

# Machine Learning

CMPT 726

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# Linear Algebra and Calculus Review (cont'd)

# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

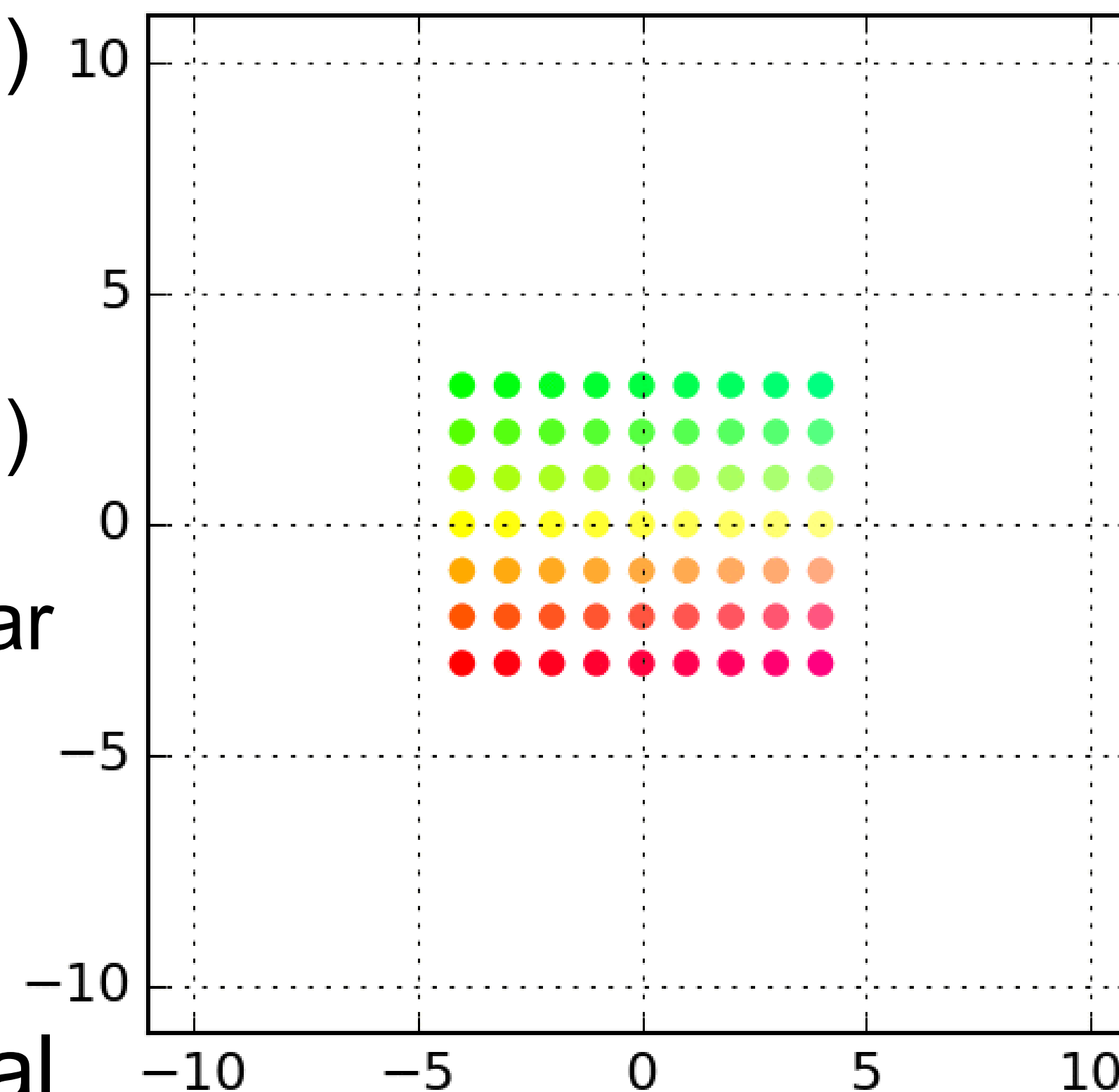
**All matrices** can be decomposed into a sequence of:

1. Orthogonal matrix (rotation/reflection)
2. Diagonal matrix (scaling along axes)
3. Orthogonal matrix (rotation/reflection)

This decomposition is known as singular value decomposition (SVD):

