

FFTs in Graphics and Vision

Differential Equations

Outline



A Simple PDE

Solving the PDE

Relationship to the Fourier Transform

Generalizations

Examples



In many physical systems, the way that the system changes over time only depends on its current state.

Examples:

- Population growth
- Radioactive decay
- Vibrations of a plucked string
- Heat dissipation
- Advection of particles in a vector field



In many physical systems, the way that the system changes over time only depends on its current state.

What we would like to be able to answer is:

- Given the dependency of the change in the system to its current state, and
- Given the initial state of the system,

How will the system evolve over time?



A Simple Case:

Consider a 1D system represented by the function f(x,t), where x represents the point in space and t the point in time.



A Simple Case:

If the change in the system can be described by:

$$\frac{\partial f(x,t)}{\partial t} = a_0 \cdot f(x,t) + \dots + a_n \cdot \frac{\partial^n f(x,t)}{\partial x^n}$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^n a_n \cdot \frac{\partial^p f(x,t)}{\partial x^p}$$

and the initial state is defined by:

$$f(x,0) = g(x)$$

How do we compute the state at time *t*:

$$f(x,t) = ?$$

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Solving the PDE



General Approach:

- 1. Solve the 1D equation $h'(t) = \lambda \cdot h(t)$.
- 2. Find a set of solutions to the 2D PDE.
- 3. Find the linear combination of solutions that satisfies the initial condition.

Solve the 1D equation $h'(t) = \lambda \cdot h(t)$

$$h'(t) = \lambda \cdot h(t)$$

$$\updownarrow$$

$$h(t) = C \cdot e^{\lambda t}$$

Approach:

To solve for the function f(x, t) that satisfies:

$$\frac{\partial f(x,t)}{\partial t} = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_p \cdot \frac{\partial^p f(x,t)}{\partial x^p}$$

we will try to express f(x,t) as the product:

$$f(x,t) = g_{\lambda}(x) \cdot h_{\lambda}(t)$$

That is, we will try to solve for $g_{\lambda}(x)$ and $h_{\lambda}(t)$ s.t.:

$$\frac{\partial (g_{\lambda}(x) \cdot h_{\lambda}(t))}{\partial t} = \sum_{n=0}^{n} a_{p} \cdot \frac{\partial^{p} (g_{\lambda}(x) \cdot h_{\lambda}(t))}{\partial x^{p}}$$



Observation 1:

The map:

$$f(x) \to \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_p \cdot \frac{\partial^p f(x)}{\partial x^p}$$

is linear.

Taking the p-th derivative is a linear operation:

$$\frac{\partial^p (\alpha \cdot f(x) + \beta \cdot g(x))}{\partial x^p} = \alpha \cdot \frac{\partial^p f(x)}{\partial x^p} + \beta \cdot \frac{\partial^p g(x)}{\partial x^p}$$



Observation 1:

The map:

$$f(x) \to \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_p \cdot \frac{\partial^p f(x)}{\partial x^p}$$

is linear.

We will write out this linear operator as:

$$D = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_k \cdot \frac{\partial^p}{\partial x^p}$$

Observation 2:

If we can find an eigenvalue/eigenvector of D, we can find a solution to the PDE.

Observation 2:

Suppose that $g_{\lambda}(x)$ is an eigenvector of D with eigenvalue λ :

$$D(g_{\lambda}(x)) = \lambda \cdot g_{\lambda}(x)$$

We want to find $h_{\lambda}(t)$ such that:

$$\frac{\partial (g_{\lambda}(x) \cdot h_{\lambda}(t))}{\partial t} = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_{p} \cdot \frac{\partial^{p} (g_{\lambda}(x) \cdot h_{\lambda}(t))}{\partial x^{p}}$$

D

Observation 2:

$$\frac{\partial (g_{\lambda}(x) \cdot h_{\lambda}(t))}{\partial t} = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_{p} \cdot \frac{\partial^{p} (g_{\lambda}(x) \cdot h_{\lambda}(t))}{\partial x^{p}}$$

