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一組三個圈型線性變換之研究

Cyclic Triples



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中華民國九十六年六月

一組三個圈型線性變換之研究 Cyclic Triples

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一組三個圈型線性變換的研究

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摘 要

ALLIER.

 $A \cdot B \pi C 是 侨 於 複 數 體 上 的 三 個 d + 1 階 方 陣 。 若 A \cdot B \pi C$ 满足 $A^{d+1} = \alpha I, B^{d+1} = \beta I, C^{d+1} = \gamma I, B A = q A B, C B = q B C,$ $A C = q C A \perp \alpha \cdot \beta \cdot \gamma \Lambda a > \gamma \Lambda a > \gamma R = q A B, C B = q B C,$ 我們實質上可以決定 $A \cdot B \cdot \pi C = a = \beta I, C^{d+1} = \gamma I, B A = q A B, C B = q B C,$

中華民國九十六年六月

Cyclic Triples

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Abstract

Let \mathbb{C} denote the complex field and let d be a positive integer. We essentially determine all the triples A, B, C of $(d+1) \times (d+1)$ matrices over \mathbb{C} that satisfy

 $A^{d+1}=\alpha I,\ B^{d+1}=\beta I,\ C^{d+1}=\gamma I,\ BA=qAB,\ CB=qBC,\ AC=qCA$

for some nonzero complex numbers α , β , γ , and a primitive root q of unity of order d + 1.



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1 Introduction

Let \mathbb{C} denote the complex field and let $Mat_{d+1}(\mathbb{C})$ denote the set of $(d+1) \times (d+1)$ matrices over \mathbb{C} with the index set $\{0, 1, \ldots, d\}$.

Definition 1.1. Let A denote a matrix in $Mat_{d+1}(\mathbb{C})$. We say A is *left-cyclic* whenever each of the entries $A_{i,i-1}$ and A_{0d} is nonzero for i = 1, 2, ..., d and all other entries of A are zero; or A is *right-cyclic* whenever its transpose is left-cyclic. We say a square matrix is *cyclic* whenever it is left-cyclic or right-cyclic.

Definition 1.2. Let **V** denote a vector space over \mathbb{C} with finite dimension. Let $A : \mathbf{V} \longrightarrow \mathbf{V}, B : \mathbf{V} \longrightarrow \mathbf{V}$, and $C : \mathbf{V} \longrightarrow \mathbf{V}$ denote linear transformations which satisfy (i) - (iii) below.

- (i) There exists a basis for \mathbf{V} with respect to which the matrix representing A is left-cyclic, the matrix representing B is diagonal, and the matrix representing C is right-cyclic.
- (ii) There exists a basis for \mathbf{V} with respect to which the matrix representing A is right-cyclic, the matrix representing B is left-cyclic, and the matrix representing C is diagonal.
- (*iii*) There exists a basis for \mathbf{V} with respect to which the matrix representing A is diagonal, the matrix representing B is right-cyclic, and the matrix representing C is left-cyclic.

We call such a triple (A, B, C) a *cyclic triple* on **V**.

The following is our main result.

Theorem 1.3. Let \mathbf{V} denote a vector space over \mathbb{C} with dimension d + 1. Let $A : \mathbf{V} \longrightarrow \mathbf{V}, B : \mathbf{V} \longrightarrow \mathbf{V}$, and $C : \mathbf{V} \longrightarrow \mathbf{V}$ denote linear transformations. We prove the following are equivalent.

- (i) (A, B, C) is a cyclic triple on **V**.
- (ii) There exist three nonzero complex numbers α , β , γ and a primitive root q of unity of order d + 1 such that

$$A^{d+1} = \alpha I, \ B^{d+1} = \beta I, \ C^{d+1} = \gamma I, \ BA = qAB, \ CB = qBC, \ AC = qCA.$$

(iii) There exists a basis v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_d for **V** with respect to which the matrices representing A (resp. B, C) is left-cyclic (resp. diagonal, right-cyclic) with the following forms,

$$A: \eta \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & 1\\ q^{-2} & 0 & & \\ & q^{-4} & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 0\\ 0 & & & q^{-2d} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(rsp. \; B: \xi \left(\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & & & & 0 \\ & q & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & q^{d-1} \\ 0 & & & & q^d \end{array} \right), C: \zeta \left(\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & q & & & 0 \\ & 0 & q^2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & 0 & q^d \\ 1 & & & 0 \end{array} \right))$$

for some nonzero complex numbers η , ξ , ζ , and a primitive root q of unity of order d + 1.

2 Cyclic pairs

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To prove Theorem 1.3 we need some previous results in [1, 3]. For the thesis to be self-contained, these results are stated in this section and the proofs are given in slightly different ways.

