

ON QUATERNION-k-NORMAL MATRICES

K. GUNASEKARAN, R. KAVITHA*

Ramanujan Research Centre, PG and Research Department of Mathematics,
 Government Arts College (Autonomous), Kumbakonam-612 002, Tamil Nadu, India.

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ABSTRACT

The concept of quaternion- k -normal (q - k -normal) matrices is introduced. Some basic theorems of q - k -normal and q - k -unitary matrices are discussed.

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Key words: Quaternion matrix, q - k -normal matrix and q - k -unitary matrix.

1. INTRODUCTION

Let H be the set of all quaternion numbers. Let $H_{n \times n}$ be the set of all quaternion square matrix over H called by quaternion matrix [6], for a matrix $A \in H_{n \times n}$. $\bar{A}, A^T, A^*, A^{-1}$ and A^\dagger denotes conjugate, transpose, Conjugate transpose, inverse and Moore-Penrose inverse of A respectively. Let k be a fixed product of disjoint transpositions in $S_n = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$ and let K be the permutation matrix associated with k . The concept of q - k -normal matrices is introduced as generalization of q - k -real and q - k -hermitian and q - k -normal matrices [3, 5]. The q - k -unitary is also discussed in this paper. Clearly K satisfies $K^2 = I, K = K^T = K^* = KI$.

2. DEFINITIONS AND SOME THEOREMS

Definition 2.1: A matrix $A \in H_{n \times n}$ is said to be quaternion- k -normal denoted by q - k -normal if $AKA^*K = KA^*KA$ where K is a permutation matrix associated with $k(x)$ in S_n .

Example 2.2: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 6+2i & 3 \\ 2 & 6+4i \end{bmatrix}$ is an q - k -normal matrix

Theorem 1: Let $A, B \in H_{n \times n}$. If A and B are q - k -normal with $AKB^*K = KB^*KA$ and $BKA^*K = KA^*KB$ then $A+B$ is q - k -normal.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} (A+B) \left[K(A+B)^*K \right] &= (A+B)K(A^*+B^*)K \\ &= (A+B)(KA^*K + KB^*K) \\ &= AKA^*K + AKB^*K + BKA^*K + BKB^*K \\ &= (KA^*K)A + (KB^*K)A + (KA^*K)B + (KB^*K)B \end{aligned}$$

Corresponding Author: R. Kavitha*

Ramanujan Research Centre, PG and Research Department of Mathematics,
 Government Arts College (Autonomous), Kumbakonam-612 002, Tamil Nadu, India.

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (KA^*K + KB^*K)A + (KA^*K + KB^*K)B \\
 &= (KA^*K + KB^*K)(A+B) \\
 &= [K(A+B)^*K](A+B) \\
 (A+B)[K(A+B)^*K] &= [K(A+B)^*K](A+B)
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $A+B$ is q- k -normal.

Theorem 2: If A is q- k -normal then A^{-1} is q- k -normal.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}
 A(KA^*K) &= (KA^*K)A \\
 (A^{-1})K(A^{-1})^*K &= A^{-1}K(A^*)^{-1}K \\
 &= A^{-1}K^{-1}(A^*)^{-1}K^{-1} [\because K = K^{-1}] \\
 &= (AKA^*K)^{-1} \\
 &= K^{-1}(A^*)^{-1}K^{-1}A^{-1} \\
 &= K(A^{-1})^*K(A^{-1}) \\
 (A^{-1})K(A^{-1})^*K &= K(A^{-1})^*K(A^{-1})
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore A^{-1} is q- k -normal.

Theorem 3: If A is q- k -normal then A^T is q- k -normal.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}
 A(KA^*K) &= (KA^*K)A \\
 A^TK(A^T)^*K &= A^TK(A^*)^TK \\
 &= A^TK^T(A^*)^TK^T [\because K = K^T] \\
 &= (AKA^*K)^T \\
 &= K^T(A^*)^TK^T(A^T) \\
 &= K^T(A^T)^*K^T(A^T) \\
 (A^T)K(A^T)^*K &= K(A^T)^*K(A^T)
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore A^T is q- k -normal.

