

# Introduction to Medical Imaging

## Fourier Theory

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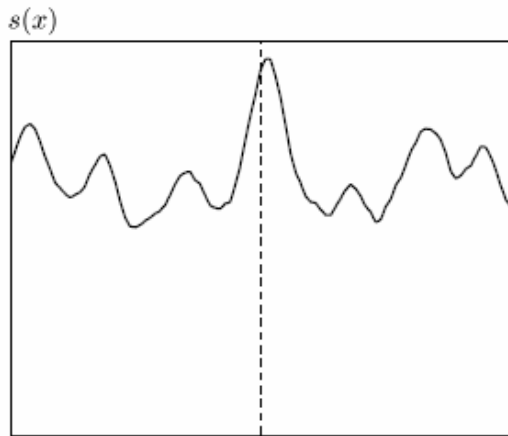
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# Introduction

Theory developed by Joseph Fourier (1768-1830)



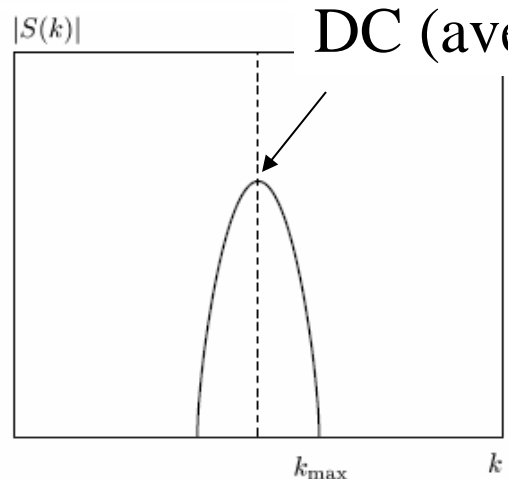
The Fourier transform of a signal  $s(x)$  yields its *frequency spectrum*  $S(k)$



$s(x)$

forward transform

$$S(k) = F\{s(x)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(x)e^{-2\pi ikx} dx$$



DC (average) term

$S(k)$

inverse transform

$$s(x) = F^{-1}\{S(k)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S(k)e^{2\pi ikx} dk$$

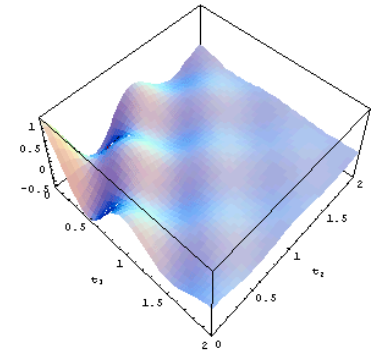
# Extension to Higher Dimensions

The Fourier transform generalizes to higher dimensions

Consider the 2D case:

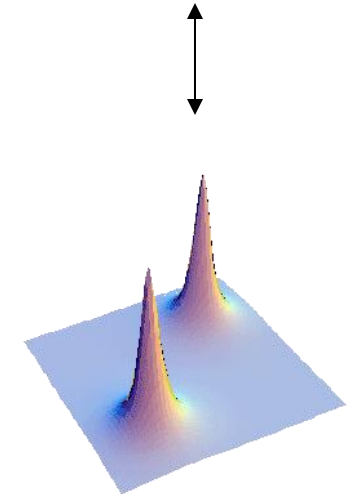
forward transform

$$S(k, l) = F\{s(x, y)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(x, y) e^{-2\pi i(kx+ly)} dx dy$$



