

for all  $t \in (0, \delta)$ . Note that if  $\|x\|^m = 1$ , then the maximum possible value of  $|x_{i_1} \cdots x_{i_m}|$  is 1. So for any  $x \neq 0$ , we have  $|x_{i_1} \cdots x_{i_m}| \leq \|x\|^m$ . Hence

$$\left| \frac{r(x)}{\|x\|^m} \right| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{m!} \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_m} \left| \frac{x_{i_1} \cdots x_{i_m}}{\|x\|^m} \right| \leq \frac{\epsilon n^m}{m!} \leq \epsilon \times \text{bounded quantity}.$$

This completes the proof. ■

[26.18] **Corollary : Taylor-I** Let  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be in  $\mathcal{C}^2(E)$  and  $[a, a+x] \subseteq E$ . Then

$$f(a+x) = f(a) + \langle \nabla f(a), x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} x^t H(a) x + r(x),$$

where  $\lim_{\|x\| \rightarrow 0} \frac{r(x)}{\|x\|^2} = 0$ .

[26.19] **Corollary: Taylor-II** Let  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be in  $\mathcal{C}^2(E)$  and  $[a, a+x] \subseteq E$ . Then  $\exists t \in (0, 1)$  such that

$$f(a+x) = f(a) + \langle \nabla f(a), x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} x^t H(a+tx) x.$$

[26.20] **Taylor series** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be infinitely differentiable. Then the TAYLOR SERIES  $T_f(x; a)$  of  $f$  about the point  $a$  is defined as

$$f(a) + \sum_i D_i f(a) (x-a)_i + \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{i,j} D_{ij} f(a) (x-a)_i (x-a)_j + \frac{1}{3!} \sum_{i,j,k} D_{ijk} f(a) (x-a)_i (x-a)_j (x-a)_k + \cdots$$

[26.21] **Example** Take  $f(y, z) = y^2 z^4 + yz^3 - 5yz + 6$  and  $a = (1, 2)$ . Find the coefficient of  $(y-1)^2(z-2)^2$  in  $T_f((y, z); a)$  in two different ways.

$f(x) = x^4 - 7x^6 + 8x^3$   
 $T_f(x; 2) = \dots$   
sum of all coefficients?

*Answer.* To apply Taylor's theorem, put  $w = (y, z) - (1, 2)$ . Terms with degree 4 can only occur in

$$\frac{1}{4!} \sum_{i,j,k,l=1}^2 D_{ijkl} f(a) w_i w_j w_k w_l.$$

We want  $w_i w_j w_k w_l = (y-1)^2(z-2)^2$ , which can be done in  $\frac{4!}{2!2!}$  ways. Hence, the coefficient is

$$\frac{1}{4!} \binom{4}{2} D_{1,1,2,2} f(a) = \frac{1}{2!2!} (2.4.3.2^2) = 24.$$

◦ Alternately, note that

$$f(y, z) = (y-1+1)^2(z-2+2)^4 - (y-1+1)(z-2+2)^3 - 5(y-1+1)(z-2+2) + 6.$$

The coefficient for  $(y-1)^2(z-2)^2$  can only come from the first term. When expanded using binomial expansion, it will look like  $(y-1)^2 \binom{4}{2} (z-2)^2 2^2$ . So the required coefficient is 24.

To remember the coefficients of Taylor series of  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  at  $a$ .

- a) Take  $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$  where  $\alpha_i$  are nonnegative integers and take  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n)^t$ .
- b) Use the notations  $\mathbf{D}^\alpha := D_1^{\alpha_1} D_2^{\alpha_2} \dots D_n^{\alpha_n}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}^\alpha := x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2} \dots x_n^{\alpha_n}$ ,  $\alpha! := \alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_n!$ .
- c) Then the coefficient of  $x^\alpha$  in  $T_f(x; a)$  is  $\frac{1}{\alpha!} D^\alpha f(a)$ .

## 27 Lecture 27

### Positive definite matrices

[27.1] **Definition** Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ .

- a) It is called POSITIVE DEFINITE(pd) if  $x^*Ax > 0$  holds  $\forall x \in \mathbb{C}^n \setminus \{0\}$ .  
 b) It is called POSITIVE SEMIDEFINITE(psd) if  $x^*Ax \geq 0$  holds  $\forall x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ .

pd if  $x^*Ax > 0 \quad \forall x \neq 0$   
 psd if  $x^*Ax \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{C}^n$

matrix is  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}^* = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \end{bmatrix}$

[27.2] **Facts and examples**

- a) Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  be pd. Then  $a_{ii} = e_i^* A e_i > 0$ .

