ON PROPERTIES OF QUADRATIC MATRICES

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Abstract: The aim of this paper is to derive new properties of quadratic matrices, i.e. matrices satisfying a quadratic equation (A-pI)(A-qI)=0 where $p,q\in\mathbb{C}$ and I denotes the identity matrix. We focus our attention to numerical range, singular values of quadratic matrices and the closest normal matrix to a quadratic matrix.

1. Introduction and notations

The purpose of this paper is to give a general characterization of quadratic matrices. The set of all n-by -n matrices over \mathbb{C} is denoted by \mathcal{M}_n . We say that $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ is a quadratic matrix, if there exist $p, q \in \mathbb{C}$

such that (A - pI)(A - qI) = 0 where $I = I_n$ denotes the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

Such matrices find many applications in applied linear algebra. The set of quadratic matrices includes the set of projections $(A^2 = A)$, involutions $(A^2 = I)$, nilpotents $(A^2 = 0)$ and elementary matrices $(A = I - uw^*)$, eg. Householder reflections and elimination matrices (see [9]).

For $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$, let $\lambda(A)$ and $\sigma(A)$ denote, respectively, the spectrum and the set of singular values of A. The singular values of A are the positive square roots of the eigenvalues of the Hermitian positive semi-definite matrix A^*A (see eg. [4], [11], [18]). Here $A^* \in \mathcal{M}_n$ stands for the matrix formed by conjugating each element and taking the transpose. The singular values of A can be found from the singular value decomposition SVD (see [4], [11]).

Theorem 1.1 (SVD). Every matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ of rank r can be written as $A = U\Sigma V^*$, where $U, V \in \mathcal{M}_n$ are unitary and $\Sigma = \operatorname{diag}(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_r, 0, \ldots, 0)$ is a diagonal matrix with nonnegative main diagonal entries σ_i , called the singular values of A.

Let A^{\dagger} denote the pseudoinverse of $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ defined as

$$A^\dagger = V \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sigma_r}, 0, \dots, 0\right) U^*.$$

Then $X = A^{\dagger}$ is uniquely determined by the Moore–Penrose conditions: AXA = A, XAX = X, $AX = (AX)^*$ and $XA = (XA)^*$. For more details we refer the reader to [11].

We will consider the 2-norm (spectral norm) and Frobenius norm of A, i.e. $||A||_2 = \sigma_1$ and $||A||_F = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \ldots + \sigma_r^2}$.

We investigate properties of quadratic matrices using known properties of projections. We summarize some basic properties of projections that are relevant to our discussion in the later sections.

A projection (idempotent) $Z \in \mathcal{M}_n$ is a matrix such that $Z^2 = Z$, so I - Z and Z^* are also projections. It is diagonalizable and $\operatorname{rank}(Z) = \operatorname{tr}(Z)$. The minimal equation of a projection Z is $\lambda^2 = \lambda$, hence Z has as only +1 and 0 as eigenvalues.

In Section 2 we prove some inequalities for singular values of quadratic matrices using the Schur theorem (any complex matrix is unitarily similar to a triangular matrix). If $Z \in \mathcal{M}_n$ is a projection then there exists a unitary matrix $U \in \mathcal{M}_n$ such that

(1)
$$Z = U \begin{pmatrix} I_r & C \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} U^*,$$

where r = rank(A) (see eg. [7]).

There is a deep overlap between projections and quadratic matrices. Notice that $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ satisfies

(2)
$$(A - pI)(A - qI) = 0, \quad p \neq 0 \neq q$$

iff there exists a projection $Z \in \mathcal{M}_n$ such that

$$(3) A = qI + (p - q)Z.$$

It is obvious that

(4)
$$Z = \frac{1}{p-q}(A-qI).$$

In case p = q we have $(A - pI)^2 = 0$, so A - pI is a nilpotent. From (1) and (3) we obtain the following theorem.

Theorem 1.2 (Schur form). For every $p, q \in \mathbb{C}$ a quadratic matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ such that (A - pI)(A - qI) = 0 can be written as

(5)
$$A = URU^*, \quad R = \begin{pmatrix} pI_r & B \\ 0 & qI_{n-r} \end{pmatrix},$$

where $U \in \mathcal{M}_n$ is unitary.

