# Characterizations of Products of Symmetric Matrices 

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#### Abstract

Characterizations are obtained for matrices $C$ of the form $C=A \Sigma$, where $A, \Sigma$ are $n \times n$ matrices over the real field such that $A$ is symmetric and $C$ is nonnegative definite. Among others, a proof of recent generalization of Cochran's theorem is given.


## 1. INTRODUCTION

We shall be interested only in matrices over the real field $R . M_{m \times n}$ will be the set of $m \times n$ matrices. $W_{n}$ will be the set of all $C=A \Sigma$, where $A, \Sigma \in$ $M_{n \times n}, A$ is symmetric, and $\Sigma$ is nonnegative definite. Among other things, we shall characterize $W_{n}$ and give a different proof of a generalization of Cochran's theorem [2]. Matrices in $W_{n}$ occur in linear models and multivariate analysis, where $\Sigma$ is the dispersion matrix of a normal random vector $X$, and $A$ is determined by a given quadratic form $Y=X^{\prime} A X$ of $X[1,9]$.

## 2. CHARACTERIZATIONS OF CERTAIN CLASSES OF MATRICES

Since $A^{\prime}$ is similar to $A,\left(\begin{array}{ll}D & 0 \\ E & 0\end{array}\right)$ below can be replaced by $\left(\begin{array}{ll}D & E^{\prime} \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)$.

Proposition 2.1. Let $C \in M_{n \times n}$. Then $C=A \Sigma$ for some symmetric matrix $A$ in $M_{n \times n}$ and some nonnegative definite matrix $\Sigma$ of rank $s$ if and only if $C$ is similar to a matrix of the form

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
D & 0 \\
E & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $D$ is a diagonal matrix in $M_{s \times s}$ and $E \in M_{(n-s) \times s}$.

Proof. Only if: By changing $A$ to $P^{\prime} A P$ for an orthogonal $P$ such that $P \Sigma P^{\prime}$ is diagonal, we may assume that $\Sigma=\operatorname{diag}\left(G_{s}, 0\right)$, where $G_{s} \in M_{s \times s}$ is positive definite. Write

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{11} & A_{12} \\
A_{21} & A_{22}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $A_{11}$ is an $s \times s$ matrix. Then $A_{11}$ is symmetric and

$$
C=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{11} G_{s} & 0 \\
A_{21} G_{s} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

Let $K=\operatorname{diag}\left(G_{s}^{1 / 2}, I_{n-s}\right)$. Then

$$
K C K^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
G_{s}^{1 / 2} A_{11} G_{s}^{1 / 2} & 0 \\
A_{21} G_{s}^{1 / 2} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

Since $G_{s}^{1 / 2} A_{11} G_{s}^{1 / 2}$ is symmetric, there exist an $s \times s$ orthogonal matrix $Q$ and a diagonal matrix $D$ in $M_{s \times s}$ such that $G_{s}^{1 / 2} A_{11} G_{s}^{1 / 2}=Q D Q^{\prime}$. Let $W=$ $\operatorname{diag}\left(Q, I_{n-s}\right)$. Then $K C K^{-1}$ is similar to

$$
W^{-1} K C K^{-1} W=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
D & 0 \\
E & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $E=A_{21} G_{s}^{1 / 2} Q$. Thus $C$ is similar to

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
D & 0 \\
E & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

If: By hypothesis,

$$
C=P\left(\begin{array}{ll}
D & 0 \\
E & 0
\end{array}\right) P^{-1}
$$

for some nonsingular matrin $P$ in $M_{n \times n}$. Since $D$ is diagonal, $D=\left(d_{i} \delta_{i j}\right)$ for some real numbers $d_{i}$, where $\delta_{i j}$ is the Kronecker symbol. Let

$$
F=\left(f_{i} \delta_{i j}\right) \in M_{s \times s}, \quad G=\left(g_{i} \delta_{i j}\right) \in M_{s \times s},
$$

where $f_{i}=1, g_{i}=d_{i}$ when $d_{i}>0$, and $f_{i}=0, g_{i}=1$ when $d_{i}=0$. Then

