LINEAR ALGEBRA -II

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- ► 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.

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- (vi) $A = S^2$ for some self-adjoint $n \times n$ matrix S.

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- ▶ (iii) \Rightarrow (iv). We have $a_{ij} = \langle v_i, v_j \rangle$, $\forall i, j$.
- Now for any $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$:

$$\langle x, Ax \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \overline{x_i} (Ax)_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \overline{x_i} \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j$$

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▶ Therefore,

$$\langle x, Ax \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \langle x_{i}v_{i}, x_{j}v_{j} \rangle$$
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- 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,

$$\langle x, Ay \rangle = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{j=0}^{3} i^{-j} \langle (x + i^{j}y), A(x + i^{j}y) \rangle$$
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▶ implies that $a \ge 0$ as $\langle x, x \rangle \ne 0$.



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

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



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

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



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- Find all self-adjoint operators S such that $R = S^2$. (Exercise)



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- ► This is known as Cartesian decomposition.

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- Note that this theorem does not follow directly from the definition of positivity or from the eigenvalue criterion.
- ▶ This theorem shows that the set of $n \times n$ positive matrices has 'cone' structure: It is closed under taking sums and it is closed under multiplication by positive scalar.

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- **Proof**: As A is positive, $A = D^*D$ for some matrix D.
- Now, $B^*AB = B^*D^*DB = (DB)^*(DB)$. Hence B^*AB is positive from the definition of positivity. We may also see this from looking at the quadratic form.

Trace and Determinant

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- ▶ Proof: The first part is clear as the trace and determinant of a matrix are respectively the sum and the product of its eigenvalues and a positive matrix has non-negative eigenvalues. The second claim follows from a_{ii} = ⟨v_i, v_i⟩ in part (iv) of the characterization.

▶ Definition 27.5: Let $v_1, v_2, ..., v_n$ be vectors in an inner product space V. Then their Gram matrix is defined as the matrix

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We have seen that Gram matrices are positive and conversely all positive matrices can be written as Gram matrices. In Probability theory Gram matrices appear as 'covariance matrices'.

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- Suppose x, y are vectors in an inner product space V. Consider their Gram matrix:

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We know that G is positive. Hence its determinant is positive. So we get $\langle x, x \rangle . \langle y, y \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle . \langle y, x \rangle \ge 0$.

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- We know that G is positive. Hence its determinant is positive. So we get $\langle x, x \rangle. \langle y, y \rangle \langle x, y \rangle. \langle y, x \rangle \ge 0$.
- In other words, we have the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:

$$|\langle x,y\rangle|^2 \le \|x\|^2 \cdot \|y\|^2 \cdot$$

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- ▶ Proof: In the proof the main characterization theorem for positive matrices we have seen that if A is positive then there exists positive S such that $A = S^2$.
- Now suppose B is positive and $A = B^2$.
- Let b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k the distinct eigenvalues of B and $B = b_1 Q_1 + b_2 Q_2 + \cdots + b_k Q_k$ be the spectral decomposition of B.

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- ▶ In other words, if $A = a_1P_1 + a_2P_2 + \cdots + a_kP_k$ is the spectral decomposition of A, then $B = \sqrt{a_1}P_1 + \sqrt{a_2}P_2 + \cdots + \sqrt{a_k}P_k$.

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For any projection P, the unitary $2P - I = P - P^{\perp}$ is a square root of I. This shows that I has infinitely many square roots (in dimension bigger than 1) if we do not insist on positivity.

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- Note that for a positive matrix A, $A^{\frac{1}{2}} = A$ if and only if A is a projection.
- ▶ Question: Do we have $|A + B| \le |A| + |B|$? In other words can we say that |A| + |B| |A + B| is positive?

▶ Theorem 28.1: Let B be an $n \times n$ matrix. Then B factorizes as

$$B = UR$$

where U is a unitary and R is positive. Here R = |B| and U is uniquely determined if B is invertible.

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- ▶ Observe that, for $u, v \in \mathbb{C}^n$,

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▶ In particular, if |B|x = |B|y, then |B|(x - y) = 0, Hence,

$$\langle |B|(x-y), |B|(x-y) \rangle = 0.$$



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$$\langle |B|u, |B|v \rangle = \langle Bu, Bv \rangle, \quad \forall u, v \in \mathbb{C}^n$$

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- ▶ Hence U_0 is isometric.
- ▶ From the definition of U_0 it is clear that U_0 maps \mathcal{M} onto \mathcal{N} .



