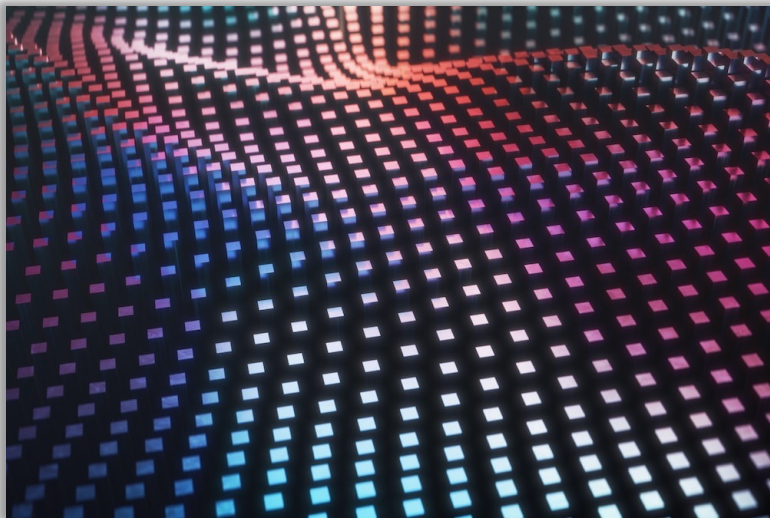


Review of Sampling, Deconvolution, Linear Systems



CSC2529

David Lindell

University of Toronto

cs.toronto.edu/~lindell/teaching/2529

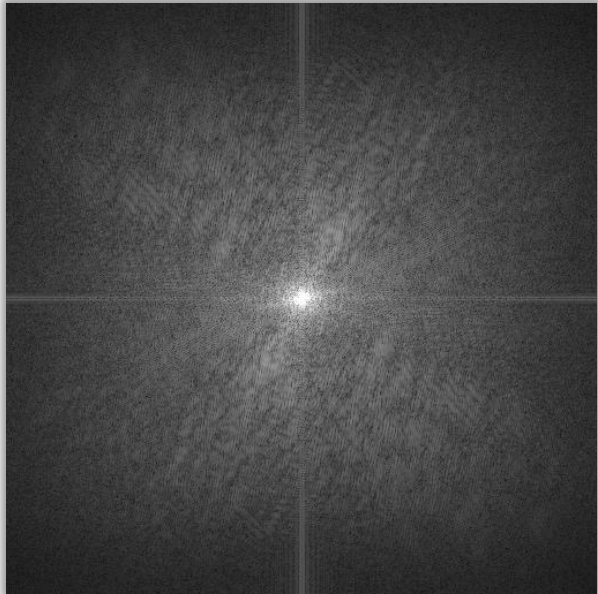
*slides adapted from Gordon Wetzstein,
Yannis Gkioulekas, and Fredo Durand

Announcements

- HW 2 due Wednesday 5/10
- HW3 is out
- See website for all office hours/problem session dates

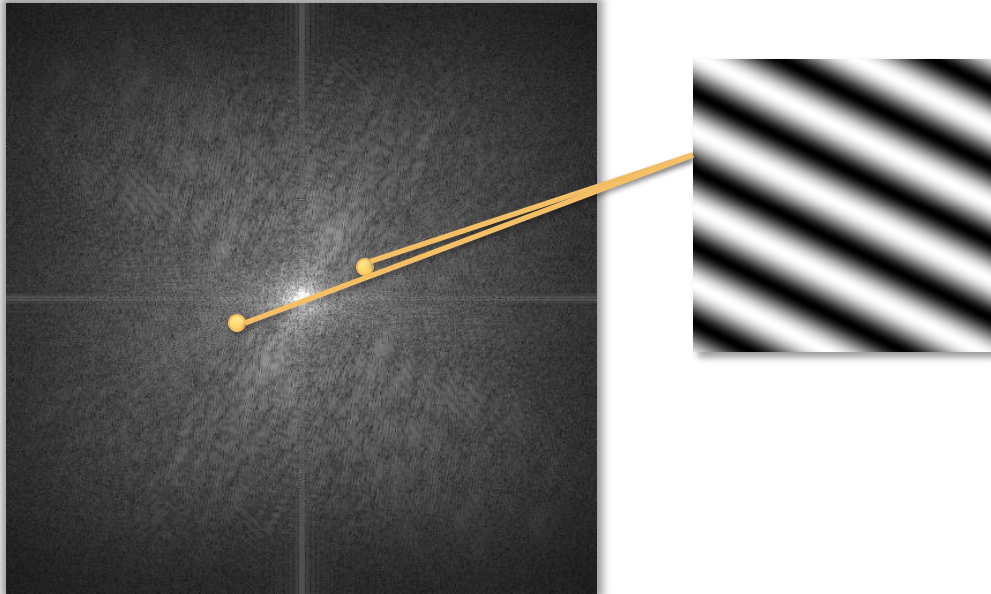
Fourier Transform

- What is this?



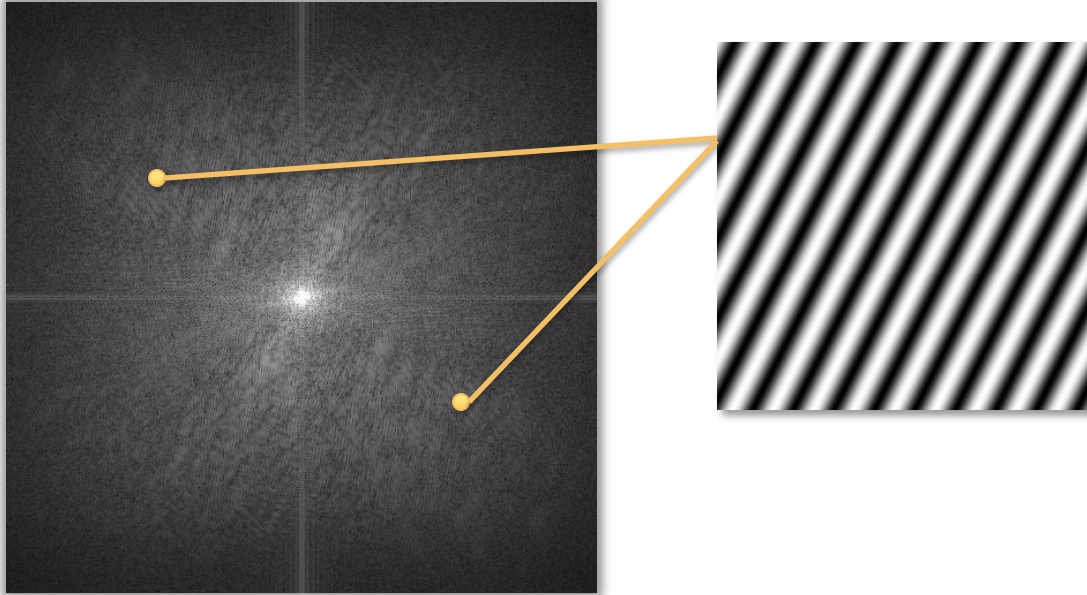
Fourier Transform

- What is this?



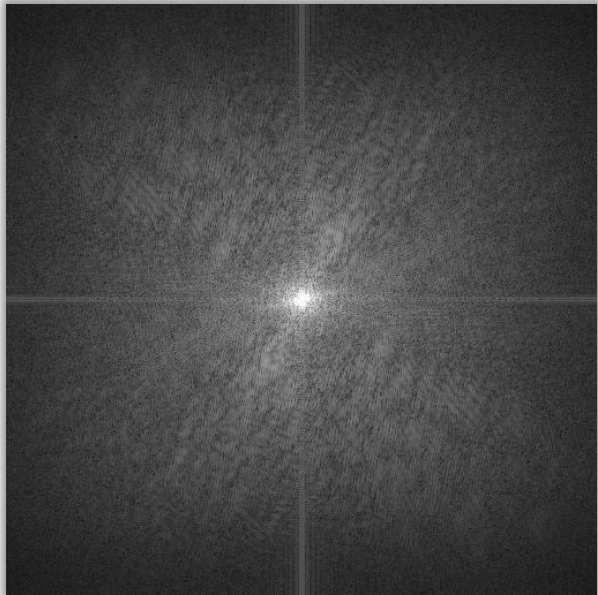
Fourier Transform

- What is this?



Fourier Transform

- What is this?



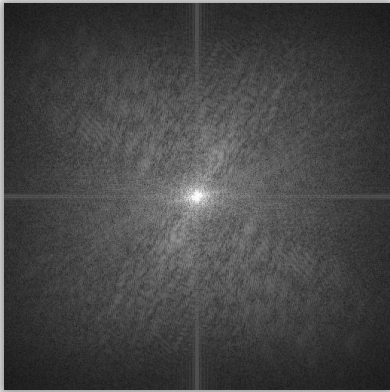
Fourier Transform

- any continuous, integrable function can be represented as an infinite sum of sines and cosines:

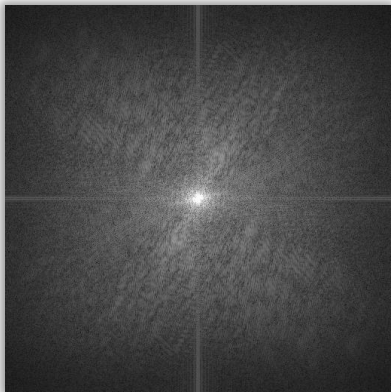
$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(\xi) e^{2\pi i \xi x} d\xi \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \hat{f}(\xi) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-2\pi i \xi x} dx$$

Fourier Transform

$$f(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(k_x, k_y) e^{2\pi i(k_x x + k_y y)} dk_x dk_y$$



Fourier Transform

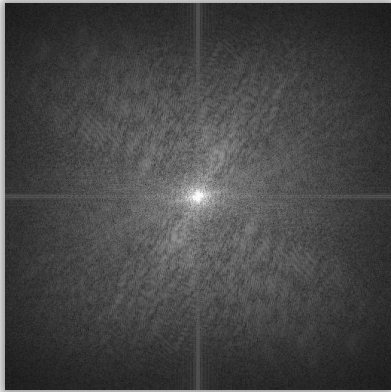


$$f(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(k_x, k_y) \underbrace{e^{2\pi i(k_x x + k_y y)}}_{\cos(2\pi[k_x x + k_y y]) + j \sin(2\pi[k_x x + k_y y])} dk_x dk_y$$

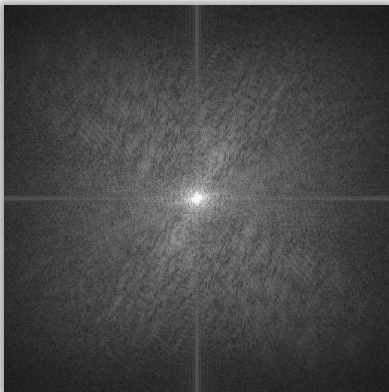


Fourier Transform

$$f(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{F(k_x, k_y) e^{2\pi i(k_x x + k_y y)}}_{Ae^{j\phi}} dk_x dk_y$$



Fourier Transform



$$f(x, y) = \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(k_x, k_y) e^{2\pi i(k_x x + k_y y)} dk_x dk_y}_{A \cos(2\pi[k_x x + k_y y] + \phi) + jA \sin(2\pi[k_x x + k_y y] + \phi)}$$

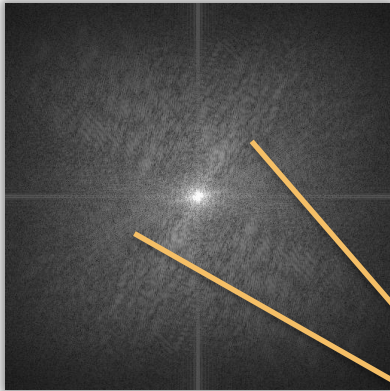


Fourier Transform

$$f(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{F(k_x, k_y) e^{2\pi i(k_x x + k_y y)}}_{A \cos(2\pi[k_x x + k_y y] + \phi) + jA \sin(2\pi[k_x x + k_y y] + \phi)} dk_x dk_y$$

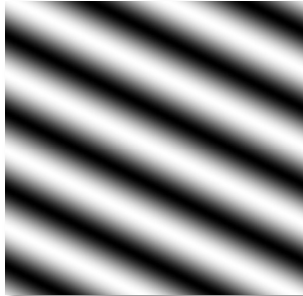
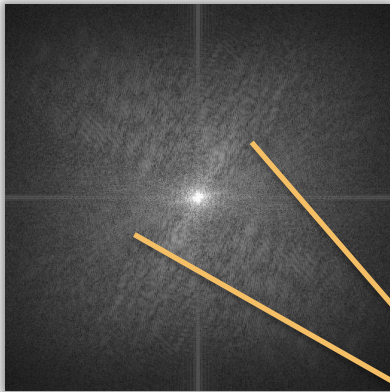
$$A \cos(2\pi[k_x x + k_y y] + \phi) + jA \sin(2\pi[k_x x + k_y y] + \phi)$$

Fourier coefficients of real signals are conjugate symmetric



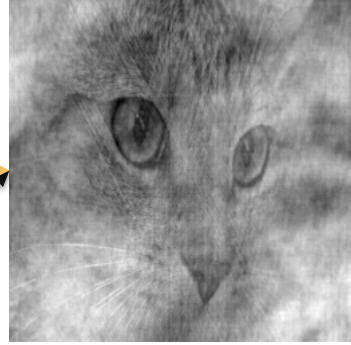
Fourier Transform

$$f(x, y) = \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(k_x, k_y) e^{2\pi i(k_x x + k_y y)} dk_x dk_y}_{A \cos(2\pi[k_x x + k_y y] + \phi) + jA \sin(2\pi[k_x x + k_y y] + \phi)}$$



Images are sums of
cosines at different
amplitudes, phases,
spatial frequencies

Magnitude vs Phase



mag.

phase



phase

mag.



Fourier Transform

- any continuous, integrable, periodic function can be represented as an infinite sum of sines and cosines:

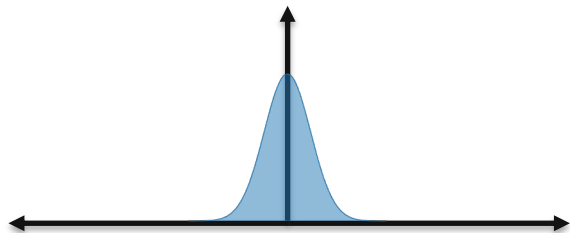
$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(\xi) e^{2\pi i \xi x} d\xi \iff \hat{f}(\xi) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-2\pi i \xi x} dx$$

- convolution theorem (critical):

$$x * g = F^{-1} \{ F \{ x \} \cdot F \{ g \} \}$$

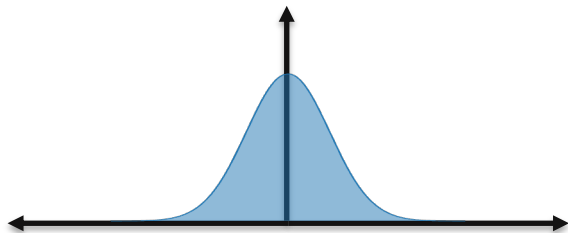
Discrete vs Continuous Fourier Transform

Primal Domain



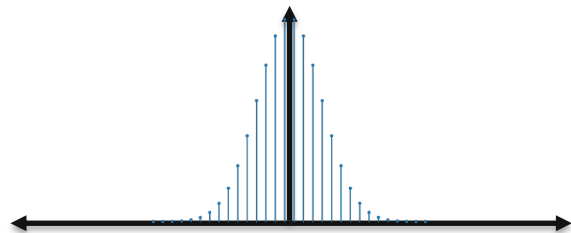
\mathcal{F}

Fourier Domain



Sampling

Primal Domain

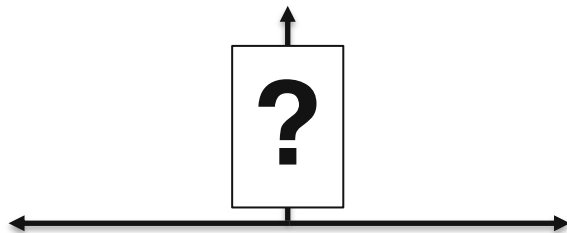


discrete sampled signal

\mathcal{F}

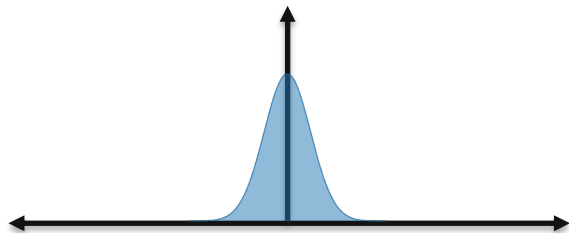
A black script letter \mathcal{F} is positioned above a red double-headed horizontal arrow, indicating the Fourier transform operation between the two domains.

