ON THE COMPUTATION OF A^{N*}

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This paper is dedicated to Professor Hugh L. Turrittin on his 90th birthday.

Abstract. Methods, which are based on the Cayley–Hamilton theorem, for the computation of A^n for nonsingular A are presented.

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Let A be a $k \times k$ nonsingular matrix of constants; then a fundamental matrix for the linear system of difference equations x(n+1) = Ax(n) is $X(n) = A^n$.

$$X(n+1) = AX(n), \quad X(0) = I,$$

and the solution of the difference initial value problem

$$x(n+1) = Ax(n) + b(n), \quad x(0) = x_0,$$

is given by

$$x(n) = A^{n}x_{0} + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} A^{n-j-1}b(j)$$
$$= X(n)x_{0} + X(n)\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} X^{-1}(j+1)b(j)$$

which is analogous to

$$x(t) = e^{At}x_0 + e^{At} \int_0^t e^{-As}b(s)ds$$

as the solution of the corresponding differential initial value problem. Hence, for linear systems of difference equations, the computation of A^n is the analogous problem to the computation of e^{At} for linear systems of differential equations.

One could use transformation methods, writing $A^n = P(P^{-1}AP)^n P^{-1}$ for non-singular P to compute $(P^{-1}AP)^n$ and hence A^n by using Schur's canonical form (triangular) or the Jordan canonical form, e.g., for $J = (\lambda I + N)$, with $N^s = 0$ we have $J^n = \lambda^n I + \binom{n}{n} \lambda^{n-1} N + \dots + \binom{n}{s-1} \lambda^{n-s+1} N^{s-1}$. Such transformation methods require the determination of eigenvectors and generalized eigenvectors and can be computationally involved and tedious.

We present in this note alternative methods for the computation of A^n for non-singular A which are pedagogically simpler, based on the Cayley–Hamilton theorem

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and the exact determination of the eigenvalues of A, which are analogous to methods of Putzer [9], Fulmer [2], Kirchner [6], Hirsch and Smale [3], Leonard [8], and Hsieh, Kohno, and Sibuya [4] for computing e^{At} .

Let

(1)
$$c(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A) = \lambda^k + c_{k-1}\lambda^{k-1} + \dots + c_1\lambda + c_0$$
$$= (\lambda - \lambda_1)(\lambda - \lambda_2) \dots (\lambda - \lambda_k)$$

be the characteristic polynomial for A. Then the Cayley-Hamilton theorem states that c(A) = 0, or

$$A^k + c_{k-1}A^{k-1} + \dots + c_1A + c_0I = 0$$

and

$$(A - \lambda_1 I)(A - \lambda_2 I) \cdots (A - \lambda_k I) = 0.$$

THEOREM 1. Let A be a $k \times k$ nonsingular matrix with eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k$, and let $M(0) = I, M(j) = \prod_{i=1}^{J} (A - \lambda_i I), j \ge 1$. Then, if $u_j(n)$ satisfies the (recursive) $linear\ difference\ system$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} u_1(n+1) & = & \lambda_1 u_1(n), & u_1(0) = 1, \\ u_{j+1}(n+1) & = & \lambda_{j+1} u_{j+1}(n) + u_j(n), & u_{j+1}(0) = 0, j = 1, \dots, k-1, \end{array}$$

for $n \geq k$,

$$A^{n} = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} u_{j+1}(n)M(j).$$

 $A^n = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} u_{j+1}(n)M(j).$ We note that $u_1(n) = \lambda_1^n$ and $u_{j+1}(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \lambda_{j+1}^{n-i-1} u_j(i), j = 1, \dots, k-1$, and $M(k) = \prod_{i=1}^k (A - \lambda_i I) = 0$ (Cayley–Hamilton). Since M(j) is the monic polynomial $M(j) = A^j$ + lower order terms, $A^n, n \ge k$, can also be written as a polynomial in A

Theorem 2. Let A be a $k \times k$ nonsingular matrix with characteristic polynomial $c(\lambda) = \lambda^k + c_{k-1}\lambda^{k-1} + \cdots + c_1\lambda + c_0$, and let z(n) be the solution of the scalar kth order difference equation.

