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# On products of singular elements 

by Rached MNEIMNÉ and Frédéric TESTARD

Some rings, like the ring $M(n, K)$ of square matrices, do not contain irreducible elements: any singular element $x$ can be written as the product $x=y z$ of two singular elements $y$ and $z$. We shall call these rings $S$-rings. Our first purpose in this paper is to exhibit some examples of $S$-rings. For instance, we give a necessary and sufficient condition ensuring that $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ is an $S$-ring.

More generally, let us denote by $S_{i}(R)$ (or just $S_{i}$ if no confusion is possible) the set of elements of a ring $R$, which can be written as the product of $i$ singular elements; the sequence $\left(S_{i}\right)$ is decreasing (we only consider rings where left invertibility is equivalent to right invertibility) and moreover the ring $R$ is an $S$-ring if and only if $S_{1}=S_{2}$. We denote by $S_{\infty}$ the intersection of all the $S_{i}$; when the sequence ( $S_{i}$ ) is stationnary ( $S_{i}=S_{k}$ whenever $i \geq k$ ), we have $S_{\infty}=S_{k}$ if $k$ is the first index $i$ such that $S_{i}=S_{i+1}$. There is a natural operation of the group $G L(R)$ of all invertible elements of the ring $R$ on the set $S_{i}$ defined by: $(g, x) \mapsto g x$ for $g \in G L(R)$ and $x \in S_{i}$, where $g x$ is the product in $R$ of the two elements $g$ and $x$. This defines clearly an operation of $G L(R)$ on $S_{i}$, hence also on $S_{i} \backslash S_{i+1}$ (elements of $S_{i}$ which do not belong to $S_{i+1}$ ). Other natural operations could have been considered: $(g, x) \mapsto x g^{-1}$ or $(g, x) \mapsto g x g^{-1}$ or the following operation of $G L(R) \times G L(R)$ on $S_{i}$ given by $\left(\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right), x\right) \mapsto g_{1} x g_{2}^{-1}$. When the ring $R$ is commutative, these operations bring nothing new. This is the case of the ring $K[A]$ of polynomial expansions of the matrix $A \in M(n, K)$ for which we dispose of a particularly nice description of the orbits of $G L(A)$ $(=G L(K[A]))-($ Part 3$)$.

In part 2, we study in an elementary way the ring $K[A]$ by giving a necessary and sufficient condition in order that the matrix $A$ could be written as $P(A) Q(A)$, where $P$ and $Q$ are polynomials, with $P(A)$ and $Q(A)$ two singular matrices (i.e. $A \in S_{2}(K[A])$ ).

Part 4 is devoted to the solution of the following non trivial problem: given any matrix $A$, what is the maximal number $n(A)$ of singular and

[^0]permutable matrices $A_{i}$ such that $A=A_{1} \cdots A_{m}$ ? A simple observation allows us to answer the same problem, for $A$ and $A_{i}$ bistochastic.

## 1. Examples of $S$-rings

We begin with an easy criterion
Lemma 1. Let $E$ and $F$ be two rings and $E \times F$ be their product ring; then $E \times F$ is an $S$-ring if and only $E$ and $F$ are $S$-rings. In particular, any finite product of fields is an $S$-ring.

Proof Consider a singular element $(x, y)$ in $E \times F$. For instance, $x$ is not invertible. We can find $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ two singular elements in $E$ so that $x=x_{1} x_{2}$; then $(x, y)=\left(x_{1}, y\right) \cdot\left(x_{2}, 1\right)$ is the product of two singular elements of $E \times F$. Conversely, suppose that $E \times F$ is an $S$-ring and take $x$, any singular element in $E$. There exist two singular couples ( $x_{1}, y_{1}$ ) and $\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)$ so that $(x, 1)=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right) \cdot\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)$. Since $y_{1} \cdot y_{2}=1, x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are not invertible, and $E$ is an $S$-ring; the same argument works for $F$.

Lemma 2. Let $p$ be a prime and $\alpha$ be a positive integer. The ring $R=$ $\mathbb{Z} / p^{\alpha} \mathbb{Z}$ is an $S$-ring if and only if $\alpha=1$.

Proof If $\alpha=1$, the ring $R$ is a field and there is no problem; otherwise the class of $p$ cannot be the product of two singular classes since it would imply $p-p^{2} k=c p^{\alpha}$ where $k$ and $c$ are integers, which is impossible if $\alpha \geq 2$.

Proposition 1. Let $R=\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$; the ring $R$ is an $S$-ring if and only if $n=p_{1} \cdots p_{k}$ where the $p_{i}$ are distinct primes.

Proof If $n=p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{\alpha_{k}}$, the rings $R$ and $\prod_{i=1}^{r}\left(\mathbb{Z} / p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}} \mathbb{Z}\right)$ are isomorphic. The conclusion follows easily from lemmas 1 and 2.

Proposition 2. Let $X$ be a topological space and $R=C(X, \mathbb{R})$ be the ring of all continuous mappings from $X$ to $\mathbb{R}$. Then $R$ is an $S$-ring.

Proof The function $f$ is singular in $R$ if and only if it vanishes at some point of $X$. When it happens, the same is true for the two continuous mappings $f_{1}=f^{1 / 3}$ and $f_{2}=f^{2 / 3}$ and $f=f_{1} f_{2}$.

