

The Square Root of Nonsingular Matrices with Non-negative Eigenvalues

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(Received May 2, 2023, Accepted May 23, 2023,
Published May 31, 2023)

Abstract

In this paper, we introduce a method to find the square root of non-singular matrices with non-negative eigenvalues. Our method extends and generalizes the corresponding approach for 2×2 matrix. In addition, an illustrative example is given.

1 Introduction

Let M_n denote the set of $n \times n$ complex matrices. The identity in M_n is denoted by I_n . A matrix B is a square root of a matrix A if $B^2 = A$ and we will denote it by $B = \sqrt{A}$. The square root matrix with most practical interest is the one whose eigenvalues are non-negative, which is called the principal square root. If A is nonsingular and has non-negative eigenvalues, then A has a unique principal square root.

The square root of a matrix has applications in many problems like computation of the polar decomposition, solution to differential equations, the

Key words and phrases: Eigenvalues, Cayley-Hamilton Theorem, non-singular matrix, Square root of matrix.

AMS (MOS) Subject Classifications: 15A22.

ISSN 1814-0432, 2023, <http://ijmcs.future-in-tech.net>

matrix sign function, and Markov models of finance. In 2011, Al-Tamimi [4] introduced a new method for finding the square root of a certain class of 2×2 matrix using the Cayley-Hamilton theorem. Our method generalizes that method for $n \times n$ positive semidefinite matrices.

2 Main Results

In what follows, the set of all $n \times n$ non-singular matrices $M'_n(\mathbb{R})$ over \mathbb{R} with non-negative eigenvalues. Let $\chi_A(x)$ denote the characteristic polynomial of a matrix A . If λ is an eigenvalue of matrix A , then $\chi_A(\lambda) = 0$.

Lemma 2.1. *Let $A \in M'_n(\mathbb{R})$. If λ is an eigenvalue of A , then neither $\sqrt{\lambda}$ nor $-\sqrt{\lambda}$ is an eigenvalue of matrix $B = \sqrt{A}$.*

Proof. Let λ be an eigenvalue of A . Then $\lambda \geq 0$ and $Av = \lambda v$ for some non-zero vector v . Thus $B^2v = \lambda v$. So neither $\sqrt{\lambda}$ nor $-\sqrt{\lambda}$ is an eigenvalue of B . □

Proposition 2.2. *Let $A \in M'_n(\mathbb{R})$.*

If $B = \sqrt{A}$, then $\chi_A(x) = (-1)^n \chi_B(\sqrt{x}) \chi_B(-\sqrt{x})$.

Proof. Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k, \lambda_{k+1}, \dots, \lambda_n$ be all eigenvalues of A . Using Lemma 2.1, suppose that $\sqrt{\lambda_1}, \sqrt{\lambda_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\lambda_k}$ and $-\sqrt{\lambda_{k+1}}, -\sqrt{\lambda_{k+2}}, \dots, -\sqrt{\lambda_n}$ are all the eigenvalues of B . Then $\chi_B(x) = (x - \sqrt{\lambda_1}) \cdots (x - \sqrt{\lambda_k})(x + \sqrt{\lambda_{k+1}}) \cdots (x + \sqrt{\lambda_n})$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_B(\sqrt{x}) \chi_B(-\sqrt{x}) &= (\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{\lambda_1})(\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{\lambda_2}) \cdots (\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{\lambda_k}) \\ &\quad (\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{\lambda_{k+1}}) \cdots (\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{\lambda_{n-1}})(\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{\lambda_n}) \\ &= (-\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{\lambda_1})(-\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{\lambda_2}) \cdots (-\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{\lambda_k}) \\ &\quad (-\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{\lambda_{k+1}}) \cdots (-\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{\lambda_{n-1}})(-\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{\lambda_n}) \\ &= (\lambda_1 - x)(\lambda_2 - x) \cdots (\lambda_k - x)(\lambda_{k+1} - x) \cdots (\lambda_n - x) \\ &= (-1)^n (x - \lambda_1) \cdots (x - \lambda_k)(x - \lambda_{k+1}) \cdots (x - \lambda_n) \\ &= (-1)^n \chi_A(x). \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 2.3. Let $A \in M'_n(\mathbb{R})$ and let $B = \sqrt{A}$.

(1). If $n = 2k$, then $B = (A^k + b_{2k-2}A^{k-1} + \dots + b_0I)(-b_{2k-1}A^{k-1} - \dots - b_1I)^{-1}$.

(2). If $n = 2k+1$, then $B = (-b_{2k}A^k - \dots - b_0I)(A^k + b_{2k-1}A^{k-1} + \dots + b_1I)^{-1}$.

