NON-TRIVIAL SOLUTIONS TO CERTAIN MATRIX EQUATIONS*

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Abstract. The existence of non-trivial solutions X to matrix equations of the form $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s) = G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ over the real numbers is investigated. Here F and G denote monomials in the $(n \times n)$ -matrix $\mathbf{X} = (x_{ij})$ of variables together with $(n \times n)$ -matrices $\mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s$ for $s \ge 1$ and $n \ge 2$ such that F and G have different total positive degrees in \mathbf{X} . An example with s = 1 is given by $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{X}^2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}$ and $G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{A}$ where deg(F) = 3 and deg(G) = 1. The Borsuk-Ulam Theorem guarantees that a non-zero matrix \mathbf{X} exists satisfying the matrix equation $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s) = G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ in $(n^2 - 1)$ components whenever F and G have different total odd degrees in \mathbf{X} . The Lefschetz Fixed Point Theorem guarantees the existence of special orthogonal matrices \mathbf{X} satisfying matrix equations $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s) = G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ whenever $deg(F) > deg(G) \ge 1$, $\mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s$ are in SO(n), and $n \ge 2$. Explicit solution matrices \mathbf{X} for the equations with s = 1 are constructed. Finally, nonsingular matrices \mathbf{A} are presented for which $\mathbf{X}^2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{A}$ admits no non-trivial solutions.

Key words. Polynomial equation, Matrix equation, Non-trivial solution.

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1. Matrix equations involving special monomials. Given monomials $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ and $G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ in the $(n \times n)$ -matrix $\mathbf{X} = (x_{ij})$ of variables with $n \geq 2$ and with total degrees $deg(F) > deg(G) \geq 1$ in \mathbf{X} , we investigate the existence of non-trivial solutions \mathbf{X} to the matrix equation

(1.1)
$$F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s) = G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s).$$

For example, $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}$ is such an equation. We note that in this equation, $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}$ and $G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}$ both contain products $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}$. We first record a sufficient condition for non-trivial solutions to the equation (1.1).

PROPOSITION 1.1. Suppose that the monomials $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ and $G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ both contain the product $\mathbf{A}_i\mathbf{X}$ or both contain $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}_i$, for some i with $1 \le i \le s$. Whenever \mathbf{A}_i is a singular matrix, the matrix equation (1.1) admits non-trivial solutions \mathbf{X} .

Proof. Let **X** be any non-zero $(n \times n)$ -matrix whose columns belong to the null space of \mathbf{A}_i whenever both F and G contain $\mathbf{A}_i\mathbf{X}$. Similarly, let **X** be any non-zero matrix whose rows belong to the null space of \mathbf{A}_i^T in case both F and G contain $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}_i$. \square

Our principal result affirms the existence of non-trivial solutions \mathbf{X} to matrix equations $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s) = G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ whenever $\mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s$ belong to the special orthogonal group SO(n) for any integer $n \geq 2$. We first construct explicit non-trivial solutions for such matrix equations with s = 1.

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PROPOSITION 1.2. Every matrix equation $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}) = G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A})$ for monomials F and G with different total odd degrees in \mathbf{X} admits a non-trivial solution \mathbf{X} of the form $\mathbf{A}^{p/q}$ whenever \mathbf{A} belongs to SO(n) for $n \geq 2$.

Proof. We may assume that $deg(F) > deg(G) \ge 1$. We seek a solution $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A}^{p/q}$ to the matrix equation $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}) \cdot (G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}))^{-1} = \mathbf{I}_n$. The classical Spectral Theorem for SO(n) in [3] affirms that $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{C}$ for matrices \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{C} in SO(n) where \mathbf{B} consists of blocks of non-trivial rotations $R(\theta_i) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta_i & -\sin \theta_i \\ \sin \theta_i & \cos \theta_i \end{bmatrix}$ along the diagonal together with an identity submatrix \mathbf{I}_l . A solution \mathbf{X} commuting with powers of \mathbf{A} reduces the matrix equation $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}) \cdot (G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}))^{-1} = \mathbf{I}_n$ to $\mathbf{X}^{deg(F) - deg(G)} = \mathbf{A}^p$ for some integer p. Setting q = deg(F) - deg(G), we obtain $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A}^{p/q} = \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{p/q}\mathbf{C}$ where $\mathbf{B}^{p/q}$ consists of blocks of rotations $R(p\theta_i/q)$ along the diagonal together with \mathbf{I}_l . $\mathbf{\Pi}$

We now establish the existence of non-trivial solutions to many matrix equations via the Lefschetz Fixed Point Theorem. For example, the matrix equation $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A}_1\mathbf{A}_2^2\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}_2^3\mathbf{A}_1^2 = \mathbf{A}_1^3\mathbf{A}_2\mathbf{A}_1^2\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}_2^3$ admits rotation matrices as solutions whenever \mathbf{A}_1 and \mathbf{A}_2 belong to SO(n) for any $n \geq 2$.

