

# Singular Value Decomposition and Linear Least Squares

## CSE 6367: Computer Vision

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- It is useful for several purposes:
  - It explains clearly the action of the matrix (as a linear operator) and it can be used to reestablish many elementary properties of matrices
  - It can efficiently compress a matrix with the least loss of information (in a **least squares** sense) by summarizing only the most relevant features and suppressing unnecessary information (e.g. SVD is used for dimensionality reduction by projecting a dataset onto a lower dimensional subspace)

# Eigenvalue Decomposition of Symmetric Matrices

- The **eigenvalue decomposition** (EVD) of a symmetric matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is

$$A = U\Lambda U^T \quad (1)$$

where  $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is diagonal,  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , and  $UU^T = I$  (i.e.  $U$  is orthogonal)

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- We denote the eigenvalues of  $\Lambda_{n \times n}$  by  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  and the columns of  $U$  by  $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$

# EVD Formulation

- Let  $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}_{i=1}^n, \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$  be an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the EVD can be formulated as

$$A\mathbf{u}_i = \lambda_i\mathbf{u}_i \quad (2)$$

where  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$



# EVD Formulation

- Thus,  $A = U\Lambda U^T$  iff  $AU = U\Lambda$ , that is

$$A \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

or equivalently

$$\begin{bmatrix} A\mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & A\mathbf{u}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1\mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \lambda_n\mathbf{u}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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- $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}_{i=1}^n$  is an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and is equivalent with the fact that  $U$  is an orthogonal matrix

# EVD Formulation

- Another equivalent formulation of the EVD is

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^T \quad (3)$$

where  $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}_{i=1}^n$  is as in (2) and  $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^n \subset \mathbb{R}$

# Proof of the EVD Formulation Equivalence

- To prove the equivalence of (1) and (3) we use the following basic identity for multiplying a row of column vectors with a column of row vectors

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_n^T \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{u}_i^T \quad (4)$$

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- We express the equality in (1) as follows

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_n^T \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

# Proof of the EVD Formulation Equivalence

- By applying direct multiplication with a diagonal matrix and then the identity (4), we expand the expression in (5) as follows

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \lambda_n \mathbf{u}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_n^T \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^T$$

and this establishes the equivalence of (1) and (3)

# Eigenvalues of Symmetric Matrices

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- In the special case where a symmetric matrix has the form  $A^T A$  ( $A$  is a rectangular matrix) the eigenvalues are nonnegative
- Thus if  $A^T A \mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$ , then  $\mathbf{v}^T A^T A \mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}$  and consequently

$$\lambda = \frac{\mathbf{v}^T A^T A \mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}} = \frac{\|A\mathbf{v}\|_2^2}{\|\mathbf{v}\|_2^2} = \|A\mathbf{v}\|_2 \geq 0$$

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- Recall that the Euclidean norm of a vector  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  is  $\|\mathbf{y}\|_2 = \sqrt{\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y}}$

# The Thin SVD

- Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and assume that  $m \geq n$  (otherwise we consider  $A^T$ ), then the **thin** SVD of  $A$  is

$$A_{m \times n} = U_{m \times n} \Sigma_{n \times n} V_{n \times n}^T$$

where  $\Sigma$  is a diagonal matrix with nonnegative elements,  $V$  is orthogonal (i.e.  $VV^T = V^TV = I$ ) and  $U$  satisfies

$$U_{m \times n}^T U_{m \times n} = I_{n \times n} \text{ iff } m = n$$

# The Thin SVD

- We refer to the diagonal elements of  $\Sigma$ , denoted by  $\{\sigma_i\}_{i=1}^n$ , as the singular values of  $A$  and order them so that
$$\sigma_1 \geq \cdots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$$

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- We denote the columns of  $V$  by  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  and refer to them as right singular vectors
- Similarly, the columns of  $U$  are denoted by  $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$  and are called left singular vectors

# The Full SVD

- The **full** SVD of  $A$  takes the form

$$A_{m \times n} = U_{m \times m} \Sigma_{m \times n} V_{n \times n}^T$$

where  $U$  and  $V$  are orthogonal matrices and  $\Sigma_{m \times n}$  is obtained from  $\Sigma_{n \times n}$  of the thin SVD by padding it with an  $(m - n) \times n$  block of zeros, i.e.