Using the fact that $g_{\lambda}(x)$ does not depend on t we can re-write the left-hand side as:

$$LHS = g_{\lambda}(x) \cdot \frac{\partial h_{\lambda}(t)}{\partial t}$$

Observation 2:

$$\frac{\partial (g_{\lambda}(x) \cdot h_{\lambda}(t))}{\partial t} = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_{p} \cdot \frac{\partial^{p} (g_{\lambda}(x) \cdot h_{\lambda}(t))}{\partial x^{p}}$$

Using the fact that $h_{\lambda}(t)$ does not depend on x we can re-write the right-hand side as:

$$RHS = h_{\lambda}(t) \cdot \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_{p} \cdot \frac{\partial^{p} g_{\lambda}(x)}{\partial x^{p}}$$
$$= h_{\lambda}(t) \cdot D(g_{\lambda}(x))$$
$$= \lambda \cdot h_{\lambda}(t) \cdot g_{\lambda}(x)$$

Observation 2:

So now we are left with the problem of solving for the function $h_{\lambda}(t)$ such that:

Observation 2:

 \Rightarrow If $g_{\lambda}(x)$ is an eigenvector of the linear operator D with eigenvalue λ , then:

$$f_{\lambda}(x,t) = e^{\lambda t} \cdot g_{\lambda}(x)$$

must be a solution to the differential equation:

$$\frac{\partial f(x,t)}{\partial t} = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_p \cdot \frac{\partial^p f(x,t)}{\partial x^p}$$



Observation 3:

If $f_1(x,t)$ and $f_2(x,t)$ are solutions to the (partial) differential equation:

$$\frac{\partial f(x,t)}{\partial t} = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_p \cdot \frac{\partial^p f(x,t)}{\partial x^p}$$

then any linear combination of the two must also be a solution.



• For any eigenvector $g_{\lambda}(x)$ with eigenvalue λ :

$$f_{\lambda}(x,t) = e^{\lambda t} \cdot g_{\lambda}(x)$$

is a solution.

- Any linear combination of solutions is a solution.
- \Rightarrow Any function f(x, t) expressable as:

$$f(x,t) = \sum_{\lambda} c_{\lambda} \cdot e^{\lambda t} \cdot g_{\lambda}(x)$$

must be a solution to the PDE.



To satisfy the initial value conditions, we need to choose c_{λ} so that the function:

$$f(x,t) = \sum_{\lambda} c_{\lambda} \cdot e^{\lambda t} \cdot g_{\lambda}(x)$$

satisfies the initial value conditions:

$$f(x,0) = g(x)$$

But this implies that:

$$g(x) = \sum_{\lambda} c_{\lambda} \cdot g_{\lambda}(x)$$



To satisfy the initial value conditions, we need to choose c_{λ} so that the function:

$$f(x,t) = \sum_{\lambda} c_{\lambda} \cdot e^{\lambda t} \cdot g_{\lambda}(x)$$

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Satisfying the initial value conditions is equivalent to finding the coefficients of g(x) with respect to the functions $\{g_{\lambda}(x)\}$

$$g(x) = \sum_{\lambda} c_{\lambda} \cdot g_{\lambda}(x)$$

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Recall that the Fourier decomposition expresses a circular function $f(\theta)$ as a sum of complex exponentials of different frequencies:

$$f(\theta) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(k) \cdot \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

The complex exponentials are the eigenvectors of the derivative operator:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} e^{ik\theta} = ik \cdot e^{ik\theta}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} e^{ik\theta} = -k^2 \cdot e^{ik\theta}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\frac{\partial^n}{\partial \theta^n} e^{ik\theta} = (ik)^n \cdot e^{ik\theta}$$

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So, if we are given the linear map:

$$D = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_p \cdot \frac{\partial^p}{\partial \theta^p}$$

it will act on $e^{ik\theta}$ as:

$$D(e^{ik\theta}) = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_p \cdot (ik)^p \cdot e^{ik\theta}$$

So, if we are given the linear map:

$$D = \sum_{l=0}^{n} a_0 \cdot \frac{\partial^l}{\partial \theta^l}$$

it acts on $e^{ik\theta}$ as:

$$D(e^{ik\theta}) = \left(\sum_{p=0}^{n} a_l \cdot (ik)^p\right) \cdot e^{ik\theta}$$

