

## §6.5

### Singular Value Decomposition

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#### Preliminaries

1. Let  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^T$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)^T$ , then

$$A = \mathbf{xy}^T = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & \dots & y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 y_1 & x_1 y_2 & \dots & x_1 y_n \\ x_2 y_1 & x_2 y_2 & & x_2 y_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_n y_1 & x_n y_2 & & x_n y_n \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \mathbf{x} & y_2 \mathbf{x} & \dots & y_n \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \mathbf{y}^T \\ x_2 \mathbf{y}^T \\ \vdots \\ x_n \mathbf{y}^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$\mathbf{xy}^T$  is called the OUTER PRODUCT EXPANSION of  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  and it is a matrix of **rank 1** since  $R(A) = \text{span}(\mathbf{x})$  (and  $R(A^T) = \text{span}(\mathbf{y})$ ).

We can say more: *every rank one matrix* has the special form  $A = \mathbf{xy}^T = \text{column times row}$ .

The columns are multiples of  $\mathbf{x}$  and the rows are multiples of  $\mathbf{y}^T$ .

Now assume  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are two more vectors, then  $B = \mathbf{xy}^T + \mathbf{uv}^T$  is a **rank 2** matrix, (provided  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{u}$  are linearly independent).

2. An  $n \times n$  matrix  $Q$  is called an **Orthogonal Matrix** if the columns of  $Q$  are orthonormal vectors. Then  $Q^T Q = I$ , but since  $Q$  is square, with linearly independent columns, it is invertible and  $Q^T = Q^{-1}$ .

#### Examples of orthogonal matrices:

- *Rotation matrices*
- *Permutation matrices* (obtained by permuting rows of  $I$ ).
- *Reflection matrices*: they are of the form  $2\mathbf{uu}^T - I$  where  $\mathbf{u}$  is the unit vector in the direction we are reflecting into. (This follows from the fact that the reflection of the vector  $\mathbf{v}$  into the vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is  $2\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{v} = 2 \frac{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|^2} \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = 2(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v})\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ . Now, from the associative property of matrix multiplication, we have  $(\mathbf{uu}^T)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v})\mathbf{u}$  and it follows that the reflection can be written as  $2(\mathbf{uu}^T)\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v} = (2\mathbf{uu}^T - I)\mathbf{v}$ .  
Reflection matrices are symmetric and also orthogonal. They also have the property  $Q^2 = I$  (reflecting twice brings back the original).

#### Properties of orthogonal matrices

- orthogonal matrices leave lengths unchanged:  $\|Q\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2$  for every vector  $\mathbf{x}$ .
- orthogonal matrices preserve dot products:  $(Q\mathbf{x})^T (Q\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}^T Q^T Q \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$ .
- Orthogonal matrices are excellent for computations - numbers can never grow too large when lengths of vectors are fixed.

3. Recall: Frobenius norm of  $A$  is  $\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{ij} (a_{ij})^2}$

## Singular Value Decomposition

Assume  $A$  is  $m \times n$  and  $m \geq n$  (but all results hold also if  $m < n$ ). We want to factor  $A$  in the form

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

where  $U$  is  $m \times m$  orthogonal matrix

$V$  is  $n \times n$  orthogonal matrix

$\Sigma$  is  $m \times n$  with off diagonal entries all 0's and diagonal entries  $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$ .

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \dots & 0 \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & \dots & & \sigma_n \\ 0 & & \dots & 0 \\ & & \vdots & \\ 0 & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\sigma_i$ 's are called **SINGULAR VALUES** of  $A$ .

The factorization  $U\Sigma V^T$  is called the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) of  $A$ .

In many applications we need to determine the rank of a matrix. Computationally, reducing to RREF and counting the number of non zero rows is not efficient because of round off errors.

A better way to compute the rank is by using the following Theorem:

### THEOREM:

$\text{rank}(A) = \text{number of non zero singular values } \sigma_i$ .

*Proof:*

$$\begin{aligned} A = U\Sigma V^T &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_n & \mathbf{u}_{n+1} & \dots & \mathbf{u}_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \dots & 0 \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & \dots & & \sigma_n \\ 0 & & \dots & 0 \\ & & \vdots & \\ 0 & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^T \\ \mathbf{v}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_n^T \end{bmatrix} = \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 & \sigma_2 \mathbf{u}_2 & \dots & \sigma_n \mathbf{u}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^T \\ \mathbf{v}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_n^T \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_1(\mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T) + \sigma_2(\mathbf{u}_2 \mathbf{v}_2^T) + \dots + \sigma_n(\mathbf{u}_n \mathbf{v}_n^T) \end{aligned}$$

By Preliminary 1.,  $\mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T$  are matrices of rank one, thus, if  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_k \neq 0$ , and  $\sigma_{k+1} = \sigma_{k+2} = \dots = \sigma_n = 0$ , then the sum is a matrix of rank  $k$ . ■

The previous Theorem and, in particular, the expression for  $A$ :

$$A = \sigma_1(\mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T) + \sigma_2(\mathbf{u}_2 \mathbf{v}_2^T) + \dots + \sigma_n(\mathbf{u}_n \mathbf{v}_n^T)$$

are extremely important in applications.

