

Mathematical Foundations for Machine Learning and Data Science

Singular Value Decomposition, Column Space and Null Space



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Outline

- Positive/negative definite and semi-definite matrices
- Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)
 - Formulation
 - Interpretation
 - Application examples
- Column space and Null Space



Positive/Negative Definite/Semi-Definite Matrices

Definition:

For a matrix $A \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$, if

$x^T A x \ge 0$	$\forall \ x \in \mathbf{R}^n$	A is positive semi-definite (PSD)
$x^T A x > 0$	$\forall \ x \in \mathbf{R}^n$	A is positive definite (PD)
$x^T A x \le 0$	$\forall \ x \in \mathbf{R}^n$	A is negative semi-definite (NSD)
$x^T A x < 0$	$\forall \ x \in \mathbf{R}^n$	A is negative definite (ND)



Positive Definite and Semi-Definite Matrices

Interpretation:

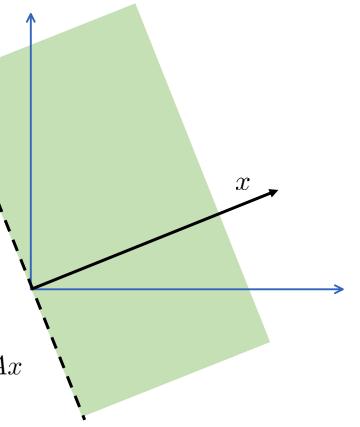
A is positive semi-definite (PSD)

 $x^T A x \ge 0$

- Let y = Ax
 - y is a linear transformation defined by the matrix A.
- $x^T y \ge 0$ implies angle between x and y is less than or equal to $\frac{\pi}{2}$.
- $x^T y \ge 0$ implies angle between x and linearly transformed x, that is, Ax is less than or equal to $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

Graphically, a vector x when transformed by a matrix A, that is, Ax can be anywhere in the green region including the dashed boundary where $x^T A x = 0$





Positive Definite and Semi-Definite Matrices

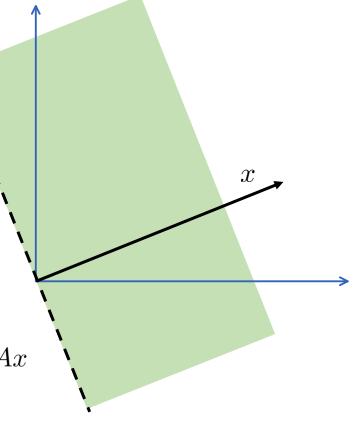
Interpretation:

A is positive definite (PD)

 $x^T A x > 0$

- Let y = Ax
 - y is a linear transformation defined by the matrix A.
- $x^T y > 0$ implies angle between x and y is less than $\frac{\pi}{2}$.
- $x^T y \ge 0$ implies angle between x and linearly transformed x, that is, Ax is less than $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

Graphically, a vector x when transformed by a matrix A, that is, Ax can be anywhere in the green region excluding the dashed boundary where $x^T A x = 0$





Positive Definite and Semi-Definite Matrices

Eigenvalues of symmetric PSD/PD matrix:

For a symmetric and PD matrix A, eigenvalues are positive.

<u>How?</u>

- We already know that the eigenvalues of a symmetric matrix are real.
- For a PD symmetric, we require $x^T A x > 0$
- If we take x = q, where q is an eigenvector with an associated eigenvalue λ

$q^{T}Aq > 0 \Rightarrow \lambda q^{T}q > 0 \Rightarrow \lambda ||q||_{2}^{2} > 0 \Rightarrow \lambda > 0$

Similarly, we can show the following:

For a symmetric and PSD matrix A, eigenvalues are non-negative.

For a symmetric and NSD matrix A, eigenvalues are non-positive.

For a symmetric and ND matrix A, eigenvalues are negative.



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Overview:

- The singular value decomposition (SVD) of a matrix is a central matrix decomposition method in linear algebra.
- It has been referred to as the "fundamental theorem of linear algebra" (Strang, 1993) because it can be applied to all matrices, not only to square matrices, and it always exists.
- For $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$, we have



• SVD explains the underlying geometry of this linear transformation.



