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# Bidiagonal factorizations with some parameters equal to zero

ABSTRACT

equal to zero.

Motivated by the results of Fiedler and Markham [2], we provide

necessary and sufficient conditions for a matrix to have a bidiagonal

factorization with some of the parameters of the bidiagonal factors

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# Rong Huang<sup>\*,1</sup>, Jianzhou Liu<sup>2</sup>

School of Mathematics and Computational Science, Xiangtan University, Xiangtan 411105, Hunan, China

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#### 1. Introduction

Denote by  $E_j(x)$  an elementary matrix obtained from  $I_n$  by changing the (j, j - 1)th entry to x. Matrices of the form  $E_j(x)$  or  $E_j^T(x)$  are called *elementary bidiagonal matrices*. An *n*-by-*n* matrix A has an elementary bidiagonal factorization if it can be factorized as

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: rongh98@yahoo.cn (R. Huang), liujz@xtu.edu.cn (J. Liu).

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$$A = \left(\prod_{k=1}^{n-1}\prod_{j=n}^{k+1}E_j(\alpha_{jk})\right)D\left(\prod_{k=n-1}^{1}\prod_{j=k+1}^{n}E_j^T(\beta_{kj})\right)$$

where *D* is diagonal, and the parameters  $\alpha_{jk}$  and  $\beta_{kj}$  are zero or nonzero. Throughout the paper, let us denote the bidiagonal matrices

$$B_{i} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & & \\ 0 & 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & & & \\ & & & \alpha_{n-i+1,1} & 1 & & \\ & & & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & \alpha_{ni} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
(1)

and

$$C_{i} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & & \\ & & 1 & 0 & & & \\ & & & 1 & \beta_{1,n-i+1} & & \\ & & & & 1 & \beta_{in} \\ & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
(2)

for i = 1, ..., n - 1. Notice that  $E_j(x)E_i(y) = E_i(y)E_j(x)$  if  $|i - j| \neq 1$ . Thus, the elementary bidiagonal factorization above can be easily written as

$$A = B_1 \cdots B_{n-1} D C_{n-1} \cdots C_1, \tag{3}$$

which is called the bidiagonal factorization of *A*. Most previous contributions in the literature have been devoted to get a bidiagonal factorization of the form (3), see [3–7]. For example, it is well known that the bidiagonal factorization always exists for a nonsingular totally nonnegative matrix [3,6]. In view of applications, the bidiagonal factorization is very useful. Given this factorization, Koev [9,10] presented new algorithms that compute the inverse, *LDU* decomposition, eigenvalues, and *SVD* of totally nonnegative matrices to high relative accuracy, independent of the conventional condition number. The idea of using bidiagonal factorizations can also be applied to solve linear systems, see [8].

Therefore, it is natural to consider necessary and sufficient conditions for a matrix to have a bidiagonal factorization of the form (3). Fiedler and Markham [1,2] first studied the interesting problem, and provided the necessary and sufficient conditions for a matrix A to have a bidiagonal factorization of the form (3) with all the parameters  $\alpha_{ij}$  and  $\beta_{ij}$  nonzero. To present their main result, we next need to list some notations. Let  $N = \{1, ..., n\}$ ,  $N_1 \subset N$  and  $N_2 \subset N$ . Denote by  $A(N_1|N_2)$  the submatrix of A with rows and columns indexed by  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ , respectively. In the sequel, we only consider matrices of order n on the complex field  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 1** [2]. Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ . If all the submatrices

$$A(i-j+1,\ldots,i|1,2,\ldots,j)$$
 for any  $i \ge j$ 

and

$$A(1, 2, ..., i | j - i + 1, ..., j)$$
 for any  $i \leq j$ 

are nonsingular, then A is called totally nonsingular.

The main result by Fiedler and Markham is the following theorem.

**Theorem 2** [1,2]. Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  be nonsingular. Then A is a totally nonsingular matrix if and only if it admits a factorization of the form

 $A = B_1 \cdots B_{n-1} DC_{n-1} \cdots C_1$ 

where D is a nonsingular diagonal matrix, all subdiagonal entries  $\alpha_{ij}$  are nonzero, and all superdiagonal entries  $\beta_{ij}$  are nonzero.

