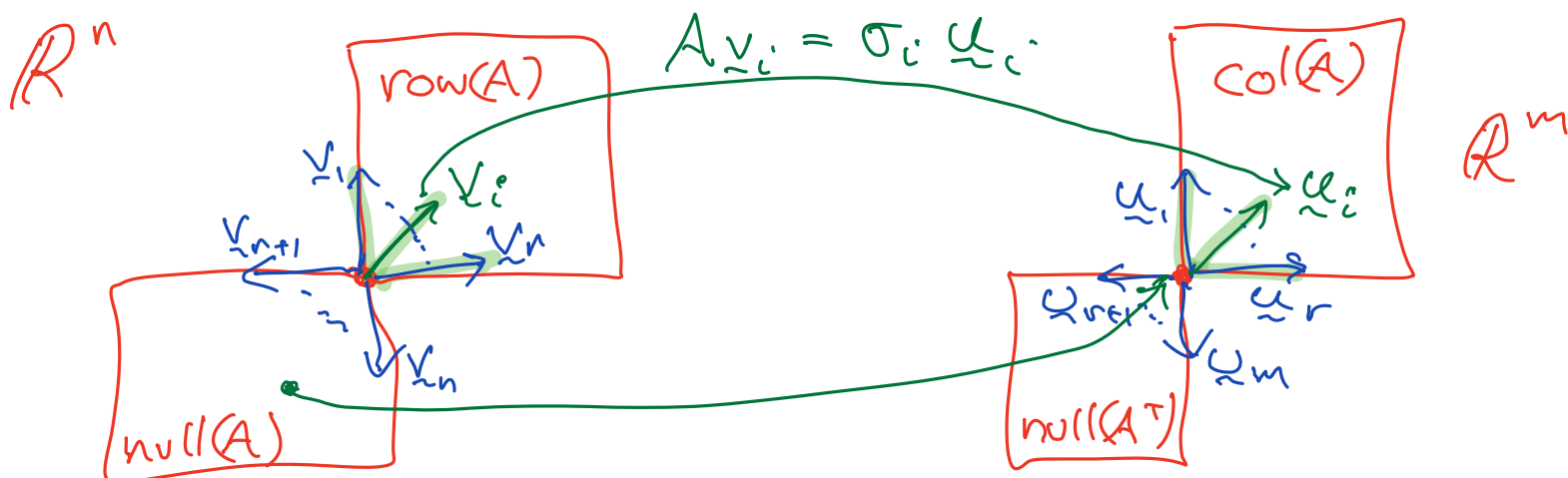


**Theorem 8.3.8** (Existence of SVD). Every matrix has a singular value decomposition. *proof* (MTH 2025)

**Theorem 8.3.9.** Let  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be defined by  $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ , and let  $A$  have singular value decomposition  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ . If  $B$  is the set of columns of  $V$  and  $B'$  is the set of columns of  $U$ , then  $[T]_{B',B} = \Sigma$ .

$$T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$



*proof:* Let  $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  &  $B' = \{u_1, \dots, u_m\}$

$$\text{Then } [T]_{B',B} = \begin{bmatrix} [T(v_1)]_{B'} & \dots & [T(v_n)]_{B'} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But } T(v_i) &= A v_i = U(\Sigma V^T v_i) \\ &= U e_i \quad \text{where } e_i = \Sigma V^T v_i \in \mathbb{R}^m \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^m (e_i)_j u_j \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow [T(v_i)]_{B'} = e_i = \Sigma V^T v_i = \Sigma (v_i^T V)^T$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But } (v_i^T V)_j &= \sum_{k=1}^n (v_i)_k (V)_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^n (v_i)_k (v_j)_k = v_i \cdot v_j \\ &= \begin{cases} 1 & i=j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases} = (e_i^T)_j \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow v_i^T V = e_i^T \Rightarrow [T(v_i)]_{B'} = \sum e_i \quad \forall i$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma_{B'B} = \Sigma$$

□

Theorems 8.3.6 and 8.3.8 justify the following algorithm.

