

Linear Algebra Review

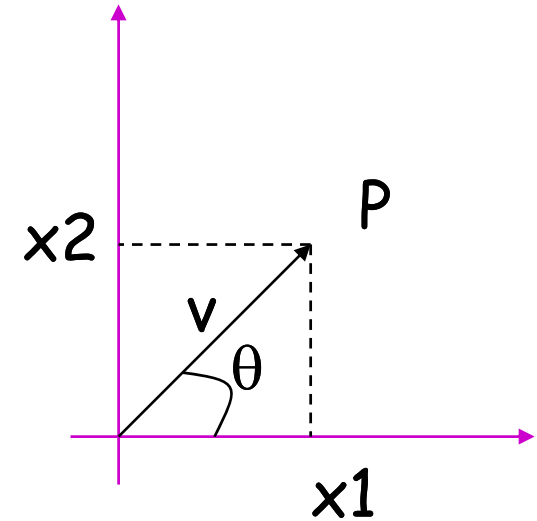
Most slides are courtesy of Prof. Octavia I. Camps, Penn State University, with some modification

Why do we need Linear Algebra?

- We will associate coordinates to
 - 3D points in the scene
 - 2D points in the CCD array
 - 2D points in the image
- Coordinates will be used to
 - Perform geometrical transformations
 - Associate 3D with 2D points
- Images are matrices of numbers
 - We will find properties of these numbers

2D Vector

$$\mathbf{v} = (x_1, x_2)$$



Magnitude: $\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$

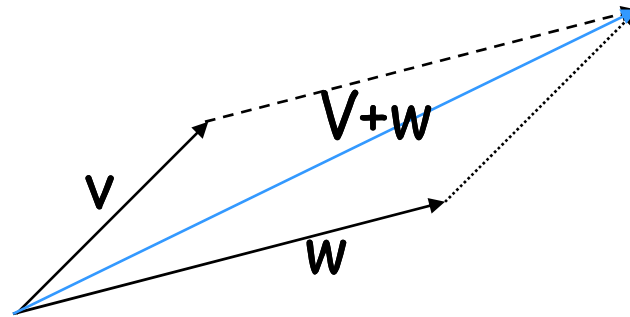
If $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$, \mathbf{v} Is a UNIT vector

$$\frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} = \left(\frac{x_1}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}, \frac{x_2}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \right) \text{ Is a unit vector}$$

Orientation: $\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x_2}{x_1}\right)$

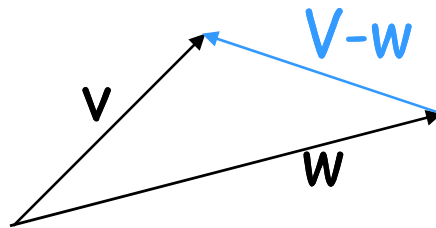
Vector Addition

$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = (x_1, x_2) + (y_1, y_2) = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2)$$



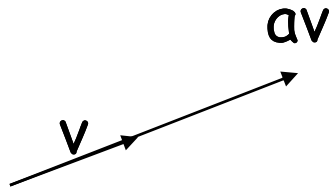
Vector Subtraction

$$\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w} = (x_1, x_2) - (y_1, y_2) = (x_1 - y_1, x_2 - y_2)$$



Scalar Product

$$a\mathbf{v} = a(x_1, x_2) = (ax_1, ax_2)$$



Linearly independent vectors

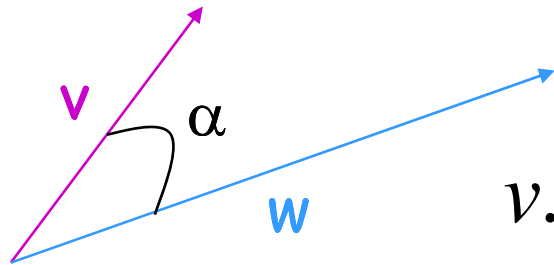
- No vector is a linear combination of others,
- or equivalently

$$\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \lambda_3 v_3 + \dots + \lambda_i v_i = 0 \quad \text{only for } \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \dots = \lambda_i = 0$$

Basis

- $\text{span}(V)$: span of a set of vectors V is all linear combinations of vectors v_i , i.e. a vector space.
- Basis of a vector space: a set of vectors that are linearly independent and that span the space.

Inner (dot) Product



$$v \cdot w = (x_1, x_2) \cdot (y_1, y_2) = x_1 y_1 + x_2 \cdot y_2$$

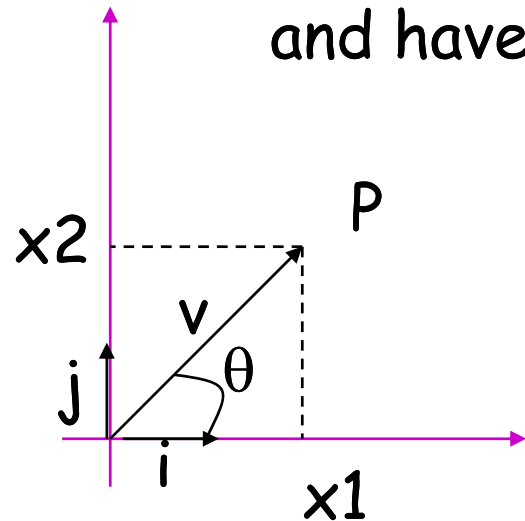
The inner product is a **SCALAR!**

$$v \cdot w = (x_1, x_2) \cdot (y_1, y_2) = \|v\| \cdot \|w\| \cos \alpha$$

$$v \cdot w = 0 \Leftrightarrow v \perp w$$

Orthonormal Basis

basis vectors are perpendicular to each other and have unit length.



