

CHAPTER 6: SINGULAR-VALUE DECOMPOSITION (SVD)

6.1 Introduction

Having finished with the eigenvalue problem for $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$, where \mathbf{A} is square, we now turn our attention to the general $N \times M$ case $\mathbf{Gm} = \mathbf{d}$. First, the eigenvalue problem, per se, does not exist for $\mathbf{Gm} = \mathbf{d}$ unless $N = M$. This is because \mathbf{G} maps (transforms) a vector \mathbf{m} from M -space into a vector \mathbf{d} in N -space. The concept of “parallel” breaks down when the vectors lie in different dimensional spaces.

Since the eigenvalue problem is not defined for \mathbf{G} , we will try to construct a square matrix that includes \mathbf{G} (and, as it will turn out, \mathbf{G}^T) for which the eigenvalue problem is defined. This eigenvalue problem will lead us to *singular-value decomposition (SVD)*, a way to decompose \mathbf{G} into the product of three matrices (two eigenvector matrices \mathbf{V} and \mathbf{U} , associated with model and data spaces, respectively, and a singular-value matrix very similar to Λ from the eigenvalue problem for \mathbf{A}). Finally, it will lead us to the generalized inverse operator, defined in a way that is analogous to the inverse matrix to \mathbf{A} found using eigenvalue/eigenvector analysis.

The end result of SVD is

$$\boxed{\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} = & \mathbf{U}_P & \Lambda_P & \mathbf{V}_P^T \\ N \times M & N \times P & P \times P & P \times M \end{matrix}} \quad (6.1)$$

where \mathbf{U}_P are the P N -dimensional eigenvectors of \mathbf{GG}^T , \mathbf{V}_P are the P M -dimensional eigenvectors of $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$, and Λ_P is the $P \times P$ diagonal matrix with P singular values (positive square roots of the nonzero eigenvalues shared by \mathbf{GG}^T and $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$) on the diagonal.

6.2 Formation of a New Matrix B

6.2.1 Formulating the Eigenvalue Problem With G

The way to construct an eigenvalue problem that includes \mathbf{G} is to form a square $(N + M) \times (N + M)$ matrix \mathbf{B} partitioned as follows:

$$\mathbf{B} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{G} \\ \hline \mathbf{G}^T & \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{l} \uparrow N \\ \downarrow \\ \uparrow M \\ \downarrow \\ \leftarrow N \Rightarrow \leftarrow M \Rightarrow \end{array} \quad (6.2)$$

\mathbf{B} is *Hermitian* because

$$\mathbf{B}^T = \mathbf{B} \quad (6.3)$$

Note, for example,

$$B_{1,N+3} = G_{13} \quad (6.4)$$

and

$$B_{N+3,1} = (\mathbf{G}^T)_{31} = G_{13}, \text{ etc.} \quad (6.5)$$

6.2.2 The Role of \mathbf{G}^T as an Operator

Analogous to Equation (1.13), we can define an equation for \mathbf{G}^T as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{G}^T & \mathbf{y} & = & \mathbf{c} \\ M \times N & N \times 1 & & M \times 1 \end{array} \quad (6.6)$$

We do not have to have a particular \mathbf{y} and \mathbf{c} in mind when we do this. We are simply interested in the mapping of an N -dimensional vector into an M -dimensional vector by \mathbf{G}^T .

We can combine $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{d}$ and $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{c}$, using \mathbf{B} , as

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{G} \\ \hline \mathbf{G}^T & \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{m} \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{d} \\ \mathbf{c} \end{array} \right] \quad (6.7)$$

or

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{B} & \mathbf{z} & = & \mathbf{b} \\ (N+M) \times (N+M) & (N+M) \times 1 & & (N+M) \times 1 \end{array} \quad (6.8)$$

where we have

$$\mathbf{z} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{m} \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.9)$$

and

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{d} \\ \mathbf{c} \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.10)$$

Note that \mathbf{z} and \mathbf{b} are both $(N + M) \times 1$ column vectors.

6.3 The Eigenvalue Problem for \mathbf{B}

The eigenvalue problem for the $(N + M) \times (N + M)$ matrix \mathbf{B} is given by

$$\mathbf{B}\mathbf{w}_i = \eta_i \mathbf{w}_i \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N + M \quad (6.11)$$

6.3.1 Properties of \mathbf{B}

The matrix \mathbf{B} is Hermitian. Therefore, all $N + M$ eigenvalues η_i are real. In preparation for solving the eigenvalue problem, we define the eigenvector matrix \mathbf{W} for \mathbf{B} as follows:

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{W} \\ (N + M) \times (N + M) \end{matrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}_1 & \mathbf{w}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{w}_{N+M} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.12)$$

We note that \mathbf{W} is an orthogonal matrix, and thus

$$\mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W} \mathbf{W}^T = \mathbf{I}_{N+M} \quad (6.13)$$

This is equivalent to

$$\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{w}_j = \delta_{ij} \quad (6.14)$$

where \mathbf{w}_i is the i th eigenvector in \mathbf{W} .

6.3.2 Partitioning \mathbf{W}

Each eigenvector \mathbf{w}_i is $(N + M) \times 1$. Consider partitioning \mathbf{w}_i such that

$$\mathbf{w}_i = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_i \\ \mathbf{v}_i \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \uparrow \\ \uparrow \\ N \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ M \\ \uparrow \\ \uparrow \end{matrix} \quad (6.15)$$

That is, we “stack” an N -dimensional vector \mathbf{u}_i and an M -dimensional vector \mathbf{v}_i into a single $(N + M)$ -dimensional vector.

