

Rob 501 Handout: Grizzle

The SVD and Numerical Rank of a Matrix (Based on a handout of Prof. Freudenberg)

Motivation: In abstract linear algebra, a set of vectors is either linearly independent or not. There is nothing in between. For example, the set of vectors

$$\left\{ v^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, v^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.999 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

is linearly independent. In this case, you look at it and say, yes, BUT, the vectors are “almost” dependent because when I take the determinant

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.999 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0.001,$$

I get something pretty small, so I am OK with calling them dependent. Well, what about the set

$$\left\{ v^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, v^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 10^4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}?$$

When you form the matrix and check the determinant, you get

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 10^4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1,$$

which seems pretty far from zero. So are these vectors “adequately” linearly independent?

Maybe not! Let’s note that

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 10^4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 10^{-4} & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 10^4 \\ 10^{-4} & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

is clearly singular! Hence, we can add a very small perturbation to our vectors and make them dependent! This cannot be good! :(

Question: How to quantify the statement, “the rank is *nearly* 1” or more generally, how to quantify that a set of vectors is *nearly* linearly dependent?

Answer: The Singular Value Decomposition (SVD).

A good reference on numerical linear algebra is G. H. Golub and C. F. van Loan, *Matrix Computations*, The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1983.

Remark: In practice, you may have a need to deal with matrices that have complex entries, so the end of the handout also does things for $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$. The generalization of a real *symmetric* matrix is called a *Hermitian* matrix. And the generalization of a real *orthogonal* matrix is called a *unitary matrix*. These will not be on any ROB 501 exam.

Def. An $m \times n$ matrix Σ is rectangular diagonal if $\Sigma_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$. The diagonal of Σ is

$$\text{diag}(\Sigma) = (\Sigma_{11}, \Sigma_{22}, \dots, \Sigma_{pp})$$

where $p := \min(m, n)$.

Examples Consider rectangular matrices

$$\Sigma_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then,

$$\text{diag}(\Sigma_1) = [3 \ 4 \ -1] \quad \text{and} \quad \text{diag}(\Sigma_2) = [1 \ -6]$$

SVD Theorem: Any $m \times n$ real matrix A can be factored as

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

where

$U = m \times m$ orthogonal matrix

$V = n \times n$ orthogonal matrix

$\Sigma = m \times n$ rectangular diagonal matrix

and $\text{diag}(\Sigma) = [\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_p]$ satisfies $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_p \geq 0$ where $p = \min(m, n)$. Moreover, the columns of U are eigenvectors of AA^\top , the columns of V are eigenvectors of $A^\top A$, and the $(\sigma_i)^2$ are eigenvalues of both AA^\top and $A^\top A$.

Remark: The entries of $\text{diag}(\Sigma)$ are called singular values of A . We refer to σ_i as the i 'th singular value, to u_i as the i 'th left singular vector, and to v_i as the i 'th right singular vector. The proof of the theorem is on page 12.

SVD Singular value decomposition.

`[U,S,V] = SVD(X)` produces a diagonal matrix `S`, of the same dimension as `X` and with non-negative diagonal elements in decreasing order, and unitary matrices `U` and `V` so that $X = U*S*V'$.

By itself, `SVD(X)` returns a vector containing `diag(S)`.

```
A =  
    0.8038    0.1788    0.0960  
    0.8576    0.6365    0.6991  
    0.1107    0.6680    0.8653  
    0.9522    0.6690    0.7041  
    0.6551    0.7961    0.9283];
```

```
>> [U,S,V]=svd(A)
```

```
U =  
   -0.2439   -0.6486    0.1591   -0.6821   -0.1711  
   -0.4940   -0.1655    0.7006    0.4508    0.1859  
   -0.3688    0.6649    0.2370   -0.3156   -0.5159  
   -0.5236   -0.2418   -0.5645    0.3955   -0.4385  
   -0.5350    0.2268   -0.3303   -0.2747    0.6912
```

```
S =  
    2.5686         0         0  
         0    0.8370         0  
         0         0    0.0100  
         0         0         0  
         0         0         0
```

```

V =
    -0.5877    -0.8020     0.1065
    -0.5375     0.2886    -0.7923
    -0.6047     0.5229     0.6007

>> U*U'

ans =
    1.0000    0.0000    0.0000   -0.0000    0.0000
    0.0000    1.0000   -0.0000    0.0000   -0.0000
    0.0000   -0.0000    1.0000   -0.0000   -0.0000
   -0.0000    0.0000   -0.0000    1.0000   -0.0000
    0.0000   -0.0000   -0.0000   -0.0000    1.0000

>> A-U*S*V'

ans =
    1.0e-15 *
         0    0.0278   -0.8327
   -0.3331         0    0.1110
   -0.2220         0    0.2220
   -0.2220    0.2220   -0.2220
   -0.1110    0.2220         0

