

THE ROBSON CUBICS FOR MATRIX ALGEBRAS WITH INVOLUTION

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ABSTRACT. J.C. Robson has investigated the ideal I_n of all polynomials in the free associative algebra $R\langle x \rangle$ over a noncommutative ring R generated by x and the n^2 entries of an $n \times n$ matrix $\alpha = (a_{ij})$, which are satisfied by α . He proved that I_n is finitely generated and found that four so called Robson cubics generate the ideal for $n = 2$. The paper considers the ideal I_2 for matrix algebras with involution over a noncommutative ring and over a field of characteristic zero. The subspaces of the symmetric and skew-symmetric elements are studied separately and the explicit form of the Robson cubics is given in the considered cases. Some results are given for $n = 3$ as well.

2000 *Mathematics Subject Classification*: 16R50, 16R10.

1. INTRODUCTION

The Cayley-Hamilton theorem and the corresponding trace identity play a fundamental role in proving classical results about the polynomial and trace identities of the $n \times n$ matrix algebra $M_n(K)$ over a field K .

Accordingly, the importance of matrices over noncommutative rings is an evidence in the theory of PI-algebras and other branches of algebra as well (mainly structure theory of semisimple rings and quantum matrices).

The Cayley-Hamilton theorem has been extended by R. Paré and W. Schelter who have shown [2] that for any integer n an $n \times n$ matrix over a possibly noncommutative ring satisfies a monic polynomial with coefficients in that ring.

J.C. Robson has investigated in [6,7,8] the ideal I_n of all polynomials (including nonmonics) in the free associative algebra $R\langle x \rangle$ over a noncommutative ring R generated by x and the n^2 entries of an $n \times n$ matrix $\alpha = (a_{ij})$, which are satisfied by α .

Those polynomials we call the laws over R of a noncommutative $n \times n$ matrix α . These are not polynomial identities since the entries of α are allowed as coefficients in the laws and they vary with the choice of α . Of course, using the matrix units $\{e_{ij}\}$, one can eliminate these coefficients. Considering $n = 2$ we can replace a_{ij} by $(e_{1i}\alpha e_{j1} + e_{2i}\alpha e_{j2})$. This converts the law into a generalized polynomial identity in a single variable, with coefficients in $M_2(\mathbf{Z})$. It is a trivial generalized polynomial identity, since $M_2(\mathbf{Z})$ is itself a 2×2 matrix ring.

The general case considers the ideal of laws of a single $n \times n$ matrix extension over $\mathbf{Z}/(m)$ for some integer m , zero or not. The proof in [2] of the existence of a monic polynomial in I_n is inductive on n . In fact, given a monic polynomial of degree d in I_n , it gives a monic polynomial of degree $(d + 1)^2$ in I_{n+1} . For 1×1 matrices there is no problem, $I_1 = (\alpha - a_{11})$. Therefore, there is a monic polynomial p of degree 4 in I_2 . Writing

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

for the generic 2×2 matrix, the polynomial is

$$p = ((\alpha)^2 - a\alpha - \alpha d - ad - cb)((\alpha)^2 - a\alpha - \alpha d + ad - bc). \quad (**)$$

We recall that for

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

the ring over which we work is the free \mathbf{Z} -algebra $R = \mathbf{Z}\langle a, b, c, d \rangle$ and the polynomials are elements of $R\langle x \rangle$, which denotes the \mathbf{Z} -algebra freely generated by a, b, c, d and x .

A polynomial is in I_n if and only if all its homogeneous parts (i.e. parts each of whose terms has the same total degree as measured by the number of x 's and a_{ij} 's in it) are in I_n , and so it is only necessary to look at homogeneous polynomials in I_n . Robson has shown that I_n is an insertive ideal (meaning that its homogeneous elements are closed under inner multiplication by a constant a_{ij} in some fixed position) and as such is finitely generated ([7] and [6, Theorem 2.3]).

