

10. Positive definite matrices

Def: A self-adjoint map $H: X \rightarrow X$ is positive (or positive definite) if $(x, Hx) > 0$ for all $x \neq 0$. It is nonnegative (or positive semidefinite) if $(x, Hx) \geq 0$.

We denote these as e.g., $H > 0$, and $H \geq 0$, resp.

Theorem 10.1: Let X be a Euclidean space.

- (i) The identity map I is positive.
- (ii) If $M, N > 0$ then $M + N > 0$ and $aM > 0$ for $a > 0$.
- (iii) If $H > 0$ and Q invertible, then $Q^* H Q > 0$.
- (iv) $H > 0$ iff all eigenvalues are positive.
- (v) If $H > 0$ then H is invertible.
- (vi) Every positive map has a unique positive square root.
- (vii) The set of positive maps is an open subset of the space of self-adjoint maps.
- (viii) The boundary points of the set of positive maps are the nonnegative maps that are not positive.

2

Proof: (i) $(x, Ix) = (x, x) > 0$ if $x \neq 0$. ✓

(ii) $(x, (M+N)x) = (x, Mx) + (x, Nx) > 0$ if $x \neq 0$. ✓

and $(x, aMx) = a(x, Mx) > 0$ ✓

(iii) $(x, Q^*HQx) = (Qx, HQx)$. Put $y = Qx \neq 0$ if $x \neq 0$.
 $= (y, Hy) > 0$. ✓

(iv) (\Rightarrow) Say $H > 0$ and $Hv = \lambda v$, $v \neq 0$.

Then $(v, Hv) = (v, \lambda v) = \lambda(v, v) > 0 \Rightarrow \lambda > 0$. ✓

(\Leftarrow) Let v_1, \dots, v_n be an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors with eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n > 0$. Pick $x \neq 0$, write

$x = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n$, and $Hx = a_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n \lambda_n v_n$.

$(x, Hx) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |a_i|^2 > 0$ for all $x \neq 0$. ✓

Note: $(x, Hx) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |a_i|^2 \geq \lambda_{\min} \|x\|^2$ (*).

(v) If H is not invertible, then $Hv = 0$ for some $v \neq 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 0$ ✓.

(vi) Write $\sqrt{H}x = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \sqrt{\lambda_i} v_i$ (clearly positive). ✓

(vii) Fix $H > 0$, and let N be any self-adjoint map such that $\|N - H\| < \lambda_{\min}$.

Claim: N is positive.

Put $M = N - H$.

Since $\|M\| < \lambda_{\min}$, we know $\|Mx\| < \lambda_{\min} \|x\|$ for all $x \neq 0$.

By Cauchy-Schwarz, $|(x, Mx)| \leq \|x\| \|Mx\| < \lambda_{\min} \|x\|^2$

Together, we get for $x \neq 0$:

$$(x, Nx) = (x, (H+M)x) = (x, Hx) + \underbrace{(x, Mx)}_{< \lambda_{\min} \|x\|, \text{ see above}} > \lambda_{\min} \|x\|^2 - \lambda_{\min} \|x\|^2 = 0.$$

$\geq \lambda_{\min} \|x\|^2$ by (*)

Therefore, $N = H + M$ is positive. \checkmark

(viii) By definition, if K is on the boundary of positive maps, then \exists sequence $H_n \rightarrow K$ of positive maps, i.e., $\|H_n - K\| \rightarrow 0$.

By Cauchy-Schwarz, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x, H_n x) = (x, Kx)$. \checkmark

□

Put a partial order onto the set of self-adjoint maps:

Say $M < N$ iff $N - M > 0$

$M \leq N$ iff $N - M \geq 0$.

We get the following properties (almost) for free:

Additive: $M_1 < N_1$ and $M_2 < N_2 \Rightarrow M_1 + M_2 < N_1 + N_2$

Transitive: $L < M < N \Rightarrow L < N$

Multiplicative: $M < N$, Q invt $\Rightarrow Q^* M Q < Q^* N Q$.

