

# MATH 4280

Lecture Notes 2: Fourier and Wavelet transforms

# Fourier series

- The Fourier series of a  $2\pi$ -periodic real-valued function is

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k \cos(kx) + b_k \sin(kx))$$

where

$$a_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(kx) dx$$

$$b_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(kx) dx$$

- It represents the projection of the function onto the orthogonal basis

$$\{\cos(kx), \sin(kx)\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$$

- The coefficients  $a_k$  and  $b_k$  are the coordinates in the new basis

- The Fourier series of a  $2\pi$ -periodic complex-valued function is

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k e^{ikx}$$

- The functions  $\psi_k = e^{ikx}$  provide a basis for this class of functions
- These functions are orthogonal since

$$\langle \psi_j, \psi_k \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{ijx} e^{-ikx} dx = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i(j-k)x} dx = \left[ \frac{e^{i(j-k)x}}{i(j-k)} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } j \neq k \\ 2\pi & \text{if } j = k \end{cases}$$

- The Fourier series is a change of coordinates

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k \psi_k(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \langle f(x), \psi_k(x) \rangle \psi_k(x).$$

where  $\|\psi_k\|^2 = 2\pi$  and  $\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) \bar{g}(x) dx$

# Fourier transform

- The Fourier transform pair is given by

$$f(x) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\hat{f}(\omega)) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(\omega) e^{i\omega x} d\omega \quad \text{Inverse Fourier transform}$$

$$\hat{f}(\omega) = \mathcal{F}(f(x)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i\omega x} dx. \quad \text{Fourier transform}$$

where the integrals exist when  $f, \hat{f} \in L^1(-\infty, \infty)$

- Derivatives of functions:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}\left(\frac{d}{dx} f(x)\right) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \overbrace{f'(x)}^{dv} \overbrace{e^{-i\omega x}}^u dx \\ &= \left[ \underbrace{f(x) e^{-i\omega x}}_{uv} \right]_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{f(x)}_v \left[ \underbrace{-i\omega e^{-i\omega x}}_{du} \right] dx \\ &= i\omega \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i\omega x} dx \\ &= i\omega \mathcal{F}(f(x)). \end{aligned}$$

- Linearity of Fourier transform

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

$$\mathcal{F}^{-1}(\alpha \hat{f}(\omega) + \beta \hat{g}(\omega)) = \alpha \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\hat{f}) + \beta \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\hat{g})$$

- Parseval's Theorem

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\hat{f}(\omega)|^2 d\omega = 2\pi \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)|^2 dx$$

- Convolution

$$(f * g)(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x - \xi) g(\xi) d\xi$$

Definition of convolution

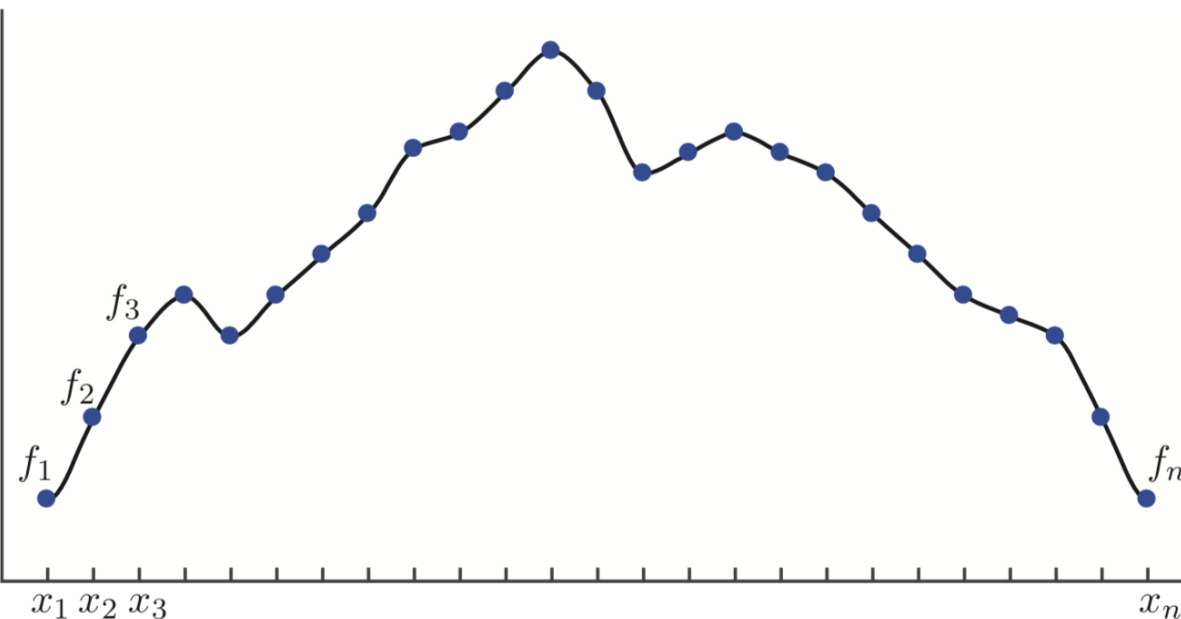
$$\mathcal{F}^{-1}(\hat{f} \hat{g})(x) = f * g$$

# Discrete Fourier transform (DFT)

- In most applications, we work with discrete data
- The DFT is a discrete version of Fourier transform for vectors of data

$$\mathbf{f} = [f_1 \ f_2 \ f_3 \ \cdots \ f_n]^T$$

obtained by discretizing the function  $f(x)$  at a regular spacing



- The DFT and the inverse DFT (iDFT) are given respectively by

$$\text{DFT} \quad \hat{f}_k = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} f_j e^{-i2\pi jk/n} \qquad \text{iDFT} \quad f_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \hat{f}_j e^{i2\pi jk/n}$$

- The DFT can be represented by a matrix multiplication

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{f}_1 \\ \hat{f}_2 \\ \hat{f}_3 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{f}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega_n & \omega_n^2 & \dots & \omega_n^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_n^2 & \omega_n^4 & \dots & \omega_n^{2(n-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega_n^{n-1} & \omega_n^{2(n-1)} & \dots & \omega_n^{(n-1)^2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\omega_n = e^{-2\pi i/n}$

