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1.1 Singular value decomposition (SVD)

We are left with the task of reaching a (sort of) “eigenvalue decomposition” when the target matrix is not symmetric.

There are two way to generalize the eigenvalue decomposition to a nonsymmetric matrix A (with something that always exists):

Definition 1.1 (Schur decomposition). *Let $A \in M(n, \mathbb{R})$, $\exists U \in M(n, \mathbb{R})$ orthogonal matrix and $T \in M(n, \mathbb{R})$ triangular matrix such that $A = UTU^T$ and this is called **Schur decomposition**.*

What is really important for us is the **Singular value decomposition**, every square matrix A can be written with **SVD** form.

Every square matrix A can be written as SVD.

Definition 1.2 (Singular value decomposition). *Let $A \in M(n, \mathbb{R})$, $\exists U, V \in M(n, \mathbb{R})$ orthogonal matrices (V not necessary equal to U) and $\Sigma \in \text{Diag}(n, \mathbb{R})$ such that $A = U\Sigma V^T$ and this is called **Singular Value Decomposition**.*

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & \cdots & u_n \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \sigma_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \sigma_n \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} v_1^T \\ v_2^T \\ \vdots \\ v_n^T \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i \sigma_i v_i^T = \\ &= u_1 \sigma_1 v_1^T + u_2 \sigma_2 v_2^T + \cdots + u_n \sigma_n v_n^T \end{aligned}$$

Where σ_i are called **singular values** and they are sorted such that:

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \cdots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$$

General fact on singular values:

- Singular values \neq eigenvalues
- They are always positive and usually more spread apart than the eigenvalues.

$$\sigma_1 \geq |\lambda_1| \text{ and } |\lambda_m| \geq \sigma_m$$

λ_i is larger than the largest eigenvalue of a matrix A and λ_m is smaller than the smallest eigenvalue of a matrix A .

The SVD can be defined also for a rectangular matrix A :

Definition 1.3 (Rectangular matrices and SVD). Let $A \in M(m, n, \mathbb{R})$, there exist $U \in M(m, \mathbb{R})$ orthogonal, $V \in M(n, \mathbb{R})$ orthogonal and $\Sigma(m, n, \mathbb{R})$ diagonal in the sense that $\Sigma_{ij} = 0$ with $i \neq j$ (padded with zeros). Matrix A has a **SVD factorization**, where Σ has the following shape:

- case $m < n$ (e.g $m = 3, n = 5$)

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_3 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- case $m > n$ (e.g $m = 5, n = 3$)

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Definition 1.4 (Thin SVD). Let $A \in M(m, n, \mathbb{R})$, has a **thin SVD factorization**: we may restrict to compute only the first $\min(m, n)$ vectors that appear in this sum: thin SVD.

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{\min(m,n)} u_i \sigma_i v_i^T = u_1 \sigma_1 v_1^T + u_2 \sigma_2 v_2^T + \cdots + u_{\min(m,n)} \sigma_{\min(m,n)} v_{\min(m,n)}^T$$



Something on Matlab ...

In Matlab the SVD decomposition is obtained through the command `svd(A)`, which return value is made of the three matrices U, Σ, V .

As an example, `[U, S, V] = svd(A)`. Notice that, if `svd(A)` is assigned to one variable, then such variable is an array of singular values.

The thin SVD can be compute with: `[U, S, V] = svd(A, 0)`

Computational costs

We are not going into details of algorithms for computing SVD, but we would like to add a consideration about the computational complexity of such an algorithm.

- `[U, S, V] = svd(A, 0)` (thin) costs $O(mn^2)$ ops for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ or $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ with $m \geq n$
- `[U, S, V] = svd(A)` (non-thin) more expensive, because it has to store the large $m \times m$ factor. (But there are some tricks to store orthogonal matrices compactly, more about it later).

1.1.1 Properties of SVD

The SVD reveals rank, image, and kernel of a matrix.

Definition 1.5 (Rank). Let $A \in M(n, \mathbb{R})$ we call the **rank** of A the number of non-zero singular values.

Equivalently, the **rank** is the size of the column space.

Property 1.1. A matrix $A \in M(n, \mathbb{R})$ has rank r iff all its eigenvalues starting from the $r + 1$ -th are 0, formally iff $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > \sigma_{r+1} = \dots = \sigma_n = 0$.

Thanks to Property 1.1, we can somehow talk about an “even thinner” SVD, where all the 0s in the bottom right part of the matrix Σ , cancel out the latter columns of U and the latter rows of V (aka columns of V^T). A pictorial representation of the shape of Σ can be found below.

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & & & \\ & \sigma_2 & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & \sigma_r & & \\ \hline & & & & 0 & \\ & & & & & \ddots \\ \hline & & & & & & 0 \\ \hline & & & & & & & \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix}$$

This factorization represents A as $\sum_{i=1}^r U_i \sigma_i V_i$.

An attentive reader may notice that $Ax = \sum_{i=1}^r U_i \sigma_i V_i x$, where the last three terms are dimensionally a scalar. It goes without saying that the image of A is the span of U_1, U_2, \dots, U_r , hence $rk(A) = r$.