$$A = U\Sigma V^T$$

$U, V$  are orthogonal,  $\Sigma$  is diagonal with real non-negative entries



$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

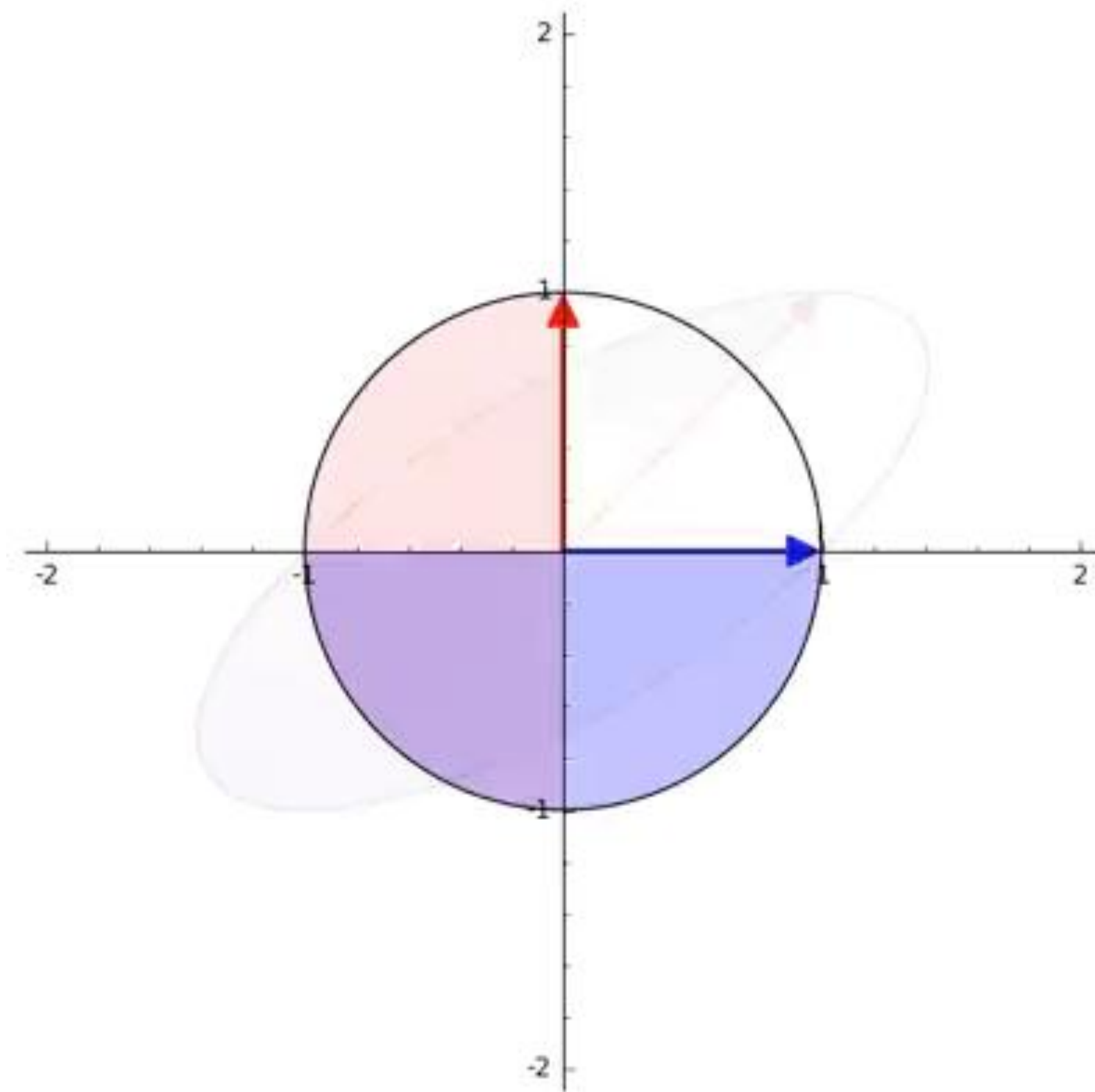
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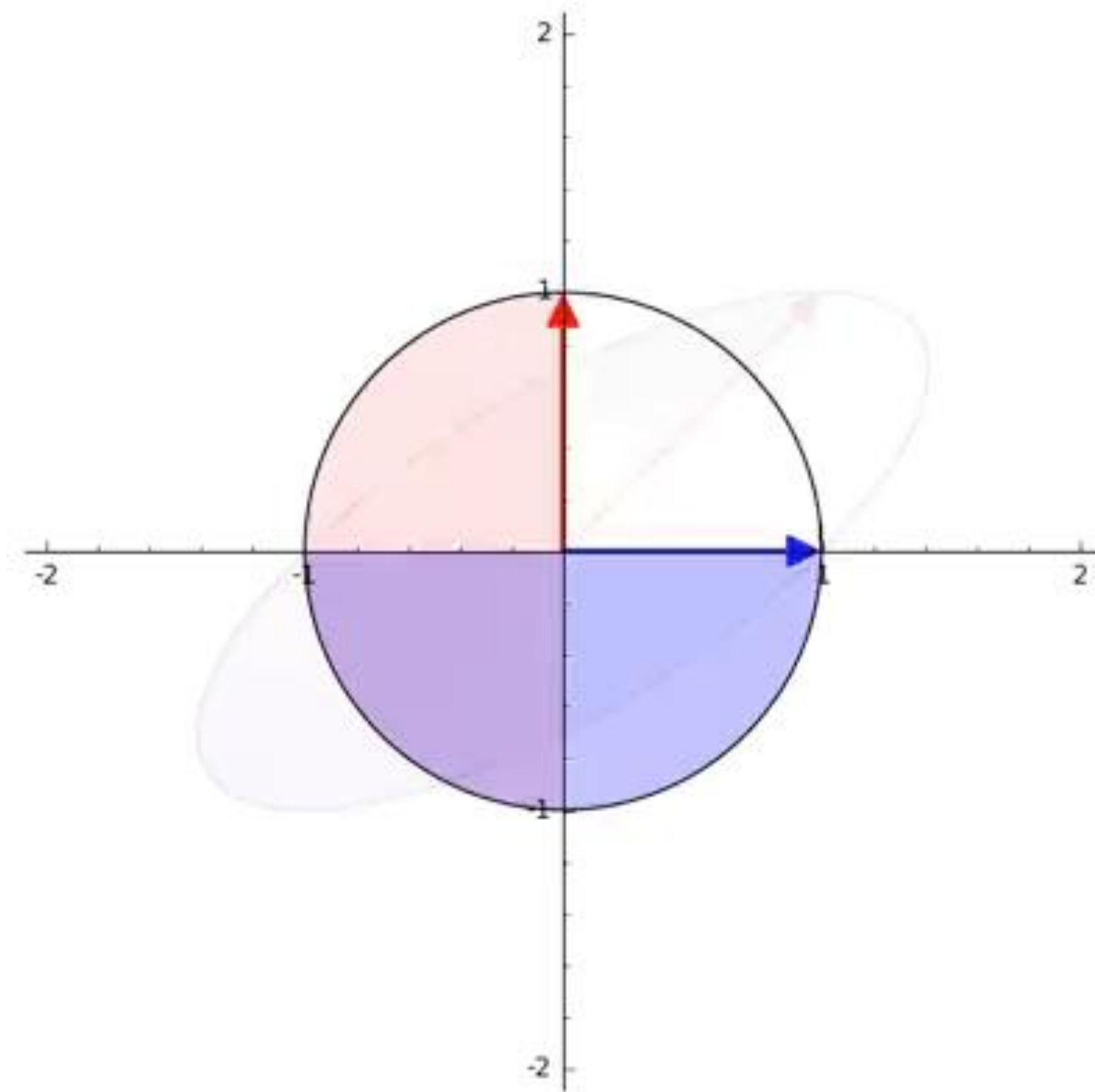
$$A = U\Sigma V^T$$

