

Rhotrix-Decomposition

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Abstract

Matrix is decomposable if it can be expressed as a product of any two non singular lower and upper triangular matrices. A number of results on matrix decompositions are known in the literature. In this paper we introduce rhotrix decomposition which is a factorization of rhotrix into a product of rhotrices and also present some of its result.

Keywords: Rhotrix, Rhotrix multiplication, Rhotrix decompositions, Left and Right triangular rhotrices.
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1.0 Introduction

The concept of rhotrices was first introduced by Ajibade [1] as an extension of the initiative on matrix-tertions and matrix-noitrets suggested by Atanassov and Shannon [2] and several works with modifications have presented on rhotrices. Ajibade [1] discussed the initial algebra and analysis on rhotrices and also set up some relationships between rhotrices and their hearts. The multiplication of rhotrices defined by Ajibade [1] was modified to similar multiplication of matrices proposed by Sani [3] defined as row column multiplication as follows: let \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} be any two rhotrices defined as

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & & \\ a_{21} & h(A) & a_{12} \\ & a_{22} & \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & & \\ b_{21} & h(B) & b_{12} \\ & b_{22} & \end{pmatrix} \text{ then } \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \text{ is defined as}$$

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & & \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & h(A) \cdot h(B) & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} \\ & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} & \end{pmatrix}$$

This alternative multiplication method was then generalized for n-dimensional rhotrices by Sani [4]. The idea of the conversion of rhotrices to ‘coupled matrices’ was suggested by Sani in [5]. This idea was used to solve systems of $n \times n$ and $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix problems simultaneously. This method was proved to be a linear transformation by Aminu [6]. The concept of vectors, one-sided system of equations and eigenvector-engenvalue problem in rhotrices were introduced by Aminu [7]. A necessary and sufficient condition for the solvability of one sided system of rhotrix was also presented in [8]. It was shown in the paper how a solution can be found provided the system is solvable. Rhotrix vector spaces and their properties were presented by Aminu [9]. Cayley–Hamilton theorem in rhotrix, determinant method for solving system of equation in rhotrices and minimal polynomial of a rhotrix were discussed in [10,11,12] respectively.

In this article, we will discuss and present the necessary and sufficient conditions for the solvability of such systems. If this system is solvable, we show how a solution can be found.

Decomposition of some special rhotrix ‘Vandamonde Rhotrix’ was discussed in Kumar and Sharma [13].

Our aim in this chapter is to present rhotrix decomposition, a concept which to the best of our knowledge has not been studied before.

Rhotrix has applications several applications in coding theory, cryptography, combinatorial design graph theory, see Kumar and Sharma [14, 15].

Definition 1.1

An n -dimensional rhotrix is represented and given as follows:

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$$\mathcal{R}_n = \langle a_{ij}, c_{lk} \rangle = \left(\begin{array}{cccccc} & & a_{21} & c_{11}^{a_{11}} & a_{12} & & \\ & a_{31} & c_{21}^{a_{21}} & c_{12}^{a_{12}} & a_{13} & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \\ a_{t1} & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & a_{1t} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & a_{tt-2} & a_{(t-1)(t-2)} & a_{(t-1)(t-1)} & a_{(t-2)(t-1)} & a_{(t-2)t} & \\ & & a_{tt-1} & c_{t-1t-1}^{a_{t-1t}} & a_{t-1t} & & \end{array} \right)$$

Where $t = (n + 1)/2$. The multiplication method of rhatrices is a similar as that of matrices.

Definition 1.2 The heart or centre of a rhatrix is the element that lies at the middle of a given rhatrix thereby dividing it into two equal parts. It lies at the position $\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} (n^2 + 1) + 1 \right]$, Where n is the dimension of the rhatrix.

Definition 1.3A system of linear equations in rhatrix form is given by:

$$\mathcal{R}_n \cdot \langle x^{nj} \rangle = \langle b^{nj} \rangle$$

Where $\mathcal{R}_n = \langle a_{ij}, c_{lk} \rangle$ for: $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, t$, and $k, l = 1, 2, \dots, t - 1$.

