# CS724: Topics in Algorithms <br> Singular Values <br> Slide Set 8 

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## (1) Introduction

## (2) Singular Values and Singular Vectors

The singular value decomposition has been described as the "Swiss Army knife of matrix decompositions" due to its many applications in the study of matrices; from our point of view, singular value decomposition is relevant for dimensionality reduction techniques in data mining.

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be a square matrix which is unitarily diagonalizable. There exists a diagonal matrix $D=\operatorname{diag}\left(d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and a unitary matrix $X \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ such that $A=X D X^{H}$; equivalently, we have $A X=X D$. If we denote the columns of $X$ by $\boldsymbol{x}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{n}$, then $A \boldsymbol{x}_{i}=d_{i} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}$, which shows that $x_{i}$ is a unit eigenvector that corresponds to the eigenvalue $d_{i}$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n$. Also, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
A & =\left(x_{1} \cdots x_{n}\right) \operatorname{diag}\left(d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}
x_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} \\
\vdots \\
x_{n}^{\mathrm{H}}
\end{array}\right) \\
& =d_{1} x_{1} x_{1}^{\mathrm{H}}+\cdots+d_{n} x_{n} x_{n}^{\mathrm{H}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This is the spectral decomposition of $A$. Note that $\operatorname{rank}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{i} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{H}\right)=1$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n$.

The SVD theorem extends this decomposition to rectangular matrices.

## Theorem

(SVD Theorem) If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is a matrix and $\operatorname{rank}(A)=r$, then $A$ can be factored as $A=U D V^{H}$, where $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ and $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ are unitary matrices,

$$
D=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
\sigma_{1} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \sigma_{2} & 0 & & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_{r} & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n},
$$

and $\sigma_{1} \geqslant \ldots \geqslant \sigma_{r}$ are real positive numbers.

## Proof

The square matrix $A^{H} A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ has the same rank as the matrix $A$ and is positive semidefinite. Therefore, there are $r$ positive eigenvalues of this matrix, denoted by $\sigma_{1}^{2}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}^{2}$, where $\sigma_{1} \geqslant \sigma_{2} \geqslant \cdots \geqslant \sigma_{r}>0$.
Let $\boldsymbol{v}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{r}$ be the corresponding pairwise orthogonal, unit eigenvectors in $\mathbb{C}^{n}$ and let

$$
V_{1}=\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{1} \cdots \boldsymbol{v}_{r}\right)
$$

$V=\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{1} \cdots \boldsymbol{v}_{r} \boldsymbol{v}_{r+1} \cdots \boldsymbol{v}_{n}\right)$ be the matrix obtained by completing the set $\left\{\boldsymbol{v}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{r}\right\}$ to an orthogonal basis for $\mathbb{C}^{n}$, and let $V_{2}=\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{r+1} \cdots \boldsymbol{v}_{n}\right)$. We can write $V=\binom{V_{1}}{V_{2}}$.
Note that we have $A^{H} A \boldsymbol{v}_{i}=\sigma_{i}^{2} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$.

## Proof cont'd

The equalities $A^{H} A \boldsymbol{v}_{i}=\sigma_{i}^{2} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$ involving the eigenvectors can now be written as

$$
A^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{1}=V_{1} E^{2}
$$

where $E=\operatorname{diag}\left(\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}\right)$.
Define $U_{1}=A V_{1} E^{-1} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times r}$. We have $U_{1}^{H}=E^{-1} V_{1}^{H} A^{H}$, so

$$
U_{1}^{H} U_{1}=E^{-1} V_{1}^{H} A^{H} A V_{1} E^{-1}=E^{-1} V_{1}^{H} V_{1} E^{2} E^{-1}=I_{r}
$$

which shows that the columns of $U_{1}$ are pairwise orthogonal unit vectors. Consequently, $U_{1}^{H} A V_{1} E^{-1}=I_{r}$, so $U_{1}^{H} A V_{1}=E$.

## Proof cont'd

If $U_{1}=\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{1} \cdots, \boldsymbol{u}_{r}\right)$, let $U_{2}=\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{r+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_{m}\right)$ be the matrix whose columns constitute the extension of the set $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{1} \cdots, \boldsymbol{u}_{r}\right\}$ to an orthogonal basis of $\mathbb{C}^{m}$. Define $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ as $U=\left(U_{1} U_{2}\right)$. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
U^{\mathrm{H}} A V & =\binom{U_{1}^{\mathrm{H}}}{U_{2}^{\mathrm{H}}} A\left(V_{1} V_{2}\right) \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
U_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{1} & U_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{2} \\
U_{2}^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{1} & U_{2}^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{2}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
U_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{1} & U_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{2} \\
U_{2}^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{1} & U_{2}^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{2}
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
U_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{1} & O \\
O & O
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
E & O \\
O & O
\end{array}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

which is the desired decomposition.

