

Assignment 1

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Superresolution

1. **Problem.** The goal of superresolution is to recover high resolution images of given low resolution input images. This problem can be modelled mathematically by assuming the following image creation model:

$$g(x, y) = (u * k)(\alpha x, \alpha y). \quad (1)$$

Here, g is the low resolution input image that results from down-sampling a higher resolution image u with an averaging filter k and down-sampling factor α . The task of superresolution therefore is to find u given g , k and α .

As we deal with images in the discrete, equation 1 can be rewritten as

$$g = Du. \quad (2)$$

In this case, g and u are column vectors (column-major ordering of the images) and D is a down-sampling matrix. The solution u can now be found by minimising

$$E(u) = \frac{\lambda}{2} \|Du - g\|^2 + \|\nabla u\| \quad (3)$$

with respect to u . Here, $\|\nabla u\|$ is equal to a Total Variation (TV) regularisation term which ensures a certain smoothness in the output image u and the parameter λ controls the trade-off between minimising the error and regularisation terms. The image we are looking for is therefore given by

$$\tilde{u} = \arg \min_u E(u) \quad (4)$$

2. **Motivations.** There are many applications of superresolution we can think of. Any situation where the highest possible resolution of a screen is

higher than the resolution of some image is a possible use-case. While being more computationally expensive than a simple interpolation scheme, superresolution results in a higher perceived quality of the up-scaled images and allows humans to better interpret these. Superresolution could also be used to save space while storing or transmitting images. Concrete use-cases are mobile-phone images used as wallpaper, the enlargement of a sub window of an image, retrieval of mug shots from surveillance cameras, and so on.

3. **Derivation of gradient.** To numerically solve for the best image u in equation 4, the energy given by equation 3 is discretised. Using forward finite differences for the approximation leads to:

$$E(u) = \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i,j} ((Du)(i,j) - g(i,j))^2 + \sum_{i,j} \tau(i,j) \quad (5)$$

where

$$\tau(i,j) = \sqrt{(u(i+1,j) - u(i,j))^2 + (u(i,j+1) - u(i,j))^2}. \quad (6)$$

To minimise equation 5 we use a gradient-descent approach with the update rule

$$u := u - \alpha \nabla_u E. \quad (7)$$

This of course requires the computation of the gradient $\nabla_u E$ of equation 5 with respect to u :

$$\nabla_u E = \lambda D^T (Du - g) + \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \|\nabla u\| \quad (8)$$

where the entries of $\frac{\partial}{\partial u} \|\nabla u\|$ in turn are computed by

$$\frac{\partial \|\nabla u\|}{\partial u(i,j)} = \frac{\partial \tau(i,j)}{\partial u(i,j)} + \frac{\partial \tau(i-1,j)}{\partial u(i,j)} + \frac{\partial \tau(i,j-1)}{\partial u(i,j)} \quad (9)$$

with the partial derivatives of τ w.r.t u given by:

$$\frac{\partial \tau(i,j)}{\partial u(i,j)} = \frac{2u(i,j) - u(i+1,j) - u(i,j+1)}{\tau(i,j)} \quad (10)$$

$$\frac{\partial \tau(i-1,j)}{\partial u(i,j)} = \frac{u(i,j) - u(i-1,j)}{\tau(i-1,j)} \quad (11)$$

$$\frac{\partial \tau(i,j-1)}{\partial u(i,j)} = \frac{u(i,j) - u(i,j-1)}{\tau(i,j-1)} \quad (12)$$

4. **Implement gradient descent for superresolution.** I implemented a gradient descent algorithm to solve for u . The computation of the gradient requires to make some boundary assumptions for u . The assumptions made here are that u is mirrored along its boundaries. The updating-factor α in equation 7 is determined via backtracking line search. Figure 1 shows results at different stages of the minimisation.



Fig. 1: This figure shows an image at several different stages of the gradient descent algorithm.

