

Topic 3: Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ be **any** matrix. The SVD allows to interpret (break down) the action of A on vectors (i.e as a linear operation) as a sequence of three simpler steps. i.e.) as action of 3 different structured matrices:

1. Reflection / Rotation (orthogonal matrix) in the domain \mathbb{R}^n
2. Scaling (diagonal operator)
3. Reflection / Rotation (orthogonal matrix) in the image space \mathbb{R}^m

This is similar to the eigenvalue decomposition by applying the following tradeoffs:

In the eigenvalue decomposition (EVD), we write A as VDV^{-1} , where A is square, V, D have the same dimensions as A , and V is invertible. Here V is a change of basis matrix allowing to map the operator to a diagonal version of it.

i.e) map vectors to standard basis vector, then apply the scaling from D , and then revert the change of basis operation.

The *EVD* has a number of drawbacks:

1. Does not always exist. e.g) for non-square matrices
2. Does not always exist even for square matrices. e.g) missing eigenvectors for eigenvalues of multiplicity > 1
3. You need complex geometry.

In the **SVD**

- **Give up:** the same matrix V on both sides
- **Gain:**
 - a. Always exist for **any** matrix square & non-square
 - b. If A is real, so is the *SVD*. So the geometry is expressible in real terms.
 - c. The diagonal part of the *SVD* has non-negative elements, which you can choose to be ordered.
 - d. **Singular vectors always exist.**

In some special cases, the *SVD* & *EVD* are the same.

We first state the *SVD* as a theorem, explore some of its implications & interpretations, understand its geometry, & and then prove it, & also see an algorithm for computing it.

Theorem: Existence of SVD

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ be any matrix.

There exists:

1. $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ orthogonal, $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_{\min(m,n)}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, where:
 - $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_{\min(m,n)} \geq 0$
2. $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ orthogonal, s.t $A = U\Sigma V^T$
 - Note: here, V^T is a notational convenience

There are several ways of expressing this relationship. i.e) several ways to write SVD.

1. $A = U\Sigma V^T$, is called the **full SVD**

2. **Reduced SVD:**

- a. **Case 1:** $m \geq n$ (case tall)

Take:

$$U = [U_1, U_2], U_1 \text{ has shape } m \times n, U_2 \text{ has shape } m \times (m - n)$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma_1 \text{ has shape } n \times n, 0 \text{ has shape } (m - n) \times n$$

$V \rightarrow$ no need to break down.

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} A &= U\Sigma V^T \\ &= [U_1, U_2] \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} V^T \\ &= (U_1 \Sigma_1 + U_2 0) V^T \\ &= U_1 \Sigma_1 V^T \end{aligned}$$

- b. **Case 2:** $m < n$ (case wide)

$U \rightarrow$ leave unchanged

$$\Sigma = [\Sigma_1, 0], \Sigma_1 \text{ has shape } n \times n, 0 \text{ has shape } n \times (n - m)$$

$$V = [V_1, V_2], V_1 \text{ has shape } n \times m, V_2 \text{ has shape } n \times (n - m)$$

We then get:

$$\begin{aligned}
A &= U\Sigma V^T \\
&= U[\Sigma_1 \ 0] \begin{bmatrix} V_1^T \\ V_2^T \end{bmatrix} \\
&= U\Sigma_1 V_1^T
\end{aligned}$$

c. **Case 3:** SVD as a sum of rank-1 matrices

$$U = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m], u_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_{\min(m,n)}), \Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

$$V = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n], v_j \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Then we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
A &= U\Sigma V^T \\
&= [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m] \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_{\min(m,n)}) \begin{bmatrix} v_1^T \\ v_2^T \\ \vdots \\ v_n^T \end{bmatrix} \\
&= [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m] \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 v_1^T \\ \sigma_2 v_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_{\min(m,n)} v_{\min(m,n)}^T \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{\min(m,n)} \sigma_k u_k v_k^T
\end{aligned}$$

Definitions of SVD components

1. $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_{\min(m,n)}$ are called the **singular values** of matrix A
2. v_1, \dots, v_n are called the **right singular vectors** of A
3. u_1, \dots, u_m are called the **left singular vectors** of A

Note:

1. The SVD can also be defined for complex matrices. i.e. $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ can be written as $A = U\Sigma V^H$ with u, v **unitary**. Σ diagonal real \implies same from as before.
 - H : complex conjugate transpose.
 - **unitary**: $u^H u = uu^H = I_m, v^H v = vv^H = I_n$
2. **Is SVD unique????**
Generally, NO!