However, the condition that all the parameters  $\alpha_{ij}$  and  $\beta_{ij}$  are nonzero can be weakened as shown by the following example.

Example 1. Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then A can be factorized as

$$A = B_1 B_2 D C_2 C_1$$

where D = diag(1, -1, 1), but the parameters

$$\alpha_{31} = 0$$
,  $\alpha_{21} = 2$ ,  $\alpha_{32} = -3$ ,  $\beta_{13} = 0$ ,  $\beta_{12} = 1$ ,  $\beta_{23} = 0$ 

Therefore, our aim of this paper is to provide necessary and sufficient conditions for a matrix to have a bidiagonal factorization of the form (3) with some of the parameters of the bidiagonal factors equal to zero. For our main result, we first introduce a new class of matrices as follows.

Given a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ . Consider the (i, j)-place of A with  $i \ge j$ . Let t be the maximal integer,  $1 \le t \le j$ , such that A(i - j + t | 1, 2, ..., t - 1) is a zero or void matrix. Then

 $A_{(ii)} = A(i - j + t, \dots, i | t, t + 1, \dots, j)$ 

is called *a relevant submatrix in the* (i, j)-place by referring to [1]. Similarly, for the (i, j)-place with  $i \leq j$ , let *t* be the maximal integer,  $1 \leq t \leq i$ , such that A(1, 2, ..., t - 1|j - i + t) is a zero or void matrix. Then

$$A_{(ij)} = A(t, t + 1, ..., i | j - i + t, ..., j)$$

is called *a relevant submatrix in the* (i, j)*-place.* In general, we call all these matrices *relevant submatrices.* For example, let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & 0 \\ * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

where \* means the corresponding entry is nonzero. Then the relevant submatrix in the (4, 3)-place is  $A_{(43)} = A(4|3)$ , and the relevant submatrix in the (4, 4)-place is  $A_{(44)} = A(3, 4|3, 4)$ .

**Definition 3.** Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ . If the relevant submatrices in all places of A satisfy that

$$\det A_{(ij)} \neq 0 \text{ and } i \ge j \Rightarrow \det A_{(sr)} \neq 0, \quad \text{whenever} \quad i \ge s \ge r \ge j, \tag{4}$$

and

$$\det A_{(ii)} \neq 0 \text{ and } i \leq j \Rightarrow \det A_{(sr)} \neq 0, \quad \text{whenever} \quad j \geq r \geq s \geq i, \tag{5}$$

then A is called almost totally nonsingular.

Example 2. Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & 8 & 17 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus,  $A_{(31)} = (3)$  is nonsingular, and  $A_{(21)}$ ,  $A_{(11)}$ ,  $A_{(32)}$ ,  $A_{(22)}$  and  $A_{(33)}$  are nonsingular;  $A_{(43)}$  and  $A_{(44)}$  are nonsingular;  $A_{(12)}$ ,  $A_{(23)}$  and  $A_{(34)}$  are nonsingular. Therefore, it is verified that A is almost totally nonsingular.

Our main result is the following theorem.

**Theorem 4.** Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  be nonsingular. Then A is almost totally nonsingular if and only if it admits a factorization of the form

$$A = B_1 \cdots B_{n-1} DC_{n-1} \cdots C_n$$

where D is a nonsingular diagonal matrix, all subdiagonal entries  $\alpha_{ii}$  (i > j) satisfy that

 $\alpha_{ij} \neq 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_{sr} \neq 0$ , whenever  $i \ge s > r \ge j$ ; (6)

and all superdiagonal entries  $\beta_{ii}$  (i < j) satisfy that

 $\beta_{ij} \neq 0 \Rightarrow \beta_{sr} \neq 0$ , whenever  $j \ge r > s \ge i$ . (7)

The proof will be given in the final part.

**Remark 1.** Suppose that  $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is almost totally nonsingular. If  $A_{(n1)}$  is nonsingular, i.e,  $a_{n1} \neq 0$ , then we have by (4) that  $a_{11} \neq 0, \ldots, a_{n-1,1} \neq 0$ , and

 $A_{(ij)} = A(i - j + 1, \dots, i | 1, 2, \dots, j)$  is nonsingular for any  $i \ge j$ ;

if  $A_{(1n)}$  is nonsingular, i.e,  $a_{1n} \neq 0$ , then we have by (5) that  $a_{11} \neq 0, \ldots, a_{1,n-1} \neq 0$ , and

 $A_{(ii)} = A(1, 2, \dots, i|j - i + 1, \dots, j)$  is nonsingular for any  $i \leq j$ .

