

## Lecture 4:

# Image Transformations I: Continuous Fourier Transform

### Contents

1. Motivation
2. Complex Numbers
3. Prerequisites from Linear Algebra
4. Continuous Fourier Transform in 1-D
5. Continuous Fourier Transform in 2-D
6. Properties

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## Recently on IPCV ...

- ◆ visible light: **electromagnetic waves** that illuminate objects
- ◆ Human **colour perception** is based on three cone types.
- ◆ They correspond to the three primary colours red, green, and blue. Their additive blend creates other colour impressions.
- ◆ technical realisation: **RGB** colour space.
- ◆ for printers and copiers: subtractive **CMY** and **CMYK** colour spaces
- ◆ **HSV** colour space: cylindrical representation, useful for illumination changes
- ◆ **YCbCr**: separates luma from chroma information, useful later for compression

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**Motivation (1)**

This lecture is the first of a series of four lectures that take you to a desert ride. At first glance, the desert looks dry and dusty, but you will see structures much clearer. Your math knowledge is your survival kit. Source: <https://morocco-places.com>.

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## Motivation

- ◆ Transformations are useful for analysing the properties of images and processing them in an efficient way.
- ◆ For analysing audio signals, a decomposition into their frequencies is very natural.
- ◆ Similar things can be done with images, which can be seen as 2-D signals:
  - They can be decomposed into their frequency content in  $x$ - and  $y$ -direction.
  - useful for many things, e.g. filter design and fast convolution algorithms
- ◆ **Fourier transform:** Represents signals in terms of their frequencies.
  - It can be regarded as a change of basis.
  - Trigonometric basis functions represent different frequencies.
- ◆ To understand this, we first have to remember two concepts:
  - complex numbers for writing trigonometric functions more compactly
  - representations of vectors in orthonormal bases

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Joseph Fourier (1768–1830) did not only discover the so-called Fourier transform, he also introduced the diffusion equation, made archeological discoveries in Egypt, and acted as a prefect in Grenoble.  
Source: [http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Joseph\\_Fourier](http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Joseph_Fourier).

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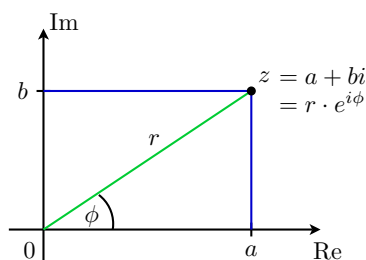
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## Complex Numbers (1)

## Complex Numbers

- ◆ The set  $\mathbb{C}$  of complex numbers extends the set  $\mathbb{R}$  of real numbers. It allows to compute the square root of a negative number.
- ◆ A complex number  $z = a + bi \in \mathbb{C}$  consists of two parts: a **real part**  $\operatorname{Re}(z) := a \in \mathbb{R}$  and an **imaginary part**  $\operatorname{Im}(z) := b \in \mathbb{R}$ . The number  $i$  denotes the **imaginary unit**. It satisfies  $i^2 = -1$ .
- ◆ The **conjugate complex number** of  $z = a + bi$  is defined as  $\bar{z} := a - bi$ .
- ◆  $a + bi$  may also be identified with a vector  $(a, b)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . This is its so-called **Cartesian representation**.




A complex number in Cartesian and polar form (see later). Later on we will need that  $\cos \phi = \frac{a}{r}$ .

Author: M. Mainberger.

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## Complex Numbers (2)

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- ◆ Addition and subtraction of complex numbers is done componentwise:

$$\begin{aligned}(a + bi) + (c + di) &= (a + c) + (b + d)i, \\ (a + bi) - (c + di) &= (a - c) + (b - d)i.\end{aligned}$$

- ◆ Multiplication uses  $i^2 = -1$ :

$$\begin{aligned}(a + bi) \cdot (c + di) &= ac + adi + bci + \textcolor{red}{bdi}^2 \\ &= (ac - \textcolor{red}{bd}) + (ad + bc)i.\end{aligned}$$

- ◆ Division expands the fraction by the complex conjugate of the denominator:

$$\frac{a + bi}{c + di} = \frac{(a + bi) \cdot (\textcolor{red}{c} - \textcolor{red}{di})}{(c + di) \cdot (\textcolor{red}{c} - \textcolor{red}{di})} = \frac{ac + bd}{c^2 + d^2} + \frac{bc - ad}{c^2 + d^2}i.$$


- ◆ The *norm (modulus, magnitude)* of a complex number  $z = a + ib$  is given by

$$|z| := \sqrt{z\bar{z}} = \sqrt{(a + bi)(a - bi)} = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2i^2} = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}.$$

It coincides with the Euclidean norm of the vector  $(a, b)^\top$  in Cartesian form.