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
D & 0 \\
E & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
F & G^{-1} E^{\prime} \\
E G^{-1} & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
G & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

I e.t

$$
A=P\left(\begin{array}{cc}
F & G^{-1} E^{\prime} \\
E G^{-1} & 0
\end{array}\right) P^{\prime}, \quad \Sigma=\left(P^{\prime}\right)^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
G & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right) P^{-1} .
$$

Then $C=A \Sigma, A$ is symmetric, and $\Sigma$ is nonnegative definite of rank $s$.

Corollary 2.2. Let $C \in M_{n \times n}$. Then $C=A \Sigma$ for some symmetric matrix $A$ and positive definite matrix $\Sigma$ if and only if $C$ is similar to a diagonal matrix $D$.

The following result follows from the above proof of Proposition 2.1.

Proposition 2.3. Let $C \in M_{n \times n}$. Then $C=A \Sigma$ for some nonnegative (positive) definite matrix A and positive definite matrix $\Sigma$ if and only if $C$ is similar to a nonnegative (positive) definite diagonal matrix $D$.

We note here that even for $n=2, W_{2}$ contains many matrices that are not similar to a diagonal matrix. For example, let

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

$C=A \Sigma$. Then by definition, $C \in W_{2}$. By a direct calculation,

$$
C=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

(and therefore is not symmetric). Since $C \neq 0$ and $C^{2}=0, C$ is not similar to a diagonal matrix.

We now give a characterization of $W_{n}$ in terms of Jordan forms.

Proposition 2.4. Let $C \in M_{n \times n}$. Then $C \in W_{n}$ if and only if each Jordan block (in the Jordan form) of $C$ is either a real number or the two by two matrix

$$
Q=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Proof. If: Let $J=\operatorname{diag}\left(J_{1}, J_{2}, \ldots, J_{s}\right)$ be the Jordan form of $C$, where the $J_{i}$ 's are all the Jordan blocks of $C$. Then $C=P J P^{-1}$ for some nonsingular matrix $P$. We may assume that $J_{1}, J_{2}, \ldots, J_{i}$ are real numbers and $J_{t+1}, J_{t+2}, \ldots, J_{s}$ are equal to $Q$. Now let

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{i}=J_{i}, \quad \Sigma_{i}=1, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, t, \\
A_{i}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad \Sigma_{i}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right), \quad i=t+1, t+2, \ldots, s, \\
A=P \operatorname{diag}\left(A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{s}\right) P^{\prime}, \quad \Sigma=\left(P^{\prime}\right)^{-1} \operatorname{diag}\left(\Sigma_{1}, \Sigma_{2}, \ldots, \Sigma_{s}\right) P^{-1} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Then $A$ is symmetric, $\Sigma$ is nonnegative definite, and $C=A \Sigma$, i.e. $C \in W_{n}$.
Only if: By Proposition 2.1, there exists a nonsingular $P$ in $M_{n \times n}$ such that

$$
C=P\left(\begin{array}{ll}
D & 0 \\
E & 0
\end{array}\right) p^{-1}
$$

for some diagonal $D$ in $M_{s \times s}$ and $E$ in $M_{(n-s) \times s}$. Let

$$
B_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
D & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad B_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 0 \\
E & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad B=B_{1}+B_{2}
$$