 $\Rightarrow e^{ik\theta}$ is an eigenvector with eigenvalue:

$$\lambda_k = \sum_{p=0}^{\infty} a_p \cdot (ik)^p$$

In particular, this implies that:

$$f_k(\theta,t) = e^{\lambda_k t} \cdot e^{ik\theta}$$

are solutions to the partial differential equation:

$$\frac{\partial f(\theta, t)}{\partial t} = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_p \cdot \frac{\partial^p f(\theta, t)}{\partial \theta^p}$$

⇒ The solutions to the PDE will be of the form:

$$f(\theta, t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k \cdot e^{\lambda_k t} \cdot \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

$$f(\theta, t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k \cdot e^{\lambda_k t} \cdot \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

To satisfy the initial condition:

$$f(\theta,0) = g(\theta)$$

we need to solve for the values of c_k such that:

$$f(\theta,0) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k \cdot \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

 $\Rightarrow c_k$ must be the k-th Fourier coefficients of $g(\theta)$:

$$c_k = \hat{g}(k)$$

The solution to the PDE is the function $f(\theta, t)$ whose k-th Fourier coefficient at time t is the modulation of the k-th Fourier coefficient of $g(\theta)$ by a function of t:

$$\hat{f}_t(k) = \hat{g}(k) \cdot e^{\lambda_k t}$$

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To implement this, we start off by:

• Computing the Fourier coefficients of $g(\theta)$

Then, at each time *t*, we:

Compute the modulated Fourier coefficients:

$$\hat{f}_t(k) = \hat{g}(k) \cdot e^{\lambda_k t}$$

And compute the inverse Fourier transform.

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- Higher dimensions
- Second order time derivatives

Examples



In the case that the system is 2D, we want to consider functions of the form $f(\theta, \phi, t)$.

The linear partial differential equation becomes:

$$\frac{\partial f(\theta, \phi, t)}{\partial t} = \sum_{p=0}^{m} \sum_{q=0}^{n} a_{pq} \cdot \frac{\partial^{p} \partial^{q} f(\theta, \phi, t)}{\partial \theta^{p} \partial \phi^{q}}$$

The initial state becomes:

$$f(\theta, \phi, 0) = g(\theta, \phi)$$

And the challenge is to compute the state of the system at an arbitrary point in time:

$$f(\theta, \phi, t) = ?$$



As in the 1D case, we can use the fact that the a periodic 2D function $f(\theta, \phi)$ can be expressed in terms of its Fourier decomposition:

$$f(\theta,\phi) = \sum_{k,l=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(k,l) \cdot \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{e^{il\phi}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$



And again, we use the fact that the complex exponentials are the eigenvectors of the partial derivative operator:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi} = (ik) \cdot e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi} = (il) \cdot e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\frac{\partial^m \partial^n}{\partial \theta^m \partial \phi^n} e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi} = (ik)^m \cdot (il)^n \cdot e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi}$$



Thus, given the linear map:

$$D = \sum_{p=0}^{m} \sum_{q=0}^{n} a_{pq} \cdot \frac{\partial^{p} \partial^{q}}{\partial \theta^{p} \partial \phi^{q}}$$

Eigenvectors of this map are:

$$f_{kl}(\theta,\phi) = e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi}$$

And the associated eigenvalues are:

$$\lambda_{kl} = \sum_{p=0}^{m} \sum_{q=0}^{n} a_{pq} \cdot (ik)^{p} \cdot (il)^{q}$$

2D Systems



Given these eigenvectors, we can proceed as before, obtaining a solution to the differential equation for each eigenvector:

$$f_{kl}(\theta,\phi,t) = e^{\lambda_{kl}t} \cdot e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi}$$

And we can satisfy the initial condition:

$$f(\theta, \phi, 0) = g(\theta, \phi)$$

by setting the Fourier coefficients of $f(\theta, \phi, t)$ at time t equal to:

$$\hat{f}_t(k,l) = \hat{g}(k,l) \cdot e^{\lambda_{kl}t}$$

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What if the change in the system is characterized by the second derivative with respect to time:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(\theta, t)}{\partial t^2} = \sum_{p=0}^n a_p \cdot \frac{\partial^p f(\theta, t)}{\partial \theta^p}$$



