STABLE MATRICES, THE CAYLEY TRANSFORM, AND CONVERGENT MATRICES TYLER HAYNES

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ABSTRACT. The main result is that a square matrix D is convergent (lim $D^n = 0$) if and $n \rightarrow \infty$

only if it is the Cayley transform $C_A = (I-A)^{-1} (I+A)$ of a stable matrix A, where a stable matrix is one whose characteristic values all have negative real parts. In passing, the concept of Cayley transform is generalized, and the generalized version is shown closely related to the equation AG + GB = D. This gives rise to a characterization of the non-singularity of the mapping X \rightarrow AX + XB. As consequences are derived several characterizations of stability (closely related to Lyapunov's result) which involve Cayley transforms.

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Both Taussky and Stein [Stein, 1965] have written on the connection between stable matrices and convergent matrices. The link joining the two is the Cayley transform: a matrix is convergent \Leftrightarrow it is the Cayley transform of a stable matrix (theorem 8).

Cayley transforms are introduced by considering the matrix equation AX+XB = C. But first a lemma:

Lemma 1: Over field F let matrix A be $n \times n$ and let x be either indeterminate over F or in F but not a characteristic value of A. Then

$$(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{I}\cdot\mathbf{A})^{-1}(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{I}+\mathbf{A}) = (\mathbf{x}\mathbf{I}+\mathbf{A})(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{I}\cdot\mathbf{A})^{-1}.$$
(1)

If either expression in (1) is denoted by $C_{A,x}$, then $C_{A',x} = C_{A,x}$. If $x \neq 0$, then

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{x} (\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{I}) (\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{I})^{-1}.$$
(2)

<u>Proof</u>: Since x is not a characteristic value of A, $(xI-A)^{-1}$ exists. (1) follows from

$$(xI+A)(xI-A) = (xI-A)(xI+A).$$
(3)

Before (2) can be derived, the non-singularity of $C_{A,x} + I$ must be proven. This equation holds:

$$C_{A,x} + I = (xI + A)(xI - A)^{-1} + (xI - A)(xI - A)^{-1}$$

= 2x(xI - A)^{-1}.

Therefore, $|C_{A,x} + I| = 2x |xI-A|^{-1} \neq 0$ since $x \neq 0$ and $|xI-A| \neq 0$ (for xI-A is non-singular); hence, $C_{A,x} + I$ is non-singular. (2) then follows directly. QED

 $C_{A,x}$ of (1) is the <u>generalized Cayley transform</u> of A. If x = 1 is not a characteristic value of A, then $C_{A,1}$ is the <u>Cayley transform</u> of A; it will be denoted C_A . Note that the mapping $A \rightarrow C_A$ is bijective from the set of matrices having no characteristic value = 1 onto those having no characteristic value = -1, the inverse transformation being determined by (2).

<u>Theorem 2</u>: Let matrix A be $m \times m$, G and D be $m \times n$, and B be $n \times n$, all with entries in field F.

$$AG+GB = D \iff G-C_{A,x}GC_{B,x} = -2x(xI_m-A)^{-1}D(xI_n-B)^{-1}, \qquad (4)$$

where x is either indeterminate over F or in F but $\neq 0$ and a characteristic value of neither A nor B.

<u>Proof</u>: x satisfies the requirements for $C_{A,x}$ and $C_{B,x}$ to exist, according to the lemma, and the dimensions of $C_{A,x}$, $C_{B,x}$, $(xI_m-A)^{-1}$, and $(xI_n-B)^{-1}$ are such that the expression on the right of (4) is well-defined.

$$AG+GB = D$$

$$\Rightarrow (xG-AG)(xI_n-B) - (xG+AG)(xI_n+B) = -2xD$$

$$\Rightarrow (xI_m-A)G(xI_n-B) - (xI_m+A)G(xI_n+B) = -2xD$$

$$\Rightarrow G-(xI_m-A)^{-1}(xI_m+A)G(xI_n+B)(xI_n-B)^{-1} = -2x(xI_m-A)^{-1}D(xI_n-B)^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow G-C_{Ax}GC_{Bx} = -2x(xI_m-A)^{-1}D(xI_n-B)^{-1} \qquad QED$$

One consequence of the preceding theorem is the celebrated result that every properly orthogonal" matrix P can be expressed as $P = (I+K)^{-1}(I-K)$, where K is a real skew matrix. To derive it, in the theorem let F = real number field, G = I, D = O, x = -1, and $B = A^{+}$. Then it follows that $A+A^{+} = 0 \iff PP^{+} = I$, where $P = (-I-A)^{-1}(-I+A) = (I+A)^{-1}(I-A)$, the relationship between P and A being determined by (1) and (2) of the lemma (cf. the remark on the bijective character of $A \rightarrow C_A$). Likewise the Cayley parametrization of unitary matrices follows [Gantmacher, Vol. I; p. 279 (95)].

