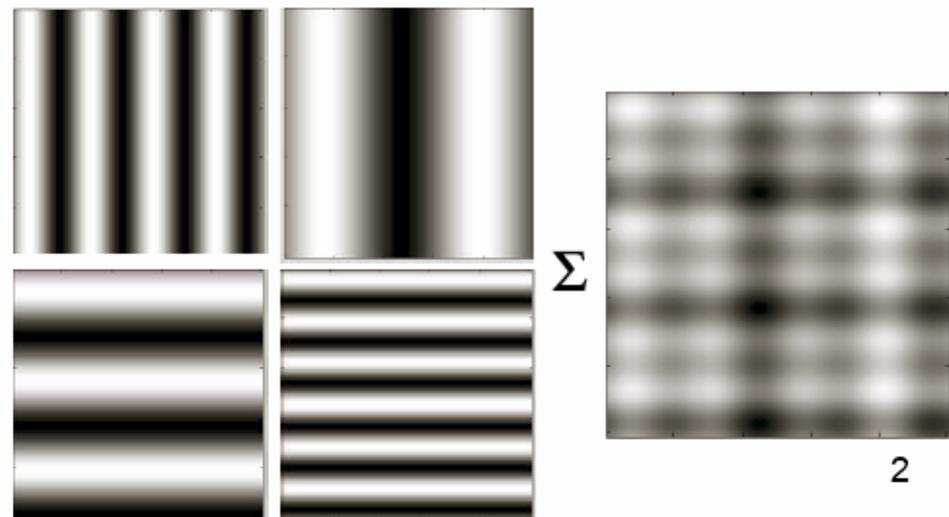
# Questions: Convolution

# Frequency Analysis

Here, we write a **square wave** as a sum of sine waves:



- Fourier Domain
- Signals (1D, 2D, ...) decomposed into sum of signals with different frequencies

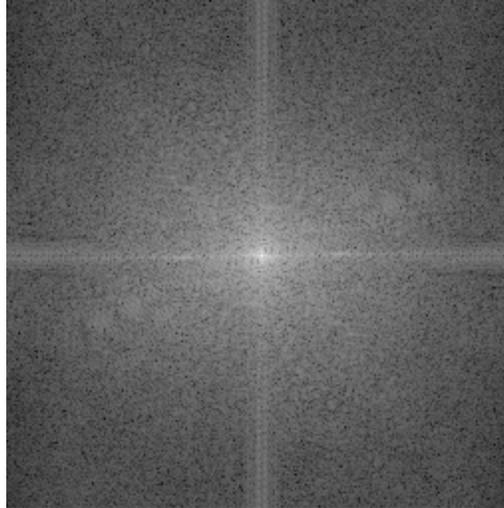


# Frequency Analysis

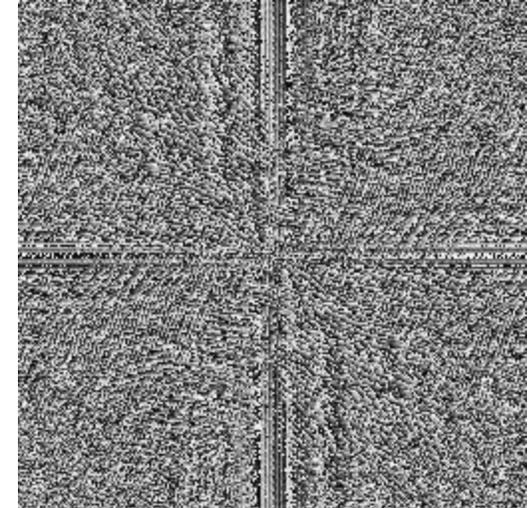
- To use transfer functions, we must first decompose a signal into its component frequencies
- Basic idea: any signal can be written as the sum of phase-shifted sines and cosines of different frequencies
- The mathematical tool for doing this is the *Fourier Transform*



image



wave magnitudes



wave phases

# General Idea of Transforms

Given an orthonormal (orthogonal, unit length) basis set of vectors  $\{\bar{e}_k\}$ :

*Any* vector in the space spanned by this basis set can be represented as a weighted sum of those basis vectors:

$$\bar{v} = \sum_k a_k \bar{e}_k$$

To get a vector's weight relative to a particular basis vector  $\bar{e}_k$ :

$$a_k = \bar{v} \cdot \bar{e}_k$$

Thus, the vector can be transformed into the weights  $a_k$

Likewise, the transformation can be inverted by turning the weights back into the vector

# Linear Algebra with Functions

The inner (dot) product of two vectors is the sum of the point-wise multiplication of each component:

$$\bar{u} \cdot \bar{v} = \sum_j \bar{u}[j] \cdot \bar{v}[j]$$

Can't we do the same thing with functions?

$$f \cdot g = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) g^*(x) dx$$

*Functions satisfy all of the linear algebraic requirements of vectors*

# Transforms with Functions

Just as we transformed vectors, we can also transform functions:

	Vectors $\{\bar{e}_k[j]\}$	Functions $\{e_k(t)\}$
Transform	$a_k = \bar{v} \cdot \bar{e}_k = \sum_j \bar{v}[j] \cdot \bar{e}_k[j]$	$a_k = f \cdot e_k = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e_k^*(t) dt$
Inverse	$\bar{v} = \sum_k a_k \bar{e}_k$	$f(t) = \sum_k a_k e_k(t)$

# Basis Set: Generalized Harmonics

The set of generalized harmonics we discussed earlier form an orthonormal basis set for functions:

$$\{e^{i2\pi st}\}$$

where each harmonic has a different frequency  $s$

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Remember:

$$e^{i2\pi st} = \cos(2\pi st) + i \sin(2\pi st)$$

The real part is a cosine of frequency  $s$

The imaginary part is a sine of frequency  $s$

# The Fourier Series

	All Functions $\{e_k(t)\}$	Harmonics $\{e^{i2\pi st}\}$
Transform	$a_k = f \cdot e_k = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e_k^*(t) dt$	$a_k = f \cdot e^{i2\pi s_k t}$ $= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-i2\pi s_k t} dt$
Inverse	$f(t) = \sum_k a_k e_k(t)$	$f(t) = \sum_k a_k e^{i2\pi s_k t}$

