

# Numerical Matrix Analysis

## Notes #17 — Systems of Equations

### Gaussian Elimination / Cholesky Factorization

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# Outline

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- Last Time...
- Stability
- Backward Stability? Practical Stability?

## 2 Cholesky Factorization

- Hermitian Positive Definite Matrices
- $R^*R$ -factorization

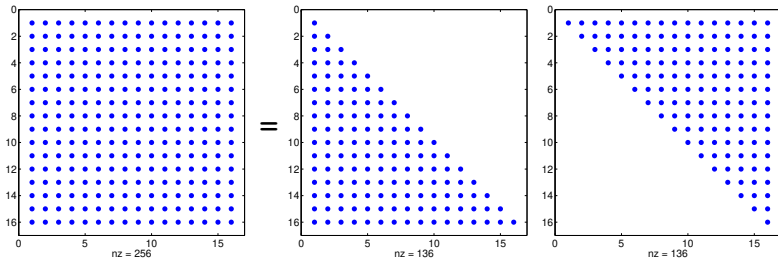
## 3 Reference

## Rewind: Last Time

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We quickly reviewed a familiar algorithm — **Gaussian Elimination**.

If we save the multipliers generated by the elimination, we get the **LU-factorization** of  $A$ , i.e.  $A = LU$ , where  $L$  is lower triangular, and  $U$  is upper triangular.



In this initial form, GE/LU is completely useless (unstable), we discussed a couple of fixes, some probably familiar, some new...

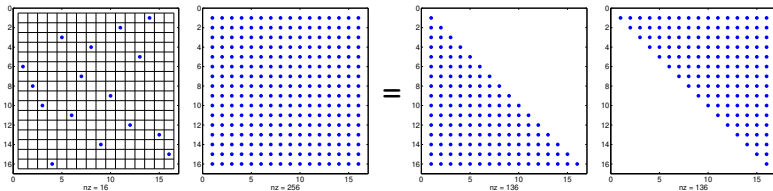
## Rewind: Last Time

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In **Partial Pivoting** we rearrange the rows of the matrix  $A$  (on the fly) in order to move the largest element in the “active” column to the diagonal entry — this way we can guarantee that the multiplier is bounded by one

$$\tilde{l}_{ji} = a_{ji} \oslash a_{ii} = \frac{a_{ji}}{a_{ii}}(1 + \epsilon), \quad |\epsilon| \leq \epsilon_{\text{mach}}, \quad |\delta \tilde{l}_{ji}| \leq \epsilon_{\text{mach}} l_{ji}$$

We get **PA = LU**



## Rewind: Last Time

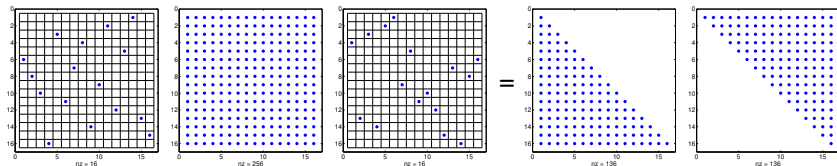
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**Partial Pivoting** is stable “most of the time.” We looked at enhancements taking scale into consideration: **Scaled Partial Pivoting**.

The overall work for GE/LU is  $\sim \frac{2m^3}{3}$ , and partial pivoting adds  $\mathcal{O}(m^2)$  operations, which is a small cost.

Sometimes **Complete Pivoting** — rearrangement of both the rows and columns of  $A$  is necessary to achieve high accuracy. The cost is significant since the additional work adds  $\mathcal{O}(m^3)$  operations.

We get **PAQ = LU**



## Now...

- We look at the stability of Gaussian elimination.
- Gaussian Elimination for **Hermitian Positive Definite Matrices**:
  - Cholesky Factorization — The Hermitian (Symmetric) version of LU-factorization.

