# A NOTE ON FINDING A RATIONAL SYMMETRIC MATRIX FOR A GIVEN SEPARABLE POLYNOMIAL 

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#### Abstract

Given a separable polynomial $p(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, which splits in $\mathbb{R}[x]$, is it possible to find a symmetric matrix over $\mathbb{Q}$ whose eigenvalues are precisely the roots of $p(x)$ ? This note investigates this questions, and provides a condition on $p(x)$ under which it is always possible to find such a matrixthe question whether such a matrix can be found unconditionally is left open. The condition we give is that the Vandermonde matrix of the roots of $p(x)$ be (quasi) orthogonal.


1. Introduction. In this note we are concerned with the following question: given a polynomial $p(x)$ of degree $n$ over $\mathbb{Q}$, i.e., $p$ has rational coefficients, such that $p$ splits in $\mathbb{R}[x]$, i.e., $p(x)=\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)\left(x-\lambda_{2}\right) \cdots\left(x-\lambda_{n}\right)$, where the $\lambda_{i}$ 's are all distinct real numbers, is it possible to find a symmetric matrix $A_{p}$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ such that the eigenvalues of $A_{p}$ are precisely the roots of $p(x)$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{p} \sim D=\operatorname{Diag}\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}\right) ? \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(" $\sim$ " denotes similarity of matrices, and " $\operatorname{Diag}\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}\right)$ " denotes a diagonal matrix, with $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$ on the main diagonal.)

The tacit assumption in (1.1) is that $A_{p}$ is an $n \times n$ matrix, i.e., $A_{p} \in \mathbb{Q}_{n \times n}$. If this is required, then in general it is not true that such an $A_{p}$ can be found, as the following example ${ }^{1}$ illustrates: there is no rational symmetric $2 \times 2$ matrix $M$ with characteristic polynomial $x^{2}-3=(x+\sqrt{3})(x-\sqrt{3})$.

Suppose by way of contradiction that there is such a rational symmetric $2 \times 2$ matrix $M$, and let

$$
M=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
b & c
\end{array}\right]
$$

so the characteristic polynomial of $M, p_{M}$, is given by

$$
p_{M}(x)=x^{2}+(-a-c) x+\left(a c-b^{2}\right)
$$

Since $-a-c=0$, it follows that $-a^{2}-b^{2}=-3$, so $a^{2}+b^{2}=3$, which is not possible if $a, b$ are rational numbers. To see this, just clear the denominators, and consider arithmetic modulo 3 . We get that for some integers $x, y$ (not both zero), we have $x^{2}+y^{2} \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$; this is not possible.

Of course, our example leaves open the question whether there exists a rational symmetric matrix of dimension greater than 2 which has $\pm \sqrt{3}$ as eigenvectors.

Given a polynomial $p(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ of degree $n$, such that $p(x)$ splits over $\mathbb{R}$, i.e., $p(x)=\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)\left(x-\lambda_{2}\right) \cdots\left(x-\lambda_{n}\right)$, define a Vandermonde matrix of its roots to be

[^0]the following matrix:
\[

V_{p}=\left[$$
\begin{array}{ccccc}
1 & \lambda_{1} & \lambda_{1}^{2} & \ldots & \lambda_{1}^{n-1}  \tag{1.2}\\
1 & \lambda_{2} & \lambda_{2}^{2} & \ldots & \lambda_{2}^{n-1} \\
& & & \vdots & \\
1 & \lambda_{n} & \lambda_{n}^{2} & \ldots & \lambda_{n}^{n-1}
\end{array}
$$\right]
\]

We say that $V_{p}$ is quasi-orthogonal if

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{p}^{t} V_{p}=r I \quad \text { where } r \in \mathbb{Q} \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this note we show that if $p(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ of degree $n$, which splits over $\mathbb{R}$, and its matrix $V_{p}$ is quasi-orthogonal, then there exists a $2 n \times 2 n$ symmetric rational matrix whose eigenvalues are precisely $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$.

Note that our example polynomial $x^{2}-3=(x+\sqrt{3})(x-\sqrt{3})$ does not satisfy (1.3), while the polynomial $x^{2}-1=(x-1)(x+1)$ does.