THEOREM 1.3. There is a solution \mathbf{X} in SO(n) to any matrix equation $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s) = G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s)$, i.e., equation (1.1), with $deg(F) > deg(G) \ge 1$ and $n \ge 2$ whenever the $(n \times n)$ -matrices \mathbf{A}_i belong to SO(n) for $1 \le i \le s$.

Proof. Solutions **X** in SO(n) to the matrix equation (1.1) are precisely the fixed points of the continuous function $H:SO(n)\longrightarrow SO(n)$ defined by $H(\mathbf{X})=\mathbf{X}\cdot F(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{A}_1,\mathbf{A}_2,\cdots,\mathbf{A}_s)\cdot [G(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{A}_1,\mathbf{A}_2,\cdots,\mathbf{A}_s)]^{-1}$. The existence of fixed points for the map H follows from its non-zero Lefschetz number L(H). We affirm that $L(H)=(deg(G)-deg(F))^m$ where n=2m or n=2m+1.

Brown in [1, p.49], calculated the Lefschetz number $L(\rho_k)$ for the k^{th} power map $\rho_k: G \longrightarrow G$ defined by $\rho_k(g) = g^k$ on any compact connected topological group G which is an ANR (absolute neighborhood retract). He proved that $L(\rho_k) = (1-k)^{\lambda}$ where λ denotes the number of generators for the primitively generated exterior algebra $H^*(G; \mathbb{Q})$. For G = SO(n), $\lambda = m$ where n = 2m or n = 2m+1; see [4, p.956]. It suffices to show that H is homotopic to $\rho_k: SO(n) \longrightarrow SO(n)$ where k = deg(F) - deg(G) + 1.

For each i with $1 \leq i \leq s$, let $g_i : [0,1] \longrightarrow SO(n)$ denote any path in SO(n) from $\mathbf{A}_i = g_i(0)$ to the identity matrix $\mathbf{I}_n = g_i(1)$. Replacing each matrix \mathbf{A}_i by the function g_i in $H : SO(n) \longrightarrow SO(n)$ produces a homotopy $H_t : SO(n) \longrightarrow SO(n)$ for $0 \leq t \leq 1$ with $H_0 = H$ and $H_1 = \rho_k$. Thus $L(H) = (1-k)^m = (deg(G) - deg(F))^m \neq 0$ so H has a fixed point. \square

We now establish the existence of non-trivial solutions \mathbf{X} to all matrix equations of the form (1.1) in any (n^2-1) components whenever F and G have different odd degrees in \mathbf{X} for any $s\geq 1$ and $n\geq 1$. For example, given any $(n\times n)$ -matrix \mathbf{A} , there is a non-zero matrix \mathbf{X} such that $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}$ in at least (n^2-1) -components. This is a best possible result, since we shall construct matrices \mathbf{A} for which $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}$ admits only the trivial solution. We use the Borsuk-Ulam Theorem following the paper of Lam [2] to prove the following.

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THEOREM 1.4. Given any monomials $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ and $G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ in the $(n \times n)$ -matrix $\mathbf{X} = (x_{ij})$ together with arbitrary matrices $\mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_s$ in $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ for $n \geq 2$ such that deg(F) and deg(G) are different odd integers, the matrix equation (1.1) admits a non-trivial solution \mathbf{X} in $(n^2 - 1)$ components.

Proof. Set each component of the matrix $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s) - G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ equal to zero, except for one fixed component. We obtain $n^2 - 1$ polynomial equations in the n^2 variables x_{ij} . Now each component of $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ and $G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s)$ is a homogeneous polynomial whose degree is given by deg(F) or deg(G) respectively. Consequently, every monomial in the $(n^2 - 1)$ polynomial equations has an odd degree, either deg(F) or deg(G). Suppose that the system of $n^2 - 1$ polynomial equations in the n^2 variables had no non-zero solution. As \mathbf{X} ranges over the unit sphere S^{n^2-1} in \mathbb{R}^{n^2} , normalization of the non-zero vectors $F(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s) - G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_s) \in \mathbb{R}^{n^2-1}$ produces a continuous function $P: S^{n^2-1} \longrightarrow S^{n^2-2}$. Since deg(F) and deg(G) are distinct odd integers, P commutes with the antipodal maps on the spheres. But the classical Borsuk-Ulam Theorem [5, p.266] affirms that no such function P can exist. \square

2. The special matrix equation $X^2AX - AXA = 0$. Given any non-zero $(n \times n)$ -matrix **A**, consider the matrix equation

$$\mathbf{X}^2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0} .$$

In this section we discuss solution types of the equation (2.1). We list a few obvious facts about solutions.

