

Estimating Transforms

Computer Vision: CS652

CS473 / CS/EE573

Last few classes we
looked at transforms.

Image Transforms

Transform	Matrix	Degrees of Freedom	Invariants
Scaling	$\begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	2	Angles when $s_x=s_y$ Parallel Lines
Rotation	$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	1	Lengths Angles Parallel Lines
Translation	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	2	Lengths Angles Parallel Lines
Reflection	$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	0	Lengths Parallel Lines
Shear	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & r_x & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	1	Parallel Lines
Affine Transform	$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	6	Parallel Lines
Homographies (Projective Transforms)	$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$	8	Cross Ratio

**Now we will see how to
estimate transforms.**

Image Transforms

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Assignment 2

Panorama Stitching By Estimating Transforms



Inputs: Images Taken By Rotating Camera About Center

Assignment 2

Panaroma Stitching By Estimating Transforms



Inputs: Images Taken By Rotating Camera About Center

Need Overlapping Points!

Assignment 2

Panorama Stitching By Estimating Transforms



Output: Image(s) Warped to Match and Stitched

Assignment 2: Steps

Start with Input Images



Assignment 2: Steps

Mark Corresponding Points



Also Called **Correspondences**

Assignment 2: Steps

Mark Corresponding Points



Also Called **Correspondences**

In this assignment, you will mark correspondences automatically.

Assignment 2: Steps

Mark Corresponding Points



Also Called **Correspondences**

Later, we will see how the automatic method works.

Assignment 2: Steps

Used Correspondences to Estimate Transform

Topic of Today!

Assignment 2: Steps

Transform One Image to Match the Other Image



Assignment 2: Steps

Transform One Image to Match the Other Image



Assignment 2: Steps

Expand the Other Image To Make All the Same Size



Assignment 2: Steps

Blend Images



Assignment 2: Steps

Blend Images



Assignment 2: Steps

Used Correspondences to Estimate Transform

Topic of Today!

Estimate Transform From Correspondences

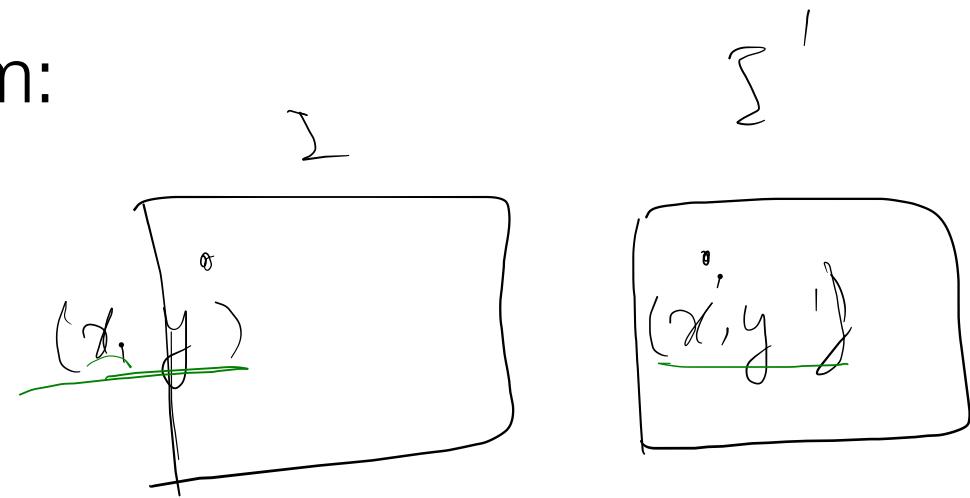


Set up System of
Linear Equations
to Estimate Transform

We will look at two methods

1) Use **least squares** with the following system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}' \\ \hat{y}' \\ \hat{w}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, x' = \frac{\hat{x}'}{\hat{w}'}, y' = \frac{\hat{y}'}{\hat{w}'}$$

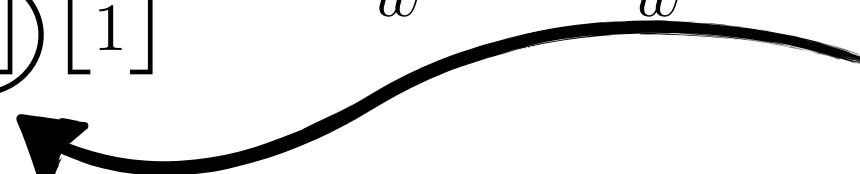


2) Use **homogeneous least squares** with the following system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}' \\ \hat{y}' \\ \hat{w}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, x' = \frac{\hat{x}'}{\hat{w}'}, y' = \frac{\hat{y}'}{\hat{w}'}$$

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Specific form of homography matrix with last element 1.

2) Use **homogeneous least squares** with the following system:

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General form of homography matrix

Note the difference!

1) Least Squares

1) Use **least squares** with the following system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}' \\ \hat{y}' \\ \hat{w}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, x' = \frac{\hat{x}'}{\hat{w}'}, y' = \frac{\hat{y}'}{\hat{w}'}$$

Specific form of homography matrix with last element 1.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}' \\ \hat{y}' \\ \hat{w}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x' = \frac{\hat{x}'}{\hat{w}'}, \quad y' = \frac{\hat{y}'}{\hat{w}'}$$

$$\hat{x}' = ax + by + c$$

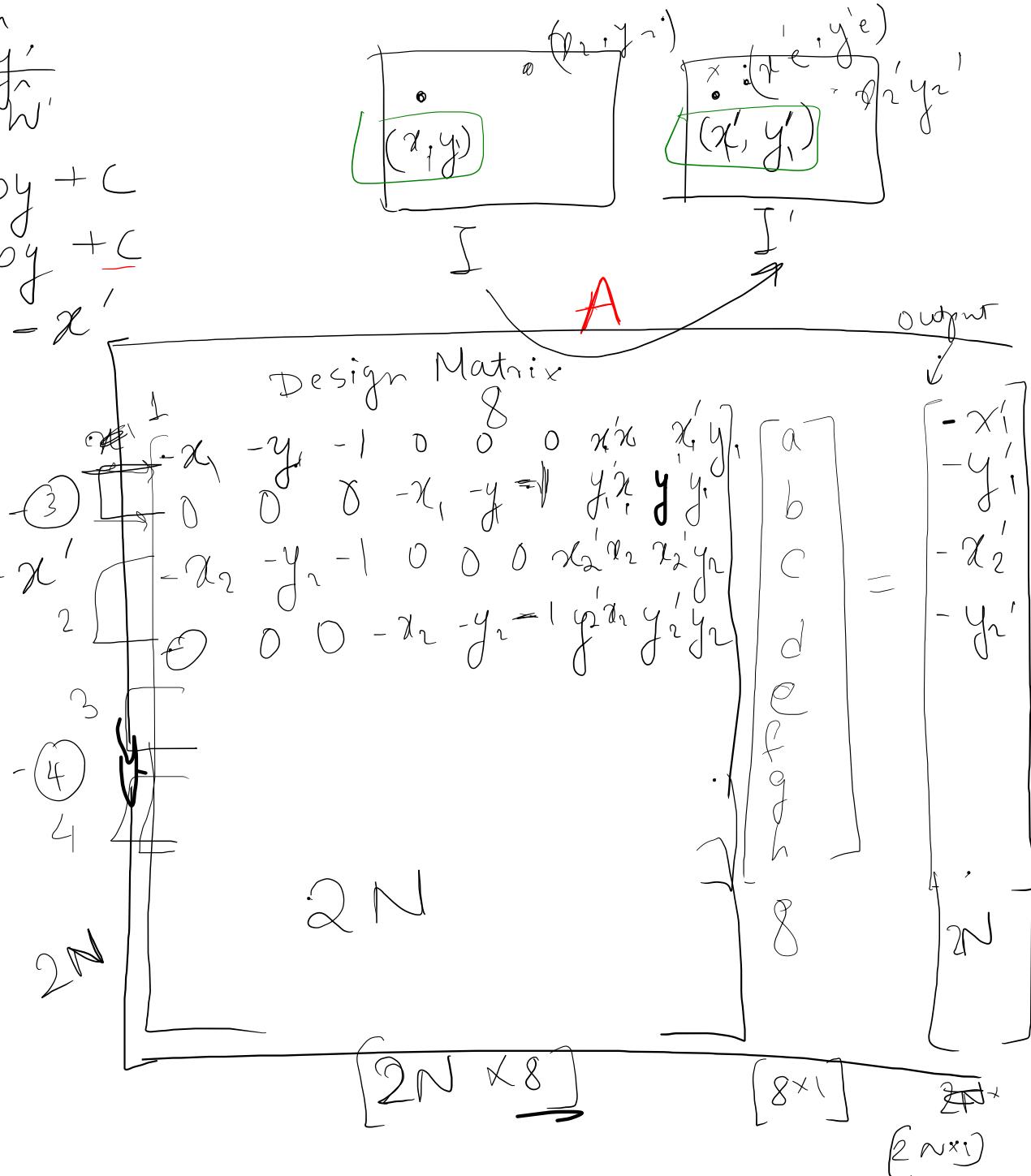
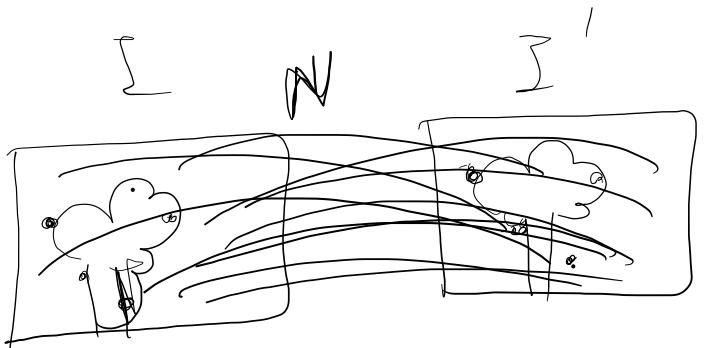
$$\hat{y}' = dx + ey^{\frac{1}{2}} + f.$$

$$y_1 = g x + h y + l$$

$$\underline{x}' = \frac{\cancel{ax} + \cancel{by} + c}{\cancel{gx} + \cancel{hy} + l} - (1)$$

$$y' = \frac{dx + ey + f}{gx + hy + i} \quad (2)$$

DIRECT LINEAR TRANSFORM (DLT)



Set up system of equations by creating design matrix

Convert

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}' \\ \hat{y}' \\ \hat{w}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, x' = \frac{\hat{x}'}{\hat{w}'}, y' = \frac{\hat{y}'}{\hat{w}'}$$

to the form

$$[\quad] \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \end{bmatrix} = \boxed{\quad}$$

Design Matrix

Set up system of equations by creating design matrix

Convert

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}' \\ \hat{y}' \\ \hat{w}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, x' = \frac{\hat{x}'}{\hat{w}'}, y' = \frac{\hat{y}'}{\hat{w}'}$$

to the form

[
Design Matrix

$$] \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \end{bmatrix} = []$$

Two equations are not enough! How many do we need? We need to make the matrix square at the very least.

Set up system of equations by creating design matrix

Use many correspondences

$$(x_1, y_1) \rightarrow (x'_1, y'_1), (x_2, y_2) \rightarrow (x'_2, y'_2), \dots$$

to set up

$$\begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \end{bmatrix}$$

Set up system of equations by creating design matrix

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$$\begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \end{bmatrix}$$

Need
at least 4
correspondences

Set up system of equations by creating design matrix

Use many correspondences

$$(x_1, y_1) \rightarrow (x'_1, y'_1), (x_2, y_2) \rightarrow (x'_2, y'_2), \dots$$

to set up

$$\begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \end{bmatrix}$$

Need
at least 4
correspondences

More is better
for numerical
stability

$$\begin{matrix} P \\ 2N \times 8 \end{matrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} q \\ \cancel{\text{---}} \\ 8 \times 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r \\ \cancel{\text{---}} \\ 2N \times 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{r}$$

We know \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{r} .

\mathbf{P} is a tall matrix.

Find \mathbf{q} .

$$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{r}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} q_1 \\ q_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The best

$$5q_1 + q_2 \approx 6$$

$$q_1 \approx 6$$

$$3q_1 + 4q_2 \approx 0$$

What is \mathbf{q} ?

$$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{r}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ideally, \mathbf{q} should be a 2×1 vector that if you multiply \mathbf{P} with \mathbf{q} , you get \mathbf{r} .

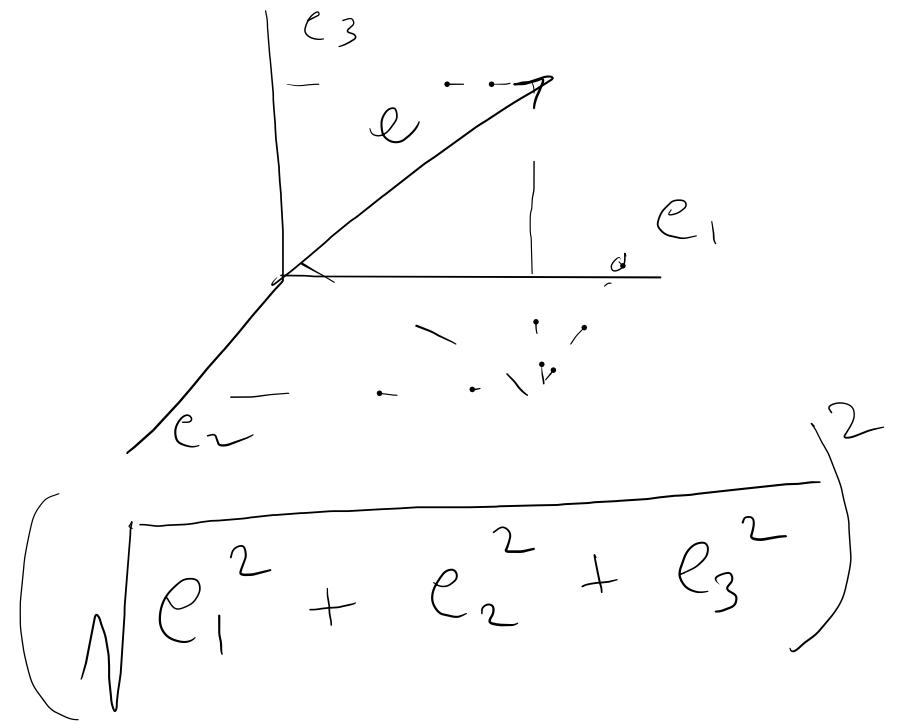
$$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{r}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ideally, \mathbf{q} should be a 2×1 vector that if you multiply \mathbf{P} with \mathbf{q} , you get \mathbf{r} .

In practice, that may never happen.

$$Pq = r$$



$$\begin{bmatrix} P \\ 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} q = \begin{bmatrix} r \\ 6 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$r' = Pq^*$$

$$r' \sim r$$

$$\|r' - r\|^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} e &= r' - r \\ \|e\|^2 &= \|r' - r\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Instead, we will find a q^* ,
that gives $r' = Pq^*$,

where r' is **the closest possible vector** to r .

$$\mathbf{Pq} = \mathbf{r}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

What does it mean for \mathbf{r}' to be the closest possible vector to \mathbf{r} ?

$$\mathbf{Pq} = \mathbf{r}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$e_1^2 + e_2^2 + e_3^2$$

What does it mean for \mathbf{r}' to be the closest possible vector to \mathbf{r} ?

$$\|e\|^2 = \|r' - r\|^2$$

least squared distance.

Distance between \mathbf{r}' and \mathbf{r} has to be minimum!

$$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{r}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Easier to see this **geometrically**.

Geometric Representation of Equations

Columns of \mathbf{P} are a basis for a subspace

$$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{r}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Each column is a 3×1 vector,
so the vectors live in a **3D**.

Geometric Representation of Equations

Columns of \mathbf{P} are a basis for a subspace

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let us draw them.