```

Theorem: $\text{rank}(A) = \text{number of nonzero singular values.}$
--

Fact: The <u>numerical rank</u> of A is the number of singular values that are larger than a given threshold. Often the threshold is chosen as a percentage of the largest singular value.

Example: 5×5 matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -32.57514 & -3.89996 & -6.30185 & -5.67305 & -26.21851 \\ -36.21632 & -11.13521 & -38.80726 & -16.86330 & -1.42786 \\ -5.07732 & -21.86599 & -38.27045 & -36.61390 & -33.95078 \\ -36.51955 & -38.28404 & -19.40680 & -31.67486 & -37.34390 \\ -25.28365 & -38.57919 & -31.99765 & -38.36343 & -27.13790 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[U, \text{Sigma}, V] = \text{svd}(A);$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 132.459 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\ 0.00000 & 37.70811 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\ 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 33.41836 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\ 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 19.34060 & 0.00000 \\ 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.79164 \end{bmatrix}$$

Because the **smallest singular value** $\sigma_5 = 0.79164$ is less than 1% of the **largest singular value** $\sigma_1 = 132.459$, in many cases, one might say that the numerical rank of A was 4 instead of 5.

This notion of numerical rank can be formalized by asking the following question: Suppose $\text{rank}(A) = r$. How far away is A from a matrix of rank strictly less than r ?

The numerical rank of a matrix is based on the expansion

$$A = U\Sigma V^\top = \sum_{i=1}^p \sigma_i u_i v_i^\top = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^\top + \sigma_2 u_2 v_2^\top + \cdots + \sigma_p u_p v_p^\top$$

where $p = \min\{m, n\}$, and once again, the singular values are ordered such that $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \cdots \geq \sigma_p$. Each term $u_i v_i^\top$ is a rank-one matrix. The following exercises will help you understand the expansion.

Exercises: Suppose that A is $m \times n$, B is $n \times m$, and that $A = U\Sigma V^\top$ is the singular value decomposition of A .

- Partition A by columns, that is, $A = [A_1 \mid A_2 \mid \cdots \mid A_n]$ and B by rows, that is, $B^\top = [B_1^\top \mid B_2^\top \mid \cdots \mid B_n^\top]$. Show that

$$AB = \sum_{k=1}^n A_k B_k.$$

Hint: Show that $[A_k B_k]_{ij} = a_{ik} b_{kj}$ and recall the formula for $[AB]_{ij}$

- For here and the following, let $m = n$. $U\Sigma = [\sigma_1 u_1 \mid \sigma_2 u_2 \mid \cdots \mid \sigma_m u_m]$
- $A = U\Sigma V^\top = \sum_{i=1}^m \sigma_i u_i v_i^\top$
- $\forall 1 \leq j \leq m, [u_i v_i^\top] v_j = \begin{cases} u_i & j = i \\ 0 & j \neq i \end{cases}$
- $A^\top A = V\Sigma^2 V^\top$
- $A^\top A = V\Sigma^2 V^\top = \sum_{i=1}^m (\sigma_i)^2 v_i v_i^\top$
- The e-values of $v_i v_i^\top$ are $\lambda_1 = 1$ and the rest are zero. **Hint:** Show that

$$[v_i v_i^\top] v_j = \begin{cases} v_i & j = i \\ 0 & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

Recall from HW For a symmetric real matrix M ,

$$\max_{x^\top x=1} x^\top Mx = \lambda_{\max}(M)$$

Def. (Induced matrix norm) Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$. Then the *matrix norm induced by the Euclidean vector norm* is given by:

$$\|A\|_2 := \max_{x^\top x=1} \|Ax\| \quad (1)$$

$$= \max_{x^\top x=1} \sqrt{x^\top A^\top A x} \quad (2)$$

$$= \sqrt{\max_{x^\top x=1} x^\top A^\top A x} \quad (3)$$

$$= \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(A^\top A)} \quad (4)$$

where $\lambda_{\max}(A^\top A)$ denotes the largest eigenvalue of the matrix $A^\top A$. (**Recall that we proved in lecture that all the eigenvalues of a matrix having the form $A^\top A$ are real and non-negative.**) (Also, recall HW 2)