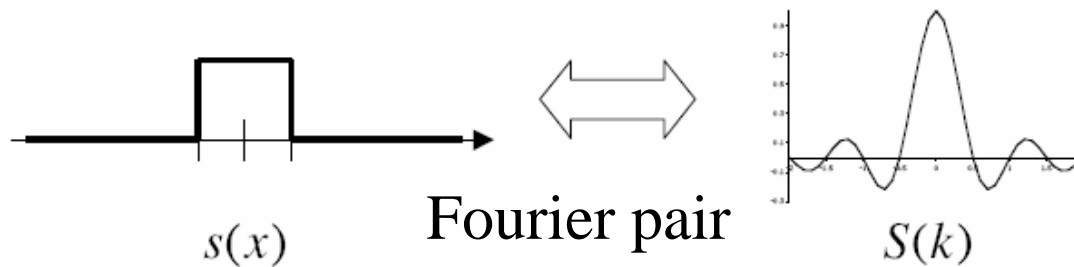
inverse transform

$$s(x, y) = F^{-1}\{S(k, l)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S(k, l) e^{2\pi i(kx+ly)} dk dl$$



# Calculation: Rect Function

$$\begin{aligned} S(k) &= F\left\{A\Pi\left(\frac{x}{2L}\right)\right\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} A\Pi\left(\frac{x}{2L}\right)e^{-i2\pi kx} dx = \int_{-L}^{+L} Ae^{-i2\pi kx} dx \\ &= -\frac{A}{2\pi ki} (e^{-i2\pi kL} - e^{i2\pi kL}) = \frac{A}{2\pi k} 2\sin(2\pi kL) \\ &= 2AL \operatorname{sinc}(2\pi kL) \end{aligned}$$



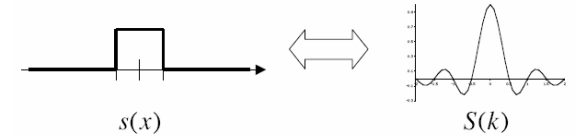
We see that a finite signal in the  $x$ -domain creates an infinite signal in the  $k$ -domain (the frequency domain)

- the same is true vice versa

# Properties

## Scaling:

- consider the rect (box): the greater L...  
 ... the higher the spectrum (factor AL)  
 ... the narrower the spectrum (factor L)
- the scaling rule is therefore:



$$S(k) = 2AL \operatorname{sinc}(2\pi kL)$$

$$F\{s(ax)\} = \frac{1}{|a|} S\left(\frac{k}{a}\right) \quad \begin{array}{l} a > 1 \text{ shrinks } s \\ a < 1 \text{ stretches } s \end{array}$$