So *A* is totally nonsingular. Thus, it shows that the class of almost totally nonsingular matrices is a proper extension of the class of totally nonsingular matrices. This also means that Theorem 4 is a proper extension of Theorem 2 by Fiedler and Markham.

# 2. Almost totally nonsingular matrices

In this section, we will provide some results on almost totally nonsingular matrices. Given a matrix  $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  with no zero row and no zero column. Denote

$$i_{0} = 1, \text{ for } t = 1, 2, \dots :$$

$$i_{t} = \max \left\{ i | a_{i,j_{t-1}} \neq 0 \right\}$$

$$j_{t} = \min \left\{ j | a_{i_{t}+1,j} \neq 0 \right\}.$$
(8)

Analogously, denote

$$i_{0} = 1, \text{ for } t = 1, 2, \dots :$$

$$\tilde{j}_{t} = \max \left\{ j | a_{\tilde{i}_{t-1}, j} \neq 0 \right\}$$

$$\tilde{i}_{t} = \min \left\{ i | a_{i\tilde{j}_{t+1}} \neq 0 \right\}.$$
(9)

In the sequel, we write the index sets

$$I = \{i_1, \dots, i_l\}, \quad J = \{j_1, \dots, j_{l-1}\}, \quad \widetilde{I} = \{\widetilde{i}_1, \dots, \widetilde{i}_{r-1}\}, \quad \widetilde{J} = \{\widetilde{j}_1, \dots, \widetilde{j}_r\}$$
(10)

where  $i_l = n$  and  $\tilde{j}_r = n$ . If  $i_t < i_{t+1}$  for all t, then we say that the index set I is strictly increasing.

**Definition 5.** Given a matrix  $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  with strictly increasing index sets  $I, J, \tilde{I}$  and  $\tilde{J}$  by (10). If  $a_{ij} = 0$  for all  $i_k < i \le i_{k+1}, 1 \le j < j_k$  (k = 1, ..., l - 1); and  $a_{ij} = 0$  for all  $1 \le i < \tilde{i}_k, \tilde{j}_k < j \le \tilde{j}_{k+1}$  (k = 1, ..., r - 1), then we say A has a ( $I, J; \tilde{I}, \tilde{J}$ ) zero pattern.

**Theorem 6.** Suppose that a nonsingular matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is almost totally nonsingular. Let the index sets *I*, *J*, *I* and *J* be obtained by (8) and (9), respectively. Then A has a  $(I, J; \tilde{I}, \tilde{J})$  zero pattern, i.e., A is of the following form

$\begin{bmatrix} * & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	
*	
	(11)
0 ··· 0 *	

where \* means the corresponding entry is nonzero.

**Proof.** Since  $A = (a_{ij})$  is nonsingular, by using the procedures (8) and (9), it is true to assume that the index sets *I*, *J*,  $\tilde{I}$  and  $\tilde{J}$  are of the from (10). Furthermore, both the index sets *I* and  $\tilde{J}$  are strictly increasing. Now assume that  $a_{i'j} \neq 0$  for some  $i_k < i' \leq i_{k+1}$  and  $1 \leq j < j_k$  with i' minimal  $(1 \leq k \leq l)$ . Obviously  $i' \neq i_k + 1$ ; otherwise  $j \geq j_k$  by (8), a contradiction. So  $i_k < i' - 1 \leq i_{k+1}$ , and thus

$$a_{i'-1,s} = 0 \quad \text{for all} \quad 1 \le s < j_k \tag{12}$$

by the minimality of i'. Now let us choose  $a_{i'j'} \neq 0$  with  $1 \leq j' < j_k$  minimal. According to the minimality of j', we have A(i'|1, 2, ..., j' - 1) = 0. Thus it follows that the relevant submatrix

$$A_{(i'i')} = A(i'|j')$$

is nonsingular. Since A is almost totally nonsingular, it follows by (4) that the relevant submatrix  $A_{(i'-1,j')}$  is nonsingular, which is impossible because  $A_{(i'-1,j')} = 0$  by (12). Therefore, we get that  $a_{ij} = 0$  for any  $i_k < i \le i_{k+1}$  and  $1 \le j < j_k$  (k = 1, ..., l - 1). Applying the same argument to  $A^T$ , we have that  $a_{ij} = 0$  for any  $1 \le i < \tilde{i}_k$  and  $\tilde{j}_k < j \le \tilde{j}_{k+1}$  (k = 1, ..., r - 1).