Definition 1.4 The rhatrix defined in Definition 1.1 above is said to be **left triangular rhatrix** or simply **left rhatrix** if $a_{ij} = 0$ for $2 < i \leq t$ and $1 \leq j \leq t$ for $t = 1, 2, \dots, n$. We denote \mathbf{R}_n^l to represent n dimensional left rhatrix. Examples of 3

and 4 dimensional left rhatrix is given as $\mathbf{R}_3^l = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} a_{11} & & \\ a_{21} & a & 0 \\ a_{22} & & \end{array} \right)$ or $\mathbf{R}_5^l = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} a_{11} & a_{22} & 0 & \\ a_{21} & a_{12} & 0 & 0 \\ a_{31} & a_{12} & 0 & 0 \\ a_{11} & a_{33} & 0 & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right)$ respectively.

And n dimensional left rhatrix is

$$\mathcal{R}_n^l = \left(\begin{array}{cccccc} & & l_{21} & c_{11}^{l_{11}} & 0 & & \\ & l_{31} & c_{21}^{l_{21}} & l_{22} & 0 & 0 & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & 0 \\ l_{t1} & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ & l_{tt-2} & l_{(t-1)(t-2)} & l_{(t-1)(t-1)} & 0 & 0 & \\ & & l_{tt-1} & c_{t-1t-1}^{l_{t-1t}} & 0 & & \end{array} \right)$$

Where c^l , is an element in the **left** rhatrix.

Definition 1.5 The rhatrix defined in Definition 1.1 above is said to be **right triangular rhatrix** or simply **right rhatrix** if $a_{ij} = 0$ for $2 < j \leq t$ and $1 \leq i \leq t$ for $t = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Here we denote \mathbf{R}_n^r to represent n dimensional right rhatrix. An

example of 3 dimensional right rhatrix is given as: $\mathbf{R}_3^r = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} a_{11} & & \\ 0 & r & a_{12} \\ a_{22} & & \end{array} \right)$

An n dimensional right rhatrix is

$$\mathcal{R}_n^r = \left(\begin{array}{cccccc} & & r_{11} & & & \\ & 0 & c_{11}^{r_{11}} & r_{12} & & \\ & 0 & r_{22} & c_{12}^{r_{12}} & r_{13} & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \\ 0 & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & r_{1t} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ & 0 & 0 & r_{(t-1)(t-1)} & r_{(t-2)(t-1)} & r_{(t-2)t} \\ & & 0 & c_{t-1t-1}^{r_{t-1t}} & r_{t-1t} & \\ & & & r_{tt} & & \end{array} \right)$$

Where c^r , is an element in the **right** rhatrix.

Definition 1.6 An n dimensional rhatrix \mathcal{R}_n , is said to have an $\mathbf{R}_n^r \cdot \mathbf{R}_n^l$ or simply **RL** rhatrix decomposition if there exists \mathbf{R}_n^r and \mathbf{R}_n^l rhatrices where \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{R} are left and Right rhatrices respectively. This is defined as $\mathcal{R}_n = \mathbf{R}_n^r \cdot \mathbf{R}_n^l$ where

$$\mathbf{R}_n^l \mathbf{R}_n^r = \left(\begin{array}{cccccc} & & l_{21} & c_{11}^{l_{11}} & 0 & & \\ & l_{31} & c_{21}^{l_{21}} & l_{22} & 0 & 0 & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & 0 \\ l_{t1} & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ & l_{tt-2} & l_{(t-1)(t-2)} & l_{(t-1)(t-1)} & 0 & 0 & \\ & & l_{tt-1} & c_{t-1t-1}^{l_{t-1t}} & 0 & & \end{array} \right) \cdot \left(\begin{array}{cccccc} & & r_{11} & & & \\ & 0 & c_{11}^{r_{11}} & r_{12} & & \\ & 0 & r_{22} & c_{12}^{r_{12}} & r_{13} & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \\ 0 & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & r_{1t} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ & 0 & 0 & r_{(t-1)(t-1)} & r_{(t-2)(t-1)} & r_{(t-2)t} \\ & & 0 & c_{t-1t-1}^{r_{t-1t}} & r_{t-1t} & \\ & & & r_{tt} & & \end{array} \right)$$