Then the eigenvalue problem for \mathbf{B} from Equation (6.11) becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{G} \\ \mathbf{G}^T & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_i \\ \mathbf{v}_i \end{bmatrix} = \eta_i \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_i \\ \mathbf{v}_i \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.16)$$

This can be written as

$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i \mathbf{u}_i & i = 1, 2, \dots, N + M \\ N \times M & M \times 1 & N \times 1 \end{matrix}$	(6.17)
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and

$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G}^T & \mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i \mathbf{v}_i & i = 1, 2, \dots, N + M \\ M \times N & N \times 1 & M \times 1 \end{matrix}$	(6.18)
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Equations (6.17) and (6.18) together are called the *shifted eigenvalue problem for \mathbf{G}* . It is not an eigenvalue problem for \mathbf{G} , since \mathbf{G} is not square and eigenvalue problems are only defined for square matrices. Still, it is analogous to an eigenvalue problem. Note that \mathbf{G} operates on an M -dimensional vector and returns an N -dimensional vector. \mathbf{G}^T operates on an N -dimensional vector and returns an M -dimensional vector. Furthermore, the vectors are shared by \mathbf{G} and \mathbf{G}^T .

6.4 Solving the Shifted Eigenvalue Problem

Equations (6.17) and (6.18) can be solved by combining them into two related eigenvalue problems involving $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ and $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$, respectively.

6.4.1 The Eigenvalue Problem for $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$

Eigenvalue problems are only defined for square matrices. Note, then, that $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ is $M \times M$, and hence has an eigenvalue problem. The procedure is as follows:

Starting with Equation (6.18)

$$\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.18)$$

Multiply both sides by η_i

$$\eta_i\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i^2\mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.19)$$

or

$$\mathbf{G}^T(\eta_i\mathbf{u}_i) = \eta_i^2\mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.20)$$

But, by Equation (6.17), we have

$$\eta_i\mathbf{u}_i = \mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.17)$$

Thus

$$\boxed{\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i^2\mathbf{v}_i \quad i=1, 2, \dots, M} \quad (6.21)$$

This is just the eigenvalue problem for $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$! We were able to manipulate the shifted eigenvalue problem into an eigenvalue problem that, presumably, we can solve.

We make the following notes:

1. $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ is Hermitian.

$$(\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G})_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^N (G^T)_{ik} G_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^N g_{ki} g_{kj} \quad (6.22)$$

$$(\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G})_{ji} = \sum_{k=1}^N (G^T)_{jk} G_{ki} = \sum_{k=1}^N g_{kj} g_{ki} = (\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G})_{ij} \quad (6.23)$$

2. Therefore, all M η_i^2 are real. Because the diagonal entries of $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ are all ≥ 0 , then all η_i^2 are also ≥ 0 . This means that $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ is positive semidefinite (one definition of which is, simply, that all the eigenvalues are real and ≥ 0).

We can combine the M equations implied by Equation (6.20) into matrix notation as

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G} & \mathbf{V} & = & \mathbf{V} & \mathbf{M} \\ M \times M & M \times M & & M \times M & M \times M \end{matrix} \quad (6.24)$$

where \mathbf{V} is defined as follows:

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_M \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.25)$$

$M \times M$

and

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \eta_1^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \eta_2^2 & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \eta_M^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.26)$$

$M \times M$

3. Because $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ is a Hermitian matrix, \mathbf{V} is itself an orthogonal matrix:

$$\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}_M \quad (6.27)$$

6.4.2 The Eigenvalue Problem for $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$

The procedure for forming the eigenvalue problem for $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$ is very analogous to that of $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$. We note that $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$ is $N \times N$. Starting with Equation (6.17),

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{u}_i \quad (6.17)$$

Again, multiply by η_i

$$\mathbf{G}(\eta_i\mathbf{v}_i) = \eta_i^2\mathbf{u}_i \quad (6.28)$$

But by Equation (6.18), we have

$$\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.18)$$

Thus

$$\mathbf{GG}^T \mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i^2 \mathbf{u}_i \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (6.29)$$

We make the following notes for this eigenvalue problem:

1. \mathbf{GG}^T is Hermitian.
2. \mathbf{GG}^T is positive semidefinite.
3. Combining the N equations in Equation (6.29), we have

$$\mathbf{GG}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{N} \quad (6.30)$$

where

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_N \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.31)$$

$N \times N$

and

$$\mathbf{N} = \begin{bmatrix} \eta_1^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \eta_2^2 & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \eta_N^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.32)$$

$N \times N$

4. \mathbf{U} is an orthogonal matrix

$$\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{I}_N \quad (6.33)$$

6.5 How Many η_i Are There, Anyway??

A careful look at Equations (6.11), (6.21), and (6.29) shows that the eigenvalue problems for \mathbf{B} , $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$, and \mathbf{GG}^T are defined for $(N + M)$, M , and N values of i , respectively. Just how many η_i are there?

6.5.1 Introducing P , the Number of Nonzero Pairs ($+\eta_i, -\eta_i$)

Equation (6.11)

$$\mathbf{B}\mathbf{w}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{w}_i \quad (6.11)$$

can be used to determine $(N + M)$ real η_i . Equation (6.21),

$$\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i^2\mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.21)$$

can be used to determine M real η_i^2 since $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ is $M \times M$. Equation (6.29)

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i^2\mathbf{u}_i \quad (6.29)$$

can be used to determine N real η_i^2 since $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$ is $N \times N$.

