Diagnostic Medical Image Processing Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

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Singular Value Decomposition





- Powerful normal form for matrices that allows for a simple solution of most linear problems in imaging and image processing.
- Method of numerical linear algebra
 - invented in the 19th century,
 - rediscovered and pushed for practical application by Gene Golub,
 - established in computer vision by Carlo Tomasi's famous factorization algorithm to compute structure and camera motion from image sequences
 - extremely robust, and simple to use.

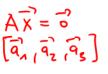


Singular Value Decomposition



SVD is a perfect tool for the

- computation of singular values
- computation of null space
- computation of (pseudo-) inverse
- solution of overdetermined linear equations
- computation of condition numbers
- enforcing rank criterion (numerical rank)
- etc.







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On the Geometry of Linear Mappings



From linear algebra, we know that a matrix \boldsymbol{A} maps the unit vectors of the standard base to the corresponding column vector of matrix \boldsymbol{A} .

Example

$$m{A}egin{pmatrix} 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \end{pmatrix} = (m{a}_1, m{a}_2, \dots, m{a}_6) egin{pmatrix} 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \end{pmatrix} = m{a}_4.$$

Example:
$$R = X$$

$$R(0) = (6)$$

On the Geometry of Linear Mappings



Example

Compute the orthogonal matrix \mathbf{R} , i.e. $\mathbf{R}^{-1} = \mathbf{R}^{\mathsf{T}}$, that rotates points in the 2-D image plane by θ . **Solution**:

The base vectors are mapped as follows:

$$\left(\begin{array}{c}1\\0\end{array}\right)\mapsto\left(\begin{array}{c}\cos\theta\\\sin\theta\end{array}\right)\tag{1}$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} 0\\1\end{array}\right)\mapsto \left(\begin{array}{c} -\sin\theta\\\cos\theta\end{array}\right) \tag{2}$$

and thus the 2-D rotation matrix is:

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \tag{3}$$

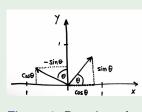


Figure 1: Rotation of 2-D unit vectors

On the Geometry of Linear Mappings



If \bf{A} is a real $(m \times n)$ matrix of rank r, then \bf{A} maps the unit hyper-sphere in the n-dimensional space to an r-dimensional hyper-ellipsoid in the m-dimensional space.

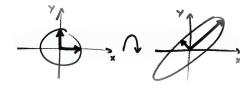


Figure 2: Rank 2 Matrix **A** maps 2-D unit sphere to the 2-D ellipse



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Normal Form of Matrices: SVD



Theorem

If **A** is a real $(m \times n)$ matrix, then there exist orthogonal matrices $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ and $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that

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

where

$$\Sigma = diag(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_p) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$
 (4)

with $p = \min(m, n)$; the diagonal elements σ_i are the **singular values** that fulfill

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \cdots \geq \sigma_p \geq 0.$$
 (5)



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Properties of SVD: Rank, Norm and Eigenvectors



The Singular Value Decomposition shows many extremely useful properties that are listed here without proof:

- Rank of matrix **A**: rank(**A**) = $\#\{\sigma_i > 0\} = r$
- Numerical ϵ -rank of matrix **A**: rank $_{\epsilon}(\mathbf{A}) = \#\{\sigma_i > \epsilon\}$
- $\mathbf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^{\mathsf{T}}$
- The Frobenius norm of the matrix **A** is given by

$$||\mathbf{A}||_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{i,j}^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{\min(m,n)} \sigma_i^2}$$

- **A** $v_i = \sigma_i u_i$ and $A^T u_i = \sigma_i v_i$
- The column vectors of \mathbf{U} are the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}$:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{u}_{i}=\sigma_{i}^{2}\mathbf{u}_{i}$$

■ The column vectors of V are the eigenvectors of A^TA :

$$\mathbf{A}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}_i = \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{v}_i$$

