

An aerial photograph of the Colorado School of Mines campus. The foreground shows several large, modern, light-colored buildings with flat roofs and large windows. A green lawn and trees are interspersed among the buildings. In the middle ground, a large, curved green field, possibly a sports field, is visible. The background features rolling hills and mountains under a clear blue sky with a few wispy clouds. The overall scene is bright and sunny.

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# Computer Vision

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# SVD

# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

- SVD is a matrix technique that has some important uses in computer vision
- These include:
  - Solving a set of homogeneous linear equations
    - Namely we solve for the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  in the equation  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$
  - Guaranteeing that the entries of a matrix estimated numerically satisfy some given constraints (e.g., orthogonality)
    - For example, we have computed  $\mathbf{R}$  and now want to make sure that it is a valid rotation matrix

# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

- Any (real)  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  can be written as the product of three matrices

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T$$

- $\mathbf{U}$  ( $m \times m$ ) and  $\mathbf{V}$  ( $n \times n$ ) have columns that are mutually orthogonal unit vectors
- $\mathbf{D}$  ( $m \times n$ ) is diagonal; its diagonal elements  $\sigma_i$  are called singular values, and  $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$

$$\mathbf{A}_{M \times N} = \mathbf{U}_{M \times P} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{P \times P} \mathbf{V}_{P \times N}^T \quad p = \min(M, N)$$

$$= \left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c} \mathbf{u}_0 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_{p-1} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \sigma_0 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_{p-1} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{v}_0^T \\ \cdots \\ \mathbf{v}_{p-1}^T \end{array} \right],$$

- If only the first  $r$  singular values are positive, the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is of rank  $r$  and we can drop the last  $p-r$  columns of  $\mathbf{U}$  and  $\mathbf{V}$

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

$$\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_j = \mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_j = \delta_{ij}$$

# Some properties of SVD

- We can represent  $\mathbf{A}$  in terms of the vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}_j = \sigma_j \mathbf{u}_j$$

- or

$$\mathbf{A} = \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \sigma_j \mathbf{u}_j \mathbf{v}_j^T$$

- The vectors  $\mathbf{u}_j$  are called the “principal components” of  $\mathbf{A}$
- Sometimes we want to compute an approximation to  $\mathbf{A}$  using fewer principal components
- If we truncate the expansion, we obtain the best possible least squares approximation<sup>1</sup> to the original matrix  $\mathbf{A}$

$$\mathbf{A} \approx \sum_{j=0}^t \sigma_j \mathbf{u}_j \mathbf{v}_j^T$$

<sup>1</sup>In terms of the Frobenius norm, defined as

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sum_{i,j} a_{i,j}^2$$

# Some properties of SVD (continued)

- We have

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T$$

- Look at

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T = (\mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T) (\mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T)^T = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{V} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{U}^T$$

- where  $\lambda_j = \sigma_j^2$

- Multiplying by  $\mathbf{U}$  on the right on each side yields

$$(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T) \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Lambda}$$

- or

$$(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T) \mathbf{u}_j = \lambda_j \mathbf{u}_j$$

- So the columns of  $\mathbf{U}$  are the eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T$

# Some properties of SVD (continued)

- Similarly, we have

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T$$

- Look at

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T)^T (\mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T) = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{V}^T$$

- where  $\lambda_j = \sigma_j^2$
- Multiplying by  $\mathbf{V}$  on the right on each side yields

$$(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Lambda}$$

- or

$$(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{v}_j = \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_j$$

- So the columns of  $\mathbf{V}$  are the eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$

# Application: Solving a System of Homogeneous Equations

- We want to solve a system of  $m$  linear equations in  $n$  unknowns, of the form  $\mathbf{Ax} = 0$ 
  - Assume  $m \geq n-1$  and  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A})=n-1$
- Any vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  that satisfy  $\mathbf{Ax} = 0$  are in the “null space” of  $\mathbf{A}$ 
  - $\mathbf{x}=0$  is a solution, but it is not interesting
  - If you find a solution  $\mathbf{x}$ , then any scaled version of  $\mathbf{x}$  is also a solution
- As we will see, these equations can arise when we want to solve for
  - The elements of a camera projection matrix
  - The elements of a homography transform



# Application: Solving a System of Homogeneous Equations (continued)

- The solution  $\mathbf{x}$  is the eigenvector corresponding to the only zero eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}$

