# CLASSES OF MATRICES OVER AN INTEGRAL DOMAIN 

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## 1. Introduction

It is known [8], [10] that there is a one-to-one correspondence between (i) classes of matrices of rational integers with a given irreducible characteristic polynomial $p(x)$ and (ii) classes of ideals in $\mathrm{Z}[x] /(p(x))$. We will generalize this correspondence and some of its properties. The existence of symmetric matrices in a class has been studied [4], [12], but not the number. We shall take up this question. The application of our results to the rational integer case will be discussed. ${ }^{2}$

## 2. Basic concepts

Let $\Delta$ and $D$ be integral domains with quotient fields $G$ and $F$ such that
(1) $\Delta \supset D$,
(2) $G$ is a separable extension of $F$,
(3) $[G: F]=n<\infty$.

We may write $G=F(\theta)$ for some $\theta \epsilon \Delta$. This notation will be fixed throughout the paper.

Definition. A representation of $\Delta$ over $D$ is a ring isomorphism $\Phi$ of $\Delta$ onto a subring of $D_{n}$, the $n \times n$ matrices over $D$, such that $\Phi(d)$ is the scalar matrix $d I_{n}$ whenever $d \epsilon D$. A symmetric representation of $\Delta$ over $D$ is a representation of $\Delta$ over $D$ such that $\Phi(\delta)$ is symmetric whenever $\delta \in \Delta$. (This differs from the usual definition of a representation.)

Whenever $p(x) \epsilon D[x]$ we have $\Phi(p(\delta))=p(\Phi(\delta))$ for all $\delta \epsilon \Delta$. Consequently, we may assume that $\Delta$ is integrally dependent on $D$. When $\Delta=D[\theta]$ the study of representations corresponds to the study of the matrices in $D_{n}$ which have $\theta$ as a characteristic root [10]. A unique extension of $\Phi$ to a representation of $G$ over $F$ exists and is determined by $\Phi(\theta)$.

Definition. If $\Phi$ and $\Psi$ are representations of $\Delta$ over $D$ such that

$$
T \Phi(\delta) T^{-1}=\Psi(\delta) \quad \text { for all } \delta \in \Delta
$$

and some nonsingular $T \in D_{n}$ satisfying $T^{-1} \in D_{n}$, then $\Phi$ is equivalent to $\Psi$. The equivalence class of $\Phi$ is written $\mathfrak{C}(\Phi)$.

[^0]Since $\Phi(\theta)$ determines $\Phi$, one may speak of a class of matrices $\mathcal{C}(\Phi(\theta))$ rather than a class of representations. Then (*) is equivalent to

$$
T \Phi(\theta) T^{-1}=\Psi(\theta)
$$

Note that $T, T^{-1} \epsilon D_{n}$ is equivalent to $T$ being unimodular over $D_{n}$.
When $D=F$, there is exactly one equivalence class. This is a special case of Theorem 1 below.

## 3. Earlier results

We now give generalizations of some results which have been proved for the special case $D=\mathbf{Z}$.

Theorem 1. There is a one-to-one correspondence between classes of representations of $\Delta$ over $D$ and classes of ideals in $\Delta$ having a free basis over $D$.

The proof is an easy generalization of that given by Taussky [10]. Let $\bar{\alpha}$ be a characteristic vector of $\Phi(\theta)$ with components in $G$. We have

$$
\mathfrak{C}(\Phi) \leftrightarrow \mathfrak{C}\left(D \alpha_{1}+\cdots+D \alpha_{n}=\mathfrak{a}\right)
$$

It is convenient to identify $\mathfrak{C}(\Phi)$ with $\mathfrak{C}(\mathfrak{a})$. When $D=\mathbf{Z}$ or $D=F$, every ideal has a free basis.

