

Singular value decomposition and pseudo-inverses

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1 Gramian matrices

Given a set of vectors $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$, the Gramian matrix is the traditionally matrix of inner products $\langle a_i, a_j \rangle$. If these vectors are collected into a $m \times n$ matrix A , this matrix can be expressed as $A^t A$. Here, we will use the term for any matrix in this form. By starting out with the transpose instead, this means that AA^t is also a Gramian, with dual results.

Theorem 1.1. *If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, then $A^t A$ is symmetric and positive semi-definite. Iff A has rank m , $A^t A$ is positive definite.*

Proof. $(A^t A)^t = A^t (A^t)^t = A^t A$ shows symmetry. positive semi-definiteness, let $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then:

$$x^t A^t A x = \langle Ax, Ax \rangle = \|Ax\|^2 \quad (1.1)$$

As a norm, this is greater than or equal to zero. Hence $A^t A$ is positive semi-definite. If A has rank m the map $x \mapsto Ax$ has a trivial kernel by the rank-kernel theorem. Which means only the zero vector is mapped to zero, and hence $A^t A$ is positive definite. If the rank is less than m , the kernel is non-trivial and positive definiteness cannot be true. \square

2 The rank-nullity theorem

2.1 For A and A^t

According to the rank-nullity theorem, for a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, the sum of the rank and nullity is n . So, if the rank of A is r , then $\text{null}A = n - r$. Applying the theorem to A^t , which also has rank r , we get $\text{null}A = m - r$.

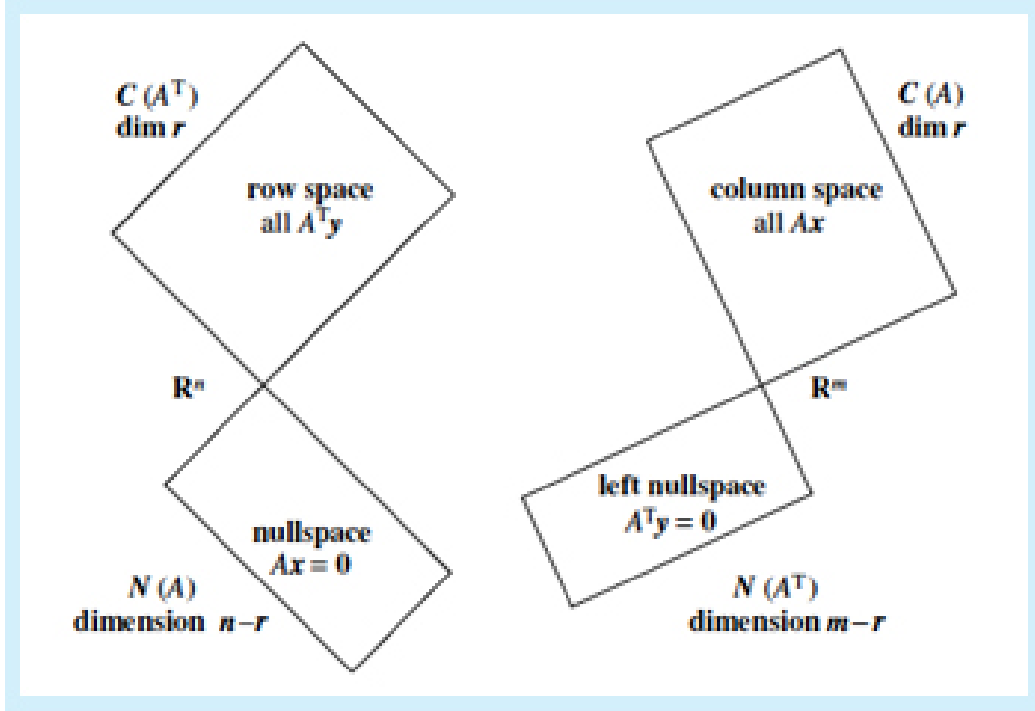


Figure 1: Visualization of dimensionality for the rank-nullity theorem

The image of A is also called the *column space* of A , denoted $C(A)$. The image of A^t is also called the *row space* of A , $C(A^t)$. The null space of A^t is often called the *left null space*.

These relationships are visualized in figure 1.

3 Singular value decomposition

3.1 Construction and intuition

We know that the dimensions of the row and column spaces of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ are the same, r . We now seek out orthonormal bases of each of these spaces - u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r for column space and v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r for row space, such that

$$Av_i = \sigma_i u_i \quad (3.1)$$

The sigmas are known as *singular values* for A . Now, expand the orthonormal bases to include the null spaces. This means that $Av_i = 0$ for $r < i \leq n$. In matrix form this means:

$$AV = U\Sigma \quad (3.2)$$

Here, the columns of U and V are made from the respective bases, so $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, and $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is a diagonal $n \times n$ matrix with the σ_i 's in the first r places of the diagonal and zeroes in the rest. Solving for A we get:

$$A = U\Sigma V^t \quad (3.3)$$

Here we have used that orthogonal matrices are invertible with their transpose as the inverse. This is the famous *singular value decomposition* of A .

3.2 Finding U and V

The question is how to find U and V ? To do so, consider the Gramian matrix of A :

$$A^t A = (U\Sigma V^t)^t U\Sigma V^t = V\Sigma^t U^t U\Sigma V^t = V(\Sigma^t \Sigma) V^t \quad (3.4)$$

But since Σ is diagonal, $(\Sigma^t \Sigma)$ is simply a square, diagonal matrix with $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \dots, \sigma_r^2$ in the first r entries of the diagonal and zeroes for the rest. We know that $A^t A$ is symmetric and hence diagonalizable. It is also positive semidefinite and so has non-negative eigenvalues. So we can find use normalized eigenvectors as columns of V and determine the singular values as the square roots of the non-zero eigenvalues.

