

21-238, Math Studies Algebra 2, Department of Mathematical Sciences, Carnegie Mellon University
Spring 2012: Monday, Wednesday, Friday, 10:30 am, Doherty Hall 1211.
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12- Friday February 10, 2012.

Remark 12.1: \mathbb{R}^n having its usual Euclidean structure, if $B \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n)$ is skew symmetric, one may consider that $B \in L(\mathbb{C}^n, \mathbb{C}^n)$ is skew Hermitian, so that $B^* = -B$ commutes with B , hence B is diagonal on an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{C}^n , and each eigenvalue λ_j satisfies $\overline{\lambda_j} = -\lambda_j$, i.e. λ_j is purely imaginary. The only possible real eigenvalue is 0, and corresponds to an eigen-space which is $\ker(B)$, and one then restricts attention to $V = \ker(B)^\perp$, and B maps V into V and is skew symmetric; if $\lambda = ia$ is an eigenvalue of B on V (with a non-zero $a \in \mathbb{R}$), then an eigenvector on $V_{\mathbb{C}}$ has the form $v + iw$ with non-zero $v, w \in V$, and $B(v + iw) = ia(v + iw)$ means $Bv = -aw, Bw = av$, and since $(Bv, v) = (Bw, w) = 0$ because B is skew symmetric, one deduces that $(v, w) = 0$; then $a\|w\|^2 = -(Bv, w) = (v, Bw) = a\|v\|^2$ shows that $\|v\| = \|w\|$, and one rescales v and w to have norm 1; on the two-dimensional space spanned by the orthonormal basis $\{v, w\}$, one has $B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a \\ -a & 0 \end{pmatrix} = aJ$, where J is the rotation of $-\frac{\pi}{2}$, which satisfies $J^2 = -I$, and one sees easily that the power series giving e^{tB} is (on this particular two-dimensional space) $e^{tB} = \cos(at)I + \sin(at)J = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(at) & \sin(at) \\ -\sin(at) & \cos(at) \end{pmatrix}$, i.e. a rotation of $-at$, which is an element of $SO(2)$. One deduces that the dimension of $\ker(B)^\perp$ is even, and that the matrix for e^{tB} has 1s in the diagonal for the basis vectors in $\ker(B)$, and then a few 2×2 diagonal blocks which are rotations, and this form implies that $e^{tB} \in SO(n)$.

Remark 12.2: Conversely, if $P \in SO(n)$, one may consider that $P \in L(\mathbb{C}^n, \mathbb{C}^n)$ is unitary, so that $P^* = P^{-1}$ commutes with P , hence P is diagonal on an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{C}^n , and each eigenvalue λ_j satisfies $\overline{\lambda_j} = \frac{1}{\lambda_j}$, i.e. $|\lambda_j| = 1$. The only possible real eigenvalues are +1 and -1, and -1 must have an even multiplicity, so that one may consider 2×2 diagonal blocks $-I$, which means rotations of π ; if $\lambda = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ is an eigenvalue of P with $\theta \neq k\pi$, then an eigenvector in \mathbb{C}^n has the form $v + iw$ with non-zero $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $P(v + iw) = (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)(v + iw)$ means $Pv = \cos \theta v - \sin \theta w, Pw = \sin \theta v + \cos \theta w$, so that $P(v - iw) = (\cos \theta - i \sin \theta)(v - iw)$, hence $v + iw$ and $v - iw$ must be orthogonal, which implies $\|v\|^2 = \|w\|^2$ and $(v, w) = 0$, and one rescales v and w to have norm 1; on the two-dimensional space spanned by the orthonormal basis $\{v, w\}$, one has $P = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} = R(\theta)$, a rotation of θ . The construction of Remark 12.1 then permits to find a skew symmetric B such that $P = e^B$. Of course, if $P \neq I$ there is more than one solution, since $e^{2k\pi J} = I$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Remark 12.3: Of course, the definition of e^A is valid for $A \in L(\mathbb{C}^n, \mathbb{C}^n)$.