# Fast Fourier transform (FFT)

- The DFT requires  $O(n^2)$  operations
- The FFT requires  $O(n \log n)$  operations, a significant improvement
- The basic idea of FFT is the fact that the DFT can be implemented efficiently when  $n$  is a power of 2
- Example: when  $n = 1024 = 2^{10}$ , the DFT matrix  $F_{1024}$  is

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}} = \mathbf{F}_{1024} \mathbf{f} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{512} & \mathbf{D}_{512} \\ \mathbf{I}_{512} & -\mathbf{D}_{512} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{F}_{512} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{F}_{512} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_{\text{even}} \\ \mathbf{f}_{\text{odd}} \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$\mathbf{D}_{512} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \omega & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \omega^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \omega^{511} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \omega = e^{-2\pi i/n}$$



## Example: denoising

- Consider a signal with two dominant frequencies  $f_1 = 50$  and  $f_2 = 120$

$$f(t) = \sin(2\pi f_1 t) + \sin(2\pi f_2 t)$$

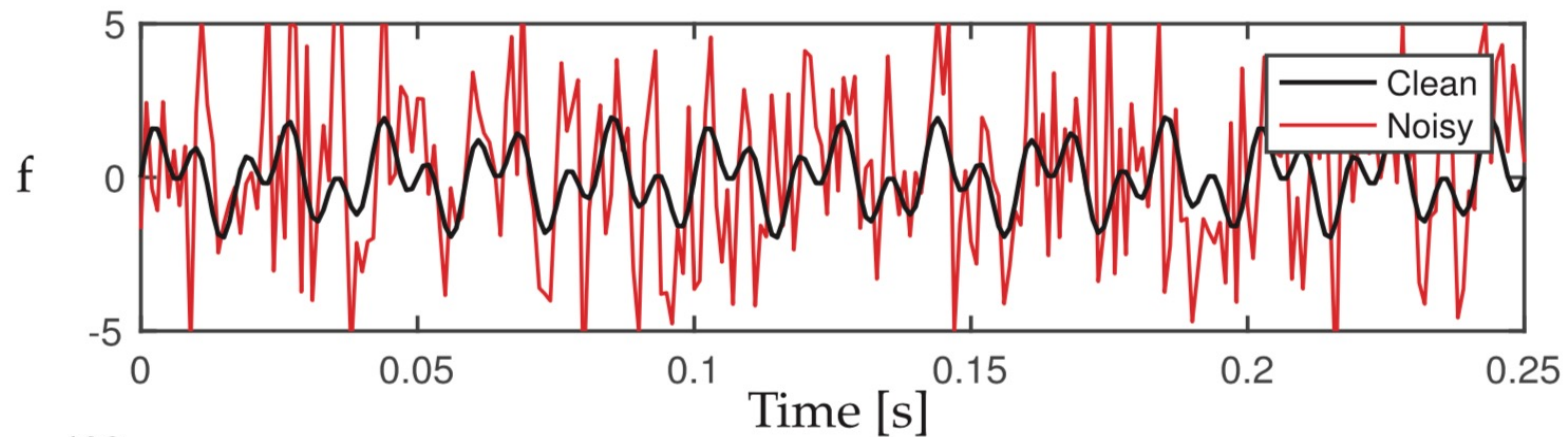
- Add some Gaussian noise to the signal
- Use FFT and look at the signal in the frequency domain
- Truncate those frequencies with small amplitude
- Apply iFFT to obtain a denoised signal

