

Lecture 15, Oct 27, 2023

Interpretations of the SVD

- If \mathbf{A} is a linear mapping, we can interpret the SVD as breaking up \mathbf{A} into a rotation/projection \mathbf{V}^T , a scaling $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ and reconstructing in the basis \mathbf{U}
 - The input vector \mathbf{x} is projected into the orthonormal basis \mathbf{V}^T
 - Each component gets scaled by a singular value
 - The rescaled components are reconstructed into an output vector using the basis \mathbf{U}
 - Note that since the singular values are ordered, \mathbf{v}_1 is the “highest gain” input vector direction and \mathbf{u}_2 is the “highest gain” output vector direction
- We can approximate \mathbf{A} with a lower rank matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$
 - $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_l = \sum_{i=1}^l \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T$
 - Since the singular values are in descending order, we’re basically keeping the “more important” parts of the matrix
 - This is linked to dimensionality reduction techniques

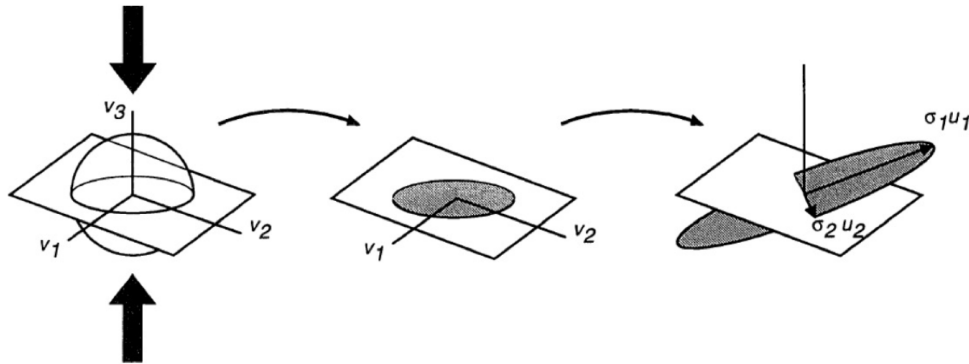


Figure 1: Geometric illustration of the SVD for $n = m = 3, k = 2$.

- Geometrically, consider how the SVD transforms a vector on the unit sphere:
 - Let $\mathbf{z} = z_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + z_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + z_n \mathbf{v}_n$ for $\sum_i z_i^2 = \mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{z} = 1$
 - $\mathbf{Az} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{z}$

$$= \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^T (z_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + z_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + z_n \mathbf{v}_n)$$

$$= \sigma_1 z_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \dots + \sigma_k z_k \mathbf{u}_k$$

$$= w_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + w_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + w_k \mathbf{u}_k$$
 - Since $\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{w_i^2}{\sigma_i^2} = \sum_{i=1}^k z_i^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^n z_i^2 = 1$ we have an ellipsoid in k dimensions
 - * If $k = n$ (full rank), then we have an equality, so we get the surface of the ellipsoid (no collapse)
 - * If $k < n$, we have the inequality so we get the solid interior of the ellipsoid (some dimensions are collapsed)
 - We can interpret the SVD as first collapsing the unit sphere by $n - k$ dimensions, then stretching the remaining k dimensions and then embedding the result in \mathbb{R}^m

Applications of the SVD

- SVD has many applications, the most common of which are dimensionality reduction techniques – we can throw away parts of the matrix that are less important

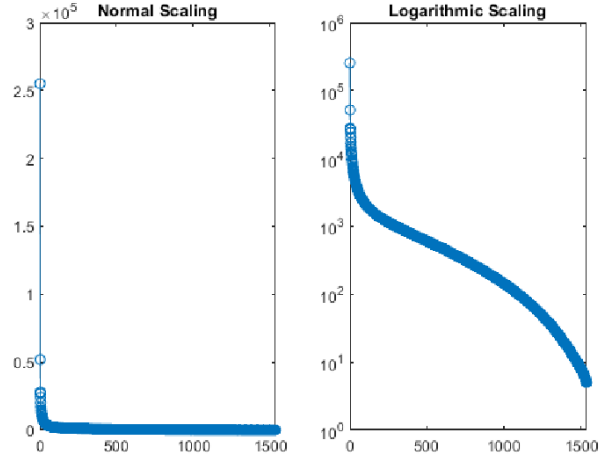


Figure 2: Typical singular value spectrum of an image.

- Image compression: treat the image as a big matrix, take the SVD, and truncate the singular values below a certain threshold
 - In general with data matrices we don't really have a clear "rank", so we will see a "continuous" spectrum of singular values – they decrease relatively smoothly instead of having a cutoff
 - We can now store the singular values and singular vectors above a certain threshold instead of the full image matrix
 - SVD compression is good at picking up patterns that align with the axes of the image (since these correspond to lower rank patterns)
 - * e.g. a checkerboard would be very efficient when compressed since it has an effective rank of almost 1; but if we warp this checkerboard so that it is no longer axis-aligned, it becomes worse
- Principal component analysis (PCA): given \mathbf{A} as the covariance matrix for a large number of high dimensional data points, we can use an SVD to get a lower dimensional subset that gives us more insight
 - The axes of the SVD are the axes of the error ellipsoid and the singular values are how large the ellipsoid is along each axis
- Dynamic mode decomposition (DMD): finding the best linear operator that represents the nonlinear dynamics of a system: $\dot{\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{z}) \leftrightarrow \dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$
 - The system dynamics are often lifted into higher dimensional space where things become more linear
 - We get *emergent dynamics* from the system, e.g. the behaviour of vortices shed by an object
 - DMD uses a large number of samples of the time series evolution of the dynamics in higher dimensional space: $\{\mathbf{x}(t_0), \mathbf{x}(t_1), \dots, \mathbf{x}(t_N)\} = \{\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$
 - * Each \mathbf{x} is a stacked vector of all the data (state) of the system at a particular time sample
 - Assume there is some matrix \mathbf{A} such that $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_k$
 - * $\mathbf{X}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}$ where $\mathbf{X}' = [\mathbf{x}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{x}_N]$, $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_0 \ \dots \ \mathbf{x}_{N-1}]$
 - Now we need to find \mathbf{A} , but it can be very large, so we can approximate it with a smaller matrix \mathbf{A}_r using the SVD of the data matrix
 - * $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^T \implies \mathbf{X}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^T$
 - * Truncate the SVD to get the dominant modes: $\mathbf{X}' \approx \mathbf{A}\mathbf{U}_r\mathbf{\Sigma}_r\mathbf{V}^T$
 - * Therefore $\mathbf{U}_r^T \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{V}_r \mathbf{\Sigma}_r^{-1} = \mathbf{U}_r^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{U}_r = \mathbf{A}_r$
 - Now we have the transition matrix we can perform an eigendecomposition $\mathbf{A}_r \mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W} \mathbf{\Lambda}$ to look at its modes
 - * Map the eigenspace back to the original space: $\mathbf{\Phi} = \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{V}_r \mathbf{\Sigma}_r^{-1} \mathbf{W}$
 - * The eigenvalues corresponding these modes allow us to see how they evolve – whether they

- grow or shrink with time, oscillations, etc, just like a linear system
 - This can also be used to predict the future steps of the dynamics
- Frame-to-frame visual odometry: finding the coordinate transformation that maps one point cloud to another
 - This can be performed using an SVD of the point cloud data