

On a Class of Matrices with Real Eigenvalues

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ABSTRACT

It is easy to prove that if A is a real irreducible square matrix and if a real nonsingular diagonal matrix D exists such that AD is symmetric and positive semidefinite, then for any real diagonal matrix Y , AY has only real eigenvalues. This paper proves the converse result that if no such D exists, then for some Y , AY will possess some nonreal eigenvalues.

1. INTRODUCTION

It is easy to see that if A is a real irreducible square matrix for which a nonsingular real diagonal matrix D exists such that AD is symmetric and positive semidefinite, then for any real diagonal matrix Y , AY has only real eigenvalues. If AD is positive definite and has the Cholesky factorization $AD = LL^T$, then eigenvalues of AY are also eigenvalues of the symmetric matrix $L^T(D^{-1}Y)L$, and the result is clear in this case. On the other hand, if AD were positive semidefinite and AY had some nonreal eigenvalues, then a slight perturbation to the diagonals of A would make AD positive definite without shifting the nonreal eigenvalues to the real line. This contradiction shows that the case of singular A is also covered.

This paper considers the converse of this result as stated in the theorem below. It has an immediate application in the analysis of linear and nonlinear stability for a general class of numerical methods for ordinary differential equations [2, 3].

THEOREM. *If A is a real irreducible $n \times n$ matrix for which no nonsingular real $n \times n$ diagonal matrix D exists such that AD is symmetric and*

positive semidefinite, then there exists a real $n \times n$ diagonal matrix Y such that AY possesses nonreal eigenvalues.

The justification for this assertion is organized as a sequence of lemmas with a formal proof of the theorem itself at the end. We first consider the case of 2×2 matrices and matrices containing an appropriate 2×2 submatrix.

LEMMA 1. *If $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ exist such that in the $n \times n$ matrix A , $a_{ij}a_{ji} \neq 0$, and such that no nonzero d_i and d_j exist such that the 2×2 matrix*

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{ii}d_i & a_{ij}d_j \\ a_{ji}d_i & a_{jj}d_j \end{bmatrix}$$

is symmetric and positive semidefinite, then real y_i and y_j exist such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{ii}y_i & a_{ij}y_j \\ a_{ji}y_i & a_{jj}y_j \end{bmatrix}$$

has nonreal eigenvalues.

Proof. We consider three cases:

- (i) $a_{ii}a_{jj}a_{ij}a_{ji} < 0$,
- (ii) $a_{ij}a_{ji} \neq 0$, $a_{jj} = 0$,
- (iii) $a_{ii}a_{jj}a_{ij}a_{ji} > 0$, $|a_{ij}a_{ji}| > |a_{ii}a_{jj}|$

which we can easily see cover all essentially different possibilities. To obtain nonreal eigenvalues, we may choose y_i and y_j as follows:

- (i) $y_i = a_{jj}$, $y_j = a_{ii}$,
- (ii) $y_i = 4a_{ij}a_{ji}$, $y_j = -(1 + a_{ii}^2)$,
- (iii) $y_i = a_{jj}$, $y_j = -a_{ii}$. ■

2. THE CASE OF SYMMETRIC MATRICES

We now consider the possibility that although D exists such that AD is symmetric, it is not possible to find such a D for which AD is positive semidefinite. Without loss of generality, we may assume that A itself is symmetric and that it satisfies the requirements of the following lemma.

LEMMA 2. *If A is an irreducible symmetric $n \times n$ matrix with $n \geq 2$ such that the principal $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$ minor is positive definite, $a_{nn} > 0$, and $\det(A) < 0$, then a real diagonal Y exists such that AY has nonreal eigenvalues.*

Proof. Let $Y = \text{diag}(1, 1, \dots, 1, -x)$, where x is positive. Suppose that $\sigma(AY) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ for all x . If x is sufficiently small, say $x \leq x_0$, then $n - 1$ of the eigenvalues of AY are positive because their limiting values as $x \rightarrow 0$ are the positive eigenvalues of the $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$ principal submatrix. Also, because the product of the eigenvalues is $\det(AY) = -x \det(A) > 0$, the remaining eigenvalue is also positive. If $x = x_1$, where $x_1 > \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_{ii} / a_{nn}$, then, because the trace is negative but the determinant is positive, AY has at least two nonpositive eigenvalues. If $\sigma(AY) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ for all $x \in [x_0, x_1]$, the set of eigenvalues would depend continuously on x . This implies that for some $x \in [x_0, x_1]$, AY has a zero eigenvalue. Since $\det(AY) > 0$, this is impossible. ■

