SIMILARITY FOR ZERO-SQUARE MATRICES

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ABSTRACT. We show that an $n \times n$ zero-square matrix over a commutative unital ring R is similar to a multiple of E_{1n} if R is a Bézout domain and n = 2, 3, but there are zero-square matrices which are not similar to any multiple of E_{1n} whenever $n \ge 4$, over any commutative unital ring. As a consequence, for n = 2, 3 such matrices have stable range one.

1. INTRODUCTION

An integral domain is a *GCD* domain if every pair a, b of nonzero elements has a greatest common divisor, denoted by gcd(a, b) and a *Bézout* domain if gcd(a, b) is a linear combination of a and b. GCD domains include unique factorization domains, Bézout domains and valuation domains. If gcd(a, b) = 1 we say that a and b are coprime.

It is not hard to prove that every zero-square 2×2 matrix over a Bézout domain R is similar to rE_{12} , for some $r \in R$ (see Section 3).

The aim of this paper is to extend the above result for zero-square 3×3 matrices over Bézout domains and to show that the property cannot be extended for $n \times n$ zero-square matrices if $n \ge 4$. That is, we prove the following

Theorem. Let R be a Bézout domain. Every zero-square matrix of $\mathbb{M}_3(R)$ is similar to rE_{13} for some $r \in R$.

Theorem. Over any commutative ring and for every $n \ge 4$, there are zerosquare $n \times n$ matrices which are not similar to multiples of E_{1n} .

In our extension we have to solve a special type of completion problem: two unimodular 3-rows are given with some additional properties and we are searching for a completion to an invertible 3×3 matrix.

In Section 2, general results on zero-square $n \times n$ matrices are proved together with second theorem above.

For the sake of completeness, Section 3 covers the zero-square 2×2 case. In Section 4 we prove the first theorem above, that is, we settle the 3×3 zero-square case. Since multiples of E_{ij} are known to have stable range one, a consequence of our results is that zero-square 2×2 and 3×3 matrices over any Bézout domain (in particular over the integers) have stable range one.

 E_{ij} denotes the $n \times n$ matrix with all entries zero excepting the (i, j) entry which is 1. By 0_n we denote the zero $n \times n$ matrix. For a square matrix A over a *commutative* ring R, the determinant and trace of A are denoted by det(A) and Tr(A), respectively. For a matrix A, gcd(A) denotes the greatest common divisor of all the entries of A. For a unital ring R, U(R) denotes the set of all the units of R.

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2. Zero-square $n \times n$ matrices

In order to describe the zero-square $n \times n$ matrices over commutative (unital) rings or over integral domains, denote by T_{ab}^{cd} the 2×2 minor on the rows *a* and *b* and on the columns *c* and *d*.

Proposition 2.1. Let $T = [t_{ij}]_{1 \le i,j \le n}$ be an $n \times n$ matrix over a commutative ring R and let $t_{ij}^{(2)}$ be the entries of T^2 . Then

Proof. Simple computation of $row_i(T) \cdot col_j(T)$ for $i \neq j$ or i = j.

First recall that the rank of a (not necessarily square) matrix A (denoted rk(A)) can be defined over any commutative ring R, using the annihilators of the ideals $I_t(A)$ generated by the $t \times t$ minors of A (see e. g. [1]). In particular, rk(A) = 1 if all 2×2 minors are zero and and these two condition are equivalent over integral domains. Then it can be shown that equivalent matrices (so, in particular, similar matrices) have the same rank (see [1], **4.11**).

Therefore

Corollary 2.2. Let T be an $n \times n$ matrix over any commutative ring. If all 2×2 minors of T are zero and Tr(T) = 0 then $T^2 = 0_n$.

Remark. Over any integral domain a (well-known) converse also holds: If $T^2 = 0_n$ then $\det(T) = \operatorname{Tr}(T) = 0$.

Over any integral domain, in order to have a characterization of form

 $T^2 = 0_n$ if and only if rk(T) = 1 and Tr(T) = 0,

the only remaining implication is that, $T^2 = 0_n$ and Tr(T) = 0 imply rk(T) = 1 (i.e. all 2×2 minors of T vanish).