Next we show that the index set *J* is strictly increasing. In fact, if we assume that there exists a *k* such that  $j_{k-1} > j_k$  ( $2 \le k \le l$ ), according to the conclusion above, then

$$a_{i_k,1} = 0$$
,  $a_{i_k,2} = 0$ ,...,  $a_{i_k,j_k} = 0$ ,...,  $a_{i_k,j_{k-1}-1} = 0$ .

So the relevant submatrix  $A_{(i_k,j_k)} = 0$ . However, since

$$A_{(i_k+1,j_k)} = A(i_k+1|j_k)$$

is nonsingular,  $A_{(i_k j_k)}$  is nonsingular because A is almost totally nonsingular, a contradiction. So the index set J is strictly increasing. Similarly, we have that the index set  $\tilde{I}$  is strictly increasing. Thus A has a  $(I, J; \tilde{I}, \tilde{J})$  zero pattern of the form (11).  $\Box$ 

According to Theorem 6, we immediately have the following result.

**Corollary 7.** Suppose that a nonsingular matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is almost totally nonsingular. If  $A(i|1, \ldots, j) = 0$  for some  $i \ge j$ , then  $A(i, \ldots, n|1, \ldots, j) = 0$ ; if  $A(1, \ldots, i|j) = 0$  for some  $i \le j$ , then  $A(1, \ldots, i|j, \ldots, n) = 0$ .

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**Theorem 8.** Suppose that a nonsingular matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is almost totally nonsingular. Then A has a factorization A = BDC, where D is a nonsingular diagonal matrix, B (C) is unit lower (upper) triangular.

**Proof.** Set  $N_k = \{1, 2, ..., k\}$  for k = 1, 2, ..., n. We start the proof by proving that  $A(N_k|N_k)$  is nonsingular for all k. Now assume that  $A(N_t|N_t)$  is singular for some  $1 \le t \le n$  with t minimal. Then we must have that  $a_{t1} = a_{t2} = \cdots = a_{tt} = 0$ ; otherwise it is easy to verify by (4) that the relevant submatrix  $A_{(tt)}$  is nonsingular because A is almost totally nonsingular. From that it follows that

- if  $A_{(tt)} = A(N_t|N_t)$ , then  $A(N_t|N_t)$  is nonsingular, a contradiction;
- if  $A_{(tt)} = A(r, \ldots, t | r, \ldots, t)$   $(r \le t)$ , then  $A(r | 1, \ldots, r 1) = 0$ , and thus using Corollary 7 we have

 $\det A(N_t|N_t) = \det A(N_{r-1}|N_{r-1}) \cdot \det A(r,\ldots,t|r,\ldots,t) \neq 0$ 

by considering that *t* is minimal, a contradiction.

So A(t|1,...,t) = 0. However, we have from Corollary 7 that A(t,...,n|1,...,t) = 0, which implies that A is singular, a contradiction. Hence, we must have that  $A(N_k|N_k)$  is nonsingular for all k, and the result follows.  $\Box$ 

# 3. Bidiagonal factorizations

**Theorem 9.** Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  be nonsingular. Then A is almost totally nonsingular if and only if it can be factorized as A = BDC, where D is a nonsingular diagonal matrix, and B (C) is a unit lower (upper) triangular and almost totally nonsingular matrix.