Note that  $\sqrt{z\bar{z}} = \sqrt{a^2 + 2abi - b^2}$  would not give the desired result  $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ .

## Complex Numbers (3)

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- ◆ With the power series representations

$$e^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}, \quad \cos x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k}}{(2k)!}, \quad \sin x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}$$

one obtains the very important *Euler's formula*

$$e^{i\phi} = \cos \phi + i \sin \phi.$$

- ◆ Euler's formula implies that  $e^{i\phi}$  lies on the unit circle,

$$|e^{i\phi}| = \sqrt{\cos^2 \phi + \sin^2 \phi} = 1 \quad \forall \phi,$$

and is  $2\pi$ -periodic:

$$e^{i(\phi+2k\pi)} = e^{i\phi} \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

- ◆ Writing down Euler's formula for  $\phi$  and  $-\phi$  and remembering that  $\sin(-\phi) = -\sin \phi$  and  $\cos(-\phi) = \cos \phi$  yields two useful results:

$$\cos \phi = \frac{e^{i\phi} + e^{-i\phi}}{2}, \quad \sin \phi = \frac{e^{i\phi} - e^{-i\phi}}{2i}.$$

## Complex Numbers (4)

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- ◆ One can express any nonzero complex number  $z = a + bi$  in its *polar form*

$$z = r e^{i\phi}$$

with radius  $r := |z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$  and *argument* (angle between  $z$  and real axis)

$$\phi := \arg(z) := \begin{cases} \arccos\left(\frac{a}{r}\right) & \text{if } b \geq 0, \\ -\arccos\left(\frac{a}{r}\right) & \text{if } b < 0. \end{cases}$$

This representation gives a polar angle  $\phi \in (-\pi, \pi]$ .

(Note that the  $\arccos$  function always yields values in  $[0, \pi]$ .)

- ◆ The polar form is convenient for multiplications,

$$z_1 z_2 = |z_1| |z_2| e^{i(\phi_1 + \phi_2)},$$

and for raising a complex number to some power  $p$ :

$$z^p = |z|^p e^{ip\phi}.$$

In polar form, the complex conjugate of  $z = r e^{i\phi}$  is given by  $\bar{z} = r e^{-i\phi}$ .

## Outline

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### Image Transformations I: Continuous Fourier Transform

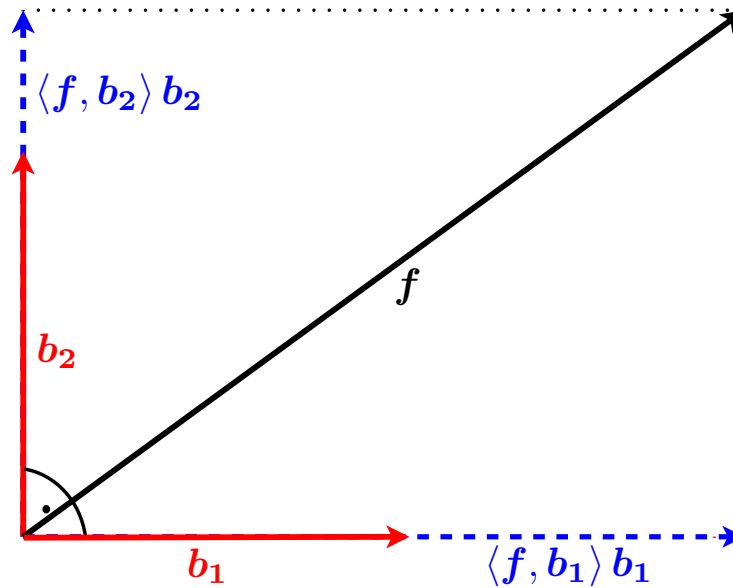
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## Prerequisites from Linear Algebra



A vector  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  can be represented in an arbitrary orthonormal (orthogonal with norm 1) basis  $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  by the formula  $\mathbf{f} = \langle \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{b}_1 \rangle \mathbf{b}_1 + \langle \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{b}_2 \rangle \mathbf{b}_2$ . This insight can be generalised. It will be very useful for us in this and the next three lectures. Author: P. Peter.

