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# Inertia of Loewner Matrices

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## Abstract

Given positive numbers  $p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_n$ , and a real number  $r$  let  $L_r$  be the  $n \times n$  matrix with its  $i, j$  entry equal to  $(p_i^r - p_j^r)/(p_i - p_j)$ . A well-known theorem of C. Loewner says that  $L_r$  is positive definite when  $0 < r < 1$ . In contrast, R. Bhatia and J. Holbrook, (Indiana Univ. Math. J, 49 (2000) 1153-1173) showed that when  $1 < r < 2$ , the matrix  $L_r$  has only one positive eigenvalue, and made a conjecture about the signatures of eigenvalues of  $L_r$  for other  $r$ . That conjecture is proved in this paper.

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## 1 Introduction

Let  $f$  be a real-valued  $C^1$  function on  $(0, \infty)$ . Let  $p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_n$  be any  $n$  points in  $(0, \infty)$ . The  $n \times n$  matrix

$$L_f(p_1, \dots, p_n) = \left[ \frac{f(p_i) - f(p_j)}{p_i - p_j} \right]_{i,j=1}^n \quad (1)$$

is called a *Loewner matrix* associated with  $f$ . It is understood that when  $i = j$ , the quotient in (1) represents the limiting value  $f'(p_i)$ . Of particular interest to us are the functions  $f(t) = t^r$ ,  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ . In this case we write  $L_r$  for  $L_f(p_1, \dots, p_n)$ , where the roles of  $n$  and  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  can be inferred from the context. Thus  $L_r$  is the  $n \times n$  matrix

$$L_r = \left[ \frac{p_i^r - p_j^r}{p_i - p_j} \right]_{i,j=1}^n. \quad (2)$$

Loewner matrices are important in several contexts, of which we mention two that led to the present study. (The reader may see Section 4.1 of [12] for an

excellent discussion of both these aspects of Loewner matrices.) The function  $f$  on  $(0, \infty)$  induces, via the usual functional calculus, a matrix function  $f(A)$  on the space of positive definite matrices. Let  $Df(A)$  be the Fréchet derivative of this function. This is a linear map on the space of Hermitian matrices. The *Daleckiĭ-Krein formula* describes the action of this map in terms of Loewner matrices. Choose an orthonormal basis in which  $A = \text{diag}(p_1, \dots, p_n)$ . Then the formula says that for every Hermitian  $X$

$$Df(A)(X) = L_f(p_1, \dots, p_n) \circ X, \quad (3)$$

where  $A \circ B$  stands for the entrywise product  $[a_{ij}b_{ij}]$  of  $A$  and  $B$ .

The function  $f$  is said to be *operator monotone* on  $(0, \infty)$  if  $A \geq B > 0$  implies  $f(A) \geq f(B)$ . (As usual  $A \geq 0$  means  $A$  is positive semidefinite.) A fundamental theorem due to Charles Loewner says that  $f$  is operator monotone if and only if all Loewner matrices associated with  $f$  (for every  $n$  and for every choice  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ ) are positive semidefinite. Another basic fact, again proved first by Loewner, says that  $f(t) = t^r$  is operator monotone if and only if  $0 \leq r \leq 1$ . See [1] Chapter V.

Combining these various facts with some well-known theorems on positive linear maps [2] one can see that if  $f$  is operator monotone, then the norm of  $Df(A)$  obeys the relations

$$\|Df(A)\| = \|Df(A)(I)\| = \|f'(A)\|, \quad (4)$$

and is therefore readily computable. In particular, for the function  $f(t) = t^r$  if we write  $DA^r$  for  $Df(A)$ , then (4) gives

$$\|DA^r\| = \|rA^{r-1}\|, \quad \text{for } 0 \leq r \leq 1. \quad (5)$$

This was first noted in [3], and used to derive perturbation bounds for the operator absolute value. Then in [8] Bhatia and Sinha showed that the relation (5) holds also for  $-\infty < r < 0$  and for  $2 \leq r < \infty$  but, mysteriously, not for  $1 < r < \sqrt{2}$ . The case  $\sqrt{2} \leq r < 2$ , left open in this paper, was resolved in [4] by Bhatia and Holbrook, who showed that here again the relation (5) is valid.

