Singular-value Decomposition

DSTA

1 Foundations

1.1 Remember eigenpairs?

Matrix A has a real λ and a vector **v** s.t.

$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$

We think of A as scaling space with a factor λ in direction **v**.

Singular values uncover categories and their strenghts.

The Eigen-decomposition of a square matrix seen in Goodfellow et al. can be extended to arbitrary matrices!

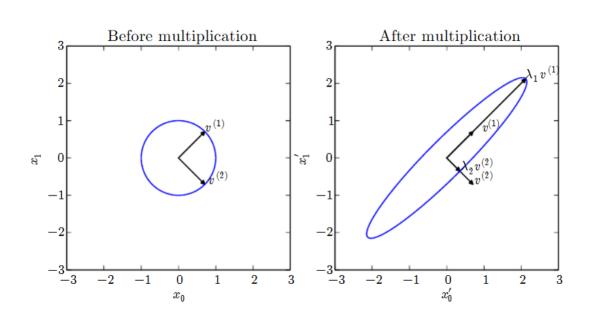


Figure 2.3: An example of the effect of eigenvectors and eigenvalues. Here, we have a matrix \boldsymbol{A} with two orthonormal eigenvectors, $\boldsymbol{v}^{(1)}$ with eigenvalue λ_1 and $\boldsymbol{v}^{(2)}$ with eigenvalue λ_2 . (Left)We plot the set of all unit vectors $\boldsymbol{u} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ as a unit circle. (Right)We plot the set of all points $\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{u}$. By observing the way that \boldsymbol{A} distorts the unit circle, we can see that it scales space in direction $\boldsymbol{v}^{(i)}$ by λ_i .

We think of A as scaling space with a factor λ in direction **v**.

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$$

For unit vectors the max (resp. min) of $f(\cdot)$ corresponds to λ_1 (resp. λ_n).

1.2 Decompose the "effect" of A

Let the square matrix A have n

- linearly-independent e-vectors $\{\mathbf{v}^{(1)} \dots \mathbf{v}^{(n)}\}$
- corresponding e-values $\{\lambda_1 \ge \lambda_1 \ge \dots \lambda_n\}$. Then

. . .

$$A = V \operatorname{diag}(\lambda) V^T$$

where $V = [\mathbf{v}^{(1)}\mathbf{v}^{(1)}...\mathbf{v}^{(n)}]$

 $\lambda = [\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \dots \lambda_n].$

$$\operatorname{diag}(\lambda) = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \uparrow \uparrow & \vdots & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{v}^1 \mathbf{v}^2 & \dots & \mathbf{v}^n \\ \downarrow \downarrow & \vdots & \downarrow \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \longleftarrow & \mathbf{v}^1 & \longrightarrow \\ \leftarrow & \mathbf{v}^2 & \longrightarrow \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \leftarrow & \mathbf{v}^n & \longrightarrow \end{pmatrix}$$

1.3 A general form for real symmetric Ms

$$A = Q\Lambda Q^T$$

where Q is an orthogonal matrix of e-vectors and Λ is a diagonal m. For repeated λ values the decomposition is not unique.

2 Singular-Value Decomposition

2.1 Definition

Singular-value decomp. generalises eigen-decomp.:

- any real matrix has one
- even non-square m. admit one

. . .

$$A = V \operatorname{diag}(\lambda) V^{-1}$$

 $A_{(n \times m)} = U_{(n \times n)} D_{(n \times m)} V_{(m \times m)}^T$

- U is a orthogonal m. of *left-singular* (col.) vectors
- D is a diagonal matrix of singular values
- V is a orthogonal m. of *right-singular* (col.) vectors

•••

Where does all this come from?

2.2 Interpreting SV-decomposition

- cols. of U will be the e-vectors of AA^T
- $D_{ii} = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$ the i-th e-value of $A^T A$ (same for $A A^T$)
- cols. of V will be the e-vectors of A^TA

Please see \S 2.7 of [Goodfellow et al.]

3 Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse

3.1 Motivations

solve linear systems

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$$

for non-square (rectangular) matrices:

- n >m: the problem is overconstrained (no solution?)
- n < m: the problem is overparametrized (many sols.?)

3.2 Ideal procedure

If A is squared (n=m) and non-singular $(|A| \neq 0)$ then

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$$

. . .

 $A^{-1}A\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{y}$

• • •

 $I\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{y}$

Compute once, run for different values of y.

3.3 Define the pseudo-inverse

$$A^+ = \lim_{\alpha \to 0} (A^T A + \alpha I)^{-1} A^T$$

It is proved that $A^+A \approx I$ so A^+ will work as the left-inverse of A

Consequence: over-constrained linear systems can now be solved w. approximation.

3.4 SVD leads to approx. inversion

for the decomposition

$$A = UDV^T$$
$$A^+ = VD^+U^T$$

where D^+ , such that $D^+D = I$ is easy to calculate: D is diagonal.

Does $A^+A \approx I$?

Yes, because U and V are s. t. $U^T U = V V^T = I$.

. . .

. . .

. . .

$$VD^+U^T \cdot UDV^T =$$

 $VD^+IDV^T =$
 $VD^+DV^T =$

. . .

 $VIV^T = VV^T = I$