# The Fourier Transform

Most tasks need an infinite number of basis functions (frequencies), each with their own weight  $F(s)$ :

	Fourier Series	Fourier Transform
Transform	$a_k = f \cdot e^{i2\pi s_k t}$ $= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-i2\pi s_k t} dt$	$F(s) = f \cdot e^{i2\pi s t}$ $= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-i2\pi s t} dt$
Inverse	$f(t) = \sum_k a_k e^{i2\pi s_k t}$	$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(s) e^{i2\pi s t} ds$

# The Fourier Transform

To get the weights (amount of each frequency):  $\mathcal{F}$

$$F(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-i2\pi st} dt$$

**$F(s)$  is the Fourier Transform of  $f(t)$ :  $\mathcal{F}(f(t)) = F(s)$**

To convert weights back into a signal (invert the transform):

$$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(s)e^{i2\pi st} ds$$

**$f(t)$  is the Inverse Fourier Transform of  $F(s)$ :  $\mathcal{F}^{-1}(F(s)) = f(t)$**

# Notation

Let  $\mathcal{F}$  denote the Fourier Transform:

$$F = \mathcal{F}(f)$$

Let  $\mathcal{F}^{-1}$  denote the Inverse Fourier Transform:

$$f = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(F)$$

# How to Interpret the Weights $F(s)$

The weights  $F(s)$  are complex numbers:

Real part	How much of a <i>cosine</i> of frequency $s$ you need
Imaginary part	How much of a <i>sine</i> of frequency $s$ you need
Magnitude	How <i>much</i> of a sinusoid of frequency $s$ you need
Phase	What <i>phase</i> that sinusoid needs to be

# Magnitude and Phase

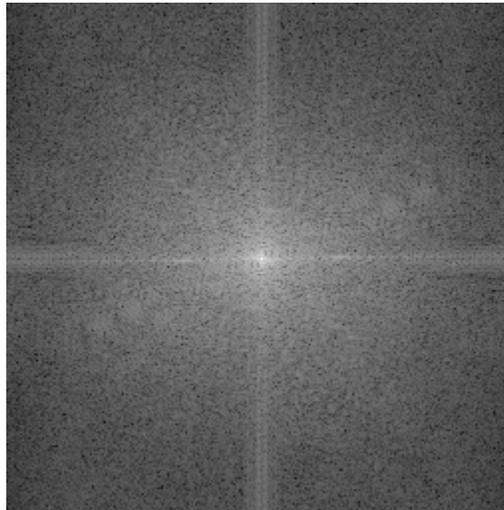
Remember: complex numbers can be thought of in two ways: (*real, imaginary*) or (*magnitude, phase*)

Magnitude:  $|F| = \sqrt{\Re(F)^2 + \Im(F)^2}$

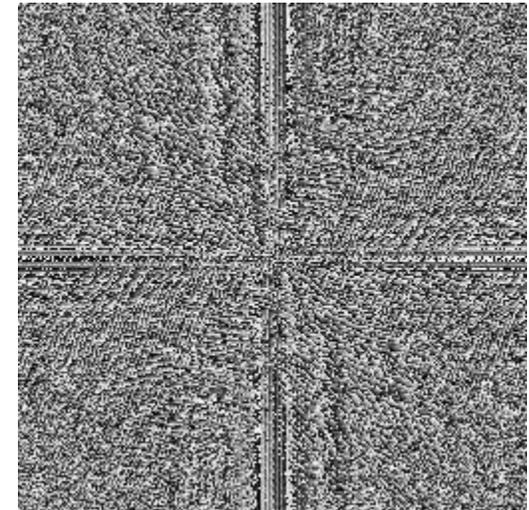
Phase:  $\phi(F) = \arctan\left(\frac{\Re(F)}{\Im(F)}\right)$



image



$|F|$



$\phi(F)$

# Periodic Objects on a Grid: Crystals

- Periodic objects with period  $N$ :
  - Underlying frequencies must also repeat over the period  $N$
  - Each component frequency must be a multiple of the frequency of the periodic object itself:

$$\frac{1}{N}, \frac{2}{N}, \frac{3}{N}, \dots$$

- If the signal is discrete:
  - Highest frequency is one unit: period repeats after a single sample
  - No more than  $N$  components

$$\frac{1}{N}, \frac{2}{N}, \frac{3}{N}, \dots, \frac{N}{N}$$

# Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)

If we treat a discrete signal with  $N$  samples as one period of an infinite periodic signal, then

$$F[s] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} f[t] e^{-i2\pi st/N}$$

and

$$f[t] = \sum_{s=0}^{N-1} F[s] e^{i2\pi st/N}$$

**Note:** For a periodic function, the discrete Fourier transform is the same as the continuous transform

- We give up nothing in going from a continuous to a discrete transform as long as the function is periodic

# Normalizing DFTs: Conventions

Basis Function	Transform	Inverse
$e^{i2\pi st/N}$	$F[s] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} f[t] e^{-i2\pi st/N}$	$f[t] = \sum_{s=0}^{N-1} F[s] e^{i2\pi st/N}$
$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} e^{i2\pi st/N}$	$F[s] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} f[t] e^{-i2\pi st/N}$	$f[t] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{s=0}^{N-1} F[s] e^{i2\pi st/N}$
$\frac{1}{N} e^{i2\pi st/N}$	$F[s] = \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} f[t] e^{-i2\pi st/N}$	$f[t] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{s=0}^{N-1} F[s] e^{i2\pi st/N}$

# Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)

$$F[s] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} f[t] e^{-i2\pi st/N}$$

$$f[t] = \sum_{s=0}^{N-1} F[s] e^{i2\pi st/N}$$

Questions:

- What would the code for the discrete Fourier transform look like?
- What would its computational complexity be?

