## Further Mathematical Methods (Linear Algebra) 2002

## Lecture 20: Singular Values Decomposition

Recall that the spectral decomposition of a matrix A is only possible if the matrix is normal, that is, if it is such that  $AA^{\dagger} = A^{\dagger}A$ . But, if A is an  $m \times n$  matrix with  $m \neq n$  (i.e. A is *not* square), then A cannot be a normal matrix as:

- $AA^{\dagger}$  is an  $m \times m$  matrix.
- $A^{\dagger}A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix.

and so, since these matrices are of different sizes, they cannot be equal. However, we can find something, called the *singular values decomposition*, which is the non-square matrix *analogue* of the spectral decomposition. To see this, we first note that:

**Theorem 20.1** Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix. The matrices  $AA^{\dagger}$  and  $A^{\dagger}A$  are both Hermitian and they have the same positive eigenvalues. Further, the orthonormal sets of eigenvectors  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  and  $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{y}_k\}$  corresponding to the positive eigenvalues of  $AA^{\dagger}$  and  $A^{\dagger}A$  can be chosen so that

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}} \mathsf{A} \mathbf{y}_i \text{ and } \mathbf{y}_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_j}} \mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{x}_j.$$

**Proof:** To start with, since  $(AA^{\dagger})^{\dagger} = AA^{\dagger}$  and  $(A^{\dagger}A)^{\dagger} = A^{\dagger}A$ , the matrices  $AA^{\dagger}$  and  $A^{\dagger}A$  are both Hermitian. As such, we know from the lecture on complex matrices that they will have real eigenvalues. We further note that:

• For any eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of  $AA^{\dagger}$ , we have  $AA^{\dagger}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$  with  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ . Thus, since

$$\mathbf{x}^{\dagger} \mathsf{A} \mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{x} = (\mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{x})^{\dagger} \mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{x} = \| \mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{x} \|^{2} \ge 0,$$

and

$$\mathbf{x}^{\dagger} \mathsf{A} \mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}^{\dagger} \mathbf{x} = \lambda \| \mathbf{x} \|^{2},$$

we have  $\lambda \ge 0$  since  $\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \ge 0$ . Consequently, any eigenvalue of  $\mathsf{A}\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}$  is non-negative.

• For any eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of  $A^{\dagger}A$ , we have  $A^{\dagger}A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$  with  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ . Thus, since

$$\mathbf{x}^{\dagger} \mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathsf{A} \mathbf{x} = (\mathsf{A} \mathbf{x})^{\dagger} \mathsf{A} \mathbf{x} = \|\mathsf{A} \mathbf{x}\|^2 \ge 0,$$

and

$$\mathbf{x}^{\dagger} \mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathsf{A} \mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}^{\dagger} \mathbf{x} = \lambda \| \mathbf{x} \|^{2},$$

we have  $\lambda \ge 0$  since  $\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \ge 0$ . Consequently, any eigenvalue of  $\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathsf{A}$  is non-negative.

Now, we also have to show that the matrices  $AA^{\dagger}$  and  $A^{\dagger}A$  have the *same* non-zero eigenvalues and to do this, we note that:

• For any eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of  $AA^{\dagger}$ , we have  $AA^{\dagger}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$  with  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ . That is, multiplying through by  $A^{\dagger}$ , we have

$$\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}(\mathsf{A}\mathsf{A}^{\dagger})\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{x} \implies (\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathsf{A})(\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}) = \lambda(\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}) \implies \mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathsf{A}\mathbf{y} = \lambda\mathbf{y},$$

where we have set  $\mathbf{y} = A^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}$ . Thus, provided that  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , any eigenvalue of  $AA^{\dagger}$  is also an eigenvalue of  $A^{\dagger}A$ . However, if  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ , then

$$\lambda \mathbf{x} = \mathsf{A}\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{x} = \mathsf{A}\mathbf{y} = \mathsf{A}\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0},$$

i.e. since  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , we have  $\lambda = 0$ . Consequently, this analysis only holds if we are considering the non-zero eigenvalues of  $AA^{\dagger}$ .

• For any eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of  $A^{\dagger}A$ , we have  $A^{\dagger}A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$  with  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ . That is, multiplying through by A, we have

$$\mathsf{A}(\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathsf{A})\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathsf{A}\mathbf{x} \implies (\mathsf{A}\mathsf{A}^{\dagger})(\mathsf{A}\mathbf{x}) = \lambda(\mathsf{A}\mathbf{x}) \implies \mathsf{A}\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{y} = \lambda\mathbf{y},$$

where we have set  $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}$ . Thus, provided that  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , any eigenvalue of  $A^{\dagger}A$  is also an eigenvalue of  $AA^{\dagger}$ . However, if  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ , then

$$\lambda \mathbf{x} = \mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathsf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{y} = \mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0},$$

i.e. since  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , we have  $\lambda = 0$ . Consequently, this analysis only holds if we are considering the non-zero eigenvalues of  $A^{\dagger}A$ .

Thus, the matrices  $AA^{\dagger}$  and  $A^{\dagger}A$  have the *same* positive eigenvalues (as required).

