San José State University

Math 253: Mathematical Methods for Data Visualization

Lecture 5: Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

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Outline

• Matrix SVD

Introduction

We have seen that symmetric matrices are always (orthogonally) diagonalizable.

That is, for any symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, there exist an orthogonal matrix $\mathbf{Q} = [\mathbf{q}_1 \dots \mathbf{q}_n]$ and a diagonal matrix $\mathbf{\Lambda} = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$, both real and square, such that

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^T.$$

We have pointed out that λ_i 's are the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{q}_i 's the corresponding eigenvectors (which are orthogonal to each other and have unit norm).

Thus, such a factorization is called the **eigendecomposition** of A, also called the **spectral decomposition** of A.

What about general rectangular matrices?

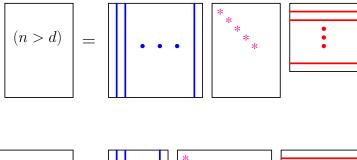
Existence of the SVD for general matrices

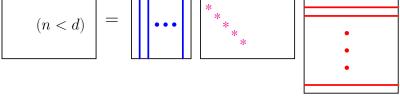
Theorem: For any matrix $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, there exist two orthogonal matrices $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, \mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ and a nonnegative, "diagonal" matrix $\mathbf{\Sigma} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ (of the same size as \mathbf{X}) such that

$$\mathbf{X}_{n \times d} = \mathbf{U}_{n \times n} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{n \times d} \mathbf{V}_{d \times d}^T.$$

Remark. This is called the *Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)* of **X**:

- The diagonals of Σ are called the singular values of X (often sorted in decreasing order).
- The columns of ${\bf U}$ are called the left singular vectors of ${\bf X}.$
- The columns of ${\bf V}$ are called the right singular vectors of ${\bf X}.$





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Connection to spectral decomposition of symmetric matrices

From the SVD of ${\bf X}$ we obtain that

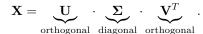
 $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{T} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^{T} \cdot \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{T}\mathbf{U}^{T} = \mathbf{U}\left(\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{T}\right)\mathbf{U}^{T}$ $\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{T}\mathbf{U}^{T} \cdot \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^{T} = \mathbf{V}\left(\mathbf{\Sigma}^{T}\mathbf{\Sigma}\right)\mathbf{V}^{T}$

This shows that

- U is the eigenvectors matrix of **XX**^T;
- V is the eigenvectors matrix of $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$;
- The eigenvalues of $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T, \mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ (which must be the same) are equal to the squared singular values of \mathbf{X} .

How to prove the SVD theorem

Given any matrix $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, the SVD can be thought of as solving a matrix equation for three unknown matrices (each with certain constraint):



Suppose such solutions exist.

• From previous slide:

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{V} \left(\mathbf{\Sigma}^T \mathbf{\Sigma} \right) \mathbf{V}^T$$

This tells us how to find V and Σ (which contain the eigenvectors and square roots of eigenvalues of $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$, respectively).

• After we have found both V and $\Sigma,$ rewrite the matrix equation as

$$\mathbf{XV} = \mathbf{U\Sigma},$$

or in columns,

$$\mathbf{X}[\mathbf{v}_1 \dots \mathbf{v}_r \, \mathbf{v}_{r+1} \dots \mathbf{v}_d] = [\mathbf{u}_1 \dots \mathbf{u}_r \, \mathbf{u}_{r+1} \dots \mathbf{u}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_r \end{bmatrix}$$

By comparing columns, we obtain

$$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{v}_{i} = \begin{cases} \sigma_{i}\mathbf{u}_{i}, & 1 \leq i \leq r \text{ (\#nonzero singular values)} \\ \mathbf{0}, & r < i \leq d \end{cases}$$

This tells us how to find the matrix U: $\mathbf{u}_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{v}_i$ for $1 \le i \le r$.