Symmetry:  $F\{S(x)\} = s(-k)$

Linearity:  $F\{as_1(x) + bs_2(x)\} = F\{as_1(x)\} + F\{bs_2(x)\}$

Translation:  $F\{s(x - x_0)\} = S(k)e^{-2\pi i x_0 k}$

← phase shift

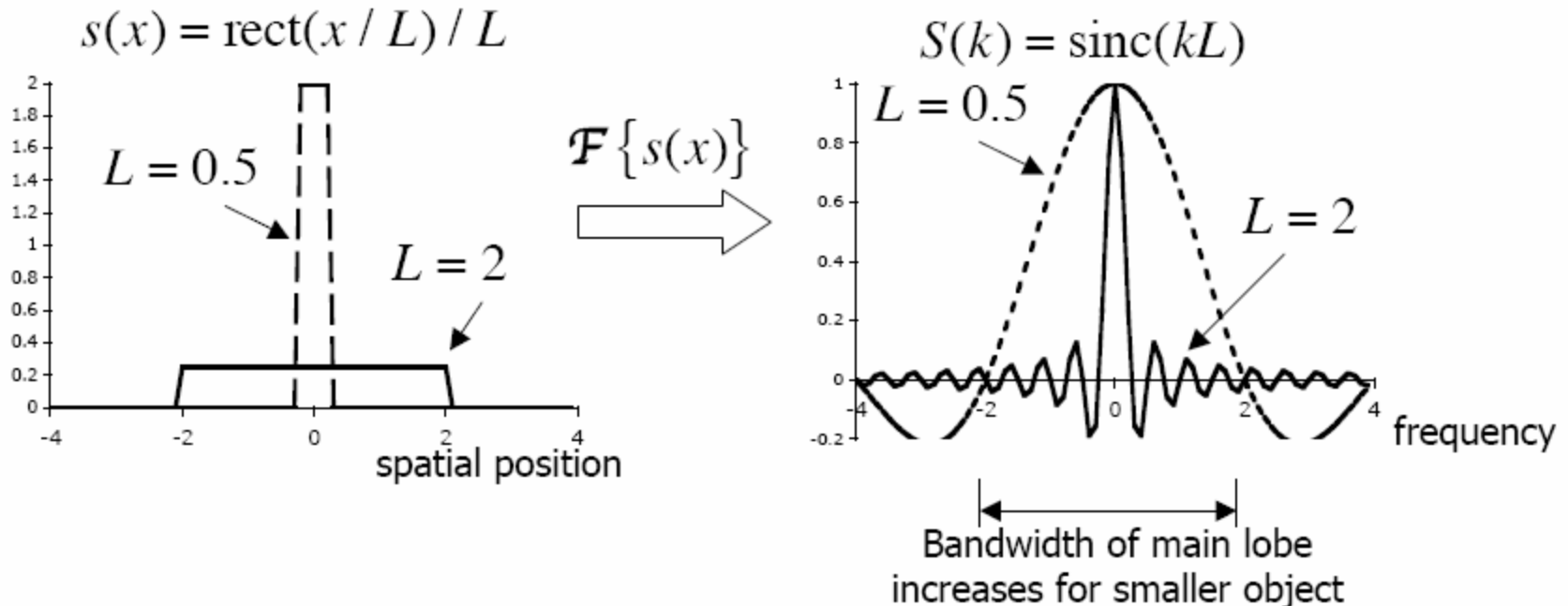
Convolution:  $F\{s_1(x) * s_2(x)\} = S_1(k) \cdot S_2(k)$

$$F\{s_1(x) \cdot s_2(x)\} = S_1(k) * S_2(k)$$

# Scaling Property

The rect function provides good insight into the relationship of fine detail and frequency bandwidth

- a thin rect can represent/resolve fine detail (think of a signal being represented as an array of thin rects)
- a thin rect gives rise to a wide frequency lobe
- this illustrates that signals with more detail will have broader frequency spectra
- or, in turn, signals with thin frequency spectra will have low spatial resolution



# Influence of Transfer Function $H$

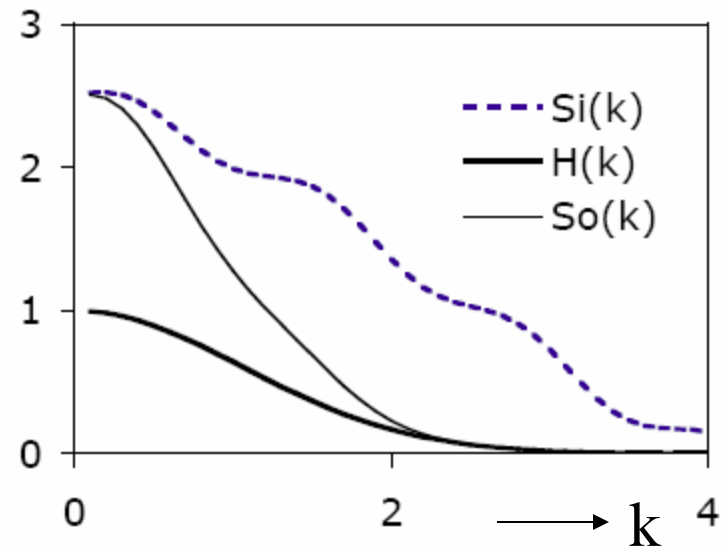
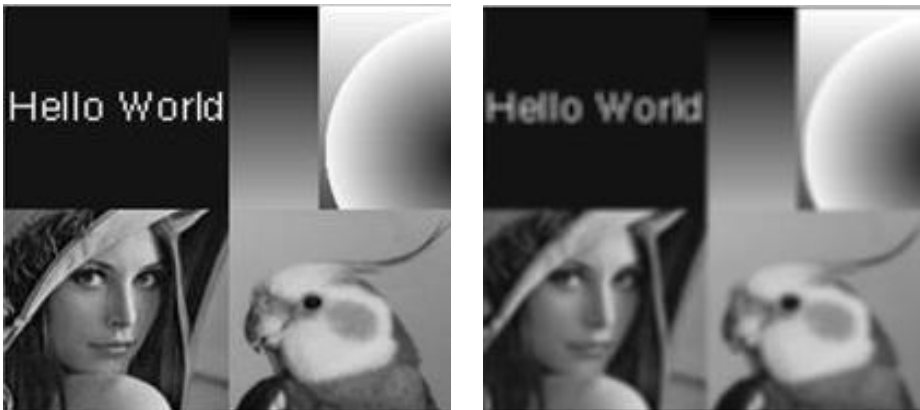
We know (from the last lecture) that:

$$s_o(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S_i(k) e^{2\pi i k x} H(k) dk$$

$$s_o(x) = s_i(x) * h(x) \leftrightarrow S_i(k) \cdot H(k) = S_o(k)$$

Let's look at a concrete example:

- $H$  is a *lowpass (blurring) filter*. it reduces the higher frequencies of  $S$  more than the lower ones

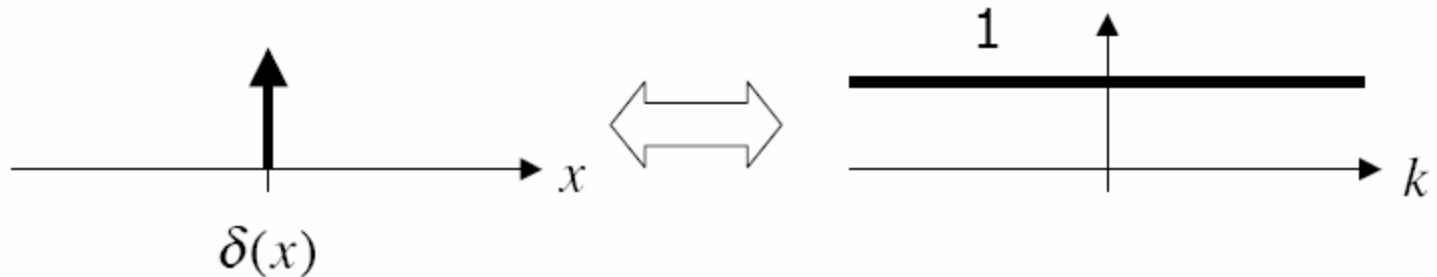


after application of  $H$

# Calculation: Dirac Impulse

For  $s(x)=\delta(x)$ :

$$S(k) = F\{\delta(x)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(x)e^{-i2\pi kx} dx = e^{-i2\pi k0} = 1$$



Recall that the Dirac is an extremely thin rect function

- the frequency spectrum is therefore extremely broad (1 everywhere)

This illustrates a key feature of the Fourier Transform:

- the narrower the  $s(x)$ , the wider the  $S(k)$
- sharp objects need higher frequencies to represent that sharpness