Formulation:

• For any matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, we have a singular value decomposition (SVD) given by

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

- Matrix $U \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times m}$ is an orthonormal matrix.
- Matrix $V \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ is an orthonormal matrix.
- Matrix $\Sigma \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ is a (special) diagonal matrix.

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma_m & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma_n \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma_n \end{bmatrix}$$



Formulation:

$A = U \Sigma V^T$

- Columns of U are referred to as left singular vectors of matrix A.
- Columns of V are referred to as right singular vectors of matrix A.
- $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \ldots, \sigma_{\min(m,n)}$ are singular values of matrix A, which are (usually) indexed such that

$$\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \ldots \ge \sigma_{\min(m,n)} \ge 0$$



How to Compute SVD?

- For a matrix $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$, we define a matrix $G = AA^T$.
- Using $A = U \Sigma V^T$, we can write G as

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

- What is special about matrix G?
 - G is symmetric by definition.
 - G is positive semi-definite. <u>How? You are fully equipped to show this.</u>
- We note that $\Sigma\Sigma^T$ is a diagonal matrix of size $m \times m$.
- Eigenvalue decomposition of G gives columns of U as eigenvectors and diagonal entries of $\Sigma\Sigma^T$ as eigenvalues.
- In other words, left singular vectors of A are eigenvectors of AA^T and $\sigma^2 = \lambda$ (eigenvalue of AA^T). Furthermore, $\lambda \ge 0$ since $G = AA^T$ is PSD.

Eigenvalue decomposition of AA^T gives m left singular vectors of A and first m singular values.



How to Compute SVD?

- Now we define a matrix $G = A^T A$.
- Using $A = U \Sigma V^T$, we can write G as

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

- What is special about matrix G?
 - G is symmetric by definition.
 - G is positive semi-definite. <u>How? You are fully equipped to show this.</u>
- We note that $\Sigma^T \Sigma$ is a diagonal matrix of size $n \times n$.
- Eigenvalue decomposition of G gives columns of V as eigenvectors and diagonal entries of $\Sigma^T \Sigma$ as eigenvalues.
- In other words, right singular vectors of A are eigenvectors of $A^T A$ and $\sigma^2 = \lambda$ (eigenvalue of $A^T A$). Furthermore, $\lambda \ge 0$ since G is PSD.

Eigenvalue decomposition of $A^T A$ gives *n* right singular vectors of *A* and first *n* singular values.



Now you can explain the non-negativity of the singular values.

SVD Summary

• Singular value decomposition (SVD) of a matrix $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ is given by

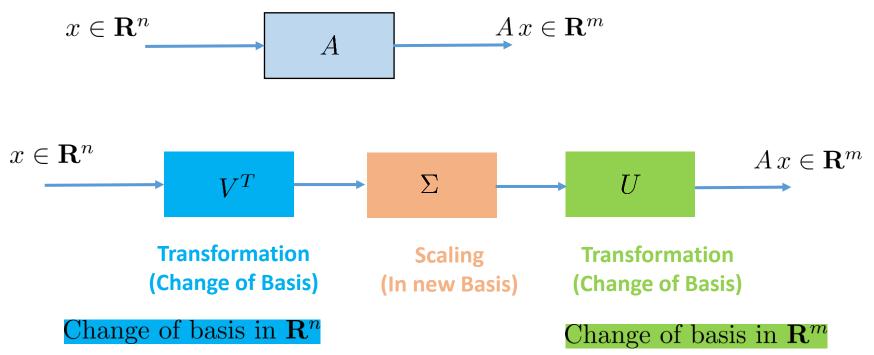
 $A = U \Sigma V^T$

- EVD of AA^T gives U and first m singular values.
- EVD of $A^T A$ gives V and first n singular values.
- U and V are always orthogonal.
- SVD always exists.
- Singular values are non-negative, that is,



$$\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \ldots \ge \sigma_{\min(m,n)} \ge 0$$

