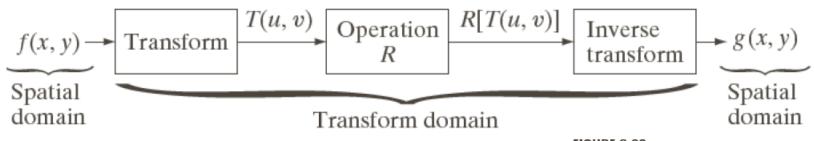
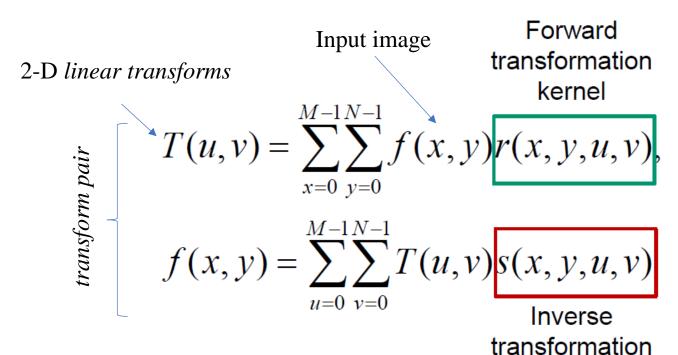
# CSL7320: Digital Image Analysis

Filtering in Frequency Domain

## An overview

kernel





## FIGURE 2.39 General approach for operating in the linear transform domain.

$$u = 0,1,..., M-1$$
  
 $v = 0,1,..., N-1$ 

$$x = 0,1,...,M-1$$

$$y = 0,1,...,N-1$$

M and N are the row and column dimensions of f

Slide credit: Yan Tong

The forward transformation kernel is said to be *separable* if

$$r(x, y, u, v) = r_1(x, u)r_2(y, v)$$
 (2-57)

In addition, the kernel is said to be *symmetric* if  $r_1(x,u)$  is functionally equal to  $r_2(y,v)$ , so that

$$r(x, y, u, v) = r_1(x, u)r_1(y, v)$$
 (2-58)

Identical comments apply to the inverse kernel.

#### Fourier Transform

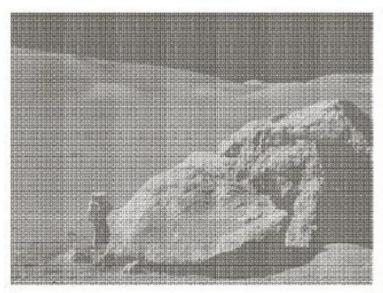
Forward 
$$r(x, y, u, v) = e^{-j2\pi(ux/M+vy/N)}$$

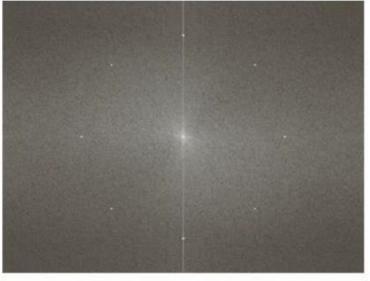
Inverse 
$$S(x, y, u, v) = \frac{1}{MN} e^{j2\pi(ux/M + vy/N)}$$

#### Discrete Fourier Transform

Forward 
$$T(u,v) = \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x,y) e^{-j2\pi(ux/M + vy/N)}$$

Inverse 
$$f(x,y) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} T(u,v) e^{j2\pi(ux/M + vy/N)}$$



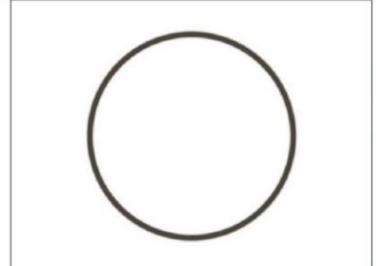


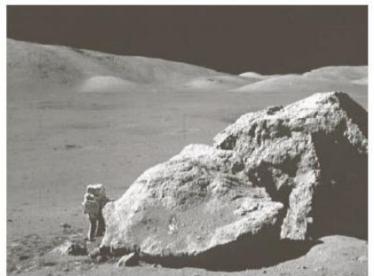
a l

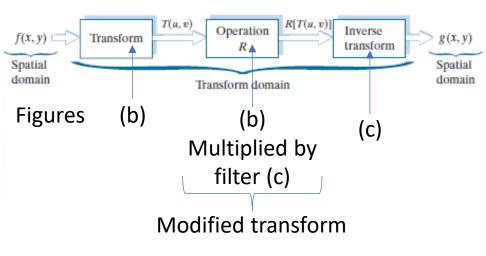
#### FIGURE 2.40

(a) Image corrupted by sinusoidal interference. (b) Magnitude of the Fourier transform showing the bursts of energy responsible for the interference. (c) Mask used to eliminate the energy bursts. (d) Result of computing the inverse of the modified Fourier transform. (Original image courtesy of NASA.)

Sinusoidal interference occurs when two or more sinusoidal waves overlap, resulting in a new wave with a different amplitude.



