

Lecture:  
Linear systems and convolution

## *Linearity Conditions*

Let  $f_1(x,y)$  and  $f_2(x,y)$  describe two objects we want to image.

$f_1(x,y)$  can be any object and represent any characteristic of the object.

(e.g. color, intensity, temperature, texture, X-ray absorption, etc.)

Assume each is imaged by some imaging device (system).

$$\text{Let } f_1(x,y) \rightarrow g_1(x,y)$$

$$f_2(x,y) \rightarrow g_2(x,y)$$

Let's scale each object and combine them to form a new object.

$$a f_1(x,y) + b f_2(x,y)$$

If the system is linear, output is

$$a g_1(x,y) + b g_2(x,y)$$

## *Linearity Example:*

$$x \rightarrow \square \rightarrow \sqrt{x}$$

Is this a linear system?

## *Linearity Example:*

$$x \rightarrow \square \rightarrow \sqrt{x}$$

Is this a linear system?

$$9 \rightarrow 3$$

$$\underline{16} \rightarrow \underline{4}$$

$$9 + 16 = 25 \rightarrow 5$$

$$3 + 4 \neq 5$$

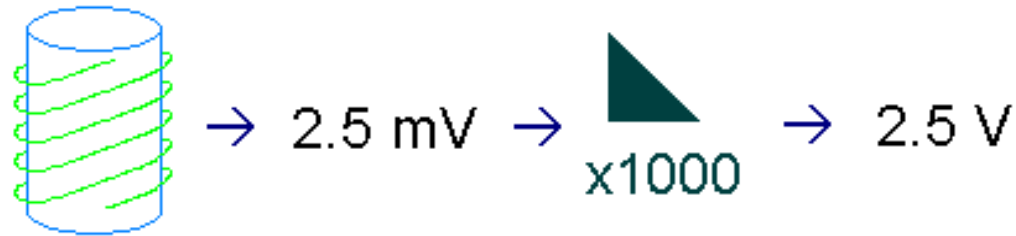
Not linear.

## *Example in medical imaging:*

Doubling the X-ray photons → doubles those transmitted

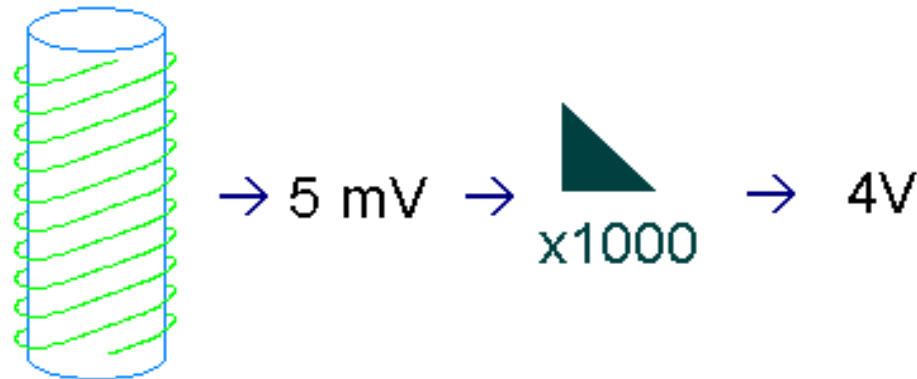
Doubling the nuclear medicine → doubles the reception  
source energy

MR:



Maximum output voltage is 4 V.

Now double the water:



The A/D converter  
system is non-linear  
after 4 mV.  
(overranging)

## *Linearity allows decomposition of functions*

Linearity allows us to decompose our input into smaller, elementary objects.

Output is the sum of the system's response to these basic objects.

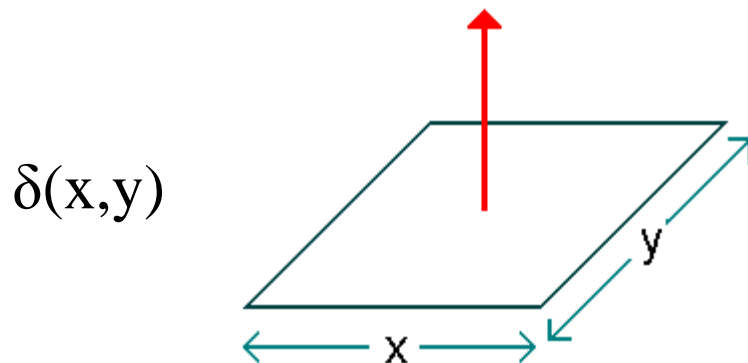
# Elementary Function:

The two-dimensional delta function  $\delta(x,y)$

$\delta(x,y)$  has infinitesimal width and infinite amplitude.

Key: Volume under function is 1.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x,y) dx dy = 1$$



## *The delta function as a limit of another function*

Powerful to express  $\delta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  as the limit of a function

Gaussian: 
$$\lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} a^2 \exp[-\pi a^2(\mathbf{x}^2 + \mathbf{y}^2)] = \delta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

2D Rect Function: 
$$\lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} a^2 \Pi(ax) \Pi(ay) = \delta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

where  $\Pi(\mathbf{x}) = 1$  for  $|\mathbf{x}| < 1/2$

For this reason,  $\delta(\mathbf{b}\mathbf{x}) = (1/|\mathbf{b}|) \delta(\mathbf{x})$



## *Sifting property of the delta function*

$$f(x_1, y_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int f(\varepsilon, \eta) \delta(x_1 - \varepsilon, y_1 - \eta) d\varepsilon d\eta$$

The delta function at  $x_1 = \varepsilon$ ,  $y_1 = \eta$  has sifted out  $f(x_1, y_1)$  at that point.

One can view  $f(x_1, y_1)$  as a collection of delta functions,  
each weighted by  $f(\varepsilon, \eta)$ .

## *Imaging Analyzed with System Operators*

From previous page:

$$f(x_1, y_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\varepsilon, \eta) \delta(x_1 - \varepsilon, y_1 - \eta) d\varepsilon d\eta$$

Let system operator (imaging modality) be  $\zeta$ , so that

$$g(x_2, y_2) = \zeta [f(x_1, y_1)]$$

*Why the new coordinate system  $(x_2, y_2)$ ?*

## *Imaging Analyzed with System Operators*

$$f(x_1, y_1) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\varepsilon, \eta) \delta(x_1 - \varepsilon, y_1 - \eta) d\varepsilon d\eta$$

$$g(x_2, y_2) = \zeta [f(x_1, y_1)]$$

Then,

$$\zeta [f(x_1, y_1)] = \zeta \left[ \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\varepsilon, \eta) \cdot \delta(x_1 - \varepsilon, y_1 - \eta) d\varepsilon d\eta \right]$$

↑ Generally  
blurred object

↑ System operating on entire  
input object  $f_1(x_1, y_1)$

By linearity, we can consider the output as a sum of the outputs from all the weighted elementary delta functions.

Then,

$$g(x_2, y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int f(\varepsilon, \eta) \zeta [\delta(x_1 - \varepsilon, y_1 - \eta)] d\varepsilon d\eta$$

## *System response to a two-dimensional delta function*

$$h(x_2, y_2; \varepsilon, \eta) = \zeta [\delta(x_1 - \varepsilon, y_1 - \eta)]$$

Substituting this into

$$g(x_2, y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int f(\varepsilon, \eta) \zeta [\delta(x_1 - \varepsilon, y_1 - \eta)] d\varepsilon d\eta$$

yields the **Superposition Integral**

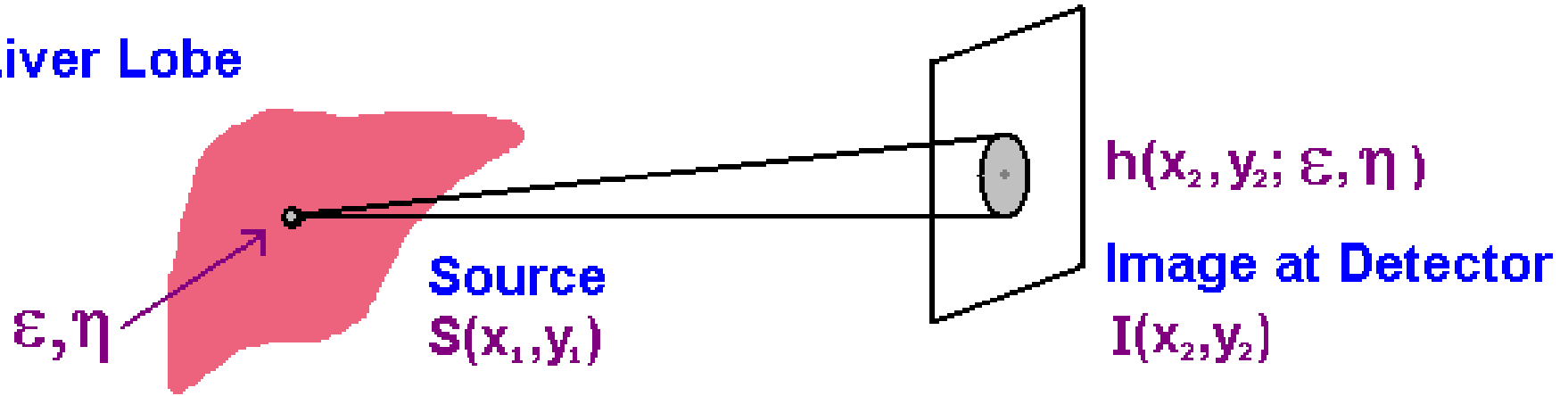
$$g(x_2, y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int f(\varepsilon, \eta) \cdot h(x_2, y_2; \varepsilon, \eta) d\varepsilon d\eta$$

## *Example in medical imaging:*

Consider a nuclear study of a liver with a tumor point source

at  $x_1 = \varepsilon, y_1 = \eta$

**Liver Lobe**



Radiation is detected at the detector plane.

To obtain a general result, we need to know all combinations

$$h(x_2, y_2; \varepsilon, \eta)$$

By “general result”, we mean that we could calculate

the image  $I(x_2, y_2)$  for any source input  $S(x_1, y_1)$

## *Time invariance*

A system is **time invariant** if its output depends only on relative time of the input, not absolute time. To test if this quality exists for a system, delay the input by  $t_0$ . If the output shifts by the same amount, the system is time invariant

i.e.

$$f(t) \rightarrow g(t)$$

$$f(t - t_0) \rightarrow g(t - t_0)$$

input delay

output delay

Is  $f(t) \rightarrow \boxed{f(at)} \rightarrow g(t)$  (an audio compressor) time invariant?

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output delay

Is  $f(t) \rightarrow \boxed{f(at)} \rightarrow g(t)$  (an audio compressor) time invariant?

$f(t - t_0) \rightarrow \boxed{f(at)} \rightarrow f(a(t - t_0))$  - Output of audio compressor  
 $\neq f(at - t_0)$  - shifted version of output  
(this would be a  
time invariant system.)

So  $f(t) \rightarrow f(at) = g(t)$  is not time invariant.

## *Space or shift invariance*

A system is **space (or shift) invariant** if its output depends only on relative position of the input, not absolute position.

If you shift input  $\rightarrow$  The response shifts, but  
in the plane, the shape of the response stays the same.

If the system is shift invariant,

$$h(x_2, y_2; \varepsilon, \eta) = h(x_2 - \varepsilon, y_2 - \eta)$$

and the superposition integral becomes the **2D convolution function**:

$$g(x_2, y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\varepsilon, \eta) \cdot h(x_2 - \varepsilon, y_2 - \eta) d\varepsilon d\eta$$

Notation:  $g = f**h$  (\*\* sometimes implies two-dimensional

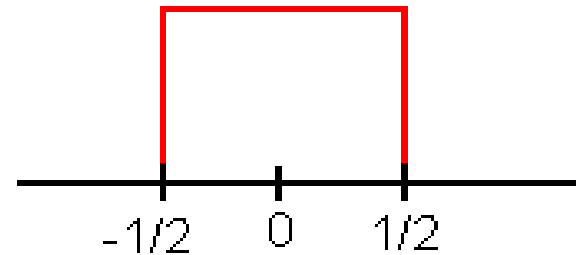
convolution, as opposed to  $g = f*h$  for one dimension. Often we will use  $*$  with 2D and 3D functions and imply 2D or 3D convolution.)



## One-dimensional convolution example:

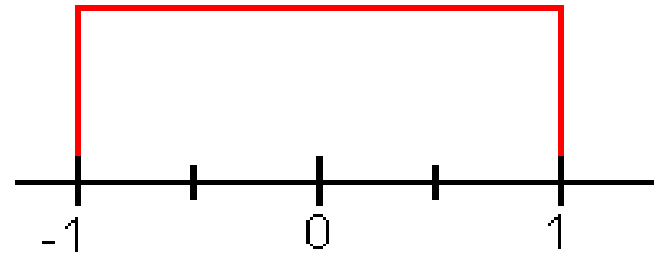
$$g(x) = \Pi(x) * \Pi(x/2)$$

Recall:  $\Pi(x) = 1$  for  $|x| < 1/2$



$$\Pi(x/2) = 1 \text{ for } |x|/2 < 1/2$$

or  $|x| < 1$



$$g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Pi\left(\frac{x'}{2}\right) \cdot \Pi(x - x') dx'$$

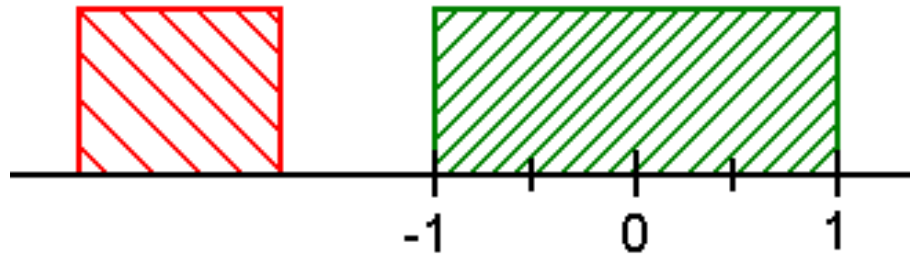
Flip one object and  
drag across the other.

$$g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Pi\left(\frac{x'}{2}\right) \cdot \Pi(\overset{\text{flip}}{\downarrow} -(x' \overset{\text{delay}}{\downarrow} - x)) dx'$$

## One-dimensional convolution example, continued:

Case 1: no overlap of  $\Pi(x-x')$  and  $\Pi(x'/2)$

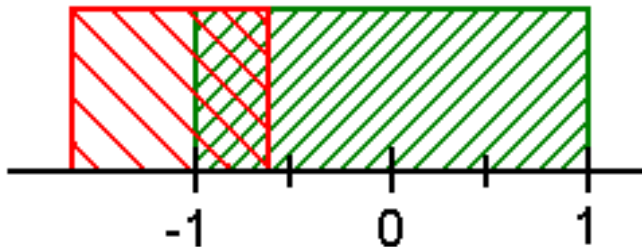
$x-1/2$     $x+1/2$



$$g(x) = 0 \quad \text{for } x < -\frac{3}{2}$$

Case 2: partial overlap of  $\Pi(x-x')$  and  $\Pi(x'/2)$

$x-1/2$     $x+1/2$

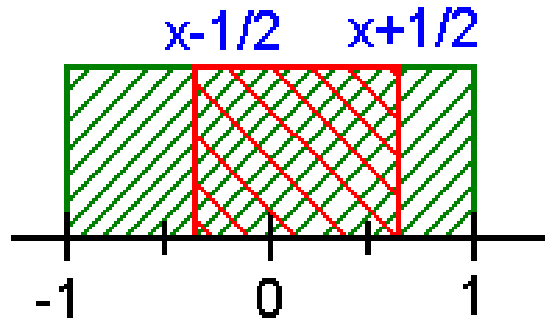


$$\begin{aligned} g(x) &= \int_{-1}^{x+1/2} 1 \cdot 1 \cdot dx' \\ &= x \Big|_{-1}^{x+1/2} = x + \frac{1}{2} - (-1) \end{aligned}$$

$$g(x) = x + \frac{3}{2} \quad \text{for } -\frac{3}{2} < x < -\frac{1}{2}$$

## One-dimensional convolution example, continued(2):

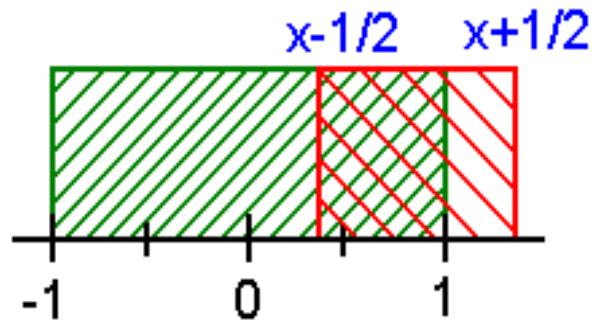
Case 3: complete overlap



$$g(x) = \int_{x-1/2}^{x+1/2} 1 \cdot 1 \cdot dx'$$

$$g(x) = 1 \quad \text{for } -\frac{1}{2} < x < \frac{1}{2}$$

Case 4: partial overlap

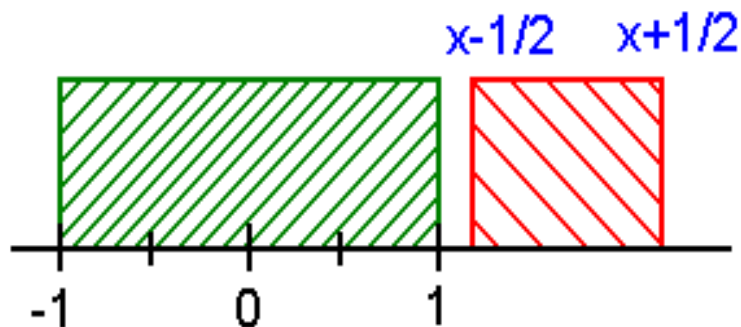


$$g(x) = \int_{x-1/2}^1 1 \cdot 1 \cdot dx'$$

$$= x \Big|_{x-1/2}^1 = 1 - (x - \frac{1}{2})$$

$$g(x) = -x + \frac{3}{2} \quad \text{for } \frac{1}{2} < x < \frac{3}{2}$$

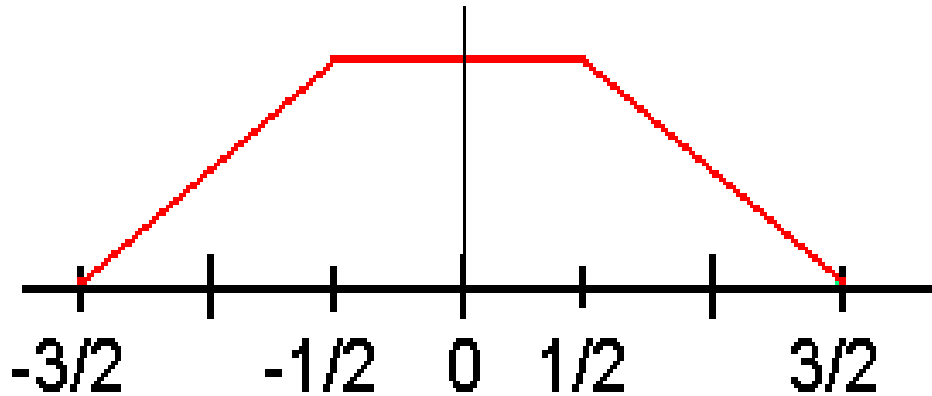
Case 5: no overlap



$$g(x) = 0 \quad \text{for } x > \frac{3}{2}$$

## *One-dimensional convolution example, continued(3):*

Result of convolution:



$$g(x) = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad x < -\frac{3}{2}$$

