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# LINEAR FRACTIONAL TRANSFORMATIONS and companion matrices 

## Vlastimil PTAK

Abstract: With each linear fractional transformation and each positive integer $n$ we consider a set of $n$ polynomials of degree $\leqslant n-1$. Simple relations for these polynomials are established which provide a geometrical explanation of the recent results of B.A. Shane and S. Barnett on companion matrices.

The mapping which assigns to each linear fractional transformation the matrix of the coefficients of these polynomials is a representation of GL(2).

Key words: Companion matrix, matrix representation.
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Introduction: In inertia theory and in investigations concerning root location for polynomials the Cayley transformation is frequently used to map the unit disc of the complex plane onto a half-plane; this provides, in particular, a connection between the theory of automata working in discrete time and that of the continuous case.

More generally, it is possible to consider the general bilinear transformation

$$
\varphi: A \rightarrow(c A+d)^{-1}(a A+b) ;
$$

if $A$ is a matrix for which $c A+d$ is invertible then the spectrum of the transformed matrix is obtained as the image under $\varphi$ of the spectrum of $A$. In an interesting paper [1] B.A. Shane and S. Barnett investigate the effect of $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ when applied to a companion matrix; the image under $\varphi$ of a companion matrix will not be a companion any more in the general case. Nevertheless, Shane and Barnett show that there exists, for each $n$, a matrix $M_{n}(\boldsymbol{\varphi})$ depending only on $\varphi$ such that, for any companion matrix $A$ for which $\varphi(A)$ exists

$$
M(\varphi) \boldsymbol{\varphi}(A) M(\varphi)^{-1}
$$

is again a companion matrix. The original proof of the authors is based, how-
ever, on a highly technical computation of the individual entries. In a subsequent paper [2] N.J. Young succeeded in giving a simpler and more direct proof of the result; his proof uses an interesting characterization of companion matrices in terms of tensor products. Young also shows that the matrices $M_{n}(g)$ may be used to construct a representation of GL(2).

It is the purpose of the present note to point out a natural interpretation of the result which provides a short and transparent proof. At the same time this proof explains the geometric meaning of the matrix $M(\varphi)$.
2. Preliminaries: Given a polynomial $f$ of degree $n$ written in the form

$$
f(x)=x^{n}-\left(a_{0}+a_{1} x+\ldots+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}\right)
$$

we denote by $C(f)$ its companion matrix

$$
C(f)=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{0} \\
1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{1} \\
0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & a_{2} \\
\cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & a_{n-1}
\end{array}\right)
$$

It will be convenient, for the purposes of this note, to define $\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{g})$ for a not necessarily monic polynomial $g$ as the companion of the corresponding monic multiple of g . In the rest of this note f will be a fixed polynomial of degree $n$ written as above. If $F$ stands for the algebra of all polynomials with complex coefficients and if $H(f)$ is the ideal of all multiples of $f$ we denote by $X$ the quotient algebra $X=F / H(f)$. Let $S$ be the operator of multiplication by $x$ on $F$. Then $H(f)$ is invariant with respect to $S$ and we shall use the same letter $S$ to denote the corresponding operator on $X$; clearly the polynomials

$$
1, x, \ldots, x^{n-1}
$$

(more precisely, the corresponding classes modulo f) form a basis of the linear space $X$. Since $x^{n}=a_{0}+a_{1} x+\ldots+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$ modulo $f$ the matrix $C(f)$ appears as the matrix of $S$ taken in this basis.

As for changes of bases, we shall use the following convention. If $W$ is the matrix of the operator $T$ in the basis $e_{0}, \ldots, e_{n-1}$, in other words $T e_{j}=$ $=\sum_{s} w_{s j} e_{s}$, and if a new basis is given by $p_{j}=\sum_{r} m_{r j} e_{r}$ then the matrix of $T$ in the new basis is $M^{-1} W M$.
3. Fractional linear transformations: Let $A$ be a fixed two by two matrix

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

We shall restrict ourselves to the case $\delta=\operatorname{det} A \neq 0$. Define the four linear forms $u, v, U, V$ by the formulae

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
u(x)=a x+b & v(x)=c x+d \\
U(x)=d x-b & V(x)=-c x+a
\end{array}
$$

and observe that

$$
\begin{aligned}
d u(x)-b v(x) & =\delta x \\
-c u(x)+a v(x) & =\delta .
\end{aligned}
$$

For $x$ such that $v(x) \neq 0$ define $\varphi(x)=\frac{u(x)}{v(x)}$. It follows from the two formulae above that, for $v(x) \neq 0$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& U(\varphi(x))=\frac{\delta^{\alpha} x}{V(x)} \\
& V(\varphi(x))=\frac{\delta^{\sigma}}{V(x)}
\end{aligned}
$$

(*)
For $y$ such that $V(y) \neq 0$ define $\quad \boldsymbol{r}(y)=\frac{U(y)}{V(y)}$.
We have then
$1^{0}$ If $v(x) \neq 0$ then $V(\varphi(x))=\frac{\delta^{\circ}}{v(x)} \neq 0$ and $\boldsymbol{\varphi}(\varphi(x))=x$. Similarly, $2^{0}$ If $\delta \neq 0$ then, for every $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ such that $V(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \neq 0$, the value $z=\frac{U(\boldsymbol{\lambda})}{V(\boldsymbol{\lambda})}$ satisfies $v(z)=\frac{\sigma^{\sigma}}{v(\lambda)} \neq 0$ and $\varphi(z)=\frac{u(z)}{v(z)}=\lambda$.

