

Lecture 9: Exam 1 Review

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ECE 417: Multimedia Signal Processing, Fall 2021

- 1 Topics
- 2 Signal Processing
- 3 LPC
- 4 Linear Algebra
- 5 Image Processing
- 6 Optical Flow
- 7 Summary

Outline

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Topics

- 1 HW1: Signal Processing Review
- 2 MP1: LPC
- 3 HW2: Linear Algebra
- 4 MP2: Image Processing & Optical Flow

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DTFT

$$X(\omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]e^{-j\omega n}$$

$$x[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X(\omega)e^{j\omega n}$$

Frequency Response

$$Y(\omega) = H(\omega)X(\omega)$$

$$y[n] = h[n] * x[n]$$

Z Transform

$$\sum_{m=0}^{M-1} b_m x[n-m] = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k y[n-k]$$

$$H(z) = \frac{\sum_{m=0}^{M-1} b_m z^{-m}}{\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k z^{-k}}$$

Frequency Response

$$H(\omega) = H(z = e^{j\omega})$$

Outline

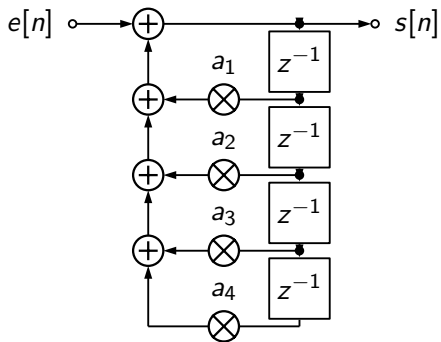
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All-Pole Filter

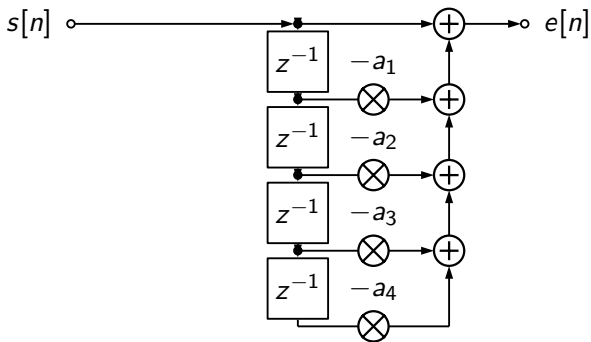
$$\begin{aligned} H(z) &= \frac{1}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\prod_{k=1}^N (1 - p_k z^{-1})} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{C_k}{1 - p_k z^{-1}} \end{aligned}$$

$$h[n] = \sum_{k=1}^N C_k p_k^n u[n]$$

Linear Predictive Synthesis Filter



Linear Predictive Analysis Filter



Finding the Linear Predictive Coefficients

Formulate the problem like this: we want to find a_k in order to minimize:

$$\mathcal{E} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^2[n] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \left(s[n] - \sum_{m=1}^p a_m s[n-m] \right)^2$$

If we set $d\mathcal{E}/da_k = 0$, we get

$$0 = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \left(s[n] - \sum_{m=1}^p a_m s[n-m] \right) s[n-k] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e[n] s[n-k]$$

which we sometimes write as $e[n] \perp s[n-k]$

Autocorrelation

In order to write the solution more easily, let's define something called the "autocorrelation," $R[m]$:

$$R[m] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s[n]s[n-m]$$

In terms of the autocorrelation, the orthogonality equations are

$$0 = R[k] - \sum_{m=1}^p a_m R[k-m] \quad \forall 1 \leq k \leq p$$

which can be re-arranged as

$$R[k] = \sum_{m=1}^p a_m R[k-m] \quad \forall 1 \leq k \leq p$$

Matrices

Since we have p linear equations in p unknowns, let's create matrices:

$$\vec{\gamma} = \begin{bmatrix} R[1] \\ R[2] \\ \vdots \\ R[p] \end{bmatrix}, \quad R = \begin{bmatrix} R[0] & R[1] & \cdots & R[p-1] \\ R[1] & R[0] & \cdots & R[p-2] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ R[p-1] & R[p-2] & \cdots & R[0] \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then the normal equations become

