Eigen Decomposition and Singular Value Decomposition

Based on the slides by Mani Thomas Modified and extended by Longin Jan Latecki

Introduction

- Eigenvalue decomposition
 - Spectral decomposition theorem
- Physical interpretation of eigenvalue/eigenvectors
- Singular Value Decomposition

What are eigenvalues?

- Given a matrix, **A**, **x** is the eigenvector and λ is the corresponding eigenvalue if $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$
 - $lue{}$ A must be square and the determinant of $\bf A$ λ $\bf I$ must be equal to zero

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \lambda\mathbf{x} = 0 \Longrightarrow (\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}) \mathbf{x} = 0$$

- Trivial solution is if $\mathbf{x} = 0$
- The non trivial solution occurs when $det(\mathbf{A} \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$
- Are eigenvectors are unique?
 - If **x** is an eigenvector, then β **x** is also an eigenvector and β λ is an eigenvalue

$$\mathbf{A}(\beta \mathbf{x}) = \beta(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) = \beta(\lambda \mathbf{x}) = \lambda(\beta \mathbf{x})$$

Calculating the Eigenvectors/values

Expand the $det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$ for a 2 £ 2 matrix

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \det\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} - \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\det\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow (a_{11} - \lambda)(a_{22} - \lambda) - a_{12}a_{21} = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - \lambda(a_{11} + a_{22}) + (a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}) = 0$$

For a 2 £ 2 matrix, this is a simple quadratic equation with two solutions (maybe complex)

$$\lambda = \frac{\left(a_{11} + a_{22}\right) \pm \sqrt{\left(a_{11} + a_{22}\right)^2 - 4\left(a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}\right)}}{2}$$

■ This "characteristic equation" can be used to solve for **x**

Eigenvalue example

Consider,

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \lambda^2 - (a_{11} + a_{22})\lambda + (a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}) = 0 \\ \lambda^2 - (1+4)\lambda + (1\cdot 4 - 2\cdot 2) = 0 \\ \lambda^2 = (1+4)\lambda \Rightarrow \lambda = 0, \lambda = 5 \end{cases}$$

The corresponding eigenvectors can be computed as

$$\lambda = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1x + 2y \\ 2x + 4y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

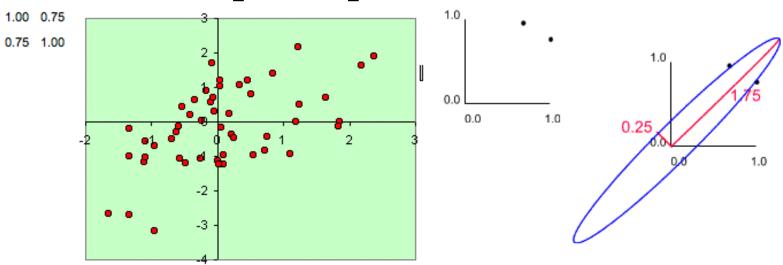
$$\lambda = 5 \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4x + 2y \\ 2x - 1y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- \Box For $\lambda = 0$, one possible solution is $\mathbf{x} = (2, -1)$
- \Box For $\lambda = 5$, one possible solution is $\mathbf{x} = (1, 2)$

Physical interpretation

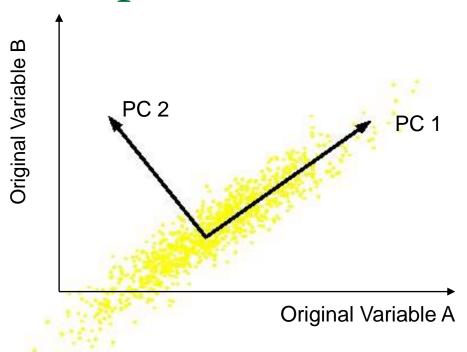
Consider a covariance matrix, **A**, i.e., $A = 1/n S S^T$ for some S

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & .75 \\ .75 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 1.75, \lambda_2 = 0.25$$



Error ellipse with the major axis as the larger eigenvalue and the minor axis as the smaller eigenvalue

Physical interpretation



- Orthogonal directions of greatest variance in data
- Projections along PC1 (Principal Component) discriminate the data most along any one axis

Physical interpretation

- First principal component is the direction of greatest variability (covariance) in the data
- Second is the next orthogonal (uncorrelated)
 direction of greatest variability
 - So first remove all the variability along the first component, and then find the next direction of greatest variability
- And so on ...
- Thus each eigenvectors provides the directions of data variances in decreasing order of eigenvalues

Multivariate Gaussian

Multivariate Normal (MVN)

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})]$$

• Exponent is the Mahalanobis distance between x and μ $\Delta = (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$