This section will convince you, I hope, that the following are true:

1. There are P pairs of nonzero η_i , where each pair consists of $(+\eta_i, -\eta_i)$.
2. If $+\eta_i$ is an eigenvalue of

$$\mathbf{B}\mathbf{w}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{w}_i \quad (6.11)$$

and the associated eigenvector \mathbf{w}_i is given by

$$\mathbf{w}_i = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_i \\ \mathbf{v}_i \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.34)$$

then the eigenvector associated with $-\eta_i$ is given by

$$\mathbf{w}'_i = \begin{bmatrix} -\mathbf{u}_i \\ \mathbf{v}_i \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.35)$$

3. There are $(N + M) - 2P$ zero η_i .
4. You can know everything you need to know about the shifted eigenvalue problem by retaining *only* the information associated with the positive η_i .
5. P is less than or equal to the minimum of N and M .

$$P \leq \min(N, M) \quad (6.36)$$

6.5.2 Finding the Eigenvector Associated With $-\eta_i$

Suppose that you have found \mathbf{w}_i , a solution to Equation (6.11) associated with η_i . It also satisfies the shifted eigenvalue problem

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{u}_i \quad (6.17)$$

and

$$\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.18)$$

Let us try $-\eta_i$ as an eigenvalue and \mathbf{w}'_i given by

$$\mathbf{w}'_i = \begin{bmatrix} -\mathbf{u}_i \\ \mathbf{v}_i \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.35)$$

and see if it satisfies Equations (6.16) and (6.17)

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i = (-\eta_i)(-\mathbf{u}_i) = \eta_i\mathbf{u}_i \quad (6.37)$$

and

$$\mathbf{G}^T(-\mathbf{u}_i) = (-\eta_i)\mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.38)$$

or

$$\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.39)$$

From this we conclude that the nonzero eigenvalues of \mathbf{B} come in pairs. The relationship between the solutions is given in Equations (6.34) and (6.35). *Note that this property of paired eigenvalues and eigenvectors is not the case for the general eigenvalue problem.* It results from the symmetry of the shifted eigenvalue problem.

6.5.3 No New Information From the $-\eta_i$ System

Let us form an ordered eigenvalue matrix \mathbf{D} for \mathbf{B} given by (next page)

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} \eta_1 & 0 & & \cdots & & & & & & 0 \\ 0 & \eta_2 & & & & & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & & & & & & \\ & & & \eta_P & & & & & & \\ & & & & -\eta_1 & & & & & \\ \vdots & & & & & -\eta_2 & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & & & & & -\eta_P & & \\ & & & & & & & & 0 & \\ & & & & & & & & & \ddots \\ 0 & & & & \cdots & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.40)$$

$(N + M) \times (N + M)$

where $\eta_1 \geq \eta_2 \geq \cdots \geq \eta_P$. Note that the ordering of matrices in eigenvalue problems is arbitrary, but must be internally consistent. Then the eigenvalue problem for \mathbf{B} from Equation (6.11) becomes

$$\mathbf{B}\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{D} \quad (6.41)$$

where now the $(N + M) \times (N + M)$ dimensional matrix \mathbf{W} is given by

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_P & -\mathbf{u}_1 & -\mathbf{u}_2 & \cdots & -\mathbf{u}_P & \mathbf{u}_{2P+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_{N+M} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \hline \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_P & \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_P & \mathbf{v}_{2P+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_{N+M} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.42)$$

| \leftarrow P \Rightarrow | | \leftarrow P \Rightarrow | | $\leftarrow(N + M) - 2P \Rightarrow$ |

The second P eigenvectors certainly contain independent information about the eigenvectors \mathbf{w}_i in $(N + M)$ -space. They contain *no new* information, however, about \mathbf{u}_i or \mathbf{v}_i , in N - and M -space, respectively, since $-\mathbf{u}_i$ contains no information not already contained in $+\mathbf{u}_i$.

6.5.4 What About the Zero Eigenvalues η_i 's, $i = (2P + 1), \dots, N + M$?

For the zero eigenvalues, the shifted eigenvalue problem becomes

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i \mathbf{u}_i = 0 \mathbf{u}_i = \mathbf{0} \quad i = (2P + 1), \dots, (N + M) \quad (6.43)$$

$N \times 1$

and

$$\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{0} \quad i = (2P + 1), \dots, (N + M) \quad (6.44)$$

$$M \times 1$$

where $\mathbf{0}$ is a vector of zeros of the appropriate dimension.

If you premultiply Equation (6.43) by \mathbf{G}^T and Equation (6.44) by \mathbf{G} , you obtain

$$\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G} \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} \quad (6.45)$$

$$(M \times 1)$$

and

$$\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{u}_i = \mathbf{G} \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} \quad (6.46)$$

$$(N \times 1)$$

Therefore, we conclude that the $\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{v}_i$ associated with zero η_i for \mathbf{B} are simply the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T$ and $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ associated with zero eigenvalues for $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T$ and $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$, respectively!

6.5.5 How Big is P?

Now that we have seen that the eigenvalues come in P pairs of nonzero values, how can we determine the size of P ? We will see that you can determine P from either $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ or $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T$, and that P is bounded by the smaller of N and M , the number of observations and model parameters, respectively. The steps are as follows.

Step 1. Let the number of nonzero eigenvalues η_i^2 of $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ be P . Since $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ is $M \times M$, there are only M η_i^2 all together. Thus, P is less than or equal to M .

Step 2. If $\eta_i^2 \neq 0$ is an eigenvalue of $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$, then it is also an eigenvalue of $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T$ since

$$\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G} \mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i^2 \mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.21)$$

and

$$\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i^2 \mathbf{u}_i \quad (6.29)$$

Thus the nonzero η_i^2 's are shared by $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ and $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T$.

Step 3. P is less than or equal to N since $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T$ is $N \times N$. Therefore, since $P \leq M$ and $P \leq N$,

$$P \leq \min(N, M)$$

Thus, to determine P , you can do the eigenvalue problem for either $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ ($M \times M$) or $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T$ ($N \times N$). It makes sense to choose the smaller of the two matrices. That is, one chooses $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ if $M < N$, or $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T$ if $N < M$.