Fact: Suppose that $\text{rank}(A) = r$, so that σ_r is the smallest non-zero singular value. Then

- (i) if an $n \times m$ matrix E satisfies $\|E\| < \sigma_r$, then $\text{rank}(A + E) \geq r$.
- (ii) there exists E with $\|E\| = \sigma_r$ and $\text{rank}(A + E) < r$.
- (iii) In fact, for $E = -\sigma_r u_r v_r^\top$, $\text{rank}(A + E) = r - 1$.
- (iv) Moreover, for $E = -\sigma_r u_r v_r^\top - \sigma_{r-1} u_{r-1} v_{r-1}^\top$, $\text{rank}(A + E) = r - 2$.

Corollary: Suppose A is square and invertible. Then σ_r measures the distance from A to the nearest singular matrix.

Example: Using A above

```
>> d=diag(Sigma);  
>> d(end)=0;  
>> D=diag(d);  
>> B=U*D*V';  
>> E=A-B;
```

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} -0.04169 & 0.12122 & 0.09818 & -0.21886 & 0.05458 \\ 0.02031 & -0.05906 & -0.04784 & 0.10663 & -0.02659 \\ 0.01966 & -0.05716 & -0.04629 & 0.10320 & -0.02574 \\ 0.07041 & -0.20476 & -0.16584 & 0.36968 & -0.09220 \\ -0.08160 & 0.23728 & 0.19218 & -0.42839 & 0.10684 \end{bmatrix}$$

```
>> max(sqrt(eig(E'*E)))
```

0.7916

```
>> [U,Sigma,V]=svd(A-E);
```

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 132.45977 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\ 0.00000 & 37.70811 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\ 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 33.41836 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\ 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 19.34060 & 0.00000 \\ 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \end{bmatrix}$$

I added a matrix with norm 0.7916 and made the (exact) rank drop from 4 to 5! How cool is that? It really shows that the matrix was close to a singular matrix.

Another Example:

```
>> N=100;A=[1,N;0,1]; [U,S,V]=svd(A); A,S
```

A =

```
1    100
0      1
```

S =

```
100.0100      0
      0    0.0100
```

Hence, yeah, the SVD captures the fact that A is nearly singular.

Interesting and Useful Facts not on any ROB 501 Exam:

- (a) We have not had the time to do anything with the nullspace and range of an $m \times n$ matrix A ; they are important subspaces.

Nullspace: $\mathbf{N}(A) := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax = 0\}$

Range: $\mathbf{R}(A) := \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \exists x \in \mathbb{C}^n \text{ such that } y = Ax\}$

- (b) **Fact:** Let $[U, \Sigma, V] = \text{svd}(A)$; Then the columns of U corresponding to non-zero singular values are a basis for $\mathbf{R}(A)$ and the columns of V corresponding to zero singular values are a basis for $\mathbf{N}(A)$.
- (c) The SVD can also be used to compute an "effective" range and an "effective" nullspace of a matrix.
- (d) Suppose that $\sigma_1 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > \epsilon \geq \sigma_{r+1} \geq \dots \sigma_n \geq 0$, so that r is the "effective" or numerical rank of A . (Note the ϵ inserted between σ_r and σ_{r+1} to denote the break point.)
- (e) Let $\mathbf{R}_{\text{eff}}(A)$ and $\mathbf{N}_{\text{eff}}(A)$ denote the effective range and effective nullspace of A , respectively. Then we can calculate bases for these subspaces by choosing appropriate singular vectors:

$$\mathbf{R}_{\text{eff}}(A) := \text{span}\{u_1, \dots, u_r\} \text{ and } \mathbf{N}_{\text{eff}}(A) := \text{span}\{v_{r+1}, \dots, v_n\}.$$

The SVD for Real Matrices

Def. An $m \times n$ matrix Σ is rectangular diagonal if $\Sigma_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$. The diagonal of Σ is

$$\text{diag}(\Sigma) = (\Sigma_{11}, \Sigma_{22}, \dots, \Sigma_{kk})$$

where $k = \min(m, n)$.