▶ We can extend U_0 to a unitary from \mathbb{C}^n to \mathbb{C}^n as the dimensions of \mathcal{M}^\perp and \mathcal{N}^\perp are equal. More explicitly we can take the following steps:

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- Let v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k be an ortho-normal basis of \mathcal{M} . Then $U_0v_1, U_0v_2, \ldots, U_0v_k$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{N} .

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- Similarly, extend $\{U_0v_1, U_0v_2, \dots, U_0v_k\}$ to an orthonormal basis $\{U_0v_1, U_0v_2, \dots, U_0v_k, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_{n-k}\}$ of \mathbb{C}^n .

Now we extend U to a unitary of \mathbb{C}^n by defining it on the orthonormal basis $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ (and extending linearly) by setting

$$Uv_j = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} U_0v_j & \mbox{ for } 1 \leq j \leq k; \ w_{j-k} & \mbox{ for } k+1 \leq j \leq n. \end{array}
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- ▶ If B is invertible, and B = UR, then as det(B) = det(U). $det(R) \neq 0$, R is also invertible and we get

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► Therefore, *U* is uniquely determined. ■



Polar decomposition for normal matrices

Example 28.2: Suppose A is a normal matrix and let

$$A = UDU^*$$

be the diagonalization of A with unitary U and diagonal matrix D. Let d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_n be the diagonal entries of D.

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► We can write *D* as

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Note that if $d_j=0$, then when we write $d_j=e^{i\theta_j}|d_j|,\ e^{i\theta_j}$ is not unique.



Now A = V|A| where

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- ▶ Then A = V|A| is the polar decomposition of A.
- ► END OF REVIEW

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$$B = VSW$$
.

Note that as |B| is positive, the diagonal entries of S are non-negative.



Definition 29.2: The decomposition of a matrix B as

$$B = VSW$$

where V, W are unitaries and S is diagonal with non-negative entries, is known as singular value decomposition. The diagonal entries of S are known as singular values of B.

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► Note that,

$$BB^* = VSS^*V^* = VS^2V^*.$$

▶ Therefore singular values of B are also eigenvalues of $(BB^*)^{\frac{1}{2}}$.



► Further,

$$BB^* = VS^2V^* = VW(B^*B)W^*V^*.$$

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▶ Hence B^*B and BB^* are unitarily equivalent.

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- So we have pairs of vectors, which behave somewhat like eigenvectors.
- ▶ It is possible to have singular value decomposition for non-square matrices. But we will not be considering that.
- ▶ The notion of SVD has many practical applications.



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$$A = V_1 \left| egin{array}{cccc} |d_1| & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & |d_2| & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & |d_n| \end{array} \right| U^*,$$

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where

$$V_1=U\left[egin{array}{cccc} e^{i heta_1}&0&\dots&0\ 0&e^{i heta_2}&\dots&0\ dots&dots&\ddots&dots\ 0&0&\dots&e^{i heta_n} \end{array}
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- Example 28.3 and 29.4: Consider

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right].$$

► Then

$$B^*B = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 4 & 4 & 4 \\ 4 & 4 & 4 \\ 4 & 4 & 4 \end{array} \right].$$

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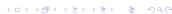
Then

$$B^*B = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 4 & 4 & 4 \\ 4 & 4 & 4 \\ 4 & 4 & 4 \end{array} \right].$$

- ▶ Recall that an $n \times n$ matrix with all entries equal to $\frac{1}{n}$ is a projection.
- Therefore

$$B^*B = 12 \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix} + 0. \begin{bmatrix} 2/3 & -1/3 & -1/3 \\ -1/3 & 2/3 & -1/3 \\ -1/3 & -1/3 & 2/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

is the spectral decomposition of B^*B .



▶ Therefore,

$$|B| = \sqrt{12} \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} \\ 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} \\ 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix}.$$

▶ Take

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix}.$$

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► We may now verify that

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} \end{array} \right] \cdot \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} \\ 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} \\ 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{3} \end{array} \right].$$

is a polar decomposition of B.

$$B = I. \begin{bmatrix} 2\sqrt{3} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix},$$

is a singular value decomposition of B.

$$B = I. \begin{bmatrix} 2\sqrt{3} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} . \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix},$$

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is a singular value decomposition of B.

- ► END OF LECTURE 29.