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On the Early History of the Singular Value Decomposition

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The five mathematicians behind the theory of the SVD

- Eugenio Beltrami (1835-1899)
- Camille Jordan (1838-1921)
- James Joseph Sylvester (1814-1897)
- Erhard Schmidt (1876-1959)
- Hermann Weyl (1885-1955)



Different areas:

“Linear algebra”:

- Beltrami
- Jordan
- Sylvester

Integral equations:

- Schmidt
- Weyl

They all considered the decomposition of real, square matrices. This is implied in the remainder of the lecture.



Some Prerequisites

The Frobenius norm of a matrix ($\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$):

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}^2} = \sqrt{\text{trace}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2}$$

The Frobenius norm of a vector ($\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$):

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}}$$

(NB: This is equal to the Euclidian norm of a vector.)

Orthogonal matrix:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}_n$$

The rows and columns of \mathbf{A} are two orthonormal bases for \mathbb{R}^n .



The Singular Value Decomposition

Assume: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$

Its *singular value decomposition (SVD)* is given as:

$$A = U\Sigma V^T = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T$$

Matrix Properties:

$$U \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}, V \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$$

$$U^T U = V^T V = I$$

(i.e. U and V are orthogonal matrices)

$$\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n), \sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$$

(i.e. Σ is a diagonal matrix)

Matrix interpretation:

U contains the eigenvectors of (the symmetric matrix) AA^T .

V contains the eigenvectors of (the symmetric matrix) $A^T A$.

σ_i is the square root of the eigenvalue associated with the eigenvectors \mathbf{u}_i and \mathbf{v}_i .



Eugenio Beltrami

- Author of the first publication concerning the SVD.
- Wanted it to encourage students to become familiar with bilinear forms.
- His derivation is somewhat restricted.

Goal: Reducing the bilinear form:

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y} = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i a_{ij} y_j$$

to a canonical form:

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \boldsymbol{\xi}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} = \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \sigma_i \eta_i$$



Beltrami's derivation of the SVD

The bilinear form:

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$$

Substitutions:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\xi}$$

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{V} \boldsymbol{\eta}$$

Rewrite:

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \boldsymbol{\xi}^T \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{V} \boldsymbol{\eta}$$

Substitution:

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{V}$$

Rewrite:

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \boldsymbol{\xi}^T \mathbf{S} \boldsymbol{\eta}$$



U and V are required to be orthogonal. This gives us $n^2 - n$ degrees of freedom in their choice.

Why? An orthogonal matrix A can be interpreted as a solution to the n^2 equations given by $AA^T = I$, of which only $\frac{n^2 - n}{2}$ are independent. We need a pair of orthogonal matrices, meaning twice the degrees of freedom. Use these degrees of freedom to annihilate off-diagonal elements of S , creating the diagonal matrix $S = \Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$.



U and V, being orthogonal, yield:

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

and also:

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

We multiply both sides by A^T in both equations:

$$(U^T A) A^T = (\Sigma V^T) A^T = \Sigma (A V)^T = \Sigma (U \Sigma)^T = \Sigma^2 U^T$$

$$A^T (A V) = A^T (U \Sigma) = (U^T A)^T \Sigma = (\Sigma V^T)^T \Sigma = V \Sigma^2$$



This means that the diagonal elements of Σ are the roots of the equations:

$$\det(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T - \sigma^2\mathbf{I}) = 0$$

$$\det(\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A} - \sigma^2\mathbf{I}) = 0$$

because they are the square roots of the eigenvalues associated with the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$ and $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}$ respectively.

