

Matrix Theory
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Properties of SVD

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E2 212 Matrix Theory
 13 Jan. 2021

Last time:

Defn. [SVals]: $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. The SVals of A are $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$, where $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$ and $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2$ are the EVals of $A^H A$.

Thm. [The Singular Value Decomposition]: $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, $\sigma_1 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r$ nonzero SVals of A , where $r = \text{rank}(A)$. Let $D = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r)$ and $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} D & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}$. Then $\exists$ unitary $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ and a unitary $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$.



The last time we were discussing about the singular value decomposition. And recall that the singular values of a matrix are σ_1 through σ_n , where these σ_1 through σ_n are ordered with σ_1 being the largest and σ_n being the smallest singular value, they are all real numbers and non negative and such that σ_1^2, σ_2^2 up to σ_n^2 are the eigenvalues of $A^H A$.

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EZ 212 Matrix Theory
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Defn. [SVDs]: $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$. The SVDs of A are $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$, where $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$ and $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2$ are the EVals of $A^H A$.

Thm. [The Singular Value Decomposition]: $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, $\sigma_1 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$ nonzero SVDs of A , where $r = \text{rank}(A)$. Let $D = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r)$, and $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} D & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}$. Then $\exists$ unitary $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ and a unitary $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ s.t. $U^H A V = \Sigma$.

Partitioning the SVD:

$A = \begin{matrix} m \times n \\ U \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} n \times n \\ \Sigma \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} m \times m \\ V^H \end{matrix}$

Now, we also saw the singular value decomposition theorem, which says that, if A is an m by n matrix and σ_1 through σ_r the nonzero singular values of A , where r equals, r is the rank of this matrix A . And if we define D to be a diagonal matrix containing σ_1 through σ_r as its diagonal entries and 0s everywhere else, and Σ to be a matrix with D as its top left r cross r block and 0s everywhere else and of size m cross n , then there exists a unitary U of size m by m and a unitary V of size n cross n such that $U^H A V$ equals this matrix Σ .

So, this is a very important theorem in the sense that I like it for its generality, it applies to any matrix A , absolutely no structural assumption made on the matrix A and you can construct a singular value decomposition for any matrix.

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Thm. 1. The singular value decomposition of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is given by $A = U \Sigma V^H$, where $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ and $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ are unitary matrices, and $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is a diagonal matrix with non-negative singular values $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r$ on the diagonal, where $r = \text{rank}(A)$. Let $D = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r)$ and $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} D & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}$. Then $\exists$ unitary $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ and a unitary $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ s.t. $U^H A V = \Sigma$.

Partitioning the SVD:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n} \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\Sigma} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n} \begin{bmatrix} v_1^T \\ v_2^T \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n}$$

$\tilde{\Sigma} = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r)$, $r = \# \text{ nonzero SVs} \leq \min(m, n)$.

Properties of the SVD:

We also saw that we can partition the singular value decomposition like this, we can write it as u_1, u_2 where u_1 contains the first r columns of the matrix u , u_2 contains the remaining m minus r columns of the matrix u , this is $\tilde{\Sigma}$, which is the r cross r matrix is the same as the D written in the statement of the theorem containing the nonzero singular values.

In fact, this is yeah, these are the nonzero singular values. And v is also partition row wise with the first r rows of v being denoted by, of v transpose denoted by v_1 transpose. And the remaining n minus r rows of v transpose being denoted by v_2 transpose. So, Σ is therefore, a diagonal matrix containing σ_1 through σ_r .

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NPTEL $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ s.t. $U^H A V = \Sigma$.

Partitioning the SVD:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\Sigma} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1^T \\ v_2^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$m \times n$ $n \times n$ $n \times n$ $n \times n$ $n \times n$

$\tilde{\Sigma} = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r)$, $r = \# \text{ nonzero SVDs} \leq \min(m, n)$.

Properties of the SVD:

1. $\text{Rank}(A) = r$
2. $\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{R}(V_2)$; V_2 is an orthonormal basis for $\mathcal{N}(A)$.
3. $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(U_1)$; U_1 is an orthonormal basis for $\mathcal{R}(A)$.

So, we were looking at several properties of the singular value decomposition. The first was that the rank of the matrix A equals the number of nonzero singular values. And we saw this because this is true, because, if we write it like this, then we can multiply these together and we see that we can write A to be, so, we can write this as $u_1 \sigma_1 v_1^T$ and we also recall that this is called the economy singular value decomposition.

So, basically the columns of A are linear combinations of the columns of the matrix u_1 with the coefficients given by the columns of this matrix b . And this σ_1 has linearly independent columns and v_1^T has, v_1^T as linearly independent rows. So, basically the columns of this matrix are linearly independent. So, they are exactly r linearly independent columns in this matrix A . So, in fact, the converse is also true that is if the rank of A equals r then it has r nonzero singular values. This comes from the SVD theorem itself. If you look back at the proof of the theorem.

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Properties of the SVD:

1. $\text{Rank}(A) = r$
2. $\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{R}(V_2)$; V_2 is an orthonormal basis for $\mathcal{N}(A)$.
3. $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(U_1)$; U_1 is an orthonormal basis for $\mathcal{R}(A)$.
4. $\mathcal{R}(A^T) = \mathcal{R}(V_1)$; ...
5. $\mathcal{R}(A)_{\perp} = \mathcal{N}(A^T) = \mathcal{R}(U_2)$
6. $\|A\|_2 = \sigma_1 = \sigma_{\max}$
7. If A is square and full rank, $A^{-1} = V \Sigma^{-1} U^H$
8. SVD diagonalizes any system of linear equations!