3. THE CASE OF 3×3 MATRICES

In this section we will assume that $n \geq 3$ and that the contingencies included within Lemmas 1 and 2 do not arise. We will consider the possibility that distinct $i, j, k \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$ exist such that $a_{ij}a_{jk}a_{ki} \neq a_{ik}a_{kj}a_{ji}$. By permuting the rows and columns, we may assume that $i = 1, j = 2, k = 3$, and, because we may choose $y_4 = y_5 = \dots = y_n = 0$, we can restrict ourselves to $n = 3$. It is convenient to divide up the work according as one of the products $a_{12}a_{23}a_{31}$ and $a_{13}a_{32}a_{21}$ is or is not equal to zero.

LEMMA 3.1. *If $n = 3$ and $a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} \neq 0, a_{13}a_{32}a_{21} = 0$, then a real diagonal Y exists such that AY has nonreal eigenvalues.*

Proof. We consider four cases:

- (i) $a_{11} = a_{22} = a_{33} = 0$,
- (ii) for one and only one i , say $i = 1, a_{ii} \neq 0$,
- (iii) for one and only one value of i , say $i = 3, a_{ii} = 0$,
- (iv) for $i = 1, 2, 3, a_{ii} \neq 0$.

In case (i), because of Lemma 1, we may assume that $a_{13} = a_{32} = a_{21} = 0$. It is found that the characteristic polynomial of AY , with $Y = I$, is given by

$$p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I) = a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} - \lambda^3,$$

which has only one real zero. In case (ii), again because of Lemma 1, we assume that $a_{13} = a_{32} = a_{21} = 0$. In this case, for $Y = \text{diag}(y_1, y_2, y_3)$,

$$p(\lambda) = \det(AY - \lambda I) = a_{12}a_{23}a_{31}y_1y_2y_3 + a_{11}y_1\lambda^2 - \lambda^3,$$

which has a nonreal pair of eigenvalues if y_2y_3 is chosen to have the same sign as $a_{11}a_{12}a_{23}a_{31}$. In case (iii), because of Lemma 1, we assume that $a_{13} = a_{32} = 0$. The characteristic polynomial of AY is

$$p(\lambda) = a_{12}a_{23}a_{31}y_1y_2y_3 - (a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21})y_1y_2\lambda + (a_{11}y_1 + a_{22}y_2)\lambda^2 - \lambda^3.$$

If $y_1 \neq 0$ and $y_2 \neq 0$ are chosen such that p' has two real zeros, say λ_1 and λ_2 , then y_3 can be chosen so that $p(\lambda) < 0$ for all $\lambda \in [\lambda_1, \lambda_2]$. It follows that p has only a single real zero. In case (iv), since $a_{21}a_{32}a_{13} = 0$, one of these factors is zero. Suppose without loss of generality that $a_{32} = 0$, and choose $Y = \text{diag}(-x a_{22}a_{33}/a_{12}a_{23}a_{31}, a_{22}^{-1}, a_{33}^{-1})$ for x positive. We find that

$$p(\lambda) = -x - x \left(\frac{a_{21}a_{33}}{a_{23}a_{31}} + \frac{a_{13}a_{22}}{a_{12}a_{23}} \right) \mu - \left(1 + x \frac{a_{11}a_{22}a_{33}}{a_{12}a_{23}a_{31}} \right) \mu^2 - \mu^3,$$

where $\mu = \lambda - 1$, which has only a single real zero if x is sufficiently small. ■

LEMMA 3.2. *If $n = 3$ and $0 \neq a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} \neq a_{13}a_{32}a_{21} \neq 0$, then a real diagonal Y exists such that AY has nonreal eigenvalues.*

Proof. Let

$$c_1 = a_{11}^2 a_{23} a_{32} - a_{12} a_{21} a_{13} a_{31},$$

$$c_2 = a_{22}^2 a_{13} a_{31} - a_{21} a_{12} a_{23} a_{32},$$

$$c_3 = a_{33}^2 a_{12} a_{21} - a_{31} a_{13} a_{32} a_{23}.$$

We note that if $c_1 \leq 0$, then we may assume that $c_2, c_3 \geq 0$, since otherwise one of the submatrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{13} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

would have been covered by Lemma 1 and because we can arbitrarily multiply by a nonsingular diagonal matrix. For the same reason we may assume that $a_{11}, a_{22}, a_{33} > 0$ and that $a_{12} = a_{21}, a_{13} = a_{31}, a_{32}/a_{23} > 1$. Let