Since a property of the exponential on \mathbb{C} is that $e^a e^b = e^{a+b}$, it is important to observe that if $A, B \in L(\mathbb{C}^n, \mathbb{C}^n)$ commute, then one has $e^A e^B = e^B e^A = e^{A+B}$, but the situation is different if A and B do not commute, and one has $e^{sA} e^{tB} - e^{tB} e^{sA} = st[A, B] + o(s^2 + t^2)$ for $|s|, |t|$ small, where $[A, B]$ denotes the commutator $AB - BA$. Indeed, $e^{sA} = I + sA + \frac{s^2}{2}A^2 + o(s^2)$, and $e^{tB} = I + tB + \frac{t^2}{2}B^2 + o(t^2)$, so that $e^{sA} e^{tB} = I + sA + tB + \frac{s^2}{2}A^2 + stAB + \frac{t^2}{2}B^2 + o(s^2 + t^2)$, and $e^{tB} e^{sA} = I + sA + tB + \frac{s^2}{2}A^2 + stBA + \frac{t^2}{2}B^2 + o(s^2 + t^2)$, hence the first term in $e^{sA} e^{tB} - e^{tB} e^{sA}$ is $st(AB - BA)$.

In the case where $A, B \in L(\mathbb{C}^n, \mathbb{C}^n)$ commute, then for every polynomials $P, Q \in \mathbb{C}[x]$, $P(A)$ and $Q(B)$ commute (and it is true if $A, B \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n)$ commute, and $P, Q \in \mathbb{R}[x]$, of course), so that since e^A is the limit of $P_k(A)$ when k tends to ∞ , with $P_k = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{x^k}{k!}$, and e^B is the limit of $P_k(B)$, the equality $P_k(A)P_k(B) = P_k(B)P_k(A)$ implies $e^A e^B = e^B e^A$ by letting k tend to ∞ .

Remark 12.4: If one has a few evaluations of polynomials (or rational functions, or smooth enough functions) of an $n \times n$ matrix A with entries in E , it is useful to understand the general structure of $P(A)$ for all the polynomial $P \in E[x]$. In what follows, the field E is arbitrary, but the computations are done in any field extension F of E where the characteristic polynomial P_{char} of A (defined by $P_{\text{char}}(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$) splits.

With V isomorphic to E^n , let us begin by the case where $A \in L(V, V)$ is diagonalizable, so that there is a basis e_1, \dots, e_n of V such that $A e_i = \lambda_i e_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, hence $P(A) e_i = P(\lambda_i) e_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Let e^1, \dots, e^n be the dual basis of V^* , so that if $x \in V$, one has $x = \sum_i x^i e_i$, with $x^i = e^i(x)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, so that $P(A) x = \sum_i x^i P(A) e_i = \sum_i e^i(x) P(\lambda_i) e_i$, hence $P(A) = \sum_i P(\lambda_i) e_i \otimes e^i$. If $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$ are the distinct eigenvalues, one has $P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^r P(\lambda_i) Z_i$ for some $Z_1, \dots, Z_r \in L(V, V)$, but although the columns of Z_i are eigenvectors for the eigenvalue λ_i , one only needs to know the distinct eigenvalues, and then $Z_i = \pi_i(A)$ for $i = 1, \dots, r$, where one uses the interpolation polynomials (of degree $\leq r - 1$), defined by $\pi_i(\lambda_j) = \delta_{i,j}$ for $i, j = 1, \dots, r$.

If $f \in E(x)$ has no λ_i as pole, i.e. $f = \frac{P}{Q}$ with $Q(\lambda_i) \neq 0$ for $i = 1, \dots, r$, then $f(A) = P(A) (Q(A))^{-1}$ is given by the formula $f(A) = \sum_{i=1}^r f(\lambda_i) Z_i$: indeed, let $R \in E[x]$ be any interpolation polynomial satisfying $R(\lambda_i) = (Q(\lambda_i))^{-1}$ for $i = 1, \dots, r$, so that $R(A) Q(A) = \sum_{i=1}^r R(\lambda_i) Q(\lambda_i) Z_i = \sum_{i=1}^r Z_i = I$, hence $R(A) = (Q(A))^{-1}$, and then $P(A) (Q(A))^{-1} = P(A) R(A) = \sum_{i=1}^r P(\lambda_i) R(\lambda_i) Z_i = \sum_{i=1}^r f(\lambda_i) Z_i$.