Assuming that $\sigma_i \neq 0$ and $\sigma_i \neq \sigma_j, i \neq j$, Beltrami argues that these two functions are identical, because:

- $\det(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T - \sigma_i^2\mathbf{I}) = \det(\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A} - \sigma_i^2\mathbf{I}), i = 1, 2, \dots, n$
- setting $\sigma = 0$ results in the common value
 $\det(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T) = \det(\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}) = \det^2(\mathbf{A})$



Beltrami states that the beforementioned roots are both real and positive. The latter is shown by:

$$0 < \left\| \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \right\|_F^2 = \mathbf{x}^T (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T) \mathbf{x} = \boldsymbol{\xi}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^2 \boldsymbol{\xi}$$

The matrix $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T$ is clearly positive definite, meaning all its eigenvalues are positive. This argument (i.e. the inequality) is only valid when \mathbf{A} is nonsingular (and we assume $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$).

Note: In this equation, Beltrami assumes that the vector $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ exists, although he has yet to prove this.



Beltrami's Algorithm

1. Find the roots σ_i of the beforementioned equation.
2. Find the vectors \mathbf{u}_i , for instance by solving $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T - \sigma_i^2) \mathbf{u}_i = \mathbf{c} \forall \sigma_i$.
3. Find \mathbf{V} through: $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{U} \Sigma^{-1}$



Summary, Beltrami's contribution

- Derived the SVD for a real, square, nonsingular matrix with distinct eigenvalues.
- His derivation cannot handle degeneracies.
- Intentional simplification to make the derivation more accessible to students?
- Unintentional simplification from not having thought the problem through?



Camille Jordan

- Discovered the SVD a year after Beltrami, though independently.
- The SVD was “the simplest of three problems discussed in a paper”.
- Presented as a way of reducing a bilinear form to a diagonal form by orthogonal substitutions.



Jordan's Contribution

Starts with the form:

$$P = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}$$

and seeks the maximum and minimum of P subject to:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{y}\|_F^2 = 1$$

The maximum is given by:

$$dP = d\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} d\mathbf{y} = 0$$

which must be satisfied for all:

$$d\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} = 0, d\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} = 0$$



A somewhat unclear argument from Jordan (possibly) states that $\exists \sigma, \tau$ such that the maximum can be expressed by the restrictions, resulting in the equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} &= \sigma \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} &= \tau \mathbf{y}^T \end{aligned}$$

This implies that the maximum is:

$$\mathbf{x}^T (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}) = \sigma \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} = \sigma$$

but also

$$(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{y} = \tau \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} = \tau$$

i.e. $\sigma = \tau$.



The maximum is then the value of σ where the determinant of the combined systems vanishes:

$$D = \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} -\sigma \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{A}^T & -\sigma \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \right)$$



The canonical form is now found by deflation. This means that the problem is reduced to finding one set of coefficients at a time. Assume we have two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} that satisfy the equations for the largest root σ_1 . By making the following substitutions:

$$\hat{\mathbf{U}} \triangleq [\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{U}_*], \hat{\mathbf{V}} \triangleq [\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{V}_*], \hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\mathbf{U}}^T = \hat{\mathbf{V}}\hat{\mathbf{V}}^T = \mathbf{I}$$
$$\mathbf{x} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{y} = \hat{\mathbf{V}}\hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

we get the modified function:

$$P = \hat{\mathbf{x}}^T \hat{\mathbf{A}} \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

This is clearly maximized by selecting $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{e}_1$, because this means that $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{v}$, and we already know these are solutions. This again implies that:

$$\hat{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{A}_1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{A}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1, n-1}$$



By setting $\xi_1 = \hat{x}_1$ and $\eta_1 = \hat{y}_1$, we get:

$$P = \sigma_1 \xi_1 \eta_1 + P_1$$

The last term is now a new bilinear form that can be maximized for the next root, σ_2 in a similar way. By performing this iteration, we end up with the diagonalized (canonical) form:

$$P = \xi^T \Sigma \eta = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i \xi_i \eta_i$$



Summary, Jordan's Contribution

1. Elegant solution that does not suffer under the same problems as Beltrami's.
2. This is avoided through the use of deflation, a technique that was not widely recognized.