# Fast Fourier Transform

developed by Tukey and Cooley in 1965

If we let

$$W_N = e^{-i2\pi/N}$$

the Discrete Fourier Transform can be written

$$F[s] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} f[t] \cdot W_N^{st}$$

If  $N$  is a multiple of 2,  $N = 2M$  for some positive integer  $M$ , substituting  $2M$  for  $N$  gives

$$F[s] = \frac{1}{2M} \sum_{t=0}^{2M-1} f[t] \cdot W_{2M}^{st}$$

# Fast Fourier Transform

Separating out the  $M$  even and  $M$  odd terms,

$$F[s] = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{1}{M} \sum_{t=0}^{M-1} f[2t] \cdot W_{2M}^{s(2t)} + \frac{1}{M} \sum_{t=0}^{M-1} f[2t+1] \cdot W_{2M}^{s(2t+1)} \right\}$$

Notice that

$$W_{2M}^{s(2t)} = e^{-i2\pi s(2t)/2M} = e^{-i2\pi st/M} = W_M^{st}$$

and

$$W_{2M}^{s(2t+1)} = e^{-i2\pi s(2t+1)/2M} = e^{-i2\pi st/M} e^{-i2\pi s/2M} = W_M^{st} W_{2M}^s$$

So,

$$F[s] = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{1}{M} \sum_{t=0}^{M-1} f[2t] \cdot W_M^{st} + \frac{1}{M} \sum_{t=0}^{M-1} f[2t+1] \cdot W_M^{st} W_{2M}^s \right\}$$

# Fast Fourier Transform

$$F[s] = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{1}{M} \sum_{t=0}^{M-1} f[2t] \cdot W_M^{st} + \frac{1}{M} \sum_{t=0}^{M-1} f[2t+1] \cdot W_M^{st} W_{2M}^s \right\}$$

Can be written as

$$F[s] = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ F_{\text{even}}(s) + F_{\text{odd}}(s) W_{2M}^s \right\}$$

We can use this for the first  $M$  terms of the Fourier transform of  $2M$  items, then we can re-use these values to compute the last  $M$  terms as follows:

$$F[s + M] = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ F_{\text{even}}(s) - F_{\text{odd}}(s) W_{2M}^s \right\}$$

# Fast Fourier Transform

If  $M$  is itself a multiple of 2, do it again!

If  $N$  is a power of 2, recursively subdivide until you have one element, which is its own Fourier Transform

```
ComplexSignal FFT(ComplexSignal f) {
    if (length(f) == 1) return f;

    M = length(f) / 2;
    W_2M = e^(-I * 2 * Pi / M) // A complex value.

    even = FFT(EvenTerms(f));
    odd  = FFT( OddTerms(f));

    for (s = 0; s < M; s++) {
        result[s  ] = even[s] + W_2M^s * odd[s];
        result[s+M] = even[s] - W_2M^s * odd[s];
    }
}
```

# Fast Fourier Transform

Computational Complexity:

Discrete Fourier Transform  $\rightarrow O(N^2)$

Fast Fourier Transform  $\rightarrow O(N \log N)$

---

**Remember:** The FFT is just a faster algorithm for computing the DFT — it does not produce a different result

# Fourier Pairs

Use the Fourier Transform, denoted  $\mathcal{F}$ , to get the weights for each harmonic component in a signal:

$$F(s) = \mathcal{F}(f(t)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-i2\pi st} dt$$

And use the Inverse Fourier Transform, denoted  $\mathcal{F}^{-1}$ , to recombine the weighted harmonics into the original signal:

$$f(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(F(s)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(s)e^{i2\pi st} ds$$

We write a signal and its transform as a Fourier Transform pair:

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

# Sinusoids

Spatial Domain

Frequency Domain

$f(t)$

$F(s)$

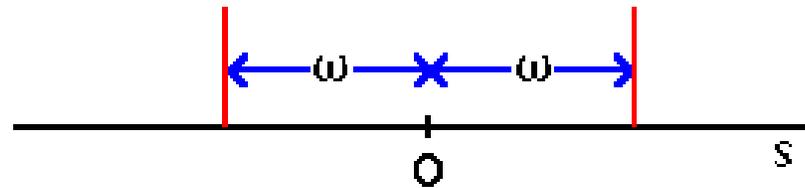
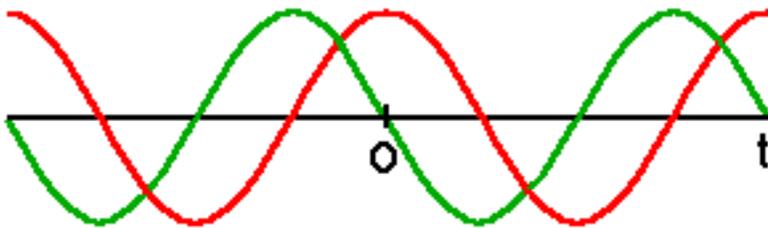
---