$$z(n+k) + c_{k-1}z(n+k-1) + \dots + c_1z(n+1) + c_0z(n) = 0,$$

$$z(0) = z(1) = \cdots = z(k-2) = 0, \quad z(k-1) = 1,$$

and

$$\begin{pmatrix} q_1(n) \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ q_k(n) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 & c_2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & c_{k-1} & 1 \\ c_2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 1 & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \vdots & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ c_{k-1} & 1 & \cdot & & & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1 & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} z(n) \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ z(n+k-1) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then, for $n \geq k$,

$$A^{n} = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} q_{j+1}(n)A^{j}.$$

We note that the difference equation $z(n+k)+c_{k-1}z(n+k-1)+\cdots+c_0z(n)=0$ can conveniently be written as c(E)z(n)=0 using the shift operator Ez(n)=z(n+1). Further, if the matrix A is a companion matrix, the linear difference system x(n+1)=Ax(n) is equivalent to the kth order scalar difference equation c(E)z(n)=0, and it is not surprising that solutions of c(E)z(n)=0 would play a role in computing A^n . That this is true in general follows from the observation

$$E(A^n) = A^{n+1} = A(A^n)$$

and hence if $p(\lambda)$ is any polynomial, $p(E)(A^n) = p(A)A^n$, and thus for any annihilating polynomial $p(\lambda)$ for A, $p(E)A^n = 0$. Since the Cayley–Hamilton theorem simply states that $c(\lambda)$ is an annihilating polynomial for A, every element of A^n satisfies the kth order scalar difference equation c(E)y(n) = 0. The minimal polynomial, $m(\lambda)$, is also an annihilating polynomial for A, but is easily determined only in special cases, e.g., when A is a companion matrix $(m(\lambda) = c(\lambda))$ or A real symmetric, $m(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{s} (\lambda - \mu_j)$, where μ_j are the distinct eigenvalues of A.

THEOREM 3. Let A be a $k \times k$ nonsingular matrix with characteristic polynomial $c(\lambda) = \lambda^k + c_{k-1}\lambda^{k+1} + \cdots + c_1\lambda + c_0$, and let $\{y_1(n), \dots, y_k(n)\}$ be a linearly independent set of solutions of the kth order scalar difference equation c(E)y(n) = 0. Then there exist constant matrices E_1, \dots, E_k such that

$$A^n = y_1(n)E_1 + y_2(n)E_2 + \dots + y_k(n)E_k.$$

We note that if the eigenvalues of A are distinct, $\{\lambda_1^n, \ldots, \lambda_k^n\}$ is a suitable linearly independent set of solutions for c(E)y(n) = 0, and the general form for $A^n, n = 0, 1$ yields

$$I = E_1 + E_2 + \dots + E_k$$

$$A = \lambda_1 E_1 + \lambda_2 E_2 + \dots + \lambda_k E_k.$$

Further, it can be shown that $E_i E_j = E_j E_i = 0, i \neq j$, and hence $E_i^2 = E_i$. Thus we have a resolution of the identity and the spectral representation of A, and hence

$$A^{n} = (\lambda_{1}E_{1} + \dots + \lambda_{k}E_{k})^{n} = \lambda_{1}^{n}E_{1} + \dots + \lambda_{k}^{n}E_{k}.$$

The SN decomposition of a matrix is a natural generalization of the spectral representations of A when the eigenvalues of A are not distinct. There exists a unique decomposition of the matrix A, A = S + N, SN = NS with S semisimple (similar to a diagonal matrix) and N nilpotent ($N^k = 0$).

THEOREM 4. Let A be a $k \times k$ nonsingular matrix, and let A = S + N be the unique SN decomposition, SN = NS, S semisimple, N nilpotent, then

$$A^{n} = (S+N)^{n} = S^{n} + \binom{n}{1} S^{n-1} N + \binom{n}{2} S^{n-2} N^{2} + \dots + \binom{n}{k-1} S^{n-k+1} N^{k-1}.$$