**Proof.** First assume that *A* is almost totally nonsingular. According to Theorem 8, it is sufficient to show that both *B* and *C* are almost totally nonsingular. Now consider the relevant submatrix  $B_{(ij)} = B(i - j + t, ..., i | t, t + 1, ..., j)$  for any  $i \ge j$ . So B(i - j + t | 1, 2, ..., t - 1) = 0 with *t* maximal by the definition. Since A = BDC, it is not difficult to show that

A(i - j + t | 1, 2, ..., t - 1) = 0 with *t* maximal;

otherwise if there exists  $t_1 > t$  such that  $A(i - j + t_1 | 1, 2, ..., t_1 - 1) = 0$ , then it is easy to show that  $B(i - j + t_1 | 1, 2, ..., t_1 - 1) = 0$ , a contradiction. Thus the relevant submatrix  $A_{(ij)} = A(i - j + t_1, ..., i|t, t + 1, ..., j)$ , and

$$A(i - j + t | 1, 2, ..., t - 1) = 0 \Rightarrow A(i - j + t, ..., n | 1, 2, ..., t - 1) = 0 \text{ (by Corollary 7)}$$
  
$$\Rightarrow B(i - j + t, ..., n | 1, 2, ..., t - 1) = 0.$$

Hence, we have

$$A_{(ij)} = B_{(ij)} D_{(j)} C_{(j)}$$
(13)

where  $D_{(j)} = D(t, ..., j | t, ..., j)$  and  $C_{(j)} = C(t, ..., j | t, ..., j)$ . Therefore, since A is almost totally nonsingular, it follows from (13) that

det 
$$B_{(ij)} \neq 0$$
 and  $i \ge j \Rightarrow$  det  $A_{(ij)} \neq 0$   
 $\Rightarrow$  det  $A_{(sr)} \neq 0$  whenever  $i \ge s \ge r \ge j$   
 $\Rightarrow$  det  $B_{(sr)} \neq 0$  whenever  $i \ge s \ge r \ge j$ .

Thus the lower triangular matrix B is almost totally nonsingular. Similarly, we have that the upper triangular matrix C is almost totally nonsingular.

Conversely, let us consider the relevant submatrix  $A_{(ij)} = A(i - j + t, ..., i|t, t + 1, ..., j)$  for any  $i \ge j$ . So A(i - j + t|1, 2, ..., t - 1) = 0 with t maximal by the definition. Since A = BDC, it is not difficult to show that

B(i - j + t | 1, 2, ..., t - 1) = 0 with *t* maximal;

otherwise if there exists  $t_1 > t$  such that  $B(i - j + t_1 | 1, 2, ..., t_1 - 1) = 0$ , then it is easy to show that  $A(i - j + t_1 | 1, 2, ..., t_1 - 1) = 0$ , a contradiction. Thus the relevant submatrix  $B_{(ij)} = B(i - j + t_1, ..., i | t, t + 1, ..., j)$ , and B(i - j + t, ..., n | 1, 2, ..., t - 1) = 0 by Corollary 7. Hence, we get

$$A_{(ij)} = B_{(ij)}D_{(j)}C_{(j)}$$
(14)

where  $D_{(j)} = D(t, ..., j | t, ..., j)$  and  $C_{(j)} = C(t, ..., j | t, ..., j)$ . Therefore, since *B* is almost totally nonsingular, it follows from (14) that

$$\det A_{(ij)} \neq 0 \text{ and } i \ge j \Rightarrow \det B_{(ij)} \neq 0$$
  
$$\Rightarrow \det B_{(sr)} \neq 0 \text{ whenever } i \ge s \ge r \ge j$$
  
$$\Rightarrow \det A_{(sr)} \neq 0 \text{ whenever } i \ge s \ge r \ge j.$$

Similarly, we have

det  $A_{(ij)} \neq 0$  and  $i \leq j \Rightarrow \det A_{(sr)} \neq 0$  whenever  $j \geq r \geq s \geq i$ .

So *A* is almost totally nonsingular.  $\Box$ 

### Example 3. Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & -33 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & -6 & -8 & 3 \\ 0 & -12 & 0 & 27 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then A is almost totally nonsingular. It is easy to show that

$$A = LDU = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ 7 & 1 & & \\ 0 & -3 & 1 & \\ 0 & -6 & 6 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ 2 & & & \\ & & 4 & \\ & & & 9 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 0 & 0 \\ & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ & & 1 & \frac{3}{4} \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

where *L*, *D* and *U* are almost totally nonsingular, respectively.

