

# Jordan Canonical Form from the Standpoint of Module Theory

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## Abstract

We give a brief summary of how to compute the Jordan canonical form from the standpoint of module theory.

Oftentimes, we need to compute the Jordan canonical form of a given square matrix  $A$ , e.g. in solving system of linear ordinary differential equations. The method given in the textbook, although conceptually appealing, is still complicated in practice. We hope to find an easier method.

丘维声 [3, page 25, 42, 68] (Reading Materials 3, 5, 7 [阅读材料三、五、七]) explained a way to compute the Jordan canonical form of  $A$  through the elementary divisors of the  $\lambda$ -matrix  $A(\lambda) := \lambda I - A$ . This is essentially the factorization theorem of a finitely generated module over the principal ideal domain  $K[\lambda]$ , where  $K[\lambda]$  is the polynomial ring over the field  $K$ . A systematic exposition of this theory can be found in 聂灵沼和丁石孙 [2] (Chapter 5 and 6) and 龚昇 [1].

In this short notes, we will summarize the relevant results for future reference. The exposition combines materials from 龚昇 [1] and 丘维声 [3]: the theoretical aspect is taken from 龚昇 [1], and the computational aspect is taken from 丘维声 [3].

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# 1 Introduction

Before we dive into abstract theory, we explain the prototype that motivates the theory. Let  $V$  be a finite dimensional linear vector space over the complex field  $\mathbb{C}$ . Let  $A$  be a linear operator on  $V$ . We want to choose a suitable set of basis for  $V$  such that the matrix representation of  $A$  has a nice form, e.g. diagonal, block diagonal, etc.

The key observation is that the matrix of  $A$  has a block diagonal form  $\text{diag}\{D_1, D_2, \dots, D_k\}$  if and only if  $V$  can be decomposed into the direct sum of subspaces invariant under  $A$ :

$$V = V_1 \oplus V_2 \oplus \dots \oplus V_k.$$

Hamilton-Caley Theorem says  $P(A)$  is the zero linear transformation on  $V$  (i.e.  $P(A)v = 0, \forall v \in V$ ), where  $P(\lambda)$  is the characteristic polynomial  $|\lambda I - A|$ . In other words,  $V$  is the kernel of  $P(A)$ . This immediately reduces the decomposition of  $V$  to the factorization of  $P(\lambda)$  into irreducible elements in the polynomial ring  $K[\lambda]$ . Note  $K[\lambda]$  is a principal ideal domain, that is, something behaves like the ring of integers. Thus, we will have at our disposal the unique factorization theorem of a principal ideal domain into prime elements.

Extending those concrete objects to an abstract setting, we come to the standpoint of representation theory: *linear vector spaces equipped with linear transformations are modules over principal ideal domains*. Therefore, the (concrete) decomposition of  $V$  into direct sum of subspaces invariant under  $A$  is generalized to the decomposition of a finitely generated module over a principal ideal domain into the direct sum of primary submodules.

With all these specific objects in mind (linear space, polynomial ring, characteristic polynomial, integers, prime numbers, etc.), we are ready to understand the module theory's standpoint.

## 2 Decomposition of a finitely generated module over a principal ideal domain

For the definitions of *ring*, *integral domain* and *principal ideal domain*, we refer to 龚昇 [1], Chapter 1. Roughly speaking, they are abstract generalizations of the integer ring  $\mathbb{Z}$  and the polynomial ring  $K[\lambda]$  over a field  $K$ . Here, the nontrivial conceptual leap is the move from integral domain to principal ideal domain. Integer ring  $\mathbb{Z}$  and the polynomial ring  $K[\lambda]$  are principal ideal domains because of Eulidean algorithm. The Unique Factorization Theorem for  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $K[\lambda]$  can then be generalized to principal ideal domain. That's sufficient for our purpose of decomposing a linear vector space.

The connection between Unique Factorization Theorem of  $K[\lambda]$  and the decomposition of  $V$  is made by the concept of module. More precisely, define the action of  $f(\lambda) \in K[\lambda]$  on  $V$  by

$$f(\lambda)v = f(A)v, \forall v \in V.$$

If  $V = \ker(f(\lambda))$  and  $f(\lambda)$  has the factorization into non-associated prime elements  $f(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^n [p_i(\lambda)]^{e_i}$ , we have  $V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \ker(p_i^{e_i})$ .