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A rigorous proof of the SVD theorem

Let $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$. Then \mathbf{C} is square, symmetric, and positive semidefinite.

Therefore, by the Spectral Theorem, $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{V}^T$ for an orthogonal $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ and diagonal $\mathbf{\Lambda} = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_d)$ with $\lambda_1 \ge \cdots \ge \lambda_r > 0 = \lambda_{r+1} = \cdots = \lambda_d$ (where $r = \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{X}) \le d$).

Let $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$ and correspondingly form the matrix $\mathbf{\Sigma} \in \mathbb{R}^{n imes d}$:

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r) & \mathbf{O}_{r \times (d-r)} \\ \mathbf{O}_{(n-r) \times r} & \mathbf{O}_{(n-r) \times (d-r)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Define also

$$\mathbf{u}_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \text{for each } 1 \le i \le r.$$

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Then $\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_r$ are orthonormal vectors. To see this,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}_{i}^{T}\mathbf{u}_{j} &= \left(\frac{1}{\sigma_{i}}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{v}_{i}\right)^{T}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_{j}}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{v}_{j}\right) = \frac{1}{\sigma_{i}\sigma_{j}}\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T}\underbrace{\mathbf{X}}_{=\mathbf{C}}^{T}\mathbf{X}\\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma_{i}\sigma_{j}}\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T}(\lambda_{j}\mathbf{v}_{j}) = \frac{\sigma_{j}}{\sigma_{i}}\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T}\mathbf{v}_{j} \qquad (\lambda_{j} = \sigma_{j}^{2})\\ &= \begin{cases} 1, & i = j\\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Choose $\mathbf{u}_{r+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (through basis completion) such that

$$\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \dots \mathbf{u}_r \mathbf{u}_{r+1} \dots \mathbf{u}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

is an orthogonal matrix.

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It remains to verify that $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}=\mathbf{U}\boldsymbol{\Sigma},$ i.e.,

$$\mathbf{X}[\mathbf{v}_1 \dots \mathbf{v}_r \, \mathbf{v}_{r+1} \dots \mathbf{v}_d] = [\mathbf{u}_1 \dots \mathbf{u}_r \, \mathbf{u}_{r+1} \dots \mathbf{u}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_r \end{bmatrix}$$

Consider two cases:

- $1 \leq i \leq r$: $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{v}_i = \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i$ by construction.
- i > r: $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{0}$, which is due to $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{C} \mathbf{v}_i = 0$.

Consequently, we have obtained that $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T$.

 $\label{eq:example 0.1. Compute the SVD of } Example 0.1. Compute the SVD of$

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Answer:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} & \\ & 1 \\ \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}^{T}$$

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Geometric interpretation of SVD

Given any matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, it defines a linear transformation:

 $f: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m$, with $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$.

The SVD of A indicates that the linear transformation f can be decomposed into a sequence of three operations:



Different versions of SVD

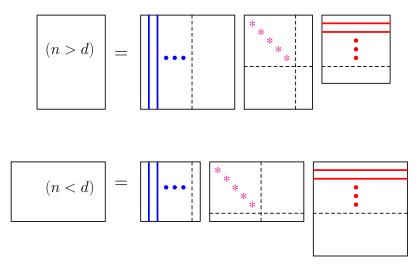
• Full SVD:
$$\mathbf{X}_{n imes d} = \mathbf{U}_{n imes n} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{n imes d} \mathbf{V}_{d imes d}^T$$

• Compact SVD: Suppose $rank(\mathbf{X}) = r$. Define

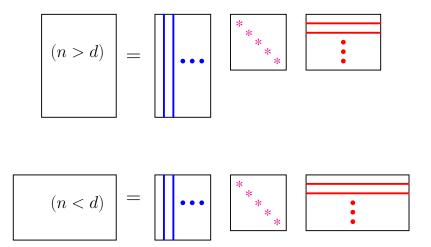
$$\mathbf{U}_r = [\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r}$$
$$\mathbf{V}_r = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r}$$
$$\mathbf{\Sigma}_r = \operatorname{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r) \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r}$$

