

LINEAR ALGEBRA -II

B V Rajarama Bhat

Indian Statistical Institute, Bangalore

Lecture 26: Positive matrices

- ▶ Now we study a very important class of matrices. The significance of this class can't be over emphasized.

Lecture 26: Positive matrices

- ▶ Now we study a very important class of matrices. The significance of this class can't be over emphasized.
- ▶ **Definition 26.1:** An $n \times n$ matrix A is said to be a **positive** matrix if $A = B^*B$ for some $n \times n$ matrix B .

Lecture 26: Positive matrices

- ▶ Now we study a very important class of matrices. The significance of this class can't be over emphasized.
- ▶ **Definition 26.1:** An $n \times n$ matrix A is said to be a **positive** matrix if $A = B^*B$ for some $n \times n$ matrix B .
- ▶ Some authors may call these as non-negative definite matrices and invertible matrices of the form B^*B as positive definite matrices.

Lecture 26: Positive matrices

- ▶ Now we study a very important class of matrices. The significance of this class can't be over emphasized.
- ▶ **Definition 26.1:** An $n \times n$ matrix A is said to be a **positive** matrix if $A = B^*B$ for some $n \times n$ matrix B .
- ▶ Some authors may call these as non-negative definite matrices and invertible matrices of the form B^*B as positive definite matrices.
- ▶ **Warning:** A positive matrix need not have positive entries. It can have negative entries and also complex entries.

Lecture 26: Positive matrices

- ▶ Now we study a very important class of matrices. The significance of this class can't be over emphasized.
- ▶ **Definition 26.1:** An $n \times n$ matrix A is said to be a **positive** matrix if $A = B^*B$ for some $n \times n$ matrix B .
- ▶ Some authors may call these as non-negative definite matrices and invertible matrices of the form B^*B as positive definite matrices.
- ▶ **Warning:** A positive matrix need not have positive entries. It can have negative entries and also complex entries.
- ▶ Matrices whose entries are positive would be called as **entrywise positive** matrices. That is also an important class, but we will not be studying them now.

Characterizations of positivity

- ▶ Theorem 26.2: Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$ be a complex matrix. Then the following are equivalent:

Characterizations of positivity

- ▶ **Theorem 26.2:** Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$ be a complex matrix. Then the following are equivalent:
 - ▶ (i) A is positive, that is, $A = B^*B$ for some $n \times n$ matrix B .

Characterizations of positivity

- ▶ **Theorem 26.2:** Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$ be a complex matrix. Then the following are equivalent:
 - ▶ (i) A is positive, that is, $A = B^*B$ for some $n \times n$ matrix B .
 - ▶ (ii) $A = C^*C$ for some $m \times n$ matrix for some m .

Characterizations of positivity

- ▶ **Theorem 26.2:** Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$ be a complex matrix. Then the following are equivalent:
 - ▶ (i) A is positive, that is, $A = B^*B$ for some $n \times n$ matrix B .
 - ▶ (ii) $A = C^*C$ for some $m \times n$ matrix for some m .
 - ▶ (iii) $a_{ij} = \langle v_i, v_j \rangle$, $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ for vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n in some inner product space V .

Characterizations of positivity

- ▶ **Theorem 26.2:** Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$ be a complex matrix. Then the following are equivalent:
 - ▶ (i) A is positive, that is, $A = B^*B$ for some $n \times n$ matrix B .
 - ▶ (ii) $A = C^*C$ for some $m \times n$ matrix for some m .
 - ▶ (iii) $a_{ij} = \langle v_i, v_j \rangle$, $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ for vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n in some inner product space V .
 - ▶ (iv) $\langle x, Ax \rangle \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$.

Characterizations of positivity

- ▶ **Theorem 26.2:** Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$ be a complex matrix. Then the following are equivalent:
 - ▶ (i) A is positive, that is, $A = B^*B$ for some $n \times n$ matrix B .
 - ▶ (ii) $A = C^*C$ for some $m \times n$ matrix for some m .
 - ▶ (iii) $a_{ij} = \langle v_i, v_j \rangle$, $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ for vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n in some inner product space V .
 - ▶ (iv) $\langle x, Ax \rangle \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$.
 - ▶ (v) $A = A^*$ and eigenvalues of A are non-negative.

Characterizations of positivity

- ▶ **Theorem 26.2:** Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$ be a complex matrix. Then the following are equivalent:
 - ▶ (i) A is positive, that is, $A = B^*B$ for some $n \times n$ matrix B .
 - ▶ (ii) $A = C^*C$ for some $m \times n$ matrix for some m .
 - ▶ (iii) $a_{ij} = \langle v_i, v_j \rangle$, $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ for vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n in some inner product space V .
 - ▶ (iv) $\langle x, Ax \rangle \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$.
 - ▶ (v) $A = A^*$ and eigenvalues of A are non-negative.
 - ▶ (vi) $A = S^2$ for some self-adjoint $n \times n$ matrix S .

