

**Lectures 7-8 recap** 





#### Matrix decompositions and linear systems

In a least-squares, or linear regression, problem, we have measurements  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and seek a vector  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $X\theta$  is close to y. Closeness is defined as the sum of the squared differences:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} (x_i^{\top} \theta - y_i)^2 \qquad \|X\theta - y\|_2^2 \to \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \qquad X\theta^* = y$$



Figure 1: Illustration of linear system aka least squares

Lectures 7-8 recap

#### Moore-Penrose inverse

If the matrix X is relatively small, we can write down and calculate exact solution:

$$\theta^* = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top y = X^\dagger y,$$

#### Moore-Penrose inverse

If the matrix  $\boldsymbol{X}$  is relatively small, we can write down and calculate exact solution:

$$\theta^* = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top y = X^\dagger y,$$

where  $X^{\dagger}$  is called pseudo-inverse matrix. However, this approach squares the condition number of the problem, which could be an obstacle in case of ill-conditioned huge scale problem.

♥ റ ഉ

#### Moore-Penrose inverse

If the matrix  $\boldsymbol{X}$  is relatively small, we can write down and calculate exact solution:

$$\theta^* = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top y = X^\dagger y,$$

where  $X^{\dagger}$  is called pseudo-inverse matrix. However, this approach squares the condition number of the problem, which could be an obstacle in case of ill-conditioned huge scale problem.

#### QR decomposition

For any matrix  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  there is exists QR decomposition:

$$X = Q \cdot R$$
,

എ റ ഉ

#### Moore-Penrose inverse

If the matrix X is relatively small, we can write down and calculate exact solution:

$$\theta^* = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top y = X^\dagger y,$$

where  $X^{\dagger}$  is called pseudo-inverse matrix. However, this approach squares the condition number of the problem, which could be an obstacle in case of ill-conditioned huge scale problem.

#### QR decomposition

For any matrix  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  there is exists QR decomposition:

$$X = Q \cdot R$$

where Q is an orthogonal matrix (its columns are orthogonal unit vectors) meaning  $Q^{\top}Q = QQ^{\top} = I$  and R is an upper triangular matrix. It is important to notice, that since  $Q^{-1} = Q^{\top}$ , we have:

$$QR\theta = y \longrightarrow R\theta = Q^{\top}y$$

Now, process of finding theta consists of two steps:

1. Find the QR decomposition of X.

#### Moore-Penrose inverse

If the matrix X is relatively small, we can write down and calculate exact solution:

$$\theta^* = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top y = X^\dagger y,$$

where  $X^{\dagger}$  is called pseudo-inverse matrix. However, this approach squares the condition number of the problem, which could be an obstacle in case of ill-conditioned huge scale problem.

#### QR decomposition

For any matrix  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  there is exists QR decomposition:

$$X = Q \cdot R$$

where Q is an orthogonal matrix (its columns are orthogonal unit vectors) meaning  $Q^{\top}Q = QQ^{\top} = I$  and R is an upper triangular matrix. It is important to notice, that since  $Q^{-1} = Q^{\top}$ , we have:

$$QR\theta = y \longrightarrow R\theta = Q^{\top}y$$

Now, process of finding theta consists of two steps:

- 1. Find the QR decomposition of X.
- 2. Solve triangular system  $R\theta = Q^{T}y$ , which is triangular and, therefore, easy to solve.

#### Cholesky decomposition

For any positive definite matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  there is exists Cholesky decomposition:

$$X^{\top}X = A = L^{\top} \cdot L,$$

where L is an lower triangular matrix. We have:

$$L^{\top}L\theta = y \longrightarrow L^{\top}z_{\theta} = y$$

Now, process of finding theta consists of two steps:

1. Find the Cholesky decomposition of  $X^{\top}X$ .

Note, that in this case the error stil proportional to the squared condition number.