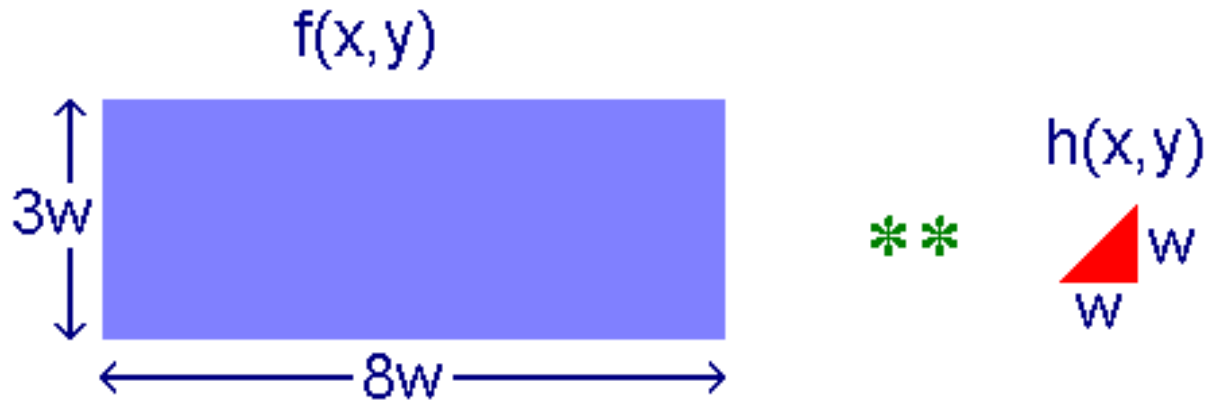
$$g(x) = x + \frac{3}{2} \quad \text{for} \quad -\frac{3}{2} < x < -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$g(x) = 1 \quad \text{for} \quad -\frac{1}{2} < x < \frac{1}{2}$$

$$g(x) = -x + \frac{3}{2} \quad \text{for} \quad \frac{1}{2} < x < \frac{3}{2}$$

$$g(x) = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad x > \frac{3}{2}$$

# Two-dimensional convolution

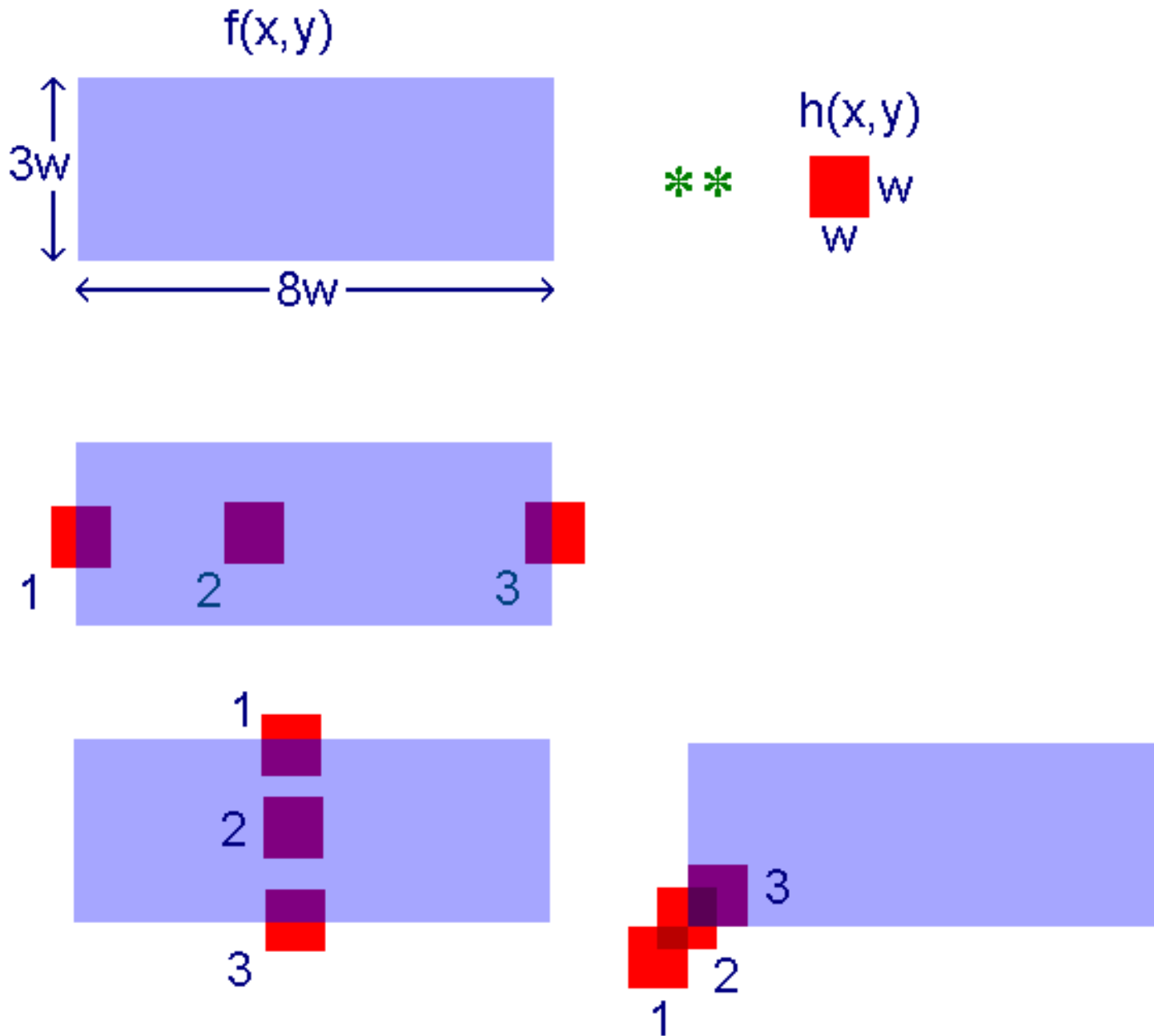


$$g(x,y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x', y') \cdot h(x - x', y - y') dx' dy'$$

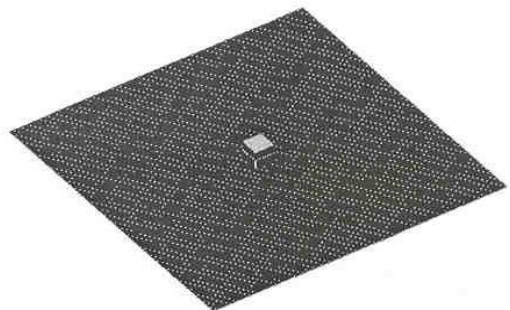
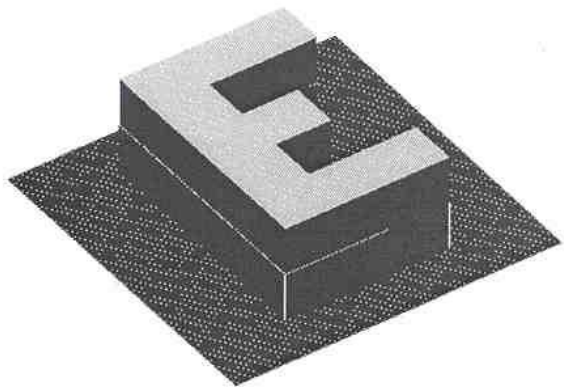


← sliding of flipped object

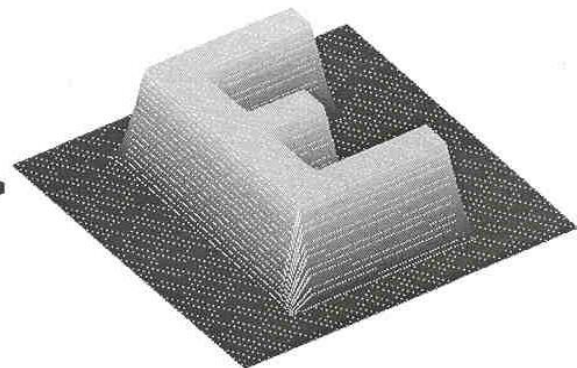
# 2D Convolution of a square with a rectangle.



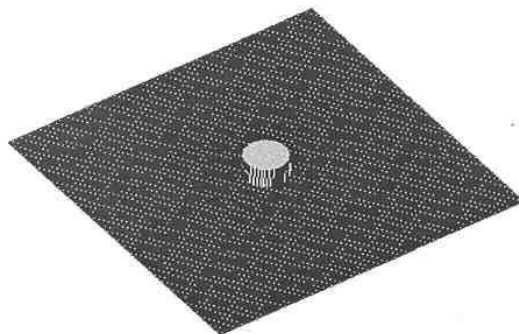
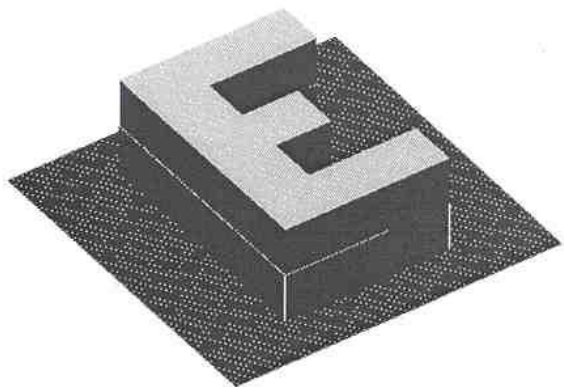
# 2D Convolution of letter E - 3D plots



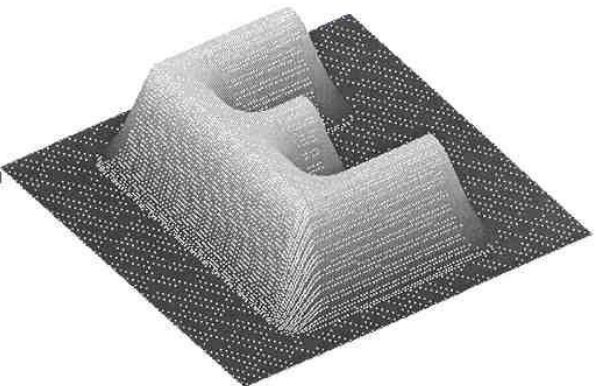
$\Rightarrow$



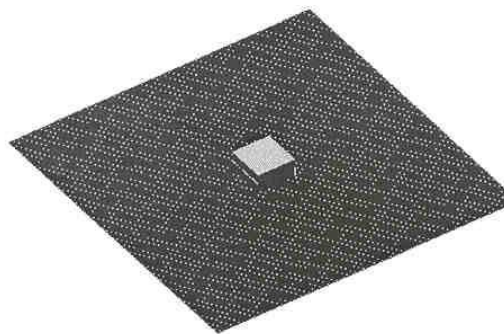
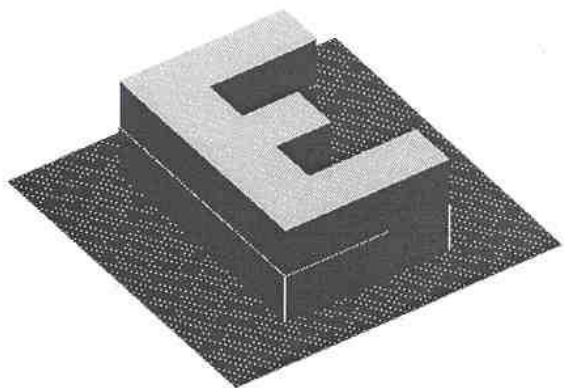
E\*\*small square



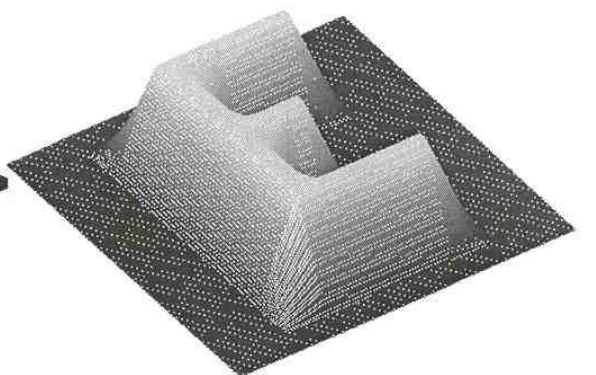
$\Rightarrow$



E\*\*circle

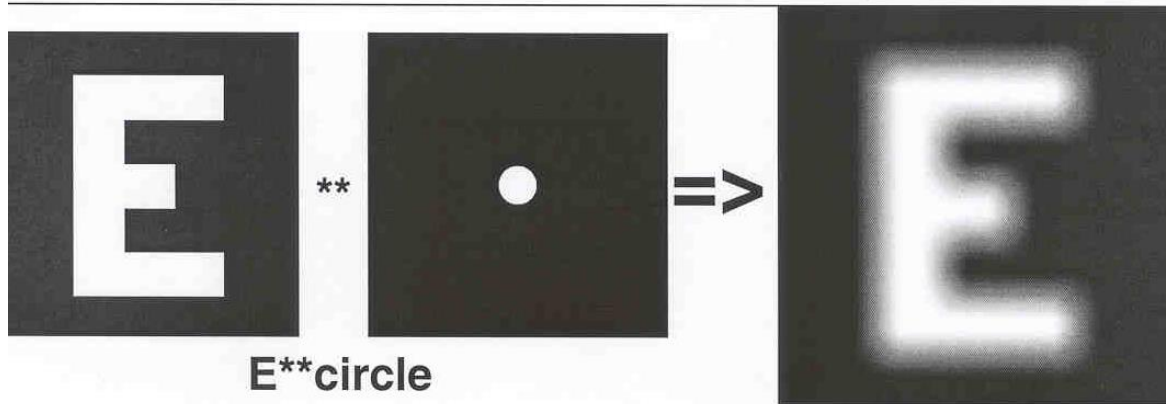
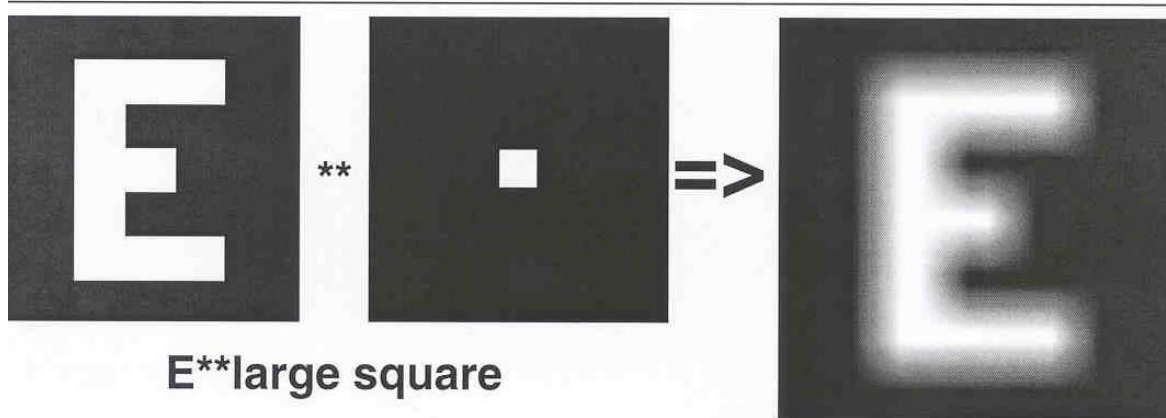
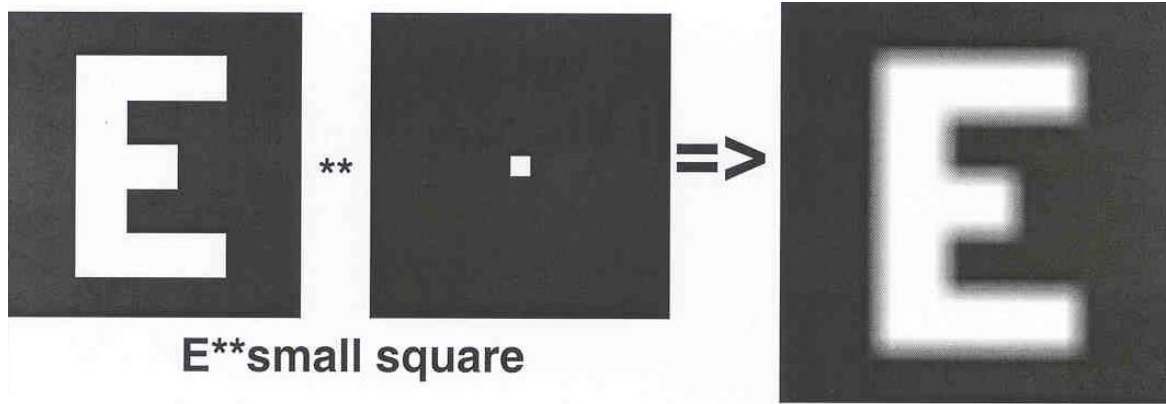


$\Rightarrow$



E\*\*large square

# 2D Convolution of letter E - Grayscale images





# *Review of Fourier Transforms*

# تبدیل فوریه (Fourier Transform)

- پس از عبور نور از يك منشور (Prism) یا diffraction grating، نور به اجزا مختلف با فرکانس های خاص خود (مونوکروماتیک) تجزیه می شود.
- این امر مشابه تبدیل فوریه (FT) است.
- می توان يك سیگنال يك بعدي را بصورت مجموعه ای از امواج سینوسی (با فرکانس و دامنه متفاوت) نشان داد.
- هرچه فرکانس های بیشتری را محاسبه نماییم تخمین فوریه يك سیگنال دقیق تر می شود و اطلاعات بیشتری درباره شکل اولیه آن بدست می آید.