Generally, SVD is not unique. e.g) in the *reduced vs full* expression we have zero blocks (e.g. tall case u_2 is an arbitrary completion, starting from u_1 to the orthogonal matrix U)

Also, e.g. in the **rank-1 expression**, $\sigma_k u_k v_k^T = \sigma_k (-u_k)(-v_k)^T$

However!

$\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_{\min(m,n)}$, the **singular values are unique** (with the constraints positive, decreasing).

As well, the left and right singular vectors corresponding to **non-zero** singular values are **unique depending on sign (+/-) choices.**

Example of Uses of SVD

Set up

Write the rank-1 representation, but remove any zero singular values, so, that is to say:

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

Where:

1. $r \leq \min(m, n)$
2. $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > 0$

Ex 1: Image of A (as a linear transformation)

Let $x = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$, here we have (v_1, \dots, v_n are an orthonormal set & form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n)

$$\begin{aligned} Ax &= \sum_{k=1}^r \sigma_k u_k v_k^T (\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^r \sigma_k \alpha_k u_k \end{aligned}$$

- since $v_k^T v_j = 0$ if $j \neq k$ and $v_k^T v_j = 1$ if $j = k$

Here as α'_k 's range over \mathbb{R} , $\sigma_k \alpha_k$ also range over \mathbb{R} , thus
 $Image(A) = \text{span}\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$

Rank:

$$\text{col rank}(A) = \dim \text{Image}(A) = r = \# \text{ of non-zero singular values}$$

Here $\text{row rank}(A) = r = \text{col rank}(A)$ because the singular values for A^T are the same as for A since $A^T = V\Sigma^T U^T$

Geometry of Action of A using SVD

To understand the geometry, first look at the action on vectors from a diagonal matrix Σ . Say, as an example:

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \|x\|_2 = 1$$

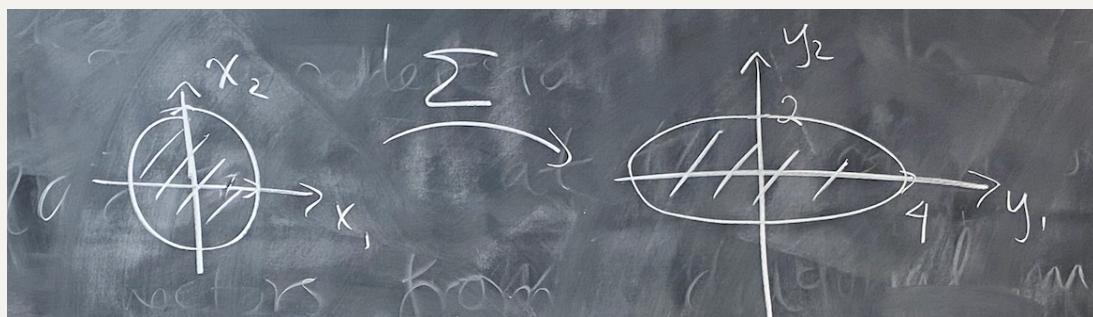
Then we have:

$$\Sigma x = \begin{pmatrix} 2x_1 \\ 2x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = y$$

and it maps the unit circle to another circle of radius 2 (y).

It also maps $\|x\|^2 \leq 1$ to vectors y s.t $\|y\|^2 \leq 4$. i.e) circle to circle & full ball to full ball (i.e interiro)

What about $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, then we have $y = \begin{pmatrix} 4x_1 \\ 2x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$



This maps circle to ellipse both boundary & interior.

This is an ellipse because $1 = \|x\|^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 = (\frac{y_1}{4})^2 + (\frac{y_2}{2})^2$

The boundary here is captured by the relation with **equality**

& the interior is captured if you use $1 \geq \|x\|^2 = \dots$

Another example with a 0 diagonal element:

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ take } 1 = \|x\|^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2$$

then we have:

$$y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} = \Sigma x = \begin{pmatrix} 3x_1 \\ 2x_2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Here, we thus have:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 \\ &\geq x_1^2 + x_2^2 \\ &= (\frac{y_1}{3})^2 + (\frac{y_2}{2})^2 \end{aligned}$$

When “reducing” dimension, you may map boundary to boundary or interior. As well if you replace the equal sign by:

$1 \geq \dots$, you then map interior of the original sphere to the interior of the image ellipsoid.
In A4, asking to characterize these possibilities.