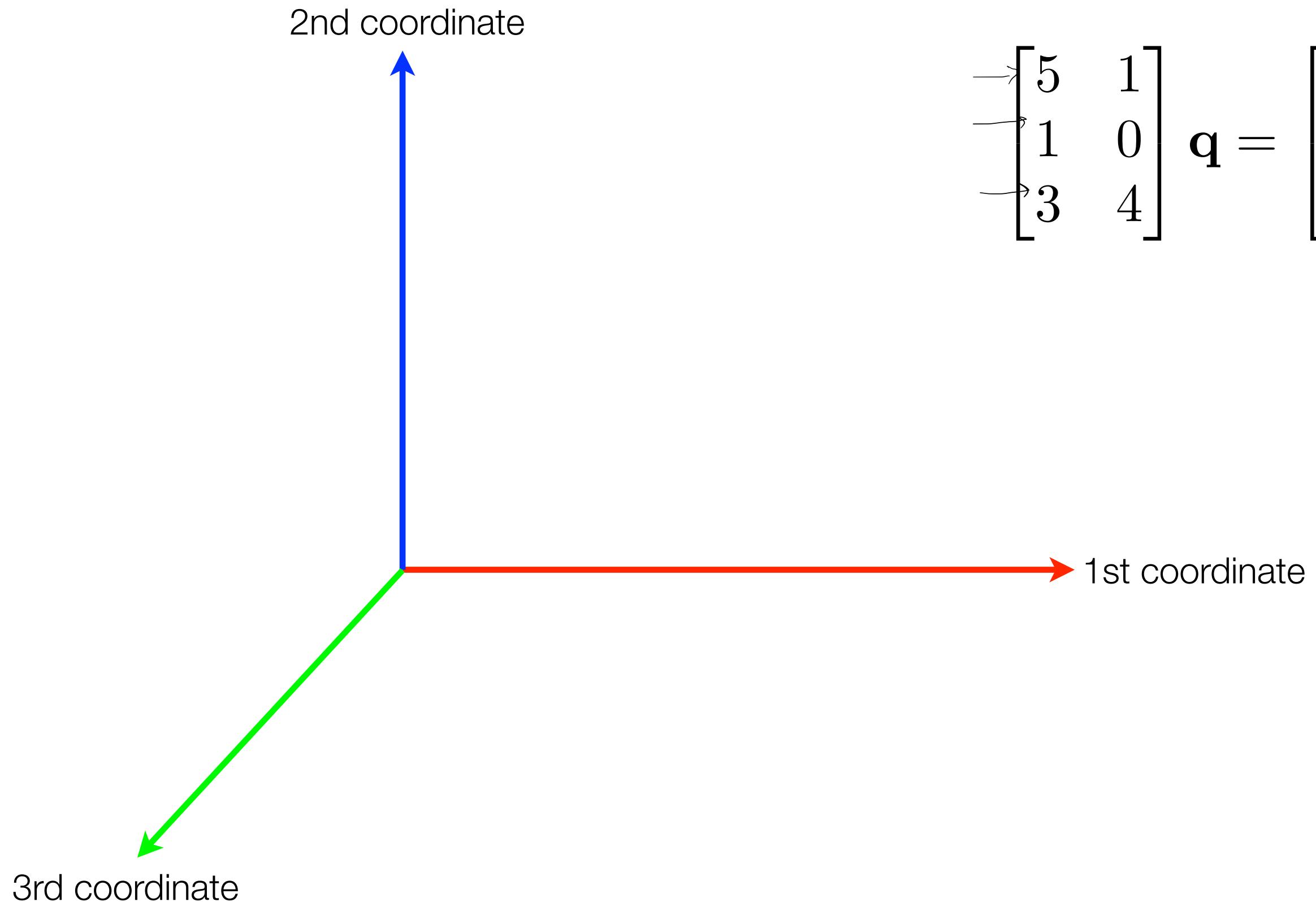
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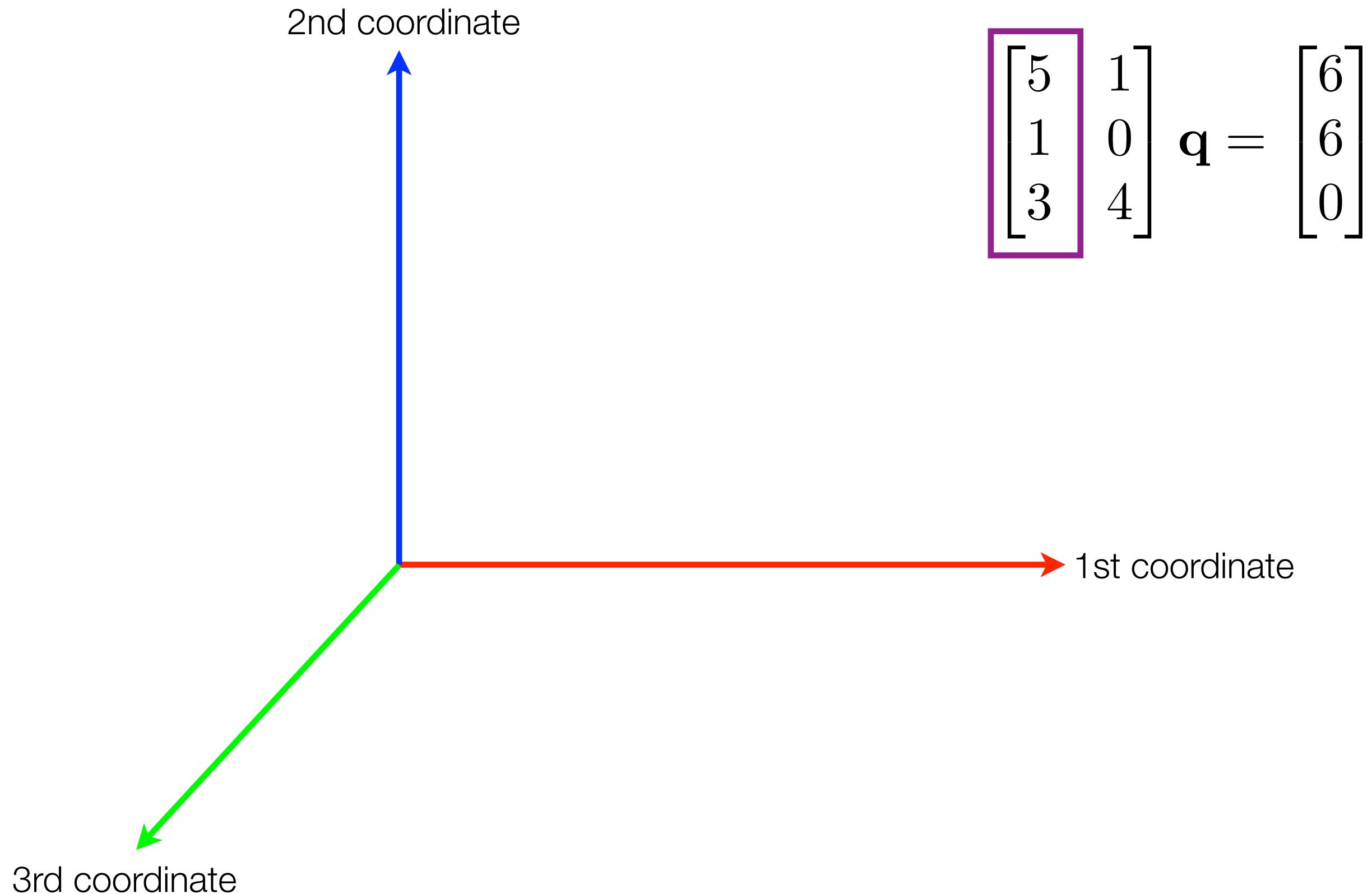
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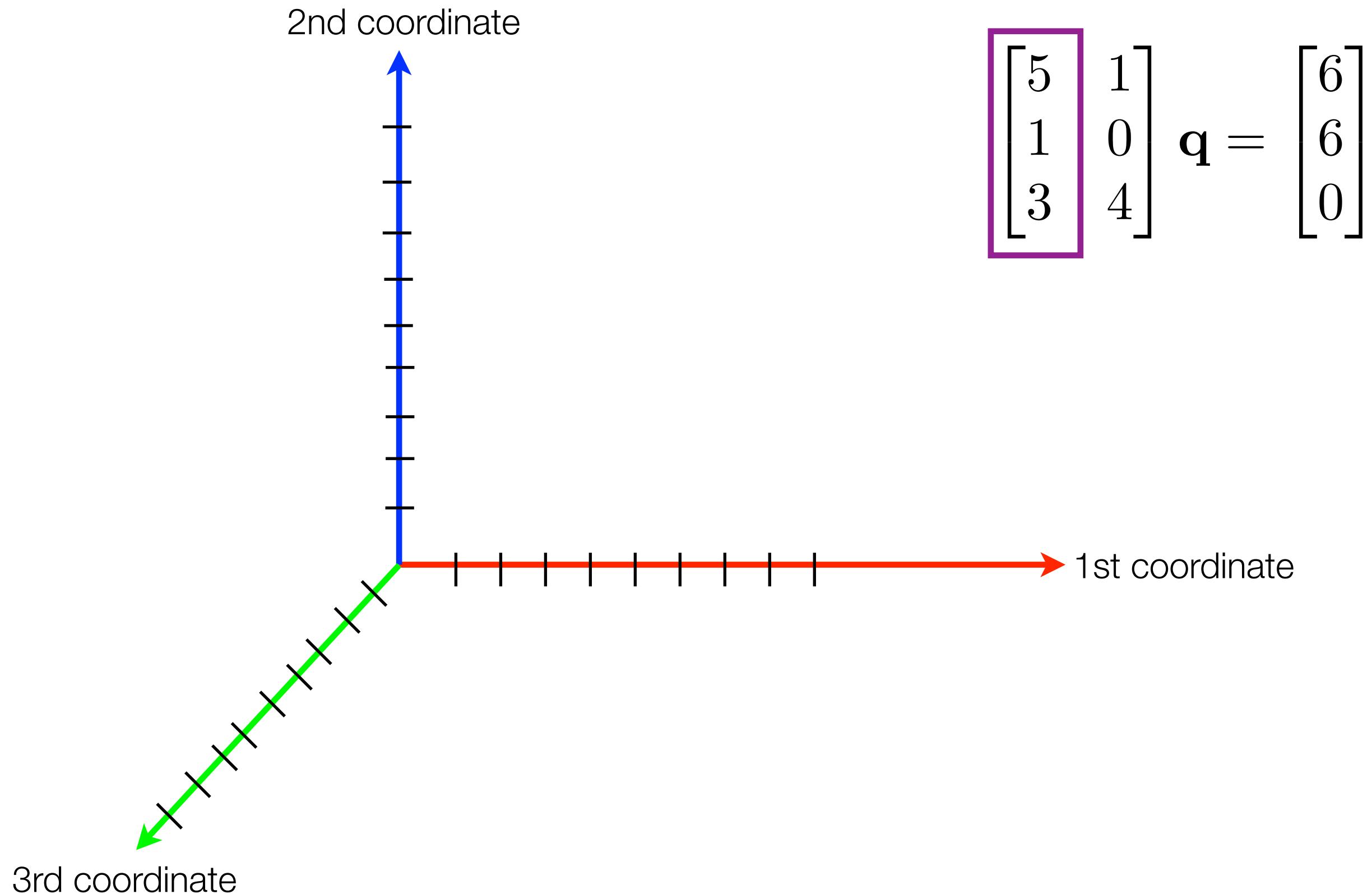
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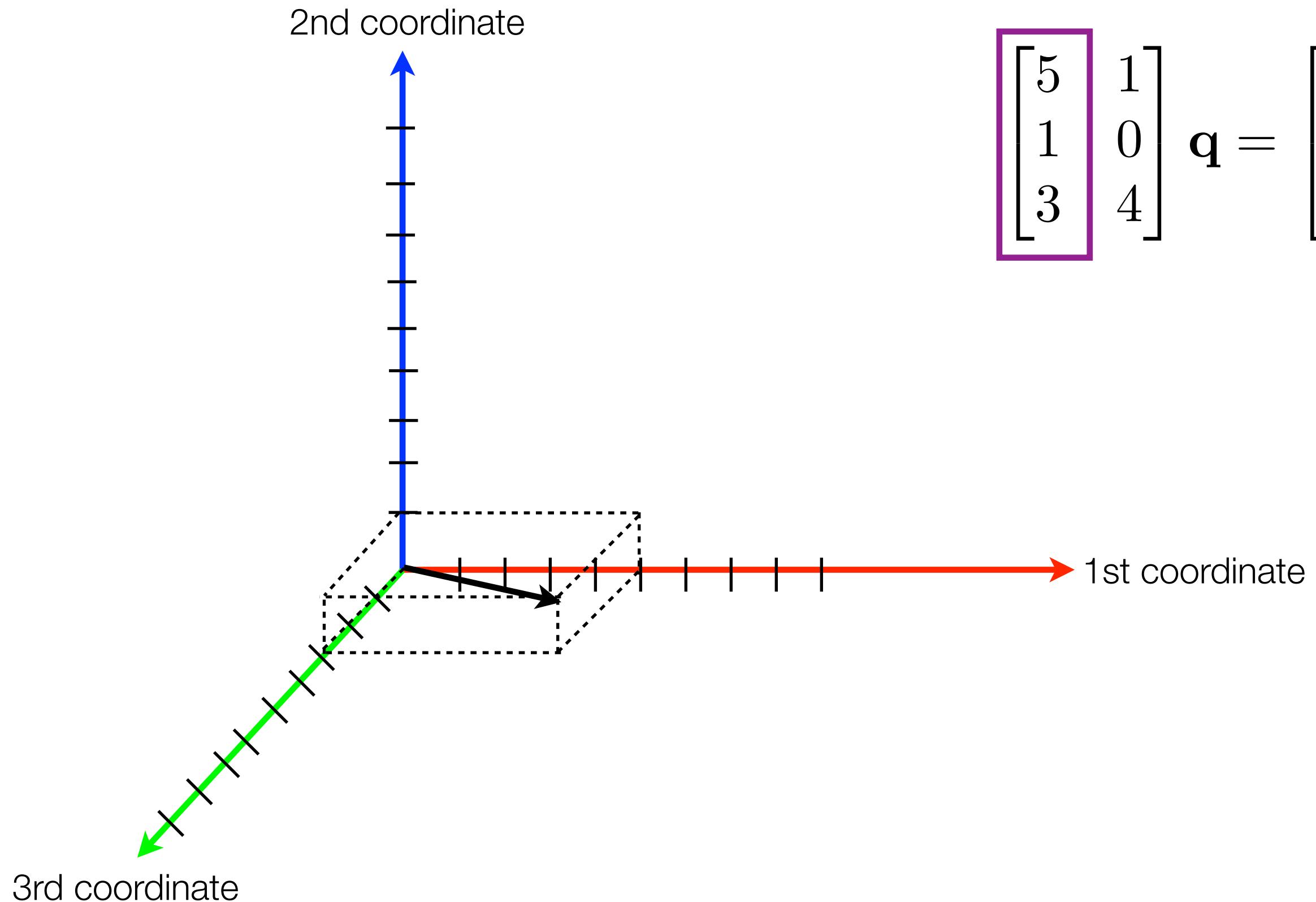
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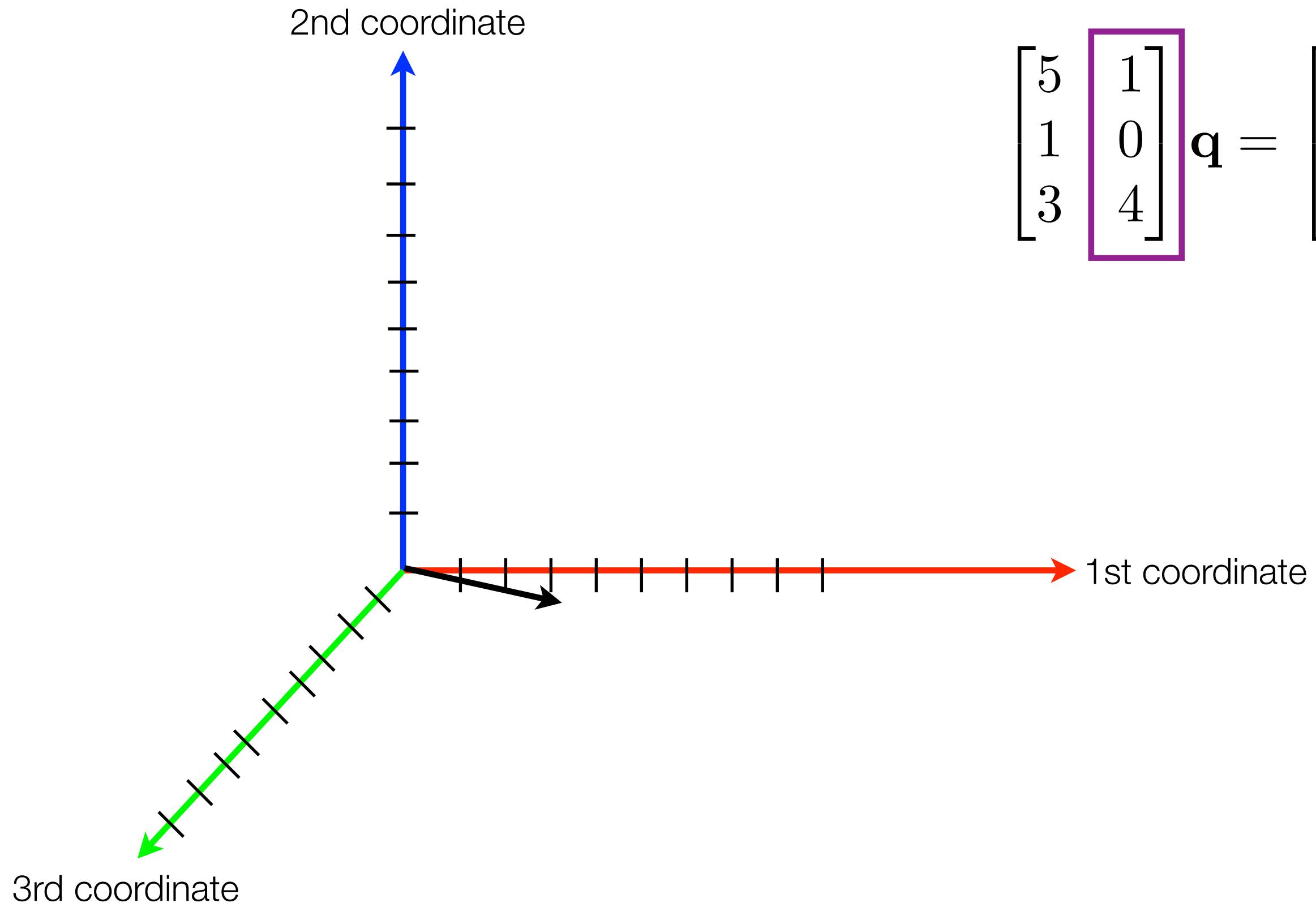
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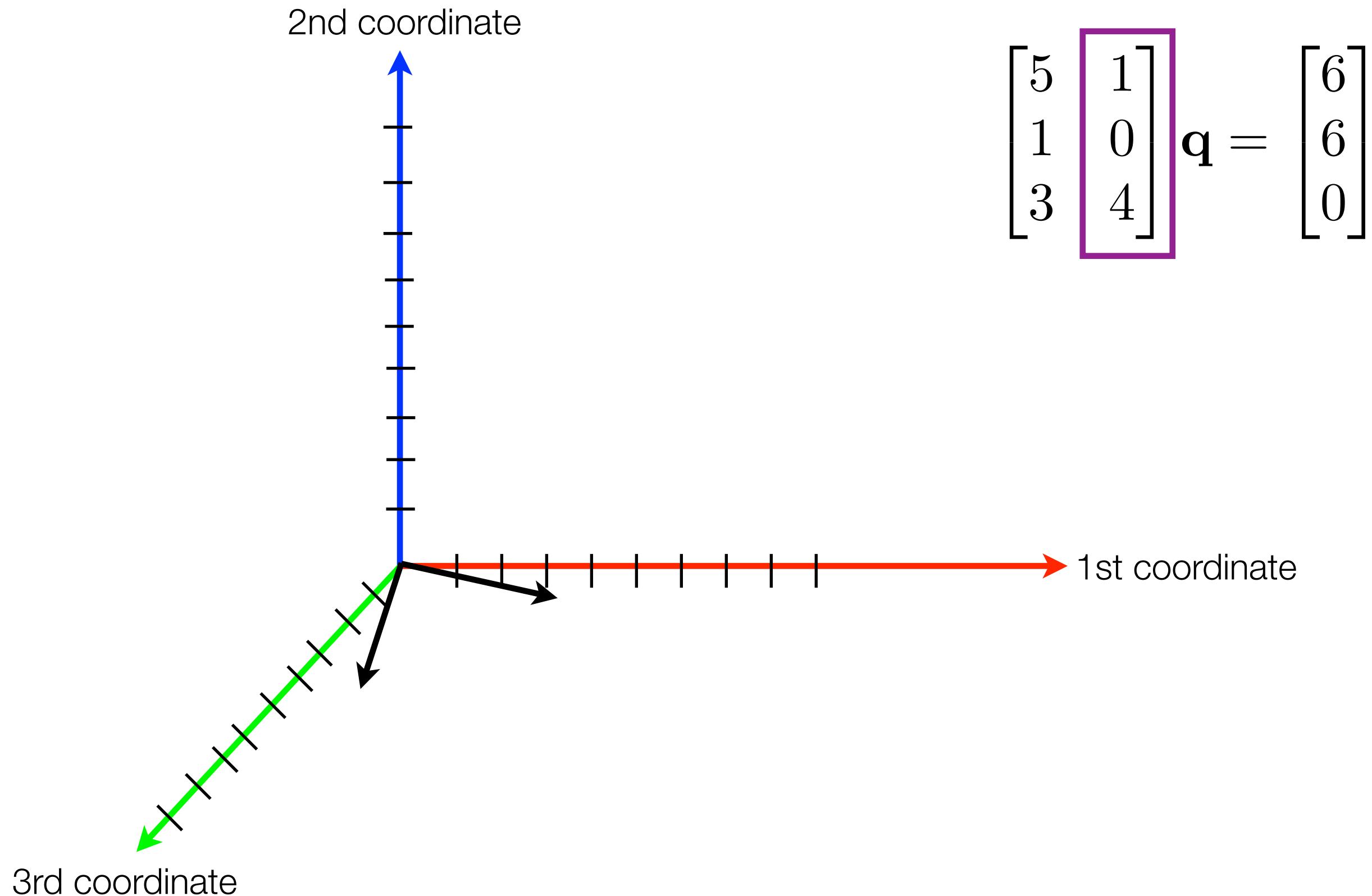
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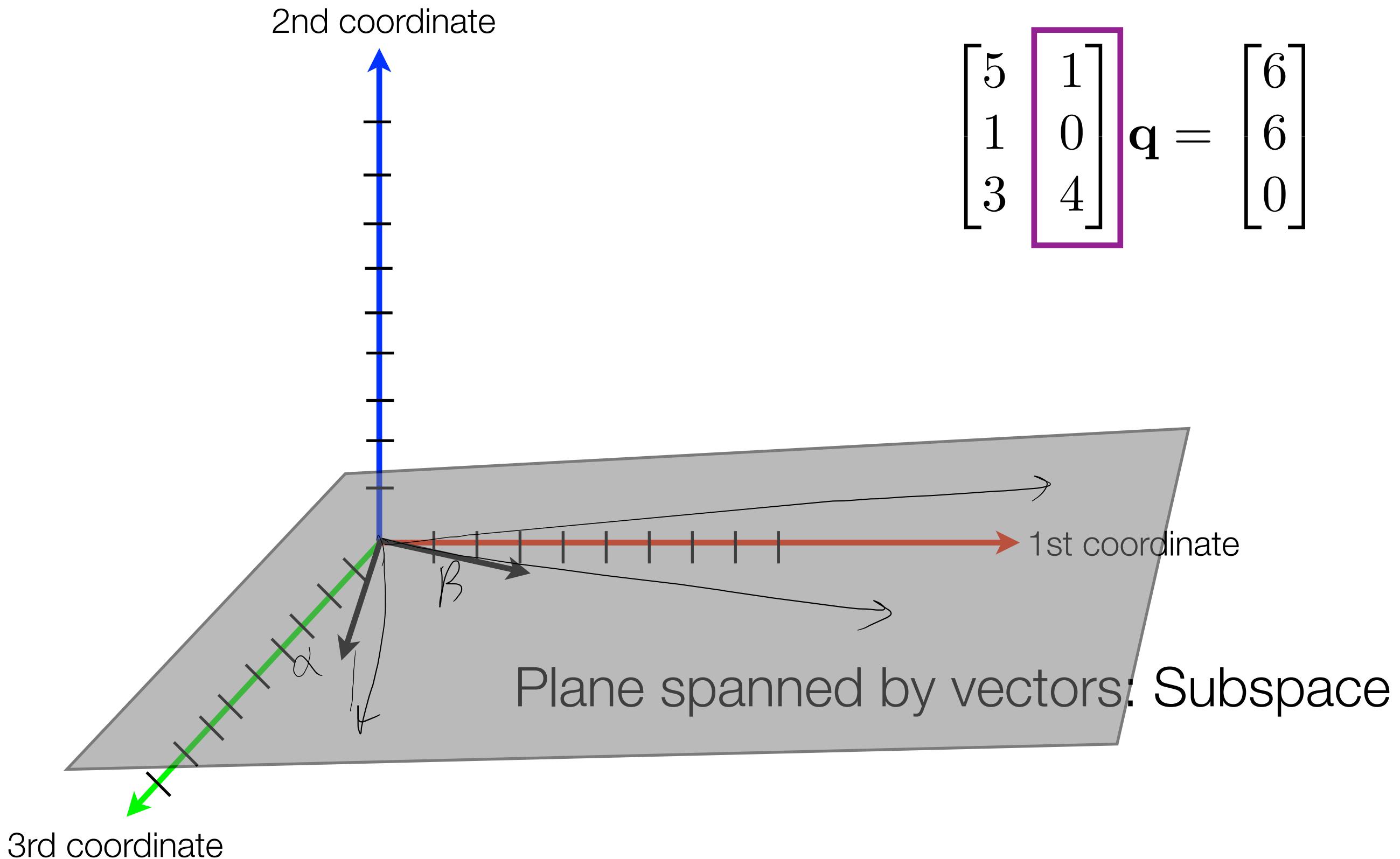
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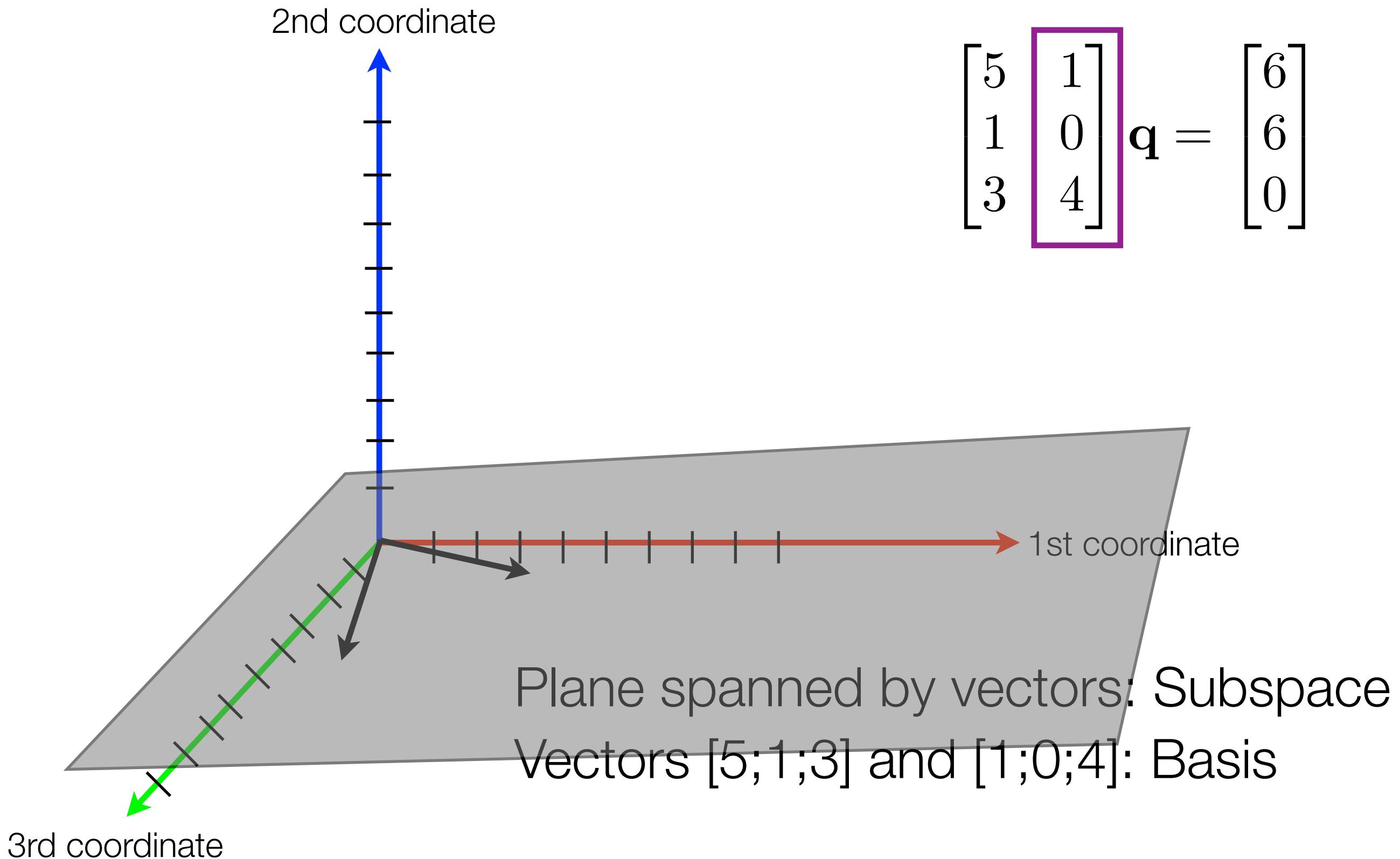
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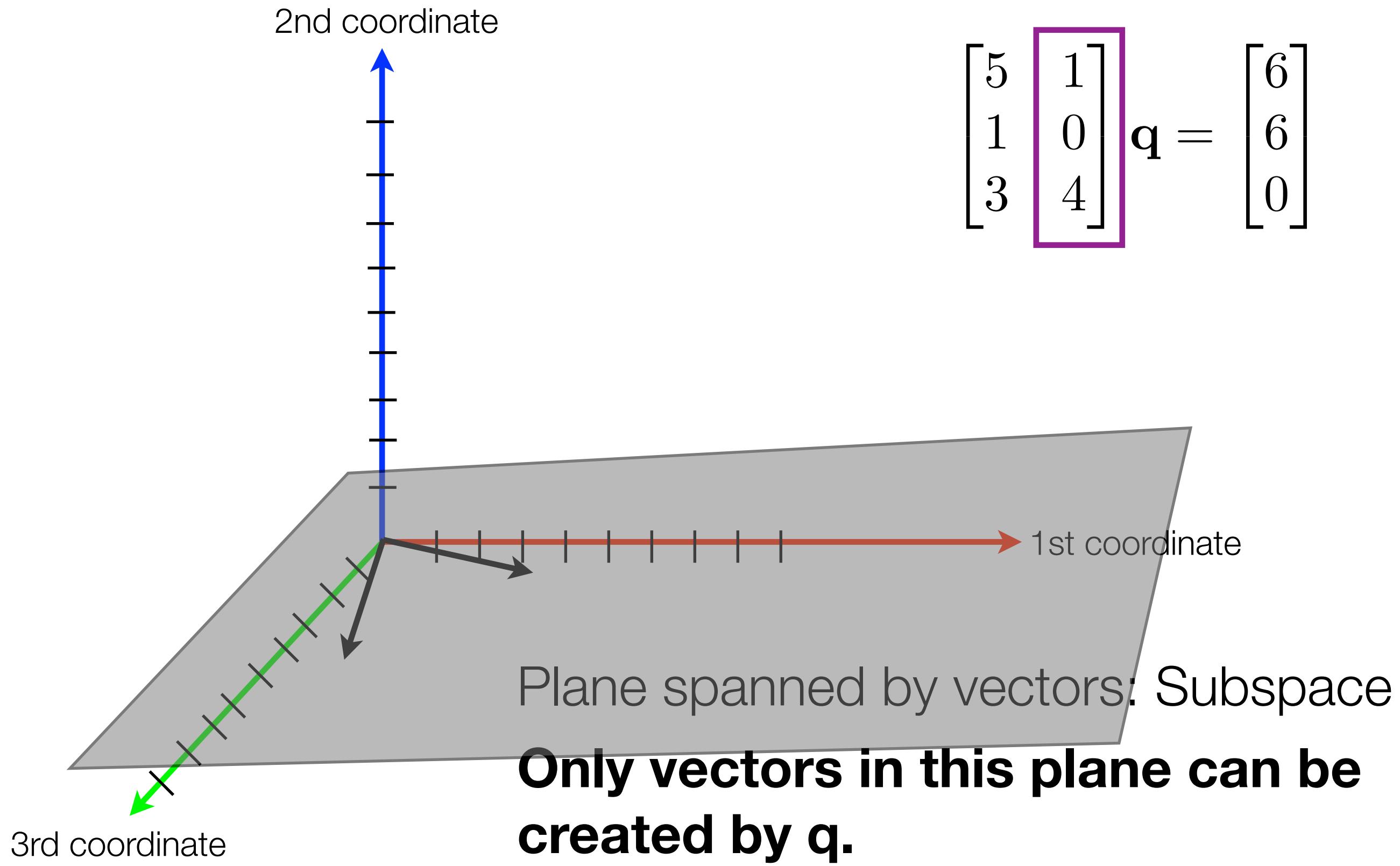
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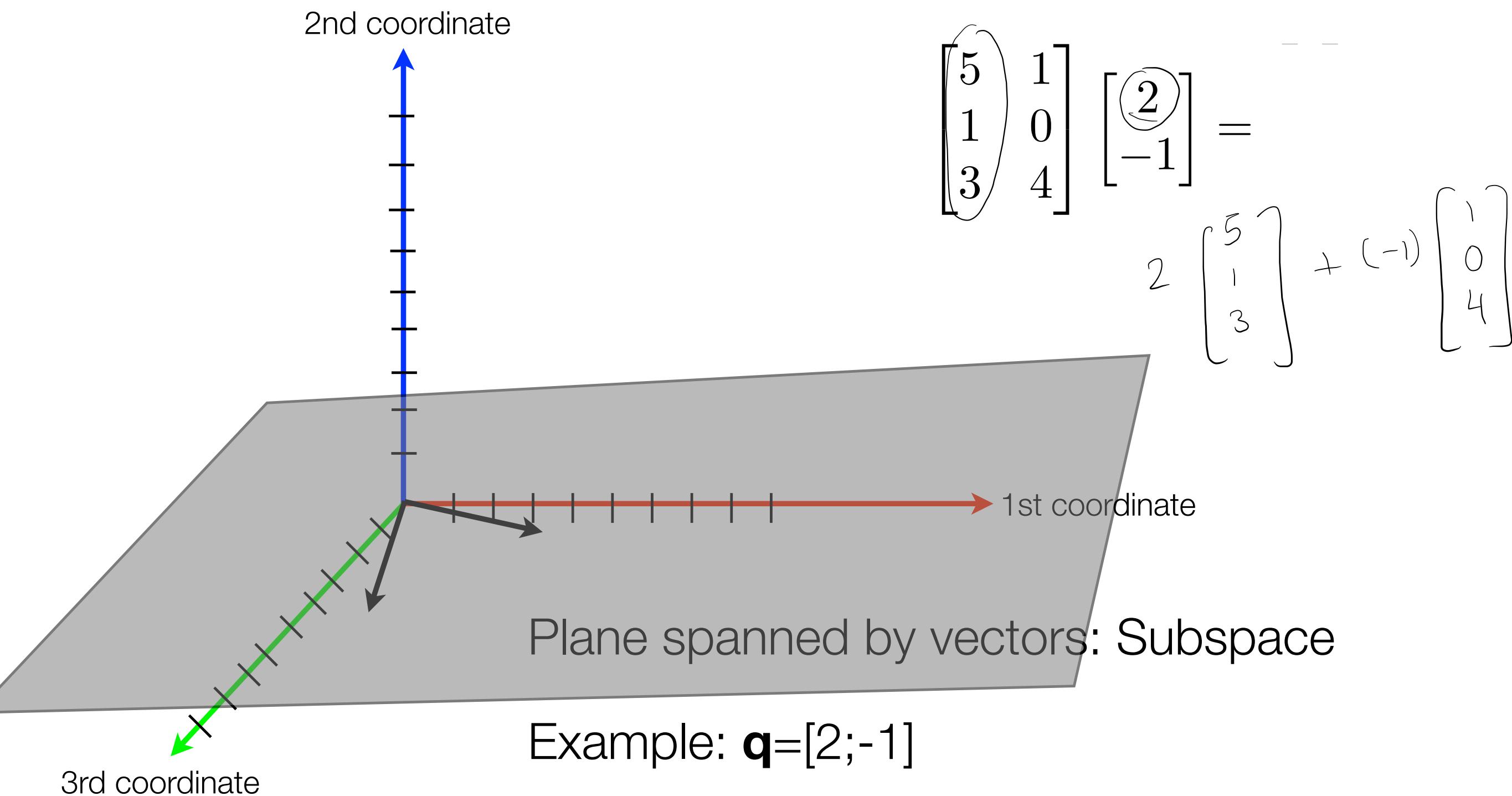
Geometric Representation of Equations