େ ଚେଚ

#### Cholesky decomposition

For any positive definite matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  there is exists Cholesky decomposition:

$$X^{\top}X = A = L^{\top} \cdot L,$$

where L is an lower triangular matrix. We have:

$$L^{\top}L\theta = y \longrightarrow L^{\top}z_{\theta} = y$$

Now, process of finding theta consists of two steps:

- 1. Find the Cholesky decomposition of  $X^{\top}X$ .
- 2. Find the  $z_{\theta} = L\theta$  by solving triangular system  $L^{\top}z_{\theta} = y$

Note, that in this case the error stil proportional to the squared condition number.

େଟେଡ

#### Cholesky decomposition

For any positive definite matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  there is exists Cholesky decomposition:

$$X^{\top}X = A = L^{\top} \cdot L,$$

where L is an lower triangular matrix. We have:

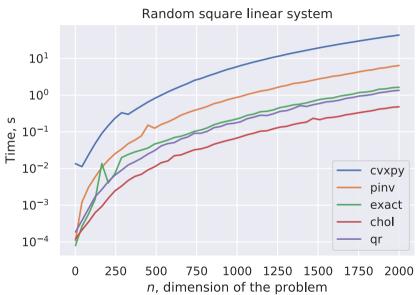
$$L^{\top}L\theta = y \longrightarrow L^{\top}z_{\theta} = y$$

Now, process of finding theta consists of two steps:

- 1. Find the Cholesky decomposition of  $X^{\top}X$ .
- 2. Find the  $z_{\theta} = L \theta$  by solving triangular system  $L^{\top} z_{\theta} = y$
- 3. Find the  $\theta$  by solving triangular system  $L\theta=z_{\theta}$

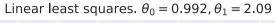
Note, that in this case the error stil proportional to the squared condition number.

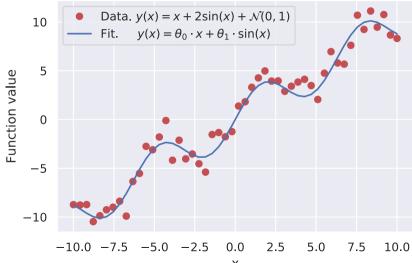
େ ପ





#### Matrix decompositions and linear systems. Non-linear data







**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .

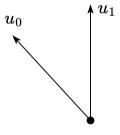


Figure 4: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .

**Output:** n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal  $d_0,\ldots,d_{n-1}.$ 

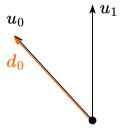


Figure 5: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

₹ C Ø

**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .

**Output:** n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal  $d_0,\ldots,d_{n-1}.$ 

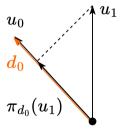


Figure 6: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

∌ റ ഉ

**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .

**Output:** n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal  $d_0,\ldots,d_{n-1}$ .

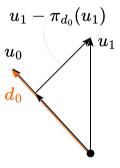


Figure 7: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

♥೧0

**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .

**Output:** n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal  $d_0,\ldots,d_{n-1}.$ 

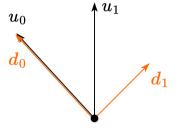
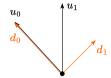
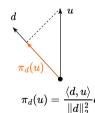


Figure 8: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

୬ n **ଡ**ା

**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .



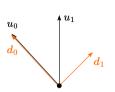


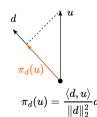
Lectures 7-8 recap

Input: n linearly independent vectors  $u_0,\ldots,u_{n-1}$ .

**Output:** n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal  $d_0, \ldots, d_{n-1}$ .

 $d_0 = u_0$ 

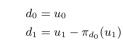


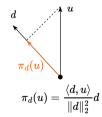




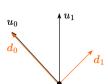


**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .







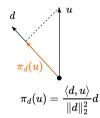


**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .

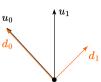
$$d_0 = u_0$$

$$d_1 = u_1 - \pi_{d_0}(u_1)$$

$$d_2 = u_2 - \pi_{d_0}(u_2) - \pi_{d_1}(u_2)$$









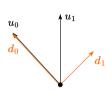
**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .

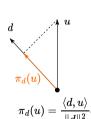
$$d_0 = u_0$$

$$d_1 = u_1 - \pi_{d_0}(u_1)$$

$$d_2 = u_2 - \pi_{d_0}(u_2) - \pi_{d_1}(u_2)$$

$$\vdots$$





**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .

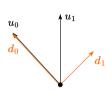
$$d_0 = u_0$$

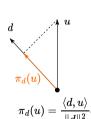
$$d_1 = u_1 - \pi_{d_0}(u_1)$$

$$d_2 = u_2 - \pi_{d_0}(u_2) - \pi_{d_1}(u_2)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$d_k = u_k - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \pi_{d_i}(u_k)$$





**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .

$$d_0 = u_0$$

$$d_1 = u_1 - \pi_{d_0}(u_1)$$

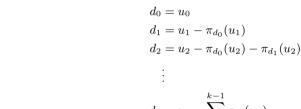
$$d_2 = u_2 - \pi_{d_0}(u_2) - \pi_{d_1}(u_2)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$d_k = u_k - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \pi_{d_i}(u_k)$$

**Input:** n linearly independent vectors  $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ .

**Output:** n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal  $d_0, \ldots, d_{n-1}$ .



$$d_k = u_k - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \pi_{d_i}(u_k)$$

$$d_k = u_k + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \beta_{ik} d_i \qquad \beta_{ik} = -\frac{\langle d_i, u_k \rangle}{\langle d_i, d_i \rangle}$$

Here's how you can structure the final slide to illustrate the **Gram-Schmidt process** in matrix form via QR decomposition:

## Gram-Schmidt process in Matrix Form via QR Decomposition

Step-by-step process in matrix notation:

• Given a matrix A with columns  $u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ , the goal is to decompose A into:

$$A = QR$$

where:

# Gram-Schmidt process in Matrix Form via QR Decomposition Step-by-step process in matrix notation:

• Given a matrix A with columns  $u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ , the goal is to decompose A into:

$$A = QR$$

where:

ullet Q: an orthogonal matrix whose columns are the orthonormal vectors  $q_0,q_1,\dots,q_{n-1}.$ 



# Gram-Schmidt process in Matrix Form via QR Decomposition Step-by-step process in matrix notation:

• Given a matrix A with columns  $u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ , the goal is to decompose A into:

$$A=QR$$

#### where:

- Q: an orthogonal matrix whose columns are the orthonormal vectors  $q_0, q_1, \ldots, q_{n-1}$ .
- R: an upper triangular matrix.



# Gram-Schmidt process in Matrix Form via QR Decomposition Step-by-step process in matrix notation:

• Given a matrix A with columns  $u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ , the goal is to decompose A into:

$$A=QR$$

#### where:

- Q: an orthogonal matrix whose columns are the orthonormal vectors  $q_0, q_1, \ldots, q_{n-1}$ .
- R: an upper triangular matrix.



## Gram-Schmidt process in Matrix Form via QR Decomposition

#### Step-by-step process in matrix notation:

• Given a matrix A with columns  $u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ , the goal is to decompose A into:

$$A = QR$$

where:

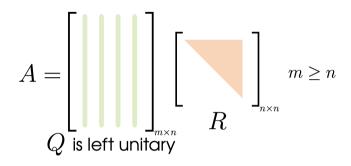
- Q: an orthogonal matrix whose columns are the orthonormal vectors  $q_0, q_1, \ldots, q_{n-1}$ .
- R: an upper triangular matrix.

