

## Theorems for the Two-dimensional Fourier Transform

### Similarity Theorem

Note that in 2-D the similarity theorem only relates the scaling in the  $x$  and  $y$  dimensions, and not in an arbitrary direction. For example, stretching in the  $45^\circ$  direction cannot be represented by stretching in  $x$  and  $y$  only - this requires use of a rotation and stretch.

Similarity in one-d:

$$f(x) \supset F(s) \Rightarrow f(ax) \supset \frac{1}{|a|} F\left(\frac{s}{a}\right)$$

Similarity in 2-D:

$$f(x,y) \supset F(u,v) \Rightarrow f(ax,by) \supset \frac{1}{|ab|} F\left(\frac{u}{a}, \frac{v}{b}\right)$$

### Shift theorem

Shifting a point in one-d does not alter the magnitude of a function or of its Fourier components, but the phase of each component changes. In fact, each component  $\cos 2\pi ft$  shifts in phase proportional to its frequency. Thus the shift in time leads to a linear phase gradient in the transform domain.

Shift in 1-D:

$$f(x) \supset F(s) \Rightarrow f(x-a) \supset e^{-i2\pi as} F(s)$$

Note that the phase shift at zero frequency is zero.

Shift in 2-D:

$$f(x,y) \supset F(u,v) \Rightarrow f(x-a,y-b) \supset e^{-i2\pi(au+bv)} F(u,v)$$

Once again, no change in amplitude occurs but a plane phase gradient through the origin is introduced:

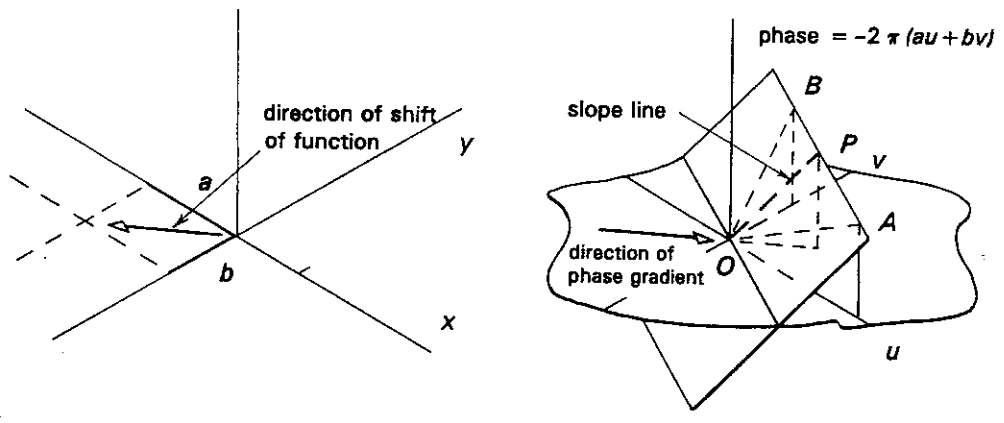


Figure 4-16 A shift of origin in the picture plane introduces a linear phase gradient in the transform domain.

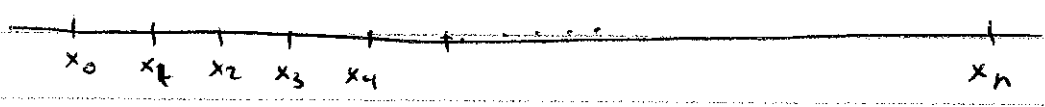
The slope of this plane is  $2\pi \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$  with respect to the  $uv$  plane, equal to the gradient of the linear phase term.

$$\left[ \Phi = -2\pi(au + bv), \text{ grad } \Phi = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial u} \hat{u} + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial v} \hat{v} \right]$$

The converse of this theorem states that a phase gradient applied to an image, going through zero at the origin, results in a shift in the transform domain. This is useful for interpolation.

Example. How might we use the shift theorem to interpolate a sequence  $1/4$  pixel?

Consider this sequence of points sampled at each integer



which we represent by  $f(x)$  at integral  $x$ .

We might calculate its transform, defined at coefficients  $u_j$ .



Now apply a phase gradient such that  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  radians is added at each point:

$$u_j' = u_j e^{-2\pi i \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot j} \quad \text{or} \quad F(u') = F(u) e^{-i \frac{\pi}{2} u} = F(u) e^{-i 2\pi \frac{u}{4}}$$

Inverse transform, and obtain

$$F(u) e^{-i 2\pi u \cdot \frac{1}{4}} \supset f(x - \frac{1}{4})$$

which, if evaluated at integral locations has values offset by  $\frac{1}{4}$  point from the original sequence.