Proposition 3. Let $R$ be the ring of all germs of $C^{\infty}$ real functions on a neighbourhood of zero. Then $f \in S_{i} \Leftrightarrow f(0)=f^{\prime}(0)=\cdots=f^{(i-1)}(0)=0$.

Proof Let us recall that a germ is an equivalence class with respect to the relation: $f \mathcal{R} g \Leftrightarrow f=g$ on a neighbourhood of zero. An element $f$ of $R$ is singular if and only if $f(0)=0$ and a straightforward application of Leibniz's derivation rule shows that if $f=f_{1} \cdots f_{i}$ is the product of $i$ singular elements, the function $f$ and its $i-1$ first derivatives vanish at 0 . Conversely, if this is true, Taylor's formula gives, for $x$ small enough:

$$
f(x)=\frac{x^{i}}{(i-1)!} \int_{0}^{1}(1-t)^{i-1} f^{(i)}(t x) d t \text { and the conclusion follows. }
$$

Remark 1: This result provides an exemple of a ring where the sequence $S_{i}$ is not stationnary and does not "converge" to 0 . Indeed the well known $C^{\infty}$-function $f(x)=\exp \left(-1 / x^{2}\right)$ whenever $x \neq 0$, clearly belongs to all the $S_{i}$ without being 0 . The explanation lies in the fact that the ring $R$ of germs of $C^{\infty}$ functions which is a local ring ( $S_{1}$ is an ideal, hence the unique maximal ideal) is not noetherian: indeed, in a local noetherian ring, the intersection $\bigcap S_{i}$ is equal to $\{0\}$ as it results trivially from Krull's theorem (see e.g. Atiyah-Macdonald: Introduction to Commutative Algebra p. 110 -Addison-Wesley 1969).

Proposition 4. Let $K$ be a field and $R=M(n, K)$ be the ring of square matrices $n \times n$ with coefficients in $K$. Then $R$ is an $S$-ring.

Proof Let $A \in R$ be a singular matrix and $r<n$ be the rank of $A$. We know that $A$ is equivalent to the matrix $J_{r}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}I_{r} & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right]$ where $I_{r}$ denotes the identity matrix of order $r$, i.e. there exist two invertible matrices $P$ and $Q$ such that $A=P J_{r} Q$. Since $J_{r}^{2}=J_{r}$, we get $A=X Y$ where $X=P J_{r}$ and $Y=J_{r} Q$ are singular matrices.

Corollary 1. The ring of bistochastic matrices of order $n$ is an $S$-ring.
Proof Recall that a matrix $M=\left(a_{i, j}\right)$ is bistochastic if there exists $d$ in $K$ such that $\forall i, \sum_{j} a_{i j}=d$ and $\forall j, \sum_{i} a_{i j}=d$. It is easy to prove that $M$ is bistochastic if and only if $M(H) \subset H$ and $M(D) \subset D$ where $H$ denotes the hyperplane of $K^{n}$ equipped with its canonical basis $\left\{e_{1} \ldots, e_{n}\right\}$, of equation $\sum_{i} x_{i}=0$ and $D$ is the one dimensional subspace generated by $\sum_{i} e_{i}$. Hence, there exists an invertible matrix $P$, independent of $M$, satisfying $M=P\left[\begin{array}{cc}A & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda\end{array}\right] P^{-1}$; where $A$ is an element of $M(n-1, K)$. This defines an isomorphism between the ring of bistochastic matrices and $M(n-1, K) \times K$ and the conclusion follows from lemma 1.

## 2. Singular polynomial decompositions of matrices

From now on, $A$ will denote a square matrix, $P$ and $Q$ will be polynomials.

Proposition 5. The singular matrix $A$ can be written as $P(A) Q(A)$, where $P(A)$ and $Q(A)$ are singular if and only if 0 is a simple root of the minimal polynomial of $A$.

Proof Let us recall that the minimal polynomial of $A$ is the unitary generator $\pi$ of the ideal of all polynomials which vanish at $A$. The roots of $\pi$ in the field $K$ are the eigenvalues of $A$ in $K$. In particular, 0 is a root of $\pi$ since $A$ is singular.

The sufficient condition is easy to prove: one can write, $0=\pi(A)=$ $\lambda A+A Q(A)$ with $\lambda \neq 0, Q$ being a polynomial vanishing at 0 ; so that $A=(-A / \lambda) Q(A)$ and the conclusion follows, since $Q(A)$ is singular $(Q(A)$ admits $Q(0)=0$ as an eigenvalue). Conversely, if $A=P(A) Q(A)$, the minimal polynomial of $A$ divides the polynomial $X-P(X) Q(X)$ : it is enough to prove that 0 is a simple root of $X-P(X) Q(X)$. Let us first remark that the equality $A=P(A) Q(A)$ remains true for any matrix $B$ similar to $A$, so that, considering an upper triangular matrix $B$ similar to $A$, (we could need to extend the ground field) we get $\lambda_{i}=P\left(\lambda_{i}\right) Q\left(\lambda_{i}\right)$ for any eigenvalue $\lambda_{i}$ of $A$ this implies that if $\lambda_{i} \neq 0, P\left(\lambda_{i}\right) \neq 0$ and $Q\left(\lambda_{i}\right) \neq 0$, so necessarily, since $P(A)$ and $Q(A)$ are singular, $P(0)=Q(0)=0$ and the required conclusion follows easily.

Remark 2: An equivalent way to characterize such matrices is the following: 0 is a simple root of the minimal polynomial if and only if $\operatorname{ker}(A)=$ $\operatorname{ker}\left(A^{2}\right)$.