**Algorithm 8.3.10 (SVD).** *For an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$ :*

- (i) *Find the eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  and corresponding orthonormal set of eigenvectors  $\mathbf{v}_i$  of  $A^T A$ . Order them so that  $\lambda_1 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_r > 0$  and  $\lambda_i = 0$  for  $i > r$ .*
- (ii) *Let  $V = [\mathbf{v}_1 \dots \mathbf{v}_n]$*
- (iii) *Let the nonzero diagonal entries of  $\Sigma$  be  $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, r$*   
 $\Leftrightarrow A \mathbf{v}_i = \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i$
- (iv) *Let  $\mathbf{u}_i = \frac{A \mathbf{v}_i}{\sigma_i}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, r$*
- (v) *Let  $\{\mathbf{u}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m\}$  be an orthonormal basis for  $\text{null}(A^T)$  and set  $U = [\mathbf{u}_1 \dots \mathbf{u}_m]$*

~~**Definition 8.3.11.** An eigenvector of  $A^T A$  is a right singular vector of  $A$ . An eigenvector of  $AA^T$  is a left singular vector of  $A$ .~~

~~**Lemma 8.3.12.** Let  $A$  have SVD  $A = U \Sigma V^T$ . The columns of  $U$  are left singular vectors of  $A$ , and the columns of  $V$  are right singular vectors of  $A$ .~~

**Exercise 8.3.13.** Find a singular value decomposition of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \det(\lambda I - A^T A) = \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)$$

so eigenvalues of  $A^T A$  are  $\lambda_1 = 2$ ,  $\lambda_2 = 1$ ,  $\lambda_3 = 0$

$$\underline{\lambda_1} \quad \text{null}(2I - A^T A) = \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right\}$$

$$\underline{\lambda_2} \quad \text{null}(I - A^T A) = \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right\}$$

$$\underline{\lambda_3} \quad \text{null}(0I - A^T A) = \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right\}$$

The eigenspaces are 1-dimensional (so no GS)

$\Rightarrow$  we need only normalize. Let

$$v_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\& \quad V = [v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3] = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\& \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$u_1 = \frac{1}{\sigma_1} A v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$u_2 = \frac{1}{\sigma_2} A v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{so } U = [u_1 \ u_2] = I$$

$\Rightarrow$  A has SVD  $A = U \Sigma V^T$ .

There is an alternative form of the SVD, analogous to the spectral decomposition.

**Theorem 8.3.14.** Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix of rank  $r > 0$  with SVD  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ , where  $U = [\mathbf{u}_1 \dots \mathbf{u}_m]$ ,  $V = [\mathbf{v}_1 \dots \mathbf{v}_n]$  and  $(\Sigma)_{ii} = \sigma_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq r$ . Then

$$A = \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T + \dots + \sigma_r \mathbf{u}_r \mathbf{v}_r^T. \quad (8.1)$$

This can be written in matrix form  $A = \tilde{U} \tilde{\Sigma} \tilde{V}^T$  where  $\tilde{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \dots \mathbf{u}_r]$ ,  $\tilde{V} = [\mathbf{v}_1 \dots \mathbf{v}_r]$  and  $\tilde{\Sigma} = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r)$ .

**Definition 8.3.15.** We call (8.1) the **singular value expansion**, and its matrix form the **reduced singular value decomposition**.

*Proof of Theorem 8.3.14.* Let  $1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} (A)_{ij} &= (U\Sigma V^T)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{l=1}^n (U)_{ik} (\Sigma)_{kl} (V)_{jl} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^r \sum_{l=1}^r (U)_{ik} (\Sigma)_{kl} (V)_{jl} \quad \text{since } (\Sigma)_{kl} = 0 \\ &\quad \forall k, l > r \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^r \sum_{l=1}^r (\tilde{U})_{ik} (\tilde{\Sigma})_{kl} (\tilde{V})_{jl} \\ &= (\tilde{U} \tilde{\Sigma} \tilde{V}^T)_{ij} \Rightarrow A = \tilde{U} \tilde{\Sigma} \tilde{V}^T \end{aligned}$$