## MATLAB implementation

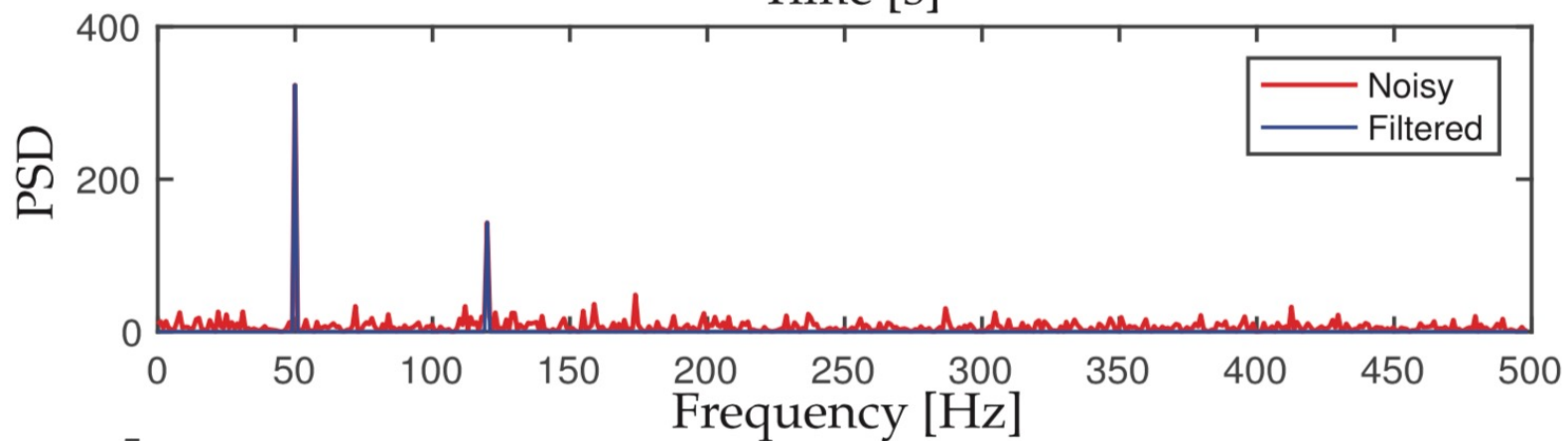
```
dt = .001;
t = 0:dt:1;
f = sin(2*pi*50*t) + sin(2*pi*120*t); % Sum of 2 frequencies
f = f + 2.5*randn(size(t)); % Add some noise

%% Compute the Fast Fourier Transform FFT
n = length(t);
fhat = fft(f,n); % Compute the fast Fourier transform
PSD = fhat.*conj(fhat)/n; % Power spectrum (power per freq)
freq = 1/(dt*n)*(0:n); % Create x-axis of frequencies in Hz
L = 1:floor(n/2); % Only plot the first half of freqs

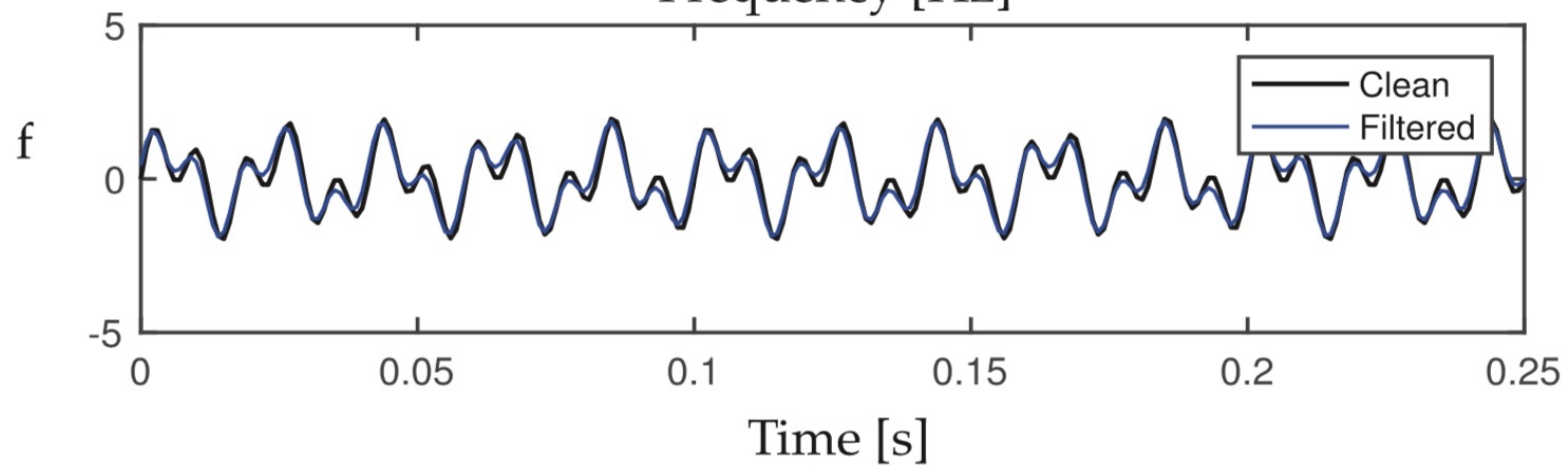
%% Use the PSD to filter out noise
indices = PSD>100; % Find all freqs with large power
PSDclean = PSD.*indices; % Zero out all others
fhat = indices.*fhat; % Zero out small Fourier coeffs. in Y
ffilt = ifft(fhat); % Inverse FFT for filtered time signal
```



Original and noisy signals



Signals in frequency domain



Denoised signal

Results

# Fast computation of derivative of function

- Recall the property  $\mathcal{F}(df/dx) = i\omega\mathcal{F}(f)$
- Steps of computing derivatives:

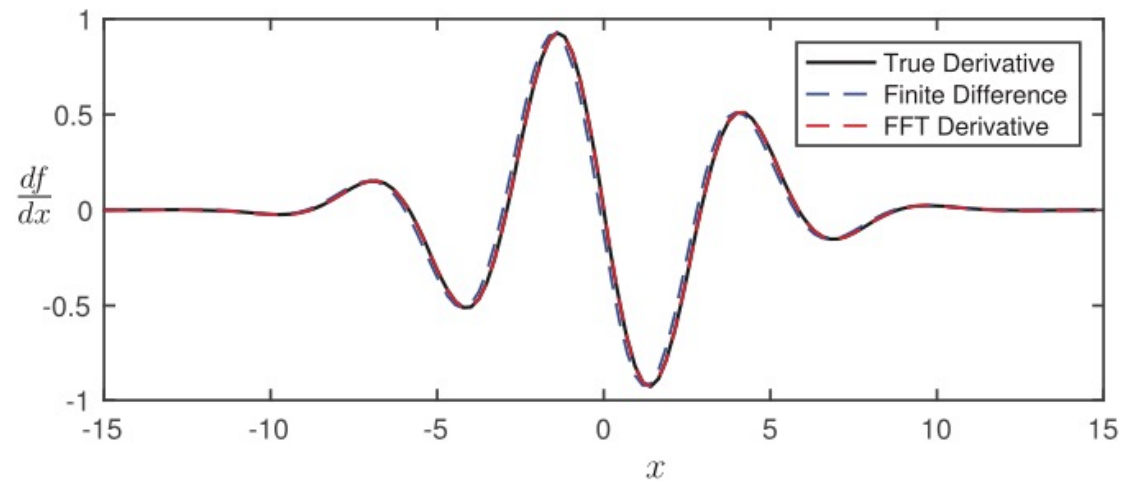
1. Compute the Fourier transform  $\hat{f}$  
$$\hat{f}_k = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} f_j e^{-i2\pi jk/n}$$