Remark 3: Let $R$ be the ring $K[A]$; it results from the proof of proposition 5 that if $A \in S_{2}$, then $A \in S_{i}, \forall i$ (once we have written $A=(-A / \lambda) Q(A)$, we obtain $A=\left(A / \lambda^{2}\right) Q(A) Q(A)$, and so on). We will understand the situation much better in the following section (see Remark 8).

Corollary 2. For $A=B^{k}$, there exist polynomials $P$ and $Q$ so that $A=P(A) Q(A)$ with $P(A)$ and $Q(A)$ singular matrices if and only if 0 is a root of the minimal polynomial of $B$ of order $\leq k$.

Proof This is an easy consequence of the fact already noticed in remark 2 , that the order of 0 in the minimal polynomial of a matrix $M$ is the first step where the increasing sequence $\operatorname{ker}\left(M^{i}\right)$ becomes stationnary: we have $\operatorname{ker}\left(B^{k}\right)=\operatorname{ker}(A) \subset \operatorname{ker}\left(B^{k+1}\right) \subset \cdots \subset \operatorname{ker}\left(B^{2 k}\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(A^{2}\right)$.

## 3. The ring $K[A]$ for itself

In this section it will be assumed that the field $K$ is algebraically closed, although most results can be stated in a more general context; let us recall that the ring $R=K[A]=\{P(A), P \in K[X]\}$ is isomorphic to the quotient ring $K[X] /(\pi)$, where $(\pi)$ denotes the principal ideal generated by the minimal polynomial of $A$. Writing $\pi$ in the form $\pi(X)=\prod_{i}\left(X-\lambda_{i}\right)^{\alpha_{i}}\left(\lambda_{i} \in\right.$ $K, \alpha_{i} \in \mathbb{N}^{\star}$ ) it follows from the chinese remainder theorem (or from an adequate computation of the dimension of the underlying vector spaces) that $K[A]$ is isomorphic to the product ring $\prod_{i} K[X] /\left(X-\lambda_{i}\right)^{\alpha_{i}}$, so that we obtain, as for the ring $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$, a first result:

Proposition 6. The ring $K[A]$ is an $S$-ring if and only if $A$ is diagonalisable.

Proof This is again a straightforward consequence of lemma•1, once we know that a matrix $A$ can be reduced to the diagonal form if and only if the minimal polynomial of $A$ has simple roots.

Remark 4: If $K$ is no more algebraically closed, we can replace the statement of proposition 6 by the more general one: the ring $K[A]$ is an $S$-ring if and only if $A$ is semisimple (i.e. diagonalisable over an extension $K^{\prime}$ of $K$ ).

Remark 5: It is not worthless to note that an element $M=P(A)$ of the ring $R=K[A]$ is invertible if and only if $\operatorname{det}(M) \neq 0$ or still, if and only if $P(X)$ and $\pi(X)$ are coprime: the first criterion results for instance, from a direct application of Cayley-Hamilton theorem; as for the second it is, in view of the isomorphism $K[A] \cong K[X] /(\pi)$, a consequence of Bezout theorem.

Before we start the study of the sets $S_{i}$ for the ring $K[A]$, together with their $G L(A)$-action, we give a general lemma which can be more easily stated if the underlying set of the group $G L(R)$ of a ring $R$ is denoted by $S_{0}(R)$ :

Lemma 3. Let $E$ and $F$ be two rings and $E \times F$ be their product ring. Then, for $n \geq 1$

$$
S_{n}(E \times F)=\bigcup S_{i}(E) \times S_{j}(F) \text { the union being taken over } i+j \geq n
$$

Proof Let $x=x_{1} \cdots x_{i}$ be an element of $S_{i}(E)$ and $y=y_{1} \cdots y_{j}$ an element of $S_{j}(F)$ where all the $\left(x_{k}, y_{k}\right)$ are singular unless $i=0$ or $j=$ 0 . We write $(x, y)=\left(x_{1}, 1\right) \cdots\left(x_{i}, 1\right)\left(1, y_{1}\right) \cdots\left(1, y_{j}\right)$; the element $(x, y)$
belongs to $\left.S_{i+j}(E \times F) \subset S_{n}\right)$, since $i+j \geq n \geq 1$. Conversely, let $(x, y)=$ $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right) \cdots\left(x_{n}, y_{n}\right)$ be an element of $S_{n}(E \times F)$ where all the couples $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ are singular. We write $(x, y)=\left(x_{1} \cdots x_{n}, y_{1} \cdots y_{n}\right)$ and we denote by $i$ the number (possibly equal to 0 ) of $x_{k}$ which are singular in $E$, so there are ( $n-i$ ) elements $x_{k}$ which are invertible; the corresponding $y_{k}$ are necessarily singular, so that at least $j \geq n-i$ elements among the $y_{k}$ are singular and $y \in S_{j}(F)$; the result then follows from the hypothesis $x \in S_{i}(E)$.

Remark 6: The lemma can be easily extended by induction to the case of a finite product of rings $E_{1}, \ldots, E_{f}$.

Remark 7: For $n \geq 2$, the indexation in lemma 3 could be replaced by $i+j=n$. (For $n=1$, this is no more true because the factor $S_{1} \times S_{1}$ cannot be taken into account). In the case of $k$ rings, we get the same for $n \geq k$.