We leave open the question whether the condition given by (1.3) is necessary. It is plausible that in general we can unconditionally find a rational symmetric matrix as required, albeit of size greater than the degree of the polynomial. This seems to be an interesting open question.
2. Main Result. We now prove the main result of this note. We start with lemma 2.1, and then we state and prove our result as theorem 2.3.

LEMMA 2.1. Suppose that $p(x)=x^{n}+p_{n-1} x^{n-1}+\cdots+p_{0} \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is a separable polynomial of degree $n$ that splits in $\mathbb{C}[x]$, that is, $p(x)=\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)\left(x-\lambda_{2}\right) \cdots\left(x-\lambda_{n}\right)$, where the $\lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{C}$ are all distinct. Then, if $V_{p}$ is quasi-orthogonal, there exists $a$ symmetric matrix $A_{p} \in \mathbb{Q}_{n \times n}$ (i.e., an $n \times n$ matrix over $\mathbb{Q}$ ) such that:

$$
A_{p} \sim D:=\operatorname{Diag}\left(\lambda_{1}^{2}, \lambda_{2}^{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}^{2}\right)
$$

that is, $A_{p}$ is similar to a diagonal matrix whose eigenvalues are the $\lambda_{i}^{2}$.
Proof. First of all, since all the $\lambda_{i}$ 's are distinct, it follows that:

$$
C_{p}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
0 & 0 & \ldots & -p_{0} \\
1 & 0 & \ldots & -p_{1} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 1 & -p_{n-1}
\end{array}\right] \sim D
$$

where $C_{p}$ is the companion matrix of $p(x)$.
Note that from general considerations about bases of eigenvectors (for distinct eigenvalues) we know that $V_{p}$ is invertible. However, we can also check it directly, since $V_{p}$ is the Vandermonde matrix, and therefore its determinant is $\Pi_{i<j}\left(\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{j}\right)$. Since all the $\lambda_{i}$ 's are distinct, it follows that $\operatorname{det}\left(V_{p}\right) \neq 0$, and hence $V_{p}$ is invertible.

Claim 2.2. $V_{p} C_{p} V_{p}^{-1}=D$.
Proof. (of claim 2.2)

$$
\begin{aligned}
V_{p} C_{p} V_{p}^{-1}=D & \Longleftrightarrow V_{p} C_{p}=D V_{p} \\
& \Longleftrightarrow C_{p}^{t} V_{p}^{t}=V_{p}^{t} D,
\end{aligned}
$$

and the last statement holds iff $\forall i$, the $i$-th column of $V_{p}^{t}$ is the eigenvector of $C_{p}^{t}$ corresponding to $\lambda_{i}$. This in turn is true iff $\left(\lambda_{i} I-C_{p}^{t}\right)\left(V_{p}^{t}\right)_{i}=0$, where $\left(V_{p}^{t}\right)_{i}$ denotes the $i$-th column of the matrix $V_{p}^{t}$.

The last statement in the above paragraph holds since

$$
\left(\lambda_{i} I-C_{p}^{t}\right)\left(V_{p}^{t}\right)_{i}=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
\lambda_{i} & -1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & \lambda_{i} & -1 & \ldots & 0 \\
& & & \vdots & -1 \\
p_{0} & p_{1} & p_{2} & \ldots & \lambda_{i}+p_{n-1}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
\lambda_{i} \\
\lambda_{i}^{2} \\
\vdots \\
\lambda_{i}^{n-1}
\end{array}\right],
$$

and the product of the two right-hand side matrices is clearly the zero column-vector. (End of proof of claim 2.2.) $\square$

Now,

$$
D^{2}=D \cdot D=\left[\left(V_{p}^{t}\right)^{-1} C_{p}^{t}\left(V_{p}^{t}\right)\right]\left[V_{p} C_{p} V_{p}^{-1}\right]=\left(V_{p}^{-1}\right)^{t}[\underbrace{C_{p}^{t}\left(V_{p}^{t}\right) V_{p} C_{p}}_{(*)}] V_{p}^{-1}
$$

and the matrix in the middle, namely $(*)$, is symmetric, and furthermore, it is rational. This is going to be our matrix ${ }^{2}$, i.e., our $A_{p}$. $\quad$

THEOREM 2.3. Suppose that $p(x)=x^{n}+p_{n-1} x^{n-1}+\cdots+p_{0} \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is a separable polynomial that splits in $\mathbb{R}$, that is, $p(x)=\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)\left(x-\lambda_{2}\right) \cdots\left(x-\lambda_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$, and all the $\lambda_{i}$ 's are distinct. If $V_{p}$ is quasi-orthogonal, then there exists a symmetric matrix over $\mathbb{Q}_{2 n \times 2 n}$ whose eigenvalues are the $\lambda_{i}$ 's.