Columns of \mathbf{P} are a basis for a subspace



Geometric Representation of Equations

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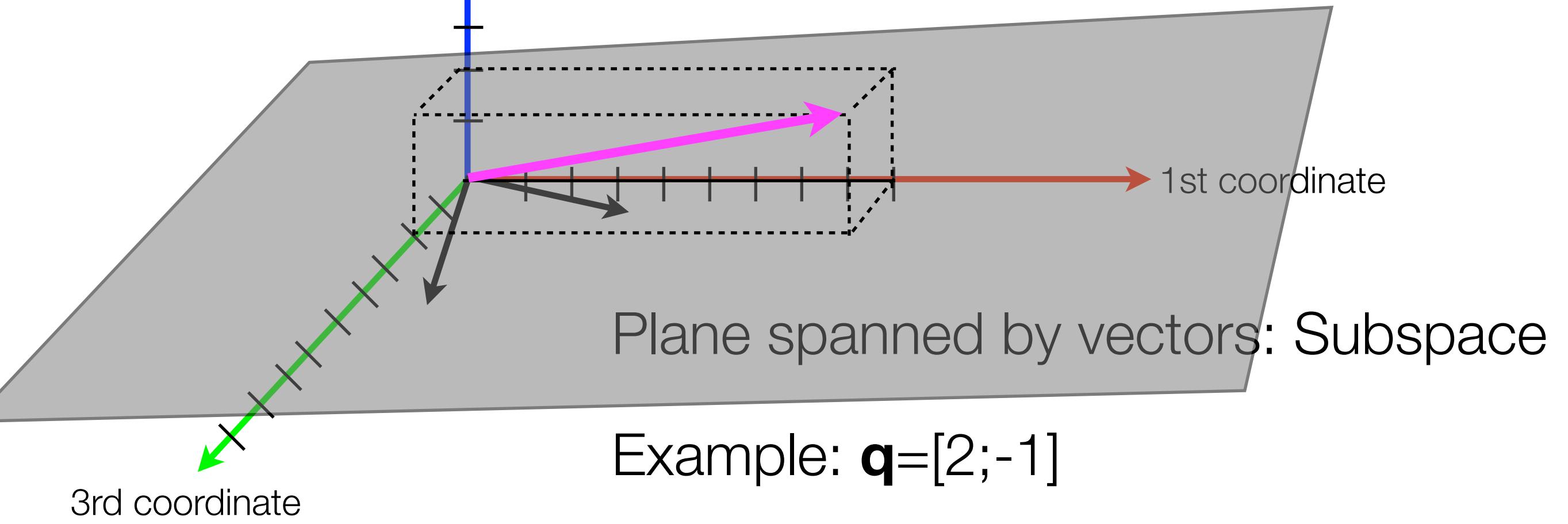


Geometric Representation of Equations

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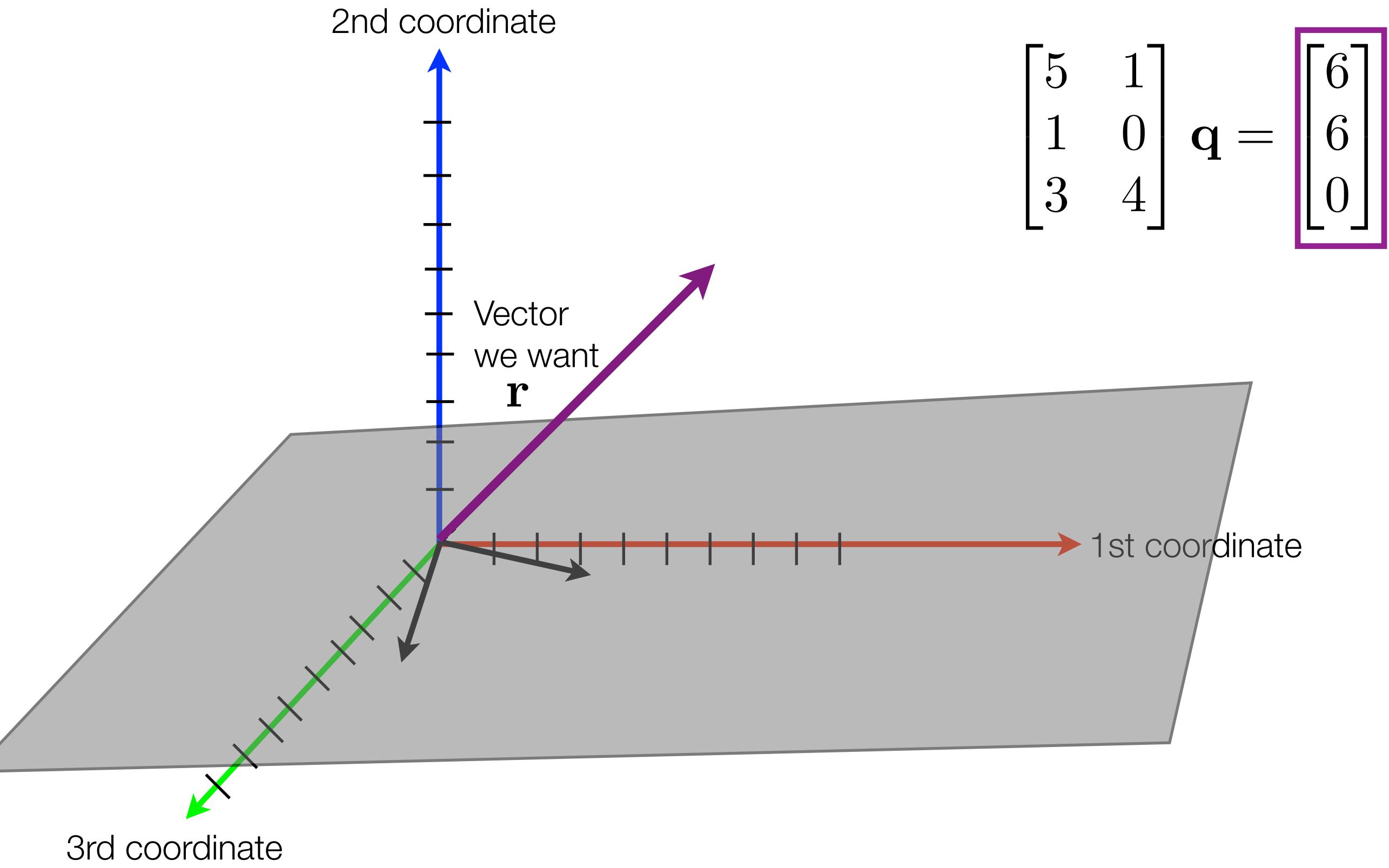
2nd coordinate

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$



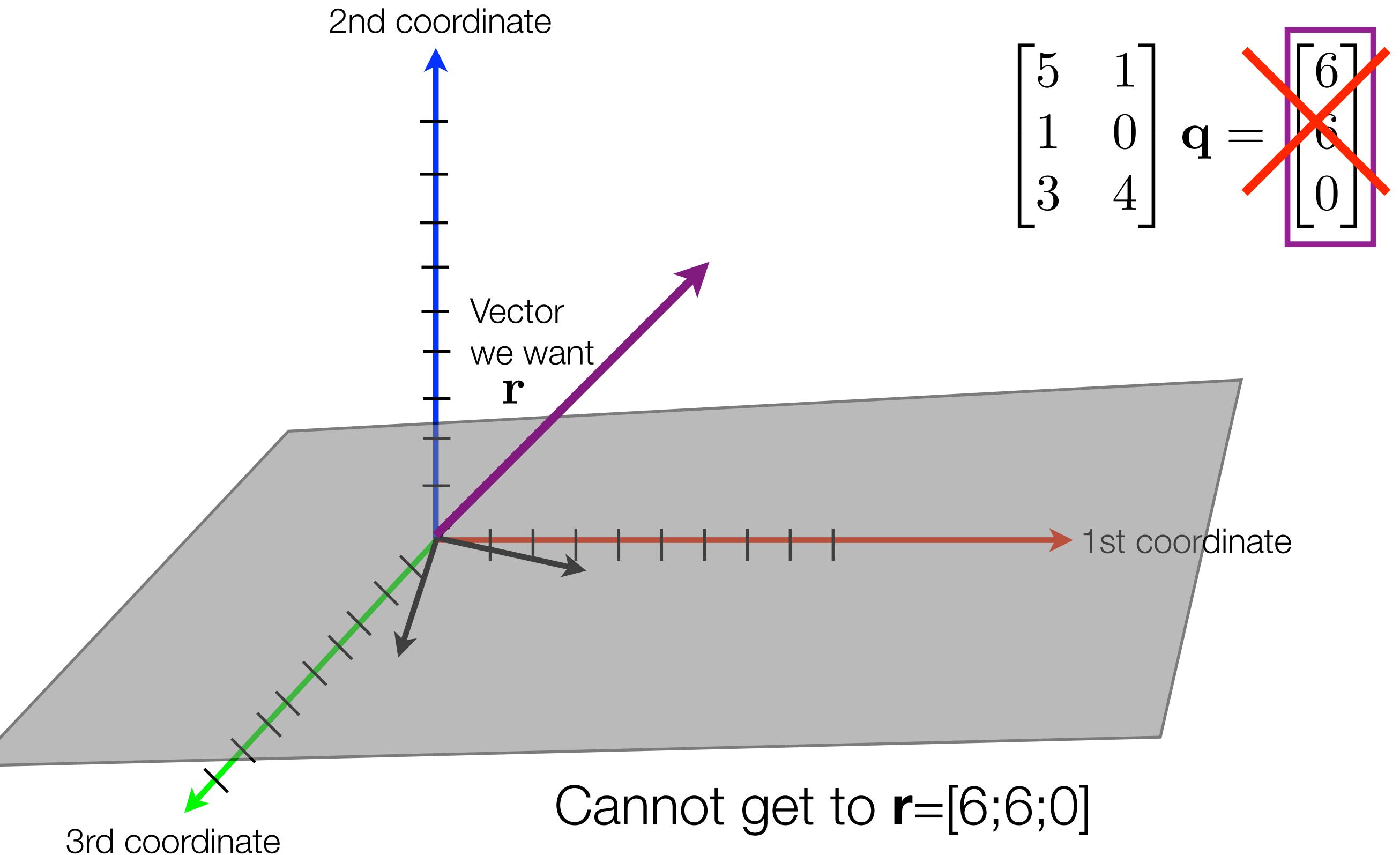
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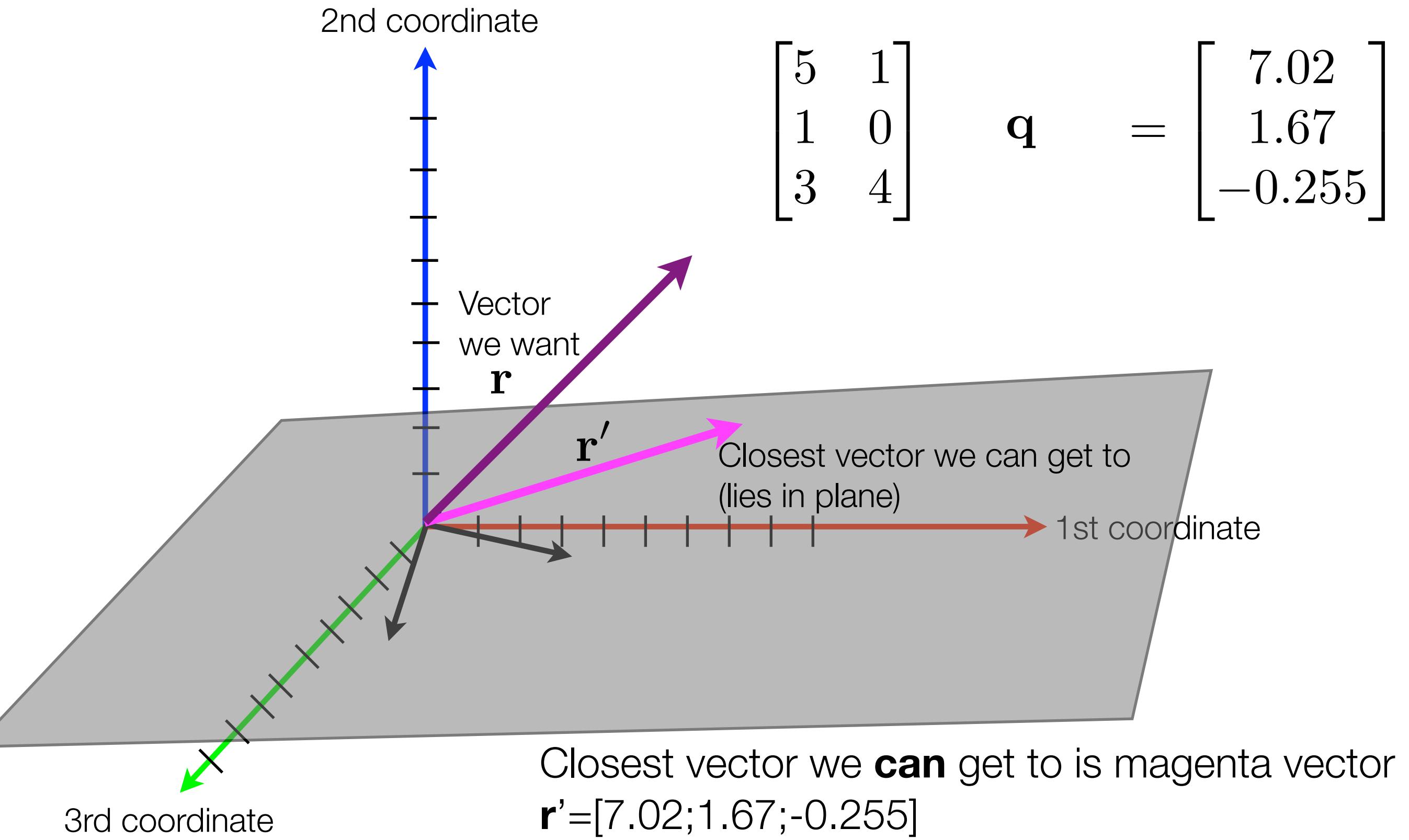
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Geometric Representation of Equations