Lemma 2.1.

- 1. If $\mathbf{X} \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ is a solution to (2.1), then $-\mathbf{X}$ is a solution too;
- 2. If $|\mathbf{A}| < 0$, then (2.1) has no nonsingular solutions.
- 3. If $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}^2$ for some $\mathbf{B} \in \mathrm{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$, then $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{B}$ is a non-trivial solution.
- 4. If $\mathbf{A}^m = \mathbf{I}_n$ and m is odd, then $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A}^{\frac{m+1}{2}}$ is a non-trivial solution.
- 5. If $\mathbf{A}^3 = \mathbf{0}$, then $\mathbf{X} = k\mathbf{A}$ is a solution to (2.1) for all $k \in \mathbb{R}$.
- 6. Suppose **P** is a nonsingular matrix and $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}^{-1}$. Then a matrix **X** satisfies the equation $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$ if and only if $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{P}^{-1}$ satisfies $\mathbf{Y}^2\mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y} \mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$.

By Lemma 2.1(6.), when the matrix \mathbf{A} is diagonalizable, the equation (2.1) can be reduced to the diagonal case. We first characterize all solutions for scalar matrices \mathbf{A} .

THEOREM 2.2. Let $\mathbf{A} = a\mathbf{I}_n \in \mathrm{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$, where n > 1 and $a \neq 0$. Then the equation (2.1) has non-trivial solutions. Furthermore, the solution set (over the real numbers) consists of matrices in $\mathrm{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ of the form

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Q}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{Q},$$

where **Q** is a nonsingular matrix with complex entries and $\lambda_i = 0$, \sqrt{a} , or $-\sqrt{a}$ for i = 1, 2, ..., n. In particular, nonsingular solutions are those with $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \cdots \lambda_n$ not

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equal to zero. In summary,

matrices.

- 1. If $a^n > 0$ with n > 2, then (2.1) has both singular solutions and nonsingular solutions;
- 2. If $a^n < 0$ and n > 2, then (2.1) has only singular solutions;
- 3. In case of a < 0 and n = 2, there are nonsingular solutions, but no non-trivial singular solutions to (2.1).

Proof. Suppose X is a solution to (2.1). Then

$$\mathbf{X}^2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{A} = a \mathbf{X}^3 - a^2 \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0} \iff \mathbf{X}^3 = a \mathbf{X}.$$

Every matrix \mathbf{X} satisfying $\mathbf{X}^3 = a\mathbf{X}$ is diagonalizable over the complex numbers. Suppose \mathbf{X} is similar to a diagonal matrix $\mathbf{D} = diag(\lambda_i)$, then $\mathbf{X}^3 = a\mathbf{X} \Longleftrightarrow \mathbf{D}^3 = a\mathbf{D}$. This implies $\lambda_i^2 = a$ or $\lambda_i = 0$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Thus all the solutions to (2.1) are the real matrices similar to these diagonal matrices. Claim 1. is obvious by choosing appropriate (real) λ_i 's. For 2., $|\mathbf{A}| < 0$. By Lemma 2.1(2.), equation (2.1) has no nonsingular solutions. The existence of singular solutions over the real numbers is based on the fact that every 2×2 diagonal matrix of the form $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & -\lambda \end{bmatrix}$, where λ is a non-real complex number, can be realized by a complex nonsingular matrix \mathbf{Q} . Assume $\lambda = \sqrt{-a} \cdot i$, one can check that $\mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \\ 1 & i \end{bmatrix}$ gives $\mathbf{Q}^{-1}\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{-a} \cdot i & 0 \\ 0 & -\sqrt{-a} \cdot i \end{bmatrix}\mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{-a} \\ -\sqrt{-a} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{M}_2(\mathbb{R})$. Since n > 2, we always can choose at least one diagonal block of \mathbf{D} to be $\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{-a} \cdot i & 0 \\ 0 & -\sqrt{-a} \cdot i \end{bmatrix}$ and extend it to a singular solution by choosing at least one zero diagonal element. In case of a < 0 and n = 2, nonsingular solutions are similar to $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{-a} & i \\ -\sqrt{-a} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. We show by contradiction that in this case (2.1) has no non-trivial singular solutions. Assume $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ x_3 & x_4 \end{bmatrix}$ is a non-trivial solution to (2.1) and $|\mathbf{X}| = 0$. Then $\mathbf{X}^2 = (x_1 + x_4)\mathbf{X} \Longrightarrow (x_1 + x_4)^2\mathbf{X} = a\mathbf{X} \Longrightarrow a = (x_1 + x_4)^2 \ge 0$, a contradiction. \mathbf{D} By Lemma 2.1(6.), if \mathbf{A} is diagonalizable, we only need to consider the solvability of the equation (2.1) for the similar diagonal matrix. Now let us treat diagonal