## Prerequisites from Linear Algebra (2)

- ◆ Expressing a vector  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{R}^N$  in an orthonormal basis  $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_N\}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^N$  gives

$$\mathbf{f} = \sum_{k=1}^N \langle \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{b}_k \rangle \mathbf{b}_k$$

where  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  denotes the *Euclidean inner product (euklidisches Skalarprodukt)*:

$$\langle \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g} \rangle := \sum_{j=1}^N f_j g_j.$$

The coefficient  $\langle \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{b}_k \rangle$  quantifies the projection of  $\mathbf{f}$  onto the basis vector  $\mathbf{b}_k$ : It tells us how much of the vector  $\mathbf{b}_k$  is contained in  $\mathbf{f}$ .

- ◆ For a complex-valued vector  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{C}^N$ , one must use the *Hermitian inner product*

$$\langle \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g} \rangle := \sum_{j=1}^N f_j \bar{g}_j$$

where  $\bar{g}_j$  is the complex conjugate of  $g_j$ .

Complex conjugation allows to define the norm of  $\mathbf{f}$  via  $|\mathbf{f}| := \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f} \rangle}$ .

## Prerequisites from Linear Algebra (3)



- ◆ An  $N$ -dimensional vector  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{R}^N$  has  $N$  components  $\{f_j \mid j = 1, \dots, N\}$ .  
A function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  has infinitely many values  $\{f(x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ .  
In this sense it can be interpreted as an “infinite-dimensional vector”.
- ◆ Representing  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with an infinite set of orthonormal basis functions  $\{b_u \mid u \in \mathbb{R}\}$  yields

$$f = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle f, b_u \rangle b_u du$$

with the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle := \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) g(x) dx.$$

The coefficient  $\langle f, b_u \rangle$  quantifies the projection of  $f$  onto the basis function  $b_u$ .  
It measures how much of the function  $b_u$  is contained in  $f$ .

- ◆ For complex-valued functions  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  one uses the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle := \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \bar{g}(x) dx.$$

Note again the complex conjugation.

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## Continuous Fourier Transform in 1-D

### Goals

- ◆ decompose a signal into its frequency components
- ◆ compute convolutions in a highly efficient way
- ◆ have an ideal tool for analysing and designing linear shift-invariant filters (later)

### Basic Intuition

- ◆ express a 1-D signal  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  in a specific basis  $\{b_u \mid u \in \mathbb{R}\}$ :

$$f = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle f, b_u \rangle b_u du$$

- ◆ choose basis functions  $\{b_u \mid u \in \mathbb{R}\}$  such that they represent all frequencies  $u$
- ◆ coefficient  $\langle f, b_u \rangle$  measures the content of the frequency  $u$  within  $f$

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### How to Choose the Basis Functions

- ◆ To represent a function  $f$  in terms of its frequencies, a natural idea would be to use trigonometric functions of cosine and sine type:

$$c_u(x) = \cos(2\pi ux),$$

$$s_u(x) = \sin(2\pi ux),$$

where  $u$  denotes the frequency (number of oscillations within  $x$ -interval  $[0, 1]$ ).

- ◆ Since we are lazy, we combine  $c_u(x)$  and  $s_u(x)$  with Euler's formula:  
We use them as real and imaginary part of the complex-valued function

$$b_u(x) = c_u(x) + i s_u(x) = e^{2\pi i u x}.$$

This creates our set  $\{b_u \mid u \in \mathbb{R}\}$  of basis functions.