Sylvester's Contribution

Begins with the bilinear form:

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}$$

Consider the quadratic form:

$$M = \sum_i \left(\frac{dB}{dy_i} \right)^2 = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Assume canonical forms:

$$M = \sum_i \lambda_i \xi_i^2, B = \sum_i \sigma_i \xi_i \eta_i \Rightarrow \lambda_i = \sigma_i^2$$

We have that $\sum (\sigma_i \xi)^2$ is orthogonally equivalent to M , implying that $\lambda_i = \sigma_i^2$



Definitions: $M \triangleq AA^T$, $N \triangleq A^T A$

Sylvester states that the substitutions for \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are those who diagonalize \mathbf{m} and \mathbf{n} , respectively.

(This is in reality only true if all singular values of \mathbf{A} are distinct.)

Finding the coefficients of the \mathbf{x} - and \mathbf{y} -substitutions:

$$\mathbf{X} \triangleq \mathbf{M} - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}, \boldsymbol{\xi} = [M(X)_{i1} \dots M(X)_{in}]^T, \|\boldsymbol{\xi}\|_F^2 = 1$$

$$\mathbf{Y} \triangleq \mathbf{N} - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}, \boldsymbol{\eta} = [M(Y)_{i1} \dots M(Y)_{in}]^T, \|\boldsymbol{\eta}\|_F^2 = 1$$

This is done for all σ .

NB: This only works when σ is simple.



Infinitesimal Iteration: The Problem

Assume: A problem of order $n - 1$ can be (and is) solved. This gives us a problem of order n (example for $n = 3$), and we can assume a substitution for \mathbf{x} :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & f \\ 0 & b & g \\ f & g & c \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \epsilon & \eta \\ -\epsilon & 1 & \theta \\ -\eta & -\theta & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xi$$

Perform the transformation:

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

Goal:

- Preserve zeroes: $B_{21} = B_{12} = A_{21} = A_{12} = 0$
- Create zeroes: $f = g = 0$



Infinitesimal Iteration: The Solution

Assume: η, θ, ϵ so small that any order > 1 is approximately zero.

Step 1: Select η and θ such that:

$$\frac{1}{2}\delta(f^2 + g^2) = (a - c)f\eta + (b - c)g\theta < 0$$

Step 2: Select ϵ such that:

$$\epsilon = \frac{f\theta + g\eta}{a - b}$$

(Assuming $a \neq b$.)

Sylvester claims: This process repeated infinitely will force f or g to become zero, or result in a special case where the algorithm does not apply (which can be solved another way).



Summary, Sylvester's contribution

- Sylvester did not know of earlier, similar results by Jordan and Jacobi.
- He ignores second-order terms, possibly intentionally?



Erhard Schmidt

- ... as in “Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization”
- SVD introduced in connection with integral equations with unsymmetric kernels (*not linear algebra*).
- ... or rather the infinite dimension analogue to the SVD.
- **Application:** Used the SVD to obtain optimal, low-rank approximations to an operator.



Schmidt's Contribution

Assume a kernel $A(s, t)$ which is continuous and symmetric on $[a, b] \times [a, b]$. A continuous, nonvanishing function satisfying:

$$\phi(s) = \lambda \int_a^b A(s, t) \phi(t) dt$$

is an *eigenfunction* of $A(s, t)$ corresponding to the eigenvalue λ . (**Note:** this eigenvalue is the inverse of its “ordinary” counterpart.)



Facts:

1. $A(s, t)$ has at least one eigenfunction.
2. All eigenfunctions and eigenvalues are real.
3. An eigenvalue has a finite number of corresponding, linearly independent eigenfunctions.
4. Every eigenfunction of $A(s, t)$ can be expressed as a linear combination of a finite number of members from a set of linearly independent eigenfunctions.

The eigenvalues of $A(s, t)$ satisfy the following inequality:

$$\int_a^b \int_a^b (A(s, t))^2 ds dt \geq \sum_i \frac{1}{\lambda_i^2}$$

i.e. the sequence of eigenvalues is unbounded.



