

Matrices That Commute with Their Conjugate and Transpose

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ABSTRACT

It is known that if $A \in M_n$ is normal ($AA^* = A^*A$), then $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$ if and only if $AA^T = A^T A$. This leads to the question: do both $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$ and $AA^T = A^T A$ imply that A is normal? We give an example to show that this is false when $n = 4$, but we show that it is true when $n = 2$ and $n = 3$.

Keywords: Normal Matrix; Matrix Commuting with Its Conjugate and Transpose

Introduction and Results

Let A be an n -by- n normal matrix, i.e., A is a complex square matrix ($A \in M_n$), with the property that $AA^* = A^*A$, where $A^* = \bar{A}^T$ is the conjugate-transpose of A . The Fuglede-Putnam Theorem tells us that if $AB = BA$ for some $B \in M_n$, then $A^*B = BA^*$. Suppose that $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$, where \bar{A} is the conjugate of the matrix A (so we take the complex conjugate of every entry of A). Then taking the transpose gives

$$\bar{A}^T A^T = A^T \bar{A}^T \Rightarrow A^* A^T = A^T A^* \Rightarrow AA^T = A^T A,$$

from the the Fuglede-Putnam Theorem. In a similar way, we see that if $AA^T = A^T A$, then $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$, so these two statements are equivalent when A is normal. The question arose in [2], whether the conditions

$$\bar{A}A = A\bar{A} \quad \text{and} \quad A^T A = AA^T$$

imply the third condition $AA^* = A^*A$, so that A is normal.

This is false when $n = 4$. In fact, any matrix of the form $A = \begin{bmatrix} I_{ab} & I_{cd} \\ 0 & I_{ab} \end{bmatrix}$, where $I_{ab} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}$, $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$, $c^2 + d^2 = 0$, c and d not both zero, has the property that both $\bar{A}A = A\bar{A}$ and $A^T A = AA^T$, but A is not normal. In this paper, we prove that if $A \in M_n$ where $n = 2$ or $n = 3$, then these conditions do imply that A is normal. This result was first proposed as a problem by the current author in the International Linear Algebra Society journal IMAGE (fall

2011). My solution for $n = 2$ appeared in the spring 2012 issue, but no solution for the case $n = 3$ has ever been given. In this paper, we give the solution for the case $n = 3$, and for completeness, we also give the solution for $n = 2$. Specifically we prove:

Theorem 1 If $A \in M_n$, $n = 2$ or $n = 3$, then $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$ and $AA^T = A^T A$ imply that A is normal.

Proof. We need the following preliminary result, which is a direct consequence of Theorem 2.3.6 in [3] (using the fact that for $A \in M_n$, $A = B + iC$ where B and C are real then $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$ if and only if $BC = CB$), and stated explicitly in [1,2].

Theorem 2 Let $A \in M_n$, $n \geq 3$, with $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$. Then there exists a real orthogonal matrix $Q \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ such that $Q^T A Q$ is of the form:

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & * & * & \dots & \dots & * \\ 0 & A_2 & * & \dots & \dots & * \\ 0 & 0 & A_3 & \dots & \dots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \dots & \dots & * \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & A_k \end{bmatrix},$$

where each A_i , $1 \leq i \leq k$ (for some k) is a 1-by-1 matrix or a 2-by-2 matrix.

Example 1. Note that if $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$, Q real orthogonal, $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$ and $AA^T = A^T A$ if and only if $\Lambda\bar{\Lambda} = \bar{\Lambda}\Lambda$ and $\Lambda\Lambda^T = \Lambda^T\Lambda$. Also note that if $A = A^T$ and $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$. then A is normal since $A^* = \bar{A}$ in this case.

Lemma 1 If $A \in M_2$ with $AA^T = A^T A$, then A is

either symmetric or of the form $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}, a, b \in \mathbb{C}$.

Proof. Suppose that $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$, with

$AA^T = A^T A$, then

$$\begin{bmatrix} a^2 + b^2 & ac + bd \\ ac + bd & c^2 + d^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 + c^2 & ab + cd \\ ab + cd & b^2 + d^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence $b^2 = c^2$ and $ab + cd = ac + bd$.

Case 1. $b = c$, so that A is symmetric.

Case 2. $b = -c$, then $ab - bd = -ab + bd$ or $ab = bd$. If $b = 0$, then A is symmetric. If $b \neq 0$,

$$a = d \text{ and } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}.$$

Proposition 1 If $A \in M_2$ with $AA^T = A^T A$ and $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$, then A is normal.