Th. 1.2 find many applications. Notice that if $p \neq q$ then there exists an involution $X \in \mathcal{M}_n$ containing the eigenvectors of R. Then $X^2 = I$ and

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} I_r & \frac{1}{p-q}B \\ 0 & -I_{n-r} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We see that RX = XD where D is a diagonal matrix:

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} pI_r & 0 \\ 0 & qI_{n-r} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Section 2 is devoted to the inverse eigenproblem of quadratic matrices. In Section 3 we show how to find a quadratic matrix with prescribed singular values. In Section 4 the Moore–Penrose inverse of a quadratic matrix is determined. Section 5 deals with the closest normal matrix X to a quadratic matrix A in the 2-norm and the Frobenius norm. Section 6 discusses the case of elementary matrices. In the last section a characterization of the numerical range of quadratic matrices is given.

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Eigenvalues of a product of two quadratic matrices

A quadratic matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ such that (A - pI)(A - qI) = 0 has the minimal equation $(\lambda - p)(\lambda - q) = 0$, hence has only p and q as eigenvalues. We are interested in eigenvalues of a product two quadratic matrices satisfying the same quadratic equation.

First we consider projections. In 1956 Afriat (see [1], [18]) proved the following theorem.

Theorem 2.1. Let $A = A^* = A^2$ and $B = B^* = B^2$. If λ is an eigenvalue of AB, then $\lambda \in [0,1]$.

However, the Afriat theorem need not hold for arbitrary projections A and B. Necessary and sufficient conditions for n numbers in the interval [0,1] to form the spectrum of a product of two orthogonal projections were determined by Nelson and Neumann (see [17]).

Moreover, the following theorem holds.

Theorem 2.2. For arbitrary nonzero $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{C}$ there exist quadratic matrices $A, B \in \mathcal{M}_{2n}$ satisfying the same quadratic equation

$$(A - pI)(A - qI) = 0, \quad (B - pI)(B - qI) = 0$$

such that $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \in \lambda(AB)$.

Proof. Let A and B be the direct sum of matrices A_k and B_k :

$$A = A_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus \ldots \oplus A_n, \quad B = B_1 \oplus B_2 \oplus \ldots \oplus B_n,$$

where

$$A_k = \begin{pmatrix} p & x_k \\ 0 & q \end{pmatrix}, \quad B_k = \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 1 & q \end{pmatrix}.$$

We would like to determine $x_k \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\lambda_k \in \lambda(A_k B_k)$.

An easy calculation gives

$$A_k B_k = \begin{pmatrix} p^2 + x_k & x_k q \\ q & q^2 \end{pmatrix},$$

hence $\lambda_k \in \lambda(A_k B_k)$ iff $(p^2 + x_k - \lambda_k)(q^2 - \lambda_k) - x_k q^2 = 0$. From this we get

$$x_k = \frac{(p^2 - \lambda_k)(q^2 - \lambda_k)}{\lambda_k}.$$

It is obvious that also $\frac{p^2q^2}{\lambda_k} \in \lambda(A_kB_k)$, so

$$\lambda(AB) = \bigcup_{k=1}^{n} \lambda(A_k B_k) = \left\{ \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n, \frac{p^2 q^2}{\lambda_1}, \dots, \frac{p^2 q^2}{\lambda_n} \right\}.$$

This completes the proof. \Diamond

3. Singular values of quadratic matrices

We obtain a generalization of the following estimation of singular values of projections (see eg. [12]): if $\sigma > 0$ is a singular value of a projection $Z \in \mathcal{M}_n$ then $\sigma \geq 1$.

Assume that a quadratic matrix A has the Schur form (5).

If $B = U_1 S U_2^*$ is an SVD and $Q = \begin{pmatrix} U_1 & 0 \\ 0 & U_2 \end{pmatrix}$ then Q is unitary and $C = Q^* R Q = \begin{pmatrix} p I_r & S \\ 0 & q I_{n-r} \end{pmatrix}$.

It is evident that there exists a permutation matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}_n$ such that P^TCP is a block diagonal matrix with blocks of size at most two. We may summarize these observations as

Theorem 3.1. Suppose that $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ satisfies a quadratic equation (A - pI)(A - qI) = 0 where $p, q \in \mathbb{C}$. Then A is unitarily similar to a block diagonal matrix with blocks of size at most two.

Another proof of this fact was given by A. Zalewska–Mitura and J. Zemánek (see [22]).

Notice that if $X \in \mathcal{M}_2$ has a form $X = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & s \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$ where $|\lambda_1| \ge |\lambda_2|$, then $\sigma_1 \ge |\lambda_1|$ and $\sigma_2 \le |\lambda_2|$. Here $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2$ are the singular values of X.

From this and Th. 3.1 we get the following theorem.