6.6 Introducing Singular Values

6.6.1 Introduction

Recalling Equation (6.30) defining the eigenvalue problem for $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T & \mathbf{U} & = & \mathbf{U} & \mathbf{\Lambda} \\ N \times N & N \times N & & N \times N & N \times N \end{matrix} \quad (6.30)$$

The matrix \mathbf{U} contains the eigenvectors \mathbf{u}_i , and can be ordered as

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{U} \\ N \times N \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|cc} \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_P & \mathbf{u}_{P+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_N \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{l} \overline{\uparrow} \\ N \\ \underline{\downarrow} \end{array} \end{matrix} \quad (6.47)$$

$$\begin{matrix} | \leftarrow & P & \Rightarrow | \leftarrow & N - P & \Rightarrow | \end{matrix}$$

or

$$\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{U}_P \mid \mathbf{U}_0] \quad (6.48)$$

Recall Equation (6.24), which defined the eigenvalue problem for $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$,

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G} & \mathbf{V} & = & \mathbf{V} & \mathbf{\Lambda} \\ M \times M & M \times M & & M \times M & M \times M \end{matrix} \quad (6.24)$$

The matrix \mathbf{V} of eigenvectors is given by

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{V} \\ M \times M \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|cc} \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_P & \mathbf{v}_{P+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_M \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{l} \overline{\uparrow} \\ M \\ \underline{\downarrow} \end{array} \end{matrix} \quad (6.49)$$

$$\begin{matrix} | \leftarrow & P & \Rightarrow | \leftarrow & M - P & \Rightarrow | \end{matrix}$$

or

$$\mathbf{V} = [\mathbf{V}_P \mid \mathbf{V}_0] \quad (6.50)$$

where the $\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{v}_i$ satisfy

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i \mathbf{u}_i \quad (6.17)$$

and

$$\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i \mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.18)$$

and where we have chosen the P positive η_i from

$$\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G} \mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i^2 \mathbf{v}_i \tag{6.21}$$

$$\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i^2 \mathbf{u}_i \tag{6.29}$$

Note that it is customary to order the $\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{v}_i$ such that

$$\eta_1 \geq \eta_2 \geq \dots \geq \eta_P \tag{6.51}$$

6.6.2 Definition of the Singular Value

We define a singular value λ_i from Equation (6.21) or (6.29) as the positive square root of the eigenvalue η_i^2 for $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ or $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T$. That is,

$$\lambda_i = +\sqrt{\eta_i^2} \tag{6.52}$$

Singular values are not eigenvalues. λ_i is not an eigenvalue for \mathbf{G} or \mathbf{G}^T , since the eigenvalue problem is not defined for \mathbf{G} or \mathbf{G}^T , $N \neq M$. They are, of course, eigenvalues for \mathbf{B} in Equation (6.11), but we will never explicitly deal with \mathbf{B} . The matrix \mathbf{B} is a construct that allowed us to formulate the shifted eigenvalue problem, but in practice, it is never formed. Nevertheless, you will often read, or hear, λ_i referred to as an eigenvalue.

6.6.3 Definition of Λ , the Singular-Value Matrix

We can form an $N \times M$ matrix with the singular values on the diagonal. If $M > N$, it has the form

$$\Lambda_{N \times M} = \left[\begin{array}{cccc|cccc} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & & & & \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & & & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & & & & \\ \vdots & & & \lambda_p & \vdots & \mathbf{0} & & \\ & & & 0 & & & & \\ 0 & & & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ \hline & & & & & & & \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{l} \uparrow \\ \uparrow \\ \uparrow \\ N \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \end{array} \tag{6.53}$$

$\leftarrow N \quad \Rightarrow \leftarrow M - N \Rightarrow$

If $N > M$, it has the form

$$\Lambda = \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cccc} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ \vdots & & & \lambda_p \\ & & & & 0 \\ & & & & & \ddots \\ 0 & & \dots & & & 0 \end{array} \\ \hline \mathbf{0} \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{l} \overleftarrow{\uparrow} \\ \\ \vdots \\ M \\ \\ \downarrow \\ \overleftarrow{\uparrow} \\ N - M \\ \\ \downarrow \\ \end{array} \quad (6.54)$$

Then the shifted eigenvalue problem

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{u}_i \quad (6.17)$$

and

$$\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.18)$$

can be written as

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i\mathbf{u}_i \quad (6.55)$$

and

$$\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{u}_i = \lambda_i\mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.56)$$

where η_i has been replaced by λ_i since all information about \mathbf{U} , \mathbf{V} can be obtained from the positive η_i .

Equations (6.55) and (6.56) can be written in matrix notation as

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{cccc} \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{V} & = & \mathbf{U} & \Lambda \\ N \times M & M \times M & & N \times N & N \times M \end{array}} \quad (6.57)$$

and

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{cccc} \mathbf{G}^T & \mathbf{U} & = & \mathbf{V} & \Lambda^T \\ M \times N & N \times N & & M \times M & M \times N \end{array}} \quad (6.58)$$

6.7 Derivation of the Fundamental Decomposition Theorem for General \mathbf{G} ($N \times M, N \neq M$)

Recall that we used the eigenvalue problem for square \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{A}^T to derive a decomposition theorem for square matrices:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{R}^T \tag{5.90}$$

where \mathbf{S} , \mathbf{R} , and $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ are eigenvector and eigenvalue matrices associated with \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{A}^T . We are now ready to derive an analogous decomposition theorem for the general $N \times M, N \neq M$ matrix \mathbf{G} .

We start with Equation (6.57)

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{V} & = & \mathbf{U} & \mathbf{\Lambda} \\ N \times M & M \times M & & N \times N & N \times M \end{matrix} \tag{6.57}$$

postmultiply by \mathbf{V}^T

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}^T \tag{6.59}$$

But \mathbf{V} is an orthogonal matrix. That is,

$$\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{I}_M \tag{6.27}$$

since $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ is Hermitian, and the eigenvector matrices of Hermitian matrices are orthogonal. Therefore, we have the fundamental decomposition theorem for a general matrix \mathbf{G} given by

$$\boxed{\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} & = & \mathbf{U} & \mathbf{\Lambda} & \mathbf{V}^T \\ N \times M & & N \times N & N \times M & M \times M \end{matrix}} \tag{6.60}$$