Let $A^{\prime}$ be the transpose of $A \in D_{n}$ and define $\Phi^{\prime}$ by $\Phi^{\prime}(\delta)=\Phi(\delta)^{\prime}$. Let $\mathfrak{a}^{\prime}$ be the complement [7, p. 41] of $\mathfrak{a}$. By the method of proof used by Taussky [13] we have

Theorem 2. If $\mathfrak{C}(\Phi) \leftrightarrow \mathfrak{C}(\mathfrak{a})$, then $\mathfrak{C}\left(\Phi^{\prime}\right) \leftrightarrow \mathfrak{C}\left(\mathfrak{a}^{\prime}\right)$.
It is known [11] that $\mathcal{C}(\Phi)=\mathfrak{C}\left(\Phi^{\prime}\right)$ is not enough to guarantee a symmetric $\Psi \in \mathbb{C}(\Phi)$. Various additional conditions are found in the literature. Some are given below.

Theorem 3. Let $\mathfrak{a}$ be in $\mathfrak{C}(\Phi)$. The following are equivalent.
(1) $\mathfrak{C}(\Phi)$ contains a symmetric representation.
(2) For every (or some) $\Psi \in \mathbb{C}(\Phi)$, there is a matrix $T$ unimodular over $D_{n}$ such that

$$
T^{\prime} T \Psi(\theta)=\Psi^{\prime}(\theta) T^{\prime} T \quad[11, \text { Theorem } 2]
$$

(3) For some $\lambda \in G$ and some free basis $\bar{\alpha}$ for $\mathfrak{a}$ over $D$

$$
\operatorname{tr}_{G / F} \lambda \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j}=\delta_{i j} \quad(\text { Kronecker } \delta)[4]
$$

The following are consequences of (1).
(a) If $F$ is formally real, $G$ is totally real [6, Theorem 3.3].
(b) For some totally positive $\lambda \in G$ we have $\mathfrak{a}^{\prime}=\lambda a$. ("Totally positive" is a vacuous condition if $F$ is not formally real.) See [4].
(c) For $\lambda$ as in (b) and some f $\epsilon F$

$$
N_{G / F} \lambda=(-1)^{n(n-1) / 2} f^{2} N_{G / F} p^{\prime}(\theta)
$$

where $p(x)$ is the irreducible monic polynomial for $\theta$ over $F$.
Proof. Where a reference is given, that proof is easily generalized to yield the desired result. Let $\bar{\beta}$ be the complementary basis to $\bar{\alpha}$. By (3) we have $\bar{\beta}=\lambda \bar{\alpha}$ (incidentally proving (b)). Thus

$$
\left(\left(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{(i)} \delta_{i j}\right)\right)=\left(\left(\beta_{j}^{(i)}\right)\right)\left(\left(\beta_{i}^{(j)}\right)\right)
$$

where superscripts denote conjugacy. Taking determinants and noting that

$$
\bar{\beta}=T\left(1, \theta, \cdots, \theta^{n-1}\right)^{\prime}
$$

for some $T \epsilon F_{n}$, we obtain (c).
Parts (a)-(c) of the above theorem provide conditions of a more algebraic number theoretic nature than do (1)-(3). Unfortunately, it is not known when conditions (a)-(c) for an ideal with a free basis over $D$ imply the existence of a symmetric representation in $\mathfrak{C}(\mathfrak{a})$. When $n$ is odd and $D$ is an algebraic number field, then (a) implies (1) [2]. When $n \leq 7$ and $D=\mathbf{Z}$, then (a) and (b) imply (1) ([4], or Section 5 below). If (a)-(c) are satisfied for an ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ with a free basis $\bar{\alpha}$ over $D$, then define

$$
S=\left(\left(\operatorname{tr}_{G / F} \lambda \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j}\right)\right)
$$

It follows that $S$ is symmetric and
(i) unimodular over $D_{n}$ by (b),
(ii) positive definite if $F$ is formally real by (a) and (b),
(iii) of square determinant by (c).

By Theorem 3(3), it follows that $\mathfrak{C}(\mathfrak{a})$ contains a symmetric representation if and only if $S=X^{\prime} X$ for some $X$ unimodular over $D_{n}$.

Corollary. Every finite field of odd characteristic has a symmetric representation over each of its subfields.

Proof. Since the norm group of $G$ over $F$ is the multiplicative group of $F$, there is a $\lambda \in D$ satisfying Theorem 3(c).