Proof. From the Lemma 1, we have two cases. If

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}, a, b \in \mathbb{C}, \text{ then } A \text{ is normal. On the}$$

other hand, if A is symmetric with $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$, then since $A^* = \bar{A}$ in this case, we must have $AA^* = A^*A$, so A is normal.

Example 2. We now look at the case of $A \in M_3$. We start with a lemma:

Lemma 2 Suppose $A \in M_3$ with $A\bar{A} = \bar{A}A$,

$AA^T = A^T A$ and $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$ for some real orthogonal matrix $Q \in M_3(\mathbb{R})$ where Λ is of one of the two forms: see Equation (1).

then A is normal.

Proof. Case 1: $\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & x \\ -b & a & y \\ 0 & 0 & \alpha \end{bmatrix}$. Now we require

$\Lambda\Lambda^T = \Lambda^T\Lambda$, so that

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & x \\ -b & a & y \\ 0 & 0 & \alpha \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & -b & 0 \\ b & a & 0 \\ x & y & \alpha \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b & 0 \\ b & a & 0 \\ x & y & \alpha \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b & x \\ -b & a & y \\ 0 & 0 & \alpha \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & x \\ -b & a & y \\ 0 & 0 & \alpha \end{bmatrix}, \text{ or } \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & x & y \\ 0 & b & z \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix}, a, b, c, x, y, z, \alpha \in \mathbb{C}, \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} |a|^2 & \pm i(|a|^2 + |b|^2 - 2a\bar{b}) & 2a\bar{b} + 2\bar{a}b - 3|a|^2 - |b|^2 \\ 0 & |b|^2 & \pm i(|a|^2 + |b|^2 - 2a\bar{b}) \\ 0 & 0 & |a|^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} |a|^2 & \pm i(-|a|^2 - |b|^2 + 2\bar{a}b) & 2a\bar{b} + 2\bar{a}b - 3|a|^2 - |b|^2 \\ 0 & |b|^2 & \pm i(-|a|^2 - |b|^2 + 2\bar{a}b) \\ 0 & 0 & |a|^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

or

$$\begin{bmatrix} a^2 + b^2 + x^2 & xy & \alpha x \\ xy & a^2 + b^2 + y^2 & \alpha y \\ \alpha x & \alpha y & \alpha^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 + b^2 & 0 & ax - by \\ 0 & a^2 + b^2 & bx + ay \\ ax - by & ay + bx & x^2 + y^2 + \alpha^2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It follows that $x = y = 0$, and A is normal.

Case 2: If $\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & x & y \\ 0 & b & z \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix}$ then

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & x & y \\ 0 & b & z \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ x & b & 0 \\ y & z & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ x & b & 0 \\ y & z & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & x & y \\ 0 & b & z \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix},$$

or

$$\begin{bmatrix} a^2 + x^2 + y^2 & bx + yz & cy \\ bx + yz & b^2 + z^2 & cz \\ cy & cz & c^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 & ax & ay \\ ax & x^2 + b^2 & xy + bz \\ ay & xy + bz & c^2 + y^2 + z^2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence $x^2 + y^2 = 0$, $x^2 = z^2$, $y^2 + z^2 = 0$, and $x = \pm iy$, $x = \pm z$, $y = \pm iz$ and also $ay = cy$, so $y = 0$ (giving Λ diagonal and A normal) or $a = c$. Suppose $y \neq 0$ so that $a = c$.

Case 2(a). If $x = -z (\neq 0)$, then

$ax = bx + yz \Rightarrow y = b - a$ and $x = \pm i(b - a) = -z$ so that

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & \pm i(b - a) & b - a \\ 0 & b & \pm i(a - b) \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{bmatrix}. \text{ However, this matrix}$$

also has the property that $\Lambda\bar{\Lambda} = \bar{\Lambda}\Lambda$, which gives in Equation (2). It follows from equating the entries in the (1, 2) position

$$|a|^2 + |b|^2 - 2a\bar{b} = -|a|^2 - |b|^2 + 2\bar{a}b, \text{ or } |a - b|^2 = 0,$$

so $a = b$, and hence Λ is diagonal and A is normal.

Case 2(b). This is where $x = z \neq 0$, and since $ax = bx + xy$ we have $y = a - b$, so that

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & \pm i(a-b) & a-b \\ 0 & b & \pm i(a-b) \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and this is treated in a}$$

similar way.

Proposition 2 If $A \in M_3$ with $AA^T = A^T A$ and $\overline{AA} = \overline{AA}$, then A is normal.

