

## 2.6 Methods for Symmetric Positive-Definite Matrices

1

Symmetric Matrices (i.e.  $A^T = A$ ) hold a favored position in linear analysis because they only contain about half as many independent entries as general,  $n \times n$  systems. This raises the question as to whether symmetric matrices admit of an efficient factorization method. For matrices which are symmetric, positive definite, this goal can be achieved with the Cholesky factorization.

**Def** An  $n \times n$  matrix is called symmetric if  $A^T = A$ .  
The matrix  $A$  is positive-definite if  $x^T A x > 0 \quad \forall x \neq 0$ .

**Ex.** Show that  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$  is symmetric, positive-definite.  
 $A^T = A$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{we show: pos-def. } x^T A x &= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 2x_1^2 + 4x_1x_2 + 5x_2^2 = 2(x_1 + x_2)^2 + 3x_2^2 > 0 \quad \checkmark \\ \text{unless: } x_1 = x_2 = 0. &\quad \square \end{aligned}$$

**Ex.** Show  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$  is NOT positive-definite.

$$x^T A x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 2x_1^2 + 8x_1x_2 + 5x_2^2 =$$

complete the square...

2

$$\begin{aligned} 2(x_1^2 + 4x_1x_2) + 5x_2^2 &= 2(x_1 + 2x_2)^2 - 8x_1x_2 + 5x_2^2 \\ &= 2(x_1 + 2x_2)^2 - 3x_2^2 < 0, \text{ is possible for some } \vec{x}. \end{aligned}$$

**Property 2** Note that a symmetric, positive-definite matrix is automatically non-singular. why? (If  $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} > 0$ , then  $A\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$  unless  $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ .)

(\*) If  $A_{n \times n}$  is symmetric, then  $A$  is positive-definite iff all of its eigenvalues are positive.

[PF]: Since  $A$  is symmetric it follows (by a theorem in Linear Algebra) that the set of unit, eigenvectors of  $A$  are orthonormal & span  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

( $\Rightarrow$ ) If  $A$  is positive-definite &  $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$ , then  $0 < \vec{v}^T A \vec{v} = \vec{v}^T \lambda \vec{v} = \lambda \|\vec{v}\|_2^2$ , so  $\lambda > 0$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Conversely, suppose that all of the eigenvalues of  $A$  are positive. (again,  $A$  is symmetric)

Then write any nonzero vector:  $\vec{x} = c_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_n\vec{v}_n$  where the  $\vec{v}_i$  are orthonormal unit vectors & not all  $c_i = 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then: } \vec{x}^T A \vec{x} &= (c_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_n\vec{v}_n)^T (\lambda_1 c_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + \lambda_n c_n\vec{v}_n) \\ &= \lambda_1 c_1^2 + \dots + \lambda_n c_n^2 > 0, \text{ so } A \text{ is } \underline{\text{positive-definite}}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

**Property 2** If  $A$  is  $n \times n$  symmetric, positive definite &  $X$  is an  $n \times m$  matrix of full rank with  $n \geq m$ , then  $X^T A X$  is max symmetric, positive-definite.

**PF:** The matrix:  $X^T A X$  is symmetric, since:

$$(X^T A X)^T = X^T A^T (X^T)^T = X^T A X.$$

To show positive-definite, let  $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$  be  $m$ -dimensional.

Note:  $\vec{v}^T (X^T A X) \vec{v} = (X \vec{v})^T A (X \vec{v}) \geq 0$ , due to positive-definiteness of  $A$ . Since  $X$  has full rank, its columns are LID, so  $X \vec{v} = \vec{0}$  implies  $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$ .  $\square$

**Def.** A Principal submatrix of a square matrix  $A$

is a square submatrix whose diagonal entries are diagonal entries of  $A$ .  
 (same rows/cols)

**Ex.** 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 \\ 13 & 14 & 15 & 16 \end{bmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 7 \\ 10 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Property 3** Any principal submatrix of a symmetric, positive-definite matrix is also symmetric, pos-def.

# Cholesky Factorization

$$A = R^T R$$

( $R$  upper- $\Delta$ )

4

A 2x2 example

Consider the symmetric, pos-def matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{Note } a > 0 \text{ by property 3}).$$

In addition, we know that  $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{vmatrix} = ac - b^2 > 0$  since  $|A| = \text{product of the eigenvalues of } A$ . (all  $\lambda_i > 0$  by property 1).

Writing  $A = R^T R$ , for an upper- $\Delta$  matrix  $R$ , implies the form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{a} & 0 \\ u & v \end{bmatrix}}_{R^T} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{a} & u \\ 0 & v \end{bmatrix}}_R = \begin{bmatrix} a & u\sqrt{a} \\ u\sqrt{a} & u^2 + v^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

We want to check whether this is possible. Comparing the LHS/RHS we see:  $\boxed{u = \frac{b}{\sqrt{a}}} \iff \boxed{v^2 = c - u^2}$

Note that:  $v^2 = c - \left(\frac{b}{\sqrt{a}}\right)^2 = c - \frac{b^2}{a} > 0$  since  $|A| > 0$ .

