

SI231b: Matrix Computations

Lecture 20: Computations of Singular Value Decomposition

Yue Qiu

qiuyue@shanghaitech.edu.cn

School of Information Science and Technology
ShanghaiTech University

Nov. 23, 2021

SVD and Four Fundamental Subspaces

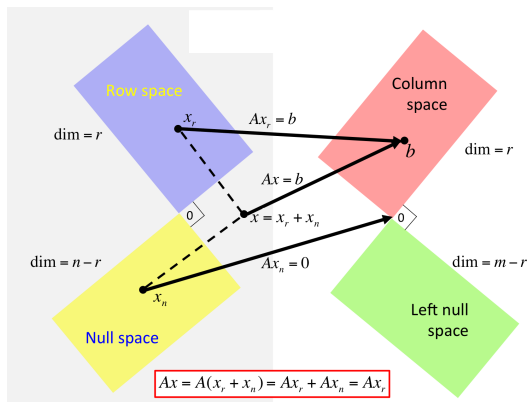


Figure 1: Four fundamental subspaces

In lecture 3, we have learnt that for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

- ▶ $\mathcal{R}(A) \perp \mathcal{N}(A^T)$, and $\mathcal{R}(A) \oplus \mathcal{N}(A^T) = \mathbb{R}^m$
- ▶ $\mathcal{R}(A^T) \perp \mathcal{N}(A)$, and $\mathcal{R}(A^T) \oplus \mathcal{N}(A) = \mathbb{R}^n$

Property: The following properties hold:

- (a) $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(U_1)$, $\mathcal{R}(A)^\perp = \mathcal{N}(A^T) = \mathcal{R}(U_2)$;
- (b) $\mathcal{R}(A^T) = \mathcal{R}(V_1)$, $\mathcal{R}(A^T)^\perp = \mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{R}(V_2)$;
- (c) $\text{rank}(A) = r$ (the number of nonzero singular values).

Requires a proof.

Note:

- ▶ SVD can be used as a numerical tool to compute basis of $\mathcal{R}(A)$, $\mathcal{R}(A)^\perp$, $\mathcal{R}(A^T)$, $\mathcal{N}(A)$
- ▶ we have previously learnt the following properties
 - $\text{rank}(A^T) = \text{rank}(A)$
 - $\dim \mathcal{N}(A) = n - \text{rank}(A)$

By SVD, the above properties are easily seen to be true.

- ▶ SVD is also used as a numerical tool to compute the rank of a matrix.

Induced matrix p -norm from the vector p -norm

$$\|A\|_p = \max_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|_p}{\|x\|_p} = \max_{\|x\|_p=1} \|Ax\|_p$$

$p = 2$: matrix 2-norm or spectral norm

$$\|A\|_2 = \sigma_{\max}(A).$$

Proof:

- ▶ for any x with $\|x\|_2 \leq 1$,

$$\begin{aligned}\|Ax\|_2^2 &= \|U\Sigma V^T x\|_2^2 = \|\Sigma V^T x\|_2^2 \\ &\leq \sigma_1^2 \|V^T x\|_2^2 = \sigma_1^2 \|x\|_2^2 \leq \sigma_1^2\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ $\|Ax\|_2 = \sigma_1$ if we choose $x = v_1$

Implication to linear transformation: let $y = Ax$ be a linear transformation maps x to y . Under the constraint $\|x\|_2 = 1$, the system output $\|y\|_2^2$ is maximized when x is chosen as the 1st right singular vector.

Illustration of Matrix 2-Norm

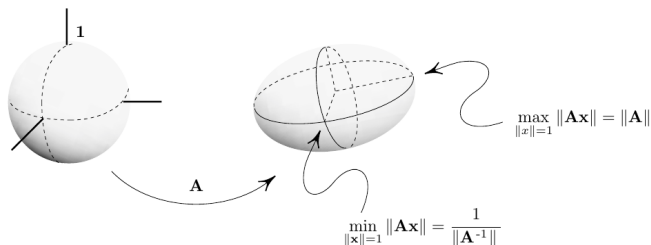


Figure 2: Linear transformation by nonsingular matrix A

When $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$,

► $\|Ax\|_2 \geq \sigma_{\min}(A)\|x\|_2$ (hands-on exercise)

A Bad Idea for SVD Computations

For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, from the SVD $A = U\Sigma V^T$, we obtain that

$$A^T A = V\Lambda V^T, \quad \Lambda = \Sigma^T \Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_p^2, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{n-p \text{ zeros}}) \quad (*)$$

Equation (*) shows that the singular values of A are positive square roots of eigenvalues of $A^T A$. Thus, one might compute the SVD of A as follows:

1. Form $A^T A$;
2. Compute the eigenvalue decomposition $A^T A = V\Lambda V^T$;
3. Let Σ be an $m \times n$ diagonal matrix with diagonal entries being the nonnegative square root of diagonal entries of Λ ;
4. Solve the system $U\Sigma = AV$ for orthogonal matrix U (e.g., via QR factorization)

Remark: this approach is **numerically unstable**. Only used by people who rediscovered the SVD for themselves. [cf. Lecture 31 of Trefethen & Bau 97']

Two Stages of SVD Computations

Recall from previous lectures that in order to solve real symmetric/Hermitian eigenvalue problems,

1. Reduce the matrix to a tridiagonal form;
2. Perform QR iterations (with shift) to obtain a diagonal form.

Similarly, **two stages of computations** can be performed for the SVD

1. Applying orthogonal transformations to transform a matrix to **bi-diagonal form**;
2. **Diagonalize** the bi-diagonal matrix.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Stage 1}} \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & & \\ & \times & \times & \\ & & \times & \times \\ & & & \times \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Stage 2}} \begin{bmatrix} \times & & & \\ & \times & & \\ & & \times & \\ & & & \times \end{bmatrix}$$

General Idea

Applying Householder reflectors alternatively on the left and right

- ▶ Each left reflection introduces zeros below the diagonal;
- ▶ Each right reflection introduces a row of zeros to the right of the first super-diagonal.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{U_1} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}}_{\tilde{A}_1 = U_1 A} \xrightarrow{V_1^T} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}}_{A_1 = U_1 A V_1^T}$$

Here

- ▶ U_1 is the Householder reflector that reflects $A(1:m, 1)$
- ▶ \tilde{V}_1^T is the Householder reflector that reflects $\tilde{A}_1(1, 2:n)$ and $V_1 = \text{diag}(1, \tilde{V}_1)$

Stage 1: Golub-Kahan Bidiagonalization

Following the above procedure, in the end we obtain (for $m > n$)

$$B = \underbrace{U_n U_{n-1} \cdots U_1}_U A \underbrace{V_1^T V_2^T \cdots V_{n-1}^T}_V,$$

where B is a **bi-diagonal matrix** that has the form

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & & & \\ & \alpha_2 & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \beta_{n-1} & \\ & & & \alpha_n & \\ & & & & \end{bmatrix}.$$

It can be verified that $\alpha_i \geq 0$ and $\beta_i \geq 0$.

If only economic SVD is needed, the Golub-Kahan bidiagonalization procedure can be easily computed through two-term recursions, for details, cf.

<https://www.netlib.org/utk/people/JackDongarra/etemplates/node198.html>

Stage 2: SVD of Bi-diagonal Form

After stage 1, we obtain that $U_a^T A V_a = B$ where B is a bi-diagonal matrix. The goal of the next step is to compute the **bi-diagonal SVD (bSVD)** of B , i.e., $B = U_b \Sigma_b V_b^T$.

Partition $U_b = \begin{bmatrix} U_b^{(1)} & U_b^{(2)} \end{bmatrix}$ where $U_b^{(1)}$ has n columns and let

$$Q = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} V_b & V_b & 0 \\ U_b^{(1)} & -U_b^{(1)} & \sqrt{2}U_b^{(2)} \end{bmatrix},$$

where $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{(m+n) \times (m+n)}$, then

$$Q^T \begin{bmatrix} 0 & B^T \\ B & 0 \end{bmatrix} Q = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n, -\sigma_1, -\sigma_2, \dots, -\sigma_n, \underbrace{0, 0, \dots, 0}_{m-n}).$$

The task is to solve a **real symmetric eigenvalue problem**. After this stage, the SVD is given by $A = \underbrace{U_a U_b}_U \Sigma_b \underbrace{V_b^T V_a^T}_{V^T}$

Permutations can be applied to the Golub-Kahan matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & B^T \\ B & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ so that

$$\Pi \begin{bmatrix} 0 & B^T \\ B & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Pi^T$$

is a **tridiagonal** matrix.

Popular methods for eigenvalue computations of symmetric tridiagonal matrices such as divide-and-conquer, or relatively robust representations (RRR) can be applied. (cf. Chapter 8.4 of [Golub & van Loan13'] and [Großer & Lang03'] for your further interest)

- B. Großer and B. Lang. An $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ algorithm for the bi-diagonal SVD. *Linear Algebra and Its Applications*, vol. 358, pp. 45–70, 2003.