Proposition 1 [6, Theorem 3.5] *Let $\alpha - x.1$ denote the $n \times n$ matrix*

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} - x & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} - x & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n1} & a_{2n} & \dots & a_{nn} - x \end{pmatrix}.$$

The ideal I_n has a finite set of generators each of which is a polynomial in the entries of $\alpha - x.1$.

The minimal degree of polynomials in I_n remains unknown. However, for the case $n = 2$, Robson [6, Proposition 3.2] has found four polynomials of degree 3 (least possible) in I_2 and, knowing Proposition 3.5 of [8], has conjectured in [8] that these generate I_2 as an insertive ideal.

Proposition 2 [6, Proposition 3.2] *The set of homogeneous polynomials of degree 3 in I_2 is generated over $\mathbf{Z}/(m)$ for some integer m by the four polynomials*

$$\begin{aligned} r_a(x) &= x^3 - ax^2 - x^2a - xdx - xcb + cxb - cbx + adx \\ &+ xda + axa + acb - cab + cba - ada \\ &= (x - a)(x - d)(x - a) - cb(x - a) \\ &+ c(x - a)b - (x - a)cb, \\ r_b(x) &= bx^2 - xbx + x^2b - xab - dxb + dbx + xba - bxa \\ &- bdx + bda - dba + dab - bcb \\ &= b(x - d)(x - a) - (x - d)b(x - a) \\ &+ (x - d)(x - a)b - bcb, \\ r_c(x) &= cx^2 - xcx + x^2c - xdc - axc + acx + xcd - cxd \\ &- cax + cad - acd + adc - cbc \\ &= c(x - a)(x - d) - (x - a)c(x - d) \\ &+ (x - a)(x - d)c - cbc, \\ r_d(x) &= x^3 - dx^2 - x^2d - xax - xbc + bxc - bcx + dax \\ &+ xad + dxd + dbc - bdc + bcd - dad \\ &= (x - d)(x - a)(x - d) - bc(x - d) \\ &+ b(x - d)c - (x - d)bc. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

The polynomials $r_b(x)$ and $r_c(x)$ are not monic.

Pearson showed in [4, Corollary] that these four Robson cubics do indeed generate I_2 as an insertive ideal.

To illustrate the concept of insertive, we give some notation.

Let $w \in R\langle x \rangle$ have length m and $0 \leq t \leq m$. We can write $w = w_1 w_2$, where w_1 has length t . Let denote

$$\mu(m, t; g)w = w_1 g w_2.$$

Thus we see that if we inner multiply r_a by the constant b between the first and second letters of each word we get

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(3, 1; b)r_a &= (x - a)b(x - d)(x - a) - cbb(x - a) \\ &+ cb(x - a)b - (x - a)bc b \end{aligned}$$

and it is easily checked that this polynomial is also in I_2 . Considering (**) we could write

$$p = r_a(x)(x - d) - \mu(3, 2; b)r_b.$$

Another example of a polynomial in I_2 , given in [6], is

$$q = (bx - xb - bd + db)(bx - xb - ba + ab).$$

It could be written as $q = \mu(3, 2; b)r_b - r_b b$.

2. ROBSON CUBICS FOR 2×2 MATRICES WITH INVOLUTION

We specify the generators of I_2 in some special cases of an algebra with involution $*$ (an automorphism of order 2).

Proposition 3 [5, Proposition 1] *Considering the symmetric elements of $M_2(F, t)$ with noncommutative entries the Robson cubics for them are*