$\forall x \neq 0 \quad x^* A x > 0$

- a') Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  be psd. Then  $a_{ii} = e_i^* A e_i \geq 0$ .

- b) Take any matrix  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ . Then  $A^*A$  and  $AA^*$  are psd. If  $A$  is nonsingular, then they are pd.

*Proof.* (Self) For each  $x$ , we have  $x^* A^* A x = (Ax)^* Ax = \|Ax\|^2 \geq 0$ . If  $x \neq 0$  and  $A$  is nonsingular, then  $Ax \neq 0$  and so  $\|Ax\|^2 > 0$ .

$x^* (A^* A) x = (Ax)^* Ax = \|Ax\|^2 \geq 0$   
 let  $x \neq 0$ . Then  $Ax \neq 0$ . So  $x^* A^* A x = \|Ax\|^2 > 0$ .  
 $e_i^T A e_j = a_{ij}$

- c) The matrix  $I$  is pd. The zero matrix is a psd matrix.

$x^* I x = \|x\|^2 > 0$

- d) A pd matrix is by definition a psd matrix.

- e) A singular matrix cannot be pd.

$\exists x \neq 0, Ax = 0$ . Then

$x^* Ax = 0$ , so it cannot be pd.

Hermitian

[27.3] **Fact** (Psd implies Hermitian) Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  be a psd matrix. Then  $A^* = A$ .

*Proof.* (Self) Fix  $i, j, i \neq j$ . Let  $v = e_i + e_j$ . As  $v^* A v \geq 0$ , we have  $a_{ii} + a_{ij} + a_{ji} + a_{jj} \geq 0$ . But we already know that  $a_{ii} + a_{jj} \geq 0$ . So, we get  $a_{ij} + a_{ji} \in \mathbb{R}$ . That is,  $\text{Im}(a_{ij}) = -\text{Im}(a_{ji})$ .

Now take  $v = e_i + ie_j$ . As  $v^* A v \geq 0$ , we have  $a_{ii} + ia_{ij} - ia_{ji} + a_{jj} \geq 0$ . But we already know that  $a_{ii} + a_{jj} \geq 0$ . So, we get  $a_{ij} - a_{ji} \in i\mathbb{R}$ . That is,  $\text{Re}(a_{ij}) = -\text{Re}(a_{ji})$ .

So  $\overline{a_{ij}} = a_{ji}$ .

$A$  pd  $\Rightarrow$  diag entries  $\geq 0$ .

$a_{12} = \overline{a_{21}}$   
 $a_{12}, a_{21}$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}^* A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_{11} + a_{12} + \overline{a_{21}} + a_{22} \geq 0$   
 $\Rightarrow a_{12} + a_{21} \in \mathbb{R}$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i & 0 & \dots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_{11} + ia_{12} - i\overline{a_{21}} + a_{22} \geq 0$

$\Rightarrow i(a_{12} - \overline{a_{21}}) \in i\mathbb{R}$   
 $\Rightarrow a_{12} - \overline{a_{21}} \in \mathbb{R}$

[27.4] **Lemma** Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ .

✓ a) Then  $A$  is pd iff  $A^t = A$  and  $x^t A x > 0$  holds  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0$ .

b) Then  $A$  is psd iff  $A^t = A$  and  $x^t A x \geq 0$  holds  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

*Proof.* (Self) a) Let  $A$  be a real pd matrix. As  $A$  is pd, it is Hermitian, and in our case it is symmetric. and  $x^t A x > 0$  for all real  $x \neq 0$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $A$  is real symmetric and  $x^t A x > 0$  for all real  $x \neq 0$ . Note that, for a real symmetric matrix  $A$ , we have  $x^t A y = y^t A x$ . Hence

$$(x + iy)^* A (x + iy) = x^t A x + y^t A y + i(x^t A y - y^t A x) = x^t A x + y^t A y > 0,$$

if  $x + iy \neq 0$ . The proof for b) is similar. ■

Real  $A \text{ pd} \Rightarrow A^t = A$  and  $x^t A x > 0 \quad \forall x \neq 0$

$A^t = A, \quad \boxed{x^t A x > 0} \quad \forall x \neq 0 \Rightarrow A \text{ is pd}, \quad x^t A x > 0 \quad \forall x \neq 0$

$x = u + iv \neq 0$

$$x^t A x = \underbrace{u^* A u}_{>0} + u^* A (iv) - (v^* A u + \underbrace{v^* A v}_{>0}) = \underbrace{u^* A v}_{=0} - \underbrace{v^* A u}_{=0} = 0$$

[27.5] **Theorem** (Equivalent conditions for pd/psd) Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ . TFAE.

