

SVD

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STAT 207: Singular Value Decomposition

Zhe Fei (zhe.fei@ucr.edu) In many modern applications involving large data sets, statisticians are confronted with a large $m \times n$ matrix $X = (x_{ij})$ that encodes n features on each of m objects.

- In gene microarray studies x_{ij} represents the expression level of the i th gene under the j th experimental condition.
- In information retrieval, x_{ij} represents the frequency of the j th word or term in the i th document.

The singular value decomposition (SVD) captures the structure of such matrices.

For a $m \times m$ symmetric matrix A , $A = U\Sigma U^T$ with $U = (u_1, \dots, u_m)$ gives

$$A = \sum_{j=1}^m \sigma_j u_j u_j^T.$$

When $\sigma_j = 0$ for $j > k$, A has rank k .

SVD generalizes the spectral theorem to nonsymmetric matrices.

$$A = \sum_{j=1}^k \sigma_j u_j v_j^T = U\Sigma V^T. \quad (1)$$

If A is $m \times n$, then write the SVD as

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & \dots & u_k & u_{k+1} & \dots & u_m \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \dots & 0 & & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma_k & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1^T \\ \vdots \\ v_k^T \\ v_{k+1}^T \\ \vdots \\ v_n^T \end{pmatrix},$$

assuming $k < \min\{m, n\}$. The scalars $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_k$ are said to be **singular values** and conventionally are listed in decreasing order. The vectors u_1, \dots, u_k are known as **left singular vectors** and the vectors v_1, \dots, v_k as **right singular vectors**.

Basic Properties of the SVD

NAS Proposition 9.2.1 Every $m \times n$ matrix A has a singular value decomposition of the form (1) with positive diagonal entries for Σ .

Proof by induction.

Further we have

$$\begin{aligned} A^T &= \sum_{j=1}^k \sigma_j v_j u_j^T \\ AA^T &= \sum_{j=1}^k \sigma_j^2 u_j u_j^T \\ A^T A &= \sum_{j=1}^k \sigma_j^2 v_j v_j^T \end{aligned}$$

Hence, AA^T has nonzero eigenvalue σ_j^2 with corresponding eigenvector u_j , and $A^T A$ has nonzero eigenvalue σ_j^2 with corresponding eigenvector v_j .

The following partial inverse is important in practice:

NAS Proposition 9.2.2 The Moore-Penrose inverse $A^- = \sum_{j=1}^k \sigma_j^{-1} v_j u_j^T$

enjoys the properties

$$(AA^-)^T = AA^-(A^-A)^T = A^-AAA^-A = AA^-AA^- = A^-.$$

If A is square and invertible, then $A^- = A^{-1}$. If A has full column rank, then $A^- = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$.

NAS Proposition 9.2.3 Suppose the matrix A has full SVD $U\Sigma V^T$ with the diagonal entries σ_i of Σ appearing in decreasing order. The best rank- k approximation of A in the Frobenius norm is

$$B = \sum_{j=1}^k \sigma_j u_j v_j^T.$$

Furthermore, $\|A - B\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i>k} \sigma_i^2}$ and $\|A - B\|_2 = \sigma_{k+1}$.

Applications

Ridge Regression In ridge regression, we minimize the penalized sum of squares

$$\begin{aligned} f(\lambda) &= \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2 \\ &= (y - X\beta)^T (y - X\beta) + \lambda \beta^T \beta. \end{aligned}$$

The gradient of $f(\lambda)$ is

$$\nabla f(\lambda) = -2X^T(y - X\beta) + 2\lambda\beta.$$

Revised normal equations

$$(X^T X + \lambda I)\beta = X^T y,$$

with solution

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T y.$$

If we further write $X = \sum_j \sigma_j u_j v_j^T$, then

$$X^T y = \sum_j \sigma_j u_j (u_j^T y), \quad X^T X + \lambda I = \sum_j (\sigma_j^2 + \lambda) v_j v_j^T.$$

The parameter estimates and predicted values reduce to

$$\hat{\beta} = \sum_j \frac{\sigma_j}{\sigma_j^2 + \lambda} u_j^T y v_j, \quad \hat{y} = X \hat{\beta} = \sum_j \frac{\sigma_j^2}{\sigma_j^2 + \lambda} (u_j^T y) u_j.$$

Image Compression An image (scene) is recorded as an $m \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ of intensities.

- The entry a_{ij} represents the brightness of the pixel (picture element) in row i and column j of the scene.
- Storage issue when m and n are large
- Low rank approximate of $B = (b_{ij})$

```
[13]: import numpy as np
from PIL import Image

def compress_image(image_path, k):
    # Load the image and convert to grayscale
    image = Image.open(image_path).convert('L')

    # Convert the image to a numpy array
    A = np.array(image)
    print('Original size', A.shape)

    # Apply the SVD to the image
    U, S, Vt = np.linalg.svd(A)

    # Truncate SVD matrices to retain only the k largest singular values
    U_k = U[:, :k]
    S_k = np.diag(S[:k])
    Vt_k = Vt[:k, :]

    # Reconstruct the compressed image
    B = U_k @ S_k @ Vt_k

    # Convert the numpy array back to an image
    compressed_image = Image.fromarray(B.astype('uint8'), 'L')

    return compressed_image
```

```
[14]: # Example usage
compressed_image = compress_image('cholesky.png', k=50)
compressed_image
```

Original size (920, 684)

[14]:



```
[12]: # Example usage
compressed_image = compress_image('cholesky.png', k=20)
compressed_image
```

[12]:



Principal Components For a random vector Y with $E(Y) = 0$ and variance matrix $Var(Y)$, the first principal component $v_1^T Y$ is the linear combination that maximizes

$$Var(v^T Y) = v^T Var(Y) v.$$

With a centered random sample x_1, \dots, x_m , the sample variance is $X^T X$ with

$$X = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \begin{pmatrix} x_1^T \\ \vdots \\ x_m^T \end{pmatrix} = \sum_j \sigma_j u_j v_j^T.$$

The i th principal direction is given by the unit eigenvector v_i , and the variance of $v_i^T x_j$ over j is given by σ_i^2 .

Jacobi's Algorithm for the SVD

By modifying the algorithm for eigen-decomposition, but without the need to calculate $A^T A$.

Python Implementations

```
[66]: import numpy as np

# generate a random matrix
A = np.random.randint(1, 10, size=(4,3))
A
```

```
[66]: array([[7, 4, 4],
            [5, 9, 8],
            [7, 9, 1],
            [4, 1, 2]])
```

```
[68]: # compute the SVD of A
U, s, Vt = np.linalg.svd(A)

print(s)
# check that U and Vt are orthogonal and s is a diagonal matrix
print(np.allclose(np.eye(4), np.dot(U.T, U)))
print(np.allclose(np.eye(3), np.dot(Vt, Vt.T)))
```

```
[18.9973753  5.00374911  4.13064479]
True
True
```

```
[69]: # compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A
      B = A.T@A
      w, v = np.linalg.eig(B)

      print(w)
      print(np.allclose(np.dot(w[0],v[:,0]), B@v[:,0]))
      print(np.allclose(np.dot(w[1],v[:,1]), B@v[:,1]))
```

```
[360.90026845  17.0622264   25.03750515]
True
True
```

```
[70]: w2, v2 = np.linalg.eig(A@A.T)

      np.sum(w2)
```

```
[70]: 402.99999999999994
```

```
[ ]:
```