Observe that in the SVD described above known as the full SVD of $A$, the diagonal matrix $D$ has the same format as $A$, while both $U$ and $V$ are square unitary matrices.

## Definition

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ be a matrix. A number $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ is a singular value of $A$ if there exists a pair of vectors $(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}) \in \mathbb{C}^{m} \times \mathbb{C}^{n}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
A \boldsymbol{v}=\sigma \boldsymbol{u} \text { and } A^{H} \boldsymbol{u}=\sigma \boldsymbol{v} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The vector $\boldsymbol{u}$ is the left singular vector and $\boldsymbol{v}$ is the right singular vector associated to the singular value $\sigma$.

Note that if $(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$ is a pair of vectors associated to $\sigma$, then $(a \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{a v})$ is also a pair of vectors associated with $\sigma$ for every $a \in \mathbb{C}$.

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ and let $A=U D V^{H}$, where $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$, $D=\operatorname{diag}\left(\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}, 0, \ldots, 0\right) \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ and $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$.
Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
A \boldsymbol{v}_{j}= & U D V^{H} \boldsymbol{v}_{j}=U D \boldsymbol{e}_{j} \\
& \text { (because } V \text { is a unitary matrix) } \\
= & \sigma_{j} U \boldsymbol{e}_{j}=\sigma_{j} \boldsymbol{u}_{j}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
A^{H} \boldsymbol{u}_{j}= & V D^{H} U^{H} \boldsymbol{u}_{j}=V D U^{H} \boldsymbol{u}_{j} \\
& V D \boldsymbol{e}_{j} \\
& \text { (because } U \text { is a unitary matrix) } \\
= & \sigma_{j} V \boldsymbol{e}_{j}=\sigma_{j} \boldsymbol{v}_{j} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the $j^{\text {th }}$ column of the matrix $U, \boldsymbol{u}_{j}$ and the $j^{\text {th }}$ column of the matrix $V, \boldsymbol{v}_{j}$ are left and right singular vectors, respectively, assoched to the singular value $\sigma_{j}$.

## Corollary

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ be a matrix and let $A=U D V^{H}$ be the singular value decomposition of $A$. If $\|\cdot\|$ is a unitarily invariant norm, then

$$
\|A\|=\|D\|=\left\|\operatorname{diag}\left(\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}, 0, \ldots, 0\right)\right\|
$$

## Proof.

This statement follows from the fact that the matrices $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ and $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ are unitary.

In other words, the value of a unitarily invariant norm of a matrix depends only on its singular values. As we saw, $\|\cdot\|_{2}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{F}$ are unitarily invariant. Therefore, the Frobenius norm can be written as

$$
\|A\|_{F}=\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{r}^{2}}
$$

## Definition

Two matrices $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ are unitarily equivalent (denoted by $A \equiv_{u} B$ ) if there exist two unitary matrices $W_{1}$ and $W_{2}$ such that $A=W_{1}^{H} B W_{2}$. Clearly, if $A \sim_{u} B$, then $A \equiv_{u} B$.

Theorem
Let $A$ and $B$ be two matrices in $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$. If $A$ and $B$ are unitarily equivalent, then they have the same singular values.

## Proof

Suppose that $A \equiv_{\mu} B$, that is, $A=W_{1}^{H} B W_{2}$ for some unitary matrices $W_{1}$ and $W_{2}$. If $A$ has the SVD $A=U^{H} \operatorname{diag}\left(\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}, 0, \ldots, 0\right) V$, then

$$
B=W_{1} A W_{2}^{H}=\left(W_{1} U^{H}\right) \operatorname{diag}\left(\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}, 0, \ldots, 0\right)\left(V W_{2}^{H}\right)
$$

Since $W_{1} U^{H}$ and $V W_{2}^{H}$ are both unitary matrices, it follows that the singular values of $B$.

Let $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathbb{C}^{n}$ be an eigenvector of the matrix $A^{\mathrm{H}} A$ that corresponds to a non-zero, positive eigenvalue $\sigma^{2}$, that is, $A^{\mathrm{H}} A \boldsymbol{v}=\sigma^{2} \boldsymbol{v}$.
Define $\boldsymbol{u}=\frac{1}{\sigma} A \boldsymbol{v}$. We have $A \boldsymbol{v}=\sigma \boldsymbol{u}$. Also,

$$
A^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{u}=A^{\mathrm{H}}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma} A \boldsymbol{v}\right)=\sigma \boldsymbol{v} .
$$

This implies $A A^{H} \boldsymbol{u}=\sigma^{2} \boldsymbol{u}$, so $\boldsymbol{u}$ is an eigenvector of $A A^{H}$ that corresponds to the same eigenvalue $\sigma^{2}$.
Conversely, if $\boldsymbol{u} \in \mathbb{C}^{m}$ is an eigenvector of the matrix $A A^{H}$ that corresponds to a non-zero, positive eigenvalue $\sigma^{2}$, we have $A A^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{u}=\sigma^{2} \boldsymbol{u}$. Thus, if $\boldsymbol{v}=\frac{1}{\sigma} A \boldsymbol{u}$ we have $A \boldsymbol{v}=\sigma \boldsymbol{u}$ and $\boldsymbol{v}$ is an eigenvector of $A^{\mathrm{H}} A$ for the eigenvalue $\sigma^{2}$.

