

SINGULAR VALUES

DEFINITION 14.1

Let A be a real $k \times n$ matrix. The **singular values** of A are the (positive) square roots of the eigenvalues of $A^T A$ and are denoted by $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n$. It is conventional to arrange the singular values so that $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n$.

Singular values are, by construction, non-negative. For a symmetric matrix A , $A^T A = A^2$ and so

$$\mu_i = \lambda_i^2$$

where λ_i are the eigenvalues of A . Therefore the singular values of a symmetric matrix are

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i^2} = |\lambda_i|$$

(note that the eigenvalues of A are real but may be negative).

SINGULAR VALUES

Example

Find the singular value(s) of

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{w}^T = [1 \quad 1 \quad 1].$$

Solution: We have

$$\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v} = [1 \quad 1 \quad 1] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = [3]$$

and so the “eigenvalue” of $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}$ is 3. Therefore the singular value is

$$\sigma_1 = \sqrt{3}.$$

SINGULAR VALUES

Now

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The eigenvalues of this matrix (check) are 3, 0 and 0 and so the singular values are

$$\sigma_1 = \sqrt{3}, \quad \sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = 0.$$

SINGULAR VALUES

Since $A^T A$ is symmetric, there is an *orthonormal* basis for \mathbf{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors of $A^T A$. Let this basis be given by $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ where we order the eigenvalues of $A^T A$ so that $\mu_1 \geq \mu_2 \geq \dots \geq \mu_n$. We have observed earlier that

$$\mu_i = \|A \mathbf{v}_i\|^2$$

and so

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\mu_i} = \|A \mathbf{v}_i\|.$$

Now, for $i \neq j$,

$$(A \mathbf{v}_i) \cdot (A \mathbf{v}_j) = (A \mathbf{v}_i)^T A \mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{v}_i^T A^T A \mathbf{v}_j = \mu_j (\mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_j) = 0$$

since the eigenvectors \mathbf{v}_i are orthogonal. Suppose the *non-zero* singular values of A are

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > 0$$

with $\sigma_{r+1} = \sigma_{r+2} = \dots = \sigma_n = 0$.

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

Since $\sigma_i = \|A \mathbf{v}_i\|$,

$$\mathbf{u}_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} A \mathbf{v}_i$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$ will be **unit** vectors which are mutually orthogonal; that is, they form an orthonormal set. Furthermore $\|A \mathbf{v}_i\| = \sigma_i = 0$; that is

$$A \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{0}$$

for $i = r + 1, r + 2, \dots, n$. Therefore

$$A [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_r \ \mathbf{v}_{r+1} \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n] = [\sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \ \cdots \ \sigma_r \mathbf{u}_r \ \mathbf{0} \ \cdots \ \mathbf{0}].$$

Since $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis for \mathbf{R}^n ,

$$V = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n]$$

is an **orthogonal** $n \times n$ matrix. Note that $\mathbf{u}_i \in \mathbf{R}^k$. If $r < k$ we use Gram Schmidt to construct an orthonormal basis for \mathbf{R}^k that includes \mathbf{u}_i ; that is, we add \mathbf{u}_j , $j = r + 1, r + 2, \dots, k$ such that

$$U = [\mathbf{u}_1 \ \mathbf{u}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{u}_r \ \mathbf{u}_{r+1} \ \cdots \ \mathbf{u}_k]$$

is an **orthogonal** $k \times k$ matrix.

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

We now have

$$A V = U \Sigma$$

where Σ is the $k \times n$ “diagonal” matrix

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_r & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} D & O \\ O & O \end{bmatrix}$$

with

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_r \end{bmatrix}.$$

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

Note that Σ is the same size as A . Since V is orthogonal, we have

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

This is called the *singular value decomposition (SVD)* of A . The columns of U are called the *left singular vectors* and the columns of V are called the *right singular vectors*. Formally we have

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

THEOREM 14.2 (Singular Value Decomposition)

Let A be a real $k \times n$ matrix with singular values $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \cdots \geq \sigma_r > 0$ and $\sigma_{r+1} = \sigma_{r+2} = \cdots = \sigma_n = 0$. Let Σ be the $k \times n$ matrix

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} D & O \\ O & O \end{bmatrix}$$

with

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_r \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then there exists an orthogonal $n \times n$ matrix V and an orthogonal $k \times k$ matrix U such that

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

The matrix Σ is fixed but the matrices U and V are *not* unique.