[4]

Theorem 10.2: Suppose $0 < M < N$. Then $M^{-1} > N^{-1} > 0$.

Proof: First, suppose $N = I$.

$$\text{Then } M < I \Rightarrow I - M > 0.$$

\Rightarrow Eigenvalues of $I - M$ are positive.

Say $(I - M)v = \lambda v$ for $v \neq 0$.

$$\text{Then } Mv = v - \lambda v = (1 - \lambda)v. \text{ Since } 1 - \lambda > 0, \quad 0 < \lambda < 1.$$

In summary: λ eigenvalue of $I - M \Rightarrow 0 < \lambda < 1$

$\Rightarrow 1 - \lambda$ eigenvalue of M , and $0 < 1 - \lambda < 1$.

$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{1 - \lambda}$ eigenvalue of M^{-1} , and $\frac{1}{1 - \lambda} > 1$

\Rightarrow Eigenvalues of $M^{-1} - I > 0$

$\Rightarrow M^{-1} - I > 0 \Rightarrow M^{-1} > I$. \checkmark

Now, consider arbitrary $N > M > 0$.

Factor $N = R^2$, $R > 0$ and invertible.

We'll use $0 < M < N \Rightarrow 0 < Q^* M Q < Q^* N Q$ twice.

First: $Q = R^{-1}$ (so $Q^* = R^{-1}$)

$$0 < R^{-1} M R^{-1} < R^{-1} N R^{-1} = I$$

From what we showed above, $(R^{-1} M R^{-1})^{-1} = R M^{-1} R > I$.

Second: $Q = R^{-1}$

$$0 < I < R M^{-1} R \Rightarrow 0 < R^{-1} I R^{-1} < R^{-1} (R M^{-1} R) R^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 < R^{-2} = N^{-1} < M^{-1}$$

\square

Caveat: The product of self-adjoint maps is in general, not self-adjoint.

Example: let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$, $B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$, $x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$Ax = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Bx = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (x, ABx) = (Ax, Bx) = -3$$

Def: If A, B are self-adjoint, define their symmetrized product as $S = AB + BA$.

Note that $(x, Sx) = (x, ABx) + (x, BAx) = (Ax, Bx) + (Bx, Ax)$.

In the real case: $(x, Sx) = 2(Ax, Bx)$.

In the example above, $AB + BA = \begin{pmatrix} -6 & 0 \\ 0 & 42 \end{pmatrix}$.

Thus, it is false that $A > 0, B > 0 \Rightarrow AB + BA > 0$.

But a similar statement is true:

Theorem 10.3: let A, B be self-adjoint. If $A > 0$ and $AB + BA > 0$, then $B > 0$.

Proof: Define $B(t) = B + tA$. (Note: We must show $B(0) > 0$.)

Claim 1: The symmetrized product of A and $B(t)$ is positive for $t \geq 0$.

$$S(t) = AB(t) + B(t)A = A(B + tA) + (B + tA)A = AB + BA + 2tA^2 = S + 2tA^2 > 0$$

(since $S > 0$ and $2tA^2 > 0$) ✓

6

Claim 2: For t large enough, $B(t) > 0$:

$$(x, B(t)x) = (x, (B+tA)x) = (x, Bx) + t(x, Ax).$$

Recall: $(x, Ax) \geq \lambda_{\min} \|x\|^2$ (min e-value of A)

$$\text{and } |(x, Bx)| \leq \|x\| \|Bx\| \leq \|B\| \|x\|^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Together, } (x, B(t)) &= t(x, Ax) + (x, Bx) \\ &\geq t \lambda_{\min} \|x\|^2 - \|B\| \|x\|^2 = (t \lambda_{\min} - \|B\|) \|x\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, if $t > \|B\| / \lambda_{\min}$, $B(t) > 0$.

Claim 3: $B = B(0) > 0$.