The Courant-Fisher Theorem for eigenvalues allows the formulation of a similar result for singular values.

## Theorem

Let $A$ be a matrix, $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$. If $\sigma_{1} \geqslant \sigma_{2} \geqslant \cdots \geqslant \sigma_{k} \geqslant \cdots$ is the non-increasing sequence of singular values of $A$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sigma_{k}=\min _{\operatorname{dim}(S)=n-k+1} \max \left\{\|A \boldsymbol{x}\|_{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x} \in S \text { and }\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_{2}=1\right\} \\
& \sigma_{k}=\max _{\operatorname{dim}(T)=k} \min \left\{\|A \boldsymbol{x}\|_{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x} \in T \text { and }\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_{2}=1\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $S$ and $T$ range over subspaces of $\mathbb{C}^{n}$.

## Proof

We give the argument only for the second equality of the theorem; the first can be shown in a similar manner.
We saw that $\sigma_{k}$ equals the $k^{\text {th }}$ largest absolute value of the eigenvalue $\left|\lambda_{k}\right|$ of the matrix $A^{\mathrm{H}} A$. By Courant-Fisher Theorem, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda_{k} & =\max _{\operatorname{dim}(T)=k} \min _{\boldsymbol{x}}\left\{\boldsymbol{x}^{H} A^{H} A \boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{x} \in T \text { and }\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_{2}=1\right\} \\
& =\max _{\operatorname{dim}(T)=k} \min _{\boldsymbol{x}}\left\{\|A \boldsymbol{x}\|_{2}^{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x} \in T \text { and }\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_{2}=1\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies the second equality of the theorem.

## Theorem

Let $A$ be a matrix, $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$. If $\sigma_{1} \geqslant \sigma_{2} \geqslant \cdots \geqslant \sigma_{k} \geqslant \cdots$ is the non-increasing sequence of singular values of $A$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{k} & =\min _{\boldsymbol{w}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{w}_{k-1}} \max \left\{\|A \boldsymbol{x}\|_{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x} \perp \boldsymbol{w}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x} \perp \boldsymbol{w}_{k-1} \text { and }\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_{2}=1\right\} \\
& =\max _{\boldsymbol{w}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{w}_{n-k}} \min \left\{\|A \boldsymbol{x}\|_{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x} \perp \boldsymbol{w}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x} \perp \boldsymbol{w}_{n-k} \text { and }\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_{2}=1\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Corollary

The smallest singular value of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ equals

$$
\min \left\{\|A \boldsymbol{x}\|_{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{C}^{n} \text { and }\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_{2}=1\right\}
$$

The largest singular value of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ equals

$$
\max \left\{\|A \boldsymbol{x}\|_{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{C}^{n} \text { and }\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_{2}=1\right\}
$$

The SVD theorem can also be proven by induction on $q=\min \{m, n\}$. In the base case, $q=1$, we have $A \in \mathbb{C}^{1 \times 1}$, or $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times 1}$, or $A \in \mathbb{C}^{1 \times n}$. Suppose, for example, that $A=\boldsymbol{a} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times 1}$, where

$$
\boldsymbol{a}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
a_{1} \\
\vdots \\
a_{m}
\end{array}\right)
$$

and let $a=\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{2}$. We seek $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}, V=(v) \in \mathbb{C}^{1 \times 1}$ such that

$$
\boldsymbol{a}=U D v
$$

where $D \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times 1}$ is

$$
D=\left(\begin{array}{c}
a \\
0 \\
\vdots \\
0
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times 1}
$$

The role of the matrix $U$ is played by any unitary matrix which has the first column equal to

$$
\left(\begin{array}{c}
\frac{a_{1}}{a} \\
\frac{a_{2}}{a} \\
\vdots \\
\frac{a_{n}}{a}
\end{array}\right)
$$

and we can adopt $v=1$. The remaining base subcases can be treated in a similar manner.