$Ax = b$

Other properties are that the null space of A is the same as the span of the columns of v_2 this matrix here. And v_2 is actually an orthonormal basis for the null space of A , the range space of A is the span of the columns of u_1 , u_1 is this matrix here. And u_1 is an orthonormal basis for the range space of A and the range space of A transpose is the span of the columns in v_1 and the orthogonal complement of the range space of A which is the same as the null space of A transpose is the span of the columns in u_2 .

So basically, the SVD reveals the four fundamental subspaces associated with any matrix, it gives you an orthonormal basis for all of the four subspaces. Also, the spectral norm of A is equal to σ_1 , which is the largest singular value. And if A is square and full rank, we can easily determine A inverse once we know the singular value decomposition, A inverse is simply $v \sigma$ inverse and u times u Hermitian. And since σ is a diagonal matrix, inverting it is trivial, you just have to invert the each of the diagonal entries.

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6. $\|A\|_2 = \sigma_1 = \sigma_{\max}$

If A is square and full rank, $A^{-1} = V \Sigma^{-1} U^H$

8. SVD diagonalizes any system of linear equations!

$$Ax = b$$

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

$$c \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^T \\ u_2^T \end{bmatrix} b : \text{represents } b \text{ in } u \text{ basis}$$

$$d \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1^T \\ v_2^T \end{bmatrix} x : \text{represents } x \text{ in } v \text{ basis}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Sigma d = c : \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\Rightarrow \Sigma d = c : \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(a) $m > n$ (tall A) and A full rank ($n = n$)

$\Rightarrow$ Right blocks of zeros are empty; d_2 is empty

$\Rightarrow$ Eqs can be satisfied only if $c_2 = 0$.

$c_2 = 0 \Rightarrow u_2^T b = 0 \Rightarrow b \in \mathcal{R}(u_1) = \mathcal{R}(A)$.

(b) $m < n$ (fat A) and A full rank ($n = m$)

Another interesting property of the SVD is that it diagonalizes any system of linear equations. So, for example, if we are given Ax equals b , this is a system of linear equations, then substituting A equals $u \Sigma v^T$ we get $u \Sigma v^T x$ equals b . And if we define C to be the matrix u^T times the vector u^T times v , so I am pre multiplying this by u^T . And what I get on the right side $u^T b$, and I call that my C .

And I partition c as like this with the c_1 containing the first r entries in c and c_2 containing the remaining m minus r entries in c . This is the same as representing this vector b in the basis

defined by u , so change of basis, because u is an orthonormal matrix, multiplying by u transpose corresponds to a change of basis. And c is basically the same as b but in a new basis, represented in a new basis.

Similarly, if I define d to be this v transpose x , and I partition it as d_1 d_2 where d_1 contains the first r entries, and d_2 contains the remaining n minus r entries, this is a representation of x in the basis v . So, if I do these substitutions, then the system of linear equations reduces to σ times d equals c , which is, which looks like this, it is σ tilde $0 \ 0 \ 0$ times $d_1 \ d_2$. So, this is r cross r . And this has r entries, this has n minus r entries, this has r entries, and this has m minus r entries.

So, this is now a very simple system of linear equations. And in fact, we can visually solve this system of linear equations. In particular, if m is greater than n , that is, the number of rows is more than the number of columns, then the matrix A is tall. And if you look back at the system of linear equations, this means you have more equations than you have variables that you need to solve for.

And in particular, if you assume A is full rank, that is, the rank of this matrix is equal to the number of columns in A which is n , then, then there will not be any right block here because r is equal to n , there is no such thing as d_2 , and there is no right block over here. So, it is just σ tilde times d equals $c_1 \ c_2$.

And of course, these equations because d is only multiplying 0 s in these rows, these equations can only be satisfied if c_2 equals 0 and c_2 equals 0 in turn means that, it means that u_2 transpose times b equals 0 because c_2 is just exactly equal to u_2 transpose times b . And if u_2 transpose b equals 0 , it means that b must belong to the range space of u_1 or in other words the range space of A , we already saw that the range space of A is this the span of u_1 . So, that is clear right if you have more equations, then if you have more equations, then you have unknowns, there exists a solution only if b lies in the range space of A .

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 $\Rightarrow \Sigma d = c : \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\Sigma} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}$

(a) $m > n$ (tall A) and A full rank ($r=n$)
 $\Rightarrow$ Right blocks of zeros are empty; d_2 is empty
 $\Rightarrow$ Eqs can be satisfied only if $c_2=0$.
 $c_2=0 \Rightarrow u_2^T b = 0 \Rightarrow b = \mathcal{R}(u_1) = \mathcal{R}(A)$.

(b) $m < n$ (fat A) and A full rank ($r=m$)
 $\Rightarrow$ Bottom blocks of zeros are empty; c_2 is empty
 Then, $d_1 = \tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}c$ and d_2 is arbitrary
 Soln. x is not unique: $x = V_1 \tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}c + V_2 d_2, d_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n-r}$ arbitrary.

(c) If A is not full rank, both (a) and (b) apply.