Properties of SVD



- The SVD yields orthonormal bases for the kernel (null-space) and the range of a matrix **A**:
 - The kernel of matrix \mathbf{A} is spanned by the column vectors \mathbf{v}_i of \mathbf{V} , where the corresponding singular values fulfill $\sigma_i = 0$.
 - The range of matrix \boldsymbol{A} is spanned by the column vectors \boldsymbol{u}_i of \boldsymbol{U} , where σ_i are the corresponding non–zero singular values.
- For the 2-norm of matrix **A** we get:

$$||\boldsymbol{A}||_2^2 = \max_{||\boldsymbol{x}||_2=1} \boldsymbol{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{A}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x} = \sigma_1^2$$

and if **A** is regular we even have:

$$||\mathbf{A}^{-1}||_2^2 = \frac{1}{\sigma_p^2}$$



Example

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 11 & 10 & 14 \\ 12 & 11 & -13 \\ 14 & 13 & -66 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{U} \Sigma \mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}}$$
 (6)

where

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix}
0.1285 & 0.8375 & 0.5311 \\
-0.2396 & 0.5459 & -0.8028 \\
-0.9623 & -0.0241 & 0.2708
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix}
71.3967 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 21.7831 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0.0006
\end{pmatrix}$$

 $\mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.2092 & 0.7082 & -0.6743 \\ -0.1941 & 0.6458 & 0.7384 \\ 0.9584 & 0.2854 & 0.0024 \end{pmatrix}$

(8)

(9)

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Example

- Obviously matrix **A** has a rank deficiency, if we select $\epsilon = 10^{-3}$.
- The kernel of **A** is given by:

$$\mathsf{kernel}(\mathbf{A}) = \left\{ k \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -0.6743 \\ 0.7384 \\ 0.0024 \end{pmatrix}; k \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

■ The range of A is:

range(
$$\mathbf{A}$$
) = $\left\{ k \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0.1285 \\ -0.2396 \\ -0.9623 \end{pmatrix} + I \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0.8375 \\ 0.5459 \\ -0.0241 \end{pmatrix} ; k, l \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$



III-conditioned Matrix



Definition

A matrix **A** is called **ill-conditioned** if for a given linear system

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

minor changes in **b** cause major changes in **x**

Definition

The **condition number** of a regular matrix \boldsymbol{A} with respect to a matrix norm ||.|| is defined by

$$\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = ||\mathbf{A}^{-1}|| \cdot ||\mathbf{A}||$$

If **A** is singular, $\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = +\infty$.



III-conditioned Matrix



Remarks

- A matrix with a condition number close to 1 is called well-conditioned.
- A matrix with a condition number significantly greater than 1 is said to be **ill-conditioned**.
- The condition number is a measure of the stability or sensitivity of a matrix.
- Using the 2-norm, the condition number of the quadratic matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ can be computed by SVD:

$$\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_n} \tag{10}$$

where σ_1 is the largest, and σ_n is the smallest singular value.

■ The SVD allows for the exact computation of the condition number, but it is computationally expensive.

III-conditioned Matrix



Example

Consider the previous matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 11 & 10 & 14 \\ 12 & 11 & -13 \\ 14 & 13 & -66 \end{array}\right)$$

where we obviously have $\det \mathbf{A} = 1$. The singular value decomposition of \mathbf{A} results in the singular values:

$$\sigma_1 = 71.3967, \sigma_2 = 21.7831, \text{ and } \sigma_3 = 0.0006.$$

Thus the condition number $\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = 118994.5$.

Exercise problem:

Show that a variation in \boldsymbol{b} by 0.1% implies a change in \boldsymbol{x} by 240%.





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Let us consider the following problem that appears in many image processing and computer vision problems:

We computed a matrix \boldsymbol{A} out of sensor data like an image. By theory the matrix \boldsymbol{A} must have the singular values $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \ldots, \sigma_p$, where $p = \min(m, n)$. Of course, in practice \boldsymbol{A} does not fulfill this constraint.