# تبدیل فوریه (Fourier Transform)

- FT مبتنی بر این واقعیت است که سیگنال دوره ای (Periodic) شامل بی نهایت سیگنال های سینوسی وزن دار با فرکانس های متفاوت است. این فرکانس ها عبارتند از فرکانس پایه (Fundamental frequency) و مضارب درست این فرکانس پایه.
- در تبدیل فوریه، توابع پایه ای هم جهت (orthonormal basis function)، امواج سینوسی با فرکانس های متفاوت هستند که در فضای بی نهایت تعریف شده اند

# تبدیل فوریه (Fourier Transform)

- هر يك از ضرایب حاصل در تبدیل فوریه توسط ضرب نقطه‌ای (inner product) تابع ورودی و یکی از توابع پایه‌ای (basis function) بدست می‌آید.
- این ضرایب، در واقع، درجه شباهت بین تابع ورودی و تابع پایه‌ای مورد نظر را نشان می‌دهد.
- اگر دو تابع پایه‌ای بر هم عمود (orthogonal) باشند، حاصل ضرب نقطه‌ای آنها صفر و لذا نشان می‌دهد که آن دو با هم شبیه نیستند.
- بنابراین اگر سیگنال یا تصویر ورودی از اجزایی تشکیل شده باشد که يك یا چند تابع پایه‌ای داشته باشد، سپس آن يك یا چند ضریب بزرگ و دیگر ضرایب كوچك هستند.

# Inverse Fourier Transform

- در تبدیل معکوس، سیگنال یا تصویر اولیه توسط مجموع توابع پایه‌ای (در فرکانس‌های مختلف) که تحت تاثیر وزن ضرایب تبدیل قرار گرفته‌اند، بازسازی می‌شود.
- بنابراین اگر یک سیگنال یا تصویر از اجزائی شبیه به تعداد معدودی از توابع پایه‌ای تشکیل شده باشد، بسیاری از عبارات موجود در این جمع (ضرایب تبدیل) حذف شده و فقط تعدادی از این ضرایب تبدیل، تقویت اجزایی از تصویر را که شبیه به توابع مربوطه پایه‌ای است انجام داده و تصویر را می‌سازند.

# Advantage

- وقتی تبدیل فوریه يك سیگنال یا تصویر بدست می آید، اعمال متعدد ریاضی بر روی آنها قابل انجام است. در فضای فرکانسی انجام این عملیات ریاضی از انجام آنها در فضای مکانی به مراتب ساده تر است.
- بعنوان مثال عمل Convolution به يك ضرب ساده تبدیل می شود و روش های پردازشی دیگر نیز مانند Correlation، differentiation، integration و Interpolation به سهولت انجام می شوند.

# 1-D Fourier Theory

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

Fourier Transform:

$$F(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \cdot e^{-i \cdot 2\pi \cdot f \cdot t} dt$$

Inverse Fourier Transform:

$$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(f) \cdot e^{+i \cdot 2\pi \cdot f \cdot t} df$$

You may have seen the Fourier transform and its inverse written as:

$$F(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \cdot e^{-i \cdot \omega \cdot t} dt$$

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega) \cdot e^{+i \cdot \omega \cdot t} d\omega$$

Why use the top version instead?

- 1) No scaling factor ( $1/2\pi$ ); easier to remember.
- 2) Easier to think in Hz than in radians/s

## *Review of 1-D Fourier Theory, continued*

Let's generalize so we can consider functions of variables other than time.

$$f(x) \leftrightarrow F(u)$$

Fourier Transform:

$$F(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \cdot e^{-i \cdot 2\pi \cdot u \cdot x} dx$$

Inverse Fourier Transform:

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(u) \cdot e^{+i \cdot 2\pi \cdot x \cdot u} du$$



## Review of 1-D Fourier theory, continued (2)

$$F(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \cdot e^{-i \cdot 2\pi \cdot u \cdot x} dx \quad f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(u) \cdot e^{+i \cdot 2\pi \cdot x \cdot u} du$$

$$e^{-i \cdot 2\pi \cdot u \cdot x} = \cos(2\pi \cdot u \cdot x) - i \cdot \sin(2\pi \cdot u \cdot x)$$

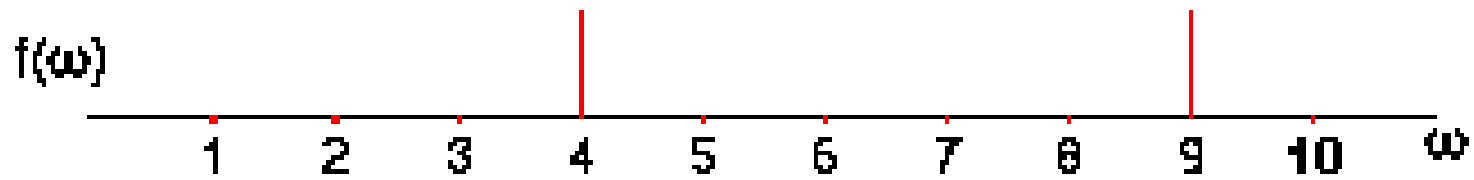
↑ Orthogonal basis functions

$f(x)$  can be viewed as as a linear combination of the complex exponential basis functions.

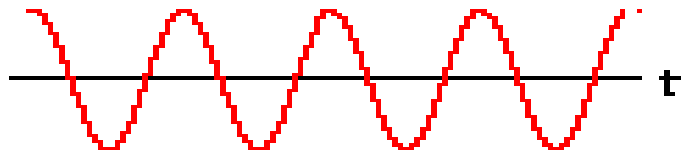
$F(u)$  gives us the magnitude and phase of each of the exponentials that comprise  $f(x)$ .

In fact, the Fourier integral works by sifting out the portion of  $f(x)$  that is comprised of the the function  $\exp(+i 2\pi u_0 x)$ .

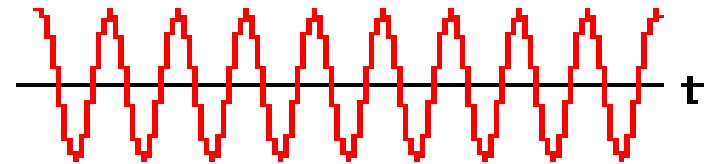
$$f(t) = \cos(4t) + \cos(9t)$$



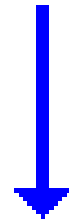
$\cos(4t)$



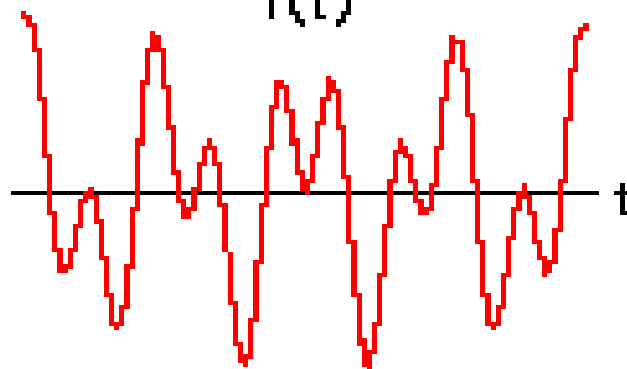
$\cos(9t)$

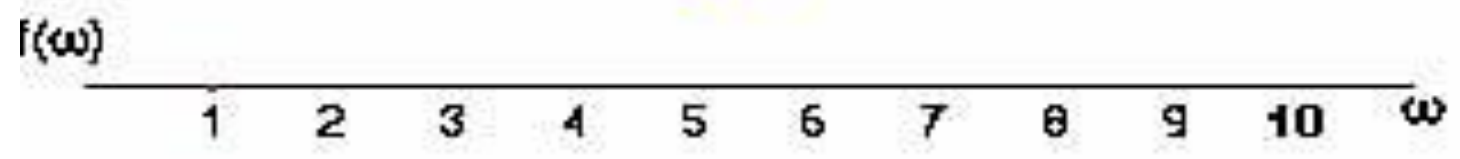
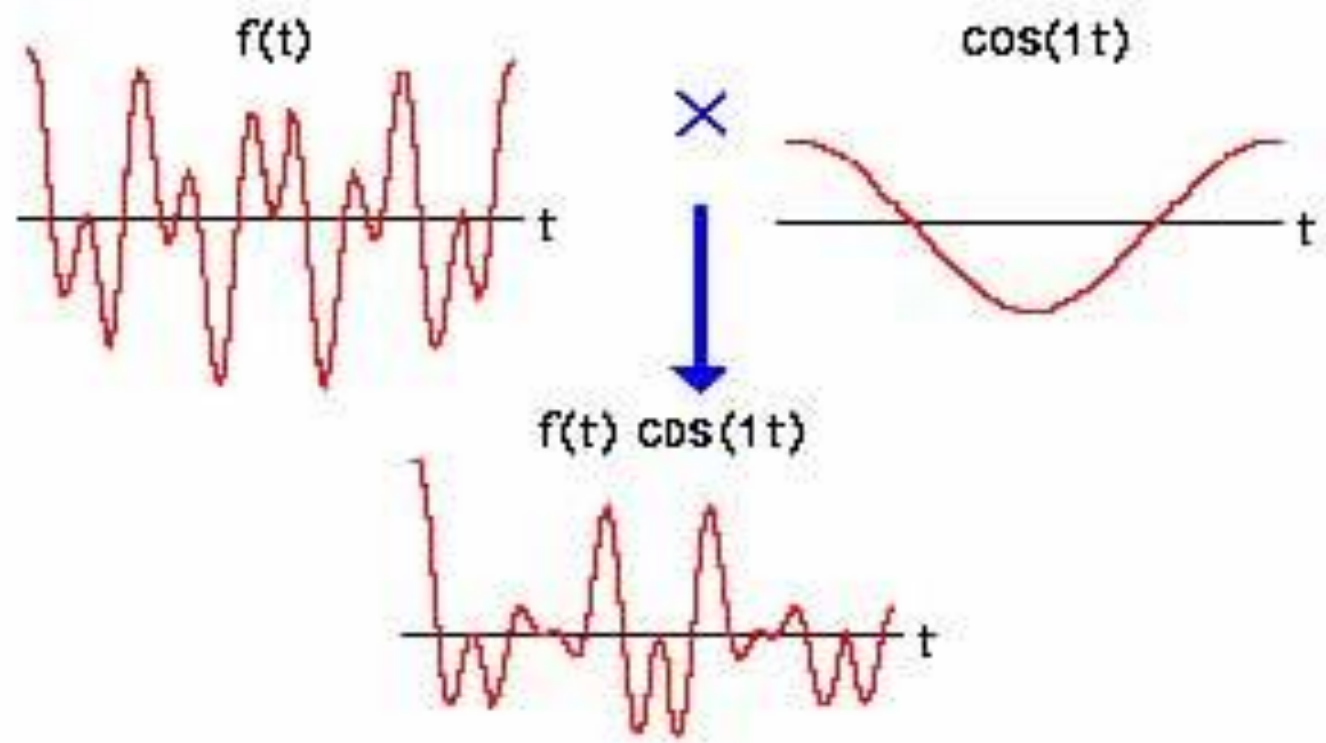


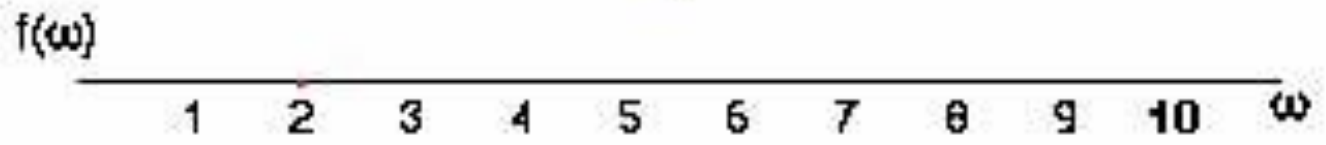
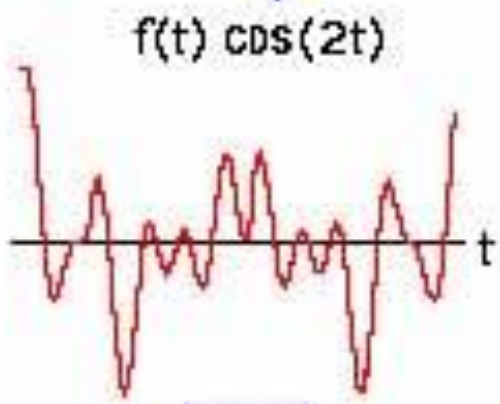
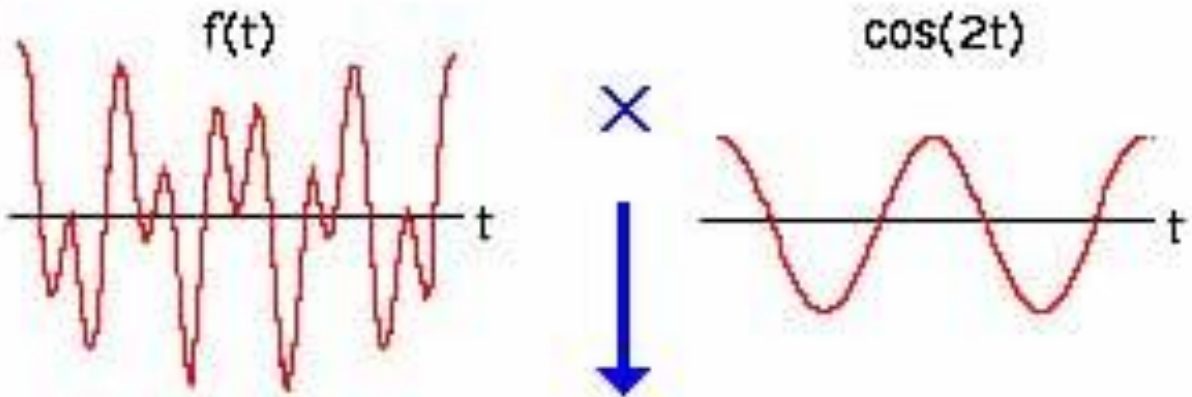
+

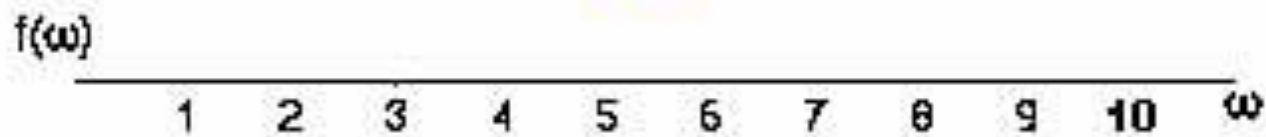
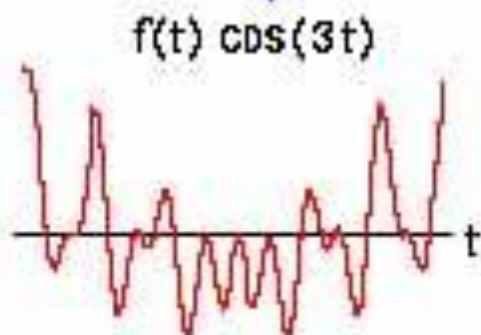
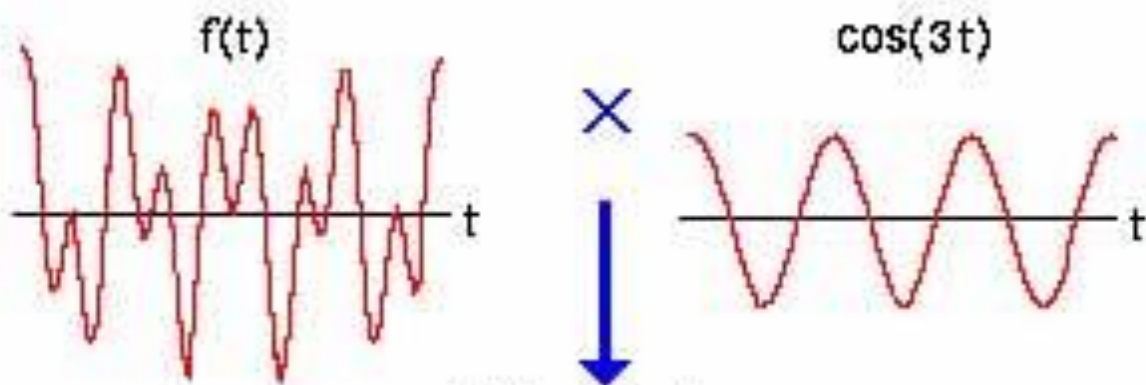