$U, V$  are orthogonal,  $\Sigma$  is diagonal (possibly non-square) with real non-negative entries

The columns of  $V$  are known as the right-singular vectors

The columns of  $U$  are known as the left-singular vectors

The diagonal entries of  $\Sigma$  are known as the singular values



Credit: Ryan Holbrook

# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

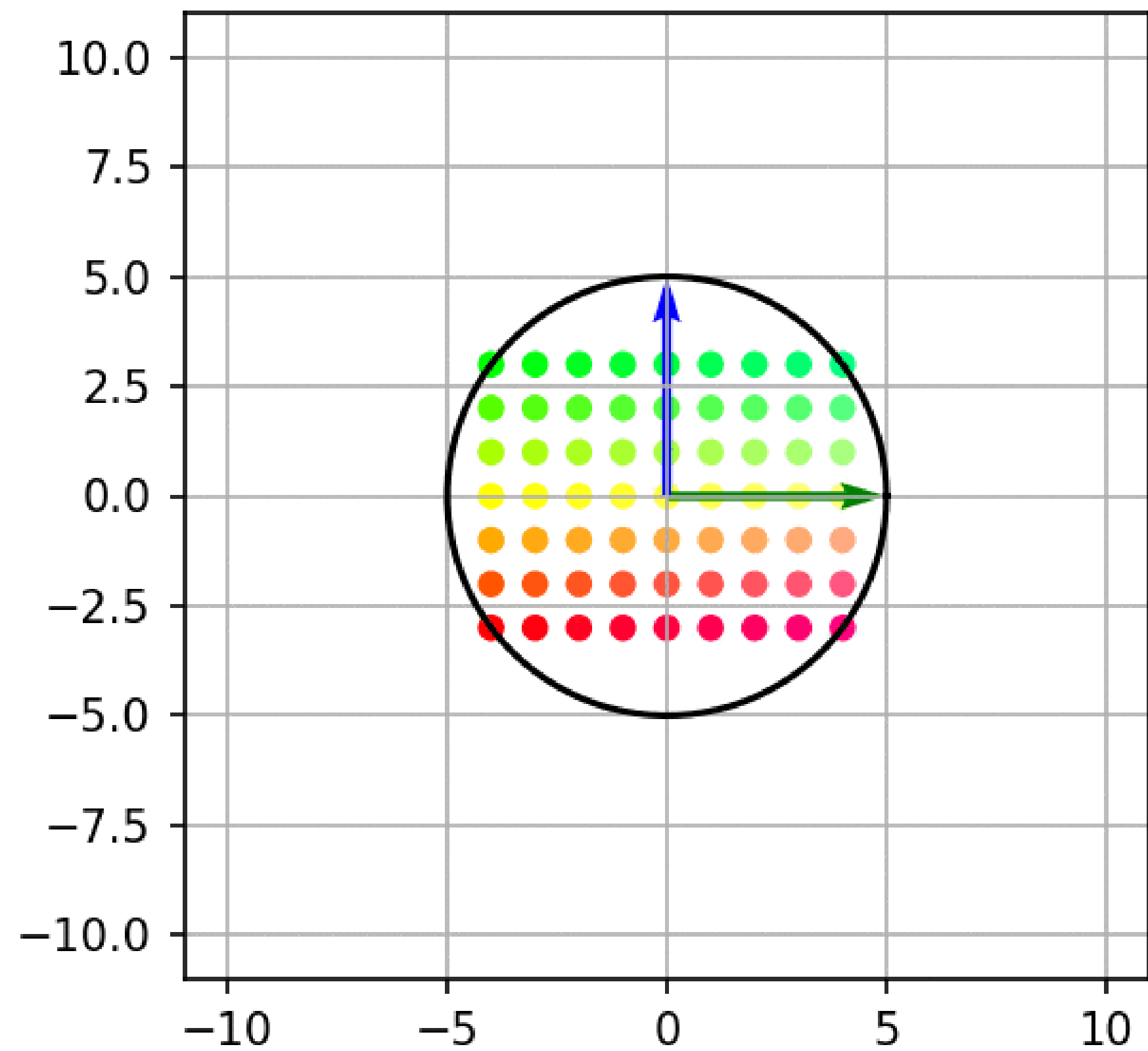
Example:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 1 \\ 6 & -2 \\ 6 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{2}{3\sqrt{5}} \\ -\frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & -\frac{4}{3\sqrt{5}} \\ -\frac{2}{3} & 0 & \frac{\sqrt{5}}{3} \end{pmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 3\sqrt{10} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}}_{\Sigma} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} -\frac{3}{\sqrt{10}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \\ 1 & 3 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \end{pmatrix}}_{V^T}$$