 $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_2 \end{bmatrix} = c_2$

(a) $m > n$ (tall A) and A full rank ($r=n$)
 $\Rightarrow$ Right blocks of zeros are empty; d_2 is empty
 $\Rightarrow$ Eqs can be satisfied only if $c_2=0$.
 $c_2=0 \Rightarrow u_2^T b = 0 \Rightarrow b = \mathcal{R}(u_1) = \mathcal{R}(A)$.

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(c) If A is not full rank, both (a) and (b) apply.

V rotates the x

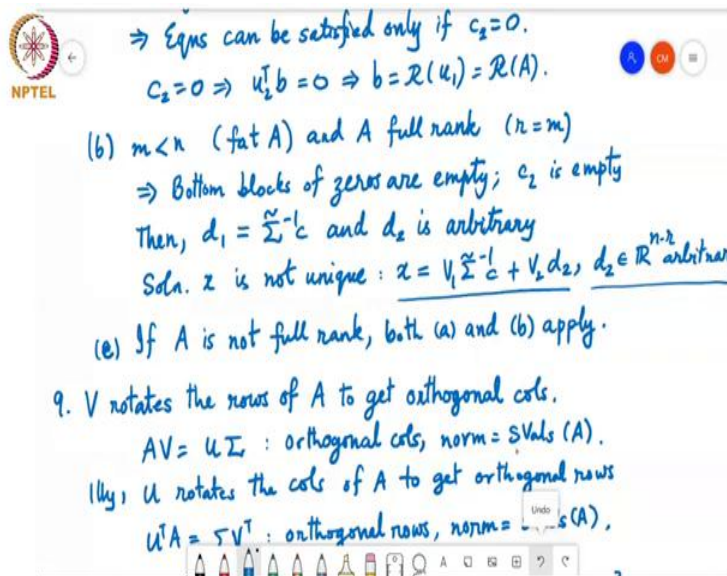
Similarly, if m is less than n that is the matrix A is fat, then you have more variables, then you have equations. And if A is full rank that is r equal to m , then there are no bottom blocks here. So you will have sigma tilde or d_1 d_2 is equal to c , there is no bottom, there is no c_2 here. Then, if we define d_1 to be sigma tilde inverse times c , this is allowed because we have assumed A is full rank. So, sigma tilde has all nonzero entries.

And so, if we, so, in that case, we can d_1 , the solution d_1 is just sigma tilde inverse times c and d_2 can be anything because it is anyway just going to multiply 0 here, and so, the solution is not

unique. And in general we can write the solution to be v_1 times Σ^{-1} times c plus $v_2 d_2$, where d_2 is arbitrary. So, this is the complete set of solutions of this system of equations.

So, in this case, there is always a solution in fact, there are always infinitely many solutions. If A is not full rank, then both of these apply. So, you have to use both these conditions. So, there may or may not exist solutions.

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$\Rightarrow$ Eqns can be satisfied only if $c_2 = 0$.
 $c_2 = 0 \Rightarrow u_2^T b = 0 \Rightarrow b = \mathcal{R}(u_1) = \mathcal{R}(A)$.
 (b) $m < n$ (fat A) and A full rank ($n = m$)
 $\Rightarrow$ Bottom blocks of zeros are empty; c_2 is empty
 Then, $d_1 = \Sigma^{-1} c$ and d_2 is arbitrary
 Soln. x is not unique: $x = V_1 \Sigma^{-1} c + V_2 d_2$, $d_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n-r}$ arbitrary.
 (c) If A is not full rank, both (a) and (b) apply.
 Q. V rotates the rows of A to get orthogonal cols.
 $AV = U \Sigma$: orthogonal cols, norm = $Svals(A)$.
 Similarly, U rotates the cols of A to get orthogonal rows
 $U^T A = \Sigma V^T$: orthogonal rows, norm = $s(A)$.

Another property is that V rotates the rows of A to get orthogonal columns. So, in particular, since $A = U \Sigma V^T$, if we write multiply by V , A times V becomes equal to U times Σ . Now, the columns of U are orthonormal. And then this is a diagonal matrix. So, this matrix U times Σ has orthogonal columns with each column norm being equal to 1 of the singular values of this matrix A .

Similarly, if I take $U^T A$, A is $U \Sigma V^T$, so $U^T U$ becomes the identity matrix. So, what I am left with is ΣV^T , which in turn has orthogonal rows with the row norms being equal to the singular values of this matrix A .

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V rotates the rows of A to get orthogonal cols.
 $AV = U\Sigma$: orthogonal cols, norm = SVals (A).
 Illy, U rotates the cols of A to get orthogonal rows
 $U^T A = \Sigma V^T$: orthogonal rows, norm = SVals (A).
 10. EVD $\leftrightarrow$ SVD
 $A^T A = V \Sigma^T U^T U \Sigma V^T = V \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\Sigma}^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} V^T = V \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\Sigma}^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} V^T$
 $\Rightarrow$ EVecs V of $A^T A$ = Rts SVecs (A).
 Note: If A is fat ($m < n$) & full rank, $A^T A$ will have
 $(n-m)$ zero EVals.
 Illy $AA^T = U \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\Sigma}^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^T$
 $\Rightarrow$ EVecs of AA^T = Lts SVecs (A)

So, the last time somebody asked me a question about the connections between the eigenvalue decomposition and the singular value decomposition, the explicit connection is exactly this that if I consider the matrix A transpose A , again A is equal to u sigma v transpose, then A transpose will be v sigma transpose u transpose.

