

Lecture 22

Positive & Negative Definite Matrices & Singular Value Decomposition(SVD)

Definition 1. Let A be a real symmetric matrix. Then A is said to be positive (negative) definite if all of its eigenvalues are positive (negative).

Definition 2. Let A be a real symmetric matrix. Then A is said to be positive (negative) semi-definite if all of its eigenvalues are non-negative (non-positive).

Remark 3. 1. If A is positive definite, then $\det(A) > 0$ and $\text{tr}(A) > 0$.

2. If A is negative definite matrix of order n , then $\text{tr}(A) < 0$. If n is even, $\det(A) > 0$ and if n is odd $\det(A) < 0$.

3. If A is positive semi-definite, then $\det(A) \geq 0$ and $\text{tr}(A) \geq 0$.

4. If A is negative semi-definite matrix of order n , then $\text{tr}(A) \leq 0$. If n is even, $\det(A) \geq 0$ and if n is odd $\det(A) \leq 0$.

Proposition 4. Let $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ be a symmetric matrix. Then

1. A is positive definite if and only if $X^T A X > 0$ for all $0 \neq X \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

2. A is negative definite if and only if $X^T A X < 0$ for all $0 \neq X \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Proof. Let A be positive definite. Since A is a real symmetric matrix, A is orthogonally diagonalizable with positive eigenvalues. Therefore, $A = P D P^T$, where D is a diagonal matrix with entries as eigenvalues of A and P is an orthogonal matrix. Thus, $X^T A X = X^T P D P^T X = (P^T X)^T D (P^T X) = Y^T D Y$, where $Y = P^T X \neq 0$. Let $Y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)^T$. Then $X^T A X = Y^T D Y = \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n^2 > 0$, where λ_i are eigenvalues of A .

Conversely, let $X^T A X > 0$ for all $X \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ be an eigenvalue of A and X_0 be an eigenvector corresponding to λ . Then $X_0^T A X_0 > 0 \Rightarrow \lambda X_0^T X_0 > 0$. Note that $X_0^T X_0 = \|X_0\|^2 > 0$ as $X_0 \neq 0$. Therefore, $\lambda > 0$. □

Proposition 5. Let $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ be a symmetric matrix. Then

1. A is positive definite if and only if $A = B^T B$ for some invertible matrix B .

2. A is positive semi-definite if and only if $A = B^T B$ for some matrix B .

Proof. Let A be a positive definite matrix. Then A is symmetric, by Spectral theorem, there exists an orthogonal matrix P such that $P^T A P = D$ with $D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$, where λ_i 's are eigenvalues of A . Here, $\lambda_i > 0$. Define $\sqrt{D} = \text{diag}(\sqrt{\lambda_1}, \sqrt{\lambda_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\lambda_n})$. Set $B = \sqrt{D} P^T$, then B is invertible and $B^T B = A$.

Conversely, $X^T A X = X^T B^T B X = (B X)^T (B X) = \|B X\|^2$. Therefore, for $X \neq 0$, $X^T A X > 0$. □

Let $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$. The leading principal minor D_k of A of order k , $1 \leq k \leq n$, is the determinant of the matrix obtained from A by deleting last $n - k$ rows and last $n - k$ columns of A .

Proposition 6. Let $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ be a symmetric matrix. Then

1. A is positive definite if and only if $D_k > 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$.

2. A is negative definite if and only if $(-1)^k D_k > 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$.

3. A is positive semi-definite, then $D_k \geq 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$. Show that the converse need not be true.

4. A is negative semi-definite, then $(-1)^k D_k \geq 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$. Show that the converse need not be true.

Proof. The prove for this result has been omitted. To see that converse is not true in case of (3), take $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $D_1 = 1$, $D_2 = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$ and $D_3 = \det(A) = 0$. The matrix is symmetric and $D_k \geq 0$ for $k = 1, 2, 3$. But $X^T A X = -2$ for $X = (1, 1, -2)^T$. Therefore, A is not positive semi-definite. \square

Exercise 1. Which of the following matrices is positive definite/negative definite/positive semi-definite/negative semi-definite.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1/2 & 1/3 \\ 1/2 & 1/3 & 1/4 \\ 1/3 & 1/4 & 1/5 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Singular-Value Decomposition

We know that every matrix is not diagonalizable and diagonalizability can be discussed only for square matrices. Here we discuss a decomposition of an $m \times n$ matrix which coincide with a known decomposition of a positive semi-definite matrix.

Let $A \in M_{m \times n}$. Then a decomposition of the form

$$A = U \Sigma V^T,$$

where $U \in M_m(\mathbb{R})$ and $V \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ are orthogonal, and Σ is a rectangular diagonal matrix with non-negative real diagonal entries, is called Singular-Value Decomposition of A . The non-zero diagonal entries of Σ are called singular values of A .