Proof. Let $q(x)=p\left(x^{2}\right)$. Then $q(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ as well, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
q(x) & =\left(x^{2}-\lambda_{1}\right)\left(x^{2}-\lambda_{2}\right) \cdots\left(x^{2}-\lambda_{n}\right) \\
& =\left(x-\sqrt{\lambda_{1}}\right)\left(x+\sqrt{\lambda_{1}}\right)\left(x-\sqrt{\lambda_{2}}\right)\left(x+\sqrt{\lambda_{2}}\right) \cdots\left(x-\sqrt{\lambda_{n}}\right)\left(x+\sqrt{\lambda_{n}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $\sqrt{\lambda_{i}}$ may be purely real or purely imaginary, as $\lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$, so ${\sqrt{\lambda_{i}}}^{2} \in \mathbb{R}$. Also, there are $2 n$ roots of $q(x)$, and they are all distinct:

$$
\sqrt{\lambda_{1}},-\sqrt{\lambda_{1}}, \sqrt{\lambda_{2}},-\sqrt{\lambda_{2}}, \ldots, \sqrt{\lambda_{n}},-\sqrt{\lambda_{n}}
$$

So we can apply lemma 2.1 to $q(x)$.
Note that $C_{q}$, the companion matrix of $q(x)$, is a $2 n \times 2 n$ matrix, and so is the rational symmetric matrix $A_{q}=C_{q}^{t} V_{p}^{t} V_{p} C_{q}$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{q} \sim D\left({\left.{\sqrt{\lambda_{1}}}^{2},-{\sqrt{\lambda_{1}}}^{2},{{\sqrt{\lambda_{2}}}^{2}}^{2}-{\sqrt{\lambda_{2}}}^{2}, \ldots,{\sqrt{\lambda_{n}}}^{2},-{\sqrt{\lambda_{n}}}^{2}\right)}^{2}\right. \\
& =D\left(\lambda_{1},-\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2},-\lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n},-\lambda_{n}\right) \text {, }
\end{aligned}
$$

and this finishes the proof.

[^1]Finally, note that we can relax the condition (1.3) a little bit, and only require that $V_{p}^{t} V_{p}=r I$, and not insist explicitly that $r \in \mathbb{Q}$. This is because $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ a priori as we show next:

$$
V_{p}^{t} V_{p}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
s_{0} & s_{1} & \ldots & s_{n-1} \\
s_{1} & s_{2} & \ldots & s_{n} \\
& & \vdots & \\
s_{n-1} & s_{n} & \ldots & s_{2 n-2}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $s_{i}=\lambda_{1}^{i}+\lambda_{2}^{i}+\cdots+\lambda_{n-1}^{i}=\operatorname{tr}\left(C_{p}^{i}\right)$, and $\operatorname{tr}\left(C_{p}^{i}\right) \in \mathbb{Q}$ (i.e., the trace of a power of a rational matrix is a rational number).
3. Conclusion. Do we need the condition that $V_{p}$ is quasi-orthogonal? We know for sure that in general our rational symmetric matrix will be larger than the degree of the polynomial, but if a condition is required is there one that is weaker than quasi-orthogonality? It was pointed out ${ }^{3}$ that there exists a vast literature by Ed Bender on the conditions for the existence of a symmetric matrix over $\mathbb{Q}$; it would be interesting to find out if those results relate directly to the question posed in this note.

## REFERENCES

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    ${ }^{1}$ This example is due to Stephen Cook; private communication to the author.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ Or, rather, a multiple of our matrix; since $\left(V_{p}^{-1}\right)^{t}\left(V_{p}^{-1}\right)=r I$, we let $A_{p}=r\left(C_{p}^{t}\left(V_{p}^{t}\right) V_{p} C_{p}\right)$, which is now similar to $D^{2}$ via $\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}\left(V_{p}^{-1}\right)$ and its transpose.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Robert Guralnick, editor of ELA, private communication.