Remark 12.5: If A is not diagonalizable, its minimum polynomial is $(x - \lambda_1)^{k_1} \dots (x - \lambda_r)^{k_r}$, and for $i = 1, \dots, r$, $k_i \geq 1$ is the largest size of a Jordan block for the eigenvalue λ_i (and at least one $k_i \geq 2$). A Jordan block has the form $\lambda I + K$ with $K^{k-1} \neq 0, K^k = 0$, and one uses the binomial formula $(\lambda I + K)^m = \sum_{j=0}^m \binom{m}{j} \lambda^{m-j} K^j$ for all $m \geq 1$: if $P = \sum_m p_m x^m \in E[x]$, then $P(\lambda I + K) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (\sum_m p_m \binom{m}{j} \lambda^{m-j}) K^j$, and it is usual to write $\sum_m p_m \binom{m}{j} \lambda^{m-j}$ as $\frac{1}{j!} P^{(j)}(\lambda)$, although if E has finite characteristic one should use the first form since dividing by $j!$ might have no meaning in E ,¹ and with this understanding of the notation, one then has shown the existence of matrices $Z_{i,j}$ for $i = 1, \dots, r$ and $0 \leq j \leq k_i - 1$ such that $P(A) = \sum_{i,j} \frac{1}{j!} P^{(j)}(\lambda_i) Z_{i,j}$ for all $P \in E[x]$. Of course, once the distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$ are known, one may compute the matrices $Z_{i,j}$ as $P_{i,j}(A)$ for a particular Hermite interpolation polynomial, and one may actually do such a computation for $j = 0, \dots, a_i - 1$ where a_i is the algebraic multiplicity of λ_i , and one will find $Z_{i,j} = 0$ for $j > k_i - 1$.

Remark 12.6: If $E = \mathbb{R}$ or $E = \mathbb{C}$, one may extend the preceding results to $f(A)$ in the case where f can be approximated uniformly in a neighbourhood of the eigenvalues of A (as well as some of its derivatives in the case of Jordan blocks) by a sequence of polynomials.

For example, it is the case for e^A , so that if A is diagonalizable one has $e^{tA} = \sum_i e^{t\lambda_i} Z_i$, and in the case of Jordan blocks one finds terms in $e^{t\lambda_i}$ multiplied by polynomials in t . This permits to improve the bound $e^{|t| \|A\|}$ for the norm of e^{tA} : if $\Re(\lambda_i) < -\alpha < 0$ for all the eigenvalues of A , then for any polynomial Q , one sees that $|e^{t\lambda_i} Q(t)|$ tends to 0 faster than $e^{-\alpha t}$ as t tends to $+\infty$, and one deduces that $\|e^{tA}\|$ tends to 0 faster than $e^{-\alpha t}$ as t tends to $+\infty$.²

Remark 12.7: Since $\frac{d(e^{tA})}{dt} = A e^{tA} = e^{tA} A$, one deduces that $X(t) = e^{tA^T} M e^{tA}$ satisfies $\frac{dX}{dt} = A^T X + X A$, and $X(0) = M$; if $\Re(\lambda_i) < -\alpha < 0$ for all the eigenvalues of A , which are also the eigenvalues of A^T , one deduces that $\int_0^{+\infty} \|X(t)\| dt < \infty$, so that one can define $Y = \int_0^{+\infty} X(t) dt \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n)$, and then $-M = \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{dX}{dt} dt = A^T Y + Y A$; choosing $M = I$,³ one finds that Y is symmetric positive definite, and satisfies $A^T Y + Y A = -I$.

This permits to prove the *asymptotic stability* of the stationary solution 0 of $\frac{dx}{dt} = F(x)$, where F is a C^1 mapping from \mathbb{R}^n to itself with $F(0) = 0$ and $DF(0) = A$, by using the Lyapunov function $\psi(x) = (Y x, x)$:⁴ since $\frac{d}{dt} [\psi(x(t))] = (Y \frac{dx}{dt}, x) + (Y x, \frac{dx}{dt}) = (Y F(x), x) + (Y x, F(x)) = (Y A x, x) + (Y x, A x) + o(\|x\|^2) = -\|x\|^2 + o(\|x\|^2)$, so that any solution of $\frac{dx}{dt} = F(x)$ with $\|x(0)\|$ small enough has $x(t) \rightarrow 0$ (exponentially fast) as $t \rightarrow +\infty$.

¹ In other words, in $\sum_m p_m \binom{m}{j} \lambda^{m-j}$ the division by $j!$ is done on an integer (and the result $\binom{m}{j}$ is an integer) and not in E .

² If $\Re(\lambda_i) > \beta > 0$ for all the eigenvalues of A , then $\|e^{tA}\|$ tends to 0 when t tends to $-\infty$, faster than $e^{-\beta|t|}$.

³ Choosing for M any symmetric positive definite matrix gives a symmetric positive definite Y , solution of $A^T Y + Y A = -M$.

⁴ Aleksandr Mikhailovich LYAPUNOV, Russian mathematician, 1857–1918. He worked in Kharkov, St Petersburg, Russia, and Odessa (then in Russia, now in Ukraine).