$$\Sigma_{m \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{n \times n} \\ \mathbf{0}_{(m-n) \times n} \end{bmatrix}$$

# The Compressed SVD

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# The Compressed SVD

- The **compressed** SVD is even thinner than the thin SVD
- Let  $r = r(A)$  be the number of nonzero singular values of  $A$  (note that  $\sigma_1 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > \sigma_{r+1} = \dots = \sigma_n = 0$ ), the compressed SVD of  $A$  has the form

$$A_{m \times n} = U_{m \times r} \Sigma_{r \times r} V_{n \times r}^T$$

where  $\Sigma_{r \times r}$  is diagonal (with positive elements),  
 $U_{m \times r}^T U_{m \times r} = I_{r \times r}$  and  $V_{n \times r}^T V_{n \times r} = I_{r \times r}$

# The Full, Thin, and Compressed SVDs

- The full SVD is common in pure mathematics (due to its use of two orthogonal transformations) and is the default for the MATLAB `svd` command

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# The Full, Thin, and Compressed SVDs

- The full SVD is common in pure mathematics (due to its use of two orthogonal transformations) and is the default for the MATLAB `svd` command
- In practice the thin SVD is more economical and avoids redundant space, it can be obtained from the MATLAB `svd` command by choosing the option 0
- The compressed SVD is even more economical, however the problem is that it is difficult to precisely determine  $r$  (a smaller estimate for  $r$  may be used)

# SVD Formulation (Thin)

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- Similar to the three equivalent formulations of the EVD, the SVD has three equivalent formulations
- For simplicity, we formulate them for the thin SVD

$$A_{m \times n} = U_{m \times n} \Sigma_{n \times n} V_{n \times n}^T \quad (6)$$

where  $\Sigma$  is diagonal with nonnegative elements,  $U^T U = I_{n \times n}$ , and  $V^T V = I_{n \times n}$

# SVD Formulation (Thin)

- Let  $\{\mathbf{v}_i\}_{i=1}^n, i = 1, \dots, n$  be an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\{\mathbf{u}\}_{i=1}^n$  be an orthonormal system for  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\sigma_1 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$ , then

$$A\mathbf{v}_i = \sigma_i\mathbf{u}_i \quad (7)$$

and

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T \quad (8)$$

where  $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ ,  $\{\mathbf{v}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ , and  $\{\sigma_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are as in (2)

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- The equivalence of (6)-(8) is proved similarly to the equivalence of (1)-(3)



# Example: Computing the SVD

- Let

$$A_{3 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and form  $A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

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- Since the trace of this matrix is 12 and the determinant is 35, its eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1 = 7$  and  $\lambda_2 = 5$  and therefore  $\sigma_1 = \sqrt{7}$  and  $\sigma_2 = \sqrt{5}$

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- To form an orthonormal basis we normalize these vectors and obtain  $\mathbf{v}_1 = [1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2}]^T$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2 = [1/\sqrt{2}, -1/\sqrt{2}]^T$

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- To form an orthonormal basis we normalize these vectors and obtain  $\mathbf{v}_1 = [1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2}]^T$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2 = [1/\sqrt{2}, -1/\sqrt{2}]^T$
- Finally,  $\mathbf{u}_1 = \frac{A\mathbf{v}_1}{\sigma_1} = [1/\sqrt{14}, 3/\sqrt{14}, 2/\sqrt{14}]^T$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2 = \frac{A\mathbf{v}_2}{\sigma_2} = [3/\sqrt{10}, -1/\sqrt{10}, 0]^T$

## Example: Computing the SVD

- Since there are no zero singular values, the thin and compressed SVDs are the same and are obtained by  $A = U_{3 \times 2} \Sigma_{2 \times 2} V_{2 \times 2}^T$  where

$$\Sigma_{2 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{7} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}, \quad V_{2 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}, \quad U_{3 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} & \frac{3}{\sqrt{10}} \\ \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{14}} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example: Computing the SVD

- For the full SVD, we need to find a vector  $\mathbf{u}_3$  completing  $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2$  to an orthonormal basis