By taking the transpose of Equation (6.60), we obtain also

$$\boxed{\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G}^T & = & \mathbf{V} & \mathbf{\Lambda}^T & \mathbf{U}^T \\ M \times N & & M \times M & M \times N & N \times N \end{matrix}} \tag{6.61}$$

where

$$\mathbf{U}_{N \times N} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_p & \mathbf{u}_{p+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_N \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{U}_p \mid \mathbf{U}_0] \tag{6.62}$$

and

$$\mathbf{V}_{M \times M} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_P & \mathbf{v}_{P+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_M \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{V}_P \mid \mathbf{V}_0] \quad (6.63)$$

and

$$\mathbf{\Lambda}_{N \times M} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ \vdots & & & \lambda_p & \vdots \\ & & & & 0 \\ & & & & & \ddots \\ 0 & & \cdots & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.64)$$

6.8 Singular-Value Decomposition (SVD)

6.8.1 Derivation of Singular-Value Decomposition

We will see below that \mathbf{G} can be decomposed without any knowledge of the parts of \mathbf{U} or \mathbf{V} associated with zero singular values $\lambda_i, i > P$. We start with the fundamental decomposition theorem

$$\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}^T \quad (6.60)$$

Let us introduce a $P \times P$ singular-value matrix $\mathbf{\Lambda}_P$ that is a subset of $\mathbf{\Lambda}$:

$$\mathbf{\Lambda}_P = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_p \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.65)$$

We now write out Equation (6.60) in terms of the partitioned matrices as

$$\mathbf{G} = N \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \uparrow \uparrow & \\ \hline \mathbf{U}_P & \mathbf{U}_0 \\ \hline \downarrow \downarrow & \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{c|c} \uparrow \uparrow & \\ \hline P & \Lambda_P \quad \mathbf{0} \\ \hline N-P & \mathbf{0} \quad \mathbf{0} \\ \hline \downarrow \downarrow & \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{c} \uparrow \uparrow \\ \hline \mathbf{V}_P^T \\ \hline M-P \\ \hline \downarrow \downarrow \end{array} \right] \quad (6.66)$$

$$\left[\leftarrow P \Rightarrow \right] \left[\leftarrow N-P \Rightarrow \right] \quad \left[\leftarrow P \Rightarrow \right] \left[\leftarrow M-P \Rightarrow \right] \left[\leftarrow M \Rightarrow \right]$$

$$= N \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \uparrow \uparrow & \\ \hline \mathbf{U}_P \Lambda_P & \mathbf{0} \\ \hline \downarrow \downarrow & \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{c} \left[\mathbf{V}_P^T \right] \\ \left[\mathbf{V}_0^T \right] \end{array} \quad (6.67)$$

$$\left[\leftarrow P \Rightarrow \right] \left[\leftarrow M-P \Rightarrow \right]$$

$$= \mathbf{U}_P \Lambda_P \mathbf{V}_P^T \quad (6.68)$$

That is, we can write \mathbf{G} as

$$\boxed{
 \begin{array}{ccccc}
 \mathbf{G} & = & \mathbf{U}_P & \Lambda_P & \mathbf{V}_P^T \\
 N \times M & & N \times P & P \times P & P \times M
 \end{array}
 } \quad (6.69)$$

Equation (6.69) is known as the *Singular-Value Decomposition Theorem for \mathbf{G}* .

The matrices in Equation (6.69) are

1. \mathbf{G} = an arbitrary $N \times M$ matrix.
2. The eigenvector matrix \mathbf{U}_P

$$\mathbf{U}_P = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_P \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.70)$$

where \mathbf{u}_i are the P N -dimensional eigenvectors of

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i^2 \mathbf{u}_i \quad (6.29)$$

associated with nonzero singular values λ_i .

3. The eigenvector matrix \mathbf{V}_P

$$\mathbf{V}_P = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_P \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.71)$$

where \mathbf{v}_i are the P M -dimensional eigenvectors of

$$\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G} \mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i^2 \mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.21)$$

associated with nonzero singular values λ_i , and

4. The singular-value matrix Λ

$$\Lambda_P = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_p \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.65)$$

where λ_i is the nonzero singular value associated with \mathbf{u}_i and \mathbf{v}_i , $i = 1, \dots, P$.

6.8.2 Rewriting the Shifted Eigenvalue Problem

Now that we have seen that we can reconstruct \mathbf{G} using only the subsets of \mathbf{U} , \mathbf{V} , and Λ defined in Equations (6.65), (6.69), and (6.71), we can rewrite the shifted eigenvalue problem given by Equations (6.57) and (6.58):

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{V} & = & \mathbf{U} & \Lambda \\ N \times M & M \times M & & N \times N & N \times M \end{matrix} \quad (6.57)$$

and

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G}^T & \mathbf{U} & = & \mathbf{V} & \Lambda^T \\ M \times N & N \times N & & M \times M & M \times N \end{matrix} \quad (6.58)$$

as

$$1. \quad \begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{V}_P & = & \mathbf{U}_P & \Lambda_P \\ N \times M & M \times P & & N \times P & P \times P \end{matrix} \quad (6.72)$$

$$2. \quad \begin{matrix} \mathbf{G}^T & \mathbf{U}_P & = & \mathbf{V}_P & \Lambda_P \\ M \times N & N \times P & & M \times P & P \times P \end{matrix} \quad (6.73)$$

$$3. \quad \begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{V}_0 & = & \mathbf{0} \\ N \times M & M \times (M - P) & & N \times (M - P) \end{matrix} \quad (6.74)$$

$$4. \quad \begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{G}^T & \mathbf{U}_0 & = \mathbf{0} \\ M \times N & N \times (N - P) & M \times (N - P) \end{array} \quad (6.75)$$

Note that the eigenvectors in \mathbf{V} are a set of M orthogonal vectors which span *model space*, while the eigenvectors in \mathbf{U} are a set of N orthogonal vectors which span *data space*. The P vectors in \mathbf{V}_P span a P -dimensional subset of model space, while the P vectors in \mathbf{U}_P span a P -dimensional subset of data space. \mathbf{V}_0 and \mathbf{U}_0 are called *null*, or *zero*, spaces. They are $(M - P)$ and $(N - P)$ dimensional subsets of model and data spaces, respectively.