Moreover,  $(A)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^r (\tilde{U})_{ik} \sigma_k (\tilde{V})_{jk}$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^r (\mathbf{u}_k)_i \sigma_k (\mathbf{v}_k)_j$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^r \sigma_k (u_k)_i (v_k^T)_j$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^r \sigma_k (u_k v_k^T)_{ij}$$

$$= \left( \sum_{k=1}^r \sigma_k u_k v_k^T \right)_{ij}$$

$$\Rightarrow A = \sum_{k=1}^r \sigma_k u_k v_k^T$$



## 8.4 Consequences of SVD

### 8.4.1 Condition number

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**Definition 8.4.1.** *The **condition number** of an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix is the ratio between its largest and smallest singular values*

$$\kappa(A) = \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_n}.$$

If  $\kappa(A)$  is very large, we say  $A$  is **ill-conditioned**. In practice, this occurs when  $\kappa(A)$  is larger than the reciprocal of the machine's precision. It is much harder to numerically solve a linear system  $Ax = b$  when  $A$  is ill-conditioned.

**E.g. 8.4.2.** Find  $\kappa(A)$  for

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \epsilon \end{bmatrix}.$$

*For what regime of  $\epsilon$  is  $A$  ill-conditioned?*

## 8.4.2 Pseudoinverse

**Definition 8.4.3.** Let  $\Sigma$  be a diagonal  $m \times n$  matrix with precisely  $r$  nonzero entries:  $(\Sigma)_{ii} = \sigma_i > 0$  for  $1 \leq i \leq r$ . The **pseudoinverse** of  $\Sigma$ , denoted  $\Sigma^+$ , is the diagonal  $n \times m$  matrix with nonzero entries  $(\Sigma^+)_{ii} = 1/\sigma_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq r$ . If  $A$  is any  $m \times n$  matrix with SVD  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ , we define its **pseudoinverse** to be  $A^+ = V\Sigma^+U^T$ .

**Lemma 8.4.4.** Every matrix has a unique pseudoinverse.

*Proof.*

OMITTED

**Lemma 8.4.5.** If  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix with reduced SVD  $A = \tilde{U}\tilde{\Sigma}\tilde{V}^T$ , then  $A^+ = \tilde{V}\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}\tilde{U}^T$ .

*Proof.*

**Lemma 8.4.6.** For any matrix  $A$  we have  $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^+)$ .

*Proof.*

Prob. Set.

**Lemma 8.4.7.** If  $A$  is invertible, then  $A^+ = A^{-1}$ .

*Proof.*

Prob. Set



**E.g. 8.4.8.** If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , find  $A^+$ .

$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$  has eigenvalues 3 & 1 & eigenspace bases  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  &  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

$$\Rightarrow V = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$u_1 = \frac{1}{\sigma_1} A v_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad u_2 = \frac{1}{\sigma_2} A v_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Find  $u_3$  by finding a basis for  $\text{null}(A^T)$

$$U = [u_1 \ u_2 \ u_3]$$

$$A^+ = V \Sigma^+ U^T = V \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} U^T$$

**Theorem 8.4.9.** If  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix then:

(a)  $\text{col}(A^+) = \text{row}(A)$

(b)  $\text{row}(A^+) = \text{col}(A)$  follows from (a) because  $A^{++} = A$

(c)  $\ker(A^+) = \text{coker}(A)$

(d)  $\text{coker}(A^+) = \ker(A)$  "(c)"

*Proof.* OPTIONAL - NOT ASSESSED

Let  $A$  have RSVD  $A = \tilde{U} \tilde{\Sigma} \tilde{V}^T$ .

(a) If  $\underline{x} \in \text{col}(A^+)$ , then

$$\underline{x} = A^+ \underline{b} \text{ for some } \underline{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But } A^+ \underline{b} &= \tilde{V} (\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1} \tilde{U}^T \underline{b}) \\ &= \tilde{V} \underline{c} \quad \text{where } \underline{c} = \tilde{\Sigma}^{-1} \tilde{U}^T \underline{b} \in \mathbb{R}^r \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow A^+ \underline{b} = \sum_{i=1}^r c_i \underline{x}_i \in \text{row}(A) \quad \text{where } r = \text{rank}(A)$$

since  $\{\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_r\}$  is a basis for  $\text{row}(A)$

Therefore  $\text{col}(A^+) \subseteq \text{row}(A)$ .