Theorem 2.3. Suppose A is a non-zero diagonal matrix which has at least one positive entry. Then the equation $X^2AX - AXA = 0$ has non-trivial solutions.

Proof. Let $\mathbf{A} = diag(\lambda_i)$. Without loss of generality, let $\lambda_1 > 0$. Then the diagonal matrix $\mathbf{X} = diag(\alpha_i)$ will give non-trivial solutions, where $\alpha_1 = \sqrt{\lambda_1}$ and for i > 1, $\alpha_i = 0$ or $\sqrt{\lambda_i}$ if $\lambda_i > 0$. When $\lambda_i \geq 0$ for all i, we obtain non-trivial solutions $\mathbf{X} = diag(\sqrt{\lambda_i})$. \square

COROLLARY 2.4. For n > 1, the equation (2.1) has non-trivial solutions for all $n \times n$ positive definite and all positive semidefinite matrices \mathbf{A} .

We end this section with the following proposition.

Proposition 2.5. Suppose $\mathbf{A} \in \mathrm{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ is similar to a block matrix, i.e., there

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exists a nonsingular matrix P such that

$$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}^{-1} = \left[egin{array}{cccc} \mathbf{A}_1 & & & & & \\ & \mathbf{A}_2 & & & & & \\ & & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & & \mathbf{A}_m \end{array}
ight],$$

where each \mathbf{A}_i is a square matrix. Suppose \mathbf{Y}_i satisfies $\mathbf{Y}_i^2\mathbf{A}_i\mathbf{Y}_i-\mathbf{A}_i\mathbf{Y}_i\mathbf{A}_i=\mathbf{0}$, for $i=1,2,\cdots,m$. Then the matrix $\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{BP}$ is a solution to $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{AX}-\mathbf{AXA}=\mathbf{0}$, where \mathbf{B} is a block matrix with blocks $\mathbf{B}_i=\mathbf{Y}_i$ or $\mathbf{0}$. Thus, if at least one of the solutions \mathbf{Y}_i 's is not zero, we can extend it to non-trivial solutions for the equation $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{AX}=\mathbf{AXA}$.

THEOREM 2.6. Let **A** be a real $n \times n$ matrix with distinct negative eigenvalues. Then the equation $\mathbf{X}^2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{A}$ admits only the trivial solution.

Proof. Suppose first that \mathbf{X} is an invertible solution. Then we have

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}^{-1}.$$

Thus the eigenvalues of \mathbf{X}^2 are the same as those of \mathbf{A} . Since the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} are negative and distinct, the eigenvalues of \mathbf{X} are all pure imaginary and of distinct modulus. This is impossible.

If X is a singular solution, let v be a null vector of X and observe that 0 = AXAv = XAv. Thus the null space of X is A-invariant. Then there exists an invertible matrix B such that

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{B} \left[egin{array}{cc} \mathbf{Y} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{0} \end{array}
ight] \mathbf{B}^{-1} \quad ext{ and } \quad \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \left[egin{array}{cc} \mathbf{P} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{D} & \mathbf{E} \end{array}
ight] \mathbf{B}^{-1}.$$

By Lemma 2.1(6.),

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{Y} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{0} \end{array}\right]^2 \left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{P} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{D} & \mathbf{E} \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{Y} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{0} \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{P} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{D} & \mathbf{E} \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{Y} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{0} \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{P} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{D} & \mathbf{E} \end{array}\right].$$

This yields $\mathbf{Y}^2\mathbf{PY} = \mathbf{PYP}$ and by induction $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{0}$. (See Theorem 3.3 for the 2×2 case.) This means that