Then $C=P B P^{-1}, B_{1} B_{2}=0$, and $B_{2}^{2}=0$. So $B^{i}=B B_{1}^{i-1}, j=1,2, \ldots$ Let

$$
\psi_{1}(\lambda)=\sum_{i=0}^{p} a_{i} \lambda^{i} \quad\left(a_{p}=1\right)
$$

be the minimal polynomial of $B_{1}$. Since $B_{1}$ is diagonal,

$$
\psi_{1}(\lambda)=\prod_{i=1}^{p}\left(\lambda-\lambda_{i}\right)
$$

where the $\lambda_{i}$ 's are the distinct diagonal entries in $B_{1}$. In particular, $\lambda^{2}$ does not divide $\psi_{1}(\lambda)$. Let $\psi_{2}(\lambda)=\lambda \psi_{1}(\lambda)$. Then $\lambda^{3}$ does not divide $\psi_{2}(\lambda)$, and

$$
\psi_{2}(B)=\sum_{i=0}^{p} a_{i} B^{i+1}=\sum_{i=0}^{p} a_{i} B B_{1}^{i}=B \psi_{1}\left(B_{1}\right)=0
$$

So the minimal polynomial $\psi(\lambda)$ of $B$ divides $\psi_{2}(\lambda)$. Thus:
(a) Any Jordan block $J_{i}$ of $B$ corresponding to a nonzero $\lambda_{i}$ has to be the real number $\lambda_{i}$, a $1 \times 1$ matrix.
(b) $\lambda^{3}$ does not divide $\psi(\lambda)$. So if $\lambda_{0}=0$ is an eigenvalue of $B$, then each Jordan block $J_{i}$ of $B$ corresponding to $\lambda_{0}$ must be either the $1 \times 1$ matrix (0) or the $2 \times 2$ matrix $Q$ [5].

Since $C$ is similar to $B$, (a) and (b) above complete the proof.
The above result provides some information about $W_{n}$ :
(1) If $C \in W_{n}$ and if $J$ is the Jordan form of $C$, then the rank of $C$ is equal to the number of nonzero entries in $J$.
(2) If $C \in W_{n}$ and if $j$ is even, then $C^{j}$ is similar to a diagonal matrix.
(3) $A \in W_{n}$ if and only if $A^{\prime} \in W_{n}$.
(4) The family of nondiagonalizable matrices in $W_{n}$ can be described. For example, $C \in W_{2}$ is not diagonalizable if and only if $C$ is similar to $Q$.
(5) Even for $n=2, M_{n \times n}$ contains a lot of matrices which are not in $W_{n}$. Indeed $C \in M_{2 \times 2}, W_{2}$ and $C$ has a Jordan form in $M_{2 \times 2}$ if and only if $C$ is similar to $\left(\begin{array}{cc}a & 1 \\ 0 & a\end{array}\right)$ for some nonzero $a$.

The following fairly strong decomposition about $C \in W_{n}$ also follows easily from the above proposition.

Proposition 2.5. Let $C \in M_{n \times n}$. Then $C \in W_{n}$ if and only if there exist $A, B \in M_{n \times n}$ such that
(a) there exists a nonsingular $P$ in $M_{n \times n}$ such that $P^{-1} A P, P^{-1} B P$ are the Jordan forms of $A, B$ respectively,
(b) A similar to a diagonal matrix,
(c) $B^{2}=0$,
(d) $A B=0$,
(e) $C=A+B$.

The above result tells us that $C \in W_{n}$ is at most, a little bit ( $-B$ ) short of being diagonalizable. The following also follows easily from Proposition 2.4.

Proposition 2.6. Let $C \in M_{n \times n}$. Then
(a) $C \in W_{n}$ if $C^{3}=C^{2}$,
(b) $C^{3}=C^{2}$ if $C \in W_{n}$ and $\sigma(C) \subset\{0,1\}$,
(c) $C^{4}=C^{2}$ if $C \in W_{n}$ and $\sigma(C) \subset\{0,1,-1\}$.