$$\mathbf{R}_n^r \cdot \mathbf{R}_n^l$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \dots & l_{31}r_{11} & l_{21}r_{11} & c_{11}^l c_{11}^r & l_{11}r_{12} & l_{11}r_{13} & \dots \\ l_{t1}r_{11} & \vdots & c_{21}^l c_{21}^r & l_{21}r_{12} + l_{22}r_{22} & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ l_{t1}r_{11} + \dots + l_{t-2}r_{t-2t} & l_{31}r_{11} + \dots + l_{3t}r_{tt} & l_{t1}r_{11} + \dots + l_{t-1}r_{t-1t} & c_{t-1\ t-1}^l c_{t-1\ t-1}^r & 0 & l_{t1}r_{1t} + l_{t2}r_{2t} + \dots + l_{tt}r_{tt} & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & 0 & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & l_{t1}r_{1t} + l_{t2}r_{2t} + \dots + l_{tt}r_{tt} & 0 & \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

2.0 LR-Rhotrix Decomposition

Given a System of linear equations: $\mathcal{R}_n X = b$, let $\mathcal{R}_n = LR$ where \mathbf{R}_n^l and \mathbf{R}_n^r are Left and Right triangular rhotrices. Let denotes L and R as follows: here we give more consideration for $n = 3$, which is the order of the rhotrices.

Note that, we will be using $\mathcal{R}_n^l = L$ and $\mathcal{R}_n^r = R$, throughout the work, represent, left and right rhotrices respectively.

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & l & 0 \\ l_{21} & l & 0 \\ l_{22} & & \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } R = \begin{pmatrix} r_{11} & & \\ r & r_{12} & \\ r_{22} & & \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.1)$$

Then,

$$LR = \begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & l & 0 \\ l_{21} & l & 0 \\ l_{22} & & \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} r_{11} & & \\ r & r_{12} & \\ r_{22} & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} l_{11}r_{11} & l_{11}r_{12} & \\ l_{21}r_{11} & l_{21}r_{12} + l_{22}r_{22} & \\ l_{21}r_{11} & l_{21}r_{12} + l_{22}r_{22} & \end{pmatrix} = \mathcal{R}_3 \quad (2.2)$$

Crout's and Doolittle's methods were first introduced on matrices and have received a number of attentions; the reader is referred to Bunch [16] for more information. Here we need to define Crout's and Doolittle's Methods using rhotrices.

2.1 Crout's Algorithm for Rhotrices:

Using (2.2) above we have: $r_{ii} = r = 1, i = 1, 2$. Then

$$LR = \begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & l & l_{11}r_{12} \\ l_{21} & l & l_{21}r_{12} + l_{22}r_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \mathcal{R}_3 \quad (2.3)$$

In Crout's Method for rhotrix, we use: $r_{ii} = r = 1$, where r is the centre of the right rhotrix

2.2 Doolittle's Algorithm for Rhotrices:

using (2.2) as above where $l_{ii} = l = 1$, then for $i = 1, 2$.

$$LR = \begin{pmatrix} l_{11}r_{11} & r & r_{12} \\ l_{21}r_{11} + r_{22} & & \end{pmatrix} = \mathcal{R}_3 \quad (2.4)$$

Similarly, as in Crout Method for rhotrices, Doolittle's Method for rhotrix we use: $l_{ii} = l = 1$, where l is the centre of the left rhotrix.