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- For the full SVD, we need to find a vector  $\mathbf{u}_3$  completing  $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2$  to an orthonormal basis
- Recall that  $\mathbf{u}_1 \times \mathbf{u}_2$  is orthogonal to both  $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2$  thus  $\mathbf{u}_3 = \sqrt{14}\mathbf{u}_1 \times \sqrt{10}\mathbf{u}_2 = [2, 6, -10]^T$  and normalizing by its norm ( $\mathbf{u}_3 = \mathbf{u}_3 / \|\mathbf{u}_3\|_2$ ) we obtain  $\mathbf{u}_3 = [2, 6, -10]^T / \sqrt{140}$

## Example: Computing the SVD

- For the full SVD, we need to find a vector  $\mathbf{u}_3$  completing  $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2$  to an orthonormal basis
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- Therefore, the full SVD is formed as  $A = U_{3 \times 3} \Sigma_{3 \times 2} V_{2 \times 2}^T$  where

$$\Sigma_{3 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{7} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{5} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, V_{2 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}, U_{3 \times 3} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} & \frac{3}{\sqrt{10}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{140}} \\ \frac{3}{\sqrt{140}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} & \frac{6}{\sqrt{140}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{14}} & 0 & -\frac{10}{\sqrt{140}} \end{bmatrix}$$

# The SVD and the Inverse

- If  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $\text{rank}(A) = n$ , then  $A$  is invertible and there exists a unique **inverse**  $B = A^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $BA = AB = I_{n \times n}$

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- If  $A_{n \times n} = U_{n \times n} \Sigma_{n \times n} V_{n \times n}^T$ , then

$$A^{-1} = V \Sigma^{-1} U^T$$

since  $U_{n \times n}^T U_{n \times n} = I_{n \times n}$ ,  $U^{-1} = U^T$ , and similarly  $(V^T)^{-1} = V$

# The SVD and the Inverse

- If  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $\text{rank}(A) = n$ , then  $A$  is invertible and there exists a unique **inverse**  $B = A^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $BA = AB = I_{n \times n}$

- If  $A_{n \times n} = U_{n \times n} \Sigma_{n \times n} V_{n \times n}^T$ , then

$$A^{-1} = V \Sigma^{-1} U^T$$

since  $U_{n \times n}^T U_{n \times n} = I_{n \times n}$ ,  $U^{-1} = U^T$ , and similarly  $(V^T)^{-1} = V$

- Combining these observations with the identity  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$  we conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} A^{-1} &= (U_{n \times n} \Sigma_{n \times n} V_{n \times n}^T)^{-1} \\ &= (V_{n \times n}^T)^{-1} \Sigma^{-1} U^{-1} \\ &= V \Sigma^{-1} U^T \end{aligned}$$

# The SVD and the Pseudoinverse

- If  $A_{m \times n}$  with  $m \geq n$  and  $\text{rank}(A) = n$ , then we define the **pseudoinverse** of  $A$  as the matrix  $B = A^\dagger$  that satisfies

$$BA = I_{n \times n} \quad (9)$$

$$\text{and } AB \text{ is symmetric} \quad (10)$$

# The SVD and the Pseudoinverse

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- If  $m = n$ , then the pseudoinverse coincides with the inverse

# The SVD and the Pseudoinverse

- To show that the pseudoinverse is uniquely defined we start by multiplying (9) by  $A$  from the left to obtain

$$ABA = A \tag{11}$$



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- To show that the pseudoinverse is uniquely defined we start by multiplying (9) by  $A$  from the left to obtain

$$ABA = A \quad (11)$$

- Applying the transpose to both sides of (11) results in

$$A^T(AB)^T = A^T \quad (12)$$

# The SVD and the Pseudoinverse

- It follows from (10) and (12) that

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# The SVD and the Pseudoinverse

- It follows from (10) and (12) that

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- Since  $A$  has full rank the matrix  $A^T A$  is invertible and thus (13) implies that the pseudoinverse  $B = A^\dagger$  is uniquely defined and can be computed as

$$A^\dagger = B = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \quad (14)$$

# The SVD and the Pseudoinverse

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- If  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ , then plugging this into (14) yields

$$A^\dagger = V\Sigma^{-1}U^T \quad (15)$$

# The SVD and the Pseudoinverse

- We can also express the pseudoinverse in terms of the SVD of  $A$
- If  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ , then plugging this into (14) yields

$$A^\dagger = V\Sigma^{-1}U^T \quad (15)$$

- Note that (15) implies that  $AA^\dagger = UU^T$  (and that  $A^\dagger A = I$ ), that is  $AA^\dagger$  is the orthogonal projector onto the image of  $A$  (if  $m = n$  then clearly this orthogonal projector is  $I$ )