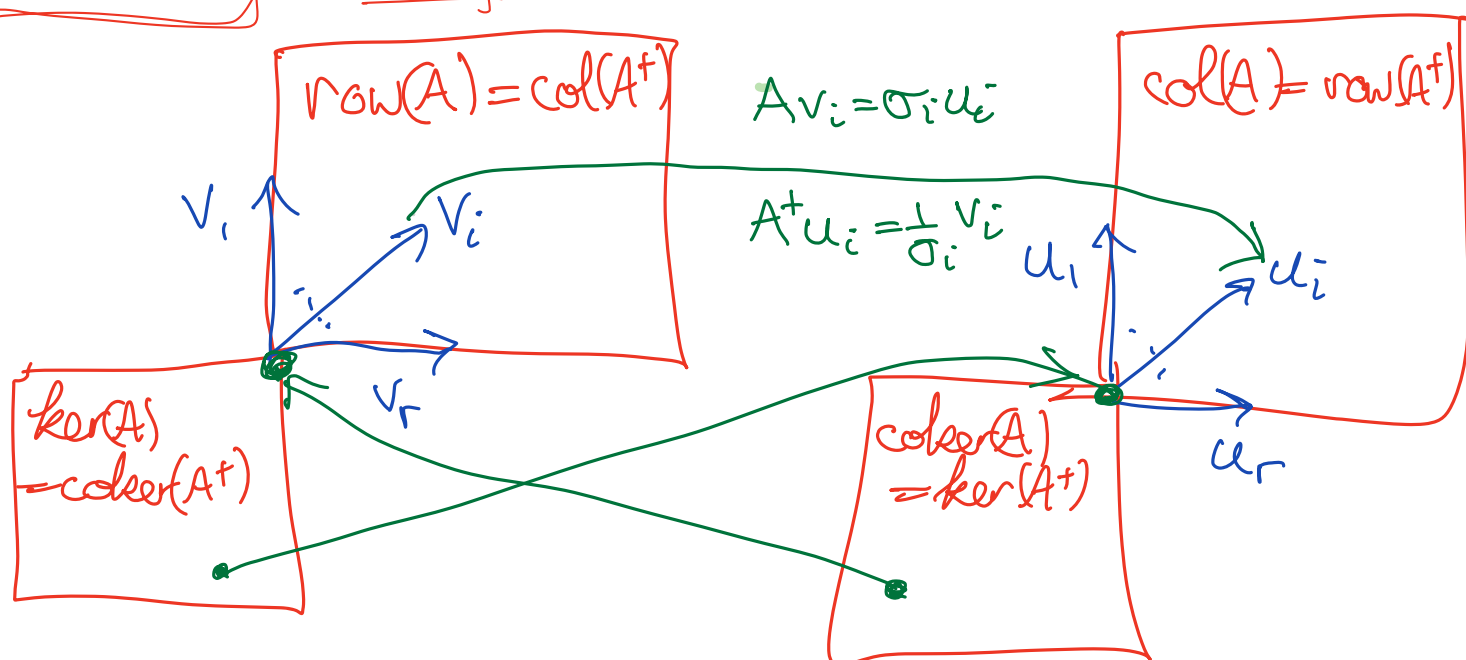
But Lemma 8.4.6  $\Rightarrow \text{rank}(A^+) = \text{rank}(A)$

$$\Rightarrow \dim \text{col}(A^+) = \dim \text{row}(A)$$

so  $\text{col}(A^+) = \text{row}(A)$  by Th<sup>m</sup> 4.3.17

(c)  $\ker(A^+) = \text{row}(A^+)^\perp = \text{col}(A)^\perp = \text{coker}(A)$  □

**Theorem 8.4.10.** Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix, and define  $T_A : \text{row}(A) \rightarrow \text{col}(A)$  and  $T_{A^+} : \text{row}(A^+) \rightarrow \text{col}(A^+)$  via  $T_A(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$  and  $T_{A^+}(\mathbf{x}) = A^+\mathbf{x}$ . Then  $T_A$  is an isomorphism, and  $T_A^{-1} = T_{A^+}$ . Proof: Prob Set