Fourier Domain



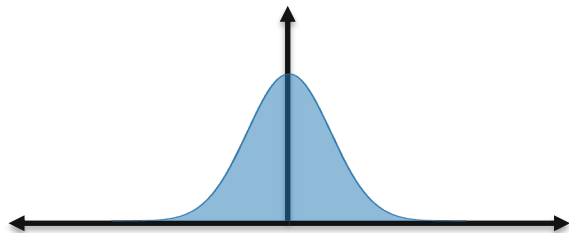
Sampling

Primal Domain

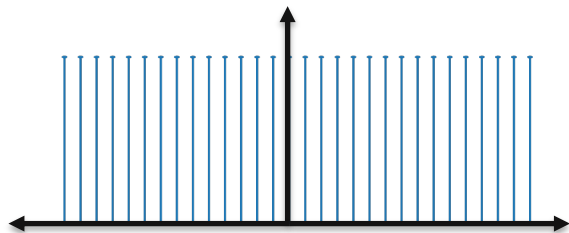


\mathcal{F}

Fourier Domain

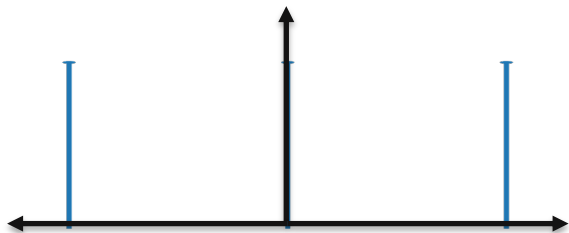


Sampling operator



Sample rate of f_s

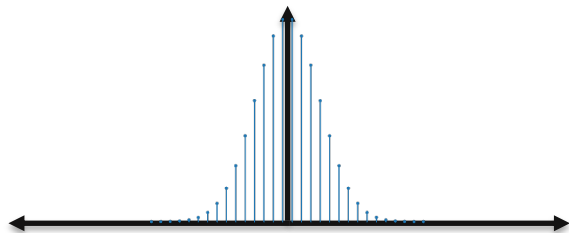
*



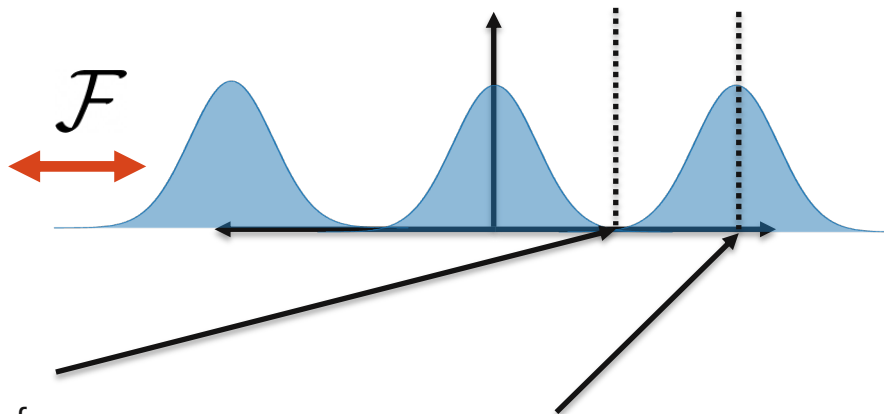
Shifted copies at f_s

Sampling

Primal Domain



Fourier Domain

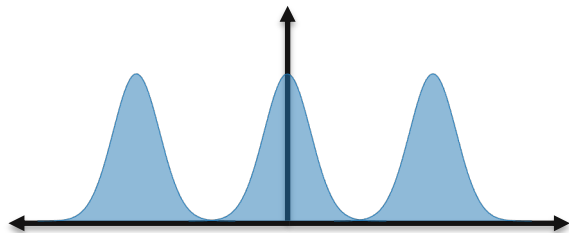


Highest frequency

Sample rate should be twice the highest frequency to avoid aliasing!

Periodicity

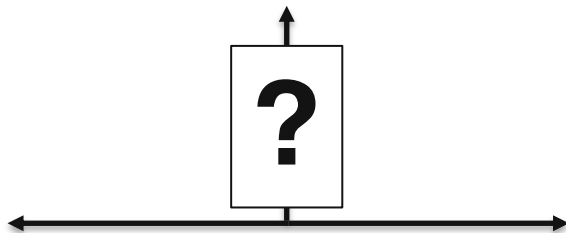
Primal Domain



periodic signal

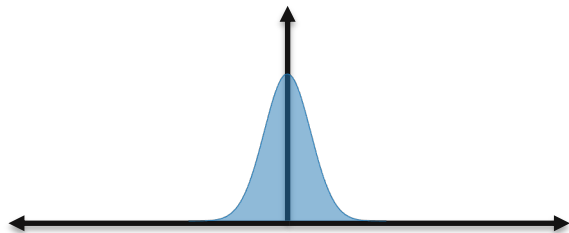


Fourier Domain

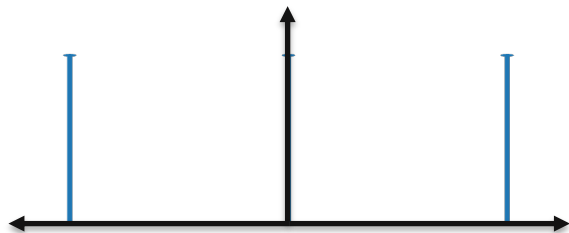


Periodicity

Primal Domain



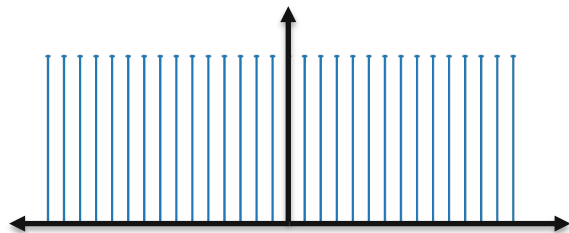
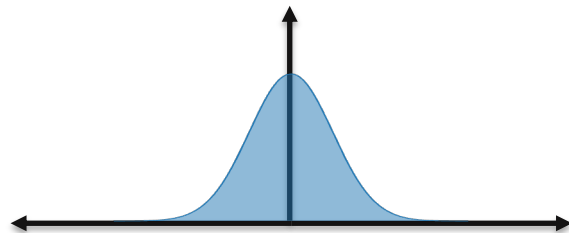
*



Sample rate of f_s

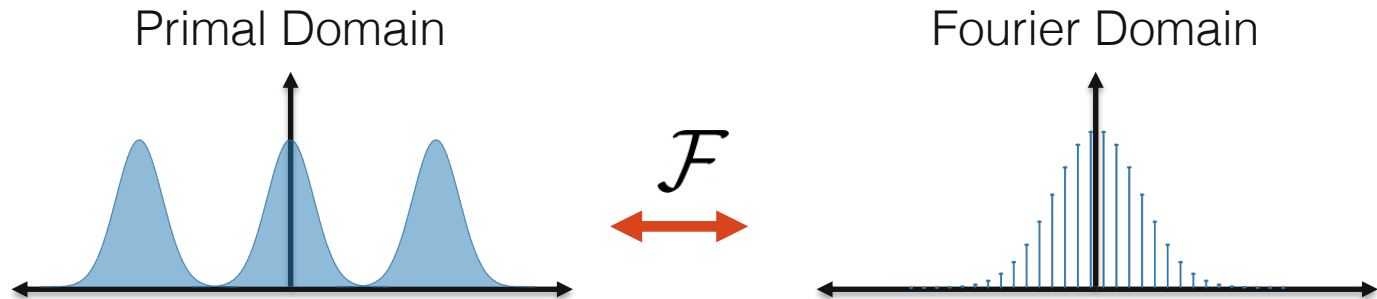
Fourier Domain

\mathcal{F}



Shifted copies at f_s

Periodicity

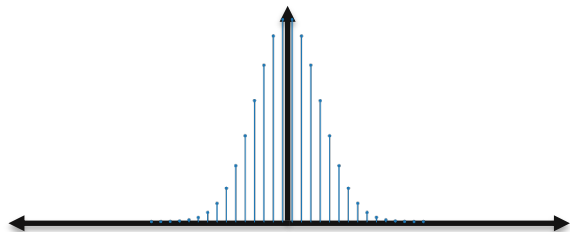


A periodic signal can be represented by a discrete set of Fourier coefficients

- These are called the “Fourier series coefficients”

Discrete Fourier Transform

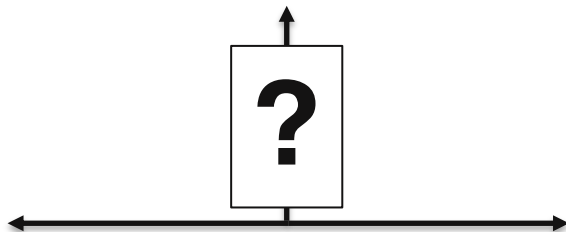
Primal Domain



\mathcal{F}



Fourier Domain

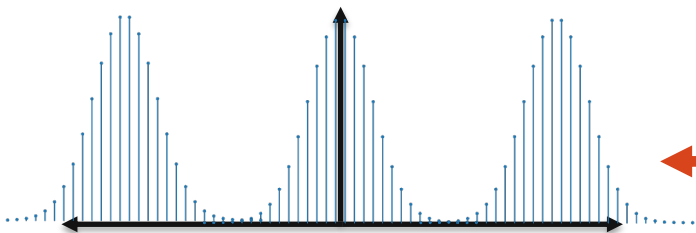


In practice, we wish to take the Fourier transform of discrete signals.

But we need to represent the Fourier domain with discrete values, too!

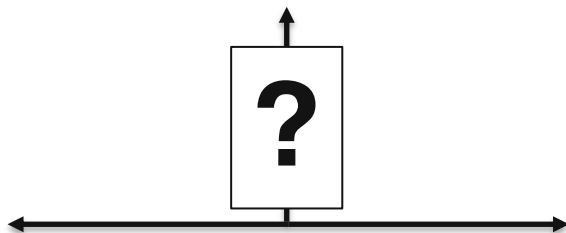
Discrete Fourier Transform

Primal Domain



\mathcal{F}

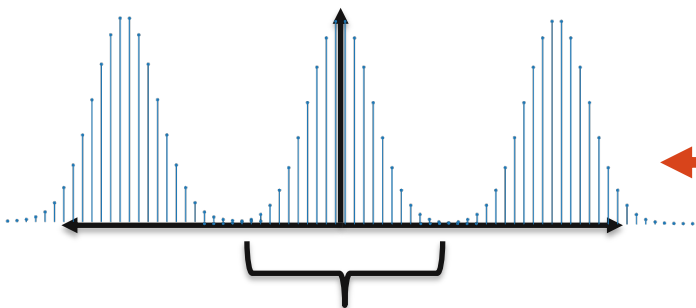
Fourier Domain



Assume the primal domain signal is periodic

Discrete Fourier Transform

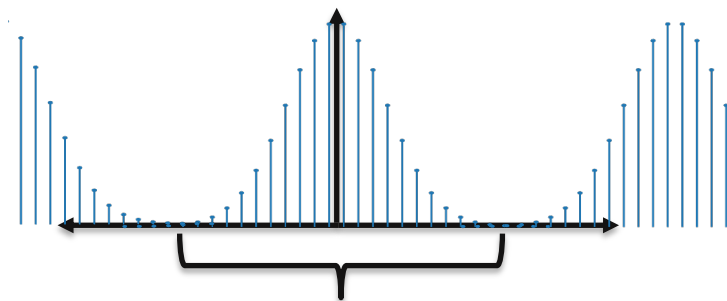
Primal Domain



Input to DFT

\mathcal{F}

Fourier Domain



Output of DFT

Assume the primal domain signal is periodic

Discrete Fourier Transform

- most important for us: discrete Fourier transform

$$x[n] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \hat{x}[k] e^{2\pi i k n / N} \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \hat{x}[k] = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] e^{-2\pi i k n / N}$$

Discrete Fourier Transform

An Algorithm for the Machine Calculation of Complex Fourier Series

By James W. Cooley and John W. Tukey

An efficient method for the calculation of the interactions of a 2^m factorial experiment was introduced by Yates and is widely known by his name. The generalization to 3^m was given by Box et al. [1]. Good [2] generalized these methods and gave elegant algorithms for which one class of applications is the calculation of Fourier series. In their full generality, Good's methods are applicable to certain problems in which one must multiply an N -vector by an $N \times N$ matrix which can be factored into m sparse matrices, where m is proportional to $\log N$. This results in a procedure requiring a number of operations proportional to $N \log N$ rather than N^2 . These methods are applied here to the calculation of complex Fourier series. They are useful in situations where the number of data points is, or can be chosen to be, a highly composite number. The algorithm is here derived and presented in a rather different form. Attention is given to the choice of N . It is also shown how special advantage can be obtained in the use of a binary computer with $N = 2^m$ and how the entire calculation can be performed within the array of N data storage locations used for the given Fourier coefficients.

Fast Fourier Transform: Cooley & Tukey 1965

Discrete Fourier Transform

An Algorithm for the Machine Calculation of Complex Fourier Series

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$$O(N) \rightarrow O(N \log N)$$

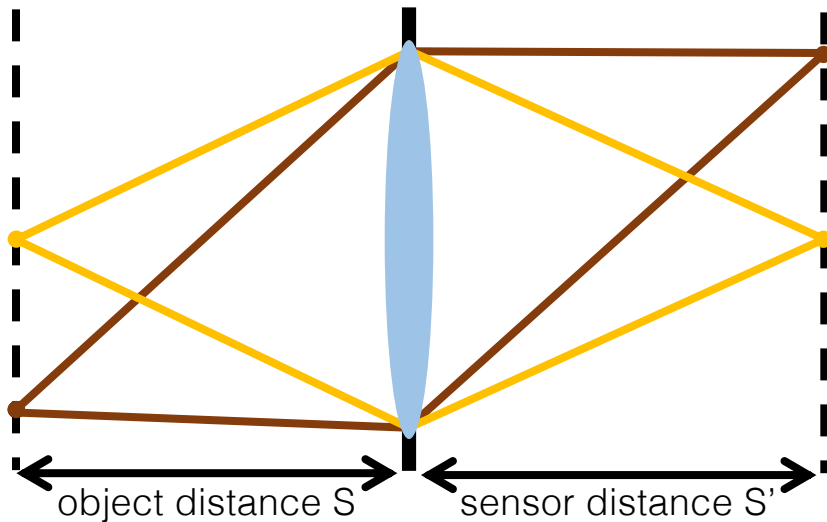
Fast Fourier Transform: Cooley & Tukey 1965

Imaging

Lens imperfections

- Ideal lens: A point maps to a point at a certain plane.

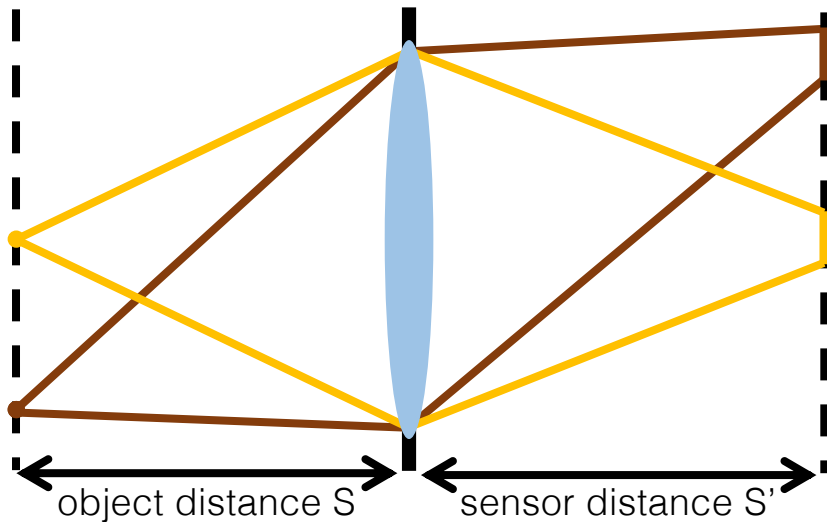
$$\frac{1}{S'} + \frac{1}{S} = \frac{1}{f}$$



Lens imperfections

- Ideal lens: A point maps to a point at a certain plane.
- Real lens: A point maps to a circle that has non-zero minimum radius among all planes.

$$\frac{1}{S'} + \frac{1}{S} = \frac{1}{f}$$

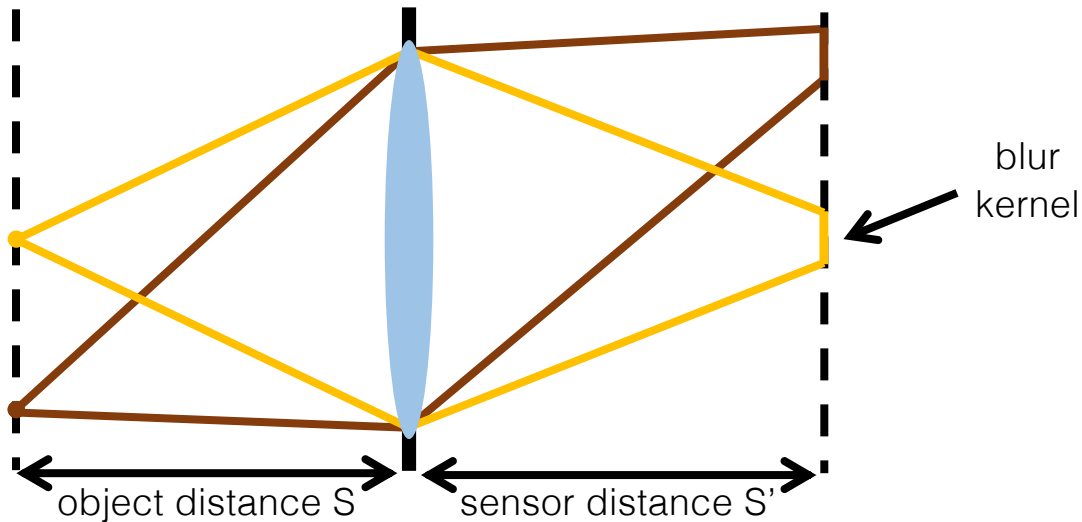


What is the effect of this on the images we capture?

Lens imperfections

- Ideal lens: A point maps to a point at a certain plane.
- Real lens: A point maps to a circle that has non-zero minimum radius among all planes.

$$\frac{1}{S'} + \frac{1}{S} = \frac{1}{f}$$



blur
kernel

Shift-invariant blur.

Lens imperfections

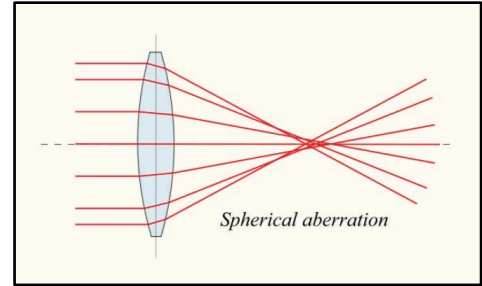
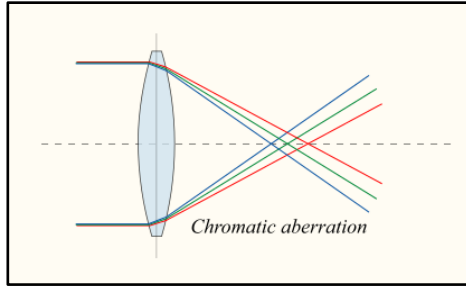
What causes lens imperfections?

