#### Motivatation

- The diagonalization theorem play a part in many interesting applications.
- Unfortunately not all matrices can be factored as  $A = PDP^{-1}$
- However a factorization  $A = QDP^{-1}$  is possible for any  $m \times n$  matrix A.
- A special factorization of this type, called singular value decomposition, is one of the most useful matrix factorizations in applied linear algebra.
- As we will see one application is finding minimum value of Ax for solving Ax=0.

- Let A be a  $m \times n$  matrix of rank r. We cannot find eigenvalues and eigenvectors for non-square matrices.
- However, A can be diagonalized in such a way that

$$A\boldsymbol{v}_{1} = \sigma_{1}\boldsymbol{u}_{1}$$
$$A\boldsymbol{v}_{2} = \sigma_{2}\boldsymbol{u}_{2}$$
$$\vdots$$
$$A\boldsymbol{v}_{r} = \sigma_{r}\boldsymbol{u}_{r}$$

- The singular vectors v<sub>1</sub> ... v<sub>r</sub> are orthogonal and are the basis for the row space of A.
- The output vectors  $u_1 \dots u_r$  are orthogonal and in column space of A.
- The singular values  $\sigma_1 \dots \sigma_r$  are all positive numbers in non-increasing order.

• 
$$A \boldsymbol{v}_i = \sigma_i \boldsymbol{u}_i$$
 leads to  $AV = U\Sigma$ :  
 $A \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{v}_1 & \dots & \boldsymbol{v}_r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{u}_1 & \dots & \boldsymbol{u}_r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & & \sigma_r \end{bmatrix}$ 

- Note that in above equation the dimensions are  $(m \times n)(n \times r) = (m \times r)(r \times r)$
- We always can find orthogonal basis for Nul(A) and  $Nul(A^T)$  and augment those vectors in matrices U and V, respectively to make them into square orthogonal matrices. We can fill zeroes in the rest of diagonal elements in matrix  $\Sigma$ . (row space is orthogonal to null space)
- Then the matrices dimension in the equation  $AV = U\Sigma$  become:  $(m \times n)(n \times n) = (m \times m)(m \times n)$

• After adding null space vectors the equation  $AV = U\Sigma$  becomes:

• 
$$A\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{v}_1 & \dots & \boldsymbol{v}_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{u}_1 & \dots & \boldsymbol{u}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_r & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

• How to find U and V?

•  $AV = U\Sigma \rightarrow A = U\Sigma V^{-1} = U\Sigma V^T$ , since V is orthogonal.

- $AA^T = U\Sigma V^T (U\Sigma V^T)^T = U\Sigma V^T V\Sigma^T U^T = U\Sigma^2 U^T$ , since  $V^T V = I$  and  $\Sigma\Sigma^T = \Sigma^2$
- $A^T A = (U\Sigma V^T)^T U\Sigma V^T = V\Sigma^T U^T U\Sigma V^T = V\Sigma^2 V^T$ , since  $U^T U = I$  and  $\Sigma\Sigma^T = \Sigma^2$

- $A = U\Sigma V^T$
- $AA^T = U\Sigma^2 U^T$
- $A^T A = V \Sigma^2 V^T$
- Recall that  $AA^T$  and  $A^TA$  are symmetric matrices where their sizes are  $m \times m$  and  $n \times n$ , respectively.
- Recall that symmetric matrices are diagonalizable and their eigenvector matrix are orthogonal.
- The eigenvalues of  $AA^T$  are the same as eigenvalues of  $A^TA$  since the eigenvalues of AB are the same as eigenvalues of BA.
- In other words,  $\Sigma^2$  are the eigenvalues and columns of V are the eigenvectors of  $A^T A$ , and U are the eigenvectors of  $AA^T$

• Example: Find matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  to its equivalent singular vector decomposition.