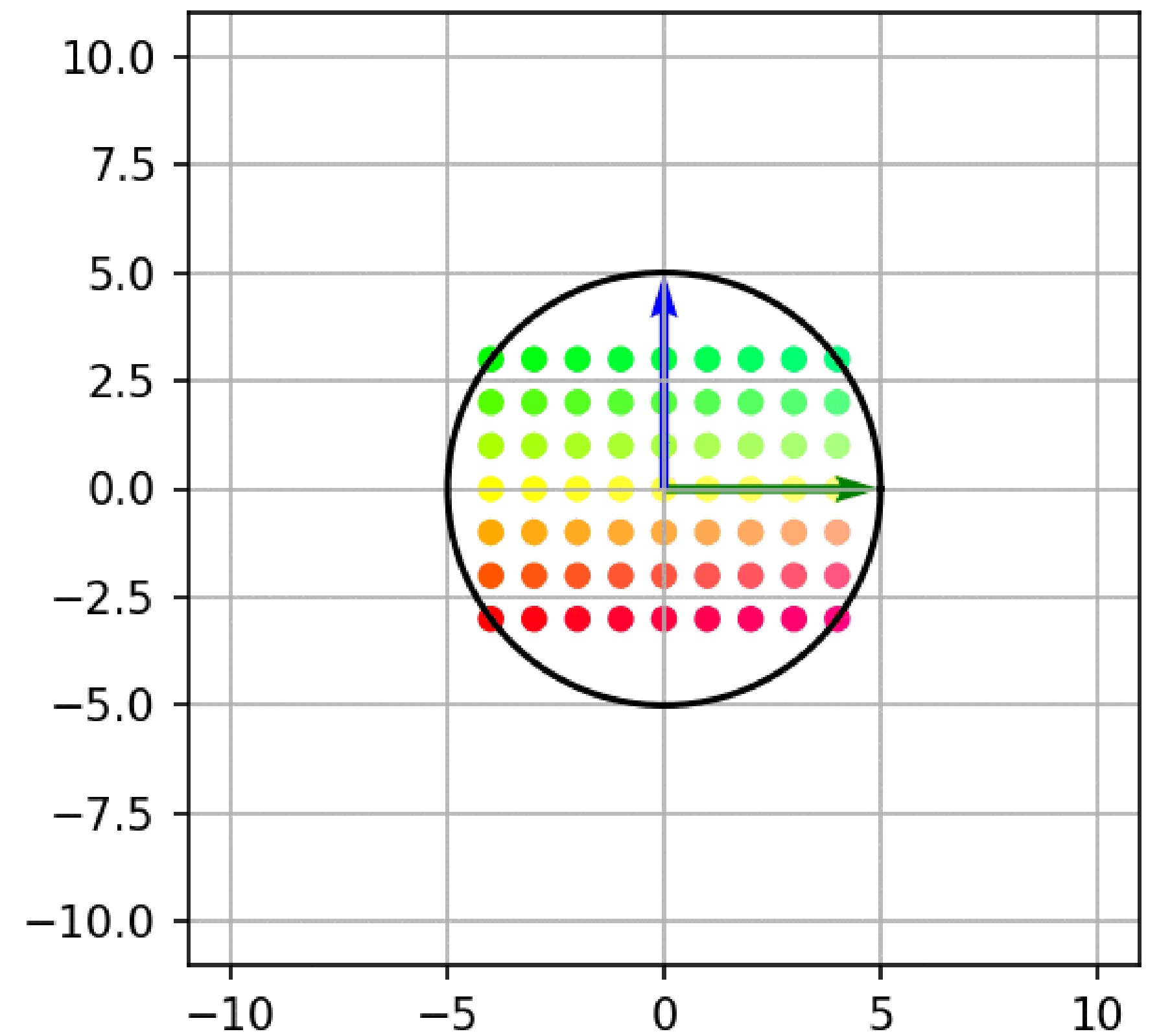
**Number of non-zero diagonal entries in  $\Sigma$  corresponds to the rank of  $A$ .**

# SVD and Rank

Full-Rank (Rank = 2)



Rank-Deficient (Rank = 1)



# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Compact/Reduced SVD: Eliminates all rows or columns in that are all zeros

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 1 \\ 6 & -2 \\ 6 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3} \\ 2 \\ -\frac{2}{3} \\ 2 \\ -\frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix}}_{\tilde{U}} \underbrace{(3\sqrt{10})}_{\tilde{\Sigma}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} -\frac{3}{\sqrt{10}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \end{pmatrix}}_{\tilde{V}^T}$$

Here,  $\tilde{\Sigma}$  is an  $r \times r$  square matrix, where  $r$  is the rank of  $A$ ,  $\tilde{U}$  and  $\tilde{V}$  are semi-orthogonal, i.e.: possibly non-square matrices whose column vectors are orthonormal



# Eigendecomposition

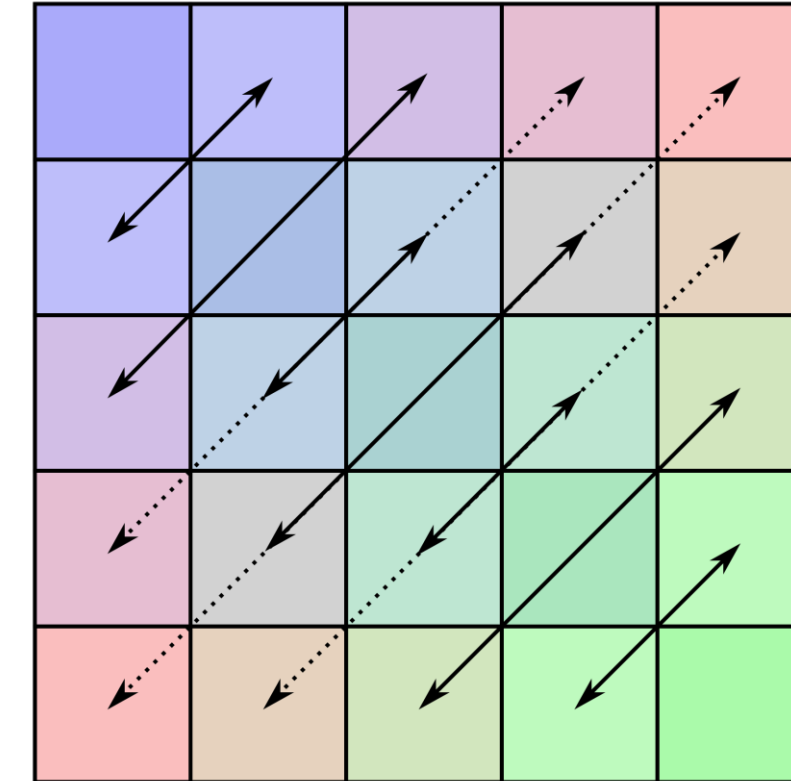
SVD:  $A = U\Sigma V^T$  for orthogonal  $U, V$ ,  
diagonal  $\Sigma$

In the special case of (square) symmetric  
matrices:

The column vectors of  $U$  and  $V$  are the same  
up to sign, i.e.: there is a diagonal matrix  $D$   
with  $\pm 1$  on the diagonal such that  $V = UD$ .