Lemma 2.1. Cyclic matrices are diagonalizable with distinct nonzero eigenvalues.

Proof. For any left-cyclic matrix



the characteristic polynomial of A is

$$f(x) = x^{d+1} - \prod_{i=0}^{d} a_i.$$

Since a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_d are not zeros, f(x) has d + 1 distinct roots. Hence A has d + 1 distinct eigenvalues. This implies A is diagonalizable with nonzero eigenvalues. For any right-cyclic matrix A, since A^T is left-cyclic and A have the same characteristic polynomial with A^T , A is also diagonalizable with nonzero eigenvalues. We complete the proof.

Definition 2.2. Let **V** denote a vector space over \mathbb{C} with finite positive dimension. By a *cyclic pair* on **V** we mean an ordered pair of linear transformations $A : \mathbf{V} \longrightarrow \mathbf{V}$ and $B : \mathbf{V} \longrightarrow \mathbf{V}$ that satisfy conditions (1), (2) below.

(i) There exists a basis for \mathbf{V} with respect to which the matrix representing A is diagonal and the matrix representing B is cyclic.

(*ii*) There exists a basis for \mathbf{V} with respect to which the matrix representing B is diagonal and the matrix representing A is cyclic.

Lemma 2.3. Suppose

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \alpha \\ 1 & 0 & & & \\ 0 & 1 & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & 0 & \\ & & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\alpha \neq 0)$$

is a left-cyclic matrix and $\theta \neq 0$ is an eigenvalue of A. Let u be an eigenvector corresponding to θ . Then

$$\theta^{d+1} = \alpha \text{ and } u = \begin{pmatrix} u_0 \\ u_0 \theta^{-1} \\ u_0 \theta^{-2} \\ \vdots \\ u_0 \theta^{-d} \end{pmatrix}$$

for some nonzero scalar $u_0 \in \mathbb{C}$.

Proof. Since the characteristic polynomial of A is $x^{d+1} - \alpha$, it is obvious that

Suppose



Observe

$$Au = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \alpha \\ 1 & 0 & & & \\ 0 & 1 & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & 0 \\ & & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_0 \\ u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha u_d \\ u_0 \\ u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_{d-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \theta u_0 \\ \theta u_1 \\ \theta u_2 \\ \vdots \\ \theta u_d \end{pmatrix},$$

since $Au = \theta u$. Hence $u_i = \theta u_{i+1}$ for i = 0, 1, ..., d-1 and $u_d = (\theta/\alpha)u_0 = \theta^{-d}u_0$. Then $u_i = u_0\theta^{-i}$ $(1 \le i \le d)$. Note that $u_0 \ne 0$ since $u \ne 0$ and $\theta \ne 0$. Hence the proof is completed.

Theorem 2.4. Let \mathbf{V} denote a vector space over \mathbb{C} with dimension d + 1. Let $A : \mathbf{V} \to \mathbf{V}$ and $B : \mathbf{V} \to \mathbf{V}$ denote linear transformations. Then the following (i)-(iii) are equivalent.

(i) (A, B) is a cyclic pair on \mathbf{V} .

(ii) There exist two nonzero complex numbers α and β such that

$$A^{d+1} = \alpha I, \quad B^{d+1} = \beta I, \quad BA = qAB,$$

where q is a primitive root of unity of order d + 1.

(iii) There exists a basis v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_d for **V** with respect to which the matrices representing A and B have the following forms,

$$A: \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & \alpha \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ 0 & 1 & \ddots & \\ & \ddots & 0 \\ & & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, B: \begin{pmatrix} \xi & & & 0 \\ & \xi q & & \\ & & \xi q^2 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & & \xi q^d \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\alpha, \xi \in \mathbb{C}$ are nonzero scalars and $q \in \mathbb{C}$ is a primitive root of unity of order d + 1.

Proof. $((iii) \Longrightarrow (ii))$ By direct computation

$$A^{d+1} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha \end{pmatrix} = \alpha I,$$

$$B^{d+1} = \begin{pmatrix} \xi^{d+1} & 0 \\ \xi^{d+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \xi^{d+1} \\ 0 & \xi^{d+1} \\ 0 & \xi^{d+1} \end{pmatrix} = \beta I,$$

$$BA = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \alpha \xi \\ \xi q & 0 \\ \xi q^2 & 0 \\ \xi q^3 & 0 \\ 0 & \xi q^3 \\ 0 & \xi q^4 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \alpha \xi q^{d} \\ \xi & 0 & & & \\ & \xi q & 0 & & \\ & & \xi q^{2} & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \xi q^{d-1} & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore $A^{d+1} = \alpha I, B^{d+1} = \beta I$, and BA = qAB, where $\beta = \xi^{d+1}$.