From the above Theorem the following Remarks follow:

### IMPORTANT REMARKS:

1. If  $A$  has rank  $n$ ,

$$B = \sigma_1(\mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T) + \sigma_2(\mathbf{u}_2 \mathbf{v}_2^T) + \dots + \sigma_k(\mathbf{u}_k \mathbf{v}_k^T), \quad k \leq n$$

is the matrix of rank  $k$  that is closest to  $A$  w.r.t the Frobenius norm, i.e.

$$\|B - A\|_F = \text{minimum among all matrices } B \text{ of rank } k$$

2. It can be shown that  $\|A - B\|_F = \sqrt{\sigma_{k+1}^2 + \sigma_{k+2}^2 + \dots + \sigma_n^2}$
3. In particular, if  $A$  is non singular  $n \times n$ , then

$$A' = \sigma_1(\mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T) + \sigma_2(\mathbf{u}_2 \mathbf{v}_2^T) + \dots + \sigma_{n-1}(\mathbf{u}_{n-1} \mathbf{v}_{n-1}^T)$$

is singular and  $\|A - A'\|_F = \sigma_n$ .

**Thus  $\sigma_n$  may be taken as a measure of how close a square matrix is to being singular.**  
Here “close to singular” means that if we perturb slightly  $A$ , then  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  could give solutions that are NOT close to zero.

4. In general, the determinant is not a good measure of how close a matrix is to being singular, (i.e. small determinant does not imply “close to singular”); however, small  $\sigma_n$  does imply close to singular.

**EXAMPLE.** Given the SVD decomposition

$$A = U\Sigma V^T = \begin{bmatrix} 3/5 & -4/5 & 0 \\ 4/5 & 3/5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 30 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 15 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 & 2/3 & 2/3 \\ 2/3 & 1/3 & -2/3 \\ 2/3 & -2/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (a) Determine  $\text{rank}(A)$ .

*Solution:* The rank is three since there are three non zero singular values.

- (b) Find the closest (w.r.t Frobenius norm) matrix of rank 1 to  $A$ .

$$\text{Solution: By Remark 1: } B = \sigma_1(\mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T) = 30 \begin{bmatrix} 3/5 \\ 4/5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 & 2/3 & 2/3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 12 & 12 \\ 8 & 16 & 16 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (c) Determine  $\|A - B\|_F$ .

*Solution:* By Remark 2.:  $\|A - B\|_F = \sqrt{\sigma_2^2 + \sigma_3^2} = \sqrt{234} \approx 15.29$ .

- (d) Find the closest matrix of rank 2.

*Solution:* By Remark 1.:

$$A_2 = \sigma_1(\mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T) + \sigma_2(\mathbf{u}_2 \mathbf{v}_2^T) = B + \sigma_2(\mathbf{u}_2 \mathbf{v}_2^T) = B + 15 \begin{bmatrix} -4/5 \\ 3/5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2/3 & 1/3 & -2/3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 8 & 20 \\ 14 & 19 & 10 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(Note that  $\mathbf{a}_3 = -2\mathbf{a}_1 + 2\mathbf{a}_2$  which confirms  $\text{rank}(A_2) = 2$ ).

- (e) Determine  $\|A - A_2\|_F$

*Solution:* By Remark 2:  $\|A - A_2\|_F = \sqrt{\sigma_3^2} = 3$ .

## How do we find the SVD?

### THEOREM:

Every  $m \times n$  matrix has an SVD.

*Idea of Proof.* (For simplicity we assume  $A$  is  $n \times n$  and has rank  $n$ ).

Let  $\lambda_i$  be an e-value of  $A^T A$  and  $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$ .

Let  $V = [\mathbf{v}_1 \quad \mathbf{v}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{v}_n]$  with  $\mathbf{v}_i$  orthonormal e-vectors of  $A^T A$ , then, by definition of e-vector,  $A^T A \mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i$  and

$$\|A \mathbf{v}_i\|^2 = (A \mathbf{v}_i)^T (A \mathbf{v}_i) = \mathbf{v}_i^T A^T A \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{v}_i^T \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i$$

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

Let  $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & & \sigma_n \end{bmatrix}$  (since  $\text{rank}(A) = n$  we have that  $\sigma_i \neq 0$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ) and let

$$U = A\Sigma^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{A\mathbf{v}_1}{\sigma_1} & \frac{A\mathbf{v}_2}{\sigma_2} & \dots & \frac{A\mathbf{v}_n}{\sigma_n} \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \quad \mathbf{u}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{u}_n].$$

We need to verify that the columns of  $U$  are orthonormal:

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

Also,  $\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{u}_j = (A\mathbf{v}_i)^T A\mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{v}_i^T \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_j = \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{v}_j = 0$  (since  $\mathbf{v}_i \perp \mathbf{v}_j$ ).