Geometric Interpretation

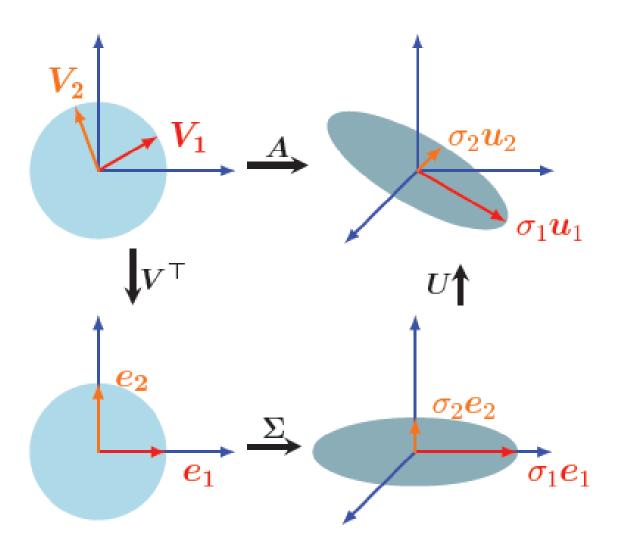


Scaling along the new basis by singular values.

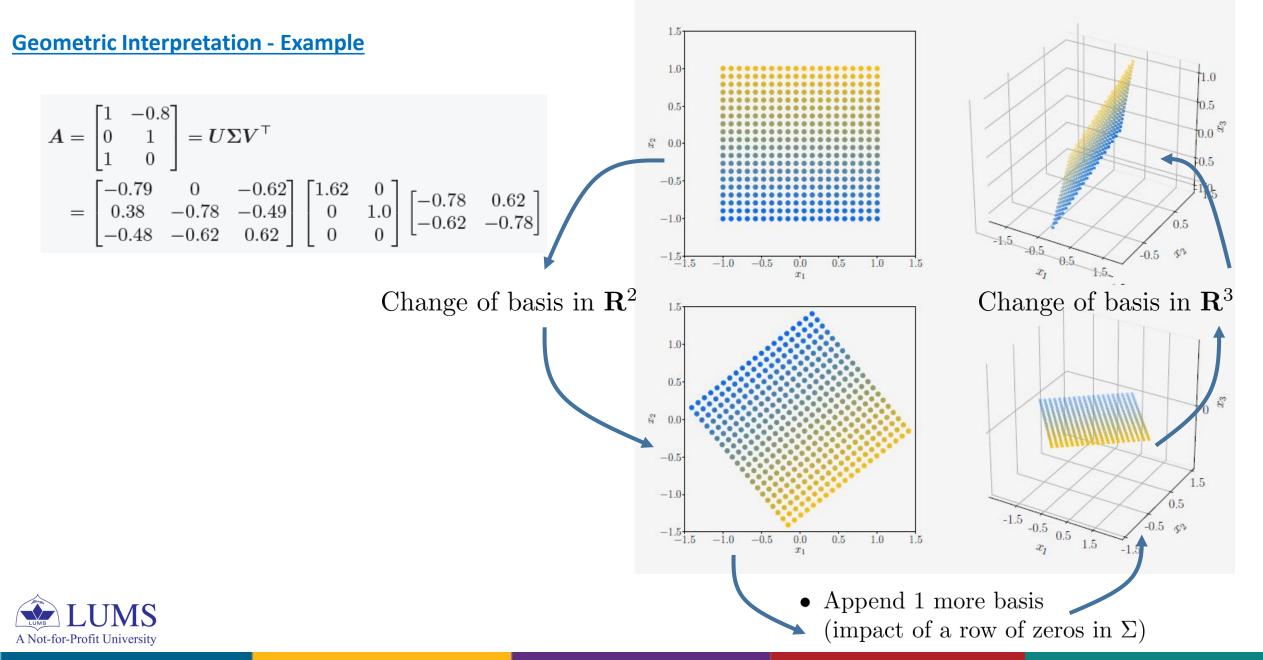
- m < n Drop the last n m basis (impact of columns of zeros in Σ)
- m > n Append m n basis (impact of rows of zeros in Σ)



Geometric Interpretation







Rank of a Matrix:

- The rank of a matrix is equal to the number of non-zero singular values.
- Since $A^T A$ and A have the same rank and we know that the rank of any square matrix equals the number of nonzero eigenvalues.