Proposition 7. Let $R=K[A]$ and $\pi(X)=\prod_{i}\left(X-\lambda_{i}\right)^{\alpha_{i}}, i=1, \ldots, r$ the minimal polynomial of $A$, then $S_{\infty}=S_{\rho}$ where $\rho=\sum_{i}\left(\alpha_{i}-1\right)+1$.

Proof Since the sets $S_{i}$ behave well under ring isomorphisms, we look at the problem in the ring $R=\prod_{i} R_{i}$, where $R_{i}$ denotes the quotient ring $K[X] /\left(X-\lambda_{i}\right)^{\alpha_{i}}$. Let $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right)$ belong to $S_{\rho}(R)$; we shall prove that one of the components of $x$ is zero, this will imply clearly that $x \in S_{\infty}$. From lemma 3, we have $x_{j} \in S_{\beta_{j}}\left(R_{j}\right)$, where $\sum_{j} \beta_{j} \geq \rho$, so that one of the $\beta_{i}$, say $\beta_{k}$ is $\geq \alpha_{k}$ (otherwise, we would have $\sum_{j} \beta_{j} \leq \sum_{j}\left(\alpha_{j}-1\right)<\rho$ ) which ensures $x_{k} \in S_{\alpha_{k}}\left(R_{k}\right)=\{0\}$. To end the proof, we notice that the element $x=\left(\left(X-\lambda_{1}\right)^{\alpha_{1}-1}, \ldots,\left(X-\lambda_{r}\right)^{\alpha_{r}-1}\right)$ is in $S_{\rho-1}$ but not in $S_{\rho}$ (no component of $x$ is equal to zero!)

Again Lemma 3 will be of use to establish the following criterion:
Proposition 8. An element $P(A)$ in the ring $R=K[A]$ belongs to $S_{2}$ if and only if $P$ vanishes at at least two eigenvalues not necessary distinct of $A$ or at an eigenvalue of order one in the minimal polynomial of $A$.

Proof We keep the notation introduced in the precedent proof; the isomorphism between the ring $R=K[A]$ and the ring $\Pi R_{i}$ is given by $P(A) \mapsto P_{i}$ where $P_{i}$ denotes the class of the polynomial $P(X)$ in the quotient $R_{i}$. Hence, the element $P(A)$ belongs to $S_{2}$ if and only if one among the $P_{i}$ belongs to $S_{2}\left(R_{i}\right)$ or at least two among the $P_{i}$, say $P_{t}$ and $P_{s}$, belong to $S_{1}\left(R_{t}\right)$ and $S_{1}\left(R_{s}\right)$ respectively, the second alternative implies clearly that the polynomial $P$ is divisible by $\left(X-\lambda_{t}\right)$ and by $\left(X-\lambda_{s}\right)$, the first alternative means that $P$ is divisible by $\left(X-\lambda_{i}\right)^{2}$ if $\alpha_{i} \geq 2$ or $P_{i}=0$ if $\alpha_{i}=1$.

Remark 8: We understand now better the proposition 5 and the remark 3: to say that $A$ belongs to $S_{2}$ means that the polynomial $X$ (which cannot vanish at two eigenvalues of $A!$ ) vanishes at an eigenvalue of order 1 in $\pi_{A}$; since 0 is its only root, this means that 0 is a simple root of $\pi_{A}$. The image in the product $\prod R_{i}$ has one of its components 0 so, belongs to $S_{\infty}$.

Remark 9: A necessary and sufficient condition in order that an element $P(A)$ belongs to $S_{3}$ could be stated: the polynomial must vanish at at least three roots, or must be divisible by $(X-\lambda)^{2}$ where $\lambda$ is a root of order 2 of $\pi_{A}$, or vanish at a simple root of $\pi_{A}$ The proof is left to the reader.

Our purpose until the end of this section will be the study of the orbits of $G L(A)$ on the $S_{i}$. We begin with the case $\pi(X)=(X-\lambda)^{\alpha}$ (i.e. $A=\lambda I+N$, N nilpotent). In this case $S_{\alpha}=\{0\} \subset S_{\alpha-1} \subset \cdots \subset S_{1}$ (strict inclusions). For $i=1, \ldots, \alpha-1$, an element of $R=K[X] /(X-\lambda)^{\alpha}$ belongs to $S_{i} \backslash S_{i+1}$ if and only if it can be written as $(X-\lambda)^{i} Q(X), Q$ and $\pi$ being mutually prime, which means in view of remark 5 , that it belongs to the orbit of $(X-\lambda)^{i}$. This proves that the $S_{i} \backslash S_{i+1}$ along with $S_{\alpha}$ are the orbits of $G L(R)$ acting on $S_{1}$; in particular, there are $\alpha$ orbits.

The following lemma will permit us to compute the number of orbits in the general case:

Lemma 4. Let $G_{i}$ denotes the group of invertible elements of the ring $E_{i}, i=1, \ldots, k$ and let $E$ be the product ring. Then $G L(E)$ is isomorphic to the product $\Pi G L\left(E_{i}\right)$. Moreover, if $\alpha_{i}$ is the number of orbits of $G_{i}$ acting on $S_{1}\left(E_{i}\right)$, then the number of orbits of $G L(E)$ on $S_{1}(E)$ is given by $\left(\alpha_{1}+1\right)\left(\alpha_{2}+1\right) \cdots\left(\alpha_{r}+1\right)-1$.