One ingredient of the proof in [4] is their Proposition 2.1 which says that when  $1 < r < 2$ , the  $n \times n$  matrix  $L_r$  has just one positive eigenvalue. We have remarked earlier that when  $0 < r < 1$ , the matrix  $L_r$  is positive semidefinite and therefore, none of its eigenvalues is negative. This contrast as  $r$  moves from  $(0, 1)$  to  $(1, 2)$  is intriguing, and raises the natural question about the behaviour of eigenvalues of  $L_r$  for other values of  $r$ . Bhatia and Holbrook [4] made a conjecture about this behaviour and established a small part of it: they settled the cases  $r = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$  apart from  $0 < r < 1$  and  $1 < r < 2$  already mentioned. The main goal of this paper is to prove this conjecture in full. This is our Theorem 1.1.

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  Hermitian matrix. The *inertia* of  $A$  is the triple

$$\text{In}(A) = (\pi(A), \zeta(A), \nu(A)),$$

where  $\pi(A)$  is the number of positive eigenvalues of  $A$ ,  $\zeta(A)$  is the number of zero eigenvalues of  $A$ , and  $\nu(A)$  the number of negative eigenvalues of  $A$ . Theorem 1.1 describes the inertia of  $L_r$  as  $r$  varies over  $\mathbb{R}$ . As noted in (10) below the inertia of  $L_{-r}$  is the opposite of the inertia of  $L_r$ ; i.e.  $\pi(L_{-r}) = \nu(L_r)$  and  $\nu(L_{-r}) = \pi(L_r)$ . So we confine ourselves to the case  $r > 0$ .

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_n$  and  $r$  be any positive real numbers and let  $L_r$  be the matrix defined in (2). Then*

- (i)  $L_r$  is singular if and only if  $r = 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$ .
- (ii) At the points  $r = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , the inertia of  $L_r$  is given as follows:

$$r = 2k \Rightarrow \text{In} (L_r) = (k, n - r, k),$$

and

$$r = 2k - 1 \Rightarrow \text{In} (L_r) = (k, n - r, k - 1).$$

- (iii) If  $0 < r < n$  and  $r$  is not an integer, then

$$[r] = 2k \Rightarrow \text{In} (L_r) = (n - k, 0, k)$$

and

$$[r] = 2k - 1 \Rightarrow \text{In} (L_r) = (k, 0, n - k).$$

- (iv) If  $r > n - 1$ , then  $\text{In} (L_r) = \text{In} (L_n)$ .
- (v) Every nonzero eigenvalue of  $L_r$  is simple.

It is helpful to illustrate the theorem by a picture. Figure 1 is a diagram of the (scaled) eigenvalues of a  $6 \times 6$  matrix  $L_r$  when  $p_i$  are fixed and  $r$  varies. Some of the eigenvalues are very close to zero. To be able to distinguish between them the vertical scale has been expanded.

We have already mentioned that for  $0 < r < 1$ , statement (iii) of Theorem 1.1 follows from Loewner's theorem, and for  $1 < r < 2$  it was established in [4]. The case  $2 < r < 3$  was accomplished by Bhatia and Sano in [7]. We briefly explain this work.

Let  $\mathcal{H}_1$  be the space

$$\mathcal{H}_1 = \left\{ x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) : \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 0 \right\}. \quad (6)$$

An  $n \times n$  Hermitian matrix  $A$  is said to be *conditionally positive definite* if  $\langle x, Ax \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}_1$ , and if  $-A$  has this property, then we say that  $A$  is *conditionally negative definite*. Since  $\dim \mathcal{H}_1 = n - 1$ , a nonsingular conditionally positive definite matrix which is not positive definite has inertia  $(n - 1, 0, 1)$ .

Eigenvalues of  $L_r$ ;  $n=6, 0 \leq r \leq 10$

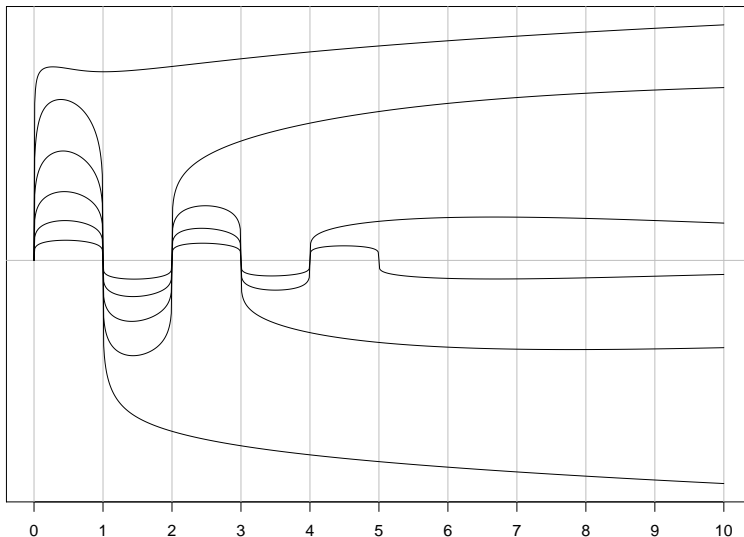


Figure 1:

In [7] it was shown that when  $1 < r < 2$ , the matrix  $L_r$  is nonsingular and conditionally negative definite. It follows that  $\text{In}(L_r) = (1, 0, n-1)$ , a fact established earlier in [4]. It was also shown in [7] that when  $2 < r < 3$ , the matrix  $L_r$  is nonsingular and conditionally positive definite. From this it follows that  $\text{In}(L_r) = (n-1, 0, 1)$ .

More generally, Bhatia and Sano [7] showed that  $f$  on  $(0, \infty)$  is *operator convex* if and only if all Loewner matrices  $L_f$  are conditionally negative definite. This is a characterisation analogous to Loewner's for operator monotone functions. It is well-known that  $f(t) = t^r$  is operator convex for  $1 \leq r \leq 2$ .

The proof of Theorem 1.1 is given in Section 2. We also indicate how the proofs for the parts already given in [4] and [7] can be considerably simplified. The inertia of the matrix  $[(p_i + p_j)^r]$  has been studied by Bhatia and Jain in [5]. Some ideas in our proofs are similar to the ones used there.

## 2 Proofs and Remarks

Let  $X$  be an  $n \times n$  nonsingular matrix. The transformation  $A \mapsto X^*AX$  on Hermitian matrices is called a *congruence*. The *Sylvester Law of Inertia* says that

$$\text{In}(X^*AX) = \text{In} A \text{ for all } X \in GL(n). \quad (7)$$

Let  $D$  be the diagonal matrix

$$D = \text{diag}(p_1, \dots, p_n). \quad (8)$$

Then for every  $r$

$$L_{-r} = -D^{-r} L_r D^{-r}. \quad (9)$$

Hence by Sylvester's Law

$$\text{In } L_r = (i_1, i_2, i_3) \Leftrightarrow \text{In } L_{-r} = (i_3, i_2, i_1). \quad (10)$$

Thus all statements about  $\text{In } L_r$  for  $r > 0$  give information about  $\text{In } L_{-r}$  as well.

Make the substitution  $p_i = e^{2x_i}$ ,  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$ . A simple calculation shows that

$$L_r = \begin{bmatrix} e^{rx_i} & \sinh r(x_i - x_j) & e^{rx_j} \\ e^{x_i} & \sinh(x_i - x_j) & e^{x_j} \end{bmatrix}.$$

In other words,

$$L_r = \Delta \tilde{L}_r \Delta, \quad (11)$$

where  $\Delta = \text{diag}(e^{(r-1)x_1}, \dots, e^{(r-1)x_n})$ , and

$$\tilde{L}_r = \begin{bmatrix} \sinh r(x_i - x_j) \\ \sinh(x_i - x_j) \end{bmatrix}. \quad (12)$$

By Sylvester's Law  $\text{In } L_r = \text{In } \tilde{L}_r$ . Several properties of  $L_r$  can be studied via  $\tilde{L}_r$ , and vice versa. This has been a very effective tool in deriving operator inequalities; see, the work of Bhatia and Parthasarathy [6] and that of Hiai and Kosaki [9, 10, 11, 14].

When  $n = 2$  we have

$$\tilde{L}_r = \begin{bmatrix} r & \frac{\sinh r(x_1 - x_2)}{\sinh(x_1 - x_2)} \\ \frac{\sinh r(x_1 - x_2)}{\sinh(x_1 - x_2)} & r \end{bmatrix}.$$

So  $\det \tilde{L}_r = r^2 - \frac{\sinh^2 r(x_1 - x_2)}{\sinh^2(x_1 - x_2)}$ . Thus  $\det \tilde{L}_r$  is positive for  $0 < r < 1$ , zero for  $r = 1$ , and negative for  $r > 1$ . One eigenvalue of  $\tilde{L}_r$  is always positive, and this shows that the second eigenvalue is positive, zero, or negative depending on whether  $0 < r < 1$ ,  $r = 1$ , or  $r > 1$ , respectively. This establishes Theorem 1.1 in the simplest case  $n = 2$ .