Lens imperfections

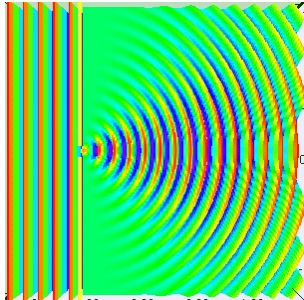
What causes lens imperfections?

- Aberrations.

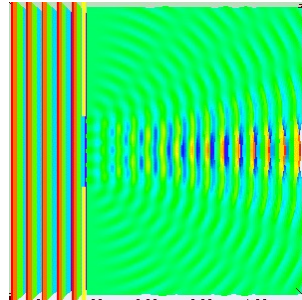
(Important note: Oblique aberrations like coma and distortion are not shift-invariant blur and we do not consider them here!)



- Diffraction.



small
aperture



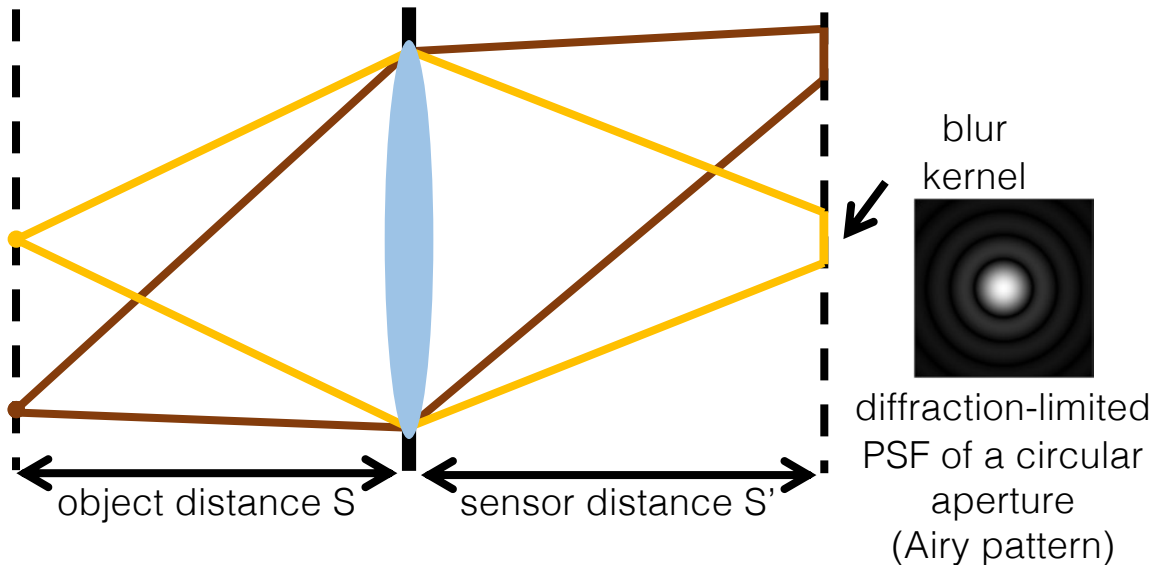
large
aperture

Lens as an optical low-pass filter

Point spread function (PSF): The blur kernel of a lens.

- “Diffraction-limited” PSF: No aberrations, only diffraction. Determined by aperture shape.

$$\frac{1}{S'} + \frac{1}{S} = \frac{1}{f}$$



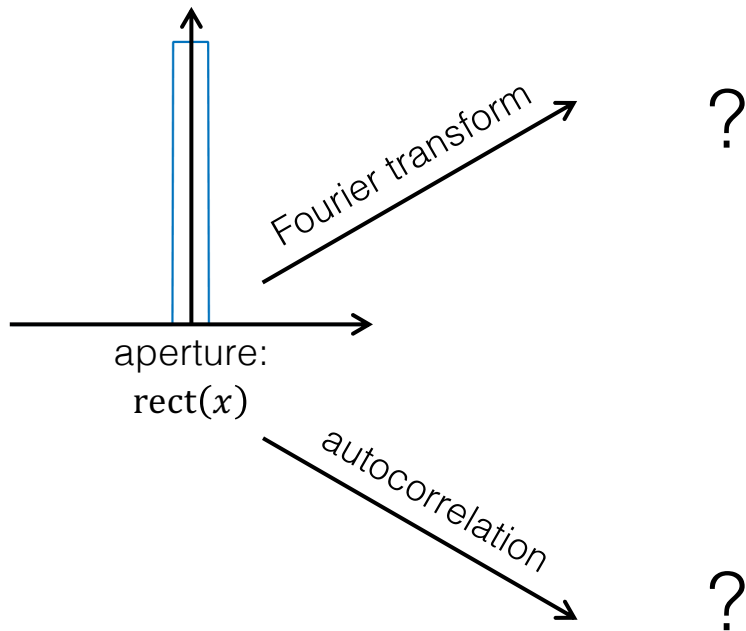
Some basics of diffraction theory

We will assume that we can use:

- Fraunhofer diffraction (i.e., distance of sensor and aperture is large relative to wavelength).
- incoherent illumination (i.e., the light we are measuring is not laser light).

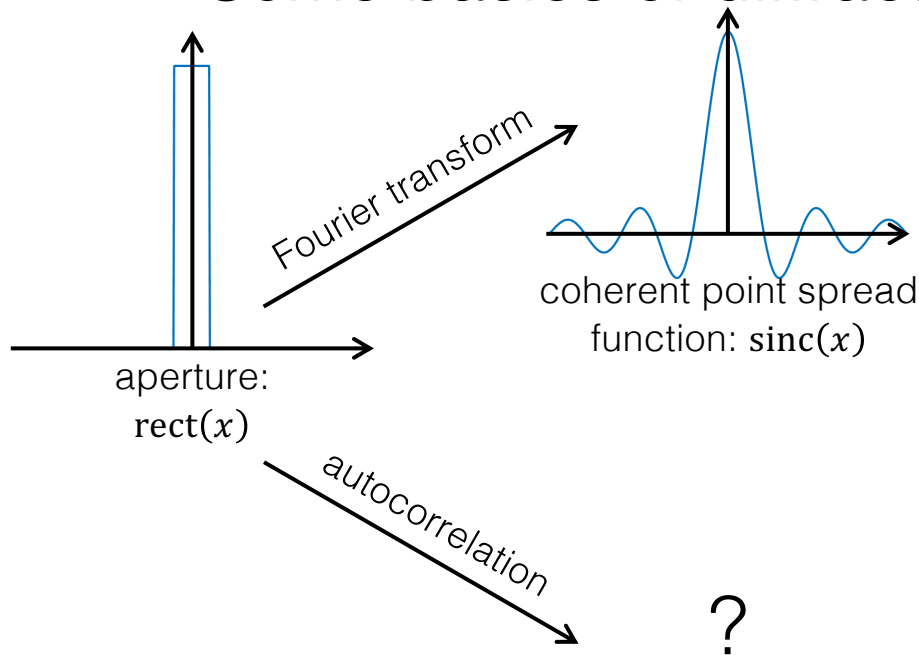
We will also be ignoring various scale factors. Different functions are not drawn to scale.