$$\begin{aligned} r_a(x) &= (x - a)(x - d)(x - a) - b^2(x - a) \\ &+ b(x - a)b - (x - a)b^2 \\ &= [(x - a)(x - d) - b^2](x - a) + [b(x - a) - (x - a)b]b, \\ r_b(x) &= b(x - d)(x - a) - (x - d)b(x - a) \\ &+ (x - d)(x - a)b - b^3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= [b(x-d) - (x-d)b](x-a) + [(x-d)(x-a) - b^2]b, \\
 r_c(x) &= b(x-a)(x-d) - (x-a)b(x-d) \\
 &+ (x-a)(x-d)b - b^3 \\
 &= [b(x-a) - (x-a)b](x-d) + [(x-a)(x-d) - b^2]b, \\
 r_d(x) &= (x-d)(x-a)(x-d) - b^2(x-d) \\
 &+ b(x-d)b - (x-d)b^2 \\
 &= [(x-d)(x-a) - b^2](x-d) + [b(x-d) - (x-d)b]b.
 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 1 *Considering the skew-symmetric elements of $M_2(F, t)$ with non-commutative entries the Robson cubics for them are*

$$\begin{aligned}
 r_a(x) &= x^3 + b^2x - bxb + xb^2 = (x^2 + b^2)x - (bx - xb)b, \\
 r_b(x) &= bx^2 - xbx + x^2b + b^3 = b(x^2 + b^2) - x(bx - xb).
 \end{aligned}$$

Proof. For the skew-symmetric elements of $M_2(F, t)$ over a field F we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^t = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -a & -b \\ -c & -d \end{pmatrix},$$

giving $b = -c, a = 0 = d$. Considering the entries to be noncommutative and substituting in (1) we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 r_a(x) &= x^3 + b^2x - bxb + xb^2, \\
 r_b(x) &= bx^2 - xbx + x^2b + b^3, \\
 r_c(x) &= -bx^2 + xbx - x^2b - b^3 = -r_b(x), \\
 r_d(x) &= x^3 + b^2x - bxb + xb^2 = r_a(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2 *Let's consider $M_2(F, *)$, where $*$ is the symplectic involution and its symmetric elements but with noncommutative entries. The Robson cubics for them turn into one first degree polynomial, namely*

$$r(x) = x - a.$$

Proof. We consider the symmetric elements of $M_2(F, *)$ for $*$ being the symplectic involution. The equality

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^* = \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

gives $b = c = 0, a = d$. Then (1) shows

$$\begin{aligned} r_a(x) &= (x - a)^3, \\ r_b(x) &= r_c(x) = 0, \\ r_d(x) &= (x - a)^3. \end{aligned}$$

The degree of the polynomial $r_a(x)$ is really 1, i.e. $r(x) = x - a$.

Proposition 4 [5, Proposition 6] *Let's consider $M_2(F, *)$, where $*$ is the symplectic involution and its skew-symmetric elements but with noncommutative entries. The Robson cubics for them are*

$$\begin{aligned} r_a(x) &= (x - a)(x + a)(x - a) - cb(x - a) \\ &+ c(x - a)b - (x - a)cb \\ &= [(x - a)(x + a) - cb](x - a) + [c(x - a) - (x - a)c]b, \\ r_b(x) &= b(x + a)(x - a) - (x + a)b(x - a) \\ &+ (x + a)(x - a)b - bcb \\ &= [b(x + a) - (x + a)b](x - a) + [(x + a)(x - a) - bc]b, \\ r_c(x) &= c(x - a)(x + a) - (x - a)c(x + a) \\ &+ (x - a)(x + a)c - cbc \\ &= [c(x - a) - (x - a)c](x + a) + [(x - a)(x + a) - cb]c, \\ r_d(x) &= (x + a)(x - a)(x + a) - bc(x + a) \\ &+ b(x + a)c - (x + a)bc \\ &= [(x + a)(x - a) - bc](x + a) + [b(x + a) - (x + a)b]c. \end{aligned}$$

In [1] D. La Mattina and P. Misso study some associative algebras with involution investigating their polynomial growth. We will consider here some of these algebras.

The first case will be a noncommutative one.

Let R be a noncommutative ring and

$$M1(R) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}; a, b \in R \right\}.$$

Theorem 3 *A law for a matrix of $M1(R)$ is $r = (x - a)^2$. For a scalar matrix $r(x) = x - a$.*

Proof. Direct computations.