Suppose now that the statement holds when at least one of the numbers $m$ and $n$ is less than $q$ and let us prove the assertion when at least one of $m$ and $n$ is less than $q+1$.
Let $\boldsymbol{u}_{1}$ be a unit eigenvector of $A A^{H}$ that corresponds to the eigenvalue $\sigma_{1}^{2}$. We have:

$$
A A^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}=\sigma_{1}^{2} \boldsymbol{u}
$$

Define $\boldsymbol{v}_{1}=\frac{1}{\sigma_{1}} A^{H} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}$. Note that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\boldsymbol{v}_{1}\right\|^{2} & =\boldsymbol{v}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{v}_{1}=\frac{1}{\sigma_{1}^{2}} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A A^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{u}_{1} \\
& =\boldsymbol{u}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}=\left\|\boldsymbol{u}_{1}\right\|^{2}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

Also, we have:

$$
A \boldsymbol{v}_{1}=\frac{1}{\sigma_{1}} A A^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}=\sigma_{1} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}
$$

which shows that $\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{1}, \boldsymbol{u}_{1}\right)$ is a pair of singular vectors corresponding to the singular value $\sigma_{1}$.
We have also

$$
\boldsymbol{u}_{1}^{H} A^{H} \boldsymbol{v}_{1}=\frac{1}{\sigma_{1}} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A A^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}=\sigma_{1} .
$$

Define $U=\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{1} U_{1}\right)$ and $V=\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{1} V_{1}\right)$ as unitary matrices having $\boldsymbol{u}_{1}$ and $\boldsymbol{v}_{1}$ as their first columns, respectively. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
U^{\mathrm{H}} A^{\mathrm{H}} V & =\binom{\boldsymbol{u}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}}}{U_{1}^{\mathrm{H}}} A^{\mathrm{H}}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\boldsymbol{v}_{1} & V_{1}
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\binom{\boldsymbol{u}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A^{\mathrm{H}}}{U_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A^{\mathrm{H}}}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\boldsymbol{v}_{1} & V_{1}
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\boldsymbol{u}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{v}_{1} & \boldsymbol{u}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{1} \\
U_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A \boldsymbol{v}_{1} & U_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} A V_{1}
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $U$ is a unitary matrix every column of $U_{1}$ is orthogonal to $\boldsymbol{u}_{1}$. Therefore,

$$
U_{1}^{H} A \boldsymbol{v}_{1}=\frac{1}{\sigma_{1}} U_{1}^{H} A A^{H} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}=\sigma_{1} U_{1}^{H} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}=\mathbf{0}
$$

and, similarly,

$$
\boldsymbol{u}_{1}^{H} A^{H} V_{1}=\sigma_{1} \boldsymbol{v}_{1}^{H} V_{1}=\mathbf{0}^{\prime},
$$

because $\boldsymbol{v}_{1}$ is orthogonal on all columns of $V_{1}$. Thus,

$$
U^{H} A V=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\sigma_{1} & 0^{\prime} \\
0 & U_{1}^{H} A V_{1}
\end{array}\right)
$$

The matrix $U_{1}^{H} A V_{1}$ has fewer rows and columns than $U^{H} A V$, so we can apply the inductive hypothesis to $B=U_{1}^{H} A V_{1}$. Therefore, by the inductive hypothesis, $B$ can be written as $B=X D Y^{H}$, where $X$ and $Y$ are unitary matrices and $D$ is a diagonal matrix.

This allows us to write

$$
U^{H} A V=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\sigma_{1} & 0^{\prime} \\
0 & X D Y^{H}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0^{\prime} \\
0 & X
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\sigma_{1} & 0^{\prime} \\
0 & D
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & Y^{H}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Since the matrices

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0^{\prime} \\
0 & X
\end{array}\right) \text { and }\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & Y^{H}
\end{array}\right)
$$

are unitary, we obtain the desired conclusion.

If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is an invertible matrix and $\sigma$ is a singular value of $A$, then $\frac{1}{\sigma}$ is a singular value of the matrix $A^{-1}$.

## Reminder

Let

$$
\boldsymbol{a}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
a_{1} \\
\vdots \\
a_{n}
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{C}^{n}-\{\mathbf{0}\} .
$$

Recall that the matrix $\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{a}^{H}$ has the same non-zero eigenvalues as the matrix $\boldsymbol{a}^{\boldsymbol{H}} \boldsymbol{a}$. Since

$$
\boldsymbol{a}^{H} \boldsymbol{a}=\bar{a}_{1} a_{1}+\cdots+\bar{a}_{n} a_{n} \in \mathbb{C}
$$

is a scalar, its unique eigenvalue is $\left|a_{1}\right|^{2}+\cdots+\left|a_{n}\right|^{2}=\|\boldsymbol{a}\|^{2}$, hence the matrix $\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{a}^{H}$ has a unique eigenvalue is $\|\boldsymbol{a}\|^{2}$.

## Example

Let

$$
\boldsymbol{a}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
a_{1} \\
\vdots \\
a_{n}
\end{array}\right)
$$

be a non-zero vector is $\mathbb{C}^{n}$, which can also be regarded as a matrix in $\mathbb{C}^{n \times 1}$. The square of a singular value of $A$ is an eigenvalue of the matrix

$$
\boldsymbol{a}^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{a}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\bar{a}_{1} a_{1} & \cdots & \bar{a}_{n} a_{1} \\
\bar{a}_{1} a_{2} & \cdots & \bar{a}_{n} a_{2} \\
\vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\
\bar{a}_{1} a_{n} & \cdots & \bar{a}_{n} a_{n}
\end{array}\right)
$$

and we have seen that the unique non-zero eigenvalue of this matrix is $\|a\|_{2}^{2}$. Thus, the unique singular value of $\boldsymbol{a}$ is $\|a\|_{2}$.