### Rotation theorem

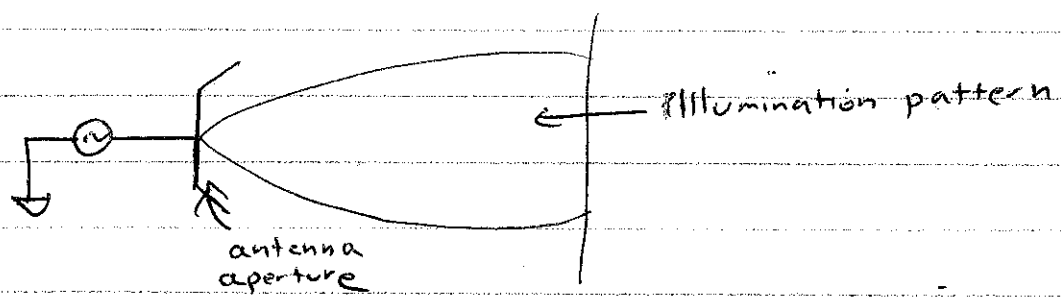
$$f(x, y) \supset F(u, v) \Rightarrow$$

$$f(x \cos \theta - y \sin \theta, y \cos \theta + x \sin \theta) \supset F(u \cos \theta - v \sin \theta, v \cos \theta + u \sin \theta)$$

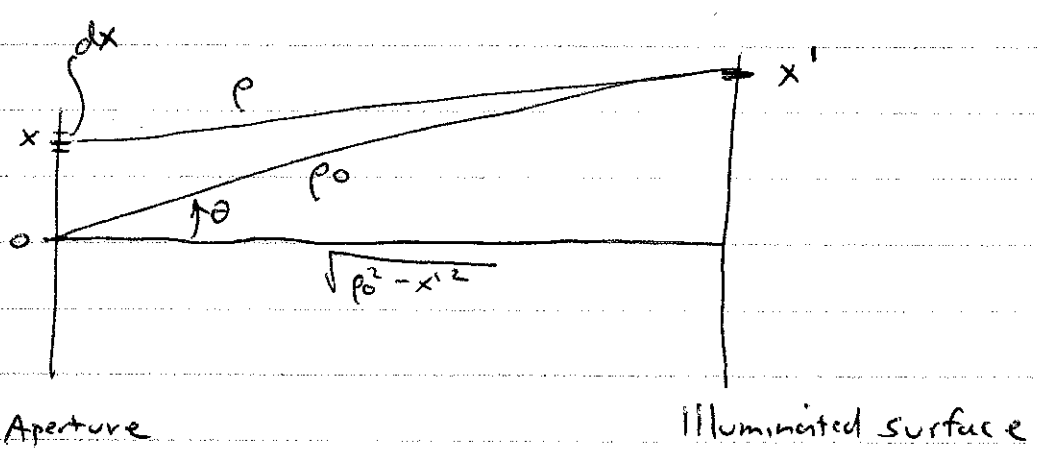
Here is a theorem that doesn't exist in 1-D analog. It also isn't exactly clear from the math. But if we consider the transform as a distribution of power from an antenna aperture, it is physically obvious that rotating an antenna yields a rotated pattern,  $\theta$  for  $\theta$ .

Example application Fraunhofer approximation to antenna patterns

The Fraunhofer approximation relates the pattern, or distribution of energy, emitted by an antenna to the voltage distribution at the antenna aperture:



Physics: The voltage at a point  $x'$  on an illuminated surface is the sum of all the voltages for each infinitesimal element of the aperture, each weighted by an amplitude and phase propagation constant  $\frac{e^{i \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} p}}{\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} p}$



Thus the total voltage sensed at  $x'$  is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \frac{e^{i \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} p}}{\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} p} dx$$

where  $f(x)$  is the aperture distribution and  $\rho$  is a function of both  $x$  and  $x'$ .

Geometry gives us

$$\begin{aligned}\rho^2 &= (x-x')^2 + (\rho_0^2 - x'^2) \\ &= \rho_0^2 - \underline{2xx'} + x^2\end{aligned}$$

The Fraunhofer approximation is for small  $x$ , so we ignore  $x^2$ :

$$\rho^2 \approx \rho_0^2 - 2xx'$$

$$\rho \approx \rho_0 \left(1 - \frac{2xx'}{\rho_0^2}\right)^{1/2}$$

and, since  $xx' \ll \rho_0^2$ ,

$$\rho \approx \rho_0 \left(1 - \frac{xx'}{\rho_0^2}\right) = \rho_0 - \frac{xx'}{\rho_0}$$