When A is a positive semi-definite matrix, then SVD is nothing but $A = P D P^T$ for some orthogonal matrix P .

Theorem 7. Let $A \in M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{R})$. Then A has a singular value decomposition.

Proposition 8. Let $A \in M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{R})$. Then

1. $A^T A$ is positive semi-definite.
2. $A A^T$ is positive semi-definite.
3. If $m \geq n$, then $P^T(A^T A)P = D$ and $P'^T(A A^T)P' = D'$ for some orthogonal matrices $P \in M_m(\mathbb{R})$ and $P' \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ with

$$D' = \begin{pmatrix} D & 0_{m \times m-n} \\ 0_{m-n \times m} & 0_{m-n \times m-n} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proof. Note that $A^T A$ and $A A^T$ are symmetric matrices. We claim that $X^T A X \geq 0$ for every $X \neq 0$. For $X \neq 0$, $X^T A A^T X = (A^T X)^T (A^T X) = \|A^T X\|^2 \geq 0$. Therefore, $A A^T$ is positive semi-definite. Similarly for $A^T A$. Since the $A^T A$ and $A A^T$ are symmetric, they are orthogonally diagonalizable. Therefore, $P^T(A^T A)P = D$ and $P'^T(A A^T)P' = D'$ for some orthogonal matrices $P \in M_m(\mathbb{R})$ and $P' \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$. Recall that $p_{A A^T} x = x^{m-n} p_{A^T A}(x)$, where $p_{A A^T}(x)$ and $p_{A^T A}$ are the characteristic polynomial of $A A^T$ and $A^T A$ respectively. Hence, $D' = \begin{pmatrix} D & 0_{m \times m-n} \\ 0_{m-n \times m} & 0_{m-n \times m-n} \end{pmatrix}$. \square

Method to find SVD of A

Step 1: Find AA^T , which is positive semi-definite matrix. Therefore, we can find an orthogonal matrix $U \in M_m(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$U^T(AA^T)U = D.$$

Note that columns of U are eigenvectors (orthonormal) of AA^T .

Step 2: Find $A^T A$, which is positive semi-definite matrix. We can find an orthogonal matrix $V \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$V^T(A^T A)V = D'.$$

Note that columns of V are eigenvectors (orthonormal) of $A^T A$.

Step 3: Define a rectangular diagonal matrix $\Sigma \in M_{m \times n}$ such that $\Sigma_{ii} = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, \min(m, n)$, where λ_i are the common eigenvalues of $A^T A$ and AA^T . Note that non-zero diagonal entries σ_i are corresponding to non-zero eigenvalues of $A^T A$ or AA^T .

Step 4: Verify that $U\Sigma V^T = A$.

Remark 9. Let $A \in M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\text{rank}(A) = r$. Let $U\Sigma V^T$ be a singular value decomposition of A . Let U_1, U_2, \dots, U_m are columns of U and V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n are columns of V . Then

1. $\{U_1, U_2, \dots, U_r\}$ is an orthonormal basis of column space(A).
2. $\{V_{r+1}, V_{r+2}, \dots, V_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis of null space(A).
3. $\{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_r\}$ is an orthonormal basis of Column space of (A^T) or row space of A .
4. $\{U_{r+1}, U_{r+2}, \dots, U_m\}$ is an orthonormal basis of null space(A^T).

Proof. Note that $AV = U\Sigma \Rightarrow AV_j = \sigma_j U_j$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, r$ and $AV_j = 0$ for $j = r + 1, \dots, n$. Since nullity of A is $n - r$ and $V_{r+1}, V_{r+2}, \dots, V_n$ forms an orthonormal basis of $N(A)$. Since $\sigma_j > 0$ and $AV_j = \sigma_j U_j$, $U_j \in C(A)$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, r$. Thus $\{U_1, U_2, \dots, U_r\}$ is an orthonormal basis of $C(A)$. Similarly, $A^T U = V\Sigma$ gives that first r columns of V forms a basis of the column space of A^T . \square

Example 10. Find SVD of $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Solution: $AA^T = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Note that non-zero eigen-

value of $A^T A$ is 2 (as non-zero eigenvalue of AA^T is 2) with eigenvectors $(0, 1, 0, 1)$ and $(1, 0, 1, 0)$ and the remaining eigenvalues of $A^T A$ are all zero. The eigenvectors corresponding to 0 are $(1, 0, -1, 0)$ and

$(0, 1, 0, -1)$. Thus $V = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$. The rectangular diagonal matrix $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

Therefore, $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$.

Remark: After finding U , one can find columns of V corresponding to non-zero eigenvalues by using the relation $V_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} A^T U_i$. The other columns of V can be found by finding vectors orthogonal to V_1, V_2 and to each other.