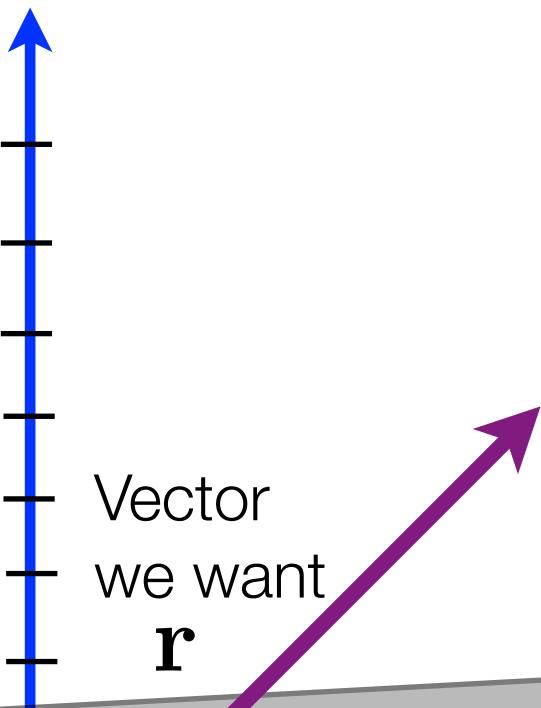
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Geometric Representation of Equations

Columns of \mathbf{P} are a basis for a subspace

2nd coordinate



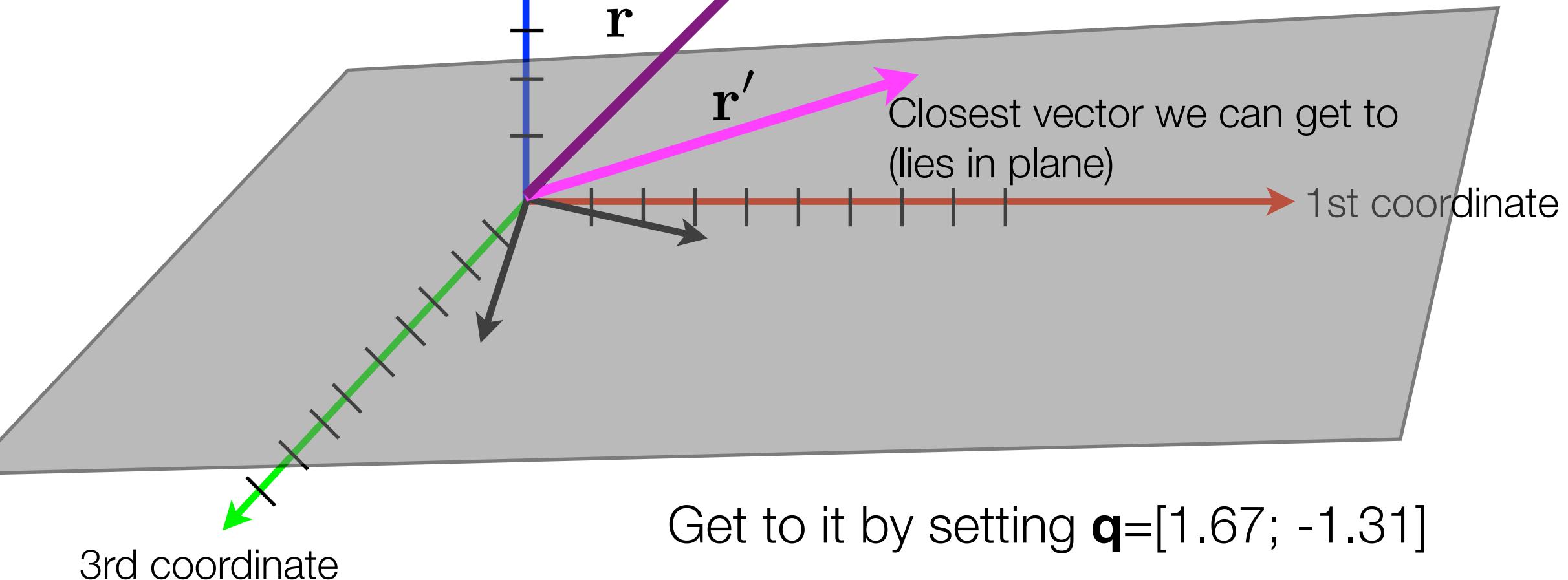
Vector
we want
 \mathbf{r}

\mathbf{r}'

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1.67 \\ -1.31 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7.02 \\ 1.67 \\ -0.255 \end{bmatrix}$$

Closest vector we can get to
(lies in plane)

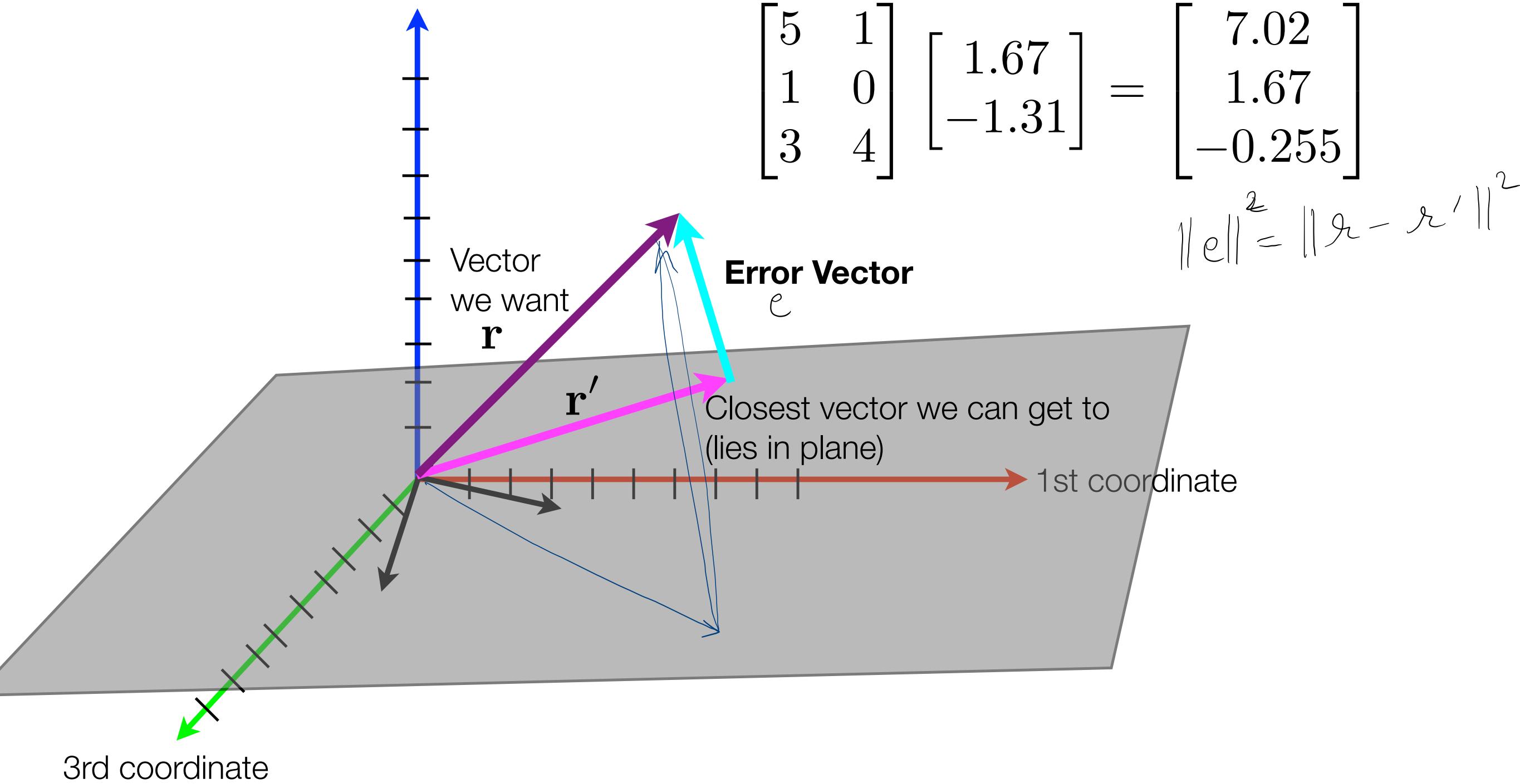
1st coordinate



Geometric Representation of Equations

Columns of \mathbf{P} are a basis for a subspace

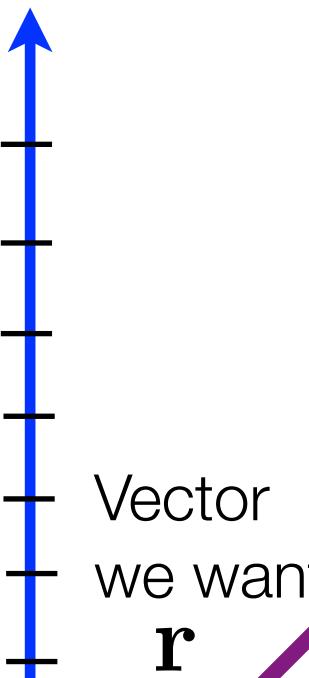
2nd coordinate



Geometric Representation of Equations

Columns of \mathbf{P} are a basis for a subspace

2nd coordinate



Vector
we want
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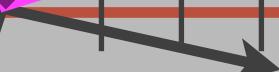
\mathbf{r}'

Error Vector, $\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'$

Closest vector we can get to
(lies in plane)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1.67 \\ -1.31 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7.02 \\ 1.67 \\ -0.255 \end{bmatrix}$$

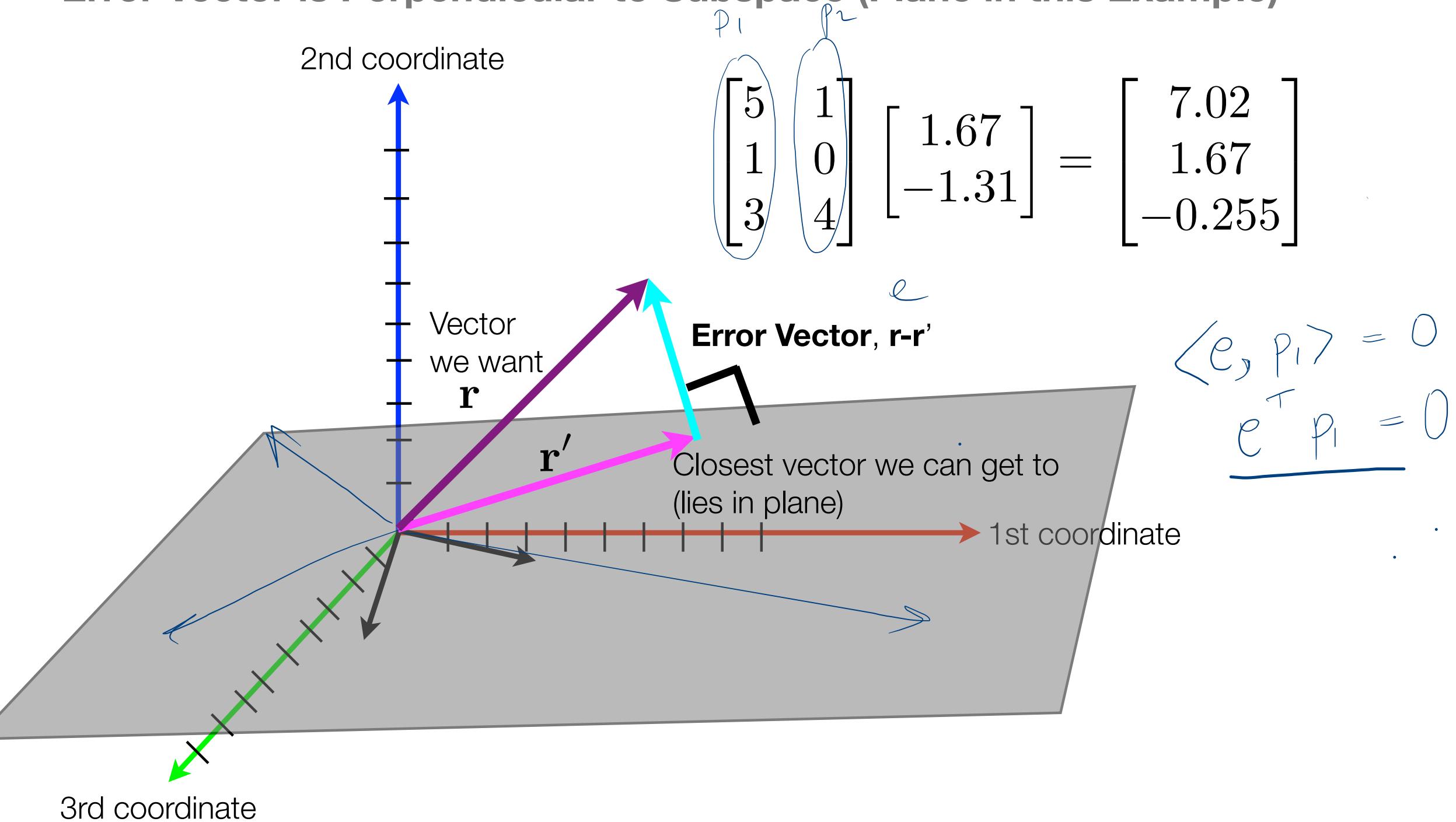
1st coordinate



3rd coordinate

Geometric Representation of Equations

Error Vector is Perpendicular to Subspace (Plane in this Example)



$$c^T p_1 = 0$$

$$c^T p_2 = 0$$

$$p_1^T e = 0$$

$$p_2^T e = 0$$

$$A^T A$$

is
square
and
symmetrical.

$r' = Pg$
exactly

$$\boxed{B \left[\begin{bmatrix} P \\ P \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} P \\ P \end{bmatrix} \right] = \begin{bmatrix} P^T \\ P^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} P \\ P \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} P^T P \\ P^T P \end{bmatrix}}$$

$P^T e = 0$

$$P^T (r - r') = 0 \quad Pg = r$$

normal
equation

$$P^T (r - Pg) = 0$$

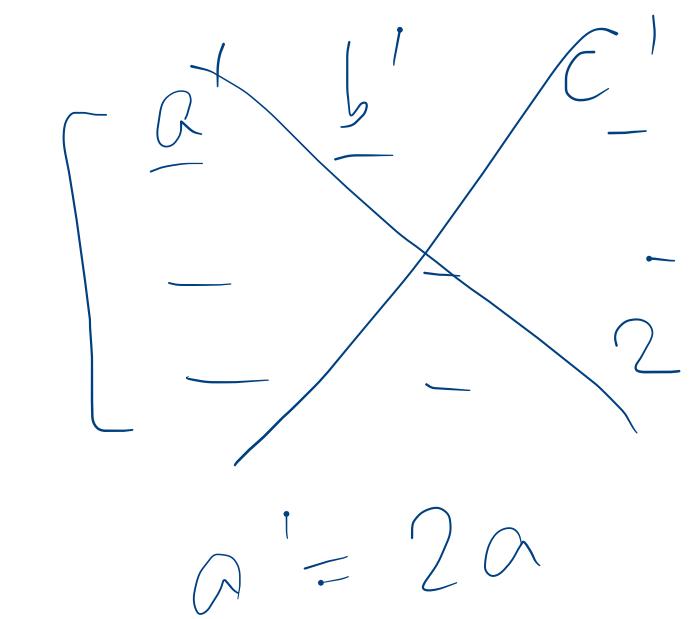
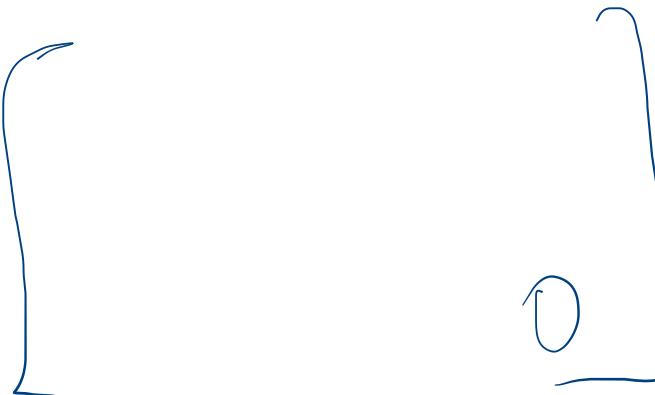
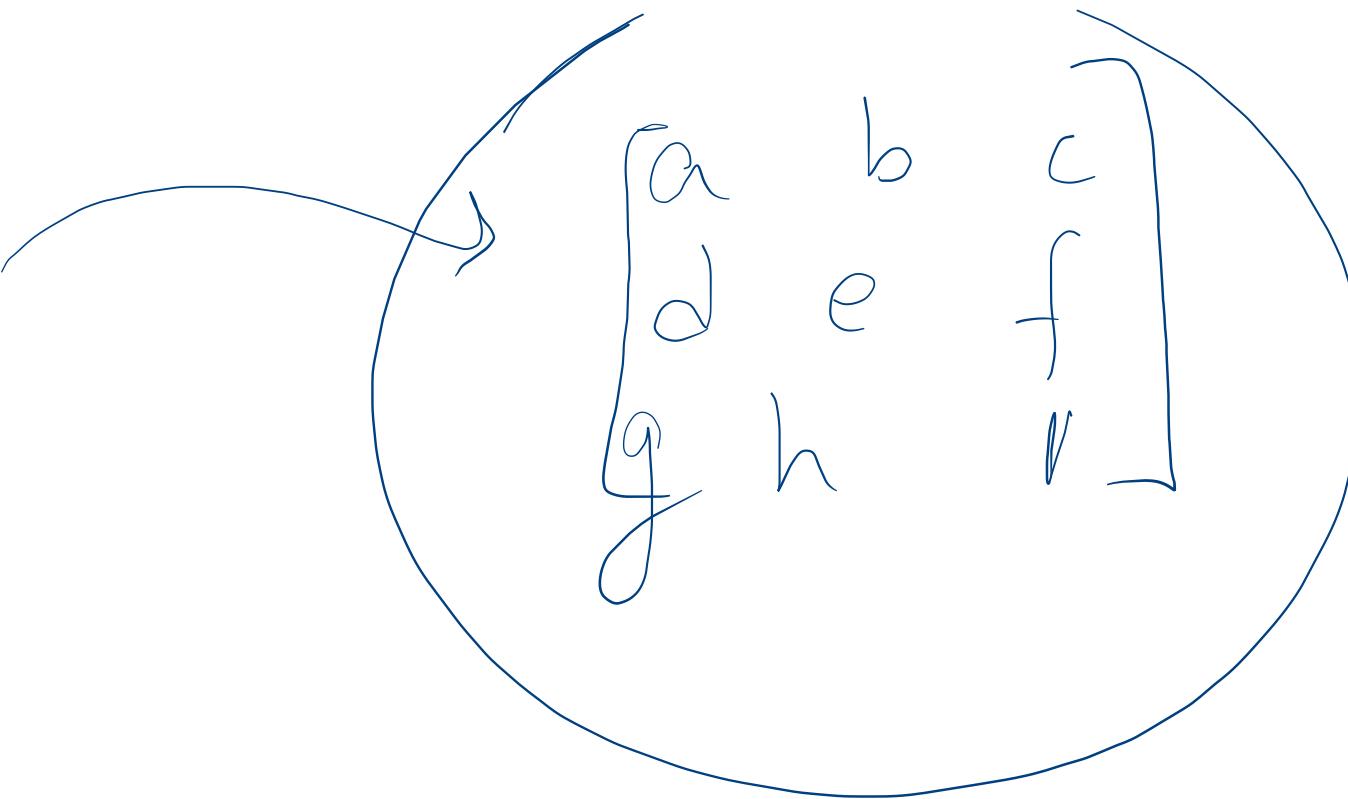
$$(P^T r) - (P^T Pg) = 0$$

$$A(P^T P)g = f P^T r$$

$\boxed{g = (P^T P)^{-1} (P^T r)}$

$\boxed{\text{Pseudoinverse} = (P^T P)^{-1} P^T r}$

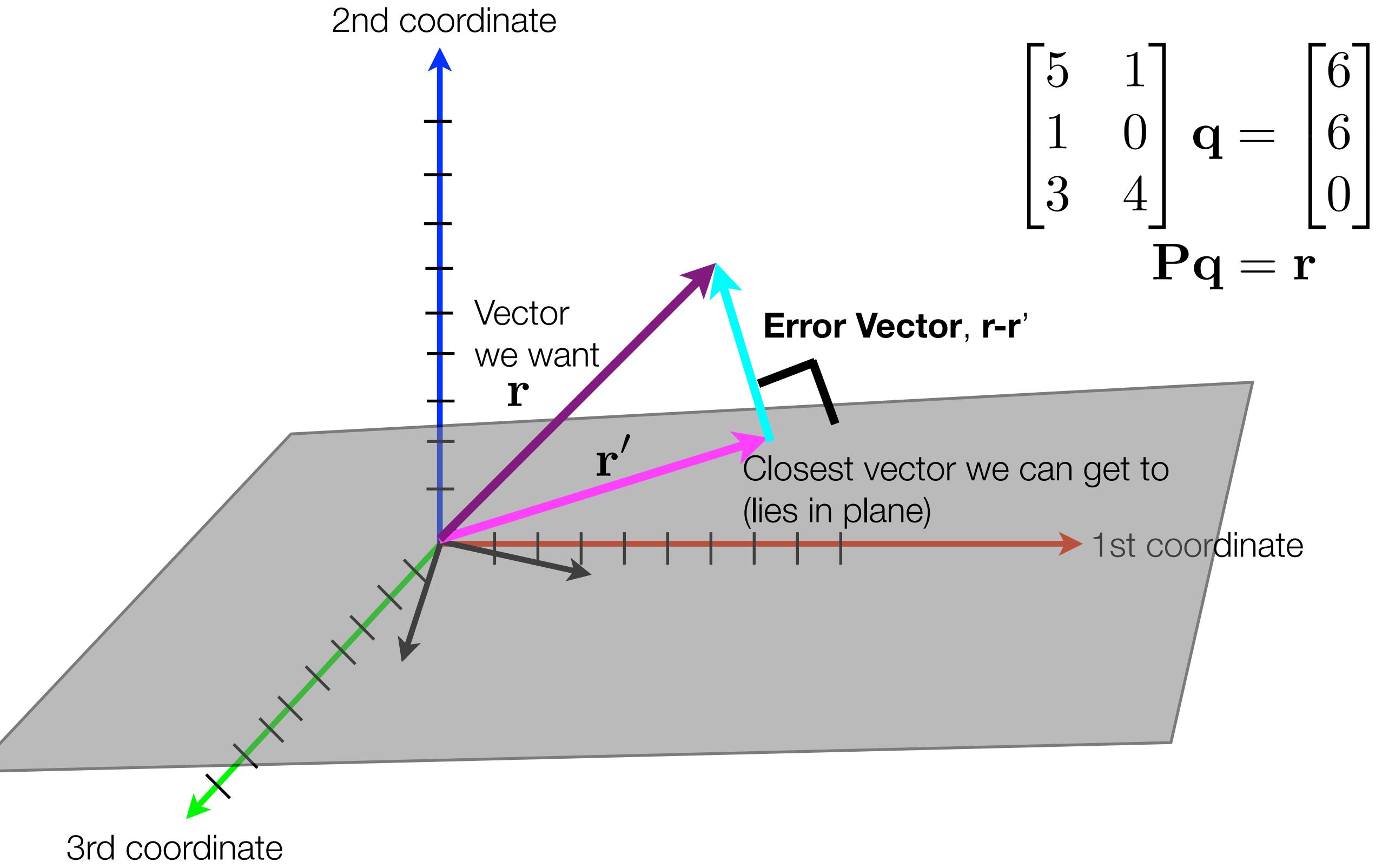
$\gamma = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h\}$



How to Compute q ?