Using  $\sin \theta = \frac{x'}{\rho_0}$

$$\rho = \rho_0 - x \sin \theta$$

So our integral is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \frac{e^{i \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (\rho_0 - x \sin \theta)}}{\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \rho} dx$$

Again the small  $x$  approximation means we can ignore the amplitude variation caused by the denominator, and the  $\rho_0$  in the  $\exp()$  leads only to a phase constant which we ignore:

$$g(\theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i2\pi x \frac{\sin\theta}{\lambda}} dx$$

The pattern  $g(\theta)$  is thus the Fourier transform of the aperture distribution  $f(x)$  with  $\frac{\sin\theta}{\lambda}$  as the argument. For small angles  $\sin\theta \approx \theta$ , and  $\lambda$  provides a scaling factor. The corresponding development in 2-D yields

$$g(\theta, \phi) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) e^{-i2\pi(x \frac{\sin\theta}{\lambda} + y \frac{\sin\phi}{\lambda})} dx dy$$

Back to the theorems

Shear theorems. Similarity, shift, and rotation are all special cases of the general affine transformation

$$x' = ax + by + c$$

$$y' = dx + ey + f$$

So is pure shear:

$$x' = x + by$$

$$y' = y$$

} shear in x (horizontal)



→



← Is this area-preserving?

Simple shear:

$$f(x, y) \xrightarrow{\text{shear}} F(u, v) \Rightarrow f(x + by, y) \xrightarrow{\text{shear}} F(u, v - bu)$$

So shear in one direction corresponds to a ~~another~~ shear in the perpendicular direction for ~~the~~ the transformed data.

For completeness, vertical shear:

$$f(x, dx+y) \stackrel{?}{=} F(u-dv, v)$$

Compound shear.

$$f(x, y) \stackrel{?}{=} F(u, v) \Rightarrow$$

$$f(x+by, dx+y) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{1}{|1-bd|} F\left(\frac{u-dv}{1-bd}, \frac{-bu+v}{1-bd}\right)$$

It is clear from the form of this pair that some scaling is involved. That this is so follows from a closer look at the transformations involved.

Horizontal shear -  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Vertical Shear -  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ d & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Now, for horizontal followed by vertical shear

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ d & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ d & 1+bd \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{scaling in } y$$

Vertical followed by ~~horizontal~~ horizontal

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ d & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+bd & b \\ d & 1 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{scaling in } x$$

Thus the order of applying shear matters! Compound shear is different yet:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ d & 1 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{This is the matrix we used for the theorem.}$$

### Affine Theorem

The preceding have all been special cases of a general affine transformation. We may thus expect to be able to derive the case for the full transformation, and the answer is:

$$f(x, y) \xrightarrow{z} F(u, v)$$

$$f(ax+by+c, dx+ey+f) \xrightarrow{z}$$

$$\frac{1}{|\Delta|} \exp \left\{ \frac{i2\pi}{\Delta} [(ec-bf)u + (af-cd)v] \right\} F\left(\frac{eu-dv}{\Delta}, \frac{-bu+av}{\Delta}\right)$$

where  $\Delta$  is the determinant  $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ d & e \end{vmatrix} = ae - bd$

Bracewell gives a derivation in the book, pp 160-161.

### Rayleigh's Theorem in 2-D

$$f(x, y) \xrightarrow{z} F(u, v) \Rightarrow \iint |f(x, y)|^2 dx dy = \iint |F(u, v)|^2 du dv$$

This theorem is often encountered in physical arguments involving conservation of energy - energy must be the same in either domain.

A more general version of this theorem is

$$\iint f(x, y) g^*(x, y) dx dy = \iint F(u, v) G^*(u, v) du dv$$

which can be proved from the autocorrelation theorem.



## Parseval's Theorem in 2-D

Parseval's theorem is another way of looking at energy in multiple domains. It applies to functions which are periodic and thus  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^2(t) dt$  does not converge.

Suppose  $f(x, y)$  is periodic in both  $x$  and  $y$  with unit period. Then its transform is expressible as a series of coefficients at integral locations in the  $u, v$  plane:

$$F(u, v) = \sum \sum a_{mn}^2 \delta(u-m, v-n)$$

An example of this would be a Fourier series.

Parseval's theorem states

if  $f(x+1, y+1) = f(x, y)$  for all  $x, y$  (ie, function periodic)

$$\int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} |f(x, y)|^2 dx dy = \sum \sum a_{mn}^2$$

or the energy in one period is the sum of the transform coefficients.

## Derivative Theorem

$$f(x, y) \rightarrow F(u, v) \Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x, y) \rightarrow i 2\pi u F(u, v)$$

In other words, each component of the transform will be scaled by its spatial frequency and shifted  $90^\circ$  in phase.

