

CPSC 532D — A. THE SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

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These notes give a quick overview of the singular value decomposition, a concept that when I started grad school I was vaguely aware of and by the end of grad school became basically the main way I think about linear algebra.

(For more, check out [the Wikipedia article](#), Section 4.5 of [DFO20], Section 7E of [Axl25], or Chapter 17 of Roman [Rom07]. The version discussed here is the “compact SVD,” which I find way nicer to work with; when you use the “regular” SVD, you very often have to write stuff in block matrices where the part that matters is exactly the compact SVD.)

Let X be an $m \times n$ matrix of rank r , which among other things means that we can write $X = a_1 b_1^T + \dots + a_r b_r^T$ for some vectors $a_i \in \mathbb{R}^m, b_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$. The SVD is a particular decomposition like that: it’s

$$X = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T + \dots + \sigma_r u_r v_r^T$$

where each $\sigma_i > 0$ and the $\{u_i\} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ and the $\{v_i\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ are each orthonormal: $\|u_i\| = 1, u_i^T u_j = 0$ for $i \neq j$. The σ_i are the (nonzero) *singular values*, the u_i are the *left singular vectors*, and the v_i are the *right singular vectors*. This decomposition always exists, for any X .

We can collect these into three matrices, called the *compact SVD*:

$$\underbrace{\quad}_{m \times n} X = \underbrace{\quad}_{m \times r} U \underbrace{\quad}_{r \times r} \Sigma \underbrace{\quad}_{r \times n} V^T$$

$$U^T U = I_r \quad \Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r) \quad V^T V = I_r.$$

This always exists; if we sort the Σ in nonincreasing order, $\sigma_1 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > 0$, then Σ is unique. U and V are not unique, though; you could always e.g. replace u_i by $-u_i$ and v_i by $-v_i$ and still get a valid SVD.

A.1 PROJECTIONS

In this version of the SVD, UU^T is an orthogonal projection, since $(UU^T)^T = UU^T$ and $(UU^T)^2 = U(U^T U)U^T = UU^T$. In fact, it is the projection onto the image of X : for any $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $UU^T(Xy) = UU^T U \Sigma V^T y = U \Sigma V^T y = Xy$. On the other hand, suppose that $X^T z = 0$, i.e. z is in the left null space of X (the orthogonal complement of the image); then $V \Sigma U^T z = 0$. But if we left-multiply that equation by $\Sigma^{-1} V^T$, then we get that $U^T z = 0$, and thus $UU^T z = 0$.

$\Sigma^{-1} = \text{diag}(1/\sigma_i)$ always exists.

Similarly, VV^T is the orthogonal projection onto the row space (the orthogonal complement of the null space).

For more, visit <https://cs.ubc.ca/~dsuth/532D/25w1/>.

If, say, $r = m$, then the image of X is all of \mathbb{R}^m and we do in fact have $UU^T = I_m$; similarly if $r = n$ then $VV^T = I_n$; but if $r < \min(m, n)$ then neither holds.

The SVD is useful for understanding lots of things related to a matrix. For instance,

$$X^T X = V \Sigma U^T U \Sigma V^T = V \Sigma^2 V^T$$

tells us that the nonzero singular values are the nonzero squared eigenvalues of $X^T X$, and similarly they are the nonzero squared eigenvalues of XX^T ; likewise, the left singular vectors are the eigenvectors of XX^T and the right singular vectors of $X^T X$.

A.2 (PSEUDO)INVERSES

If X is invertible, then $m = n = r$ and we know that

$$I = XX^{-1} = U \Sigma V^T X^{-1};$$

let's left-multiply by $V \Sigma^{-1} U^T$, getting

$$V \Sigma^{-1} U^T = V \Sigma^{-1} U^T U \Sigma V^T X^{-1} = V V^T X^{-1}.$$

Because X must be full-rank if it's invertible, in this case we have that $V V^T = I$, and so this means that if it exists, $X^{-1} = V \Sigma^{-1} U^T$.

A neat thing is that this formula still makes sense even if X is not invertible – even if it's not square. We call that matrix X^\dagger , the *pseudoinverse* of X :

$$X^\dagger = V \Sigma^{-1} U^T.$$

We just saw that if X is invertible then $X^{-1} = X^\dagger$. But it's also useful much more generally.