In what follows we show that this implication holds over a commutative ring for n = 3 if 2 is not a zero divisor, but fails for any $n \ge 4$.

Theorem 2.3. Let R be a commutative unital ring such that 2 is not a zero divisor and let $T \in M_3(R)$ with Tr(T) = 0. Then $T^2 = 0_3$ if and only if all 2×2 minors of T equal zero.

Proof. To avoid too many indexes and emphasize the diagonal elements (i.e. the zero trace) we write $T = \begin{bmatrix} x & a & c \\ b & y & e \\ d & f & -x-y \end{bmatrix}$.

If Tr(T) = 0, the condition $T^2 = 0_3$ is *equivalent* to the following nine LHS equalities

$$\begin{aligned} x^{2} + ab + cd &= 0 \quad (1) \\ a(x+y) + cf &= 0 \quad (2) \\ ae &= cy \quad (3) \\ b(x+y) + de &= 0 \quad (4) \\ y^{2} + ab + ef &= 0 \quad (5) \\ bc &= ex \quad (6) \\ bf &= dy \quad (7) \\ ad &= fx \quad (8) \\ (x+y)^{2} + cd + ef &= 0 \quad (9) \end{aligned} \qquad \begin{aligned} T_{13}^{23} &= 0 \\ T_{13}^{12} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The two terms equalities (i.e., (3), (6), (7), (8)) are *equivalent* to the vanishing of four 2×2 minors. Just look at the RHS column of vanishing minors. Further, two other equalities, namely, (2) and (4), are *equivalent* to the vanishing of another two minors.

Thus, this equivalently covers the six off diagonal 2×2 minors. What remains are the vanishing of the three 2×2 diagonal minors.

From $x^2 + ab + cd = 0$, $y^2 + ab + ef = 0$ and $(x + y)^2 + cd + ef = 0$ we get (since 2 is not a zero divisor) xy = ab, and so another zero 2×2 minor. Finally using $x^2 + ab + cd = 0$, $y^2 + ab + ef = 0$ and xy = ab, we get the last two zero 2×2 diagonal minors: x(x + y) + cd = 0 and y(x + y) + ef = 0.

The converse was settled in the general $n \times n$ case in Corollary 2.2.

Remark. The hypothesis "2 is not a zero divisor" is essential for the vanishing of the three diagonal 2×2 minors (over any commutative ring). In searching for an example (see example 5 below), the following observations gathered in the next lemma helped. We skip the easy proof of (i) and (ii).

Lemma 2.4. Suppose $T^2 = 0_3$ and Tr(T) = 0.

(i) If any diagonal 2×2 minor is zero, so are the other two diagonal 2×2 minors.
(ii) If any entry of T is not a zero divisor, then all 2×2 minors are zero.

(iii) Then det(T) = 0 and for the diagonal 2×2 minors we have $T_{12}^{12}t_{33} = 0$, $T_{13}^{13}t_{22} = 0$ and $T_{23}^{23}t_{11} = 0$, that is, with the notations in the previous proof, (xy - ab)(x + y) = 0, (x(x + y) + cd)y = 0 and (y(x + y) + ef)x = 0.

Proof. (iii) If $T^2 = 0_3$, clearly $T^3 = 0_3$ and $Tr(T^2) = 0$. Replacing in Cayley-Hamilton's theorem, i.e.,

$$T^{3} - \operatorname{Tr}(T)T^{2} + \frac{1}{2}[\operatorname{Tr}^{2}(T) - \operatorname{Tr}(T^{2})]T - \det(T)I_{3} = 0_{3},$$

gives now $\det(T)I_3 = 0$ and so $\det(T) = 0$. As for the diagonal minors, first recall (proof of Theorem 2.3) that in the given hypotheses, the off diagonal minors, vanish. Expanding the determinant along the third row gives $T_{12}^{12}t_{33} = 0$, i.e., (xy - ab)(x + y) = 0. The other two relations are obtained similarly by expanding the determinant along the second row and along the first row, respectively.

Actually, for a 3×3 matrix over a commutative ring we can consider the following four conditions

(A) $T^2 = 0_3$, and

- (B) all 2×2 minors of T equal zero,
- (C) $\det(T) = 0$,

(D) Tr(T) = 0.