6.8.3 Summarizing SVD

In summary, we started with Equations (1.13) and (6.5)

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{d} \quad (1.13)$$

and

$$\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{c} \quad (6.6)$$

We constructed

$$\mathbf{B} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{G} \\ \hline \mathbf{G}^T & \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{l} \uparrow N \\ \downarrow \\ \uparrow M \\ \downarrow \\ \leftarrow N \Rightarrow \leftarrow M \Rightarrow \end{array} \quad (6.2)$$

We then considered the eigenvalue problem for \mathbf{B}

$$\mathbf{B}\mathbf{w}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{w}_i \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, (N + M) \quad (6.11)$$

This led us to the *shifted eigenvalue problem*

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{u}_i \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, (N + M) \quad (6.17)$$

and

$$\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i\mathbf{v}_i \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, (N + M) \quad (6.18)$$

We found that the shifted eigenvalue problem leads us to eigenvalue problems for $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ and $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$:

$$\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G} \mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i^2 \mathbf{v}_i \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, M \quad (6.21)$$

and

$$\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i^2 \mathbf{u}_i \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (6.29)$$

We then introduced the singular value λ_i , given by the positive square root of the eigenvalues from Equations (6.20) and (6.28)

$$\lambda_i = +\sqrt{\eta_i^2} \quad (6.52)$$

Equations (6.16), (6.17), (6.20) and (6.28) give us a way to find \mathbf{U} , \mathbf{V} , and Λ . They also lead, eventually, to

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} & = & \mathbf{U} & \Lambda & \mathbf{V}^T \\ N \times M & & N \times N & N \times M & M \times M \end{matrix} \quad (6.60)$$

We then considered partitioning the matrices based on P , the number of nonzero singular values. This led us to *singular-value decomposition*

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} & = & \mathbf{U}_P & \Lambda_P & \mathbf{V}_P^T \\ N \times M & & N \times P & P \times P & P \times M \end{matrix} \quad (6.76)$$

Before considering an inverse operator based on singular-value decomposition, it is probably useful to cover the mechanics of singular-value decomposition.

6.9 Mechanics of Singular-Value Decomposition

The steps involved in singular-value decomposition are as follows:

Step 1. Begin with $\mathbf{Gm} = \mathbf{d}$.

Form $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ ($M \times M$) or $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T$ ($N \times N$), whichever is smaller. (N.B. Typically, there are more observations than model parameters; thus, $N > M$, and $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ is the more common choice.)

Step 2. Solve the eigenvalue problem for Hermitian $\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G}$ (or $\mathbf{G} \mathbf{G}^T$)

$$\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G} \mathbf{v}_i = \eta_i^2 \mathbf{v}_i \quad (6.21)$$

1. Find the P nonzero η_i^2 and associated \mathbf{v}_i .
2. Let $\lambda_i = +(\eta_i^2)^{1/2}$.
3. Form

$$\mathbf{V}_P = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_P \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.71)$$

$M \times P$

and

$$\Lambda_P = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_p \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_p \quad (6.65)$$

$P \times P$

Step 3. Use $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i\mathbf{u}_i$ to find \mathbf{u}_i for each known λ_i, \mathbf{v}_i .

Note: Finding \mathbf{u}_i this way preserves the *sign* relationship implicit between $\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{v}_i$ by taking the positive member of each pair ($+\lambda_i, -\lambda_i$). You will *not* preserve the sign relationship (except by luck) if you use $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{u}_i = \eta_i^2\mathbf{u}_i$ to find \mathbf{u}_i .

Step 4. Form

$$\mathbf{U}_P = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_P \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.70)$$

$N \times P$

Step 5. Finally, form \mathbf{G} as

$$\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{U}_P \Lambda_P \mathbf{V}_P^T \quad (6.69)$$

$N \times M \quad N \times P \quad P \times P \quad P \times M$

6.10 Implications of Singular-Value Decomposition

6.10.1 Relationships Between $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{U}_P,$ and \mathbf{U}_0

1. $\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{I}_N$ Since \mathbf{U} is an orthogonal matrix.
 $N \times N \quad N \times N \quad N \times N \quad N \times N \quad N \times N$
2. $\mathbf{U}_P^T \mathbf{U}_P = \mathbf{I}_P$ \mathbf{U}_P is semiorthogonal because all P vectors in \mathbf{U}_P are perpendicular to each other.
 $P \times N \quad N \times P$

3.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{U}_P & \mathbf{U}_P^T & \neq \mathbf{I}_N \\ N \times P & P \times N & \end{matrix}$$
 (Unless $P = N$.) $\mathbf{U}_P \mathbf{U}_P^T$ is $N \times N$. \mathbf{U}_P cannot span N -space with only P (N -dimensional) vectors.
4.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{U}_0^T & \mathbf{U}_0 & = \mathbf{I}_{N-P} \\ (N-P) \times N & N \times (N-P) & \end{matrix}$$
 \mathbf{U}_0 is semiorthogonal since the $(N - P)$ vectors in \mathbf{U}_0 are all perpendicular to each other.
5.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{U}_0 & \mathbf{U}_0^T & \neq \mathbf{I}_N \\ N \times (N-P) & (N-P) \times N & \end{matrix}$$
 \mathbf{U}_0 has $(N - P)$ N -dimensional vectors in it. It cannot span N -space. $\mathbf{U}_0 \mathbf{U}_0^T$ is $N \times N$.
6.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{U}_P^T & \mathbf{U}_0 & = \mathbf{0} \\ P \times N & N \times (N-P) & P \times (N-P) \end{matrix}$$
 Since all the eigenvectors in \mathbf{U}_P are perpendicular to all the eigenvectors in \mathbf{U}_0 .
7.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{U}_0^T & \mathbf{U}_P & = \mathbf{0} \\ (N-P) \times N & N \times P & (N-P) \times P \end{matrix}$$
 Again, since all the eigenvectors in \mathbf{U}_0 are perpendicular to all the eigenvectors in \mathbf{U}_P .