Remark 1 We point that over a field F of characteristic zero the Robson cubics (1) for $M_2(F, *)$ turn into one second degree polynomial given by the Cayley-Hamilton theorem, namely

$$r(x) = (x - a)(x - d) - bc.$$

Really in this case (1) gives

$$\begin{aligned} r_a(x) &= (x - a)(x - d)(x - a) - bc(x - a), \\ r_b(x) &= b(x - d)(x - a) - b^2c, \\ r_c(x) &= c(x - a)(x - d) - bc^2, \\ r_d(x) &= (x - d)(x - a)(x - d) - bc(x - d). \end{aligned}$$

The Cayley-Hamilton theorem for a 2×2 matrix A means that $A^2 - \text{tr}A \cdot A + \det A \cdot E = 0$. If $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ we have $\alpha^2 - (a + d)\alpha + ad - bc = 0$. This equation could be written as $r(x) = (x - a)(x - d) - bc = (x - d)(x - a) - bc = 0$. Thus $r_a(x) = r(x)(x - a)$, $r_d(x) = r(x)(x - d)$, $r_b(x) = br(x)$ and $r_c(x) = cr(x)$.

3. LAWS FOR 3×3 MATRICES

Now we give some evidence in the case $n = 3$ for a field F . The first study of the noncommutative case was done in [3]. The results there provide further evidence of the tantalizing complexity of even these small matrices.

We start with the matrix algebra $M_3(F)$ over a field F of characteristic zero. We try to find some of the polynomials of the algebra $F\langle x \rangle$ generated by x and the 9 entries of a 3×3 matrix α , which are satisfied by α .

Using the Newton's formulas [9, p.18] the Cayley-Hamilton theorem gives that for a matrix $A \in M_3(F)$

$$A^3 - \alpha_1 A^2 + \alpha_2 A - \alpha_3 E = 0. \tag{2}$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_1 &= \text{tr}A \\ 2\alpha_2 &= \alpha_1 \text{tr}A - \text{tr}A^2 = \text{tr}^2 A - \text{tr}A^2 \\ 3\alpha_3 &= \alpha_2 \text{tr}A - \alpha_1 \text{tr}A^2 + \text{tr}A^3. \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

Theorem 4 For a skew-symmetric matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a & b \\ -a & 0 & c \\ -b & -c & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in M_3(F, t)$$

we have

$$r_{ss}(x) = x^3 + (a^2 + b^2 + c^2)x \in F\langle x \rangle.$$

Proof: We see that $\text{tr}A = 0$, $\text{tr}A^2 = -2(a^2 + b^2 + c^2)$ and $\text{tr}A^3 = 0$. Thus we get

$$A^3 - \frac{1}{2}(\text{tr}A^2)A - \frac{1}{3}(\text{tr}A^3)E = 0, \text{ i.e.}$$

$$r_{ss}(x) = x^3 + (a^2 + b^2 + c^2)x.$$

Remark 2 For a symmetric matrix $A = (a_{ij}) \in M_3(F, t)$ the corresponding polynomial is too long to be written. We give only parts of its coefficients, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}A &= a_{11} + a_{22} + a_{33}, \\ \text{tr}A^2 &= 2(a_{11}^2 + a_{22}^2 + a_{33}^2 + a_{12}^2 + a_{13}^2 + a_{23}^2), \\ \text{tr}A^3 &= a_{11}^3 + a_{22}^3 + a_{33}^3 + 6a_{12}a_{13}a_{23} \\ &\quad + 3a_{12}^2(a_{11} + a_{22}) + 3a_{13}^2(a_{11} + a_{33}) + 3a_{23}^2(a_{22} + a_{33}). \end{aligned}$$

In [1] three 3×3 matrix algebras are considered.