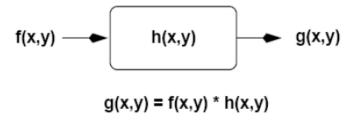




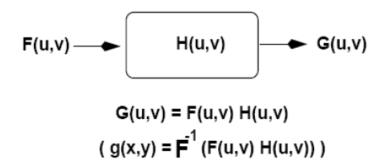
## Filtering in Frequency Domain

### Spatial Vs Frequency Domain

#### **Spatial Domain**



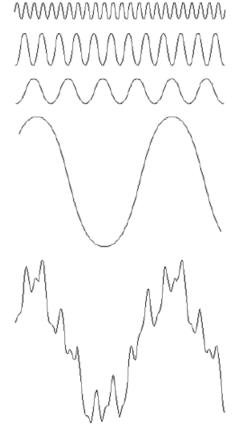
#### Frequency Domain



#### Fourier Series

Any function that periodically repeats itself can be expressed as the sum of sines and/or cosines of different frequencies, each multiplied by a different coefficients.

This sum is called a Fourier series.



**FIGURE 4.1** The function at the bottom is the sum of the four functions above it. Fourier's idea in 1807 that periodic functions could be represented as a weighted sum of sines and cosines was met with skepticism.

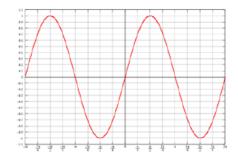
#### **Fourier Series**

$$g(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n \cos nw_0 t + b_n \sin nw_0 t]$$

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + T_0} g(t) dt$$

$$a_n = \frac{2}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + T_0} g(t) \cos nw_0 t \, dt$$

$$b_n = \frac{2}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + T_0} g(t) \sin nw_0 t \ dt$$



Where  $T_0$  is the period.

#### Fourier Transform

□ A function that is not periodic but the area under its curve is finite can be expressed as the integral of sines and/or cosines multiplied by a weighing function. The formulation in this case is Fourier transform.

#### Fourier Transform

- Fourier transform
  - ☐ Functions which are not periodic (but whose area under the curve is finite) can be expressed as the integral of sines and/or cosines multiplied by a weighting function
  - ☐ Its utility is greater than the Fourier series in most practical problems
- ❖ A function, expressed in either as a Fourier series or a Fourier transform, can be reconstructed (recovered) completely via an inverse process, with no loss of information

## Continuous One-Dimensional Fourier Transform and Its Inverse

$$F(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-j2\pi ux} dx$$

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(u)e^{j2\pi ux} du$$
Where  $j = \sqrt{-1}$ 

- u is the frequency variable.
- $\Box$  F(u) is composed of an infinite sum of sine and cosine terms
- Each value of u determines the frequency of its corresponding sine-cosine pair.

## Continuous One-Dimensional Fourier Transform and Its Inverse

#### **Example**

Find the Fourier transform of a gate function  $\Pi(t)$  defined by

$$\Pi(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & |x| < \frac{1}{2}\tau \\ 0 & |x| > \frac{1}{2}\tau \end{cases}$$

$$F(u) = \tau \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{u\tau}{2\pi}\right)$$
Fourier Spectrum
$$\tau$$

$$-0.5\tau \qquad 0.5\tau$$

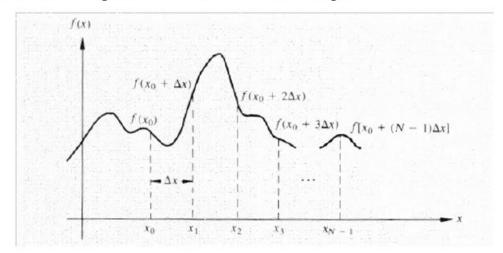
$$vhere \sin c(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{\tau}$$

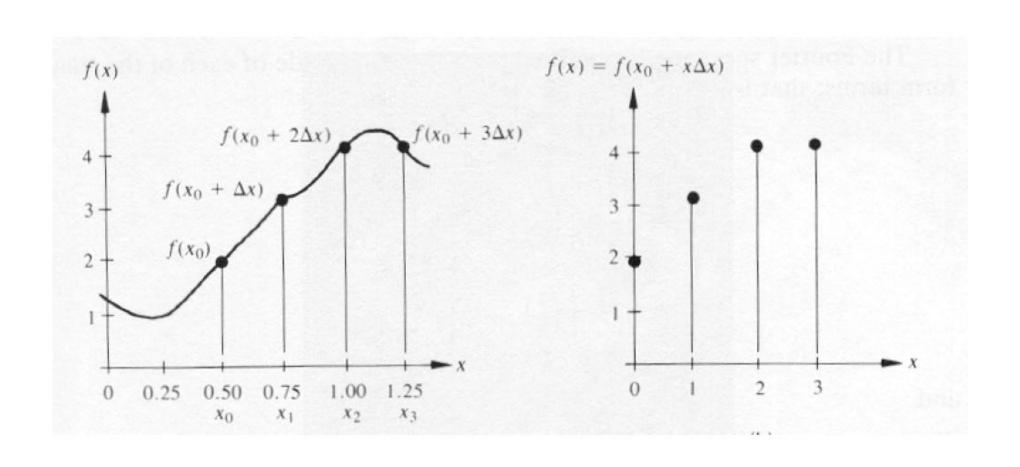
$$\frac{2\pi}{\tau} \frac{4\pi}{\tau}$$

 A continuous function f(x) is discretized into a sequence:

$$\{f(x_0), f(x_0 + \Delta x), f(x_0 + 2\Delta x), ..., f(x_0 + [M-1]\Delta x)\}$$

by taking M samples  $\Delta x$  units apart.