If not, then for some t_0 , $0 \leq t_0 \leq \|B\| / \lambda_{\min}$ such that

$B(t_0)$ is on the boundary of the set of positive

maps, i.e., $B(t_0) \geq 0$ but $B(t_0) \not> 0$.

Such a $B(t_0)$ has a $\lambda = 0$, so $B(t_0)y = 0$ for some $y \neq 0$.

$$\text{However, } (y, S(t_0)y) = (Ay, B(t_0)y) + (B(t_0)y, Ay) = 0. \quad \text{⊥}$$

Thus $B > 0$.

Corollary 10.4: If $0 < M < N$, then $0 < \sqrt{M} < \sqrt{N}$.

Proof: Put $A(t) = M + t(N-M)$.

$$\text{For } 0 \leq t \leq 1, \quad A(t) = (1-t)M + tN > 0, \quad \dot{A}(t) = N - M > 0.$$

Thus we can define $R(t) = \sqrt{A(t)}$ for $0 \leq t \leq 1$.

Since $A = R^2$, $\dot{A} = \dot{R}R + R\dot{R}$. (Symmetrized product of R and \dot{R}).

We know $\dot{A} = N - M > 0$ and thus so is $R > 0$. (on $[0, 1]$)

Claim: $R(t)$ is an increasing function on $[0, 1]$.

PF: For any $x \neq 0$, $\frac{d}{dt} (x, R_x) = (x, \dot{R}x) > 0$.

By calculus, $(x, R(t)x)$ is increasing

$$\Rightarrow (x, R(s)x) < (x, R(t)x) \text{ for } s < t$$

$$\Rightarrow R(t) - R(s) > 0 \Rightarrow R(t) > R(s) \quad \checkmark$$

In particular, $R(0) < R(1)$

$$R(0) = \sqrt{A(0)} = \sqrt{M}, \quad R(1) = \sqrt{A(1)} = \sqrt{N} \Rightarrow \sqrt{M} < \sqrt{N}. \quad \square$$

Def: A real-valued function $f(s)$, $s > 0$ is a monotone matrix function (mmf) if for all self-adjoint mappings,

$$0 < M < N \Rightarrow f(M) < f(N).$$

Recall that for H self-adjoint with eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ and orthonormal eigenvectors v_1, \dots, v_n , we define

$$f(H) = \hat{\sum}_{i=1}^n f(\lambda_i) P_i \quad \text{for a spectral resolution } H = \hat{\sum}_{i=1}^n \lambda_i P_i.$$

Examples:

(i) $f(s) = -\frac{1}{s}$ is a mmf (immediate from Theorem 10.2;

$$0 < M < N \Rightarrow M^{-1} > N^{-1} > 0 \Rightarrow -M^{-1} < -N^{-1} < 0.$$

(Note that $f(M) = -M^{-1}$).

(8)

(ii) $f(s) = s^{1/2}$ is a mmf (immediate from Corollary 10.4;

$0 < M < N \Rightarrow 0 < \sqrt{M} < \sqrt{N}$. Note that $f(M) = \sqrt{M}$.)

(iii) $f(s) = s^2$ is not a mmf

Take any $A, B > 0$ with $S = AB + BA \neq 0$.

Claim: For small t , if $M = A$, $N = A + tB$, then

$0 < M < N$ but $M^2 \neq N^2$.

Note that $N^2 = A^2 + \underbrace{t(AB + BA)}_{\text{not negligible}} + \underbrace{t^2 B}_{\text{negligible for } t \approx 0}$

so $N^2 = M^2 + [\text{something nonpositive}] \neq M^2$.

(iv) $f(s) = s^{(-2^k)}$ and $f(s) = \log s$ are mmf. (Exercise)

Additionally, positive multiples, sums, and limits of mmf's are mmf's.