2. Multiply the  $k$ -th component of  $\hat{f}$  by  $i 2\pi k/n$

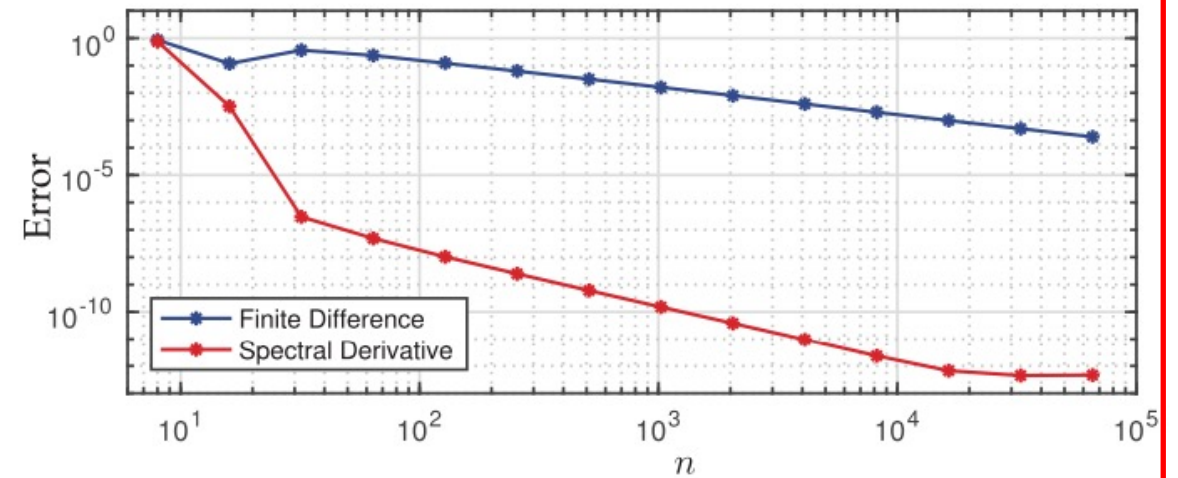
3. Compute the inverse Fourier transform 
$$f_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \hat{f}_j e^{i2\pi jk/n}$$

- Let  $f(x) = \cos(x)e^{-x^2/25}$
- Compare with finite difference approximation

$$\frac{df}{dx}(x_k) \approx \frac{f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)}{\Delta x}$$



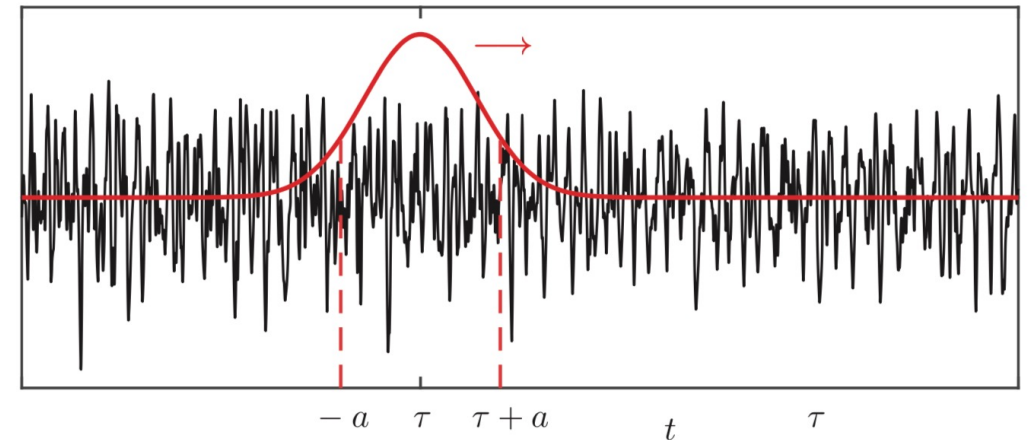
$n=128$



Comparison for various  $n$

# Gabor transform

- Fourier transform works for stationary signals (frequency does not change with time)
- For nonstationary signals, it is important to characterize the frequency and its evolution in time
- The **Gabor transform** is a windowed Fourier transform in a moving window (also called **short-time Fourier transform**)
- It allows localization of frequency content





The Gabor transform is defined as

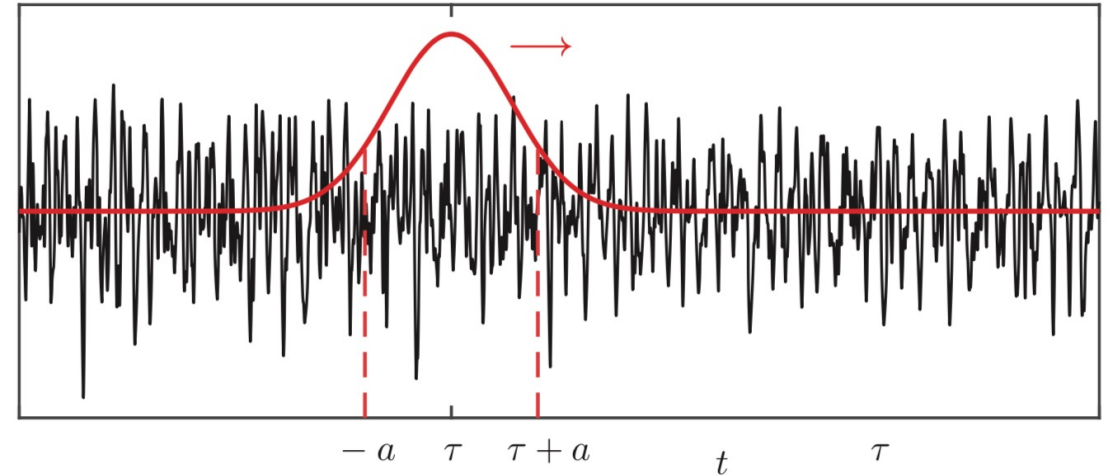
$$\mathcal{G}(f)(t, \omega) = \hat{f}_g(t, \omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau) e^{-i\omega\tau} \bar{g}(\tau - t) d\tau = \langle f, g_{t,\omega} \rangle$$

where

$$g_{t,\omega}(\tau) = e^{i\omega\tau} g(\tau - t)$$

$$g(t) = e^{-(t-\tau)^2/a^2}$$

The constant  $a$  determines the spread of the window, and  $\tau$  determines the center of the window



The Inverse Gabor transform is given by

$$f(t) = \mathcal{G}^{-1}(\hat{f}_g(t, \omega)) = \frac{1}{2\pi \|g\|^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}_g(\tau, \omega) g(t - \tau) e^{i\omega t} d\omega d\tau.$$

# Discrete Gabor transform

- We discretize both in time and frequency

$$\nu = j \Delta \omega$$

$$\tau = k \Delta t.$$

- The discretized kernel function is

$$g_{j,k} = e^{i2\pi j \Delta \omega t} g(t - k \Delta t)$$

- The discrete Gabor transform is

$$\hat{f}_{j,k} = \langle f, g_{j,k} \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau) \bar{g}_{j,k}(\tau) d\tau$$

