

# Lecture 20

# Singular Value Decomposition

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Quit 9

Q7.  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 4 \\ -x & 5 & \# \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 6$  what is  $\lambda_3$

$\text{trace}(A) = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 6 + 6 + \lambda_3$

$2+5+2$

$\det(A) = \prod \lambda_i$

reason:

$$A = X^{-1} \begin{matrix} \diag(\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3) \\ \uparrow \end{matrix} X$$

$$\det(\Lambda) = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \cdots \lambda_n$$

$$\det(A) = \det(X^{-1}) \det(\Lambda) \det(X)$$

$$= \det(\Lambda)$$

$$= \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_n$$

$$\det(X^{-1}) \det(X) =$$

$$\det(X^{-1}X)$$

$$\det(I)$$

B is a  $3 \times 3$  matrix.

vector space.

$v_1, v_2$  are eigenvalue  $-2 \rightarrow c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2$  is still eigenvector of B

w are eigenvalue  $-3$

$$4w, B(4w) = 4Bw$$



$$= 4(3w)$$

$$= 12w = 3(4w)$$

Remark: for eigenvalue  $\lambda$

all eigenvectors is  $\text{Null}(A - \lambda I)$  which is a vector space.

1. all  $n \times n$  matrix have n eigenvalues.

- This is because  $p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$  is a  $n$ -th order polynomial.

But it doesn't mean we have "n" eigen-vectors, (counting the basis)

n-linear independent eigenvectors.

- If we have "n" eigen-vectors,  $\vec{x}_1 \dots \vec{x}_n$ ,  $\vec{X} = [\vec{x}_1 \dots \vec{x}_n]$

$A = \vec{X}^{-1} \Lambda \vec{X}$  matrix A can be diagonalized.

- If  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$  they are different from each other.

$\downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow$   
 $x_1 \dots x_2 \dots x_n$  are linear independent!

- If A can't be diagonalized means A have two repeated eigenvalues.

Example.  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$   $P(\lambda) = \det(B - \lambda I)$

$$= \det \begin{bmatrix} 1-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{This upper diag})$$

$$= (1-\lambda)^2 \rightarrow \underbrace{\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 1}_{\text{repeated eigenvalue}}$$

$C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \underbrace{\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 1, \lambda_3 = 2}_{\text{repeated eigenvalue}}$

Why we can't diagonalize  $B$  and  $C$

$$B - I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{rank is } 1, \dim(\text{Null}(B-I)) = 1$$

$\Rightarrow$  only "1" eigen vector but not 2

$$C - I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{rank is } 2 \rightarrow \dim(\text{Null}(C-I)) = 1$$

$$C - 2I = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{rank is } 2 \rightarrow \dim(\text{Null}(C-2I)) = 1$$

"2" eigen vector but not 3

Matrix  $C$   $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1, \lambda_3 = 2$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow$  2 eigen vectors of eigen value 1

$\hookrightarrow$  1 eigen vector of eigen value 2.

"Diagonalize" means repeat times = "number" of eigen vectors  $\rightarrow$  count the basis.

but for  $C$  matrix

repeat times > number of eigen vectors  
 $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1$  are eigen vectors.

Symmetric matrix  $A = A^T \rightarrow \vec{x}^T A \vec{x}$  is quadratic function respect to  $x_1 \dots x_n$

- $A$  can be diagonalized!
- $x_1 \dots x_n$  (eigenvector) orthogonal  $\Rightarrow A = \vec{X} \Lambda \vec{X}^{-1} = \vec{X} \Lambda \vec{X}^T$

$\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & \rightarrow \text{real number} \\ \vdots \\ x_n & \rightarrow \text{real number} \end{pmatrix}$

$$A = \lambda_1 x_1 x_1^T + \lambda_2 x_2 x_2^T + \dots + \lambda_n x_n x_n^T$$

ex.  $x_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow x_1 x_1^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow \text{rank is 1}$

$$\vec{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{a}^T A \vec{a} = \lambda_1 (x_1^T \vec{a})^2 + \lambda_2 (x_2^T \vec{a})^2 + \dots + \lambda_n (x_n^T \vec{a})^2$$