Theorem 3.2. Suppose that $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ satisfies (A - pI)(A - qI) = 0 where $p, q \in \mathbb{C}$. If σ is a singular value of A then

$$(\sigma - |p|) (\sigma - |q|) \geq 0.$$

It is possible to construct a quadratic matrix with prescribed singular values.

Theorem 3.3. There exists a matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_{2n}$ satisfying a quadratic equation (A - pI)(A - qI) = 0 with given singular values $\sigma_1 \geq \ldots \geq \sigma_n > 0$ such that $(\sigma_k - |p|)$ $(\sigma_k - |q|) > 0$ for $k = 1, \ldots, n$.

Proof. Let A be the direct sum of matrices A_k :

$$A = A_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus \ldots \oplus A_n$$
,

where

$$A_k = \begin{pmatrix} p & s_k \\ 0 & q \end{pmatrix}.$$

We would like to determine $s_k \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\sigma_k \in \sigma(A_k)$. We have

$$A_k A_k^* = \left(\left. \left| \begin{array}{cc} \left| \begin{array}{cc} p \end{array} \right|^2 + s_k^2 & s_k \overline{q} \\ q s_k & \left| \begin{array}{cc} q \end{array} \right|^2 \end{array} \right).$$

From this we get

$$s_k = rac{\sqrt{({\sigma_k}^2 - \mid p\mid^2)({\sigma_k}^2 - \mid q\mid^2)}}{{\sigma_k}}.$$

It is clear that also $\frac{|pq|}{\sigma_k} \in \sigma(A_k)$, hence

$$\sigma(A) = \bigcup_{k=1}^{n} \sigma(A_k) = \left\{ \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n, \frac{|pq|}{\sigma_1}, \dots, \frac{|pq|}{\sigma_n} \right\}.$$

This completes the proof. \Diamond

4. The Moore-Penrose inverse

Assume that $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ is a quadratic matrix satisfying a quadratic equation (A - pI)(A - qI) = 0, $p, q \in \mathbb{R}$. Then A is nonsingular iff $p \neq 0 \neq q$. From $A^{-1}(A^2 - (p+q)A + pqI) = 0$ we find that

(6)
$$A^{\dagger} = A^{-1} = \frac{1}{pq}((p+q)I - A), \quad p \neq 0 \neq q.$$

From Th. 1.2 we have $A^{\dagger}=\left(URU^{*}\right)^{\dagger}=UR^{\dagger}U^{*},$ where R has a form

(7)
$$R = \begin{pmatrix} pI_r & B \\ 0 & qI_{n-r} \end{pmatrix}.$$

It is easy to check that

(8)
$$R^{\dagger} = R^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{p} I_r & \frac{-1}{pq} B \\ 0 & \frac{1}{q} I_{n-r} \end{pmatrix}, \quad p \neq 0 \neq q.$$

If p = q = 0 then R is a nilpotent and

$$R^{\dagger} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{\dagger} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ B^{\dagger} & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now we consider the case q=0 and $p\neq 0$. Then using the formula for the Moore–Penrose inverse for partitioned matrices from [15] we get

(9)
$$R^{\dagger} = \begin{pmatrix} pI_r & B \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{\dagger} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{p}(I_r + \frac{1}{|p|^2}BB^*)^{-1} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{|p|^2}B^*(I_r + \frac{1}{|p|^2}BB^*)^{-1} & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad p \neq 0.$$

5. Nearest normal matrix

We seek normal approximants in the 2-norm and Frobenius norm to a quadratic matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ such that (A - pI)(A - qI) = 0 where $p, q \in \mathbb{C}$ and $p \neq q$. We find a formula for nearest normal matrix in terms of A, p and q.

We remind that a normal matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ is any matrix satisfying $AA^* = A^*A$. Normal matrices include Hermitian $(A^* = A)$, skew-Hermitian $(A^* = -A)$, unitary $(A^*A = I)$ and real symmetric, skew-symmetric and orthogonal matrices.

Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$, and denote by $\nu_2(A)$ ($\nu_F(A)$) its distance from the set of normal matrices in the 2-norm (and Frobenius norm), see [10], [13], [20].