Recall that the solution to the original PDE was derived by solving the (first-order time) derivative:

$$h'(t) = \lambda \cdot h(t)$$

In this case, we need to solve the second-order time derivative:

$$h''(t) = \lambda \cdot h(t)$$
 \Downarrow
 $h(t) = e^{\sqrt{\lambda}t} \quad \text{and} \quad h(t) = e^{-\sqrt{\lambda}t}$



As before, if $g_{\lambda}(\theta)$ is an eigenvector of the linear operator D with eigenvalue λ , then the functions:

$$f_{\lambda}^{+}(\theta, t) = e^{\sqrt{\lambda}t} \cdot g_{\lambda}(\theta)$$
$$f_{\lambda}^{-}(\theta, t) = e^{-\sqrt{\lambda}t} \cdot g_{\lambda}(\theta)$$

will both be solutions to the PDE.



Note that in this case, one eigenvector of D gives us two solutions to the differential equation.

We have more functions with which we can satisfy the initial boundary conditions.

We can specify more stringent boundary conditions.



In practice, this amounts to specifying two boundary conditions:

Initial value conditions:

$$f(\theta,0) = g(\theta)$$

Initial derivative conditions:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}f(\theta,0) = h(\theta)$$



<u>Intuitively</u>:

In the first-order case we are given the velocity at every point. If we know the initial positions, this is enough to know where things end up.

In the second-order case we are given the acceleration at every point. In order to know where things end up, we need to know both the initial position and the initial velocity.

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- The Laplacian
- The 2D heat equation
- The 2D wave equation



Given a function *f* in 1D, how do we interpret its second derivative:

$$\Delta f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^2}$$



The first derivative of f(x) is approximated by looking at the difference between the value of f at x and the value of f at a neighboring point:

$$f'(x) \approx f(x+1) - f(x)$$

The Laplacian of f(x) is approximated by applying the process to the derivative of f(x):

$$f''(x) \approx f'(x) - f'(x-1)$$

 $\approx (f(x+1) - f(x)) - (f(x) - f(x-1))$
 $\approx f(x+1) + f(x-1) - 2f(x)$



The first derivative of f(x) is approximated by looking at the difference between the value of f at x and the value of f at a neighboring point:

$$f'(x) \approx f(x+1) - f(x)$$

The Laplacian of f(x) is approximated by applying the process to the derivative of f(x):

$$f''(x) \approx 2\left(\frac{f(x+1) + f(x-1)}{2} - f(x)\right)$$

i.e. it is a measure of the difference between the value of f at x and the average value of f at the neighbors of x.



The same interpretation holds for the Laplacian of a 2D function f:

$$\Delta f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

i.e. The Laplacian of a function is a measure of how the value of f at a point (x, y) differs from the average of the values of its neighbors.

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"The rate of heat loss of a body is proportional to the difference in temperatures between the body and its surroundings."



"The rate of heat loss of a body is proportional to the difference in temperatures between the body and its surroundings."

Translating this into the PDE setting, if $f(\theta, \phi, t)$ is the heat at position (x, y) at time t, then:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = \eta \cdot \Delta f$$



$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = \eta \cdot \Delta f$$

In this case, the linear operator *D* is defined by:

$$D = \eta \cdot \Delta$$

And the complex exponential:

$$e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi}$$

is an eigenvector with eigenvalue:

$$\lambda_{kl} = -\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)$$



$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = \eta \cdot \Delta f$$

Thus, the solution to this equation:

$$f(\theta, \phi, 0) = g(\theta, \phi)$$

is the function whose (k, l)-th Fourier coefficient at time t is:

$$\hat{f}_t(k,l) = \hat{g}(k,l) \cdot e^{-\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2) \cdot t}$$



$$\hat{f}_t(k,l) = \hat{g}(k,l) \cdot e^{-\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2) \cdot t}$$

This looks remarkably like what we get when implement Gaussian smoothing...