# The SVD and the Pseudoinverse

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# The SVD and the Pseudoinverse

- It is worthy to note that the computation of the pseudoinverse by (15) is numerically more stable than that in (14)
- In particular, the multiplication  $A^T A$  in (14) followed by matrix inversion accumulates significant numerical error



# Review Question

Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Find the thin SVD of  $A$  (use MATLAB to check your answer)

# The Least Squares Problem

- Given  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , the **least squares problem** is to find an  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  that minimizes  $\|A\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2$

# The Least Squares Problem

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- The minimizing vector  $\mathbf{x}$  is called a **least squares solution** of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$

# The Normal Equations

- A solution  $\mathbf{x}$  of the least squares problem is a solution of the linear system

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

and the system is nonsingular iff  $A$  has linearly independent columns

# The Normal Equations

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and the system is nonsingular iff  $A$  has linearly independent columns

- The linear system  $A^T A \mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{b}$  is called the **normal equations**

# Solving the Least Squares Problem using SVD

- Since  $A^T A \mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{b}$  we obtain  $\mathbf{x} = A^\dagger \mathbf{b}$  where  $A^\dagger = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$  is the pseudoinverse

# Solving the Least Squares Problem using SVD

- Since  $A^T A \mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{b}$  we obtain  $\mathbf{x} = A^\dagger \mathbf{b}$  where  $A^\dagger = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$  is the pseudoinverse
- Using the SVD, we can compute the solution set as

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x} &= A^\dagger \mathbf{b} \\ &= V \Sigma^{-1} U^T \mathbf{b}\end{aligned}$$

and thus the pseudoinverse provides the optimal solution to the least squares problem

# Review Question

Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 6 & -1 & 2 \\ 9 & -4 & 3 \\ 7 & -2 & 1 \\ 3 & 8 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -3 \\ 7 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Using the MATLAB `svd` command, find a vector  $\mathbf{x}$  that minimizes  $\|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|_2$



# Fitting a Line in $\mathbb{R}^2$

- Suppose  $\{[x_i, y_i]^T\}_{i=1}^N \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  and for a line  $l$  in the plane define  $t_i = t_i(x_i, y_i, l)$  as the vertical distance from a point  $[x_i, y_i]^T$  to the line

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- Define the  $A$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$ , and  $\mathbf{b}$  by

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ x_n & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

and minimize  $\|A\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2$  over all  $\mathbf{x} = [a, b]^T \in \mathbb{R}^2$

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- Similar to the  $\mathbb{R}^2$  case, define the  $A$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$ , and  $\mathbf{b}$  by

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1,1} & \cdots & x_{1,d} & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{n,1} & \cdots & x_{n,d} & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_d \\ b \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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- Define  $A$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$ , and  $\mathbf{b}$  by

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and minimize  $\|A\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2$  over all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3$

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- The motivation for doing this is that the most second order information is located along these directions

# Finding the Best $d$ -Dimensional Subspace

- Given the data points  $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n \subset \mathbb{R}^D$  we want to find  $l$ , a  $d$ -dimensional subspace ( $1 \leq d < D$ ) which minimizes  $\sum_{i=1}^n \text{dist}(\mathbf{x}_i, l)$

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- This is the orthogonal distance from the data points to the subspace among all  $d$ -dimensional subspaces  $I$  of  $\mathbb{R}^D$

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For example, to find the first coordinate of the center of mass  $\mathbf{x}_{cm_1}$ , sum the first coordinate of all data points and divide by  $n$

- Step 2: Shift the data points so that the center of mass is at the origin, e.g.  $\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_{cm}$



# PCA via SVD

- Step 3: Form

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$

where the  $\mathbf{x}_i$  are the new  $\mathbf{x}_i$  formed in step 2

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- Step 5: Output  $I = \mathbf{x}_{cm} + \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_d\}$

# Image Approximation using PCA



- The original image (left) compared to its approximating image using  $d$  principal components (right).

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