$$\mathbf{i} = (1,0) \quad \|\mathbf{i}\| = 1$$

$$\mathbf{j} = (0,1) \quad \|\mathbf{j}\| = 1$$

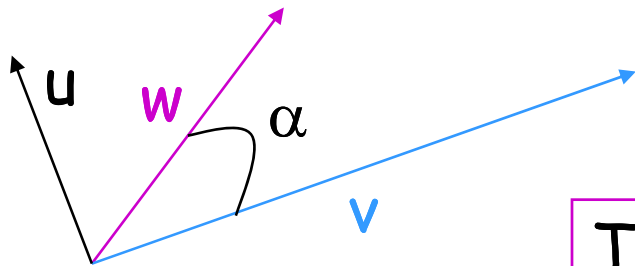
$$\mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{j} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{v} = (x_1, x_2) \quad \mathbf{v} = x_1 \cdot \mathbf{i} + x_2 \cdot \mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{i} = (x_1 \cdot \mathbf{i} + x_2 \cdot \mathbf{j}) \cdot \mathbf{i} = x_1 \cdot 1 + x_2 \cdot 0 = x_1$$

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{j} = (x_1 \cdot \mathbf{i} + x_2 \cdot \mathbf{j}) \cdot \mathbf{j} = x_1 \cdot 0 + x_2 \cdot 1 = x_2$$

Vector (cross) Product



$$u = v \times w$$

The cross product is a **VECTOR!**

Magnitude: $\| u \| = \| v \cdot w \| = \| v \| \| w \| \sin \alpha$

Orientation:

$$u \perp v \Rightarrow u \cdot v = (v \times w) \cdot v = 0$$

$$u \perp w \Rightarrow u \cdot w = (v \times w) \cdot w = 0$$

Vector Product Computation

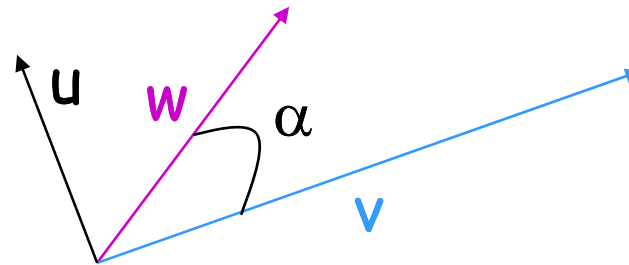
$$\mathbf{i} = (1,0,0) \quad \|\mathbf{i}\|=1$$

$$\mathbf{j} = (0,1,0) \quad \|\mathbf{j}\|=1 \quad \mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{j} = 0, \mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{k} = 0, \mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{k} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{k} = (0,0,1) \quad \|\mathbf{k}\|=1$$

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w} = (x_1, x_2, x_3) \times (y_1, y_2, y_3)$$

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ y_1 & y_2 & y_3 \end{vmatrix}$$



$$= (x_2 y_3 - x_3 y_2) \mathbf{i} + (x_3 y_1 - x_1 y_3) \mathbf{j} + (x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1) \mathbf{k}$$

Matrices

$$A_{n \times m} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2m} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & \cdots & a_{3m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

Sum:

$$C_{n \times m} = A_{n \times m} + B_{n \times m}$$

$$c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}$$


A and B must have the same dimensions

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 \\ 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrices

Product:

$$C_{n \times p} = A_{n \times m} B_{m \times p}$$


A and B must have compatible dimensions

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^m a_{ik} b_{kj}$$

$$A_{n \times n} B_{n \times n} \neq B_{n \times n} A_{n \times n}$$

Examples:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 17 & 29 \\ 19 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 32 \\ 17 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrices

Transpose:

$$C_{m \times n} = A^T_{n \times m}$$

$$c_{ij} = a_{ji}$$

$$(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$$

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

If $A^T = A$ A is symmetric

Examples:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrices

Determinant: A must be square

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{21}a_{12}$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix}$$

Example: $\det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 2 - 15 = -13$

Matrices

Inverse:

A must be square

$$A_{n \times n} A_{n \times n}^{-1} = A_{n \times n}^{-1} A_{n \times n} = I$$

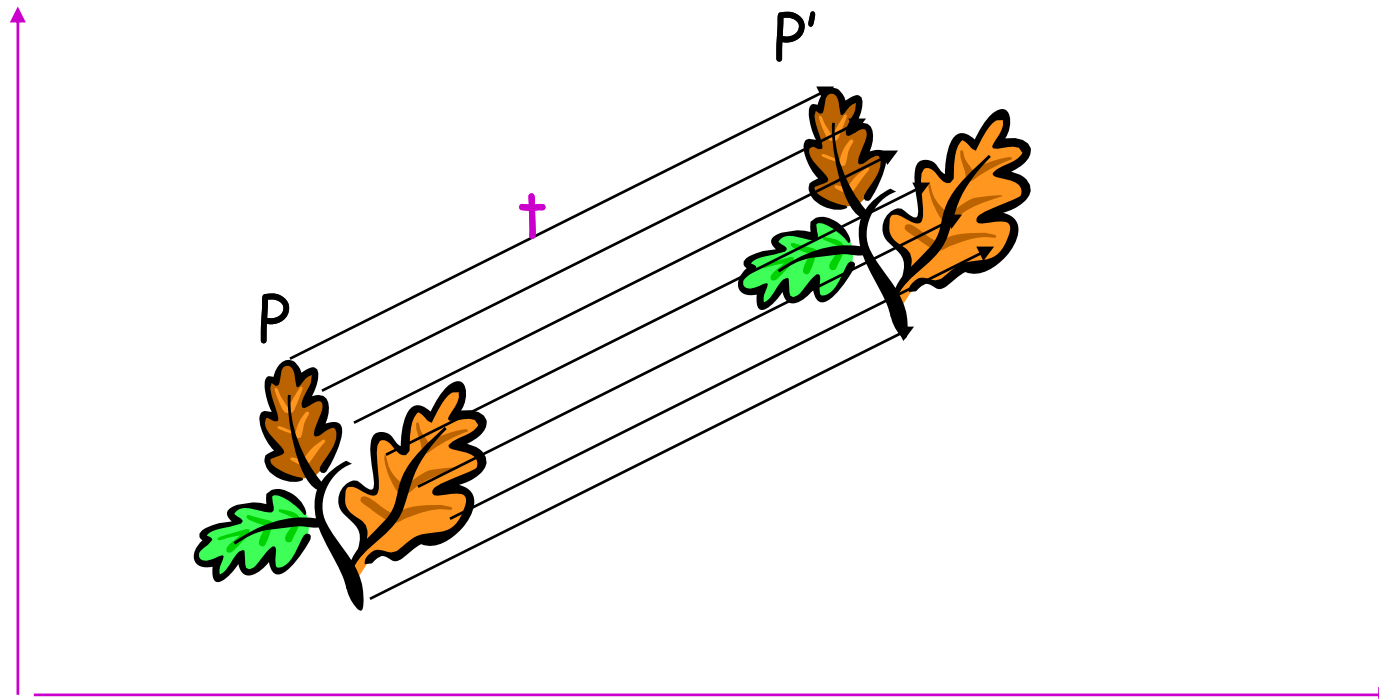
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{a_{11}a_{22} - a_{21}a_{12}} \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: $\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{28} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 \\ -1 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

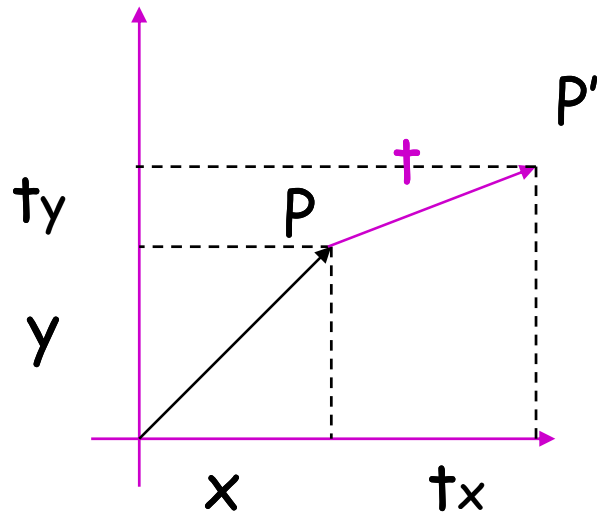
$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{28} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 \\ -1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{28} \begin{bmatrix} 28 & 0 \\ 0 & 28 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

2D Geometrical Transformations

2D Translation



2D Translation Equation

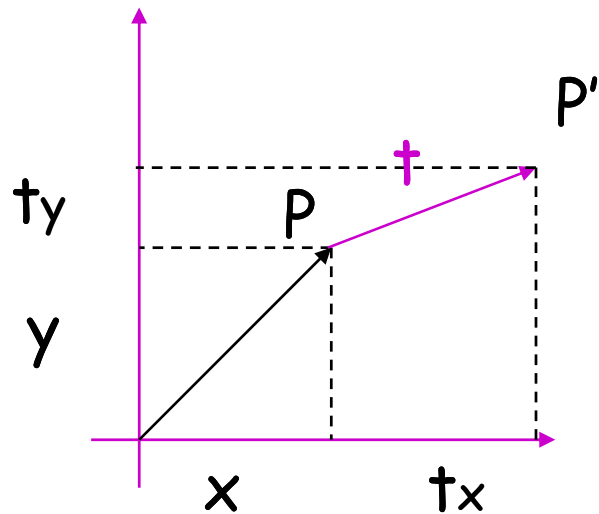


$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y)$$

$$\mathbf{t} = (t_x, t_y)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = (x + t_x, y + t_y) = \mathbf{P} + \mathbf{t}$$

2D Translation using Matrices



$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y)$$

$$\mathbf{t} = (t_x, t_y)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x + t_x \\ y + t_y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} t_x \\ t_y \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The diagram shows the matrix multiplication for 2D translation. The translation vector \mathbf{t} is shown as a pink box containing t_x and t_y . The point \mathbf{P} is shown as a black box containing x , y , and 1 . A pink arrow points to the 1 in the point vector, and a red arrow points to the 1 in the translation vector.

Homogeneous Coordinates

- Multiply the coordinates by a non-zero scalar and add an extra coordinate equal to that scalar. For example,

$$(x, y) \rightarrow (x \cdot z, y \cdot z, z) \quad z \neq 0$$

$$(x, y, z) \rightarrow (x \cdot w, y \cdot w, z \cdot w, w) \quad w \neq 0$$

- **NOTE:** If the scalar is 1, there is no need for the multiplication!