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

For a symmetric matrix A , the SVD reduces to an orthogonal diagonalization. Recall that the singular values of A are

$$\sigma_i = |\lambda_i|$$

where λ_i are the eigenvalues of A . The eigenvectors \mathbf{v}_i of $A^T A = A^2$ are the eigenvectors \mathbf{q}_i of A and so

$$V = Q.$$

Furthermore

$$\mathbf{u}_i = \frac{1}{|\lambda_i|} A \mathbf{q}_i = \frac{1}{|\lambda_i|} \lambda_i \mathbf{q}_i = \text{sign}(\lambda_i) \mathbf{q}_i.$$

Therefore

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

$$\begin{aligned} A &= U \Sigma V^T = [\text{sign}(\lambda_1) \mathbf{q}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \text{sign}(\lambda_n) \mathbf{q}_n] \begin{bmatrix} |\lambda_1| & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & |\lambda_2| & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & |\lambda_n| \end{bmatrix} Q^T \\ &= Q \begin{bmatrix} \text{sign}(\lambda_1) |\lambda_1| & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \text{sign}(\lambda_2) |\lambda_2| & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \text{sign}(\lambda_n) |\lambda_n| \end{bmatrix} Q^T \\ &= Q \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} Q^T \end{aligned}$$

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

Example

Find a SVD for

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Solution: We have

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and its eigenvalues are $\mu_1 = 2$, $\mu_2 = 1$ and $\mu_3 = 0$. Since the eigenvalues are distinct, the eigenvectors will be mutually orthogonal. The normalized eigenvectors are

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

Therefore

$$V = [\mathbf{v}_1 \quad \mathbf{v}_2 \quad \mathbf{v}_3] = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The singular values of A are $\sigma_1 = \sqrt{2}$, $\sigma_2 = 1$ and $\sigma_3 = 0$. Thus Σ is the 2×3 matrix

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Finally

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \frac{1}{\sigma_1} A \mathbf{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{u}_2 = \frac{1}{\sigma_2} A \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

These vectors already form an orthonormal basis for \mathbf{R}^2 and so

$$U = [\mathbf{u}_1 \quad \mathbf{u}_2] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This yields the SVD

$$A = U \Sigma V^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

as expected.

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

Example

Find a SVD for

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Solution: We have

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and its eigenvalues are $\mu_1 = 3$ and $\mu_2 = 1$. Since the eigenvalues are distinct, the eigenvectors will be mutually orthogonal. The normalized eigenvectors are

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

Therefore

$$V = [\mathbf{v}_1 \quad \mathbf{v}_2] = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The singular values of A are $\sigma_1 = \sqrt{3}$ and $\sigma_2 = 1$. Thus Σ is the 3×2 matrix

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}_1 &= \frac{1}{\sigma_1} A \mathbf{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{u}_2 &= \frac{1}{\sigma_2} A \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

In this case \mathbf{u}_1 and \mathbf{u}_2 do not form a basis for \mathbf{R}^3 . We choose a linearly independent vector and then use Gram Schmidt to construct an orthonormal basis for \mathbf{R}^3 . Since \mathbf{u}_1 and \mathbf{u}_2 are already orthogonal, we only need the last step of the Gram Schmidt process. Clearly

$$\mathbf{e}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is linearly independent to \mathbf{u}_1 and \mathbf{u}_2 and so

$$\mathbf{e}_3 - (\mathbf{e}_3 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1) \mathbf{u}_1 - (\mathbf{e}_3 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2) \mathbf{u}_2 = \mathbf{e}_3 - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} \mathbf{u}_1 - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \mathbf{u}_2 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

will be orthogonal to \mathbf{u}_1 and \mathbf{u}_2 . Normalizing this vector we have

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

$$\mathbf{u}_3 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and so

$$\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \quad \mathbf{u}_2 \quad \mathbf{u}_3] = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} & 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ \frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ \frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \end{bmatrix}.$$

This yields the SVD

$$A = \mathbf{U} \Sigma \mathbf{V}^T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} & 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ \frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ \frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

There is a form of the SVD which is analogous to the spectral decomposition of a symmetric matrix. We have

$$A = \mathbf{U} \Sigma \mathbf{V}^T = [\mathbf{u}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{u}_k] \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & \dots & 0 & \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & O \\ 0 & \dots & \sigma_r & \\ & O & & O \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [\mathbf{u}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{u}_k] \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_r \mathbf{v}_r^T \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T + \dots + \sigma_r \mathbf{u}_r \mathbf{v}_r^T.$$

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

THEOREM 14.3 (Outer Product form of the SVD)

Let A be a real $k \times n$ matrix with singular values $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \cdots \geq \sigma_r > 0$ and $\sigma_{r+1} = \sigma_{r+2} = \cdots = \sigma_n = 0$. Let $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r$ be the left singular vectors and $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r$ be the right singular vectors corresponding to the non-zero singular values. Then

$$A = \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T + \cdots + \sigma_r \mathbf{u}_r \mathbf{v}_r^T.$$

Note that, in this form, there is no need to compute the singular vectors corresponding to the zero singular values. However the singular vectors span the fundamental subspaces of A .