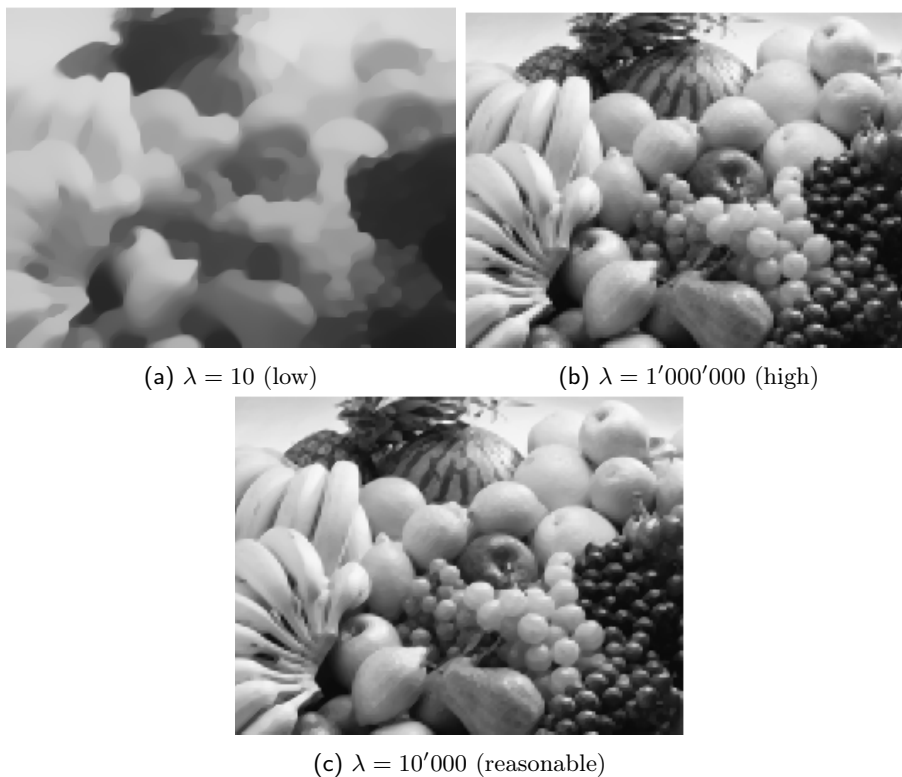


Fig. 2: This figure shows results for different values of the parameter λ .

5. **The influence of λ .** The parameter λ in equation 3 controls the trade-off between minimising the error and minimising the regularisation term $\|\nabla u\|$. Figure 2 shows results for different values of λ . Setting it low places more weight on minimising $\|\nabla u\|$, therefore making u smoother. Setting λ high on the other hand places more weight on minimising the error between the low-res input image and the down-sampled prediction u , therefore u will be more similar to an up-scaled version of the low-res input image (it will look more pixelated).

6. Find optimal λ .

As we know the optimal value for u , we can look for the value of λ which minimises the sum of squared distances (SSD)

$$SSD(u) = \sum_{i,j} (\tilde{u}(i,j) - u(i,j))^2 \quad (13)$$

between the ground truth u and the solution \tilde{u} we computed. Figure 3 shows the SSD vs. λ graph. We observe that very low values for λ result

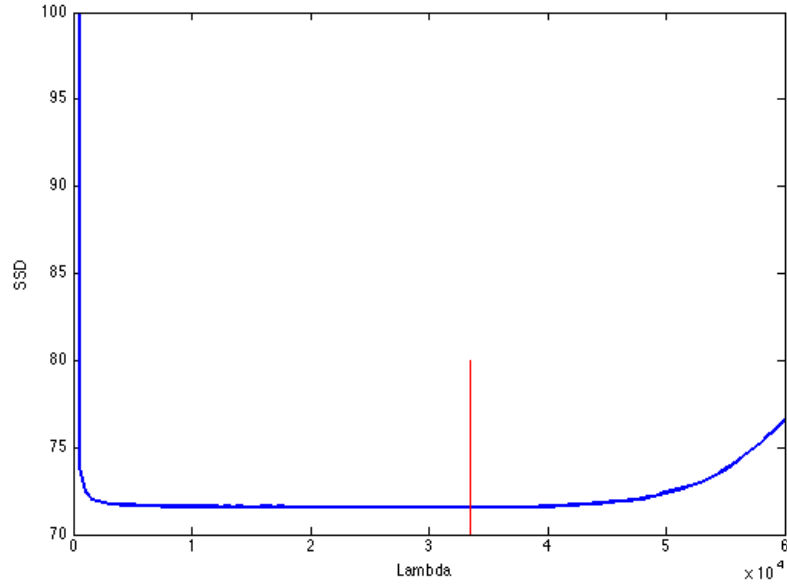


Fig. 3: This figure shows the effect of λ on the SSD between the ground-truth u and our solution \tilde{u} . The red vertical line indicates the optimal value for λ .

in a very high SSD. For λ between 5'000 and 40'000, the SSD stays nearly constant and increases again for $\lambda > 40'000$. The graph draws a convex function with a minimum at approximately $\lambda = 33'500$.