Some basics of diffraction theory



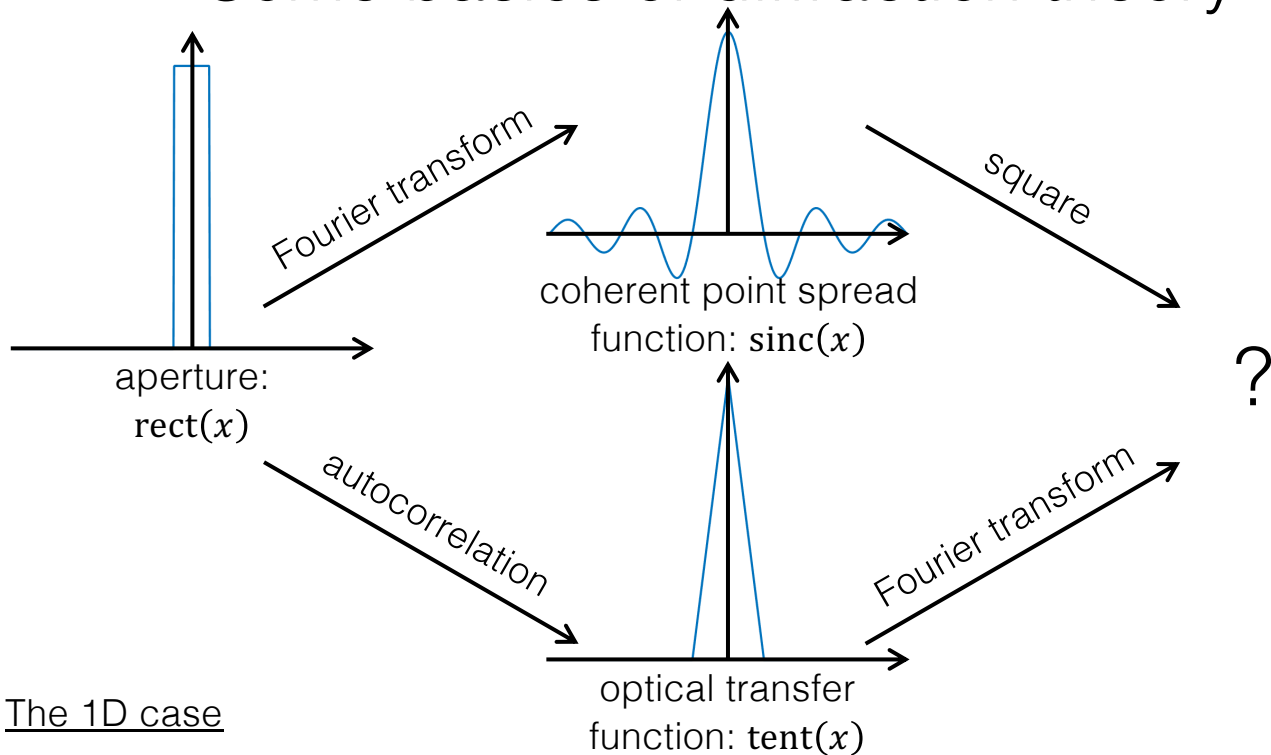
The 1D case

Some basics of diffraction theory



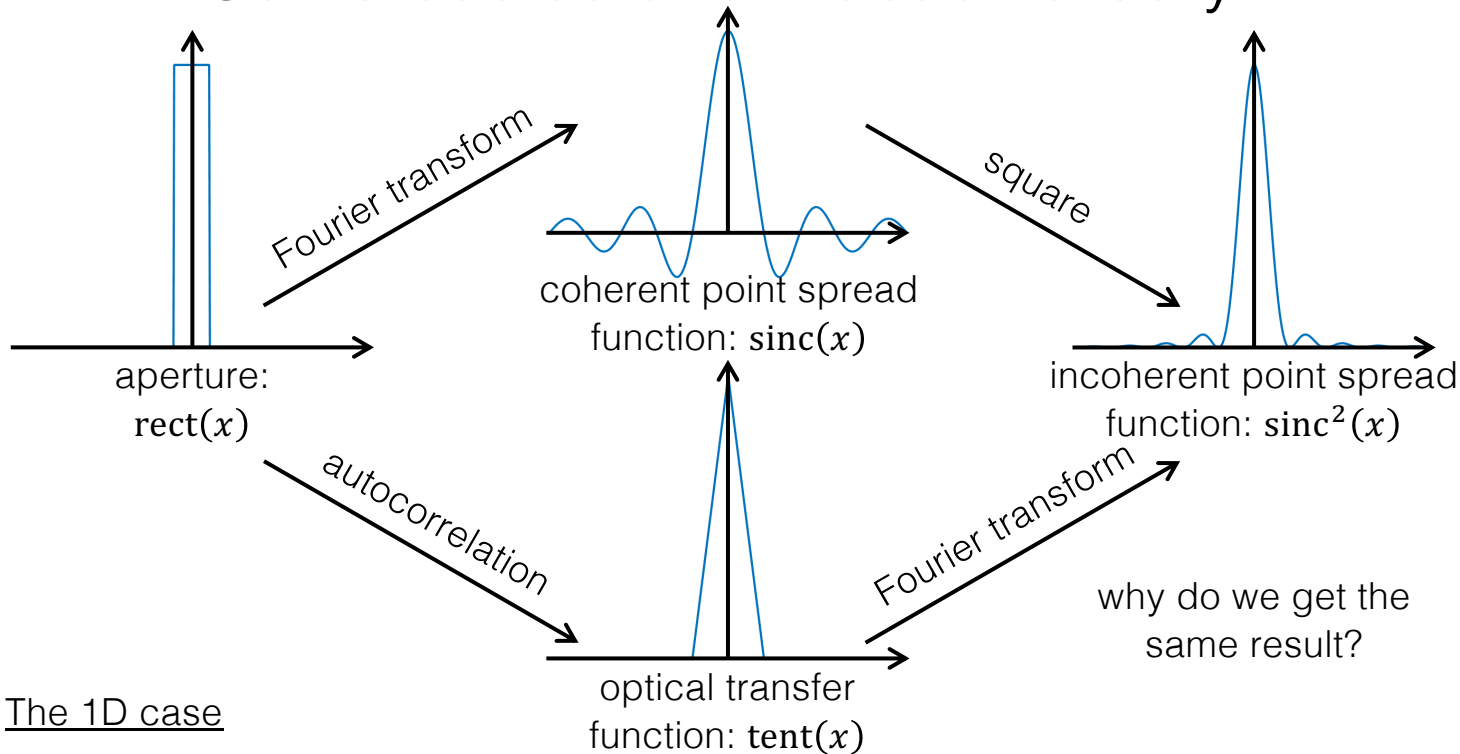
The 1D case

Some basics of diffraction theory

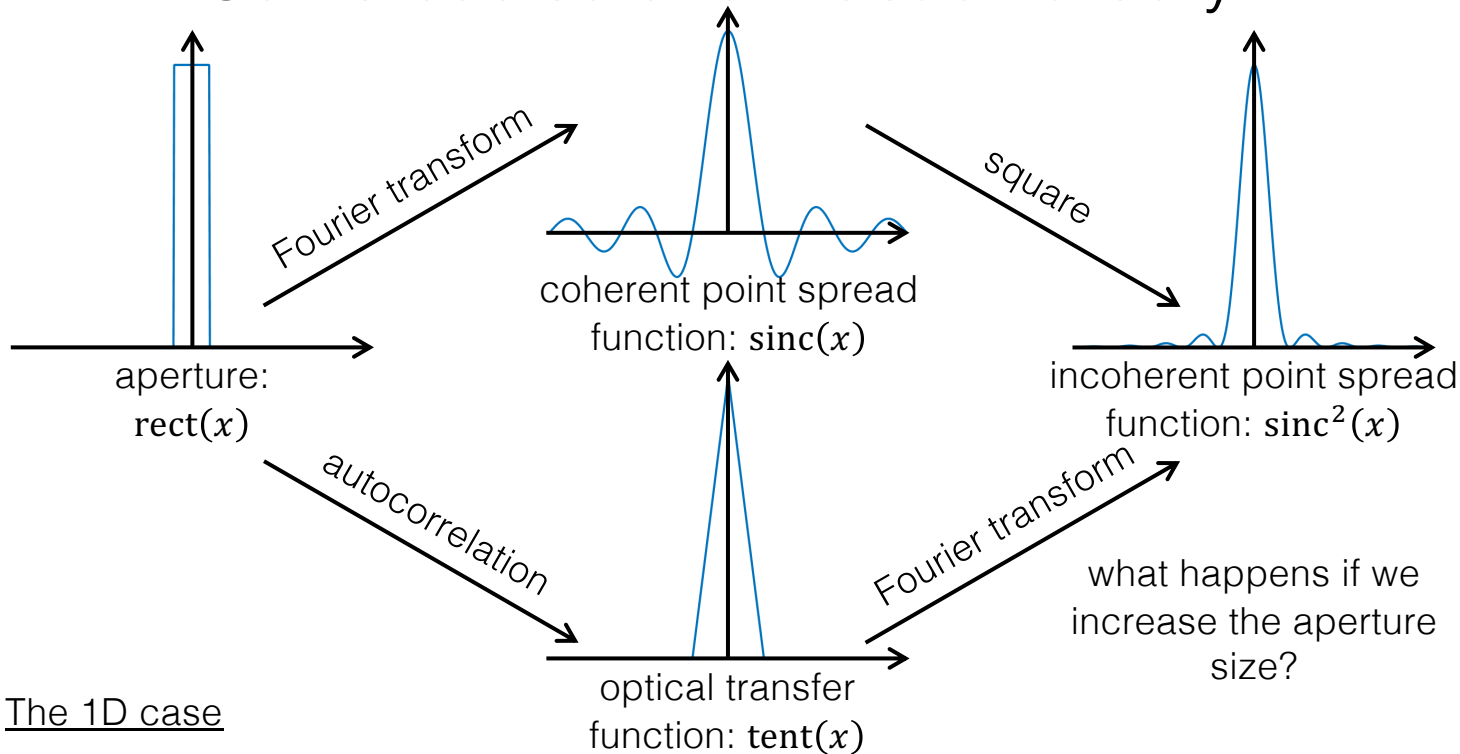


The 1D case

Some basics of diffraction theory

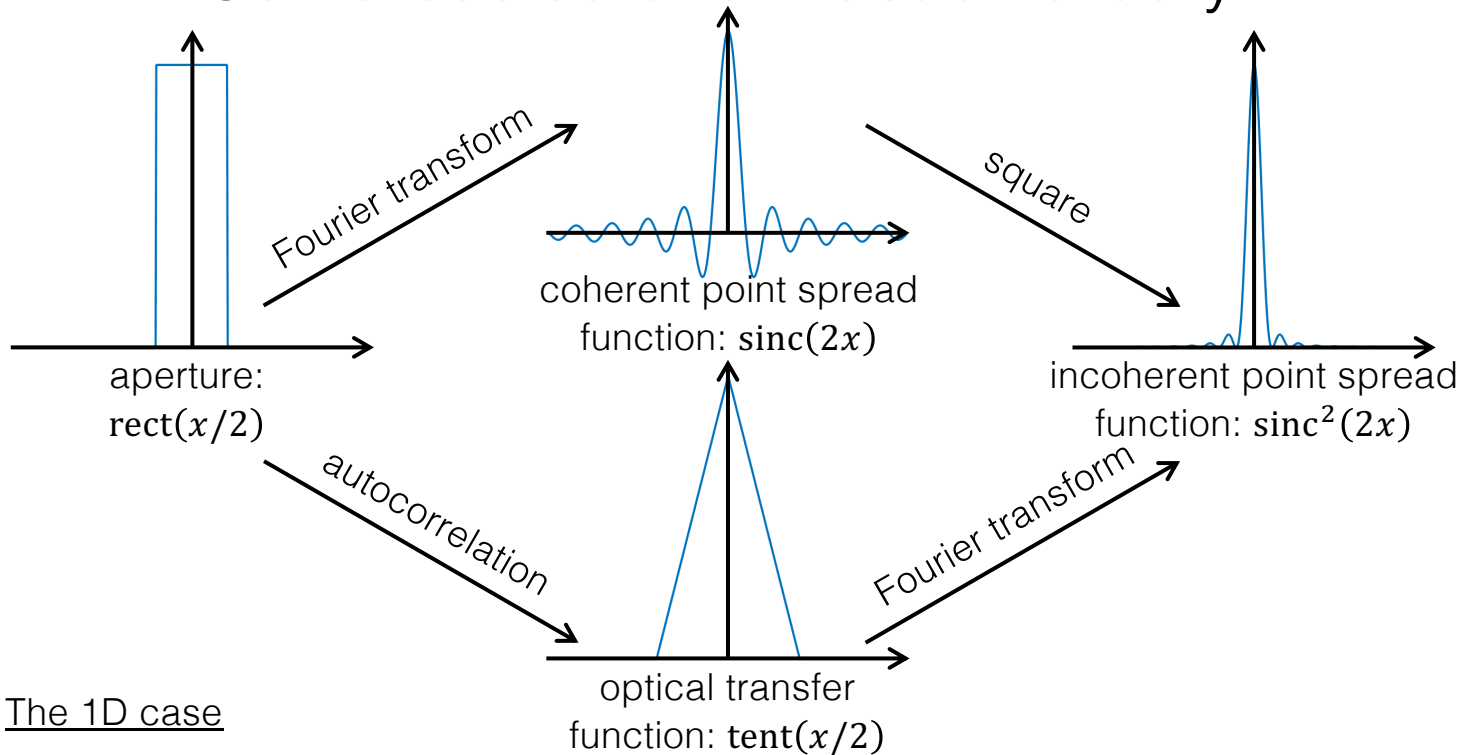


Some basics of diffraction theory



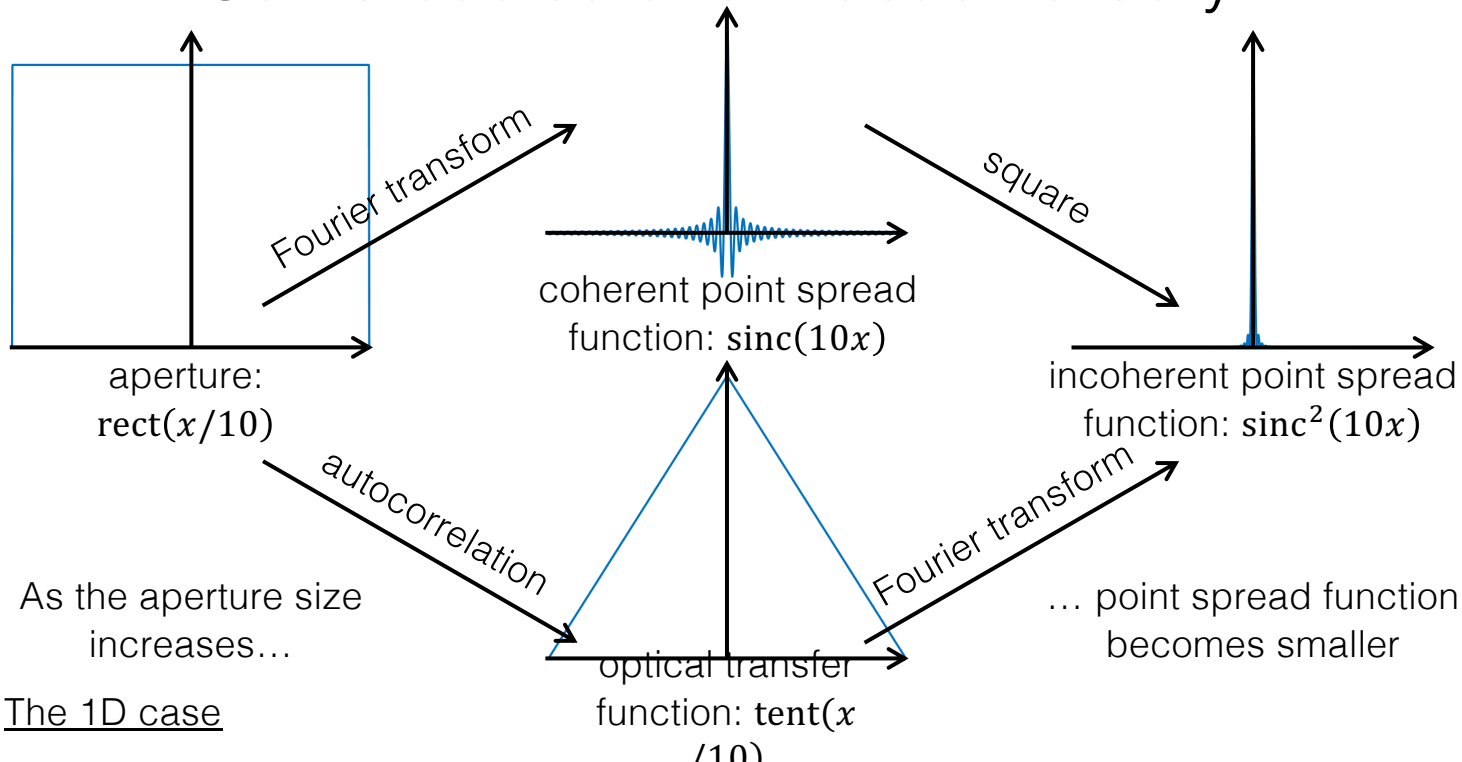
The 1D case

Some basics of diffraction theory

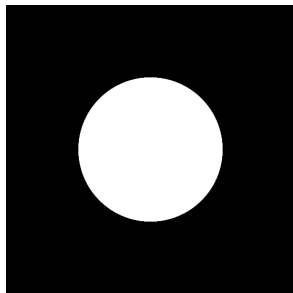


The 1D case

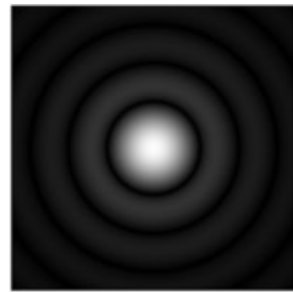
Some basics of diffraction theory



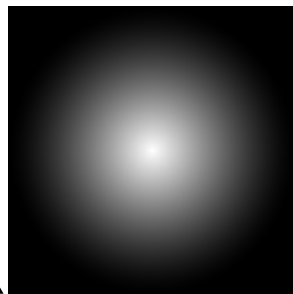
Some basics of diffraction theory



aperture



incoherent point spread
function



optical transfer
function

autocorrelation

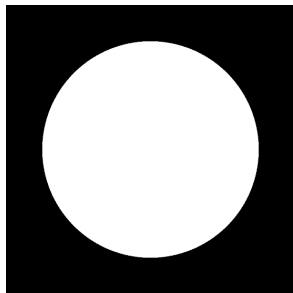
Fourier transform

As the aperture size
increases...

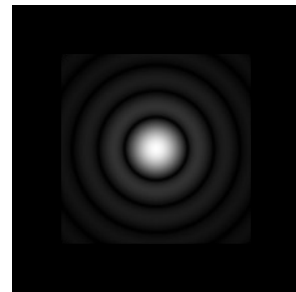
... point spread function
becomes smaller

The 2D case

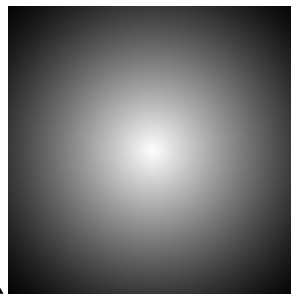
Some basics of diffraction theory



aperture



incoherent point spread
function



optical transfer
function

autocorrelation

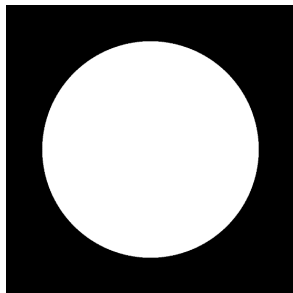
Fourier transform

As the aperture size
increases...

... point spread function
becomes smaller

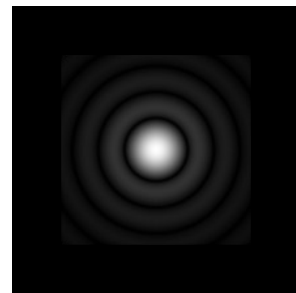
The 2D case

Some basics of diffraction theory



aperture

Why do we prefer circular apertures?

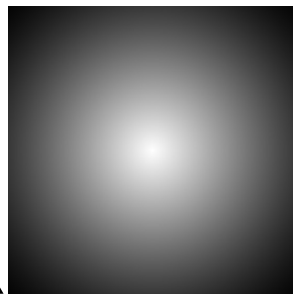


incoherent point spread function

autocorrelation

As the aperture size increases...

The 2D case

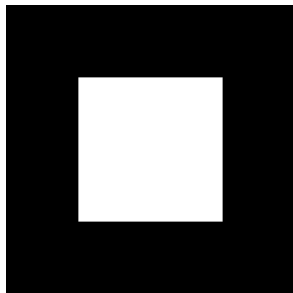


optical transfer function

Fourier transform

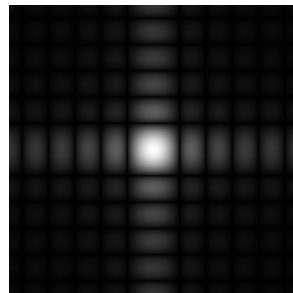
... point spread function becomes smaller

Some basics of diffraction theory



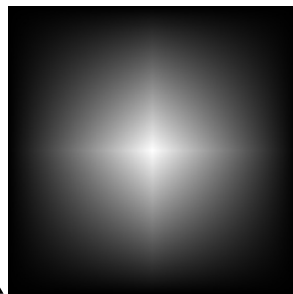
aperture

Other shapes produce very anisotropic blur.



incoherent point spread function

autocorrelation



optical transfer function

Fourier transform

... point spread function becomes smaller

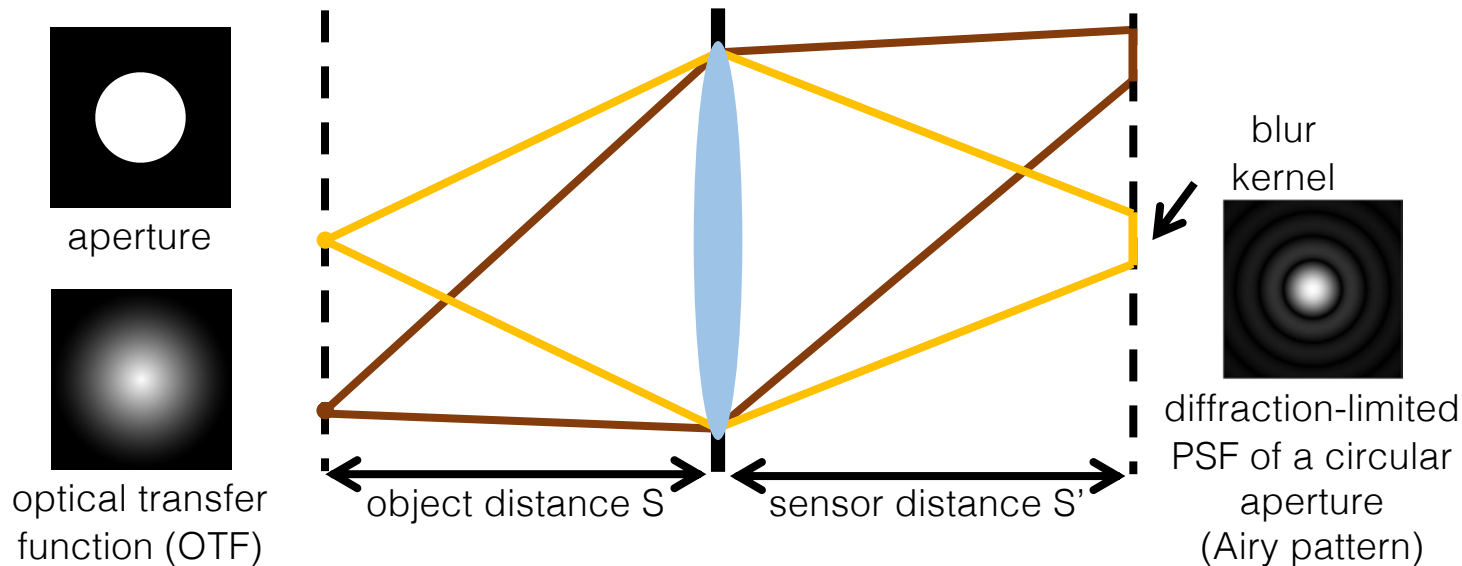
As the aperture size increases...

The 2D case

Lens as an optical low-pass filter

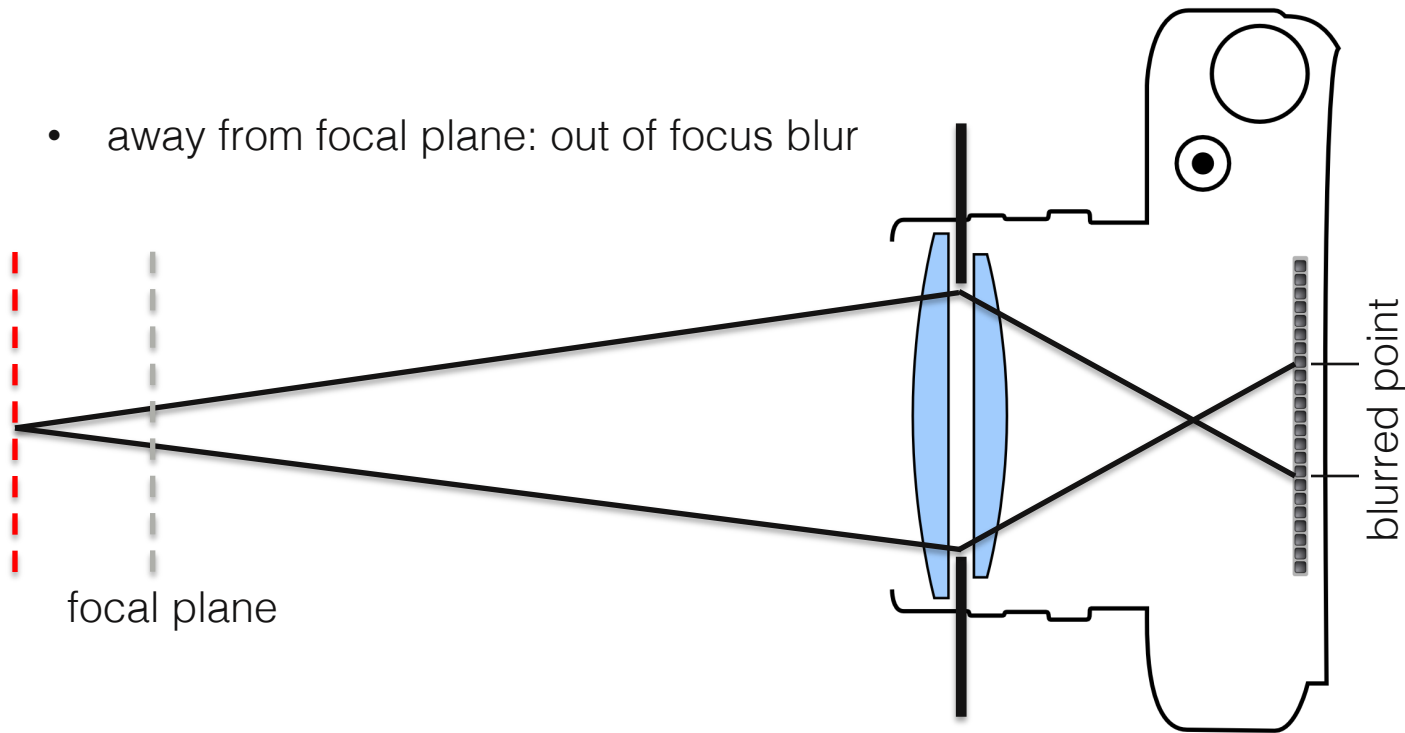
Point spread function (PSF): The blur kernel of a lens.

- “Diffraction-limited” PSF: No aberrations, only diffraction. Determined by aperture shape.