Unsymmetric kernels

Assume $A(s, t)$ to be unsymmetric. A pair of adjoint eigenfunctions is any nonzero pair $u(s)$ and $v(t)$ satisfying:

$$u(s) = \lambda \int_a^b A(s, t) v(t) dt$$

and:

$$v(t) = \lambda \int_a^b A(s, t) u(s) ds$$

where λ is the eigenvalue connected to the pair of eigenfunctions. We can create two symmetric kernels:

$$\overline{A}(s, t) = \int_a^b A(s, r) A(t, r) dr$$

$$\underline{A}(s, t) = \int_a^b A(r, s) A(r, t) dr$$



Assume the eigenfunctions and eigenvalues for $\overline{A}(s, t)$ are those who satisfy:

$$u_i(s) = \lambda_i \int_a^b A(s, t) u_i(t) dt$$

This gives us the eigenfunctions of $\underline{A}(s, t)$ as:

$$v_i(t) = \sqrt{\lambda_i} \int_a^b A(s, t) u_i(s) ds$$

The previously mentioned adjoint pairs of eigenfunctions are $u_i(s), v_i(t), t = 1, 2, \dots$



Expanding functions in series of eigenfunctions

If:

$$g(s) = \int_a^b A(s, t) h(t) dt$$

Then:

$$g(s) = \sum_i \frac{u_i(s)}{\lambda_i} \int_a^b h(t) v_i(t) dt$$



The canonical decomposition of a bilinear form

$$\int_a^b \int_a^b A(s, t) g(s) h(t) ds dt = \sum_i \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \int_a^b g(s) u_i(s) ds \int_a^b h(t) v_i(t) dt$$



The Problem:

The problem is on the form of finding the best approximation of a matrix $A \approx \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^T$, where “best” is defined as satisfying the following minimization:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i, i \in [1, k]} \left\| A - \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^T \right\|_F$$



If the approximation can be written as the sum of the first k components (i.e. column vectors of \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} plus singular values) of its SVD:

$$\mathbf{A}_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T$$

then the norm can be written as:

$$\|\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}_k\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{A}\|_F^2 - \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 = \left\| \sum_{i=k+1}^n \sigma_i^2 \right\|_F$$

because the Frobenius-norm squared is equal to the trace of the quadratic diagonal matrix of singular values (i.e. the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues).
More complete evaluation:



Any other choice of vectors for the approximation will yield:

$$\left\| \mathbf{A} - \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^T \right\|_F \geq \|\mathbf{A}\|_F^2 - \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2$$

which means that our initial approximation was optimal. We can show this. Assume that if the set of vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k$ either is orthogonal to begin with, or can be made orthogonal using the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process...



The norm for this alternative choice of vectors is:

$$\begin{aligned} \left\| \mathbf{A} - \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^T \right\|_F &= \text{trace} \left(\left(\mathbf{A} - \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^T \right)^T \left(\mathbf{A} - \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^T \right) \right) \\ &= \text{trace} \left(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} + \sum_{i=1}^k \left(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{x}_i \right) \left(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{x}_i \right)^T - \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{A} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Where we recognize the first term as $\|\mathbf{A}\|_F$. The second term is clearly nonnegative, meaning we can ignore it for our purpose. The last term can be recognized as a sum over $\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_i\|_F^2$. What we need to show is now that:

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_i\|_F^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2$$



Assuming $\mathbf{V} = [\mathbf{V}_1 \mathbf{V}_2]$, $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\Sigma_1 \Sigma_2)$, we can expand one term of this sum:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_i\|_F^2 &= \sigma_k^2 + \left(\left\| \Sigma_1 \mathbf{V}_1^T \mathbf{x}_i \right\|_F^2 - \sigma_k^2 \left\| \mathbf{V}_1^T \mathbf{x}_i \right\|_F^2 \right) \\ &\quad - \left(\sigma_k^2 \left\| \mathbf{V}_2^T \mathbf{x}_i \right\|_F^2 - \left\| \Sigma_2 \mathbf{V}_2^T \mathbf{x}_i \right\|_F^2 \right) \\ &\quad - \sigma_k^2 \left(1 - \left\| \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}_i \right\|_F \right) \end{aligned}$$



Hermann Weyl

- Developed a general perturbation theory.
- Gave an elegant proof of the approximation theorem.