**Lemma 10.** Let  $B = B_1 B_2 \cdots B_{n-1} = (b_{ij})$  where all subdiagonal entries  $\alpha_{ij}$  satisfy (6). If  $\alpha_{rs} = 0$ , then  $b_{ij} = 0$  for all  $i \ge r$  and  $j \le s$ .

**Proof.** To prove the result, we apply induction on the order *n* of *B*. The case n = 2 is trivial. Now assume that the result is true for all orders less than *n*. Observe that

$$B_{i} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & & \\ 1 & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & \\ & & & \alpha_{n-i+1,1} & 1 & & \\ & & & & 1 & & \\ & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & & \\ 0 & 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & & & \\ & & & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & & & \alpha_{n-i+2,2} & 1 & \\ & & & & & \alpha_{n-i+2,2} & 1 & \\ & & & & & \alpha_{ni} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= E_{n-i+1}(\alpha_{n-i+1,1}) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & B'_{i} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence, it is not difficult to show that

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$$B = E_{n}(\alpha_{n1}) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ B'_{1} \end{pmatrix} E_{n-1}(\alpha_{n-1,1}) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ B'_{2} \end{pmatrix} \cdots E_{2}(\alpha_{21}) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ B'_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$
  
=  $E_{n}(\alpha_{n1}) \cdots E_{2}(\alpha_{21}) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ B'_{1} \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ B'_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$   
=  $E_{n}(\alpha_{n1}) \cdots E_{2}(\alpha_{21}) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ B'_{1} \cdots B'_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$ . (15)

Set  $\alpha_{rs} = 0$ . Then  $\alpha_{ij} = 0$  for all  $i \ge r$  and  $j \le s$  because of the condition (6). Thus, if s = 1, obviously  $b_{i1} = 0$  for all  $i \ge r$  by (15); if s > 1, then  $\alpha_{i1} = 0$  for all  $i \ge r$ , and thus by applying our inductive assumption, we easily conclude that the result is true by (15).  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 11.** Suppose  $H = B_{n-k} \cdots B_{n-1} = (h_{ij})$  for any  $1 \le k \le n-1$ . Then H is a lower banded matrix with at most k nonzero subdiagonals, where  $h_{ij} = 0$  for any i - j > k and  $h_{ij} = \alpha_{j+1,j} \cdots \alpha_{ij}$  for any i - j = k.

**Proof.** To prove the result, we apply induction on *k*. The case k = 1 is trivial. Now assume that the result is true for any *r* with r < k. Then it is easy to show that the result is true if we consider the form

$$H = B_{n-k}(B_{n-(k-1)}\cdots B_{n-1})$$

by using the inductive assumption.  $\Box$ 

Next we point out some important facts that will be used. Suppose  $B = B_1 \cdots B_{n-1}$  where all subdiagonal entries  $\alpha_{ij}$  satisfy the condition (6). Now consider the relevant submatrix  $B_{(rs)} = B(r - s + t, ..., r | t, t + 1, ..., s)$  for any  $r \ge s$ . Then

$$B(r - s + t|1, ..., t - 1) = 0$$
 with t maximal. (16)

Thus the following statements are true:

• Since B(r - s + t|1, ..., t - 1) = 0, we must have  $\alpha_{r-s+t,1} = 0, \alpha_{r-s+t,2} = 0, ..., \alpha_{r-s+t,t-1} = 0.$  (17)

In fact, if we assume that  $\alpha_{r-s+t,1} = \cdots = \alpha_{r-s+t,k-1} = 0$  and  $\alpha_{r-s+t,k} \neq 0$  ( $k \leq t - 1$ ), then using Lemma 11 it is not difficult to show that

$$B(r - s + t|k) = (B_{n-(r-s+t)+k} \cdots B_{n-1})(r - s + t|k) = \alpha_{k+1,k} \cdots \alpha_{r-s+t,k} \neq 0$$

by considering (6), a contradiction.

• If  $\alpha_{rs} \neq 0$ , then

$$\alpha_{r-s+t,t} \neq 0, \, \alpha_{r-s+t+1,t+1} \neq 0, \dots, \, \alpha_{rs} \neq 0.$$
<sup>(18)</sup>

In fact, if  $\alpha_{r-s+i,i} = 0$  ( $t \le i \le s$ ), by Lemma 10, then B(r-s+i,...,n|1,...,i) = 0. So B(r-s+i+1|1,...,i) = 0, which contradicts (16).