We then have

$$U = A\Sigma^{-1} \Rightarrow U\Sigma = AV \Rightarrow A = U\Sigma V^{-1}$$

and since  $V$  is an orthogonal matrix we have  $V^T = V^{-1}$  which implies  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ . ■

### STEPS FOR FINDING THE SVD:

1.  $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$  with  $\lambda_i$  e-values of  $A^T A$ .
2. Find the e-vectors of  $A^T A$ . Since  $A^T A$  is symmetric, these e-vectors will be automatically orthogonal, however, you may need to normalize them. Let  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  be these orthonormal e-vectors, then  $V = [\mathbf{v}_1 \quad \mathbf{v}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{v}_n]$
3. If  $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r \neq 0$ ,  $r < n$ , then  $\mathbf{u}_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} A\mathbf{v}_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, r$ .

The others  $\mathbf{u}_{r+1}, \mathbf{u}_{r+2}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m$  are an orthonormal basis of  $N(A^T)$ . We can compute a basis for  $N(A^T)$  in the usual way (by finding the RREF of  $A^T$ ) and, if the vectors are not already orthogonal, we can use Gram-Schmidt to orthonormalize them.

**REMARK:** The matrices  $U$  and  $V$  contain orthonormal bases for all four fundamental subspaces.

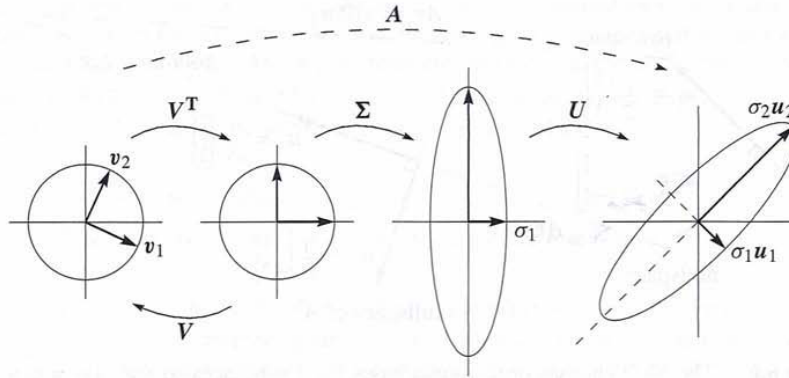
Let  $\text{rank}(A) = r$ , i.e  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r \neq 0$ , then

- $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r\}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $R(A)$  (by definition the  $\mathbf{u}_i = \frac{A\mathbf{v}_i}{\sigma_i}$  are linear combinations of the columns of  $A$  and they are linearly independent since they are orthogonal)
- $\{\mathbf{u}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m\}$  is an orthonormal basis of the nullspace of  $A^T$ ,  $N(A^T)$ .
- $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r\}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $R(A^T)$ . (Since  $A^T \mathbf{u}_j = \sigma_j \mathbf{v}_j$  we have that the  $\mathbf{v}_j$  are linear combinations of the rows of  $A$  and they are lin. independent since they are orthogonal).
- $\{\mathbf{v}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  is an orthonormal bases for  $N(A)$ .

In the picture below we can see a geometric representation of the SVD for a 2 by 2 invertible matrix. This matrix **transforms the unit circle into an ellipse**.

$U$  and  $V$  are rotations and reflections.  $\Sigma$  is a stretching matrix.

The orthonormal columns of  $V$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2$ , are mapped by  $V^T$  into  $\mathbf{e}_1$  and  $\mathbf{e}_2$ .  $\Sigma$  then stretches these vectors into  $\sigma_1 \mathbf{e}_1$  and  $\sigma_2 \mathbf{e}_2$ . Since  $U(\sigma_1 \mathbf{e}_1) = \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1$  and  $U(\sigma_2 \mathbf{e}_2) = \sigma_2 \mathbf{u}_2$ , the vectors  $\sigma_1 \mathbf{e}_1$  and  $\sigma_2 \mathbf{e}_2$  are mapped by  $U$  into  $\sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\sigma_2 \mathbf{u}_2$  which are the axis of the ellipse.