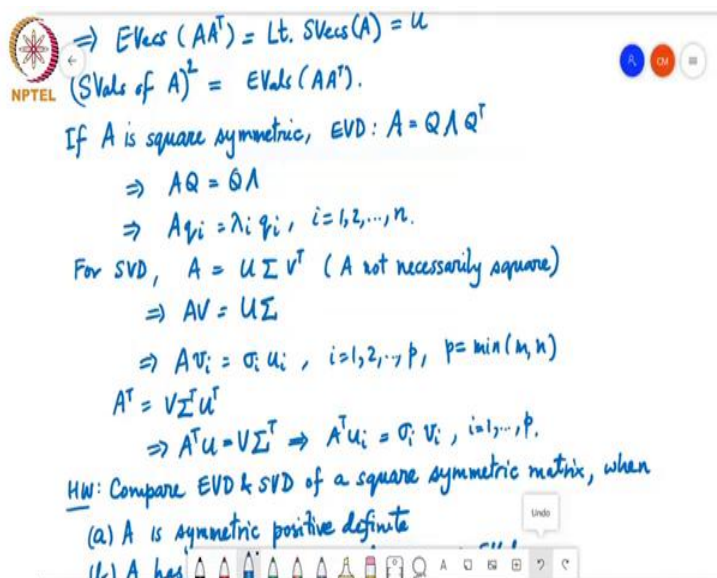
So, A transpose A is v times the sigma is sigma tilde 000. And since I am writing it as sigma tilde, I do not need a transpose here this is just a diagonal matrix its transpose is itself, but the matrix overall is of size n by m , not m by n . Whereas, this is the sigma matrix which is sigma tilde 0 0 0, which is of size m by n times v transpose.

Now, if I carry out this multiplication, I will get the matrix sigma squared as the top left r cross r matrix and then 0s everywhere else, so, that the overall size of the matrix is n cross n and I have v , v transpose. So, from this we see that the eigenvectors. So, basically this is the eigenvalue decomposition of A transpose A . So, the Eigenvectors v of A transpose A are the right singular vectors of A .

And of course, this also shows that if A is fat then A transpose A will have and if it is actually full rank, then all these entries will be nonzero. So, there will be m nonzero Eigenvalues for A transpose A and the remaining n minus m Eigenvalues will be 0s. Similarly, if you write out what AA transpose is, that is u times sigma tilde squared 0 0 0, but now, this is of size m by m .

So, the 0s are of appropriate dimensions, so that the overall dimension is m by m times u transpose.

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$\Rightarrow \text{EVecs}(AA^T) = \text{Lt. SVecs}(A) = u$
 $(\text{SVals of } A)^2 = \text{EVals}(AA^T).$
 If A is square symmetric, $\text{EVD}: A = Q\Lambda Q^T$
 $\Rightarrow AQ = Q\Lambda$
 $\Rightarrow Aq_i = \lambda_i q_i, i=1,2,\dots,n.$
 For SVD, $A = U\Sigma V^T$ (A not necessarily square)
 $\Rightarrow AV = U\Sigma$
 $\Rightarrow Av_i = \sigma_i u_i, i=1,2,\dots,p, p=\min(m,n)$
 $A^T = V\Sigma^T U^T$
 $\Rightarrow A^T u_i = V\Sigma^T \Rightarrow A^T u_i = \sigma_i v_i, i=1,\dots,p.$
 HW: Compare EVD & SVD of a square symmetric matrix, when
 (a) A is symmetric positive definite
 (b) A has

And so the eigenvectors of AA transpose of this u , which are equal to the left singular vectors of A . And of course, the singular values of A square are the eigenvalues of AA transpose. So, basically the price paid for being able to diagonalize an arbitrary matrix is that we need two matrices to diagonalize the matrix instead of one, if it was A , if A was square and symmetric, we can find the eigenvalue decomposition like this $Q\lambda Q$ transpose, where λ is a diagonal matrix containing the Eigenvalues and Q is an orthonormal matrix containing the eigenvectors.

So, basically AQ is equal to $Q\lambda$ or A times the i th column of Q is equal to λ_i times Q_i , i equal to 1 to n . So, this is the eigenvalue decomposition. So, you need only one matrix to diagonalize this A , but for a single, for an arbitrary matrix, which is not necessarily square, we can find an SVD, a singular value decomposition like this A equal to $u\sigma v$ transpose. And of course, this means that A times v equals u times σ or $A v_i$ equals $\sigma_i u_i$. So, these are, v_i are unit norm vectors and u_i are unit norm vectors.

So, these are kind of like Eigenvectors of the matrix but not really because this u_i is not equal to this v_i , but they are unit norm vectors, they are in fact of different dimensions v_i s are of dimension n by 1 whereas, u_i s are of dimension m by 1. Similarly, A transpose equals $v\sigma u$

transpose taking the transpose of this and this matrix I should actually write it as sigma transpose u transpose.

So, then if I right multiply by u I have A transpose u equals v sigma transpose then A transpose ui is equal to sigma i times vi. And so, again so this is the kind of relation you have A vi equals sigma ui and a transpose ui equal sigma i vi that is the relation you have for the singular value decomposition.