 $((ii) \Longrightarrow (i))$ Since **V** is over the complex field \mathbb{C} , there exists an eigenvalue ξ for *B*. Let v_0 be an eigenvector of B with respect to eigenvalue ξ , that is, $Bv_0 = \xi v_0$ with $v_0 \neq 0$. Consider vectors $v_0, Av_0, A^2v_0, \ldots, A^dv_0$.

Claim. $\{v_0, Av_0, A^2v_0, \ldots, A^dv_0\}$ is a basis of eigenvectors of B.

Set $u_i = A^i v_0$ for i = 0, 1, ..., d. Note that $u_i \neq 0$ since A is invertible. Observe $Bu_i = BA^i v_0 = q^i A^i Bv_0 = \xi q^i A^i v_0 = \xi q^i u_i$, since BA = qAB. Hence u_i are distinct eigenvectors of B with respect to distinct eigenvalues ξq^i ($0 \leq i \leq d$), and $\{u_0, u_1, u_2, ..., u_d\}$ is a basis of eigenvectors of B. This proves the claim.

For the basis $\{u_0, u_1, u_2, ..., u_d\},\$

$$Au_i = A^{i+1}v_0 = u_{i+1} \qquad (0 \le i \le d-1)$$

and

$$Au_d = A^{d+1}v_0 = \alpha v_0 = \alpha u_0$$
 $(A^{d+1} = \alpha I).$

Hence with respect to the basis $\{u_0, u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_d\}$, the matrices representing A and B are

$$A: \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \alpha \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ & 1 & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B: \begin{pmatrix} \xi & & & 0 \\ & \xi q & & & \\ & & \xi q^2 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & & \xi q^d \end{pmatrix}$$

Similarly, there exists a basis for \mathbf{V} which the matrices represent B and A as follows.

$$B: \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & \beta \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ & 1 & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{1896}} \begin{pmatrix} \eta & & & 0 \\ & \eta q^{-1} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \eta q^{-d} \end{pmatrix},$$

for some $\eta \in \mathbb{C}$, since $B^{d+1} = \beta I$ and $AB = q^{-1}BA$. Therefore, (A, B) is a cyclic pair.

 $((i) \implies (iii))$ Since (A, B) is a cyclic pair, there exists a basis $\{u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_d\}$ such that the matrices representing A is cyclic and B is diagonal. Without loss of generality, we suppose the matrix representing A, B as follows.(exchange the ordered basis to $u_d, u_{d-1}, \ldots, u_0$ as A is right-cyclic)

$$A: \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & a_0 \\ a_1 & 0 & & & \\ & a_2 & 0 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & a_d & 0 \end{pmatrix}, B: \begin{pmatrix} b_0 & & & 0 \\ & b_1 & & & \\ & & b_2 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & & b_d \end{pmatrix}$$

So we know that

$$Au_i = a_{i+1}u_{i+1} \quad (0 \le i \le d-1) \tag{2.1}$$

and

$$Au_d = a_0 u_0. (2.2)$$

 Set

$$v_0 = u_0 \tag{2.3}$$

and

$$v_i = a_1 a_2 \dots a_i u_i \quad (1 \le i \le d).$$
 (2.4)

So by (2.1) - (2.4),

$$Av_i = v_{i+1} (0 \le i \le d-1)$$

and

$Av_d = a_d \dots a_1 a_0 v_0.$

Therefore, for the new basis $\{v_0, v_1, \dots, v_d\}$, the matrices represent A and B as follows,

$$A : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & \alpha \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ & 1 & 0 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\alpha = a_0 \dots a_d)$$
$$B : \begin{pmatrix} b_0 & & & 0 \\ & b_1 & & & \\ & & b_2 & & \\ & & & \ddots & & \\ 0 & & & & b_d \end{pmatrix}. \quad \text{(eigenvector invariant)}$$

Similarly there exists a basis $\{w_0, w_1, \ldots, w_d\}$ of **V** such that the matrix representing A is diagonal and the matrix representing B as

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & & & \beta \\ 1 & 0 & & & \\ & 1 & 0 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & 1 & 0 \end{array}\right),$$

for some $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$. Note that w_0, w_1 are eigenvectors of A. Let θ_0, θ_1 be the corresponding eigenvalues. Then there exists $c_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$w_0 : \begin{pmatrix} c_0 \\ c_0 \theta_0^{-1} \\ c_0 \theta_0^{-2} \\ \vdots \\ c_0 \theta_0^{-d} \end{pmatrix}$$

with respect to basis v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_d by lemma 2.3. Namely ,

$$w_0 = c_0 v_0 + c_0 \theta_0^{-1} v_1 + c_0 \theta_0^{-2} v_2 + \ldots + c_0 \theta_0^{-d} v_d.$$
(2.5)