Examples Consider rectangular matrices

$$\Sigma_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then,

$$\text{diag}(\Sigma_1) = [3 \ 4 \ -1] \quad \text{and} \quad \text{diag}(\Sigma_2) = [1 \ -6]$$

SVD Theorem: Any $m \times n$ real matrix A can be factored as

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

where

$U = m \times m$ orthogonal matrix

$V = n \times n$ orthogonal matrix

$\Sigma = m \times n$ rectangular diagonal matrix

and $\text{diag}(\Sigma) = [\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_p]$ satisfies $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_p \geq 0$ where $p = \min(m, n)$. Moreover, the columns of U are eigenvectors of AA^\top , the columns of V are eigenvectors of $A^\top A$, and the $(\sigma_i)^2$ are eigenvalues of both AA^\top and $A^\top A$.

Remark: The entries of $\text{diag}(\Sigma)$ are called singular values of A .

Proof of the theorem: $A^\top A$ is $n \times n$, real, and symmetric. Hence, there exist orthonormal eigenvectors $\{v^1, \dots, v^n\}$ such that $A^\top A v^j = \lambda_j v^j$. Without loss of generality, we can assume that

$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n \geq 0$$

If not, we simply re-order the v^i 's to make it so.

For $\lambda_j > 0$, say $1 \leq j \leq r$, we define

$$\sigma_j = \sqrt{\lambda_j}$$

and

$$q^j = \frac{1}{\sigma_j} A v^j \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

Claim: $(q^i)^\top q^j = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases} \text{ for } 1 \leq i, j \leq r.$

Proof of Claim:

$$\begin{aligned} (q^i)^\top q^j &= \frac{1}{\sigma_i} \frac{1}{\sigma_j} (v^i)^\top A^\top A v^j \\ &= \frac{\lambda_j}{\sigma_i \sigma_j} (v^i)^\top v^j \\ &= \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda_j}{(\sigma_i)^2} & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

End of proof of Claim.

If $r < m$, we can extend the q^i 's to an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^m . Define

$$\begin{aligned} U &= [q^1 \mid q^2 \mid \dots \mid q^m] \\ V &= [v^1 \mid v^2 \mid \dots \mid v^n] \end{aligned}$$

and define $\Sigma = m \times n$ by

$$\Sigma_{ij} = \begin{cases} \sigma_i \delta_{ij} & 1 \leq i, j \leq r \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then, Σ is rectangular diagonal with

$$\text{diag}(\Sigma) = [\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r, 0, \dots, 0]$$

To complete the proof of the theorem, it is enough to show that $U^\top AV = \Sigma$. We note that the ij element of this matrix is

$$(U^\top AV)_{ij} = q_i^\top Av^j$$

If $j > r$, then $Av^j = 0$, and thus $q_i^\top Av^j = 0$, as required. If $i > r$, then q^i was selected to be orthogonal to

$$\{q^1, \dots, q^r\} = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sigma_1} Av^1, \frac{1}{\sigma_2} Av^2, \dots, \frac{1}{\sigma_r} Av^r \right\}$$

and thus $(q^i)^\top Av^j = 0$.

Hence we now consider $1 \leq i, j \leq r$ and compute that

$$\begin{aligned} (U^\top AV)_{ij} &= \frac{1}{\sigma_i} (v^i)^\top A^\top Av^j \\ &= \frac{\lambda_j}{\sigma_i} (v^i)^\top v^j \\ &= \sigma_i \delta_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

as required. **End of Proof.**

SVD for Complex Matrices (not on ROB 501 Final Exam)

Hermitian: Consider $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$. Then we define the vector " x Hermitian" by $x^H := \bar{x}^\top$. That is, x^H is the complex conjugate transpose of x . Similarly, for a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, we define $A^H \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ by \bar{A}^\top . We say that a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is a *Hermitian matrix* if $A = A^H$.

Important things to note:

- Similar to $A^\top A$ for real matrices, when A is complex, $A^H A$ has e-values that are real and non-negative. The proof is similar to things we have done in lecture; if you care to see it, you can find it online.
- In MATLAB, $A' = A^H$. Yikes! It is not the ordinary transpose? No, it is the complex conjugate transpose. If you want the ordinary transpose, use `transpose(A)`.

```
>> A=[j,0;0,-j]
```

```
A =
```

```
    0 + 1.0000i    0
    0             0 - 1.0000i
```

```
>> A'
```

```
ans =
```

```
    0 - 1.0000i    0
    0             0 + 1.0000i
```

Inner product on \mathbb{C}^n : Given $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$. Let the elements x and y be noted

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then the Euclidean inner product is defined as

$$\langle x, y \rangle := x^H y \tag{5}$$

$$= \bar{x}_1 y_1 + \bar{x}_2 y_2 + \cdots + \bar{x}_n y_n \tag{6}$$

We note that this puts the linearity on the right side of the “bracket”, but as we have noted in HW, both definitions are common.