Continuation

- ▶ **Proof:** (i) \Rightarrow (ii). Take $m = n$ and $C = B$.

Continuation

- ▶ **Proof:** (i) \Rightarrow (ii). Take $m = n$ and $C = B$.
- ▶ (ii) \Rightarrow (iii). Let v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n be the columns of C . Then $v_j \in \mathbb{C}^m$ for every j and $A = C^*C$ implies $a_{jj} = \langle v_i, v_j \rangle$.

Continuation

- ▶ **Proof:** (i) \Rightarrow (ii). Take $m = n$ and $C = B$.
- ▶ (ii) \Rightarrow (iii). Let v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n be the columns of C . Then $v_j \in \mathbb{C}^m$ for every j and $A = C^*C$ implies $a_{ij} = \langle v_i, v_j \rangle$.
- ▶ (iii) \Rightarrow (iv). We have $a_{ij} = \langle v_i, v_j \rangle, \quad \forall i, j$.

Continuation

- ▶ **Proof:** (i) \Rightarrow (ii). Take $m = n$ and $C = B$.
- ▶ (ii) \Rightarrow (iii). Let v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n be the columns of C . Then $v_j \in \mathbb{C}^m$ for every j and $A = C^*C$ implies $a_{ij} = \langle v_i, v_j \rangle$.
- ▶ (iii) \Rightarrow (iv). We have $a_{ij} = \langle v_i, v_j \rangle, \forall i, j$.
- ▶ Now for any $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, Ax \rangle &= \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{x}_i (Ax)_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{x}_i \cdot \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{x}_i \cdot \sum_{j=1}^n \langle v_i, v_j \rangle \cdot x_j\end{aligned}$$

Continuation

► Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, Ax \rangle &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \langle x_i v_i, x_j v_j \rangle \\ &= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^n x_i v_i, \sum_{j=1}^n x_j v_j \right\rangle \\ &= \langle y, y \rangle\end{aligned}$$

Continuation

- ▶ Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, Ax \rangle &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \langle x_i v_i, x_j v_j \rangle \\ &= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^n x_i v_i, \sum_{j=1}^n x_j v_j \right\rangle \\ &= \langle y, y \rangle\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ where $y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i v_i$.

Continuation

► Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, Ax \rangle &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \langle x_i v_i, x_j v_j \rangle \\ &= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^n x_i v_i, \sum_{j=1}^n x_j v_j \right\rangle \\ &= \langle y, y \rangle\end{aligned}$$

► where $y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i v_i$.

► Hence

$$\langle x, Ax \rangle \geq 0.$$

Continuation

- ▶ (iv) \Rightarrow (v). It is given that $\langle x, Ax \rangle \geq 0$ for every $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$.

Continuation

- ▶ (iv) \Rightarrow (v). It is given that $\langle x, Ax \rangle \geq 0$ for every $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$.
- ▶ First we want to show that $A = A^*$. Here we use the polarization identity and the fact that if $\langle v, w \rangle$ is real then $\langle v, w \rangle = \langle w, v \rangle$. For all x, y ,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, Ay \rangle &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{j=0}^3 i^{-j} \langle (x + i^j y), A(x + i^j y) \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{j=0}^3 i^{-j} \langle A(x + i^j y), (x + i^j y) \rangle \\ &= \langle Ax, y \rangle\end{aligned}$$

Continuation

- ▶ (iv) \Rightarrow (v). It is given that $\langle x, Ax \rangle \geq 0$ for every $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$.
- ▶ First we want to show that $A = A^*$. Here we use the polarization identity and the fact that if $\langle v, w \rangle$ is real then $\langle v, w \rangle = \langle w, v \rangle$. For all x, y ,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, Ay \rangle &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{j=0}^3 i^{-j} \langle (x + i^j y), A(x + i^j y) \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{j=0}^3 i^{-j} \langle A(x + i^j y), (x + i^j y) \rangle \\ &= \langle Ax, y \rangle\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ This proves $A^* = A$ from the defining condition of the adjoint.

