#### CS 477/577

#### **Lecture Three**

# Spectral Image Formation II: Calibration AND Non-homogenous least squares



# **Image Formation (deluxe version)**

The response of an image capture system to a light signal  $L(\lambda)$  associated with a given pixels is modeled by

$$G^{(k)} = F^{(k)}(C^{(k)}) = F^{(k)} \left( b^{(k)} + \int L(\lambda) S^{(k)}(\lambda) d\lambda \right)$$
from before

where  $S^{(k)}(\lambda)$  is the sensor response function for the  $k^{th}$  channel and  $b^{(k)}$  is the  $k^{th}$  channel response to black.

 $S^{(k)}(\lambda)$  includes the contributions due to the aperture, focal length, sensor position in the focal plane.

 $F^{(k)}$  accounts for typical non-linearities such as gamma.



# **Image Formation (deluxe version)**

The discrete version says that response of an image capture system to a light signal represented by the vector **L** is modeled by

$$G^{(k)} = F^{(k)}(C^{(k)}) = F^{(k)} \left( b^{(k)} + \mathbf{L} \cdot \mathbf{S}^{(k)} \right)$$
Key part for today

where  $S^{(k)}$  is now the vector representation of the sensor response function for the  $k^{th}$  channel.

Our focus today will be the linear part,  $C^{(k)} = \mathbf{L} \cdot \mathbf{S}^{(k)}$ , ignoring camera black,  $b^{(k)}$ .

# **Systems of Linear Equations**

Non-homogenous (likely most familiar)

$$2x_1 + 3x_2 = 5$$
  
 $x_1 - x_2 = 0$  Solved by  $x_1 = 1$ ,  $x_2 = 1$ 

# **Systems of Linear Equations**

• Non-homogenous (more equations than unknown)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

# **Systems of Linear Equations**

• Homogenous (next week)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \overrightarrow{0}$$

Such that 
$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$$

# **Linear Least Squares**

- Very common problem in vision: solve an over-constrained system of linear equations
  - e.g., Ux=y, where U has more rows than needed
- No exact solution, but if the equations come from noisy data, we do not expect an exact solution to be correct anyway.
  - More equations allows multiple measurements to be used
- Least squares means that you minimize squared error (the difference between your model and your data)
  - Instead of  $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ , we say  $U\mathbf{x} \approx \mathbf{y}$ , and find the "best"  $\mathbf{x}$ ,

# **Linear Least Squares**

- Least squares minimization is (relatively) easy
- Not very robust to outliers (it assumes error is Gaussian)

# **Linear Least Squares**

We will look at two problems

First,  $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$  where U has more rows than needed

Second,  $U\mathbf{x} = 0$  subject to  $|\mathbf{x}| = 1$  where U has more rows than needed

We can use the **first** for naïve spectral camera calibration.

We use the **second** problem for geometric camera calibration.

# Non-homogeneous Least Squares\*

Problem one:  $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$  where U has more rows than needed (this shows up as an optional question in HW 01)

U is not square, so inverting it does not work

In fact, usually **there is no solution**. We need to redefine what it means to "solve the equation".

We seek the "best" answer but what is that?

\* This is regression by a different name.

# Non-homogeneous Least Squares

Define 
$$\mathbf{e} = U\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$$
 and  $E(\mathbf{x}) = |\mathbf{e}|^2 = \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}$ 

E() is one idea of "best", **U** and **y** are given by your problem and data.

The least squares solution is the x that has minimum E.

In other words, we solve 
$$\underset{\mathbf{x}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}}(E(\mathbf{x}))$$

The answer is given by

 $\mathbf{x} = U^{\dagger}\mathbf{y}$  where  $U^{\dagger} = (U^{T}U)^{-1}U^{T}$  is the pseudoinverse of U

# Non-homogeneous Least Squares

Define 
$$\mathbf{e} = U\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$$
 and  $E(\mathbf{x}) = |\mathbf{e}|^2 = \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}$ 

The least squares answer is given by

$$\mathbf{x} = U^{\dagger}\mathbf{y}$$
 where  $U^{\dagger} = (U^{T}U)^{-1}U^{T}$  is the pseudoinverse of U

We can derive this by differentiating with respect to each  $x_i$ , and setting all resulting equations to zero (see supplementary slides).

For speed and numerical stability, one may want to use a different approach to solve  $U^TU\mathbf{x} = U^T\mathbf{y}$  without matrix inversion (e.g., Matlab linsolve() (or \ operator) which uses QR factorization).

# Non-homogeneous linear least squares summary (the part you need to know)

You should be able to set up for problems where it makes sense to say:

$$U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$$

You should know that it can be solved in the least squares sense by

$$\mathbf{x} = U^{\dagger}\mathbf{y}$$
 where  $U^{\dagger}$  is the pseudoinverse of U

You should understand what it means to solve in the least squares sense.

