EEM3L1: Numerical and Analytical Techniques Lecture 5: Singular Value Decomposition SVD (1)

Motivation for SVD (1)

SVD = **Singular Value Decomposition**

Consider the system of linear equations Ax = b

Suppose *b* is perturbed to $b+\delta b$

Solution becomes $x = A^{-1}b + A^{-1}\delta b$

The consequent change in x is therefore $A^{-1}\delta b$

For what perturbation δb will the error be biggest?

How big can the norm of the error be, in terms of $\|\delta b\|$?

The norm of the error, relative to $\|\delta b\|$ can be expressed in terms of a number called the **smallest singular value** of A

Motivation for SVD (2)

- Which direction *b* must be perturbed in to give the biggest error?
- If cond(A) is large. How can we then find an accurate solution to Ax = b?
- Both of these questions can also be addressed using Singular Value Decomposition
- The remainder of the section of linear algebra will be taken up with **Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)**

Orthogonal Matrices revisited

Remember that an $m \times n$ matrix U is called **column** orthogonal if $U^TU = I$, where I is the identity matrix

In other words, the column vectors in U are orthogonal to each other and each of them are of unit norm

If n = m then *U* is called **orthogonal**.

In this case $UU^T=I$ also

SVD of a Matrix

Let *A* be an *m* x *n* matrix such that the number of rows *m* is greater than or equal to the number of columns *n*. Then there exists:

- (i) an $m \times n$ column orthogonal matrix U
- (ii) an $n \times n$ diagonal matrix S, with positive or zero elements, and
- (iii) an *n* x *n* orthogonal matrix V

such that: $A = USV^T$

This is the **Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)** of *A*

The Singular Values of A

Suppose $S = \text{diag}\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2, ..., \sigma_n\}$. By convention it is assumed that $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge ... \ge \sigma_n \ge 0$

The values σ_1 , σ_2 ,..., σ_n are called the **singular values** of A

SVD of a square matrix

The case where *A* is an *n* x *n* square matrix is of partiicular interest.

In this case, the **Singular Value Decomposition** of *A* is given

$$A = USV^T$$

Where V and U are **orthogonal** matrices

Example

Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9501 & 0.8913 & 0.8214 & 0.9218 \\ 0.2311 & 0.7621 & 0.4447 & 0.7382 \\ 0.6068 & 0.4565 & 0.6154 & 0.1763 \\ 0.4860 & 0.0185 & 0.7919 & 0.4057 \end{bmatrix}$$

In MATLAB, \gg [U,S,V]=svd(A); returns the SVD of A

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7301 & 0.1242 & 0.1899 & -0.6445 \\ 0.4413 & 0.6334 & -0.3788 & 0.5104 \\ 0.3809 & -0.3254 & 0.6577 & 0.5626 \\ 0.3564 & -0.6910 & -0.6229 & 0.0871 \end{bmatrix} \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} 0.4903 & -0.4004 & 0.5191 & -0.5743 \\ 0.4770 & 0.6433 & 0.4642 & 0.3783 \\ 0.5362 & -0.5417 & -0.2770 & 0.5850 \\ 0.4945 & 0.3638 & -0.6620 & -0.4299 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 2.4479 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.6716 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.3646 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.1927 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Singular values and Eigenvalues

The singular values of A are **not** the same as its eigenvalues

```
>> eig(A)
ans =
2.3230
0.0914+0.4586i
0.0914-0.4586i
0.2275
```

For any matrix A the matrix A^HA is normal with non-negative eigenvalues.

The singular values of A are the square roots of the eigenvalues of $A^H\!A$

Calculating Inverses with SVD

Let A be an n x n matrix.

Then U, S and V are also $n \times n$.

U and V are orthogonal, and so their inverses are equal to their transposes.

S is diagonal, and so its inverse is the diagonal matrix whose elements are the inverses of the elements of S.

$$A^{-1} = V \left[diag(\sigma_1^{-1}, \sigma_2^{-1}, ..., \sigma_n^{-1}) \right] U^T$$

Calculating Inverses (contd)

If one of the σ_i s is zero, or so small that its value is dominated by round-off error, then there is a problem!

The more of the σ_i s that have this problem, the 'more singular' A is.

SVD gives a way of determining how singular A is.

The concept of 'how singular' A is is linked with the condition number of A

The condition number of A is the ration of its largest singular value to its smallest singular value

The Null Space of A

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix

Consider the linear equations Ax=b, where x and b are vectors.

The set of vectors x such that Ax=0 is a linear vector space, called the **null space** of A

If *A* is invertible, the null space of *A* is the zero vector

If A is singular, the null space will contain non-zero vectors

The dimension of the null space of A is called the **nullity** of A

The Range of A

The set of vectors which are 'targets' for A, i.e. the set of all vectors b for which there exists a vector x such that Ax=b is called the **range** of A

The range of A is a linear vector space whose dimension is the **rank** of A

If A is singular, then the rank of A will be less than nn = Rank(A) + Nullity(A)

SVD, Range and Null Space

Singular Valued Decomposition constructs orthonormal bases for the range and null space of a matrix

The columns of U which correspond to non-zero singular values of A are an **orthonormal set of basis vectors for the range of** A

The columns of V which correspond to zero singular values form an **orthonormal basis for the null space of** A

Solving linear equations with SVD

Consider a set of **homogeneous** equations Ax=0.

Any vector *x* in the null space of *A* is a solution.

Hence any column of *V* whose corresponding singular value is zero is a solution

Now consider Ax=b and $b\neq 0$,

A solution only exists if b lies in the range of A

If so, then the set of equations does have a solution.

In fact, it has infinitely many solutions because if x is a solution and y is in the null space of A, then x+y is also a

Solving $Ax=b\neq 0$ using SVD

If we want a particular solution, then we might want to pick the solution x with the smallest length $|x|^2$

Solution is

$$x = V \left[diag(\sigma_1^{-1}, \sigma_2^{-1}, ..., \sigma_n^{-1}) \right] (U^T b)$$

where, for each singular value σ_j such that $\sigma_j = 0$, σ_j^{-1} is replaced by θ

Least Squares Estimation

If b is not in the range of A then there is no vector x such that Ax=b. So

$$x = V \left[diag(\sigma_1^{-1}, \sigma_2^{-1}, ..., \sigma_n^{-1}) \right] (U^T b)$$

cannot be used to obtain an exact solution.

However, the vector returned will do the 'closest possible job' in the least squares sense.

It will find the vector x which minimises R = ||Ax - b||R is called the **residual** of the solution