Proof of Theorem 1. Let $\Phi(n) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} u_{j+1}(n)M(j)$. We need only show that $\Phi(0) = I$ and $\Phi(n+1) = A\Phi(n)$. Clearly, $\Phi(0) = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} u_{j+1}(0)M(j) = u_1(0)M(0) = I$. Using the fact that $AM(j) = (A - \lambda_{j+1}I + \lambda_{j+1}I)M(j) = M(j+1) + \lambda_{j+1}M(j)$, we have

$$\Phi(n+1) - A\Phi(n) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} u_{j+1}(n+1)M(j) - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} u_{j+1}(n)AM(j)$$
$$= \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} [u_{j+1}(n+1) - \lambda_{j+1}u_{j+1}(n)]M(j) - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} u_{j+1}(n)M(j+1).$$

Writing $\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} u_{j+1}(n)M(j+1) = \sum_{i=1}^k u_i(n)M(i) = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} u_j(n)M(j)$, since M(k)=0. Thus

$$\Phi(n+1) - A\Phi(n) = [u_1(n+1) - \lambda_1 u_1(n)] + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} [u_{j+1}(n+1) - \lambda_{j+1} u_{j+1}(n) - u_j(n)]M(j)$$

and the theorem is proved.

Remark. Theorem 1 has appeared in LaSalle [7], Kelley and Peterson [5], and Elaydi [1].

Proof of Theorem 2. Let $\Psi(n) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} q_{j+1}(n)A^j$. Clearly, $\Psi(0) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} q_{j+1}(0)A^j = q_1(0)I = I$. Now

$$\Psi(n+1) - A\Psi(n) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} q_{j+1}(n+1)A^j - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} q_{j+1}(n)A^{j+1}$$
$$= q_1(n+1)I + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} [q_{j+1}(n+1) - q_j(n)]A^j - q_k(n)A^k,$$

and using $A^k + c_k A^{k-1} + \cdots + c_1 A + c_0 I = 0$, $\Psi(n+1) - A\Psi(n) = 0$ requires that

$$q_1(n+1) + c_0 q_k(n) = 0,$$

 $q_2(n+1) + c_1 q_k(n) = q_1(n),$
 \vdots
 \vdots
 $q_k(n+1) + c_{k-1} q_k(n) = q_{k-1}(n).$

Defining $q_k(n) = z(n)$ and applying E^{j-1} to the jth equation yields

$$\begin{array}{llll} q_1(n+1) & +c_0z(n) & = & 0, \\ q_2(n+2) & +c_1z(n+1) & = & q_1(n+1), \\ & \cdot & & \\ & \cdot & & \\ z(n+k) & +c_{k-1}z(n+k-1) & = & q_{k-1}(n+k-1). \end{array}$$

Adding these equations yields c(E)z(n) = 0 and back substitution in the first set of equations completes the proof of the theorem.

Proof of Theorem 3. $A^n = y_1(n)E_1 + \cdots + y_k(n)E_k$ will be valid if the following system of equations has a unique solution:

The coefficient matrix of this system is the Casorati matrix which is nonsingular for a linearly independent set of solutions $(y_1(n), \ldots, y_k(n))$ of the kth order scalar difference equations c(E)y(n) = 0, and thus the theorem is proved.

Remark. If the eigenvalues of A are distinct, then $y_1(n) = \lambda_1^n, \ldots, y_k(n) = \lambda_k^n$ is a suitable linearly independent set of solutions of c(E)y(n) = 0 and the Casorati matrix is a Vandermonde matrix and $E_i = e_i(A)$, where $e_i(\lambda) = \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{\lambda - \lambda_j}{\lambda_i - \lambda_j}$ are the Lagrange interpolating polynomials. We note that the nonzero columns of E_j are eigenvectors if the λ_i are distinct and are generalized eigenvector chains in the general case.

Proof of Theorem 4. Following Hsieh, Kohno, and Sibuya [4], let μ_j be the distinct eigenvalues of the matrix A and write the characteristic polynomial $c(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{s} (\lambda - \mu_i)^{n_i}$ with integers $n_i \geq 1, n_1 + \cdots + n_s = k$. Let the partial fraction expression of $c(\lambda)^{-1}$ be

$$\frac{1}{c(\lambda)} = \frac{c_1(\lambda)}{(\lambda - \mu_1)^{n_1}} + \frac{c_2(\lambda)}{(\lambda - \mu_2)^{n_2}} + \dots + \frac{c_s(\lambda)}{(\lambda - \mu_s)^{n_s}},$$

and define the polynomials $f_i(\lambda) = c_i(\lambda) \prod_{j \neq i} (\lambda - \mu_j)^{n_j}$. Then $1 = f_1(\lambda) + f_2(\lambda) + \cdots + f_s(\lambda)$, and with $F_i = f_i(A)$, we have the resolution of the identity

$$I = F_1 + F_2 + \dots + F_s$$
, $F_i F_j = F_j F_i = 0$, $i \neq j$ and $F_i^2 = F_i$,

using the Cayley-Hamilton theorem.