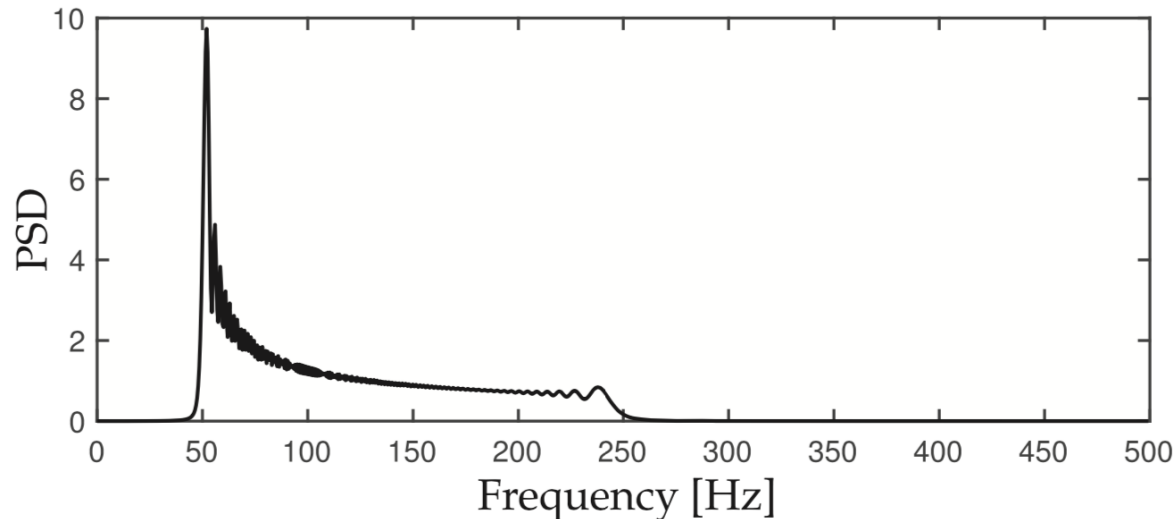


# Example: a quadratic chirp

- We consider the signal

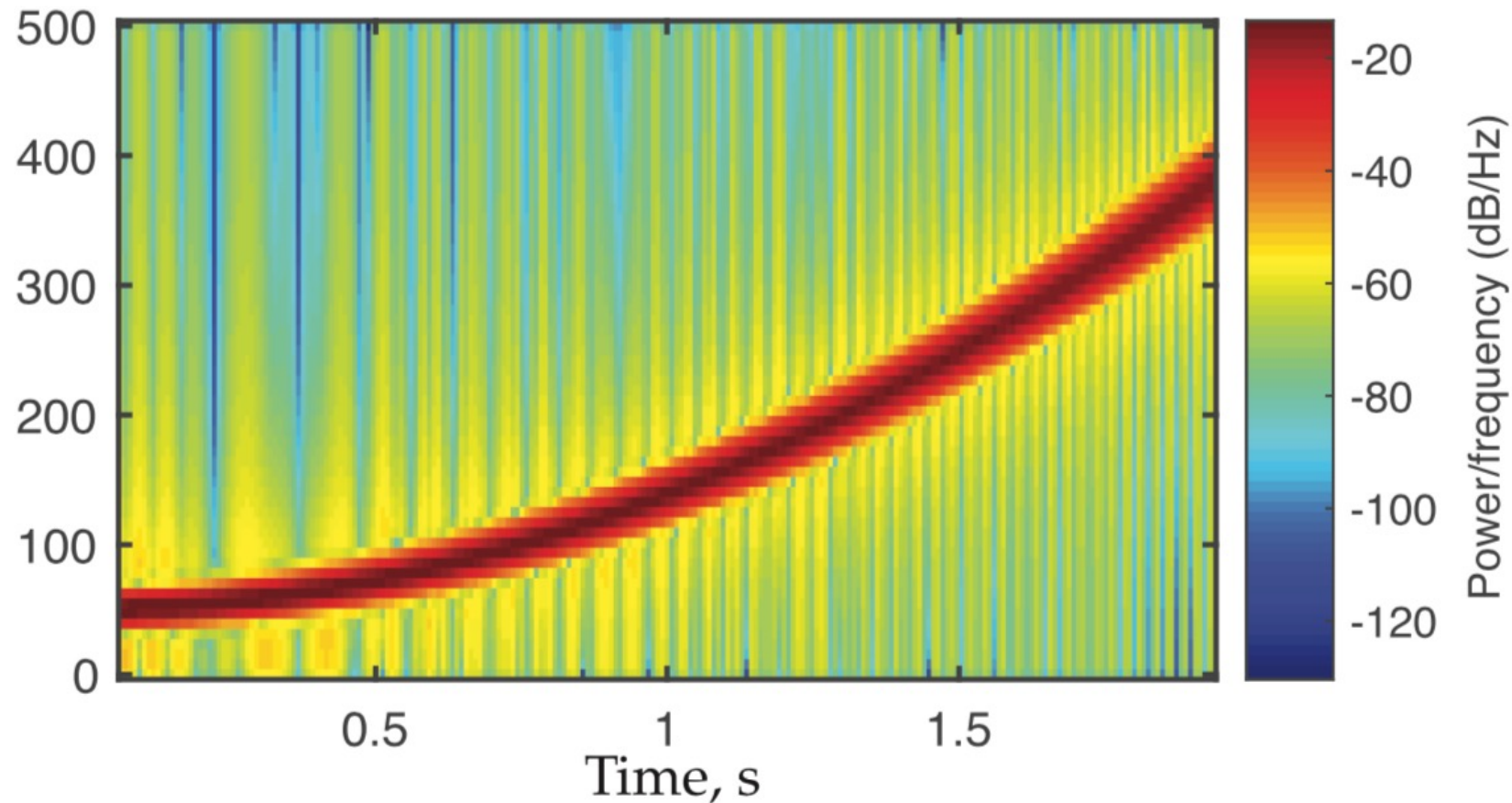
$$f(t) = \cos(2\pi t \omega(t)) \quad \text{where} \quad \omega(t) = \omega_0 + (\omega_1 - \omega_0)t^2/3t_1^2$$