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

THEOREM 14.4

Let $A = U \Sigma V^T$ be a singular value decomposition of a $k \times n$ matrix A . Let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r$ be the non-zero singular values of A . Then

- (a) The rank of A is r .
- (b) $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r\}$ is an orthonormal basis for $\text{col}(A)$.
- (c) $\{\mathbf{u}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k\}$ is an orthonormal basis for $\text{null}(A^T)$.
- (d) $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r\}$ is an orthonormal basis for $\text{row}(A)$.
- (e) $\{\mathbf{v}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis for $\text{null}(A)$.

Proof: See Poole Theorem 7.15.

In particular, this theorem implies that a $n \times n$ matrix is invertible if and only if it has no zero singular values; that is $r = n$.

COMPRESSION

The other product form of an SVD implies that we only need to store r vectors $\mathbf{u}_i \in \mathbf{R}^k$, r vectors $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbf{R}^n$ and the r non-zero singular values σ_i in order to reconstruct the matrix A . In total, there are

$$rk + rn + r = r(k + n + 1)$$

numbers that we need to store compare to kn numbers that would be needed if we stored A directly. In fact we can do slightly better. If we store $\sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i = A \mathbf{v}_i$ then the storage is reduced to

$$r(k + n).$$

If r is small (that is, the rank is small) then

$$r(k + n) \ll kn$$

and we have achieved *loss-less compression*. In particular, for a square $n \times n$ matrix, we require

$$r < \frac{1}{2} n$$

in order to achieve loss-less compression.

COMPRESSION

In the case of loss-less compression, we can reconstruct A *exactly*. However if r is large, we might want to *approximate* A by a matrix of *smaller rank*. This will then achieve *lossy compression* since we will not be able to reconstruct A exactly.

Each term

$$\sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T$$

in the SVD is a *rank 1* matrix. Since we have ordered the singular values in descending size, we call

$$A_1 = \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T$$

the *rank 1 approximation to A*. Similarly, for $s < r$, we call

$$A_s = \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T + \cdots + \sigma_s \mathbf{u}_s \mathbf{v}_s^T$$

the *rank s approximation to A*.

COMPRESSION

In typical applications (say image compression), there is a fair range of singular values. By ignoring the small non-zero singular values, we achieve a lower rank approximation to A that preserves *most* of the information contained in A (remember that the terms that we are ignoring will be small compared to the terms that we are keeping). The art (or engineering!) is to choose s as small as possible (to maximize the compression) but not too small so that we lose essential detail in A .

COMPRESSION



MATLAB

MATLAB has the function `svd` to compute the singular decomposition of a matrix A .

- $s = \text{svd}(A)$ (or, simply, $\text{svd}(A)$) will return a *vector* of the singular values of A (in order of descending size).
- $[U,S,V] = \text{svd}(A)$ will return the three factors of a SVD for A .

Consider the matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 8.1650 & -0.0041 & -0.0041 \\ 4.0825 & -3.9959 & 4.0042 \\ 4.0825 & 4.0042 & -3.9959 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 8.17 & 0 & 0 \\ 4.08 & -4.00 & 4.00 \\ 4.08 & 4.00 & -4.00 \end{bmatrix}$$

where B has been obtained from A by rounding to two decimal places. MATLAB gives the singular values

```
>> [svd(A),svd(B)]
ans =
    10.0000    10.0000
     8.0000     8.0000
     0.0100     0.0000
```

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

We see that A has rank 3 and so is invertible but B has rank 2 and thus is not invertible. In applications, it is often assumed that small singular values are the result of round-off error and that the actual value should be zero. In this way “noise” can be filtered out. A SVD for A is

```
>> [U,S,V]=svd(A)
U =
   -0.8165   -0.0000   -0.5774
   -0.4082   -0.7071    0.5774
   -0.4082    0.7071    0.5774
S =
   10.0000         0         0
         0     8.0000         0
         0         0     0.0100
V =
   -1.0000         0         0
         0     0.7071    0.7071
         0   -0.7071    0.7071
```

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

If we assume that the singular value 0.01 is the result of round-off error then

```
>> U*diag([10,8,0])*V'
ans =
    8.1650    -0.0000     0.0000
    4.0825   -4.0000     4.0000
    4.0825     4.0000   -4.0000
```

that is,

$$U \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} V^T = B.$$

SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

THEOREM 14.5

Let A be an invertible matrix with a singular value decomposition $A = U\Sigma V^T$. Then A^{-1} has a singular value decomposition

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

Proof: Exercise.