A nonsingular quadratic form ( $S$ of the above discussion) has its dimension and its determinant as a complete set of invariants [9, 62:1a]. The corollary follows from the discussion preceding it.

## 4. Number of symmetric representations

In this section we discuss the number of symmetric representations in a class and, briefly, the number of classes containing symmetric representations. When limiting attention to one class the relevant domain is not $\Delta$ but one we now define.

Definition. $R(\Phi)=\left\{\alpha \mid \alpha \epsilon G\right.$ and $\left.\Phi(\alpha) \epsilon D_{n}\right\}$ where $\Phi$ has been extended to a representation of $G$ over $F$.

Clearly $R(\Phi)$ is an integral domain between $G$ and $\Delta$. If $\Psi \in \mathfrak{C}(\Phi)$, then $R(\Psi)=R(\Phi)$; so $R(\Phi)$ is a class invariant. (In terms of the generalized ideal quotient we have $R(\Phi)=(\mathfrak{a}: \mathfrak{a})$.)

Theorem 4. Let $\Phi$ be a symmetric representation of $\Delta$ over $D$. The number of symmetric representations in $\mathfrak{C}(\Phi)$ is a multiple of $k$ and is bounded above by

$$
k\left[U^{N}: U^{2}\right]
$$

where
(1) $\mathcal{O}\left(D_{n}\right)=\left\{X \in D_{n} \mid X^{\prime} X=I\right\}$,
(2) $k=\operatorname{card} \mathcal{O}\left(D_{n}\right)$ if $F$ has characteristic 2
$=\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{card} \mathcal{O}\left(D_{n}\right)$ otherwise,
(3) $U^{2}$ is the group of squares of units in $R(\Phi)$,
(4) $U^{N}$ is the group of totally positive units in $R(\Phi)$ whose norms are squares in $D$.

Proof. We shall use the well known fact that if $A, B \in F_{n}$ and $A$ has distinct roots and $A B=B A$, then $B=p(A)$ for some $p(x) \in F[x]$.

Let $A=\Phi(\theta)$. If $\Psi \in \mathbb{C}(\Phi)$, then $\Psi(\theta)=T A T^{-1}$ for some $T$ unimodular over $D_{n}$. Since $A=A^{\prime}$, we have $\Psi=\Psi^{\prime}$ if and only if $T^{\prime} T=p(A)$ for some $p(x) \in F[x]$. For each $\eta \in G$ let $\varphi(\eta)$ be the set of $T$ unimodular over $D_{n}$ satisfying $T^{\prime} T=\Phi(\eta)$. Clearly $\varphi(\eta) \neq \emptyset$ implies $\eta \in U^{N}$. The converse is equivalent to achieving the bound given by the theorem. It will be discussed after the proof.

If $T \epsilon \varphi(\eta)$, then

$$
\varphi(\eta)=\left\{X T \mid X \in \mathcal{O}\left(D_{n}\right)\right\}
$$

Hence $\operatorname{card} \varphi(\eta)=\operatorname{card} \mathcal{O}\left(D_{n}\right)$ whenever $\varphi(\eta) \neq \emptyset$.
All that remains is to study the equation

$$
T A T^{-1}=S A S^{-1}, \quad S, T \text { unimodular over } D_{n}
$$

This is equivalent to $S^{-1} T=q(A)$ for some $q(x) \in F[x]$. Unimodularity of $S^{-1} T$ is equivalent to $q(\theta)=\varepsilon$ being a unit in $R(\Phi)$. We have

$$
T^{\prime} T=q(A) S^{\prime} S q(A)
$$

so $T \epsilon \varphi(\eta)$ if and only if $S \epsilon \varphi\left(\eta \varepsilon^{2}\right)$. If $\eta=\eta \varepsilon^{2}$, then $\varepsilon= \pm 1$ so every nonempty $\varphi(\eta)$ leads to $k$ symmetric representations. Any two $\varphi(\eta)$ and $\varphi(\nu)$ lead either to the same (if $\eta / \nu \in U^{2}$ ) or to distinct (if $\eta / \nu \notin U^{2}$ ) representations. 【

The bound in the theorem will be achieved if $\eta \in U^{N}$ implies $\varphi(\eta) \neq \emptyset . \quad$ By
the definition of $U^{N}$ we see that $\Phi(\eta)$ is symmetric and
(i) unimodular over $D_{n}$,
(ii) positive definite if $F$ is formally real,
(iii) of square determinant.