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The image shows a digital whiteboard with handwritten mathematical notes. At the top left is the NPTEL logo. The text reads:

If A is square symmetric, $EVD: A = Q \Lambda Q^T$

$\Rightarrow A Q = Q \Lambda$

$\Rightarrow A q_i = \lambda_i q_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$

For SVD, $A = U \Sigma V^T$ (A not necessarily square)

$\Rightarrow A V = U \Sigma$

$\Rightarrow A v_i = \sigma_i u_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, p, p = \min(m, n)$

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

$\Rightarrow A^T U = V \Sigma^T \Rightarrow A^T u_i = \sigma_i v_i, i = 1, \dots, p.$

HW: Compare EVD & SVD of a square symmetric matrix, when

- (a) A is symmetric positive definite
- (b) A has some +ve EVals and some -ve EVals.

11. Ellipsoidal (geometric) view of SVD: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

SVals are $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_p$

What you should do on your own is to compare these two, compare the Eigenvalue decomposition and the singular value decomposition when the matrix is square symmetric, and positive definite, or in the case where it is indefinite that it has some that is it has some positive and some negative Eigenvalues.

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$A' = V \Sigma^T U$
 $\Rightarrow A^T U = V \Sigma^T \Rightarrow A^T U_i = 0; V_i, i=1, \dots, p.$

HW: Compare EVD & SVD of a square symmetric matrix, when
 (a) A is symmetric positive definite
 (b) A has some +ve EVals and some -ve EVals.

11. Ellipsoidal (geometric) view of SVD: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
 SVals are the lengths of semi-axes of the hyperellipsoid
 $E \triangleq \{y / y = Ax, \|x\|_2 = 1\}$

$y = Ax = U \Sigma V^T x$
 Let $c = U^T y, d = V^T x \Rightarrow c = \Sigma d, \|x\|_2 = 1 \Leftrightarrow \|d\|_2 = 1.$
 $\Rightarrow$ Can look at $\{c\}$ corresp. to d s.t. $\|d\|_2 = 1$



(b) A has some +ve EVals and some -ve EVals.

Ellipsoidal (geometric) view of SVD: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
 SVals are the lengths of semi-axes of the hyperellipsoid
 $E \triangleq \{y / y = Ax, \|x\|_2 = 1\}$

$y = Ax = U \Sigma V^T x$
 Let $c = U^T y, d = V^T x \Rightarrow c = \Sigma d, \|x\|_2 = 1 \Leftrightarrow \|d\|_2 = 1.$
 $\Rightarrow$ Can look at $\{c\}$ corresp. to d s.t. $\|d\|_2 = 1$
 Now, c is s.t. $\sum_{i=1}^p \left(\frac{c_i}{\sigma_i}\right)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^p d_i^2 = 1.$
 But $\sum_{i=1}^p \left(\frac{c_i}{\sigma_i}\right)^2 = 1$ is an ellipse
 $\Rightarrow E$ is an ellipse in the basic 1d.



There is another geometric view or the ellipsoidal view of the singular value decomposition. So, again take a matrix which is of size m by n , let us look at this space defined by the vectors y , where y is equal to Ax for some x , which is of unit l_2 norm. And let us look at what this, what the space of y looks like. It turns out that the space E .

So, that is you take any vector which is of unit l_2 norm, you compute Ax and you look at, you plot that point in the m dimensional space, and look at all the points y that you can reach by this operation. It turns out that set of y_i describe an ellipse are actually in m dimension, it is called a

hyper ellipsoid. And these singular values of the matrix A , are the length of the semi axis of this hyper ellipsoids.

What I mean by that is for example, if I take a two dimensional ellipse, then these lengths are the lengths of the semi axis, actually just to be a little more clear, let me draw it in a different way. Suppose, there is an ellipse that goes like this, then this is called the semi major axis and this is called the semi minor axis and this length will be σ_2 and this length will be σ_1 .

So, let us see that. So, suppose if I consider $y = Ax$, and now I use the singular value decomposition is $U \Sigma V^T x$, then once again if I define $U^T y$ to be c and $V^T x$ this part to be d , then this equation reduces to $c = \Sigma d$. And further, if x is of unit L_2 norm because V is an orthonormal matrix, it means that, instead of searching over or instead of going over all points such that $x^2 = 1$ I can as well go over all points such that $d^2 = 1$.

So, we can look at the set of c vectors that I get corresponding to d satisfying norm $d^2 = 1$. Now, because $c = \Sigma d$ norm $d^2 = 1$ simply means that $\sum_{i=1}^p c_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^p \sigma_i^2 d_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^p d_i^2 = 1$, where p is the number of nonzero singular values in the matrix A . This is diagonal, that is why I am able to write this is equal to 1.

Now, the set of points c is actually exactly described by the c that satisfies this equation. And this equation, $\sum_{i=1}^p c_i^2 = 1$ is an ellipse or a hyper ellipsoid.

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$y = Ax = U \Sigma V^T x$
 Let $c = U^T y$, $d = V^T x \Rightarrow c = \Sigma d$, $\|x\|_2 = 1 \Leftrightarrow \|d\|_2 = 1$.
 $\Rightarrow$ Can look at $\{c\}$ corresp. to d s.t. $\|d\|_2 = 1$
 Now, c is s.t. $\sum_{i=1}^p \left(\frac{c_i}{\sigma_i}\right)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^p d_i^2 = 1$.
 But $\sum_{i=1}^p \left(\frac{c_i}{\sigma_i}\right)^2 = 1$ is an ellipse
 $\Rightarrow E$ is an ellipse when expressed in the basis U
 $\Rightarrow$ The principal axes are aligned along the cols u_i with lengths σ_i , the SVals.
 12. An interesting theorem: $A = U \Sigma V^T = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i u_i v_i^T$, $r = \text{rank}(A)$.
 $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

So basically, E and this going from c to y is just all it takes is multiplying by u , which is an orthonormal matrix, it is just a orthonormal change of basis. So, E is also an ellipse or a hyper ellipsoid when expressed in the basis u . And the principle axis of this, when you write an ellipse, equation of ellipse in this elementary form like this, then σ_i are the semi major axis of this hyper ellipsoid. So, the principle axes are aligned along the columns u_i , and have length σ_i , which are the singular values of the matrix A .