# Important Fourier Pairs: Sinusoids

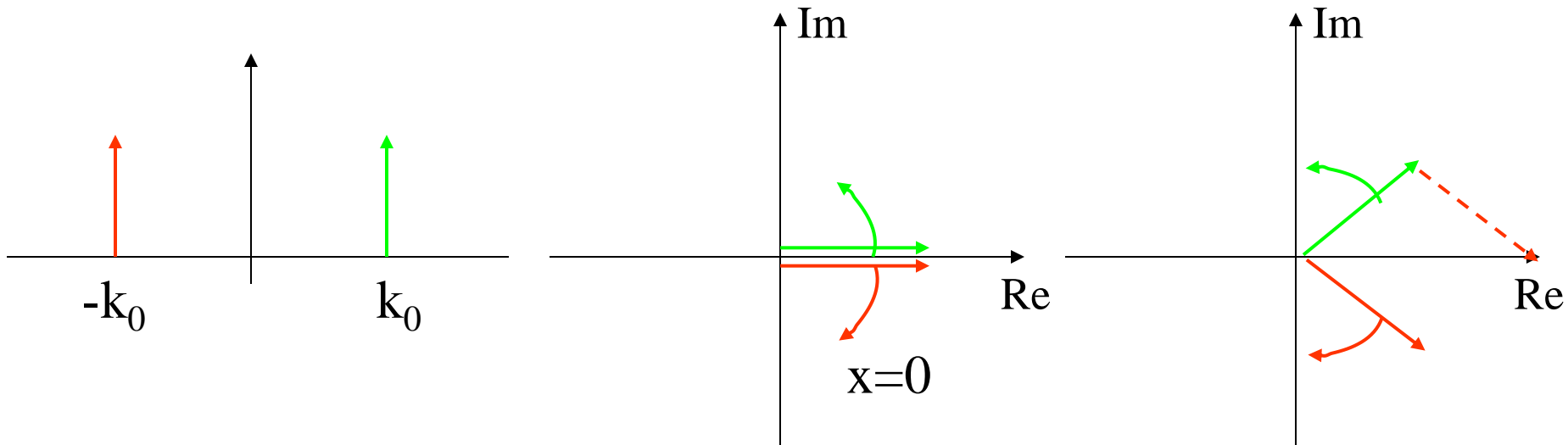
Sinusoids of frequency  $k_0$  give rise to two spikes in the frequency domain at  $\pm k_0$

$$\cos(2\pi k_0 x) \leftrightarrow (\delta(k + k_0) + \delta(k - k_0)) / 2$$

$$\sin(2\pi k_0 x) \leftrightarrow i(\delta(k + k_0) - \delta(k - k_0)) / 2$$

Recall the pointer analogon in the complex plane

for the  $\cos()$ : the real signal is given by the addition of the two vectors (divided by 2), projected onto the real axis



# Important Fourier Pairs: Sinusoids

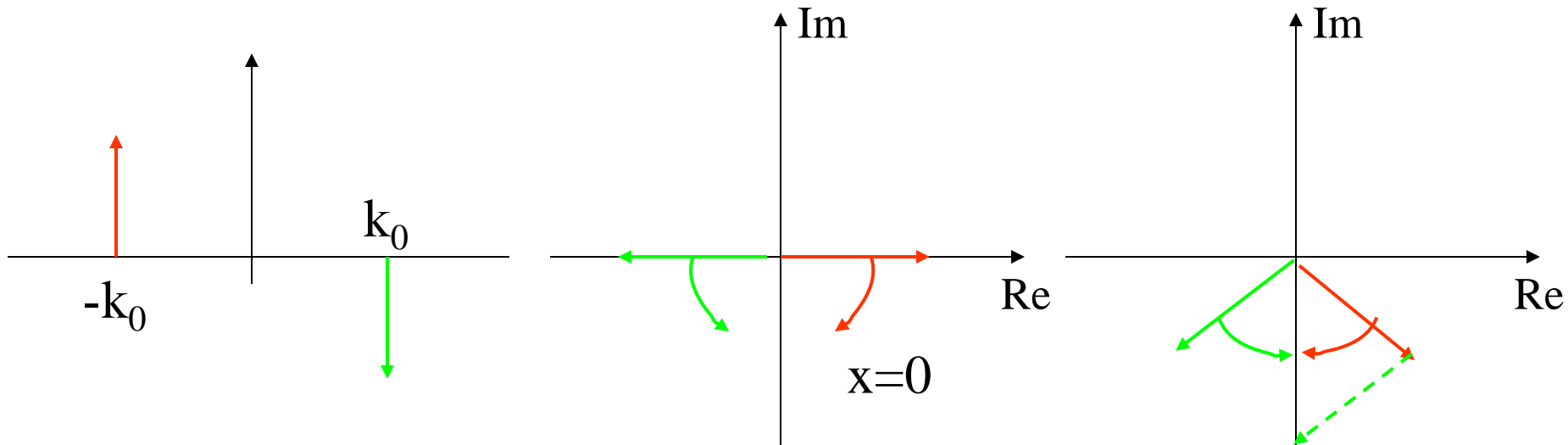
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$$\sin(2\pi k_0 x) \leftrightarrow i(\delta(k + k_0) - \delta(k - k_0)) / 2$$