Theorem 4: If A is q- k -normal then A^* is q- k -normal.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}
 A(KA^*K) &= (KA^*K)A \\
 (A^*)K(A^*)^*K &= (A^*)K^*(A^*)^*K^* [\because K = K^*] \\
 &= (AKA^*K)^* \\
 &= K^*(A^*)^*K^*A^*
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= K(A^*)^* K(A^*)$$

$$(A^*)K(A^*)^* K = K(A^*)^* K(A^*)$$

Therefore A^* is q- k -normal.

Theorem 5: If A is q- k -normal then A^2 is q- k -normal.

Proof:

$$A(KA^*K) = (KA^*K)A$$

$$A^2 \left[K(A^2)^* K \right] = A^2 K(A^*)^2 K$$

$$= AA(KA^*K)(KA^*K)$$

$$= A(KA^*K)A(KA^*K)$$

$$= (KA^*K)A(KA^*K)A$$

$$= (KA^*K)(KA^*K)AA$$

$$= \left[K(A^*)^2 K \right] (A^2)$$

$$= K(A^2)^* K(A^2)$$

$$(A^2)K(A^2)^* K = K(A^2)^* K(A^2)$$

Therefore A^2 is q- k -normal.

Theorem 6: If A is q- k -normal then A^t is q- k -normal.

Proof:

$$AKA^*K = KA^*KA$$

$$A^t K(A^t)^* K = (AAA \dots A \text{ } t \text{ times}) K(A^* A^* A^* \dots A^* \text{ } t \text{ times}) K$$

$$= AAA \dots A(KA^*K)(KA^*K) \dots (KA^*K)$$

Therefore A^t is q- k -normal.

Theorem 7: If A is q- k -normal then A^\dagger is q- k -normal.

Proof:

$$A(KA^*K) = (KA^*K)A$$

$$(A^\dagger)K(A^\dagger)^* K = A^\dagger K^\dagger (A^*)^\dagger K^\dagger \quad [\because K = K^\dagger]$$

$$= (AKA^*K)^\dagger$$

$$= K^\dagger (A^*)^\dagger K^\dagger A^\dagger$$

$$= K(A^*)^\dagger KA^\dagger$$

$$= K(A^\dagger)^* K(A^\dagger)$$

$$(A^\dagger)K(A^\dagger)^* K = K(A^\dagger)^* K(A^\dagger)$$

Therefore A^\dagger is q- k -normal.

Theorem 8: If A is q-k-normal then αA is q-k-normal.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} A(KA^*K) &= (KA^*K)A \\ (\alpha A)K(\alpha A)^*K &= \alpha AK\overline{\alpha A}^*K \\ &= \alpha\overline{\alpha}(AKA^*K) \\ &= \alpha\overline{\alpha}(KA^*KA) \\ &= K\overline{\alpha\alpha}A^*KA \\ &= K(\overline{\alpha A}^*)K(\alpha A) \\ &= K(\alpha A)^*K(\alpha A) \end{aligned}$$

$$(\alpha A)K(\alpha A)^*K = K(\alpha A)^*K(\alpha A)$$

Therefore αA is q-k-normal.

Theorem 9: Let A and B are q-k-normal in $H_{n \times n}$ then AB is q-k-normal if $A(KB^*K) = (KB^*K)A$ and $B(KA^*K) = (KA^*K)B$.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} A(KA^*K) &= (KA^*K)A \\ (AB)[K(AB)^*K] &= (AB)KB^*A^*K \\ &= (AB)(KB^*K)(KA^*K) \\ &= A(KB^*KB)KA^*K \\ &= (KB^*K)A(KA^*K)B \\ &= (KB^*K)(KA^*K)AB \\ &= (KB^*A^*K)(AB) \\ &= [K(AB)^*K](AB) \\ (AB)[K(AB)^*K] &= [K(AB)^*K](AB) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore AB is q-k-normal.

Definition 2.3: A matrix $A \in H_{n \times n}$ is said to be quaternion-k-unitary (q-k-unitary) if $AKA^*K = KA^*KA = I$.

Example 2.4: $A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$ is an q-k-unitary matrix.