 Where x assumes the discrete values (0,1,2,3,...,M-1) then

$$f(x) = f(x_0 + x\Delta x)$$

The sequence {f(0),f(1),f(2),...f(M-1)} denotes any
 M uniformly spaced samples from a continuous function.

$$F(u) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} f(x) e^{-j2\pi u \frac{x}{M}}$$

$$f(u) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} f(x) e^{-j2\pi u \frac{x}{M}}$$

$$f(u) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} f(x) e^{-j2\pi u \frac{x}{M}}$$

$$F(u) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} f(x) \left[ \cos 2\pi u \frac{x}{M} - j \sin 2\pi u \frac{x}{M} \right]$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} F(u)e^{j2\pi \frac{u}{M}x}$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} F(u)e^{j2\pi \frac{u}{M}x}$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} F(u)e^{j2\pi \frac{u}{M}x}$$

• The values u=0,1,2,...,M-1 correspond to samples of the continuous transform at values  $0,\Delta u,2\Delta u,...,(M-1)\Delta u$ .

i.e. F(u) represents  $F(u\Delta u)$ , where:

$$\Delta u = \frac{1}{M\Delta x}$$

 Each term of the FT (F(u) for every u) is composed of the sum of all values of f(x)

 The Fourier transform of a real function is generally complex and we use polar coordinates:

$$F(u) = R(u) + jI(u)$$

$$F(u) = |F(u)|e^{j\phi(u)}$$

$$|F(u)| = [R^2(u) + I^2(u)]^{1/2}$$

$$\phi(u) = \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{I(u)}{R(u)}\right]$$

 $\Box$  |F(u)| (magnitude function) is the Fourier spectrum of f(x) and  $\phi$ (u) its phase angle.

☐ The square of the spectrum

$$P(u) = |F(u)|^2 = R^2(u) + I^2(u)$$

is referred to as the Power Spectrum of f(x) (spectral density).

$$F(u,v) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x,y) e^{-j2\pi(u\frac{x}{M} + v\frac{y}{N})}$$

$$f(x,y) = \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} F(u,v) e^{j2\pi(\frac{u}{M}x + \frac{v}{N}y)}$$

$$|F(u,v)| = \left[R^2(u,v) + I^2(u,v)\right]^{1/2}$$
Fourier Spectrum

#### Discrete 2-Dimensional Fourier Transform

□ Fourier spectrum: 
$$|F(u,v)| = [R^2(u,v) + I^2(u,v)]^{1/2}$$

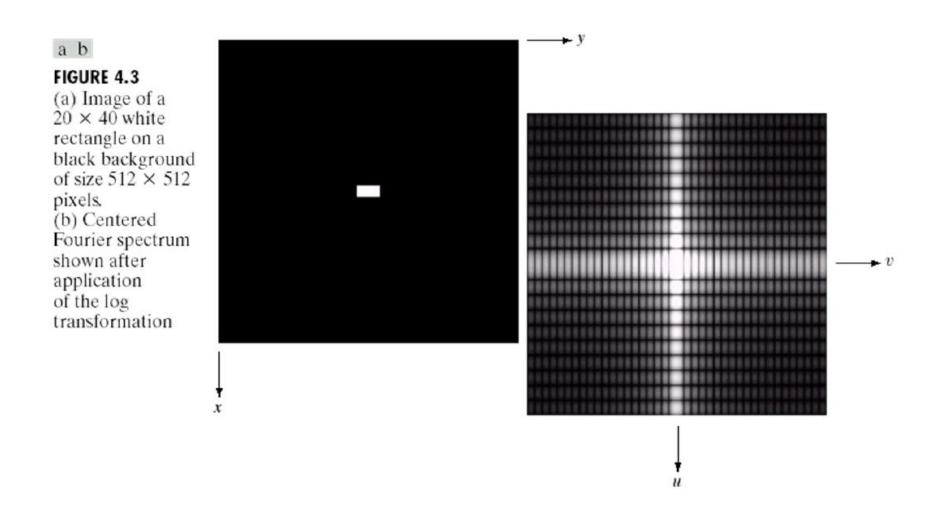
□ Phase: 
$$\phi(u,v) = \tan^{-1} \left| \frac{I(u,v)}{R(u,v)} \right|$$