One can compute the eigenvalue decomposition of $B^T B$ in a **smart way** to avoid numerical instability. (cf. Chapter 8.6 of [Golub & van Loan13'] for your further interest)

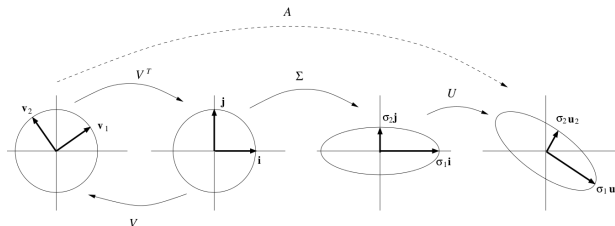
Geometric Interpretation of SVD

For any orthogonal matrix U , it can be verified that

- ▶ $\|Ux\|_2 = \|x\|_2$
- ▶ $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle Ux, Uy \rangle$

Applying the matrix A to a vector x can be interpreted by a three-stage procedure:

1. $\tilde{x} = V^T x$, i.e., \tilde{x} is obtained by rotating x
2. $\hat{x} = \Sigma \tilde{x}$, rescaling \tilde{x} for \hat{x}
3. $y = U \hat{x}$, rotating \hat{x} for y .



For a **nonsingular** matrix A , we are concerned with the solution of the linear system $Ax = b$.

Question: if there is a small perturbation in A , what is the distance between the **perturbed solution** and **exact solution** x ?

$$(A + \Delta A)(x + \Delta x) = b$$

From **Lecture 6**, we know that

$$\frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x\|} \leq \|A\| \|A^{-1}\| \frac{\|\Delta A\|}{\|A\|},$$

where $\|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$ is defined as the condition number of the matrix A and is denoted by $\kappa(A)$.

Note: $\kappa(A) \geq 1$ (**how to prove?**)

When the matrix 2-norm is used,

$$\kappa_2(A) = \|A\|_2 \|A^{-1}\|_2 = \frac{\sigma_{\max}(A)}{\sigma_{\min}(A)}.$$

$\sigma_{\min}(A)$ measures the distance of A to singularity. For orthogonal matrix A , $\kappa_2(A) = 1$.

When $\sigma_{\min}(A)$ is close to zero,

- ▶ $\kappa_2(A)$ gets large \rightsquigarrow small perturbation may lead to large solution error

$$\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = V\Sigma^{-1}U^T\mathbf{b} = \sum_i \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v}_i$$

- ▶ inverting A gets more difficult and unstable

Note: $\kappa_2(A^T A) = \kappa_2(AA^T) = \kappa(A)^2$. (Can you prove this?)

This explains why forming problems with $A^T A$ or AA^T is (almost) a bad idea.

Equivalence of Condition Number

The matrix A is said to be **ill-conditioned** if $\kappa(A)$ is large. This statement is a norm dependent property.

Any two condition numbers $\kappa_\alpha(\cdot)$ and $\kappa_\beta(\cdot)$ are **equivalent** on $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, which means that constants c_1 and c_2 can be found so that

$$c_1 \kappa_\alpha(A) \leq \kappa_\beta(A) \leq c_2 \kappa_\alpha(A), \quad \forall A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}.$$

For example, for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n} \kappa_2(A) &\leq \kappa_1(A) \leq n \kappa_2(A) \\ \frac{1}{n} \kappa_\infty(A) &\leq \kappa_2(A) \leq n \kappa_\infty(A) \\ \frac{1}{n^2} \kappa_1(A) &\leq \kappa_\infty(A) \leq n^2 \kappa_1(A) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, if a matrix is ill-conditioned in the α -norm, it is also ill-conditioned in the β -norm.

Note: all vectors norms are equivalent and all matrix norms are also equivalent. (cf. Chapter 2.2 and 2.3 of [Golub & van Loan13'] for details.)

Recall from [Lecture 10](#), for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, the pseudoinverse of A denoted by $A^\dagger \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ satisfying the [Moore–Penrose conditions](#).

1. $AA^\dagger A = A$

2. $A^\dagger AA^\dagger = A^\dagger$

3. $(AA^\dagger)^T = AA^\dagger$

4. $(A^\dagger A)^T = A^\dagger A$

- R. Penrose. A Generalized Inverse for Matrices. *Mathematical Proceedings of the Cambridge Philosophical Society*, vol. 51, pp. 406-413, 1955.

For a rank r matrix A , its SVD is given by

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} U_1 & U_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\Sigma} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_1^T \\ V_2^T \end{bmatrix},$$

where $\tilde{\Sigma} = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r)$, $U_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times r}$, $V_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r}$. Then we get

$$A^\dagger = V_1 \tilde{\Sigma}^{-1} U_1^T$$

Note: it is [not necessary](#) that $A^\dagger A = I$ or $AA^\dagger = I$

You are supposed to read

1. Lloyd N. Trefethen and David Bau III. Numerical Linear Algebra, *SIAM*, 1997.

Lecture 31

For your own interest, if you want to dig into SVD computations, you are recommended to read

- (a) Gene H. Golub and Charles F. Van Loan. Matrix Computations, *Johns Hopkins University Press*, 2013.

Chapter 8.4, 8.6.