Euclidean vector norm: As in class, the vector norm associated with this inner product is given by

$$\|x\|_2 := \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} \tag{7}$$

$$= \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2} \tag{8}$$

We often omit the subscript "2" when we are discussing the Euclidean norm (or "2-norm") exclusively.

Euclidean matrix norm: Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$. Then the *matrix norm induced by*

the Euclidean vector norm is given by:

$$\|A\|_2 := \max_{x^H x=1} \|Ax\| \quad (9)$$

$$= \max_{x^H x=1} \sqrt{x^H A^H A x} \quad (10)$$

$$= \sqrt{\max_{x^H x=1} x^H A^H A x} \quad (11)$$

$$= \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(A^H A)} \quad (12)$$

where $\lambda_{\max}(A^H A)$ denotes the largest eigenvalue of the matrix $A^H A$. (**As noted above, all the eigenvalues of a matrix having the form $A^H A$ are real and non-negative.**)(Also, recall HW 2)

Orthogonality: Two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ are *orthogonal* if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

Orthonormal Set: A collection of vectors $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is said to be an *orthonormal set* if

$$\langle x_i, x_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 0, & i \neq j \\ 1, & i = j \end{cases} \quad (\text{Hence } \|x_i\| = 1, \forall i.)$$

Unitary Matrix: A matrix $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is *unitary* if $U^H U = U U^H = I_n$.

Fact: If U is a unitary matrix, then the columns of U form an orthonormal basis (ONB) for \mathbb{C}^n .

Proof of Fact: Denote the columns of U as $U = [u_1 \ u_2 \ \cdots \ u_n]$. Then

$$U^H U = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^H \\ u_2^H \\ \vdots \\ u_n^H \end{bmatrix} [u_1 \ u_2 \ \cdots \ u_n] = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^H u_1 & u_1^H u_2 & \cdots & u_1^H u_n \\ u_2^H u_1 & u_2^H u_2 & \cdots & u_2^H u_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_n^H u_1 & u_n^H u_2 & \cdots & u_n^H u_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

For real matrices, unitary is the same thing as orthogonal.

Example:

U =

```
0.1259    0.9920
0.9920   -0.1259
```

>>U*U'

ans =

```
1.0000    0.0000
0.0000    1.0000
```

Unitary matrices are effectively rotation matrices: they do not change the length of a vector, nor the angle between two vectors. Indeed,

1) From $U^H U = U U^H = I_n$, it follows that $U^{-1} = U^H$

2) Let's compute the inner product of Ux and Uy :

$$\langle Ux, Uy \rangle := (Ux)^H Uy = x^H U^H Uy = x^H y =: \langle x, y \rangle$$

3) It follows that

(a) norm of Ux equals the norm of x :

$$\|Ux\|^2 := \langle Ux, Ux \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle =: \|x\|^2$$

(b) angle between x and y is the same as the angle between Ux and Uy :

$$\cos(\angle(x, y)) := \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \|y\|} = \frac{\langle Ux, Uy \rangle}{\|Ux\| \|Uy\|} =: \cos(\angle(Ux, Uy))$$

4) All of the e-values of U have magnitude 1. Indeed, suppose that λ is an e-value with e-vector v : $Uv = \lambda v$

Applying norms to both sides of the above yields: $\|Uv\| = \|\lambda v\|$

But, by item (3) above and properties of norms:

$$\|Uv\| = \|v\| \text{ and } \|\lambda v\| = |\lambda| \|v\|$$

which, with the above, implies $|\lambda| = 1$.

Theorem (SVD for Complex matrices: Consider $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$. Then there exist unitary matrices

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & \cdots & u_m \\ v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

such that

$$A = \begin{cases} U \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} V^H, & m \geq n \\ U [\Sigma \ 0] V^H, & m \leq n \end{cases}$$

where

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_p \end{bmatrix}, \quad p = \min(m, n)$$

and

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \cdots \sigma_p \geq 0$$

Terminology: We refer to σ_i as the i 'th singular value, to u_i as the i 'th left singular vector, and to v_i as the i 'th right singular vector.