$\theta = (a_{32}/a_{23})^{1/2}$. We also write

$$z_1 = a_{23}^2 \theta^2 a_{11} - a_{12} a_{13} a_{23} \theta,$$

$$z_2 = a_{13}^2 a_{22} - a_{12} a_{13} a_{23} \theta,$$

$$z_3 = a_{12}^2 a_{33} - a_{12} a_{13} a_{23} \theta$$

and, in cases (i), (ii) below,

$$Y = \text{diag} \left(\frac{\theta^2 a_{23}^2}{z_1}, \frac{a_{13}^2}{z_2}, \frac{a_{12}^2}{z_3} \right).$$

In cases (ii), (iii), (iv) below, where $a_{12} a_{13} a_{23} > 0$, $c_1 \leq 0$, and $c_2, c_3 \geq 0$, let $t \in [0, 1)$ and $u, v \geq 0$ be defined so that

$$a_{11} a_{23}^2 \theta^2 = a_{12} a_{13} a_{23} \theta (1 - t),$$

$$a_{13}^2 a_{22} (1 - t) = a_{12} a_{13} a_{23} \theta (1 + u),$$

$$a_{12}^2 a_{33} (1 - t) = a_{12} a_{13} a_{23} \theta (1 + v),$$

so that

$$A = D_1 \tilde{A} D_2,$$

where

$$\tilde{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1+u & (1-t)\theta^{-1} \\ 1 & (1-t)\theta & 1+v \end{bmatrix},$$

$$D_1 = \text{diag} \left(1, \frac{a_{23} \theta}{a_{13}(1-t)}, \frac{a_{23} \theta}{a_{12}(1-t)} \right),$$

$$D_2 = \text{diag} \left(\frac{a_{12} a_{13} (1-t)}{a_{23} \theta}, a_{12}, a_{13} \right).$$

We consider four cases:

- (i) $c_1, c_2, c_3 > 0$ or $a_{12} a_{13} a_{23} < 0$,
- (ii) $c_1 \leq 0$, $uv > t^2 > 0$, $a_{12} a_{13} a_{23} > 0$,
- (iii) $c_1 \leq 0$, $t^2 \geq uv > 0$, $a_{12} a_{13} a_{23} > 0$,
- (iv) $c_1 \leq 0$, one or more of t, u, v is zero, $a_{12} a_{13} a_{23} > 0$.

In case (i), we note that $z_1, z_2, z_3 > 0$. The characteristic polynomial of $AY - I$ is found to be

$$\lambda^3 - (a_{12}a_{13}a_{23}\theta)(z_1^{-1} + z_2^{-1} + z_3^{-1})\lambda^2 - \theta^2(\theta - 1)^2 \\ \times a_{12}^3 a_{13}^3 a_{23}^3 (z_1 z_2 z_3)^{-1} = \lambda^3 - \alpha\lambda^2 - \beta,$$

say, where $\alpha\beta \geq 0$, $\beta \neq 0$, and this polynomial has only one distinct real zero.

In cases (ii), (iii), (iv), because $\sigma(AY) = \sigma(\tilde{A}\tilde{Y})$, where $\tilde{Y} = D_2 Y D_1$, we may, without loss of generality, assume that A is equal to \tilde{A} . For case (ii), it is found that $z_1 = -t(1-t)$, $z_2 = u+t$, $z_3 = v+t$, so that

$$z_1 z_2 z_3 (z_1^{-1} + z_2^{-1} + z_3^{-1}) = uv - t^2 + t^2(u + v + 2t),$$

and, just as in case (i), $\alpha\beta \geq 0$, $\beta \neq 0$.