Writing $S = \sum_{i=1}^{s} \mu_i F_i$, N = A - S, we have A = S + N, SN = NS, $N^k = 0$, S semisimple, and the theorem is proved.

Remark. The SN decomposition is essentially in Kirshner [6], and is explicitly stated and proved in Hirsch and Smale [3], but we prefer the construction of Hsieh, Kohno, and Sibuya [4].

Remark. The restriction to nonsingular A is natural if we wish $A^0=I$. We note that for $A\equiv 0$ and

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1\\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right),$$

we have $y(n) \equiv 0$ as a solution of y(n+1) = Ay(n). A preliminary transformation will reduce the general case to the one studied in this note.

Example. Consider x(n+1) = Ax(n) where

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{rrr} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 3 & 1 \\ -3 & 1 & 4 \end{array}\right).$$

The characteristic equation $c(\lambda)$ is

$$c(\lambda) = \lambda^3 - 7\lambda^2 + 16\lambda - 12 = (\lambda - 2)^2(\lambda - 3).$$

$$\bullet A^n = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} u_{j+1}(n) M(j)$$
, where

$$u_1(n) = 2^n$$
, $u_2(n) = n2^{n-1}$, $u_3(n) = -2^n + 3^n - n2^{n-1}$,

$$M(0) = I,$$
 $M(1) = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 & 1 \\ -3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix},$ $M(2) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, and

$$A^{n} = \begin{pmatrix} 2^{n-1} - 3^{n} - n2^{n-1} & n2^{n-1} & -2^{n} + 3^{n} \\ 2^{n} - 3^{n} - n2^{n-1} & (n+2)2^{n-1} & -2^{n} + 3^{n} \\ 2^{n+1} - 2 \cdot 3^{n} - n2^{n-1} & n2^{n-1} & -2^{n} + 2 \cdot 3^{n} \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $\bullet A^n = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} q_{j+1}(n) A^j$, where

$$A^0 = I, \qquad A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} -5 & 4 & 5 \\ -9 & 8 & 5 \\ -14 & 4 & 14 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} q_1(n) & = & -3(1+n)2^n + 4 \cdot 3^n, \\ q_2(n) & = & (8+5n)2^{n-1} - 4 \cdot 3^n, \\ q_3(n) & = & -(2+n)2^{n-1} + 3^n, \end{array}$$

and $z(n) = q_3(n)$ is a solution of

$$z(n+3) - 7z(n+2) + 16z(n+1) - 12z(n) = 0, \quad z(0) = z(1) = 0, \quad z(2) = 1.$$

$$\bullet A^n = \sum_{j=1}^k y_j(n) E_j$$
, where $y_1(n) = 2^n, y_2(n) = n2^{n-1}, y_3(n) = 3^n$,

$$E_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad E_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad E_3 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $\bullet A^n = (S+N)^n,$

$$\frac{1}{c(\lambda)} = \frac{1-\lambda}{(\lambda-2)^2} + \frac{1}{\lambda-3},$$

$$1 = (1 - \lambda)(\lambda - 3) + (\lambda - 2)^2 = f_1(\lambda) + f_2(\lambda), \quad F_i = f_i(A),$$

$$F_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad F_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$S = 2F_1 + 3F_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad N = A - S = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$N^2 = 0$$
, $SN = NS = 2N$, $A^n = S^n + n2^{n-1}N$.

Examination of F_1 and F_2 shows that

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 and $\begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\0 \end{pmatrix}$

are eigenvectors of S corresponding to the eigenvalue 2, and

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\1\\2 \end{pmatrix}$$

is an eigenvector of S corresponding to the eigenvalue 3.

Thus for

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad P^{-1}SP = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

and
$$S^n = P(P^{-1}SP)^n P^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2^n & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2^n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3^n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

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