This is called eigendecomposition.

$$\begin{aligned} A &= U\Sigma(UD)^T = U\Sigma D^T U^T = U\Sigma D U^T \\ &= U(\Sigma D)U^T := U\Lambda U^T, \text{ where } \Lambda = \Sigma D \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} A &= A^T \\ U\Sigma V^T &= V\Sigma U^T \end{aligned}$$

Like  $\Sigma$ ,  $\Lambda$  is diagonal. Unlike  $\Sigma$ ,  $\Lambda$  can be negative.

The columns of  $U$  are known as the eigenvectors  
The diagonal entries of  $\Lambda$  are known as the  
eigenvalues.

For symmetric matrices, the singular values are the  
absolute values of eigenvalues and the left- and  
right-singular vectors are  $\pm$  the eigenvectors.

# Eigendecomposition

$$A = U\Lambda U^T$$

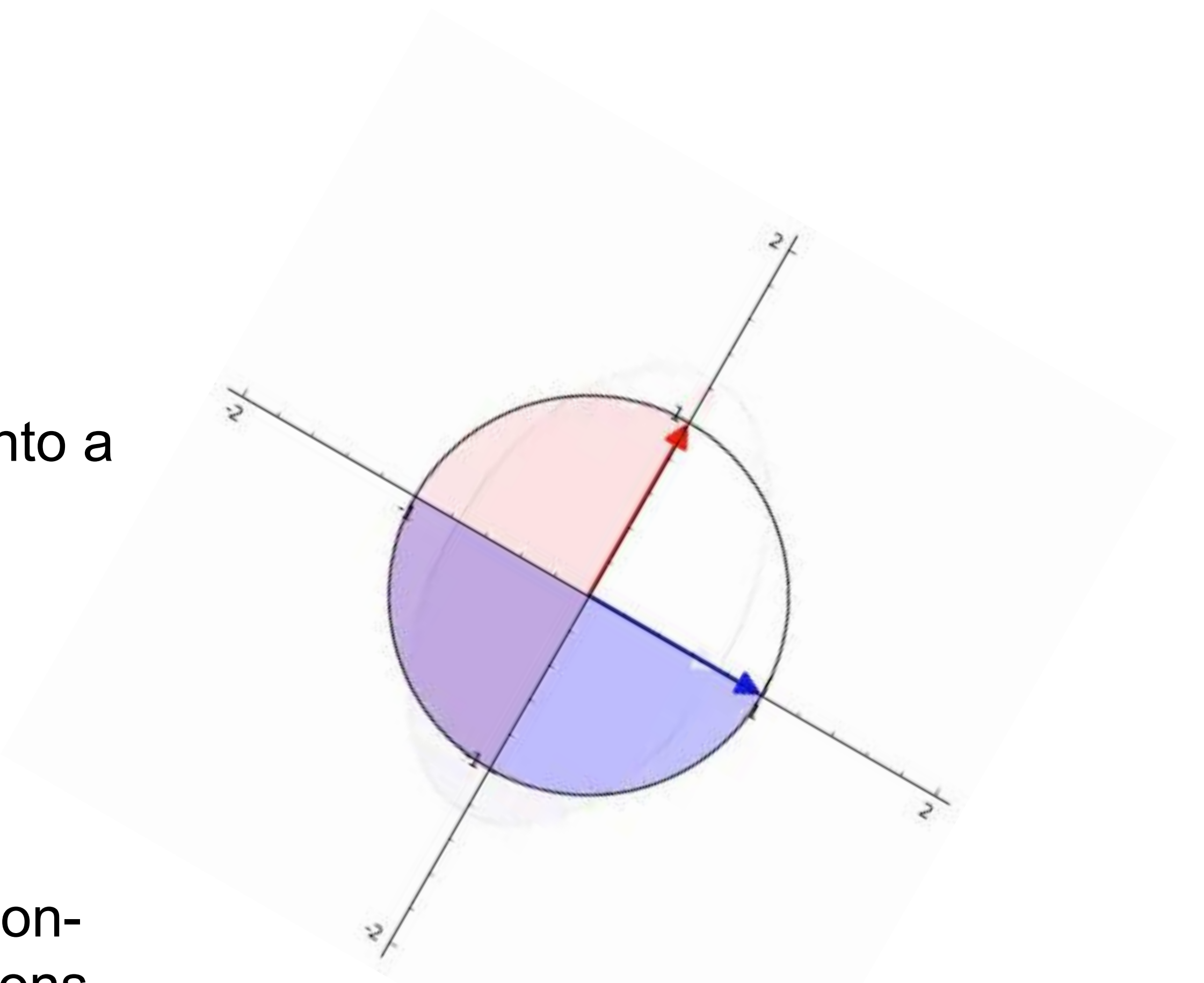
Since  $U$  is orthogonal,  $U^T = U^{-1}$

$$A = U\Lambda U^{-1}$$

**All symmetric matrices** can be decomposed into a sequence of:

1. Rotation
2. Scaling/reflection along axes
3. Reverse rotation

So any symmetric matrix essentially performs non-axis aligned scaling/reflection, where the directions along which scaling happens are the eigenvectors.