□ Power spectrum: 
$$P(u,v) = |F(u,v)|^2 = R^2(u,v) + I^2(u,v)$$

$$F(u,v) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} f(x,y) e^{-j2\pi (u\frac{x}{M} + v\frac{y}{N})}$$

$$F(0,0) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x,y)$$

F(0,0) is the average gray value of an image

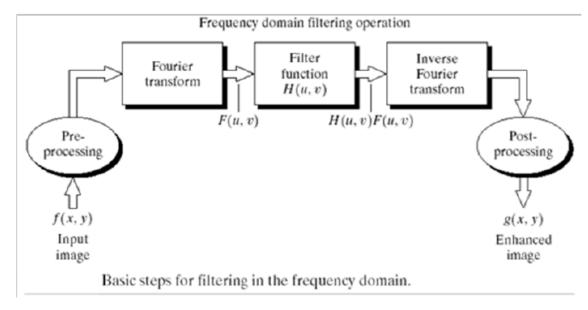


## Frequency Shifting Property of the Fourier Transform

If 
$$f(x) \leftrightarrow F(u)$$
 then
$$f(x)e^{j2\pi u_0 x} \leftrightarrow F(u-u_0)$$

$$f(x,y)e^{j2\pi(u_0\frac{x}{M}+v_0\frac{y}{N})} \leftrightarrow F(u-u_0,v-v_0)$$

### Basic Filtering in the Frequency Domain

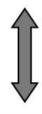


$$F(f(x,y)(-1)^{x+y}) = F(u-M/2,v-N/2)$$

- 1. Multiply the input image by  $(-1)^{x+y}$  to center the transform
- 2. Compute F(u,v), the DFT of the image from (1)
- 3. Multiply F(u,v) by a filter function H(u,v)
- 4. Compute the inverse DFT of the result in (3)
- 5. Obtain the real part of the result in (4)
- 6. Multiply the result in (5) by  $(-1)^{x+y}$

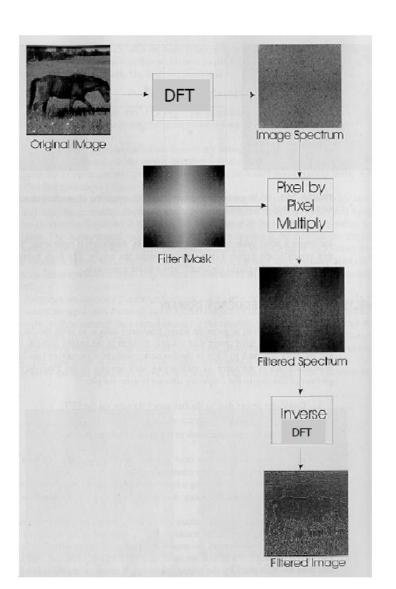
### FREQUENCY DOMAIN METHODS

$$f(x, y) * h(x, y) = g(x, y)$$



$$F(u,v)\; H(u,v) = G(u,v)$$

- $\Box$  H(u,v) is specified in the frequency domain.
- $\Box$  h(x,y) is specified in the spatial domain.



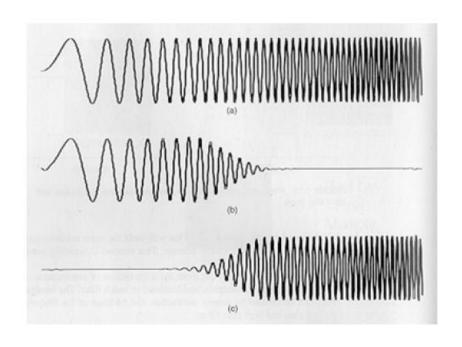
Slide credit: Ashish Ghosh

### Major Filter Categories

Typically, filters are classified by examining their properties in the frequency domain:

- (1) Low-pass
- (2) High-pass

### Example

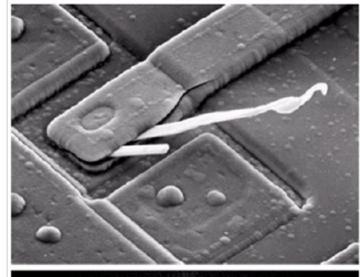


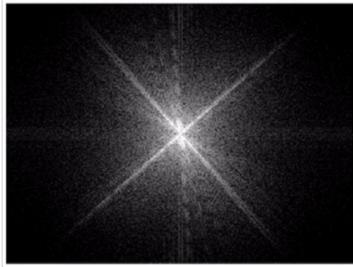
Original Signal

Low-Pass filtered output

High-Pass filtered output

### Filtering out the DC Frequency Component

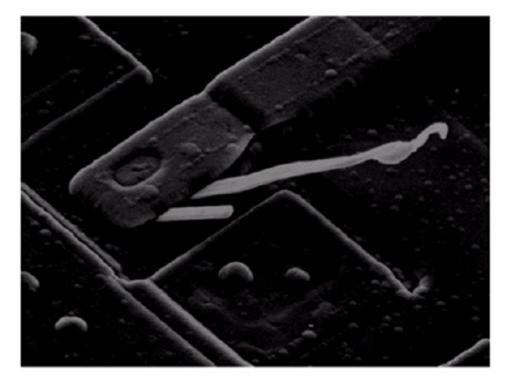




(a) SEM image of a damaged integrated circuit. (b) Fourier spectrum of (a). (Original image courtesy of Dr. J. M. Hudak, Brockhouse Institute for Materials Research, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada.)

### Filtering out the DC Frequency Component

Result of filtering the image in Fig. 4.4(a) with a notch filter that set to 0 the F(0,0) term in the Fourier transform.