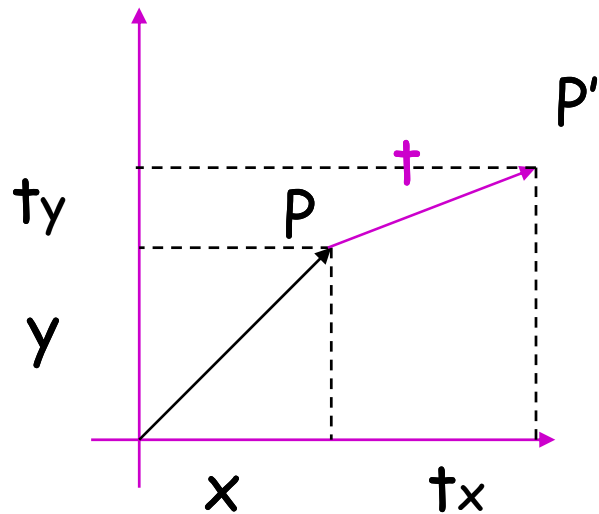
Back to Cartesian Coordinates:

- Divide by the last coordinate and eliminate it. For example,

$$(x, y, z) \quad z \neq 0 \rightarrow (x/z, y/z)$$

$$(x, y, z, w) \quad w \neq 0 \rightarrow (x/w, y/w, z/w)$$

2D Translation using Homogeneous Coordinates



$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow (x, y, 1)$$

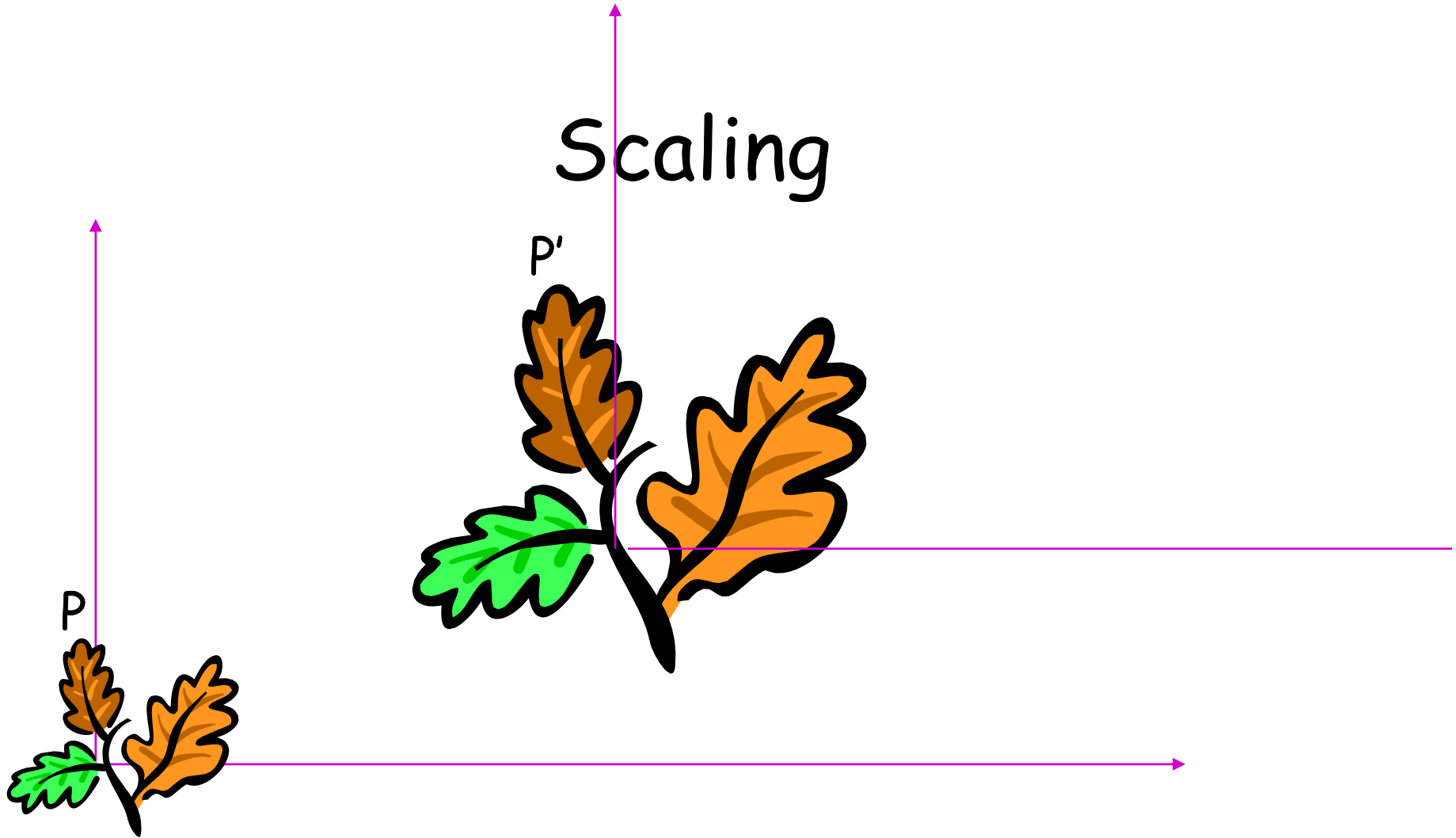
$$\mathbf{t} = (t_x, t_y) \rightarrow (t_x, t_y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x + t_x \\ y + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{T}} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

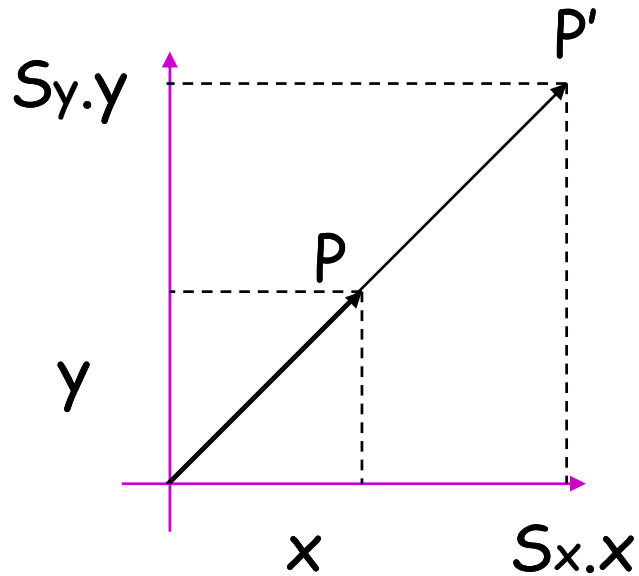
The matrix T is highlighted with a pink box, and the vector [x, y, 1]^T is also highlighted with a pink box. A pink arrow points from the top-right corner of the dashed rectangle in the diagram to the top-right corner of the matrix T.