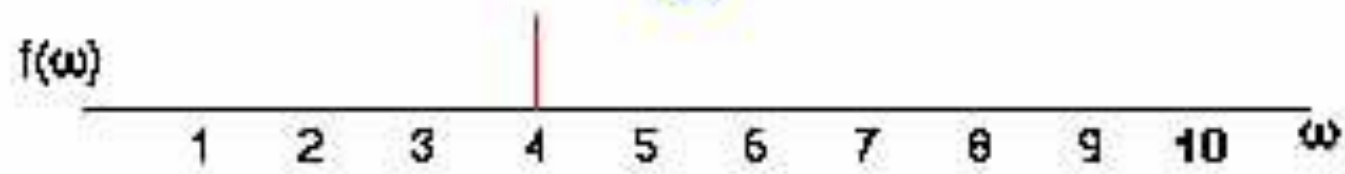
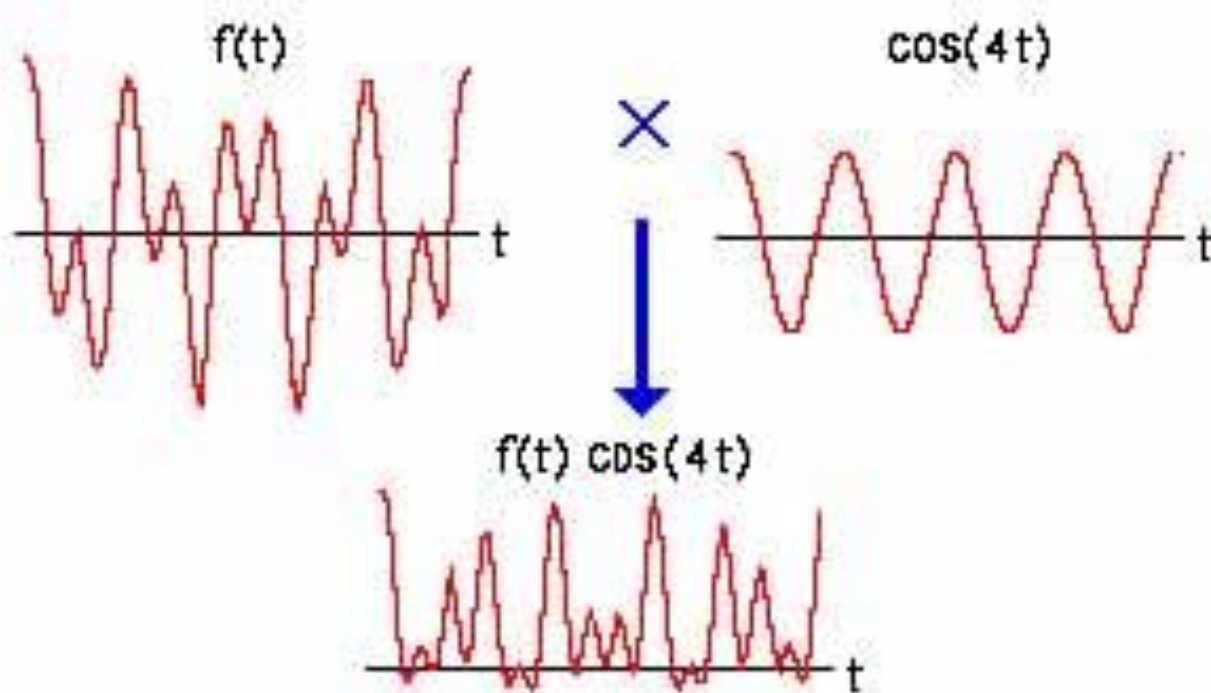
$f(t)$

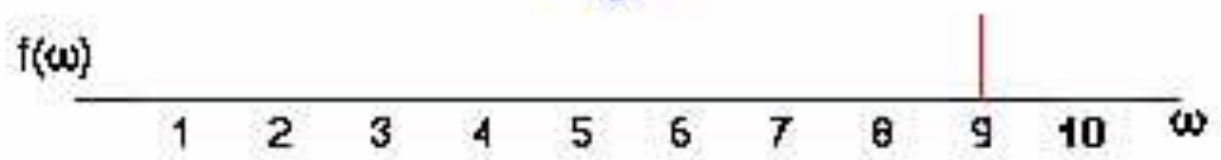
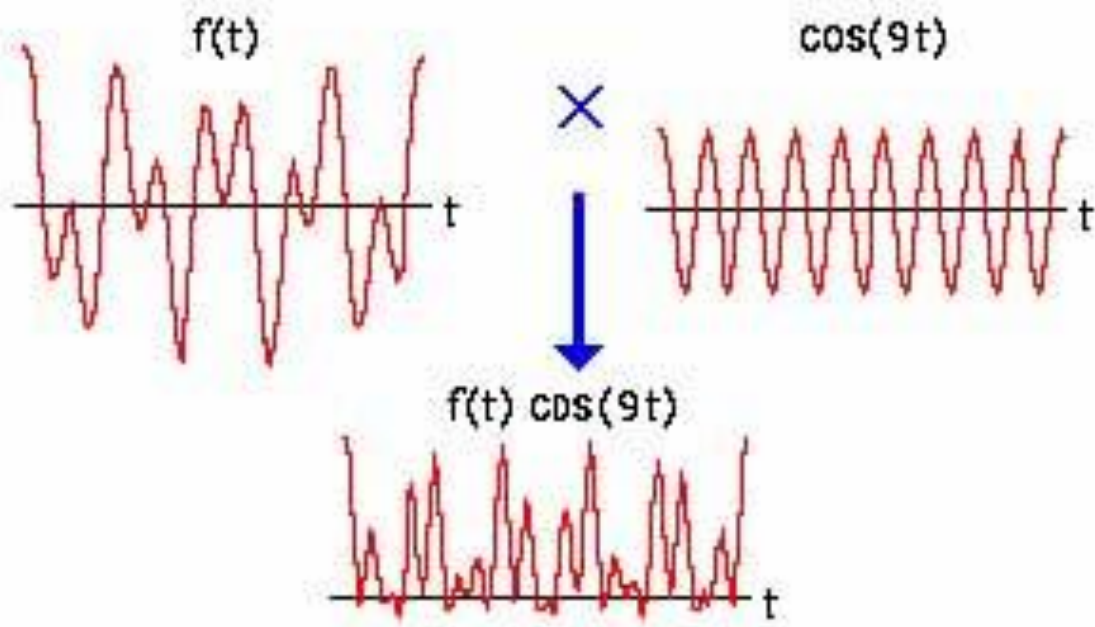












## *Some Fourier Transform Pairs and Definitions*

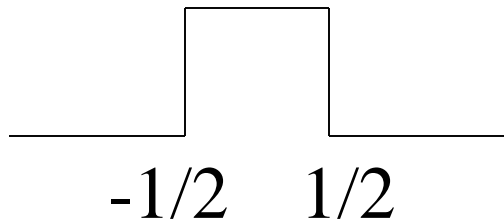
$$f(x) \leftrightarrow F(u)$$

$$\sin(2\pi x) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2i} (\delta(u-1) - \delta(u+1))$$

$$\cos(2\pi x) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2} (\delta(u-1) + \delta(u+1))$$

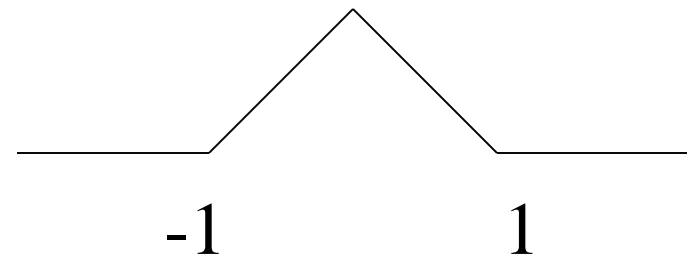
$$e^{-\pi x^2} \leftrightarrow e^{-\pi u^2}$$

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

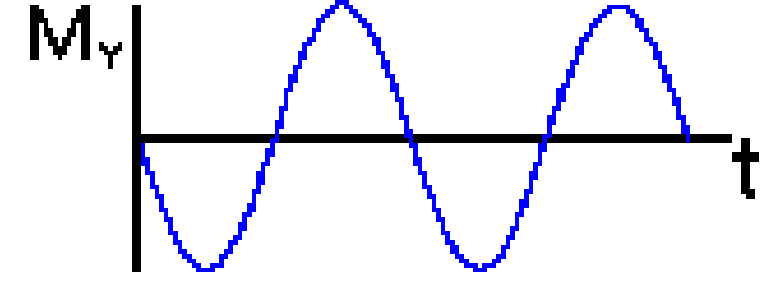
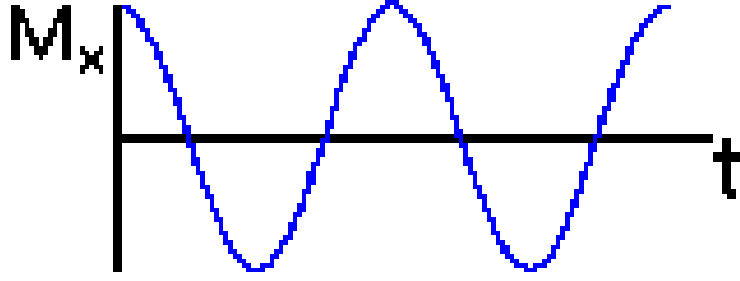


$$\Pi(x) \leftrightarrow \text{sinc}(u) = \frac{\sin(\pi u)}{\pi u}$$

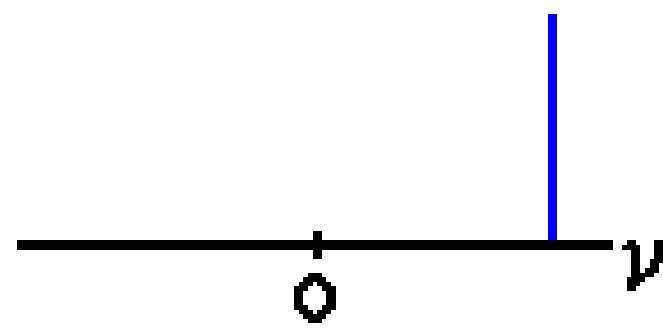
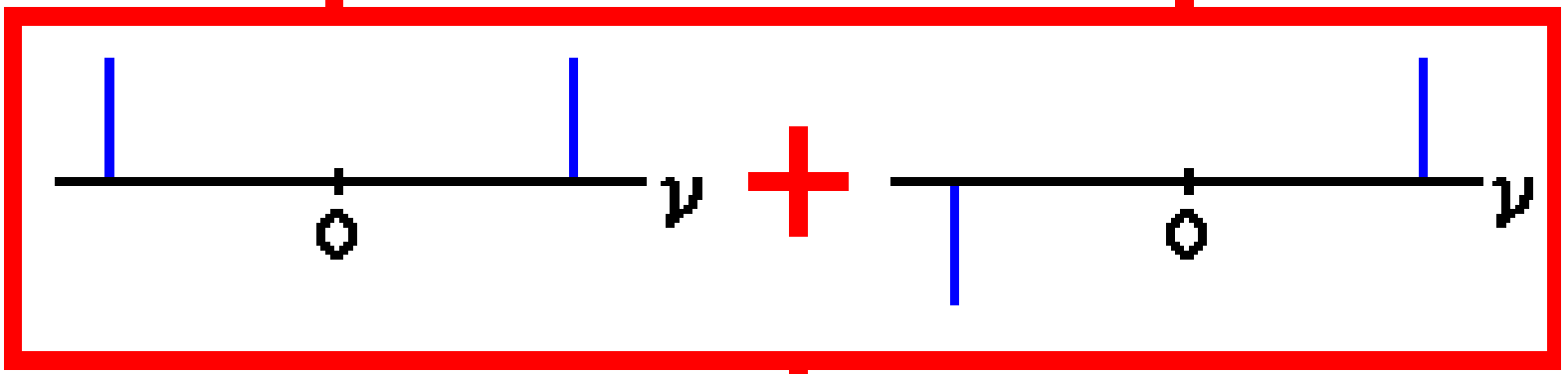
$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \Lambda(x) \text{ for } |x| \leq 1 \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{array} \right\} \leftrightarrow \text{sinc}^2(u)$$



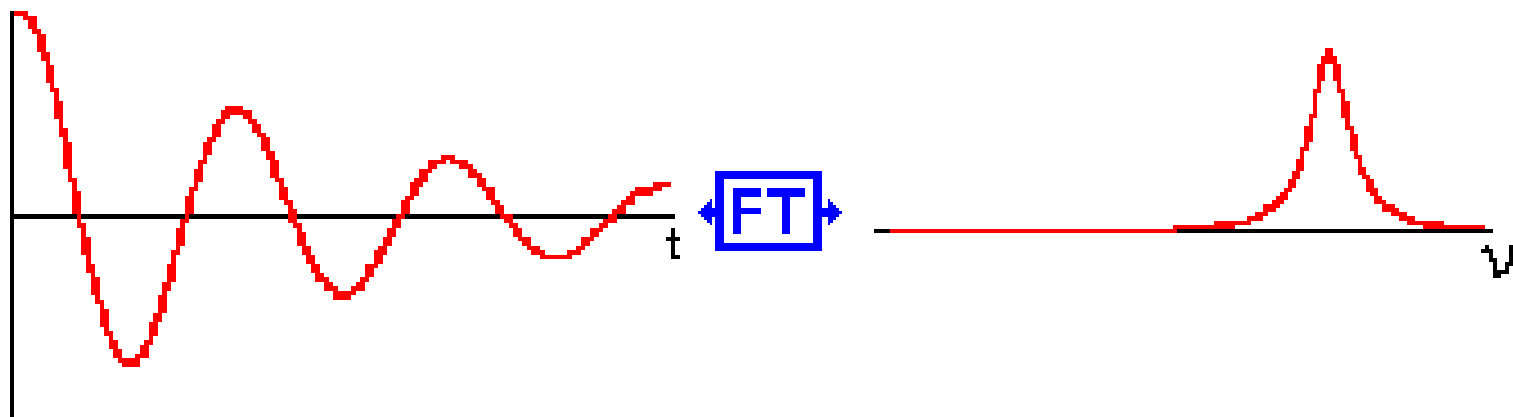




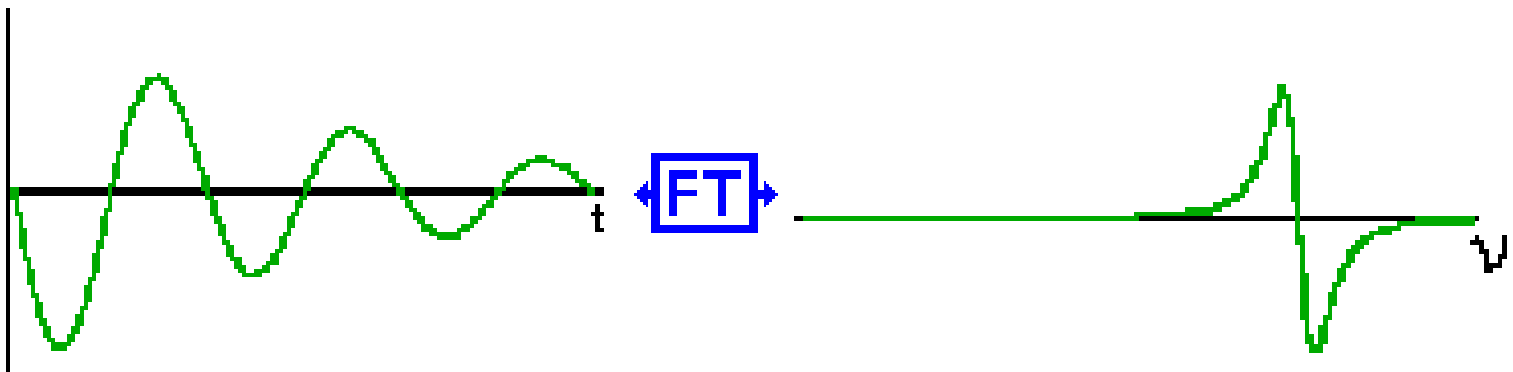
**FT**



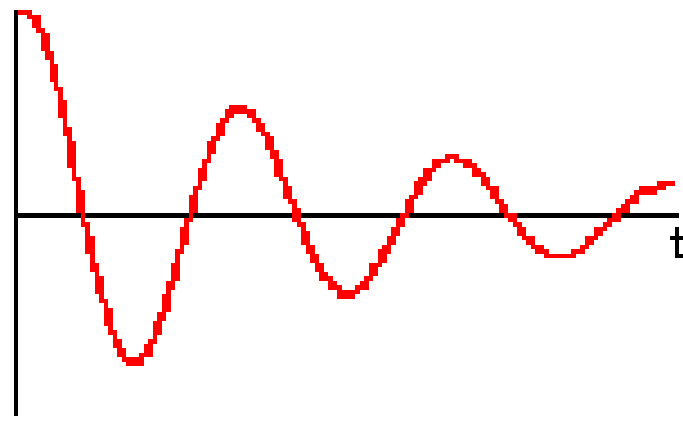
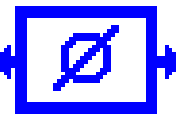
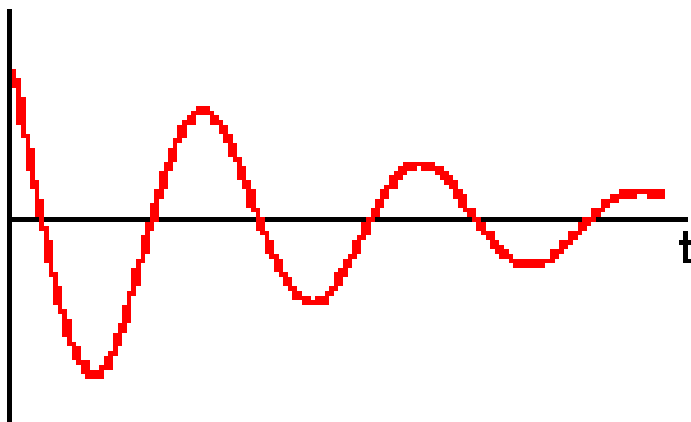
$M_X$  (Real)