## Example

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 2}$ be the matrix

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

The matrices $A A^{\mathrm{H}}$ and $A^{\mathrm{H}} A$ are given by:

$$
A A^{H}=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 2 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right) \text { and } A^{H} A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 & 1 \\
1 & 2
\end{array}\right)
$$

The eigenvalues of $A^{\mathrm{H}} A$ are the roots of the polynomial $\lambda^{2}-4 \lambda+3$, and therefore, they are $\lambda_{1}=3$ and $\lambda_{2}=1$. The eigenvalues of $A A^{\mathrm{H}}$ are 3,1 and 0 .

## Example

Unit eigenvectors of $A^{H} A$ that correspond to 3 and 1 are

$$
\boldsymbol{v}_{1}=\alpha_{1}\binom{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}} \text { and } \boldsymbol{v}_{2}=\alpha_{2}\binom{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}{-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}},
$$

respectively, where $\alpha_{i} \in\{-1,1\}$ for $i=1,2$.

## Example

Unit eigenvectors of $A A^{H}$ that correspond to 3,1 and 0 are:

$$
\boldsymbol{u}_{1}=\beta_{1}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} \\
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} \\
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{6}
\end{array}\right), \boldsymbol{u}_{2}=\beta_{2}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\
0 \\
-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}
\end{array}\right), \boldsymbol{u}_{3}=\beta_{3}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\
-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\
\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}
\end{array}\right),
$$

respectively, where $\beta_{i} \in\{-1,1\}$ for $i=1,2,3$.

## Example

The choice of the columns of the matrices $U$ and $V$ must be done such that for a pair of eigenvectors $(u, v)$ that correspond to a singular values $\sigma$ we have $\boldsymbol{v}=\frac{1}{\sigma} A^{H} \boldsymbol{u}$ or, equivalently, $\boldsymbol{u}=\frac{1}{\sigma} A \boldsymbol{v}$. For instance, if we choose $\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}=1$, then

$$
\boldsymbol{v}_{1}=\binom{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}, \boldsymbol{v}_{2}=\binom{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}{-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}},
$$

$\boldsymbol{u}_{1}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} A \boldsymbol{v}_{1}$ and $\boldsymbol{u}_{2}=A \boldsymbol{v}_{2}$, that is,

$$
\boldsymbol{u}_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} \\
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} \\
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{6}
\end{array}\right), \boldsymbol{u}_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\
0 \\
\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

which means that $\beta_{1}=1$ and $\beta_{2}=-1$; the value of $\beta_{3}$ that corresponds to the eigenvalue of 0 can be chosen arbitrarily.

## Example

Thus, an SVD of $A$ is:

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} & 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\sqrt{3} & 0 \\
0 & 1 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\
\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

A variant of the SVD Decomposition Theorem is given next.

## Corollary

(The Thin SVD Decomposition Corollary) Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ be a matrix having non-zero singular values $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}$, where $\sigma_{1} \geqslant \sigma_{2} \geqslant \cdots \geqslant \sigma_{r}>0$ and $r \leqslant \min \{m, n\}$. Then, $A$ can be factored as $A=U D V^{H}$, where $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times r}$ and $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times r}$ are matrices having orthonormal sets of columns and $D$ is the diagonal matrix

$$
D=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
\sigma_{1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & \sigma_{2} & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_{r}
\end{array}\right)
$$

## Proof.

The statement is an immediate consequence of the theorem.

The decomposition described above is known as a thin SVD decomposition of the matrix $A$.

## Example

The thin SVD decomposition of the matrix $A$

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

is

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} & 0 \\
\frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\sqrt{3} & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\
\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Since $U$ and $V$ in the thin SVD have orthonormal columns it is easy to see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{H} U=V^{H} V=I_{p} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Lemma

Let $D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a diagonal matrix, where $D=\operatorname{diag}\left(\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r}\right)$ and $\sigma_{1} \geqslant \cdots \geqslant \sigma_{r}$. Then, we have $\|D\|_{2}=\sigma_{1}$, and $\|D\|_{F}=\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i}^{2}}$.