Quadratic function ex.  $x_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$  then  $(x_1^T \vec{a})^2 = \underbrace{(4\sqrt{2}a_1 + 4\sqrt{2}a_2)^2}_{\text{Simple square function!}}$  respect to  $a_1 \dots a_n$

### Positive Definite Matrix.

For matrix  $A = A^T$ ,  $\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_n > 0$

$$\Leftrightarrow \vec{a}^T A \vec{a} = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i (x_i^T \vec{a})^2 \rightarrow \vec{a}^T A \vec{a} \geq 0$$

positive def square function  $\geq 0$

Remark.  $A$  is positive definite.

$$\vec{a}^T A \vec{a} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \vec{a} = \vec{0}$$



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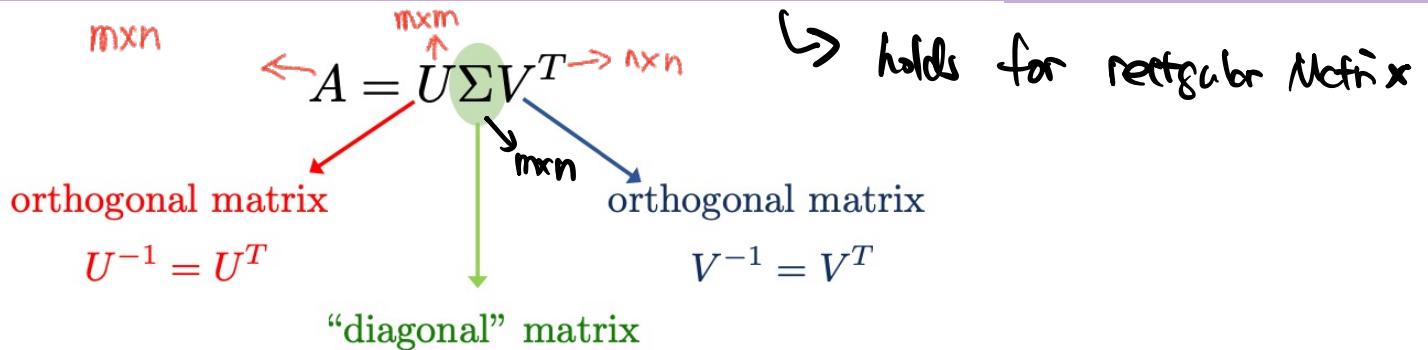
## Strang Chapter 7 – The Singular Value Decomposition



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**SVD**

SVD  $\rightarrow$  holds for all matrix



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

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

$$= V\Sigma^T \Sigma V^T$$

eigenvectors of  $A^T A$

eigenvalues of  $A^T A$

size!!

Example.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$2 \times 2$

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

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

$$= U\Sigma \Sigma^T U^T$$

eigenvectors of  $AA^T$

eigenvalues of  $AA^T$

should be zero

4x4

$2 \times 4$

$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$

SVD

$$A = U \Sigma V^T \quad \checkmark \text{ don't forget the Transpose here.}$$

Key idea

Even if  $A$  is rectangular.

$\underbrace{A^T A}_{\substack{n \times n \\ n \times n}}$  and  $\underbrace{A A^T}_{\substack{m \times m \\ m \times m}}$  are square and symmetric.

$$(A^T A)^T = A^T (\underbrace{A^T A})^T = A^T A. \Rightarrow A^T A \text{ is symmetric!!}$$

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

Assume we have  $A = U \Sigma V^T$

SVD of  $U \Sigma V^T$ .

$$\begin{aligned} A^T A &= (U \Sigma V^T)^T (U \Sigma V^T) \\ &= ((V^T)^T \Sigma^T \underbrace{U^T}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{orthogonal}}}) (U \Sigma V^T) \\ &\quad \text{This identity matrix for } U \text{ is orthogonal.} \\ &= (V) \underbrace{\Sigma^T \Sigma}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{diag}}} (V^T) \rightarrow \text{diagonalization of symmetric matrix } A^T A!! \\ &\quad V \text{ is } [v_1 \dots v_n] \quad v_1, \dots, v_n \text{ is eigen} \\ &\quad \text{orthogonal matrix transpose.} \quad \text{vector of } A^T A \end{aligned}$$

$$A A^T = (U) \Sigma \Sigma^T (U^T)$$

$\hookrightarrow$  diagonalization of symmetric matrix  $A A^T$ .