(Show on prob set that  $A^+u_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} v_i$ )

**Theorem 8.4.11.** The system  $Ax = b$  has a unique least squares solution  $x_*$  of minimal length given by

$$x_* = A^+ b.$$

*Proof.* It can be verified directly (ProbSet) that  $x_*$  satisfies normal eq<sup>n</sup>s for  $A$ . So Th<sup>m</sup> 1.2.13  $\Rightarrow$  every sol<sup>n</sup> of the normal eq<sup>n</sup>s can be written as  $x_* + \underline{z}$  for some  $\underline{z} \in \text{null}(A^T A)$ . But  $\text{null}(A^T A) = \text{null}(A) \Rightarrow \underline{z} \in \text{null}(A)$ . Moreover,

$$A^+ \underline{z} \in \text{col}(A^+) = \text{row}(A) \text{ by Th<sup>m</sup> 8.4.9}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_* + \underline{z} \in \text{row}(A)$$

Since  $\text{null}(A) \perp \text{row}(A)$ , Pythagoras'

$$\text{th<sup>m</sup> } \Rightarrow \|\underline{x}_* + \underline{z}\|^2 = \|\underline{x}_*\|^2 + \|\underline{z}\|^2$$

$$> \|\underline{x}_*\|^2 \quad \forall \underline{z} \neq \underline{0}$$

So any other LS sol<sup>n</sup> has larger length

(~~OPTIONAL~~)

**E.g. 8.4.12.** Find the minimum length least squares solution of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Find SVD for  $A$

$$\Rightarrow A^+ = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{so } \mathbf{x}_* = A^+ \mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

## 8.5 Applications of SVD (A&R §9.5)

NOT ASSESSED

### 8.5.1 Data compression (A&R §9.5)

Digital images are stored as matrices. Each matrix entry corresponds to a given pixel. Each possible pixel colour/shade corresponds to a fixed number. For example, greyscale images typically use 256 pixel values ranging from 0 (white) to 255 (black).

Consider a digital image encoded by an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$ . We would like to store the matrix using as little memory as possible. Suppose each entry requires  $b$  bytes of storage. Naively storing each entry requires  $m n b$  bytes.

If  $A$  has a singular value expansion

$$A = \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T + \dots + \sigma_r \mathbf{u}_r \mathbf{v}_r^T,$$

then we can instead store the singular values  $\sigma_i$  and vectors  $\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{v}_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq r$ . This requires storing  $r(1 + m + n)$  entries, i.e.  $r(1 + m + n)b$  bytes. If  $r \ll \min(m, n)$  this may give a significant saving.

But if  $\sigma_{k+1}, \dots, \sigma_r$  are all *small*, we may achieve a satisfactory approximation to the matrix  $A$  by retaining only the first  $k$  terms. Storing this approximation requires only  $k(1 + m + n)b$  bytes. Such an approximation gives a simple technique for data compression of an image.

E.g. storing a 50 term approximation of a 1000 by 1000 matrix requires storing  $10^5$  entries instead of  $10^6$ ; implying the image is compressed by a factor of 10.



(a) 4 terms



(b) 20 terms



(c) 50 terms

### 8.5.2 Principle Component Analysis

Suppose we have  $n$  experimental measurements of  $p$  variables,  $y_{ij}$  with  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq p$ . Define the  $n \times p$  matrix  $X$  by

$$(X)_{ij} = y_{ij} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_{ij}.$$

The singular value decomposition of the data matrix  $X$  is one of the most widely used tools in descriptive statistics.

The **sample covariance matrix** of the data is  $S = (n - 1)^{-1} X^T X$ .

The  $i$ th **principle component** is the eigenvector of  $S$  corresponding to the  $i$ th largest eigenvalue.

The  $i$ th eigenvalue of  $S$  is the **variance** of the  $i$ th principle component.

~~NOT ASSESSED~~  
From a statistical perspective, the orthogonality of the principle components implies they are uncorrelated.

If  $p$  is large, understanding the correlations between all the variables is a difficult task. Principle component analysis involves focusing only on those principle components with large variance, and discarding those with small variance. This can yield a dramatic dimension reduction of the data, albeit an approximate one.