Proof. We show that every case reduces to the case of the Lemma 2. From Theorem 1, every matrix Λ with $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$ (Q real orthogonal) can be chosen to be one of the following three forms:

$$\text{(I)} \quad \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & x & y \\ 0 & b & z \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{(II)} \quad \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & x \\ c & d & y \\ 0 & 0 & e \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{or (III)}$$

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & x & y \\ 0 & b & c \\ 0 & d & e \end{bmatrix}.$$

We have dealt with Case (I) in Lemma 2, so consider Case (II): $\Lambda\Lambda^T = \Lambda^T\Lambda$ gives in Equation (3).

It follows that $b^2 + x^2 = c^2$, $c^2 + y^2 = b^2$, and $x^2 + y^2 = 0$, so that $x = \pm iy$.

Case 1. $x = iy \neq 0$, then since $bx + dy = ey$, $biy + dy = ey$, so $b = i(d - e)$.

Also $xe = ax + cy$ gives $xe = ax - cix$, so that $c = i(e - a)$, so Λ has the form

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & i(d-e) & iy \\ i(e-a) & d & y \\ 0 & 0 & e \end{bmatrix}$$

Now we use the fact that $\Lambda\overline{\Lambda} = \overline{\Lambda}\Lambda$. This gives in Equation (4). On equating entries in the (1, 3) position we have:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a^2 + b^2 + x^2 & ac + bd + xy & xe \\ ac + bd + xy & c^2 + d^2 + y^2 & ey \\ xe & ye & e^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 + c^2 & ab + cd & ax + cy \\ ab + cd & b^2 + d^2 & bx + dy \\ ax + cy & xb + yd & x^2 + y^2 + e^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} |a|^2 + (d-e)(\overline{e}-\overline{a}) & -ia(\overline{d}-\overline{e}) + i\overline{d}(d-e) & -ia\overline{y} + i\overline{y}(d-e) + iy\overline{e} \\ i\overline{a}(e-a) - id(\overline{e}-\overline{a}) & (e-a)(\overline{d}-\overline{e}) + |d|^2 & \overline{y}(e-a) + d\overline{y} + y\overline{e} \\ 0 & 0 & |e|^2 \end{bmatrix} \\ = \begin{bmatrix} |a|^2 + (\overline{d}-\overline{e})(e-a) & i\overline{a}(d-e) - id(\overline{d}-\overline{e}) & i\overline{a}y - iy(\overline{d}-\overline{e}) - i\overline{y}e \\ -ia(\overline{e}-\overline{a}) + i\overline{d}(e-a) & (\overline{e}-\overline{a})(d-e) + |d|^2 & y(\overline{e}-\overline{a}) + d\overline{y} + y\overline{e} \\ 0 & 0 & |e|^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

$$-a\overline{y} + \overline{y}(d-e) + y\overline{e} = \overline{a}y - y(\overline{d}-\overline{e}) - \overline{y}e$$

and simplifying gives $\overline{y}(d-a) = y(\overline{a}-\overline{d})$, so if $a \neq d$

$$\text{we have } \frac{y}{\overline{y}} = -\frac{a-d}{\overline{a}-\overline{d}}$$

Equating entries in the (2, 3) position gives:

$$\overline{y}(e-a) + d\overline{y} + y\overline{e} = y(\overline{e}-\overline{a}) + d\overline{y} + \overline{y}e,$$

and this reduces to: $\overline{y}(d-a) = y(\overline{d}-\overline{a})$, so if $a \neq d$,

$\frac{y}{\overline{y}} = \frac{a-d}{\overline{a}-\overline{d}}$, contradicting the above. We conclude that

$a = d$ and Λ is of the form

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & i(a-e) & iy \\ -i(a-e) & a & y \\ 0 & 0 & e \end{bmatrix},$$

and we can apply Lemma 2. The other possibility is that $y = 0 = x$, so that $b = \pm c$ and Λ is either of the form

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & 0 \\ b & d & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e \end{bmatrix}, \text{ a symmetric matrix (when } c = b), \text{ or of}$$

$$\text{the form } \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & iy \\ -b & a & y \\ 0 & 0 & e \end{bmatrix} \text{ (when } c = -b, \text{ since in this}$$

case $a = d$).

Case 2. $x = -iy \neq 0$, then $bx + dy = ey$ gives $b = i(e - d)$, and $ax + cy = xe$ gives $c = i(a - e)$, so that Λ has the form

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & i(e-d) & iy \\ i(a-e) & d & y \\ 0 & 0 & e \end{bmatrix}.$$

We proceed exactly as in Case 1 to reduce Λ to the

situation of Lemma 2.

In Case (III), where $\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} a & x & y \\ 0 & b & c \\ 0 & d & e \end{bmatrix}$, we proceed ex-

actly as in Case (II) to deduce the result.

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