## Stability of Gaussian Elimination: Introduction

1 of 2

*"Gaussian Elimination with partial pivoting is **explosively unstable** for certain matrices, yet stable in practice. This apparent paradox has a statistical explanation."*  
[Trefethen-&-Bau, p.163]

The stability analysis of Gaussian Elimination with Partial Pivoting (GE w/PP) is complicated, consider the example  $A = LU$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10^{-20} & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 10^{20} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-20} & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - 10^{20} \end{bmatrix}$$

The likely **computed**  $\tilde{L}$  and  $\tilde{U}$  are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 10^{20} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-20} & 1 \\ 0 & -10^{20} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-20} & 1 \\ 1 & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \neq A$$

## Stability of Gaussian Elimination: Introduction

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This behavior is quite generic — instability in Gaussian Elimination (with or without pivoting) can arise if the factors  $\tilde{L}$  or  $\tilde{U}$  are large compared with  $A$ .

In the previous example we have

$$\|A\|_F = 1.7321, \quad \|\tilde{L}\|_F = 1.0000 \times 10^{20}, \quad \|\tilde{U}\|_F = 1.0000 \times 10^{20}$$

*i.e.* the computed factors are 20 orders of magnitude larger than the initial matrix — no wonder we run into problems!

The purpose of pivoting — from the point of view of stability/accuracy — is to make sure that  $\tilde{L}$  and  $\tilde{U}$  are not too large.



## Formal Result

Theorem ( $LU$ -Factorization without (explicit) Pivoting)

Let the factorization  $A = LU$  of a non-singular matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  be computed by Gaussian Elimination without pivoting in a floating point environment satisfying the floating point axioms. If  $A$  has an  $LU$ -factorization, then for  $\epsilon_{mach}$  small enough, the factorization completes successfully in floating point arithmetic (no zero pivots  $\tilde{a}_{ii}$  are encountered), and the computed matrices  $\tilde{L}$ , and  $\tilde{U}$  satisfy

$$\tilde{L}\tilde{U} = A + \delta A, \quad \frac{\|\delta A\|}{\|L\| \|U\|} = \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{mach})$$

for some  $\delta A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ .

Note that we can make the theorem apply to GE w/Pivoting by applying it to the “pre-pivoted matrix:”  $A := PA[Q]$ .

## Formal Result: Comments

If we just flash by the previous slide, the result look just like all the other backward stability results... **BUT!!!** take a closer look... we have

$$\frac{\|\delta A\|}{\|L\| \|U\|} = \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{\text{mach}}).$$

Usually, the results contain something like

$$\frac{\|\delta A\|}{\|A\|} = \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{\text{mach}}).$$

There is a **critical difference** here. If  $\|L\| \|U\| = \mathcal{O}(\|A\|)$ , then the theorem states that GE is backward stable. However (like in our previous example), if  $\|L\| \|U\| \gg \mathcal{O}(\|A\|)$ , all bets are off!

## Quantifying Stability

## The Growth Factor

Without pivoting, both  $\|L\|$  and  $\|U\|$  can be unbounded, and GE w/o Pivoting is unstable by any standard.

Consider GE w/PP. By construction  $|\ell_{ij}| \leq 1$ , so that  $\|L\| = \mathcal{O}(1)$  in any norm (this is true for all the pivoting schemes we have discussed). We now focus our attention to  $U$ ; essentially GE w/PP is backward stable provided  $\|U\| = \mathcal{O}(\|A\|)$ .

The following quantity turns out to be very useful:

## Definition (Growth Factor)

The **growth factor** of  $A$  (and the algorithm) is defined as the ratio

$$\rho = \frac{\max_{i,j} |u_{ij}|}{\max_{i,j} |a_{ij}|}$$

# The Growth Factor... and Stability

If  $\rho \sim 1$ , there is little growth, and the elimination process is stable. When  $\rho$  is large, we expect loss of accuracy and/or instability of the algorithm... We make this precise: —

## Theorem

*Let the factorization  $PA = LU$  of a non-singular matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  be computed by GEw/PP in a floating point environment satisfying the floating point axioms. The computed matrices  $\tilde{P}$ ,  $\tilde{L}$ , and  $\tilde{U}$  satisfy*

$$\tilde{L}\tilde{U} = \tilde{P}A + \delta A, \quad \frac{\|\delta A\|}{\|A\|} = \mathcal{O}(\rho\epsilon_{mach})$$

*for some  $\delta A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ , where  $\rho$  is the growth factor of  $A$ . If  $|\ell_{ij}| < 1$  for  $i > j$ , then  $P = \tilde{P}$  for  $\epsilon_{mach}$  small enough.*

## Backward Stability for GEw/PP?

1 of 3

If  $\rho = \mathcal{O}(1)$  uniformly for all matrices of a given dimension  $m$ , then GEw/PP is backward stable; otherwise it is not.