Recall the pointer analogon in the complex plane

for the  $\sin()$ : the real signal is given by the addition of the two vectors (divided by 2), projected onto the imaginary axis (note the  $i$  in the equation)



# More Important Fourier Pairs

$$\delta(x) \leftrightarrow 1$$

$$1 \leftrightarrow \delta(k)$$

$$\cos(2\pi k_0 x) \leftrightarrow (\delta(k + k_0) + \delta(k - k_0)) / 2$$

$$\sin(2\pi k_0 x) \leftrightarrow i(\delta(k + k_0) - \delta(k - k_0)) / 2$$

$$\Pi\left(\frac{x}{2L}\right) \leftrightarrow 2L \operatorname{sinc}(2\pi Lk)$$

$$\Lambda\left(\frac{x}{2L}\right) \leftrightarrow L \operatorname{sinc}^2(\pi Lk)$$

$$e^{\frac{-x^2}{2\sigma^2}} \leftrightarrow e^{-2\sigma^2 k^2}$$



the Gaussian width is  
inversely related

## Some Notes

In the 2D transform, if  $f(x,y)$  is separable, that is,  $f(x,y)=f(x)f(y)$ , one may write:

$$S(k,l) = F\{s(x,y)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(y)e^{-2\piily} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{-\infty} s(x)e^{-2\piikx} dx \right) dy$$

$$s(x,y) = F^{-1}\{S(k,l)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S(l)e^{-2\piily} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{-\infty} s(k)e^{-2\piikx} dk \right) dl$$

- this comes in handy sometimes

# Some Notes

Sometimes the factor  $2\pi k$  is used as  $\omega$ :

$$s_0(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S_i(\omega) e^{i\omega x} H(\omega) d\omega$$

So far, we have only discussed the continuous space with (potentially) infinite spectra and signals

- that is where it makes sense to use  $\omega$
- but in reality we deal with finite, discrete signals (here  $k$  matters)
- we shall discuss this next

# Fourier Transform of Discrete Signals: DTFT

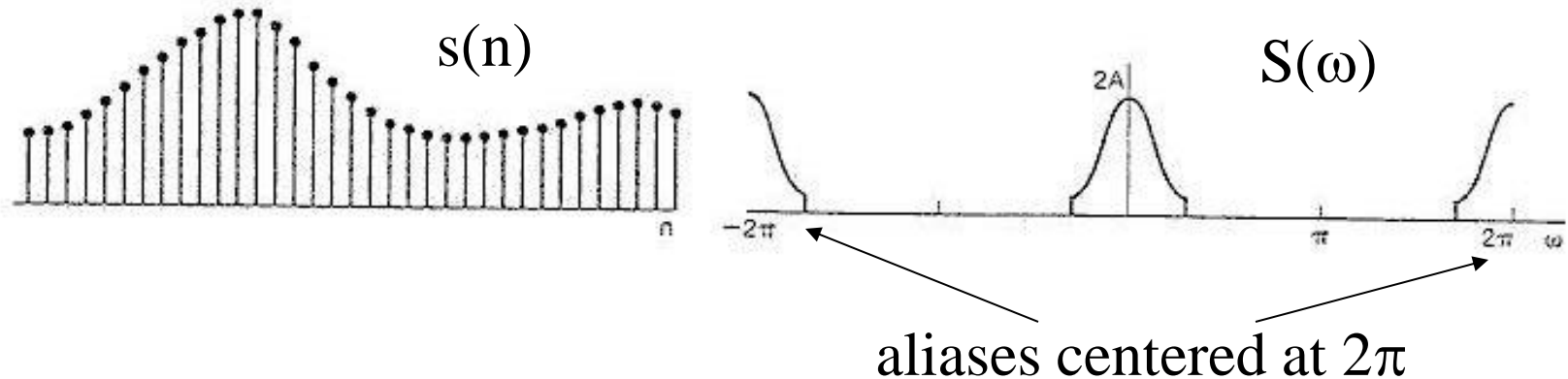
## Discrete-Time Fourier Transform (DTFT)