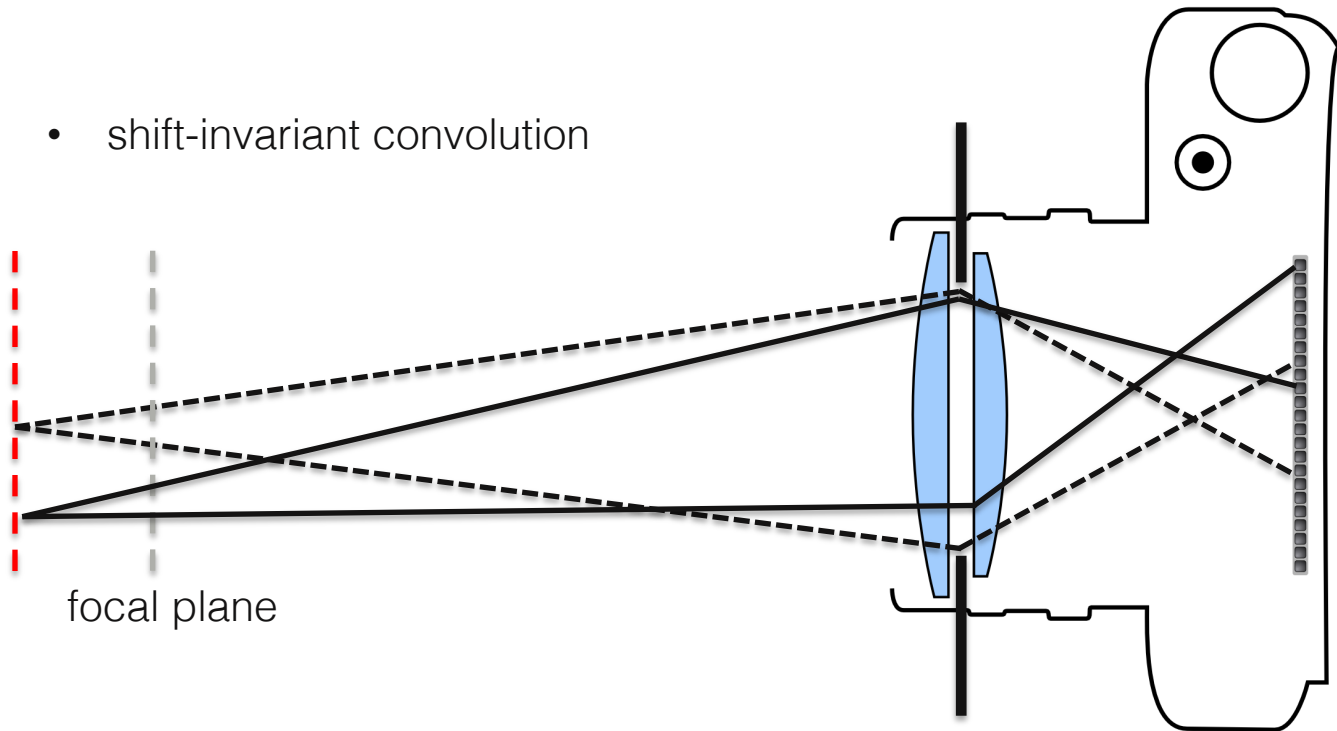
Lens as Optical Low-pass Filter

- away from focal plane: out of focus blur



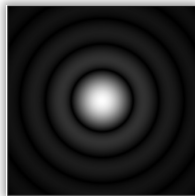
Lens as Optical Low-pass Filter

- shift-invariant convolution

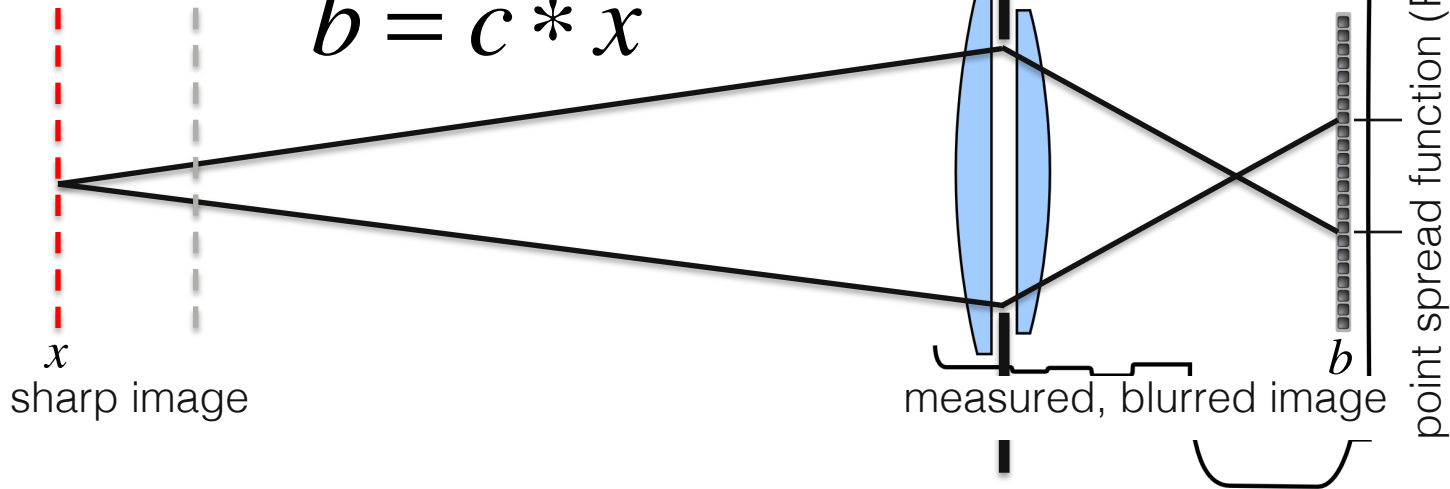


Lens as Optical Low-pass Filter

diffraction-limited PSF of circular aperture (aka “Airy” pattern):



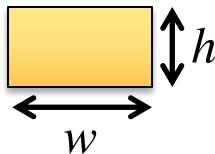
$$b = c * x$$



What's a Discrete Image?

- continuous 2D visual signal on sensor: $i(x,y)$
- integration over pixels: $\tilde{i}(x,y) = i(x,y) * \left(\text{rect}\left[\frac{x}{w}\right] \cdot \text{rect}\left[\frac{y}{h}\right] \right)$

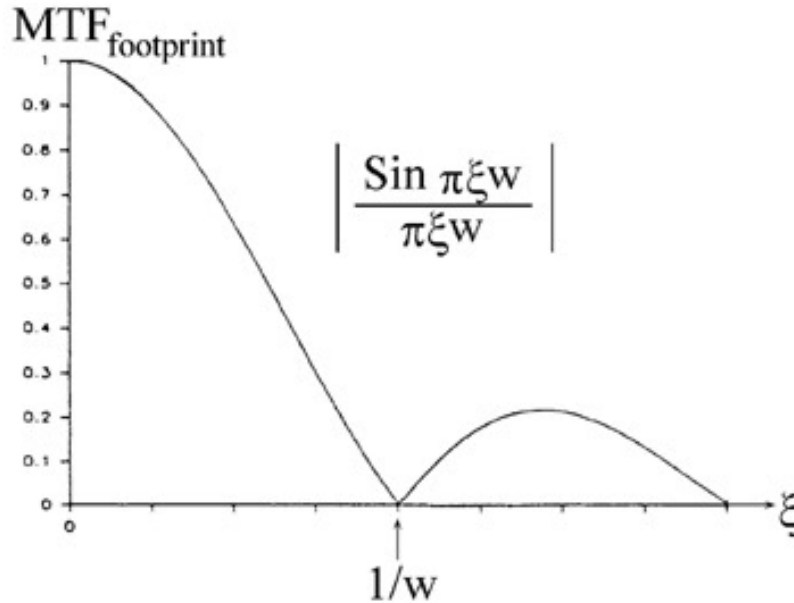
sensor pixel:



What's a Discrete Image?

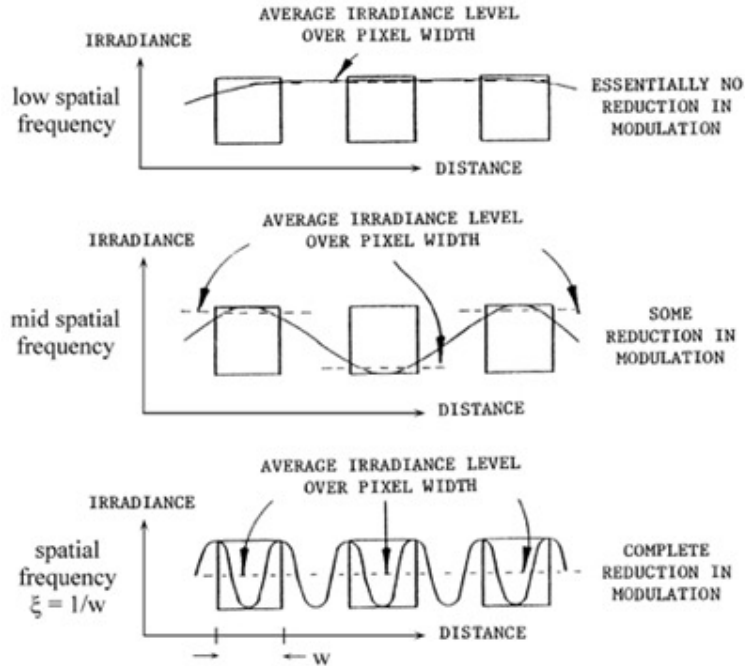
- continuous 2D visual signal on sensor: $i(x,y)$
- integration over pixels:
$$\tilde{i}(x,y) = i(x,y) * \left(\text{rect}\left[\frac{x}{w}\right] \cdot \text{rect}\left[\frac{y}{h}\right] \right)$$
- discrete sampling:
(in irradiance $\frac{W}{m^2}$)
$$E[i,j] = \text{sample}(\tilde{f}(x,y)) = \tilde{f}(x,y) \cdot \sum_m \sum_n \delta(i,j)$$

What's a Discrete Image?



(detector footprint modulation transfer function, Boreman 2001)

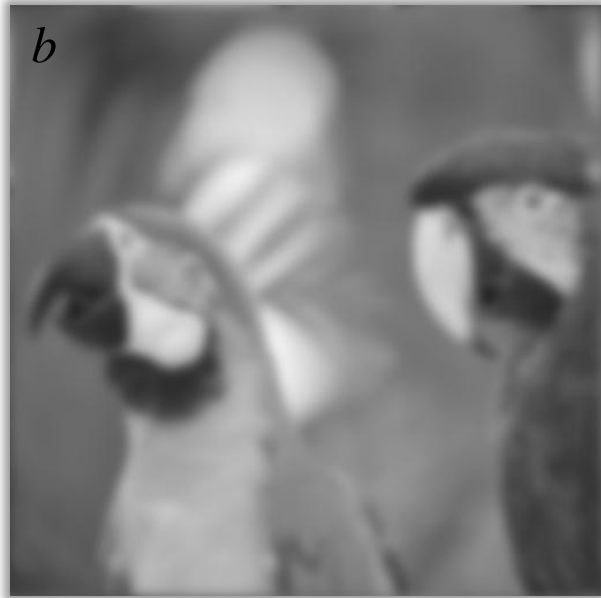
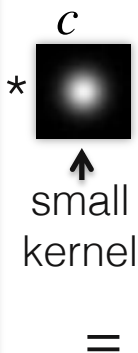
What's a Discrete Image?



(detector footprint modulation transfer function, Boreman 2001)

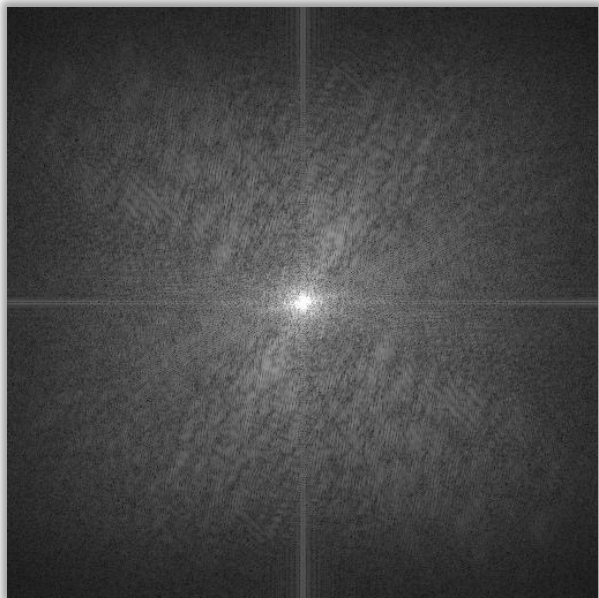
Filtering – Low-pass Filter

- low-pass filter: convolution in primal domain $b = x * c$
- convolution kernel c is also known as point spread function (PSF)



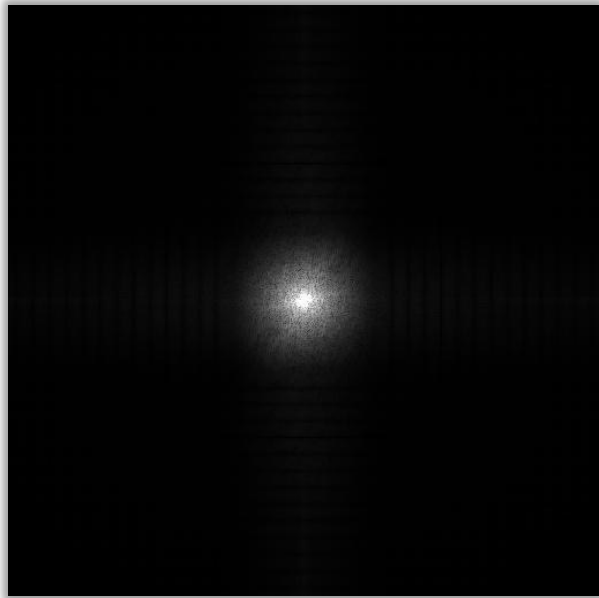
Filtering – Low-pass Filter

- low-pass filter: multiplication in frequency domain $F\{b\} = F\{x\} \cdot F\{c\}$



↑
big

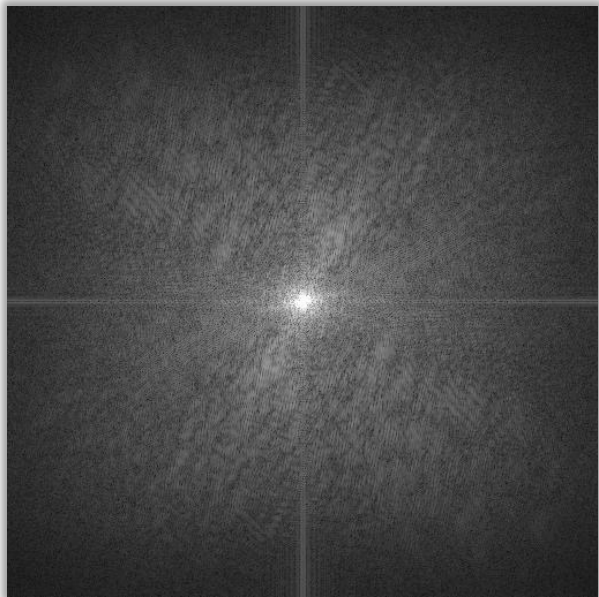
=



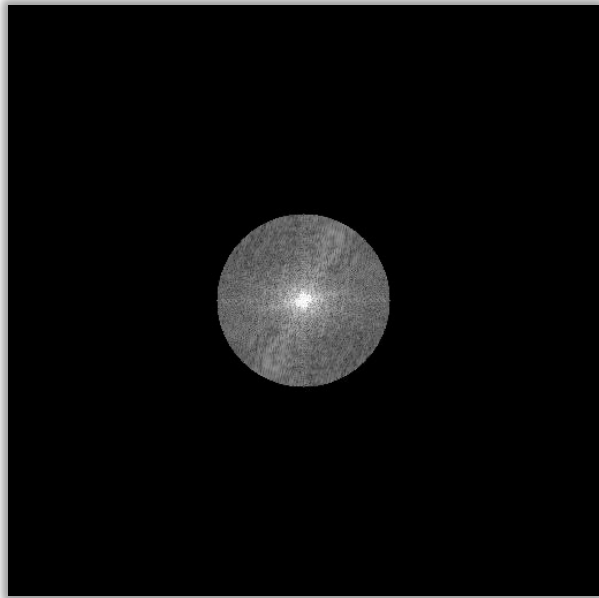
Filtering – Low-pass Filter

- low-pass filter: hard cutoff

$$F\{b\} = F\{x\} \cdot F\{c\}$$



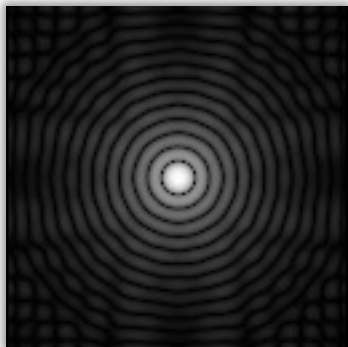
=



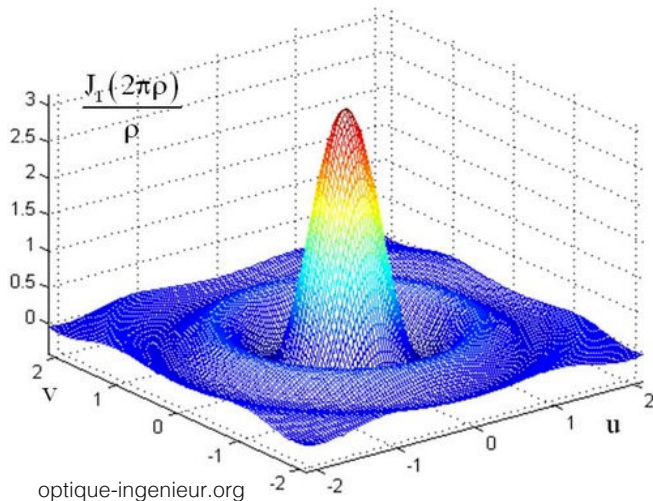
Filtering – Low-pass Filter

- Bessel function of the first kind or “jinc”