- The frequency changes from  $\omega_0$  to  $\omega_1$  from  $t = 0$  to  $t = t_1$
- Take  $\omega_0 = 50$  and  $\omega_1 = 250$  and  $t_1 = 2$



Fourier transform does not see the change in the frequency

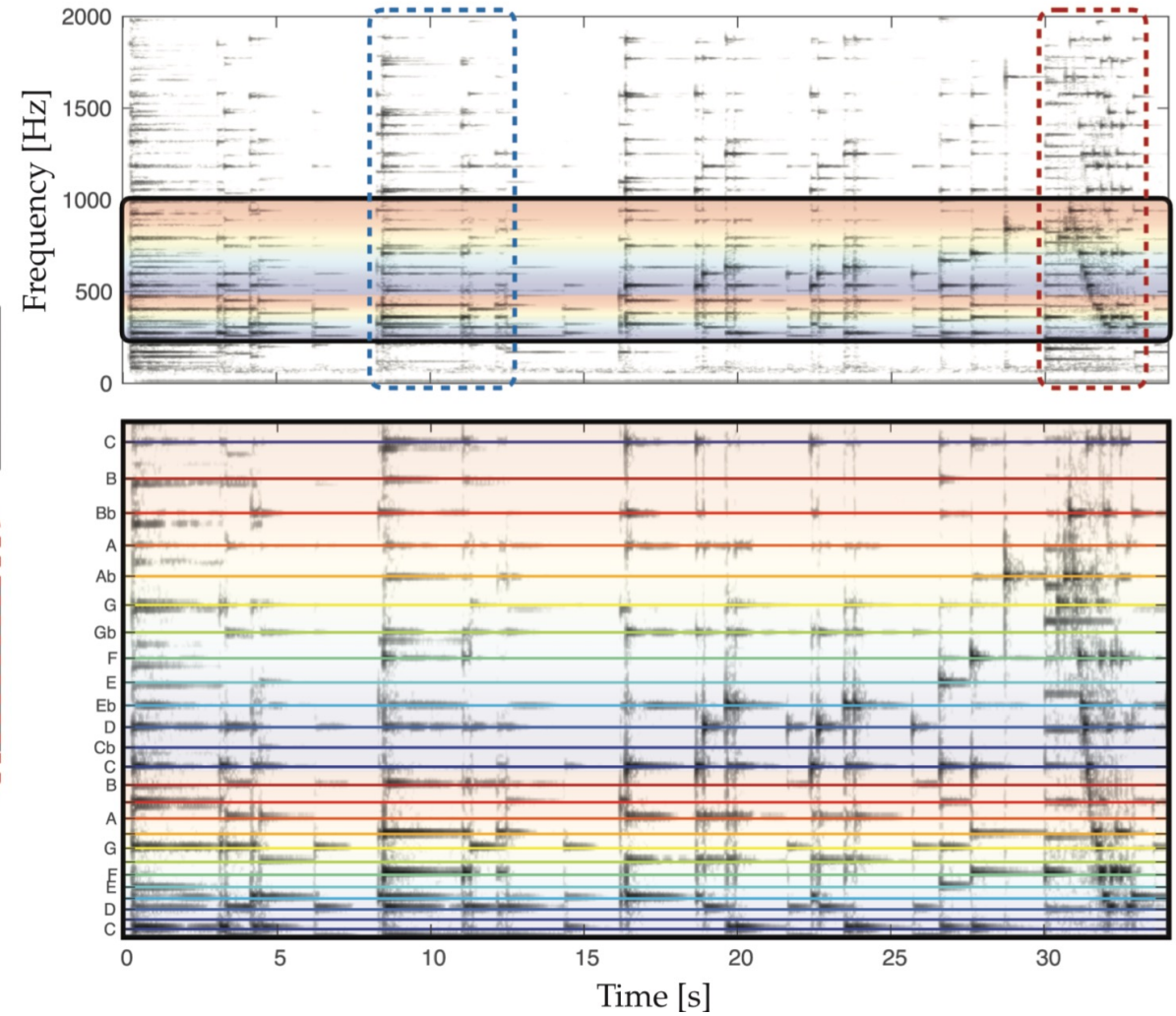
- Using the Gabor transform, we can plot the following [spectrogram](#)



- We see clearly frequency shifts in time

# Example: music

- The spectrogram can be used to analyze music
- Identify key markers for classification



# Uncertainty principles

- It limits the ability to simultaneously attain high resolution in both the time and frequency domains
- Mathematically,

$$\left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 |f(x)|^2 dx \right) \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \omega^2 |\hat{f}(\omega)|^2 d\omega \right) \geq \frac{1}{16\pi^2}$$

- For real-valued functions, this is the second moment, which measures the variance of Gaussian functions
- Thus, a function and its Fourier transform cannot both be arbitrarily localized

# Wavelet transform

- **Wavelets** extend the concept of Fourier analysis to more general orthogonal bases
- They can partially overcome the limitation resulting from the uncertainty principle by using a **multi-resolution decomposition**
- The idea starts with a function  $\psi(t)$ , called the **mother wavelet**
- A family of scaled and translated functions can be generated