For example, let's solve a system below using any of the above algorithms.

$$\text{A system} \quad 2x_1 - 3x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 + x_2 = 3$$

Can be solve using any of these algorithms, but here in particular, we are going to deploy the first algorithm, which is Crout's Method.

The system in rhotrix form is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & & \\ 1 & 4 & -3 \\ 1 & & \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & & \\ x_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & & \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.5)$$

By choosing an arbitrary Heart, here choose a heart (4). This can be represented in an equivalent form as:

$$\mathcal{R}_n \langle x^{nj} \rangle = \langle b^{nj} \rangle$$

For $j = 1, 2, n = 3$ We have:

$$\mathcal{R}_3 \langle x^{31} \rangle = \langle b^{31} \rangle$$

Where $\langle x^{31} \rangle$ and $\langle b^{31} \rangle$ are column vector rhotrices. Re-writing the rhotrix system in the form

$$\mathcal{R}_3 = LR, \text{ where } L \text{ and } R \text{ are Left and Right triangular rhotrices.}$$

Now, using Crout's algorithms to rhotrices: $r_{ii} = r = 1$. Using (2.3) we have:

$$LR = \begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & & \\ l_{21} & l & l_{11}r_{12} \\ l_{21}r_{12} + l_{22} & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \\ 4 & 1 & -3 \\ & & \end{pmatrix} = \mathcal{R}_3$$

So we get: $l_{11} = 2$, $l_{21} = 1$, $l = 4$, $l_{11}r_{12} = -3$ which implies $r_{12} = -\frac{3}{2}$,

$l_{21}r_{12} + l_{22} = 1$ or $(1)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) + l_{22} = 1 \Rightarrow l_{22} = \frac{5}{2}$. With $r_{11} = r_{22} = 1$.

$$\text{So we have: } L = \begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & & \\ l_{21} & l & 0 \\ l_{22} & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & & \\ 1 & 4 & 0 \\ \frac{5}{2} & & \end{pmatrix} \text{ and}$$

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} r_{11} & & \\ 0 & r & r_{12} \\ r_{22} & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{3}{2} \\ 1 & & \end{pmatrix}$$

We solve the system by **back substitution** by first solving the system below:

So that: $LR \cdot \mathcal{R}_3 \langle x^{31} \rangle = \langle b^{31} \rangle$

Let $R \cdot \langle x^{31} \rangle = \langle y^{31} \rangle$ then $L \cdot \langle y^{31} \rangle = \langle b^{31} \rangle$ now we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & & \\ 1 & 4 & 0 \\ \frac{5}{2} & & \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} y_1 & & \\ y_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & & \end{pmatrix}$$

The matrix equivalent form is $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & \frac{5}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$,

$\Rightarrow 2y_1 = 1$, or $y_1 = \frac{1}{2}$ and $y_1 + \frac{5}{2}y_2 = 3$, $\frac{5}{2}y_2 = 3 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{5}{2}$ therefore $y_1 = \frac{1}{2}$ and $y_2 = 1$.

Now, **forward substitution**: solving for $\langle x^{31} \rangle$ in the system :

$R \cdot \langle x^{31} \rangle = \langle y^{31} \rangle$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{3}{2} \\ 1 & & \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & & \\ x_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 & & \\ y_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & & \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & & \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{This implies that } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{3}{2} \\ 1 & & \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & & \\ x_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & & \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & & \end{pmatrix}$$

Converting to its matrix equivalent form: we have $x_2 = 1$ and $x_1 - \frac{3}{2}x_2 = \frac{1}{2}$ and

$x_1 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2} = 2$. So $x_1 = 2$ and $x_2 = 1$.

Hence we clearly check the system for $x_1 = 2$ and $x_2 = 1$ the truth is clear.

Theorem 2.1

A necessary and sufficient condition for an n dimensional rhotrix, \mathcal{R}_n , to be $\mathbf{R}^r_n \cdot \mathbf{R}^l_n$ or simply \mathbf{LR} – rhotrix decomposition is that \mathcal{R}_n is invertible.

