

EECS 245, Winter 2026

LEC 23

Spectral Theorem,
Singular Value Decomposition

→ Read Ch. 9.5, 10.1, 10.2

Agenda

- Spectral theorem } Ch. 9.5

→ Last time, we discussed diagonalizable matrices,

$$A = V\Lambda V^{-1}$$

→ Symmetric matrices are a special case!

$$A = Q\Lambda Q^T$$

- Singular value decomposition } Ch. 10
- How does this extend to non-square matrices?

Announcements

- HW 10 due tomorrow;
- HW 11 out tomorrow

- Final Exam in 2 weeks !!

↑
Monday 4/27,
1:30-3:30 PM

Activity 2

Suppose an $n \times n$ matrix A has the characteristic polynomial

$$p(\lambda) = (\lambda + 1)^2 \lambda (\lambda - 1)^3 (\lambda - 4)^2 (\lambda - 5) (\lambda - 12)^2$$

1. What is n (i.e. the number of rows/columns of A)? $n = 11$ (sum of algebraic mults.)
2. What is the determinant of A ? 0 , because 0 is an eigenvalue
3. What are all of A 's eigenvalues and their algebraic multiplicities? $AM(-1) = 2$, for example
4. Is A diagonalizable?

→ Solution

↓ we don't have enough information!
need to know the geometric multiplicities
of each eigenvalue

A diagonalizable matrix A can be decomposed:

$$A = V \Lambda V^{-1}$$

cols of V are eigenvectors of A

Symmetric matrices are special!

$$A = A^T$$

suppose A is an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix with real-valued entries. Then:

① A has n real-valued eigenvalues (factoring in algebraic multiplicity)

② eigenvectors for different eigenvalues are orthogonal!
→ see Lab 12 or Ch. 9.5 for proof

③ For all λ_i , $AM(\lambda_i) = GM(\lambda_i)$

① + ② + ③ : Any symmetric matrix A can be "diagonalized" by an orthogonal matrix, Q

$$A = V \Lambda V^{-1} \Rightarrow A = Q \Lambda Q^T$$

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & & \vec{v}_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Q^{-1} = Q^T$$

These \vec{v}_i 's, if they correspond to different λ_i 's, are automatically orthogonal!

If they correspond to the same λ_i , just pick them to be orthogonal

→ Make each \vec{v}_i a unit vector ⇒ $Q^T Q = Q Q^T = I$

$$A = Q \Lambda Q^T$$

better than

$$A = V \Lambda V^{-1}$$

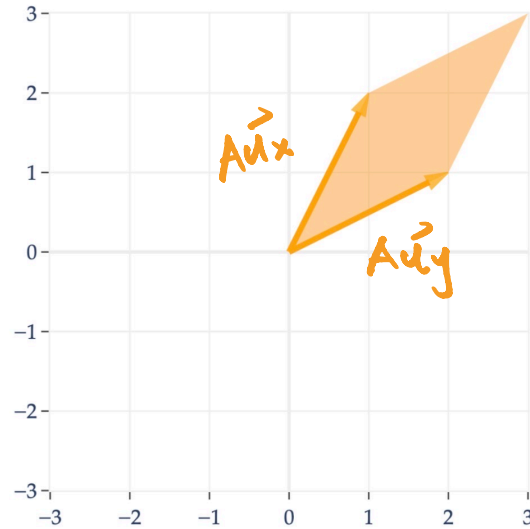
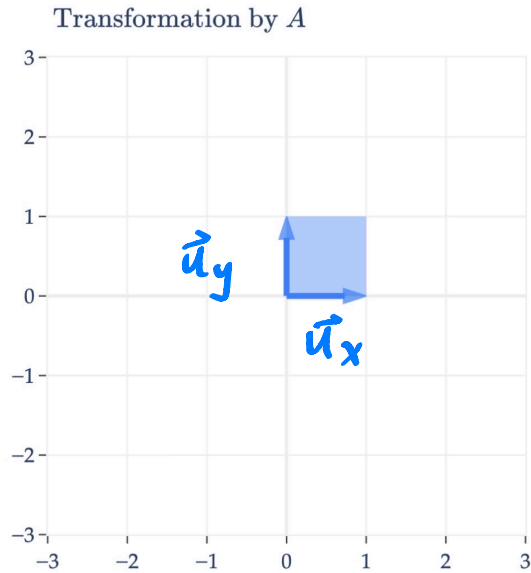
because

Q^T is easy to find!