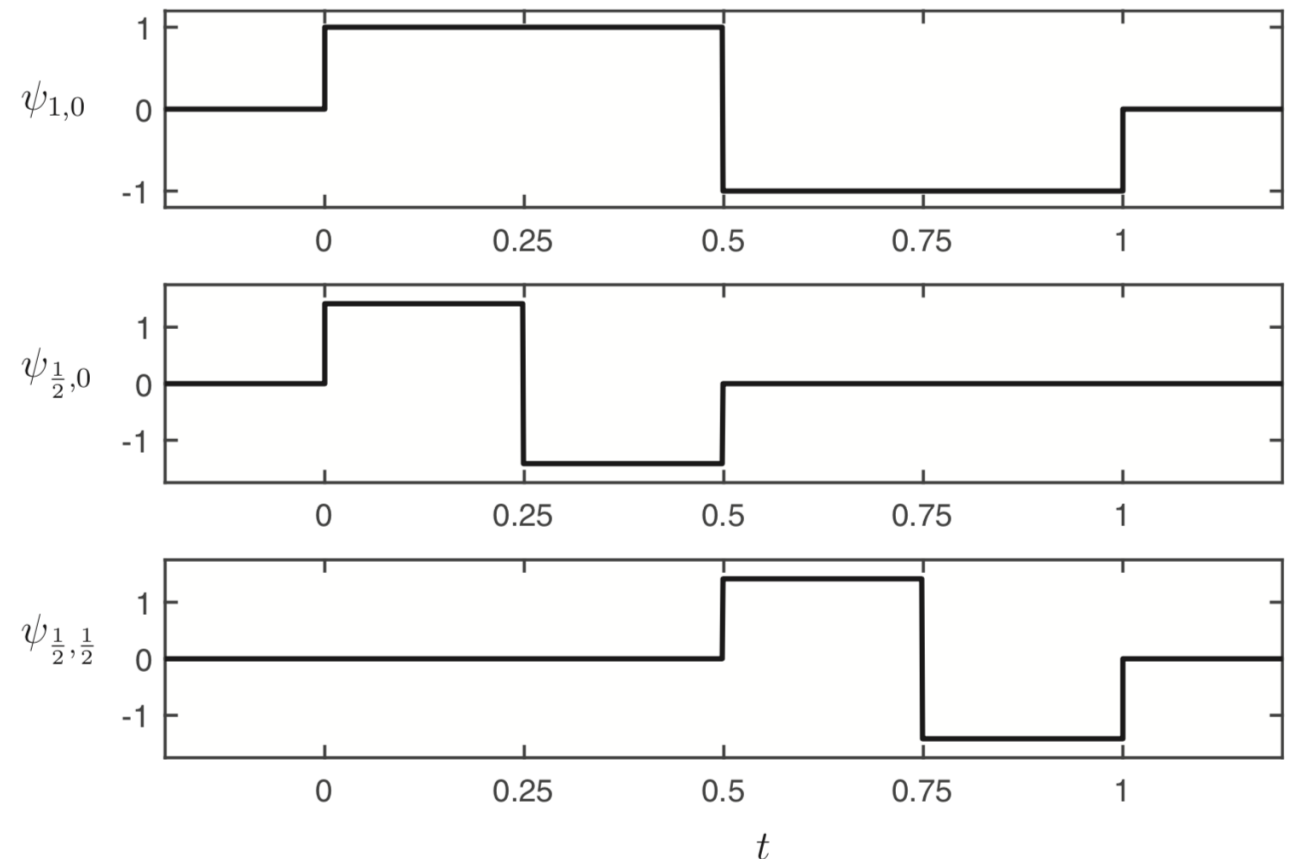
$$\psi_{a,b}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}} \psi \left( \frac{t - b}{a} \right)$$

# Haar wavelet

- The simplest and the earliest example is the Haar wavelet

$$\psi(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq t < 1/2 \\ -1 & 1/2 \leq t < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- Three Haar wavelets are shown
- Choosing the next higher frequency layer using a bisection, the resulting Haar wavelets are orthogonal



# Continuous wavelet transform (CWT)

- The continuous wavelet transform (CWT) is given by

$$\mathcal{W}_\psi(f)(a, b) = \langle f, \psi_{a,b} \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \bar{\psi}_{a,b}(t) dt$$

- The inverse continuous wavelet transform (iCWT) is given by

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{C_\psi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{W}_\psi(f)(a, b) \psi_{a,b}(t) \frac{1}{a^2} da db$$

where  $C_\psi = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{|\hat{\psi}(\omega)|^2}{|\omega|} d\omega$

# Discrete wavelet transform (DWT)

- The discrete wavelet transform (DWT) is given by

$$\mathcal{W}_\psi(f)(j, k) = \langle f, \psi_{j,k} \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \bar{\psi}_{j,k}(t) dt$$

- Here  $\psi_{j,k}(t)$  is a discrete family of wavelets

$$\psi_{j,k}(t) = \frac{1}{a^j} \psi \left( \frac{t - kb}{a^j} \right)$$

- If the family is orthonormal, then we can expand a function as follows

$$f(t) = \sum_{j,k=-\infty}^{\infty} \langle f(t), \psi_{j,k}(t) \rangle \psi_{j,k}(t)$$



# Simple illustration of wavelet transform

## 1D Haar wavelet transform

The 1D Haar wavelet transform is the following matrix

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Given a vector  $x = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$ . The result of the transform is

$$Hx = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a+b}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{a-b}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Observe that

- ▶ the first component provides the "mean"
- ▶ the second component provides the "difference" or "edge"
- ▶ the inverse transform is given by  $H^T$ , that is, if  $y$  is a vector containing the mean and the difference, then the original vector is  $x = H^T y$

## Two level image decomposition

Consider a vector  $x$  of length  $N$ , where  $N$  is even. We consider it as a 1D image with  $N$  pixels.

Two level decomposition:

- ▶ divide the vector into  $N/2$  blocks, each block has size 2
- ▶ apply the 1D Haar wavelet transform to each block of size 2
- ▶ define a vector  $x_M$  of length  $N/2$  consisting the mean values
- ▶ define a vector  $x_D$  of length  $N/2$  consisting the differences

Example: consider

$$x = (100, 200, 44, 50, 20, 20, 4, 2)^T$$

We have

$$x_M = \sqrt{2} (150, 47, 20, 3)^T, \quad x_D = \sqrt{2} (50, 3, 0, -1)^T$$

Notice that larger values in  $x_D$  correspond to larger jumps, and hence edges. Also,  $x_M$  corresponds to the main image.

