

5374 Fall '22

Numerical Linear Algebra

Lecture 23

More on the Singular Value Decomposition

Theorem (The SVD): Let A be a $m \times n$ matrix, then exist three matrices U , Σ , V such that:

U is $m \times m$, orthogonal

V is $n \times n$, orthogonal

Σ is $m \times n$, diagonal

and such that

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

Moreover, the numbers along the diagonal of Σ are all nonnegative and written as:

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \sigma_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \end{pmatrix} \quad (m \times n)$$

with $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq 0$.

Remark: The numbers $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots$ are uniquely

determined, i.e. if \exists a second triplet U', Σ', V' such that $A = U' \Sigma' (V')^T$ and $U'^T U' = I$, $V' V'^T = I$ are orthogonal, Σ' is diagonal with non-negative decreasing entries then $\Sigma = \Sigma'$. Thus the sequence of numbers $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots$ are a well defined property of A , and they are called the singular values of A . If A has a SVD decomposition with $A = U \Sigma V^T$, then the columns of U and V are called left and right eigenvectors (or singular vectors).

Proof Construction of the SVD

Consider A which is $m \times n$, and for now assume $m \geq n$ and $\text{rank}(A) = n$, so in particular A is injective. Consider the function

$$f(x) = \|Ax\|_2 \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

What is the gradient of $f(x)$?

Exercise : $\nabla f(x) = \frac{A^T A x}{\|Ax\|_2} \quad (x \neq 0)$

(Hint: $f(x) = \sqrt{(Ax, Ax)} = \sqrt{(A^T A x, x)}$)

Now suppose you want to find the largest and smallest values of $f(x)$ for x ranging over the unit sphere in \mathbb{R}^n . This is a constrained optimization problem that looks like this

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} & f(x) \\ \text{subject to} & g(x) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{when } f(x) = \|Ax\|_2 \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = \|x\|_2 - 1$$

This problem can be solved via Lagrange multipliers, and what one finds is that at a maximum point x_0 of $f(x)$ in the set $\{g=0\}$, we must have

$$\nabla f(x_0) = \lambda \nabla g(x_0)$$

for some number λ . (This is called the Lagrange multiplier).

In this particular case, we would get

$$\frac{A^t A x_0}{\|A x_0\|_2} = \lambda \frac{x_0}{\|x_0\|_2} = \lambda x_0 \quad \left(\text{since } \|x_0\|_2 = 1 \right)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (A^t A) x_0 = \lambda \|A x_0\|_2 x_0$$

This suggests that understanding how $f(x)$ varies goes through understanding the eigenvalues of $A^t A$.

Recall: $A^t A$ is a positive-semi-definite matrix
(in fact, positive-definite since $\text{rank}(A) = n$)

$$\left((A^t A x, x) = (Ax, Ax) = \|Ax\|_2^2 = f(x)^2 \right)$$

Then, we know from the theorem on diagonalization of symmetric matrices that there is an orthonormal basis v_1, \dots, v_n made out of eigenvectors of $A^t A$. Since $A^t A$ is positive-definite, its eigenvalues are all positive, so they can be written as squares of positive numbers.

Shuffling the order of the v_k if necessary, we have

$$A^t A v_k = \sigma_k^2 v_k \quad \text{for } k=1, \dots, n$$

where $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n > 0$.

Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} f(v_k) &= \sqrt{(A v_k, A v_k)} \\ &= \sqrt{(A^t A v_k, v_k)} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \sqrt{(\sigma_k^2 v_k, v_k)} = \sigma_k > 0$$

Then, let us define n vectors in \mathbb{R}^m by

$$u_k := \frac{Av_k}{\sigma_k}, \quad \text{for } k=1, \dots, n.$$

The u_k are unit vectors, plus

$$\begin{aligned} (u_k, u_j) &= \left(\frac{Av_k}{\sigma_k}, \frac{Av_j}{\sigma_j} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma_k \sigma_j} (Av_k, Av_j) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma_k \sigma_j} (A^t A v_k, v_j) \\ &= \frac{\sigma_k}{\sigma_j} (v_k, v_j) = \delta_{kj} \end{aligned}$$

What do we have? We have:

- An orthonormal basis v_1, \dots, v_n of \mathbb{R}^n
- n positive numbers $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$
- An orthonormal family u_1, \dots, u_n of \mathbb{R}^m

where, for each $k=1, \dots, n$

$$Av_k = \sigma_k u_k$$

In any way I like, let me pick an additional

$m-n$ vectors $u_{n+1}, u_{n+2}, \dots, u_m$ in \mathbb{R}^m chosen such that u_1, \dots, u_m is an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^m . Then, write

$$V = \left(v_1 \mid v_2 \mid \dots \mid v_n \right) \quad (n \times n)$$

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{}} \left(\begin{array}{cccc|cccc} \sigma_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & & & & \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & & & & & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \sigma_n & & & \\ \vdots & & & & 0 & \ddots & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{array} \right) \quad (m \times n)$$

$$U = \left(u_1 \mid u_2 \mid \dots \mid u_m \right) \quad (m \times m)$$

clearly, given $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$x = V V^T x$$

$$x = (x, v_1) v_1 + \dots + (x, v_n) v_n$$

$$\Rightarrow Ax = (x, v_1) A v_1 + \dots + (x, v_n) A v_n$$

$$= \sigma_1 (x, v_1) u_1 + \dots + \sigma_n (x, v_n) u_n$$

$$= U (\Sigma V^T x)$$

$$= (U \Sigma V^T) x \quad \forall x$$

$$\text{So} \quad A = U \Sigma V^T$$

Remark : If $A = U \Sigma V^T$, then
 $A^T = V \Sigma^T U^T$

For the case where $A^t A$ is not invertible, we stop by defining u_1, \dots, u_k where $\sigma_k \neq 0$ and $\sigma_{k+1} = 0$, and complete this orthonormal family to a full basis.

Remark: There is also the "reduced SVD" which takes the form:

$$A = \tilde{U} \tilde{\Sigma} \tilde{V}^t$$

where \tilde{U} is $m \times n$, with orthonormal columns
 $\tilde{\Sigma}$ is $n \times n$, diagonal, nonincreasing and nonnegative diagonal entries
 \tilde{V} is $n \times n$, orthogonal.

Interesting facts about the SVD

1. If $A = U \Sigma V^t$, then

$$\begin{aligned} A^t A &= (V \Sigma^t \cancel{U^t}) (\cancel{U} \Sigma V^t) \\ &= V (\Sigma^t \Sigma) V^t \end{aligned}$$

Likewise,

$$AA^t = U \Sigma \Sigma^t U^t$$

2. Recall the Frobenius norm of a matrix

$$\|A\|_{Fr} = \sqrt{\text{tr}(A^t A)}$$

In light of the SVD,

$$\|A\|_{Fr} = \sqrt{\text{tr}(U \Sigma^t \Sigma U^t)}$$

U is orthogonal so $U(\Sigma^t \Sigma)U^t = U(\Sigma^t \Sigma)U^{-1}$

$$\Rightarrow \text{tr}(U \Sigma^t \Sigma U^t) = \text{tr}(\Sigma^t \Sigma)$$

$$= \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + \dots + \sigma_n^2$$

In conclusion, $\|A\|_{Fr} = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \dots + \sigma_n^2}$

3. The following characterization of the singular values and the singular vectors of A is crucial in numerical schemes for the SVD:

Let A be a $m \times n$ matrix. Consider

The following $(m+n) \times (m+n)$ matrix D

$$D = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} \overset{m}{O} & \overset{n}{A} \\ \hline A^t & O \end{array} \right) \begin{array}{l} | m \\ | n \end{array}$$

This is a symmetric $(m+n) \times (m+n)$ matrix.

Suppose $w \in \mathbb{R}^{m+n}$ is an eigenvector of D ,

$$Dw = \lambda w$$

Since $w \in \mathbb{R}^{m+n}$, we can write it as

$$w = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix}, \text{ where } \begin{array}{l} u \in \mathbb{R}^m \\ v \in \mathbb{R}^n \end{array}$$

Then (check that the dimensions match)

$$\begin{aligned} Dw &= \begin{pmatrix} O & A \\ A^t & O \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} Av \\ A^t u \end{pmatrix} = \lambda w = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda u \\ \lambda v \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

So w is an eigenvector \Leftrightarrow

$$Av = \lambda u, \quad A^t u = \lambda v$$