$$\cos(2\pi\omega t)$$

$$\frac{1}{2}[\delta(s + \omega) + \delta(s - \omega)]$$

$$\sin(2\pi\omega t)$$

$$\frac{1}{2}[\delta(s + \omega) - \delta(s - \omega)]i$$



# Constant Functions

Spatial Domain

Frequency Domain

$f(t)$

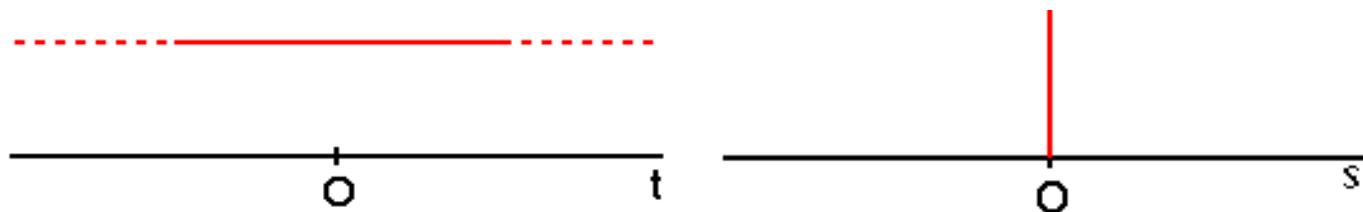
$F(s)$

1

$\delta(s)$

$a$

$a \delta(s)$



# Delta (Impulse) Function

Spatial Domain

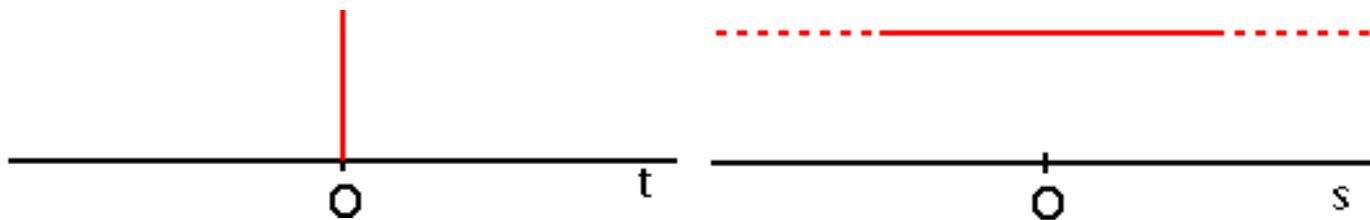
Frequency Domain

$$f(t)$$

$$F(s)$$

$$\delta(t)$$

$$1$$



# Square Pulse

Spatial Domain

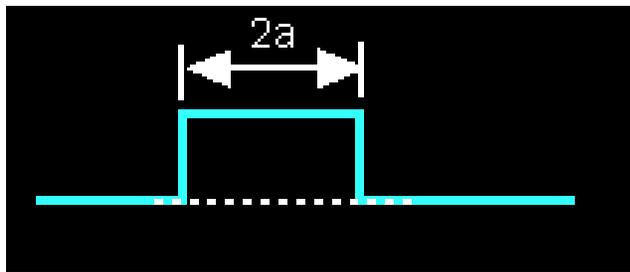
Frequency Domain

$$f(t)$$

$$F(s)$$

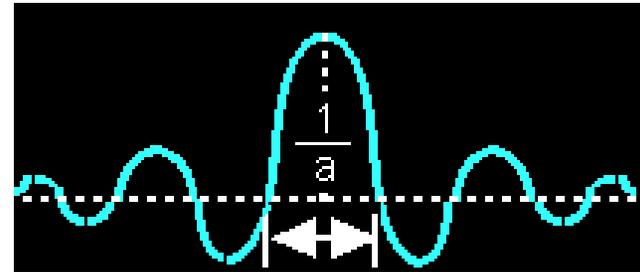
$$\Pi_a(t)$$

$$2a \operatorname{sinc}(2as) = \frac{\sin(2\pi as)}{\pi s}$$



Spatial Domain

↔  
F.T.



Frequency Domain

# Sinc Function

- The Fourier transform of a square function,  $\Pi_a(t)$  is the (normalized) sinc function:

$$\text{sinc}(x) = \frac{\sin(\pi x)}{\pi x}$$

- To show this, we substitute the value of  $\Pi_a(t) = 1$  for  $-a < t < a$  into the equation for the continuous FT, i.e.

$$F(s) = \int_{-a}^a e^{-i2\pi st} dt$$

- We use a substitution. Let  $u = -i2\pi st$ ,  $du = -i2\pi s dt$  and then  $dt = du / -i2\pi s$

$$F(s) = \frac{1}{-i2\pi s} \int_{i2\pi sa}^{-i2\pi sa} e^u du = \frac{1}{-i2\pi s} \left[ e^{-i2\pi as} - e^{i2\pi as} \right] =$$

$$\frac{1}{-i2\pi s} \left[ \cos(-2\pi as) + i \sin(-2\pi as) - \cos(2\pi as) - i \sin(2\pi as) \right] =$$

$$\frac{1}{-i2\pi s} \left[ -2i \sin(2\pi as) \right] = \frac{1}{\pi s} \sin(2\pi as) = 2a \text{sinc}(2as).$$

# Triangle

Spatial Domain

Frequency Domain

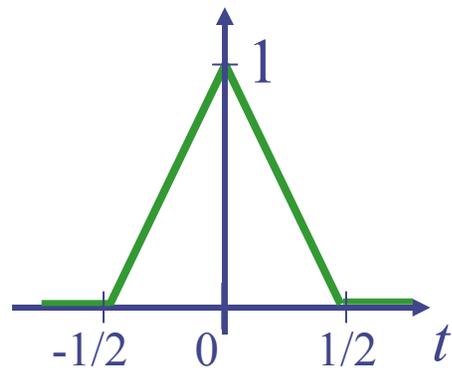
$$f(t)$$

$$F(s)$$

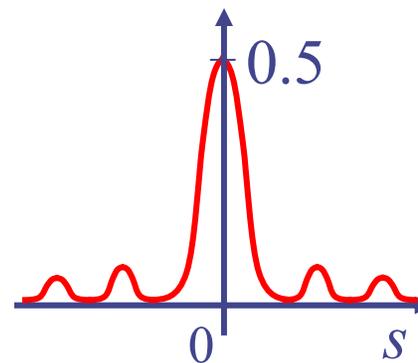
$$\Lambda_a(t)$$

$$a \operatorname{sinc}^2(as)$$

$$\Delta_{1/2}(t)$$



$$1/2 \operatorname{sinc}^2(s/2)$$



# Comb (Shah) Function

Spatial Domain

Frequency Domain

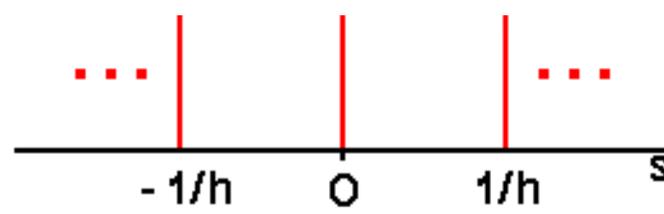
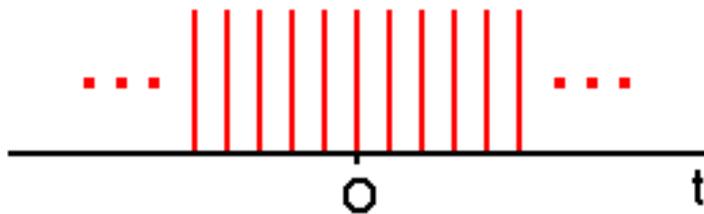
$f(t)$