Proof The assertion concerning $G L(E)$ is trivial. As for the second, we begin with the case $n=2$. Considering the action of $G_{1} \times G_{2}$ on the set of singular elements of $R_{1} \times R_{2}$, we can divide the orbits in three kinds: orbits of elements $(x, y)$ where $x$ and $y$ are singular, orbits of elements $(x, y)$ where $x$ is singular and $y$ is invertible and finally, orbits of those elements $(x, y)$ where $x$ is invertible and $y$ singular. There are clearly $\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}$ orbits of the first kind, $\alpha_{1}$ of the second type and $\alpha_{2}$ of the third, which gives $\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}+\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}=\left(\alpha_{1}+1\right)\left(\alpha_{2}+1\right)-1$, first and last. An induction argument will do with the general case.

Proposition 9. The action of $G L(A)$ on the set of singular elements of $K[A]$ determines $\prod_{i}\left(\alpha_{i}+1\right)-1$ orbits, $i=1, \ldots, r$ if the minimal polynomial is given by $\prod_{i}\left(X-\lambda_{i}\right)^{\alpha_{i}}$.

Proof it is an immediate consequence of lemma 4 and the discussion
before.
Corollary 3. The non empty sets $S_{i} \backslash S_{i+1}$, along with $S_{\infty}$ are exactly the orbits of $G L(A)$ acting on $K[A]$ if and only if the matrix $A$ can be written $A=\lambda I+N$, where $\lambda \in K$ and $N$ nilpotent.

Proof We have already established the sufficient condition. Conversely, our hypothesis implies that, in view of proposition 7 and 8 ,

$$
\sum_{i}\left(\alpha_{i}-1\right)+1=\prod_{i}\left(\alpha_{i}+1\right)-1
$$

which is possible only if $r=1$, that is $A=\lambda I+N$.
Corollary 4. Let $A$ have $r$ distinct eigenvalues, then $A$ is diagonalisable if and only if the number of orbits on the set of singular elements is $2^{r}-1$.

Proof This is clear since the condition is equivalent to $\alpha_{i}=1, \forall i$.
Proposition 10. Let $S_{\infty}=S_{\rho}$ in the ring $R=K[A]$ and suppose that $K[A]$ is not an $S$-ring (i.e. $\rho \geq 2$ ), then the number of orbits of $G L(A)$ acting on the non-empty set $S_{1} \backslash S_{2}$ is exactly the number of multiple roots of the minimal polynomial $\pi_{A}$. Moreover, the non-empty set $S_{\rho-1} \backslash S_{\rho}$ is exactly an orbit in the singular set.

Proof We keep use of the isomorphism $R \cong \prod_{i} R_{i}$ with its $G L(A) \cong$ $\prod_{i} G L\left(R_{i}\right)$ action; an element $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right)$ belongs to $S_{1} \backslash S_{2}$ if and only if all the $x_{i}$ but one, say $x_{k}$ are invertible and $x_{k}$ belongs to $S_{1}\left(R_{k}\right) \backslash S_{2}\left(R_{k}\right)$; this set is hence non empty and a $G L\left(R_{k}\right)$-orbit. We get so a correspondence between the orbit of the element $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right)$ and the necessary multiple eigenvalue $\alpha$. As for the second assertion, we first make use of lemma 3: the element $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right)$ belongs to $S_{\rho-1} \backslash S_{\rho}$ if $x_{i} \in S_{\beta i}\left(R_{\beta i}\right)$ and $\sum_{i} \beta_{i} \geq \rho-1$ and no $x_{i}$ is zero (cf. proof of proposition 7), that is $\beta_{i} \leq \alpha_{i}-1$; since $\rho-1=$ $\sum_{i}\left(\alpha_{i}-1\right)$, we get $\beta_{i}=\alpha_{i}-1$, for every $i$. But each $S_{\alpha_{i}-1}\left(R_{i}\right) \backslash S_{\alpha_{i}}\left(R_{i}\right)$ is an orbit (even if $\alpha_{i}=1$; see our convention of notation preceding lemma 3 ), the conclusion follows.

Remark 10: More generally, it is not difficult to establish that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the orbits in $S_{k} \backslash S_{k-1}$ and the $r$-uples $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{r}\right)$ for which $a_{1}+\cdots+a_{r}=k$ and $0 \leq a_{i} \leq \alpha_{i}-1$ for every $i$. This gives for example in the case of a matrix $A$ with minimal polynomial $\pi_{A}(X)=X^{3}(X+1)^{4}(X-1)^{3}$ (here $\rho=(2+3+2)+1=8$ and the number of orbits is 79 ) exactly 3 orbits in $S_{1} \backslash S_{2}, 6$ orbits in $S_{2} \backslash S_{3}, 8$ orbits in
$S_{3} \backslash S_{4}, 8$ orbits in $S_{4} \backslash S_{5}, 6$ orbits in $S_{5} \backslash S_{6}, 3$ orbits in $S_{6} \backslash S_{7}$, one orbit in $S_{7} \backslash S_{8}$ and 44 orbits in $S_{8}$.