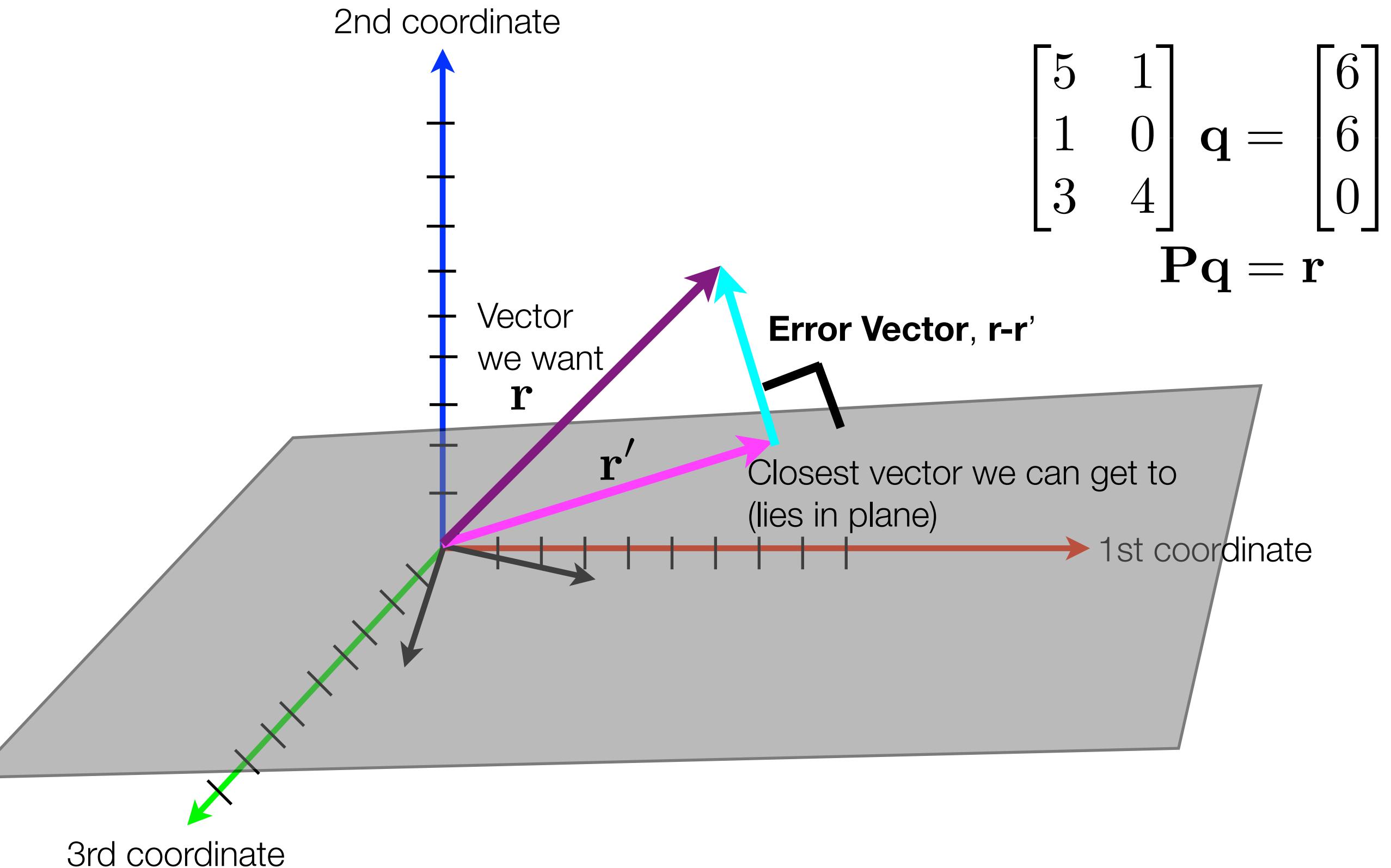
Use Perpendicularity to Obtain \mathbf{q}

Error Vector is Perpendicular to All Vectors in Plane



Use Orthogonality to Obtain \mathbf{q}

Error Vector is Orthogonal to All Vectors in Plane



Using Pseudoinverse of \mathbf{P} to Obtain \mathbf{q}

We can solve the system of equations

$$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{r}$$

as follows:

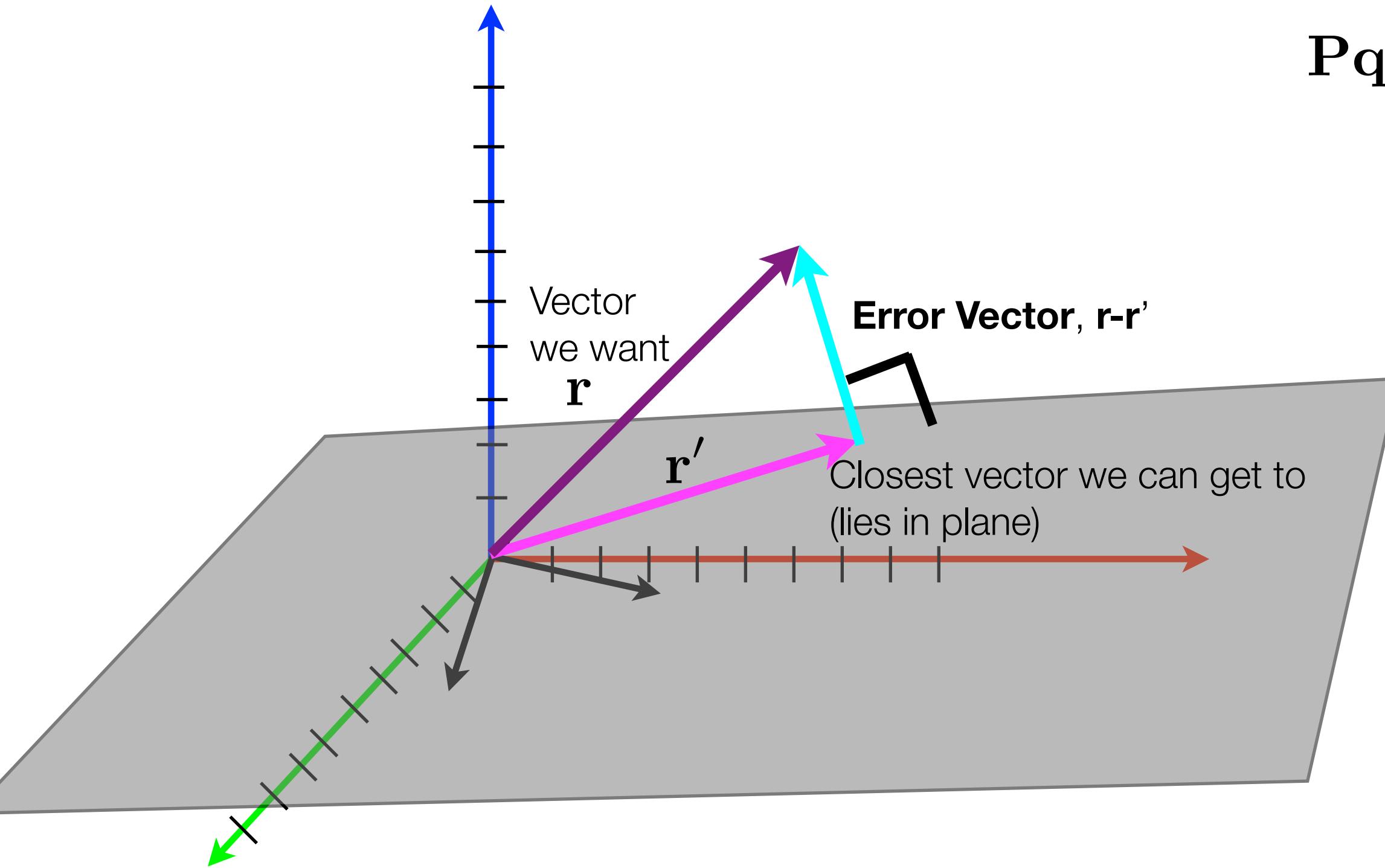
$$\mathbf{q} = (\text{Pseudoinverse of } \mathbf{P}) \mathbf{r}.$$

$$\text{Pseudoinverse of } \mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{P})^{-1} (\mathbf{P}^T)$$

Same Principle Applies to Larger System

Error Vector is Orthogonal to All Vectors in Plane

$$Pq = r$$



Issue with pseudoinverse

F22

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} -x & -y & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

Need to compute inverse of $P^T P$.
The computation is usually numerically unstable.

$10^{20} \times 10^{20} \approx 10^{60}$

10^{80}

A better method is to use
homogeneous least squares

with a technique called
singular value decomposition (SVD).

2) Homogeneous Least Squares with SVD

We will look at two methods

2) Use **homogeneous least squares** with the following system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}' \\ \hat{y}' \\ \hat{w}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, x' = \frac{\hat{x}'}{\hat{w}'}, y' = \frac{\hat{y}'}{\hat{w}'}$$


General form of
homography matrix

$$\hat{x}' = ax + by + c$$

$$\hat{y}' = dx + ey + f$$

$$\hat{w}' = gx + hy + i$$

$$x' = \frac{ax + by + c}{gx + hy + i} \quad \text{①}$$

$$y' = \frac{dx + ey + f}{gx + hy + i}$$

PLT

$$x' = \cancel{\frac{0}{0}} \quad y' = \cancel{\frac{0}{0}}$$

$$x'(gx + hy + i) = ax + by + c$$

$$x' \cancel{gx + hy + i} = \cancel{ax + by + c}$$

$$-ax - by - c + x'g + x'h + x'i = 0$$

$$(-x)a + (-y)b + (-c) + 0 \cdot d + 0 \cdot e + 0 \cdot f + (x'g) + (x'h) + (x'i) = 0$$

$$Pq = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$1 \left[\begin{array}{ccccccc|ccc} -x & -y & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x'x & x'y & x' \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -x & -y & -1 & y'x & y'y & y'' \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \\ i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

~~5~~ Homogeneous eqns.

Written as matrix times vector

Convert

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}' \\ \hat{y}' \\ \hat{w}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, x' = \frac{\hat{x}'}{\hat{w}'}, y' = \frac{\hat{y}'}{\hat{w}'}$$

to the form

[
Design Matrix

$$] \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \\ i \end{bmatrix} = []$$

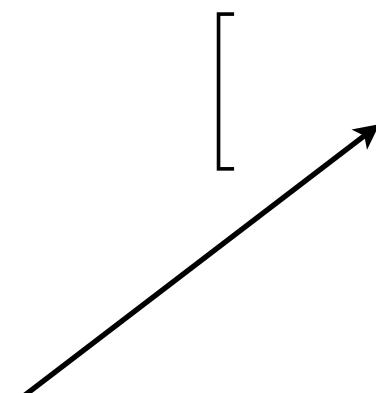
Written as matrix times vector

Convert

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}' \\ \hat{y}' \\ \hat{w}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, x' = \frac{\hat{x}'}{\hat{w}'}, y' = \frac{\hat{y}'}{\hat{w}'}$$

to the form

Design Matrix



$$\left[\begin{array}{c} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \\ i \end{array} \right] = \boxed{}$$

Notice that the output vector is all zeros!

Written as matrix times vector

Use many correspondences

$$(x_1, y_1) \rightarrow (x'_1, y'_1), (x_2, y_2) \rightarrow (x'_2, y'_2), \dots$$

to set up

$$\begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \\ i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice that the output vector is all zeros!

Written as matrix times vector

How many correspondences do we need?

Use many correspondences

$$(x_1, y_1) \rightarrow (x'_1, y'_1), (x_2, y_2) \rightarrow (x'_2, y'_2), \dots$$

to set up

$$\begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \\ i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \end{bmatrix}$$

Written as matrix times vector

Use many correspondences

$$(x_1, y_1) \rightarrow (x'_1, y'_1), (x_2, y_2) \rightarrow (x'_2, y'_2), \dots$$

to set up

$$\begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \\ i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \end{bmatrix}$$

How many
correspondences
do we need?

At least
9 equations
needed.

But we can only
have even number
of equations.

So we need
10 equations or
5 correspondences.

Homogeneous least squares

We have the following system:

$$\mathbf{P} \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$$

where \mathbf{P} is a tall matrix,
 \mathbf{q} is a column vector of elements we want,
and $\mathbf{0}$ is a column vector full of zeros.

Regular least squares (with the pseudoinverse of \mathbf{P})
gives us $\mathbf{q} = (\mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{P})^{-1} (\mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$.

But \mathbf{q} should be non-zero!

Solution for homogeneous least squares

Solving $\mathbf{P} \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$:

You get \mathbf{q} as follows:

- 1) Take the singular value decomposition (SVD) of \mathbf{P} .

Solution for homogeneous least squares

Solving $\mathbf{P} \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$:

You get \mathbf{q} as follows:

- 1) Take the singular value decomposition (SVD) of \mathbf{P} .

The SVD of \mathbf{P} gives three matrices $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{V}$ such that

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{V}^T$$

Solution for homogeneous least squares

Solving $\mathbf{P} \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$:

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{P}}_{N \times q} \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S} \underbrace{\mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{q}}_q = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$$

You get \mathbf{q} as follows:

1) Take the singular value decomposition (SVD) of \mathbf{P} .

The SVD of \mathbf{P} gives three matrices $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{V}$ such that

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{V}^T$$

where \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} are orthogonal matrices, while
 \mathbf{S} is a diagonal matrix of **singular values**.

$$\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{I}$$

Solution for homogeneous least squares

$$\begin{aligned} \{U, S, V\} &= \text{svd}(P, \text{'econ'}) \\ q &= V(:, \text{end}) \end{aligned}$$

Solving $\mathbf{P} \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$:

$$P = U S V^T$$

You get \mathbf{q} as follows:

- 1) Take the singular value decomposition (SVD) of \mathbf{P} .

The SVD of \mathbf{P} gives three matrices $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{V}$ such that

$$q = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \\ i \end{bmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \quad P = U S V^T$$

where \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} are orthogonal matrices, while \mathbf{S} is a diagonal matrix of **singular values**.

- 2) Get \mathbf{q} as the column vector in \mathbf{V} corresponding to the location of the **smallest singular value** in \mathbf{S} .



Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

We will look at the effect of SVD for a 2×2 matrix **A**.

P is a matrix of size $m \times n$
where $m & n >= 10$, and definitely $m & n > 2$.

But it is hard to visualize so many dimensions,
so we will get intuitions for 2×2 .

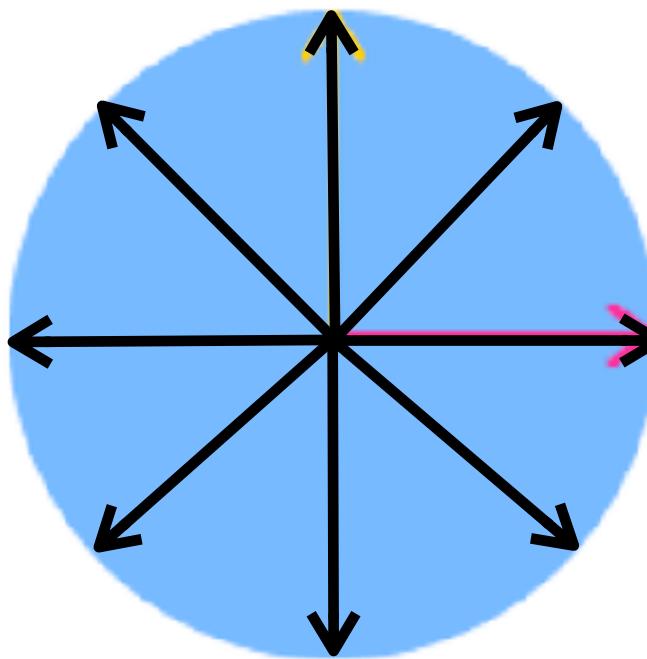
These intuitions extend to any number of dimensions.

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

We will look at the effect of SVD for a 2×2 matrix **A**.

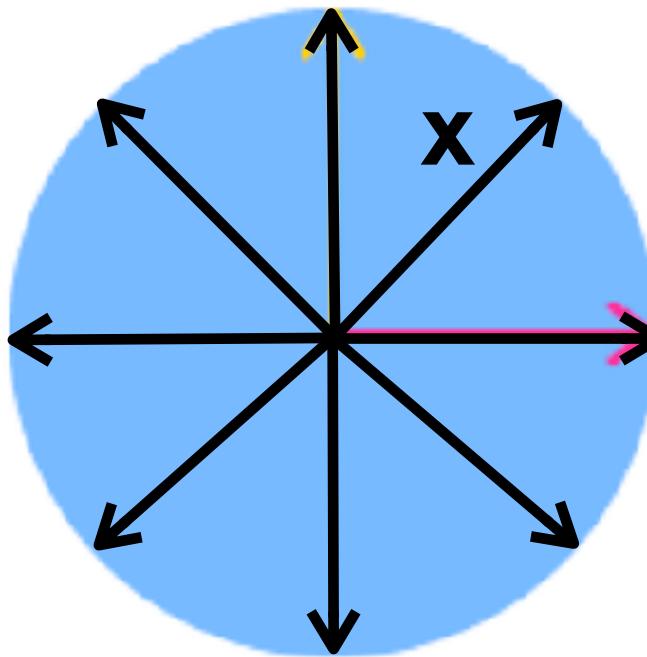
Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Let us see the change \mathbf{A} induces on a set of vectors in the unit circle.



Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

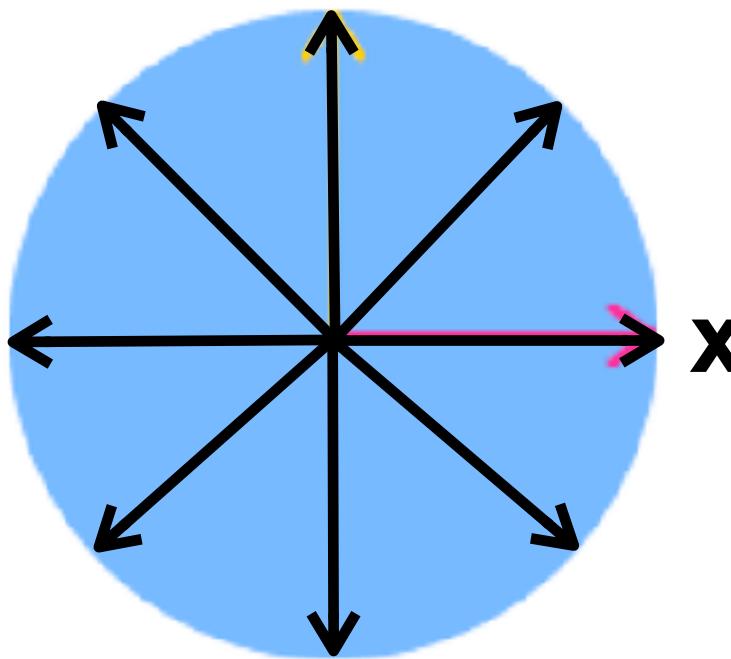
Let us see the change \mathbf{A} induces on a set of vectors in the unit circle.



How can we study this change for a vector \mathbf{x} ?

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

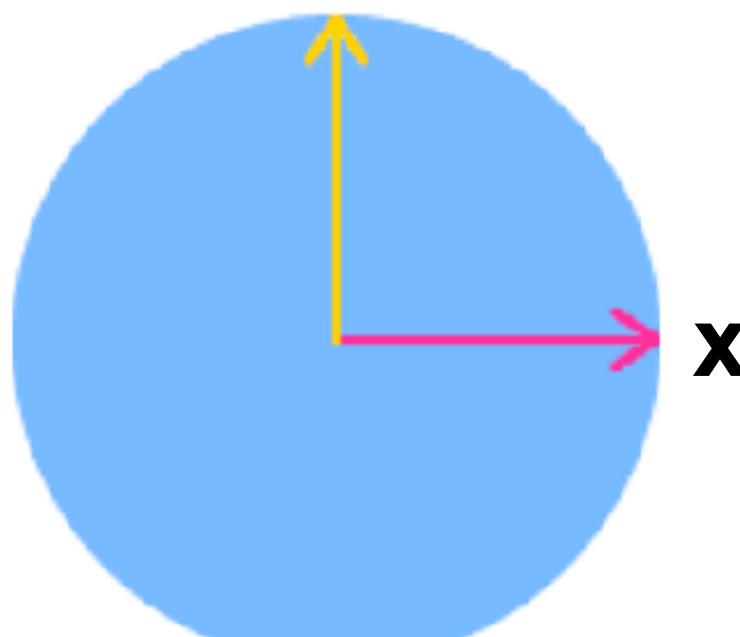
Let us see the change \mathbf{A} induces on a set of vectors in the unit circle.