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with lengths σ_i , the SVals.
An interesting theorem: $A = U \Sigma V^T = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i u_i v_i^T$, $r = \text{rank}(A)$.
 Q. Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with rank r , what is the matrix $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with rank $k < r$ that is closest to A in the 2-norm sense?
Thm. Define $A_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i u_i v_i^T$, $k \leq r$
 Then, $\min_{\text{rank}(B)=k} \|A - B\|_2 = \|A - A_k\|_2 = \sigma_{k+1}$.
 $\left| \begin{array}{l} \sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > 0. \end{array} \right.$
 $\Rightarrow$ Any $m \times n$ matrix $k \leq r$ is at least σ_{k+1} away from A in the 2-norm sense.
Proof: First, $\text{rank}(A_k) = k$.
 $(U^T A_k V = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & 0 \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_k & \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{rank}(A_k) = k.)$

There is one more very, very interesting and useful theorem associated with the singular values, singular value decomposition. So, suppose A equals $U \Sigma V^T$, which we can, if we expand this product out, we can write it as $\sum_{i=1}^r u_i v_i^T$. So, in fact, we see that the matrix A can be written as the sum of r matrices of rank 1, $u_i v_i^T$ is a matrix of size m by n and it has rank 1. And so A can be written like this.

And the question we ask is given this matrix A with rank r , what is the matrix B with rank equal to k which could be less than r which is in fact less than r that is closest to A in the two norm sense? So, that the answer to this is given by the following theorem. Define A_k to be the summation $\sum_{i=1}^k u_i v_i^T$ that is I am stop stopping this summation from $i=1$ to r instead of going all the way up to r I am only going up to k . And that matrix I define as A_k .

Then the minimum over all B , matrices B of rank at most k , rank equal to k of $\|A - B\|_2$ norm is equal to the norm of A minus this particular matrix A_k which is in turn equal to σ_{k+1} . In other words, A_k is the rank, it is the matrix of rank k which is as close to A as possible in the two norm sense. And how far is it from A ? It is σ_{k+1} away from A .

Recall that for all this to I mean the assumption here is that σ_1 is greater than or equal to σ_2 is greater than or equal to etcetera up to σ_r is greater than 0, these are ordered. So, it means, what this means is that in words what this theorem is saying is that the closest rank k matrix to A in the two norm sense is given by A_k , this matrix here.

And this matrix is found by excluding the contribution of the smallest singular values from, in the expansion of this matrix A given here. It also means that any m by n matrix of rank k less than or equal to r is at least σ_{k+1} away from A in the two norm sense, so you cannot find a matrix of rank k which is strictly less than r that is arbitrarily close to A , it will be at least σ_{k+1} away from A .

Now, the proof of this theorem is actually very interesting, but before I walk you through the proof, note that what this is saying is that the solution to this optimization problem is A_k . This by itself is actually fairly, it is not obvious how you would show something like this, it is saying that you need to show that when you solve this optimization problem, you will get A_k as the solution.

So, the way you actually prove theorems like this often is that you show a lower bound on this quantity, if you look at all matrices of rank equal to k , what is the smallest value that $A - B$ can achieve? And then you show that this A_k as defined here actually attains this lower bound. So, that basically establishes the theorem.

So, this kind of tricks can be used when you somehow have a guess of what the answer to the optimization problem is. So, I show that kind of problem is actually always, almost always easier than find the solution to this optimization problem.

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Then, $\min_{\text{rank}(B)=k} \|A-B\|_2 = \|A-A_k\|_2 = \sigma_{k+1}.$

($\Rightarrow$ Any $m \times n$ matrix $k \leq r$ is at least σ_{k+1} away from A in the 2-norm sense.)

Proof: First, $\text{rank}(A_k) = k.$

($U^T A_k V = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_k, 0 \dots 0) \Rightarrow \text{rank}(A_k) = k.$)

Also, $\|A-A_k\|_2 = \|U^T(A-A_k)V\|_2$

$= \|\text{diag}(0, \dots, 0, \sigma_{k+1}, \dots, \sigma_n, 0 \dots 0)\|_2$

$= \sigma_{k+1}.$

Let B be any matrix s.t. $\text{rank}(B) = k$

$\Rightarrow \dim(\mathcal{M})$

So, the proof goes like this, first of all, the rank of A_k as defined here is equal to k , that is simply because if I do u transpose A_k times v , I get this diagonal matrix containing σ_1 through σ_k along the diagonal, and now this clearly has rank equal to k . So, rank of A_k equals k .

Also, if you look at the l_2 norm of A minus A_k , this l_2 norm is invariant to left or right multiplication by unitary matrix, so, I can consider u transpose A minus A_k times v which is substituting for A to be $u \sigma v$ transpose and A_k to be u some σ dash v transpose, you can see that the first k singular values will just cancel off and what you will be left with is a diagonal matrix containing σ_{k+1} through σ_r .