- Proof: We want to minimize

$$\|\mathbf{Ax}\|^2 = (\mathbf{Ax})^T \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Ax} \quad \text{subject to } \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} = 1$$

- Introducing a Lagrange multiplier  $\lambda$ , this is equivalent to minimizing

$$L(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Ax} - \lambda(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} - 1)$$

- Take derivative wrt  $\mathbf{x}$  and set to zero

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Ax} - \lambda \mathbf{x} = 0$$

- Thus,  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}$ , and  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_\lambda$  is the corresponding eigenvector.  $L(\mathbf{e}_\lambda) = \lambda$  is minimized at  $\lambda=0$ , so  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_0$  is the eigenvector corresponding to the zero eigenvalue.

# Example

- Let

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Find solution  $\mathbf{x}$  to  $\mathbf{Ax}=\mathbf{0}$

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ :  $\lambda_1 = 0, \mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $\lambda_2 = 1, \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$   $\lambda_3 = 1, \mathbf{e}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

So  $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{e}_1$  is the solution. To verify:

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

So it does work

# Solving Homogeneous Equations with SVD

- Given a system of linear equations  $\mathbf{Ax} = 0$
- Then the solution  $\mathbf{x}$  is the eigenvector corresponding to the only zero eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}$
- Equivalently, we can take the SVD of  $\mathbf{A}$ ; ie.,  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T$ 
  - And  $\mathbf{x}$  is the column of  $\mathbf{V}$  corresponding to the zero singular value of  $\mathbf{A}$
  - (Since the columns are ordered, this is the rightmost column of  $\mathbf{V}$ )

- Example

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Svd: } \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So the last column of  $\mathbf{V}$  is indeed the solution  $\mathbf{x}$

# Solving Homogeneous Equations - Matlab

```
clear all
close all

% Solve the system of equations Ax = 0
A = [ 1  0  0;
      0  1  0 ];

[U,D,V] = svd(A);
x = V(:,end); % get last column of V
```

- Output

```
>> U
U =
    1    0
    0    1
>> D
D =
    1    0    0
    0    1    0
>> V
V =
    1    0    0
    0    1    0
    0    0    1
>> x
x =
    0
    0
    1
```

# Example

- Solve this system of equations using SVD

$$-3x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3 = 0$$

$$-2x_2 + 4x_3 + 3.5x_4 = 0$$

$$x_1 + x_2 + 5x_3 + 4x_4 = 0$$

$$-2x_1 + 3x_2 + 3x_3 + 0.5x_4 = 0$$

$$-x_1 + x_2 - 5x_3 - 4.5x_4 = 0$$

- What if you have fewer equations?
- What if there is noise in the equation coefficients?

# Another application: Enforcing constraints

- Sometimes you generate a numerical estimate of a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ 
  - The values of  $\mathbf{A}$  are not all independent, but satisfy some algebraic constraints
  - For example, the columns and rows of a rotation matrix should be orthonormal
  - However, the matrix you found,  $\mathbf{A}'$ , does not satisfy the constraints
- SVD can find the closest matrix<sup>1</sup> to  $\mathbf{A}$  that satisfies the constraints exactly
- Procedure:
  - You take the SVD of  $\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T$
  - Create matrix  $\mathbf{D}'$  with singular values equal to those expected when the constraints are satisfied exactly
  - Then  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D}' \mathbf{V}^T$  satisfies the desired constraints by construction

<sup>1</sup>In terms of the Frobenius norm

# Example – rotation matrix

- The singular values of R should all be equal to 1 ... we will enforce this

```
clear all
close all

% Make a valid rotation matrix
ax = 0.1;  ay = -0.2;  az = 0.3;  % radians
Rx = [ 1 0 0; 0 cos(ax) -sin(ax); 0 sin(ax) cos(ax)];
Ry = [ cos(ay) 0 sin(ay); 0 1 0; -sin(ay) 0 cos(ay)];
Rz = [ cos(az) -sin(az) 0; sin(az) cos(az) 0; 0 0 1];

R = Rz * Ry * Rx

% Ok, perturb the elements of R a little
Rp = R + 0.01*randn(3,3)

[U,D,V] = svd(Rp);  % Take SVD of Rp

D  % Here is the actual matrix of singular values

% Recover a valid rotation matrix by enforcing constraints
Rc = U * eye(3,3) * V'
```