How can we study this change for a vector \mathbf{x} ?

Look at vector $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{Ax}$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)



A **x**

U **s**

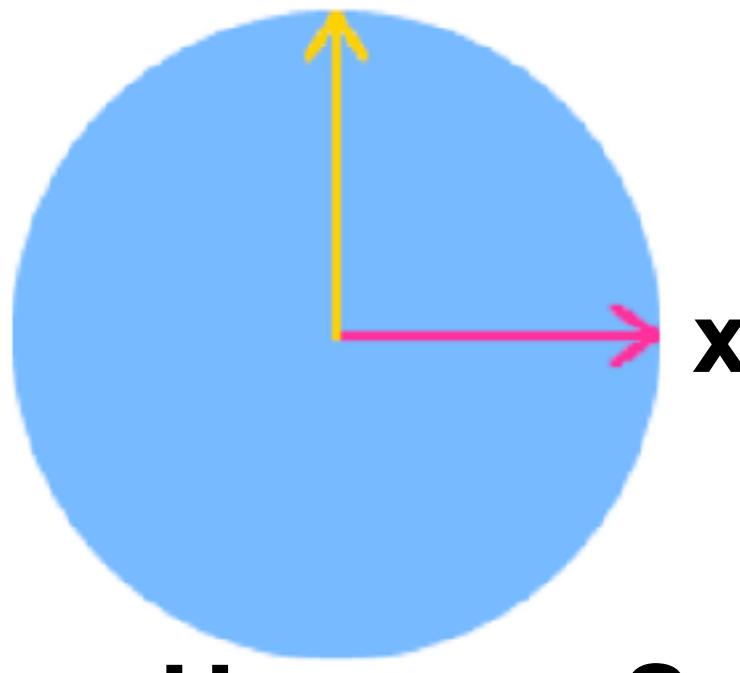
V^T **x**

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} =$$

x

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$



A **x**

U **s**

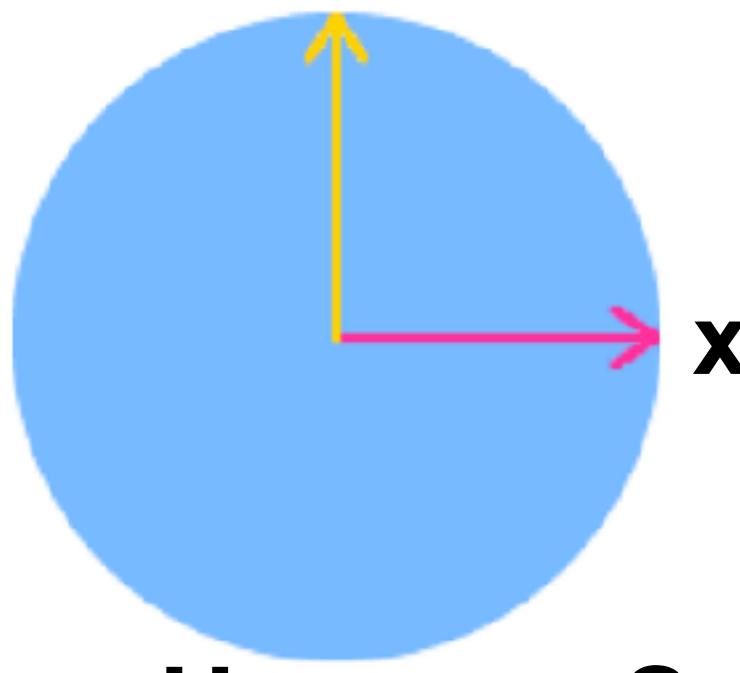
V^T **x**

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$



V is an
orthogonal matrix,
i.e., it represents
a **rotation**.
 $\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}$

A

x

U

s

V^T

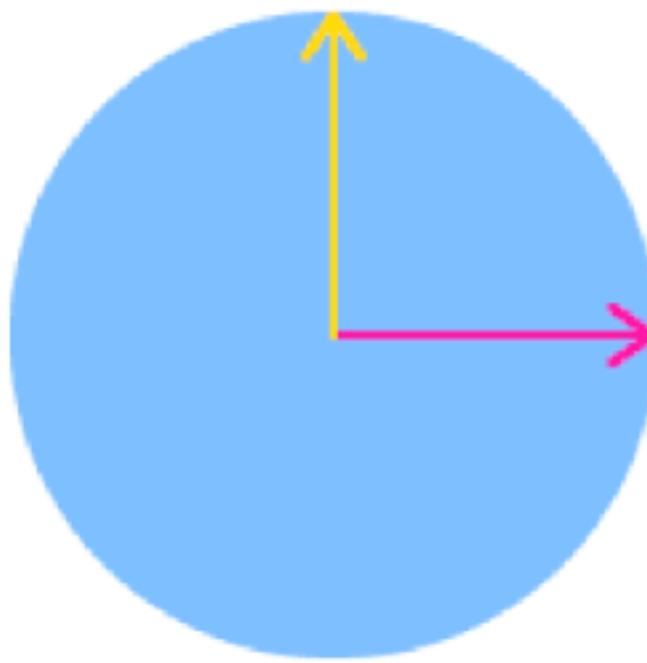
x

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$



V is an
orthogonal matrix,
i.e., it represents
a **rotation**.
 $\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}$

A

x

U

s

V^T

x

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

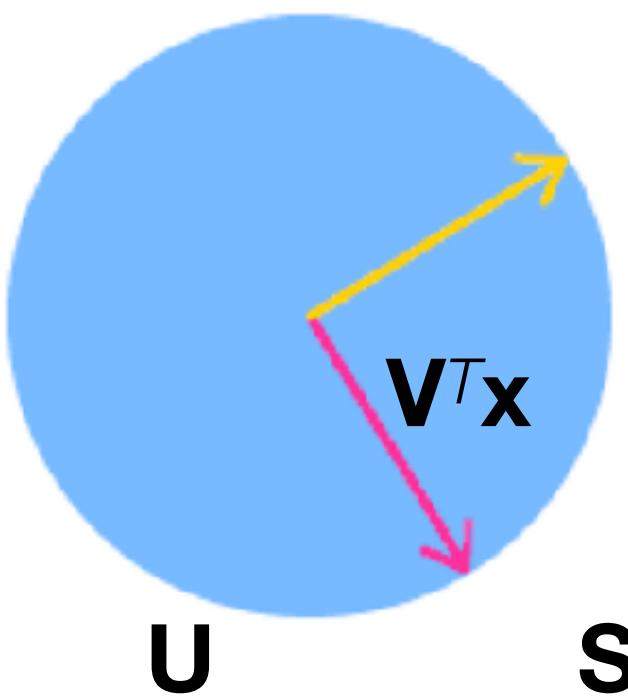
Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$
$$V^T = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

-

$$\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{x}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} =$$



$$\mathbf{U} \quad \mathbf{S}$$

$$\mathbf{V}^T \quad \mathbf{x}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

V is an
orthogonal matrix,
i.e., it represents
a **rotation**.
 $\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}$

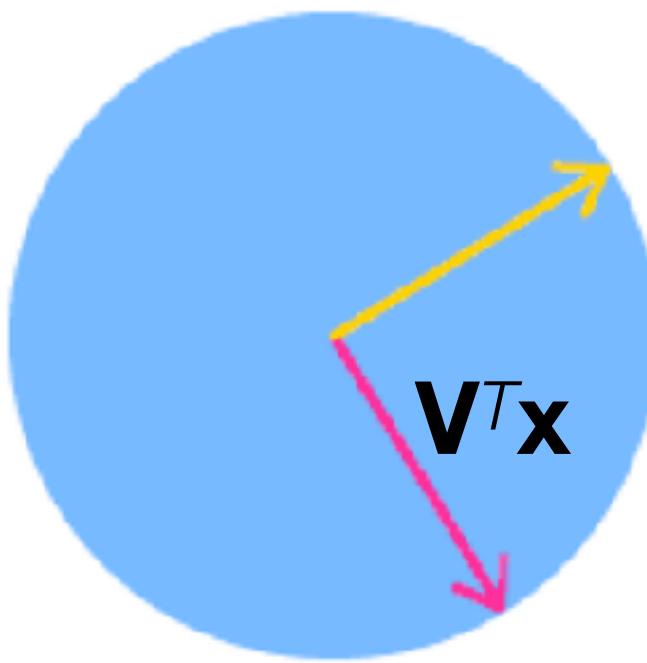
Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

The diagram illustrates the decomposition of a matrix A into U , S , and V^T . A blue circle represents the range of U . A vector $\mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{x}$ is shown originating from the origin and ending within the blue circle. A yellow arrow points from the origin to the boundary of the blue circle, representing the transformed vector $\mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{x}$.

$$\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{U} \quad \mathbf{S} \quad \mathbf{V}^T \quad \mathbf{x}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

S is an
diagonal matrix,
i.e., it represents
a **scaling**.



A **x**

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} =$$

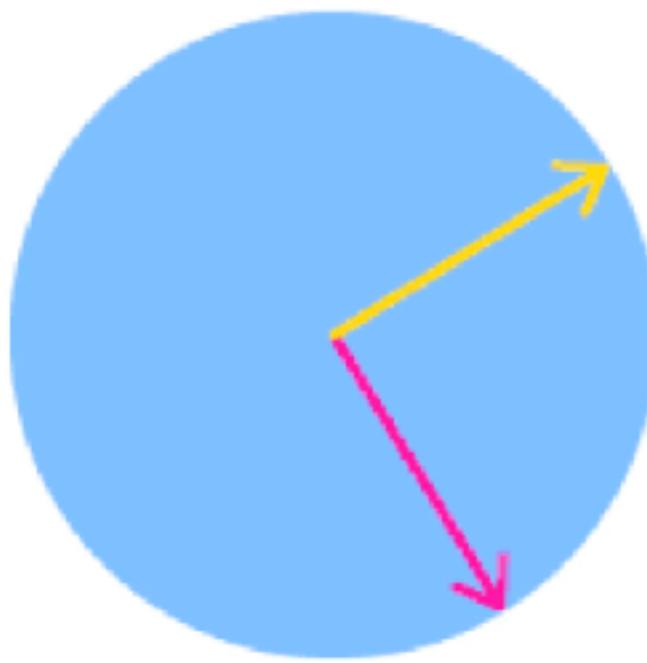
U **s**

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

V^T **x**

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

S is an
diagonal matrix,
i.e., it represents
a **scaling**.



A **x**

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} =$$

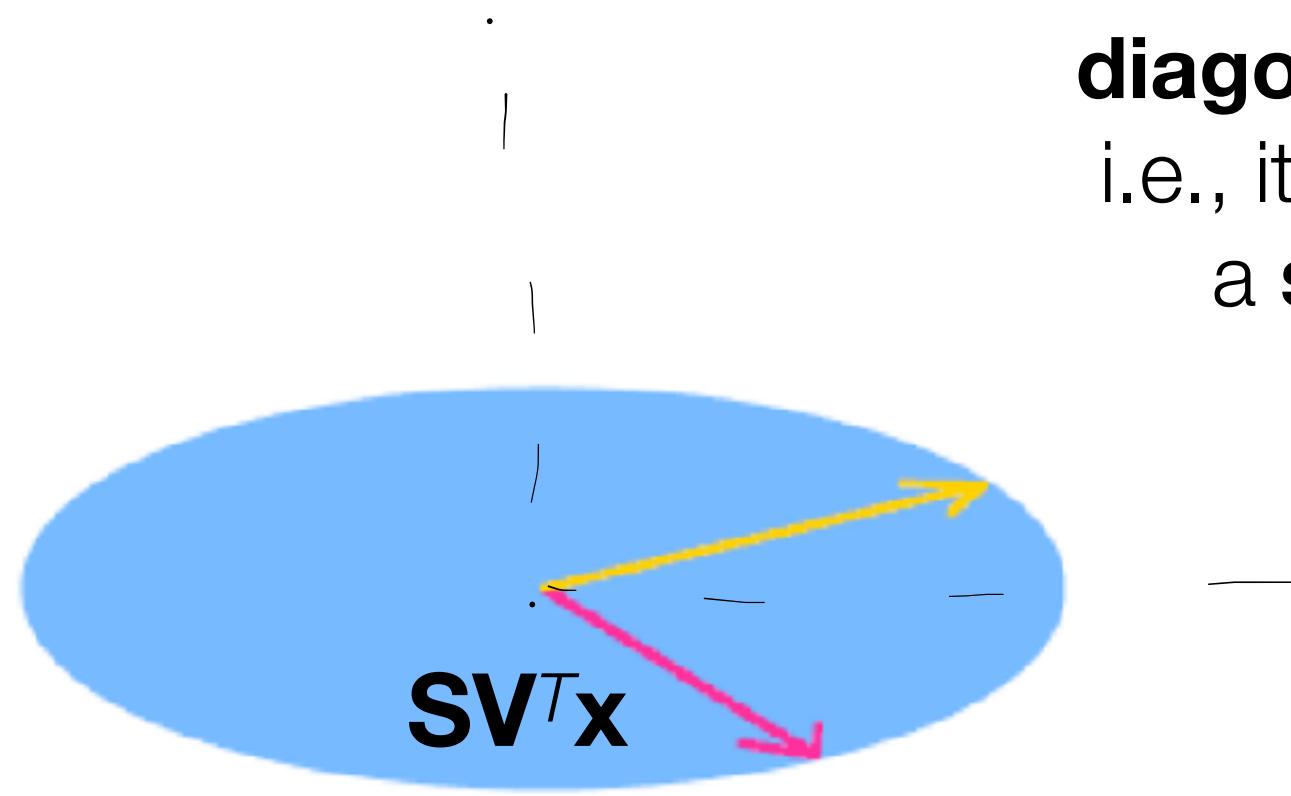
U **s**

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

V^T **x**

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

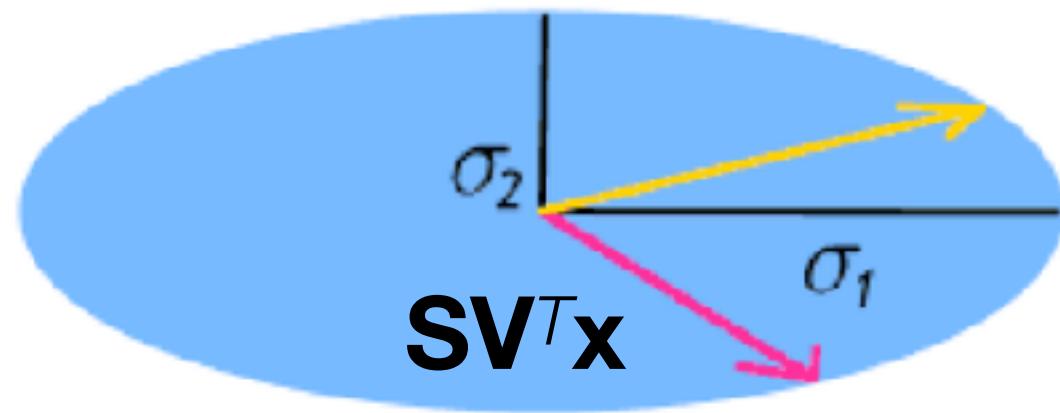
S is an
diagonal matrix,
i.e., it represents
a **scaling**.



$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{x} \\ \left[\begin{array}{cc} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{array} \right] \mathbf{x} = \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{U} \quad \mathbf{S} \quad \mathbf{V}^T \quad \mathbf{x} \\ \left[\begin{array}{cc} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{array} \right] \mathbf{x} \end{array}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

S is an
diagonal matrix,
i.e., it represents
a **scaling**.



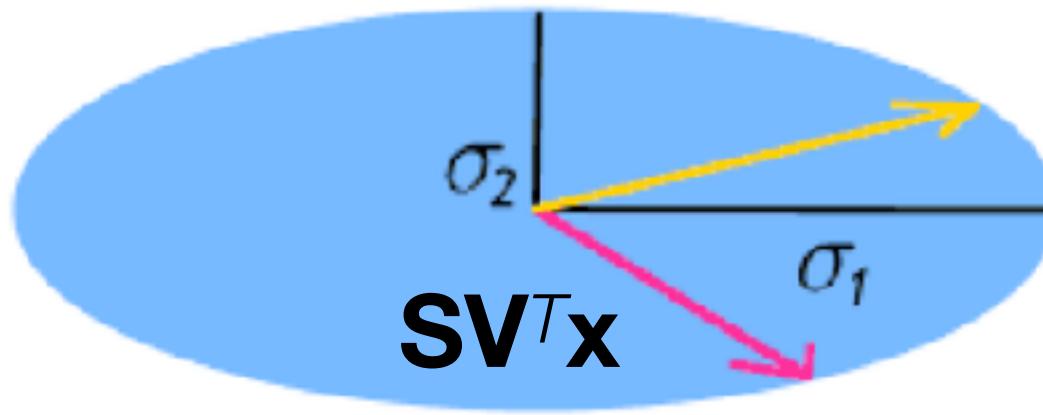
σ_1 and σ_2
are called
singular values.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \mathbf{A} & & \mathbf{x} & & \\ & & & & \\ \left[\begin{array}{cc} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{array} \right] \mathbf{x} = & & & \\ & & & & \\ \mathbf{U} & & & \mathbf{S} & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \left[\begin{array}{cc} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{array} \right] & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \left[\begin{array}{cc} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{array} \right] \mathbf{x} & \\ & & & & \end{array}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

U is another
orthogonal matrix,
(different from **V**)
i.e., it represents
a **second rotation**.

$$\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$$

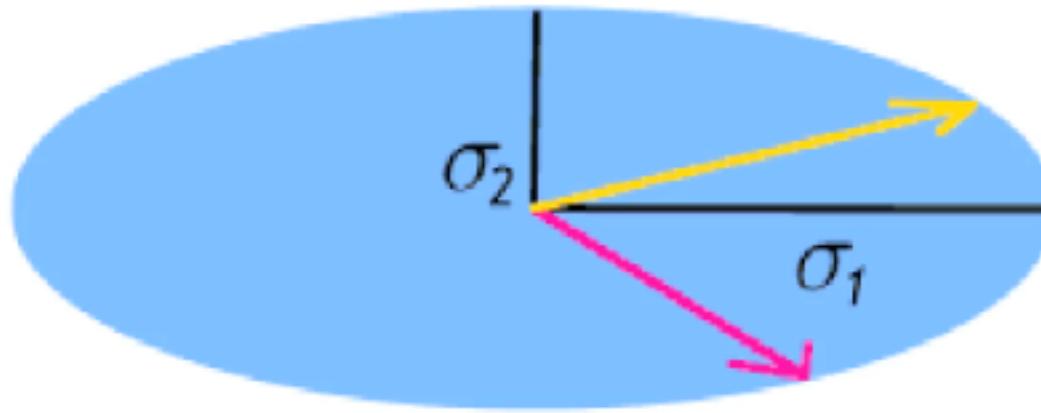


$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{x} \\ \left[\begin{matrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{matrix} \right] \mathbf{x} & = \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \mathbf{U} & \mathbf{S} & \mathbf{V}^T & \mathbf{x} \\ \left[\begin{matrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{matrix} \right] \left[\begin{matrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{matrix} \right] \left[\begin{matrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{matrix} \right] \mathbf{x} & = \end{matrix}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

U is another
orthogonal matrix,
(different from **V**)
i.e., it represents
a **second rotation**.

