ON A NORMAL FORM OF THE ORTHOGONAL TRANSFORMATION I
Hans Zassenhaus
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At the Edmonton Meeting of the Canadian Mathematical Congress E. Wigner asked me whether one knew something about the distribution of the characteristic roots of the linear transformations that leave invariant the quadratic form $t^{2}+x^{2}-y^{2}-z^{2}$, just as one knows that a Lorentz transformation has two complex conjugate characteristic roots and two real characteristic roots that are either inverse to one another or the numbers 1 and -1 .

In this paper an answer to E. Wigner's question will be obtained.

We are concerned with the pairs of matrices ( $X, A$ ) with coefficients in a field of reference $F$ such that the condition
(0.1)

$$
X^{T} A=A
$$

is satisfied, where $X^{T}=\left(\xi_{k i}\right)$ is the transpose of the matrix $X=\left(\xi_{i k}\right)$. It follows that both matrices are quadratic of the same degree $d$.

Our problem is to classify the matrices $X$ according to their characteristic polynomials for the real field as the field of reference and for a fixed symmetric matrix A. To solve this problem we construct normal forms for each class of conjugate elements of the group GO(A,F) formed by the solutions $X$ of ( 0.1 ) for a fixed regular and symmetric or anti-symmetric matrix $A$ and

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for any perfect field of reference $F$ with characteristic distinct from 2. The class representatives will be surveyed in such a way that the characteristic polynomials are set in evidence.

In §1 the concepts of representation space, equivalence and decomposition of matrix pairs are developed. In $\S \S 2,3$ the indecomposable classes of equivalent matrix pairs are classified. In $\oint 4$ the normal forms and invariants of arbitrary matrix pairs are expounded. In §5 the results are applied to the real field and to Galois fields as fields of reference.
§1. Representation space, equivalence and decomposition of matrix pairs.
The linear space $M$ over $F$ is called a representation space of the matrix pair

$$
(X, A)=\left(\left(\xi_{1 k}\right),\left(\alpha_{1 k}\right)\right) \quad(i, k=1,2, \ldots, d)
$$

if there is an $F$-basis $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{d}$, a linear transformation $\sigma$ of $M$ and a bilinear form $f$ on $M$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (1.1) } \quad \sigma\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\alpha} \eta_{k} a_{k}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{\alpha} \sum_{k=1}^{\alpha} \alpha i k^{\alpha} \eta_{k} a_{i} \\
& \text { (1.2) } f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\alpha} \xi_{1} a_{i}, \sum_{k=1}^{\alpha} \eta_{k} a_{k}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{\alpha} \sum_{k=1}^{\alpha} \xi_{1} \eta_{k} \alpha_{i k} \\
& \text { (1.3) } f(\sigma a, \sigma b)=f(a, b)
\end{aligned}
$$

for $\xi_{1} \eta_{k}$ in $F$ and for $a, b$ in $M$.
It is clear that for a given matrix pair (X,A) a representation space $M$ can be constructed by defining a linear transformation $\sigma$ and a bilinear form $f$ on a linear space $M$ with $F$-basis $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{d}$ by means of (1.1) and (1.2) inasmuch as (1.3) is equivalent to (0.1).

If another F -basis

$$
\text { (1.4) } \quad b_{k}=\sum_{i=1}^{\alpha} \tau_{1 k_{1}} \quad(k=1,2, \ldots, d)
$$

of $M$ is chosen so that the matrix
(1.5)
$T=\left(\tau_{i k}\right)$
is regular, then another matrix pair

$$
(Y, B)=\left(\left(\eta_{i k}\right),\left(\beta_{i k}\right)\right)
$$

is defined by means of
(1.6) $\quad \sigma b_{k}=\sum_{i=1}^{d} \eta_{i k} b_{1} \quad(k=1,2, \ldots, d)$
(1.7) $\quad f\left(b_{i}, b_{k}\right)=\beta_{i k} \quad(1, k=1,2, \ldots, d)$
where the matrix $Y$ is similar to $X$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y=T^{-1} X T, \tag{1.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

the matrix $B$ is equivalent to $A$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{B}=\mathrm{T}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{~A} \mathrm{~T}, \tag{1.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the matrix pair ( $Y, B$ ) is equivalent to the matrix pair ( $X, A$ ) according to

$$
\begin{equation*}
(X, A) \sim\left(T^{-1} X \quad T, T^{T} A T\right) \tag{1.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Our problem is to survey the classes of matrix pairs that are equivalent in the sense of the normal relation defined by (1.10). Let us begin with a few definitions.

A linear subspace $m$ of $M$ is called invariant under $\sigma$ if $\sigma \mathrm{m} \leq \mathrm{m}$. The invariant subspaces of $M$ form a modular lattice when intersection and sum of two invariant subspaces are taken as lattice operations. For example, the subset $P(\sigma) M$ formed by all elements $P(\sigma) u$ with $u$ in $M$ is an invariant subspace for any polynomial

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(x)=\alpha_{0}+\alpha_{1} x+\ldots \ldots+\alpha_{n} x^{n} \tag{1.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

with coefficients in $F$. The same applies to the
subspace $M_{p}$ of all elements of $M$ that are annihilated by the linear transformation

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(\sigma)=\alpha_{0} \underline{1}+\alpha_{1} \sigma+\ldots+\alpha_{n} \sigma^{n} . \tag{1.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

The two subsets $K_{1}, K_{2}$ of $M$ are called orthogonal (to each other) if $f\left(K_{1}, K_{2}\right)=f\left(K_{2}, K_{1}\right)=0$ where generally $f\left(K_{1}, K_{2}\right)$ denotes the set of all values $f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ with $x_{1}$ contained in $K_{i}(i=1,2)$. For any subset $K$ of $M$ the set $K$ ' of all elements $x$ of $M$ satisfying $f(x, K)=f(K, x)=0$ forms a linear subspace of $M$ such that $K$ ' is the maximal subset of $M$ that is orthogonal to K .

From $K_{1} \leq K_{2}$ it follows that $K_{i} \geq K_{2}^{\prime}$. The kernel $M_{\sigma}$ of $\sigma$ belongs to $M$ ' because for any $x$ in $M$

$$
f(x, M)=f(\sigma x, \sigma M)=f(0, \sigma M)=0
$$

and similarly $f(M, x)=0$. For any subset $K$ of $M$ one has $K^{\prime}=(F K)^{\prime}=\{K\}{ }^{\prime}=\left(K+M^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$ where $\{K\}$ is the module generated by $K$.

For any linear subspace $K$ of $M$ the dimension $\operatorname{dim} K=\operatorname{dim}_{F} K$ of $K$ over $F$ satisfies the relation

$$
\operatorname{dim} K=\operatorname{dim} \sigma K+\operatorname{dim} K \wedge M_{\sigma} .
$$

There is a linear subspace $m$ of $K+M$ ' such that the direct decomposition $K+M^{\prime}=m+M^{\prime}$ holds. Hence $m_{\wedge} M^{\prime}=0$. For any element $u$ of $m$ for which ou belongs to M', we have $f(u, M)=f(\sigma u, o M) \leq f\left(M^{\prime}, M\right)=0$; and similarly $f(M, u)=0$. Hence $u$ belongs to $M^{\prime}$, and since $M^{\prime} \cap m=0$ it follows that $u=0$. Thus om^M' $=0$, $\operatorname{dim} m=\operatorname{dim} o m, \operatorname{dim}\left(K+M^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{dim}\left(m+M^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{dim} m+\operatorname{dim} M^{\prime}$ $=\operatorname{dim} o m+\operatorname{dim} M^{\prime}=\operatorname{dim}\left(o m+M^{\prime}\right)$.

For $K=M$ one finds that $\operatorname{dim} M=\operatorname{dim}(o m+M 1)$, so that $M=\sigma m+M^{\prime}$ and $f\left(\sigma M^{\prime}, M\right)=f\left(\sigma M^{\prime}, o m+M^{\prime}\right)$ $=f\left(\sigma M^{\prime}, o m\right)=f\left(M^{\prime}, m\right)=0$.

Similarly $f\left(M, \sigma M^{\prime}\right)=0$; hence $M^{\prime}$ is invariant under $\sigma$.
For any linear subspace we conclude that $\sigma K+M^{\prime}=\sigma K+\sigma M^{\prime}+M^{\prime}=\sigma\left(K^{\prime}+M^{\prime}\right)+M^{\prime}=\sigma\left(m^{\prime} M^{\prime}\right)+M^{\prime}=\sigma m^{\prime} M^{\prime}$, $\operatorname{dim}\left(\sigma K+M^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{dim} \sigma m+\operatorname{dim} M^{\prime}=\operatorname{dim} m+\operatorname{dim} M^{\prime}=\operatorname{dim}\left(K+M^{\prime}\right)$.

If $\sigma K \leq K$ for any subset $K$ of $M$, then
$\sigma(\{\mathrm{FK}\}) \leq\{\mathrm{FK}\}, \quad \sigma\left(\{F K\}+\mathrm{M}^{\prime}\right) \leq\{\mathrm{FK}\}+\mathrm{M}^{\prime}$,
$\operatorname{dim}\left(\sigma\{F K\}+M^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{dim}\left(\{F K\}+M^{\prime}\right), \quad \sigma\{F K\}+M^{\prime}=\{F K\}+M^{\prime}$,
$0=f\left(K, K^{\prime}\right)=f\left(\sigma K, \sigma K^{\prime}\right)=f\left(\sigma\{F K\}+M^{\prime}, \sigma K^{\prime}\right)$
$=f\left(\{F K\}+M^{\prime}, \sigma K^{\prime}\right)=f\left(\{F K\}, \sigma K^{\prime}\right)=f\left(K, \sigma K^{\prime}\right) ;$
similarly $f\left(\sigma K^{\prime}, K\right)=0$. Thus the relation $\sigma K \leq K$ implies the invariance of the orthogonal subspace $K$ ' of $K$ under $\sigma$.

A decomposition

$$
\begin{equation*}
M=M_{1}+M_{2}+\ldots+M_{r}=\dot{\sum}_{i=1}^{T} M_{1} \tag{1.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

of $M$ into the direct sum of non vanishing invariant subspaces $M_{1}, \ldots . M_{r}$ is called an orthogonal decomposition if any two distinct subspaces $M_{i}, M_{k}$ are orthogonal. If we choose an F-basis $a_{j 1}, a_{j 2}, \ldots, a_{j d}$ of $M_{j}$ then a matrix $Y_{j}$ is defined by
(1.14) $\quad \sigma a_{j k}=\sum_{i=1}^{d_{j}} \eta^{(j)_{1 k}{ }_{j 1}} \quad\left(k=1,2, \ldots, d_{j}\right)$
and
(1.15)

$$
Y_{j}=\left(\eta_{i k}^{(j)}\right) \quad(j=1,2, \ldots, r)
$$

such that $X$ is similar to the matrix

Also, there are bilinear forms $f_{j}$ induced on the invariant subspaces $M_{j}$ with matrix $B_{j}$ defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{j}=\left(\beta_{j k}^{(j)}\right) \tag{1.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

and
(1.18)

$$
f_{j}\left(a_{j 1}, a_{j k}\right)=\beta^{(j)}
$$

such that

$$
\text { (1.19) } \quad(X, A) \sim(Y, B)=\left(\dot{\Sigma}_{j=1}^{\tau} Y_{j}, \dot{\Sigma}_{j=1}^{+} B_{j}\right)=\dot{\Sigma}_{j=1}^{r}\left(Y_{j}, B_{j}\right) .
$$

Conversely, any equivalence (1.19) corresponds to an orthogonal decomposition (1.13) of M. If there is no such decomposition with more than one component, then we call the matrix pair indecomposable.

Any matrix pair is equivalent to the direct sum of indecomposable matrix pairs. Conversely, it is clear that for any r-tuple of matrix pairs ( $Y_{j}, B_{j}$ ) ( $j=1,2, \ldots, r$ ) there is the matrix pair

$$
\left(\dot{\Sigma}_{j=1}^{T} Y_{j}, \dot{\Sigma}_{j=i}^{+} B_{j}\right)
$$

that is the direct sum of the given $r$ matrix pairs in their given order.
2. Indecomposable matrix pairs I.

In this section the indecomposable matrix pairs are studied.

LEMMA 1: If the invariant subspaces $M_{P}, M_{Q}$ are not orthogonal then there is an extension of the field of reference in which there is a root of the polynomial $Q(x)$ equal to the inverse of a root of the polynomial $P(x)$.

Proof: Since $P, Q$ occur symmetrically both in the assumption and in the assertion it may be assumed that $f\left(M_{P}, M_{Q}\right) \neq 0$. Among the invariant subspaces of $M_{P}$ that are not orthogonal to $M_{Q}$ there is a minimal subspace $m$. We call the two polynomials $R, S$ with coefficients in $F$ congruent if $f\left((R(\sigma)-S(\sigma)) m, M_{Q}\right)=0$. This is a
normal congruence relation defined on the polynomial ring $F[x]$ over $F$ satisfying the substitutional laws of addition and multiplication. The constant polynomial 1 is not congruent to 0 because $f\left(m, M_{Q}\right) \neq 0$. Moreover, since $m$ is contained in $M_{P}$ and therefore $P(\sigma) m=0$, it follows that the congruence of $R$ and $S$ modulo $P(x)$ implies congruence in the sense defined above. Finally, if both $R(x)$ and $S(x)$ are not congruent to $\sigma$, then each of the invariant subspaces $R(\sigma) m, S(\sigma) m$ of $m$ is not orthogonal to $M_{Q}$; by the minimal property of $m$ it follows that $R(\sigma) m=S(\sigma) m=m$, $(R S(\sigma)) m=(R(\sigma) S(\sigma)) m=R(\sigma)(S(\sigma) m)=R(\sigma) m=m$, RS is not congruent to 0 . Hence the congruence classes of the polynomial ring $F[x]$ form a finite extension $E$ of $F$ in which $P(x)$ represents the zero class. Since