- assumes that the signal is discrete, but infinite

$$S(\omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} s(n)e^{-i\omega n}$$

$$s(n) = \int_{-\pi}^{+\pi} S(\omega)e^{i\omega n} d\omega$$

- the frequency spectrum is continuous, but is periodic (has *aliases*)



# Fourier Transform of Discrete Signals: DFT

## Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)

- assumes that the signal is discrete and finite

$$S(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} s(n) e^{\frac{-i2\pi kn}{N}}$$

$$s(n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} S(k) e^{\frac{i2\pi kn}{N}}$$

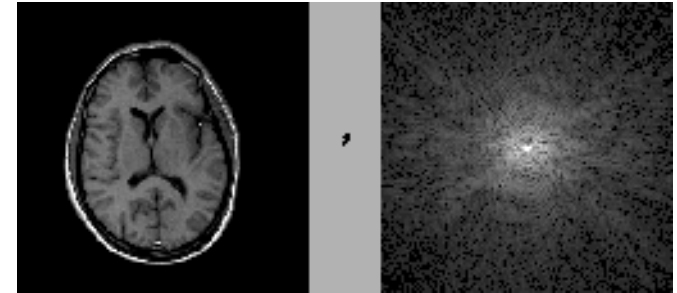
- now we have only N samples, and we can calculate N frequencies
- The formerly continuous frequency spectrum is now discrete
- It is periodic in N

# Fourier Transform in Higher Dimensions

The 2D transform:

$$S(k, l) = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} s(n, m) e^{\frac{-i2\pi(kn+lm)}{NM}}$$

$$s(n, m) = \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} S(k, l) e^{\frac{i2\pi(kn+lm)}{NM}}$$



Separability:

$$S(k, l) = \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} e^{\frac{-i2\pi lm}{M}} P(k, m) \quad \text{where } P(k, m) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} s(n, m) e^{\frac{-i2\pi kn}{N}}$$

$$s(n, m) = \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{l=0}^{M-1} e^{\frac{-i2\pi lm}{M}} p(n, l) \quad \text{where } p(n, l) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} S(k, m) e^{\frac{-i2\pi kn}{N}}$$

- if  $M=N$ , complexity is  $2 \cdot O(2N^3)$



# Fast Fourier Transform (1)

Recursively breaks up the FT sum into odd and even terms:

$$S(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} s(n) e^{\frac{-i2\pi kn}{N}} = \sum_{n=0}^{N/2-1} s(2n) e^{\frac{-i2\pi k 2n}{N}} + \sum_{n=0}^{N/2-1} s(2n+1) e^{\frac{-i2\pi k(2n+1)}{N}}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N/2-1} s_{\text{even}}(n) e^{\frac{-i2\pi kn}{N/2}} + e^{\frac{-i2\pi k N/2}{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N/2-1} s_{\text{odd}}(n) e^{\frac{-i2\pi kn}{N/2}}$$

Results in an  $O(n \cdot \log(n))$  algorithm (in 1D)

- $O(n^2 \cdot \log(n))$  for 2D (and so on)

# Fast Fourier Transform (1)

Gives rise to the well-known butterfly architecture:

