## A SURJECTIVITY PROBLEM FOR 3 BY 3 MATRICES

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(Communicated by H. Radjavi)

Abstract. Let *P* be a complex polynomial. We prove that the associated polynomial matrixvalued function  $\tilde{P}$  is surjective if and only if for each  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  the polynomial  $P - \lambda$  has at least a simple zero.

## 1. Natural powers for matrices of order three

For any integer number *n* we denote by  $\mathcal{M}(n, \mathbb{C})$  the set of all complex matrices of order *n*. Let  $A \in \mathcal{M}(3, \mathbb{C})$  be given by

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (1.1)

Denote by  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{C}$  its eigenvalues and by  $P_A(\lambda)$  its characteristic polynomial. Recall that  $P_A(\lambda) = \lambda^3 - s_1(A)\lambda^2 + s_2(A)\lambda - s_3(A)$ , where  $s_i(A)$  are given by

$$s_1(A) = a_1 + b_2 + c_3 \tag{1.2}$$

$$s_2(A) = det \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{pmatrix} + det \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ c_1 & c_3 \end{pmatrix} + det \begin{pmatrix} b_2 & b_3 \\ c_2 & c_3 \end{pmatrix}$$
(1.3)

and

$$s_3(A) = \det(A). \tag{1.4}$$

We begin this section by presenting the powers of the matrix A in a suitable form so the technicalities in the main section are minimal. In addition it enables us to obtain immediately a spectral mapping theorem. There are three cases to consider, namely  $(x-y)(x-z)(y-z) \neq 0$ , x = y = z, and finally  $P_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)^2(\lambda - y)$  with  $x \neq y$ .

**1.** Suppose  $(x-y)(x-z)(y-z) \neq 0$ . Then  $P_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)(\lambda - y)(\lambda - z)$  and from the Hamilton-Cayley Theorem we have  $P_A(A) = (A - xI_3)(A - yI_3)(A - zI_3) = 0_3$ ; the null matrix of order three.

*Keywords and phrases*: Natural powers of matrices, functional calculus with matrices, global problems concerning polynomials of matrices.



Mathematics subject classification (2010): 30C15, 33C50, 15A60, 65F15.

PROPOSITION 1.1. With the above notations, suppose that  $(x-y)(x-z)(y-z) \neq 0$ . Then for every nonnegative integer *n*, one has

$$A^n = x^n B + y^n C + z^n D \tag{1.5}$$

where

$$B = \frac{(A - yI_3)(A - zI_3)}{(x - y)(x - z)}, \quad C = \frac{(A - xI_3)(A - zI_3)}{(y - x)(y - z)}$$
(1.6)

and

$$D = \frac{(A - xI_3)(A - yI_3)}{(z - x)(z - y)}.$$
(1.7)

*Proof.* The proof is an easy mathematical induction argument and is left to the reader.  $\Box$ 

**2.** Suppose the eigenvalues of the matrix  $A \in \mathcal{M}(3,\mathbb{C})$  satisfy the condition x = y = z. Then  $P_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)^3$  and the Hamilton-Cayley Theorem asserts that  $(A - xI)^3 = 0_3$ .

PROPOSITION 1.2. Suppose  $x = y = z \neq 0$ . Then there exists matrices B and C in  $\mathcal{M}(3,\mathbb{C})$  such that

$$A^{n} = x^{n} (n^{2}B + nC + I_{3}) \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}_{+}.$$
(1.8)

In addition, the matrices B and C satisfy the matrix system

$$\begin{cases} x(B+C+I_3) = A\\ x^2(4B+2C+I_3) = A^2. \end{cases}$$
(1.9)

*Proof.* Note the system (1.9) arises, for example, by taking the particular values n = 1 and n = 2 in (1.8). The solution of the system (1.9) is

$$(B,C) = \left(\frac{1}{2x^2}(A - xI_3)^2, -\frac{1}{2x^2}(A - xI_3)(A - 3xI_3)\right).$$
(1.10)

With these values of *B* and *C* the proof of (1.8) is immediate.  $\Box$ 

COROLLARY 1.1. Let  $P(z) := a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 z + a_0$  be a polynomial with complex coefficients, and let x, a, b and c be given complex numbers. For

$$A_1 = A_1(x, a, b, c) := \begin{pmatrix} x & a & c \\ 0 & x & b \\ 0 & 0 & x \end{pmatrix},$$
 (1.11)

 $\tilde{P}(A_1) := a_n A_1^n + a_{n-1} A_1^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 A_1 + a_0 I_3$ , is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} P(x) \ aP'(x) \ \frac{1}{2!} cP''(x) \\ 0 \ P(x) \ bP'(x) \\ 0 \ 0 \ P(x) \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (1.12)

*Proof.* Is enough to see that (1.8) and (1.10) yield

$$A_1^n = \begin{pmatrix} x^n \ anx^{n-1} \ \frac{1}{2!}n(n-1)cx^{n-2} \\ 0 \ x^n \ bnx^{n-1} \\ 0 \ 0 \ x^n \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (1.13)

The details are omitted.  $\Box$ 

3. Suppose  $P_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)^2(\lambda - y)$  with  $x \neq y$ . Then the Hamilton-Cayley Theorem asserts that  $(A - xI_3)^2(A - yI_3) = 0_3$ .

PROPOSITION 1.3. If the matrix A has the eigenvalues x, x, y, with  $x \neq y$  and  $x \neq 0$  then its natural powers are given by

$$A^{n} = x^{n}(nB+C) + y^{n}D, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}_{+},$$
(1.14)

where (B,C,D) is the solution of the matrix system

$$\begin{cases} C+D = I_3 \\ xB+xC+yD = A \\ 2x^2B+x^2C+y^2D = A^2. \end{cases}$$
(1.15)

*Proof.* Note the system (1.15) and one has

$$B = \frac{1}{x(x-y)}(A - xI_3)(A - yI_3), \qquad (1.16)$$

$$C = -\frac{1}{(x-y)^2} [A - (2x-y)I_3](A - yI_3), \qquad (1.17)$$

$$D = \frac{1}{(x-y)^2} (A - xI_3)^2. \quad \Box$$
 (1.18)

COROLLARY 1.2. Let P(z) be a polynomial as in Corollary 1.1 and let x, y and a be given complex numbers. For

$$A_2 = A_2(x, y, a) := \begin{pmatrix} x & a & 0 \\ 0 & x & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & y \end{pmatrix},$$
 (1.19)

 $\tilde{P}(A_2)$  is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} P(x) \ aP'(x) \ 0 \\ 0 \ P(x) \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ P(y) \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (1.20)

*Proof.* Is enough to see that (1.14), (1.16), (1.17) and (1.18) yield

$$A_2^n = \begin{pmatrix} x^n \ anx^{n-1} \ 0 \\ 0 \ x^n \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ y^n \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (1.21)

The details are omitted.  $\Box$ 

Let  $A \in \mathcal{M}(n, \mathbb{C})$ . A monic polynomial of least degree (denoted by  $m_A$ ) having the property that  $m_A(A) = 0_n$  is called the minimal polynomial of A. The characteristic polynomial and the minimal polynomial of a matrix A above must have the same zeros but the multiplicity could be different. The next Theorem in its general form (i.e. for matrices n by n) is called the *Jordan canonical form Theorem* in honor of the French mathematician Camille Jordan (1833–1922) who first published a proof of it. Next we present the case n = 3 which is more convenient to write. The proof of the general case can be found for example in [4] on page 65.

THEOREM 1.1. Let  $A \in \mathcal{M}(3,\mathbb{C})$  be a matrix with the characteristic polynomial  $P_A$  and the minimal polynomial  $m_A$ .