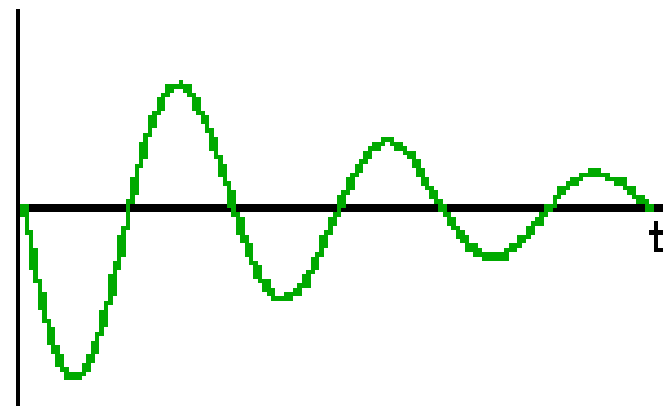
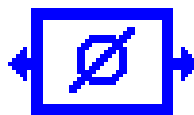
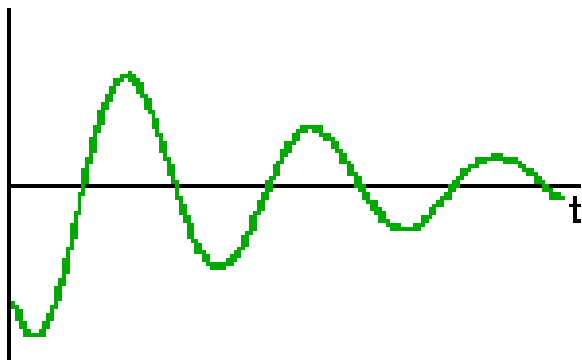
$M_Y$  (Imaginary)



$M_X$  (Real)



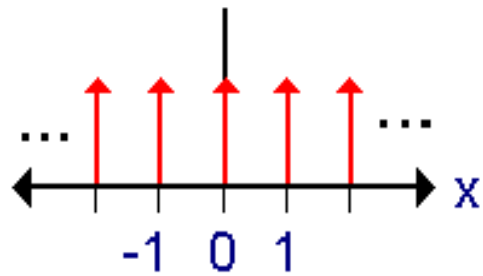
$M_Y$  (Imaginary)



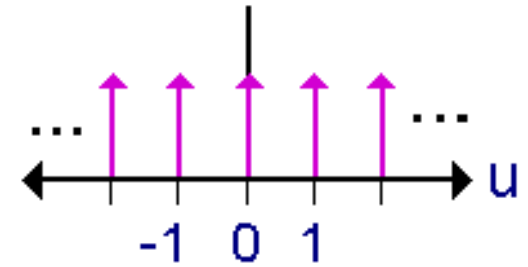
# Some Fourier Transform Pairs and Definitions, continued

$$f(x) \leftrightarrow F(u)$$

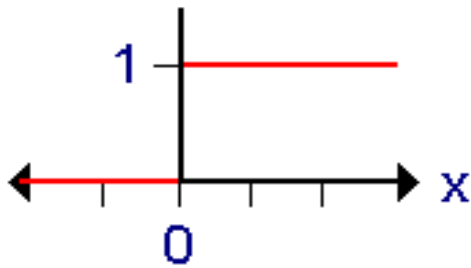
$$\text{comb}(x) \text{ or } \square\square(x) \leftrightarrow \text{comb}(u)$$



$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x-n)$$



$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2} \delta(u) - \frac{i}{2\pi u}$$



$$\delta(x-x_0) \leftrightarrow e^{-i \cdot 2\pi \cdot x_0 \cdot u}$$

# 1-D Fourier transform properties

If  $f(x) \leftrightarrow F(u)$  and  $h(x) \leftrightarrow H(u)$ ,

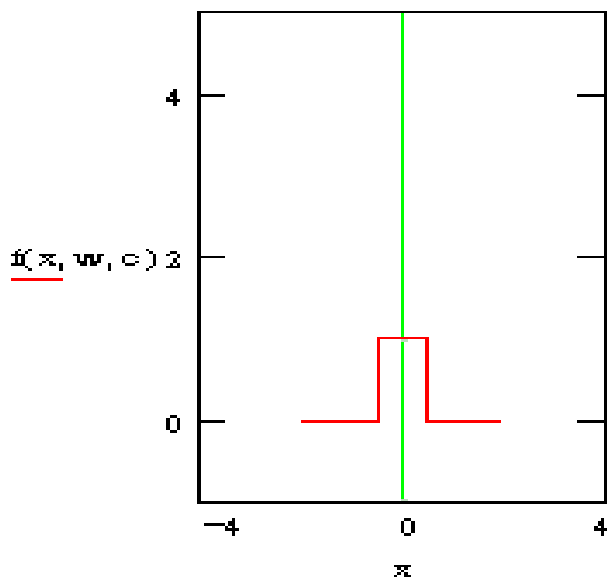
**Linearity:**  $af(x) + bh(x) \leftrightarrow aF(u) + bH(u)$

**Scaling:**  $f(ax) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{|a|} F\left(\frac{u}{a}\right)$



Fourier Scaling theorem.avi

**Shift:**  $f(x-a) \leftrightarrow F(u)e^{-i2\pi au}$



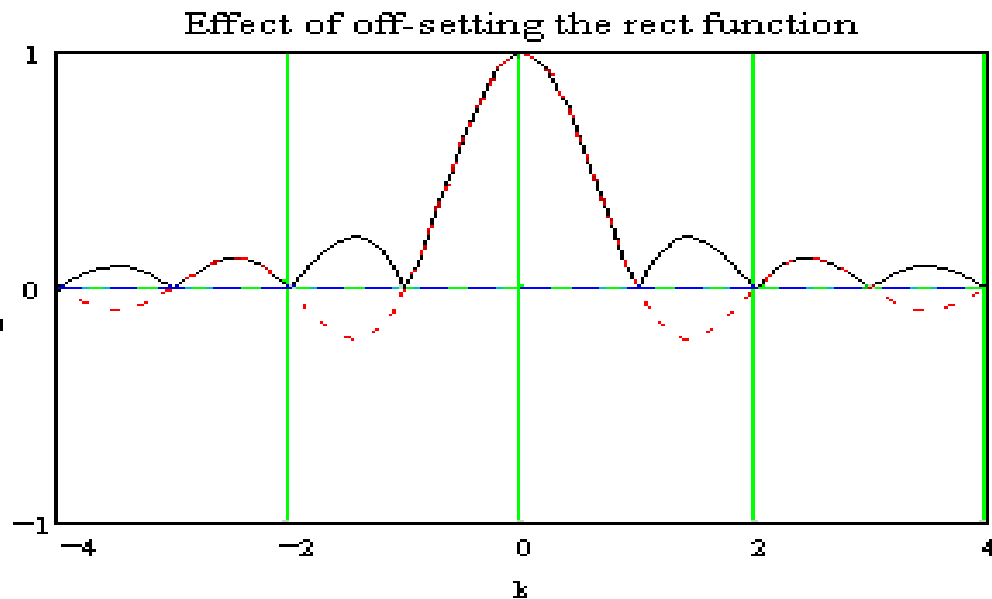
$w = 1$

$c = 0$

$|F(k)|$

$\text{Re}(F(k))$

$\text{Im}(F(k))$



## *1-D Fourier transform properties, continued.*

Say  $g(x) \leftrightarrow G(u)$ . Then,

**Derivative Theorem:**  $g'(x) \rightarrow i 2\pi u G(u)$

(Emphasizes higher frequencies – high pass filter)

**Integral Theorem:**  $\int_{-\infty}^x g(x) dx \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} G(u) \delta(u) + \frac{1}{i 2\pi u} G(u)$

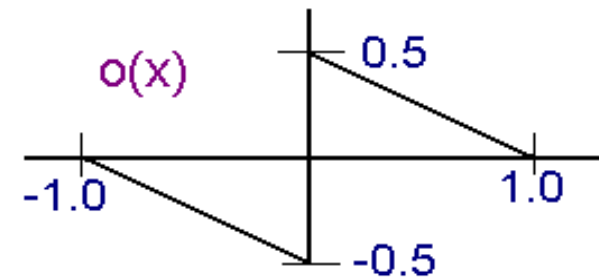
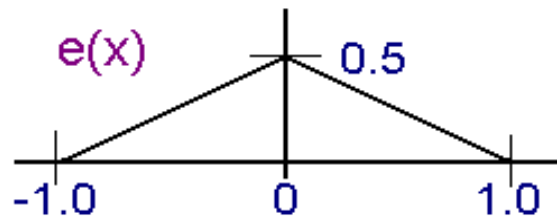
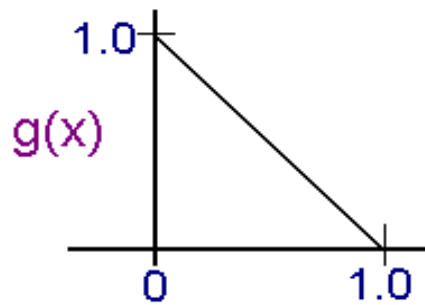
(Emphasizes lower frequencies – low pass filter)

## Even and odd functions and Fourier transforms

Any function  $g(x)$  can be uniquely decomposed into an even and odd function.

$$e(x) = \frac{1}{2}(g(x) + g(-x)) \quad o(x) = \frac{1}{2}(g(x) - g(-x))$$

For example,



$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e(x) dx = 2 \int_0^{\infty} e(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} o(x) dx = 0$$

$$e_1 + e_2 = \text{even}$$

$$o_1 + o_2 = \text{odd}$$

$$e_1 \cdot e_2 = \text{even}$$

$$o_1 \cdot o_2 = \text{even}$$

$$e_1 \cdot o_1 = \text{odd}$$

## *Fourier transforms of even and odd functions*

Consider the Fourier transforms of even and odd functions.

$$g(x) = e(x) + o(x)$$

$$G(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (e(x) + o(x)) \cos(2\pi \cdot u \cdot x) dx - i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (e(x) + o(x)) \sin(2\pi \cdot u \cdot x) dx$$

$$= 2 \int_0^{\infty} e(x) \cos(2\pi \cdot u \cdot x) dx - i \cdot 2 \int_0^{\infty} o(x) \sin(2\pi \cdot u \cdot x) dx$$

$$= E(u) - iO(u)$$

### Sidebar:

$E(u)$  and  $O(u)$  can both be complex if  $e(x)$  and  $o(x)$  are complex.

If  $g(x)$  is even, then  $G(u)$  is even.

If  $g(x)$  is odd, then  $G(u)$  is odd.



## Special Cases

For a real-valued  $g(x)$  (  $e(x)$  ,  $o(x)$  are both real ),

$$\operatorname{Re}\{G(u)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e(x) \cos(2\pi ux) dx$$

$$\operatorname{Im}\{G(u)\} = - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} o(x) \sin(2\pi ux) dx$$

Real part is even in  $u$                        $\operatorname{Re}\{G(u)\} = \operatorname{Re}\{G(-u)\}$

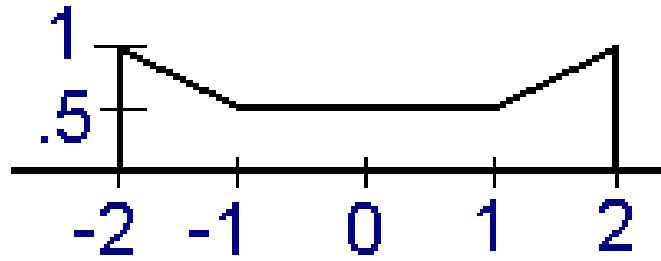
Imaginary part is odd in  $u$                        $\operatorname{Im}\{G(u)\} = -\operatorname{Im}\{G(-u)\}$

So,  $G(u) = G^*(-u)$ , which  
is the definition of

**Hermitian Symmetry:**  $G(u) = G^*(-u)$  (even in magnitude, odd in phase)

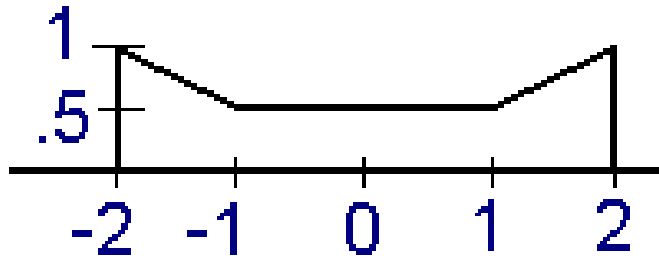
# Example problem

Find the Fourier transform of

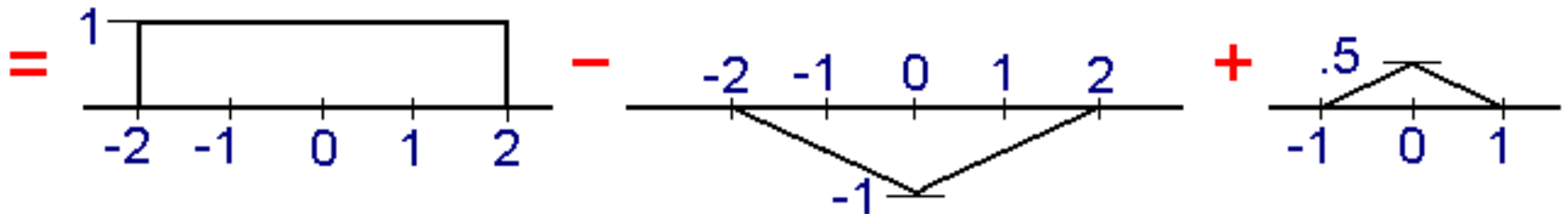


## Example problem: Answer.

Find the Fourier transform of



$$f(x) = \Pi(x/4) - \Lambda(x/2) + .5\Lambda(x)$$

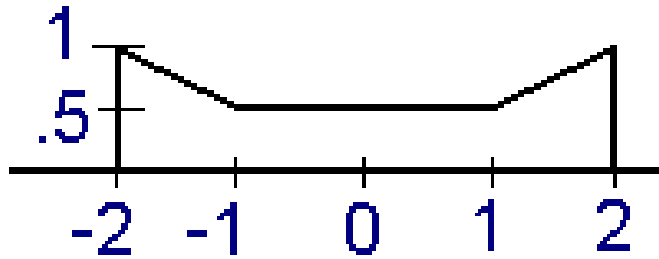


Using the Fourier transforms of  $\Pi$  and  $\Lambda$   
and the linearity and scaling properties,

$$F(u) = 4\text{sinc}(4u) - 2\text{sinc}^2(2u) + .5\text{sinc}^2(u)$$

## Example problem: Alternative Answer.

Find the Fourier transform of



$$f(x) = \Pi(x/4) - 0.5((\Pi(x/3) * \Pi(x)))$$

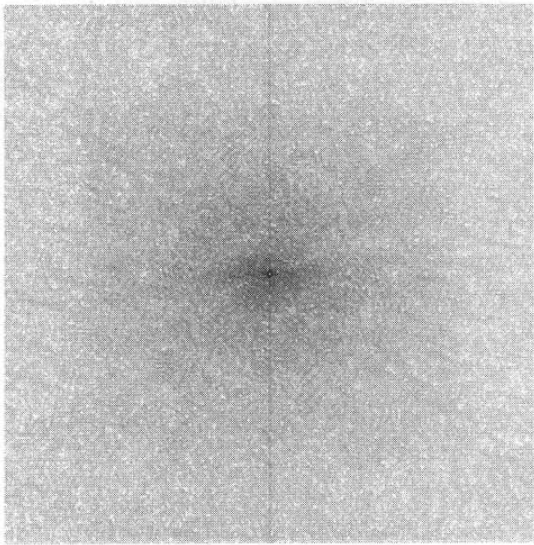
$$= \left[ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \text{---} \\ -2 \quad -1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \end{array} \right] - \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{---} \\ -2 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \end{array} * \begin{array}{c} \text{---} \\ -1 \quad -0.5 \quad 0 \quad 0.5 \quad 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Using the Fourier transforms of  $\Pi$  and  $\Lambda$   
and the linearity and scaling and convolution properties ,

$$F(u) = 4\text{sinc}(4u) - 1.5\text{sinc}(3u)\text{sinc}(u)$$

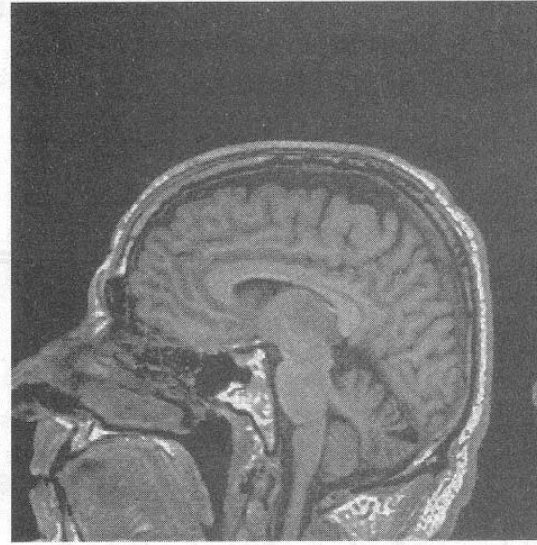
# 2D Fourier Transform

$$f(U, V) = \sum_{x=1}^N \sum_{y=0}^M f(x, y) e^{-2\pi i(Ux + Vy)}$$



**Original raw data**

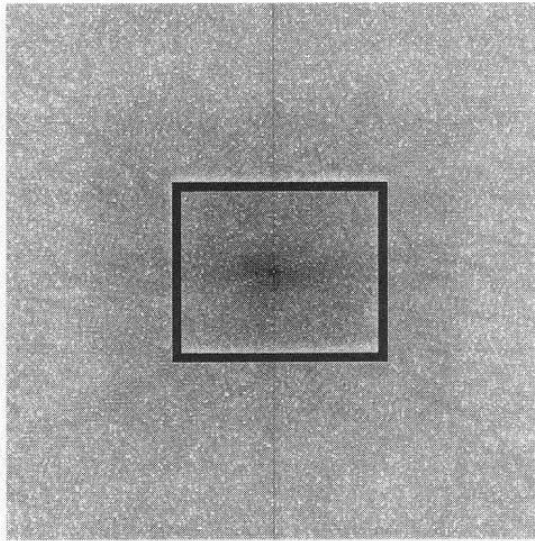
(a)