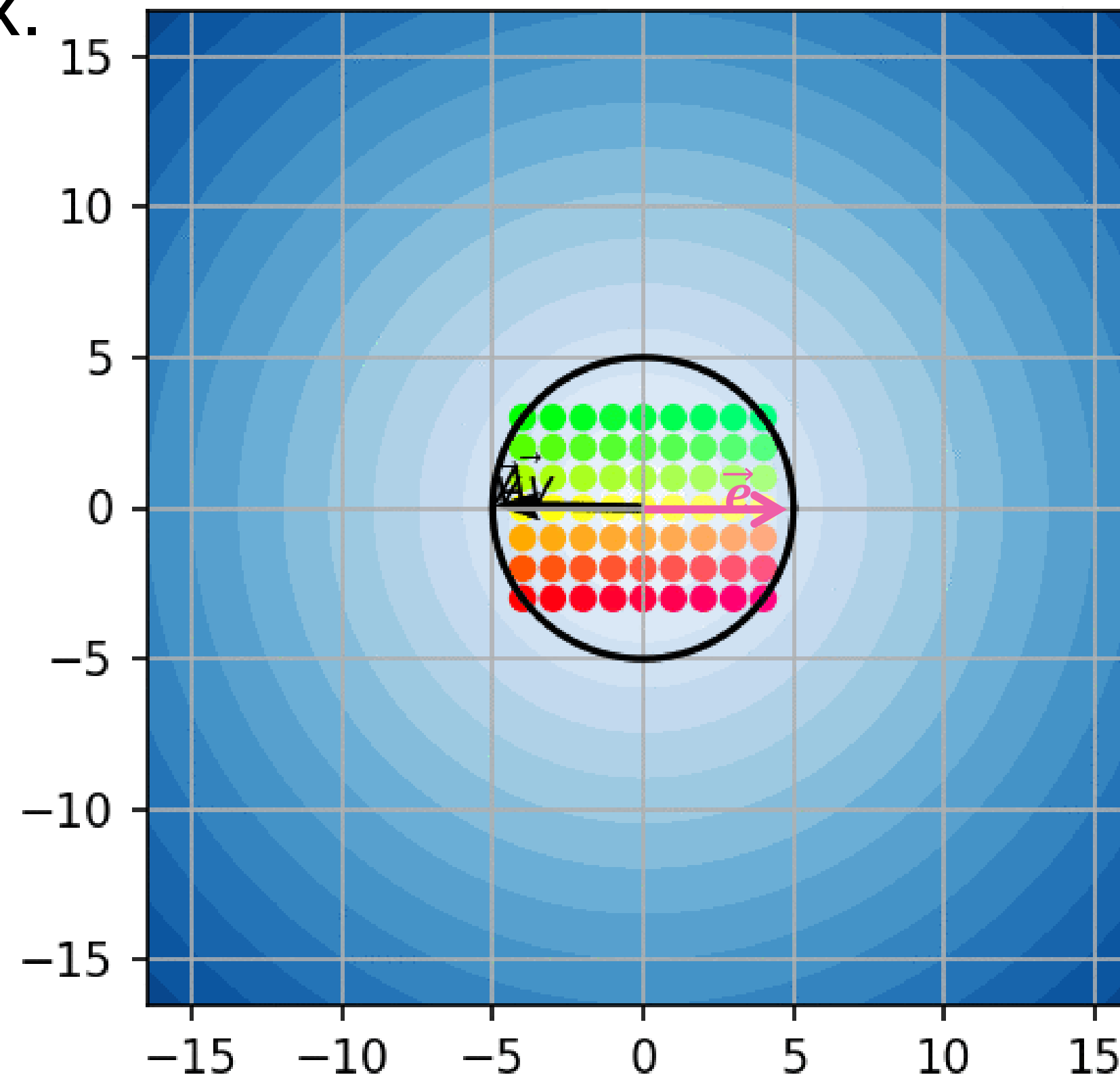


Credit: Ryan Holbrook

# Eigenvectors vs. Right-Singular Vectors

Eigenvectors are the directions along which the vector retains its direction after being transformed by the matrix.

$$A\vec{u}_i = \lambda_{ii}\vec{u}_i$$



$\vec{v}$  - the right singular vector  
 $A\vec{v}$  - after matrix transformation