Moreover, $\ker(A) = \text{span}(V_{r+1}, V_{r+2}, \dots, V_n)$, since V is orthogonal (proof: plugging in $x = V_j$, where $j > r$).

Definition 1.6 (Matrix norm). Let $A \in M(m, n, \mathbb{R})$. We define the **matrix norm** of A as

$$\|A\| := \max_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|} = \max_{z=1} \|Az\|$$

Where the norm may be any of the ones defined in ?? second equality is introduced in order to work in a compact set, the one of normalized vectors z .

Notice that $\|Ax\| \leq \|A\| \cdot \|x\|$.

Property 1.2. Let A and $B \in M(n, m, \mathbb{R})$ and let $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the following holds, for any norm defined in ??:

- $\|A\| \geq 0$ (and the equality holds iff $A = 0$);
- $\|\alpha A\| = |\alpha| \|A\|, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$;
- $\|A + B\| \leq \|A\| + \|B\|$;
- $\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \|B\|$;
- $\|Ax\| \leq \|A\| \|x\|$.

Fact 1.3. Let $A \in (n, m, \mathbb{R})$ and let $U \in M(m, n, \mathbb{R})$ orthogonal, in the case of 2-norm $\|A\|_2 = \|AU\|_2 = \|UA\|_2$.

Proof. $\|UA\|_2 = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0} \frac{\|UAx\|_2}{\|x\|_2} \stackrel{(1)}{=} \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|_2}{\|x\|_2} = \|A\|_2$, where $\stackrel{(1)}{=}$ follows from a property of vector norms.

$\|AU\|_2 = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0} \frac{\|AUx\|_2}{\|x\|_2} \stackrel{(2)}{=} \max_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n, y \neq 0} \frac{\|Ay\|_2}{\|y\|_2} = \|A\|_2$, where $\stackrel{(2)}{=}$ follows from the substitution $y = Ux$. \square

Definition 1.7 (Frobenius norm). Let $A \in M(n, m, \mathbb{R})$, we term **Frobenius norm** of A $\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m (A)_{ij}^2}$.

Notice that all the properties enumerated in Property 1.2 hold for the Frobenius norm as well.

Fact 1.4. Let $A \in M(n, m, \mathbb{R})$ and let $A = U\Sigma V^T$ be its singular value decomposition. The following hold:

1. $\|A\|_2 = \|\Sigma\|_2 = \sigma_1$
2. $\|A\|_F = \|\Sigma\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{\min n, m} \sigma_i^2}$

Proof. 1. The first equality follows from Proposition 1.3, while the second is proved as

follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\Sigma\|_2 &= \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0} \frac{\|\Sigma x\|_2}{\|x\|_2} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0} \frac{\left\| \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \sigma_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \sigma_n \\ & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2}{\left\| \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0} \frac{\left\| \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 x_1 \\ \sigma_2 x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_n x_n \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2}{\left\| \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2} \\
&= \frac{\sqrt{(\sigma_1 x_1)^2 + (\sigma_2 x_2)^2 + \cdots + (\sigma_n x_n)^2}}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}} \leq \frac{\sqrt{(\sigma_1 x_1)^2 + (\sigma_1 x_2)^2 + \cdots + (\sigma_1 x_n)^2}}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}} \\
&= \sqrt{\sigma_1^2} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}} = \sigma_1
\end{aligned} \tag{1.1}$$

The equality is achieved if we pick $x = e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

2. The proof of this assertion is similar to the other and it is left to the reader. \square

Theorem 1.5 (Eckart-Young). *Let $A \in M(n, m, \mathbb{R})$ and let $A = U\Sigma V^T$ be its singular value decomposition.*

The solution of $\min_{rk(X) \leq k} \|A\| - X$ is given by the truncated SVD:

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} U^1 & U^2 & \cdots & U^k \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \sigma_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \sigma_k \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} V^1 \\ V^2 \\ \vdots \\ V^k \end{pmatrix}$$

Where the norm is both $\|\cdot\|_2$ and $\|\cdot\|_F$.

Fact 1.6. *Let $A \in M(n, \mathbb{R})$ and let A be invertible. The following holds: $\|A^{-1}\| = \frac{1}{\sigma_n}$*

Proof. Since A is invertible, none of the σ_i is 0, hence the smaller (namely σ_n) is not 0.

$$A^{-1} = (U\Sigma V^T)^{-1} \stackrel{(1)}{=} V^{T^{-1}}\Sigma^{-1}U^{-1} = V \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_1} & & & \\ & \frac{1}{\sigma_2} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \frac{1}{\sigma_n} \end{pmatrix} U^T$$

Where $\stackrel{(1)}{=}$ follows from the orthogonality of V and U .

Notice that this is *almost* an SVD, because the values on the diagonal are not sorted in a decreasing order.

Plugging in the norm, we have:

$$\|A^{-1}\| = \left\| V \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_1} & & & \\ & \frac{1}{\sigma_2} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \frac{1}{\sigma_n} \end{pmatrix} U^T \right\| = \left\| \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_1} & & & \\ & \frac{1}{\sigma_2} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \frac{1}{\sigma_n} \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \frac{1}{\sigma_n}$$

□