## Proof.

By the definition of $\|D\|_{2}$ we have:
$\|D\|_{2}=\max \left\{\|D \boldsymbol{x}\|_{2} \mid\|\boldsymbol{x}\|=1\right\}=\max \left\{\left.\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i}^{2}\left|x_{i}\right|^{2}}\left|\sum_{i=1}^{n}\right| x_{i}\right|^{2}=1\right\}$.
Since $\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|x_{i}\right|^{2}=1$, we have: $\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i}^{2}\left|x_{i}\right|^{2} \leqslant \sigma_{1}^{2}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{r}\left|x_{i}\right|^{2}\right) \leqslant \sigma_{1}^{2}$. It follows that

$$
\max \left\{\left.\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i}^{2}\left|x_{i}\right|^{2}}\left|\sum_{i=1}^{n}\right| x_{i}\right|^{2}=1\right\}=\sigma_{1} .
$$

The second part is immediate.

## Theorem

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ be a matrix whose singular values are $\sigma_{1} \geqslant \cdots \geqslant \sigma_{r}$. Then $\|A\|_{2}=\sigma_{1}$, and $\|A\|_{F}=\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i}^{2}}$.

## Proof.

Suppose that the SVD of $A$ is $A=U D V^{\mathrm{H}}$, where $U$ and $V$ are unitary matrices. Then, by previous results, we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|A\|_{2} & =\left\|U D V^{H}\right\|_{2}=\|D\|_{2}=\sigma_{1} \\
\|A\|_{F} & =\left\|U D V^{H}\right\|_{F}=\|D\|_{F}=\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i}^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Corollary

If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is a matrix, then $\|A\|_{2} \leqslant\|A\|_{F} \leqslant \sqrt{n}\|A\|_{2}$.

## Proof.

Suppose that $\sigma_{1}(A)$ is the largest of the singular values of $A$. Then, since $\|A\|_{F}=\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i}^{2}}$, we have

$$
\sigma_{1}(A) \leqslant\|A\|_{F} \leqslant \sqrt{n \max _{i} \sigma_{j}(A)^{2}}=\sigma_{1}(A) \sqrt{n},
$$

which is desired double inequality.

## Theorem

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be an invertible matrix. If the singular values of $A$ are $\sigma_{1} \geqslant \cdots \geqslant \sigma_{n}>0$, then

$$
\operatorname{cond}(A)=\frac{\sigma_{1}}{\sigma_{n}} .
$$

## Proof.

We have shown that $\|A\|_{2}=\sigma_{1}$. Since the singular values of $A^{-1}$ are

$$
\frac{1}{\sigma_{n}} \geqslant \cdots \geqslant \frac{1}{\sigma_{1}}
$$

it follows that $\left\|A^{-1}\right\|_{2}=\frac{1}{\sigma_{n}}$. The desired equality follows immediately.

## Corollary

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be an invertible matrix. We have $\operatorname{cond}\left(A^{H} A\right)=(\operatorname{cond}(A))^{2}$.

## Proof.

Let $\sigma$ be a singular value of $A$ and let $\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}$ be two left and right singular vectors corresponding to $\sigma$, respectively. We have

$$
A \boldsymbol{v}=\sigma \boldsymbol{u} \text { and } A^{H} \boldsymbol{u}=\sigma \boldsymbol{v} .
$$

This implies $A^{H} A \boldsymbol{v}=\sigma A^{H} \boldsymbol{u}=\sigma^{2} \boldsymbol{v}$, which shows that the singular values of the matrix $A^{\mathrm{H}} A$ are the squares of the singular values of $A$, which produces the desired conclusion.

Let $A=U D V^{H}$ be an SVD of $A$. If we write $U$ and $V$ using their columns as $U=\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{1} \cdots \boldsymbol{u}_{m}\right)$ and $V=\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{1} \cdots \boldsymbol{v}_{n}\right)$, then $A$ can be written as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
A & =U D V^{H} \\
& =\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{1} \cdots \boldsymbol{u}_{n}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
\sigma_{1} & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & \sigma_{2} & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \cdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_{r} & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \cdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}
\boldsymbol{v}_{1}^{H} \\
\vdots \\
\boldsymbol{v}_{m}^{\mathrm{H}}
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{1} \cdots \boldsymbol{u}_{m}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}
\sigma_{1} \boldsymbol{v}_{1}^{H} \\
\vdots \\
\sigma_{r} \boldsymbol{v}_{p}^{H}
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\sigma_{1} \boldsymbol{u}_{1} \boldsymbol{v}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}}+\cdots+\sigma_{r} \boldsymbol{u}_{r} \boldsymbol{v}_{p}^{\mathrm{H}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\boldsymbol{u}_{i} \in \mathbb{C}^{m}$ and $\boldsymbol{v}_{i} \in \mathbb{C}^{n}$, each of the matrices $\boldsymbol{u}_{i} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}^{\mathrm{H}}$ is a $m \times n$ matrix of rank 1 . Thus, the SVD yields an expression of $A$ as a sum of $r$ matrices of rank 1 , where $r$ is the number of non-zero singular values of $A$.