Define the polynomials $p_{0}, \ldots, p_{n-1}$ of degree $n-1$ by the formulae

$$
p_{j}(x)=u(x)^{j} v(x)^{n-1-j}
$$

for $j=0,1, \ldots, n-1$ and let us show that they are linearly independent. Suppose that

$$
\xi_{0} p_{0}+\ldots+\xi_{n-1} p_{n-1}=0
$$

Consider an arbitrary $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ for which $V(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \neq 0$ and let $z=\frac{U(\boldsymbol{\lambda})}{V(\lambda)}$; recall that $v(z) \neq 0$ and $\varphi(z)=\lambda$. We have then
$\left(\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \xi_{j} \lambda^{j}\right) v^{n-1}(z)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \xi_{j} \varphi(z)^{j} v^{n-1}(z)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \xi_{j} p_{j}(z)=0$.
Since $v(z) \neq 0$ it follows that

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \xi_{j} \lambda^{j}=0 .
$$

Writing down this relation for $n$ different values of $\lambda$ we conclude that $\xi_{0}=\ldots=\xi_{n-1}=0$ so that the $p_{j}$ are linearly independent.

Now consider a polynomial $f$ of degree $n$

$$
f(x)=x^{n}-\left(a_{0}+a_{1} x+\ldots+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}\right)
$$

It suffices to consider the case $n \geqq 2$.
Suppose that $(v, f)=1$. We intend to show that there exists a polynomial $h$ of degree $n-1$ and a constant $k$ such that

$$
v(x) h(x)+f(x) k=u(x)
$$

It is possible to write down $h$ and $k$ explicitly.
If $c=0$ then $d \neq 0$ and it suffices to set $h(x)=\frac{l}{d} u(x), k=0$.
If $c \neq 0$ denote by $y$ the point where $v(y)=0$. Since $v$ and $f$ are relativel. $y$ prime, we have $f(y) \neq 0$. Set $k=\frac{u(y)}{f(y)}$ and observe that the polynomial $u(x)-k f(x)$ will be zero at $y$; it follows that $\frac{l}{v(x)}(u(x)-x f(x))$ is a polynomial. Denote it. by $h$ so that

$$
h(x)=\frac{l}{v(x) f(y)}(u(x) f(y)-u(y) f(x)) .
$$

Since $-\mathrm{cu}(\mathrm{y})=-\mathrm{cu}(\mathrm{y})+\mathrm{a} v(y)=\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}$ we have $u(y)=-\frac{\delta}{c}$ whence $k=-\frac{\delta}{\mathrm{c} f(y)}$.
Now consider $T=C(f)$. We have $f(T)=0$ so that

$$
v(T) h(T)=u(T) \text {. }
$$

Furthermore, it is easy to see that $v(T)$ is invertible. Indeed, if $0 \boldsymbol{\sigma}(v(T))$ we have $0 \in \sigma(v(T))=v(\sigma(T))$ so that $v(y)=0$ for some $y \in \sigma(T)$ but this is impossible since $(v, f)=l$. It follows that $h(T)=\varphi(T)$.

Given a polynomial $f$ of the form

$$
f(x)=x^{n}-\left(a_{0}+a_{1} x+\ldots+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}\right)
$$

we write $g$ for the polynomial defined by the formula

$$
g(x)=U(x)^{n}-\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_{j} U(x)^{j} V(x)^{n-j} .
$$

We intend to show that $g$ has degree $n$ if $(v, f)=1$. Indeed, the coefficient of $x^{n}$ in the polynomial $g$ equals

$$
d^{n}-\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_{i} d^{j}(-c)^{n-j}
$$

If $c=0$ this expression equals $d^{n}$ and $d$ is different form zero since ad= $\delta \neq 0$. If $c \neq 0$ we have $f(y) \neq 0$ since $(v, f)=1$ and $v(y)=0$. We have then

$$
d^{n}-\sum a_{j} d^{j}(-c)^{n-j}=(-c)^{n}\left(\frac{d^{n}}{(-c)^{n}}-\sum a_{j} \frac{d^{j}}{(-c)^{j}}\right)=(-c)^{n} f(y) \neq 0
$$