$$F^{-1}\left\{\begin{array}{c} \blacksquare \\ \bullet \end{array}\right\}$$



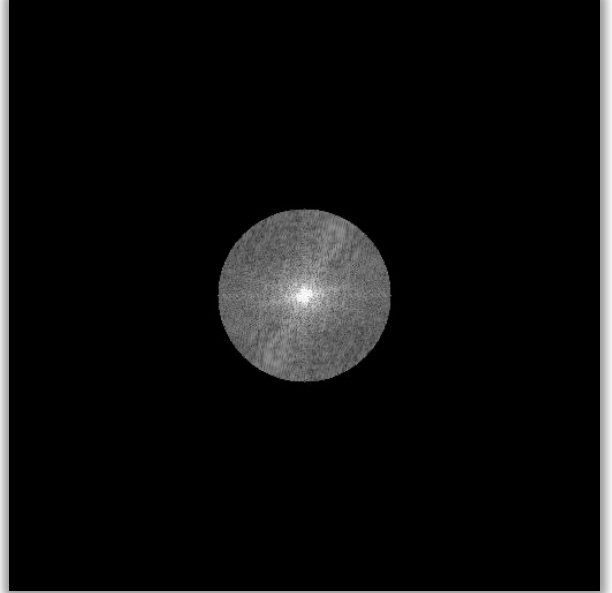
imagemagick.org



optique-ingenieur.org

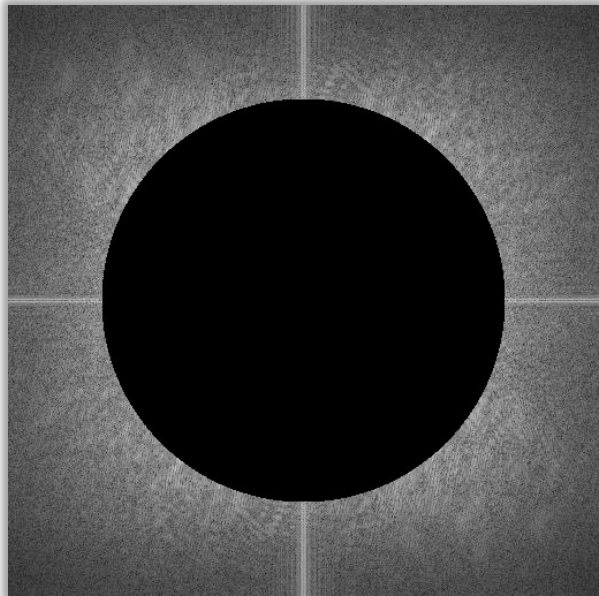
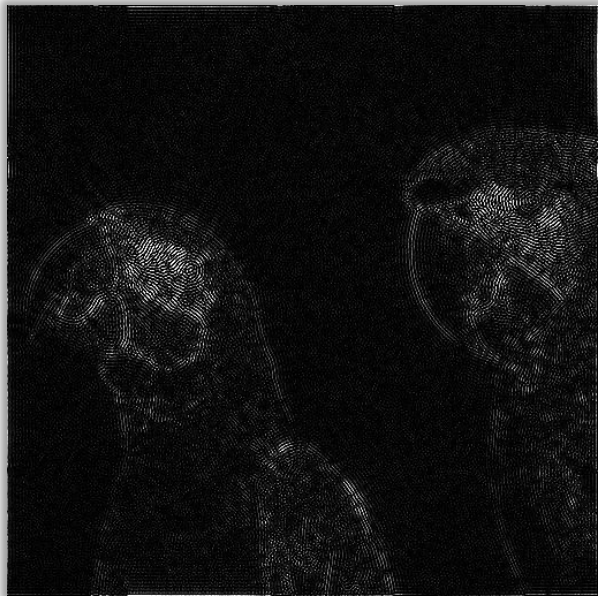
Filtering – Low-pass Filter

- hard frequency filters often introduce ringing



Filtering – High-pass Filter

- sharpening (possibly with ringing, but don't see any here)



Filtering – Unsharp Masking

- sharpening (without ringing): unsharp masking, e.g. in Photoshop



$$b = x * (\delta - c_{\text{lowpass_gauss}}) = x - x * c_{\text{lowpass_gauss}}$$

or

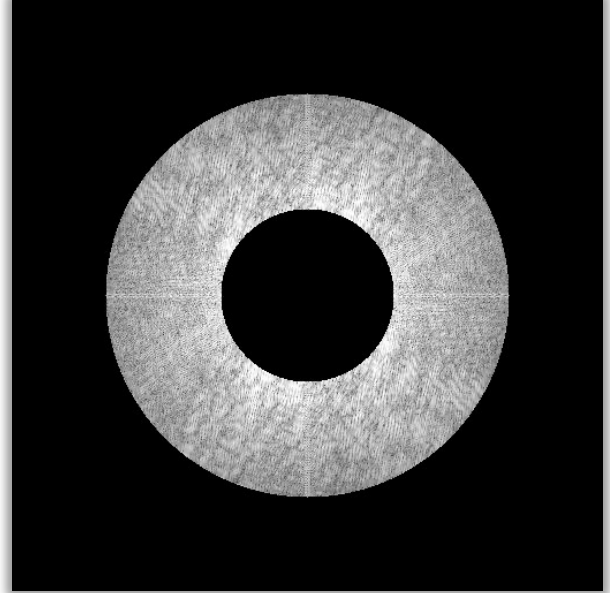
$$b = x * (\delta + c_{\text{highpass}}) = x + x * c_{\text{highpass}}$$

Filtering – Unsharp Masking

- sharpening (without ringing): unsharp masking, e.g. in Photoshop



Filtering – Band-pass Filter



Filtering – Oriented Band-pass Filter

- edges with specific orientation (e.g., hat) are gone!

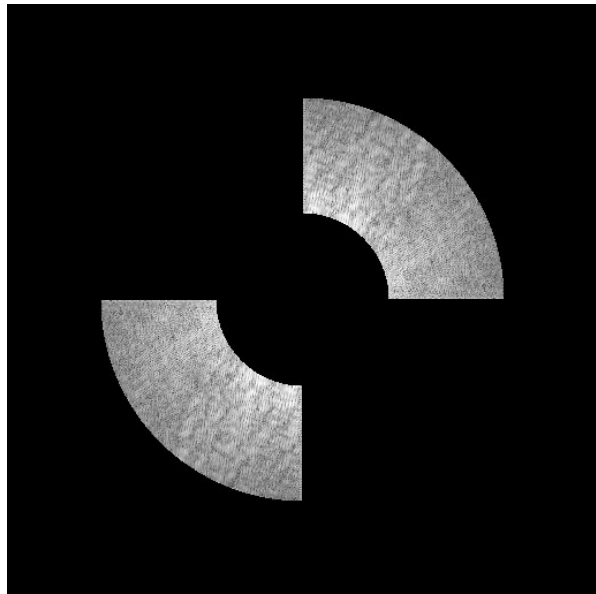
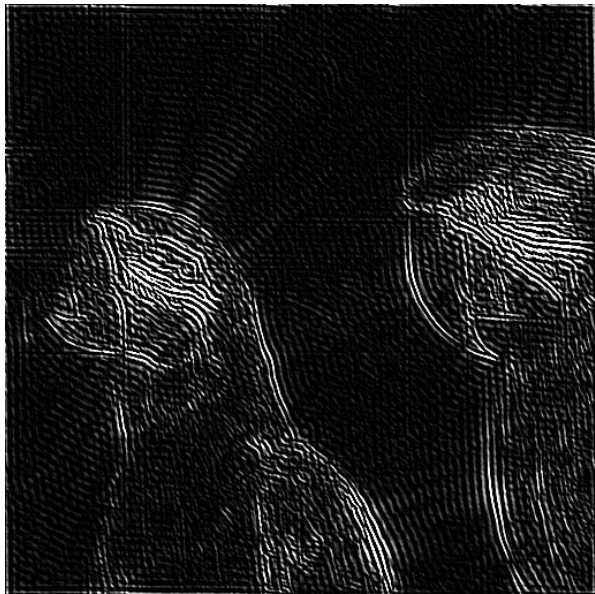
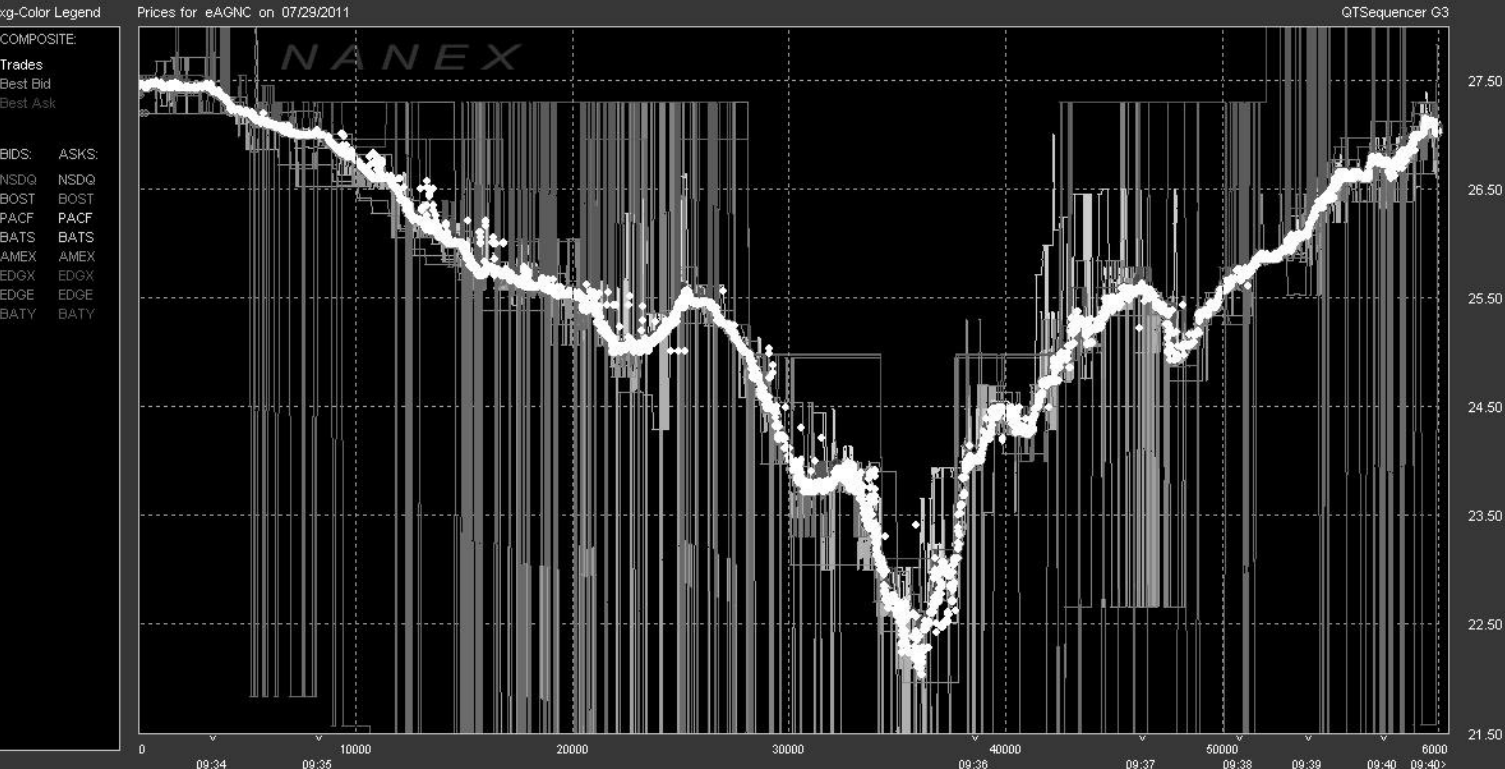


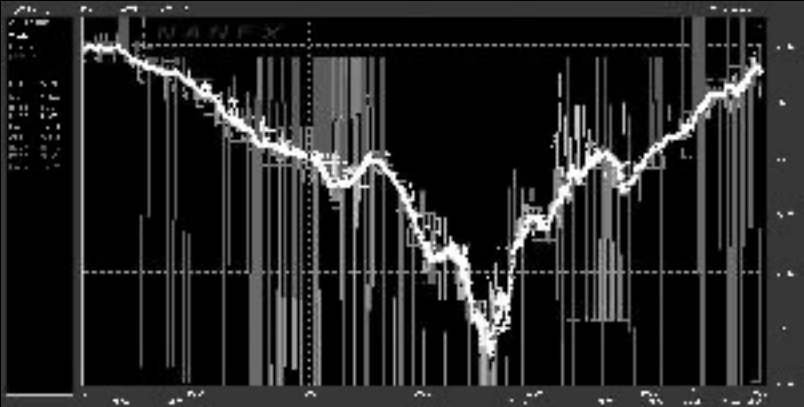
Image Downsampling (& Upsampling)

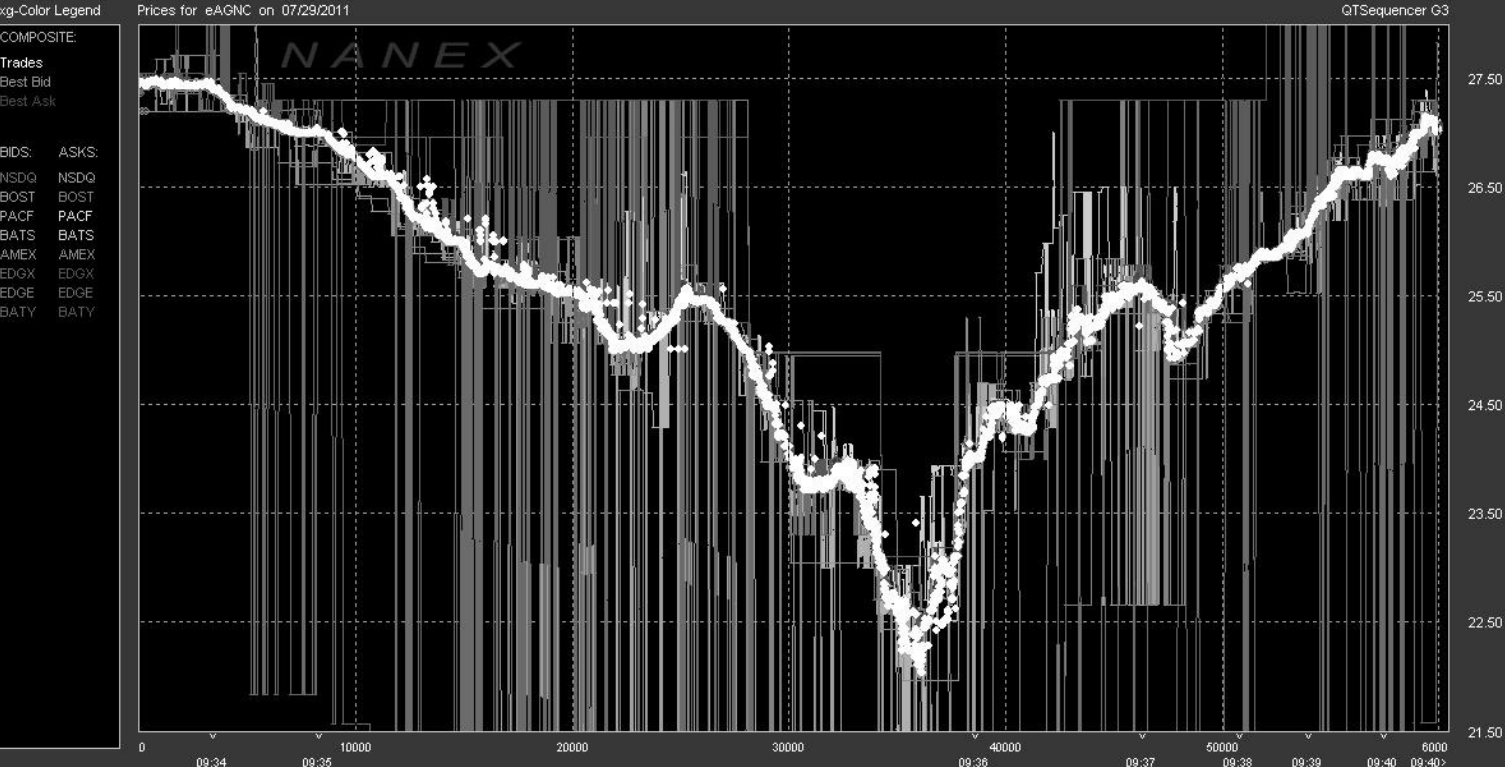
- best demonstrated with “high-frequency” image
- that’s just resampling, right?