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## Continuous Fourier Transform in 1-D (3)



### The Fourier Transform

- ◆ The Fourier transform yields the coefficient  $\hat{f}(u) := \langle f, b_u \rangle$  for each frequency  $u$ . This coefficient measures the contribution of a frequency  $u$  to the signal  $f$ .
- ◆ The *Fourier transform (FT)* of a 1-D function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined as

$$\hat{f}(u) := \mathcal{F}[f](u) := \langle f, b_u \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i2\pi ux} dx.$$

- ◆ Note that the minus sign comes from the complex conjugation of  $b_u(x) = e^{2\pi iux}$ .
- ◆  $\{\hat{f}(u) \mid u \in \mathbb{R}\}$  is the desired representation of the function  $\{f(x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$  in the *frequency domain (Fourier domain)*.

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## Continuous Fourier Transform in 1-D (4)



### Remarks on the Complex-Valuedness

The Fourier transform is complex-valued:

- ◆  $\text{Re}(\hat{f}(u))$  measures the contribution of the function  $c_u(x) = \cos(2\pi ux)$  to  $f(x)$ . It vanishes for odd signals  $f(x)$  ( $f(x) = -f(-x)$ ), since cosine is even.
- ◆  $\text{Im}(\hat{f}(u))$  measures the contribution of the function  $s_u(x) = \sin(2\pi ux)$  to  $f(x)$ . It vanishes for even signals  $f(x)$ , i.e.  $f(x) = f(-x)$ , since the sine is odd.

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## The Polar Form and Fourier Spectra

- ◆ The polar form of  $\hat{f}(u)$  gives useful insights.
- ◆ The magnitude  $|\hat{f}(u)|$  is called *Fourier spectrum (Fourierspektrum)*. It expresses the total importance of the frequency  $u$  within the signal  $f$ .
- ◆ The angle  $\phi(u) = \arg(\hat{f}(u))$  is called the *phase angle (Phasenwinkel)*. It characterises the phase shift relative to a cosine function:
  - $\phi(u) = 0$  corresponds to the pure cosine function  $c_u(x) = \cos(2\pi ux)$ .
  - $\phi(u) = \frac{\pi}{2}$  corresponds to the pure sine function  $s_u(x) = \sin(2\pi ux)$ .
  - An arbitrary angle  $\phi(u)$  corresponds to the function  $t_{u,\phi}(x) = \cos(2\pi ux - \phi)$ .
- ◆ Often one is only interested in the Fourier spectrum  $|\hat{f}(u)|$ . Also the so-called *power spectrum (Powerspektrum)*  $|\hat{f}(u)|^2$  is popular.

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## The Inverse Fourier Transform

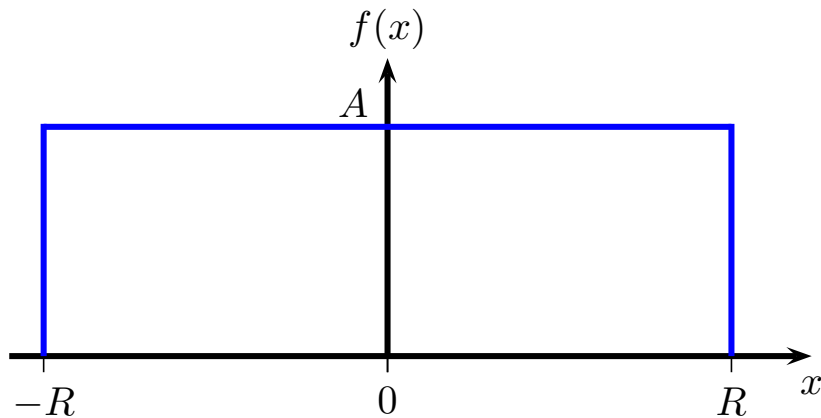
- ◆ The goal of the inverse Fourier transform is to synthesise the signal  $f$  from its Fourier coefficients  $\hat{f}(u) = \langle f, b_u \rangle$ .
- ◆ Thus, we have to use the formula  $f = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle f, b_u \rangle b_u du$  with  $b_u = e^{2\pi i u x}$ .
- ◆ The *inverse 1-D Fourier transform* of  $\hat{f}(u)$  is defined as

$$f(x) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}[\hat{f}](x) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(u) e^{i2\pi ux} du.$$

- ◆ Note that there is no minus sign here.