For example, $-\sum \frac{m_j}{s+t_j}$ $m_j > 0$, $t_j > 0$ is an mmf,

and so is $f(s) = as + b - \int_0^\infty \frac{d\mu(t)}{s+t}$ $a > 0$, $b \in \mathbb{R}$, (**)

and $\mu(t)$ non-negative measure for which the integral converges.

In fact, every mmf has the form of (**).

(Theorem of C. Loewner - very nontrivial!)

Surprisingly, functions of the form $(**)$ are easy to characterize:

Theorem (Herglotz, Riesz): Every function f which is analytic on the upper half-plane with $\text{Im}(f) > 0$ there, and $\text{Im}(f) = 0$ on the positive real axis, has the form $(**)$.

Conversely, every function of the form $(**)$ can be extended to be analytic on the upper half-plane, with $\text{Im}(f) > 0$ there.

Proof: See "Functional Analysis" by Peter Lax.

How to construct (all) positive matrices:

Def: Let f_1, \dots, f_m be a sequence of vectors in a Euclidean space X . Define the $m \times m$ matrix G , where $G_{ij} = (f_i, f_j)$.

This is called the Gram matrix of f_1, \dots, f_m .

Theorem 10.5:

- (i) Every Gram matrix is nonnegative.
- (ii) The Gram matrix of a set of linearly independent vectors is positive.
- (iii) Every positive matrix can be represented as a Gram matrix.

10

Proof:

$$(i), (ii): (x, Gx) = \sum_{i,j} x_i \bar{G}_{ij} \bar{x}_j = \sum_{i,j} (f_i, f_j) x_i \bar{x}_j$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^m x_i f_i, \sum_{j=1}^m x_j f_j \right) = \left\| \sum x_i f_i \right\|^2.$$

(iii) Let $H = (h_{ij})$ be positive, and define the nonstandard inner product by $(x, y)_H = (x, Hy)$.

Note that under this inner product, the Gram matrix of the unit vectors e_1, \dots, e_m has ij -entry

$$(e_i, e_j)_H = (e_i, He_j) = h_{ij}.$$

□

Examples:

(i) Let $X = \{f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$, $(f, g) := \int_0^1 f(t) g(t) dt$.

If $f_1 = 0, f_2 = t, \dots, f_i = t^{i-1}$, then

$$G = (G_{ij}) \quad \text{where} \quad G_{ij} = \frac{1}{i+j-1}.$$

(ii) Define $(f, g) = \int_0^{2\pi} f(\theta) \bar{g}(\theta) w(\theta) d\theta$, $w: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$.

If $f_j = e^{ij\theta}$, $j = -n, \dots, n$, then the $(2n+1) \times (2n+1)$

corresponding Gram matrix is $G_{kj} = C_{k-j}$, where

$$C_p = \int w(\theta) e^{-ip\theta} d\theta.$$

Theorem 10.6 (Schur): Let $A = (A_{ij})$ and $B = (B_{ij})$ be positive matrices. Then $M = (M_{ij}) := (A_{ij} B_{ij})$ is positive.

We need to employ tensor products for the proof.

Given two vector spaces U, V , their tensor product, denoted $U \otimes V$, is a related vector space of dimension $(\dim U)(\dim V)$.

Definition 1: If $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is a basis of U and $\{f_j\}_{j=1}^m$ a basis of V , then $\{e_i \otimes f_j\}$ is a basis of $U \otimes V$.

Analogy: $\langle 1, x, \dots, x^n \rangle, \langle 1, y, \dots, y^m \rangle$ vs. $\langle x^i y^j : i \leq n, j \leq m \rangle$.

There's a better, basis-free way to construct $U \otimes V$.