 Σ is the covariance matrix (positive definite)

$$\mathbf{x}^T \Sigma \mathbf{x} > 0 \ \forall \mathbf{x}$$

Bivariate Gaussian

Covariance matrix is

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & \rho \sigma_x \sigma_y \\ \rho \sigma_x \sigma_y & \sigma_y^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

where the correlation coefficient is

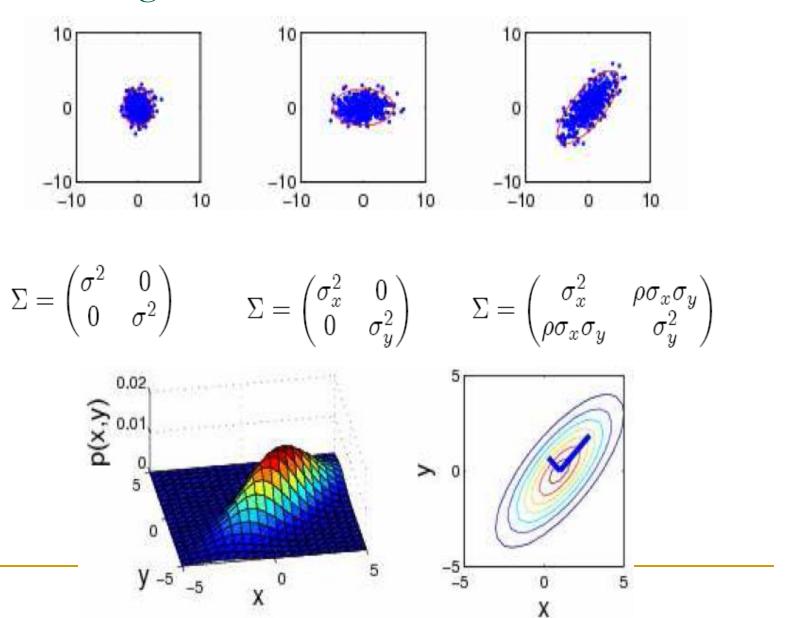
$$\rho = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X)Var(Y)}}$$

and satisfies $-1 \le \rho \le 1$

· Density is

$$p(x,y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\frac{x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2} - \frac{2\rho xy}{(\sigma_x\sigma_y)}\right)\right) - \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\frac{x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2} - \frac{2\rho xy}{(\sigma_x\sigma_y)}\right)\right) - \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\frac{x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2} - \frac{2\rho xy}{(\sigma_x\sigma_y)}\right)\right) - \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\frac{x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2} - \frac{2\rho xy}{(\sigma_x\sigma_y)}\right)\right) - \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\frac{x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2} - \frac{2\rho xy}{(\sigma_x\sigma_y)}\right)\right) - \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\frac{x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2} - \frac{2\rho xy}{(\sigma_x\sigma_y)}\right)\right) - \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\frac{x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2} - \frac{2\rho xy}{(\sigma_x\sigma_y)}\right)\right) - \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\frac{x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2} - \frac{2\rho xy}{(\sigma_x\sigma_y)}\right)\right) - \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\frac{x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2} - \frac{2\rho xy}{(\sigma_x\sigma_y)}\right)\right)$$

Spherical, diagonal, full covariance



Eigen/diagonal Decomposition

- Let $S \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ be a square matrix with m linearly independent eigenvectors (a "non-defective" matrix) Unique
- Theorem: Exists an eigen decomposition $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{U}^{-1} \quad ^{\textit{diagonal}}$

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{U}^{-1}$$
 diagonal

values

- (cf. matrix diagonalization theorem)
- Columns of *U* are eigenvectors of *S*
- Diagonal elements of Λ are eigenvalues of S

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m), \ \lambda_i \ge \lambda_{i+1}$$

Diagonal decomposition: why/how

Let
$$\boldsymbol{U}$$
 have the eigenvectors as columns: $U = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \dots & v_n \end{bmatrix}$

Then, **SU** can be written

$$SU = S \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \dots & v_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 v_1 & \dots & \lambda_n v_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \dots & v_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus $SU=U\Lambda$, or $U^{-1}SU=\Lambda$

And **S=U1U**-1.

Diagonal decomposition - example

Recall
$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}; \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 3.$$

The eigenvectors
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ form $U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Inverting, we have
$$U^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & -1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 Recall $UU^{-1} = 1$.

Then,
$$S=U \Lambda U^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1/2 & -1/2 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example continued

Let's divide \boldsymbol{U} (and multiply \boldsymbol{U}^{-1}) by $\sqrt{2}$

Then, **S**=
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Q \qquad A \qquad (Q^{-1} = Q^T)$$

Why? Stay tuned ...