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

Scaling



Scaling Equation



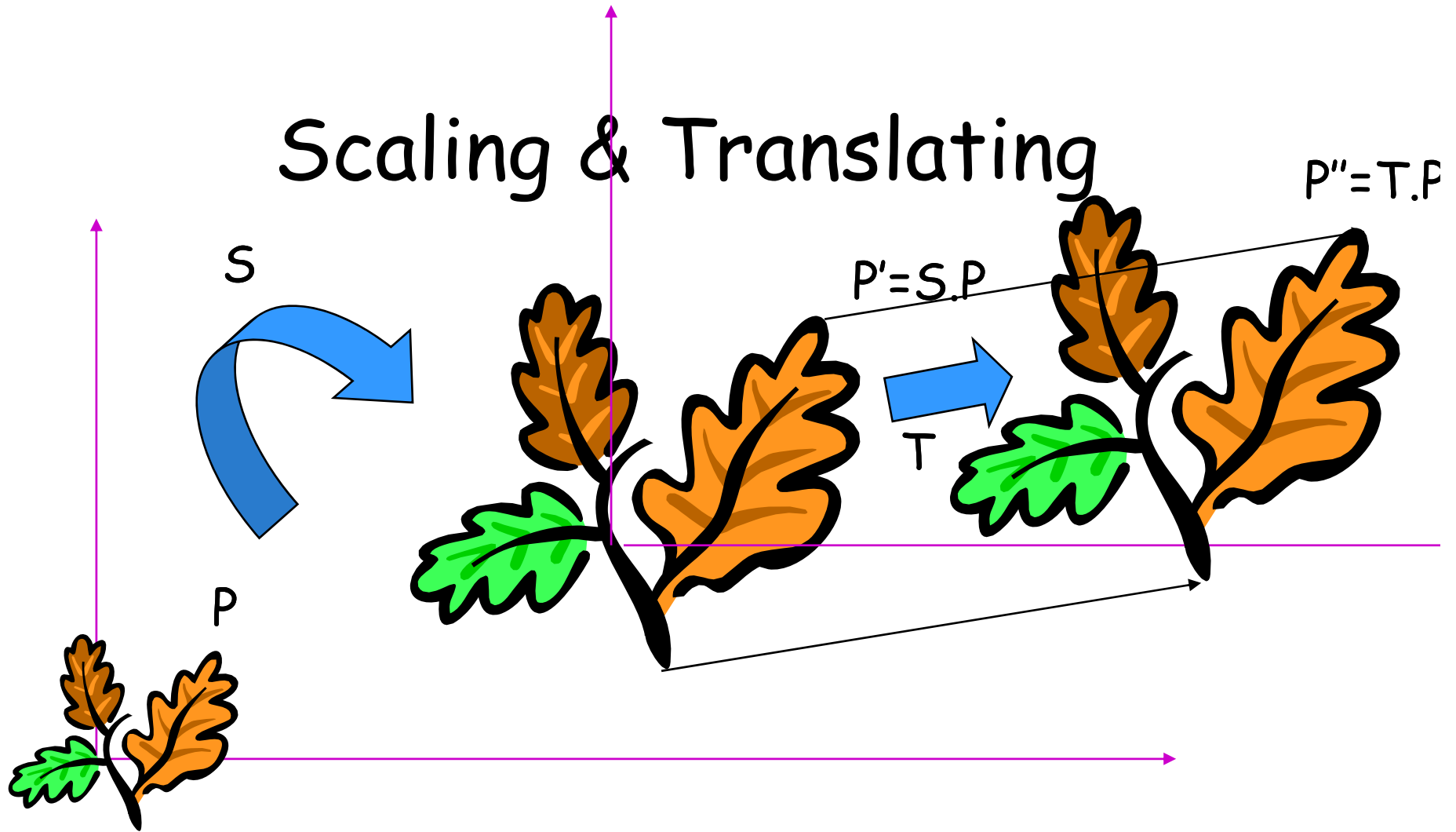
$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow (x, y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = (s_x x, s_y y) \rightarrow (s_x x, s_y y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} s_x x \\ s_y y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