Idempotents arise in the study of linear models and Cochran's theorem [3] (e.g., see $[6,7,10,11,2]$ ). The following known result shows that all idempotents are in $W_{n}$. For any linear function $f$ on a linear space $R^{n}$, denote by $F_{f}$ the set $\{x: f(x)=x\}$ of all fixed points of $f$, by $\operatorname{ker} f$ the kernel $\{x: f(x)=0\}$ of $f$, and by $\operatorname{Im} f$ the image set $\left\{f(x): x \in R^{n}\right\}$ of $f$. Let $C \in M_{n \times n}$. We shall treat $C$ as the lincar transformation $f: f(x)=C x, x \in R^{n}$. $\operatorname{Im} C$ is easily seen to be the column space of $C$. The dimension of a linear space $L$ is denoted by $\operatorname{dim} L$.

Proposition 2.7. Let $C \in M_{n \times n}$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(a) $C^{2}=C$.
(b) $R^{n}=F_{c}+\operatorname{ker} C$.
(c) $C$ is similar to a diagonal idempotent $D$.
(d) $F_{C}=\operatorname{Im} C$.

It is hinted here idempotence is related to fixed points. This observation can be expanded. If $C$ is an idempotent, then $C$ is a generalized inverse $C^{-}$of $C$. Let $H \in M_{m \times m}, K \in M_{n \times m}$. Then $H$ is a generalized inverse of $K$ if and only if $F_{K H}=\operatorname{Im} K$. In other words, how far a generalized inverse $H$ of $K$ is from being an inverse of $K$ can be measured by the size of $F_{K H}$. In particular, if $m=n$ and $K$ has an inverse $H$, then $F_{K H}=R^{n}$, which is of the largest possible size. On the other hand, if $K=0$, then any $H \in M_{m \times n}$ is a generalized inverse of $K$ and $F_{K H}=\{0\}$, which is of the smallest possible size and suggests that $H$ may not be much of an inverse of $K$.

To see how $C$ in Proposition 2.3 occurs in statistics, we prove the following. We emphasize here that unlike Searle [9, p. 57], Good [4], or Nagase and Banerjee [8], we do not assume that $X^{\prime} A X$ has a central chi squared distribution.

Proposition 2.8. Let $A, \Sigma \in M_{n \times n}$ such that $A$ is symmetric and $\Sigma$ is nonnegative definite. Let $X$ be a normal random vector with parameter $(0, \Sigma)$ such that $Y=X^{\prime} A X$ has a chi squared distribution. Then $\sigma(A \Sigma) \subset\{0,1\}$.

Proof. Since $Y$ has a chi squared distribution, for some $m \in Z^{+}, s \geqslant 0$, the $r$ th cumulant $K_{r}$ of $Y$ is [9]

$$
K_{r}=2^{r-1}(r-1)!(m+2 s r), \quad r-1,2, \ldots
$$

Since $X$ is normal, $K_{r}=2^{r-1}(r-1)!\operatorname{tr}\left((A \Sigma)^{r}\right)$ [9], which implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
m+2 s r=\operatorname{tr}\left((A \Sigma)^{r}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}^{r} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left\{\lambda_{i}\right\}$ is the spectrum of $A \Sigma$. If one of $\left|\lambda_{i}\right|$, say $\left|\lambda_{i_{0}}\right|$, is greater than 1 , then by (2.1),

$$
s \geqslant \lim _{p \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\lambda_{i_{0}}^{2 p}-m}{4 p}=\infty
$$

a contradiction. So all $\lambda_{i} \in[-1,1]$. By (2.1),

$$
s=\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}^{r}-m}{2 r}=0,
$$

so that $\sigma(A \Sigma) \subset\{0,1\}$.
Good concluded in [4] that $A \Sigma$ above is an idempotent. Styan [10] pointed out that $A \Sigma$ need not be idempotent. Now by Proposition 2.4, we can give a characterization of $\Lambda \Sigma$ under which $\Lambda \Sigma$ is an idempotent.