**Let the mathematical hair-splitting begin!**

Consider the worst-case scenario

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & & \\ -1 & 1 & & & & \\ -1 & -1 & 1 & & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ -1 & -1 & \dots & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & \dots & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} =$$

## Backward Stability for GE w/PP?

1 of 3

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Here  $\rho = 2^{m-1}$ , which is the maximal value  $\rho$  can take for GE w/PP.

## Backward Stability for GE w/PP?

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A growth factor of  $2^{m-1}$  corresponds to a loss of  $\sim (m - 1)$  bits of information (Recall: we have at most 52 binary digits in IEEE-754-1985 double precision floating point computations).

According the worst-case estimate we cannot safely operate on matrices of dimension larger than  $52 \times 52$ , and in that case only have one bit of information! This is an intolerable state of affairs for practical computations!!!

## Backward Stability for GE w/PP?

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On the other hand... We have a uniform bound ( $2^{m-1}$ ) on the growth factor for  $m \times m$ -matrices, thus according to our previous definitions of backward stability; **GE w/PP is backward stable.**

Clearly, **for practical purposes**, this is an absurd conclusion. In this context, let's put the previous formal definition of backward stability aside; and say that the worst-case scenario indicates that **GE w/PP can be unstable.**



## Practical Stability of Gaussian Elimination

Now... If GE w/PP is so unstable, why is it so famous and popular?!?

*"Despite worst-case examples, GE w/PP is utterly stable in practice. Large factors  $U$  like the one in the worst-case scenario never seem to appear in real applications. In 50 years of computing no matrix problems that excite explosive instability are known to have arisen under natural circumstances."*

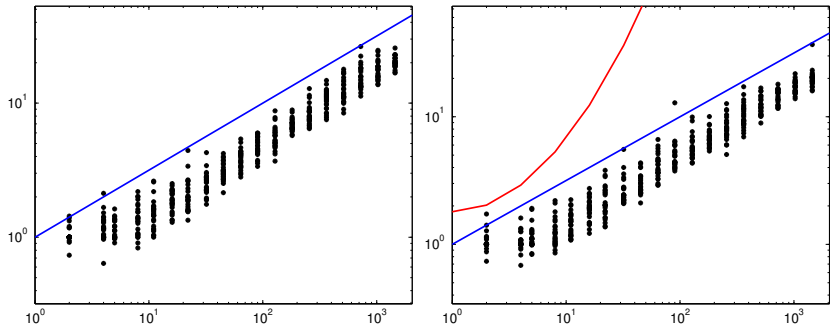
[Trefethen-&-Bau (1997), p.166]

In "Matrix Computations" by Golub & Van-Loan, the upper bounds for the growth factors for partial and complete pivoting are given as

$$\rho_{PP} \leq 2^{m-1}, \quad \rho_{CP} \leq 1.8m^{\left(\frac{\ln m}{4}\right)}.$$

## Curious...

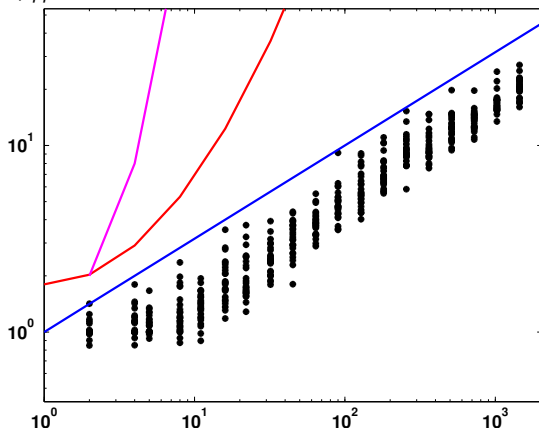
The number of matrices with large growth factors is very small — if we select a random matrix in  $\mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  it turns out that a practical bound on  $\rho_{PP}$  is given by  $\sqrt{m}$ . This is illustrated below.