Scaling & Translating



$$P'' = T.P' = T.(S.P) = (T.S).P$$

Scaling & Translating

$$P'' = T \cdot P' = T \cdot (S \cdot P) = (T \cdot S) \cdot P$$

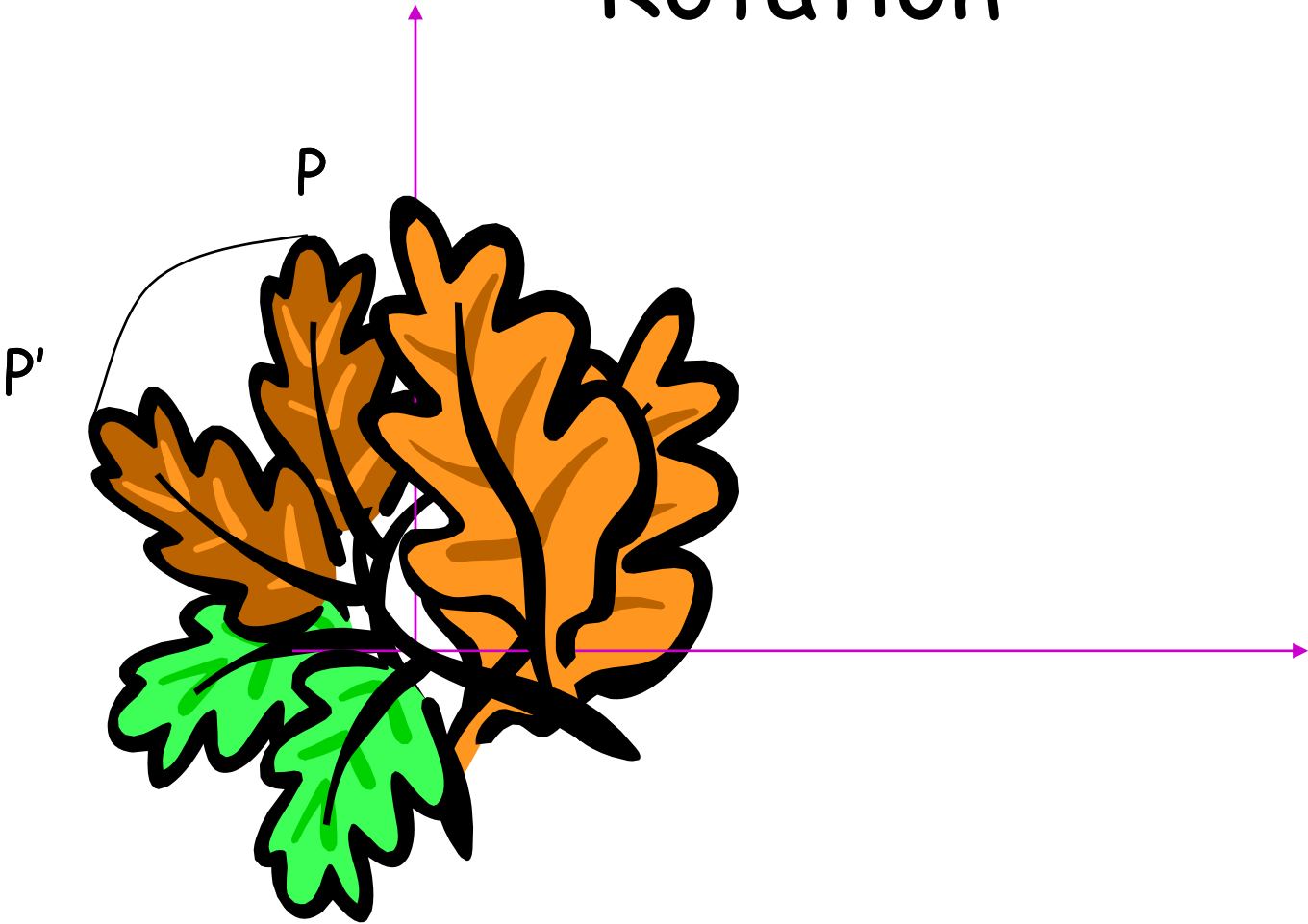
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}'' = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{P} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & s_y & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x x + t_x \\ s_y y + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Translating & Scaling ≠ Scaling & Translating

$$P'' = S.P' = S.(T.P) = (S.T).P$$

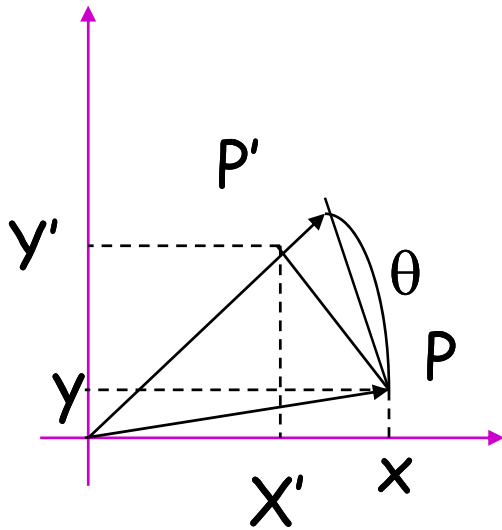
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}'' = \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{P} &= \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & s_x t_x \\ 0 & s_y & s_y t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x x + s_x t_x \\ s_y y + s_y t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Rotation



Rotation Equations

Counter-clockwise rotation by an angle θ



$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

Degrees of Freedom

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

R is 2x2 \longrightarrow 4 elements

BUT! There is only 1 degree of freedom: θ

The 4 elements must satisfy the following constraints:

$$\mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{R}^T = \mathbf{R}^T \cdot \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I} \quad \text{i.e. R is an orthogonal matrix}$$

Orthogonal matrix

For square matrix A ,

A is an orthogonal matrix

$$\text{iff } AA^T = A^T A = \mathbf{I}$$

iff columns of A are an orthonormal basis

iff rows of A are an orthonormal basis

Orthogonal matrix preserves length

$$\|Ax\| = \|x\|$$

Scaling, Translating & Rotating



Order matters!