Continuation

- ▶ (iv) \Rightarrow (v). It is given that $\langle x, Ax \rangle \geq 0$ for every $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$.
- ▶ First we want to show that $A = A^*$. Here we use the polarization identity and the fact that if $\langle v, w \rangle$ is real then $\langle v, w \rangle = \langle w, v \rangle$. For all x, y ,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, Ay \rangle &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{j=0}^3 i^{-j} \langle (x + i^j y), A(x + i^j y) \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{j=0}^3 i^{-j} \langle A(x + i^j y), (x + i^j y) \rangle \\ &= \langle Ax, y \rangle\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ This proves $A^* = A$ from the defining condition of the adjoint.
- ▶ Now suppose a is an eigenvalue of A . Choose an eigenvector x with a as the eigenvalue. Then

$$\langle x, Ax \rangle = a \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0.$$

Continuation

- ▶ (iv) \Rightarrow (v). It is given that $\langle x, Ax \rangle \geq 0$ for every $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$.
- ▶ First we want to show that $A = A^*$. Here we use the polarization identity and the fact that if $\langle v, w \rangle$ is real then $\langle v, w \rangle = \langle w, v \rangle$. For all x, y ,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, Ay \rangle &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{j=0}^3 i^{-j} \langle (x + i^j y), A(x + i^j y) \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{j=0}^3 i^{-j} \langle A(x + i^j y), (x + i^j y) \rangle \\ &= \langle Ax, y \rangle\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ This proves $A^* = A$ from the defining condition of the adjoint.
- ▶ Now suppose a is an eigenvalue of A . Choose an eigenvector x with a as the eigenvalue. Then

$$\langle x, Ax \rangle = a \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0.$$

- ▶ implies that $a \geq 0$ as $\langle x, x \rangle \neq 0$.

Continuation

- ▶ (v) \Rightarrow (vi). We assume $A = A^*$ and the eigenvalues of A are non-negative.

Continuation

- ▶ (v) \Rightarrow (vi). We assume $A = A^*$ and the eigenvalues of A are non-negative.
- ▶ By spectral theorem there exists a unitary U and a diagonal matrix D , such that

$$A = UDU^*.$$

Continuation

- ▶ (v) \Rightarrow (vi). We assume $A = A^*$ and the eigenvalues of A are non-negative.
- ▶ By spectral theorem there exists a unitary U and a diagonal matrix D , such that

$$A = UDU^*.$$

- ▶ Since the eigenvalues of A are non-negative, the diagonal entries of D are non-negative. We denote the diagonal entries by d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n .

Continuation

- ▶ (v) \Rightarrow (vi). We assume $A = A^*$ and the eigenvalues of A are non-negative.
- ▶ By spectral theorem there exists a unitary U and a diagonal matrix D , such that

$$A = UDU^*.$$

- ▶ Since the eigenvalues of A are non-negative, the diagonal entries of D are non-negative. We denote the diagonal entries by d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n .
- ▶ Take

$$S = U \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{d_1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{d_2} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \sqrt{d_n} \end{bmatrix} U^*.$$

Continuation

- ▶ (v) \Rightarrow (vi). We assume $A = A^*$ and the eigenvalues of A are non-negative.
- ▶ By spectral theorem there exists a unitary U and a diagonal matrix D , such that

$$A = UDU^*.$$

- ▶ Since the eigenvalues of A are non-negative, the diagonal entries of D are non-negative. We denote the diagonal entries by d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n .
- ▶ Take

$$S = U \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{d_1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{d_2} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \sqrt{d_n} \end{bmatrix} U^*.$$

- ▶ Then clearly S is self-adjoint and $A = S^2$.

Continuation

- ▶ (vi) \Rightarrow (i). Assume $A = S^2$ where $S = S^*$.

Continuation

- ▶ (vi) \Rightarrow (i). Assume $A = S^2$ where $S = S^*$.
- ▶ In particular, $A = S^*S$. This proves (i). ■

Continuation

- ▶ (vi) \Rightarrow (i). Assume $A = S^2$ where $S = S^*$.
- ▶ In particular, $A = S^*S$. This proves (i). ■
- ▶ Example 26.3: Take

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Continuation

- ▶ (vi) \Rightarrow (i). Assume $A = S^2$ where $S = S^*$.
- ▶ In particular, $A = S^*S$. This proves (i). ■
- ▶ Example 26.3: Take

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- ▶ Clearly R is self-adjoint. We have the characteristic polynomial of R , as

$$p(x) = (x - 2)^2 - 1 = x^2 - 4x + 3 = (x - 1)(x - 3).$$

Continuation

- ▶ (vi) \Rightarrow (i). Assume $A = S^2$ where $S = S^*$.
- ▶ In particular, $A = S^*S$. This proves (i). ■
- ▶ Example 26.3: Take

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- ▶ Clearly R is self-adjoint. We have the characteristic polynomial of R , as

$$p(x) = (x - 2)^2 - 1 = x^2 - 4x + 3 = (x - 1)(x - 3).$$

- ▶ Therefore, the eigenvalues of R are $\{1, 3\}$, which are non-negative. Then by part (v) of the previous Theorem, R is positive.