For case (iii), let the characteristic polynomial of $AY - I$ be $\lambda^3 - \alpha\lambda^2 + \beta\lambda - \gamma$. It is found that

$$\alpha = y_1 + y_2(1+u) + y_3(1+v) - 3, \\ \beta = y_1 y_2 u + y_1 y_3 v + y_2 y_3 [u + v + uv + 2t - t^2] \\ - 2[y_1 + y_2(1+u) + y_3(1+v)] + 3, \\ \gamma = y_1 y_2 y_3 [uv - t^2 + T] - \beta - \alpha - 1 \\ + y_1 y_2 y_3 [(1-t)(\theta + \theta^{-1} - 2) - T],$$

where T is an arbitrary positive number. We will show that it is always possible to select nonzero y_1, y_2, y_3 such that, simultaneously, $\beta = 0$ and $y_1 y_2 y_3 (uv - t^2 + T) = \alpha + 1$. Furthermore, in this choice of y_1, y_2, y_3 , the coefficient α will not vanish if $T = T_0 = (1-t)(\theta + \theta^{-1} - 2)$, so that, by taking T slightly different from T_0 , we can always ensure that $\alpha\gamma > 0$, $\beta = 0$, implying the existence of nonreal eigenvalues.

if $y_1 = (t-1)/t$, it is found that $\beta = 0$ implies

$$[t(u + v + uv + 2t - t^2)y_2 - (v + 2t + vt)] \\ \times [t(u + v + uv + 2t - t^2)y_3 - (u + 2t + ut)] \\ = (t^2 + u)(t^2 + v)$$

with solution

$$y_2 = [v + 2t + vt + K(t^2 + v)] [t(u + v + uv + 2t - t^2)]^{-1},$$

$$y_3 = [u + 2t + ut + K^{-1}(t^2 + u)] [t(u + v + uv + 2t - t^2)]^{-1},$$

for K a nonzero number. Substitute into $y_1 y_2 y_3 (uv - t^2 + T) = \alpha + 1$, and it is found that K must satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} & K \left[(t^2 + v)^2 (t + u)^2 + T(t^2 + v)(1 - t)(u + 2t + ut) \right] \\ & + K^{-1} \left[(t^2 + u)^2 (t + v)^2 + T(t^2 + u)(1 - t)(v + 2t + vt) \right] \\ & + \left[2(t^2 + u)(t^2 + v)(t + u)(t + v) \right. \\ & \left. + T(1 - t)(t^4 + t^3(4 + 3u + 3v + uv) + t(2u + 2v + 2uv) + 2uv) \right] = 0. \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

Multiply by K and write down the condition for the resulting quadratic equation to have distinct real roots. This condition is found to be $T(PT + Q) > 0$, where

$$P = (1 - t)^2 t^2 (t + 2)^2 (t^2 - 2t - u - v - uv)^2 \geq 0,$$

$$Q = 4(1 - t)(t^2 + u)(t^2 + v)tR(t)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} R(t) &= t^5 - 4t^4 + (4 - 2u - 2v - 2uv)t^3 + (4u + 4v + 3uv)t^2 \\ &+ \left[(u + v)^2 + uv(u + v + uv) \right] t - u^2 v^2. \end{aligned}$$

It is found that

$$R((uv)^{1/2}) = (uv)^{1/2} (u^{1/2} + v^{1/2})^2 \left[u + v + (uv)^{1/2} (2 - (uv)^{1/2}) \right] > 0$$

and that

$$\begin{aligned} R'(t) &= t^2(2 - t)(6 - 5t) + t(u + v)(8 - 6t) \\ &+ 6uvt(1 - t) + (u + v)^2 + uv(u + v + uv) \\ &> 0 \end{aligned}$$

for $t \in [(uv)^{1/2}, 1]$, implying that $T(PT + Q)$ is always positive for $uv \leq t^2 < 1$. Hence, (3.1) always has two real distinct roots, and the corresponding values of y_2 and y_3 lead to $\beta = 0$ and $\gamma = y_1 y_2 y_3 (T_0 - T)$. The possibility that $\alpha = 0$ for each of the two values of K can be dismissed, because if this were so, then the left hand side of (3.1), regarded as a function of K , would be a multiple of the equation for $\alpha = 0$, which is

$$K(1+u)(t^2+v) + K^{-1}(1+v)(t^2+u) + [uv + t(-2+u+v) - 3t^2 + 2t^3] = 0. \quad (3.2)$$

If the coefficients of K and K^{-1} in (3.1) and (3.2) are in proportion, it is found that

$$(u-v)(1-t)^2(uv - t^2 + T) = 0.$$

This implies either $T + uv - t^2 = 0$, giving the value $\alpha = -1$, or else $v = u$. This latter possibility must be rejected because for $u \leq t < 1$, the constant term in (3.1) is positive and the constant term in (3.2) is equal to

$$g(t) = u^2 + t(-2 + 2u) - 3t^2 + 2t^3,$$

which is negative, since $g(u) = -2u(1-u^2) < 0$ and $g'(t) = -2(1-u) - 6t(1-t) < 0$.