Definition 2: $U \otimes V = \{ \sum u_i \otimes v_i : u_i \in U, v_i \in V \} / N$

$$\text{where } N = \left\langle \begin{aligned} (u_1 + u_2) \otimes v - u_1 \otimes v - u_2 \otimes v, \\ u \otimes (v_1 + v_2) - u \otimes v_1 - u \otimes v_2 \end{aligned} \right\rangle$$

Basically, we are forcing the distributive law, i.e.

$$(u_1 + u_2) \otimes v = u_1 \otimes v + u_2 \otimes v, \text{ etc.}$$

Theorem 10.7: There is a natural isomorphism

$$U \otimes V \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}(U', V).$$

(12)

Proof: (sketch). Define the map as follows:

$$U \otimes V \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}(U', V)$$

$$u \otimes v \longmapsto \{l \mapsto (l, u)v\} \quad \text{and extend linearly.}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_m \end{bmatrix} \longmapsto \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_m \end{bmatrix} [u_1 \dots u_n] = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 u_1 & v_1 u_2 & \dots & v_1 u_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ v_m u_1 & v_m u_2 & \dots & v_m u_n \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}$$

Note that $(l, u)v = l \cdot u \cdot v$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_m \end{bmatrix} [u_1 \dots u_n] \begin{bmatrix} l_1 \\ \vdots \\ l_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{l} \mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{u} \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{v} \mathbb{R}^m$$

Analogy: let $U = \langle 1, x, \dots, x^n \rangle$, $V = \langle 1, y, \dots, y^m \rangle$.

Think of $U \times V$ as $\langle (x^i, y^j) : 0 \leq i \leq n, 0 \leq j \leq m \rangle$

and $U \otimes V$ as $\langle x^i y^j : 0 \leq i \leq n, 0 \leq j \leq m \rangle$

Remark: We could similarly define an isomorphism $U \otimes V \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(V', U)$, where the dual of $L: U' \rightarrow V$ is a map $L': V' \rightarrow U$.

If U, V are Euclidean spaces (so $U' = U$), there is a natural way to endow $U \otimes V$ with a Euclidean structure:

For $M, L \in \mathcal{L}(U, V)$, define $(M, L) = \text{tr}(L^* M) = \sum_{i,j} l_{ji} m_{ji}$

Note that $\|M\|^2 = (M, M) = \sum_{i,j} m_{ji}^2$

So $e_i \otimes e_j$ under the isomorphism is the matrix E_{ij} (i.e., the ij -entry is 1, all others 0).

Clearly these form an orthonormal basis of $U \otimes V$.

Proof of Thm 10.6 (Schur): $(A_{ij}), (B_{ij}) > 0 \Rightarrow M := (A_{ij} B_{ij}) > 0$.

Since every positive matrix can be written as a Gram matrix, write $A_{ij} = (u_i, u_j)$, $B_{ij} = (v_i, v_j)$

where u_1, \dots, u_n and v_1, \dots, v_n are linearly independent sets.

Define $g_i \in U \otimes V$ as $g_i = u_i \otimes v_i$

Note that $(g_i, g_j) = (u_i, u_j)(v_i, v_j) = A_{ij} B_{ij}$.

Hence, M is a Gram matrix, and positive by Theorem 10.5. \square

Another way to view tensor products:

Let X be an n -dimensional real vector space

Note that \mathbb{C} is a 2-dimensional real vector space ($\{1, i\}$ is a basis).

Suppose $A: X \rightarrow X$ is a linear map with minimum polynomial $A(s) = s^2 + 1$.

14

Then i and $-i$ are eigenvalues of A , but $i \notin \mathbb{R}$.

So if v is an eigenvector with eigenvalue $\lambda = i$, $v \notin X$.

However, v should live in some "extension" of X .

In this bigger vector space, we want to have vectors

like $z v$, $z \in \mathbb{C}$, $v \in X$.

What we really want is $\mathbb{C} \otimes X$.

This has basis $\{x_1, \dots, x_n, i x_1, \dots, i x_n\}$, where x_1, \dots, x_n is a basis of X .

Note that we need certain associativity, such as

$$(3i)v = (i3)v = i(3v).$$

$$\text{i.e., } 3i \otimes v = i \otimes 3v.$$

But this comes for free with the construction!