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## Example: Fourier Transform of a Box Function



A box function. Author: M. Mainberger.

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- ◆ For  $u \neq 0$ , the Fourier transform of this box function is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{f}(u) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i2\pi ux} dx = \int_{-R}^R A e^{-i2\pi ux} dx \\
 &= A \left[ \frac{-1}{i2\pi u} e^{-i2\pi ux} \right]_{-R}^R \\
 &= \frac{-A}{i2\pi u} (e^{-i2\pi uR} - e^{i2\pi uR}) = \frac{A}{i2\pi u} (e^{i2\pi uR} - e^{-i2\pi uR}) \\
 &= \frac{A}{i2\pi u} 2i \sin(2\pi uR) = \frac{A}{\pi u} \sin(2\pi uR).
 \end{aligned}$$

- ◆ For  $u = 0$ , we directly get

$$\hat{f}(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i2\pi 0x} dx = A [x]_{-R}^R = 2RA.$$

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## Continuous Fourier Transform in 1-D (8)

- ◆ Note that  $\hat{f}(u)$  is real-valued, since  $f(x)$  is an even function.
- ◆ For  $u \neq 0$ , the Fourier spectrum is given by

$$|\hat{f}(u)| = \left| \frac{A}{\pi u} \right| |\sin(2\pi u R)| = 2RA \left| \frac{\sin(2\pi u R)}{2\pi u R} \right|$$

- ◆ Furthermore we have  $|\hat{f}(0)| = 2RA$ .
- ◆ With the so-called *sinc function*

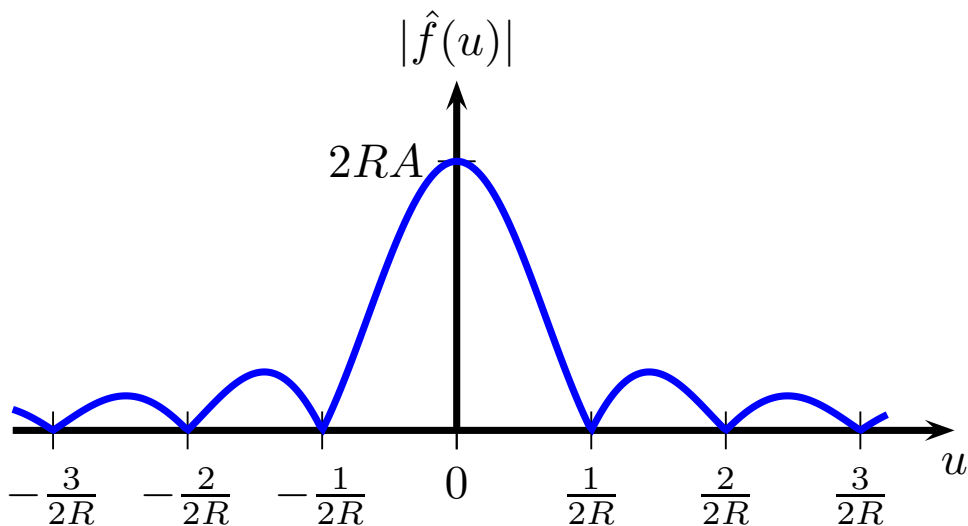
$$\text{sinc}(x) := \begin{cases} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} & x \neq 0, \\ 1 & x = 0. \end{cases}$$

we obtain

$$|\hat{f}(u)| = 2RA |\text{sinc}(2\pi u R)|$$

- ◆ The sinc function satisfies  $\text{sinc}(0) = 1$  and  $\text{sinc}(k\pi) = 0$  for  $k \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ .
- ◆ Thus,  $|\hat{f}(u)|$  satisfies  $|\hat{f}(0)| = 2RA$  and  $|\hat{f}(\frac{k}{2R})| = 0$  with  $k \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ .

## Continuous Fourier Transform in 1-D (9)



Fourier spectrum  $|\hat{f}(u)|$  of the box function. Author: M. Mainberger.