6.10.2 Relationships Between \mathbf{V} , \mathbf{V}_P , and \mathbf{V}_0

1.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{V}^T & \mathbf{V} & = & \mathbf{V} & \mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{I}_M \\ M \times M & M \times M & & M \times M & M \times M \end{matrix}$$
 Since \mathbf{V} is an orthogonal matrix.
2.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{V}_P^T & \mathbf{V}_P & = \mathbf{I}_P \\ P \times M & M \times P & \end{matrix}$$
 \mathbf{V}_P is semiorthogonal because all P vectors in \mathbf{V}_P are perpendicular to each other.
3.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{V}_P & \mathbf{V}_P^T & \neq \mathbf{I}_M \\ M \times P & P \times M & \end{matrix}$$
 (Unless $P = M$.) \mathbf{V}_P^T is $M \times M$. \mathbf{V}_P cannot span M -space with only P (M -dimensional) vectors.
4.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{V}_0^T & \mathbf{V}_0 & = \mathbf{I}_{M-P} \\ (M-P) \times M & M \times (M-P) & \end{matrix}$$
 \mathbf{V}_0 is semiorthogonal since the $(M - P)$ vectors in \mathbf{V}_0 are all perpendicular to each other.
5.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{V}_0 & \mathbf{V}_0^T & \neq \mathbf{I}_M \\ M \times (M-P) & (M-P) \times M & \end{matrix}$$
 \mathbf{V}_0 has $(M - P)$ M -dimensional vectors in it. It cannot span M -space. $\mathbf{V}_0 \mathbf{V}_0^T$ is $M \times M$.
6.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{V}_P^T & \mathbf{V}_0 & = \mathbf{0} \\ P \times M & M \times (M-P) & P \times (M-P) \end{matrix}$$
 Since all the eigenvectors in \mathbf{V}_P are perpendicular to all the eigenvectors in \mathbf{V}_0 .
7.
$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{V}_0^T & \mathbf{V}_P & = \mathbf{0} \\ (M-P) \times M & M \times P & (M-P) \times P \end{matrix}$$
 Again, since all the eigenvectors in \mathbf{V}_0 are perpendicular to all the eigenvectors in \mathbf{V}_P .

6.10.3 Graphic Representation of \mathbf{U} , \mathbf{U}_P , \mathbf{U}_0 , \mathbf{V} , \mathbf{V}_P , \mathbf{V}_0 Spaces

Recall that starting with Equation (1.13)

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{m} = \mathbf{d} \\ N \times M & M \times 1 \quad N \times 1 \end{matrix} \tag{1.13}$$

we obtained the fundamental decomposition theorem

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} & = & \mathbf{U} & \Lambda & \mathbf{V}^T \\ N \times M & & N \times N & N \times M & M \times M \end{matrix} \tag{6.60}$$

and singular-value decomposition

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{G} & = & \mathbf{U}_P & \Lambda_P & \mathbf{V}_P^T \\ N \times M & & N \times P & P \times P & P \times M \end{matrix} \tag{6.69}$$

This gives us the following:

1. Recall the definitions of \mathbf{U} , \mathbf{U}_P , and \mathbf{U}_0

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{U} \\ N \times N \end{matrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_P & \mathbf{u}_{P+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_N \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{U}_P \mid \mathbf{U}_0] \tag{6.62}$$

2. Similarly, recall the definitions for \mathbf{V} , \mathbf{V}_P and \mathbf{V}_0

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{V} \\ M \times M \end{matrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_P & \mathbf{v}_{P+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_M \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{V}_P \mid \mathbf{V}_0] \tag{6.63}$$

3. Combining \mathbf{U} , \mathbf{U}_P , \mathbf{U}_0 , and \mathbf{V} , \mathbf{V}_P , \mathbf{V}_0 graphically

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{matrix} \leftarrow P \Rightarrow \end{matrix} \parallel \begin{matrix} \leftarrow N-P \Rightarrow \end{matrix} \\ \updownarrow \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{U}_P & \mathbf{U}_0 \\ \hline \mathbf{V}_P & \mathbf{V}_0 \end{array} \right] \\ \begin{matrix} \leftarrow P \Rightarrow \end{matrix} \parallel \begin{matrix} \leftarrow M-P \Rightarrow \end{matrix} \end{array} \tag{6.77}$$

4. Summarizing:

- (1) \mathbf{V} is an $M \times M$ matrix with the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ as columns. It is an orthogonal matrix.
- (2) \mathbf{V}_P is an $M \times P$ matrix with the P eigenvectors of $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ associated with nonzero eigenvalues of $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$. \mathbf{V}_P is a semiorthogonal matrix.
- (3) \mathbf{V}_0 is an $M \times (M - P)$ matrix with the $M - P$ eigenvectors of $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$ associated with the zero eigenvalues of $\mathbf{G}^T\mathbf{G}$. \mathbf{V}_0 is a semiorthogonal matrix.
- (4) The eigenvectors in \mathbf{V} , \mathbf{V}_P , or \mathbf{V}_0 are all M -dimensional vectors. They are all associated with *model* space, since \mathbf{m} , the model parameter vector of $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{d}$, is an M -dimensional vector.
- (5) \mathbf{U} is an $N \times N$ matrix with the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$ as columns. It is an orthogonal matrix.
- (6) \mathbf{U}_P is an $N \times P$ matrix with the P eigenvectors of $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$ associated with the nonzero eigenvalues of $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$. \mathbf{U}_P is a semiorthogonal matrix.
- (7) \mathbf{U}_0 is an $N \times (N - P)$ matrix with the $N - P$ eigenvectors of $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$ associated with the zero eigenvalues of $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}^T$. \mathbf{U}_0 is a semiorthogonal matrix.
- (8) The eigenvectors of \mathbf{U} , \mathbf{U}_P or \mathbf{U}_0 are all N -dimensional vectors. They are all associated with *data* space, since \mathbf{d} , the data vector of $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{d}$, is an N -dimensional vector.