$F(s)$

---

$$\text{comb}_h(t) = \delta(t \bmod h)$$

$$\delta(t \bmod 1/h)$$



# Gaussian

Spatial Domain

Frequency Domain

$$f(t)$$

$$F(s)$$

---

$$e^{-\pi t^2}$$

$$e^{-\pi s^2}$$

$$e^{-\pi \left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

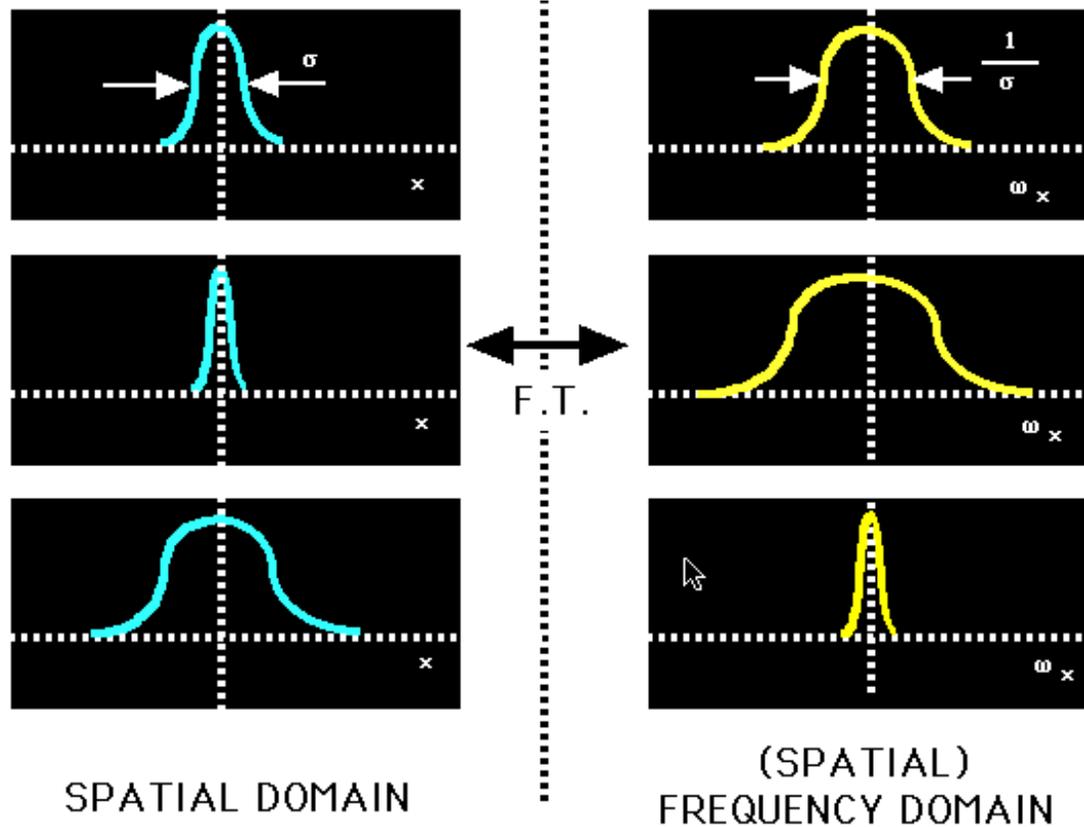
$$e^{-\pi(\sigma s)^2}$$

see homework assignment!

# Graphical Picture

$$e^{-\pi\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

$$e^{-\pi(\sigma s)^2}$$



# Common Fourier Transform Pairs

Spatial Domain: $f(t)$		Frequency Domain: $F(s)$	
Cosine	$\cos(2\pi\omega t)$	Shifted Deltas	$\frac{1}{2}[\delta(s + \omega) + \delta(s - \omega)]$
Sine	$\sin(2\pi\omega t)$	Shifted Deltas	$\frac{1}{2}[\delta(s + \omega) - \delta(s - \omega)]i$
Unit Function	1	Delta Function	$\delta(s)$
Constant	$a$	Delta Function	$a \delta(s)$
Delta Function	$\delta(t)$	Unit Function	1
Comb	$\delta(t \bmod h)$	Comb	$\delta(t \bmod 1/h)$
Square Pulse	$\Pi_a(t)$	Sinc Function	$2a \operatorname{sinc}(2as)$
Triangle	$\Lambda_a(t)$	Sinc Squared	$a \operatorname{sinc}^2(as)$
Gaussian	$e^{-\pi t^2}$	Gaussian	$e^{-\pi s^2}$

## FT Properties: Addition Theorem

Adding two functions together adds their Fourier Transforms:

$$\mathcal{F}(f + g) = \mathcal{F}(f) + \mathcal{F}(g)$$

Multiplying a function by a scalar constant multiplies its Fourier Transform by the same constant:

$$\mathcal{F}(af) = a \mathcal{F}(f)$$

Consequence: Fourier Transform is a linear transformation!

# FT Properties: Shift Theorem

Translating (shifting) a function leaves the magnitude unchanged and adds a constant to the phase

If  $f_2(t) = f_1(t - a)$

$$F_1 = \mathcal{F}(f_1)$$

$$F_2 = \mathcal{F}(f_2)$$

then

$$|F_2| = |F_1|$$

$$\phi(F_2) = \phi(F_1) - 2\pi sa$$

Intuition: magnitude tells you “how much”,  
phase tells you “where”

# FT Properties: Similarity Theorem

Scaling a function's abscissa (domain or horizontal axis) inversely scales the both magnitude and abscissa of the Fourier transform.

