

EE 5561: Image Processing and Applications

Lecture 7

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Recap of Last Lecture

- Histogram processing
- Interpolation methods
- Finished image enhancement (quickly!)
- Today: Start on statistical image processing
 - Linear algebra review

Vector spaces

– Vector space:

A set V (a collection of vectors) defined over a field F (\mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} in this course) with two operations:

- vector addition, $+ : V \times V \rightarrow V$, i.e. $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V \rightarrow \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} \in V$
- scalar multiplication $\cdot : V \times F \rightarrow V$, i.e. $\mathbf{v} \in V, \alpha \in F \rightarrow \alpha \mathbf{v} \in V$

where these operations satisfy certain properties.

– Properties of the operations

- Vector addition is associative $\mathbf{v} + (\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) + \mathbf{y}$
commutative $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v}$
- Identity element exists for vector addition (i.e. zero vector)

$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v}$$

Vector spaces

- Scalar multiplication is distributive for vector addition & field addition

$$\alpha \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = \alpha \cdot \mathbf{v} + \alpha \cdot \mathbf{w}$$

$$(\alpha + \beta) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \alpha \cdot \mathbf{v} + \beta \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

- Additive inverse exists

$$\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$$

- Scalar multiplication is associative $(\alpha\beta) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot \mathbf{v})$

- Identity element exists for scalar multiplication (i.e. 1)

$$1 \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$$

Linear Independence

– Definition:

A subset of vectors $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} \subset V$ are linearly dependent if

$\exists a_1, \dots, a_n \in F$ (not all zero) such that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_k \mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{0}$$

Vectors in $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} \subset V$ are linearly independent if

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_k \mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{0}$$

is only satisfied if $a_k = 0 \quad \forall k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$

Spanning Set

- **Span:**

The span of $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} \subset V$ is the set of all finite linear combination of vectors in S , i.e.

$$\text{span}(S) = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_k \mathbf{v}_k \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \mathbf{v}_k \in S, \lambda_k \in F \right\}$$

- **Spanning set:** If $V = \text{span}(S)$ then S is called the spanning set of V .

Basis

- Basis:

$B \subset V$ is called a basis if every element of V can be uniquely represented as a linear combination of vectors in B



equivalent to

B is a basis if its elements are linearly independent and B is a spanning set of V

- Dimension of $V = \#$ elements in B
- Note V can have different bases
 - e.g. For \mathbb{R}^2

$$B_1 = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}, \quad B_2 = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}, \quad B_3 = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Normed space

- Vector space on which a norm is defined
- Norm is a real-valued function

$\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

1. $\|\mathbf{v}\| \geq 0$ and $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$

2. $\|\alpha \cdot \mathbf{v}\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|$

3. $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$

triangle inequality

Inner Product Space

- Already alluded to it while studying Fourier analysis
- Inner product is a map

$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow F$ such that

1. $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \overline{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$

conjugate symmetry

2. $\langle \alpha \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \bar{\alpha} \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$

$$\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$$

3. $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \geq 0$

positive semi-definite

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

Inner Product Space

- Example: In Euclidean spaces (e.g. \mathbb{C}^n), dot product is the typical inner product we will use

$$\left\langle \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \right\rangle = \sum_{k=1}^n \overline{x_k} y_k$$

– Norms on inner product spaces

- Based on the inner product

$$||\mathbf{x}|| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$$

- This defines the l_2 norm on Euclidean spaces

$$||\mathbf{x}||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n |x_k|^2} = \left(\sum_{k=1}^n |x_k|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

saw this when talking about the mean filter

Orthogonality

- Two vectors \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} in an inner product space are orthogonal if $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$
- A basis $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ is orthonormal if

	$\langle \mathbf{b}_i, \mathbf{b}_j \rangle = 0 \quad i \neq j$	orthogonality
and	$\langle \mathbf{b}_i, \mathbf{b}_i \rangle = 1$	orthonormality

Linear Transforms

- A mapping $T : V \rightarrow W$, between two vector spaces such that

$$T(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u}) + T(\mathbf{v}) \quad \forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$$

$$T(\alpha \mathbf{v}) = \alpha T(\mathbf{v}) \quad \forall \alpha \in F, \mathbf{v} \in V$$