For a general module, various technical conditions are needed to produce a clean-cut form of Unique Factorization Theorem. The relevant results are listed below. For all the jargons, results, and proofs, see 龚昇 [1], Chapter 4.

**Theorem 2.1. (Cyclic decomposition theorem of a finitely generated module over a principal ideal domain – in terms of elementary divisors)** *Suppose  $M$  is a non-zero finitely generated module over a principal ideal domain  $R$ . Then*

$$M = M_{tor} \oplus M_{free},$$

where  $M_{tor}$  is the collection of torsion elements in  $M$  and  $M_{free}$  is a free module, whose rank is uniquely determined by  $M$ .

$\text{ann}(M) = \{r \in R : rM = \{0\}\}$  is an ideal of  $R$  and hence is generated by some element  $p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_n^{e_n} \in R$ . Here  $p_i$ 's are prime elements which are not associated to each other. Then

$$M_{\text{tor}} = M_{p_1} \bigoplus \cdots \bigoplus M_{p_n},$$

where  $M_{p_i} = \{v : p_i^{e_i} v = 0\}$  is a primary module with order  $p_i^{e_i}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

Each  $M_{p_i}$  can be further decomposed into the sum of cyclic submodules

$$M_{p_i} = C_{i,1} \bigoplus \cdots \bigoplus C_{i,k_i},$$

where  $C_{i,j}$  has order  $p_i^{e_{i,j}}$  ( $j = 1, \dots, k_i$ ) and

$$e_i = e_{i,1} \geq e_{i,2} \geq \cdots \geq e_{i,k_i} \geq 1, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

$p_i^{e_{i,j}}$ 's are called **elementary divisors** and are uniquely determined by  $M$  up to the equivalence of associativity. In summary, we have

$$M = (C_{1,1} \bigoplus \cdots \bigoplus C_{1,k_1}) \bigoplus \cdots \bigoplus (C_{n,1} \bigoplus \cdots \bigoplus C_{n,k_n}) \bigoplus M_{\text{free}}.$$

Note if  $S$  and  $T$  are cyclic submodules of  $M$  with  $\text{ann}(S) = \langle a \rangle$  and  $\text{ann}(T) = \langle b \rangle$ , and  $\text{gcd}(a, b) = 1$ , then  $S \cap T = \{0\}$  and  $S \bigoplus T$  is also a cyclic submodule with  $\text{ann}(S \bigoplus T) = \langle ab \rangle$ . With this observation, let  $D_1 = C_{1,1} \bigoplus \cdots \bigoplus C_{n,1}$ , then  $D_1$  is a cyclic submodule with order  $q_1 = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{e_{i,1}}$ . Define  $D_2, \dots, D_m$  similarly, where  $m = \max_i(k_i)$ . More precisely, we can arrange the elementary divisors into the following array

$$\begin{array}{ccc} p_1^{e_{1,1}} & \cdots & p_1^{e_{1,m}} \\ p_2^{e_{2,1}} & \cdots & p_2^{e_{2,m}} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ p_n^{e_{n,1}} & \cdots & p_n^{e_{n,m}} \end{array}$$

where  $e_{i,j} = \begin{cases} e_{i,j}, & \text{if } j \leq k_i \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ . Define  $q_j = \prod_{i=1}^m p_i^{e_{i,j}}$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, m$ . We also arrange the invariant subspaces into the following array

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_{1,1} & \cdots & C_{1,m} \\ C_{2,1} & \cdots & C_{2,m} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ C_{n,1} & \cdots & C_{n,m} \end{array}$$

where  $C_{i,j} = \begin{cases} C_{i,j}, & \text{if } j \leq k_i \\ \{0\}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ . Define  $D_j = \bigoplus_{i=1}^m C_{i,j}$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, m$ .