V^{-1} harder to find

$$f(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} = Q\Lambda Q^T\vec{x}$$

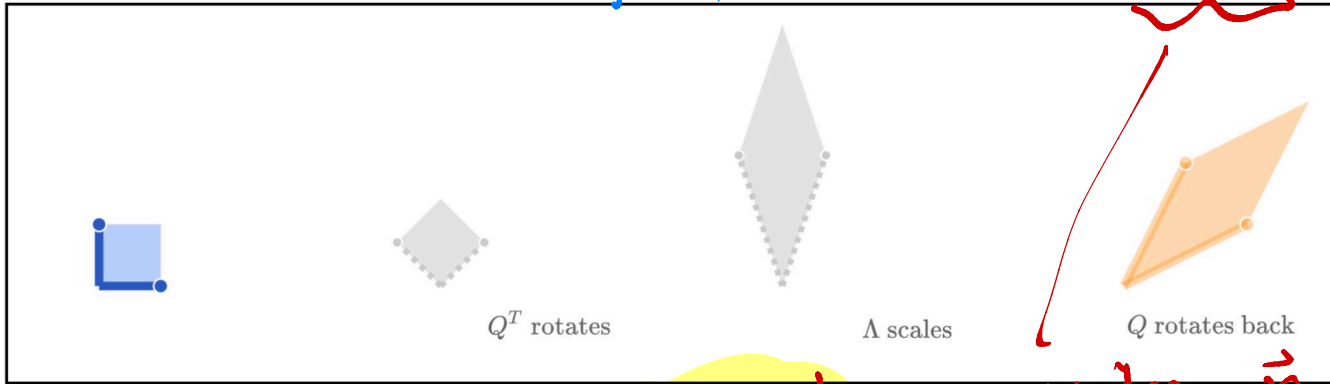
Let's make sense of this visually. Consider the symmetric matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.



$$Q \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} \text{ vs. } Q^T \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Visualizing $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = Q\Lambda Q^T$$
$$f(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} = Q\Lambda Q^T\vec{x}$$



remember, $Q^T = Q^{-1}$

writes \vec{x}
as a linear
combination of
the eigenvectors!

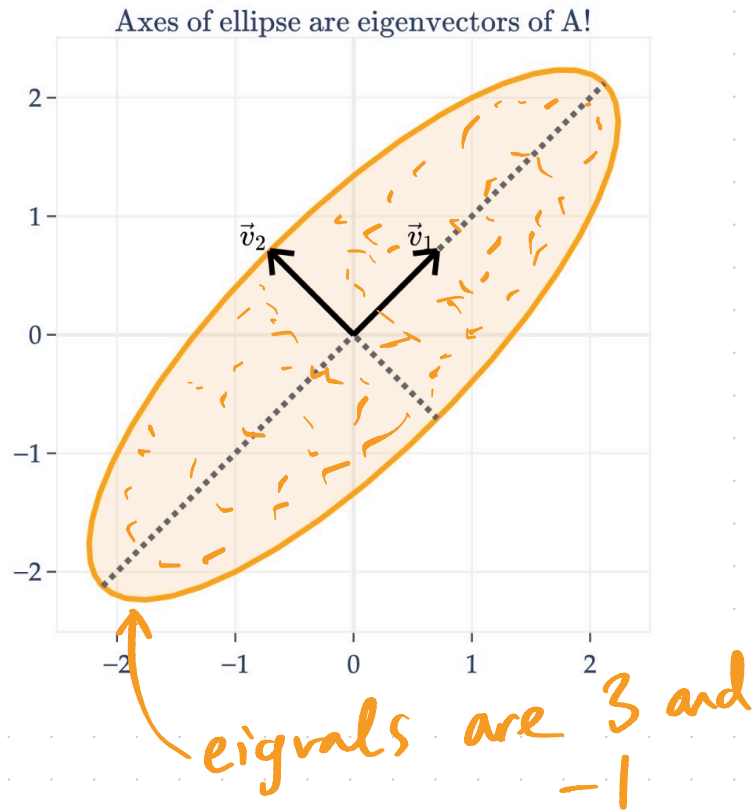
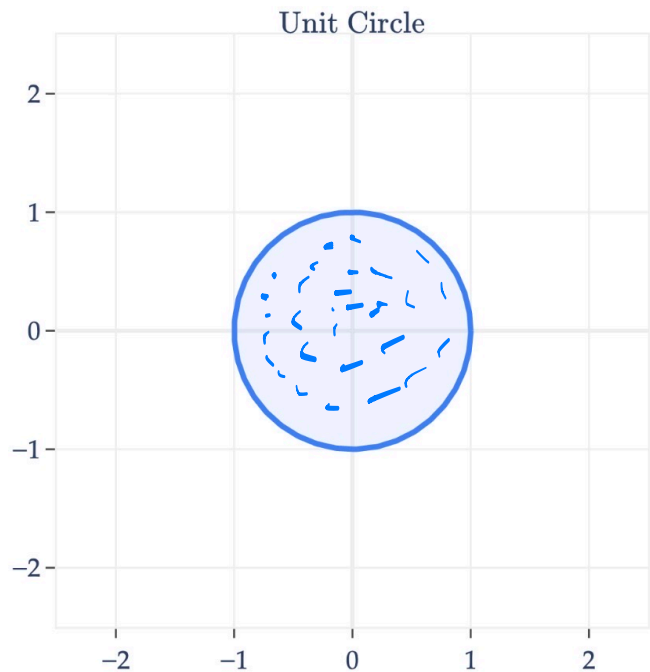
$\mathbb{Q} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$ = linear combination of A 's
eigenvectors