✓ a)  $A$  is pd (resp. psd).

✓ b)  $A^* = A$  and the eigenvalues of  $A$  are positive (resp. nonnegative).

✓ c)  $A = B^* B$  for some nonsingular (resp. not necessarily nonsingular) matrix  $B$ .

*Proof.* (Self) a)  $\Rightarrow$  b). Let  $A$  be pd. We already know that  $A^* = A$ . Let  $(\lambda, x)$  be an eigenpair. Then  $x^* A x = x^* x \lambda \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{x^* A x}{x^* x} > 0$ , as  $A$  is pd.

b)  $\Rightarrow$  c). Suppose that  $A^* = A$  and all eigenvalues of  $A$  are positive. Then, by spectral theorem (for Hermitian matrices), there exists a unitary matrix  $U$  and a diagonal matrix  $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ ,  $\lambda_i > 0$  such that  $A = U^* \Lambda U$ . So

$$A = U^* \Lambda^{1/2} \Lambda^{1/2} U = U^* \Lambda^{1/2} U U^* \Lambda^{1/2} U = B^* B.$$

Notice that  $B$  is nonsingular as  $\Lambda$  has positive diagonal entries.

c)  $\Rightarrow$  a). Already done.

The proof for the psd part is similar.

$A \text{ pd} \Rightarrow \text{eig values} > 0$

let  $(\lambda, x) \rightarrow \text{eigen pair}$

$$x^* A x \geq 0$$

$$x^* \lambda x = \lambda x^* x = \lambda \|x\|^2$$

so  $\lambda = \frac{x^* A x}{x^* x} > 0$

$A = U^* \Lambda U \rightarrow \text{diagonal matrix } \Lambda \text{ eigenvalues}$

$$= U^* \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} U$$

$$= U^* \Lambda^{1/2} U B^* \Lambda^{1/2} U$$

$$= B^* B$$

We will need the following notations.

[27.6] **Definition**

- a) Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  and  $S \subseteq [n]$ . By  $A(S, S)$ , we denote the submatrix of  $A$  whose entries are indexed by  $S$ . This is called the **PRINCIPAL SUBMATRIX** of  $A$  indexed by  $S$ .

b) For  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 9 & 8 & 7 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $S = \{1, 4\}$ , we have  $A(S, S) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 9 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ .

$A = (\{1, 4\}, \{1, 2\})$   
 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 9 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

- c) A **LEADING PRINCIPAL SUBMATRIX** is one for which the subset  $S$  is  $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$  for some  $k$ .

$S = \{1\} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix}$   
 $S = \{1, 2\} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$   
 $S = \{1, 2, 3\} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

- d) For the matrix  $A$  in b), and  $S = \{1, 2\}$ , we have  $A(S, S) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ . It is a leading principal submatrix.

- e) The matrix  $A$  in b), has only four leading principal submatrices.

- f) The determinant of a square submatrix is called a **MINOR**. The determinant of a leading principal submatrix is called a '**leading principal minor**'.

- g) Sometimes we use  $A(S|S)$  to mean the matrix  $A(S^c, S^c)$ .

$A(S, S)$   
 $A(S|S) := A(S^c, S^c)$

We will need the following two results from advanced linear algebra.

[27.7] **Cauchy interlacing theorem** Let  $A$  and  $B = \begin{bmatrix} A & y \\ y^* & b \end{bmatrix}$  be Hermitian. Let  $\lambda_1 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$  be the eigenvalues of  $A$  and  $\mu_1 \leq \dots \leq \mu_{n+1}$  be the eigenvalues of  $B$ . Then

$$\mu_1 \leq \lambda_1 \leq \mu_2 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n \leq \mu_{n+1}.$$

That is, the eigenvalues of  $A$  and  $B$  interlace.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

[27.8] **Theorem** The eigenvalues of a matrix  $A$  are continuous functions of its entries.