Computing all the orbits in $S_{1} \backslash S_{\rho}$, we need to know all the ( $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{r}$ ) such that $\forall i 0 \leq a_{i} \leq \alpha_{i}-1$ and $1 \leq a_{1}+\cdots+a_{r} \leq \rho-1$. This last inequality is a consequence of the first $r$ inequalities, so there are ( $\alpha_{1} \cdots \alpha_{r}-1$ ) orbits in $S_{1} \backslash S_{\infty}$ and by substraction $\Pi\left(\alpha_{i}+1\right)-\left(\alpha_{1} \cdots \alpha_{r}\right)$ orbits in $S_{\infty}$ (result which is valid even if $\rho=1$ ). It is now easy to solve the following:

Exercise 1: Prove that if $A$ has exactly $k$ distinct roots with $k \geq 2$, then $A$ is diagonalisable if and only if there are $2^{k}-1$ orbits of $G L(A)$ on $S_{\infty}$. (Compare with corollary 4).

## 4. Permutable decompositions of singular matrices

If $A$ is a singular matrix, we define $n(A)$ as the upper bound of the numbers $m$ of singular permutative matrices $A_{i}$ such that $A=A_{1} \cdots A_{m}$. In order to compute the number $n(A)$ for a given matrix $A$, we need to introduce a special class of operators characterized by the following:

Proposition 11. For a given matrix acting on the finite dimensional vector space $E=K^{n}$, it is equivalent to say:
a) $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{2}\right)=2 \operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}(A)$
b) the Jordan cells of $A$ associated with the eigenvalue 0 are of order $\geq 2$
c) $\operatorname{ker}(A) \subset \operatorname{im}(A)$
d) the matrix $A$ is similar to a matrix $\left[\begin{array}{cc}0 & X \\ 0 & Y\end{array}\right]$ written with respect to a direct decomposition of $E=\operatorname{ker}(A) \oplus G$ where the linear operators

$$
X: G \xrightarrow{A} E \xrightarrow{p r_{1}} \operatorname{ker}(A) \quad Y: G \xrightarrow{A} E \xrightarrow{p r_{2}} G
$$

satisfy $(\alpha) \operatorname{ker}(X) \oplus \operatorname{ker}(Y)=G$ and $(\beta) X$ is onto.
Proof The equivalence between a) and b) results from the classical Jordan decomposition; the one between a) and c) is a direct consequence of the Frobenius injection $\varphi: \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{2}\right) / \operatorname{ker}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{ker}(A)$ given by $\bar{x} \mapsto A(x)$; thus a) is equivalent to say that $\varphi$ is surjective, which is exactly $c$ ). We prove now $a) \Rightarrow d$ ): let $C_{1}$ be a complementary subspace of $\operatorname{ker}(A)$ in $\operatorname{ker}\left(A^{2}\right)$ and $C_{2}$ be a complementary subspace of $\operatorname{ker}\left(A^{2}\right)$ in E and write $G=C_{1} \oplus C_{2}$ -we have already noticed that the restriction of $A$ to $C_{1}$ is an isomorphism between $C_{1}$ and $\operatorname{ker}(A)$; the same is true for the restriction of $X$ to $C_{1}$,
since these restrictions are equal. It follows that $X$ is onto and that $C_{1}$ and $\operatorname{ker}(X)$ are complementary in $G$. We need only to prove that $C_{1}=\operatorname{ker}(Y)$; it is clear that $C_{1} \subset \operatorname{ker}(Y)$, moreover, if $A^{+}$denotes the restriction of $A$ to $G, A^{+}$is one-to-one so $\operatorname{dim}\left(C_{1}\right)+\operatorname{dim}\left(C_{2}\right)=r k\left(A^{+}\right)=r k\left[\begin{array}{l}X \\ Y\end{array}\right]=$ $r k\left(\left[\begin{array}{ll}X & Y\end{array}\right]\right)=r k(X)+r k(Y)=\operatorname{dim}\left(C_{1}\right)+r k(Y)$ and we are done.

Finally let us prove $d) \Rightarrow a$ ): the matrix $A^{2}$ is similar to $\left[\begin{array}{cc}0 & X Y \\ 0 & Y^{2}\end{array}\right]$ and with respect to the direct decomposition $E=\operatorname{ker}(A) \oplus G$, to say that the vector column $\left[\begin{array}{l}u \\ v\end{array}\right]$ is in $\operatorname{ker}\left(A^{2}\right)$ means that $v \in \operatorname{ker}\left(Y^{2}\right) \cap \operatorname{ker}(X Y)$ and $u$ is arbitrary in $\operatorname{ker}(A)$; but $\operatorname{ker}(Y)=\operatorname{ker}\left(Y^{2}\right) \cap \operatorname{ker}(X Y)$ if $\operatorname{ker}(X) \cap \operatorname{ker}(Y)=$ $\{0\}$ (easy) so that $v \in \operatorname{ker}(Y)$. We end the proof by noting that since $X$ is onto and $G=\operatorname{ker}(X) \oplus \operatorname{ker}(Y)$, we have in fact $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}(Y)=\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}(A)$.

We are able to state the main result of this section:

Proposition 12. The number $n(A)$ is finite if and only if $A$ satisfies the equivalent properties given in proposition 11. In which case $n(A)=$ $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}(A)$.