Now adding the other components of the *SVD* only reorients the shapes, first in the domain through V , and later in the image-space through U .

Putting all together, the action of a matrix produces the following geometrical schema:

$$V^T v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2^T \end{bmatrix} v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \rho_1$$

$$V^T v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2^T \end{bmatrix} v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \rho_2$$

$$U \sigma_1 \rho_1 = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_1 u_1$$

$$U \sigma_2 \rho_2 = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_2 u_2$$

Matrix Norms (prerequisite for proof of SVD)

The $m \times m$ matrices with addition and scalar multiplication can be packaged into a vector space, so that you can define norms on them.

There are **two ways** to do so:

1. You can just define arbitrary norms, e.g. **Frobenius norm**

- **Def:** Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, the Frobenius norm is the following:

$$\|A\|_F = \left(\sum_{\substack{i=1,..m \\ j=1,..n}} a_{ij}^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

2. Induced norm, (i.e. induced by an underlying vector)

- **Def:** Let $\|\cdot\|$ be a vector norm (1-norms, 2-norms) on $\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m$ and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$. The induced matrix norm on A is defined by:

$$\|A\| = \max_{\substack{x \neq 0 \\ x \in \mathbb{R}^n}} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|} = \max_{\substack{\|x\|=1 \\ x \in \mathbb{R}^n}} \|Ax\| = \text{maximum stretch (scaling) that } A \text{ can apply}$$

Here, $\|\cdot\|$ notation is overloaded because $\|x\|$ applies to \mathbb{R}^n and $\|Ax\|$ applies to \mathbb{R}^m , and $\|A\|$ has a dependency on each other.

Usually people keep to one “kind” of norm in $\mathbb{R}^m \& \mathbb{R}^n$, e.g. 2-norm

3. Side Question:

- Is the Frobenius norm induced? How do we know?

The F-norm is not induced because:

e.g)

$$\text{i.} \quad \|I_m\|_F = \sqrt{(\text{all elements})} = \sqrt{m}$$

$$\text{ii.} \quad \|I_m\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|Ix\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|x\| = 1$$

Therefore the F-norm can not be induced.

More Preparation for proof of SVD

Lemma 1

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

Then we have:

$$\|A\|_2 \stackrel{1}{=} \max_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ y \in \mathbb{R}^m \\ \|x\|_2 = \|y\|_2 = 1}} y^T A x \stackrel{2}{=} \max_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ y \in \mathbb{R}^m \\ \|x\|_2 = \|y\|_2 = 1}} x^T A y \stackrel{3}{=} \|A^T\|_2$$

- where both $\|A\|_2, \|A^T\|_2$ are induced

Proof

1. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^n, y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ be arbitrary with $\|x\|_2 = \|y\|_2 = 1$, Then:

$$\begin{aligned} y^T A x &= \langle y, Ax \rangle \\ &\leq \|y\|_2 \|Ax\|_2 \text{ by Cauchy-Schwarz} \\ &= \|Ax\|_2 \text{ since } \|y\|_2 = 1 \\ &\leq \|A\|_2 \text{ by def of induced norm since } \|x\|_2 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

This shows $\|A\|$ is an upper bound for the set $y^T A x, \|x\|_2 = \|y\|_2 = 1$

We now explicitly show that this upper bound is achieved. Take

$v \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|v\| = 1, s.t. \|Av\|_2 = \|A\|_2$

Take $u = \frac{Av}{\|Av\|}$, which is also unit, $\|u\|_2 = 1$

Then $u^T Av = \left(\frac{Av}{\|Av\|}\right)^T Av = \frac{\|Av\|_2^2}{\|Av\|_2} = \|Av\|_2 = \|A\|_2$

withi this choice of u, v i.e) $y = u, x = v$, we achieve the upper bound $\|A\|_2$

This completes proof of first equal sign

2. $y^T A x = x^T A^T y$ because both sides are scalar

3. This is a restatement of proof of 1 for A^T and an analogous proof applies.