It follows that

$$\det B_{(rs)} \neq 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_{rs} \neq 0; \tag{19}$$

otherwise if  $\alpha_{rs} = 0$ , by Lemma 10, then B(r, ..., n|1, ..., s) = 0. So the relevant submatrix  $B_{(rs)} = B(r|s) = 0$ , a contradiction.

**Lemma 12.** Suppose  $B = B_1 \cdots B_{n-1}$  where all subdiagonal entries  $\alpha_{ij}$  satisfy the condition (6). Then B is almost totally nonsingular.

**Proof.** Consider the relevant submatrix  $B_{(rs)} = B(r - s + t, ..., r | t, t + 1, ..., s)$  for any  $r \ge s$ . Now we show that if  $\alpha_{rs} \ne 0$ , then det  $B_{(rs)} \ne 0$ .

Partition the matrices

$$B_k = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11}^{(k)} & 0 & 0 \\ B_{21}^{(k)} & B_{22}^{(k)} & 0 \\ B_{31}^{(k)} & B_{32}^{(k)} & B_{33}^{(k)} \end{pmatrix}, \quad k = 1, \dots, n - r + s - 1$$

where all  $B_{11}^{(k)}$  are  $(r - s + t - 1) \times (r - s + t - 1)$ , and all  $B_{22}^{(k)}$  are  $(s - t + 1) \times (s - t + 1)$ . Since B(r - s + t | 1, 2, ..., t - 1) = 0, using (17) we have

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_{r-s+t,1} = 0 \Rightarrow B_{21}^{(n-r+s-t+1)} = 0, & B_{31}^{(n-r+s-t+1)} = 0\\ \alpha_{r-s+t,2} = 0 \Rightarrow B_{21}^{(n-r+s-t+2)} = 0, & B_{31}^{(n-r+s-t+2)} = 0\\ \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \\ \alpha_{r-s+t,t-1} = 0 \Rightarrow B_{21}^{(n-r+s-1)} = 0, & B_{31}^{(n-r+s-1)} = 0. \end{cases}$$

Thus

$$(B_1 \cdots B_{n-r+s-t})(B_{n-r+s-t+1} \cdots B_{n-r+s-1}) = \begin{pmatrix} * & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & L & 0 \\ 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $L = B_{22}^{(1)} \cdots B_{22}^{(n-r+s-1)}$  is unit lower triangular. Set  $H = B_{n-r+s} \cdots B_{n-1}$ . Then it is easy to show that

$$B_{(rs)} = LH(r - s + t, \ldots, r | t, \ldots, s) = LU.$$

It follows by Lemma 11 that  $U = (u_{ij})$  is upper triangular because H has at most r - s nonzero subdiagonals, where

$$u_{ii} = H(r - s + t + i - 1|t + i - 1)$$
  
=  $\alpha_{t+i,t+i-1} \cdots \alpha_{r-s+t+i-1,t+i-1}$ ,  $(i = 1, \dots, s - t + 1)$ .

Thus, if  $\alpha_{rs} \neq 0$ , then using (18) and (6) we have

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_{r-s+t,t} \neq 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_{t+1,t} \neq 0, \dots, \alpha_{r-s+t-1,t} \neq 0, \\ \alpha_{r-s+t+1,t+1} \neq 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_{t+2,t+1} \neq 0, \dots, \alpha_{r-s+t,t+1} \neq 0, \\ \dots, \dots, \dots, \alpha_{rs} \neq 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_{s+1,s} \neq 0, \dots, \alpha_{r-1,s} \neq 0, \end{cases}$$

which means that  $u_{ii} \neq 0$  for all i = 1, ..., s - t + 1. Hence, we obtain that if  $\alpha_{rs} \neq 0$ , then

$$\det B_{(\mathrm{rs})} = \det L \cdot \det U = \prod_{i=1}^{s-t+1} u_{ii} \neq 0.$$

Thus, it follows by using (19) that

det 
$$B_{(ij)} \neq 0$$
 and  $i \ge j \Rightarrow \alpha_{ij} \neq 0$   
 $\Rightarrow \alpha_{rs} \neq 0$  whenever  $i \ge r \ge s \ge j$   
 $\Rightarrow \det B_{(rs)} \neq 0$  whenever  $i \ge r \ge s \ge j$ 

which means the lower triangular matrix B is almost totally nonsingular.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 13.** Let  $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  be a unit lower triangular matrix. If B is almost totally nonsingular, then B can be factorized as  $B = B_1 \cdots B_{n-1}$  where all subdiagonal entries  $\alpha_{ij}$  satisfy (6).

