

# AMS526: Numerical Analysis I (Numerical Linear Algebra for Computational and Data Sciences)

## Lecture 4: More on SVD; Projectors

Xiangmin Jiao

SUNY Stony Brook

# Outline

1 Singular Value Decomposition (NLA§4-5)

2 Projectors (NLA§6)

# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

- Given  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , its SVD is

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

where  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  and  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  are orthogonal, and  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is diagonal

- If  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ , then its SVD is  $A = U\Sigma V^H$ , where  $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  and  $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  are unitary, and  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is diagonal
- Singular values* are diagonal entries of  $\Sigma$ , with entries  $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \cdots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$
- Left singular vectors* of  $A$  are column vectors of  $U$
- Right singular vectors* of  $A$  are column vectors of  $V$  and are the preimages of the principal semiaxes of  $AS$
- SVD plays prominent role in data analysis and matrix analysis

## Two Different Types of SVD

- **Full SVD:**  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ ,  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , and  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is

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

## Two Different Types of SVD

- **Full SVD:**  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ ,  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , and  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is

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

- **Thin SVD (Reduced SVD):**  $\hat{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $\hat{\Sigma} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  (assume  $m \geq n$ )

$$A = \hat{U}\hat{\Sigma}V^T$$

## Two Different Types of SVD

- **Full SVD:**  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ ,  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , and  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is

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

- **Thin SVD (Reduced SVD):**  $\hat{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $\hat{\Sigma} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  (assume  $m \geq n$ )

$$A = \hat{U}\hat{\Sigma}V^T$$

- Furthermore, notice that

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{\min\{m,n\}} \sigma_i u_i v_i^T$$

so we can keep only entries of  $U$  and  $V$  corresponding to nonzero  $\sigma_i$ .

# Existence of SVD

## Theorem

(Existence) Every matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  has an SVD.

Proof: Let  $\sigma_1 = \|A\|_2$ . There exists  $v_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\|v_1\|_2 = 1$  and  $\|Av_1\|_2 = \sigma_1$ . Let  $U_1$  and  $V_1$  be orthogonal matrices whose first columns are  $u_1 = Av_1/\sigma_1$  (or any unit-length vector if  $\sigma_1 = 0$ ) and  $v_1$ , respectively. Note that

$$U_1^T A V_1 = S = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & \omega^T \\ 0 & B \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

Furthermore,  $\omega = 0$  because  $\|S\|_2 = \sigma_1$ , and

$$\left\| \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & \omega^T \\ 0 & B \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ \omega \end{bmatrix} \right\|_2 \geq \sigma_1^2 + \omega^T \omega = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \omega^T \omega} \left\| \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ \omega \end{bmatrix} \right\|_2,$$

implying that  $\sigma_1 \geq \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \omega^T \omega}$  and  $\omega = 0$ .

## Existence of SVD Cont'd

We then prove by induction using (1). If  $m = 1$  or  $n = 1$ , then  $B$  is empty and we have  $A = U_1 S V_1^T$ . Otherwise, suppose  $B = U_2 \Sigma_2 V_2^T$ , and then

$$A = \underbrace{U_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0^T \\ 0 & U_2 \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0^T \\ 0 & \Sigma_2 \end{bmatrix}}_{\Sigma} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0^T \\ 0 & V_2^T \end{bmatrix}}_{V^T} V_1^T,$$

where  $U$  and  $V$  are orthogonal.



# Uniqueness of SVD

## Theorem

*(Uniqueness) The singular values  $\{\sigma_j\}$  are uniquely determined. If  $A$  is square and the  $\sigma_j$  are distinct, the left and right singular vectors are uniquely determined **up to signs**.*

Geometric argument: If the lengths of semiaxes of a hyperellipse are distinct, then the semiaxes themselves are determined by the geometry up to signs.

## Uniqueness of SVD Cont'd

Algebraic argument: Based on 2-norm and prove by induction. Consider the case where the  $\sigma_j$  are distinct. The 2-norm is unique, so is  $\sigma_1$ . If  $v_1$  is not unique up to sign, then the orthonormal bases of these vectors are right singular vectors of  $A$ , implying that  $\sigma_1$  is not a simple singular value.

Once  $\sigma_1$ ,  $u_1$ , and  $v_1$  are determined, the remainder of SVD is determined by the space orthogonal to  $v_1$ . Because  $v_1$  is unique up to sign, the orthogonal subspace is uniquely defined. Then prove by induction.