We have $\varphi(\eta) \neq \emptyset$ if and only if $T^{\prime} T=\Phi(\eta)$ for some $T$ unimodular over $D_{n}$. This is precisely the same problem as in Section 3(i)-(iii).

We now consider the number of classes containing symmetric representations when all ideals are invertible. Suppose $\mathfrak{C}(\mathfrak{a})$ contains a symmetric representation. The map $\mathfrak{C}(\mathfrak{b}) \leftrightarrow \mathfrak{C}(\mathfrak{a b})$ is a correspondence between classes containing ideals whose squares are narrowly equivalent to $\Delta$ and classes containing ideals narrowly equivalent to their complements (since ( $\mathfrak{a b})^{\prime}=$ $\mathfrak{a}^{\prime} \mathfrak{b}^{-1}$ ). Hence the number of classes containing symmetric representations is bounded by the order of the maximal subgroup of type ( $2,2, \cdots$ ) in the ideal class group.

## 5. The rational integer case

For the remainder of the paper we will assume that $D=\mathbf{Z}$. This case has been studied by Faddeev [4] and Taussky [10]-[13]. In Theorem 4 we have $k=n!2^{n-1}$ since $\mathcal{O}\left(\mathbf{Z}_{n}\right)$ consists of those matrices having one $\pm 1$ in each row and column and zeros elsewhere. By the Dirichlet unit theorem [ $\left.U^{N}: U^{2}\right]$ divides $2^{n-1}$. Since the class number of $\Delta$ is finite [3] we have

Theorem 5. The number of symmetric representations of $\Delta$ over $\mathbf{Z}$ is finite.
Of particular interest are conditions (i)-(iii) of Sections 3 and 4. When $n \leq 7$ these conditions imply that the quadratic form is equivalent to a sum of squares $[9,106: 10]$. When $D=\mathbf{Z}$, (b) of Theorem 3 implies (c) because $T \bar{\beta}=\lambda \bar{\alpha}$ where $\operatorname{det} T=+1$. Hence

Theorem 6. Assume $n \leq 7$ and $G$ is totally real. There exists a symmetric representation of $\Delta$ over $\mathbf{Z}$ if and only if $\mathfrak{a}^{\prime}=\lambda \mathfrak{a}$ for some ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ of $G$ and some totally positive $\lambda \in G$. In this case $\mathcal{C}(\mathfrak{a})$ contains precisely $n!2^{n-1}\left[U^{N}: U^{2}\right]$ symmetric representation where $U^{N}$ and $U^{2}$ are as in Theorem 4.

If we further assume that $\Delta$ is integrally closed in $G$ over $Z$, then the existence of a symmetric representation is equivalent to the different being narrowly equivalent to the square of an ideal. It is known [5, Theorem 176] that the class of the different has a square root; but it is not known when this is true in the narrow sense. Faddeev [4] has used this result to establish the existence of symmetric representations for special $G$ 's. Other special cases can be dealt with.

Corollary. If $G$ is a cyclic cubic extension of $\mathbf{Q}$, the integers of $G$ have a symmetric representation over $\mathbf{Z}$.

Proof. Let $p$ be a rational prime. It has at most one ramified divisor $\mathfrak{p}$ over $G$, and this is pure ramified. Thus, if the discriminant is $\Pi p^{c(p)}$, then the different is $\Pi p^{c(p)}$. Since $G$ is cyclic, every $c(p)$ is even.

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    ${ }^{2}$ The case in which one also requires that $p(x)$ be quadratic has been discussed extensively [1], [11]-[13]. A revised presentation of the contents of [1] is planned.