An interesting corollary can be deduced at this stage. According to the two theorems of Loewner mentioned in Section 1,  $f$  is operator monotone if and only if all Loewner matrices  $L_f$  are positive semidefinite, and  $f(t) = t^r$  is operator monotone if and only if  $0 \leq r \leq 1$ . Consequently, if  $r > 1$ , then there exists an  $n$ , and positive numbers  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  such that the associated Loewner matrix (2) is not positive definite. We can assert more:

**Proposition 2.1.** *Let  $r > 1$ . Then for every  $n \geq 2$ , and for every choice of  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ , the matrix  $L_r$  defined in (2) has at least one negative eigenvalue.*

*Proof* Consider the  $2 \times 2$  top left submatrix of  $L_r$ . This is a Loewner matrix. By Theorem 1.1 it has one negative eigenvalue. So, by Cauchy's interlacing principle, the  $n \times n$  matrix  $L_r$  has at least one negative eigenvalue.  $\square$

The Sylvester Law has a generalisation that is useful for us. Let  $n \geq r$ , and let  $A$  be an  $r \times r$  Hermitian matrix and  $X$  an  $r \times n$  matrix of rank  $r$ . Then

$$\text{In } X^*AX = \text{In } A + (0, n - r, 0). \quad (13)$$

A proof of this may be found in [5]. This permits a simple transparent proof of Part (ii) of Theorem 1.1. (This part has already been proved in [4].) When  $r$  is a positive integer we have

$$L_r = [p_i^{r-1} + p_i^{r-2}p_j + \cdots + p_j^{r-1}] = W^*VW,$$

where  $W$  is the  $r \times n$  Vandermonde matrix

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ p_1 & p_2 & \cdots & p_n \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ p_1^{r-1} & p_2^{r-1} & \cdots & p_n^{r-1} \end{bmatrix},$$

and  $V$  is the  $r \times r$  antidiagonal matrix with all entries 1 on its sinister diagonal and all its other entries equal to 0. If  $r = 2k$ , the matrix  $V$  has  $k$  of its eigenvalues equal to 1, and the other  $k$  equal to  $-1$ . If  $r = 2k - 1$ , then  $k$  of its eigenvalues are equal to 1, and  $k - 1$  are equal to  $-1$ . So, statement (ii) of Theorem 1.1 follows from the generalised Sylvester's Law (13). Next we prove statement (i).

Let  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  be real numbers, not all of which are zero. Let  $f$  be the function on  $(0, \infty)$  defined as

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j \frac{x^r - p_j^r}{x - p_j}. \quad (14)$$

**Theorem 2.2.** *Let  $r$  be a positive real number not equal to  $1, 2, \dots, n - 1$ . Then the function  $f$  defined in (14) has at most  $n - 1$  zeros in  $(0, \infty)$ .*

*Proof* Let  $r_1 < r_2 < \cdots < r_m$ , and let  $a_1, \dots, a_m$  be real numbers not all of which are zero. Then the function

$$g(x) = \sum_{j=1}^m a_j x^{r_j}, \quad (15)$$

has at most  $m - 1$  zeros in  $(0, \infty)$ . This is a well-known fact, and can be found in e.g., [16], p.46.

Now let  $f$  be the function defined in (14) and let

$$g(x) = f(x) \prod_{j=1}^n (x - p_j). \quad (16)$$



Then  $g$  can be expressed in the form (15) with  $m = 2n$  and

$$\{r_1, \dots, r_{2n}\} = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1, r, r+1, \dots, r+n-1\}.$$

Further, we have  $g(x) = x^r h_1(x) - h_2(x)$ , where

$$h_1(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \prod_{j \neq i} (x - p_j), \quad h_2(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i p_i^r \prod_{j \neq i} (x - p_j).$$

Both  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  are Lagrange interpolation polynomials of degree at most  $n-1$ . Since not all  $c_i$  are zero, neither of these polynomials is identically zero. So, if  $r \neq 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ , then  $g$  is not the zero function.