### Remark:

- ◆ While the box function  $f(x)$  has finite extent in the spatial domain, its Fourier transform  $\hat{f}(u)$  has infinite extent in the frequency domain.

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## Continuous Fourier Transform in 2-D (1)

## Continuous Fourier Transform in 2-D

## Definition

- ◆ The *Fourier transform (FT)* of a 2-D function  $f(x, y)$  is defined as

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

where  $u$  and  $v$  are the frequencies in  $x$ - and  $y$ -direction.

- ◆ The *inverse 2-D Fourier transform* is given by

$$f(x, y) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}[\hat{f}](x, y) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(u, v) e^{i2\pi(ux+vy)} du dv.$$

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## Continuous Fourier Transform in 2-D (2)

### Don't Fear High Dimensions!

- ◆ In higher dimensions the definition proceeds in the same way.
- ◆ Because of

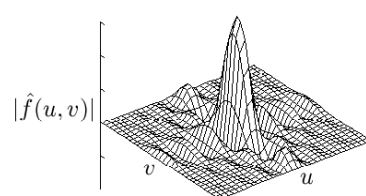
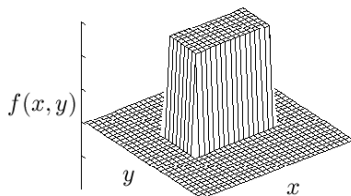
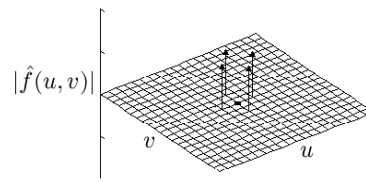
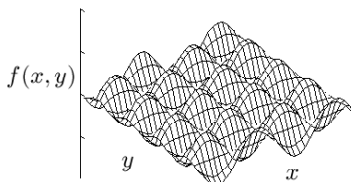
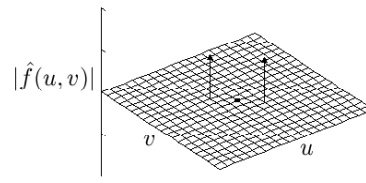
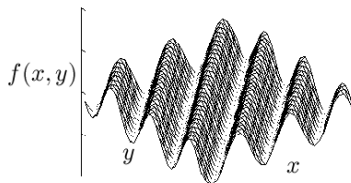
$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) e^{-i2\pi(ux+vy)} dx dy \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) e^{-i2\pi ux} dx \right) e^{-i2\pi vy} dy \end{aligned}$$

it follows that the Fourier transform is *separable*:

- First compute the Fourier transform in  $x$ -direction.  
Then apply the Fourier transform in  $y$ -direction to this result.
- An  $m$ -dimensional Fourier transform is computed via a sequence of  $m$  one-dimensional transforms.
- This is computationally very nice and greatly reduces the workload.

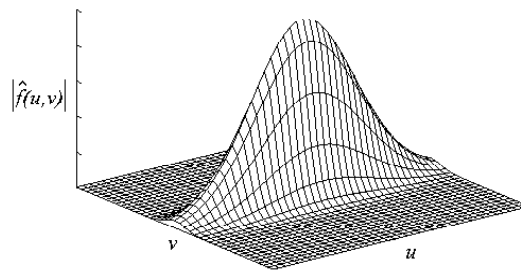
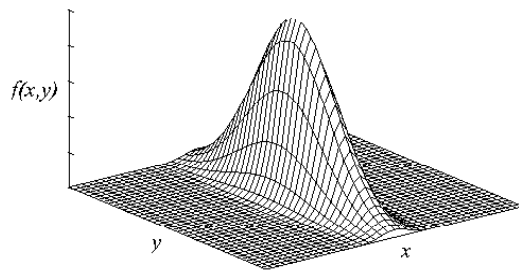
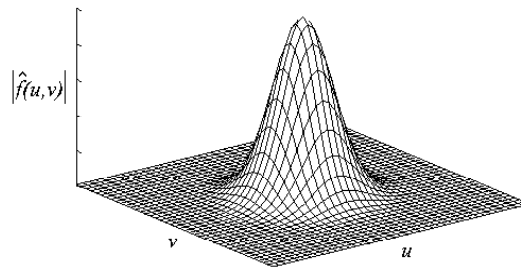
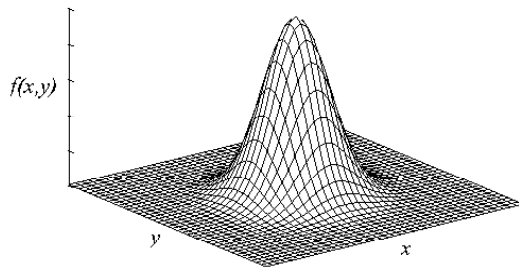
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## Continuous Fourier Transform in 2-D (3)