**Theorem 2.2. (Cyclic decomposition theorem of a finitely generated module over a principal ideal domain – in terms of invariant factors)** Suppose  $M$  is a finitely generated module over a principal ideal domain  $R$ , then

$$M = D_1 \bigoplus \cdots \bigoplus D_m \bigoplus M_{\text{free}}$$

where  $M_{\text{free}}$  is a free submodule of  $M$ , and  $D_j$  is a cyclic submodule of  $M$  with order  $q_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, m$ . Moreover

$$q_m | q_{m-1}, q_{m-1} | q_{m-2}, \dots, q_2 | q_1.$$

$q_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$  are called **invariant factors** of  $M$ , which are uniquely determined by  $M$  up to the equivalence of associativity.





丘维声 [3] defined the invariant factors and elementary divisors for  $A(\lambda) = \lambda I - A$ . The invariant factors and elementary divisors thus defined are the same as those defined in 龚昇 [1]. However, proofs that these differently defined concepts are the same cannot be found in both sources. I don't find a nice exposition elsewhere of the equivalence at this moment, so I'll only focus on the algorithmic aspect which allows us to calculate things explicitly.

**Theorem 4.1.** *Let  $A$  be a given square matrix over the complex field  $\mathbb{C}$ . Define  $A(\lambda) = \lambda I - A$ . Through the elementary row and column manipulation of  $A(\lambda)$  as an element of the ring  $\mathbb{C}[\lambda]$ ,  $A(\lambda)$  can be reduced to a diagonal matrix. Each entry on the diagonal line can be factorized into the form of  $(\lambda - \lambda_1)^{p_1}(\lambda - \lambda_2)^{p_2} \cdots (\lambda - \lambda_k)^{p_k}$ , and each  $(\lambda - \lambda_i)^{p_i}$  is an elementary divisor of  $A(\lambda)$ , corresponding to the  $p_i \times p_i$  Jordan block*

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_i & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_i & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix}.$$

## 5 Examples

**Example 1.**  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 8 & 2 \\ -2 & -14 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ . Its  $\lambda$ -matrix can be reduced to

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & (\lambda - 3)^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda - 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So the elementary divisors are  $(\lambda - 3)^2$  and  $(\lambda - 1)$ , and the minimal polynomial is  $(\lambda - 3)^2(\lambda - 1)$ . The Jordan canonical form of  $A$  is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix},$$

which can be verified by the **jordan** function of Matlab or the **JordanDecomposition** function of Mathematica. The invariant factors can be obtained by looking up the following array (see Theorem 2.2 or 丘维声 [3], Reading Material 7)

$$\begin{pmatrix} (\lambda - 3)^2 & 1 & 1 \\ (\lambda - 1) & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So  $d_1(\lambda) = d_2(\lambda) = 1$  and  $d_3(\lambda) = (\lambda - 3)^2(\lambda - 1)$ .

**Example 2.**  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -4 & 0 & 2 \\ 4 & -5 & -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Its  $\lambda$ -matrix can be reduced to

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & (\lambda + 1)^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & (\lambda - 1)^2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So the elementary divisors are  $(\lambda + 1)^2$  and  $(\lambda - 1)^2$ , and the minimal polynomial is  $(\lambda + 1)^2(\lambda - 1)^2$ . The Jordan canonical form of  $A$  is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The invariant factors are  $d_1(\lambda) = d_2(\lambda) = d_3(\lambda) = 1$  and  $d_4(\lambda) = (\lambda + 1)^2(\lambda - 1)^2$ , obtained by looking up the following array

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\lambda + 2)^2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ (\lambda - 1)^2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array}$$

**Example 3.**  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 5 & -3 \\ 4 & -1 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Its  $\lambda$ -matrix can be reduced to

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & (\lambda - 2)^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & (\lambda - 2)^2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So the elementary divisors are  $(\lambda - 2)^2$  and  $(\lambda - 2)^2$ , and the minimal polynomial is  $(\lambda - 2)^2$ . The Jordan canonical form of  $A$  is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The invariant factors are  $d_1(\lambda) = d_2(\lambda) = 1$ ,  $d_3(\lambda) = d_4(\lambda) = (\lambda - 2)^2$ , obtained by looking up the following array

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\lambda - 2)^2 & (\lambda - 2)^2 & 1 & 1 \end{array}$$

## References

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