## Theorem

The rank-1 matrices of the form $\boldsymbol{u}_{i} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}^{H}$, where $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$ are pairwise orthogonal. Moreover, $\left\|\boldsymbol{u}_{i} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}^{H}\right\|_{F}=1$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$.

## Proof.

For $i \neq j$ and $1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant r$ we have:

$$
\operatorname{trace}\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{i} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}^{\mathrm{H}}\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{j} \boldsymbol{v}_{j}^{\mathrm{H}}\right)^{\mathrm{H}}\right)=\operatorname{trace}\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{i} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{v}_{j} \boldsymbol{u}_{j}\right)=0,
$$

because the vectors $\boldsymbol{v}_{i}$ and $\boldsymbol{v}_{j}$ are orthogonal. Thus, $\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{i} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}^{\mathrm{H}}, \boldsymbol{u}_{j} \boldsymbol{v}_{j}^{\mathrm{H}}\right)=0$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\boldsymbol{u}_{i} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}^{\mathrm{H}}\right\|_{F}^{2} & =\operatorname{trace}\left(\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{i} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}^{\mathrm{H}}\right)^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{u}_{i} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}^{\mathrm{H}}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{trace}\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{i} \boldsymbol{u}_{i}^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{u}_{i} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}^{\mathrm{H}}\right)=1
\end{aligned}
$$

because the matrices $U$ and $V$ are unitary.

## Theorem

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ be a matrix that has the singular value decomposition $A=U D V^{H}$. If $\operatorname{rank}(A)=r$, then the first $r$ columns of $U$ form an orthonormal basis for range $(A)$, and the last $n-r$ columns of $V$ constitute an orthonormal basis for null(A).

## Proof

Since both $U$ and $V$ are unitary matrices, it is clear that $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_{r}\right\}$, the set of the first $r$ columns of $U$, and $\left\{\boldsymbol{v}_{r+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{n}\right\}$, the set of the last $n-r$ columns of $V$, are linearly independent sets. Thus, we only need to show that $\left\langle\boldsymbol{u}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_{r}\right\rangle=\operatorname{range}(A)$ and $\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{r+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{n}\right\rangle=\operatorname{null}(A)$.
We have

$$
A=\sigma_{1} \boldsymbol{u}_{1} \boldsymbol{v}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}}+\cdots+\sigma_{r} \boldsymbol{u}_{r} \boldsymbol{v}_{r}^{\mathrm{H}} .
$$

If $\boldsymbol{t} \in \operatorname{range}(A)$, then $\boldsymbol{t}=A \boldsymbol{s}$ for some $\boldsymbol{s} \in \mathbb{C}^{n}$. Therefore, $\boldsymbol{t}=\sigma_{1} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{s}\right)+\cdots+\sigma_{r} \boldsymbol{u}_{r}\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{r}^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{s}\right)$, and, since the every product $\boldsymbol{v}_{j}^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{s}$ is a scalar for $1 \leqslant j \leqslant r$, it follows that $\boldsymbol{t} \in\left\langle\boldsymbol{u}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_{r}\right\rangle$, so $\operatorname{range}(A) \subseteq\left\langle\boldsymbol{u}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_{r}\right\rangle$.

## Proof cont'd

To prove the reverse inclusion note that

$$
A\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_{i}} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}\right)=\boldsymbol{u}_{i}
$$

for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, due to the orthogonality of the columns of $V$. Thus, $\left\langle\boldsymbol{u}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_{r}\right\rangle=\operatorname{range}(A)$.
Thus, $A \boldsymbol{v}_{j}=0$ for $r+1 \leqslant j \leqslant n$, so $\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{r+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{n}\right\rangle \subseteq$ null $(A)$. Conversely, suppose that $A \boldsymbol{r}=\mathbf{0}$. Since the columns of $V$ form a basis of $\mathbb{C}^{n}$ we have $\boldsymbol{r}=a_{1} \boldsymbol{v}_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} \boldsymbol{v}_{n}$, so $A \boldsymbol{r}=a_{1} A \boldsymbol{v}_{1}+\cdots+a_{r} \boldsymbol{v}_{r}=\mathbf{0}$. The linear independence of $\left\{\boldsymbol{v}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{r}\right\}$ implies $a_{1}=\cdots=a_{r}=0$, so $\boldsymbol{r}=a_{r+1} \boldsymbol{v}_{r+1}+\cdots+a_{n} \boldsymbol{v}_{n}$, which shows that null $(A) \subseteq\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{r+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{n}\right\rangle$. Thus, $\operatorname{null}(A)=\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{r+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{n}\right\rangle$.

## Corollary

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ be a matrix that has the singular value decomposition $A=U D V^{H}$. If $\operatorname{rank}(A)=r$, then the first $r$ transposed columns of $V$ form an orthonormal basis for the subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ generated by the rows of $A$.

## Proof.

This statement follows immediately from the previous theorem applied to $A^{\mathrm{H}}$.