The examples below show that excepting $(\mathbf{B}) \Longrightarrow (\mathbf{C})$, without other hypothesis, all the above listed conditions are (individually) logically independent. Among the necessary 12 examples we select some nontrivial ones.

Examples. 1) Over \mathbb{Z}_4 take $T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $T^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 8 & 8 \\ 16 & 16 & 16 \\ 12 & 12 & 12 \end{bmatrix} = 0_3$ but $\text{Tr}(T) = 2 \neq 0$ and the diagonal minors $T_{13}^{13} = T_{23}^{23} = 2 \neq 0$. Moreover, $T_{23}^{13} = 2 \neq 0$, a not diagonal minor. However $\det(T) = 0$. Hence (A) does not

imply (B) nor (D).

2) Consider $R = \mathbb{Z}_2[X, Y, Z]/I$ for $I := (X^2, Y^2, Z^2)$ and the diagonal matrix over $R, T = \begin{bmatrix} X + I & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & Y + I & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & Z + I \end{bmatrix}$. Then $T^2 = 0_3$ but the trace, all the

diagonal 2×2 minors and the determinant are not zero. So (A) does not imply any of (**B**), (**C**) or (**D**).

3) Denote by E the matrix with all entries = 1. Then E satisfies (B) (and so (C)), but since $E^2 = 3E$, over \mathbb{Z}_4 (or \mathbb{Z}_2), $E^2 \neq 0_3$ and $\operatorname{Tr}(E) \neq 0$ that is, E does not satisfy (A) nor (D).

4) A matrix can satisfy (A), (B) and (C) without having zero trace (i.e., not (D)). Over \mathbb{Z}_4 the matrix $T_1 = 2I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ has only zero 2×2 minors (and so zero determinant), satisfies $T^2 = 0$ but has $\operatorname{Tr}(T) = 2 \neq 0$. 5) Consider $R = \mathbb{Z}_2[X, Y]/I$ for $I := (X^2, Y^2)$ and the diagonal matrix over R,

 $T = \begin{bmatrix} X + I & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & Y + I & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & X + Y + I \end{bmatrix}.$ Then $T^2 = 0_3$, Tr(T) = 0, but the diagonal

minors are not zero. Hence (A) and (D) do not imply (B). Clearly, 2 is a zero divisor in R, and the example shows that the hypothesis added in Theorem 2.3 is not superfluous.

As noticed before, over an integral domain, for any $n \times n$ matrix, $T^2 = 0_n$ implies det(T) = 0 and so rk(T) < n. Therefore, for n = 2 and $T \neq 0_2$ clearly rk(T) = 1, but for n = 3 this must be proved (as this was done in the previous theorem).

In closing this section, an example of 4×4 zero-square matrix (over any commutative unital ring) with zero trace and rank 2 is given below.

Example.
$$C_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^2 = 0_4$$
, has zero trace but many not zero

 2×2 minors (e.g. $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, in the center). Hence $T^2 = 0_4$ does not generally imply $\operatorname{rk}(T) = 1$. Adding to this example as many zero rows and columns as necessary, $T^2 = 0_n$ does not generally imply $\operatorname{rk}(T) = 1$, for any n > 5.

Since nonzero multiples of E_{1n} have rank 1, and similar matrices have the same rank, we obtain

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Theorem 2.5. Over any commutative unital ring and for every $n \ge 4$, there are $n \times n$ zero-square matrices which are not similar to any multiple of E_{1n} .

3. The zero-square 2×2 case

To simplify the writing, some equalities below are used modulo association (in divisibility). For example, a = b means b = au for a unit u. Equivalently, $a \mid b$ and $b \mid a$.

The following lemmas list some well-known properties of a GCD domain.

Lemma 3.1. Let R be a GCD domain with $a, b, c \in R$.

1. gcd(ab, ac) = a gcd(b, c).

2. If gcd(a, b) = 1 and gcd(a, c) = 1, then gcd(a, bc) = 1.

3. If gcd(a, b) = 1 and $a \mid bc$, then $a \mid c$.

Lemma 3.2. Let R be a GCD domain and $b, c \in R$.

1. gcd(b,c) = 1 implies $gcd(b^n, c) = 1$ for any $n \ge 1$.