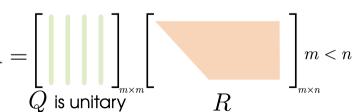
#### Illustration:

$$v_k = u_k - \sum_{k=1}^{k-1} \langle u_k, q_i \rangle q_i \qquad q_k = \frac{v_k}{\|v_k\|} \qquad R_{ij} = \langle u_j, q_i \rangle \qquad \text{for } i \leq j$$

$$\text{For } A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ u_0 & u_1 & \cdots & u_{n-1} \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \quad \rightarrow \quad Q = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ q_0 & q_1 & \cdots & q_{n-1} \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}, \quad R = \begin{bmatrix} r_{00} & r_{01} & \cdots & r_{0(n-1)} \\ 0 & r_{11} & \cdots & r_{1(n-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & r_{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

## **QR** decomposition





#### **Schur form**

$$A = egin{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \ U \end{bmatrix}_{n imes n} egin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \ \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}_{n imes n} egin{bmatrix} U^* \end{bmatrix}_{n imes n}$$

## Schur

- ightharpoonup U is unitary
- $\triangleright \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  are eigenvalues
- columns of U are Schur vectors

Figure 10: Decomposition

**♥ ೧ Ø** 

#### **QR** algorithm

• The QR algorithm was independently proposed in 1961 by Kublanovskaya and Francis.





#### **QR** algorithm

- The QR algorithm was independently proposed in 1961 by Kublanovskaya and Francis.
- Do not mix QR algorithm and QR decomposition!



Lectures 7-8 recap



#### **QR** algorithm

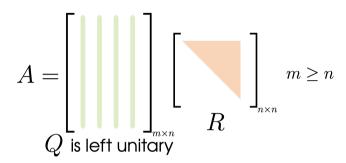
- The QR algorithm was independently proposed in 1961 by Kublanovskaya and Francis.
- Do not mix QR algorithm and QR decomposition!
- QR decomposition is the representation of a matrix, whereas QR algorithm uses QR decomposition to compute the eigenvalues!

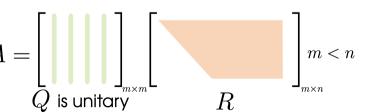


Lectures 7-8 recap



# **SVD**





**♥ ೧ 0** 

Suppose  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with rank A = r. Then A can be factored as

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



Suppose  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with rank A = r. Then A can be factored as

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

where  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  satisfies  $U^T U = I$ ,  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  satisfies  $V^T V = I$ , and  $\Sigma$  is a matrix with non-zero elements on the main diagonal  $\Sigma = \operatorname{diag}(\sigma_1,...,\sigma_r) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , such that

Suppose  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with rank A = r. Then A can be factored as

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

where  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  satisfies  $U^T U = I$ ,  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  satisfies  $V^T V = I$ , and  $\Sigma$  is a matrix with non-zero elements on the main diagonal  $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, ..., \sigma_r) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , such that

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \ldots \geq \sigma_r > 0.$$



Suppose  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with rank A = r. Then A can be factored as

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

where  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  satisfies  $U^T U = I$ ,  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  satisfies  $V^T V = I$ , and  $\Sigma$  is a matrix with non-zero elements on the main diagonal  $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, ..., \sigma_r) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , such that

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \ldots \geq \sigma_r > 0.$$

This factorization is called the singular value decomposition (SVD) of A. The columns of U are called left singular vectors of A, the columns of V are right singular vectors, and the numbers  $\sigma_i$  are the singular values. The singular value decomposition can be written as

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

where  $u_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$  are the left singular vectors, and  $v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are the right singular vectors.

#### i Question

Suppose, matrix  $A \in \mathbb{S}_{++}^n$ . What can we say about the connection between its eigenvalues and singular values?



#### i Question

Suppose, matrix  $A \in \mathbb{S}^n_{++}$ . What can we say about the connection between its eigenvalues and singular values?

## i Question

How do the singular values of a matrix relate to its eigenvalues, especially for a symmetric matrix?

 $f \to \min_{x,y,z}$ 



Simple, yet very interesting decomposition is Skeleton decomposition, which can be written in two forms:

$$A = UV^T \quad A = \hat{C}\hat{A}^{-1}\hat{R}$$



Simple, yet very interesting decomposition is Skeleton decomposition, which can be written in two forms:

$$A = UV^T \quad A = \hat{C}\hat{A}^{-1}\hat{R}$$

The latter expression refers to the fun fact: you can randomly choose r linearly independent columns of a matrix and any r linearly independent rows of a matrix and store only them with the ability to reconstruct the whole matrix exactly.