- If V, W are finite-dimensional (they are in this course), and a basis is defined for both, then $T : V \rightarrow W$ can be represented as a matrix
 - Typically we'll use the canonical basis $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$ for this representation
 - Here the j^{th} coordinate of \mathbf{e}_i is 1 if $j = i$ (and 0 otherwise)

Linear Transforms

– Example:

$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$ is a rotation by θ counter clockwise

▪ Let T be this operation

$$T(\mathbf{e}_1) = T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}$$



$$T(\mathbf{e}_2) = T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$



Linear Transforms

– Why important?

- Linear operation on 2D images can be written in matrix-vector notation
- Mentioned this while talking about DFT/FFT
- Image as 2D array

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1N} \\ \vdots & & \\ a_{M1} & \cdots & a_{MN} \end{bmatrix} \in V \quad \longleftarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{v} \in V \\ \text{images as vectors} \end{array}$$

linear operation
↓

new image

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & \cdots & b_{1N} \\ \vdots & & \\ b_{M1} & \cdots & b_{MN} \end{bmatrix} \quad \longleftarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} \in W \\ \mathbf{A} \text{ is a matrix acting on vectors} \end{array}$$

Matrices

- An $m \times n$ matrix has m rows, n columns
- A_{ij} is the $(i,j)^{\text{th}}$ entry of \mathbf{A}
- \mathbf{I}_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix (we will drop the subscript when the dimension is implicit) with

$$I_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbf{I}\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$$

- Inverse of $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} is \mathbf{A}^{-1} such that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$$

Matrices

- Matrix multiplication

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB} \\ \nearrow \quad \nwarrow \quad \nwarrow \\ m \times p \quad m \times n \quad n \times p \end{array}$$

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{ik} B_{kj}$$

- Note this is not commutative, i.e. in general $\mathbf{AB} \neq \mathbf{BA}$

Matrices

- Matrix transpose

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^T$$



\mathbf{A} is $m \times n$, then \mathbf{B} is $n \times m$

$$B_{ij} = A_{ji}$$

- Note $(\mathbf{A}^T)^T = \mathbf{A}$

- For complex matrices, we use conjugate/Hermitian transpose

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^* \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{A}^H$$

$$B_{ij} = \overline{A_{ji}}$$

Null Space

- Null space of matrix **A** is

$$N(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{x} \in V \mid \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}\}$$



is a linear subspace of V



Subspace is a non-empty subset of V that

- i) Contains **0**
- ii) Closed under vector addition and scalar multiplication

Range/Column Space

- Range/column space of matrix \mathbf{A} is

$$R(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{Ax} | \mathbf{x} \in V\}$$



Span of the columns of \mathbf{A}

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}_i: i^{\text{th}} \text{ column of } \mathbf{A}$$

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + x_2 \mathbf{a}_2 + \dots + x_n \mathbf{a}_n = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k \mathbf{a}_k$$

scalars vectors, i.e.
columns of \mathbf{A}

- $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A})$ = dimension of the column space of \mathbf{A}

Eigenvalues, eigenvectors, special matrices

- Eigenvalue and eigenvector of a *square* matrix **A** are a scalar λ and a vector **v** respectively such that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$$

- Diagonal matrix: Square matrix **D** where $D_{ij} = 0$ if $i \neq j$

$$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} D_{11}x_1 \\ D_{22}x_2 \\ \vdots \\ D_{nn}x_n \end{bmatrix}$$



or elementwise multiplication between vectors

$$\begin{bmatrix} D_{11} \\ D_{22} \\ \vdots \\ D_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Special matrices

- Unitary matrix: Square \mathbf{U} such that $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^H = \mathbf{U}^H\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I} \rightarrow \mathbf{U}^H = \mathbf{U}^{-1}$
 - What does $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^H = \mathbf{I}$ mean?
 - Rows of \mathbf{U} are orthonormal
 - What does $\mathbf{U}^H\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$ mean?
 - Columns of \mathbf{U} are orthonormal
 - Example: A properly normalized DFT matrix is unitary. Let $W_N = e^{-i\frac{2\pi}{N}}$

$$\mathbf{U} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & W_N & \cdots & W_N^{N-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & W_N^{N-1} & \cdots & W_N^{(N-1)(N-1)} \end{bmatrix} \triangleq \mathbf{F}$$