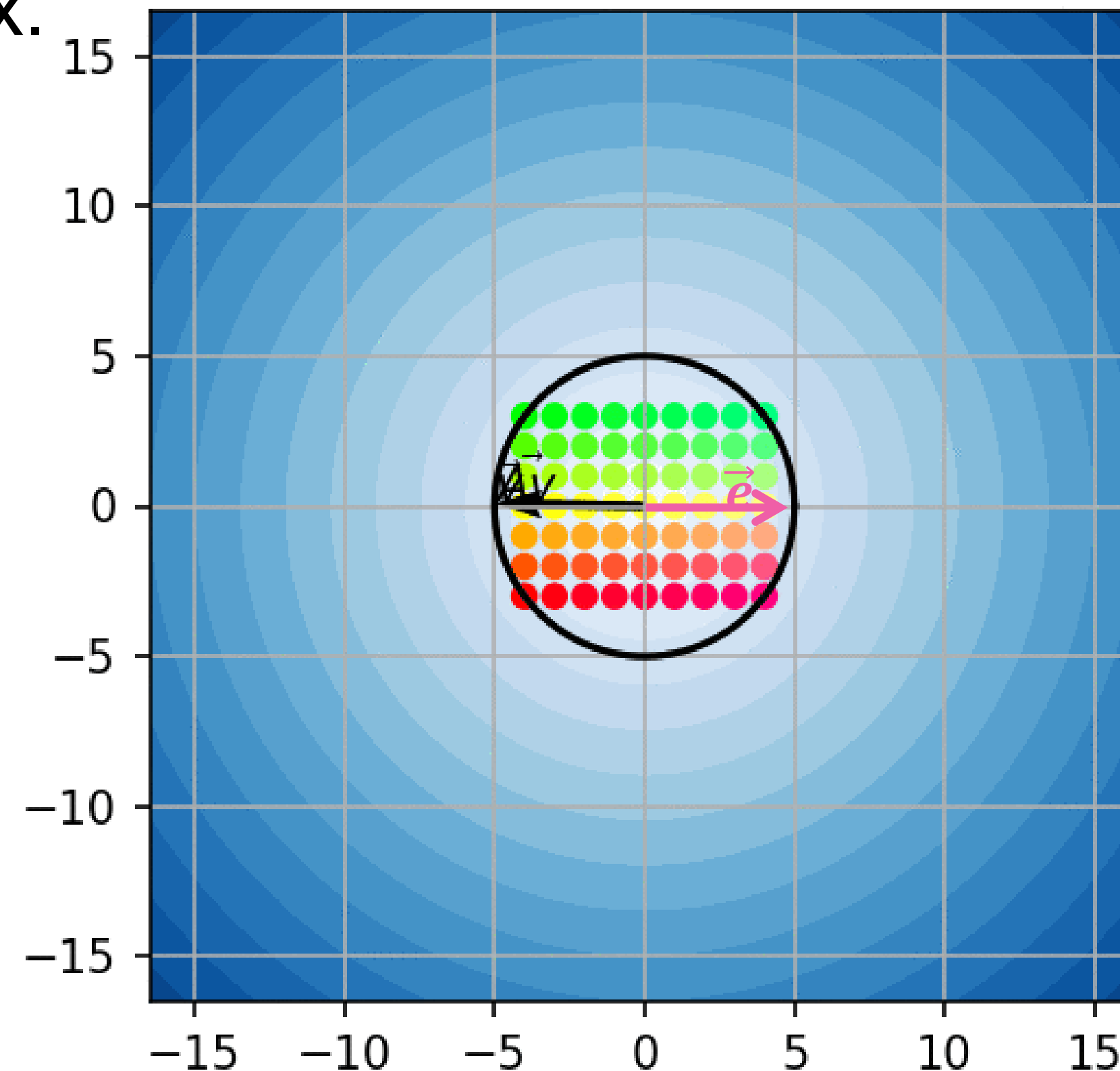
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Eigenvectors vs. Right-Singular Vectors

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For asymmetric matrices, eigenvectors are not necessarily orthogonal; in this case, they are coincident



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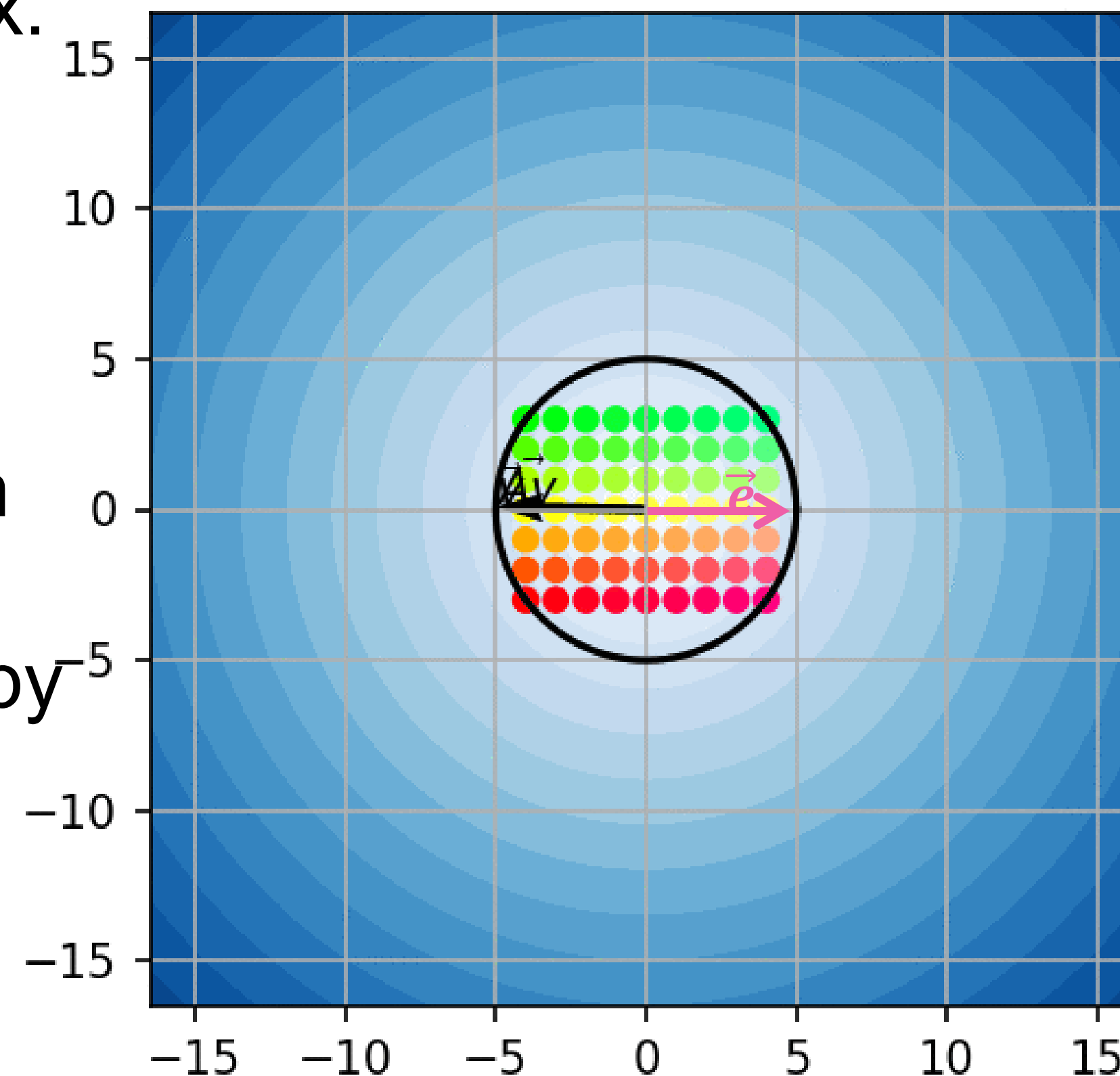
$$A\vec{u}_i = \lambda_{ii}\vec{u}_i$$