• Find 
$$AA^{T} = UDU^{T}$$
,  
•  $AA^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 & 1 \\ 1 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$   
•  $\begin{vmatrix} 11 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 11 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0, (11 - \lambda)^{2} - 1 = 0 \rightarrow (\lambda - 10)(\lambda - 12) = 0$ 

• 
$$\lambda_1 = 12, \lambda_2 = 10.$$

• Example Cont'd:

• 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 11 - 12 & 1 \\ 1 & 11 - 12 \end{bmatrix} u_1 = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} u_1 = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
  
•  $\begin{bmatrix} 11 - 10 & 1 \\ 1 & 11 - 10 \end{bmatrix} u_2 = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} u_2 = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow u_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$   
•  $U = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}, D = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$ 

- Example Cont'd:
  - Find  $A^T A = V D V^T$ ,

• 
$$AA^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 10 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

• 
$$\begin{vmatrix} 10 - \lambda & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 10 - \lambda & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & 2 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0, \rightarrow \lambda(\lambda - 10)(\lambda - 12) = 0$$

• 
$$\lambda_1 = 12, \lambda_2 = 10, \lambda_3 = 0.$$

• Example Cont'd:

$$\cdot \begin{bmatrix} 10 - 12 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 10 - 12 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & 2 - 12 \end{bmatrix} v_1 = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & -10 \end{bmatrix} v_1 = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\cdot \begin{bmatrix} 10 - 10 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 10 - 10 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & 2 - 10 \end{bmatrix} v_2 = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & -8 \end{bmatrix} v_2 = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\cdot \begin{bmatrix} 10 - 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 10 - 0 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & 2 - 0 \end{bmatrix} v_3 = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 10 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} v_3 = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow v_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Example Cont'd:

$$\cdot V = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{30}} \\ -\frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & -\frac{2}{\sqrt{30}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{5}{\sqrt{30}} \end{bmatrix}, D = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\cdot A = U\Sigma V^T \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{12} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{10} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{30}} & -\frac{2}{\sqrt{30}} & \frac{5}{\sqrt{30}} \end{bmatrix}$$

### Geometric interpretation

- Here is a geometric interpretation of SVD for a  $2 \times 2$  matrix M.
- V<sup>T</sup> (in figure V<sup>\*</sup>) rotates unit vectors.
- $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  scales the vectors
- *U* perform the final rotation.



• Note that we can assume SVD of matrix A as:

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_i \boldsymbol{u}_i \boldsymbol{v}_i^{T}$$

Where r is the rank of the matrix.

• Size of each  $\sigma_i u_i v_i^T$  is  $m \times n$ . The greater  $\sigma_i$  the greater values added to reconstruct matrix A.

$$A = \sigma_1 \boldsymbol{u}_1 \boldsymbol{v}_1^T + \dots + \sigma_r \boldsymbol{u}_r \boldsymbol{v}_r^T$$

#### Solve Ax = 0

- What minimizes Ax. And why?
- As defined previous we can write A as

$$A = U\Sigma V^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{u}_{1} & \dots & \boldsymbol{u}_{n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{1} & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_{r} & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} & \boldsymbol{v}_{1} & & \\ & \vdots & \\ & & \boldsymbol{v}_{r} & \end{bmatrix}$$

Where  $\sigma_r$  is the smallest eigenvalue. Now we have

$$A\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{T} \sigma_i \boldsymbol{u}_i \boldsymbol{v}_i^T \mathbf{x}$$

If we choose  $x = v_r$ . Then since all  $v_i^T v_r = 0$   $(i \neq r)$  we have  $Ax = Av_r = \sigma_r u_r v_r^T v_r = \sigma_r u_r$ 

Smallest value of Ax associate with  $x = v_r$ . And if  $\sigma_r = 0$  then  $v_r$  is an answer of Ax=0

#### Pseudo inverse

- Assume Ax = b, Then by singular value decomposition of A we have  $Ax = b \Rightarrow U\Sigma V^T x = b$   $\Sigma V^T x = U^T b$   $V^T x = \Sigma^* U^T b$  $x = (V\Sigma^* U^T)b$
- $V\Sigma^*U^T$  called the pseudo inverse of A . It is useful for finding inverse of non-square matrices.

## Applications

- One of the applications of SVD is dimensionality reduction.
- A  $m \times n$  matrix can be thought of gray level of a digital image.
- If the image A is decomposed to its singular values and vectors, we can pick only the most significant  $u_i$ 's,  $\sigma_i$ 's and  $v_i$ 's.
- By doing this we can compress the information of the image.
- Suppose the image A is  $m \times n$ .
- $\hat{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{K} \sigma_i \boldsymbol{u}_i \boldsymbol{v}_i^T$
- In next slide you will see the original image and its compressed up to K most significant singular values.

#### Image compression using SVD



Original

K=8



K=32



K=128



K=512