We shall show now that $g(h)$ is divisible by $f$. The following two relations will turn out to be useful to this end. Using the relation $u=h v+k f$ we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& v U(h)=d v h-b v=d(u-k f)-b v=\delta_{x}-d k f \\
& v V(h)=-c v h+a v=-c(u-k f)+a v=\delta^{2}+c k f .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using these relations for the products $v U(h)$ and $V V(h)$ we obtain, modulo $f$,

$$
v^{n} g(h)=(v U(h))^{n}-\Sigma a_{j}(v U(h))^{j}(v V(h))^{n-j}=\delta^{n} x^{n}-\sum a_{j} \delta^{j} x^{j} \delta^{n-j}=\delta^{n} f(x)
$$

and, since $(v, f)=1$, it follows that $g(h)=0$ modulo $f$.
The next step consists in showing that the operator of multiplication by $h$, taken in the basis $p_{0}, \ldots, p_{n-1}$, has matrix $C(g)$.

First of all, we show that, for 0 j $n-2$ the product $h p_{j}$ equals $p_{j+1}$
modulo f. For $j^{\leq} n-2$ we have $p_{j}=u^{j} v^{n-1-j}$ whence
$h p_{j}=u^{j} v^{n-2-j_{h v}} u^{j} v^{n-2-j}(u-k f)=u^{j+1} v^{n-2-j_{-u}} u^{j} v^{n-2-j} k f$
so that

$$
h p_{j}=p_{j+1} \bmod f .
$$

To compute $h p_{n-1}$ we need some notation. If $G$ is the leading coefficient of the polynomial $g$ we can write $g$ in the form

$$
g(x)=G\left(x^{n}-\Sigma g_{j} x^{j}\right)
$$

Now we intend to show that

$$
h p_{n-l}=\sum g_{j} p_{j} \bmod f
$$

We argue as follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
& h p_{n-1}-\sum g_{j} p_{j}=h u^{n-1}-\sum g_{j} u^{j} v^{n-1-j}=h \cdot h^{n-1} v^{n-1}-\sum g_{j} h^{j} v^{j} v^{n-l-j}= \\
& =v^{n-1}\left(h^{n}-\sum g_{j} h^{j}\right)=v^{n-1} g(h)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

In this manner we have shown that the matrix of $h(S)=\varphi(S)$ in the basis $p_{0}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n-1}$ is exactly $C(g)$. If $M(\varphi)$ stands for the transformation matrix $p_{j}(x)=\sum M(\varphi)_{s j} x^{5}$ the result just proved may be formulated as follows.

There exists a matrix $M(\varphi)$ with the following property:
If $C$ is the companion matrix of a polynomial $f$ with $(v, f)=1$ then

$$
C^{\prime}=M(\varphi)^{-1} \varphi(C) M(\varphi)
$$

is again a companion matrix.
More precisely, $C^{\prime}=C(g)$ where

$$
g=u^{n}-\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_{j} u^{j} v^{n-j}
$$

To conclude let us briefly comment on the behaviour of the matrices $M(\boldsymbol{\rho})$ with respect to composition of the transformations $\varphi$.

Let $n$ be a given positive integer. For each two by two matrix

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

we define an $n$ by $n$ matrix $M(A)$ as follows. We begin by constructing a sequence of polynomials of degree $\leqslant n-1$.

$$
p_{0}(A, x), p_{1}(A, x), \ldots, p_{n-1}(A, x)
$$

and define $M(A)$ by the requirement that

$$
M(A)_{j r} x^{r}=p_{j}(A, x)
$$

The polynomials $p_{j}$ are defined as follows

$$
p_{j}(A, x)=u(x)^{j} v(x)^{n-1-j}
$$

where $u(x)=a x+b, v(x)=c x+d$. Let us show now that the mapping $A \rightarrow M(A)$ is a representation of $G L(2)$. To see that consider two matrices $A$ and $B$. It is easy to verify the relation

$$
p_{j}(B A)=\sum M(B)_{j s} p_{s}(A) .
$$

Indeed, we observe first that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u_{B A}(x)=v_{A}(x) u_{B}(\varphi) \\
& v_{B A}(x)=v_{A}(x) v_{B}(\varphi)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{g}=u_{A}(x)\left(v_{A}(x)\right)^{-1}$. It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(B A, x) & =u_{B A}(x)^{j} v_{B A}(x)^{n-1-j_{j}}=v_{A}(x)^{n-1} u_{B}(\varphi)^{j} v_{B}(\varphi)^{n-1-j}= \\
& =v_{A}(x)^{n-1} p_{j}(B, \varphi)=v_{A}(x)^{n-1} \sum M(B)_{j r} \varphi^{r}=\sum M(B)_{j r} p_{r}(A, x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Comparing coefficients of $x^{\Gamma}$ on both sides of this relation we find that

$$
M(B A)_{j v}=\sum_{s} M(B)_{j s} M(A)_{s v}
$$

whence

$$
M(B A)=M(B) \quad M(A)
$$

## References

[1] B.A. SHANE and S. BARNETT: On the bilinear transformation of companion matrices, Lin. Alg. Appl. 9(1974), 175-184.
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