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Further 2-D Fourier spectra. Author: N. Khan.

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## Outline

### Lecture 4:

### Image Transformations I: Continuous Fourier Transform

#### Contents

1. Motivation
2. Complex Numbers
3. Prerequisites from Linear Algebra
4. Continuous Fourier Transform in 1-D
5. Continuous Fourier Transform in 2-D
6. **Properties**

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## Properties of the Continuous Fourier Transform

### ◆ Linearity

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be functions and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Then the Fourier transform satisfies the *superposition principle*:

$$\mathcal{F}[af + bg] = a\mathcal{F}[f] + b\mathcal{F}[g].$$

### ◆ Similarity Theorem

$$\mathcal{F}[f(ax, by)](u, v) = \frac{1}{|ab|} \mathcal{F}[f]\left(\frac{u}{a}, \frac{v}{b}\right) \quad \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}.$$

Elongation in the spatial domain gives shortening in the Fourier domain:  
Both domains are reciprocal.

### ◆ Differentiation

$$\mathcal{F}\left[\frac{\partial^{n+m} f}{\partial x^n \partial y^m}\right](u, v) = (i2\pi u)^n (i2\pi v)^m \mathcal{F}[f](u, v).$$

Differentiation gives multiplication with the frequency in the Fourier domain.  
Thus, high frequent components (e.g. noise) are amplified!

### ◆ Shift Theorem

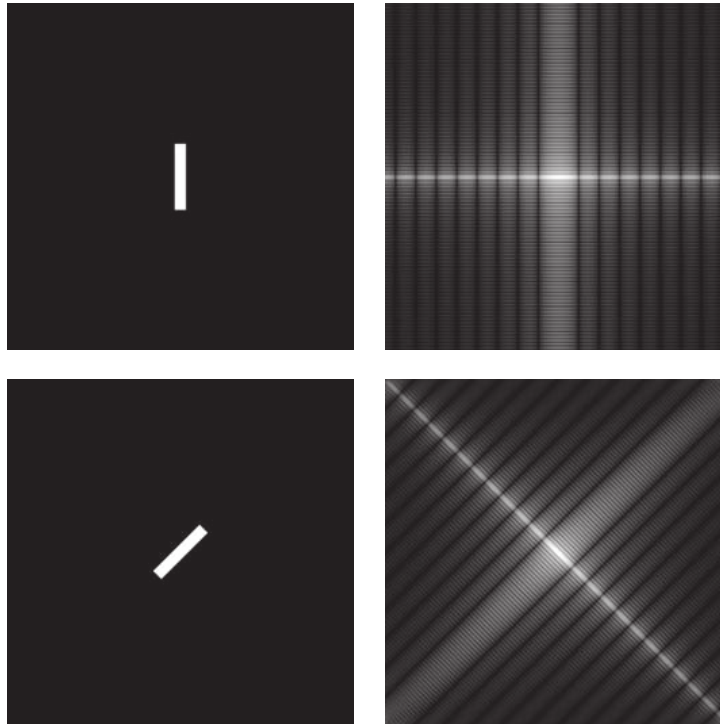
$$\mathcal{F}[f(x-x_0, y-y_0)](u, v) = e^{-i2\pi(ux_0+vy_0)} \mathcal{F}[f](u, v)$$

Shift in the spatial domain rotates the phase angle in the Fourier domain.  
The Fourier *spectrum*, however, is not affected, since  $|e^{-i2\pi(ux_0+vy_0)}| = 1$ .  
Thus, the Fourier spectrum is shift-invariant.