Definition 2.5: Let $A, B \in H_{n \times n}$. The matrix B is said to be quaternion-k-unitarily equivalent (q-k-unitarily equivalent) to A if there exists an q-k-unitary matrix U such that $B = KU^*KAU$.

Example 2.6: Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & 2i \\ 3+2i & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2+2i & 2+3i \\ -2+2i & -3+2i \end{bmatrix}$

Then if we take $U = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$ it can be verified that $UKU^*K = KU^*KU = I$ and $B = KU^*KAU$

Hence B is q- k -unitarily equivalent to A .

3. EQUIVALENT CONDITIONS ON Q- \mathcal{K} -NORMAL MATRICES

Theorem 3.1: Let $A \in H_{n \times n}$. If A is q- k -unitarily equivalent to a diagonal matrix, then A is q- k -normal.

Proof: Let $A \in H_{n \times n}$. If A is q- k -unitarily equivalent to a diagonal matrix D , then there exists an q- k -unitary matrix P such that $KP^*KAP = D$ Which implies that

$$\begin{aligned} PKP^*KAPK^*K &= PDKP^*K \\ A &= PDKP^*K \quad \text{as } PKP^*K = I \\ A^* &= (PDKP^*K)^* \\ &= K^*PK^*D^*P^* = KPKD^*P^* \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } AKA^*K &= (PDKP^*K)K(KPKD^*P^*)K \\ &= PDKP^*K(KK)PKD^*P^*K \\ &= PDKP^*K(K^2)PKD^*P^*K \quad [\because K^2 = I] \\ &= PD(KP^*KP)KD^*P^*K \quad [\because KP^*KP = I] \\ &= PDIKD^*P^*K \\ &= PDKD^*P^*K \\ &= PD(KD^*K)(KP^*K) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} KA^*KA &= K(KPKD^*P^*)K(PDKP^*K) \\ &= K^2PKD^*(KK)P^*KPKDKP^*K \\ &= PKD^*K(KP^*KP)DKP^*K \\ &= P(KD^*K)DKP^*K \\ &= P(KD^*K)D(KP^*K) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore D and KD^*K are each diagonal $D(KD^*K) = (KD^*K)D$ and hence $AKA^*K = KA^*KA$ so that A is q- k -normal.

Theorem 3.2: If A is q- k -hermitian then $A^{-1}KA^*K$ is q- k -unitary.

Proof: $A^{-1}(KA^*K)K(A^{-1}KA^*K)^*K = A^{-1}AK(A^{-1}A)^*K$
 $= IKI^*K$
 $= I.$

Theorem 3.3: If A is q- k -normal then $A^{-1}KA^*K$ is q- k -unitary.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Proof: } (A^{-1}KA^*K)K(A^{-1}KA^*K)^*K &= A^{-1}KA^*(KK)K^*(A^*)^*K^*(A^{-1})^*K \\
 &= A^{-1}(KA^*KA)K^*(A^{-1})^*K \\
 &= A^{-1}AKA^*KK(A^{-1})^*K \\
 &= KA^*(A^{-1})^*K \\
 &= K(A^{-1}A)^*K \\
 &= K(I^*)K \\
 &= I.
 \end{aligned}$$

Remark 3.4: From, theorem 3.2 and 3.3 if A is either q- k -hermitian or q- k -normal then $A^{-1}KA^*K$ is q- k -unitary.

Theorem 3.5: Let $H, N \in H_{n \times n}$ be invertible. If $B = HNH$, where H is q- k -hermitian and N is q- k -normal then $B^{-1}KB^*K$ is similar to an q- k -unitary matrix.

Proof: Let $H, N \in H_{n \times n}$ then be invertible. If $B = HNH$ then

$$\begin{aligned}
 B^{-1}KB^*K &= (HNH)^{-1}K(HNH)^*K \\
 &= H^{-1}N^{-1}H^{-1}KH^*N^*H^*K \\
 &= H^{-1}N^{-1}H^{-1}KH^*(KK)N^*H^*K \\
 &= H^{-1}N^{-1}H^{-1}(KH^*K)KN^*H^*K \quad [\because H \text{ is q-}k\text{-hermitian}] \\
 &= H^{-1}N^{-1}(H^{-1}H)KN^*H^*K \quad [H = KH^*K] \\
 &= H^{-1}N^{-1}KN^*H^*K \\
 &= H^{-1}N^{-1}KN^*KKH^*K \\
 &= H^{-1}N^{-1}(KN^*K)(KH^*K)
 \end{aligned}$$

Since N is q- k -normal from remark 3.4 $N^{-1}KN^*K$ is q- k -unitary and hence the result follows.