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Consider a square rubber sheet.

If we displace the points on the sheet, then at any point (θ, ϕ) , the neighbors of (θ, ϕ) will exert a force to pull the point towards them.

The force that exerted on (θ, ϕ) is proportional to the distance of (θ, ϕ) from its neighbors.



If the height of the point (θ, ϕ) is given by the function $f(\theta, \phi)$ then the force at (θ, ϕ) is: $F(\theta, \phi) = \eta \cdot \Delta f(\theta, \phi) \quad \text{w/} \quad \eta > 0$

Using the fact that Force = Mass \cdot Acceleration, the PDE for the height at time t is:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} = \eta \cdot \Delta f$$



$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} = \eta \cdot \Delta f$$

We would like to solve this equation, subject to the constraints that at the initial time-step:

The height at each point is given by:

$$f(\theta, \phi, 0) = g(\theta, \phi)$$

• The sheet is not moving:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}f(\theta,\phi,0) = 0$$



$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} = \eta \cdot \Delta f$$

Again, the linear operator *D* is defined by:

$$D = \eta \cdot \Delta$$

And the complex exponential:

$$e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi}$$

is an eigenvector with eigenvalue:

$$\lambda_{kl} = -\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)$$



$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} = \eta \cdot \Delta f$$

Thus, the solutions to this equation are:

$$f_{kl}^{+}(\theta,\phi,t) = e^{i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t} \cdot e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi}$$
$$f_{kl}^{-}(\theta,\phi,t) = e^{-i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t} \cdot e^{ik\theta} \cdot e^{il\phi}$$

And a general solution takes the form:

$$f(\theta, \phi, t) = \sum_{k,l} \left(A_{kl} \cdot e^{i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t} + B_{kl} \cdot e^{-i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t} \right) \cdot \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{e^{il\phi}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$



$$f(\theta, \phi, t) = \sum_{k,l} \left(A_{kl} \cdot e^{i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t} + B_{kl} \cdot e^{-i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t} \right) \cdot \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{e^{il\phi}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

To satisfy the initial value condition:

$$f(\theta, \phi, 0) = g(\theta, \phi)$$

we need to have:

$$g(\theta, \phi) = \sum_{k,l} (A_{kl} + B_{kl}) \cdot \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{e^{il\phi}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow$$

$$\hat{g}(k, l) = A_{kl} + B_{kl}$$



$$f(\theta, \phi, t) = \sum_{k,l} \left(A_{kl} \cdot e^{i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t} + B_{kl} \cdot e^{-i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t} \right) \cdot \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{e^{il\phi}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

To satisfy the initial derivative condition:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}f(\theta,\phi,0) = 0$$

we need to have:

$$0 = \sum_{k,l} (A_{kl} - B_{kl}) \cdot \left(i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)} \right) \cdot \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{\sqrt{2}\pi} \cdot \frac{e^{il\phi}}{\sqrt{2}\pi}$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$A_{kl} = B_{kl}$$



$$f(\theta, \phi, t) = \sum_{k,l} \left(A_{kl} \cdot e^{i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t} + B_{kl} \cdot e^{-i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t} \right) \cdot \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{e^{il\phi}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

$$\hat{g}(k, l) = A_{kl} + B_{kl} \quad \text{and} \quad A_{kl} = B_{kl}$$

Putting all of this together, the solution to the 2D wave equation, with initial position $g(\theta, \phi)$ and zero initial derivative is the function $f(\theta, \phi, t)$ whose Fourier coefficients at time t are equal to:

$$\begin{split} \hat{f}_t(k,l) &= \hat{g}(k,l) \cdot \frac{e^{i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t} + e^{-i\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t}}{2} \\ &= \hat{g}(k,l) \cos\left(\sqrt{\eta \cdot (k^2 + l^2)}t\right) \end{split}$$



$$\hat{f}_t(k,l) = \hat{g}(k,l)\cos\left(\sqrt{\eta\cdot(k^2+l^2)}t\right)$$

This looks <u>nothing</u> like what we get when implement Gaussian smoothing...