Application Example – Rank Estimation:

We use SVD for the estimation of rank while analyzing data. <u>How?</u>

- Suppose that we have n data points a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n , all of which live in \mathbb{R}^m , where n is much larger than m. Let A be the $m \times n$ matrix with columns a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n .
- Assume that the data points satisfy some linear relations, such that a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n all lie in an r dimensional subspace of \mathbf{R}^m . Then we would expect the matrix A to have rank r.
- If the data points are obtained from measurements with errors, then the matrix A will probably have full rank m. But only r of the singular values of A will be large, and the other singular values will be close to zero.



Using SVD, we can can estimate an "approximate rank" of A by counting the number of singular values which are much larger than the others.

Application: Matrix Approximation

• A matrix $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ can be decomposed using SVD as

$$A = U \Sigma V^T = \sum_{i=1}^{\min(m,n)} u_i \sigma_i v_i^T$$

• If rank of a matrix is $r \leq \min(m, n)$, we can truncate the summation at r

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{r} u_i \sigma_i v_i^T$$

• Using SVD formulation, we can define k rank approximation of the matrix A by including first k singular vectors and associated singular values in the representation, that is,

$$A pprox \sum_{i=1}^{k} u_i \sigma_i v_i^T$$
 (k-rank approximation)



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Column Space and Null Space

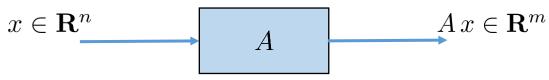
Column Space:

- For a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, the column space, denoted by $\mathcal{C}(A)$, is the span of the columns of A.
- If $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbf{R}^m$ are the columns of A, column space is given by

 $\mathcal{C}(A) = \operatorname{span}(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$

 $C(A) = \{Ax | x \in \mathbf{R}^n\}$ (all possible linear combinations of columns of A)

• In other words, column space is a linear transformation of every point in \mathbf{R}^n , that is,



- Consequently, $\mathcal{C}(A)$ is the subspace of \mathbb{R}^m .
- What is the dimension of column space $\mathcal{C}(A)$?

Number of linearly independent columns of $A = \operatorname{rank}(A)$.

 $\mathcal{C}(A)$

 \mathbf{R}^m



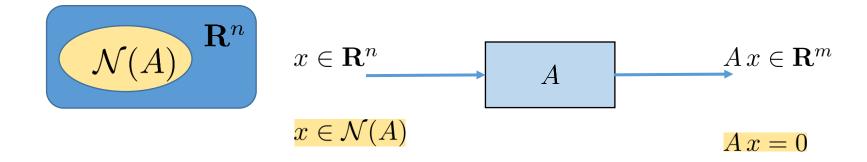
Column Space and Null Space

Null Space:

• For a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, the null space, denoted by $\mathcal{N}(A)$, is the subspace of \mathbb{R}^n such that

 $\mathcal{N}(A) = \{x \in \mathbf{R}^n \,|\, Ax = 0\}$ (all points that are mapped to zero by matrix A)

• In other words, null space is an inverse linear transformation of $0 \in \mathbf{R}^m$.



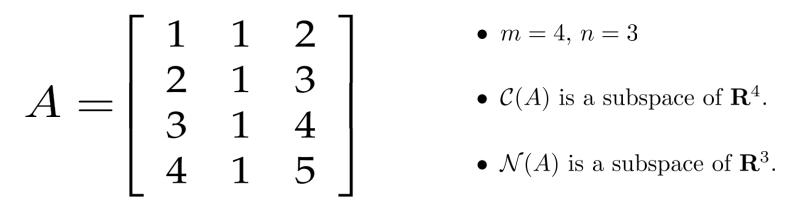
• Nullity of the matrix, that is, the dimension of the null-space $\mathcal{N}(A)$ is given by the following rank-nullity theorem (also known as rank+nullity theorem).

 $\operatorname{rank}(A) + \operatorname{nullity}(A) = \operatorname{number of columns of } A$



Column Space and Null Space

Example:



- m = 4, n = 3

- Note that a third column is a sum of first two columns and therefore number of linearly independent columns is equal to 2.
- Consequently, $\mathcal{C}(A)$ is a 2-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^4 .