For case (iv), in which $tuv = 0$, we assume without loss of generality that $v \geq u$. We consider four subcases:

- (A) $t = 0, u, v > 0$,
- (B) $t = u = 0, v > 0$,
- (C) $t = u = v = 0$,
- (D) $u = 0, t, v > 0$.

For subcase (A), choose $Y = \text{diag}(1, x/u, x/v)$, where $x > 0$. For λ an eigenvalue of AY , let $\mu = x/\lambda$, so that μ satisfies the equation

$$\left(1 + \frac{\theta + \theta^{-1} - 2}{uv}\right) \mu^3 - [2 + x(1 + u^{-1} + v^{-1})] \mu^2 + [1 + x(2 + u^{-1} + v^{-1})] \mu - x = 0.$$

For x sufficiently small, this has only one real root, as can be seen by considering the limiting case.

For subcase (B), choose $Y = \text{diag}(1, 1, x)$ and let $\mu = \lambda^{-1}$ for λ an eigenvalue, so that μ satisfies

$$g(\mu) = x(\theta + \theta^{-1} - 2)\mu^3 - 2xv\mu^2 + [2 + x(1 + v)]\mu - 1 = 0.$$

For x sufficiently small, the quadratic

$$g'(\mu) = 3x(\theta + \theta^{-1} - 2)\mu^2 - 4xv\mu + [2 + x(1 + v)]$$

has nonreal zeros, implying that the same holds for g .

For subcase (C), choose $Y = I$ so that the characteristic polynomial is $(\theta + \theta^{-1} - 2) + 3\lambda^2 - \lambda^3$ which has nonreal zeros.

In subcase (D), the argument in case (iii) can be repeated, the only changes being that now $R(0) = 0$, $R'(t) > 0$, implying that $R(t) > 0$ for $t \in (0, 1)$, and that now the option $v = u$ does not need to be considered. ■

4. FURTHER CASES WITH $n \geq 4$

In this section we consider the case $n \geq 4$ in which no nonsingular diagonal D exists for which AD can be symmetric. We first establish a preliminary result, for which the proof makes use of some standard terminology and some elementary results from the theory of graphs [1].

LEMMA 4.1. *Let A be an irreducible $n \times n$ matrix for which no nonsingular diagonal matrix D exists such that AD is symmetric. Then there exists an integer $m \leq n$ and distinct $N(1), N(2), \dots, N(m) \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, such that the $m \times m$ matrix B with elements defined by $b_{ij} = a_{N(i), N(j)}$ has the properties*

$$b_{ij} = 0 \quad \text{unless} \quad |i - j| = 0, 1, \text{ or } m - 1,$$

$$b_{1m} b_{m, m-1} \cdots b_{32} b_{21} \neq b_{12} b_{23} \cdots b_{m-1, m} b_{m1} \neq 0. \quad (4.1)$$

Proof. Let G denote the digraph with vertex set $V = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and edge set $E = \{(i, j) : a_{ij} \neq 0, i \neq j\}$. Because A is irreducible, any two members of V are path-connected. We distinguish two cases:

- (i) G is not symmetric,
- (ii) G is symmetric.

In case (i) there exists a pair of vertices I, J such that $(I, J) \in E$, $(J, I) \notin E$. Choose a path from J to I , and consider the cycle made up from I, J , and

the remaining members of the path from J to I . In case (ii), let T denote a tree spanning the vertex set V for which $\{i, j\}$ is an arc of T only if (i, j) is a member of E . For each arc $\{i, j\}$ of T , define the ratio d_i/d_j , so that $a_{ij}d_j = a_{ji}d_i$. Up to an arbitrary nonzero factor, this defines d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n uniquely. Since AD is not symmetric, there exist I, J such that, with the values of the D elements that have been assigned, $a_{IJ}d_J \neq a_{JI}d_I$. Select a cycle in G made up from (I, J) together with the sequence of edges connecting J to I corresponding to arcs in T .

In both cases (i) and (ii), we have identified a cycle in G , made up from vertices $N(1), N(2), \dots, N(m)$ such that $b_{1m}b_{m,m-1} \cdots b_{32}b_{21} \neq b_{12}b_{23} \cdots b_{m-1,m}b_{m1} \neq 0$. Without loss of generality, suppose that amongst all cycles with this property, the length m is the minimum possible value. It is easy to verify that this implies the impossibility of an edge $(N(i), N(j))$ in E unless (4.1) is satisfied. ■

For the type of matrix under consideration in this section, we can, according to Lemma 4.1, restrict ourselves to matrices of the form given in the next result.