$U = [u_1 \dots u_n]$ .  $u_1, \dots, u_n$  is eigenvector of  $A A^T$ .

Size!!

Example.  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2}/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2}/2 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sqrt{2}/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\sqrt{2}/2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

4x4

Size!!

Example.  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2}/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2}/2 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sqrt{2}/2 & 0 & \sqrt{2}/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\sqrt{2}/2 & \sqrt{2}/2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}, V^T = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2}/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2}/2 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sqrt{2}/2 & 0 & \sqrt{2}/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\sqrt{2}/2 & \sqrt{2}/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

① What is the size of  $A^T A$ ,  $\Sigma^T \Sigma$   $\rightarrow 4 \times 4$ ,  $A A^T$ ,  $\Sigma \Sigma^T \rightarrow 2 \times 2$

$$\Sigma^T \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_2^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Sigma \Sigma^T = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^2 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$A^T A$  have eigenvalue  $\lambda_1^2, \lambda_2^2, 0, 0$   
 $A A^T$  have eigenvalue  $\lambda_1^2, \lambda_2^2$

If  $M_\Sigma \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$4-2=2$  0 eigenvalues

$\Rightarrow$  Eigenvalue of  $\Sigma^T \Sigma$   $\downarrow$   
 $\Sigma \Sigma^T$  the same  $\lambda_1^2, \lambda_2^2, 0, 0$

4 eigen values  
 $\uparrow$   
 $4 \times 4$  matrix  
 $\downarrow$   
 $2 \times 2$  matrix  
 $\uparrow$   
 $2$  eigen values

a new understanding of  $\text{rank}(A^T A) = \text{rank}(A A^T) = \text{rank}(\Sigma)$

① Recall, if  $X, Y$  are invertible matrix  $= \text{rank}(A)$

$$\text{rank}(AX) = \text{rank}(YA) = \text{rank}(A)$$

We know  $\text{rank}(AB) \leq \text{rank}(A)$ ,  $\text{rank}(AB) \leq \text{rank}(B)$

$$\Rightarrow \text{rank}(AX) \leq \text{rank}(A)$$

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A X X^{-1}) \leq \text{rank}(AX) \quad \left. \right\} \Rightarrow \text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(AX)$$

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

↓  
 $m \times m$  orthogonal       $n \times n$  orthogonal.  
 ↘  
 $U, V^T$  are both invertible.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Rightarrow \text{rank}(A) &= \text{rank}(\Sigma) = \text{rank}(\Sigma^T \Sigma) = \text{rank}(A^T A) \\
 &= \text{rank}(\Sigma^T \Sigma) = \text{rank}(A A^T)
 \end{aligned}$$

↓  
 number of non-zero  
 in the diagonal of  $\Sigma$

# Example

Suppose:  $A \in M_{5 \times 10}$  ;  $\text{rk}(A) = 2$

Then:

$$\text{rk}(\underbrace{AA^T}_{5 \times 5}) = 2$$

$\underbrace{\phantom{AA^T}}$

2 nonzero e-values  
of  $AA^T$

$\Rightarrow$  3 zero e-values  
(counting multiplicities)

Ignoring multiplicities, the e-values of  $AA^T$  and  $A^TA$  are the same

$$\text{rk}(\underbrace{A^TA}_{10 \times 10}) = 2$$

$\underbrace{\phantom{A^TA}}$

2 nonzero e-values  
of  $A^TA$

$\Rightarrow$  8 zero e-values  
(counting multiplicities)

# The Eigenvalues of $A^T A$ and $AA^T$

$$\Sigma^T \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_r^2 & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma \Sigma^T = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_r^2 & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore, the matrices  $A^T A$  and  $AA^T$  have the same nonzero eigenvalues.