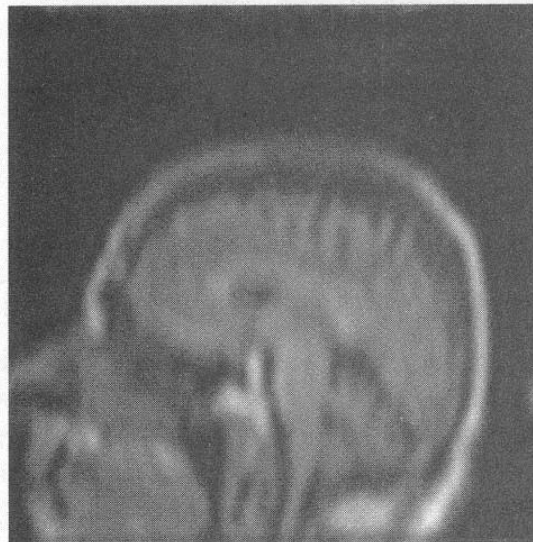
**Original base image**

(b)

**Figure 13-5.** (a) The original raw data (k-space) of (b) the original image (midline sagittal  $T_1$ -weighted image of the brain).

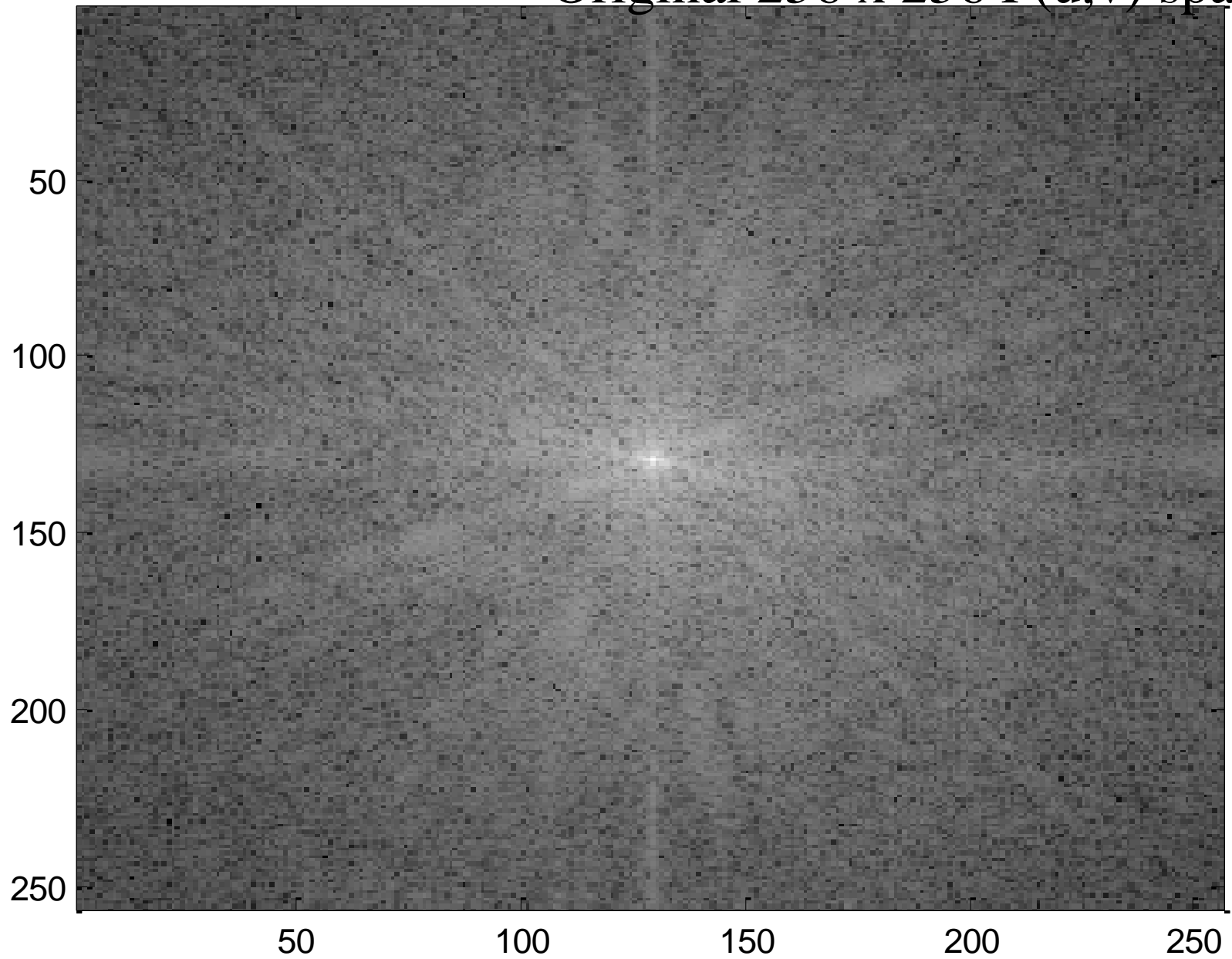


(a)

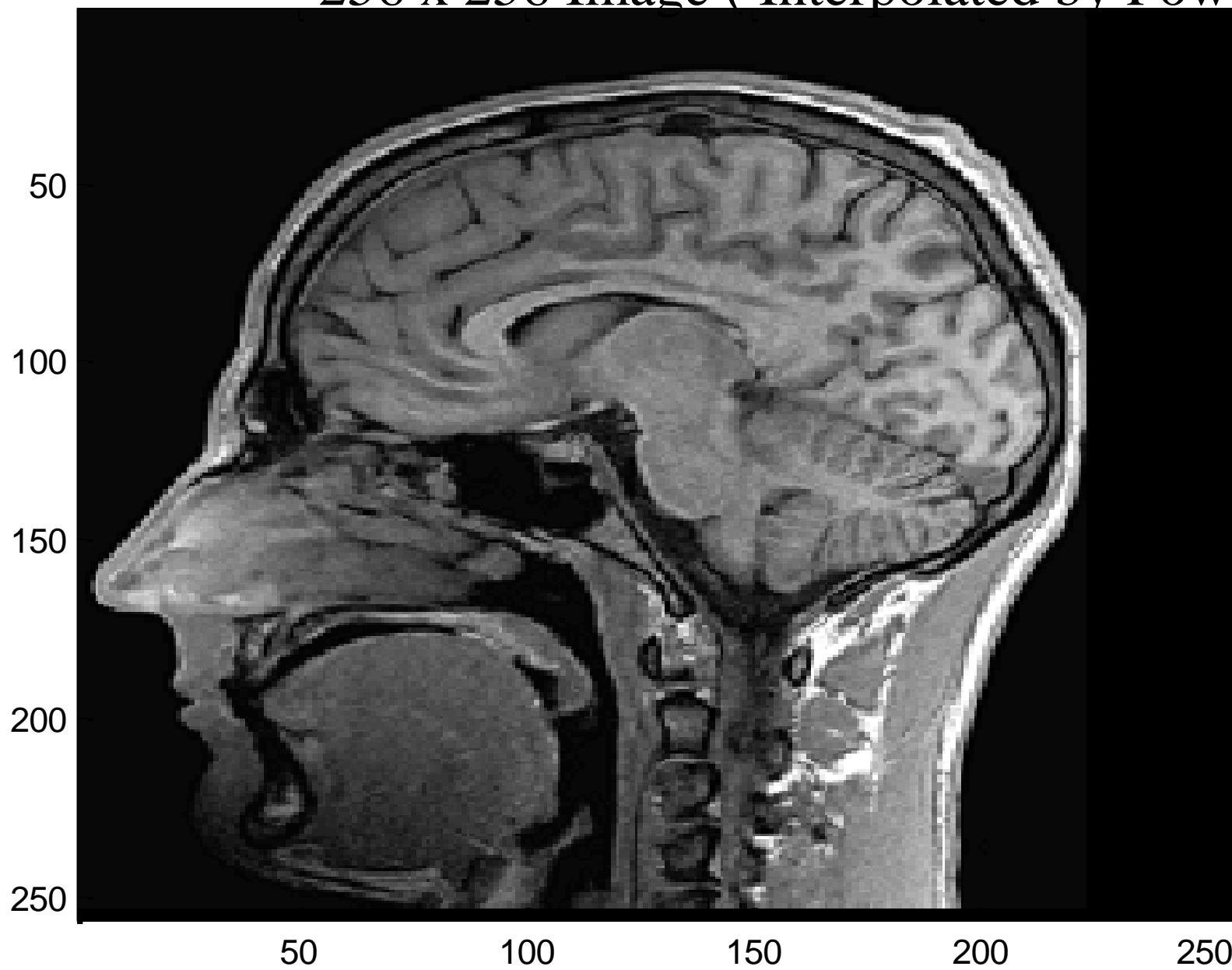


(b)