## Uniqueness of SVD Cont'd

Algebraic argument: Based on 2-norm and prove by induction. Consider the case where the  $\sigma_j$  are distinct. The 2-norm is unique, so is  $\sigma_1$ . If  $v_1$  is not unique up to sign, then the orthonormal bases of these vectors are right singular vectors of  $A$ , implying that  $\sigma_1$  is not a simple singular value.

Once  $\sigma_1$ ,  $u_1$ , and  $v_1$  are determined, the remainder of SVD is determined by the space orthogonal to  $v_1$ . Because  $v_1$  is unique up to sign, the orthogonal subspace is uniquely defined. Then prove by induction.

- Question: What if we change the sign of a singular vector?

## Uniqueness of SVD Cont'd

Algebraic argument: Based on 2-norm and prove by induction. Consider the case where the  $\sigma_j$  are distinct. The 2-norm is unique, so is  $\sigma_1$ . If  $v_1$  is not unique up to sign, then the orthonormal bases of these vectors are right singular vectors of  $A$ , implying that  $\sigma_1$  is not a simple singular value.

Once  $\sigma_1$ ,  $u_1$ , and  $v_1$  are determined, the remainder of SVD is determined by the space orthogonal to  $v_1$ . Because  $v_1$  is unique up to sign, the orthogonal subspace is uniquely defined. Then prove by induction.

- Question: What if we change the sign of a singular vector?
- Question: What if  $\sigma_i$  is not distinct?

## SVD vs. Eigenvalue Decomposition

- Eigenvalue decomposition of nondefective matrix  $A$  is  $A = X\Lambda X^{-1}$

# SVD vs. Eigenvalue Decomposition

- Eigenvalue decomposition of nondefective matrix  $A$  is  $A = X\Lambda X^{-1}$
- Differences between SVD and eigenvalue decomposition
  - ▶ Not every matrix has eigenvalue decomposition, but every matrix has singular value decomposition
  - ▶ Eigenvalues may not always be real numbers, but singular values are always non-negative real numbers
  - ▶ Eigenvectors are not always orthogonal to each other (orthogonal for symmetric matrices), but left (or right) singular vectors are orthogonal to each other

# SVD vs. Eigenvalue Decomposition

- Eigenvalue decomposition of nondefective matrix  $A$  is  $A = X\Lambda X^{-1}$
- Differences between SVD and eigenvalue decomposition
  - ▶ Not every matrix has eigenvalue decomposition, but every matrix has singular value decomposition
  - ▶ Eigenvalues may not always be real numbers, but singular values are always non-negative real numbers
  - ▶ Eigenvectors are not always orthogonal to each other (orthogonal for symmetric matrices), but left (or right) singular vectors are orthogonal to each other
- Similarities
  - ▶ Singular values of  $A$  are square roots of eigenvalues of  $AA^T$  and  $A^T A$ , and their eigenvectors are left and right singular vectors, respectively
  - ▶ Singular values of Hermitian matrices are absolute values of eigenvalues, and eigenvectors are singular vectors (up to signs)
  - ▶ This relationship can be used to compute singular values by hand

# Matrix Properties via SVD

- Let  $r$  be number of nonzero singular values of  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ 
  - ▶  $\text{rank}(A)$  is  $r$
  - ▶  $\text{range}(A) = \text{span}\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$
  - ▶  $\text{null}(A) = \text{span}\{v_{r+1}, v_{r+2}, \dots, v_n\}$
- 2-norm and Frobenius norm
  - ▶  $\|A\|_2 = \sigma_1$  and  $\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_i \sigma_i^2}$
- Determinant of matrix
  - ▶ For  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ ,  $|\det(A)| = \prod_{i=1}^m \sigma_i$



# Matrix Properties via SVD

- Let  $r$  be number of nonzero singular values of  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ 
  - ▶  $\text{rank}(A)$  is  $r$
  - ▶  $\text{range}(A) = \text{span}\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$
  - ▶  $\text{null}(A) = \text{span}\{v_{r+1}, v_{r+2}, \dots, v_n\}$
- 2-norm and Frobenius norm
  - ▶  $\|A\|_2 = \sigma_1$  and  $\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_i \sigma_i^2}$
- Determinant of matrix
  - ▶ For  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ ,  $|\det(A)| = \prod_{i=1}^m \sigma_i$
- However, SVD may not be the most efficient way in solving problems
- Algorithms for SVD are similar to those for eigenvalue decomposition and we will discuss them later