$$\vec{\gamma} = R\vec{a}$$

and their solution is

$$\vec{a} = R^{-1}\vec{\gamma}$$

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Linear Algebra Review

- A linear transform, A , maps vectors in space \vec{x} to vectors in space \vec{y} .
- The determinant, $|A|$, tells you how the volume of the unit sphere is scaled by the linear transform.
- Every $D \times D$ linear transform has D eigenvalues, which are the roots of the equation $|A - \lambda I| = 0$.
- Left and right eigenvectors of a matrix are either orthogonal ($\vec{u}_i^T \vec{v}_j = 0$) or share the same eigenvalue ($\kappa_i = \lambda_j$).
- For a symmetric matrix, the left and right eigenvectors are the same. If the eigenvalues are distinct and real, then:

$$A = V\Lambda V^T, \quad \Lambda = V^T A V, \quad VV^T = V^T V = I$$

Pseudo-Inverse

If A is a tall thin matrix, then there is usually no vector \vec{v} that solves $\vec{b} = A\vec{v}$, but $\vec{v} = A^\dagger \vec{b}$ is the vector that comes closest, in the sense that

$$A^\dagger \vec{b} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\vec{v}} \|\vec{b} - A\vec{v}\|^2$$

If we differentiate the norm, and set the derivative to zero, we get

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

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What is a Multidimensional Signal?

A multidimensional signal is one that can be indexed in many directions. For example, a typical video that you would play on your laptop is a 4-dimensional signal, $x[k, t, r, c]$:

- k indexes color ($k = 0$ for red, $k = 1$ for green, $k = 2$ for blue)
- t is the frame index
- r is the row index
- c is the column index

If there are 3 colors, 30 frames/second, 480 rows and 640 columns, with one byte per pixel, then that's
 $3 \times 30 \times 480 \times 640 = 27684000$ bytes/sec.

Multidimensional Convolution

Any linear, shift-invariant system can be implemented as a convolution. 2D convolution is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}y[n_1, n_2] &= x[n_1, n_2] * h[n_1, n_2] \\ &= \sum_{m_1=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{m_2=-\infty}^{\infty} x[m_1, m_2] h[n_1 - m_1, n_2 - m_2]\end{aligned}$$

The Fourier transform of convolution is multiplication:

$$y[\vec{n}] = x[\vec{n}] * h[\vec{n}] \Leftrightarrow Y(\vec{\omega}) = H(\vec{\omega})X(\vec{\omega})$$

Separable Filters

A filter $h[n_1, n_2]$ is called “separable” if it can be written as

$$h[n_1, n_2] = h_1[n_1]h_2[n_2]$$

If a filter is separable, then the computational cost of convolution can be reduced by using separable convolution:

$$x[n_1, n_2] * h[n_1, n_2] = h_1[n_1] *_1 (h_2[n_2] *_2 x[n_1, n_2])$$

Example: Image gradient

For example, we can compute image gradient using the filter

$$h[n] = 0.5\delta[n + 1] - 0.5\delta[n - 1]$$

then

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial n_1} \approx h[n_1] *_1 f[n_1, n_2]$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial n_2} \approx h[n_2] *_2 f[n_1, n_2]$$

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Optical Flow

Definition: **optical flow** is the vector field $\vec{v}(t, r, c)$ specifying the current apparent velocity of the pixel at position (r, c) . It depends on motion of (1) the object observed, and (2) the observer.

Then the optical flow equation is:

$$-\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = (\nabla f)^T \vec{v}$$

The Lucas-Kanade Algorithm

The Lucas-Kanade algorithm solves the equation

$$\vec{b} = A\vec{v}$$

where

$$\vec{b} = - \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f[t,r,c]}{\partial t} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f[t,r+H-1,c+W-1]}{\partial t} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_c[t,r,c] \\ v_r[t,r,c] \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f[t,r,c]}{\partial c} & \frac{\partial f[t,r,c]}{\partial r} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f[t,r+H-1,c+W-1]}{\partial c} & \frac{\partial f[t,r+H-1,c+W-1]}{\partial r} \end{bmatrix}$$

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