2. Let gcd(b, c) = 1. If bc is a square, so are both b and c.

3. gcd(a,b) = 1 and $a \mid c, b \mid c$ implies $ab \mid c$.

Proof. 1. This follows from (2), the previous lemma.

2. Let $a^2 = bc$. Denote $b_1 = \gcd(b, a)$ and $c_1 = \gcd(c, a)$. Then $b = b_1b_2$, $c = c_1c_2$ and $a = b_1 x = c_1 y$ for some $b_2, c_2, x, y \in R$ with $gcd(b_2, x) = 1 = gcd(c_2, y)$. Since gcd(b, c) = 1, it follows that $gcd(b_i, c_i) = 1$, $i \in \{1, 2\}$.

From $a^2 = bc$ we get $b_1c_1xy = b_1b_2c_1c_2$, whence $xy = b_2c_2$. Using this as $x \mid b_2c_2$ together with $gcd(b_2, x) = 1$, we obtain $x \mid c_2$. Analogously we derive $y \mid b_2$ and conversely $b_2 \mid y$ and $c_2 \mid x$. Hence $x = c_2, y = b_2$.

Finally $b_1c_2 = a = b_2c_1$ used as in the previous two lines gives (together with $gcd(b_i, c_i) = 1, i \in \{1, 2\}$) $b_1 = b_2$ and $c_1 = c_2$, as desired.

3. Write c = aa' = bb'. Since a, b are coprime, $a \mid b'$, i.e., b' = ad. Hence c = bb' = abd and so $ab \mid c$. \square

Notice that a zero-square 2×2 matrix over an *integral domain* R is of form $\begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & -\alpha \end{bmatrix}$ with $\alpha^2 + \beta \gamma = 0$. Indeed, let Q be the field of fractions of R. Then in $\mathbb{M}_2(Q)$, B is similar to qE_{12} for some $q \in Q$. So $\mathrm{Tr}(B) = 0$ and $\det(B) = 0$.

Proposition 3.3. Every zero-square 2×2 matrix over a Bézout domain R is similar to rE_{12} , for some $r \in R$.

Proof. The result is trivial for the zero matrix so we assume the matrix is not zero. Take $T = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & -x \end{bmatrix}$ and $x^2 + yz = 0$. We construct an invertible matrix $U = [u_{ij}]$ such that $TU = U(rE_{12})$ with a suitable $r \in R$.

Let $d = \gcd(x, y)$ and denote $x = dx_1$, $y = dy_1$ with $\gcd(x_1, y_1) = 1$. Then Let $u = \gcd(x, y)$ and denote $x = ux_1$, $y = uy_1$ with $\gcd(x_1, y_1) = 1$. Then $d^2x_1^2 = -dy_1z$ and since $\gcd(x_1, y_1) = 1$ implies $\gcd(x_1^2, y_1) = 1$, it follows y_1 divides d. Set $d = y_1y_2$ and so $T = \begin{bmatrix} x_1y_1y_2 & y_1^2y_2 \\ -x_1^2y_2 & -x_1y_1y_2 \end{bmatrix} = y_2 \begin{bmatrix} x_1y_1 & y_1^2 \\ -x_1^2 & -x_1y_1 \end{bmatrix} = y_2T'$. Since R is Bézout and $\gcd(x_1, y_1) = 1$, there exist $s, t \in R$ such that $sx_1 + ty_1 = 1$. Take $U = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & s \\ -x_1 & t \end{bmatrix}$ which is invertible (indeed, $U^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} t & -s \\ x_1 & y_1 \end{bmatrix}$). One can check $T'U = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & y_1 \\ 0 & -x_1 \end{bmatrix} = UE_{12}$, so $r = y_2$.

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Remark. We can write $T = r(UE_{12}U^{-1})$, so r is a common divisor of all the entries of T.

4. The zero-square 3×3 case

The following lemma and proposition will be useful for the extension of Proposition 3.3 to zero-square 3×3 matrices.

Lemma 4.1. Let $a, b, c, a', b', c' \in R$, a GCD domain. If ab' = a'b, ac' = a'c, bc' = b'c and the rows $\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} a' & b' & c' \end{bmatrix}$ are unimodular then the pairs a, a', b, b' and c, c' are associated. Moreover, there exists a unit $u \in U(R)$ such that $\begin{bmatrix} a' & b' & c' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \end{bmatrix} u$.

Proof. Denote $\delta = \gcd(a, b)$ with $a = \delta a_1$, $b = \delta b_1$ and $\delta' = \gcd(a', b')$ and $a' = \delta' a'_1$, $b' = \delta' b'_1$. From ab' = a'b cancelling $\delta\delta'$ we obtain $a_1b'_1 = a'_1b_1$. Since a_1, b_1 are coprime, it follows $a_1 \mid a'_1$. Symmetrically, since a'_1, b'_1 are coprime, it follows $a'_1 \mid a_1$, so that a_1, a'_1 are associates. Hence there is a unit $u \in U(R)$ such that $a_1 = a'_1u$.

Further, notice that $gcd(\delta, c) = gcd(gcd(a, b), c) = 1$ and so δ, c are coprime. Now we use ac' = a'c, that is, $\delta(a'_1u)c' = \delta a_1c' = \delta'a'_1c$. Cancelling a'_1 we get $\delta uc' = \delta'c$ and since δ, c are coprime, $\delta \mid \delta'$. Symmetrically, $\delta' \mid \delta$ and so δ, δ' are also associates. Therefore $a = \delta a_1$ and $a' = \delta'a'_1$ are associates.

In a similar way, it follows that b,b^\prime and c,c^\prime are associates, respectively.

Finally, suppose a' = au, b' = bv and c' = cw for some $u, v, w \in U(R)$. From ab' = a'b we get abv = aub, so v = u. Analogously, w = v and so w = v = u, as claimed.

Remark. The second hypothesis of the lemma can be stated as a matrix rank: rk $\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ a' & b' & c' \end{bmatrix} = 1.$

Proposition 4.2. Let R be a GCD domain. If $\operatorname{rk} \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ a' & b' & c' \end{bmatrix} = 1$ (i.e., ab' = a'b, ac' = a'c, bc' = b'c), $\delta = \operatorname{gcd}(a, b, c)$, $\lambda = \operatorname{gcd}(a', b', c')$ and $a = \delta a_1$, $b = \delta b_1$, $c = \delta c_1$, $a' = \lambda a'_1$, $b' = \lambda b'_1$ and $c' = \lambda c'_1$, then a_1, b_1, c_1 and a'_1, b'_1, c'_1 are respectively associated (in divisibility). Moreover, $\begin{bmatrix} a'_1 & b'_1 & c'_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \end{bmatrix} u$ for some $u \in U(R)$.

Proof. We just use the previous lemma.

Next we need

Lemma 4.3. Let R be a commutative unital ring and $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Then **a** is a unimodular row (in R) if and only if $\mathbf{a} + M \neq M$ for every maximal ideal M of \mathbb{R}^3 (i.e., $\mathbf{a} + M \neq 0$ in \mathbb{R}^3/M).

Proof. Indeed, $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^3 - M$ is equivalent to at least one of $a_i \notin M$, $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$. Equivalently, the system $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\} \notin M$. It suffices to notice that every proper ideal is (by Zorn's Lemma) included in a maximal ideal and, that an 3-vector is **not** a unimodular row (i.e., not an ideal generating system) if and only if the elements are included in a maximal ideal.

Proposition 4.4. Suppose $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$, $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$, $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, c_2, c_3)$ are unimodular rows such that $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 1$, $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c} = 0$. Then the cross product $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$ is also a unimodular row.

Proof. According to the previous lemma, it suffices to show that $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$ is nonzero modulo any maximal ideal. Since R^3 is also a unital commutative ring, modulo any maximal ideal $M, R^3/M$ is a field and $\mathbf{b} + M, \mathbf{c} + M$ are nonzero (otherwise these are not unimodular rows, i.e. ideal generating systems). It is easy to see that these two vectors are linearly independent (indeed, if $(\mathbf{a} + M) \cdot (\mathbf{b} + M) = 1 + M$, $(\mathbf{a}+M)\cdot(\mathbf{c}+M)=M$ and $\mathbf{b}+M=k(\mathbf{c}+M)$ then 1+M=M, impossible). Hence their cross product is (well-known to be) nonzero and the proof is complete.