Hence the function  $g$  defined by (16) has at most  $2n-1$  zeros in  $(0, \infty)$ . Of these,  $n$  zeros occur at  $x = p_j$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . So  $f$  has at most  $n-1$  zeros in  $(0, \infty)$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 2.3.** *Let  $r$  be a positive real number different from  $1, 2, \dots, n-1$ . Then the matrix  $L_r$  defined in (2) is nonsingular.*

*Proof* The matrix  $L_r$  is singular if and only if there exists a nonzero vector  $c = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$  such that  $L_r(c) = 0$ . In other words there exist real numbers  $c_1, \dots, c_n$ , not all zero, such that

$$\sum_{j=1}^n c_j \frac{p_i^r - p_j^r}{p_i - p_j} = 0$$

for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . But then the function  $f(x)$  in (14) would have  $n$  zeros, viz.,  $x = p_1, \dots, p_n$ . That is not possible.  $\square$

We have proved Part (i) of Theorem 1.1. Part (iv) follows from this. If the inertia of  $L_r$  were to change at some point  $r_0 > n-1$ , then one of the eigenvalues has to change sign at  $r_0$ . This is ruled out as  $L_r$  is nonsingular for all  $r > n-1$ .

Our argument shows that if  $p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_n$  and  $q_1 < q_2 < \dots < q_n$  are two  $n$ -tuples of positive real numbers, then the matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} p_i^r - q_j^r \\ p_i - q_j \end{bmatrix}$  is nonsingular for every positive  $r$  different from  $1, 2, \dots, n-1$ . Using the intermediate value theorem, we see that the determinants of all such matrices must have the same sign, independent of  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  and  $q_1, \dots, q_n$ .

An  $n \times n$  real matrix  $A$  is said to be *strictly sign-regular* (SSR for short) if for every  $1 \leq k \leq n$ , all  $k \times k$  sub-determinants of  $A$  are nonzero and have the same sign. If this is true for every  $1 \leq k \leq r$  for some  $r < n$ , then we say that  $A$  is in the class  $\text{SSR}_r$ . Sign-regular matrices and kernels are studied extensively in [15].

Let  $L_r$  be an  $n \times n$  Loewner matrix. Let  $r \neq 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ . We have observed that all  $k \times k$  sub-determinants of  $L_r$  are nonzero and have the same sign. Thus  $L_r$  is an SSR matrix. If  $r = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ , then the same argument shows that for  $k \leq r$  all  $k \times k$  sub-determinants of  $L_r$  are nonzero and have the same sign. In other words,  $L_r$  is an  $\text{SSR}_r$  matrix.

Let  $A$  be any matrix with eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$  arranged so that  $|\lambda_1| \geq |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$ . The Perron theorem tells us that if  $A$  is entrywise positive, then  $\lambda_1 > 0$  and  $\lambda_1$  is a simple eigenvalue of  $A$ . (See[13], p. 526). Now suppose  $A$  is an SSR matrix. For  $1 \leq k \leq n$ , the entries of the  $k$ th exterior power  $\Lambda^k A$  are the  $k \times k$  subdeterminants of  $A$ , and hence they must have the same sign. The eigenvalue of  $\Lambda^k A$  with the largest modulus is  $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \cdots \lambda_k$ . By Perron's theorem this eigenvalue must be simple. Since this is true for all  $1 \leq k \leq n$ , every eigenvalue of an SSR matrix is simple. By the same reasoning the  $r$  nonzero eigenvalues of an SSR<sub>r</sub> matrix of rank  $r$  are simple. This proves Part (v) of Theorem 1.1.

We now turn to proving Part (iii). Using the identity

$$\frac{p_i^r - p_j^r}{p_i - p_j} = \frac{p_i^{r-1}(p_i - p_j) + p_i(p_i^{r-2} - p_j^{r-2})p_j + (p_i - p_j)p_j^{r-1}}{p_i - p_j}$$

we see that for every  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$L_r = D^{r-1}E + DL_{r-2}D + ED^{r-1}, \quad (17)$$

where  $D$  is the diagonal matrix in (8) and  $E$  is the  $n \times n$  matrix with all its entries equal to one.

By Loewner's Theorem  $L_r$  is positive definite for  $0 < r < 1$ , and because of (10) it is negative definite for  $-1 < r < 0$ . Now suppose  $1 < r < 2$ . Let  $x$  be any nonzero vector in the space  $\mathcal{H}_1$  defined in (6). Note that this  $(n-1)$ -dimensional space is the kernel of the matrix  $E$ . Using (17) we have

$$\langle x, L_r x \rangle = \langle x, D^{r-1} E x \rangle + \langle x, D L_{r-2} D x \rangle + \langle x, E D^{r-1} x \rangle.$$