Simple, yet very interesting decomposition is Skeleton decomposition, which can be written in two forms:

$$A = UV^T \quad A = \hat{C}\hat{A}^{-1}\hat{R}$$

The latter expression refers to the fun fact: you can randomly choose r linearly independent columns of a matrix and any r linearly independent rows of a matrix and store only them with the ability to reconstruct the whole matrix exactly. Use cases for Skeleton decomposition are:

Model reduction, data compression, and speedup of computations in numerical analysis: given rank-r matrix with  $r \ll n, m$  one needs to store  $\mathcal{O}((n+m)r) \ll nm$  elements.

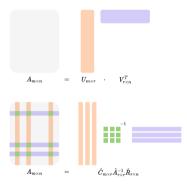


Figure 12: Illustration of Skeleton decomposition



Simple, yet very interesting decomposition is Skeleton decomposition, which can be written in two forms:

$$A = UV^T \quad A = \hat{C}\hat{A}^{-1}\hat{R}$$

The latter expression refers to the fun fact: you can randomly choose r linearly independent columns of a matrix and any r linearly independent rows of a matrix and store only them with the ability to reconstruct the whole matrix exactly. Use cases for Skeleton decomposition are:

- Model reduction, data compression, and speedup of computations in numerical analysis: given rank-r matrix with  $r \ll n, m$  one needs to store  $\mathcal{O}((n+m)r) \ll nm$  elements.
- Feature extraction in machine learning, where it is also known as matrix factorization

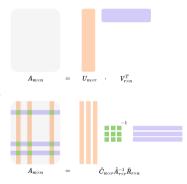


Figure 12: Illustration of Skeleton decomposition



Simple, yet very interesting decomposition is Skeleton decomposition, which can be written in two forms:

$$A = UV^T \quad A = \hat{C}\hat{A}^{-1}\hat{R}$$

The latter expression refers to the fun fact: you can randomly choose r linearly independent columns of a matrix and any r linearly independent rows of a matrix and store only them with the ability to reconstruct the whole matrix exactly. Use cases for Skeleton decomposition are:

- Model reduction, data compression, and speedup of computations in numerical analysis: given rank-r matrix with  $r \ll n, m$  one needs to store  $\mathcal{O}((n+m)r) \ll nm$  elements.
- Feature extraction in machine learning, where it is also known as matrix factorization
- All applications where SVD applies, since Skeleton decomposition can be transformed into truncated SVD form.

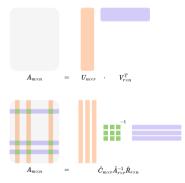


Figure 12: Illustration of Skeleton decomposition



## Canonical tensor decomposition

One can consider the generalization of Skeleton decomposition to the higher order data structure, like tensors, which implies representing the tensor as a sum of r primitive tensors.

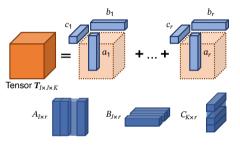


Figure 13: Illustration of Canonical Polyadic decomposition

### i Example

Lectures 7-8 recap

Note, that there are many tensor decompositions: Canonical, Tucker, Tensor Train (TT), Tensor Ring (TR), and others. In the tensor case, we do not have a straightforward definition of rank for all types of decompositions. For example, for TT decomposition rank is not a scalar, but a vector.









Suppose, you have the following expression

$$b = A_1 A_2 A_3 x,$$

where the  $A_1,A_2,A_3\in\mathbb{R}^{3\times 3}$  - random square dense matrices and  $x\in\mathbb{R}^n$  - vector. You need to compute b.

Which one way is the best to do it?

1.  $A_1A_2A_3x$  (from left to right)

Check the simple \$\mathbb{e}\$ code snippet after all.



Suppose, you have the following expression

$$b = A_1 A_2 A_3 x,$$

where the  $A_1,A_2,A_3\in\mathbb{R}^{3\times 3}$  - random square dense matrices and  $x\in\mathbb{R}^n$  - vector. You need to compute b.