(10)
$$\nu_2(A) = \inf \{ || A - N ||_2 : N \text{ is normal} \},$$

(11)
$$\nu_F(A) = \inf \{ \| A - N \|_F : N \text{ is normal } \}.$$

First, we present some results on projections. Assume that $Z \in \mathcal{M}_n$ is a projection (idempotent). It was proved by Phillips (see [19]) that the infimum $v_2(Z)$ is attained at $\frac{1}{2}(Z + Z^*)$, a Hermitian part of Z. The same holds for the Frobenius norm (see [3]). Bhatia, Horn and Kittaneh (see [3]) generalized a result of Phillips to the binormal operators with respect to every unitarily invariant norm. We use these results to exhibit nearest normal to a quadratic matrix. It is obvious that if $N \in \mathcal{M}_n$ is a nearest normal to $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ in the 2-norm or Frobenius norm, then for any $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ the matrix $\alpha N + \beta I$ is a nearest normal to $\alpha A + \beta I$. Now we write a quadratic matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ such that (A - pI)(A - qI) = 0 in a form A = qI + (p - q)Z, where Z is a projection, and $Z = \frac{1}{p-q}(A - qI)$.

We have the following theorem (see [10] for a discussion on 2×2 case).

Theorem 5.1. Assume $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ satisfies a quadratic equation (A - pI)(A - qI) = 0 where $p, q \in \mathbb{C}$ and $p \neq q$. Then

(12)
$$N = qI + \frac{p-q}{2}(Z+Z^*), \quad Z = \frac{1}{p-q}(A-qI)$$

is a nearest normal to A in the 2-norm and the Frobenius norm.

6. Elementary matrices

The set of quadratic matrices includes the set of elementary matrices of a form $A = I - uw^*$, $u, w \in \mathbb{C}^n$.

They are frequently used in numerical linear algebra (see eg. [4], [9], [21]). A matrix $A = I - uw^*$ satisfies a quadratic equation (A - pI)(A - qI) = 0 where $p = 1 - w^*u$ and q = 1 (see [9]).

We would like to find the singular values of A. We write A^*A in a form

$$A^*A = I - B$$
, $B = pw^* + wp^*$, $p = u - \frac{u^*u}{2}w$.

We see that we need to determine the eigenvalues of a Hermitian matrix B. By simple computations we get the following result.

Theorem 6.1. Assume that $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \ldots \geq \sigma_n$ are the singular values of $A = I - uw^*$ where $u, w \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and $w^*u \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\sigma_2 = \ldots = \sigma_{n-1} = 1$$

and

(14)
$$\sigma_1 = \frac{1}{2} (\sqrt{(u^*u)(w^*w)} + \sqrt{(u^*u)(w^*w) + 4 - 4(w^*u)}),$$

(15)
$$\sigma_n = \frac{\mid 1 - w^* u \mid}{\sigma_1}.$$

7. Numerical range

If $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ is a given matrix, then the set

$$W(A) = \{x^*Ax : x \in \mathbb{C}^n, x^*x = 1\}$$

is called the field of values or numerical range of A.

In the following lemma we collect some basic properties of W(A) (see [5], [6], [11], [16]).

Lemma 7.1. Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$. Then

- (a) W(A) is compact and convex subset of the complex plane.
- (b) $W(UAU^*) = W(A)$ for every unitary $U \in \mathcal{M}_n$.

- (c) $W(\alpha A + \beta I) = \beta + \alpha W(A)$ for every $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$.
- (d) If $A \in \mathcal{M}_2$ has eigenvalues $p, q \in \mathbb{C}$ then the numerical range of A is an elliptical disc with eigenvalues of A as foci and a minor axis of the length $\sqrt{\operatorname{tr}(A^*A) |p|^2 |q|^2}$.

In 1993 J.I. Fuji and Y. Seo (see [8]) proved the following theorem. **Theorem 7.1.** If $Y \in \mathcal{M}_n$ is a nilpotent of a form $Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ then the numerical range of Y is a circular disc centered at 0 and the radius equal to $\frac{1}{2} \parallel B \parallel_2$.

If $Z \in \mathcal{M}_n$ is a projection of a form $Z = \begin{pmatrix} I_r & B \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ then the numerical range of Z is an elliptical disc:

$$W(Z) = \left\{ x + iy : \frac{\left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} \le 1 \right\}$$

where

$$a = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{1 + \parallel B \parallel_2^{\ 2}}, \quad b = \frac{1}{2} \parallel B \parallel_2.$$

Using (2)-(4), Lemma 7.1, Th. 7.1 and applying the Schur form (5) we get the following theorem.

Theorem 7.2. Assume that a quadratic matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ has the Schur form

$$A = U \begin{pmatrix} pI_r & B \\ 0 & qI_{n-r} \end{pmatrix} \ U^*$$

where U is unitary. Then the numerical range of A is an elliptical disc with p, q as foci and $||B||_2$ as the length of a minor axis.

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