$$P' = S.P$$

$$P'' = T.P' = (T.S).P$$

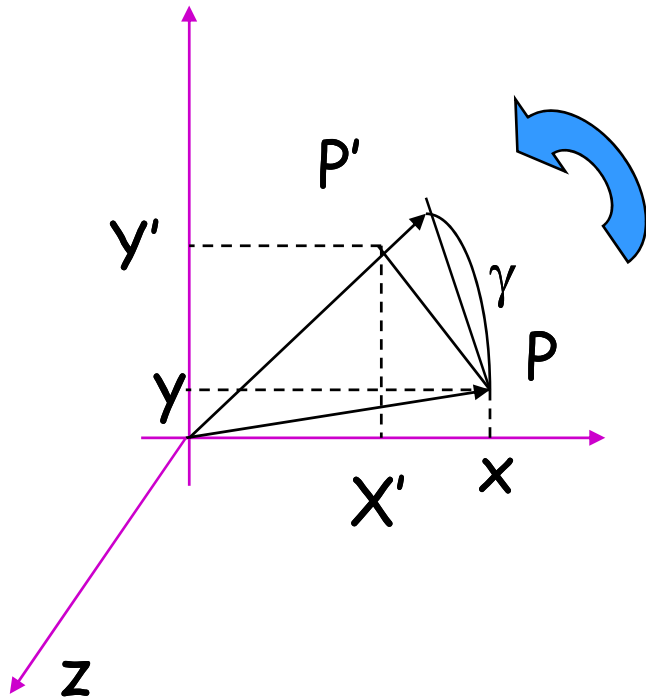
$$P''' = R.P'' = R.(T.S).P = (R.T.S).P$$



$$R.T.S \neq R.S.T \neq T.S.R \dots$$

3D Rotation of Points

Rotation around the coordinate axes, **counter-clockwise**:



$$R_x(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ 0 & \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_y(\beta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \beta & 0 & \sin \beta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin \beta & 0 & \cos \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_z(\gamma) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \gamma & -\sin \gamma & 0 \\ \sin \gamma & \cos \gamma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

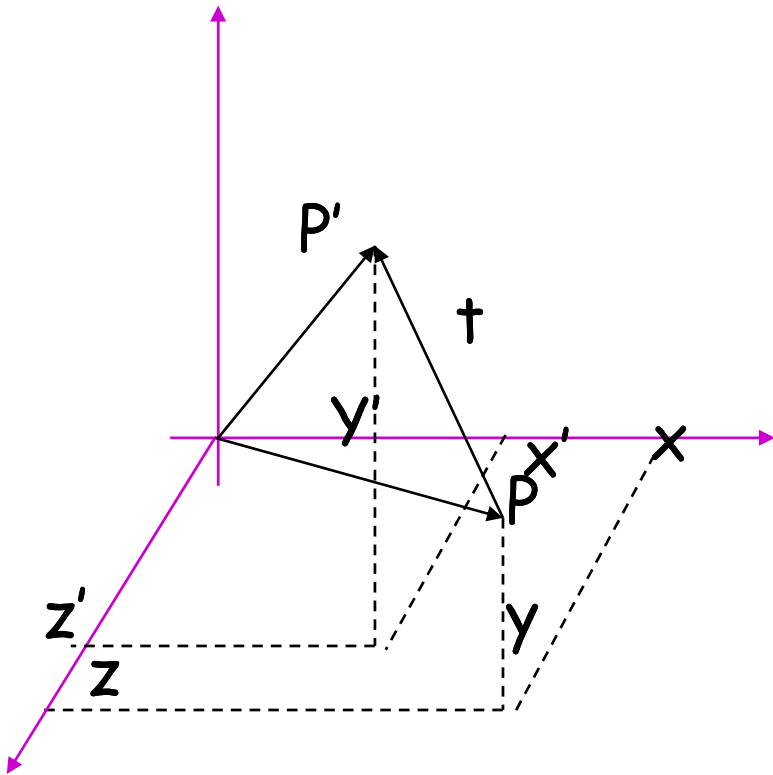
3D Rotation (axis & angle)

$$\mathbf{n} = [n_1 \quad n_2 \quad n_3]^T, \quad \|\mathbf{n}\|=1, \quad \text{angle } \theta,$$

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I} \cos \theta + \mathbf{I}(1 - \cos \theta) \begin{bmatrix} n_1^2 & n_1 n_2 & n_1 n_3 \\ n_1 n_2 & n_2^2 & n_2 n_3 \\ n_1 n_3 & n_2 n_3 & n_3^2 \end{bmatrix} + \sin \theta \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -n_3 & n_2 \\ n_3 & 0 & -n_1 \\ -n_2 & n_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

3D Translation of Points

Translate by a vector $t=(t_x, t_y, t_x)^T$:



$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & t_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Change of basis

Linear transform: $y = Ax$ (A is square)

Express x and y in a new basis E

$$x' = Px$$

$$y' = Py$$

P : change of basis matrix

The same transform represented in E

$$y' = PAP^{-1}x'$$

Matrix A and B are *similar* if $B = PAP^{-1}$

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- Square matrix possesses its own natural basis.
- Eigen relation

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}=\lambda\mathbf{u}$$

- Matrix \mathbf{A} acts on vector \mathbf{u} and produces a scaled version of the vector.
- Eigen is a German word meaning “proper” or “specific”
- \mathbf{u} is the eigenvector while λ is the eigenvalue.
 - If \mathbf{u} is an eigenvector so is $\alpha\mathbf{u}$
 - If $\|\mathbf{u}\|=1$ then we call it a normal eigenvector
 - λ is like a measure of the “strength” of \mathbf{A} in the direction of \mathbf{u}
- Set of all eigenvalues and eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} is called the “spectrum of \mathbf{A} ”

$Ax = \lambda x \rightarrow (\lambda I - A)x = 0$ hence $(\lambda I - A)$ is singular

The eigenvalues of A are the roots of the characteristic equation

$$p(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A) = 0$$

If A and B are similar, i.e., $B = PAP^{-1}$

(1) A and B have the same eigenvalues

(2) if x is an eigenvector of A , Px is an eigenvector of B

Spectral theorem:

if A is symmetric

(1) all eigenvalues of A are real.

(2) there is an orthonormal basis consisting of eigenvectors of A

$$A = U \Lambda U^T = U \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \cdot & \\ & & & \lambda_N \end{bmatrix} U^T$$

U is orthogonal.