**Proof.** To prove the result, we apply induction on the order *n* of *B*. The case n = 1, 2 is trivial. Now assume that the result is true for all orders less that *n*. Set  $B = (b_{ij})$ . Since *B* is almost totally nonsingular, we can assume that  $b_{11} \neq 0, \ldots, b_{r1} \neq 0$ , and  $b_{r+1,1} = \cdots = b_{n1} = 0$ . Let  $\alpha_{21} = \frac{b_{21}}{b_{11}}, \ldots, \alpha_{r1} = \frac{b_{r1}}{b_{r-1,1}}$ . So  $\alpha_{21} \neq 0, \ldots, \alpha_{r1} \neq 0$ . Thus it is not difficult to show that *B* can be factorized as

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$$B = E_r(\alpha_{r1}) \cdots E_2(\alpha_{21}) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ B' \end{pmatrix}$$

where B' is  $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$ . Furthermore, the  $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$  unit lower triangular matrix  $B' = (b_{ii}^{(1)})$  satisfies the following statements:

• Since *B* is almost totally nonsingular, by considering that  $b_{11} \neq 0, ..., b_{r1} \neq 0$ , we obtain that  $b_{11}^{(1)} = 1$ ,

$$b_{21}^{(1)} = \frac{\det B(2,3|1,2)}{b_{21}} = \frac{\det B_{(32)}}{\det B_{(21)}} \neq 0, \dots, b_{r-1,1}^{(1)}$$
$$= \frac{\det B(r-1,r|1,2)}{b_{r-1,1}} = \frac{\det B_{(r2)}}{\det B_{(r-1,1)}} \neq 0.$$

Set  $j \leq i \leq r - 1$ . Thus the relevant submatrix  $B'_{(ii)} = B'(i - j + 1, \dots, i | 1, \dots, j)$ , and

$$\det B'_{(ij)} = \frac{1}{b_{i-j+1,1}} \det B(i-j+1, i-j+2, \dots, i+1|1, 2, \dots, j+1)$$
$$= \frac{1}{b_{i-j+1,1}} \det B_{(i+1,j+1)}.$$

• Set  $j \le i$  and i > r - 1. Since  $b_{r+1,1} = \cdots = b_{n1} = 0$ , it is not difficult to show that the relevant submatrix  $B'_{(ij)} = B_{(i+1,j+1)}$ .

Therefore, it follows that B' is also almost totally nonsingular. Applying the inductive assumption to B', we have the factorization

$$B = E_r(\alpha_{r1}) \cdots E_2(\alpha_{21}) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & B'_1 \cdots B'_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

where each  $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$  matrix  $B'_i$  is of the form (1) with all subdiagonal entries  $\alpha_{ij}$  ( $2 \le i, j \le n$ ) satisfy (6). In particular, according to the argument above, we have

$$\alpha_{r2} = \frac{b_{r-1,1}^{(1)}}{b_{r-2,1}^{(1)}} \neq 0.$$

Notice that  $\alpha_{r1} \neq 0$  and  $\alpha_{l1} = 0$  for l > r. Thus we easily conclude that the result is true by using (15).  $\Box$ 

We are now ready to prove Theorem 4.

**Proof of Theorem 4.** Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  be nonsingular. First assume that A is almost totally nonsingular. Theorem 9 implies that it can be factorized as A = BDC, where D is a nonsingular diagonal matrix, and B(C) is a unit lower (upper) triangular and almost totally nonsingular matrix. Thus the result is true by applying Lemma 13 to B and  $C^T$ . Conversely, using Theorem 9 and Lemma 12 we have that A is almost totally nonsingular.

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