**Figure:** The growth factors for GEw/PP for 500 random matrices ranging in size from  $2 \times 2$  to  $1448 \times 1448$ . The **blue** line (left panel) corresponds to the practical bound  $\sqrt{m}$ ; and the **red line** (right panel only) corresponds to the worst-case bound for **complete pivoting**,  $\rho_{cp}$ .

## Curious...

## Pt. 2

Where is the  $\rho_{pp}$  line?!

**Figure:** The corresponding values for  $\rho_{pp}$  are  $\{2, 8, 16, 128, 10^3, 10^4, 10^6, 10^9, 10^{13}, 10^{18}, 10^{26}, 10^{38}, 10^{54}, 10^{76}, 10^{108}, 10^{153}, 10^{217}, 10^{307}, 10^{435}\}$ , whereas in this ( $m \in \{2, \dots, 1448\}$ ) range,  $\rho_{cp} < 10^7$ .

## GE w/PP Bottom Line

The bottom line is that GE w/PP works well “almost always.”

It is almost impossible to prove any useful result in this context.

Vigorous hand-waving and numerical recovery of the probability density functions for the growth-factor vs. the matrix size can be used to get indications that the number of matrices with large growth factors is exponentially small in a probabilistic sense.

See e.g. Trefethen-&-Bau pp.166–170, for some discussion.

## Cholesky Factorization

## Hermitian Positive Definite Matrices

We now turn our attention to application of Gaussian Elimination / LU-Factorization to a special class of matrices —

**Definition (Hermitian Positive Definite)**

$A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  is **Hermitian Positive Definite** if  $A = A^*$ , and

$$\vec{x}^* A \vec{x} > 0, \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{C}^m - \{\vec{0}\}.$$

This type of matrices show up **many** applications — due to symmetry (reciprocity) in physical systems.

My favorite application is **optimization** [MATH 693A], where we constantly build second order models

$$m_k(\vec{p}) = f(\vec{x}_k) + \vec{p} \nabla f(\vec{x}_k) + \frac{1}{2} \vec{p}^* B_k \vec{p}$$

where the matrix  $B_k \approx \nabla^2 f(\vec{x}_k)$  is symmetric (Hermitian) positive definite.

# Hermitian Positive Definite (HPD) Matrices: Properties

Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  be HPD.

- $\lambda(A) \in \mathbb{R}^+$ .
- Eigenvectors that correspond to **distinct** eigenvalues of a Hermitian matrix are **orthogonal** (For general matrixes we only get linear independence).
- $\forall X \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ ,  $m \geq n$ ,  $\text{rank}(X) = n$ ;  $X^*AX$  is also HPD.
- By selecting  $X \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  to be a matrix with a 1 in each column, and zeros everywhere else, we can write any  $n \times n$  principal sub-matrix of  $A$  in the form  $X^*AX$ . It follows that every principal sub-matrix of  $A$  must be HPD, and in particular  $a_{ii} \in \mathbb{R}^+$ .

Cholesky  $R^* R$ -factorization

1 of 4

We now turn to the main task at hand — decomposing a HPD matrix into triangular factors,  $R^* R$ ...

We assume that  $A$  is an HPD matrix, and write it in the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \vec{w}^* \\ \vec{w} & \boxed{B} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta & \vec{0}^* \\ \vec{w}/\beta & \boxed{I(n-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \vec{0}^* \\ \vec{0} & \boxed{B - \vec{w}\vec{w}'/\alpha} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta & \vec{w}^*/\beta \\ \vec{0} & \boxed{I(n-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Where

$$\beta = \sqrt{\alpha}, \quad \vec{0} \text{ the zero-vector,} \quad B - \vec{w}\vec{w}'/\alpha := B - \vec{w}\vec{w}^*/\alpha,$$

$I(n-1)$  the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ -identity matrix

Before moving forward, we check the matrix identity...

