

Lecture 4  
SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

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Motivation:

Convolution operators can be converted to simple multiplication by Fourier analysis

*Any* linear operator can be converted to simple multiplication by SVD analysis

Thus SVD is a generalization of Fourier analysis; Fourier is a special case of SVD.

## OUTLINE

- Review of lecture 3
  - Meaning of adjoint
  - Importance of being Hermitian
  - How to make a Hermitian operator if nature doesn't give you one.
- Some notation – inner and outer products
- Eigenanalysis of  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{H}^\dagger$
- Exact (but useful) representations of objects and images
- Singular value decompositions of  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger$
- The SVD imaging equation

## REFERENCE

H. H. Barrett and K. J. Myers, Foundations of Image Science (Wiley, 2004)

Chap. 1: Vectors and Operators

Chap. 7: Deterministic Descriptions of Imaging Systems

## Adjoint

The adjoint of a linear operator maps an image vector to *something* in object space (not usually the original object that produced the image).

The adjoint of a general linear operator is defined by

$$(g_2, \mathcal{H}f_1)_{\mathbb{V}} = (\mathcal{H}^\dagger g_2, f_1)_{\mathbb{U}} \quad (1.39)$$

For a matrix, the adjoint is the complex conjugate of the transpose.

For a CC operator, the forward and adjoint operators are:

$$[\mathcal{H}f](\mathbf{r}_d) = g(\mathbf{r}_d) = \int_{\infty} d^q r \, h(\mathbf{r}_d, \mathbf{r}) f(\mathbf{r})$$

$$[\mathcal{H}^\dagger g](\mathbf{r}) = \int_{\infty} d^s r_d \, h^{(\dagger)}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}_d) g(\mathbf{r}_d) = \int_{\infty} d^s r_d \, h^*(\mathbf{r}_d, \mathbf{r}) g(\mathbf{r}_d)$$

So the *kernel* of the adjoint operator is the complex conjugate of the forward kernel with arguments transposed:  $h^{(\dagger)}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}_d) = h^*(\mathbf{r}_d, \mathbf{r})$

## Adjoint – cont.

For a CD operator, the forward and adjoint operators are:

Forward operator – weight continuous function with sensitivity function and integrate:

$$[\mathcal{H}f]_m = \int_{\infty} d^q r \, h_m(\mathbf{r}) f(\mathbf{r})$$

Adjoint operator – weight discrete vector with complex conjugate of sensitivity function and sum:

$$\left[\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathbf{g}\right](\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{m=1}^M h_m^*(\mathbf{r}) g_m$$

## Importance of being Hermitian

Compact Hermitian operators (see Barrett and Myers, Sec. 1.3.3) have a countable set of eigenvectors and eigenvalues:

$$\mathcal{A}\psi_n = \lambda_n\psi_n. \quad (1.67)$$

- Eigenvalues are real
- Eigenvectors are orthonormal:  $(\psi_n, \psi_m) = \delta_{nm}$
- Eigenvectors form a basis for domain of  $\mathcal{A}$ , so any vector in the domain can be expressed as superposition of eigenvectors:

$$\mathbf{f} = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n \psi_n$$

- Hence action of  $\mathcal{A}$  on any function is easy to calculate

$$\mathcal{A}\mathbf{f} = \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_n \alpha_n \psi_n$$

## Construction of Hermitian operators

From any linear operator  $\mathcal{H}$ , we can construct two Hermitian operators,  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{H}^\dagger$ .