Continuation

- ▶ (vi) \Rightarrow (i). Assume $A = S^2$ where $S = S^*$.
- ▶ In particular, $A = S^*S$. This proves (i). ■
- ▶ Example 26.3: Take

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- ▶ Clearly R is self-adjoint. We have the characteristic polynomial of R , as

$$p(x) = (x - 2)^2 - 1 = x^2 - 4x + 3 = (x - 1)(x - 3).$$

- ▶ Therefore, the eigenvalues of R are $\{1, 3\}$, which are non-negative. Then by part (v) of the previous Theorem, R is positive.
- ▶ Note that though R is positive as per our definition, some of its entries are negative.

Continuation

- ▶ (vi) \Rightarrow (i). Assume $A = S^2$ where $S = S^*$.
- ▶ In particular, $A = S^*S$. This proves (i). ■
- ▶ Example 26.3: Take

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- ▶ Clearly R is self-adjoint. We have the characteristic polynomial of R , as

$$p(x) = (x - 2)^2 - 1 = x^2 - 4x + 3 = (x - 1)(x - 3).$$

- ▶ Therefore, the eigenvalues of R are $\{1, 3\}$, which are non-negative. Then by part (v) of the previous Theorem, R is positive.
- ▶ Note that though R is positive as per our definition, some of its entries are negative.
- ▶ Find all self-adjoint operators S such that $R = S^2$. (Exercise)

Cartesian decomposition

- Theorem 26.3 (Cartesian decomposition): Let A be a complex square matrix. Then A decomposes uniquely as

$$A = B + iC$$

where B, C are self-adjoint.

Cartesian decomposition

- Theorem 26.3 (Cartesian decomposition): Let A be a complex square matrix. Then A decomposes uniquely as

$$A = B + iC$$

where B, C are self-adjoint.

- Proof: Take $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.

Cartesian decomposition

- Theorem 26.3 (Cartesian decomposition): Let A be a complex square matrix. Then A decomposes uniquely as

$$A = B + iC$$

where B, C are self-adjoint.

- Proof: Take $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.
- Then it is easily verified that B, C are self-adjoint and $A = B + iC$.

Cartesian decomposition

- **Theorem 26.3 (Cartesian decomposition):** Let A be a complex square matrix. Then A decomposes uniquely as

$$A = B + iC$$

where B, C are self-adjoint.

- **Proof:** Take $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.
- Then it is easily verified that B, C are self-adjoint and $A = B + iC$.
- Conversely, suppose $A = B + iC$, with B, C self-adjoint. We see directly that $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.

Cartesian decomposition

- Theorem 26.3 (Cartesian decomposition): Let A be a complex square matrix. Then A decomposes uniquely as

$$A = B + iC$$

where B, C are self-adjoint.

- Proof: Take $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.
- Then it is easily verified that B, C are self-adjoint and $A = B + iC$.
- Conversely, suppose $A = B + iC$, with B, C self-adjoint. We see directly that $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.
- This proves uniqueness. ■

Cartesian decomposition

- Theorem 26.3 (Cartesian decomposition): Let A be a complex square matrix. Then A decomposes uniquely as

$$A = B + iC$$

where B, C are self-adjoint.

- Proof: Take $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.
- Then it is easily verified that B, C are self-adjoint and $A = B + iC$.
- Conversely, suppose $A = B + iC$, with B, C self-adjoint. We see directly that $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.
- This proves uniqueness. ■
- This is known as **Cartesian decomposition**.

Cartesian decomposition

- Theorem 26.3 (Cartesian decomposition): Let A be a complex square matrix. Then A decomposes uniquely as

$$A = B + iC$$

where B, C are self-adjoint.

- Proof: Take $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.
- Then it is easily verified that B, C are self-adjoint and $A = B + iC$.
- Conversely, suppose $A = B + iC$, with B, C self-adjoint. We see directly that $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.
- This proves uniqueness. ■
- This is known as **Cartesian decomposition**.

Cartesian decomposition

- Theorem 26.3 (Cartesian decomposition): Let A be a complex square matrix. Then A decomposes uniquely as

$$A = B + iC$$

where B, C are self-adjoint.

- Proof: Take $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.
- Then it is easily verified that B, C are self-adjoint and $A = B + iC$.
- Conversely, suppose $A = B + iC$, with B, C self-adjoint. We see directly that $B = \frac{A+A^*}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^*}{2i}$.
- This proves uniqueness. ■
- This is known as **Cartesian decomposition**.
- END OF LECTURE 26