If  $f_2(t) = f_1(a t)$

$$F_1 = \mathcal{F}(f_1)$$

$$F_2 = \mathcal{F}(f_2)$$

then

$$F_2(s) = (1/|a|) F_1(s / a)$$

# FT Properties: Rayleigh's Theorem

Total sum of squares is the same in either domain:

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

# The Fourier Convolution Theorem

Let  $F$ ,  $G$ , and  $H$  denote the Fourier Transforms of signals  $f$ ,  $g$ , and  $h$  respectively

$$g = f * h \quad \text{implies} \quad G = F H$$

$$g = f h \quad \text{implies} \quad G = F * H$$

*Convolution in one domain is multiplication in the other and vice versa*

# Convolution in the Frequency Domain

One application of the Convolution Theorem is that we can perform time-domain convolution using frequency domain multiplication:

$$f * g = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\mathcal{F}(f) \mathcal{F}(g))$$

How does the computational complexity of doing convolution compare to the forward and inverse Fourier transform?

# Deconvolution

If  $G = FH$ , can't you reverse the process by  $F = G / H$ ?

This is called *deconvolution*: the “undoing” of convolution

Problem: most systems have noise, which limits deconvolution, especially when H is small.

## 2-D Continuous Fourier Transform

Basic functions are sinusoids with frequency  $u$  in one direction times sinusoids with frequency  $v$  in the other:

$$F(u, v) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) e^{-i2\pi(ux+vy)} dx dy$$

Same process for the inverse transform:

$$f(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(u, v) e^{i2\pi(ux+vy)} dx dy$$

# 2-D Discrete Fourier Transform

For an  $N \times M$  image, the basis functions are:

$$\begin{aligned}h_{u,v}[x, y] &= e^{i2\pi ux / N} e^{i2\pi vy / M} \\ &= e^{-i2\pi(ux / N + vy / M)}\end{aligned}$$

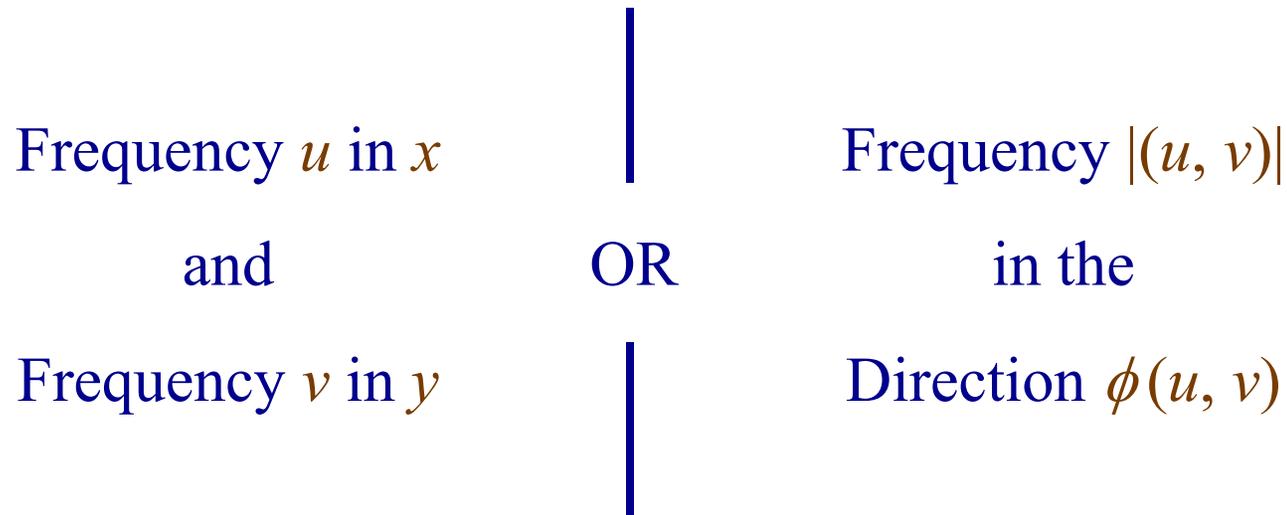
$$F[u, v] = \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{M-1} f[x, y] e^{-i2\pi(ux / N + vy / M)}$$

Same process for the inverse transform:

$$f[x, y] = \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} \sum_{v=0}^{M-1} F[u, v] e^{i2\pi(ux / N + vy / M)}$$

# 2D and 3D Fourier Transforms

The point  $(u, v)$  in the frequency domain corresponds to the basis function with:



This follows from rotational invariance

# Properties

All other properties of 1D FTs apply to 2D and 3D:

- Linearity
- Shift
- Scaling
- Rayleigh's Theorem
- Convolution Theorem

# Rotation

Rotating a 2D function rotates it's Fourier Transform

If

$$\begin{aligned} f_2 &= \text{rotate}_\theta(f_1) \\ &= f_1(x \cos(\theta) - y \sin(\theta), x \sin(\theta) + y \cos(\theta)) \end{aligned}$$