Theorem 3.6: If A is q- k -normal and $AB = 0$ then $KA^*KB = 0$.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}
 A(KA^*K) &= (KA^*K)A \\
 A(KA^*K)B &= (KA^*K)AB \\
 &= (KA^*K)0 \quad [\because AB = 0] \\
 &= 0 \\
 A(KA^*K)B &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $KA^*KB = 0$ [$\because A \neq 0$].

Theorem 3.7: If X is an q- k -eigenvector of an q- k -normal matrix A corresponding to an q- k -eigenvalue λ , then X is also an q- k -eigenvector of KA^*K corresponding to the q- k -eigenvalue $\bar{\lambda}$.

Proof: Let $A \in H_{n \times n}$ be q- k -normal. Since X is an q- k -eigenvector of A corresponding to an q- k -eigenvalue λ , $AX = \lambda X$. Since A is q- k -normal, it can be easily seen that $A - \lambda I$ and $K(A - \lambda I)^* K$ commute and hence $A - \lambda I$ is q- k -normal. Now

$$AX = \lambda X \Rightarrow (A - \lambda I)X = 0.$$

Since $A - \lambda I$ is q- k -normal by the above theorem 3.6

$$\left[K(A - \lambda I)^* K \right] X = 0 \Rightarrow \left[K(A^* - \bar{\lambda} I) K \right] X = 0$$

$$\left[KA^* K - K\bar{\lambda} I K \right] X = 0$$

$$(KA^* K)X = K\bar{\lambda} KX$$

$$(KA^* K)X = \bar{\lambda} K K X$$

$$(KA^* K)X = \bar{\lambda} X$$

Which leads to the result.

Theorem 3.8: If $A \in H_{n \times n}$ is q- k -unitary and λ is an q- k -eigenvalue of A , then $|\lambda| = 1$.

Proof: Since $A \in H_{n \times n}$ is q- k -unitary, A is q- k -normal. Since λ is an q- k -eigenvalue of A , there exists an q- k -eigenvector $V \neq 0$ such that $AV = \lambda V$ which implies $KA^* KV = \bar{\lambda} V$ as A is q- k -normal.

Now $V = IV = KA^* KAV$ which leads to

$$V - [KA^* KA]V = 0$$

$$V[1 - KA^* KA] = 0$$

$$V[1 - AKA^* K] = 0$$

$$V[1 - \lambda \bar{\lambda}] = 0$$

Since $V \neq 0$, $1 - \lambda \bar{\lambda} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow |\lambda| = 1.$$

Theorem 3.9: Let $A \in H_{n \times n}$. Assume that $A = XP$, where X is q- k -unitary and P is non-singular and q- k -hermitian such that if P^2 commutes with X , then P also commutes with X . Then the following conditions are equivalent.

- (i) A is q- k -normal
- (ii) $XP = PX$
- (iii) $AX = VX$
- (iv) $AP = PA$

Proof: Let $A = XP$. Since X is q- k -unitary $XKX^* K = KX^* KX = I$ and since P is q- k -hermitian $KP^* K = P$.

(i) \Leftrightarrow (ii) If A is q- k -normal then $AKA^* K = KA^* KA$

Since $A = XP$. $(XP)K(XP)^* K = K(XP)^* K(XP)$

$$XPKP^* X^* K = KP^* X^* KXP$$

$$XPKP^* (KK)X^* K = KP^* K K X^* KXP$$

$$XP(KP^* K)KX^* K = P(KX^* KX)P$$

$$XPPKX^*K = P^2 \quad [\because KX^*KX = I]$$

$$XP^2KX^*K = P^2$$

Post multiply by X ,

We have $XP^2(KX^*KX) = P^2X$

$$XP^2 = P^2X$$

and hence $XP = PX$ by our assumption.