Now we can give two useful conditions to test whether a matrix is pd/psd.

[27.9] **Theorem** (Test for pd/psd) Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ .

- a) Then  $A$  is pd iff  $A^* = A$  and the leading principal minors of  $A$  are positive.

- b) Then  $A$  is psd iff  $A^* = A$  and all principal minors are nonnegative.

✓

Hermitian  
 $\begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix} > 0$

$A^* = A$ , Leading principal minors  $> 0$   
 $\lambda_1 \wedge a_{11} \leq \lambda_2 \wedge \dots \Rightarrow \lambda_1 > 0$   
 $\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \quad a_{11} > 0$

$$0 < \mu_1 \leq \lambda_1 \leq \mu_2 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \mu_3 \leq \lambda_3 \Rightarrow \mu_1 > 0$$

*Proof.* (Not for exam) a) Suppose that  $A$  is pd. Then  $A^* = A$  and the eigenvalues  $\lambda_i > 0$ . By Cauchy interlacing theorem, the eigenvalues of the leading principal matrices are  $> 0$ . Hence their determinant is positive.

Conversely, suppose that  $A^* = A$  and the leading principal minors are positive. By use of interlacing, we see that eigenvalues of  $A$  are positive. So  $A$  is pd.

---

$A$  pd  $\Rightarrow A^* = A$ , eigenvalues  $\lambda_i > 0$

$\begin{matrix} k\text{th row} \\ \downarrow \\ k\text{th col} \end{matrix}$

$0 < \lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$

$\mu_1 \leq \mu_2 \leq \dots \leq \mu_n$

$A(k|k) \rightarrow \text{pd}$

b) If  $A$  is psd, then showing all principal minors  $\geq 0$  is similar to that of a). To prove the converse, let  $A^* = A$  and assume that all principal minors are  $\geq 0$ . Note that

$$|A + \epsilon e_1 e_1^t| = (a_{11} + \epsilon)|A(1|1)| - a_{12}|A(1|2)| + a_{13}|A(1|3)| - \dots = |A| + \epsilon|A(1|1)| \geq |A|,$$

so that adding  $\epsilon > 0$  to a diagonal entry does not decrease the determinant. Notice that we get  $|A + \epsilon e_1 e_1^t| > |A|$ , if  $|A(1|1)| > 0$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Next we show that  $|A + \epsilon I| > 0$  whenever  $A$  has all minors nonnegative. We proceed by induction. Assume that it is true for  $n - 1$ . Consider the case for  $n$  and let  $B$  be obtained by adding  $\epsilon$  to all diagonal entries of  $A$  except the first. Notice that  $A(1|1)$  is Hermitian and it has all principal minor  $\geq 0$ . By induction hypothesis, we have that  $|B(1|1)| > 0$ . Hence by earlier argument  $|B| > 0$ .

It now follows that  $A + \epsilon I$  is pd. This is true for each  $\epsilon > 0$ . As eigenvalues are continuous functions of the entries, it follows that eigenvalues of  $A$  are nonnegative. Hence  $A$  is psd.

**[27.10]   NoPen**

- a) If we say ‘a matrix  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  is psd iff  $A^* = A$  and all leading principal minors are nonnegative’, what would go wrong?
- b) Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  be pd. Should every (nonempty) principal submatrix of  $A$  be pd?
- c) Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  have positive eigenvalues. Must it be similar to a positive definite matrix?
- d) If  $A$  is pd and  $S$  is a nonsingular matrix, is  $S^*AS$  necessarily pd?
- e) How do I create a pd matrix  $A \in M_{20}(\mathbb{R})$  which does not have a zero entry?
- f) Let  $f \in \mathcal{C}^2(E)$ ,  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $a \in E$ . Suppose that  $B_\delta(a) \subseteq E$  and for each  $x \in B_\delta(a)$ ,  $x \neq a$ , we see that  $H(x)$  is a pd matrix. Can we conclude that  $H(a)$  is a psd matrix?

**[27.11]   Exercise(E+)** Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  be a positive definite matrix and  $\lambda > 0$  be the smallest eigenvalue of  $A$ . Show that, for each  $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ , we have  $x^*Ax \geq \lambda x^*x$ .