# Original 256 x 256 $F(u,v)$ space

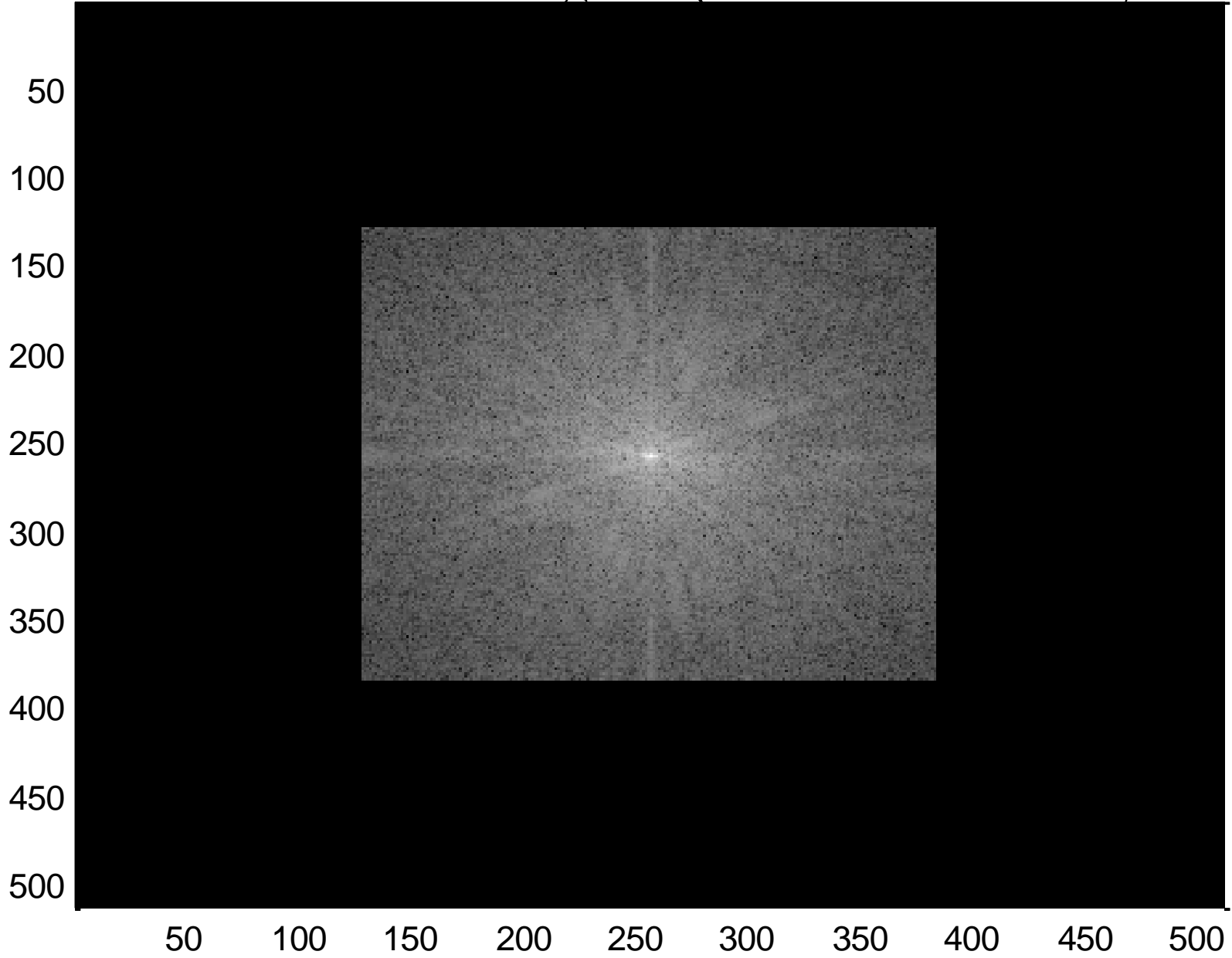


256 x 256 Image ( Interpolated by Powerpoint



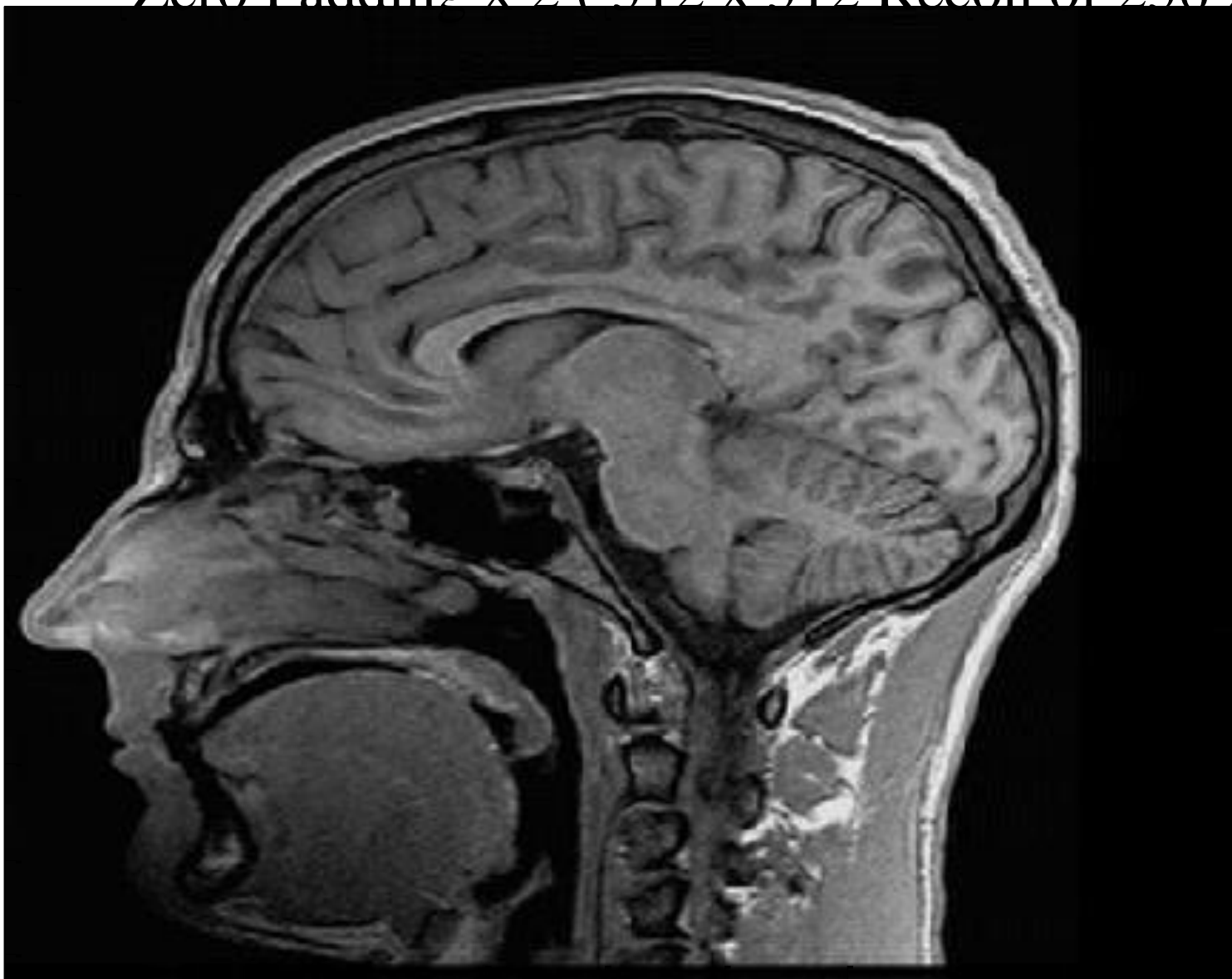


# Zero Padding x 2 ( 512 x 512 Recon, 256 x 256



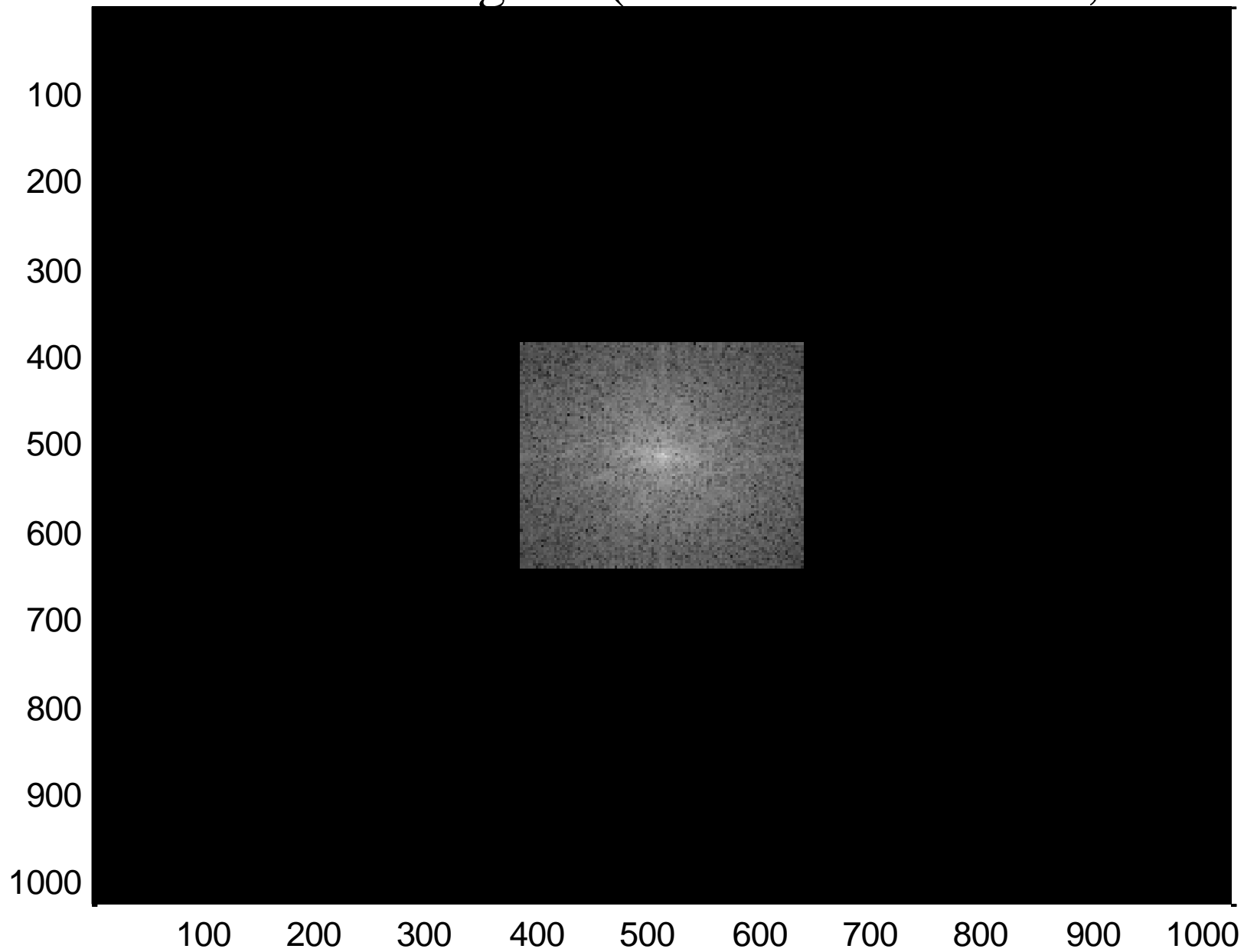
Zero Padding x 2 ( 512 x 512 Recon of 256 x 256 I

50  
100  
150  
200  
250  
300  
350  
400  
450  
500

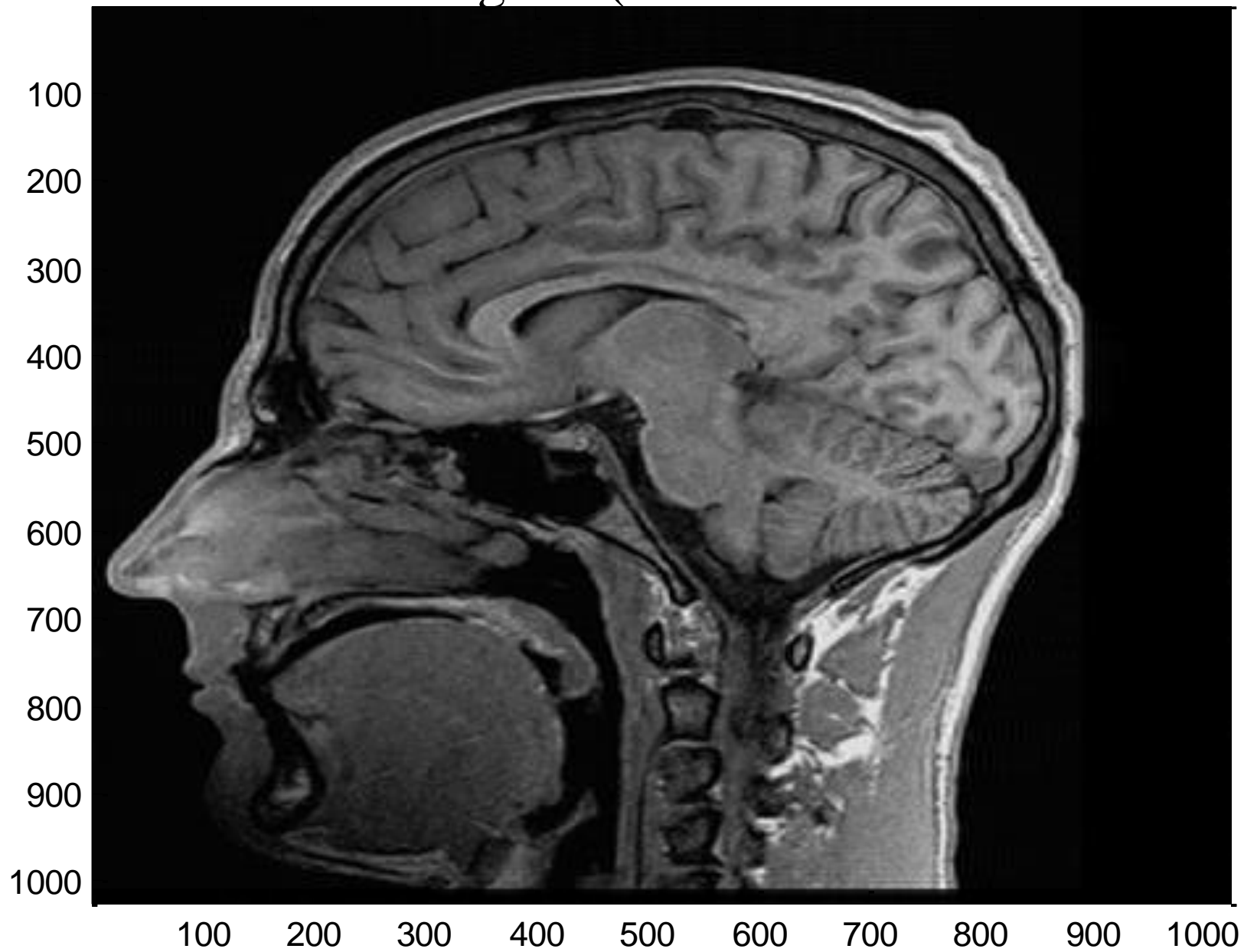


50 100 150 200 250 300 350 400 450 500

# Zero Padding x 4 ( 1024 x 1024 Recon, 256 x 256 I



Zero Padding x 4 ( 1024 x 1024 Recon of 256 x 256



# Discrete Fourier Transform

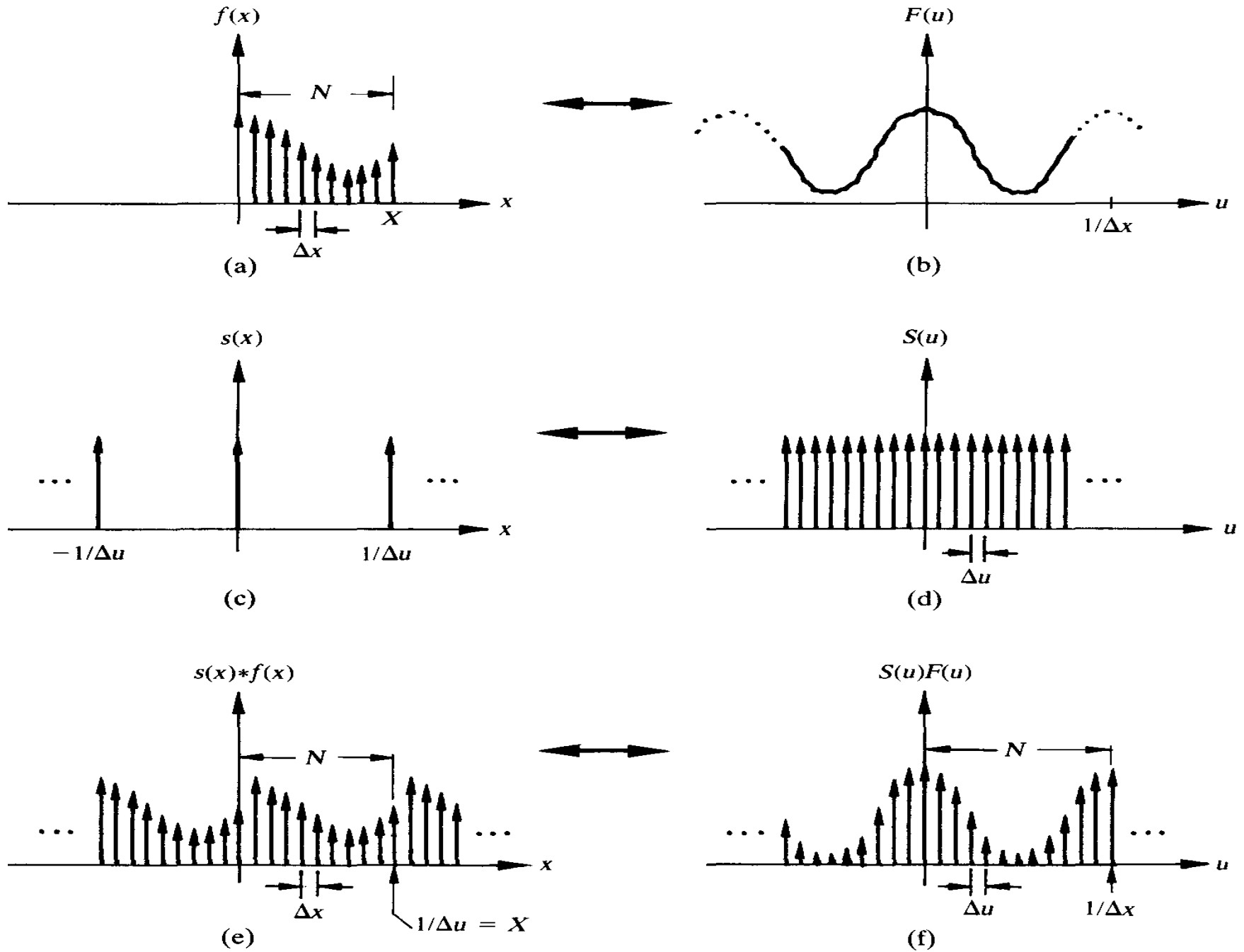
- تبدیل فوریه در مسائل طبیعی و عادی به صورت یک تخمین تحلیلی ریاضی (Analytic expression) بکار می رود.

- به این تخمین، تبدیل فوریه گسسته (Discrete Fourier Transform) می گویند.

- DFT، نسخه نمونه برداری شده FT (در گستره بی نهایت) است که از طریق تکرار (replication) بخشی از آن در محدوده نمونه برداری شده بدست می آید. لذا اطلاعات در فضای فرکانسی بصورت مجموعه گسسته نقاط در نظر گرفته می شود.

$$X_j = jDx, \quad j=0,1,2,\dots,N-1$$

$$U_n = nDU, \quad n=0,1,2,\dots,M-1$$



**Figure 3.19** *Graphic illustration of the discrete Fourier transform.*

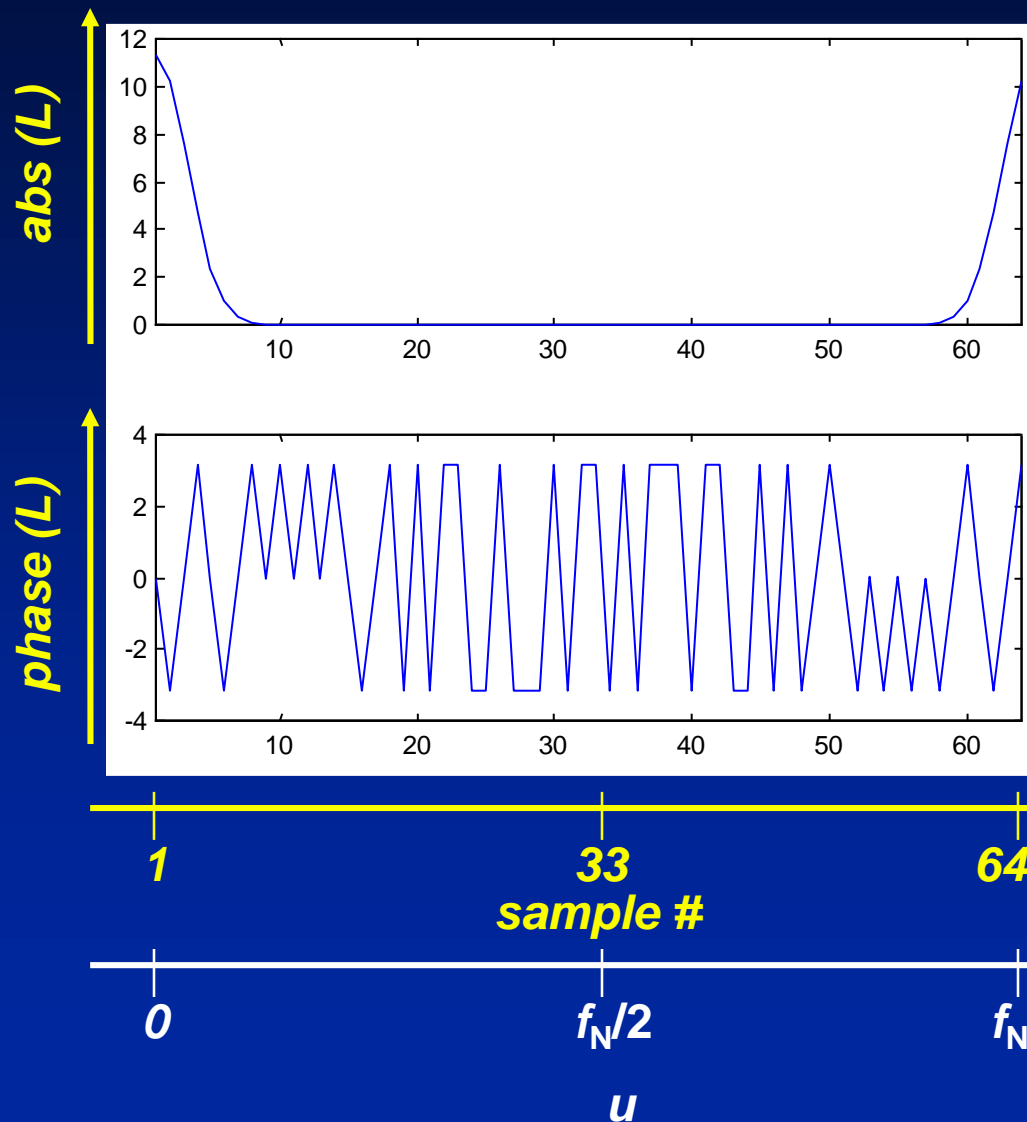
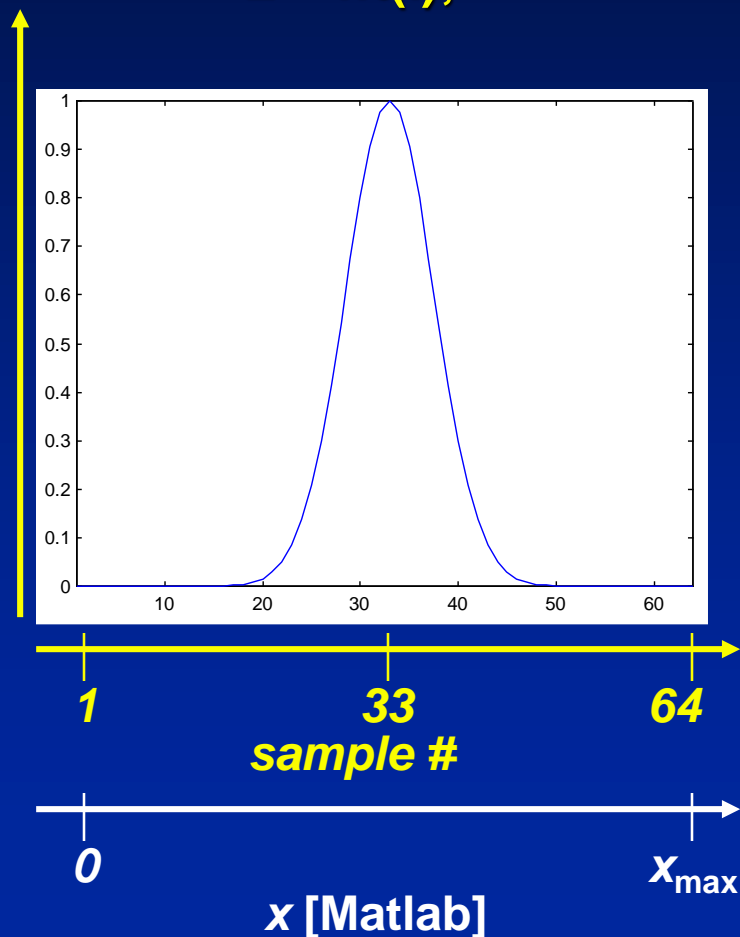
# FT Conventions - 1D in Matlab