Note that this theorem implies that the singular values of A^{-1} are

$$\frac{1}{\sigma_n} \geq \frac{1}{\sigma_{n-1}} \geq \cdots \geq \frac{1}{\sigma_1}.$$

CONDITION NUMBER

Recall that

$$\|A\|_2 = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|A x\|.$$

Let $A = U \Sigma V^T$ be a SVD for A . Since U is orthogonal, we have $\|U y\| = \|y\|$ for any $y \in \mathbf{R}^k$ and so

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

(set $y = \Sigma V^T x$). Since V (and therefore V^T) is orthogonal, for $\|x\| = 1$ we have

$$\|V^T x\| = \|x\| = 1.$$

Therefore, setting $y = V^T x$ we have

$$\|A\|_2 = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|A x\| = \max_{\|y\|=1} \|\Sigma y\| = \sigma_1.$$

From the above theorem we also note that, if A is invertible,

$$\|A^{-1}\|_2 = \frac{1}{\sigma_n}.$$

CONDITION NUMBER

Therefore the condition number (using the 2-norm) for a matrix is

$$\text{cond}_2(A) \equiv \|A^{-1}\|_2 \|A\|_2 = \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_n}.$$

For the matrix A in the above example, we have

$$\text{cond}_2(A) = \frac{10}{0.01} = 1000.$$

PSEUDOINVERSE

We have defined the pseudoinverse for a matrix A that has linearly independent columns. We can now extend this definition to *any* matrix; in particular, to non-invertible square matrices.

DEFINITION 14.6

Let $A = U \Sigma V^T$ be a SVD of a $k \times n$ matrix A with

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} D & O \\ O & O \end{bmatrix}$$

and D is the $r \times r$ diagonal matrix with the non-zero singular values $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \cdots \geq \sigma_r > 0$ of A on its diagonal. The **pseudoinverse** or **Moore-Penrose inverse** of A is the $n \times k$ matrix

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

where Σ^+ is the $n \times k$ matrix

$$\Sigma^+ = \begin{bmatrix} D^{-1} & O^T \\ O^T & O^T \end{bmatrix}.$$

PSEUDOINVERSE

This new definition reduces to the old one in the case of a $k \times n$ matrix A with linearly independent columns. Suppose $A = U \Sigma V$ is a SVD for A . Then

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

since U is orthogonal. Since A has linearly independent columns, it has no non-zero singular values ($r = n$) and so Σ is the $k \times n$ matrix

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} D \\ O \end{bmatrix}$$

and so

$$\Sigma^T \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} D \\ O^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} D & O \end{bmatrix} = D^2.$$

Therefore

$$(A^T A)^{-1} = (V D^2 V^T)^{-1} = V^{-T} D^{-2} V^{-1}.$$

PSEUDOINVERSE

Since V is orthogonal,

$$\begin{aligned}(A^T A)^{-1} A^T &= V D^{-2} V^T V \Sigma^T U^T \\&= V D^{-2} [D \quad 0^T] U^T \\&= V [D^{-1} \quad 0^T] V^T \\&= V \Sigma^+ U^T.\end{aligned}$$

PSEUDOINVERSE

Example

Find the pseudoinverse of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Solution: Note that A does not have linearly independent columns. From the example above, we have the SVD

$$A = U \Sigma V^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

for A . Therefore

$$\Sigma^+ = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

PSEUDOINVERSE

and so

$$A^+ = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

PSEUDOINVERSE

Example

Find the pseudoinverse of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Solution: From above, we have the SVD

$$A = U \Sigma V^T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} & 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ \frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ \frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus

$$\Sigma^+ = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

PSEUDOINVERSE

and so

$$A^+ = V \Sigma^+ U^T = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

LEAST SQUARES

We have seen that there is a unique least squares solution to $A \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ if and only if A has linearly independent columns. In the case where A does not have linearly independent columns, there are infinitely many solutions. In this case, we will ask for the solution of *minimum length*; that is, closest to the origin.

THEOREM 14.7

The system $A \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique least squares solution of minimal length. It is given by

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = A^+ \mathbf{b}.$$

Proof: See Poole Theorem 7.18.

LEAST SQUARES

Example

Find the minimal least squares solution of

$$x_1 + x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 + x_2 = 1.$$

Solution: The coefficient matrix is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

which has a SVD (check)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

(the fact that $U = V^T$ should not be surprising; A is symmetric).

LEAST SQUARES

Thus

$$A^+ = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and so the least squares solution of minimal length is

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = A^+ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$