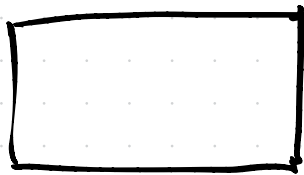
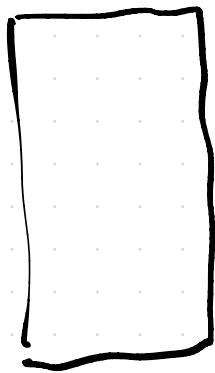
= $3\vec{v}_1 - 5\vec{v}_2$ eigvecs of A

$\mathbb{Q}^T \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbb{Q}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} =$ how do I make $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$
out of \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 ?

Then $a\vec{v}_1 + b\vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$

$$f(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}$$





what about non-square
matrices?

when we first introduced eigenvalues
and eigenvectors,

A : $n \times n$ matrix

$$\underbrace{A}_{n \times n} \underbrace{\vec{v}}_{n \times 1} = \underbrace{\lambda \vec{v}}_{n \times 1}$$

Suppose X is an $n \times d$ matrix

$$X \vec{v}_i = \sigma_i \vec{u}_i$$

X is $n \times d$, \vec{v}_i is $d \times 1$, σ_i is a scalar, and \vec{u}_i is $n \times 1$.

Annotations:
- \vec{v}_i : right singular vector, because $X\vec{v} : \vec{v}$ is on the right of X
- \vec{u}_i : left singular vector
- σ_i : "singular value"

$$\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d, \vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Singular value decomposition

exists for every matrix $X : n \times d$

important: $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > 0$
order from big to small

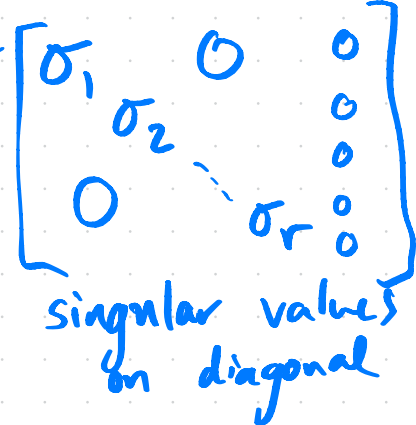
$$X = U \Sigma V^T$$

$n \times d$ $n \times n$ $n \times d$ $d \times d$

V orthogonal:
 $V^T V = V V^T = I_{d \times d}$

U orthogonal:
 $U^T U = U U^T = I_{n \times n}$

columns of U
are the u_i 's, called
left singular vectors



columns of V
are the v_i 's,
called right
singular vectors

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 5 & 5 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

observe:
 $\text{rank}(X) = \# \text{ non-zero } \sigma_i \text{'s} = 2$

$$X = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3} & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 15 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_\Sigma \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{bmatrix}}_{V^T}$$

$$X \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 2/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix} = 15 \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 0 \\ 2/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix}$$

$X \vec{v}_1 = 15 \vec{u}_1$

cols of V
 $=$ rows of V^T

Where did the SVD of X come from?

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

$n \times d$

X not square, but $X^T X$ and $X X^T$ both are!

→ bonus: $X^T X$ and $X X^T$ are also symmetric!!!

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

$$\begin{aligned} X^T X &= (U \Sigma V^T)^T U \Sigma V^T \\ &= V \Sigma^T \underbrace{U^T U}_{I} \Sigma V^T \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} X^T X &= V \Sigma^T \Sigma V^T \\ X X^T &= U \Sigma \Sigma^T U^T \end{aligned}$$

these are just $Q \Lambda Q^T$
for $X^T X$ and $X X^T$!!!

Takeaway : columns of U are eigenvectors of XX^T

columns of V are eigenvectors of $X^T X$

each
non-zero $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$, where

λ_i = eigenvalue of $X^T X$

= eigenvalue of XX^T

🔔 Computing the SVD By Hand

To conclude, we found $X = U\Sigma V^T$ by:

1. Computing $X^T X$.
2. Finding the eigenvalues of $X^T X$; their square roots are the singular values of X .

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$$

These singular values are placed in the diagonal of Σ in decreasing order.

3. For each eigenvalue λ_i , finding an orthonormal eigenvector \vec{v}_i of $X^T X$ and placing it in the i th column of V .
4. For each $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$, finding \vec{u}_i by solving

$$\vec{u}_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} X \vec{v}_i$$

and placing it in the i th column of U .

5. Filling the rest of U with orthonormal vectors that form a basis for $\text{nullsp}(X^T)$.

This is not the only possible sequence of steps to follow; for instance, once you find the singular values $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r$, you can independently find orthonormal eigenvectors of $X^T X$ and XX^T and use them to form U and V . Just make sure you place the \vec{u}_i 's and \vec{v}_i 's in the correct order, corresponding to the order of the singular values in Σ .