For exams, you can assume that you can look up

$$U^{\dagger} = (U^T U)^{-1} U^T$$

#### Quick "derivation" of formula for linear least squares

 $U\mathbf{x} \cong \mathbf{y}$  (U has more rows than columns)  $U^T U\mathbf{x} \cong U^T \mathbf{y}$  (Multiply both sides by  $U^T$ )  $U^T U$  is likely to be robustly invertable So,  $\mathbf{x} \cong (U^T U)^{-1} U^T \mathbf{y} = U^{\dagger} \mathbf{y}$ 

A more formal derivation **showing** that this answer minimizes the squared error is included in the posted notes as "supplemental material".

# Example

Express this system of equations in matrix-vector form, provide the algebraic form of the answer, and use Matlab to compute it.

$$2a + 3b = 14$$
 $a + b = 5$ 
 $a + b = 6$ 
 $a + b = 7$ 
 $2a - b = 10$ 

### The answer (I)

$$U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y},$$
where  $U = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $y = \begin{bmatrix} 14 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$ .

$$\mathbf{x} = U^{\dagger} \mathbf{y} = (U^T U)^{-1} U^T \mathbf{y}$$

## The answer (II)

$$\Rightarrow$$
 x = inv(U'\*U)\*U'\*y

$$\mathbf{x} =$$

>> % Second method

$$>> y=[14;5;6;7;10]$$

$$>> x = U \setminus y$$

$$y =$$

$$\mathbf{x} =$$

Problem statement. Find **x** that minimizes E where  $E = |\mathbf{e}|^2 = \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}$  where  $\mathbf{e} = U\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$ 

For a minimum, 
$$\frac{\delta E}{\delta x_i} = 0$$
,  $\forall x_i$ 

(given no boundary conditions)

$$E = \sum_{j} e_{j}^{2}$$

$$\frac{\delta E}{\delta x_{i}} = 2 \sum_{j} \frac{\delta e_{j}}{\delta x_{i}} \cdot e_{j} = 2 \frac{\delta \mathbf{e}^{T}}{\delta x_{i}} \mathbf{e}$$

$$\frac{\delta E}{\delta x_i} = 2 \frac{\delta \mathbf{e}^T}{\delta x_i} \mathbf{e} = 0 \quad \text{(for minimum)}$$

This is true for all components,  $x_{i,}$  so we get:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dots \\ \frac{\delta \mathbf{e}^T}{\delta x_i} \\ \dots \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{e} = 0$$

The next step then is to evaluate  $\frac{\delta \mathbf{e}^T}{\delta x_i}$  to get each row of a matrix, A, where Ae=0

$$\frac{\delta \mathbf{e}^T}{\delta x_i} = \left(\frac{\delta \mathbf{e}}{\delta x_i}\right)^T = \left(\frac{\delta}{\delta x_i}(U\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})\right)^T = \left(\frac{\delta}{\delta x_i}U\mathbf{x}\right)^T$$

Each row of A is 
$$\left(\frac{\delta}{\delta x_i} U \mathbf{x}\right)^T$$

$$(U\mathbf{x})_k = \sum_j U_{kj} x_j$$
 (Let's study the k'th element of  $U\mathbf{x}$ )

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta x_i} (U\mathbf{x})_k = U_{ki}$$

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta x_i} (U\mathbf{x})_k = U_{ki}$$
 (k'th element of i'th column of U)

So 
$$\frac{\delta}{\delta x_i}(U\mathbf{x})$$
 is the i'th column of U

And so 
$$\frac{\delta \mathbf{e}^T}{\delta x_i} = \left(\frac{\delta}{\delta x_i} U \mathbf{x}\right)^T$$
 is the i'th row of UT

So, the matrix referred to as A before, is UT

$$\frac{\delta \mathbf{e}^{T}}{\delta x_{i}} = \left(\frac{\delta}{\delta x_{i}} U \mathbf{x}\right)^{T} \text{ is the i'th row of } \mathbf{U}^{T}$$

So 
$$\frac{\delta \mathbf{e}^{T}}{\delta x_{i}} \quad \mathbf{e} = 0 \quad \text{becomes} \quad \mathbf{U}^{T}(\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = 0$$
 ...

From the previous slide our condition is  $U^{T}(U\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = 0$ 

Or  $U^T U \mathbf{x} = U^T \mathbf{y}$  (same as we got with our algebriac manipulation "proof")

So 
$$\mathbf{x} = (U^T U)^{-1} U^T \mathbf{y}$$

Thus

 $\mathbf{x} = U^{\dagger}\mathbf{y}$  where  $U^{\dagger} = (U^{T}U)^{-1}U^{T}$  is the pseudoinverse of U

# Naïve spectral camera calibration

The camera has a spectral sensitivity  $S^{(k)}(\lambda)$  for each k. So how do we find them out?

**Notation**. Use the discrete (vector) version of the formula, and do each k separately, and so use  $S^{(k)}$ . Also, ignore camera black and the non-linear (gamma) mapping F().

**Data**. To find  $S^{(k)}$  we can measure many light signals,  $L_i$  and corresponding responses,  $C_i$ .

Then, each measurement, i, provides an equation constraining  $S^{(k)}$ .

$$C_i = \mathbf{L}_i \cdot \mathbf{S}^{(k)}$$

#### Non-homogeneous linear least squares

(example one---naïve spectral camera calibration)

Strategy: measure some spectra entering the camera,  $L_i$ , and note the response,  $C_i$ .