The first and the third term on the right hand side are zero because  $E x = 0$ . So,

$$\langle x, L_r x \rangle = \langle y, L_{r-2} y \rangle,$$

where  $y = D x$ . The last inner product is negative because  $L_{r-2} < 0$ . Thus  $\langle x, L_r x \rangle < 0$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}_1$ . In other words,  $L_r$  is conditionally negative definite if  $1 < r < 2$ . The same argument shows that  $L_r$  is conditionally positive definite if  $2 < r < 3$  (because in this case  $L_{r-2}$  is positive definite). This was proved in [7] by more elaborate arguments. In particular, we have

$$\text{In } L_r = (1, 0, n-1), \text{ if } 1 < r < 2, \quad (18)$$

and

$$\text{In } L_r = (n-1, 0, 1), \text{ if } 2 < r < 3. \quad (19)$$

We note here that if  $n = 3$ , then because of Part (iv) already proved we have In  $L_r = (2, 0, 1)$  for all  $r > 2$ . So the theorem is completely proved for  $n = 3$ .

Let  $n > 3$  and suppose  $3 < r < 4$ . Now consider the space

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}_2 &= \left\{ x : \sum x_i = 0, \sum p_i x_i = 0 \right\} \\ &= \{ x : E x = 0, E D x = 0 \}. \end{aligned}$$

This space is of dimension  $n - 2$ , being the orthogonal complement of the span of the vectors  $e = (1, 1, \dots, 1)$  and  $p = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n)$ . Let  $x \in \mathcal{H}_2$ . Again using the relation (17) we see that

$$\langle x, L_r x \rangle = \langle y, L_{r-2} y \rangle,$$

where  $y = Dx$ . Since  $EDx = 0$ ,  $y$  is in  $\mathcal{H}_1$ , and since  $1 < r - 2 < 2$ , we have  $\langle x, L_r x \rangle < 0$ . This is true for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}_2$ . So, by the minmax principle  $L_r$  has at least  $n - 2$  negative eigenvalues. The case  $n = 3$  of the theorem already proved shows that  $L_r$  has a  $3 \times 3$  principal submatrix with two positive eigenvalues. So, by Cauchy's interlacing principle,  $L_r$  has at least two positive eigenvalues. Thus  $L_r$  has exactly two positive and  $n - 2$  negative eigenvalues. In other words,

$$\text{In } L_r = (2, 0, n - 2) \text{ for } 3 < r < 4. \quad (20)$$

At this stage note that the Theorem is completely proved for  $n = 4$ . Now let  $n > 4$ , and consider the case  $4 < r < 5$ . Arguing as before  $\langle x, L_r x \rangle > 0$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}_2$ . So  $L_r$  has at least  $n - 2$  positive eigenvalues. It also has a  $4 \times 4$  principal submatrix with two negative eigenvalues. Hence

$$\text{In } L_r = (n - 2, 0, 2) \text{ for } 4 < r < 5. \quad (21)$$

The argument can be continued, introducing the space

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}_3 &= \left\{ x : \sum x_i = 0, \sum p_i x_i = 0, \sum p_i^2 x_i = 0 \right\} \\ &= \left\{ x : Ex = 0, EDx = 0, ED^2x = 0 \right\} \end{aligned}$$

at the next stage. Using this we can prove statement (iii) for  $5 < r < 6$  and  $6 < r < 7$ . It is clear now how to complete the proof.

All parts of Theorem 1.1 have now been established.  $\square$

We end this section with a few questions.

1. Let  $f(z)$  be the complex function defined as

$$f(z) = \det \left[ \frac{p_i^z - p_j^z}{p_i - p_j} \right].$$

Our analysis has shown that  $f$  has zeros at  $z = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots, \pm n - 1$ ; these zeros have multiplicities  $n, n - 1, \dots, 1$ , respectively; and these are the only real zeros of  $f$ . It might be of interest to find what other zeros  $f$  has in the complex plane.

2. When  $n = 3$ , calculations show that

$$\det L_3 = -(p_1 - p_2)^2 (p_1 - p_3)^2 (p_2 - p_3)^2,$$

and

$$\det L_4 = -2(p_1 - p_2)^2(p_1 - p_3)^2(p_2 - p_3)^2 \\ \{(p_1 + p_2 + p_3)(p_1p_2 + p_1p_3 + p_2p_3) + p_1p_2p_3\}.$$

It might be of interest to find formulas for the determinants of the matrices  $L_m$  for integers  $m$ .

3. Two of the authors have studied the matrix  $P_r = [(p_i + p_j)^r]$  in [5]. It turns out that  $\text{In } P_r = \text{In } L_{r+1}$  for all  $r > 0$ . Why should this be so, and are there other interesting connections between these two matrix families?

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