Conversely, if $XP = PX$ then $(KP^*K)(KX^*K) = (KX^*K)(KP^*K)$

$$\Rightarrow KP^*X^*K = KX^*P^*K$$

$$\Rightarrow P^*X^* = X^*P^*$$

Now $AKA^*K = (XP)K(XP)^*K$

$$= XPKP^*X^*K$$

$$= XPKX^*P^*K$$

$$= XP(KX^*K)(KP^*K)$$

$$= X(KP^*K)(KX^*K)(KP^*K) \quad [\because P = KP^*K]$$

$$= (KP^*K)(KX^*K)X(KP^*K)$$

$$= (KP^*X^*K)XP$$

$$= K(XP)^*K(XP)$$

(i) \Leftrightarrow (iv): If A is q-k-normal, then $AP = (XP)P$

$$= PXP$$

$$= PA,$$

Conversely, if $AP = PA$, then $(XP)P = P(XP)$ post multiply by P^{-1} ,

We have $XP = PX$ and so that A is q-k-normal.

Theorem 3.10: Let $A \in H_{n \times n}$. Assume that $A = XP$, where X is q-k-unitary and A is non singular and q-k-hermition such that if P^2 commutes with X then A also commutes with X . Then the following conditions are equivalent.

- (i) A is q-k-normal.
- (ii) Any q-k-eigenvector of X is an q-k-eigenvector of A (as long as X has distinct q-k-eigenvalues).
- (iii) Any q-k-eigenvector of A is an q-k-eigenvector of X (as long as A has distinct q-k-eigenvalues).
- (iv) Any q-k-eigenvector of X is an q-k-eigenvector of A (as long as X has distinct q-k-eigenvalues).
- (v) Any q-k-eigenvector of A is an q-k-eigenvector of X (as long as A has distinct q-k-eigenvalues).
- (vi) Any q-k-eigenvector of P is an q-k-eigenvector of A (as long as A has distinct q-k-eigenvalues).
- (vii) Any q-k-eigenvector of A is an q-k-eigenvector of P (as long as A has distinct q-k-eigenvalues)..

Proof:

(i) \Leftrightarrow (ii): Let X have distinct q-k-eigenvalues. If we prove $XP = PX \Leftrightarrow$ any q-k-eigenvector of X is an q-k-eigenvector of P , then (i) \Leftrightarrow (ii) follows by theorem 3.7. Assume that any q-k-eigenvector of X is an

q - k -eigenvector of P . If Y is an q - k -eigenvector of X , then X is also an q - k -eigenvector of P . Therefore there exists q - k -eigenvalues λ and μ such that $XY = \lambda Y$ and $PY = \mu Y$. Now $XY = \lambda Y$ implies $PXY = PXY = \lambda \mu Y$. Similarly $PY = \mu Y$ implies $XPY = \lambda \mu Y$. Therefore $PXY = XPY \Rightarrow (PX - XP)Y = 0$ which implies as $PX = XP$ as $Y \neq 0$.

Conversely, assume that $XP = PX$. If Y is an q - k -eigenvector of X , then there exists an q - k -eigenvalue λ such that $XY = \lambda Y$. Let μ be an q - k -eigenvalue of X such that $XY = \mu Y$. $\therefore \lambda \neq \mu$. Now $XP = PX$ implies $(XP - PX)Y = 0$ which shows that $XPY = \lambda PY$. Similarly $XY = \mu Y$ implies $XPY = \mu PY$.

Therefore $\lambda PY = \mu PY \Rightarrow (\lambda - \mu)PY = 0 \Rightarrow PY = 0$ as $\lambda - \mu \neq 0$. $\therefore PY = 0Y$ and hence Y is an q - k -eigenvector of P corresponding to the q - k -eigenvalue 0. In general, if μ is any q - k -eigenvalue of X , then we can prove that Y is also an q - k -eigenvector of P . Therefore any q - k -eigenvector of X is also an q - k -eigenvector of P .

Similar proof holds for other equivalent conditions.

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