# Outline

1 Singular Value Decomposition (NLA§4-5)

2 Projectors (NLA§6)

# Projectors (Projection Matrices)

- A *projector* (aka *projection matrix*) satisfies  $P^2 = P$ . They are also said to be *idempotent*.
  - ▶ *Orthogonal* projector
  - ▶ *Oblique* projector
- An *orthogonal projector* is one that projects onto a subspace  $S_1$  along a space  $S_2$ , where  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are orthogonal.
  - ▶  $S_1 = \text{range}(P)$
  - ▶  $S_2 = \text{null}(P)$
- Example:  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \alpha & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 
  - ▶ is an oblique projector if  $\alpha \neq 0$ ,
  - ▶ is orthogonal projector if  $\alpha = 0$ .

# Orthogonal Projector

## Theorem

A projector  $P$  is orthogonal if and only if  $P = P^T$ .

Note: An alternative definition of *orthogonal projection* is  $P^2 = P$  and  $P = P^T$ , and it projects onto  $S = \text{range}(P)$ .

## Proof.

“If” direction: If  $P = P^T$ , then  $(Px)^T(I - P)y = x^T(P - P^2)y = 0$ .

“Only if” direction: Use SVD. Suppose  $P$  projects onto  $S_1$  along  $S_2$  where  $S_1 \perp S_2$ , and  $S_1$  has dimension  $n$ . Let  $\{q_1, \dots, q_n\}$  be orthonormal basis of  $S_1$  and  $\{q_{n+1}, \dots, q_m\}$  be a basis for  $S_2$ . Let  $Q$  be unitary matrix whose  $j$ th column is  $q_j$ , and we have  $PQ = (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n, 0, \dots, 0)$ , so  $Q^T P Q = \text{diag}(1, 1, \dots, 1, 0, \dots) = \Sigma$ , and  $P = Q \Sigma Q^T$ . □

# Orthogonal Projector

## Theorem

A projector  $P$  is orthogonal if and only if  $P = P^T$ .

Note: An alternative definition of *orthogonal projection* is  $P^2 = P$  and  $P = P^T$ , and it projects onto  $S = \text{range}(P)$ .

## Proof.

“If” direction: If  $P = P^T$ , then  $(Px)^T(I - P)y = x^T(P - P^2)y = 0$ .

“Only if” direction: Use SVD. Suppose  $P$  projects onto  $S_1$  along  $S_2$  where  $S_1 \perp S_2$ , and  $S_1$  has dimension  $n$ . Let  $\{q_1, \dots, q_n\}$  be orthonormal basis of  $S_1$  and  $\{q_{n+1}, \dots, q_m\}$  be a basis for  $S_2$ . Let  $Q$  be unitary matrix whose  $j$ th column is  $q_j$ , and we have  $PQ = (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n, 0, \dots, 0)$ , so  $Q^T PQ = \text{diag}(1, 1, \dots, 1, 0, \dots) = \Sigma$ , and  $P = Q\Sigma Q^T$ . □

Question: Are orthogonal projectors orthogonal matrices?

# Complementary Projectors

- Complementary projectors:  $P$  vs.  $I - P$ . We write  $I - P$  as  $P_{\perp}$
- What space does  $I - P$  project?

# Complementary Projectors

- Complementary projectors:  $P$  vs.  $I - P$ . We write  $I - P$  as  $P_{\perp}$
- What space does  $I - P$  project?
  - ▶ Answer:  $\text{null}(P)$ .
  - ▶  $\text{range}(I - P) \supseteq \text{null}(P)$  because  $Pv = 0 \Rightarrow (I - P)v = v$ .
  - ▶  $\text{range}(I - P) \subseteq \text{null}(P)$  because for any  $v$   $(I - P)v = v - Pv \in \text{null}(P)$ .
- A projector separates  $\mathbb{R}^m$  into two complementary subspace: range space and null space (i.e.,  $\text{range}(P) + \text{null}(P) = \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\text{range}(P) \cap \text{null}(P) = \{0\}$  for projector  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ )
- It projects onto range space along null space
  - ▶ In other words,  $x = Px + r$ , where  $r \in \text{null}(P)$
- Question: Are range space and null space of projector orthogonal to each other?