Proof:

Let $\mathcal{R}_n = \langle a_{ij}, c_{lk} \rangle$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, $1 \leq j \leq n$ and $1 \leq k \leq n$, suppose \mathcal{R}_n admits \mathbf{LR} decomposition, we need to show that $\det(\mathcal{R}_n)$ exists.

Since \mathcal{R}_n can be express as follows $\mathcal{R}_n = LR$, where L and R are Left and Right triangular rhotrices. Now, the $\det(L) \neq 0$ and $\det(R) \neq 0$ hence the determinant $\det(LR) \neq 0$ which implies that $\det(\mathcal{R}_n) \neq 0$. Thus \mathcal{R}_n is invertible.

Conversely, if \mathcal{R}_n is invertible its determinant exists. That is

$\det(\mathcal{R}_n) \neq 0 \Rightarrow \det(LR) \neq 0$

Now, since $\det(LR) \neq 0$ then $\det(L) \neq 0$ and $\det(R) \neq 0$, thus \mathcal{R}_n can be express in the form $\mathcal{R}_n = LR$. Hence \mathbf{LR} decompositions exist when \mathcal{R}_n is invertible.

Definition 2.1 An **LDR-rhotrix decomposition** is of the form: $\mathcal{R}_n = LDR$, where D is a diagonal rhotrix and L and U are unit triangular rhotrices, meaning that all the entries on the diagonals of L and U are one. It is equivalent to \mathbf{LR} rhotrix decomposition.

Theorem 2.2

If an invertible rhotrix has an **LDR** rhotrix factorization, then its unique, in that case, the \mathbf{LR} factorization is also unique if we require the diagonal of L or R consists of ones.

Proof:

By using any of the algorithms, Crout or Doolittle Methods we can arrive at the proof.

Now, using Crout's method where $r_{ii} = r = 1$ and D a diagonal rhotrix

Suppose \mathcal{R}_n has **LDR** rhotrix factorization, then it can be expressed in the form:

$\mathcal{R}_n = RDL = \langle x^{ii} \rangle \cdot \langle x^{nn} \rangle \cdot \langle x^{jj} \rangle$ where D is a diagonal rhotrix. Since \mathcal{R}_n is invertible it follows from theorem 1.1 that $\mathcal{R}_n = RDL$ exists.

And since it exists then $RDL = LDR$ hence the factorization is unique.

It then follows from $RDL = LDR$

Pre-multiplying through by $D^{-1}(RDL) = D^{-1}(LDR)$ where

$$RD^{-1}DL = LD^{-1}DR$$

Or

$$RL = LR$$

Hence **RL** factorization is unique provided that **LDR** factorization exists.

Theorem 2.3

If \mathcal{R}_n is a non-singular rhotrix, then there exists a permutation rhotrix P so that $P\mathcal{R}_n$ has an **LR**- decomposition. i.e. $P\mathcal{R}_n = LR$.

Proof:

Since \mathcal{R}_n is invertible being non singular, it follows from theorem 1.2. note we use P only when \mathcal{R}_n requires row interchanges to row echelon form, and $P\mathcal{R}_n$ requires no row interchanges. So we have $P\mathcal{R}_n$ can be express as $P\mathcal{R}_n = LR$. Hence the proof.

Definition 2.2 An n dimensional rhotrix which arises by a finite number of row interchange is called a permutation rhotrix. It is usually denotes as **P**.

Theorem 2.4 The system $\mathcal{R}_n X = b$ is equivalent to the system $P\mathcal{R}_n X = Pb$, where $P\mathcal{R}_n$ has **LR** decomposition and P is a permutation rhotrix.