Proof. Let $\chi_A(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$ and let $\chi_B(x) = x^n + b_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + b_1x + b_0$ be characteristic polynomials of A and B , respectively. By the Cayley-Hamilton theorem, we have $\chi_B(B) = 0$.

(1). If $n = 2k$, then

$$B^{2k} + b_{2k-1}B^{2k-1} + \dots + b_1B + b_0I = 0$$

$$B^{2k} + b_{2k-2}B^{2k-2} + \dots + b_0I = -b_{2k-1}B^{2k-1} - \dots - b_1B$$

$$B^{2k} + b_{2k-2}B^{2k-2} + \dots + b_0I = B(-b_{2k-1}B^{2k-2} - \dots - b_1I).$$

Thus $B = (B^{2k} + b_{2k-2}B^{2k-2} + \dots + b_0I)(-b_{2k-1}B^{2k-2} - \dots - b_1I)^{-1}$ implies that $B = (A^k + b_{2k-2}A^{k-1} + \dots + b_0I)(-b_{2k-1}A^{k-1} - \dots - b_1I)^{-1}$.

(2). If $n = 2k + 1$, then similarly by the Cayley-Hamilton theorem we get

$$B(B^{2k} + b_{2k-1}B^{2k-2} + \dots + b_1I) = -b_{2k}B^{2k} - \dots - b_0I.$$

So $B = (-b_{2k}B^{2k} - \dots - b_0I)(B^{2k} + b_{2k-1}B^{2k-2} + \dots + b_1I)^{-1}$. Consequently,

$$B = (-b_{2k}A^k - \dots - b_0I)(A^k + b_{2k-1}A^{k-1} + \dots + b_1I)^{-1}.$$

□

The following example illustrates our method.

Example 2.4. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$. Then we have to find \sqrt{A} by using

Theorem 2.3.

The characteristic polynomial of A is $\chi_A(\lambda) = \lambda^3 - 14\lambda^2 + 49\lambda - 36$. If

$B^2 = A$, then, by Proposition 2.2, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
(-1)^n(P_A(x)) &= (P_B(\sqrt{x}))(P_B(-\sqrt{x})) \\
(-1)^3(x^3 - 14x^2 + 49x - 36) &= ((-\sqrt{x})^3 + b_2(\sqrt{x})^2 - b_1(\sqrt{x}) + b_0) \\
&\quad ((\sqrt{x})^3 + b_2(\sqrt{x})^2 + b_1(\sqrt{x}) + b_0) \\
&= -x^3 - b_2(\sqrt{x})^5 - b_1(\sqrt{x})^4 + b_0(\sqrt{x})^3 \\
&\quad + b_2(\sqrt{x})^5 + b_2b_2(\sqrt{x})^4 + b_2b_1(\sqrt{x})^3 + b_2b_0(\sqrt{x})^2 \\
&\quad - b_1(\sqrt{x})^4 - b_1b_2(\sqrt{x})^3 - b_1b_1(\sqrt{x})^2 - b_1b_0(\sqrt{x}) \\
&\quad + b_0(\sqrt{x})^3 + b_0b_2(\sqrt{x})^2 + b_0b_1(\sqrt{x}) + b_0b_0 \\
&= -x^3 - (b_1 - b_2b_2 + b_1)x^2 - (-b_2b_0 + b_1b_1 - b_0b_2)x - (-b_0b_0) \\
&= -x^3 - (2b_1 - b_2^2)x^2 - (-2b_2b_0 + b_1^2)x - (-b_0^2) \\
&= (-1)(x^3 + (2b_1 - b_2^2)x^2 + (-2b_2b_0 + b_1^2)x + (-b_0^2)).
\end{aligned}$$

Thus $b_0^2 = 36$, $-2b_2b_0 + b_1^2 = 49$ and $-14 = 2b_1 - b_2^2$. By direct computation, we get $(b_0, b_1, b_2) = (6, -7, 0), (-6, -7, 0), (-6, 1, 4), (6, 1, -4), (-6, 11, -6), (6, 11, 6), (-6, -5, 2), (6, -5, -2)$. If we consider $(b_0, b_1, b_2) = (6, -7, 0)$, then by Theorem 2.3

$$\begin{aligned}
B &= (b_2A + b_0I)(-A - b_1I)^{-1} \\
&= \left(0 + 6 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) \left(-\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix} - (-7) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\right)^{-1} \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}.
\end{aligned}$$

In the same way, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
&\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -\frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & -2 & -\frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & \frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & 2 & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \\
&\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{7}{30} \\ 0 & 2 & \frac{1}{5} \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{7}{30} \\ 0 & -2 & -\frac{1}{5} \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

are square roots of A .

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