LEMMA 4.2. *If A is given by*

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_{43} & a_{44} & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{n-1,n-1} & a_{n-1,n} \\ a_{n1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{n,n-1} & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix},$$

where

$$a_{1n}a_{n,n-1}a_{n-1,n-2} \cdots a_{2i} \neq a_{12}a_{23} \cdots a_{ni} \neq 0,$$

then Y exists such that AY has nonreal eigenvalues.

Proof. We distinguish two cases:

- (i) all diagonal elements of A are zero,
- (ii) at least one diagonal element of A , say a_{11} , is nonzero.

In case (i), because of Lemma 1,

$$a_{1n} = a_{n,n-1} = a_{n-1,n-2} = \dots = a_{21} = 0.$$

Hence, with Y defined so that

$$\det(Y) = (a_{12}a_{23} \cdots a_{n1})^{-1},$$

it is found that AY has eigenvalues equal to $\exp(2\pi ki/n)$, for $k = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$. In case (ii), we assume that the result of this lemma is already proved for lower integers than n . Since the case $n = 3$ has already been established in Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2, the proof for any n will then follow by an induction argument. Let $\tilde{Y} = \text{diag}(y_2, y_3, \dots, y_n)$ be chosen such that for the $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$ matrix

$$\tilde{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} - \frac{a_{12}a_{21}}{a_{11}} & a_{23} & 0 & \cdots & -\frac{a_{21}a_{1n}}{a_{11}} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & a_{43} & a_{44} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -\frac{a_{n1}a_{12}}{a_{11}} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{nn} - \frac{a_{n1}a_{1n}}{a_{11}} \end{bmatrix},$$

$\tilde{A}\tilde{Y}$ possesses nonreal eigenvalues. Let $Y = \text{diag}(1, xy_2, xy_3, \dots, xy_n)$; the characteristic polynomial of AY is found to satisfy the relation

$$\det(AY - x\lambda I) = a_{11}x^{n-1}\det(\tilde{A}\tilde{Y} - \lambda I) - x^n\lambda\det(\hat{A}\tilde{Y} - \lambda I),$$

where \hat{A} is identical with A except for the deletion of the first row and first column. For sufficiently small x it is easy to see (for example by the Rouché theorem) that if $\tilde{\lambda}$ is a complex eigenvalue of \tilde{A} , then there is an eigenvalue λ of A such that $x^{-1}\lambda$ is arbitrarily close to $\tilde{\lambda}$. ■

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

It remains to present the formal justification of the main result.

Proof of the Theorem. In the case $n = 2$, the existence of Y is shown in Lemma 1.

If a nonsingular diagonal D exists such that AD is symmetric but cannot be made positive semidefinite, then without loss of generality, we may suppose that $D = I$, and that at least one diagonal element of A , say a_{11} , is positive. Since A is irreducible and can be assumed to have no submatrix covered by Lemma 1, it follows that all diagonals are positive. We can now construct a set of indices I such that if \tilde{A} is the submatrix formed by selecting only those rows and columns of A whose index numbers lie in I , then \tilde{A} has the determinants of all its proper principal minors positive, but the determinant of \tilde{A} itself is negative. An algorithm for constructing this index set is to generate in turn index sets I_1, I_2, \dots such that $I_1 = \{1\}$, and for $k = 2, 3, \dots$, $I_k = I_{k-1}$ if $d(I_{k-1} \cup \{k\}) = 0$ and $I_k = I_{k-1} \cup \{k\}$ otherwise, where for an index set J , $d(J)$ is the determinant of the corresponding submatrix. The index set I is then defined as the first I_k for which $d(I_k) < 0$. The matrix \tilde{A} then satisfies the requirements of Lemma 2.

Hence, if nonsingular D exists such that AD is symmetric, but cannot be positive semidefinite, then Y can be found so that AY has nonreal eigenvalues.

We now consider the alternative possibility that no nonsingular D exists for which AD is symmetric. If $n = 3$, or an appropriate submatrix of this size exists, then the existence of Y is proved in Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2. Finally, if $n \geq 4$, we have shown in Lemma 4.1 that A must contain a submatrix of a particular form. If the size of the submatrix is less than 4, then the result is covered by Lemmas 1, 3.1, and 3.2. If $n \geq 4$, then the existence of Y is proved in Lemma 4.2. ■

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