Over a field F let A be an m×m matrix, X an m×n matrix and B an n×n matrix. Let $t_{A,B} = AX + XB$. Clearly the mapping $t_{A,B}$: X→AX + XB is a linear transformation on the

^{&#}x27;This theorem generalizes a lemma of Weyl's [Weyl: p. 57, lemma (2.10.A)].

[&]quot;An orthogonal matrix is proper \Leftrightarrow none of its characteristic values = -1.

linear space of m×n matrices. Denote t_{A,A^*} by t_A : $t_A(X) = AX + XA^*$, where all matrices are of the same dimension.

<u>Corollary 3</u>: Let A, B, G, x, and F be as in theorem 2. Then the mapping G-G-C_{Ax}GC_{Bx} is linear from the set of all m×n matrices into itself. This mapping is nonsingular $\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{I}_{AB}$ is non-singular.

<u>Proof</u>: The linearity of the mapping is obvious. $t_{A,B}$ is non-singular \Leftrightarrow for every D there exists a solution of $AX+XB = D \Leftrightarrow$ for every E there exists a solution of $X-C_{A,x}XC_{B,x} =$ E (theorem 2 and the non-singularity of xI_m -A and xI_n -B) \Leftrightarrow the mapping $G \rightarrow G-C_{A,x}GC_{B,x}$ is non-singular. QED

In the rest of this article, let F be the field of complex numbers and let all matrices be square.

The <u>inertia</u> of an n×n matrix X is the ordered triple of integers $(\pi(X), \nu(X) \delta(X)) =$ In(X), where $\pi(X)$ is the number of characteristic values of X whose real parts are positive, $\nu(X)$, the number whose real parts are negative, and $\delta(X)$ the number whose real parts are 0.

<u>Corollary 4</u>: If A has no characteristic value =1, then $In(I-C_AC_A^*) = In(-(A+A^*))$.

<u>Proof</u>: $C_{A^*} = C_A^*$ by a slight modification of lemma 1. In theorem 2, let $B = A^*$, G = I, and x = 1; then $D = A + A^*$. Therefore, $I - C_A C_A^* = I - C_A I C_{A^*} = -2(I - A)^{-1}(A + A^*)(I - A^*)^{-1}$ = $(I - A)^{-1}[-2(A + A^*)][(I - A)^{-1}]^*$. Since the last expression is congruent to $-2(A + A^*)$, their inertias are the same, and $In(-2(A + A^*)) = In(-(A + A^*))$. QED

A square matrix is <u>stable</u> \Leftrightarrow all its characteristic values have negative real parts. S denotes the set of all stable n×n matrices, II denotes the set of all positive-definite hermitian matrices and N denotes the set of all negative-definite hermitian matrices.

<u>Theorem 5</u>: A $\epsilon S \Leftrightarrow$ for any $G_1 \epsilon II$ there exists $G \epsilon II : G \cdot C_A G \cdot C_A^* = G_1$

 $\Leftrightarrow \text{ there exists } G_1 \epsilon \Pi : G \cdot C_A G C_A^* = G_1 \text{ for some } G \epsilon \Pi.$

<u>Proof</u>: In theorem 2, let $B = A^*$, x = 1 (for 1 is not characteristic of a stable matrix and C_A presupposes that $x \neq 1$), and $D = -\frac{1}{2}(I-A)G_1(I-A^*)$. Then the last term of (4) is G_1 , and (4) becomes

$$AG+GA^* = D \iff G-C_AGC_A^* = G_1$$

D is hermitely congruent to $-\frac{1}{2}G_1$, and so $In(D) = In(-\frac{1}{2}G_1)$. Therefore, $G_1 \in \Pi \Leftrightarrow D \in N$.

First equivalence: Assume A ϵ S. For any $G_1 \epsilon II$, D ϵN . Therefore, $\exists G \epsilon II$: AG+GA* = D [Taussky], so G-C_AGC_A* = G₁. Conversely, if for any $G_1 \epsilon II$ there exists G ϵII : G-C_AGC_A* = G₁, then AG+GA* = D; since G₁ is arbitrary, so is D, for I-A and I-A* are nonsingular, otherwise C_A and $C_A^* = C_A^*$ would not be defined. Since D ϵN , A ϵS [Taussky].