## 2D Haar wavelet transform

The 2D Haar wavelet transform is based on the following matrix

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Given a  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A$ , the transform is defined as

$$HAH^T$$

Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

The result of the transform is

$$HAH^T = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}(a+b+c+d) & \frac{1}{2}(a+c-b-d) \\ \frac{1}{2}(a+b-c-d) & \frac{1}{2}(a+d-b-c) \end{pmatrix}$$

Recall that for the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

The result of the transform is

$$HAH^T = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}(a+b+c+d) & \frac{1}{2}(a+c-b-d) \\ \frac{1}{2}(a+b-c-d) & \frac{1}{2}(a+d-b-c) \end{pmatrix}$$

Few remarks:

- ▶ the upper-left entry corresponds to the "mean"
- ▶ the upper-right entry is formed by taking the mean along each column, and then the difference of the columns. Hence large value corresponds to large change in the horizontal direction
- ▶ the lower-left entry is formed by taking the mean along each row, and then the difference of the rows. Hence large value corresponds to large change in the vertical direction
- ▶ the lower-right entry measures the changes along the diagonals

## Two level image decomposition

Consider a matrix  $X$  with size  $N \times N$ , where  $N$  is even. We consider it as a 2D image with  $N^2$  pixels.

Two level decomposition:

- ▶ divide the matrix into  $N/2 \times N/2$  blocks, each block has size  $2 \times 2$
- ▶ apply the 2D Haar wavelet transform to each block of size  $2 \times 2$
- ▶ define a matrix  $x_M$  of size  $N/2 \times N/2$  consisting the mean values
- ▶ define a matrix  $x_H$  of size  $N/2 \times N/2$  consisting the horizontal differences
- ▶ define a matrix  $x_V$  of size  $N/2 \times N/2$  consisting the vertical differences
- ▶ define a matrix  $x_D$  of size  $N/2 \times N/2$  consisting the diagonal differences

Example: Let

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 100 & 200 & 20 & 10 \\ 100 & 400 & 40 & 20 \\ 20 & 10 & 1 & 2 \\ 20 & 40 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

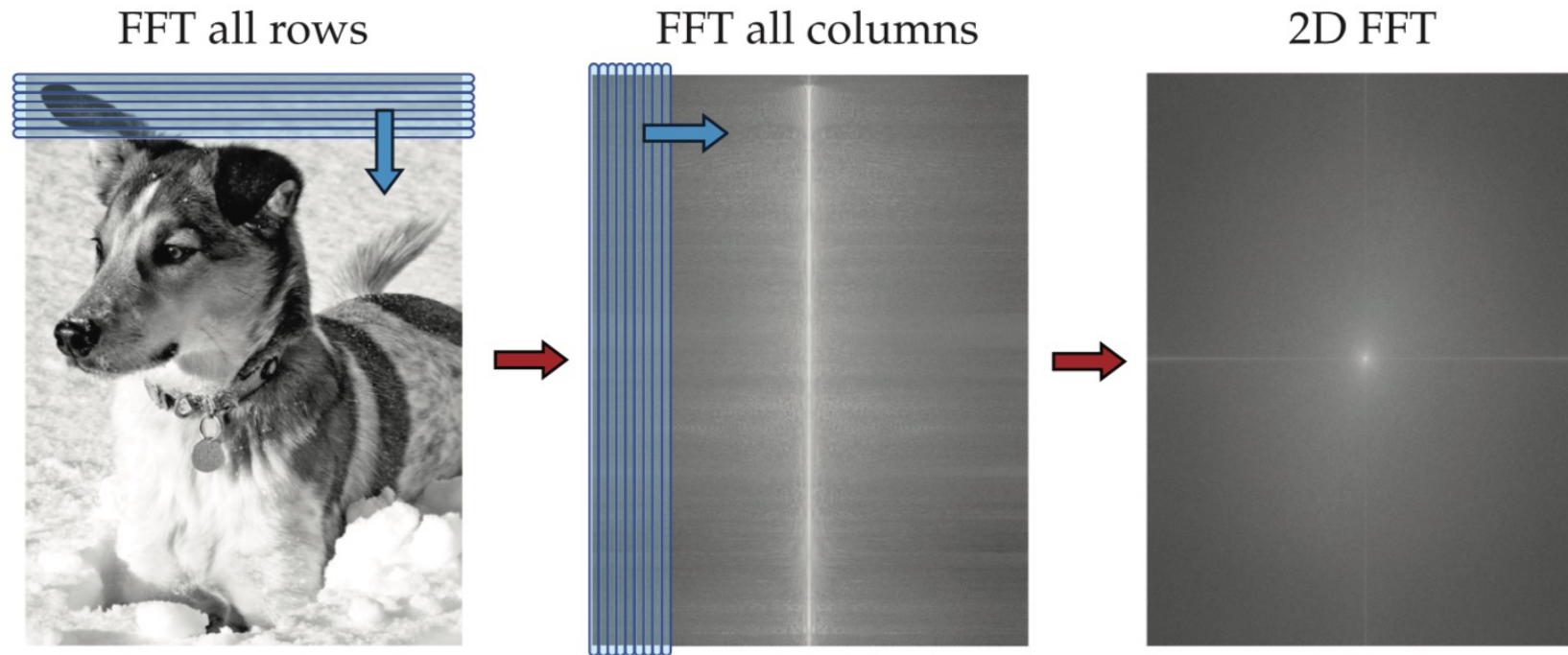
Then we have

$$x_M = \begin{pmatrix} 400 & 45 \\ 45 & 4 \end{pmatrix}, \quad x_H = \begin{pmatrix} -200 & 15 \\ -5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$x_V = \begin{pmatrix} -100 & -15 \\ -15 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad x_D = \begin{pmatrix} 100 & -5 \\ 15 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

# 2D Fourier transform

- Given a matrix  $X$ , its Fourier transform is obtained by applying the 1D Fourier transform to each row, then applying to each column
- The order is irrelevant





# Example: image compression by FFT

Full image



5.0% of FFT



Keeping 5% of the largest  
Fourier coefficients

1.0% of FFT



Keeping 1% of the largest  
Fourier coefficients

0.2% of FFT



Keeping 0.2% of the largest  
Fourier coefficients