### ◆ Rotation Invariance

If the image is rotated, its FT is rotated by the same angle.

## Properties of the Continuous Fourier Transform (3)



Rotation invariance of the Fourier transform. **(a) Top left:** Original image. **(b) Top right:** Its Fourier spectrum. **(c) Bottom left:** Rotated image. **(d) Bottom right:** Its Fourier spectrum. Authors: R. C. Gonzalez, R. E. Woods.

## Properties of the Continuous Fourier Transform (4)

### ◆ Convolution Theorem

The convolution of two functions  $f(x, y)$  and  $g(x, y)$  is given by (cf. Lecture 2)

$$(f * g)(x, y) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x - x', y - y') g(x', y') dx' dy'.$$

It will be fundamental for all shift-invariant linear filters (Lecture 11). Take e.g.

$$g(x, y) := \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi r^2} & \text{for } x^2 + y^2 \leq r^2, \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

Then  $f * g$  smoothes the image  $f$  by averaging all grey values within a neighbourhood of radius  $r$ . Computing this integral is expensive if  $r$  is large.

However, convolution is easily computed as multiplication in the Fourier domain:

$$\mathcal{F}[f * g] = \mathcal{F}[f] \cdot \mathcal{F}[g]$$

Afterwards the results must be transformed back to the spatial domain.

## Properties of the Continuous Fourier Transform (5)



### ◆ Fourier Transform of the Product of Two Functions

Multiplication of two functions in the spatial domain becomes convolution in the Fourier domain:

$$\mathcal{F}[f \cdot g] = \mathcal{F}[f] * \mathcal{F}[g].$$

This is the reciprocal convolution theorem.

Computationally this is not advantageous.

However, it will help us to understand sampling (more details in Lecture 5).

### ◆ Fourier Transform of a Gaussian

gives a Gaussian-like function with reciprocal variance. In 2D:

$$f(x, y) := \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{(x^2 + y^2)}{2\sigma^2}\right) \implies \hat{f}(u, v) = \exp\left(-\frac{(2\pi)^2(u^2 + v^2)}{2\sigma^{-2}}\right).$$

However, the Gaussian is not the only function that is invariant under the FT:

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## Properties of the Continuous Fourier Transform (6)



### ◆ Fourier Transform of a Delta Comb

A (continuous) **delta pulse**  $\delta$  is a model for an infinitely sharp peak (think e.g. of a Gaussian with standard deviation  $\sigma \rightarrow 0$ ).

It is centred in 0, and its area (integral) is 1:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1.$$

The integral of a function  $f$  times a delta pulse  $\delta$  evaluates  $f$  in 0,

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

while a shifted delta pulse  $\delta(\cdot - x_0)$  yields  $f(x_0)$ :

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

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## Properties of the Continuous Fourier Transform (7)



Consider an infinitely extended comb of delta pulses with peak distance  $\lambda$ . Then its FT is a delta comb with reciprocal peak distance  $1/\lambda$ :

$$g(x) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x - k\lambda) \implies \hat{g}(u) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta\left(u - \frac{k}{\lambda}\right).$$

This formula is important for the sampling a continuous signal  $f$ :

Sampling  $f$  means computing the product of  $f$  with a delta comb  $g$ .

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## Summary



### Summary

- ◆ The continuous Fourier transform analyses the frequency content of images.
- ◆ It is complex-valued, linear, separable, and invariant under rotations.
- ◆ Spatial and Fourier domain are reciprocal w.r.t. localisation and orientation.
- ◆ Spatial shifts become phase shifts.  
The Fourier spectrum remains unchanged.
- ◆ Differentiation becomes multiplication with the frequency.
- ◆ Convolution in one domain becomes multiplication in the other.
- ◆ The Fourier transform maps
  - box functions to sinc functions,
  - Gaussians to Gaussians with reciprocal variance,
  - delta combs to delta combs with reciprocal distance.

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*(for those who wish to learn just a little bit more, but fear the full story)*
- ◆ R. Bracewell: *The Fourier Transform and its Applications*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1986.  
*(the classical reference when you want to learn the full story about the FT)*