**1.** If  $P_A(\lambda) = m_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)(\lambda - y)(\lambda - z)$  with *x*, *y*, *z* mutually different then there exists an invertible complex matrix  $T_1$  such that

$$T_1^{-1}AT_1 = J_1(A) = diag(x, y, z) := \begin{pmatrix} x \ 0 \ 0 \\ 0 \ y \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ z \end{pmatrix},$$
(1.22)

**2.** If  $P_A(\lambda) = m_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)^2(\lambda - y)$  with  $x \neq y$  then there exists an invertible complex matrix  $T_2$  such that

$$T_2^{-1}AT_2 = J_2(A) := \begin{pmatrix} x \ 1 \ 0 \\ 0 \ x \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ y \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (1.23)

**3.** If  $P_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)^2(\lambda - y)$  and  $m_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)(\lambda - y)$  with  $x \neq y$  then there exists an invertible complex matrix  $T_3$  such that

$$T_2^{-1}AT_3 = J_3(A) := \begin{pmatrix} x \ 0 \ 0 \\ 0 \ x \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ y \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (1.24)

**4.** If  $P_A(\lambda) = m_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)^3$  then there exists an invertible complex matrix  $T_4$  such that

$$T_4^{-1}AT_4 = J_4(A) := \begin{pmatrix} x \ 1 \ 0 \\ 0 \ x \ 1 \\ 0 \ 0 \ x \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (1.25)

**5.** If  $P_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)^3$  and  $m_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)^2$  then there exists an invertible complex matrix  $T_5$  such that

$$T_5^{-1}AT_5 = J_5(A) := \begin{pmatrix} x \ 1 \ 0 \\ 0 \ x \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ x \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (1.26)

**6.** If 
$$P_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)^3$$
 and  $m_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - x)$  then  $A = J_6(A) := xI_3$ .

Recall that the spectrum of a matrix A, denoted by  $\sigma(A)$ , is the set of all its eigenvalues and that the resolvent set of A is  $\rho(A) := \mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma(A)$ , i.e. the set of all complex numbers z for which the matrix  $zI_3 - A$ , is invertible.

REMARK 1.1. (1). Note (see below)

$$\sigma(\tilde{P}(A)) = P(\sigma(A)). \tag{1.27}$$

(2). If  $z \mapsto f(z) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k z^k$  is an integer function (i.e. it is holomorphic on  $\mathbb{C}$ ) then for each matrix  $A \in \mathscr{X}$ , the matrix

$$\tilde{f}(A) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k A^k \tag{1.28}$$

is well defined. The convergence in (1.28) is considered with respect to the operator norm of matrices. Thus one has

$$\sigma(\tilde{f}(A)) = f(\sigma(A)). \tag{1.29}$$

In particular,

$$e^{tA} := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(tA)^k}{k!}, \text{ and } \sigma(e^{tA}) = e^{t\sigma(A)}, t \in \mathbb{R}.$$
(1.30)

*Proof.* Let  $A \in \mathcal{M}(3,\mathbb{C})$ ,  $k \in \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$  and  $T_k$  be an invertible matrix such that  $T_k^{-1}AT_k = J_k(A)$ . Then

$$\sigma(\tilde{f}(A)) = \sigma(T_k^{-1}\tilde{f}(A)T_k) = \sigma(\tilde{f}(T_k^{-1}AT_k)) = \sigma(\tilde{f}(J_k(A))) = f(\sigma(A)).$$
(1.31)

For matrices and operators we refer the reader to [2], [3], [4] and [5].

## 2. Global problems in the space of matrices

LEMMA 2.1. If the polynomial  $P \in \mathbb{C}[z]$  has no simple zeros then the matrix equation

$$\tilde{P}(X) = Y := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.1)

has no solutions in  $\mathcal{M}(3,\mathbb{C})$ .

*Proof.* We argue by contradiction. Suppose that there exists  $A \in \mathcal{M}(3,\mathbb{C})$  such that  $\tilde{P}(A) = Y$ . Thus in view of (1.27),  $P(\sigma(A)) = \sigma(\tilde{P}(A)) = \{0\}$ , i.e. the eigenvalues of A are zeros of the polynomial P. Now if  $x, y, z \in \sigma(A)$  then P(x) = P'(x) = P(y) = P(z) = 0 and there exists a complex invertible matrix  $T_k$  such that  $T_k^{-1}AT_k = J_k(A)$ . Thus  $\tilde{P}(X) = T_k \tilde{P}(J_k(A))T_k^{-1} = 0_3$  (the null matrix of order 3), for k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, so we have a contradiction. We have a similar contraction for k = 6 (we omit the details).  $\Box$ 

PROPOSITION 2.1. Let  $P \in \mathbb{C}[z]$  be a polynomial having the property that there exists a  $m \in \mathbb{C}$  such that Q := P - m has no simple zeros. Then the map  $X \mapsto \tilde{P}(X) : \mathcal{M}(3,\mathbb{C}) \to \mathcal{M}(3,\mathbb{C})$  is not surjective.