Which one way is the best to do it?

- 1.  $A_1A_2A_3x$  (from left to right)
- 2.  $(A_1(A_2(A_3x)))$  (from right to left)

Check the simple \*code snippet after all.



Suppose, you have the following expression

$$b = A_1 A_2 A_3 x,$$

where the  $A_1,A_2,A_3\in\mathbb{R}^{3\times 3}$  - random square dense matrices and  $x\in\mathbb{R}^n$  - vector. You need to compute b.

Which one way is the best to do it?

- 1.  $A_1A_2A_3x$  (from left to right)
- 2.  $(A_1(A_2(A_3x)))$  (from right to left)
- 3. It does not matter

Check the simple \*code snippet after all.



Suppose, you have the following expression

$$b = A_1 A_2 A_3 x,$$

where the  $A_1,A_2,A_3\in\mathbb{R}^{3 imes 3}$  - random square dense matrices and  $x\in\mathbb{R}^n$  - vector. You need to compute b.

Which one way is the best to do it?

- 1.  $A_1A_2A_3x$  (from left to right)
- 2.  $(A_1(A_2(A_3x)))$  (from right to left)
- 3. It does not matter
- 4. The results of the first two options will not be the same.

Check the simple **code** snippet after all.



Find SVD of the following matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find SVD of the following matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Solution

1. Compute  $A^TA$ :

$$A^{T}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 1^{2} + 2^{2} + 3^{2} = 14.$$

The singular values  $\sigma_i$  are the square roots of the eigenvalues of  $A^TA$ . Since  $A^TA$  is a  $1 \times 1$  matrix with value 14, the singular value is  $\sigma = \sqrt{14}$ .



Find SVD of the following matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Solution

1. Compute  $A^TA$ :

$$A^{T}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 1^{2} + 2^{2} + 3^{2} = 14.$$

The singular values  $\sigma_i$  are the square roots of the eigenvalues of  $A^TA$ . Since  $A^TA$  is a  $1\times 1$  matrix with value 14, the singular value is  $\sigma=\sqrt{14}$ .

2. Since V is an  $n \times n$  orthogonal matrix (1  $\times$  1 in this case), it can be V = [1] (or V = [-1]). We choose V = [1].



Find SVD of the following matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Solution

1. Compute  $A^TA$ :

$$A^{T}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 1^{2} + 2^{2} + 3^{2} = 14.$$

The singular values  $\sigma_i$  are the square roots of the eigenvalues of  $A^TA$ . Since  $A^TA$  is a  $1\times 1$  matrix with value 14, the singular value is  $\sigma=\sqrt{14}$ .

2. Since V is an  $n \times n$  orthogonal matrix (1  $\times$  1 in this case), it can be V = [1] (or V = [-1]). We choose V = [1].

$$A = U\Sigma V^T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{14} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

3. The simplest form of SVD allows us to write:



Find SVD of the following matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Solution

1. Compute  $A^TA$ :

$$A^{T}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 1^{2} + 2^{2} + 3^{2} = 14.$$

The singular values  $\sigma_i$  are the square roots of the eigenvalues of  $A^TA$ . Since  $A^TA$  is a  $1\times 1$  matrix with value 14, the singular value is  $\sigma=\sqrt{14}$ .

2. Since V is an  $n \times n$  orthogonal matrix  $(1 \times 1)$  in this case), it can be V = [1] (or V = [-1]). We choose V = [1].

3. The simplest form of SVD allows us to write:

$$A = U\Sigma V^T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{14} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

4. However, if you would like to use another form with square singular matrices:

$$A = U\Sigma V^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{-5}{\sqrt{42}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{14}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{4}{\sqrt{42}} \\ \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}} & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{42}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{14} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



#### Find SVD of the following matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\mbox{Find } R \mbox{ matrix in QR decomposition for matrix } A = ab^T, \mbox{where } a = [1,2,1,2,1,2,1], b = [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9]$ 

#### Solution