$\sigma_1 = \sqrt{\lambda_1}$ , where  $\lambda_1$  is the largest eigenvalue of  $A^T A$  (or  $AA^T$ )

$\vdots$

$\sigma_r = \sqrt{\lambda_r}$ , where  $\lambda_r$  is the smallest (nonzero) eigenvalue of  $A^T A$  (or  $AA^T$ )

# Example

# The Connection between $U$ and $V$

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

$$A\vec{v}_1 = \sigma_1 \vec{u}_1 \implies \vec{u}_1 = \frac{1}{\sigma_1} A\vec{v}_1$$

$$A\vec{v}_2 = \sigma_2 \vec{u}_2 \implies \vec{u}_2 = \frac{1}{\sigma_2} A\vec{v}_2$$

$\vdots$

$$A\vec{v}_r = \sigma_r \vec{u}_r \implies \vec{u}_r = \frac{1}{\sigma_r} A\vec{v}_r$$

The remaining  $\vec{u}_{r+1}, \dots, \vec{u}_m$  are determined as eigenvectors of  $AA^T$  corresponding to zero eigenvalue.

# How to find the SVD Decomposition?

1.  $\Sigma$  is the same size as  $A$  and has the singular values  $\sigma$  on its diagonal.  
The singular values are the square roots of the nonzero eigenvalues of  $A^T A$  or  $AA^T$ .
2.  $V$  contains the eigenvectors of  $A^T A$ .
3.  $U$  contains the eigenvectors of  $AA^T$ . But we will find the vectors  $\vec{u}$  corresponding to nonzero eigenvalues using the SVD.

# Example



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## Bases of the Four Fundamental Subspaces using the SVD

# The Matrix V

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

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} A^T A \vec{v}_1 = \sigma_1^2 \vec{v}_1 \\ A^T A \vec{v}_2 = \sigma_2^2 \vec{v}_2 \\ \vdots \\ A^T A \vec{v}_r = \sigma_r^2 \vec{v}_r \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_r\} \perp \{\vec{v}_{r+1}, \dots, \vec{v}_n\} \\ \{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_r\} \text{ orthonormal basis for Row } A \end{array}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} A^T A \vec{v}_{r+1} = \sigma_{r+1}^2 \vec{v}_{r+1} = \vec{0} \\ \vdots \\ A^T A \vec{v}_n = \sigma_n^2 \vec{v}_n = \vec{0} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \vec{v}_{r+1}, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ span Nul}(A^T A) = \text{Nul } A \\ \{\vec{v}_{r+1}, \dots, \vec{v}_n\} \text{ orthonormal basis for Nul } A \end{array}$$

# The Matrix $\mathbf{U}$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{U}\Sigma\Sigma^T\mathbf{U}^T$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T \vec{u}_1 = \sigma_1^2 \vec{u}_1$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T \vec{u}_2 = \sigma_2^2 \vec{u}_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T \vec{u}_r = \sigma_r^2 \vec{u}_r$$

$$\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_r\} \perp \{\vec{u}_{r+1}, \dots, \vec{u}_m\}$$

$\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_r\}$  orthonormal basis for  $\text{Col}\mathbf{A}$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T \vec{u}_{r+1} = \sigma_{r+1}^2 \vec{u}_{r+1} = \vec{0}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T \vec{u}_m = \sigma_m^2 \vec{u}_m = \vec{0}$$

$\vec{u}_{r+1}, \dots, \vec{u}_m$  span  $\text{Nul}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T) = \text{Nul}\mathbf{A}^T$

$\{\vec{u}_{r+1}, \dots, \vec{u}_m\}$  orthonormal basis for  $\text{Nul}\mathbf{A}^T$

# Summary and Examples

$\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r$  is an orthonormal basis for the **column space**

$\mathbf{u}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m$  is an orthonormal basis for the **left nullspace**  $N(A^T)$

$\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r$  is an orthonormal basis for the **row space**

$\mathbf{v}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  is an orthonormal basis for the **nullspace**  $N(A)$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{50} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$