And of course, the largest Eigenvalue of this diagonal matrix is just σ_{k+1} . So, this norm is exactly equal to σ_{k+1} . So, that shows that, that shows this part of the theorem, A minus A_k is σ_{k+1} .

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the 2-norm sense.)
 NPTEL Proof: First, $\text{rank}(A_k) = k$.
 $(U^T A_k V = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_k, 0, \dots, 0) \Rightarrow \text{rank}(A_k) = k.)$
 Also, $\|A - A_k\|_2 = \|U^T(A - A_k)V\|_2$
 $= \|\text{diag}(0, \dots, 0, \sigma_{k+1}, \dots, \sigma_n, 0, \dots, 0)\|_2$
 $= \sigma_{k+1}.$
 Let B be any matrix s.t. $\text{rank}(B) = k$
 $\Rightarrow \dim(\mathcal{N}(B)) = n - k.$
 Let $W = \text{span}(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{k+1})$
 By dimensionality considerations, $\mathcal{N}(B) \cap W \neq \emptyset$
 Let $x \in \mathcal{N}(B)$

$A = U \Sigma V^T$
 $v = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n]$

Now, what we need to show is that there is no other matrix that can have an l2 norm of the difference being bigger than sigma k plus 1, sorry being smaller than sigma k plus 1. In other words, A_k itself is a matrix that is closest to A among all rank k matrices in this l2 norm sense.

So, suppose B is a matrix such that rank of B equals k which in turn means that by the rank nullity theorem, the dimension of the null space of B is equal to n minus k . Define W to be the span of v_1 through v_{k+1} , the first $k+1$ columns of v . So, A is equal to $U \Sigma V^T$ and v is $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$. So I take these first $k+1$ columns here. And the span of this is the subspace W .

Now, the dimension of this subspace W is $k+1$, the dimension of the null space of B is n minus k . So, the sum of the two dimensions is more than n . And therefore, by dimensional reconsiderations, we see that the null space of B intersection W cannot be the null set, there has to be some nonzero vectors in it.

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Let $W = \text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{k+1}\}$
 By dimensionality considerations, $N(B) \cap W \neq \emptyset$.
 Let $x \in N(B) \cap W$, $\|x\|_2 = 1$.
 Since $x \in W$, $x = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \alpha_i v_i \Rightarrow \alpha_i = v_i^H x, i=1, \dots, k+1$
 ($\because v_i$ are orthonormal)
 Also, $\|x\|_2 = 1 \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} |v_i^H x|^2 = 1$.
 Since $x \in N(B)$, $Bx = 0 \Rightarrow (A-B)x = Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} (v_i^H x) A v_i$
 $= \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} (v_i^H x) v_i u_i$
 $\Rightarrow \|(A-B)x\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} |v_i^H x|^2 \|u_i\|_2^2$ since u_i are orthonormal
 Also, $\|(A-B)x\|_2 \leq \|A-B\|_2 \cdot \|x\|_2 = \|A-B\|_2$ since $\|x\|_2 = 1$

So, suppose we pick one such vector x , which belongs to the intersection of these two sets subspaces which is of unit norm x_2 equals 1. Now, this x of course belongs to the null space of B and it belongs to W . So, since it x , x belongs to W , we can write x to be a linear combination of these k plus 1 columns here, so, we will call that i equal to 1 to k plus 1 $\alpha_i v_i$.

And these v_i are orthonormal. And so, we can actually directly find these α_i to be $v_i^H x$, i equal to 1 to k plus 1. Now, since the l_2 norm of x equals 1, it means that if I take $v_i^H x$, $v_i^H x$ square these when you square and add them, that should also be equal to 1, you can simply take this $v_i^H x$ square, all the cross terms drop off because these v_i are orthogonal to each other. And you are left with $\sum \alpha_i^2$, which is the same as $\sum v_i^H x^2$, i is equal to 1 to k plus 1 and that should be equal to 1.

On the other hand, since x also belongs to the null space of B , it means that Bx equals 0, which means that $A - B$ times x is equal to Ax because Bx is equal to 0. And if I write out what Ax is, so all I am doing here is I am just substituting $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \alpha_i v_i$ for x . So, I get $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \alpha_i$ just a scalar. So I can bring it out front. And it is equal to $\sum v_i^H x A v_i$.

But we already saw that $A v_i$ is the same as $\sum \alpha_i u_i$. And so I can write it as $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \alpha_i v_i^H x \sum \alpha_i u_i$. And so basically, if I look at norm square of A

minus v_k , this is equal to $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} v_i^H x$ squared times these vectors are orthonormal.

So, once again, if I take this thing squared all the cross terms will drop off and all the direct terms will have $v_i^H v_i$, which is equal to 1 there. So, I have $v_i^H x$ squared times $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} 1$.