The right-singular vector with the largest singular value is the direction along which a unit vector becomes the longest after being transformed by the matrix.

$$\sigma_{1,1} = \max_{\vec{x}: \|\vec{x}\|_2=1} \|A\vec{x}\|_2$$

$$\vec{v}_1 = \arg \max_{\vec{x}: \|\vec{x}\|_2=1} \|A\vec{x}\|_2$$

For asymmetric matrices, eigenvectors are not necessarily orthogonal; in this case, they are coincident



$\vec{v}$  - the right singular vector  
 $A\vec{v}$  - after matrix transformation

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# Eigendecomposition More Generally

For asymmetric matrices, sometimes eigendecomposition is possible

- Only possible when the matrix is diagonalizable

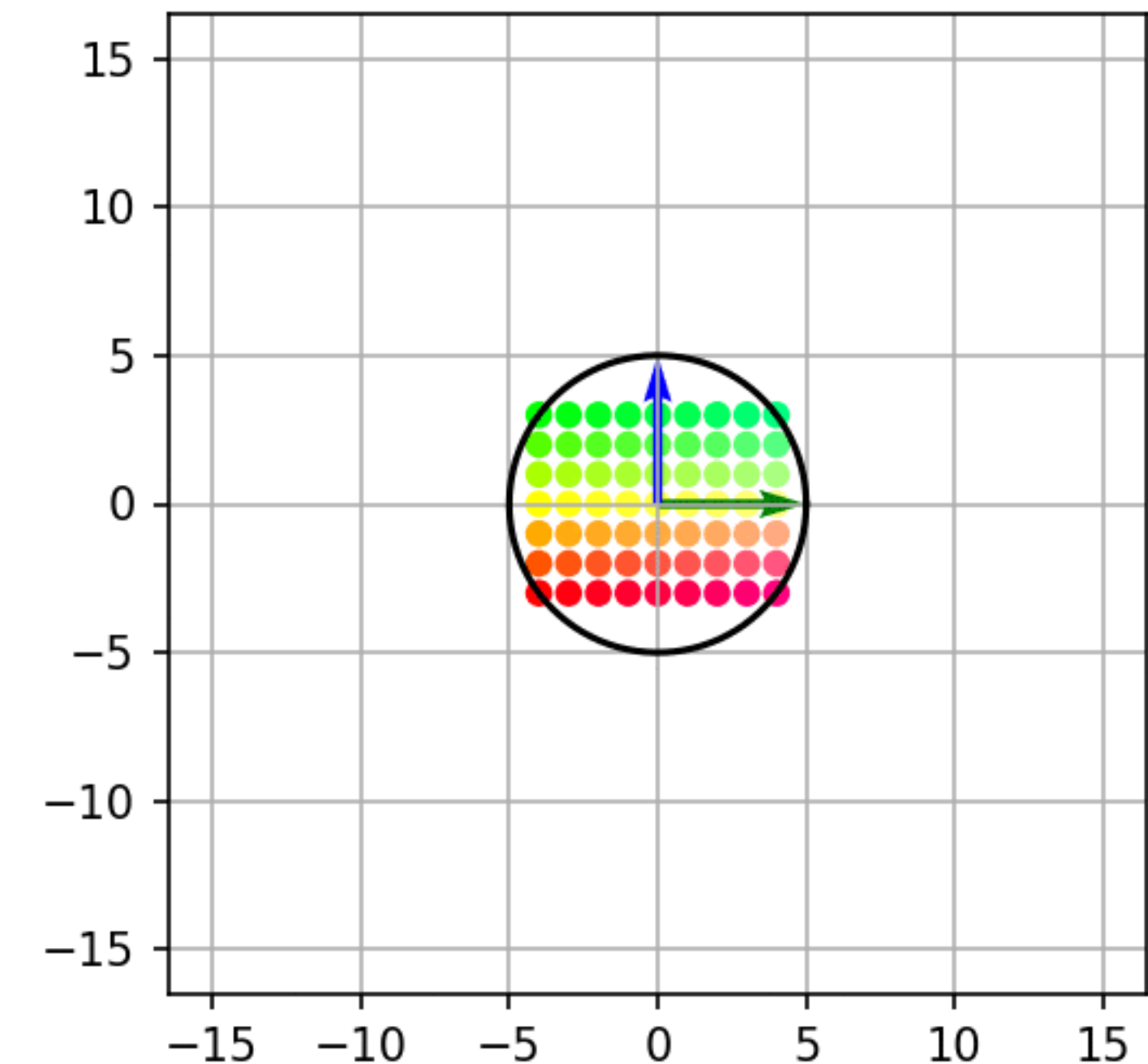
In such cases:

Eigenvectors are not necessarily orthogonal

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors are not necessarily real

No straightforward geometric interpretation

$$A = U\Lambda U^{-1} \neq U\Lambda U^T$$



$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$



# SVD and Eigendecomposition

SVD and eigendecomposition are closely related:

The right-singular vectors are eigenvectors of  $A^T A$ .

The left-singular vectors are eigenvectors of  $AA^T$ .

The non-zero singular values are the square roots of non-zero eigenvalues of  $A^T A$   
(or equivalently the square roots of non-zero eigenvalues of  $AA^T$ )

# Application of Eigendecomposition

Finding the inverse of a symmetric matrix:

$$A = U\Lambda U^T$$

$$A^{-1} = (U\Lambda U^T)^{-1} = (U^T)^{-1}\Lambda^{-1}U^{-1} = U\Lambda^{-1}U^T$$

Since  $\Lambda$  is diagonal

$$\Lambda^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_{11}} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda_{22}} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \frac{1}{\lambda_{nn}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Why?