Second equivalence: Assume A ϵ S. Then $\exists G \epsilon II: AG + GA^* = D$ for some $D \epsilon N$, and so $G \cdot C_A G C_A^* = G_1$; $G_1 \epsilon II$ as above. Conversely, if, for some $G_1 \epsilon II$, $G \cdot C_A G C_A^* = G_1$ for some $G \epsilon II$, then $AG + GA^* = D$ and $D \epsilon N$. Hence, $A \epsilon S$. QED

<u>Corollary 6</u>: A $\epsilon S \iff \exists G \epsilon II$: I-diag $(g_1,...,g_n) \epsilon II$, where $\{g_i\}_i^n$ are the roots of $|\lambda G \cdot C_A G C_A^*| = 0$; furthermore, g_i is real (i=1,...,n).

<u>Proof</u>: ⇒ Assume A ϵ S. By the first equivalence of the preceding theorem $\exists G \epsilon II$: G-C_AGC_A* = I. Since both G and C_AGC_A* are hermitian and G ϵII , $\exists R$: R is non-singular and R'GR = I, R'(C_AGC_A*)R = diag(g₁,...,g_n) where {g_i} are the roots of $|\lambda G$ -C_AGC_A*| = 0. Then R'R = R'IR = R'(G-C_AGC_A*)R = R'GR-R'(C_AGC_A*)R = I-diag(g₁,...,g_n). R'R ϵII because R'GR = I ⇒ R'⁻¹R⁻¹ = G ϵII ⇒ RR' ϵII ⇒ R'R ϵII . Therefore, I-diag(g₁,...,g_n) ϵII .

⇒ Since G and $C_AGC_A^*$ are hermitian and G ϵII , $\exists R$: R is non-singular and R $^{I}GR = I$, R $^{I}(C_AGC_A^*)R = diag(g_1,...,g_n)$ where $\{g_i\}$ are the (real) roots of $|\lambda G \cdot C_AGC_A^*| = 0$. Then R $^{I-1}[I \cdot diag(g_1,...,g_n)]R^{-1} = R {}^{I-1}R^{-1} \cdot R {}^{I-1}diag(g_1,...,g_n)R^{-1} = G \cdot C_AGC_A^* \epsilon II$. By the second equivalence of the preceding theorem, A ϵ S.

g, is real (i=1,...,n) [Gantmacher, Vol. I; p. 338, thm. 22]. QED

<u>Corollary 7</u>: A $\epsilon S \iff \exists G \epsilon II$: $g_i < 1$ (i=1,...,n) where $\{g_i\}_1^n$ are the characteristic values of $G^{-1}C_AGC_A^*$.

<u>Proof</u>: In the preceding corollary, G is non-singular since G $\epsilon \pi$. Hence, $\{g_i\}_{i}^n$, the roots of $|\lambda G-C_A GC_A^*| = 0$, are the characteristic values of $G^{-1}C_A GC_A^*$, for $|\lambda G-C_A GC_A^*| = 0 \Leftrightarrow$ $|G| \cdot |\lambda I-G^{-1}C_A GC_A^*| = 0$. I-diag $(g_1,...,g_n) \epsilon \pi$ is equivalent to 1-g > 0 (i-1,...,n). QED

The algebraic properties of the Cayley transform previously developed will be applied to prove theorems about convergent matrices.

The n×n matrix A is <u>convergent</u> $\Leftrightarrow \lim_{m\to\infty} A^m = 0.$

<u>Theorem 8</u>: D is convergent $\Leftrightarrow \exists A \in S : D = C_A$.

<u>Proof</u>: D is convergent \Leftrightarrow D* is convergent.

⇒ Assume that D is convergent. Then D* is convergent. By Stein's theorem [Stein, 1952; p. 82, thm. 1] ($\exists G \in II$)($\exists G_1 \in II$) : G-DGD* = G₁. Define A by A = (D-I)(D+I)⁻¹; then D = C_A. By theorem 2, AG+GA* = -½(I-A)G₁(I-A*). Since -½(I-A)G₁(I-A*) is hermitely congruent to -G₁, AG+GA* ϵ Nand by [Taussky] A ϵ S.

 \in Assume that A ϵ S. Then by theorem 5, $(\exists G \epsilon II)(\exists G_1 \epsilon II)$: $G \cdot C_A G C_A^* = G_1$. By

Stein's theorem, C_A^* is convergent, and so C_A is convergent.

<u>Corollary 9</u>: D is convergent $\Leftrightarrow (\forall G_1 \in \Pi)(\exists G \in \Pi)$: G-DGD* = G_1

$$\Leftrightarrow (\exists G_1 \epsilon II)(\exists G \epsilon II): G - DGD^* = G_1.$$

<u>Proof</u>: By the preceding theorem, D is convergent \Leftrightarrow D = C_A, where A ϵ S. The two equivalences follow from this fact and theorem 5. QED

The preceding corollary is a theorem of Taussky's [Taussky; p. 7, thm. 5], which is itself

a strengthening of Stein's theorem.

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QED