Further, we have to prove that the orthonormal sets of eigenvectors  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  and  $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{y}_k\}$  corresponding to the positive eigenvalues of  $AA^{\dagger}$  and  $A^{\dagger}A$  can be chosen so that

$$\mathbf{x}_i = rac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}} \mathsf{A} \mathbf{y}_i \ \ ext{and} \ \ \mathbf{y}_j = rac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_j}} \mathsf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{x}_j.$$

Now, from the lecture on complex matrices, we know that such sets of orthonormal eigenvectors can be found since the matrices  $AA^{\dagger}$  and  $A^{\dagger}A$  are Hermitian, and hence normal. So, given such orthonormal sets of eigenvectors, we note that:

•  $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y}_k\}$  is an orthonormal set of eigenvectors corresponding to the non-zero eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$  of  $A^{\dagger}A$  and from above, we know that  $\{A\mathbf{y}_1, A\mathbf{y}_2, \dots, A\mathbf{y}_k\}$  are eigenvectors for the non-zero eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$  of  $A^{\dagger}$ . So, since

$$\langle \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}_j \rangle = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}_i)^{\dagger} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}_j = \mathbf{y}_i^{\dagger} \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}_j = \lambda_i \mathbf{y}_i^{\dagger} \mathbf{y}_j = \begin{cases} \lambda_i & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

we can see that the set of vectors  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  where

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}} \mathsf{A} \mathbf{y}_i,$$

is an orthonormal set of eigenvectors corresponding to the non-zero eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_k$  of  $AA^{\dagger}$ .

• { $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_k$ } is an orthonormal set of eigenvectors corresponding to the non-zero eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_k$  of  $AA^{\dagger}$  and from above, we know that { $A^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}_1, A^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}_2, \ldots, A^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}_k$ } are eigenvectors for the non-zero eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_k$  of  $A^{\dagger}A$ . So, since

$$\langle \mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}_{j} \rangle = (\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}_{i})^{\dagger}\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}_{j} = \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\dagger}\mathsf{A}\mathsf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}_{j} = \lambda_{j}\mathbf{x}_{i}^{\dagger}\mathbf{x}_{j} = \begin{cases} \lambda_{j} & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases},$$

we can see that the set of vectors  $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y}_k\}$  where

$$\mathbf{y}_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_j}} \mathsf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{x}_j,$$

is an orthonormal set of eigenvectors corresponding to the non-zero eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_k$  of  $A^{\dagger}A$ .

Thus, we have established the required result.

Now, using this Theorem, it is possible to derive the analogue of the spectral decomposition that we spoke of earlier. That is:

**Theorem 20.2** Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix where the matrices  $AA^{\dagger}$  and  $A^{\dagger}A$  have positive eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_k$  and orthonormal sets of eigenvectors given by  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  and  $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{y}_k\}$  corresponding to these eigenvalues such that

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}_i \text{ and } \mathbf{y}_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_j}} \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{x}_j.$$

In this case, we can write

$$\mathsf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sqrt{\lambda_i} \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^{\dagger},$$

and this is called the singular values decomposition of A and the scalars  $\sqrt{\lambda_1}, \sqrt{\lambda_2}, \ldots, \sqrt{\lambda_k}$  are called the singular values of this matrix.

**Proof:** Clearly, by Theorem 19.4, we know that this Theorem will hold for any  $m \times n$  matrix with  $m \neq n$ . So, to establish this result, we note that we can extend the orthonormal set of eigenvectors  $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{y}_k\}$  corresponding to the positive eigenvalues of the matrix  $A^{\dagger}A$ , to an orthonormal set of eigenvectors  $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{y}_k, \mathbf{y}_{k+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{y}_n\}$  for the non-negative eigenvalues of the  $n \times n$  matrix  $A^{\dagger}A$ .<sup>1</sup> Now, we recall from the lecture on complex matrices that the spectral decomposition of the identity matrix can be written in terms of this extended orthonormal set of eigenvectors, i.e.

$$\mathbf{I} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_i^{\dagger},$$

and multiplying this through by the matrix A we get

$$\mathsf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathsf{A} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i}^{\dagger}.$$

However, for  $k + 1 \le i \le n$ , we have zero eigenvalues which means that  $\mathbf{y}_i^{\dagger} \mathsf{A}^{\dagger} \mathsf{A} \mathbf{y}_i = \lambda_i ||\mathbf{y}_i||^2 = 0$  and so,

$$\mathbf{y}_{i}^{\dagger} \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}_{i} = (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}_{i})^{\dagger} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}_{i} = \|\mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}_{i}\| = 0 \implies \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}_{i} = \mathbf{0}$$

that is, the last n - k terms in our summation are zero. Thus, we have

$$\mathsf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathsf{A} \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_i^{\dagger}.$$

and since,

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}} \mathsf{A} \mathbf{y}_i,$$

this means that we can write

$$\mathsf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sqrt{\lambda_i} \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^{\dagger},$$

as required.

You may wonder why we have bothered to do this. However, the singular values decomposition of a matrix gives us a nice way of calculating its strong generalised inverse, namely:

**Theorem 20.3** If A is an  $m \times n$  matrix whose singular values decomposition is given by

$$\mathsf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sqrt{\lambda_i} \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^{\dagger},$$

then the strong generalised inverse of A is given by

$$\mathsf{A}^G = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}} \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\dagger.$$

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>That is, the vectors  $\mathbf{y}_{k+1}, \mathbf{y}_{k+2}, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n$  are eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalue  $\lambda = 0$  of  $A^{\dagger}A$  (which has multiplicity n - k).

**Proof:** See Question 7 of Problem Sheet 10.

**For example:** For an example of calculating the singular values decomposition of a matrix and then using this to find its strong generalised inverse, see Question 6 of Problem Sheet 10.