Cholesky  $R^*$   $R$ -factorization

2 of 4

We have

$$\begin{bmatrix} \beta & \vec{0}^* \\ \vec{w}/\beta & \boxed{\mathbf{I}(n-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \vec{0}^* \\ \vec{0} & \boxed{\mathbf{B} - \mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^* / \alpha} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta & \vec{w}^* / \beta \\ \vec{0} & \boxed{\mathbf{I}(n-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplying the first two matrices, and then third together gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} \beta & \vec{0}^* \\ \vec{w}/\beta & \boxed{\mathbf{B} - \mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^* / \alpha} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta & \vec{w}^* / \beta \\ \vec{0} & \boxed{\mathbf{I}(n-1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \vec{w}^* \\ \vec{w} & \boxed{\mathbf{B}} \end{bmatrix}$$

as desired.



Cholesky  $R^*$   $R$ -factorization

3 of 4

It can be shown (see slides 31–32) that the sub-matrix  $B - \vec{w}\vec{w}^*/\alpha$  is also HPD.

We can now define the Cholesky Factorization recursively:

$$R^{(n)} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta & \vec{w}^*/\beta \\ \vec{0} & R^{(n-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Where  $R^{(n-1)} = R^{(n-1)}$  is the Cholesky factor  $R$  associated with  $B - \vec{w}\vec{w}^*/\alpha$ , i.e.  $[R^{(n)}]^*[R^{(n)}] = B - \vec{w}\vec{w}^*/\alpha$ .

A note on the implementation (next slide): Since we only need to compute one of the triangular parts (it's Hermitian, remember!?) of the factorization, the Cholesky factorization uses about 1/2 the operations of a general  $LU$ -factorization.