Proposition 2.9. Let $C \in W_{n}$ such that $\sigma(C) \subset\{0,1\}$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(a) $C$ is an idempotent.
(b) $C$ is diagonalizable.
(c) $r(C)=\operatorname{tr} C$.
(d) $r(C)=r\left(C^{2}\right)$.

We now investigate conditions on $A$ and/or $\Sigma$ under which $A \Sigma$ is an idempotent. In this regard, we obtain the following result. Recall that for any $X \in M_{n \times m}, \operatorname{ker} X^{\prime} X=\operatorname{ker} X$, so that we can cancel $X^{\prime}$ whenever $X^{\prime} X A=X^{\prime} X B$.

Proposition 2.10. Let $A, \Sigma \in M_{n \times n}$ such that $A$ and $\Sigma$ are nonnegative definite and $\sigma(A \Sigma) \subset\{0,1\}$. Then $A \Sigma$ is an idempotent.

Proof. By Proposition 2.6, $A \Sigma A \Sigma A \Sigma=A \Sigma A \Sigma$. By canceling $A \Sigma^{1 / 2}$ we obtain $\Sigma^{1 / 2} A \Sigma A \Sigma=\Sigma^{1 / 2} A \Sigma$. Again, canceling $\Sigma^{1 / 2} A^{1 / 2}$, we obtain $A^{1 / 2} \Sigma A \Sigma$ $=A^{1 / 2} \Sigma$. Multiplication by $A^{1 / 2}$ on the left yields $A \Sigma A \Sigma=A \Sigma$.

If one is interested in $C$ in $W_{n}$ with $C^{4}=C^{2}$ (see e.g. Tan [11]) then $C^{2}$ is diagonalizable. In fact $C^{2}$ is diagonalizable for all $C \in W_{n}$.

Proposition 2.11. Let $A, B, C \in M_{n \times n}$ such that $A=B+C, A^{2}=A$, and $r(A)=r(B)+r(C)$. Then $B, C$ are idempotents and $B C=C B=0$.

Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(A) & =\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Im} A \leqslant \operatorname{dim}(\operatorname{Im} B+\operatorname{Im} C) \\
& =\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Im} B+\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Im} C-\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Im} B \cap \operatorname{Im} C \\
& =r(B)+r(C)-\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Im} B \cap \operatorname{Im} C .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $r(A)=r(B)+r(C)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Im} B \cap \operatorname{Im} C=\{0\} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Im} A=\operatorname{Im} B+\operatorname{Im} C . \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $x \in \operatorname{Im} B$. By (2.3), $x \in \operatorname{Im} A$. Since $A^{2}=A, A x=x$. So $x-B x=C x$. By (2.2), $x-B x=C x=0$. Thus $F_{B}=\operatorname{Im} B$. By Proposition 2.7, $B^{2}=B$. Similarly $C^{2}=C$. Let $x \in R^{n}$. Since $A^{2}=A, B C x=-C B x$. By (2.2), $B C x=-C B x=0$. Hence $B C=C B=0$.

With Propositions 2.4 and 2.11 , we can give shorter proofs for the following two propositions.

Proposition 2.12. Let $C \in M_{n \times n}$ such that $C^{2}=C^{3}$. Then $C$ is an idempotent if and only if $r(C)=\operatorname{tr} C$ or $r(C)=r\left(C^{2}\right)$.

Proposition 2.13. Let $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{k}$ be $n \times n$ mairices and let $A=$ $\sum_{i=1}^{k} A_{i}$. Consider the following conditions:
(a) All $A_{i}$ are idempotent.
(b) $A_{i} A_{i}=0$ for all $i \neq i$ and $r\left(A_{i}^{2}\right)=r\left(A_{i}\right), i=1,2, \ldots, k$.
(c) $A$ is an idempotent.
(d) $r(A)=\sum_{i=1}^{k} r\left(A_{i}\right)$.

Then
(i) any two of (a), (b), and (c) imply all (a)-(d);
(ii) (c) and (d) imply (a) and (b).

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