Proposition 4.5. Let R be a commutative unital ring and let \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , \mathbf{c} be unimodular 3-vectors such that $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 1$ and $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c} = 0$. There exists a unimodular 3-vector \mathbf{x} . also orthogonal on **a**, such that $\mathbf{c} \cdot (\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{b}) = 1$.

Proof. By the above lemma, since $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$ is also unimodular, there exists a unimodular *n*-vector **x** such that $\mathbf{x} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{c} \cdot (\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{b}) = 1$. If $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{x} = s$, replace **x** by $\mathbf{x} - s\mathbf{b}$ and then this vector is also orthogonal on **a** (indeed, $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{x} - s\mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{x} - s(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) =$ s - s = 0). \square

We are now ready to prove our main result

Theorem 4.6. Zero-square 3×3 matrices over a Bézout domain, are similar to multiples of E_{13} .

Proof. Again consider $T = \begin{bmatrix} x & a & c \\ b & y & e \\ d & f & -x - y \end{bmatrix}$ with $T^2 = 0_3$ (by Theorem 2.3, $\operatorname{rank}(T) = 1$, that is, all 2×2 minors are zero Denote $\delta = \gcd(x, a, c), \lambda = \gcd(b, y, e)$ and $\gamma = \gcd(d, f, x + y)$ so that $x = \delta x_1$,

 $\begin{aligned} a = \delta a_1, c = \delta c_1, b = \lambda b_1, y = \lambda y_1, e = \lambda e_1, d = \gamma d_1, f = \gamma f_1 \text{ and } x + y = \gamma (x_2 + y_2). \\ \text{According to Proposition 4.2, there are units } u, v \text{ such that } \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & y_1 & e_1 \end{bmatrix} = \\ \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & a_1 & c_1 \end{bmatrix} u \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & f_1 & -x_2 - y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & a_1 & c_1 \end{bmatrix} v. \\ \text{Hence } T = \begin{bmatrix} \delta x_1 & \delta a_1 & \delta c_1 \\ \lambda u x_1 & \lambda u a_1 & \lambda u c_1 \\ \gamma v x_1 & \gamma v a_1 & \gamma v c_1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and since } \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & a_1 & c_1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is unimodular,} \end{aligned}$

there are $s, t, z \in R$ and $sx_1 + ta_1 + zc_1 = 1$ Note that $\operatorname{Tr}(T) = \delta x_1 + \lambda u a_1 + \gamma v c_1 = 0.$

Denote $r = \gcd(\delta, \lambda, \gamma) = \gcd(T)$ and denote $\delta = r\delta_1, \lambda = r\lambda_1, \gamma = \frac{1}{2}$ looking for an invertible matrix U such that $TU = U(rE_{13}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & ru_{11} \\ 0 & 0 & ru_{21} \\ 0 & 0 & ru_{31} \end{bmatrix}$.

Our choice for r is necessary: indeed, writing $T = rUE_{13}U^{-1}$, shows that r divides all entries of T. Also note that, if det(U) = 1, every row and every column of U is unimodular.

We choose $\operatorname{col}_3(U) = \begin{bmatrix} s \\ t \\ z \end{bmatrix}$. By computation $ru_{11} = \operatorname{row}_1(T) \cdot \operatorname{col}_3(U) = \delta(x_1u_{13} + a_1u_{23} + c_1u_{33}) = \delta,$ $ru_{21} = \operatorname{row}_2(T) \cdot \operatorname{col}_3(U) = \lambda u(x_1u_{13} + a_1u_{23} + c_1u_{33}) = \lambda u,$ $\begin{bmatrix} x_{1} & a_{1} & c_{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{21} \\ u_{31} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1} & a_{1} & c_{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{21} \\ u_{31} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1} & a_{1} & c_{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{12} \\ u_{22} \\ u_{32} \end{bmatrix} = 0 \text{ and so}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & a_1 & c_1 \end{bmatrix} U = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence, the first column of U must be $\operatorname{col}_1(U) = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{21} \\ u_{31} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{o}{r} \\ \frac{\lambda}{r} \\ \frac{v}{r} \\ v \end{vmatrix}$. These

fractions exist since $r = \gcd(\delta, \lambda, \gamma)$.