$$F_1 = \mathcal{F}(f_1)$$

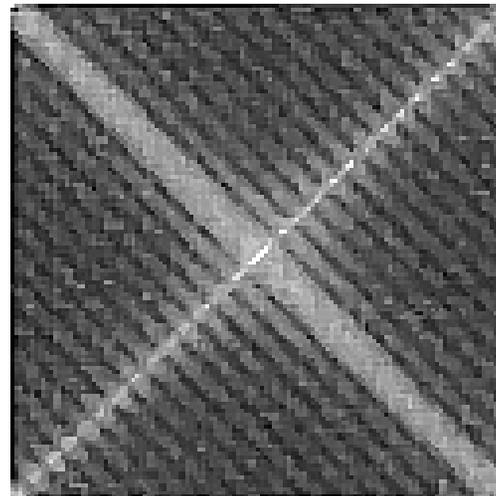
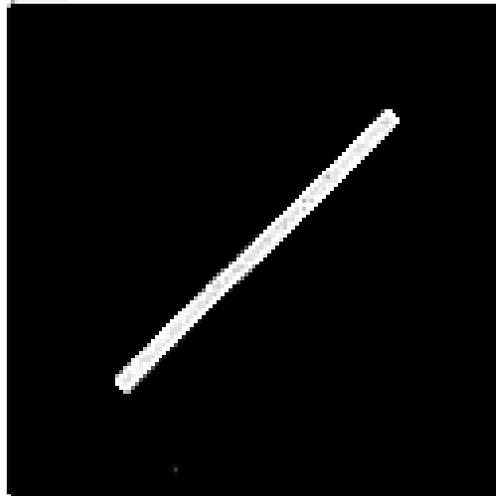
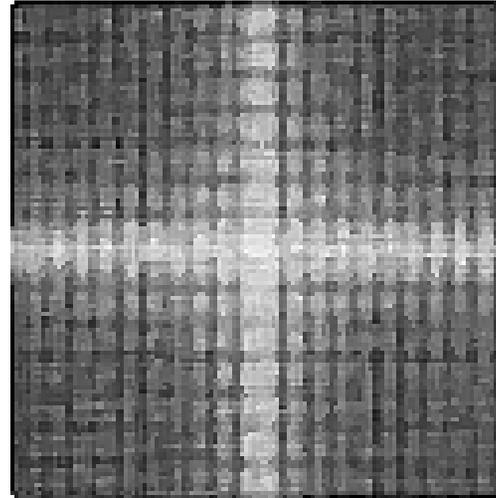
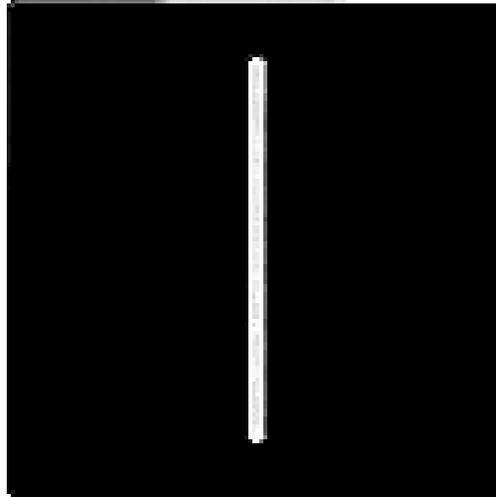
$$F_2 = \mathcal{F}(f_2)$$

then

$$F_2(s) = F_1(x \cos(\theta) - y \sin(\theta), x \sin(\theta) + y \cos(\theta))$$

i.e., the Fourier Transform is rotationally invariant.

# Rotation Invariance (sort of)



needs  
more  
boundary  
padding!

# Transforms of Separable Functions

If

$$f(x, y) = f_1(x) f_2(y)$$

the function  $f$  is separable and its Fourier Transform is also separable:

$$F(u, v) = F_1(u) F_2(v)$$

# Linear Separability of the 2D FT

The 2D Fourier Transform is linearly separable: the Fourier Transform of a two-dimensional image is the 1D Fourier Transform of the rows followed by the 1D Fourier Transforms of the resulting columns (or vice versa)

$$\begin{aligned} F[u, v] &= \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{M-1} f[x, y] e^{-i2\pi(ux/N + vy/M)} \\ &= \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{M-1} f[x, y] e^{-i2\pi ux/N} e^{-i2\pi vy/M} \\ &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{y=0}^{M-1} \left[ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} f[x, y] e^{-i2\pi ux/N} \right] e^{-i2\pi vy/M} \end{aligned}$$

Likewise for higher dimensions!

# Convolution using FFT

Convolution theorem says

$$f * g = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\mathcal{F}(f) \mathcal{F}(g))$$

Can do either:

- Direct Space Convolution
- FFT, multiplication, and inverse FFT

Computational breakeven point: about  $9 \times 9$  kernel in 2D

# Correlation

Convolution is

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

Correlation is

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

# Correlation in the Frequency Domain

Convolution

$$f(t) * g(t) \leftrightarrow F(s) G(s)$$

Correlation

$$f(t) * g(-t) \leftrightarrow F(s) G^*(s)$$

# Template “Convolution”

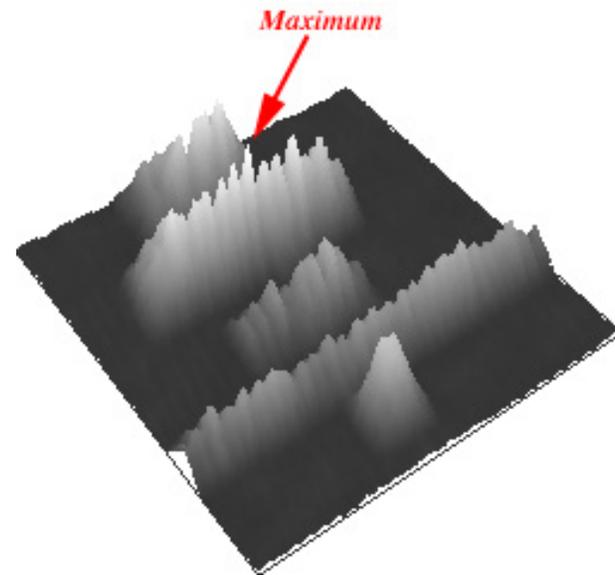
- Actually, is a **correlation** method
- Goal: maximize correlation between target and probe image
- Here: only translations allowed but rotations also possible



target



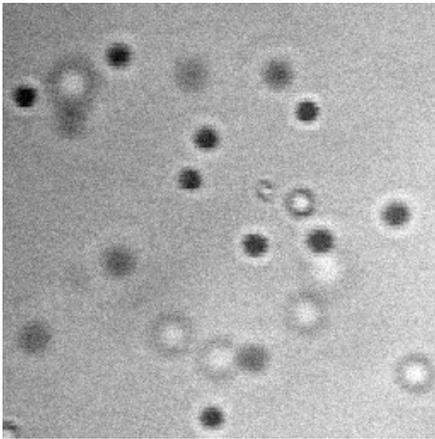
probe



# Particle Picking

- Use spherical, or rotationally averaged probes
- Goal: maximize correlation between target and probe image