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{0} \end{array}\right]^2 = \mathbf{0} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{ECP} & \mathbf{0} \end{array}\right],$$

which gives $\mathbf{ECP} = \mathbf{0}$. Since \mathbf{E} and \mathbf{P} are invertible, $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{0}$, so \mathbf{X} is the trivial solution. \square

3. The special case n=2. In this section, we focus on the equation (2.1) for 2×2 matrices. Denote

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ a_3 & a_4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ x_3 & x_4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We first consider the existence of non-trivial solutions to (2.1) when **A** is an orthogonal matrix. When **A** is orthogonal with $|\mathbf{A}| = 1$, the existence of a non-trivial (orthogonal) solution $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A}^{1/2}$ is given in Proposition 1.2.

PROPOSITION 3.1. Let **A** be an orthogonal matrix in $M_2(\mathbb{R})$ with $|\mathbf{A}| = -1$. A non-trivial singular solution to (2.1) is given by $\mathbf{X} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + a_1 & a_2 \\ a_2 & 1 - a_1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Proof. When $|\mathbf{A}| = -1$, \mathbf{A} is a symmetric matrix with two distinct eigenvalues 1 and -1. Thus \mathbf{A} is diagonalizable to the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. By Lemma 2.1(6.) and Theorem 2.3, (2.1) has a non-trivial solution. A matrix of the form $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{P} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{P}^{-1}$ is a non-trivial singular solution to (2.1) when \mathbf{P} satisfies $\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. The solution $\mathbf{X} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + a_1 & a_2 \\ a_2 & 1 - a_1 \end{bmatrix}$ is obtained by finding such a matrix \mathbf{P} made of two linearly independent eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} via linear algebra (refer to the proof of Theorem 2.2). \square

Now we discuss more general cases. In the next theorem, we show constructively that the equation (2.1) has non-trivial solutions for a large group of two by two matrices \mathbf{A} (over the real numbers).

Theorem 3.2. Consider $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathbf{A} \in \mathrm{M}_{\mathbf{2}}(\mathbb{R})$. The equation (2.1) has non-trivial solutions in the following cases:

- 1. A has two distinct real eigenvalues, not both negative.
- 2. A is a scalar matrix.
- 3. A is a non-scalar matrix with a repeated non-negative eigenvalue.

Proof. By Lemma 2.1 and Theorem 2.3, the first is true. The second claim is from Theorem 2.2. For the third, without loss of generality, we may assume

$$\mathbf{A} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} a_1 & 0 \\ a_3 & a_1 \end{array} \right],$$

where $0 \le a_1$ and $a_3 \ne 0$. If $a_1 = 0$, the matrix $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ x_3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ gives a non-trivial solution to (2.1) for any real number $x_3 \ne 0$. If $a_1 \ne 0$, the lower triangular matrix $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{a_1} & 0 \\ a_3/(2\sqrt{a_1}) & \sqrt{a_1} \end{bmatrix}$ gives a non-trivial solution to (2.1). \square

We note that by Proposition 2.5, we can extend solutions to (2.1) for the 2×2 case to solutions for $(n \times n)$ -matrices. Finally, we construct non-zero matrices **A** for which $\mathbf{X}^2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{A}$ admits only the trivial solution.

THEOREM 3.3. The equation $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}$ admits only the trivial solution for any $\mathbf{A} \in \mathrm{M}_2(\mathbb{R})$ having two distinct negative eigenvalues or having a single negative eigenvalue of geometric multiplicity 1.

Proof. For the first case, it is sufficient to assume $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$, where $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > 0$. Suppose $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ x_3 & x_4 \end{bmatrix}$ is a solution. Then $|\mathbf{X}| = 0$ or $\pm \sqrt{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}$ since

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A is nonsingular. By comparing the non-diagonal entries of X^2AX and AXA, we obtain the following two equations

(3.1)
$$\begin{cases} x_2(\lambda_1 x_1^2 + \lambda_1 x_2 x_3 + \lambda_2 x_1 x_4 + \lambda_2 x_4^2 + \lambda_1 \lambda_2) = 0 \\ x_3(\lambda_1 x_1^2 + \lambda_1 x_1 x_4 + \lambda_2 x_2 x_3 + \lambda_2 x_4^2 + \lambda_1 \lambda_2) = 0. \end{cases}$$