#### Notch Filter

$$H(u,v) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } u = M/2, v = N/2\\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Slide credit: Ashish Ghosh

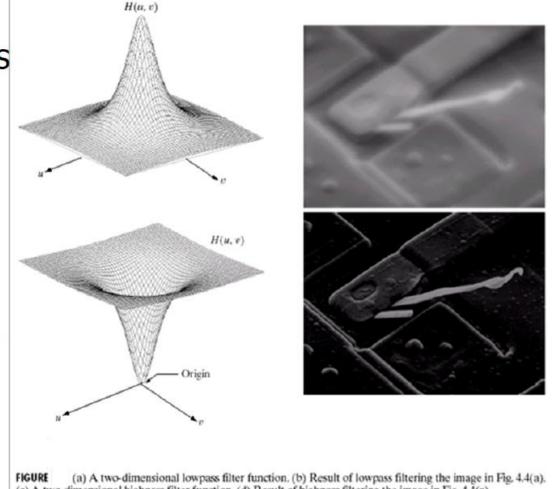
### Low-pass and High-pass Filters

#### **Low Pass Filter**

attenuates high frequencies while "passing" low frequencies.

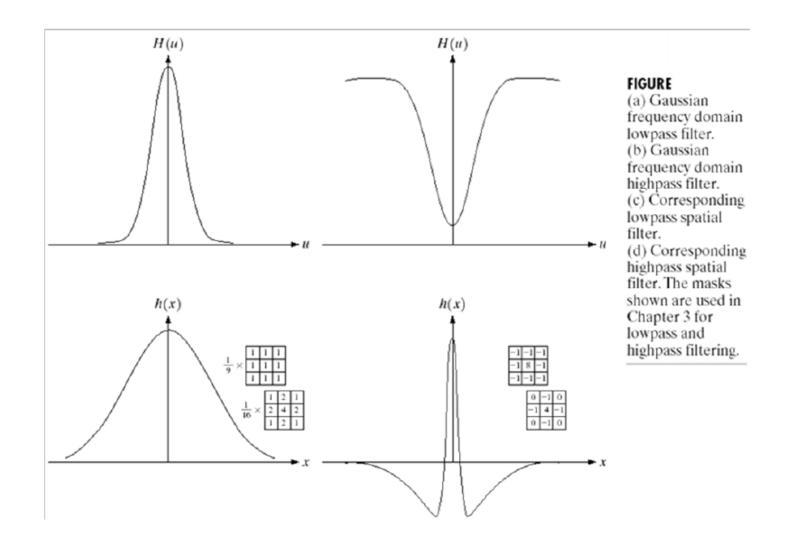
#### **High Pass Filter**

attenuates low frequencies while "passing" high frequencies.



(c) A two-dimensional highpass filter function. (d) Result of highpass filtering the image in Fig. 4.4(a).

## Low-pass and High-pass Filters



### Smoothing Frequency-Domain Filters

The basic model for filtering in the frequency domain

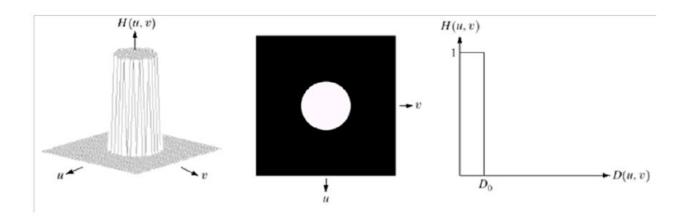
$$G(u,v) = H(u,v)F(u,v)$$

where F(u,v): the Fourier transform of the image to be smoothed

H(u,v): a filter transfer function

- Smoothing is fundamentally a lowpass operation in the frequency domain.
- There are several standard forms of lowpass filters (LPF).
  - Ideal lowpass filter
  - Butterworth lowpass filter
  - Gaussian lowpass filter

### Smoothing Frequency Domain, Ideal Lowpass Filters

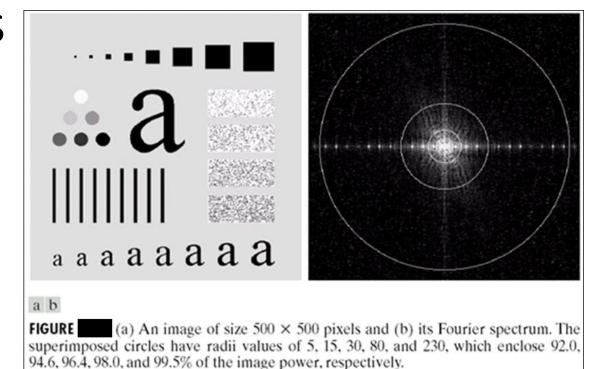


**FIGURE** (a) Perspective plot of an ideal lowpass filter transfer function. (b) Filter displayed as an image. (c) Filter radial cross section.

$$H(u,v) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } D(u,v) \le D_0 \\ 0 & \text{if } D(u,v) > D_0 \end{cases}$$
$$D(u,v) = \left[ (u - M/2)^2 + (v - N/2)^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

#### Smoothing Frequency Domain, Ideal Low-

pass Filters



 $u = 0 \ v = 0$ 

Total Power 
$$f_c = \sum_{v=0}^{M-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} |F(u,v)|^2$$