Proof. In view of Lemma 2.1, the equation

$$\tilde{P}(X) = mI_3 + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.2)

has no solutions in  $\mathcal{M}(3,\mathbb{C})$ .  $\Box$ 

DEFINITION 2.1. We say that a polynomial  $P \in \mathbb{C}[z]$  has the simple zero property **(SZP)** if for every  $m \in \mathbb{C}$  the polynomial Q := P - m has at least a simple zero.

For example, the polynomial  $P_1(z) = (z-1)(z-2)(z-3)$  has **SZP** while  $P_2(z) = z^3$  does not. Clearly every polynomial of degree 1 has **SZP** but polynomials of degree 2 have not the property.

THEOREM 2.1. Let  $P \in \mathbb{C}[z]$  be a polynomial satisfying SZP. Then the map

$$X \mapsto \tilde{P}(X) : \mathscr{M}(3, \mathbb{C}) \to \mathscr{M}(3, \mathbb{C})$$

$$(2.3)$$

is surjective.

*Proof.* Let  $Y \in \mathcal{M}(3,\mathbb{C})$  be given. The argument is broken into several cases.

**1.** The spectrum of *Y* consists of three mutually different complex numbers *u*, *v* and *w*. Thus, there exists an invertible matrix *T* such that  $T^{-1}YT = \text{diag}(u, v, w)$ . Set  $X := T \text{ diag}(x, y, z))T^{-1}$ , where *x*, *y* and *z* are zeros of P - u, P - v and P - w, respectively. Then  $\tilde{P}(X) = T\tilde{P}(\text{ diag}(x, y, z))T^{-1} = Y$ .

**2.** The spectrum of *Y* consists of *u* and *v*, with *u* being a zero of  $P_Y$  of multiplicity 2.

**2.1.** When  $m_Y(\lambda) = (\lambda - u)^2(\lambda - v)$  then there exists an invertible matrix  $T_2$  such that

$$T_2^{-1}YT_2 = J_2(Y) := \begin{pmatrix} u \ 1 \ 0 \\ 0 \ u \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ v \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (2.4)

Let x be a simple zero of P - u and y as above. Thus  $P'(x) \neq 0$ . Set

$$X = T_2 \begin{pmatrix} x \frac{1}{P'(x)} & 0\\ 0 & x & 0\\ 0 & 0 & y \end{pmatrix} T_2^{-1}.$$
 (2.5)

In view of Corollary 1.2, one has

$$\tilde{P}(X) = T_2 \tilde{P}\left(\begin{pmatrix} x & \frac{1}{P'(x)} & 0\\ 0 & x & 0\\ 0 & 0 & y \end{pmatrix} \right) T_2^{-1} = T_2 J_2(Y) T_2^{-1} = Y.$$
(2.6)

**2.2.** When  $m_Y(\lambda) = (\lambda - u)(\lambda - v)$  then there exists an invertible matrix  $T_3$  such that

$$T_3^{-1}YT_3 = J_3(Y) := \begin{pmatrix} u \ 0 \ 0 \\ 0 \ u \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ v \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (2.7)

Let x be a simple zero of P - u and y as above. Set

$$X = T_3 \begin{pmatrix} x \ 0 \ 0 \\ 0 \ x \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ y \end{pmatrix} T_3^{-1}.$$
 (2.8)

In view of Corollary 1.2, one has

$$\tilde{P}(X) = T_3 \tilde{P}\left(\begin{pmatrix} x \ 0 \ 0 \\ 0 \ x \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ y \end{pmatrix}\right) T_3^{-1} = T_3 J_3(Y) T_3^{-1} = Y.$$
(2.9)