6.11 Classification of $\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{G}\mathbf{m}$ Based on P , M , and N

6.11.1 Introduction

In Section 3.3 we introduced a classification of the system of equations

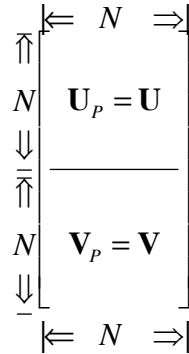
$$\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{G}\mathbf{m} \tag{1.13}$$

based on the dimensions of \mathbf{d} ($N \times 1$) and \mathbf{m} ($M \times 1$). I said at the time that I found the classification lacking, and would return to it later. Now that we have considered singular-value decomposition, including finding P , the number of nonzero singular values, I would like to introduce a better classification scheme.

There are four basic classes of problems, based on the relationship between P , M , and N . We will consider each class one at a time below.

6.11.2 Class I: $P = M = N$

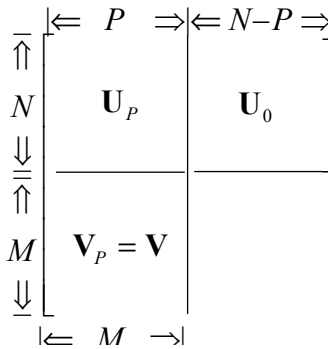
Graphically, for this case, we have (following page):



1. \mathbf{U}_0 and \mathbf{V}_0 are empty.
2. \mathbf{G} has a unique, mathematical inverse \mathbf{G}^{-1} .
3. There is a unique solution for \mathbf{m} .
4. The data can be fit exactly.

6.11.3 Class II: $P = M < N$

Graphically, for this case, we have



1. \mathbf{V}_0 is empty since $P = M$.
2. \mathbf{U}_0 is not empty since $P < N$.
3. \mathbf{G} has no mathematical inverse.

4. There is a unique solution in the sense that only one solution has the smallest misfit to the data.
5. The data cannot be fit exactly unless the *compatibility equations* are satisfied, which are defined as follows:

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{U}_0^T & \mathbf{d} & = & \mathbf{0} \\ (N-P) \times N & N \times 1 & & (N-P) \times 1 \end{matrix} \quad (6.78)$$

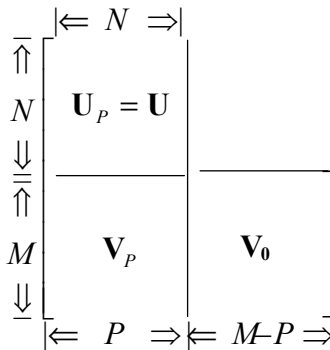
If the compatibility equations are satisfied, one can fit the data exactly. The compatibility equations are equivalent to saying that \mathbf{d} has no projection onto \mathbf{U}_0 .

Equation (6.78) can be thought of as the $N - P$ dot products of the eigenvectors in \mathbf{U}_0 with the data vector \mathbf{d} . If all of the dot products are zero, then \mathbf{d} has no component in the $(N - P)$ -dimensional subset of N -space spanned by the vectors in \mathbf{U}_0 . \mathbf{G} , operating on any vector \mathbf{m} , can only predict a vector that lies in the P -dimensional subset of N -space spanned by the P eigenvectors in \mathbf{U}_P . We will return to this later.

6. $P = M < N$ is the classic least squares environment. We will consider least squares again when we introduce the generalized inverse.

6.11.4 Class III: $P = N < M$

Graphically, for this case, we have



1. \mathbf{U}_0 is empty since $P = N$.
2. \mathbf{V}_0 is not empty since $P < M$.
3. \mathbf{G} has no mathematical inverse.
4. You can fit the data exactly because \mathbf{U}_0 is empty.
5. Solution is not unique. If \mathbf{m}^{est} is a solution which fits the data exactly

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{m}^{\text{est}} = \mathbf{d}^{\text{pre}} = \mathbf{d} \tag{6.79}$$

then

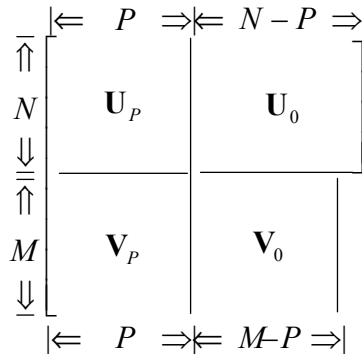
$$\mathbf{m}^{\text{est}} + \sum_{i=P+1}^M \alpha_i \mathbf{v}_i \tag{6.80}$$

is also a solution, where α_i is any arbitrary constant.

6. $P = N < M$ is the minimum length environment. The minimum length solution sets $\alpha_i, i = (P + 1), \dots, M$ to zero.

6.11.5 Class IV: $P < \min(N, M)$

Graphically, for this case, we have (next page)



1. Neither \mathbf{U}_0 nor \mathbf{V}_0 is empty.
2. \mathbf{G} has no mathematical inverse.
3. You cannot fit the data exactly unless the compatibility equations (Equation 6.78) are satisfied.
4. The solution is nonunique.

This sounds like a pretty bleak environment. No mathematical inverse. Cannot fit the data. The solution is nonunique. It probably comes as no surprise that most realistic problems are of this type [$P < \min(N, M)$]!

In the next chapter we will introduce the *generalized inverse operator*. It will reduce to the unique mathematical inverse when $P = M = N$. It will reduce to the least squares operator when we have $P = M < N$, and to the minimum length operator when $P = N < M$. It will also give us a solution in the general case where we have $P < \min(N, M)$ that has many of the properties of the least squares and minimum length solutions.