First we assume $0 \neq |\mathbf{X}| = \sqrt{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}$. Then $x_2 x_3 = x_1 x_4 - \sqrt{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}$. Thus (3.1) becomes

(3.2)
$$\begin{cases} x_2(\lambda_1 x_1^2 + (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)x_1 x_4 + \lambda_2 x_4^2 + \lambda_1 \lambda_2 - \lambda_1 \sqrt{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}) = 0 \\ x_3(\lambda_1 x_1^2 + (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)x_1 x_4 + \lambda_2 x_4^2 + \lambda_1 \lambda_2 - \lambda_2 \sqrt{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}) = 0. \end{cases}$$

If $x_2x_3 \neq 0$, then equations in (3.2) imply $\lambda_1\sqrt{\lambda_1\lambda_2} = \lambda_2\sqrt{\lambda_1\lambda_2} \Longrightarrow \lambda_1 = \lambda_2$, a contradiction. If $x_2x_3 = 0$, we compare the (1,1) entries of $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}$ to obtain $-\lambda_1x_1^3 = \lambda_1^2x_1 \Longrightarrow x_1 = 0 \Longrightarrow |\mathbf{X}| = 0$, a contradiction again. Therefore $|\mathbf{X}| \neq \sqrt{\lambda_1\lambda_2}$. The same argument shows that $|\mathbf{X}| \neq -\sqrt{\lambda_1\lambda_2}$.

Now consider the case $|\mathbf{X}| = 0$, i.e., $x_1x_4 = x_2x_3$. By matrix multiplication, we have

$$\mathbf{X}^2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} = -(x_1 + x_4)(\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_4) \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ x_3 & x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^2 x_1 & \lambda_1 \lambda_2 x_2 \\ \lambda_1 \lambda_2 x_3 & \lambda_2^2 x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{A}.$$

If $x_2 \neq 0$ or $x_3 \neq 0$, then $(x_1 + x_4)(\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_4) = -\lambda_1 \lambda_2$ by comparing the nondiagonal entries. Apply this to the diagonal entries, we obtain $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 x_1 = -\lambda_1^2 x_1$ and $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 x_4 = -\lambda_2^2 x_4 \Longrightarrow x_1 = x_4 = 0$. Thus $\mathbf{X}^2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0}$, since \mathbf{A} is invertible. This gives only a trivial solution to (2.1). At last, consider the case of $x_2 = 0 = x_3$. Since $x_1 x_4 = x_2 x_3$, x_1 or $x_4 = 0$. If $x_1 = 0$, compare the (2,2)-entry of $\mathbf{X}^2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{A}$, we have $\lambda_2 x_4^3 = -\lambda_2^2 x_4 \Longrightarrow x_4 = 0$. Similarly, $x_4 = 0 \Longrightarrow x_1 = 0$. Therefore $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = 0$ and \mathbf{X} is a trivial solution.

Now assume **A** has a single negative eigenvalue of geometric multiplicity 1. Let $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 \\ a_3 & a_1 \end{bmatrix}$ where $a_1 < 0$ and $a_3 \neq 0$. Assume $\mathbf{0} \neq \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ x_3 & x_4 \end{bmatrix}$ is a solution to (2.1). We first claim that $x_2 \neq 0$. If not, the diagonal entries of $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}$ are $a_1x_1(x_1^2 - a_1)$ and $a_1x_4(x_4^2 - a_1)$. Since a_1 is negative, it forces $x_1 = x_4 = 0$ and then $x_3 = 0$. Now assume **X** is a singular solution. Then the second row of **X** is k times the first row for some real number $k \neq 0$. By equating the second row minus k times the first row of both $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}$, we obtain a contradiction. When **X** is a nonsingular solution, $|\mathbf{X}| = a_1$ or $-a_1$. Since $x_2 \neq 0$, $x_3 = \frac{x_1x_4 \pm a_1}{x_2}$. Then by equating the components of $\mathbf{X}^2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}$, we obtain the following two equations:

$$\begin{cases} (x_1 + x_4)x_2(a_1x_1 \pm a_3x_2 + a_1x_4) = 0\\ (x_1 + x_4)(a_1x_1x_4 \pm a_3x_2x_4 \pm a_1^2 + a_1x_4^2) = 0. \end{cases}$$

This implies $x_1 + x_4 = 0$. Then the (1,1)-component of $\mathbf{X}^2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{A}$ is $\pm a_1 x_2 a_3$ which can not be zero, a contradiction.

In conclusion, the equation (2.1) has no non-trivial solutions. \square

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