Cholesky  $R^* R$ -factorization

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```
% Cholesky Factorization of an m-by-m matrix A
for i = 1:m
    %
    % compute  $\vec{w}^* / \beta$ 
    %
    A(i, i)      = sqrt(A(i, i));
    A(i, (i+1):m) = A(i, (i+1):m) / A(i, i);
    %
    % compute the upper triangular part of  $B - \vec{w}\vec{w}^* / \alpha$ 
    %
    for j = (i+1):m
        A(j, j:m) = A(j, j:m) - A(i, j:m) * A(i, j)';
    end
    %
    % We zero out the sub-diagonal elements, since
    % the answer is an upper triangular matrix.
    %
    A((i+1):m, i) = zeros(m-i, 1);
end
```

## Cholesky Factorization: Existence, Uniqueness, and Work

## Theorem

Every HPD matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  has a unique Cholesky factorization.

The existence follows from the argument on slides 31–32, and uniqueness from the algorithm.  $\square$

Compared with standard Gaussian elimination / LU-factorization we are saving about half the operations since we only form the upper triangular part  $R$

Cholesky $R^* R$ Factorization	$\frac{m^3}{3}$
LU-Factorization	$\frac{2m^3}{3}$
QR: Householder	$\frac{4m^3}{3}$
QR: Gram-Schmidt	$2m^3$
SVD	$13m^3$

## Cholesky Factorization: Stability

1 of 2

Usually when we see this table

Cholesky $R^*R$ Factorization	$\frac{m^3}{3}$
LU-Factorization	$\frac{2m^3}{3}$
QR: Householder	$\frac{4m^3}{3}$
QR: Gram-Schmidt	$2m^3$
SVD	$13m^3$

we note that with increased cost comes increased stability. The Cholesky factorization is the one pleasant exception!

All the subtle things that can go wrong in general LU-factorization (Gaussian elimination) are safe in the Cholesky factorization context!

**Cholesky factorization is always backward stable!**

*(For HPD matrices, that is.)*

## Cholesky Factorization: Stability

2 of 2

In the 2-norm we have  $\|R\| = \|R^*\| = \sqrt{\|A\|}$ , thus the growth factor cannot be large. We also note that we can safely compute the Cholesky factorization **without pivoting**.

## Theorem

*Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  be HPD, and let  $R^*R = A$  be computed using the Cholesky factorization algorithm in a floating point environment satisfying the floating point axioms. For sufficiently small  $\epsilon_{mach}$ , this process is guaranteed to run to completion (no zero or negative entries  $r_{kk}$  will arise), generating a computed factor  $\tilde{R}$  that satisfies*

$$\tilde{R}^* \tilde{R} = A + \delta A, \quad \frac{\|\delta A\|}{\|A\|} = \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{mach})$$

*for some  $\delta A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ .*



Solving  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  using Cholesky Factorization

1 of 2

If  $A$  is HPD, the standard (best) way to solve  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  is by Cholesky decomposition.

Once we have  $R^*R\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ , we get the solution by solving  $R^*\vec{y} = \vec{b}$  (by forward substitution), followed by  $R\vec{x} = \vec{y}$  (by backward substitution). Each triangular solve requires  $\sim m^2$  operations, so the total work is  $\sim \frac{1}{3}m^3$ .

Solving  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  using Cholesky Factorization

2 of 2

We have the following important result

### Theorem

*The solution of an HPD system  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  via Cholesky factorization is backward stable, generating a computed solution  $\tilde{x}$  that satisfies*

$$(A + \Delta A)\tilde{x} = \vec{b}, \quad \frac{\|\Delta A\|}{\|A\|} = \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{mach})$$

*for some  $\Delta A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ .*

## One More Comment

If we have a Hermitian matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  the best way to **check** if it is also Positive Definite is to try to compute the Cholesky factorization.

If  $A$  is not HPD, then the Cholesky factorization will break down in the sense that

$$\sqrt{r_{kk}} \quad \text{or, if you want} \quad \text{sqrt}(A(i, i))$$

will fail (if  $r_{kk} < 0$ ) or the subsequent division by  $\sqrt{r_{kk}}$  will fail (if  $r_{kk} = 0$ ).

Usually, in applications (such as optimization) we require  $A$  to be **sufficiently HPD**, meaning that we must have  $r_{kk} \geq \delta > 0$  for some  $\delta$ . Quite possibly  $\delta \in \{\sqrt{\epsilon_{\text{mach}}}, \sqrt[3]{\epsilon_{\text{mach}}}\}$ .



Reference: Proof that  $B - \vec{w}\vec{w}^*/\alpha$  is HPD

1 of 2

If  $A$  is HPD, and  $X$  is a non-singular matrix, then  $B = X^*AX$  is also HPD: since  $X$  is non-singular  $\vec{x} \neq 0 \Rightarrow X\vec{x} \neq 0$ , hence

$$\forall \vec{x} \neq 0, \quad \vec{x}^* B \vec{x} = \vec{x}^* X^* A X \vec{x} = (X\vec{x})^* A (X\vec{x}) > 0$$

Now, with the representation

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \beta^2 & \vec{w}^* \\ \vec{w} & B \end{bmatrix}$$

We select

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\beta & -\vec{w}^*/\beta^2 \\ \vec{0} & I(n-1) \end{bmatrix}, \quad X^* = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\beta & \vec{0}^* \\ -\vec{w}/\beta^2 & I(n-1) \end{bmatrix}$$

Reference: Proof that  $B - \vec{w}\vec{w}^*/\alpha$  is HPD

2 of 2

Now,

$$\begin{aligned}
 X^*AX &= \begin{bmatrix} 1/\beta & \vec{0}^* \\ -\vec{w}/\beta^2 & \boxed{\text{I}(n-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta^2 & \vec{w}^* \\ \vec{w} & \boxed{B} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\beta & -\vec{w}^*/\beta^2 \\ \vec{0} & \boxed{\text{I}(n-1)} \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} \beta & \vec{w}^*/\beta \\ \vec{0} & \boxed{B - \vec{w}\vec{w}^*/\alpha} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\beta & -\vec{w}^*/\beta^2 \\ \vec{0} & \boxed{\text{I}(n-1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \vec{0} \\ \vec{0} & \boxed{B - \vec{w}\vec{w}^*/\alpha} \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

It now follows from the definition (use  $\vec{x} \neq 0$  such that  $x_1 = 0$ ) that  $B - \vec{w}\vec{w}^*/\beta^2$  is also HPD.