**EXAMPLE**

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

- (a) Find the SVD decomposition of  $A$

*Solution:*

$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 6 \\ 6 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $|A^T A - \lambda I| = (10 - \lambda)^2 - 36$ . The e-values of  $A^T A$  are  $\lambda_1 = 16$  and  $\lambda_2 = 4$ , thus the singular values are  $\sigma_1 = \sqrt{16} = 4$  and  $\sigma_2 = \sqrt{4} = 2$ .

The rref of  $A^T A - 16I$  is  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , thus an e-vector associated to  $\lambda_1 = 16$  is  $(1, 1)^T$ .

The rref of  $A^T A - 4I$  is  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , thus an e-vector associated to  $\lambda_2 = 4$  is  $(1, -1)^T$ .

As expected the two e-vectors are orthogonal, but not orthonormal. To find the columns of  $V$  we need to normalize the e-vectors:

$\mathbf{v}_1 = (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^T$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2 = (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^T$ ; thus the matrix

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

We have  $\mathbf{u}_1 = \frac{A\mathbf{v}_1}{\sigma_1} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, 0\right)^T$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2 = \frac{A\mathbf{v}_2}{\sigma_2} = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, 0\right)^T$

The matrix  $U$  is  $4 \times 4$ , thus we need two more columns:  $\mathbf{u}_3$  and  $\mathbf{u}_4$ . These two columns are an orthonormal basis of  $N(A^T)$ .

The rref of  $A^T$  is  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and a basis of  $N(A^T)$  is given by  $\{(0, 0, 1, 0)^T, (0, 0, 0, 1)^T\}$ .

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We can verify that  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ .

- (b) Determine the rank of  $A$ .

*Solution:* Since we have two nonzero singular values, the rank of the matrix is two.

(c) Find an orthonormal basis for  $R(A)$ .

*Solution:*  $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2$  are a basis for  $R(A)$ .

(d) Find an orthonormal basis for  $R(A^T)$ .

*Solution:*  $\mathbf{v}_1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2$  are a basis for  $R(A^T)$ .

## The SVD and Least Squares

**THEOREM** Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix of rank  $n$ , then the least squares solution of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{(\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{b})}{\sigma_1} \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \frac{(\mathbf{u}_n^T \mathbf{b})}{\sigma_n} \mathbf{v}_n$$

Proof: We start with the normal equations:

$$A^T A \mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{b}$$

Replace  $A$  with its SVD decomposition  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ :

$$(U\Sigma V^T)^T (U\Sigma V^T) \mathbf{x} = (U\Sigma V^T)^T \mathbf{b}$$

Distributing the transpose gives:

$$V\Sigma^T (U^T U) \Sigma V^T \mathbf{x} = V\Sigma^T U^T \mathbf{b}$$

$U$  is orthogonal and therefore  $U^T U = I$ . Also, since  $V$  is nonsingular we can left multiply by its inverse:

$$(\Sigma^T \Sigma) V^T \mathbf{x} = \Sigma^T U^T \mathbf{b}$$

$$V^T \mathbf{x} = (\Sigma^T \Sigma)^{-1} \Sigma^T U^T \mathbf{b}$$

Since  $V^T = V^{-1}$ , left multiplying both sides by  $V$  gives:

$$\mathbf{x} = V(\Sigma^T \Sigma)^{-1} \Sigma^T U^T \mathbf{b}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\Sigma^T \Sigma)^{-1} \Sigma^T &= \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sigma_1^2 & \dots & 0 \\ & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 1/\sigma_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & \ddots & 0 & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \sigma_n & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sigma_1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & \ddots & 0 & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 1/\sigma_n & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ thus} \\ \mathbf{x} &= V \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sigma_1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & \ddots & 0 & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 1/\sigma_n & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{b} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_n^T \mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix} = V \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\mathbf{u}_n^T \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_n} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{(\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{b})}{\sigma_1} \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \frac{(\mathbf{u}_n^T \mathbf{b})}{\sigma_n} \mathbf{v}_n \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

### EXAMPLE:

An SVD of a matrix  $A$  is given by :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} .5 & .5 & .5 & .5 \\ .5 & -.5 & -.5 & .5 \\ .5 & .5 & -.5 & -.5 \\ .5 & -.5 & .5 & -.5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} .6 & .8 \\ -.8 & .6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Use the SVD to find the least squares solution of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  with  $\mathbf{b} = (4, 4, 1, -4)^T$ .

*Solution:*

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_1} \mathbf{v}_1 + \frac{\mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_2} \mathbf{v}_2 = \frac{2.5}{10} \begin{bmatrix} .6 \\ .8 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{2.5}{5} \begin{bmatrix} -.8 \\ .6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -.25 \\ .5 \end{bmatrix}.$$