Example –  $\mathcal{H}$  a CD operator,  $\mathbb{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$

$\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$  is a CC operator mapping  $\mathbb{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{U}$  with kernel given by

$$[\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}](\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') = \sum_{m=1}^M h_m^*(\mathbf{r}) h_m(\mathbf{r}')$$

$\mathcal{H} \mathcal{H}^\dagger$  is a DD operator ( $M \times M$  matrix), mapping  $\mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$ , with matrix elements given by

$$[\mathcal{H} \mathcal{H}^\dagger]_{mm'} = \int d^2r h_m(\mathbf{r}) h_{m'}^*(\mathbf{r})$$

Notation: adjoints of vectors and scalar products

An  $N$ D vector  $\mathbf{a}$  can be regarded as an  $N$ -element column vector or equivalently as an  $N \times 1$  matrix. Example for  $N = 3$ :

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

The transpose  $\mathbf{a}^t$  and adjoint  $\mathbf{a}^\dagger$  can be defined just as for any matrix. The transpose or adjoint of an  $N \times 1$  matrix (column vector) is a  $1 \times N$  matrix (row vector):

$$\mathbf{a}^t = (a_1, a_2, a_3) , \quad \mathbf{a}^\dagger = (a_1^*, a_2^*, a_3^*)$$

Thus a scalar product can be written as

$$(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b} = (a_1^*, a_2^*, a_3^*) \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{n=1}^3 a_n^* b_n$$



## Outer or tensor products

An inner or scalar product, denoted  $\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b}$  is possible only if  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  have the same dimension:

$$\mathbf{a} : N \times 1, \quad \mathbf{b} : N \times 1, \quad \mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b} : (1 \times N) \times (N \times 1) = 1 \times 1 = \text{scalar}$$

An outer or tensor product, denoted  $\mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}^\dagger$ , on the other hand, can be defined with any two vectors:

$$\mathbf{a} : N \times 1, \quad \mathbf{b} : M \times 1, \quad \mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}^\dagger : (M \times 1) \times (1 \times N) = M \times N \text{ matrix}$$

# Outer product – example

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$4 \times 1 \qquad \qquad 3 \times 1$

$$\mathbf{ba}^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1^* & a_2^* & a_3^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 a_1^* & b_1 a_2^* & b_1 a_3^* \\ b_2 a_1^* & b_2 a_2^* & b_2 a_3^* \\ b_3 a_1^* & b_3 a_2^* & b_3 a_3^* \\ b_4 a_1^* & b_4 a_2^* & b_4 a_3^* \end{bmatrix}$$

$4 \times 3$

$$[\mathbf{ba}^\dagger]_{mn} = b_m a_n^* \quad \text{Rank} = 1$$

## Outer products as operators

Any matrix can be regarded as an operator, and  $\mathbf{b}\mathbf{a}^\dagger$  is no exception. If  $\mathbf{b}\mathbf{a}^\dagger$  is  $M \times N$ , its operand  $\mathbf{c}$  must be  $N \times 1$  (i.e., the same size as  $\mathbf{a}$ ), and the result of the operation is

$$\mathbf{b}\mathbf{a}^\dagger\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{b} \left( \mathbf{a}^\dagger\mathbf{c} \right) = \left( \mathbf{a}^\dagger\mathbf{c} \right) \mathbf{b} = \text{scalar} \times \mathbf{b}$$

since  $\mathbf{a}^\dagger\mathbf{c}$  is the scalar product of  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{c}$ , which can be placed on either side of the vector  $\mathbf{b}$ . Thus  $\mathbf{b}\mathbf{a}^\dagger\mathbf{c}$  is parallel to  $\mathbf{b}$  for all  $\mathbf{c}$ .

With this interpretation, the concept of outer product can be extended to vectors in *any* two Hilbert spaces. Let  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{f}$  be arbitrary vectors in  $\mathbb{U}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  be an arbitrary vector in  $\mathbb{V}$ . Then  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{u}^\dagger$  maps  $\mathbb{U}$  to  $\mathbb{V}$  as follows:

$$\mathbf{v}\mathbf{u}^\dagger\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{v} \left( \mathbf{u}^\dagger\mathbf{f} \right) = \left( \mathbf{u}^\dagger\mathbf{f} \right) \mathbf{v} = \text{scalar} \times \mathbf{v}$$

Since we know how to compute scalar products of functions, this definition works for infinite-dimensional Hilbert spaces (function spaces) as well as finite-dimensional spaces.