Symmetric Eigen Decomposition

- If $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is a symmetric matrix:
- Theorem: Exists a (unique) eigen decomposition $S = Q\Lambda Q^T$
- where Q is orthogonal:
 - $Q^{-1} = Q^T$
 - Columns of Q are normalized eigenvectors
 - Columns are orthogonal.
 - (everything is real)

Spectral Decomposition theorem

If **A** is a symmetric and positive definite k $\mathbf{\hat{E}}$ k matrix ($\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$ > 0) with λ_i (λ_i > 0) and \mathbf{e}_i , $i = 1 \cdots k$ being the k eigenvector and eigenvalue pairs, then

$$\mathbf{A}_{(k\times k)} = \lambda_1 \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_1^T + \lambda_2 \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_2^T \cdots + \lambda_k \mathbf{e}_k \mathbf{e}_k^T \Longrightarrow \mathbf{A}_{(k\times 1)(1\times k)} = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{e}_i^T = \mathbf{P} \Lambda \mathbf{P}^T$$

$$\mathbf{P}_{(k\times k)} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2 \cdots \mathbf{e}_k \end{bmatrix}, \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_k \end{bmatrix}$$

- ☐ This is also called the eigen decomposition theorem
- Any symmetric matrix can be reconstructed using its eigenvalues and eigenvectors

Example for spectral decomposition

Let **A** be a symmetric, positive definite matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2.2 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 2.8 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 5\lambda + (6.16 - 0.16) = (\lambda - 3)(\lambda - 2) = 0$$

The eigenvectors for the corresponding eigenvalues are $\mathbf{e}_{1}^{T} = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \right], \mathbf{e}_{2}^{T} = \left[\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \right]$

Consequently,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2.2 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 2.8 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{5} \\ 2/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{5} & 2/\sqrt{5} \\ -1/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix} + 2 \begin{bmatrix} 2/\sqrt{5} \\ -1/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2/\sqrt{5} & -1/\sqrt{5} \\ -1/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 1.2 \\ 1.2 & 2.4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1.6 & -0.8 \\ -0.8 & 0.4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Singular Value Decomposition

If A is a rectangular m £ k matrix of real numbers, then there exists an m £ m orthogonal matrix U and a k £ k orthogonal matrix V such that

$$\mathbf{A}_{(m \times k)} = \mathbf{U}_{(m \times m)(m \times k)(k \times k)} \mathbf{V}^{T} \qquad \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^{T} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^{T} = \mathbf{I}$$

- Λ is an m £ k matrix where the (i, j)th entry λ_i , 0, i = 1 ··· min(m, k) and the other entries are zero
 - The positive constants λ_i are the singular values of **A**
- If A has rank r, then there exists r positive constants $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots \lambda_r$, r orthogonal m £ 1 unit vectors $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r$ and r orthogonal k £ 1 unit vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r$ such that

$$\mathbf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T$$

Similar to the spectral decomposition theorem

Singular Value Decomposition (contd.)

- If **A** is a symmetric and positive definite then
 - □ SVD = Eigen decomposition
 - $= EIG(\lambda_i) = SVD(\lambda_i^2)$
- Here $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{T}$ has an eigenvalue-eigenvector pair $(\lambda_{i}^{2}, \mathbf{u}_{i})$ $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{T} = (\mathbf{U}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^{T})(\mathbf{U}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^{T})^{T}$

$$= \mathbf{U}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V}\Lambda\mathbf{U}^T$$

$$= \mathbf{U}\Lambda^2\mathbf{U}^T$$

Alternatively, the \mathbf{v}_i are the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ with the same non zero eigenvalue λ_i^2

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V} \Lambda^2 \mathbf{V}^T$$

```
>> A = rand(10, 3);
>> [e, 1] = eig(B)
                         0.5451
    0.8280
               0.1313
   -0.1508
              -0.8842
                         0.4421
                         0.7123
               0.4483
1 =
    0.4660
                         9.3340
>> [u d v] = svd(B*B')
   -0.5451
               0.1313
                        -0.8280
   -0.4421
              -0.8842
                         0.1508
   -0.7123
               0.4483
                         0.5400
   87.1229
                         0.2171
v =
               0.1313
                        -0.8280
                         0.1508
              -0.8842
   -0.7123
                         0.5400
               0.4483
```

Example for SVD

- Let **A** be a symmetric, positive definite matrix
 - □ U can be computed as

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 & 1 \\ 1 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T - \gamma \mathbf{I}) = 0 \Rightarrow \gamma_1 = 12, \gamma_2 = 10 \Rightarrow \mathbf{u}_1^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{u}_2^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2}, -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

□ V can be computed as

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 10 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A} - \gamma \mathbf{I}) = 0 \Rightarrow \gamma_1 = 12, \gamma_2 = 10, \gamma_3 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{v}_{1}^{T} = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \right], \mathbf{v}_{2}^{T} = \left[\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, 0 \right], \mathbf{v}_{3}^{T} = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{30}}, \frac{2}{\sqrt{30}}, -\frac{5}{\sqrt{30}} \right]$$

Example for SVD

Taking $\lambda_1^2=12$ and $\lambda_2^2=10$, the singular value decomposition of **A** is

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \sqrt{12} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6}, 2/\sqrt{6}, 1/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix} + \sqrt{10} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2/\sqrt{5}, -1/\sqrt{5}, 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Thus the U, V and Λ are computed by performing eigen decomposition of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}}$ and $\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{A}$
- Any matrix has a singular value decomposition but only symmetric, positive definite matrices have an eigen decomposition