Problem: What is the matrix \mathbf{A}' that is closest to \mathbf{A} (according to the Frobenius norm) and has the required singular values?

Solution: Let $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^\mathsf{T}$, then

$$\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{U} \operatorname{diag}(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_p) \mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}}$$





Example

The measurements lead to the following matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 11 & 10 & 14 \\ 12 & 11 & -13 \\ 14 & 13 & -66 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{U} \Sigma \mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

Let us assume that by theoretical arguments the matrix \boldsymbol{A} is required to have a rank deficiency of one, and the two non-zero singular values are identical. The matrix \boldsymbol{A}' that is closest to \boldsymbol{A} according to the Frobenius norm and fulfills the above requirements is:

$$\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{U} \operatorname{diag}((71.3967 + 21.7831)/2, (71.3967 + 21.7831)/2, 0)\mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}}$$





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Problem: In image processing, we are often required to solve the following optimization problem:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{x}} \boldsymbol{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x}$$
 subject to $||\boldsymbol{x}||_2 = 1$. (11)

or in the extreme:

$$Ax = 0$$
 subject to $||x||_2 = 1$. (12)

Solution: The solution can be constructed using the rightmost column of \boldsymbol{V} (check this!).





Example

Estimate the matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ such that for the following vectors

$$m{b}_1 = \left(egin{array}{c} 1 \\ 1 \end{array}
ight), m{b}_2 = \left(egin{array}{c} -1 \\ 2 \end{array}
ight), m{b}_3 = \left(egin{array}{c} 1 \\ -3 \end{array}
ight), m{b}_4 = \left(egin{array}{c} -1 \\ -4 \end{array}
ight)$$

the optimization problem gets solved:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{4} \boldsymbol{b}^{\mathsf{T}}_{i} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{b}_{i} \to \min \quad \text{s.t.} \quad ||\boldsymbol{A}||_{F} = 1$$



Example

The objective function is linear in the components of **A**, thus the whole sum can be rewritten in matrix notation:

$$\mathbf{Ma} = \mathbf{M} \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} \\ a_{1,2} \\ a_{2,1} \\ a_{2,2} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad ||\mathbf{a}||_2 = 1$$

where the **measurement matrix M** is built from single elements of the sum. Let us consider the *i*-th component:

$$m{b}^{\mathsf{T}}{}_{i}m{A}m{b}_{i} = m{b}^{\mathsf{T}}{}_{i}\left(egin{array}{cc} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} \ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} \end{array}
ight)m{b}_{i} = (b_{i,1}^{2}, b_{i,1}b_{i,2}, b_{i,1}b_{i,2}, b_{i,2}^{2}) \left(egin{array}{cc} a_{1,1} \ a_{1,2} \ a_{2,1} \ a_{2,2} \end{array}
ight)$$



Example

Using this result we get for the overall measurement matrix:

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{1,1}^2 & b_{1,1}b_{1,2} & b_{1,1}b_{1,2} & b_{1,2}^2 \\ b_{2,1}^2 & b_{2,1}b_{2,2} & b_{2,1}b_{2,2} & b_{2,2}^2 \\ b_{3,1}^2 & b_{3,1}b_{3,2} & b_{3,1}b_{3,2} & b_{3,2}^2 \\ b_{4,1}^2 & b_{4,1}b_{4,2} & b_{4,1}b_{4,2} & b_{4,2}^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & -2 & 4 \\ 1 & -3 & -3 & 9 \\ 1 & 4 & 4 & 16 \end{pmatrix}$$

The nullspace of **M** can be computed by SVD and yields the required matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & -0.7071 \\ 0.7071 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$





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Problem: Another quite important optimization problem in image processing and pattern recognition is the following: Given a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. Compute the matrix $\widehat{\mathbf{B}} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ of rank k < n that minimizes:

$$\widehat{\textbf{\textit{B}}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\textbf{\textit{B}}} ||\textbf{\textit{A}} - \textbf{\textit{B}}||_2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \operatorname{rank}(\textbf{\textit{B}}) = k \quad .$$