## 1D Fourier Transform

➤ `>> I = z(33,:);`

➤ `>> L = fft(I);`

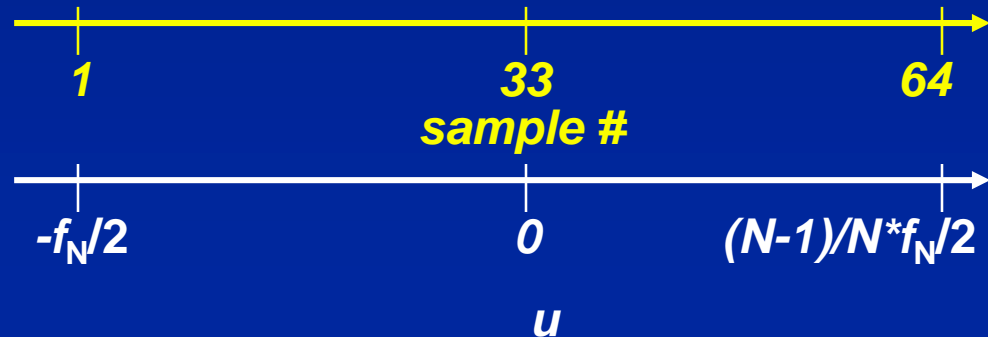
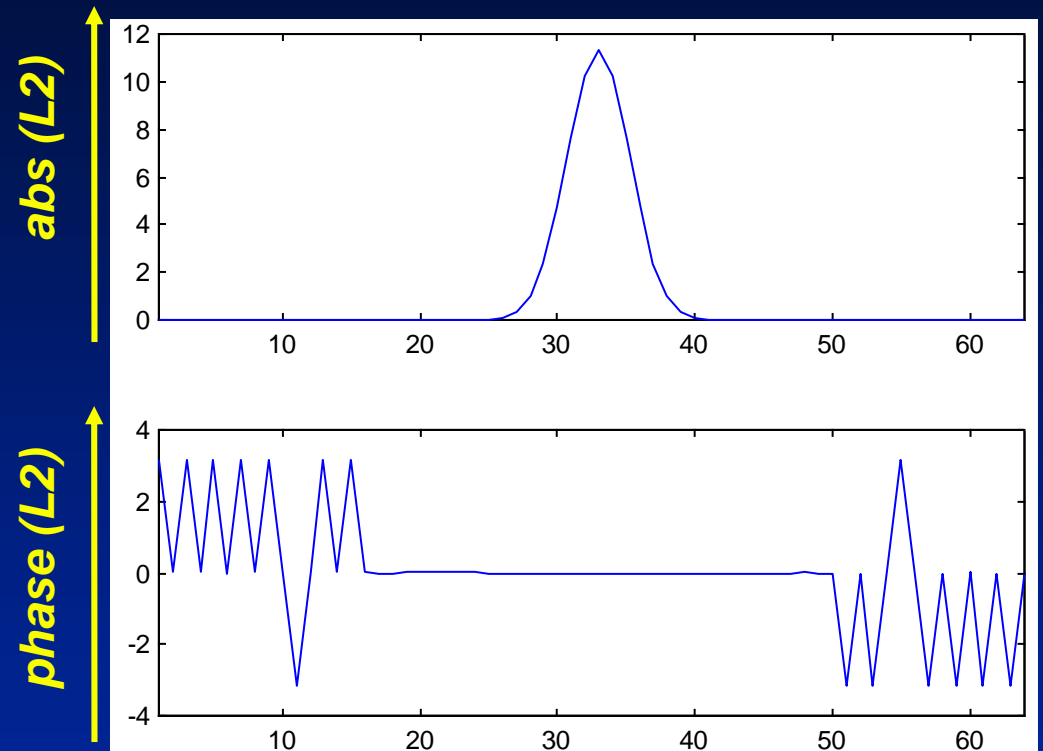


# 1D FT - 2xfftshift



## Center Fourier Domain

$\rightarrow \gg L2 =$   
`fftshift(fft(I));`



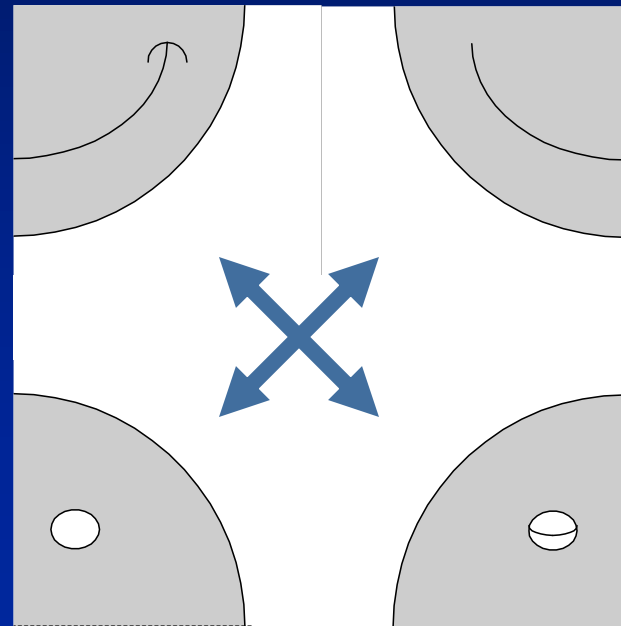
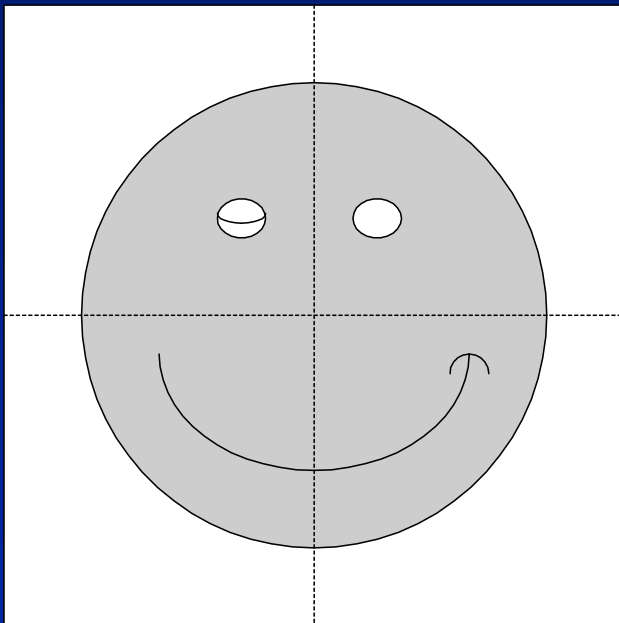


# fftshift in 2D



Use fftshift for 2D functions

```
➤ >>smiley2 = fftshift(smiley);
```

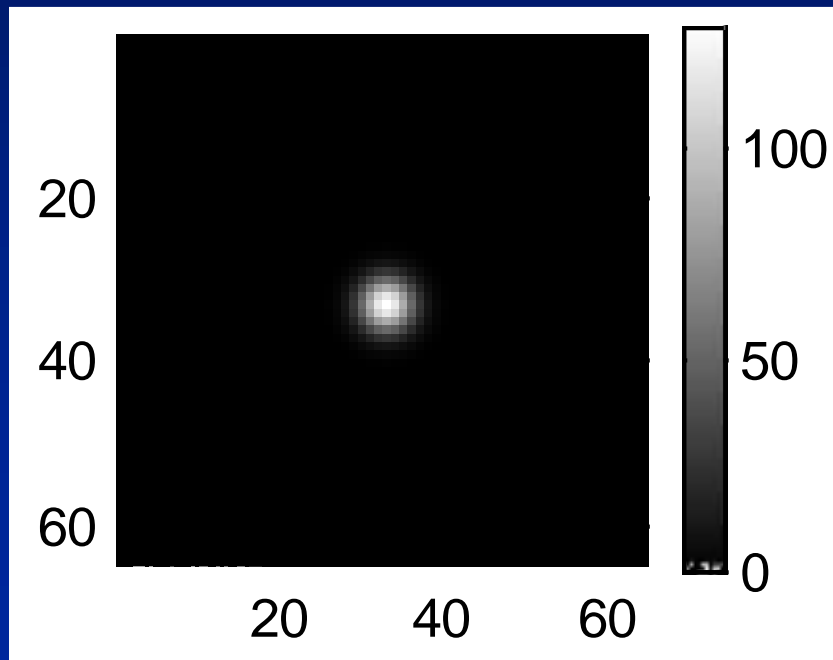


# 2D Discrete Fourier Transform

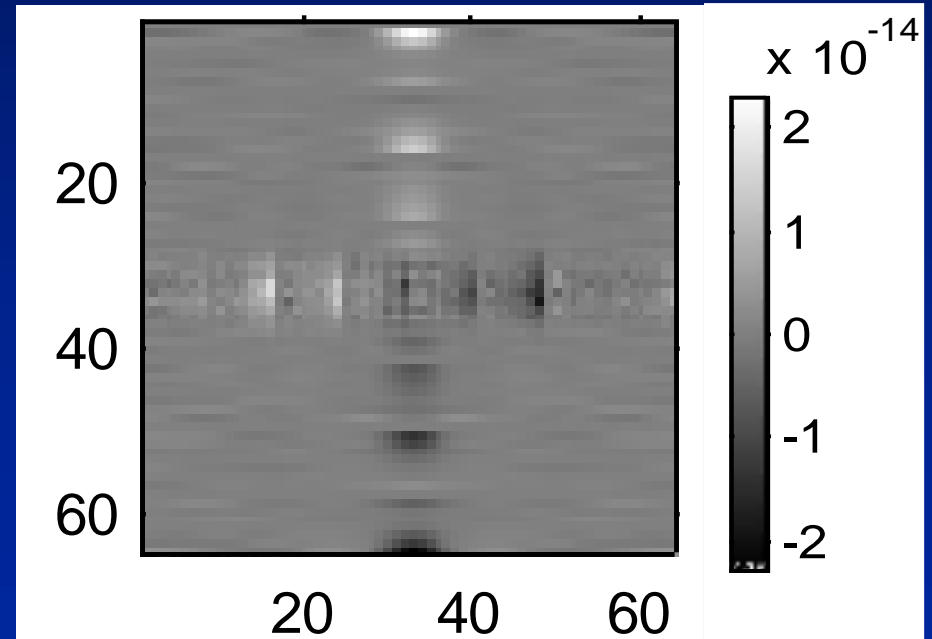


```
>> Z=fftshift(fft2(z));  
>> whos  
>> figure  
>> imshow(real(Z))  
>> imshow(real(Z),[])  
>> colorbar
```

```
>> figure  
>> imshow(imag(Z),[])  
>> colorbar
```



**Real (Z)**



**Imag (Z)**

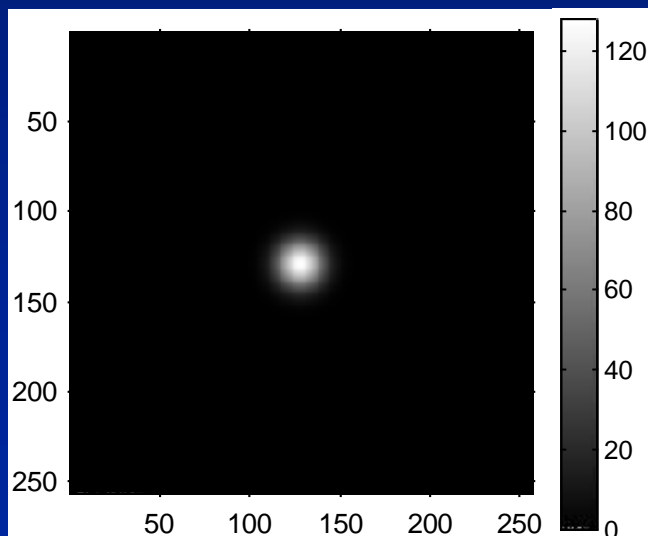
# 2D DFT - Zero Filling



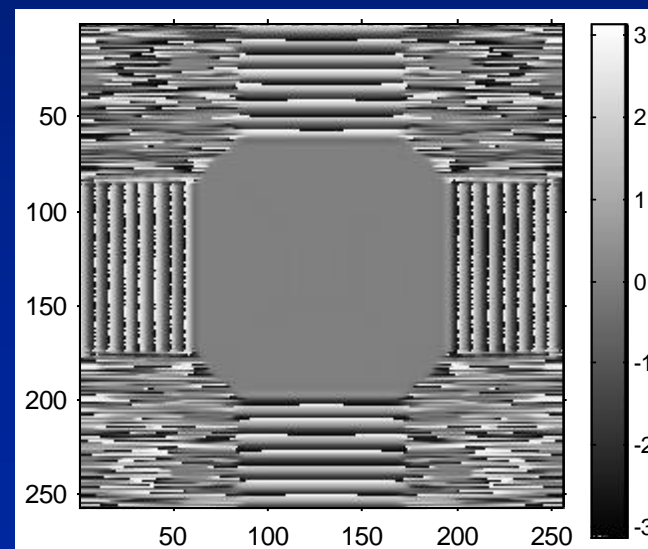
## Interpolating Fourier space by zerofilling in image space

```
>>z_zf = zeros(256);  
>>z_zf(97:160,97:160) = z;  
>>Z_ZF = fftshift(fft2(z_zf));  
>>figure  
>>imshow(abs(Z_ZF),[])  
>>colorbar
```

```
>>figure  
>>imshow(angle(Z_ZF),[])  
>>colorbar
```



Magnitude (Z\_ZF)



Phase (Z\_ZF)

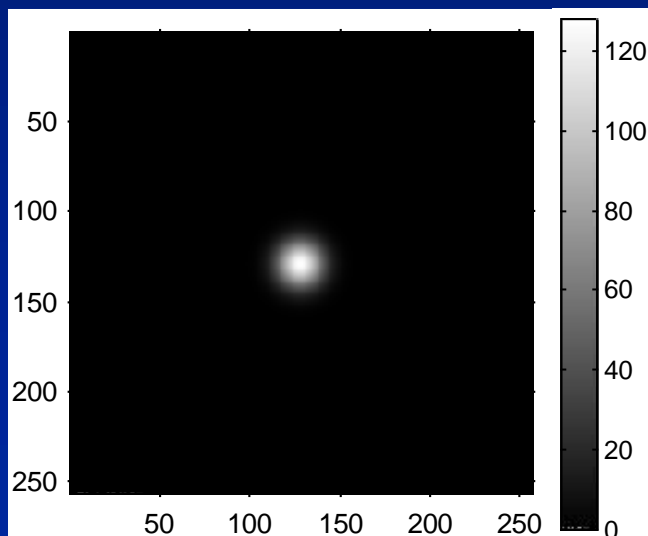
# 2D DFT - Voxel Shifts



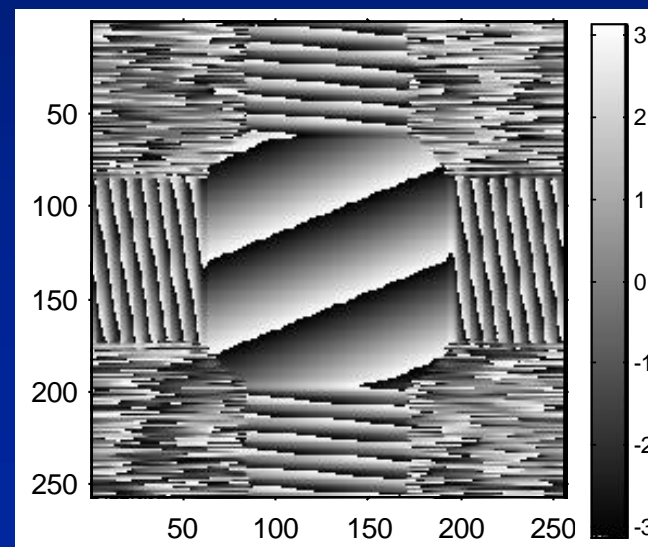
## Shift image: 5 voxels up and 2 voxels left

```
>>z_s = zeros(256);  
>>z_s(92:155,95:158) = z;  
>>Z_S = fftshift(fft2(z_s));  
>>figure  
>>imshow(abs(Z_S),[])  
>>colorbar
```

```
>>figure  
>>imshow(angle(Z_S),[  
    ])  
>>colorbar
```



Magnitude (Z\_S)



Phase (Z\_S)