## Projection operators and basis vectors

On the last slide we saw that  $\mathbf{b}\mathbf{a}^\dagger$  acting on any commensurable vector  $\mathbf{c}$  always yields a vector parallel to  $\mathbf{b}$ ; it *projects*  $\mathbf{c}$  onto the direction of  $\mathbf{b}$ .

An important special case is when the set  $\{\mathbf{u}_n, n = 1, \dots, N\}$  is an orthonormal basis for the space  $\mathbb{U}$ , so that any vector in that space can be written as

$$\mathbf{f} = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n \mathbf{u}_n = \sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{u}_n^\dagger \mathbf{f}) \mathbf{u}_n = \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{u}_n (\mathbf{u}_n^\dagger \mathbf{f}) = \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{u}_n \mathbf{u}_n^\dagger \mathbf{f}$$

For orthonormal functions, therefore,  $\mathbf{u}_n \mathbf{u}_n^\dagger$  projects its operand onto the vector  $\mathbf{u}_n$ , and if the set is complete, then

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{u}_n \mathbf{u}_n^\dagger = \mathbf{I},$$

where  $\mathbf{I}$  is the *identity* or unit operator.

On to SVD!

SVD begins with eigenanalysis of the Hermitian operators  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{H}^\dagger$ .  
(See Barrett and Myers Sec. 1.5.)

The eigenvalue problem for  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$  is:

$$\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H} \mathbf{u}_n = \mu_n \mathbf{u}_n \quad (1.111).$$

We know that the set  $\{\mathbf{u}_n\}$  is orthonormal and complete in  $\mathbb{U}$  and that the eigenvalues are real. Moreover, it is not hard to show that

$$\mu_n \geq 0$$

and hence that  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$  is non-negative definite.

If  $\mu_n = 0$ , then

$$\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H} \mathbf{u}_n = 0$$

and  $\mathbf{u}_n$  is a null vector of  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$ .

## Eigenanalysis of $\mathcal{H}\mathcal{H}^\dagger$

Suppose we have solved the eigenvalue problem for  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger\mathcal{H}$ :

$$\mathcal{H}^\dagger\mathcal{H}\mathbf{u}_n = \mu_n \mathbf{u}_n .$$

Operating on both sides with  $\mathcal{H}$  and throwing in some parentheses, we see that

$$\mathcal{H}\mathcal{H}^\dagger(\mathcal{H}\mathbf{u}_n) = \mu_n (\mathcal{H}\mathbf{u}_n) ,$$

Thus  $(\mathcal{H}\mathbf{u}_n)$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathcal{H}\mathcal{H}^\dagger$  with the same eigenvalue  $\mu_n$ , and we can write

$$\mathcal{H}\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathbf{v}_n = \mu_n \mathbf{v}_n ,$$

where  $\mathbf{v}_n$  is any constant times  $\mathcal{H}\mathbf{u}_n$ . If  $\mathbf{u}_n$  is not a null vector, we can define

$$\mathbf{v}_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_n}} \mathcal{H}\mathbf{u}_n , \quad (\mu_n \neq 0) , \quad (1.116)$$

and then the vectors  $\{\mathbf{v}_n\}$  will be properly normalized.

A convention

The eigenvalues of  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{H}^\dagger$  are real and non-negative, and it is convenient to order them so that

$$\mu_1 \geq \mu_2 \geq \dots \geq \mu_R > 0, \quad (1.114)$$

where  $R$  is the number of nonzero eigenvalues (counting multiplicity).

$R$  is called the rank of the operator. This definition of rank is consistent with the familiar one for matrices, where  $R$  is the number of linearly independent rows or columns.