3. The spectrum of Y consists of u, being a zero of  $P_Y$  of multiplicity 3. We divide the proof into three steps.

**3.1.** When  $m_Y(\lambda) = (\lambda - u)^3$  then there exists an invertible matrix  $T_4$  such that

$$T_4^{-1}YT_4 = J_4(Y) := \begin{pmatrix} u \ 1 \ 0 \\ 0 \ u \ 1 \\ 0 \ 0 \ u \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (2.10)

Let x be a simple zero of P - u. Note  $P'(x) \neq 0$ . Set

$$X = T_4 \begin{pmatrix} x \ \frac{1}{P'(x)} & 0\\ 0 & x \ \frac{1}{P'(x)}\\ 0 & 0 & x \end{pmatrix} T_4^{-1}.$$
 (2.11)

In view of Corollary 1.1 one has

$$\tilde{P}(X) = T_4 \tilde{P}\left(\begin{pmatrix} x \ \frac{1}{P'(x)} & 0\\ 0 & x \ \frac{1}{P'(x)}\\ 0 & 0 & x \end{pmatrix}\right) T_4^{-1} = T_4 J_{31}(Y) T_4^{-1} = Y.$$
(2.12)

**3.2.** When  $m_Y(\lambda) = (\lambda - u)^2$  then there exists an invertible matrix  $T_5$  such that

$$T_5^{-1}YT_5 = J_5(Y) := \begin{pmatrix} u \ 1 \ 0 \\ 0 \ u \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ u \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.13)

and in view of Corollary 1.1 one has

$$\tilde{P}(X) = T_5 \tilde{P}\left(\begin{pmatrix} x \ \frac{1}{P'(x)} \ 0\\ 0 \ x \ 0\\ 0 \ 0 \ x \end{pmatrix}\right) T_5^{-1} = T_5 J_5(Y) T_5^{-1} = Y.$$
(2.14)

**3.3.** When  $m_Y(\lambda) = (\lambda - u)$  then  $Y = uI_3$ . Let x a zero of P - u and set  $X = xI_3$ . Then  $\tilde{P}(X) = Y$ .  $\Box$ 

THEOREM 2.2. Let P be a polynomial. The map

$$X \mapsto \tilde{P}(X) : \mathscr{M}(3, \mathbb{C}) \to \mathscr{M}(3, \mathbb{C})$$
(2.15)

is surjective if and only if P has the simple zero property.

The proof of Theorem 2.2 follows by combining Proposition 2.1 with Theorem 2.1.

Finally, as an immediate consequence, we present the following  $\mathbb{C}^9$  version of the Ax-Grothendieck's Theorem; see [1].

Let *n* be a positive integer and denote (ad-hoc) by  $\mathscr{P}_n$  the set of all polynomial functions  $p : \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$  (that is, all components of *p* are scalar valued polynomials of *n* complex variables). As is well-known (Ax-Grothendieck's Theorem) if  $p \in \mathscr{P}_n$  is injective then it is surjective as well. In what follows we refer to the particular case n = 9.

Denote by  $\mathscr{A}_9$  the set of all polynomials  $p \in \mathscr{P}_9$  having the property that there exist a scalar polynomial P (of one complex variable) and a linear transformation  $T : \mathscr{M}(3,\mathbb{C}) \to \mathbb{C}^9$  such that

$$p = T\tilde{P}T^{-1}. (2.16)$$

COROLLARY 2.1. If  $p \in \mathcal{A}_9$  is injective then it is surjective as well. Moreover, in this case, the inverse of p is also a polynomial.

*Proof.* From (2.16) we have

$$\tilde{P} = T^{-1}pT. \tag{2.17}$$

Now, the assumption on p yields the injectivity of  $\tilde{P}$  and thus (as is very easy to see), the polynomial P has degree equal to 1. In particular P has **SZP**, so  $\tilde{P}$  is surjective. Now, from (2.16), p is surjective. Moreover, since P has degree equal to 1, (2.16) yields that p has the degree equal to 1 and thus its inverse is a polynomial.  $\Box$ 

*Acknowledgement.* The authors would like to thank the Editor and the referee for their help and suggestions in improving this paper.

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(Received January 16, 2018)

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