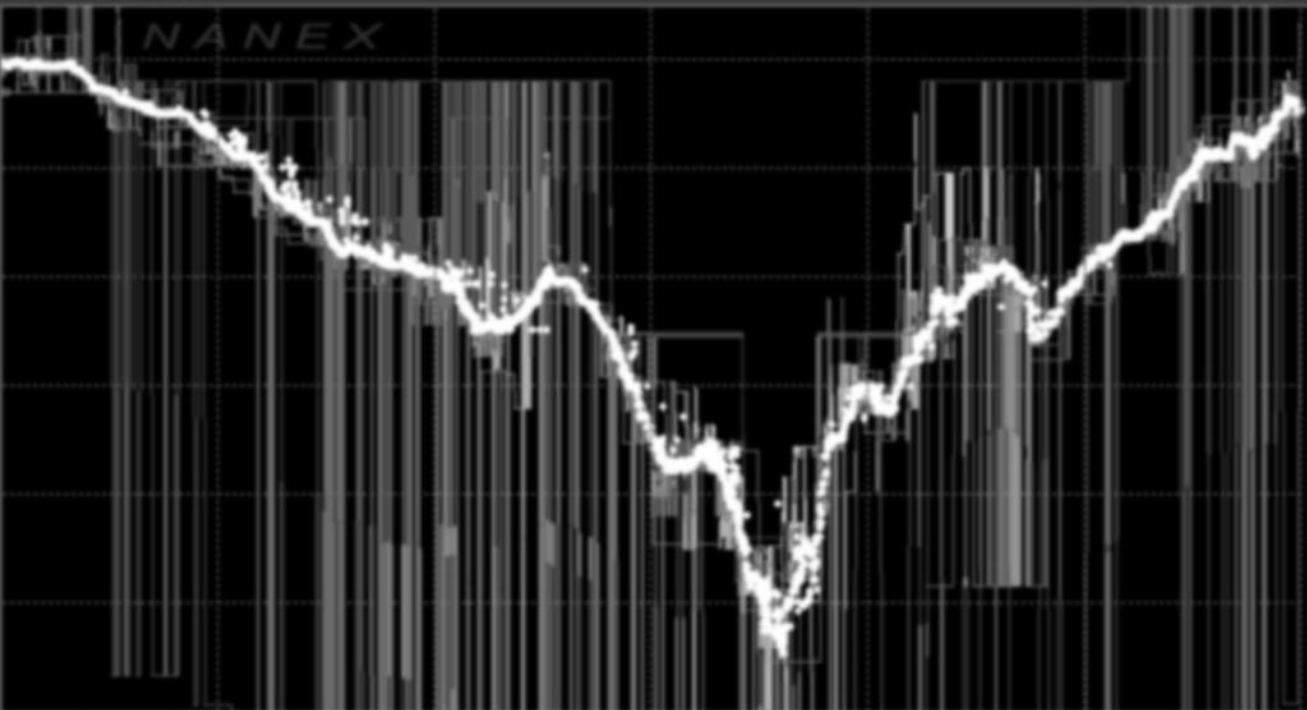
original image: I



re-sample image: I(1:4:end,1:4:end) in Matlab
something is wrong - aliasing!







first: filter out high frequencies (“anti-aliasing”)
then: then re-sample image: I(1:4:end,1:4:end)

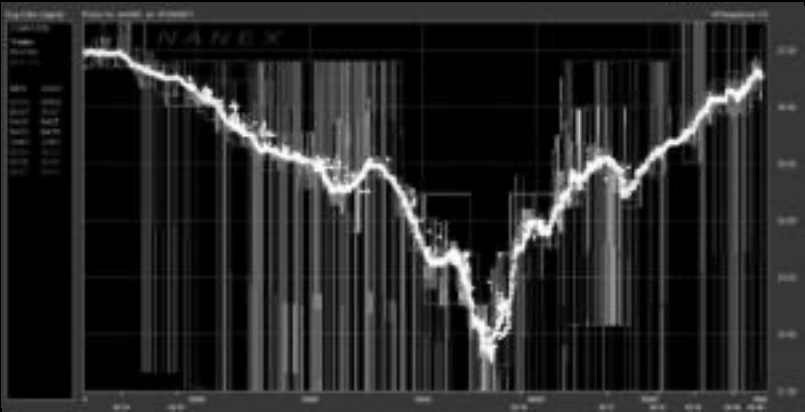
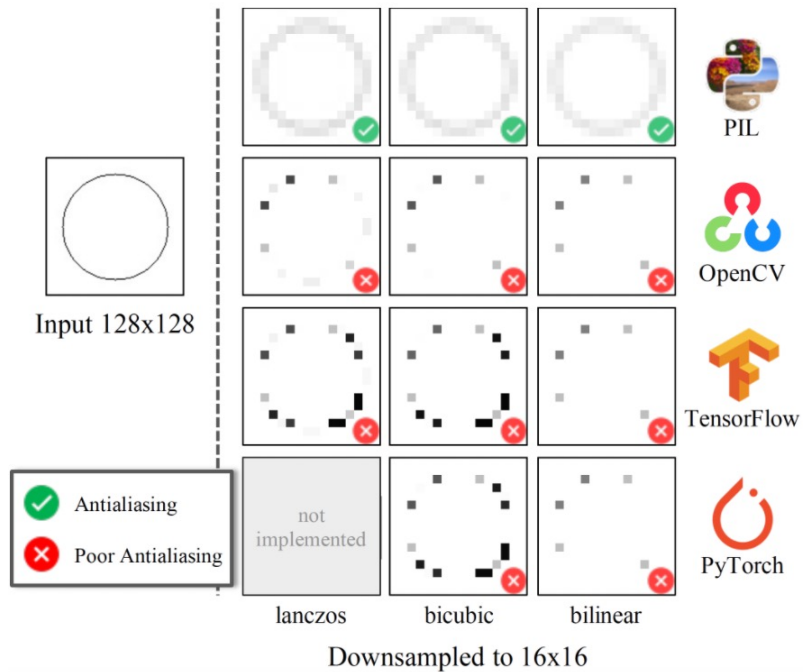


Image Downsampling (& Upsampling)

- “anti-aliasing” → **before** re-sampling, apply appropriate filter!
- how much filtering? Shannon-Nyquist sampling theorem:

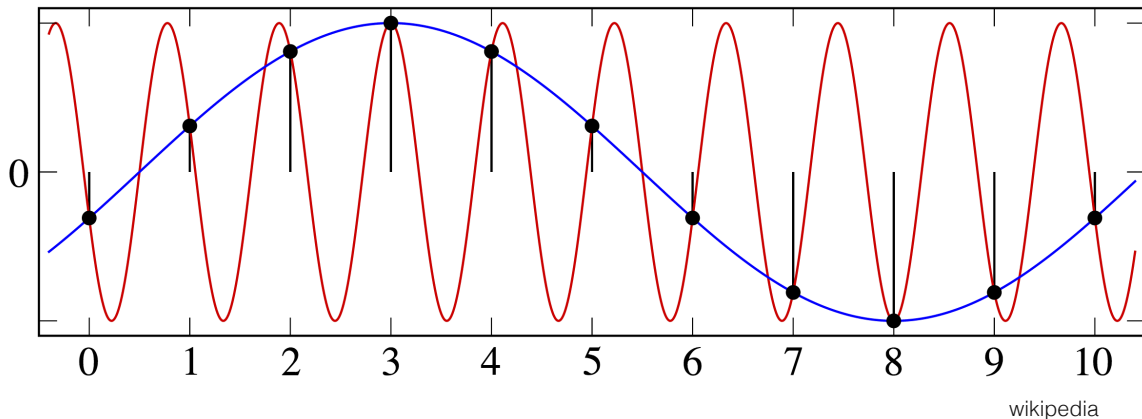
$$f_s \geq 2 f_{\max}$$

with anti-aliasing



Examples of Aliasing: Temporal Aliasing

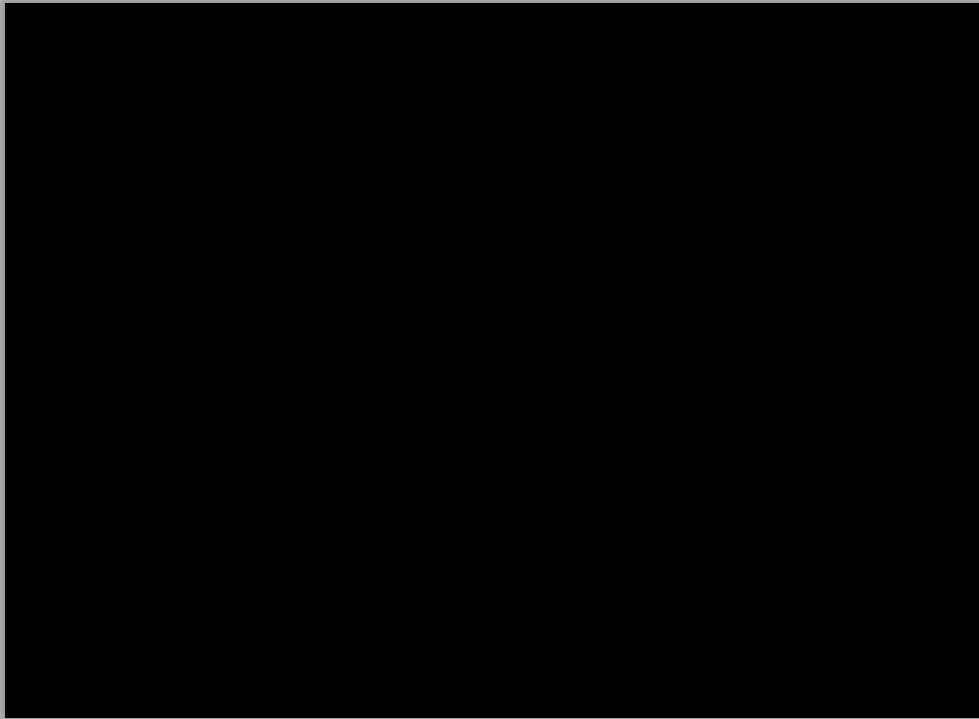
- wagon wheel effect (temporal aliasing)
- sampling frequency was lower than $2f_{\max}$



Examples of Aliasing: Temporal Aliasing

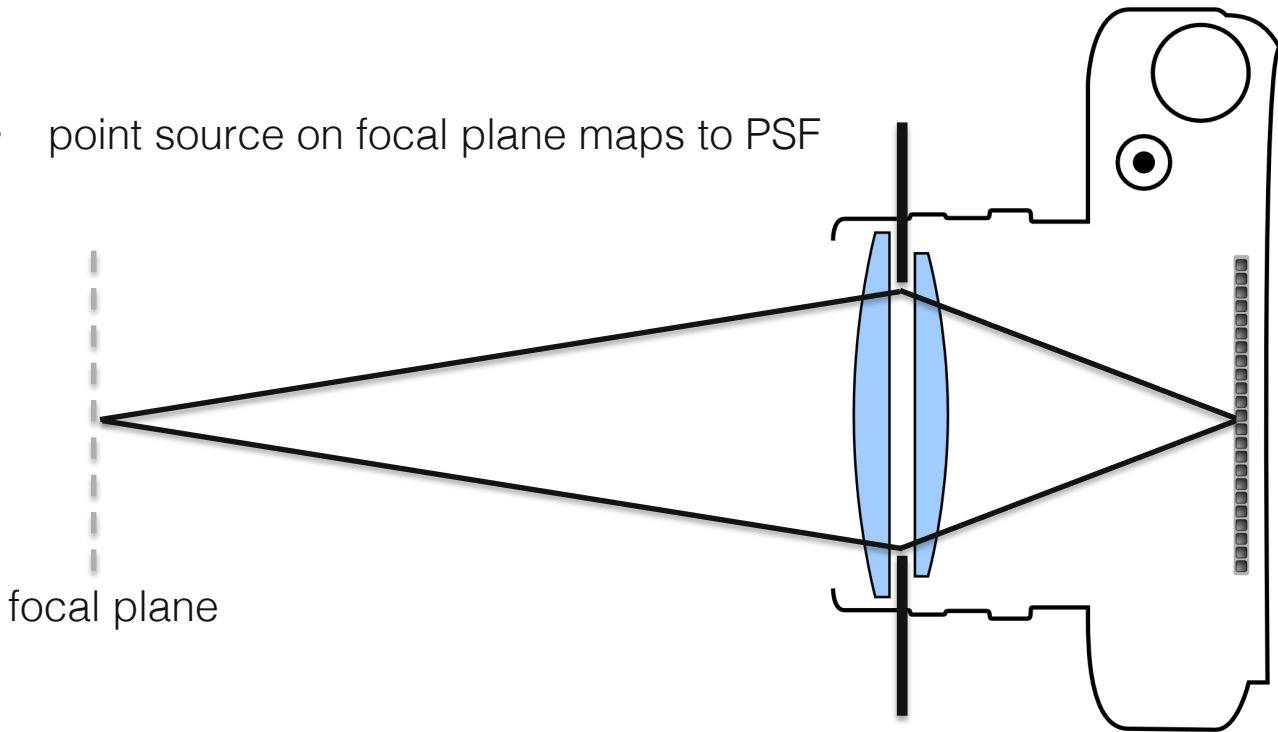
- wagon wheel effect

[youtube.com/watch?v=jHS9JGkEOmA](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jHS9JGkEOmA)



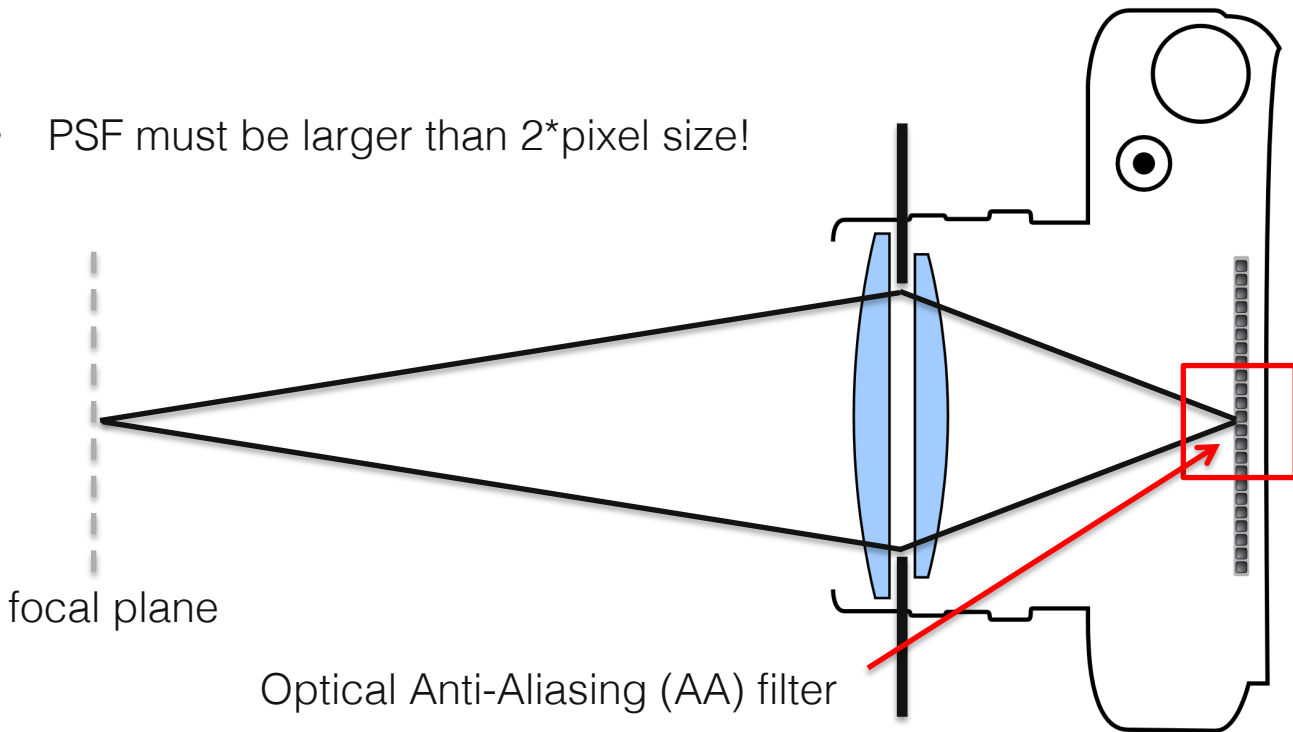
Examples of Aliasing: Sampling on Sensor

- point source on focal plane maps to PSF



Examples of Aliasing: Sampling on Sensor

- PSF must be larger than $2 \times$ pixel size!

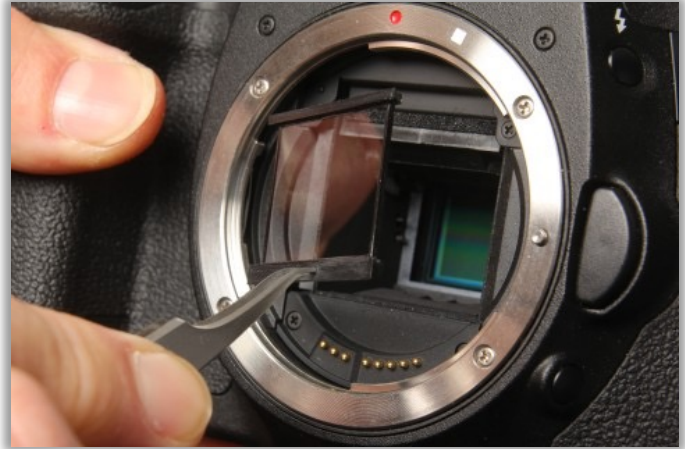


Other Forms of Aliasing

- photography – optical AA filter removed (“hot rodding” camera)



John Shafer



mosaicengineering.com

Deconvolution

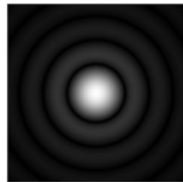
Lens as an optical low-pass filter



image from a perfect lens

i

$*$



$=$



image from imperfect lens

$*$

k

$=$

b

Lens as an optical low-pass filter

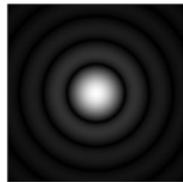
If we know b and k , can we recover i ?



image from a perfect lens

i

$*$



$=$



image from imperfect lens

$*$

k

$=$

b

Deconvolution

$$i * k = b$$

If we know k and b , can we recover i ?

Deconvolution

$$i * k = b$$

Reminder: convolution is multiplication in Fourier domain:

$$F(i) \cdot F(k) = F(b)$$

If we know k and b , can we recover i ?

Deconvolution

$$i * k = b$$

Reminder: convolution is multiplication in Fourier domain:

$$F(i) \cdot F(k) = F(b)$$

Deconvolution is division in Fourier domain:

$$F(i_{\text{est}}) = F(b) \setminus F(k)$$

After division, just do inverse Fourier transform:

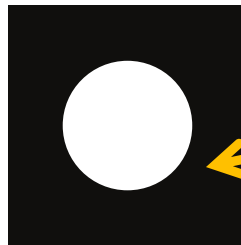
$$i_{\text{est}} = F^{-1} (F(b) \setminus F(k))$$

Deconvolution

Any problems with this approach?