So for a single component

$$A \sin 2\pi u x \sin 2\pi v y$$

its derivative is

$$2\pi u A \sin\left(2\pi ux + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \sin 2\pi vy$$

Higher frequency components receive higher weight, as we would expect.

Many associated results follow:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(x,y) \rightsquigarrow i 2\pi v F(u,v)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} f(x,y) \rightsquigarrow -4\pi^2 u^2 F(u,v)$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}\right) f(x,y) \rightsquigarrow -4\pi^2 (u^2 + v^2) F(u,v)$$

### Difference Theorem

For discrete data the equivalent of the derivative is the first difference:

$$f(x,y) \rightsquigarrow F(u,v):$$

$${}^a\Delta_x f(x,y) = f(x+\frac{1}{2}a, y) - f(x-\frac{1}{2}a, y) \rightsquigarrow 2i \sin \pi a u F(u,v)$$

2nd difference:

$${}^a\Delta_{xx} f(x,y) = f(x+a, y) - 2f(x, y) + f(x-a, y) \rightsquigarrow -4 \sin^2 \pi a u F(u,v)$$

and so forth.

## Definite Integral Theorem

$$f(x, y) \rightsquigarrow F(u, v) \Rightarrow \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx dy = F(0, 0)$$

## First Moment Theorem

$$f(x, y) \rightsquigarrow F(u, v) \Rightarrow \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x, y) dx dy = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \frac{\partial}{\partial u} F(0, 0)$$

↑  
derivative in  $u$  of  $F$   
evaluated at  $0, 0$

This is proven using the inverse of the derivative Theorem:

$$-i2\pi x f(x, y) \rightsquigarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial u} F(u, v)$$

↑ negative sign from change of sign in inverse transform

## Second Moment Theorems

$$f(x, y) \rightsquigarrow F(u, v) \Rightarrow \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x, y) dx dy = -\frac{\partial^2}{\partial u^2} F(0, 0) \cdot \frac{1}{4\pi^2}$$

and a host of others (see text p. 165)

## Equivalent area

We can define the equivalent area of a function in two dimensions such that

$$\text{eq. area} \times \text{height of function at origin} = \text{volume of function}$$

or

$$A_e \cdot f(0, 0) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx dy$$

Similarly the transform  $F(u, v)$  has an equivalent area  $A_F$ .

The theorem simply states  $A_f = \frac{1}{A_F}$

### Separable Product Theorem

If a function is separable then its transform is determined by 2 1-D transforms.

$$f(x) \supset F(u) \text{ and } g(y) \supset G(v) \Rightarrow$$

$$f(x)g(y) \supset F(u)G(v)$$

A special case:  $g(y) = 1$ , then

$$f(x) \supset F(u)\delta(v)$$

### The Hartley Transform

Related to the Fourier transform is the Hartley transform

$$H(u, v) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) \text{cas}[2\pi(ux+vy)] dx dy$$

$$f(x, y) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(u, v) \text{cas}[2\pi(ux+vy)] du dv$$

where  $\text{cas } \theta = \cos \theta + \sin \theta$

The advantage of the Hartley transform is that the transform of a real image is also real. This can be an advantage for computer implementations.

Hatley Transform TheoremsAffine theorem (incorporates many special cases)

$$f(x, y) \stackrel{Z}{\underset{H}{\longleftrightarrow}} H(u, v)$$

$$f(ax+by+c, dx+ey+f) \stackrel{Z}{\underset{H}{\longleftrightarrow}} |\Delta|^{-1} [H(\alpha, \beta) \cos \theta - H(-\alpha, -\beta) \sin \theta]$$

where  $\Delta = ae - bd$

$$\alpha = (au - dv) / \Delta$$

$$\beta = (-bu + av) / \Delta$$

$$\theta = 2\pi \Delta^{-1} [(ec - bf)u + (af - cd)v]$$

Conversion theorem

$$f(x, y) \stackrel{Z}{\underset{H}{\longleftrightarrow}} F(u, v) = R(u, v) + i I(u, v)$$

$$\text{then } f(x, y) \stackrel{Z}{\underset{H}{\longleftrightarrow}} R(u, v) - i I(u, v)$$

Discrete Fourier Transform

Given for completeness:

$$F(\sigma, \tau) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x, y) \exp \left[ -i \left( \frac{2\pi \sigma x}{M} + \frac{2\pi \tau y}{N} \right) \right]$$

and

$$f(x, y) = \sum_{\sigma=0}^{M-1} \sum_{\tau=0}^{N-1} F(\sigma, \tau) \exp \left[ i \left( \frac{2\pi \sigma x}{M} + \frac{2\pi \tau y}{N} \right) \right]$$