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Since $x \in W$, $x = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \alpha_i v_i \Rightarrow \alpha_i = v_i^H x$, $\because v_i$ are orthonormal
 Also, $\|x\|_2 = 1 \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} |v_i^H x|^2 = 1$.
 Since $x \in N(B)$, $Bx = 0 \Rightarrow (A-B)x = Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} (v_i^H x) A v_i$
 $= \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} (v_i^H x) \sigma_i u_i$
 $\Rightarrow \|(A-B)x\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} |v_i^H x|^2 \sigma_i^2$ since u_i are orthonormal
 Also, $\|(A-B)x\|_2 \leq \|A-B\|_2 \cdot \|x\|_2 = \|A-B\|_2$ since $\|x\|_2 = 1$
 $\Rightarrow \|A-B\|_2^2 \geq \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} |v_i^H x|^2 \sigma_i^2 \geq \sigma_{k+1}^2$
 because of the ordering of σ_i and since $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} |v_i^H x|^2 = 1$. $\square$

And so and further by the sub multiplicativity property, $\|A-B\|_2$ norm is less than or equal to the $\|A-B\|_2$ times the $\|x\|_2$ norm of x . But the $\|x\|_2$ norm of x equals 1, we started out by saying that let x be a vector such that $\|x\|_2$ equals 1. So this is less than or equal to the $\|A-B\|_2$ norm of A minus B .

And so this is bigger than or equal to this, which has in turn equal to this. And so $\|A-B\|_2$ norm squared is greater than or equal to the square of this, which is equal to this, $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} v_i^H x$ squared times σ_i^2 .

Now, these σ_i are in decreasing order. And this $v_i^H x$ squares add up to 1. So if I replace all of these σ_i squares with σ_{k+1}^2 the smallest value here, then $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \sigma_{k+1}^2$ can come out. But this summation $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} v_i^H x$ squared is equal to 1, that is what we wrote over here.

And so this is greater than or equal to sigma squared k plus 1. So, that means that if I had taken any other B, which is a rank k, then A minus B squared is at least equal to sigma k plus 1 square. And we have found the matrix A_k which is exactly at sigma k plus 1 squared distance from A and so that proves the result. Any questions so far?

Student: Sir.

Professor: Yes.

Student: You have not proved the first part, the matrix B which minimizes this problem is A_k .

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$(U^T A_k V = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_k, 0, \dots, 0) \Rightarrow \text{rank}(A_k) = k.)$

Also, $\|A - A_k\|_2 = \|U^T(A - A_k)V\|_2$
 $= \|\text{diag}(0, \dots, 0, \sigma_{k+1}, \dots, \sigma_n, 0, \dots, 0)\|_2$
 $= \sigma_{k+1}.$

Let B be any matrix s.t. $\text{rank}(B) = k$
 $\Rightarrow \dim(\mathcal{N}(B)) = n - k.$

Let $W = \text{Span}(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{k+1})$
 $A = U \Sigma V^T$
 $V = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n]$

By dimensionality considerations, $\mathcal{N}(B) \cap W \neq \emptyset$.

Let $x \in \mathcal{N}(B) \cap W$, $\|x\|_2 = 1$.

Since $x \in W$, $x = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \alpha_i v_i \Rightarrow \alpha_i = v_i^H x$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, k+1$
 $(\because v_i \text{ are orthonormal})$

Since $x \in \mathcal{N}(B)$, $Bx = 0 \Rightarrow (A - B)x = Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} (v_i^H x) A v_i$
 $= \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} (v_i^H x) \sigma_i u_i$

$\Rightarrow \|(A - B)x\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} |\alpha_i|^2 \sigma_i^2$ since u_i are orthonormal

Also, $\|(A - B)x\|_2 \leq \|A - B\|_2 \cdot \|x\|_2 = \|A - B\|_2$ since $\|x\|_2 = 1$

$\Rightarrow \|A - B\|_2^2 \geq \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} |\alpha_i|^2 \sigma_i^2 \geq \sigma_{k+1}^2 \Rightarrow \|A - B\|_2 \geq \sigma_{k+1}$

because of the ordering of σ_i and since $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} |\alpha_i|^2 = 1$. $\square$

Professor: No, what I am saying is these two points together, we made two points. The first point is that let me go back here. The first point is that $\|A - A_k\|_2$ is equal to σ_{k+1} . So, A_k is exactly at it is a matrix of rank k , which is exactly at σ_{k+1} distance from A . And then we said let B be any other matrix such that it has rank equal to k . Then what we showed is that this matrix B is at least equal to σ_{k+1} distance.

Student: Yes sir. Okay, I understand.

Professor: So, now, basically, I can challenge you to say find me a matrix, which is of rank k which is less than σ_{k+1} distance away, you will not be able to, because I already proved a lower bound, that any other matrix, any matrix B of rank k is at least σ_{k+1} away from A , can we find the matrix A_k which is at σ_{k+1} distance.

And therefore, this matrix A_k that we found is a solution to the optimization problem of finding a matrix B of rank equal to k which is as close as possible to A in the ℓ_2 norm sense. Of course, there may be other solutions, but this is at least, this is certainly one solution.

Student: Yes sir. Okay. Thank you.

Professor: So, if there are no other questions, I move on to the next topic which is generalized inverses of matrices.

Student: Sir.

Professor: Yeah.

Student: Sir $\|A - B\|_2$ for fixed A and variable B if it is convex function then it is the only solution, we can say.

Professor: Yes.

Student: Okay Sir.

Professor: So, you need two things to prove that this uniqueness based on convexity, you need that the cost function is convex. And if I take $\|A - B\|_2^2$ that is indeed convex in B . However, you also need that the constraint set is a convex set. And clearly you can see that if I look at the space of all matrices of rank k or matrices B of rank k , if I take a convex combination of two such matrices that need not be ranking. And so, this space is a complicated

space, it is not a convex space. And because of that, you cannot use convexity based arguments to say that this is a unique solution.

Student: Okay Sir I understand. Thank you.

Professor: Welcome.