The remained percentage 
$$\alpha = 100 \times \left[ \sum_{u} \sum_{v} |F(u,v)| / f_c \right]$$

Smoothing Frequency Domain, Ideal Low-

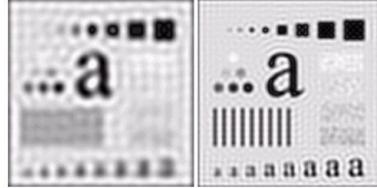
pass Filters



$$f_c = 5$$
  
 $\alpha = 92\%$ 

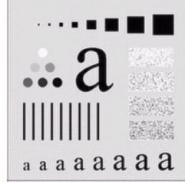
$$f_{c} = 15$$

$$\alpha = 94.6\%$$



$$f_{\rm c} = 30$$
  
 $\alpha = 96.4\%$ 

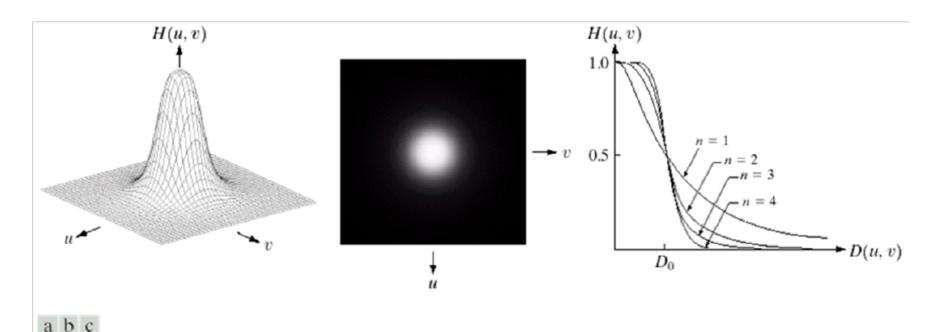
$$f_{\rm c} = 80$$
  
 $\alpha = 98\%$ 





$$f_{\rm c} = 230$$
  
 $\alpha = 99.5\%$ 

# Smoothing Frequency Domain, Butterworth Low-pass Filters



**FIGURE** (a) Perspective plot of a Butterworth lowpass filter transfer function. (b) Filter displayed as an image. (c) Filter radial cross sections of orders 1 through 4.