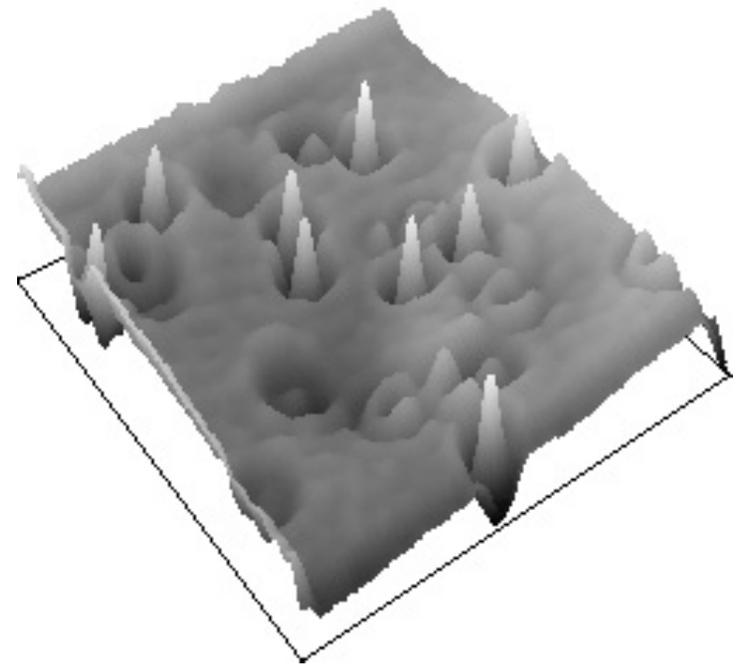
microscope image of latex spheres



target



probe



# Autocorrelation

Autocorrelation is the correlation of a function with itself:

$$f(t) * f(-t)$$

Useful to detect self-similarities or repetitions / symmetry within one image!

# Power Spectrum

The power spectrum of a signal is the Fourier Transform of its autocorrelation function:

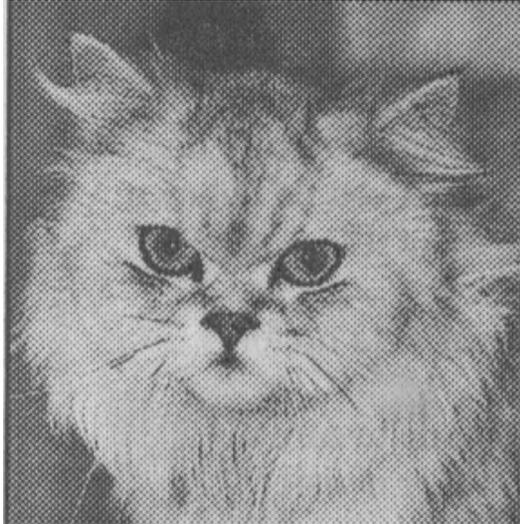
$$\begin{aligned} P(s) &= \mathcal{F}(f(t) * f(-t)) \\ &= F(s) F^*(s) \\ &= |F(s)|^2 \end{aligned}$$

It is also the squared magnitude of the Fourier transform of the function

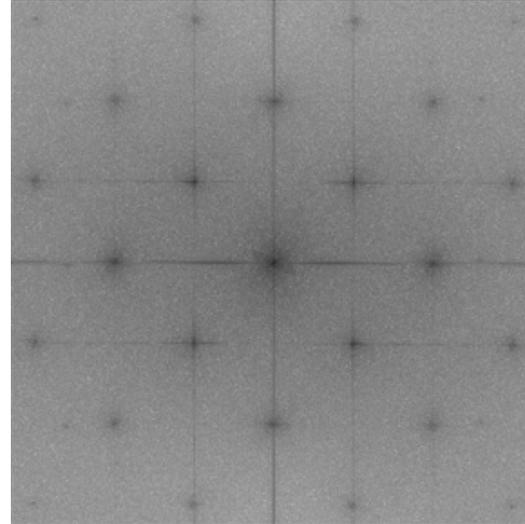
It is entirely real (no imaginary part).

Useful for detecting periodic patterns / texture in the image.

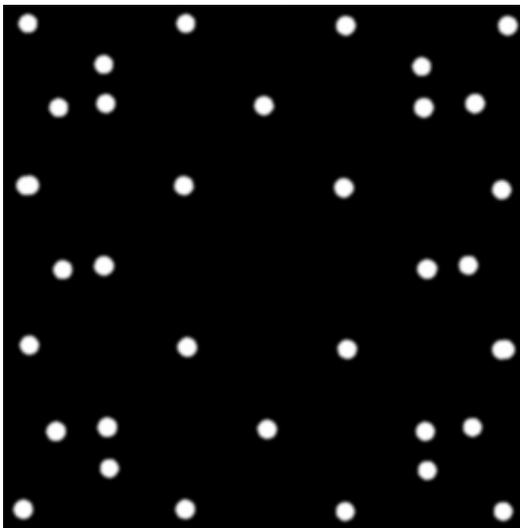
# Use of Power Spectrum in Image Filtering



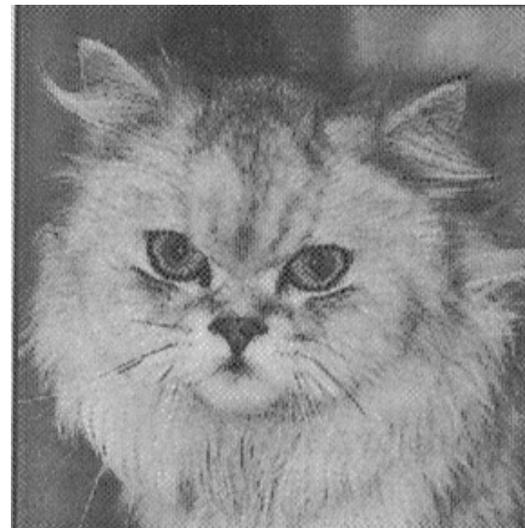
Original with noise patterns



Power spectrum showing noise spikes



Mask to remove periodic noise



Inverse FT with periodic noise removed

# Figure and Text Credits

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<http://web.engr.oregonstate.edu/~enm/cs519>

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# Resources

## Textbooks:

Kenneth R. Castleman, Digital Image Processing, Chapters 9,10

John C. Russ, The Image Processing Handbook, Chapter 5