Summary so far

Eigenvalue problem for  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$

$$\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H} \mathbf{u}_n = \mu_n \mathbf{u}_n, \quad \mu_n \geq 0$$

Eigenvectors are orthonormal and complete in  $\mathbb{U}$ :

$$\mathbf{u}_n^\dagger \mathbf{u}_m = \delta_{nm}, \quad \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{u}_n \mathbf{u}_n^\dagger = \mathcal{I}_{\mathbb{U}}.$$

Eigenvalue problem for  $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{H}^\dagger$

$$\mathcal{H} \mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathbf{v}_n = \mu_n \mathbf{v}_n.$$

Eigenvectors are orthonormal and complete in  $\mathbb{V}$ :

$$\mathbf{v}_n^\dagger \mathbf{v}_m = \delta_{nm}, \quad \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{v}_n \mathbf{v}_n^\dagger = \mathcal{I}_{\mathbb{V}}.$$

If  $\mu_n \neq 0$ , then

$$\mathbf{v}_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_n}} \mathcal{H} \mathbf{u}_n, \quad (\mu_n \neq 0).$$



## Uses of the SVD basis

Since the eigenvectors of  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$  are orthonormal and complete in  $\mathbb{U}$ , an arbitrary object can be written as

$$\mathbf{f} = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n \mathbf{u}_n, \quad \alpha_n = \mathbf{u}_n^\dagger \mathbf{f}.$$

The effect of  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$  on this vector is easy to compute:

$$\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H} \mathbf{f} = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n \mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H} \mathbf{u}_n = \sum_{n=1}^R \alpha_n \mu_n \mathbf{u}_n,$$

where the upper limit is now  $R$  since  $\mu_n = 0$  for  $n > R$ .

Moreover, the effect of the imaging operator  $\mathcal{H}$  is also easy to compute:

$$\mathcal{H} \mathbf{f} = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n \mathcal{H} \mathbf{u}_n = \sum_{n=1}^R \alpha_n \sqrt{\mu_n} \mathbf{v}_n.$$

## The SVD imaging equation

The (noise-free) imaging equation for an arbitrary linear operator is

$$\mathbf{g} = \mathcal{H}\mathbf{f} .$$

The object and image can be expanded in eigenfunctions of  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger\mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{H}\mathcal{H}^\dagger$ , respectively:

$$\mathbf{f} = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n \mathbf{u}_n , \quad \mathbf{g} = \sum_{n=1}^N \beta_n \mathbf{v}_n .$$

But

$$\mathcal{H}\mathbf{u}_n = \sqrt{\mu_n} \mathbf{v}_n \quad \text{so} \quad \mathbf{g} = \sum_{n=1}^R \sqrt{\mu_n} \alpha_n \mathbf{v}_n$$

Thus the coefficients are simply related by

$$\beta_n = \sqrt{\mu_n} \alpha_n$$

## SVD representation of the imaging operator $\mathcal{H}$

The results above can be summarized by saying that

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_{n=1}^R \sqrt{\mu_n} \mathbf{v}_n \mathbf{u}_n^\dagger. \quad (1.120)$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}\mathbf{f} &= \sum_{n=1}^R \sqrt{\mu_n} \mathbf{v}_n \mathbf{u}_n^\dagger \sum_{m=1}^N \alpha_m \mathbf{u}_m = \sum_{n=1}^R \sum_{m=1}^N \alpha_m \sqrt{\mu_n} \mathbf{v}_n \mathbf{u}_n^\dagger \mathbf{u}_m \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^R \sum_{m=1}^N \alpha_m \sqrt{\mu_n} \mathbf{v}_n \delta_{nm} = \sum_{n=1}^R \alpha_n \sqrt{\mu_n} \mathbf{v}_n, \end{aligned} \quad (1.124)$$

which agrees with the previous slide.

## Punchline

Use of the eigenvectors of  $\mathcal{H}^\dagger \mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{H}^\dagger$  as basis vectors allows us to reduce the noise-free imaging equation  $\mathbf{g} = \mathcal{H} \mathbf{f}$  to a simple multiplication

$$\beta_n = \sqrt{\mu_n} \alpha_n$$

and to represent the imaging operator as

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_{n=1}^R \sqrt{\mu_n} \mathbf{v}_n \mathbf{u}_n^\dagger.$$

Still to come: pseudoinverses, and inverse problems with noise.