Columns of U are eigenvectors of A .

A is positive (semi)definite:

for any nonzero vector x , $x^T Ax > (\geq) 0$

if A is symmetric and positive (semi)definite
all eigenvalues of A are positive (nonnegative)

Rank and Nullspace

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & x = b & \\ \left[\begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right] & \left[\begin{array}{c} \\ \end{array} \right] & \left[\begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right] \\ m \times n & n \times 1 & m \times 1\end{array}$$

- Range of a $m \times n$ dimensional matrix \mathbf{A}
 $\text{Range}(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m : \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \text{ for some } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$
- Null space of \mathbf{A} is the set of vectors which it takes to zero.
 $\text{Null}(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}\}$
- Rank of a matrix is the dimension of its range.
 $\text{Rank}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{Rank}(\mathbf{A}^t)$
 - Maximal number of independent rows **or** columns
- Dimension of $\text{Null}(\mathbf{A}) + \text{Rank}(\mathbf{A}) = n$

Least Squares

$$Ax = b$$

- More equations than unknowns
- Look for solution which minimizes $\|Ax-b\| = (Ax-b)^T(Ax-b)$
- Solve
$$\frac{\partial(Ax-b)^T(Ax-b)}{\partial x_i} = 0$$
- Same as the solution to
$$A^T Ax = A^T b$$
- LS solution $x = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$ when $A^T A$ is invertible

Singular Value Decomposition

- Chief tool for dealing with m by n systems and singular systems.
- **Singular values:** Non negative square roots of the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{A}^t\mathbf{A}$. Denoted $\sigma_i, i=1, \dots, n$
 - $\mathbf{A}^t\mathbf{A}$ is symmetric \rightarrow eigenvalues and singular values are real.
- SVD: If \mathbf{A} is a real m by 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 $\mathbf{U}^t\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V} = \Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_p)$ $p = \min\{m, n\}$
$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \Sigma \mathbf{V}^t$$
- Geometrically, singular values are the lengths of the hyperellipsoid defined by $E = \{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} : \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = 1\}$
- Singular values arranged in decreasing order.

Properties of the SVD

- Suppose we know the singular values of \mathbf{A} and we know r are non zero

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r \geq \sigma_{r+1} = \dots = \sigma_p = 0$$

- $\text{Rank}(\mathbf{A}) = r$.
- $\text{Null}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$
- $\text{Range}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{span}\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r\}$
- $\|\mathbf{A}\|_F^2 = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + \dots + \sigma_p^2$ $\|\mathbf{A}\|_2 = \sigma_1$
- *Numerical rank*: If k singular values of A are larger than a given number ε . Then the ε rank of A is k .
- Distance of a matrix of rank n from being a matrix of rank $k = \sigma_{k+1}$

Properties of SVD

σ_i^2 are eigenvalues of $A^T A$

Columns of U (u_1, u_2, u_3) are eigenvectors of AA^T

Columns of V (v_1, v_2, v_3) are eigenvectors of $A^T A$

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

Why is it useful?

- Square matrix may be singular due to round-off errors.
Can compute a “regularized” solution

–
$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^t)^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^t \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v}_i$$

- If σ_i is small (vanishes) the solution “blows up”
- Given a tolerance ε we can determine a solution that is “closest” to the solution of the original equation, but that does not “blow up”
$$\mathbf{x}_r = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^t \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v}_i \quad \sigma_k > \varepsilon, \quad \sigma_{k+1} \leq \varepsilon$$

- Least squares solution is the \mathbf{x} that satisfies
$$\mathbf{A}^t \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^t \mathbf{b}$$
- can be effectively solved using SVD

Solving $(A^t A)x = A^t b$ when $\text{rank}(A) < n$

$$A^+ = V\Sigma^+U^T \quad \text{pseudoinverse of } A$$

$$\Sigma^+_{ij} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Sigma_{ii}}, & \text{if } i = j \text{ and } \Sigma_{ii} \neq 0 \\ 0 & \end{cases}$$

$x = A^+b$ is the solution with minimum $\|x\|$

Least squares solution of homogeneous equation $Ax=0$

Minimize $\|Ax\|$ subject to $\|x\|=1$

$$A = UDV^T$$

$$\|UDV^T x\| = \|DV^T x\| \quad \text{and} \quad \|x\| = \|V^T x\|$$

$$y = V^T x \rightarrow \text{minimize } \|DV^T x\| \text{ subject to } \|V^T x\|=1 \\ \text{or } \|Dy\| \text{ subject to } \|y\|=1$$

diagonal elements of D in descending order

$$y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \cdot \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow x = Vy \rightarrow \text{last column of } V$$

Enforce orthonormality constraints on an estimated rotation matrix R'

$$R' = UDV^T$$

replace by $R = UIV^T$

I is identity matrix

Gauss-Newton iteration

Minimize $\|f(x)\|$, where

$$f(x) = (f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_m(x))^T$$

Approximate $f(x)$ by

$$f(x) \approx f(x_k) + J_k \Delta_k,$$

$$J_k = \nabla f(x_k), \Delta_k = x - x_k$$

$$\text{Minimize } \|f(x)\| \Leftrightarrow J_k^T J_k \Delta_k = -J_k^T f(x_k)$$

Levenberg Marquardt iteration

Change $J_k^T J_k \Delta_k = -J_k^T f(x_k)$

To $(J_k^T J_k + \lambda I) \Delta_k = -J_k^T f(x_k)$

- Avoid singular $J_k^T J_k$
- Control step size
 - When $\|f(x)\|$ reduces rapidly, decrease λ
 - Otherwise increase λ