This verifies that  $v$  can be defined as a real number,

so the Cholesky factorization exists for 2x2 symmetric, positive-definite matrices, where:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{a} & 0 \\ \frac{b}{\sqrt{a}} & \sqrt{c - \frac{b^2}{a}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{a} & \frac{b}{\sqrt{a}} \\ 0 & \sqrt{c - \frac{b^2}{a}} \end{bmatrix} = R^T R.$$



$$= \begin{bmatrix} a' & b^T \\ b & \tilde{u}\tilde{u}^T + A_1 \end{bmatrix} = A$$

Notice that  $A_1$  is symmetric, positive-definite; this follows from the facts that:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & & \\ \vdots & & & \\ 0 & & & A_1 \end{bmatrix} = (S^T)^T A S^T$$

is symmetric, pos-def. by property 2, and therefore, so is the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  principal submatrix  $A_1$  by property 3.

By the induction hypothesis,  $A_1 = V^T V$  where  $V$  is upper- $\Delta$ .

Finally, define:  $R = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{a'} & z^T & \\ 0 & & \\ \vdots & & \\ 0 & & V \end{bmatrix}$  and check that:

$$R^T R = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{a'} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ z & & & \\ & & & V^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{a'} & z^T & \\ 0 & & \\ \vdots & & \\ 0 & & V \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a' & z^T \\ z & \tilde{u}\tilde{u}^T + \underbrace{V^T V}_{= A_1} \end{bmatrix} = A. \quad \square$$

From this proof we can devise the standard algorithm for Cholesky factorization.

The matrix  $[R]$  is built from the outside in. First,

we find  $r_{11} = \sqrt{a_{11}}$  & set the rest of the top row of  $R$  to  $\boxed{u^T = b^T / r_{11}}$ . Then  $\underline{u^T u}$  is subtracted from the

lower principal  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  submatrix, and the same steps are repeated until all the rows of  $R$  are filled.

According to the theorem, the new principal submatrix is pos-def. at every stage of construction, so the square root operation succeeds.

Ex. Find the Cholesky Factorization of:  $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & 2 \\ -2 & 2 & -4 \\ 2 & -4 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Find the top row of  $R$ :  $r_{11} = \sqrt{a_{11}} = \boxed{2}$ .

$r_{12} = \frac{a_{12}}{r_{11}} = \frac{-2}{2} = \boxed{-1}$       $r_{13} = \frac{a_{13}}{r_{11}} = \frac{2}{2} = \boxed{1}$

So the top row of  $R$  is:  $[2, -1, 1] \rightarrow R = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & & \\ & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}$

Subtracting the outer product  $\vec{u} \vec{u}^T$  from the lower principal  $2 \times 2$

submatrix of  $A$  gives us:  $\vec{u} \vec{u}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -4 \\ 2 & -4 & 11 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -3 \\ 1 & -3 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$  "A"

Now we repeat the same steps on the 2x2 submatrix

To find  $R_{22} = 1$ ,  $R_{23} = \frac{-3}{1} = -3$ .  $= \begin{pmatrix} A_{23} \\ R_{22} \end{pmatrix}$

$(R_{22} = \sqrt{A_{11}} = \sqrt{1} = 1)$

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ & 1 & -3 \\ & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} & -3 \\ -3 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

The lower principal submatrix of A is:  $10 - (-3)(-3) = 1$ ,

so  $R_{33} = \sqrt{1} = 1$ .

Thus  $R = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , indeed:  $A = R^T R$

Note: To solve  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b} \rightarrow \textcircled{1} A = R^T R \rightarrow R^T(R\vec{x}) = \vec{b}$

$\textcircled{2}$  Solve:  $R^T c = \vec{b} \rightarrow R\vec{x} = \vec{c}$  ✓

Cholesky Pseudo Code

```
for k=1, ..., n
  if  $A_{kk} < 0$ , END
   $R_{kk} = \sqrt{A_{kk}}$ 
   $\vec{u}^T = \frac{1}{R_{kk}} \cdot A_{ki}$ 
   $R_{k,k+1:n} = \vec{u}^T$ 
   $A_{k+1:n, k+1:n} = A_{k+1:n, k+1:n} - \vec{u}\vec{u}^T$ 
```



Sln)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{11} = \sqrt{a_{11}} = 1$$

$$R_{12} = \frac{2}{1} = 2$$

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_{11} = 8 - (2)(2) = 4 \rightarrow R_{22} = \sqrt{A_{11}} = \sqrt{4} = 2$$

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R^T R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = A. \checkmark$$