$$H(u,v) = \frac{1}{1 + [D(u,v)/D_0]^{2n}}$$

#### Smoothing Frequency Domain, Butterworth

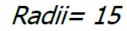
Low-pass Filters

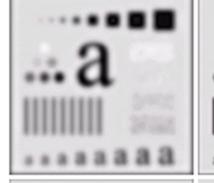
Butterworth Low-pass

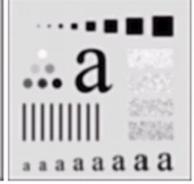
Filter: *n*=2



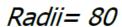
Radii= 5







*Radii= 30* 

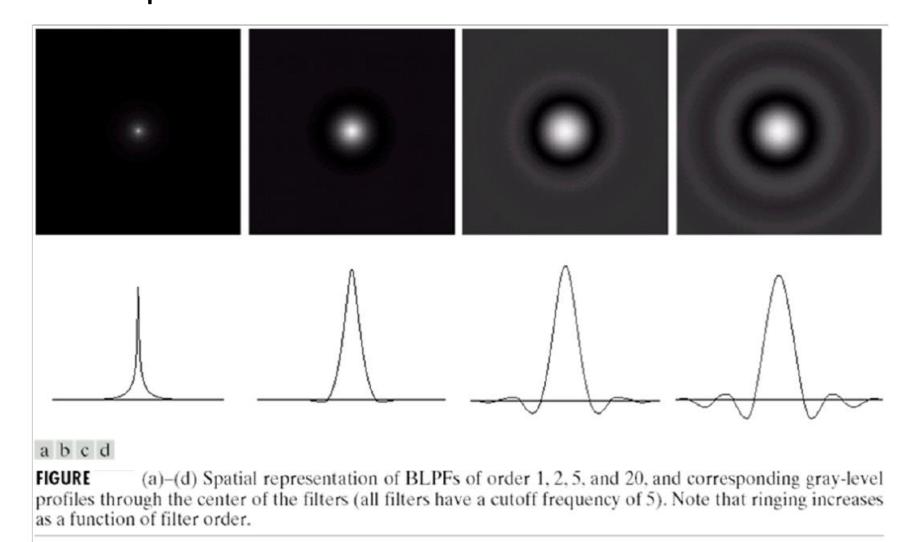


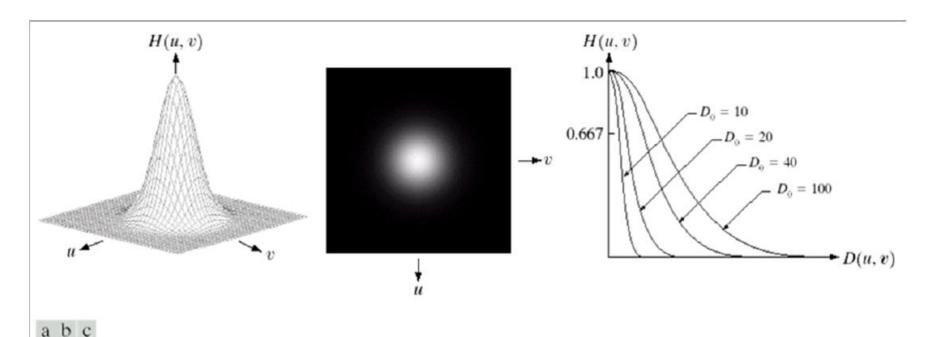




Radii= 230

## Smoothing Frequency Domain, Butterworth Low-pass Filters





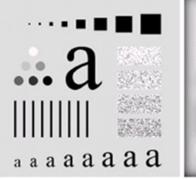
**FIGURE** (a) Perspective plot of a GLPF transfer function. (b) Filter displayed as an image. (c) Filter radial cross sections for various values of  $D_0$ .

$$H(u,v) = e^{-D^2(u,v)/2D_0^2}$$

### Smoothing Frequency Domain, Gaussian Low-

pass Filters

Gaussian Low-pass

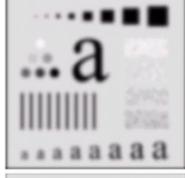






Radii= 5

Radii= 15



aaaaaaaa





Radii= 30

Radii= 230

Radii= 80

(a) Original image. (b)-(f) Results of filtering with Gaussian lowpass filters with cutoff frequencies set at radii values of 5, 15, 30, 80, and 230, as shown in Fig. 4.11(b). Compare with Figs. 4.12 and 4.15.



a b

#### FIGURE 4.19

(a) Sample text of poor resolution (note broken characters in magnified view). (b) Result of filtering with a GLPF (broken character segments were joined).

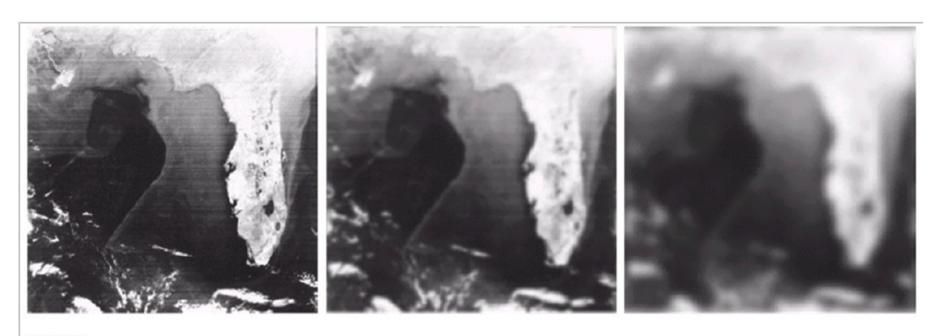
Historically, certain computer programs were written using only two digits rather than four to define the applicable year. Accordingly, the company's software may recognize a date using "00" as 1900 rather than the year 2000.

Historically, certain computer programs were written using only two digits rather than four to define the applicable year. Accordingly, the company's software may recognize a date using "00" as 1900 rather than the year 2000.



a b c

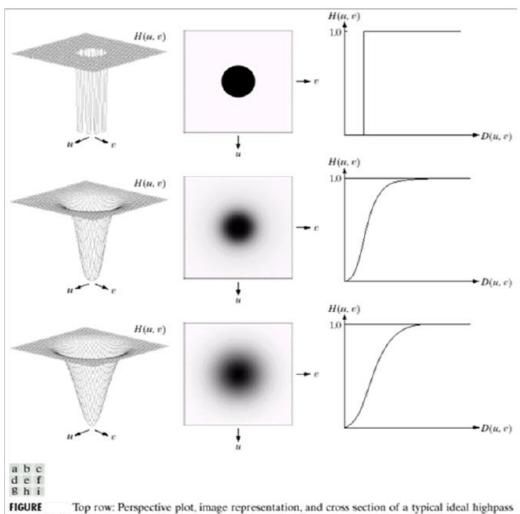
**FIGURE** (a) Original image (1028 × 732 pixels). (b) Result of filtering with a GLPF with  $D_0 = 100$ . (c) Result of filtering with a GLPF with  $D_0 = 80$ . Note reduction in skin fine lines in the magnified sections of (b) and (c).



abc

**FIGURE** .... (a) Image showing prominent scan lines. (b) Result of using a GLPF with  $D_0 = 30$ . (c) Result of using a GLPF with  $D_0 = 10$ . (Original image courtesy of NOAA.)