The singular value decomposition of a matrix can be computed in MATLAB using the function svd. To illustrate its use in the simplest form consider the matrix

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{1}{3} & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{5}{3} \\
\frac{11}{5} & \frac{4}{5} & 3 \\
\frac{1}{7} & \frac{4}{7} & \frac{5}{7} \\
\frac{1}{9} & \frac{4}{9} & \frac{5}{9}
\end{array}\right),
$$

defined in MATLAB by
$A=[1 / 34 / 35 / 3 ; 11 / 54 / 53$; $1 / 74 / 75 / 7$; 1/9 4/9 5/9]
A call the svd(A) function yields a vector containing the singular values of $A$, as in

```
>> svd(A)
ans =
    4.3674
    1.2034
    0 . 0 0 0 0
```

It is interesting to note that $\operatorname{rank}(A)=2$ since the last column of $A$ is the sum of the first two columns. Thus, we would expect to see two non-zero singular values.
To compute $\|A\|_{2}$, which equals the largest singular value of $A$ we can use $\max (\operatorname{svd}(\mathrm{A}))$.

Another variant of the svd function, $[\mathrm{U}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{V}]=\operatorname{svd}(\mathrm{A})$ yields a diagonal matrix $S$, of the same format as $A$ and with nonnegative diagonal elements in decreasing order, and unitary matrices $U$ and $V$ so that $A=U S V^{H}$. For the matrix $A$ shown above we obtain:

## Example

```
>> [U,S,V] = svd(A)
U =
\begin{tabular}{rrrr}
-0.4487 & 0.7557 & 0.4769 & 0.0161 \\
-0.8599 & -0.5105 & 0.0000 & -0.0000 \\
-0.1923 & 0.3239 & -0.6726 & -0.6370 \\
-0.1496 & 0.2519 & -0.5658 & 0.7707
\end{tabular}
S =
    4.3674
        0 1.2034
        0 0.0000
        0 0
V =
\begin{tabular}{rrr}
-0.4775 & -0.6623 & 0.5774 \\
-0.3349 & 0.7447 & 0.5774 \\
-0.8123 & 0.0823 & -0.5774
\end{tabular}
```

The "economical form" of the svd function is
[U,S,V] = svd(A,'econ')
If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $m>n$, only the first $n$ columns of $U$ are computed and $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. If $m<n$ only the first $m$ columns of $V$ are computed.

## Example

Starting from the matrix

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
18 & 8 & 20 \\
-4 & 20 & 1 \\
25 & 8 & 27 \\
9 & 4 & 10
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 3}
$$

a call the economical variant of the svd function yields

## Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { >> }[\mathrm{U}, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{~V}]=\operatorname{svd}(\mathrm{A}, \text { 'econ') } \\
& \mathrm{U}= \\
& \mathrm{S}=
\end{aligned}
$$

The function svapprox given below computes the successive approximations $B(k)=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sigma_{i} \boldsymbol{u}_{i} \boldsymbol{v}_{i}^{H}$ of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ having the SVD $A=U D V^{H}$ and produces a three-dimensional array $C \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n \times r}$, where $r$ is the numerical rank of $A$ and $C(:,:, k)=B(k)$ for $1 \leqslant k \leqslant r$.

```
function [C] = svapprox(A)
```

\%SVAPPROX computes the successive approximations
$\% \quad$ of A using the singular component decomposition.
$\% \quad$ The number of approximations equals the
\%
numerical rank of A .
\% determine the format of A and its numerical rank
[m, n] $=\operatorname{size}(\mathrm{A})$;
$r=\operatorname{rank}\left(A, 10^{\wedge}(-5)\right)$;
\% compute the SVD of A
[U,D,V] = svd(A);
$\mathrm{C}=\operatorname{zeros}(\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r})$;
$C(:,:, 1)=D(1,1) * U(:, 1) *(V(:, 1)) ' ;$
for $k=2: r$
$\mathrm{C}(:,:, \mathrm{k})=\mathrm{D}(\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{k}) * \mathrm{U}(:, \mathrm{k}) *(\mathrm{~V}(:, \mathrm{k}))^{\prime}+\mathrm{C}(:,:, \mathrm{k}-1) ;$
end;

In the next figure we have an image of the digit 4 created from a pgm file that contains the representation of this digit.
The numerical rank of the matrix $A$ introduced in the example mentioned above is 8 . Therefore, the array $C$ computed by $C=\operatorname{svapprox}(A)$ consists of 8 matrices. To represent these matrices in the pgm format we cast the components of $C$ to integers of the type uint8 using $\mathrm{D}=\min \left(16\right.$, uint8(C)). Thus, $D(:,:, j)$ contains the rounded $j^{\text {th }}$ approximation of $A$.

The images for the first four approximations are represented next:

(a)
(b)
(c)
(d)

Successive Approximations of $A$.

Note that the digit four is easily recognizable beginning with the second approximation.