Proof:

We need to show that the system $\mathcal{R}_n X = b$ is equivalent to $P\mathcal{R}_n X = Pb$. It suffices to verify that if $P\mathcal{R}_n X = Pb$, P interchanges the rows of the rhotrix \mathcal{R}_n ,

Now, if $P\mathcal{R}_n X = Pb$ is given: pre-multiply both sides with P^{-1} we get:

$$P^{-1}P\mathcal{R}_n X = P^{-1}Pb$$

$$\Rightarrow IP\mathcal{R}_n X = Ib \text{ or } \mathcal{R}_n X = b$$

Hence $\mathcal{R}_n X = b$ is equivalent to: $P\mathcal{R}_n X = Pb$.

Now, if $\mathcal{R}_n X = b$ is given, to interchange the rows of \mathcal{R}_n into row echelon form we multiply through by the permutation rhotrix P , such that $P\mathcal{R}_n X = Pb$.

Hence $\mathcal{R}_n X = b \Leftrightarrow P\mathcal{R}_n X = Pb$

Theorem 2.5

Let $\mathcal{R}_n X = b$ be a rhotrix system of linear equation where \mathcal{R}_n has zero heart. Using **LR** decomposition of rhotrices, by applying either Crout or Doolittle methods the heart of either **L** or **R** must be zero.

Proof:

Let l and r be the centres (hearts) of L and R left and right triangular rhotrices respectively.

If $\mathcal{R}_n = LR$, where the initial system in matrix form is transformed to rhotrix form has zero heart, so the product of the their hearts gives the heart of \mathcal{R}_n . If the heart of \mathcal{R}_n is 0 then we have: $r \cdot l = 0$ which implies that either, $r = 0$ or $l = 0$, Hence the proof.

Definition 2.3

The total number of floating point operations ($\times, \div, +, -$) determine the cost of computations involved in solving problems. It's usually denoted as $O(n^k)$, for natural number $k \geq 1$ and n is the dimension of the rhotrix.

Theorem 2.6

An **LR rhotrix decomposition** requires $O(n^3)$ floating point operations.

Proof:

In order to compute the total number of operations we will need the following identities:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n 1 = n, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n}{2}(n+1), \quad \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n}{6}(n+1)(2n+1) \text{ which can be proved using induction}$$

There are $(n+1-i)$ and $(n-i+2)$ multiplication(\times) and division(\div) operations respectively.

Therefore the total number of multiplication(\times) and division(\div) operations is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (n+1-i)(n-i+2) = (n^2 + 3n + 2) \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} 1 - (2n+3) \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i^2$$

$$= n(n^2 + 3n + 2) - (2n+3) \frac{n}{2}(n+1) + \frac{n}{6}(n+1)(2n+1) = \frac{1}{3}n^3 + \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{2}{3}n \approx \frac{1}{3}n^3.$$

Similarly,

There are $(n-i)$ and $(n-i+1)$ addition(+) and subtraction(-) operations respectively.

Therefore the total number of addition(+) and subtraction(-) operations is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (n-i)(n-i+1) = (n^2 + n) \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} 1 - 3 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i^2 = \frac{1}{3}n^3 + \frac{1}{2}n^2 - \frac{5}{6}n \approx \frac{1}{3}n^3.$$

The approximate total solution cost is: $= \frac{1}{3}n^3 + \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{2}{3}n + \frac{1}{3}n^3 + \frac{1}{2}n^2 - \frac{5}{6}n = \frac{2}{3}n^3 + n^2 - \frac{1}{6}n \approx \frac{2}{3}n^3.$

So, $O(n^3) \approx \frac{2}{3}n^3.$

Note:

1. If two rhotrices of order n can be multiplied in $\mathcal{R}(n)$, where $\mathcal{R}(n) \geq n^a$ for some $a > 2$, then the LR -decompositions the rhotrix decompositions can be computed in $O(\mathcal{R}(n))$.
2. Computing the LR rhotrix decomposition of rhotrices using either of these algorithms requires $O(n^3) = \frac{2n^3}{3}$ floating point operations, ignoring the lower order terms.

3.0 Conclusion

In this paper we have discussed the concept of rhotrix decomposition and its properties.

4.0 References

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