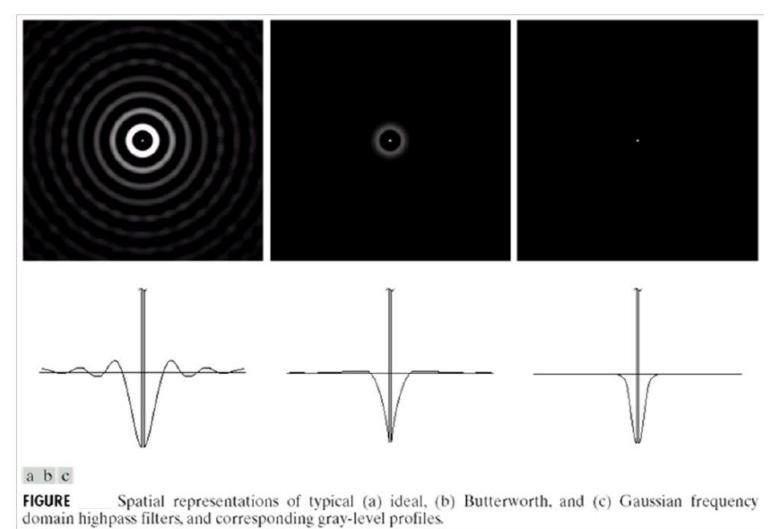
#### Sharpening Frequency Domain Filters: Highpass Filters



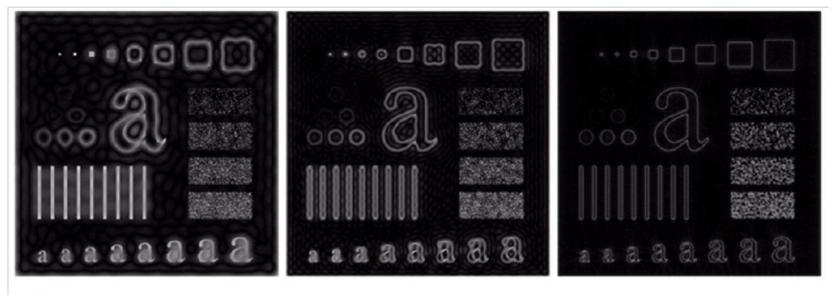
$$H_{hp}(u,v) = 1 - H_{lp}(u,v)$$

filter. Middle and bottom rows: The same sequence for typical Butterworth and Gaussian highpass filters.

#### Sharpening Frequency Domain Filters: Highpass Filters



# Sharpening Frequency Domain Filters: Ideal High-pass Filters

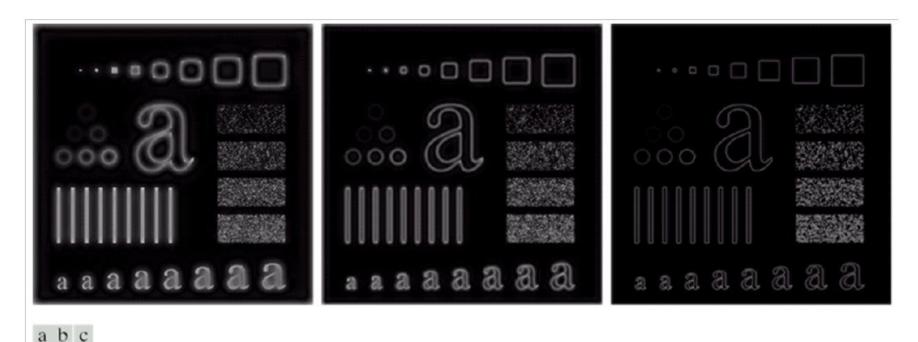


abc

**FIGURE** Results of ideal highpass filtering the image in Fig. 4.11(a) with  $D_0 = 15$ , 30, and 80, respectively. Problems with ringing are quite evident in (a) and (b).

$$H(u,v) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } D(u,v) \le D_0 \\ 1 & \text{if } D(u,v) > D_0 \end{cases}$$

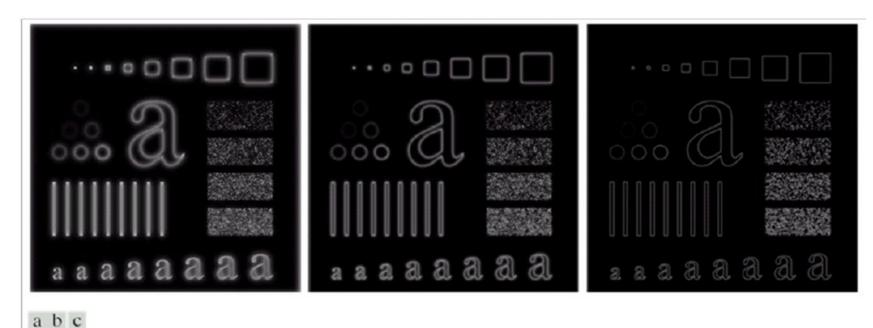
# Sharpening Frequency Domain Filters: Butterworth High-pass Filters



**FIGURE** Results of highpass filtering the image in Fig. 4.11(a) using a BHPF of order 2 with  $D_0 = 15$ , 30, and 80, respectively. These results are much smoother than those obtained with an ILPF.

$$H(u,v) = \frac{1}{1 + [D_0/D(u,v)]^{2n}}$$

# Sharpening Frequency Domain Filters: Gaussian High-pass Filters



EIGURE Desults of highpass filtering the image of Fig. 4.11(a) using

**FIGURE** Results of highpass filtering the image of Fig. 4.11(a) using a GHPF of order 2 with  $D_0 = 15$ , 30, and 80, respectively. Compare with Figs. 4.24 and 4.25.

$$H(u,v) = 1 - e^{-D^2(u,v)/2D_0^2}$$