Similarly, consider AA^t :

$$AA^t = U\Sigma V^t (U\Sigma V^t)^t = U\Sigma V^t V\Sigma^t U^t = U(\Sigma \Sigma^t) U^t \quad (3.5)$$

This is also symmetric and positive semi-definite. Again, $\Sigma \Sigma^t$ is square, this time $m \times m$. It still has the squares of singular values in the diagonal and zeroes for the rest. Now normalized eigenvectors can be used as columns of U .

4 Orthogonal projection

Let U be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n spanned by the linearly independent set of vectors a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m . Given a $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we wish to find a vector u in U , such that $e = x - u$ is orthogonal to U . That means it should be orthogonal to all a_i 's:

$$\forall i : a_i^t (x - u) = 0 \quad (4.1)$$

This can be expressed in matrix form by collecting all the a_i 's into a $n \times m$ matrix A :

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_m \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.2)$$

Then we may write:

$$A^t(x - u) = 0 \quad (4.3)$$

Since $u \in U$, it can be written as a linear combination of a_i 's, so $u = A\beta$. We want to solve for the coefficient vector β :

$$A^t(x - A\beta) = 0 \Leftrightarrow A^t x = A^t A \beta \quad (4.4)$$

Since the a_i 's are linearly independent, $A^t A$ is invertible, so:

$$\beta = (A^t A)^{-1} A^t x \quad (4.5)$$

The actual vector is then $A\beta = A(A^t A)^{-1} A^t x$. Which means that the projection operator $p_U : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow U$ is linear with the corresponding matrix being $P_U = A(A^t A)^{-1} A^t$.

Theorem 4.1. *The matrix P_U is symmetric and idempotent.*

Proof. Both follow directly from the formula $P_U = A(A^t A)^{-1} A^t$:

- Symmetry: $P_U^t = (A(A^t A)^{-1} A^t)^t = A [(A^t A)^{-1}]^t A^t$. But since the transpose of an inverse is the inverse of a transpose, and $A^t A$ is symmetric by theorem 1.1 we have $[(A^t A)^{-1}]^t = [(A^t A)^t]^{-1} = (A^t A)^{-1}$. Hence $P_U^t = A(A^t A)^{-1} A^t = P_U$.
- Idempotency: $P_U^2 = (A(A^t A)^{-1} A^t)^2 = A(A^t A)^{-1} A^t A (A^t A)^{-1} A^t = A(A^t A)^{-1} A^t = P_U$.

□

5 Generalized inverses

For an invertible matrix A , it's obviously true that:

$$A A^{-1} A = A \quad (5.1)$$

If A is not invertible, we may still define a *generalized inverse* A^g as a matrix that satisfies the same equation:

$$A A^g A = A \quad (5.2)$$

If A^g further satisfies:

$$A^g A A^g = A^g, \quad (5.3)$$

it is called a *reflexive generalized inverse*.

5.1 Left and right inverses

If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ has rank n , then the null space is trivial, and hence the corresponding linear transformation is injective. This means that the equation $Ax = b$ may or may not have a solution, but if it exists, it's unique. The matrix $A^t A$ has rank n as well, and hence is invertible. This can be used to construct a left inverse:

$$A_L^{-1} = (A^t A)^{-1} A^t, \quad A_L^{-1} A = (A^t A)^{-1} A^t A = I_n \quad (5.4)$$

Similarly, if $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ has rank m , then the image space is all of \mathbb{R}^m , and hence the corresponding linear transformation is surjective. This means that the equation $Ax = b$ always has a solution, and it may have infinitely many. The matrix AA^t has rank m as well, and hence is invertible. Analogously, we can use this to construct a right inverse:

$$A_R^{-1} = A^t (AA^t)^{-1}, \quad AA_R^{-1} = AA^t (AA^t)^{-1} = I_m \quad (5.5)$$

Both of these inverses (when they exist) satisfies equation 5.2. They also satisfy 5.3. For instance:

$$A_L^{-1} AA_L^{-1} = (A^t A)^{-1} A^t A (A^t A)^{-1} A^t = (A^t A)^{-1} A^t = A_L^{-1} \quad (5.6)$$

So both are reflexive, generalized inverses.

6 The Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse

The *Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse* or simply the pseudoinverse of a real matrix A is the reflexive, generalized inverse A^+ which also satisfies:

$$(AA^+)^t = AA^+, \quad (A^+A)^t = A^+A \quad (6.1)$$

In other words, for which AA^+ and A^+A are symmetrical.

6.1 Uniqueness

If such a pseudoinverse exists, it is unique (hence our use of definite article above). To show this, let B_1 and B_2 be pseudoinverses of A . Then:

$$AB_1 = (AB_1)^t = B_1^t A^t = B_1^t (AB_2 A)^t = B_1^t A^t B_2^t A^t = \quad (6.2)$$

$$(AB_1)^t (AB_2)^t = AB_1 AB_2 = AB_2 \quad (6.3)$$

Similarly:

$$B_1A = (B_1A)^t = A^tB_1^t = (AB_2A)^tB_1^t = A^tB_2^tA^tB_1^t = \quad (6.4)$$

$$(B_2A)^t(B_1A)^t = B_2AB_1A = B_2A \quad (6.5)$$

But then:

$$B_1 = B_1AB_1 = B_2AB_1 = B_2AB_2 = B_2 \quad (6.6)$$