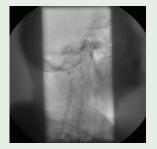
Solution: Using SVD, the solution is quite simple:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{B}} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sigma_i \boldsymbol{u}_i \boldsymbol{v}_i^{\mathsf{T}} .$$



Example

The SVD can be used to compute the image matrix of rank 1 that best approximates an image. Figure ?? shows an example of an image I and its rank-1-approximation $I' = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T$.



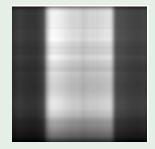


Figure 3: Original X-ray image and its rank-1-approximation



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Problem: The **Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse** is required to find the solution to the following optimization problem:

$$||\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}||_2 \to 0 \tag{13}$$

Solution: The least square solution of this equation is given by

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{b} \tag{14}$$

where we get based on the SVD of A:

$$\mathbf{A}^{\dagger} = (\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{V}\Sigma^{\dagger}\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}. \tag{15}$$





The diagonal matrix in the pseudo-inverse is defined via:

$$\Sigma^{\dagger} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_{1}} & & & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ & \ddots & & & & & & \\ & & \frac{1}{\sigma_{r}} & & \vdots & & \vdots & \\ & & 0 & & & & \\ & & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$$
 (16)

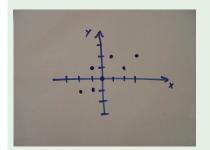
where $\sigma_r > \epsilon$ is the smallest nonzero singular value.





Example

Compute the regression line through the following 2-D points:



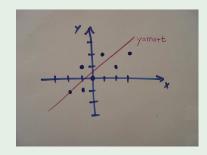


Figure 4: Regression line through 2-D points



All points (x_i, y_i) , i = 1, ..., 7, have to fulfill the line equation:

$$y_i = mx_i + t$$
, for $i = 1, \dots, 7$

Thus we get the system of linear equations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} m \\ t \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$



The Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse for this particular problem is:

$$\mathbf{A}^{\dagger} = \left(\begin{array}{cccccc} 0.14 & 0.09 & 0.04 & -0.01 & -0.07 & -0.07 & -0.12 \\ 0.11 & 0.12 & 0.13 & 0.15 & 0.16 & 0.16 & 0.18 \end{array} \right)$$

The resulting line equation thus is:

$$y = 0.56x + 0.41$$

Remarks on SVD Computation



- For us SVD is a black box; we do not consider algorithms to compute the SVD numerically.
- SVD can be computed for any matrix
- SVD is numerically robust
- Time complexity to decompose $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$:

$$4m^2n + 8mn^2 + 9n^3$$

■ In most practical situations we have more rows than columns, i.e. m >> n.





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Take Home Messages



- SVD is *the* tool for linear equations it cannot fail (but in many special cases there may exist better solutions).
- SVD is provided by all standard libraries.
- SVD is always our first choice.
- SVD is most probably the right answer to any question in the oral exam. Give it a try and check its limitations!



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Further Readings



- Read the original: Gene H. Golub, Charles F. Van Loan: Matrix Computations, Johns Hopkins Studies in Mathematical Sciences, 3rd edition, The Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, 1996 (amazon the book right here).
- A very detailed and easy to follow introduction of the SVD can be found in Carlo Tomasi's class notes (download pdf, chapter 3) ... a must-read.
- The theory is described in an easy to read format (one of my favorite books!):
 Lloyd N. Trefethen, David Bau: Numerical Linear Algebra,
 Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1997 (amazon the book right here).



Further Readings



For numerical computation of SVD see: William H. Press, Saul A. Teukolsky, William T. Vetterling: Numerical Recipes in C The Art of Scientific Computing, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1993 (c.f. NR Web Page).