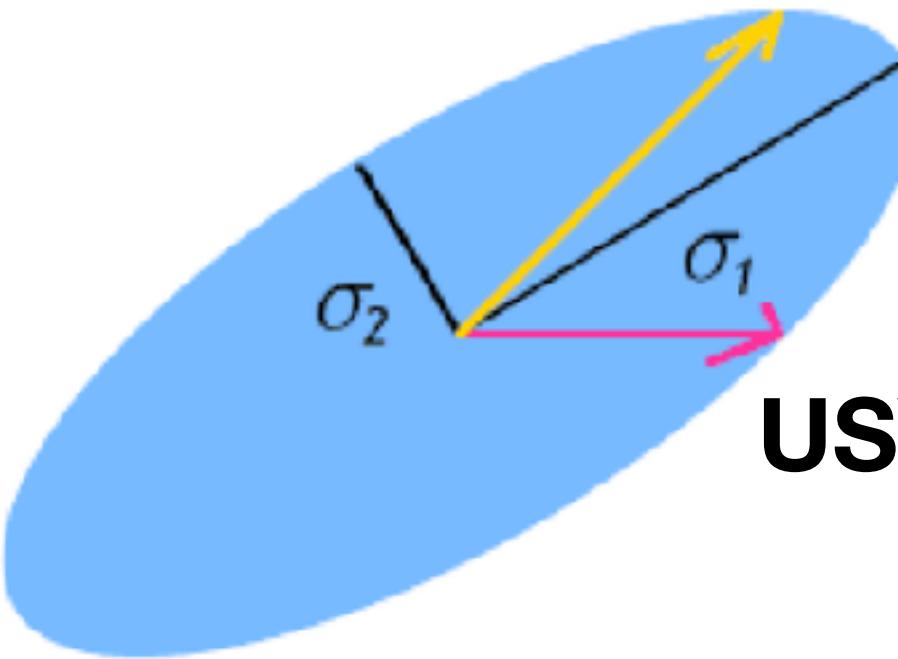
$$\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$$



$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{U} & \mathbf{S} & \mathbf{V}^T & \mathbf{x} \end{matrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

U is another
orthogonal matrix,
(different from **V**)
i.e., it represents
a **second rotation**.
 $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$

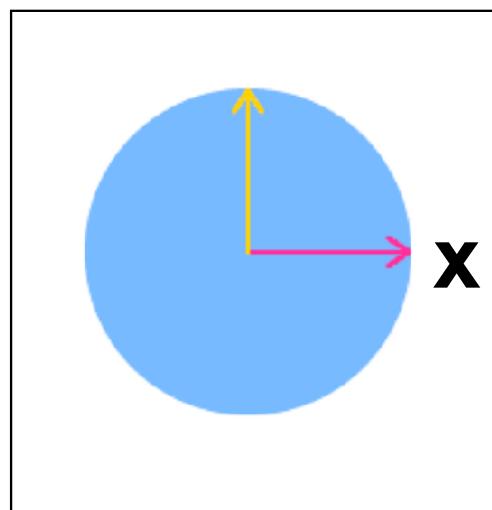


USV^Tx or Ax

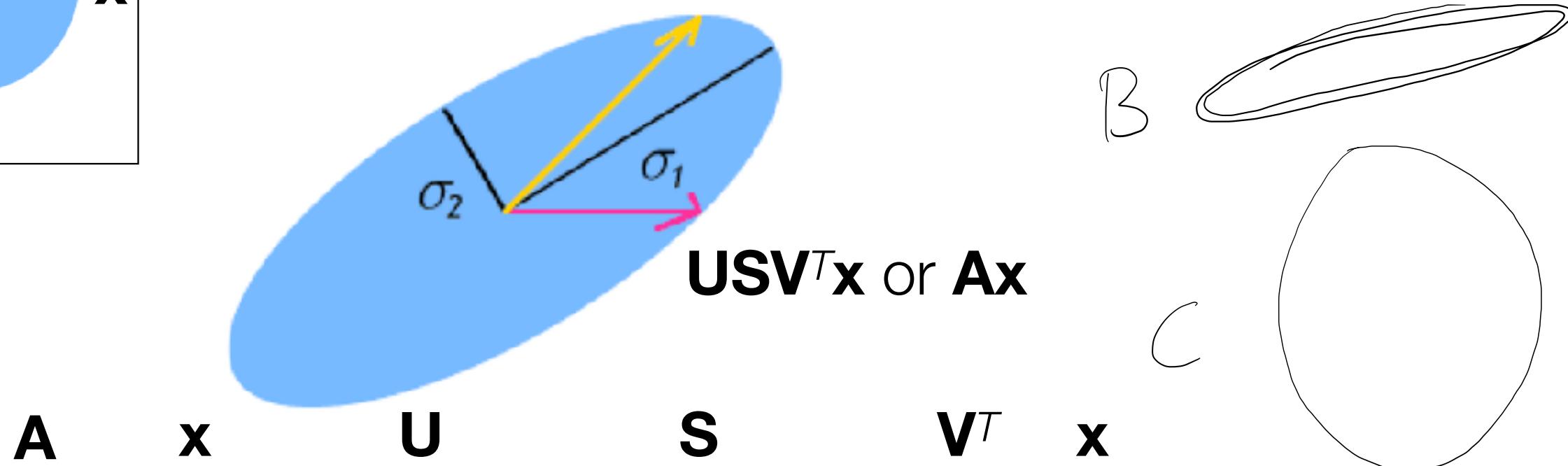
A **x** **U** **S** **V^T** **x**

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)



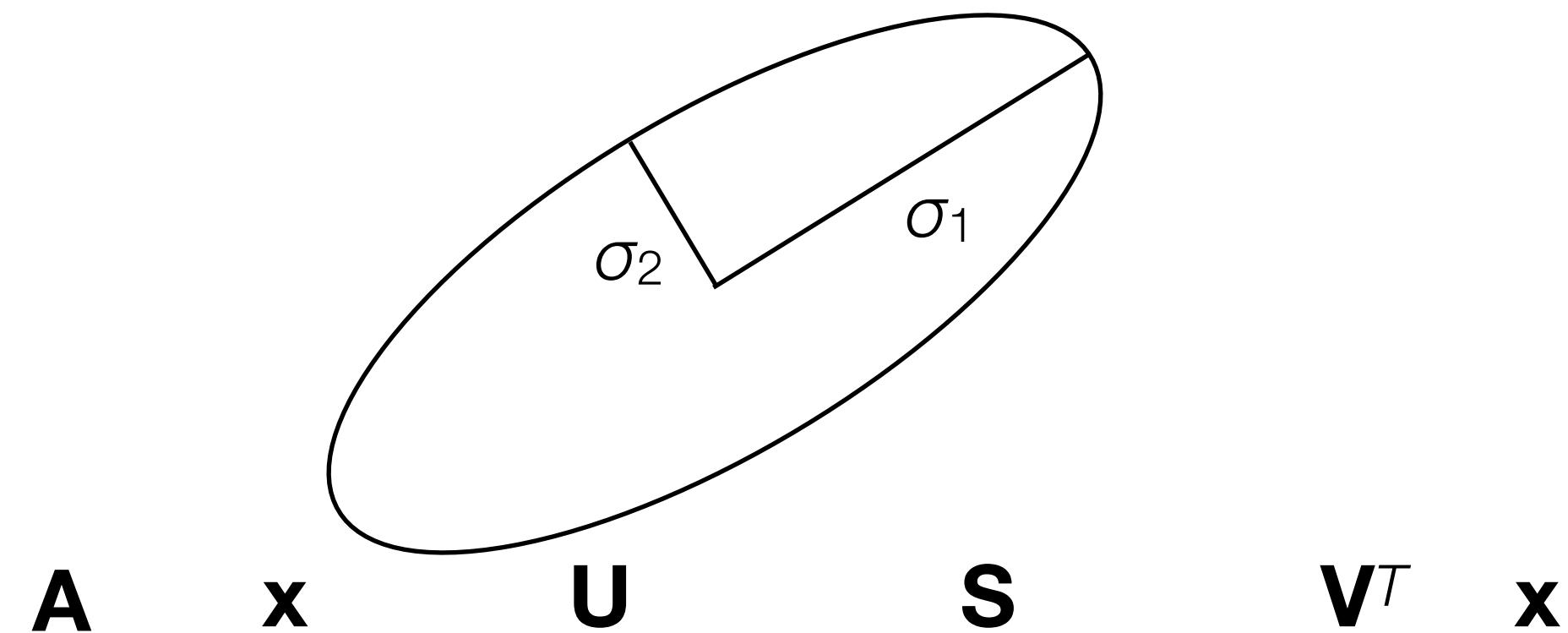
Notice how much
the vector changes
under the influence of \mathbf{A} .



$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Circle is converted to a rotated ellipse.



$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

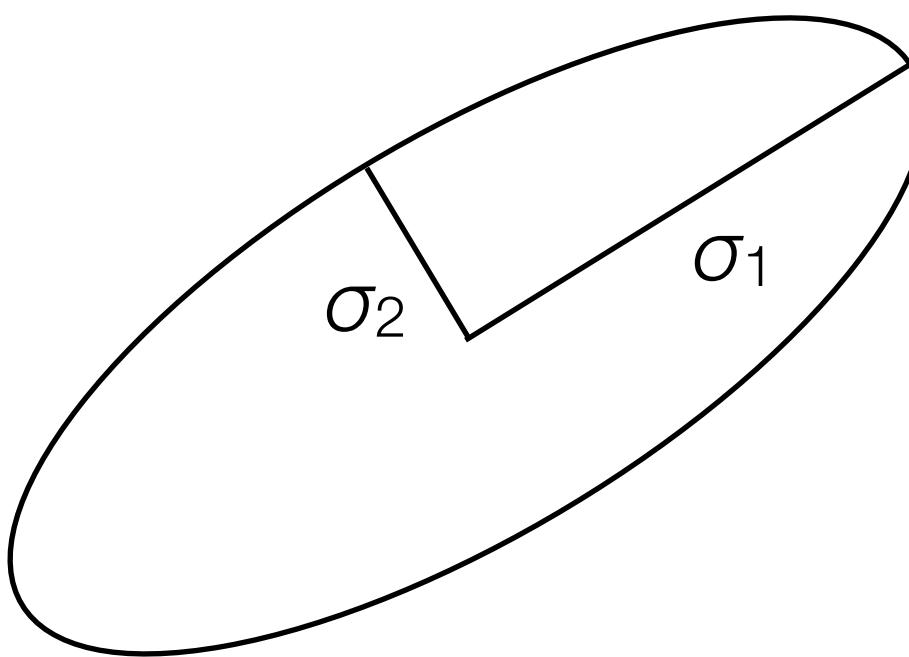
If $\sigma_1 \approx \sigma_2$, both singular values are large, ellipse is nearly a circle.

The diagram shows a circle centered at the origin. Two radii are drawn from the center to the circumference, representing the singular values σ_1 and σ_2 . The angle between these two radii is approximately 90 degrees, indicating they are orthogonal.

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{x}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

The more interesting thing happens if $\sigma_2 = 0...$



A diagram showing an elongated oval representing a matrix A . The oval is oriented diagonally. Two lines extend from the center of the oval to its right edge, forming a right-angled triangle. The vertical leg of this triangle is labeled σ_2 and the horizontal leg is labeled σ_1 .

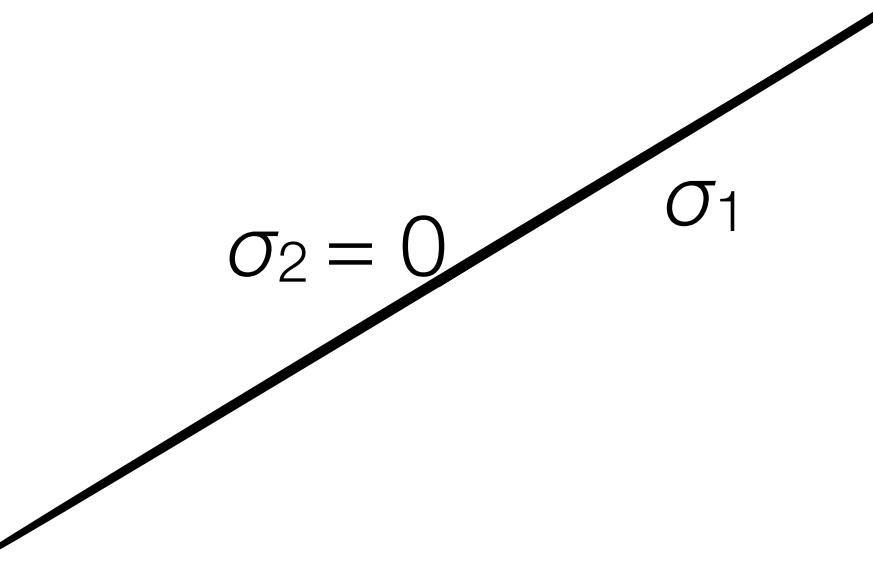
A **x** **U** **S** **V^T** **x**

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

The more interesting thing happens if $\sigma_2 = 0$...

The ellipse collapses to a line.


$$\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{U} \quad \mathbf{S} \quad \mathbf{V}^T \quad \mathbf{x}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

The equation illustrates the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) of a matrix A. The matrix A is multiplied by vector x. The result is equal to the product of three matrices: U, S, and V^T. Matrix U is an orthogonal matrix whose columns are the left singular vectors of A. Matrix S is a diagonal matrix containing the singular values σ₁ and 0. Matrix V^T is an orthogonal matrix whose rows are the right singular vectors of A. The singular values σ₁ and σ₂ are labeled on the line segment, where σ₂ = 0 indicates that the ellipse collapses into a line.

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

The more interesting thing happens if $\sigma_1 = 0$...

The ellipse collapses to a line.

The multiplication can be re-written as:-

A hand-drawn diagram showing a line segment starting from the origin. The line slopes upwards and to the right. The horizontal distance from the origin to the end of the line is labeled σ_1 . The vertical distance is labeled $\sigma_2 = 0$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{21} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

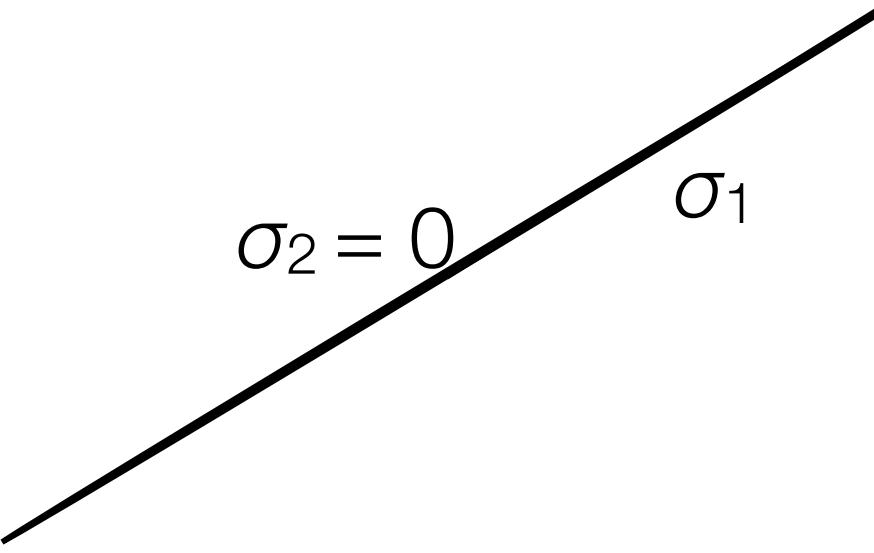
$\left[\begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{21} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \right]$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

The more interesting thing happens if $\sigma_1 = 0...$

The ellipse collapses to a line.

The multiplication can be re-written as:-


$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & \text{(first column)} \\ u_{21} & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & \text{(first value)} \\ & \endbmatrix \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ & \text{(first row)} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

(or first column of \mathbf{V}^T)

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

The more interesting thing happens if $\sigma_1 = 0...$

The ellipse collapses to a line.

The multiplication can be re-written as:-

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & & \\ & u_{21} & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ & \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

If you set \mathbf{x} = the second column of \mathbf{V} ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} &= 0 \\ \text{if } \mathbf{x} &= \text{last col. of } \mathbf{V} \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{U} \quad \mathbf{S} \quad \mathbf{V}^T \quad \mathbf{x}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{21} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{12} \\ v_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

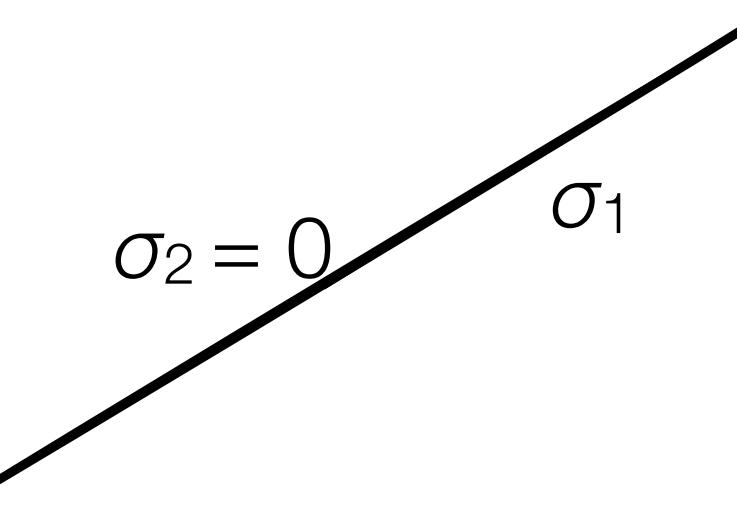
$$\begin{bmatrix} v_{11} \\ v_{21} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} v_{12} \\ v_{22} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_{11} \\ v_{21} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{12} \\ v_{22} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$v_{11} v_{12} + v_{21} v_{22} = 0$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

If you set \mathbf{x} = the second column of \mathbf{V} , the entire equation goes to 0, since (first column of \mathbf{V}) T (second column of \mathbf{V}) = 0 due to orthogonality of \mathbf{V} .

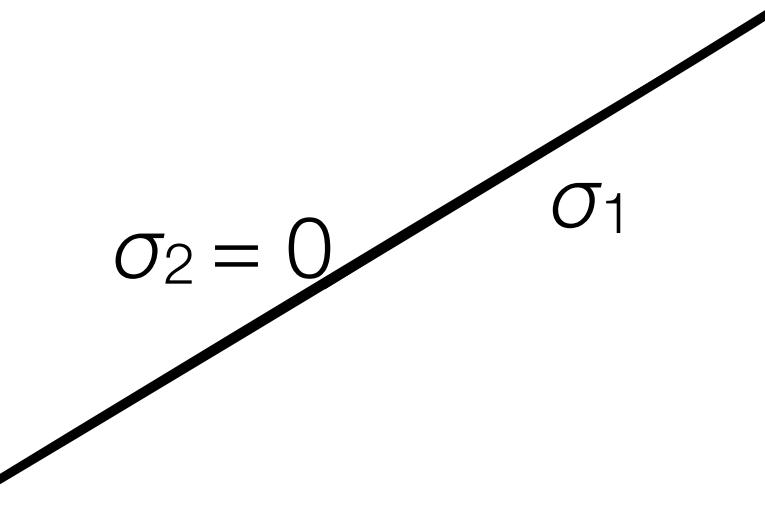

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

A x U S V^T x

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{21} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

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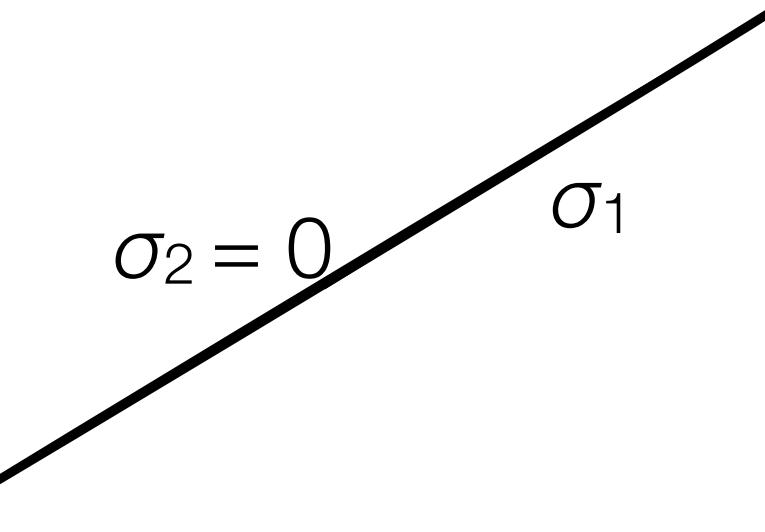
A x U S V^T x

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{21} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{12} \\ v_{22} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$v_{11}v_{12} + v_{21}v_{22} = 0$$

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A x U S V^T x

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{21} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

If you set $\mathbf{x} =$ the second column of \mathbf{V} , the entire equation goes to 0, since (first column of \mathbf{V}) T (second column of \mathbf{V}) = 0 due to orthogonality of \mathbf{V} .

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{U} \quad \mathbf{S} \quad \mathbf{V}^T \quad \mathbf{x}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{21} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0} \text{ for } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}_2$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

What this means is, to solve $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$,
you can set \mathbf{x} to the vector in \mathbf{V} whose singular value is 0.
 σ_2 is 0, so use \mathbf{v}_2 .

$$\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{U} \quad \mathbf{S} \quad \mathbf{V}^T \quad \mathbf{x}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{12} \\ v_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

\mathbf{v}_2

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0} \text{ for } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}_2$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

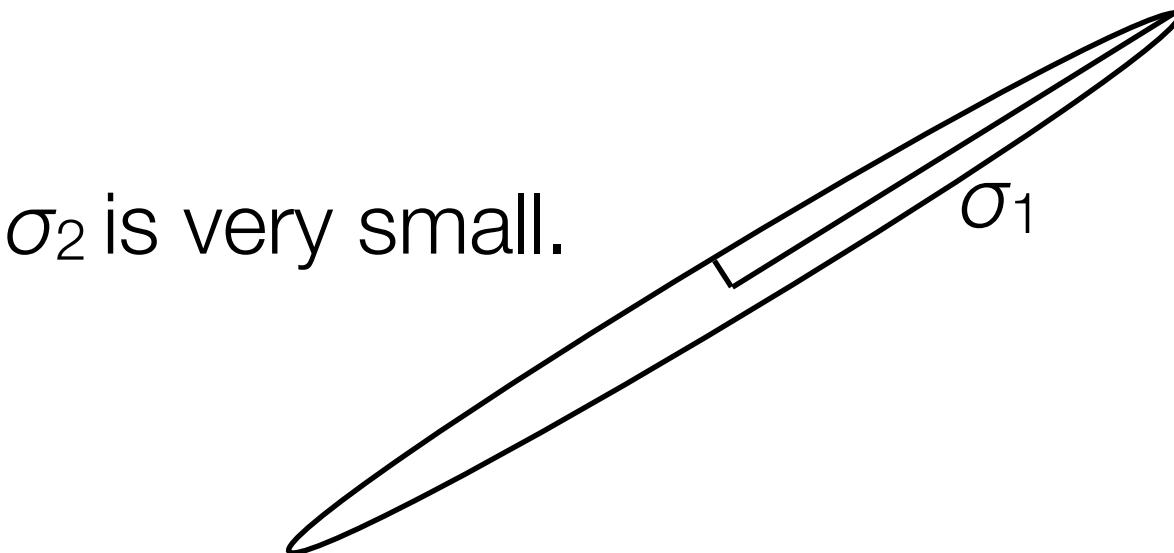
In practice, you may not have a matrix \mathbf{A} with a 0 singular value.

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{x}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{12} \\ v_{22} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ for $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}_2$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

In practice, you may not have a matrix \mathbf{A} with a 0 singular value.
But you may have \mathbf{A} with a fairly small singular value.


$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{v}_2$$

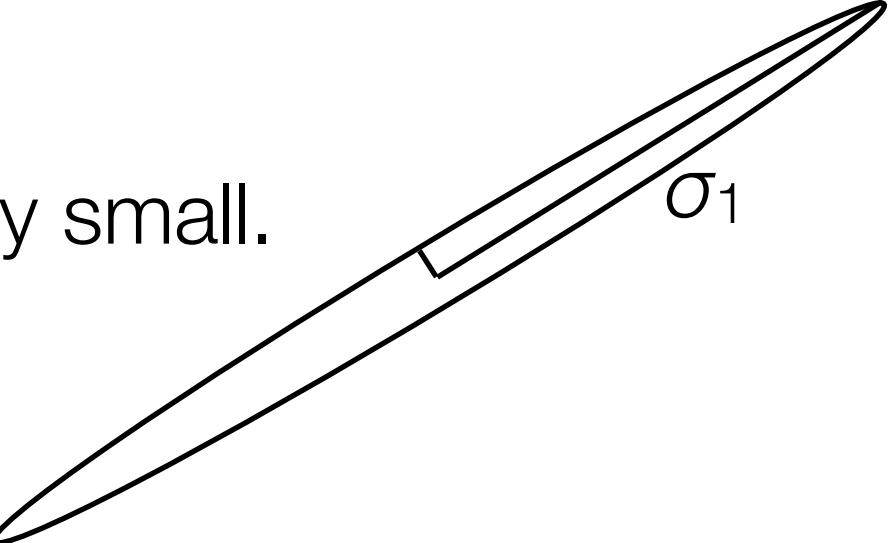
σ_2 is very small.

$$\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{U} \quad \mathbf{S} \quad \mathbf{V}^T \quad \mathbf{x}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{12} \\ v_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{v}_2$$

$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{vector \ with \ very \ small \ length}$ for $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}_2$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

So you can still solve $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$,
approximately, if not exactly.