# Uniqueness of Orthogonal Projector

- Orthogonal projector for a subspace is unique
- In other words, for  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be a subspace, if  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are each orthogonal projector onto  $S$ , then  $P_1 = P_2$
- Proof: For any  $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\|(P_1 - P_2)z\|_2^2 &= z^T (P_1 - P_2)(P_1 - P_2)z \\&= z^T P_1(P_1 - P_2)z - z^T P_2(P_1 - P_2)z \\&= z^T P_1(I - P_2)z + z^T P_2(I - P_1)z \\&= (P_1 z)^T (I - P_2)z + (P_2 z)^T (I - P_1)z \\&= 0\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $\|P_1 - P_2\|_2 = 0$ , and  $P_1 = P_2$ .



# Projections with Orthonormal Basis

- Given unit vector  $q$ ,  $P_q = qq^T$  and  $P_{\perp q} = I - P_q$
- Given any matrix  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  whose columns  $q_j$  are orthonormal,  $P = QQ^T = \sum_j q_j q_j^T$  is orthogonal projector onto  $\text{range}(Q)$
- SVD-related projections
  - ▶ Suppose  $A = U\Sigma V^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is SVD of  $A$ , and  $r = \text{rank}(A)$
  - ▶ Partition  $U$  and  $V$  to

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} U_r & \tilde{U}_r \end{bmatrix}, \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} V_r & \tilde{V}_r \end{bmatrix}$$

$\begin{matrix} r & m-r \end{matrix} \qquad \qquad \begin{matrix} r & n-r \end{matrix}$

- ▶ What do  $U_r U_r^T$ ,  $\tilde{U}_r \tilde{U}_r^T$ ,  $V_r V_r^T$ , and  $\tilde{V}_r \tilde{V}_r^T$  project onto, respectively?

# Projections with Orthonormal Basis

- Given unit vector  $q$ ,  $P_q = qq^T$  and  $P_{\perp q} = I - P_q$
- Given any matrix  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  whose columns  $q_j$  are orthonormal,  $P = QQ^T = \sum_j q_j q_j^T$  is orthogonal projector onto  $\text{range}(Q)$
- SVD-related projections
  - ▶ Suppose  $A = U\Sigma V^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is SVD of  $A$ , and  $r = \text{rank}(A)$
  - ▶ Partition  $U$  and  $V$  to

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} U_r & \tilde{U}_r \\ r & m-r \end{bmatrix}, \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} V_r & \tilde{V}_r \\ r & n-r \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ What do  $U_r U_r^T$ ,  $\tilde{U}_r \tilde{U}_r^T$ ,  $V_r V_r^T$ , and  $\tilde{V}_r \tilde{V}_r^T$  project onto, respectively?
  - ★ Answer:  $\text{range}(A)$ ,  $\text{null}(A^T)$ ,  $\text{range}(A^T)$ ,  $\text{null}(A)$

## Projection with Arbitrary Basis

- For arbitrary vector  $a$ , we write  $P_a = \frac{aa^T}{a^T a}$  and  $P_{\perp a} = I - P_a$
- Given any matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  that **has full rank** and  $m \geq n$ . Let  $A = U\Sigma V^T$  be its SVD

$$P = UU^T = A(A^T A)^{-1}A^T$$

is orthogonal projection onto  $\text{range}(P)$

- $(A^T A)^{-1}A^T$  is called the *pseudo-inverse* of  $A$ , denoted as  $A^+$
- Therefore,

$$P = UU^T = AA^+$$

- In addition,  $A^+A = I$
- Note: If  $m < n$ ,  $A^+ = A^T(AA^T)^{-1}$ , and  $AA^+ = I$  and  $A^+A$  is orthogonal projection onto  $\text{range}(A^T)$

## Distance Between Subspaces

- Suppose  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\dim(S_1) = \dim(S_2)$ , and  $P_i$  is orthogonal projection onto  $S_i$
- The *distance* between  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  is

$$\text{dist}(S_1, S_2) = \|P_1 - P_2\|_2$$

- Suppose  $W = \begin{bmatrix} W_1 & W_2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $Z = \begin{bmatrix} Z_1 & Z_2 \end{bmatrix}$  are  $n$ -by- $n$  orthogonal matrices.  
 $\begin{matrix} k & n-k \\ k & n-k \end{matrix}$   
If  $S_1 = \text{range}(W_1)$  and  $S_2 = \text{range}(Z_1)$ , then

$$\text{dist}(S_1, S_2) = \|W_1^T Z_2\|_2 = \|Z_1^T W_2\|_2$$

(proof omitted here)

- In general,  $0 \leq \text{dist}(S_1, S_2) \leq 1$
- If subspaces are lines or planes,  $\text{dist}(S_1, S_2)$  is sine of angle between them