Then

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U}_r \mathbf{\Sigma}_r \mathbf{V}_r^T.$$



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• Rank-1 decomposition:

$$\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r] \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_r^T \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T.$$

This has the interpretation that X is a weighted sum of rank-one matrices, as for a square, symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^T = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \mathbf{q}_i \mathbf{q}_i^T.$$

In sum, $\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{U}\Sigma\mathbf{V}^T$ where both \mathbf{U},\mathbf{V} have orthonormal columns and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is diagonal.

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Remark. For any version of SVD, the form is not unique (this is mainly due to different choices of orthogonal basis for each eigenspace).

Remark. For any matrix $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ and integer $1 \le K \le r$, we define the truncated SVD of X with K terms as

$$\mathbf{X} \approx \sum_{i=1}^{K} \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T = \mathbf{X}_K$$

where the singular values are assumed to be sorted from large to small (so $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_K$ represent the largest K singular values).

Note that X_K has a rank of K and is not exactly equal to X (thus can be regarded as an approximation to X).

Power method for numerical computing of SVD

Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ be a matrix whose SVD is to be computed: $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T$. Consider $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. Then

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{V}(\mathbf{\Sigma}^T \mathbf{\Sigma}) \mathbf{V}^T = \sum \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T$$
$$\mathbf{C}^2 = \mathbf{V}(\mathbf{\Sigma}^T \mathbf{\Sigma})^2 \mathbf{V}^T = \sum \sigma_i^4 \mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T$$

$$\mathbf{C}^{k} = \mathbf{V} (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma})^{k} \mathbf{V}^{T} = \sum \sigma_{i}^{2k} \mathbf{v}_{i} \mathbf{v}_{i}^{T}$$

If $\sigma_1 > \sigma_2$, then the first term dominates, so $\mathbf{C}^k \to \sigma_1^{2k} \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T$ as $k \to \infty$.

This means that a close estimate to v_1 can be computed by simply taking the first column of C^k and normalizing it to a unit vector.

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The previous method is very costly due to the matrix power part.

A better approach. Instead of computing \mathbf{C}^k , we select a random vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and compute $\mathbf{C}^k \mathbf{x}$ through a sequence of matrix-vector multiplications (which are very efficient especially when one dimension of \mathbf{A} is small, or \mathbf{A} is sparse):

$$\mathbf{C}^k \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \cdots \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$$

Write $\mathbf{x} = \sum c_i \mathbf{v}_i$ (since $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ form an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n). Then

$$\mathbf{C}^{k}\mathbf{x} \approx \left(\sigma_{1}^{2k}\mathbf{v}_{1}\mathbf{v}_{1}^{T}\right)\left(\sum c_{i}\mathbf{v}_{i}\right) = \sigma_{1}^{2k}c_{1}\mathbf{v}_{1}.$$

Normalizing the vector $\mathbf{C}^k \mathbf{x}$ for some large k then yields \mathbf{v}_1 , the first right singular vector of \mathbf{A} .

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MATLAB commands for computing matrix SVD

1. Full SVD

svd – Singular Value Decomposition.

[U,S,V] = svd(X) produces a diagonal matrix S, of the same dimension as X and with nonnegative diagonal elements in decreasing order, and orthogonal matrices U and V so that $X = U^*S^*V^T$.

s = svd(X) returns a vector containing the singular values.

2. Truncated SVD

svds - Find a few singular values and vectors.

S = svds(A,K) computes the K largest singular values of A.

[U,S,V] = svds(A,K) computes the singular vectors as well. If A is M-by-N and K singular values are computed, then U is M-by-K with orthonormal columns, S is K-by-K diagonal, and V is N-by-K with orthonormal columns.

In many applications, a truncated SVD is enough, and it is much easier to compute than the full SVD.