Proof The matrix $A$ is similar to a matrix $B$ of the form:
$B=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}B_{0} & & & \\ & B_{1} & 0 & \\ & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & & B_{k}\end{array}\right]$, the matrix $B_{0}$ being invertible and each of the matrices $B_{i}$ being a Jordan cell associated to the eigenvalue 0 (obviously, $k=\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}(A)$ and moreover $B_{0}$ is absent if $A$ is nilpotent). If one of the $B_{i}$ is of order 0 , the matrix $A$ is similar to $B=\left[\begin{array}{cc}B^{\prime} & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right]$ and $B=$ $B_{1} \times B_{2} \times \cdots \times B_{p}$, with $B_{1}=B, B_{2}=\cdots=B_{p}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}I_{n-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right]$ (with evident notation), all these matrices are singular and permutative, and we can choose $p$ as large as we want: $n(A)=\infty$. When $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{2}\right)=$ $2 \operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}(A)$, we have $B=B_{1}^{\prime} \times \cdots \times B_{k}^{\prime}$ where $B_{1}^{\prime}=\left[\begin{array}{lllll}B_{0} & & & & \\ & B_{1} & & 0 & \\ & & I d & & \\ & 0 & & \ddots & \\ & & & & I d\end{array}\right]$ (the blocks $B_{0}$ and $B_{1}$ kept unchanged and the others replaced by $I d$ ) and
for $i=2, \ldots, k, B_{i}^{\prime}=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}I d & & & & \\ & \ddots & & 0 & \\ & & B_{i} & & \\ & 0 & & \ddots & \\ & & & & I d\end{array}\right]$ (we replace all the blocks $B_{j}$ by $I d$, except $B_{i}$ which remains unchanged); again these matrices are singular and permutative so $n(A) \geq k=\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}(A)$.

We proceed to prove the opposite inequality (in due course we shall need two lemmas). Suppose that $M=\left[\begin{array}{ll}0 & X \\ 0 & Y\end{array}\right]$ given by proposition 11 can be written as a product $N_{1} \cdots N_{k+1}$, where the $N_{i}$ are permutable matrices; we shall show that one of the $N_{i}$ must be invertible.

Let us write $N_{i}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}S_{i} & D_{i} \\ R_{i} & C_{i}\end{array}\right]$ according to the decomposition of $M$. The first remark is $R_{i}=0$. Indeed, since $N_{i}$ and $M$ commute, $N_{i}(\operatorname{ker}(M)) \subset$ $\operatorname{ker}(M)$, that is $R_{i}=0$. It follows that the $S_{i}$ are permutative and that $S_{1} \times S_{2} \cdots \times S_{k+1}=0$.

Lemma 5. Let $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{k+1}$ be permutative matrices of order $k$ satisfying $S_{1} \times S_{2} \times \cdots \times S_{k+1}=0$, then after reindexation $S_{1} \times S_{2} \times \cdots \times S_{k}=0$.

Proof By induction. The result is trivial for $k=1$; if $S_{k+1}$ is invertible, the conclusion is clear since we may multiply on the right by its inverse. We may then suppose that the dimension $d$ of the image subspace im $\left(S_{k+1}\right)$ is strictly smaller than $n$. If $S_{i}^{\prime}, i=1, \ldots, n$, denotes the restriction (everything commute with $S_{k+1}$ ) of $S_{i}$ to the subspace $\operatorname{im}\left(S_{k+1}\right)$, we have $S_{1}^{\prime} \times S_{2}^{\prime} \times \cdots \times S_{k}^{\prime}=0$. This last expression can be thought (by grouping if necessary some operators toghether) as the null product of $d+1$ commuting operators in a $d$-dimensional space. By induction hypothesis, we get (after possible reindexation, and reinserting of some possible operators) $S_{1}^{\prime} \times S_{2}^{\prime} \times \cdots \times S_{k-1}^{\prime}=0$, and conclude that at the level of the hole space $S_{1} \times S_{2} \times \cdots \times S_{k-1} \times S_{k+1}=0$.

Accordingly, we may suppose that $S_{1} \times \cdots \times S_{k}=0$ and that, denoting the product $N=N_{1} \cdots N_{k}$ by $\left[\begin{array}{cc}0 & H \\ 0 & U\end{array}\right]$ and $N_{k+1}$ by $\left[\begin{array}{cc}R & S \\ 0 & T\end{array}\right]=0$,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
X=H T=R H+S U & \text { (i) }  \tag{i}\\
Y=U T=T U & \text { (ii), since } M=N N_{k+1}=N_{k+1} N
\end{array}
$$

The last step of the proof will consist of proving that $R$ and $T$ are invertible.
(i) and (ii) imply that $\operatorname{ker}(T) \subset \operatorname{ker}(X)$ and $\operatorname{ker}(T) \subset \operatorname{ker}(Y)$ so that $\operatorname{ker}(T)=\{0\}: T$ is invertible. Now since $T$ is invertible, again (ii) shows that $\operatorname{ker}(U)=\operatorname{ker}(Y)$ and (i) shows that $r k(H)=r k(X)$.

Keeping the notations of proposition 11, we assert that $G=\operatorname{ker}(X) \oplus$ $\operatorname{ker}(U)$ and $G=\operatorname{ker}(H) \oplus \operatorname{ker}(U)$; the first equality is now clear, the second will be established if $\operatorname{ker}(H) \cap \operatorname{ker}(U)=\{0\}$, but this is easy since $\operatorname{ker}(H) \cap$ $\operatorname{ker}(U) \subseteq \operatorname{ker}(U)=\operatorname{ker}(Y)$ and by (i) $\operatorname{ker}(H) \cap \operatorname{ker}(U) \subset \operatorname{ker}(X)$. We get now the invertibility of $R$ from the following lemma:

Lemma 6. Consider the diagram:

and suppose that $x=r \circ h+s \circ u$ together with $\operatorname{ker}(h)$ and $\operatorname{ker}(x)$ in direct summand with $\operatorname{ker}(u)$ in $G$, then $r$ induces an isomorphism between the images of $h$ and $x$.