Let

$$M2(F) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ 0 & a & b \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{pmatrix}; a, b, c \in F \right\}.$$

The algebra $M2(F)$ is endowed with the involution

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ 0 & a & b \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{pmatrix}^* = \begin{pmatrix} a & -b & c \\ 0 & a & -b \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

Theorem 5 A law for $M2(F)$ is $r(x) = (x - a)^3$. For the symmetric elements of $(M2(F), *)$ we have $r_s(x) = (x - a)^2$ and for the skew-symmetric elements $r_{ss}(x) = x^3$.

Proof. For a matrix $A \in M2(F)$ we get $\text{tr}A = 3a$, $\text{tr}A^2 = 3a^2$ and $\text{tr}A^3 = 3a^3$. Thus (2) and (3) give $\alpha_1 = 3a$, $\alpha_2 = 3a^2$, $\alpha_3 = a^3$ and

$$r(x) = x^3 - 3ax^2 + 3a^2x - a^3 = (x - a)^3.$$

In the symmetric case ($b = 0$) we get really $r_s(x) = (x - a)^2$ while in the skew-symmetric one ($a = c = 0$) we have $r_{ss}(x) = x^3$.

Let

$$M3(F) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ 0 & 0 & d \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{pmatrix}; a, b, c, d \in F \right\}.$$

The algebra $M3(F)$ is endowed with the involution

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ 0 & 0 & d \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{pmatrix}^* = \begin{pmatrix} a & -b & c \\ 0 & 0 & -d \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

Theorem 6 *A law for $M3(F)$ is $r(x) = (x-a)^2x$. For the symmetric elements of $(M3(F), *)$ we have $r_s(x) = (x - a)^2$ and for the skew-symmetric elements $r_{ss}(x) = x^3$.*

Proof. For a matrix $A \in M3(F)$ we get $\text{tr}A = 2a$, $\text{tr}A^2 = 2a^2$ and $\text{tr}A^3 = 2a^3$. Thus (2) and (3) give $\alpha_1 = 2a$, $\alpha_2 = a^2$, $\alpha_3 = 0$ and

$$r(x) = x^3 - 2ax^2 + a^2x = (x - a)^2x.$$

In the symmetric case ($b = c = d = 0$) we get really $r_s(x) = (x - a)^2$ while in the skew-symmetric one ($a = c = 0$) we have $r_{ss}(x) = x^3$.

At the end we consider

$$M4(F) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b & c \\ 0 & a & d \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; a, b, c, d \in F \right\}.$$

The algebra $M4(F)$ is endowed with the involution

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & b & c \\ 0 & a & d \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^* = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -b & c \\ 0 & a & -d \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Theorem 7 *A law for $M4(F)$ is $r(x) = (x-a)x^2$. For the symmetric elements of $(M4(F), *)$ we have $r_s(x) = (x-a)x$ and for the skew-symmetric elements $r_{ss}(x) = x^3$.*

Proof. For a matrix $A \in M4(F)$ we get $\text{tr}A = a$, $\text{tr}A^2 = a^2$ and $\text{tr}A^3 = a^3$. Thus (2) and (3) give $\alpha_1 = a$, $\alpha_2 = 0$, $\alpha_3 = 0$ and

$$r(x) = x^3 - ax^2 = (x-a)x^2.$$

In the symmetric case ($b = d = 0$) we get $r_s(x) = (x-a)x$. In the skew-symmetric case ($a = c = 0$) we have $r_{ss}(x) = x^3$.

Remark 3 *If we consider $M3(F)$ and $M4(F)$ with involution defined by reflecting a matrix along its secondary diagonal the corresponding laws are really cubics, i.e.*

$$\deg r(x) = \deg r_s(x) = \deg r_{ss}(x) = 3.$$

In [8] J.C. Robson found laws of degree 7 for $M_3(R)$ over a noncommutative ring R . They are four and each of them has 1156 terms.

Acknowledgement: The paper is partially supported by Grant MM1503/2005 of the Bulgarian Foundation for Scientific Research.

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