$$
0 \neq f\left(m, M_{Q}\right)=f\left(o m, o M_{Q}\right) \leq f\left(o m, M_{Q}\right)
$$

it follows that $x$ is not congruent to 0 and hence there is a polynomial $U(x)$ in $F[x]$ for which $x U(x)$ is congruent to 1 . For any two elements $u$ of $m$ and $v$ of $M_{Q}$ we have $f(u, \sigma v)=f(\sigma U(\sigma) u, \sigma v)=f(U(\sigma) u, v)$,

$$
f\left(u, \sigma^{i} v\right)=f\left(\left(U(\sigma)^{i} u, v\right)\right.
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(u, R(\sigma) v)=f(R(U(\sigma)) u, v), \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $R(x)$ is any polynomial with coefficients in $F$. In particular, for the polynomial $Q(x)$ we find that

$$
0=f(u, Q(\sigma) v)=f(Q(U(\sigma)) u, v) .
$$

Hence the polynomial $Q(R(x))$ is congruent to 0 . Furthermore the congruence class represented by $R(x)$ is a root of $Q$ and inverse to the congruence class represented by $x$ (which is a root of $P$ ). Lemmal suggests that there be formed for every polynomial (1.11) with non vanishing lowest coefficient $\alpha_{m}$ the polynomial
(2.2) $\quad P *(x)=x^{n-m}+\alpha_{m}^{-1} \alpha_{m+1} x^{n-m-1}+\ldots+\alpha_{m}^{-1} \alpha_{n}$
with highest coefficient 1 and roots inverse to the non vanishing roots of $P(x)$. Lemma 1 states that $M_{P}, M_{Q}$ are orthogonal if $Q^{*}$ is prime to $P$.

If two polynomials $R, S$ are mutually prime, then we have $M_{R S}=M_{R}+M_{S}, M_{R} \sim M_{S}=0$; hence there is the decomposition of $M_{R S}$ into the direct sum of $M_{R}$ and $M_{S}$. This remark is applied to the factorization of the characteristic polynomial $X_{X}(x)=\operatorname{det}\left(x I_{d}-X\right)$ of the matrix $X$ into the product of two mutually prime factors $R, S$ with highest coefficients 1 . In this case the direct decomposition $M_{R S}=M_{R}+M_{S}$ corresponds to a matrix decomposition $T^{-1} \mathrm{XT}=Y_{1}+Y_{2}$ where $X_{Y_{1}}=R$, $\chi_{Y_{2}}=S$, and $T$ is a suitable regular matrix.
Hence from Lemna 1 it follows that for an indecomposable matrix pair ( $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{A}$ ) one of the following 3 cases holds: (2.3) I: $A \neq 0, X_{X}=P^{\mu}$ where $P=P^{*}$ is a symmetric irreducible polynomial,

II: $A \neq 0, \chi_{X}=\left(P P^{*}\right)^{\mu}$ where $P$ is an asymmetric irreducible polynomial with highest coefficient l,

III: $A=0, X_{X}=P^{\mu}$ where $P$ is any irreducible polynomial.

In the case III no restriction is imposed on X by the condition (0.1) so that in this case the indecomposability of the matrix pair ( $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{A}$ ) simply means that the matrix X is not similar to a diagonal matrix of matrices, or in other terms, the representation space is not the direct sum of two proper invariant subspaces. Such spaces are called indecomposable representation spaces. It is well known from ordinary elementary divisor theory of matrices that a linear
space of finite dimension is indecomposable under the linear transformation $\sigma$ if and only if the minimal polynomial $m_{\sigma}$ of $\sigma$ is equal to the characteristic polynomial $X_{\sigma}$ of $\sigma$, a power of an irreducible polynomial. In this case we call the linear transformation $\sigma$ and the corresponding matrices indecomposable.

The condition $A=0$ is equivalent to the vanishing of the bilinear form $f$, in which case one speaks of an isotropic linear space M. Similarly a linear subspace of a representation space is called isotropic if the given bilinear form vanishes identically on the subspace.

The result (2.3) constitutes a first answer to our problem inasmuch as it states that the characteristic polynomial of any matrix $X$ solving (0.1) for a regular matrix A necessarily contains any irreducible polynomial $P$ with highest coefficient 1 with the same multiplicity as the polynomial $\mathrm{P}^{*}$.

In the next section a normal form for the indecomposable matrix pairs will be established and used to find sufficient conditions for the characteristic polynomial of X .

McGill University