Proof This is immediate as soon as we consider the restrictions to $\operatorname{ker}(u)$ of the mappings given on $G$.

Corollary 5. If $n\left(A^{k}\right)$ is finite then $n\left(A^{k}\right)=k \cdot n(A)$.
Proof Write $\{0\} \subset \operatorname{ker}(A) \subset \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{2}\right) \subset \cdots \subset \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{k}\right) \subset \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{k+1}\right) \subset$ $\ldots \subset \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{2 k}\right)$. Since $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{2 k}\right)=2 \operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{k}\right)$, the Frobenius inequalities:
$\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{k+1}\right)-\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{k}\right) \leq \operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{k}\right)-\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{k-1}\right)$ are in fact equalities so $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}\left(A^{k}\right)=k \cdot \operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}(A)$.

Remark 11: The preceding corollary shows in particular that if $n(A)$ is odd, the matrix $A$ has no square root.

Proposition 13. Suppose $n(A)<\infty$, and let $A=X_{1} \cdots X_{m}$ a permutative singular maximal decomposition of $A(m=n(A))$, then $\forall i, n\left(X_{i}\right)<\infty$ and is $=1$.

Proof We have $\operatorname{ker}\left(X_{i}\right) \subset \operatorname{ker}(A) \subset \operatorname{im}(A) \subset \operatorname{im}\left(X_{i}\right)$, since the $X_{i}$ commute. So $n\left(X_{i}\right)$ is finite. We proceed, for proving $n\left(X_{i}\right)=1$, by induction on $m=\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}(A)$; the case $m=1$ is trivial. Write $A=X_{1} \cdot B$ where $B=X_{2} \cdots X_{m}$; as for $X_{i}$, we prove that $n(B)$ is finite, but $B$ is
already written as $m-1$ permutative singular matrices, hence $n(B) \geq m-1$. Remember now that $\operatorname{ker}(B) \subset \operatorname{ker}(A)$ so either $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}(B)=m-1$ or $m$; we prove that it is not $m$ : otherwise, the inclusion $\operatorname{im}(A) \subset \operatorname{im}(B)$ would in fact be an equality. Write now: $\operatorname{im}(B)=\operatorname{im}(A)=X_{1}(\operatorname{im}(B))$. This means that $X_{1}$ leaves $\operatorname{im}(B)$ invariant, and its restriction to $\operatorname{im}(B)$ is surjective, and hence $\operatorname{ker}\left(X_{1}\right) \cap \operatorname{im}(B)=\{0\}$. But $\operatorname{ker}\left(X_{1}\right) \subset \operatorname{ker}(A) \subset \operatorname{im}(A)=\operatorname{im}(B)$, so $X_{1}$ is bijective which is false. We have in fact $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker}(B)=m-1$, and $n\left(X_{j}\right)=1 \forall j \geq 2$ by induction hypothesis. Since we could have chosen $B=X_{1} \cdots X_{m-1}$, the fact $n\left(X_{i}\right)=1$ is clear.

The next result is a simple application of proposition 12 to permutative decomposition of singular bistochastic matrices: if $A$ is such a matrix we define $n_{s}(A)$ as the upper bound of the number $m$ of singular permutative bistochastic matrices $A_{i}$ such that $A=A_{1} \cdots A_{m}$.

Proposition 14. For a bistochastic matrix, $n_{s}(A)=n(A)$.
Proof We make again use of the isomorphism between the ring of bistochastic matrices and the product ring $M_{n-1}(K) \times K$, and may suppose $A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}A_{1} & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda\end{array}\right]$ (see the proof of corollary 1 ); if $\lambda=0, n_{s}(A)=n(A)=\infty$; and if $n(A)<\infty$ the scalar $\lambda$ is different from 0 (proposition 11 b )) and $n(A)=n\left(A_{1}\right)$ the conclusion follows easily.

We look in this final paragraph to the upper bound $m(A)$ of numbers $k$ such that $A=A_{1} \cdots A_{k}$ where the $A_{i}$ are singular and quasi-commutative (i.e. $A_{i} A_{j}-A_{j} A_{i}$ is nilpotent).

Proposition 15. $m(A)=\infty, \forall A$.
Proof The problem behaves well under base change, and a simple argument similar to the one given at the beginning of the proof of proposition 12 , shows that we only need to consider the case when $A$ is a Jordan cell $J_{n}$ associated to the zero eigenvalue. But if $B=\left[\begin{array}{llll}1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 0\end{array}\right]$, we have for every $m, B^{m} J_{n}=B J_{n}=J_{n}$; we get the result by noting that two triangular matrices àre quasi-commutative.

Exercises: 2 - Given an arbitrary matrix A, prove that there exists an invertible matrix P , such that $n(P A)<\infty$.

3 - Prove that if $n(A \otimes B)<\infty$, where $A \otimes B$ is the tensor
product of $A$ and $B$, then either $A$ or $B$ is invertible.
4 - Prove that if $p \geq 2$, then $n\left(\Lambda^{p} A\right)=\infty$. (We have denoted by $\Lambda^{P} A$ the $p^{\text {th }}$ exterior power of $A$ ).

5 - Prove that the ring of upper triangular matrices is an $S$-ring. Use this fact to give another proof of proposition 15.

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