Special matrices

– Symmetric matrix: Square \mathbf{A} such that $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T$

Hermitian matrix: Square \mathbf{A} such that $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^H$

- These types of matrices are diagonalized by unitary matrices
- i.e. There exists a unitary \mathbf{U} and diagonal \mathbf{D} , s.t. $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{U}^H$

Special matrices

- Circulant matrix: Each row is rotated relative to the previous one

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} c_0 & c_{n-1} & \cdots & c_2 & c_1 \\ c_1 & c_0 & c_{n-1} & \cdots & c_2 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ c_{n-1} & c_{n-2} & \cdots & c_1 & c_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Note this implements circular convolution
- Circulant matrices are diagonalizable by the DFT matrix. In particular

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{F}^H \mathbf{D}_c \mathbf{F}$$

← diagonal elements are given by

$$\mathbf{d}_c = \mathbf{F} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ c_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Special matrices

- This means the following

$$\mathbf{C}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{F}^H \underbrace{\mathbf{D}_c \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}}_{\text{FT of } \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{F}^H (\mathbf{D}_c \hat{\mathbf{x}})$$

Diagram illustrating the implementation of circular convolution using the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT):

The equation shows the relationship between the convolution result $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{x}$ and the input \mathbf{x} using the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) matrices \mathbf{F} and \mathbf{F}^H , and the diagonal matrix \mathbf{D}_c .

Annotations:

- \mathbf{C} : circular convolution of $\begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ c_1 \end{bmatrix}$ and \mathbf{x} . (Note: The vector is written in descending order in the image)
- $\mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}$: FT of \mathbf{x}
- \mathbf{F}^H : inverse FT
- $\mathbf{D}_c \hat{\mathbf{x}}$: Elementwise multiplication between FT of the convolution kernel (\mathbf{d}_c) and FT of \mathbf{x}

i.e. Implements convolutions using FT!

Solving linear equations

- Consider $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ if \mathbf{A} is an $n \times n$ invertible matrix $\rightarrow \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$
- If A is $m \times n$ with $m > n \rightarrow$ system is overdetermined
 $m < n \rightarrow$ system is underdetermined
- Solving overdetermined systems is about minimizing the “error”
- We usually consider the l_2 norm as the error, i.e.


$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$

Solving linear equations

- In this setting, i.e. A is $m \times n$ with $m > n$, we will proceed as

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{Ax}\|_2^2 &= \langle \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{Ax}, \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{Ax} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{b} \rangle - 2\langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{Ax} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{Ax}, \mathbf{Ax} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

does not
depend on \mathbf{x}



- Thus $\min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{Ax}\|_2^2 \Leftrightarrow \min_{\mathbf{x}} -2\langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{Ax} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{Ax}, \mathbf{Ax} \rangle$
- Find minimum by taking the derivative with respect to \mathbf{x} , and setting it to 0.

Solving linear equations

- How to take these derivatives in this case?

- e.g. First term

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{Ax} \rangle &= \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{Ax} \\ &= \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} = \sum_k c_k x_k\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{let } \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$$

- Now we look at

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{Ax} \rangle = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\sum_k c_k x_k \right) = c_j$$

- Thus

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{Ax} \rangle = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$$

Solving linear equations

- How to take these derivatives in this case?

- Similarly $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \langle \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \rangle = 2\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$

- Thus we have

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 = -2\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b} + 2\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \underbrace{(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}}_{\text{pseudoinverse of } \mathbf{A}}$$

- This is called the *least squares* solution

Recap

- Linear algebra review
 - Vector spaces, bases
 - Norms, inner products
 - Matrix representation of linear transformations
 - Matrix transpose/Hermitian, inverse, null space, range space, rank
 - Diagonal, symmetric, unitary, circulant matrices; diagonalization
 - Least squares
- Next class:
 - Use linear algebra to derive a new transform (wavelets)
 - Energy compaction
 - Random vectors review
 - Then we will proceed with image restoration