Deconvolution

- The OTF (Fourier of PSF) is a low-pass filter



zeros at high frequencies

- The measured signal includes noise

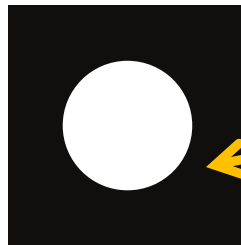
$$b = k * i + n$$



noise term

Deconvolution

- The OTF (Fourier of PSF) is a low-pass filter



zeros at high
frequencies

- The measured signal includes noise

$$b = k * i + n$$



noise term

- When we divide by zero, we amplify the high frequency noise

Naïve deconvolution

Even tiny noise can make the results awful.

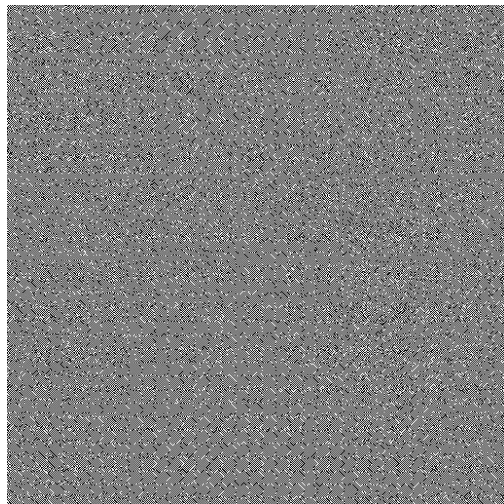
- Example for Gaussian of $\sigma = 0.05$



b

$$* \left[\text{Gaussian} \right]^{-1} =$$

$$* k^{-1} =$$



i_{est}

Wiener Deconvolution

Apply inverse kernel and do not divide by zero:

$$i_{\text{est}} = F^{-1} \left(\frac{|F(k)|^2}{|F(k)|^2 + 1/\text{SNR}(\omega)} \frac{F(b)}{F(k)} \right)$$

noise-dependent damping factor 

- Derived as solution to maximum-likelihood problem under Gaussian noise assumption
- Requires noise of signal-to-noise ratio at each frequency

$$\text{SNR}(\omega) = \frac{\text{signal variance at } \omega}{\text{noise variance at } \omega}$$

Wiener Deconvolution

Apply inverse kernel and do not divide by zero:

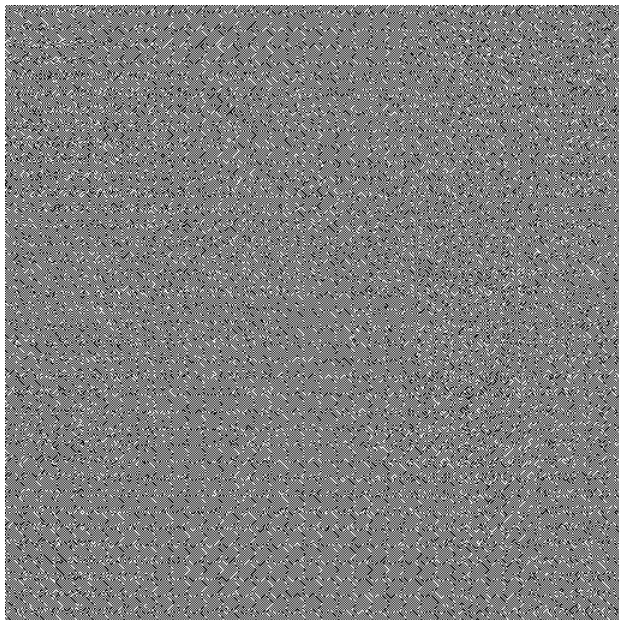
$$i_{\text{est}} = F^{-1} \left(\frac{|F(k)|^2}{|F(k)|^2 + 1/\text{SNR}(\omega)} \frac{F(b)}{F(k)} \right)$$

noise-dependent damping factor 

Intuitively:

- When SNR is high (low or no noise), just divide by kernel.
- When SNR is low (high noise), just set to zero.

Deconvolution comparisons



naïve deconvolution



Wiener deconvolution

Deconvolution comparisons



$\sigma = 0.01$



$\sigma = 0.05$



$\sigma = 0.01$

Derivation

Sensing model:

$$b = k * i + n$$

Noise n is assumed to be zero-mean and independent of signal i .

Derivation

Sensing model:

$$b = k * i + n$$

Noise n is assumed to be zero-mean and independent of signal i .

Fourier transform:

$$B = K \cdot I + N$$



Why multiplication?

Derivation

Sensing model:

$$b = k * i + n$$

Noise n is assumed to be zero-mean and independent of signal i .

Fourier transform:

$$B = K \cdot I + N$$

Convolution becomes multiplication.

Problem statement: Find function $H(\omega)$ that minimizes expected error in Fourier domain.

$$\min_H E[\|I - HB\|^2]$$

Derivation

Replace B and re-arrange loss:

$$\min_H E[\|(1 - HK)I - HN\|^2]$$

Expand the squares:

$$\min_H \|1 - HK\|^2 E[\|I\|^2] - 2H(1 - HK)E[IN] + \|H\|^2 E[\|N\|^2]$$

Derivation

When handling the cross terms:

- Can I write the following?

$$E[IN] = E[I]E[N]$$

Derivation

When handling the cross terms:

- Can I write the following?

$$E[IN] = E[I]E[N]$$

Yes, because I and N are assumed independent.

- What is this expectation product equal to?

Derivation

When handling the cross terms:

- Can I write the following?

$$E[IN] = E[I]E[N]$$

Yes, because I and N are assumed independent.

- What is this expectation product equal to?

Zero, because N has zero mean.


Derivation

Replace B and re-arrange loss:

$$\min_H E[\|(1 + HK)I - HN\|^2]$$

Expand the squares:

$$\min_H \|1 - HK\|^2 E[\|I\|^2] - 2H(1 - HK)E[IN] + \|H\|^2 E[\|N\|^2]$$

 cross-term is zero

Simplify:

$$\min_H \|1 - HK\|^2 E[\|I\|^2] + \|H\|^2 E[\|N\|^2]$$

How do we solve this optimization problem?

Derivation

Differentiate loss with respect to H , set to zero, and solve for H :

$$\frac{\partial \text{loss}}{\partial H} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -2K(1 - HK)E[\|I\|^2] + 2HE[\|N\|^2] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow H = \frac{KE[\|I\|^2]}{K^2E[\|I\|^2] + E[\|N\|^2]}$$

Divide both numerator and denominator with $E[\|I\|^2]$, extract factor $1/K$, and done!

Deconvolution with Wiener Filtering

- results: not too bad, but noisy
- need more advance image priors to solve this ill-posed inverse problem robustly → more in week 7&8

Sampling & Deconvolution – Summary

- Shannon-Nyquist theorem: always sample signal at a sampling rate $\geq 2 \times$ highest frequency of signal!
- if Shannon-Nyquist is violated, aliasing occurs
- aliasing cannot be corrected digitally in post-processing (see optical anti-aliasing filter)
- PSF is usually a low-pass filter, so deconvolution is an ill-posed inverse problem ☹

Matrices and Linear Systems – Review

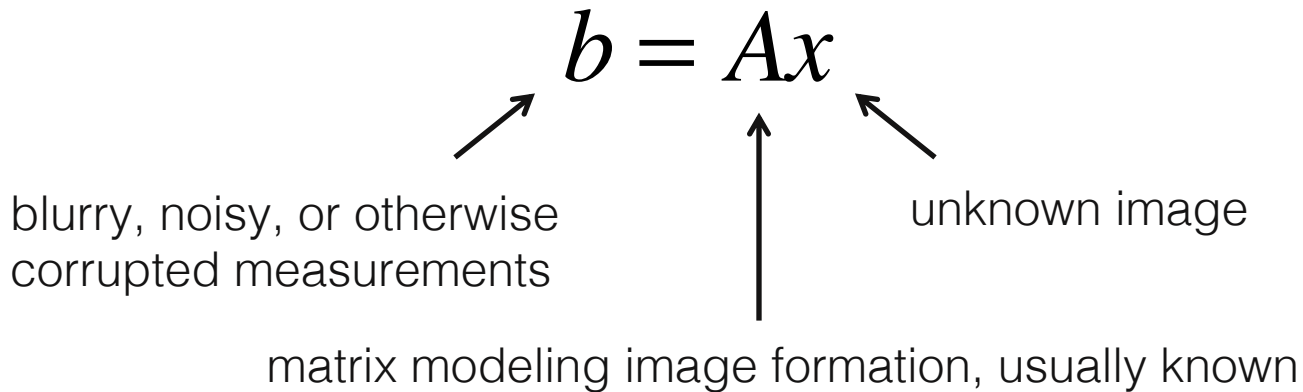
- basic linear algebra, review if necessary!
- see references for online resources
- brief review now

Matrices and Linear Systems – Review

- most computational imaging problems are linear
- geometric optics approximation of light is linear in intensity
- not necessarily true for wave-based models (e.g. interference, phase retrieval, ...)

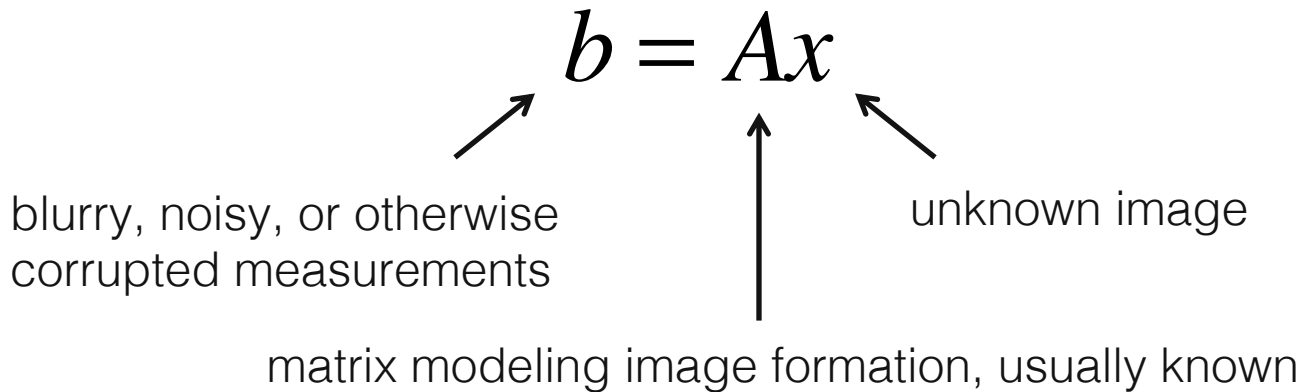
Matrices and Linear Systems – Review

- most computational imaging problems are linear



Matrices and Linear Systems – Review

- common problem: given b , what can I hope to recover?
- answer: analyze matrix via condition number, rank, SVD → please review these concepts



Matrices and Linear Systems – Review

- other common problem: given b , what is x ?
- answer: invert matrix?

$$b = Ax$$

$$x_{est} \stackrel{?}{=} A^{-1}b$$

Matrices and Linear Systems – Review

- other common problem: given b , what is x ?
- answer: invert matrix – generally not!

$$b = Ax$$

~~$$x_{est} \stackrel{?}{=} A^{-1}b$$~~

Linear Systems

- problem 1: matrix inverse only defined for square, full-rank matrices – most imaging problems are NOT!
- problem 2: most imaging problems deal with really big matrices – couldn't compute inverse, even if there was one!
- solution: iterative (convex) optimization

Linear Systems

- case 1: over-determined system = more measurements than unknowns $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, m > n$
- case 2: under-determined system = fewer measurements than unknowns $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, m < n$

Linear Systems

- case 1: over-determined system = more measurements than unknowns

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, m > n$$

- formulate least-squared error objective function:

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \frac{1}{2} \|b - Ax\|_2^2 \quad \|r\|_2^2 = \sum_i r_i^2, \quad r = b - Ax$$

\nearrow
 ℓ_2 norm \uparrow
residual

Linear Systems

- least squares solution: gradient of objective = 0
- gradient:

$$\nabla_x \frac{1}{2} \|b - Ax\|_2^2 = \nabla_x \frac{1}{2} (b^T b - 2b^T Ax + x^T A^T Ax) = A^T Ax - A^T b$$

- equate to zero – normal equations:

$$A^T Ax = A^T b$$

Linear Systems

- least squares solution: gradient of objective = 0
- gradient:

$$\nabla_x \frac{1}{2} \|b - Ax\|_2^2 = \nabla_x \frac{1}{2} (b^T b - 2b^T Ax + x^T A^T Ax) = A^T Ax - A^T b$$

- equate to zero – normal equations:

$$A^T Ax = A^T b$$

$$A^T (Ax - b) = 0$$

The residual is “normal” to the columns of A

Linear Systems

- closed-form solution to normal equations:

$$A^T A x = A^T b \quad \longrightarrow \quad x_{est} = \left(A^T A \right)^{-1} A^T b$$

- rarely applicable, because again A is big and usually not full rank

- regularized solution $x_{est} = \left(A^T A + \lambda I \right)^{-1} A^T b$

(always full rank, but still too big to directly invert)

Linear Systems – Gradient Descent

- solve with iterative method, easiest one: gradient descent

$$\left(\underbrace{A^T A + \lambda I}_{\tilde{A}} \right) x = \underbrace{A^T b}_{\tilde{b}}$$

- use the negative gradient of objective as descent direction at iteration k , with step length α

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \alpha \nabla_x = x^{(k)} - \alpha \tilde{A}^T \left(\tilde{A} x^{(k)} - \tilde{b} \right)$$

Linear Systems – Gradient Descent

- use the negative gradient of objective as descent direction at iteration k , *with* step length α

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \nabla_x = x^{(k)} - \alpha A^T (Ax^{(k)} - b)$$

- for large-scale problems, implement as function handles!

Linear Systems – Gradient Descent

- back to convolution example:

$$\begin{aligned}x^{(k+1)} &= x^{(k)} - \nabla_x = x^{(k)} - \alpha A^T (Ax^{(k)} - b) \\&= x^{(k)} - \alpha \left(c^* * (c * x^{(k)} - b) \right)\end{aligned}$$

- efficient implementation using convolution theorem:

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \alpha F^{-1} \{ F\{c\}^* \cdot (F\{c\} \cdot F\{x^{(k)}\} - F\{b\}) \}$$

Linear Systems – Stochastic Gradient Descent

$$b = Ax$$

- What if our measurements are too large to store in memory?
- Can happen for linear models—very common for nonlinear models (neural networks)!
- Will see more on this later...

Linear Systems – Stochastic Gradient Descent

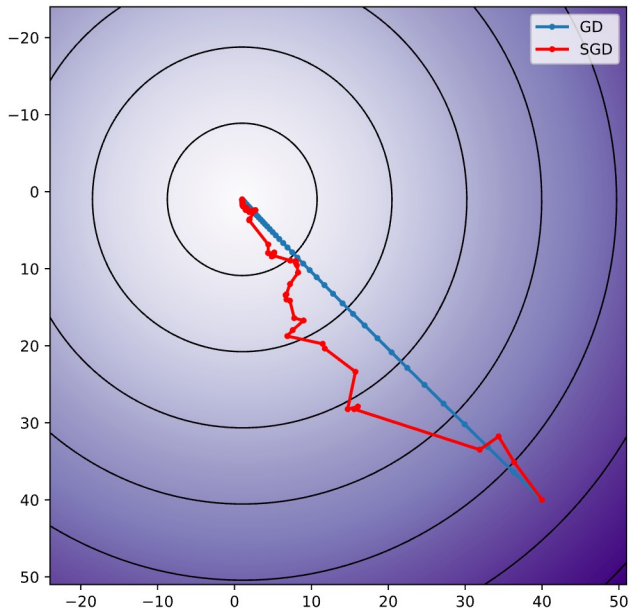
$$b = Ax$$

- Solution?
 - Stochastic optimization by sampling entries/rows from b and A at each iteration

$$\tilde{b} = \tilde{A}x$$

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \alpha \tilde{A}^{(k)T} (\tilde{A}^{(k)} x^{(k)} - \tilde{b}^{(k)})$$

Linear Systems – Stochastic Gradient Descent



Tradeoffs

GD is expensive

- but better convergence

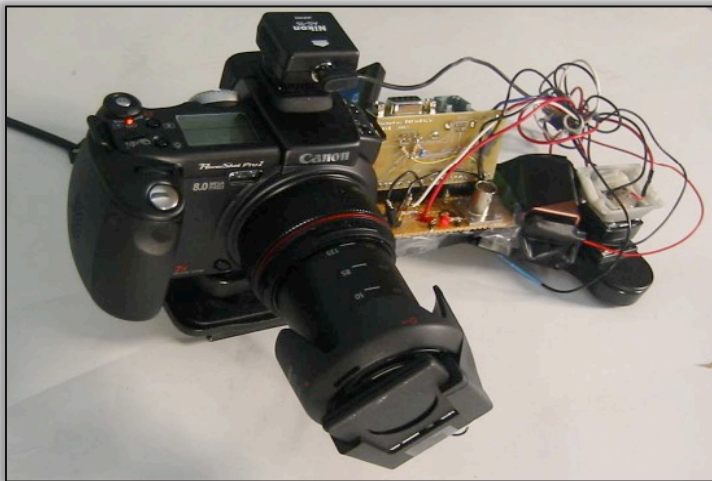
SGD is more efficient

- works well far from minima
- but struggles close to minima
- can be good for non-convex problems!

Next: Computational Photography



HDR Imaging &
Tone Mapping



Coded Apertures

References and Further Reading

- Boreman, "Modulation Transfer Function in Optical and ElectroOptical Systems", SPIE Publications, 2001
- <http://www.imagemagick.org/Usage/fourier/>
- Wikipedia
- Stanford EE263 lectures: <https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PL06960BA52D0DB32B>