σ_2 is very small.

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{v}_2$$

A x U S VT x

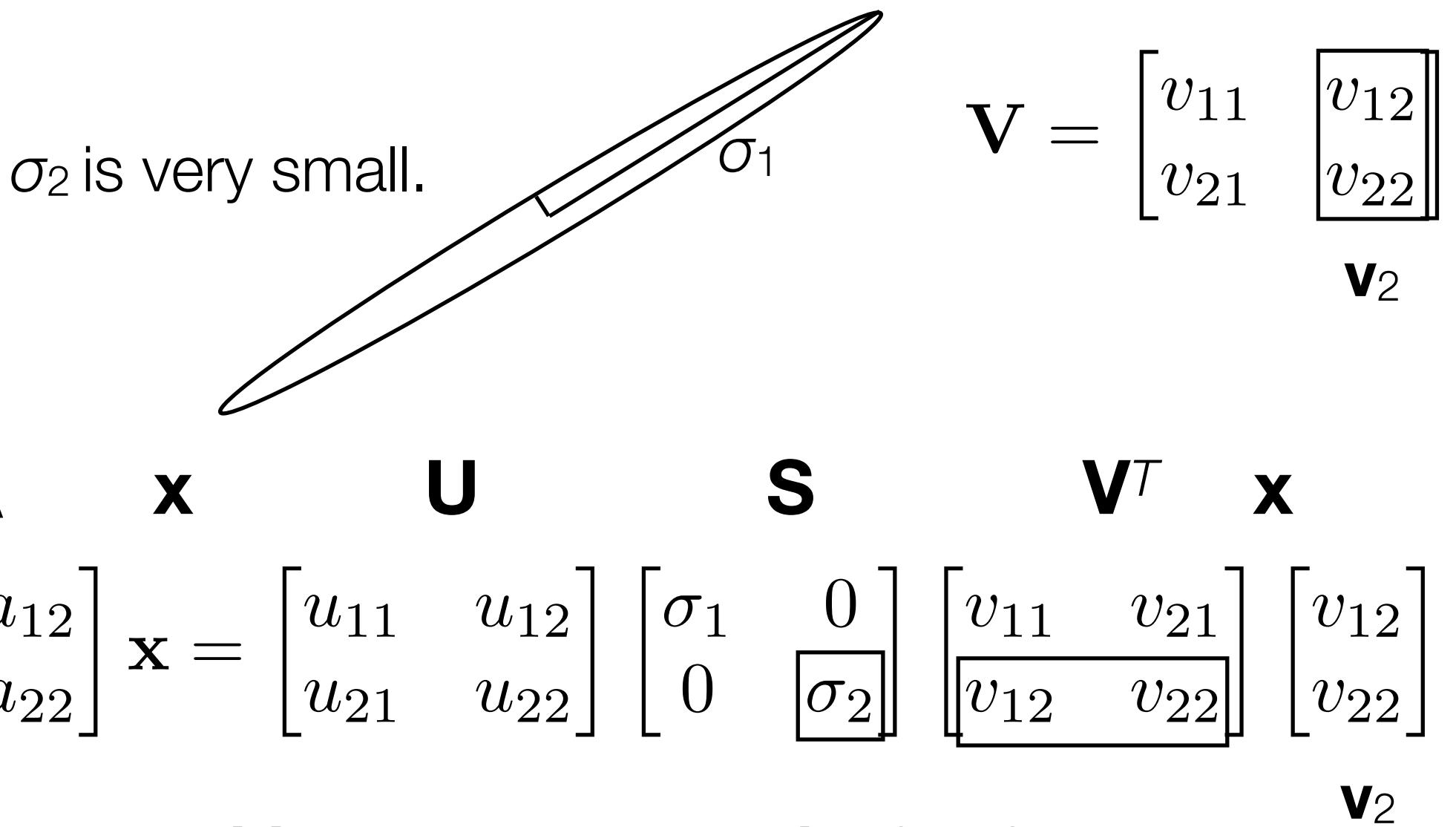
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{12} \\ v_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

v2

Ax = vector with very small length for $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}_2$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

So you can still solve $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$
approximately, if not exactly.



$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{vector \ with \ very \ small \ length \ of \ } \underline{\sigma_2} \text{ for } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}_2$

The minimum possible value!

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Similarly you can solve $\mathbf{P} \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$.

The same approach works for dimensions more than 2.

Also works for a tall matrix!

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{V}^T$$

\mathbf{U} is orthogonal: $\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$
But $\mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^T \neq \mathbf{I}$

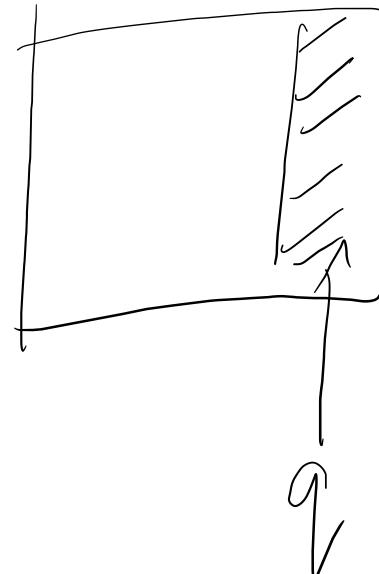
\mathbf{S} is a diagonal matrix of singular values.

\mathbf{V}^T is orthogonal: $\mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}$

$$\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$$

But $\mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^T \neq \mathbf{I}$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)



Similarly you can solve $\mathbf{P} \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$.

The same approach works for dimensions more than 2.

Also works for a tall matrix!

$$\mathbf{P}$$

$$= \mathbf{U}$$

$$\begin{matrix} & & & \mathbf{S} \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \end{matrix}$$

diagonal
matrix of
singular
values

$$\mathbf{V}^T$$

$$\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\leftarrow \mathbf{q}^T$$

$$\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$$

But $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T \neq \mathbf{I}$

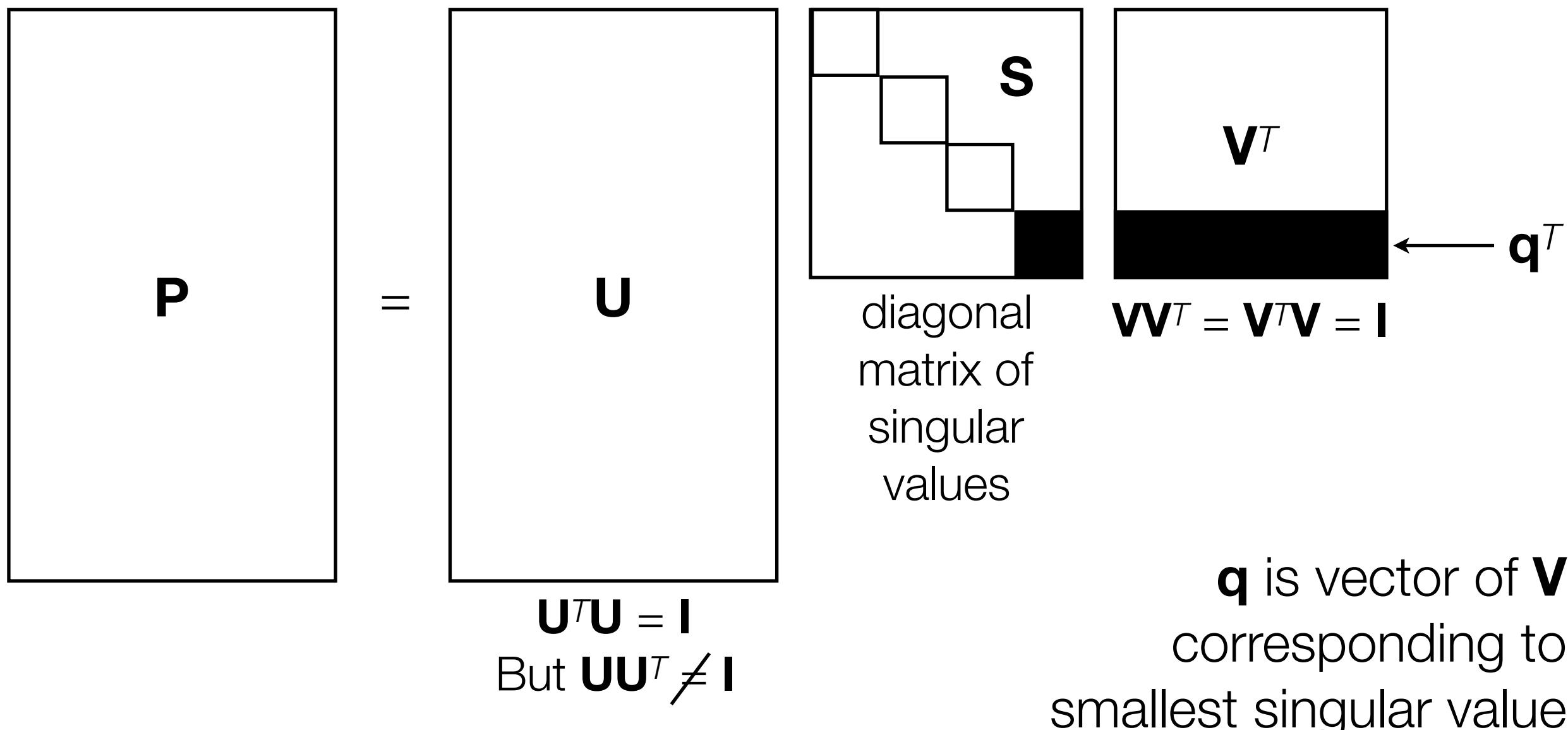
\mathbf{q} is vector of \mathbf{V}
corresponding to
smallest singular value

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

In MATLAB, you can use the `svd()` function:

```
[U, S, V] = svd( P, 'econ' );
```

Usually, the last column of \mathbf{V} corresponds to the smallest singular value (or the last diagonal element in \mathbf{S}).



Solution for homogeneous least squares

Solving $\mathbf{P} \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$:

You get \mathbf{q} as follows:

- 1) Take the singular value decomposition (SVD) of \mathbf{P} .

The SVD of \mathbf{P} gives three matrices \mathbf{U} , \mathbf{S} , \mathbf{V} such that

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{V}^T$$

where \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} are orthogonal matrices, while \mathbf{S} is a diagonal matrix of **singular values**.

- 2) Get \mathbf{q} as the column vector in \mathbf{V} corresponding to the location of the **smallest singular value** in \mathbf{S} .

Why is it called homogeneous least squares?

$$\mathbf{P} \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$$

is a **homogeneous linear system**.

length of
 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ was the smallest
possible
 $\|\mathbf{P}\mathbf{q}\|$

Solving it provides you a **least squares** solution,
because you are finding the smallest sum of squares
of the elements in vector **$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{q}$** ,

i.e., you are minimizing $\|\mathbf{P}\mathbf{q}\|^2$

Nature of solution \mathbf{q}

\mathbf{q} is a vector with length 1.

The length of the vector serves as a constraint to reduce the number of dimensions in the final transform from 9 to 8.

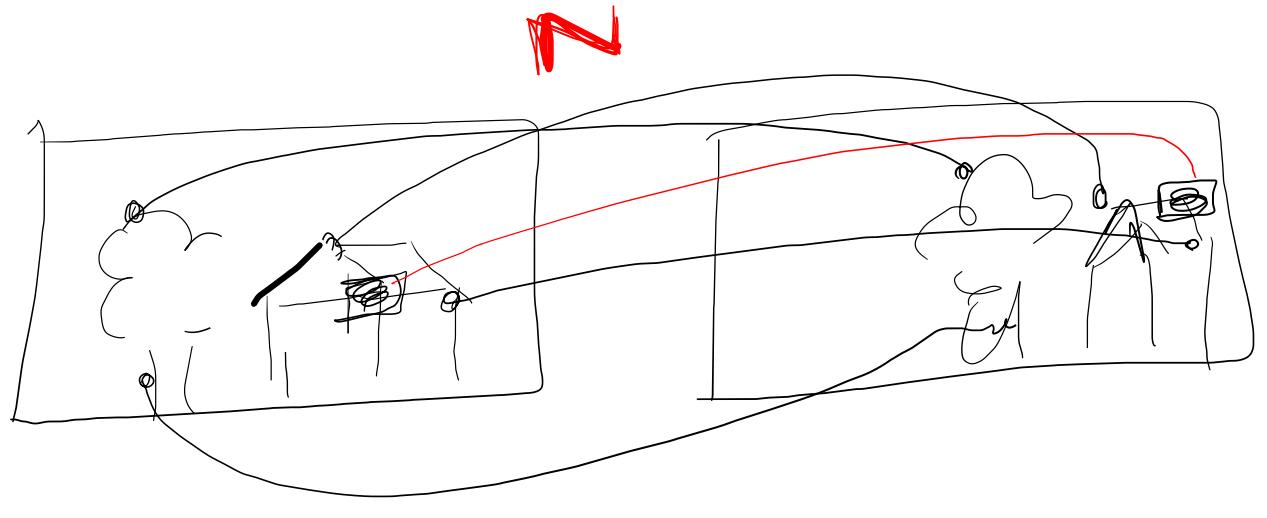
On Assignment 2,

You will need to use `svd()` to solve for the values in **q**, i.e., you will need to use **homogeneous least squares**.

Remember to re-structure the elements in **q** to form the homography matrix!

$$\mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \\ i \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$$

[
a
b
c
d
e
f
g
h



RANSAC algorithm

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}' \\ \hat{y}' \\ \hat{w}' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}, \quad x' = \frac{\hat{x}'}{\hat{w}'}, \quad y' = \frac{\hat{y}'}{\hat{w}'}$$

$$[U, S, V] = \text{svd}(P)$$

$\underbrace{\dots}_{q}$

P

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \dots \\ \vdots \\ a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \\ f \\ g \\ h \\ i \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$q \times 1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dots & P & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dots & U & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \dots & U & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \dots & V^T & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

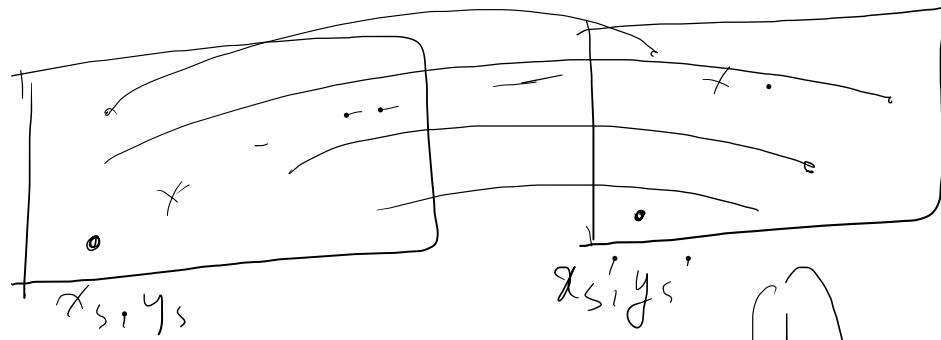
$$\cancel{P_q = 0}$$

$\cancel{q} = \text{last col of } V$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dots & V & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

10(4)

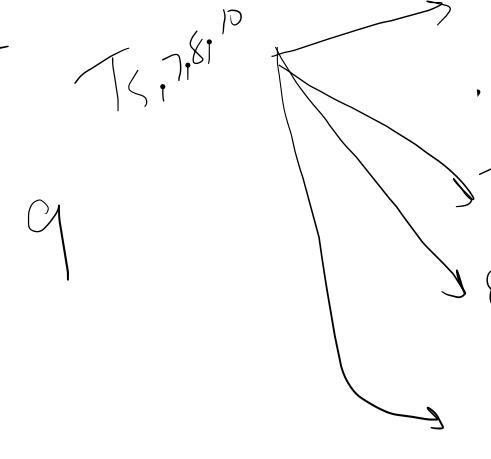
N = 10



$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} T_{1,2,3,4}$$

$$(x_{se}', y_{se}') = T_{1,2,3,4} \rightarrow x_s, y_s$$

$$d_5 = \sqrt{(x_{se}' - x_s)^2 + (y_{se}' - y_s)^2}$$



P

$d_5 < th$
 $d_6 < th$
 $d_7 < th$
 $d_8 < th$
 $d_9 < th$
 $d_{10} < th$



The least squares approaches discussed till now
use $n \geq 4$ correspondences to estimate
the transformation.

But often, not all n points are good. Some of them
may be outliers.

The RANSAC algorithm helps deal with outliers.

Exhaustive Approach to Eliminate Outliers

Repeat the following for all $\binom{n}{k}$ combinations of correspondences:

Get the current combination of k correspondences.

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} p \\ \vdots \\ p \end{bmatrix}}_k = \begin{bmatrix} u \\ \vdots \\ u \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s \\ \vdots \\ s \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v^T \\ \vdots \\ v^T \end{bmatrix}$$

Estimate the transform \mathbf{A} from the k correspondences.

Compute the error of estimation for all n points, i.e., compute:

$$e = (x'_{actual} - x'_{estim})^2 + (y'_{actual} - y'_{estim})^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} C_4 &= \frac{10 \times 9 \times 8 \times 7}{4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1} \\ &= 30 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} C_4 &= \frac{25 \times 33}{4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1} \\ &= 100 \end{aligned}$$

Count the number of points whose error e falls below a threshold t .

Retain the transform corresponding to the maximum point count.

Exhaustive Approach to Eliminate Outliers

Repeat the following for all (n choose k) combinations of correspondences:

Get the current combination of k correspondences.



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Problem: n choose k can be too large to make the computation practical.

RANSAC: RANdom SAmple Consensus

DOI 82

Repeat the following for N_{ransac} steps:

Choose k correspondences at random, where k is the minimum number of correspondences needed to estimate the transform.

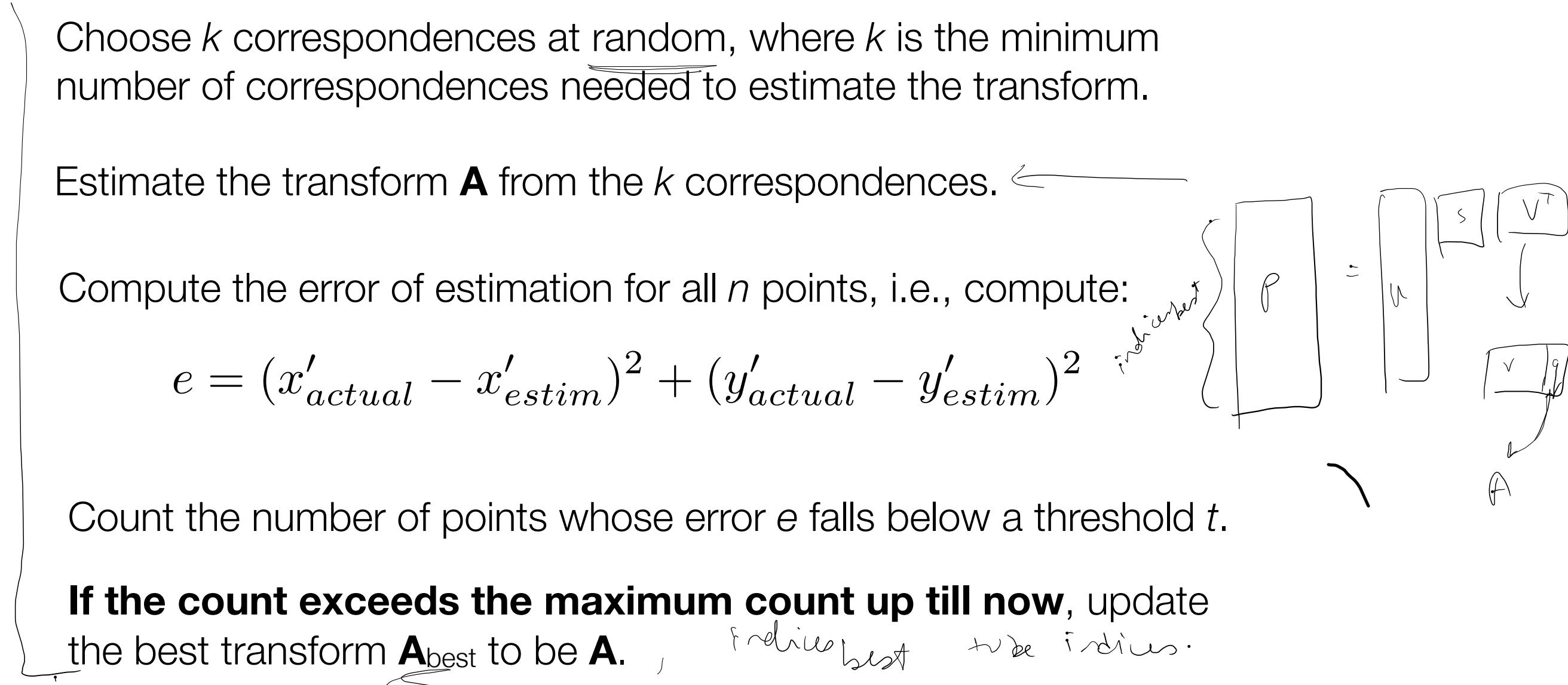
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Count the number of points whose error e falls below a threshold t .

If the count exceeds the maximum count up till now, update the best transform \mathbf{A}_{best} to be \mathbf{A} .



$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & & x_n \\ y_1 & y_2 & y_3 & & y_n \\ | & | & | & \ddots & | \end{bmatrix}$$

$$pts2e = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}_1' \\ \hat{y}_1' \\ w_1' \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}_2' \\ \hat{y}_2' \\ w_2' \end{bmatrix} - \dots - \begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}_n' \\ \hat{y}_n' \\ w_n' \end{bmatrix}$$

RANSAC: RANdom SAmple Consensus

Repeat the following for N_{ransac} steps:

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Incredibly simple algorithm!!

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Repeat the following for N_{ransac} steps:

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Count the number of points whose error e falls below a threshold t .

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Incredibly simple algorithm!! Can be used to remove outliers in any model estimation involving several data points.