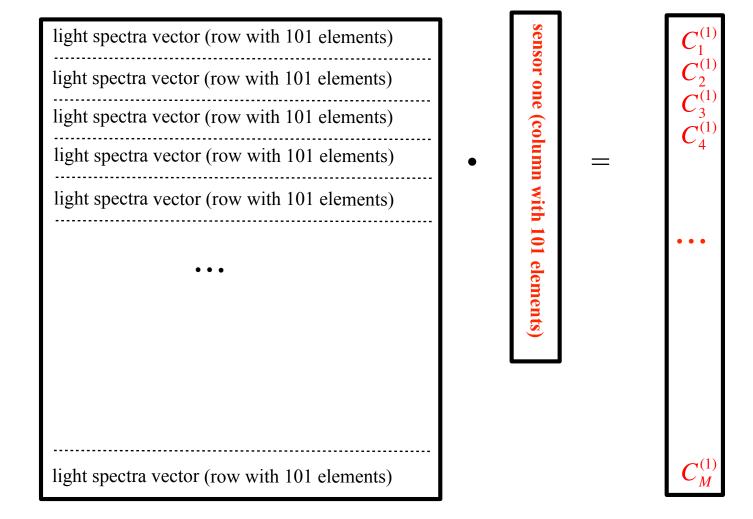
So we have, for a bunch of measurements, *i*:

$$C_i = L_i \cdot S^{(k)}$$

If we don't have enough measurements, then the problem is under constrained.

Because of noise, we want to use multiple measurements. IE, we want the problem to be over constrained (too many rows).

# In pictures, for one sensor (say red, k=1)



## Naïve spectral camera calibration

From previous:

$$C_i = L_i \cdot S^{(k)}$$

(for a number of measurements indexed by i.)

We form a matrix L with rows  $L_i$ , a vector C with elements  $C_i$ , and solve

$$L S^{(k)} \cong C$$

in the least squares sense (S is the unknown).

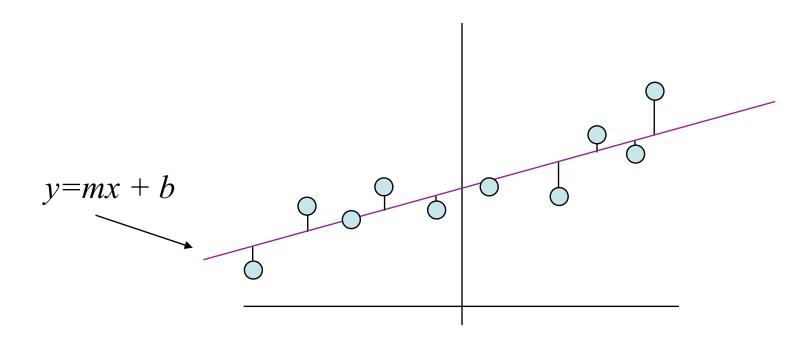
And we now know that this solutions is given by  $\mathbf{S}^{(k)} = L^{\dagger}\mathbf{C}$ 

# Spectral camera calibration improvements

- A) Constrain the sensitivities to be positive
- B) Promote the sensitivity functions to be smooth (This is often referred to as regularization).

How to do this? See grad student part of assignment two.

# Non-homogeneous linear least squares (example two---naïve line fitting)



The error contribution for each point is the vertical distance (illustrated) squared.

We fit the line by tweaking m and b so that the sum of the contributions is as small as possible.

# Non-homogeneous linear least squares (example two---naïve line fitting)

Can write 
$$y=mx + b$$
 as:  
 $(x \ 1)*(m \ b) = y$ 

# Non-homogeneous linear least squares (example two---naïve line fitting)

Can write 
$$y=mx + b$$
 as:  
 $(x \ 1)*(m \ b) = y$ 

So form

a matrix U with rows  $(x_i 1)$ 

a vector **y** with elements  $y_i$ 

a vector of unknowns  $\mathbf{x} = (m, b)$ 

and use the formula to solve Ux≅y

#### Line fitting using non-homogeneous linear least squares

- We are minimizing  $\sum_{i} (y_i (mx_i + b))^2$
- Only the vertical deviations count
- Asymmetric with respect to the axis
  - If you switch x and y, you will get a different answer
- Terminology note: This is standard *linear regression*
- Modeling note: The assumption here is that  $y_i$  are generated from from  $x_i$ , m, b, with added Gaussian noise.

#### Line fitting using non-homogeneous linear least squares (example)

Fit a line to (-1,2) (0,1) (1,2)

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \qquad y = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} m \\ b \end{pmatrix} = U^{\dagger} y = \left( U^{T} U \right)^{-1} U^{T} y$$

Using Matlab, we get

$$\begin{pmatrix} m \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{5}{3} \end{pmatrix}$$
 which is inutively reasonable (if we plot the points).