For example, in Section 1.1, we saw that ERM for linear regression is equivalent to the condition $X^T X w = X^T y$. Using the SVD, we can write this as

$$V \Sigma^2 V^T w = V \Sigma U^T y;$$

left-multiplying by $V \Sigma^{-2} V^T$ gives the condition

$$V V^T w = V \Sigma^{-1} U^T y = X^\dagger y.$$

Now, anything of the form $w = X^\dagger y + (I - V V^T)z$, where $z \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is arbitrary, satisfies this condition, since $V V^T X^\dagger = X^\dagger$ and $V V^T (I - V V^T) = 0$. If X is rank d , then $V V^T = I$, so no matter the choice of z we have $w = X^\dagger y$. Otherwise, there are infinitely many solutions, taking $X^\dagger y$ and then allowing an arbitrary component in the null space of X .

It's worth noting that of these solutions, $X^\dagger y$ is the one with minimum norm. Note that

$$\langle V V^T a, (I - V V^T) b \rangle = a^T V V^T (I - V V^T) b = a^T (V V^T - V V^T) b = 0,$$

because indeed the row space and its orthogonal complement are orthogonal. Since $V V^T X^\dagger = X^\dagger$, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \|X^\dagger y + (I - V V^T)z\|^2 &= \|X^\dagger y\|^2 + \|(I - V V^T)z\|^2 + 2\langle X^\dagger y, (I - V V^T)z \rangle \\ &= \|X^\dagger y\|^2 + \|(I - V V^T)z\|^2; \end{aligned}$$

the first term here doesn't depend on the choice of z , while the second term is always nonnegative and is zero iff $(I - VV^T)z = 0$. So, we uniquely minimize the norm with $w = X^\dagger y$.

There are potentially many choices of z here, but they all yield the same w .

This indeed agrees with the usual way of writing the solution that you might remember; if $m \geq d$ and X is full rank ($r = d$), then $X^T X = V\Sigma^2 V^T$ has inverse $V\Sigma^{-2} V^T$, because

$$(V\Sigma^{-2} V^T)(V\Sigma^2 V^T) = VV^T = I_d,$$

and thus

$$(X^T X)^{-1} X^T = V\Sigma^{-2} V^T V\Sigma U^T = V\Sigma^{-1} U^T = X^\dagger.$$

This helps us understand better the sense in which X^\dagger is a “pseudo-”inverse:

$$XX^\dagger = U\Sigma V^T V\Sigma^{-1} U^T = UU^T$$

is the identity if $r = m$, but otherwise is the projection onto the image of X ; similarly $X^\dagger X = VV^T$ is the identity if $r = n$, but otherwise is the projection onto the row space of X .

A.3 NORMS

Recall that the Frobenius inner product is given by

$$\langle A, B \rangle_F = \sum_{ij} A_{ij} B_{ij} = \sum_i \left(\sum_j A_{ij} (B^T)_{ji} \right) = \sum_i (AB^T)_{ii} = \text{Tr}(AB^T),$$

and so the squared Frobenius norm of X , $\|X\|_F^2 = \sum_{ij} X_{ij}^2$, can also be computed as

$$\|X\|_F^2 = \text{Tr}(X^T X) = \text{Tr}(V\Sigma^2 V^T) = \text{Tr}(V^T V\Sigma^2) = \text{Tr}(\Sigma^2) = \sum_i \sigma_i^2.$$

In the middle here we used trace rotation,

$$\text{Tr}(AB) = \sum_i \sum_j A_{ij} B_{ji} = \sum_j \sum_i B_{ji} A_{ij} = \text{Tr}(BA).$$

The operator norm, $\|X\| = \sup_{y: \|y\| \leq 1} \|Xy\|$, also has a nice expression in terms of the singular values: we can write

$$\|X\|^2 = \sup_{y: \|y\| \leq 1} \|U\Sigma V^T y\|^2 = \sup_{y: \|y\| \leq 1} y^T V\Sigma^2 V^T y.$$

Now,

$$\|V^T y\|^2 = y^T VV^T y = \|(VV^T)y\|^2 \leq \|(VV^T)y\|^2 + \|(I - VV^T)y\|^2 = \|y\|^2,$$

and so $\{V^T y : \|y\| \leq 1\} \subseteq \{z : \|z\| \leq 1\}$. Thus we have that

$$\|X\|^2 \leq \sup_{z: \|z\| \leq 1} z^T \Sigma^2 z = \sup_{z: \|z\| \leq 1} \sum_i \sigma_i^2 z_i^2 \leq \sup_{z: \|z\| \leq 1} \sigma_1^2 \sum_i z_i^2 = \sigma_1^2,$$

since $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_i$ for all i . Moreover, we can achieve this upper bound by picking $y = v_1$, getting $V^T y = e_1$. Thus $\|X\| = \sigma_1$.

REFERENCES

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- [DFO20] Marc Peter Deisenroth, A. Aldo Faisal, and Cheng Soon Ong. *Mathematics for Machine Learning*. 2020.
- [Rom07] Steven Roman. *Advanced Linear Algebra*. 3rd edition. 2007.