Lemma:

If $\mathbf{B}_k = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}^T$, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{a,k}$, $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^{b,k} \Rightarrow \text{rank}(\mathbf{B}_k) \leq k$, then:

$$\sigma_1(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}_k) \geq \sigma_{k+1}(\mathbf{A})$$

where $\sigma_i(\cdot)$ means “the i th singular value of its argument”. We know that:

$$\exists \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} y_i \mathbf{v}_i \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}_k$$

where $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1}^{k+1}$ are the first $k+1$ column vectors of the matrix \mathbf{V} from the SVD of \mathbf{A} . We assume that:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_F = 1$$

or equivalently:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} y_i^2 = 1$$



Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_1^2 (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}) &\geq \mathbf{v}^T (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B})^T (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}) \mathbf{v} \\ &= \mathbf{v}^T (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{v} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} y_i^2 \sigma_i^2 \\ &\geq \sigma_{k+1}^2\end{aligned}$$



Two Theorems

Theorem#1:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}' + \mathbf{A}'' \Rightarrow \sigma_{i+j-1} \leq \sigma'_i + \sigma''_j$$

Theorem#2:

$$\sigma_i (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}_k) \geq \sigma_{k+i}, i = 1, 2, \dots$$



Proof, Theorem#1:

For the case $i = j = 1$:

$$\sigma_1 = \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{A}' \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{A}'' \mathbf{v}_1 \leq \sigma'_1 + \sigma''_1$$

For the general case:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma'_i + \sigma''_j &= \sigma_1 (\mathbf{A}' - \mathbf{A}'_{i-1}) + \sigma_1 (\mathbf{A}'' - \mathbf{A}''_{j-1}) \\ &\geq \sigma_1 (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}'_{i-1} - \mathbf{A}''_{j-1}) \end{aligned}$$

(and because $\text{rank} (\mathbf{A}'_{i-1} + \mathbf{A}''_{j-1}) \leq i + j - 2$, it follows from the lemma:)

$$\geq \sigma_{i+j-1}$$



Proof, Theorem#2:

Not so much a theorem as a corollary of theorem#1. We know that:

$$\text{rank}(\mathbf{B}_k) \leq k \Rightarrow \sigma_{k+1}(\mathbf{B}_k) = 0$$

Setting $j = k + 1$ in theorem#1 yields:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_i(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}_k) &= \sigma_i(\mathbf{A}') \\ &\geq \sigma_{i+j-1} - \sigma_j'' = \sigma_{k+i} - \sigma_{k+1}(\mathbf{B}_k) = \sigma_{k+i}\end{aligned}$$

So, we have that:

$$\sigma_i(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}_k) \geq \sigma_{k+i} \Rightarrow \|\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}_k\|_F^2 \geq \sum_{i=k+1}^n \sigma_i^2$$



Discussion: Weyl's Contribution

- This is **not** Weyl's original derivation of the SVD.
- Symmetric kernels can have positive and negative eigenvalues, so Weyl wrote down three inequalities (dealing with positive and negative eigenvalues and their absolute values).



- The expression “singular value” probably from integral equation theory.
- Not used consistently until the middle of the 20th century.
- SVD closely related to *spectral decompositions* of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$ and $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}$.
- The SVD can be generalized, this derivation involves the *CS-decomposition*.
- Can be used to derive the *polar decomposition*.
- Can be used to calculate the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse:
 $\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{U}\Sigma^+\mathbf{V}^T$.
- Used in deriving the solution of the *Procrustes problem*.
- Used in *PCA*.
- Stable and efficient numerical algorithm by Golub and Kahan.