We indeed have
$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & a_1 & c_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sigma}{r} \\ \frac{\lambda}{ry} \\ \frac{\gamma}{r} v \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{r} (\delta x_1 + \lambda u a_1 + \gamma v c_1) = \frac{1}{r} (x + y - v c_1)$$

(x+y)) = 0 (because $\operatorname{Tr}(T) = 0$).

We are searching for a suitable column $\operatorname{col}_2(U)$ such that $U = \begin{bmatrix} \delta_1 & u_{12} & s \\ \lambda_1 u & u_{22} & t \\ \gamma_1 v & u_{32} & z \end{bmatrix}$

is invertible and $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & a_1 & c_1 \end{bmatrix} U = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Taking $\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & a_1 & c_1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} s \ t \ z \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta_1 \ \lambda_1 u \ \gamma_1 v \end{bmatrix}$ the existence of $\mathbf{x} =$

 $[u_{12} \ u_{22} \ u_{32}]$ follows (by transpose) from the previous proposition.

Remarks. 1) Expanding det(U) = 1 along the second column, we obtain for the unknown $\operatorname{col}_2(U)$ the system

$$-(\lambda_1 uz - \gamma_1 vt)u_{12} + (\delta_1 z - \gamma_1 vs)u_{22} - (\delta_1 t - \lambda_1 us)u_{32} = 1$$

$$x_1 u_{12} + a_1 u_{22} + c_1 u_{32} = 0$$

The first equation (also) implies the unimodularity of $col_2(U)$.

2) So far, an example of nilpotent matrix which has not stable range one was not found. The similarities proved for zero-square 2×2 and 3×3 matrices over Bézout domains, show that for such matrices a possible example should have nilpotent index 3.

Example. Now $x_1 = 6 = 2 \cdot 3$, $a_1 = 10 = 2 \cdot 5$, $c_1 = 15 = 3 \cdot 5$, so that no two of these are coprime.

$$T_6 = \begin{vmatrix} -180 & -300 & -450 \\ 90 & 150 & 225 \\ 12 & 20 & 30 \end{vmatrix}, \ \delta = -30, \ \lambda = 15, \ \gamma = 2 \text{ and so } r = 1.$$

The second equation is a linear Diophantine equation, 6s + 10t + 15z = 1. We denote w = 3s + 5t and solve 2w + 15z = 1. It gives w = -7 + 15n, z = 1 - 2n.

We choose w = -7 (for n = 0) and solve 3s + 5t = -7. This gives for instance $\begin{bmatrix} -30 & u_{12} & -14 \end{bmatrix}$

$$s = -14, t = 7$$
, so we choose also $z = 1$ and $U = \begin{bmatrix} 15 & u_{22} & 7 \\ 2 & u_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Now the first equation is

$$-u_{12} \begin{vmatrix} 15 & 7 \\ 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} + u_{22} \begin{vmatrix} -30 & -14 \\ 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} - u_{32} \begin{vmatrix} -30 & -14 \\ 15 & 7 \end{vmatrix} = 1,$$

that is, $-u_{12} - 2u_{22} = 1$.

Hence $2u_{22} = -1 - u_{12}$ and so $6u_{12} - 5 - 5u_{12} + 15u_{32} = 0$ or $u_{12} + 15u_{32} = 5$. We can choose $u_{12} = 5$, $u_{32} = 0$ and so $u_{22} = -3$.

	-180	-300	-450]	Γ-	-30	5	-14]	0	0	-30]
Indeed	90	150	225		15	-3	7	=	0	0	15	, as
Indeed	12	20	30		2	0	1		0	0	2	
desired			-	L .			-	1	-			-

desired.

In closing, we state an

Open question. Find *explicitly* the invertible matrix $U = \begin{bmatrix} \delta_1 & u_{12} & s \\ \lambda_1 u & u_{22} & t \\ \gamma_1 v & u_{32} & z \end{bmatrix}$ such that $TU = U(rE_{13})$ with $r = \gcd(T)$.

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References

 W. C. Brown Matrices over commutative rings. Marcel Dekker, Inc. New York, Basel, Hong Kong, 1993.