In the same way, there exists $c_1 \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

=

$$w_1 = c_1 v_0 + c_1 \theta_1^{-1} v_1 + c_1 \theta_1^{-2} v_2 + \ldots + c_1 \theta_1^{-d} v_d.$$
(2.6)

By (2.5),

$$Bw_0 = c_0 Bv_0 + c_0 \theta_0^{-1} Bv_1 + c_0 \theta_0^{-2} Bv_2 + \ldots + c_0 \theta_0^{-d} Bv_d$$
(2.7)

$$= c_0 b_0 v_0 + c_0 \theta_0^{-1} b_1 v_1 + c_0 \theta_0^{-2} b_2 v_2 + \ldots + c_0 \theta_0^{-d} b_d v_d.$$
(2.8)

Compare coefficients in (2.6) and (2.8), since $Bw_0 = w_1$, we get

$$b_0 = \frac{c_1}{c_0},$$

$$b_1 = \frac{c_1}{c_0} \frac{\theta_0}{\theta_1},$$

$$b_2 = \frac{c_1}{c_0} (\frac{\theta_0}{\theta_1})^2,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$b_d = \frac{c_1}{c_0} (\frac{\theta_0}{\theta_1})^d.$$

Note that b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_d is a geometric sequence with common ratio $q = \theta_0/\theta_1$. Hence $b_j = \xi q^j$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, d$ with $\xi = b_0$. Observe $q^{d+1} = \theta_0^{d+1}/\theta_1^{d+1} = 1$ by lemma 2.1. Further, $q^i \neq q^j$ for $1 \leq i, j \leq d$, otherwise $b_i = b_j$, a contradiction to lemma 2.1. It implies that q is a primitive root of unity of order d + 1. Therefore, for the basis $\{v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_d\}$, the matrices representing A and B are as follows.

$$A: \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \alpha \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ & 1 & 0 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, B: \begin{pmatrix} \xi & & & 0 \\ & \xi q & & & \\ & & \xi q^2 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & & \xi q^d \end{pmatrix}.$$

3 Proof of Theorem 1.3

Proof. $((ii) \implies (i))$ It suffices to show that the condition (i) in Definition 1.2 is true, since (ii) and (iii) can be obtained similarly. Consider that $A^{d+1} = \alpha I$, $B^{d+1} = \beta I$, BA = qAB. According to Theorem 2.4, let v be an eigenvector of B corresponding to eigenvalue ξ and form a basis $\{v, Av, A^2v, \ldots, A^dv\}$ for \mathbf{V} such that the matrix representing A (resp. B) is left-cyclic (resp. diagonal) as follows

$$A: \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \alpha \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ & 1 & 0 & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, B: \begin{pmatrix} \xi & & & 0 \\ & \xi q & & \\ & & \xi q^2 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & & \xi q^d \end{pmatrix}$$

Similarly, let $v, Cv, C^2v, \ldots, C^dv$ form another basis for **V** such that the matrices representing C (resp. B) is left-cyclic (resp. diagonal) as follows

$$C: \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \gamma \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ & 1 & 0 & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, B: \begin{pmatrix} \xi & & & 0 \\ & \xi q^{-1} & & & \\ & & \xi q^{-2} & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & & \xi q^{-d} \end{pmatrix},$$

since $B^{d+1} = \beta I, C^{d+1} = \gamma I, CB = qBC$, namely, $BC = q^{-1}CB$. Observe

$$\xi q^i = \xi q^{-(d+1-i)} \quad (1 \le i \le d).$$

We know that $A^i v$ and $C^{d+1-i} v$ are the same eigenvector of B corresponding eigenvalue ξq^i . Hence

$$A^{i}v = c_{d+1-i}C^{d+1-i}v \quad (1 \le i \le d),$$

where c_i is nonzero complex number. Note that the basis

$$\{v, Av, \ldots, A^i v, \ldots, A^d v\}$$

is regarded as

$$\{v, c_d C^d v, \ldots, c_{d+1-i} C^{d+1-i} v, \ldots, c_1 C v\}$$

Hence for the basis $\{v, Av, A^2v, \ldots, A^dv\}$, the matrix representing C is right-cyclic as follows

$$C : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & c_d \gamma & & 0 \\ & 0 & c_{d-1} c_d^{-1} & & \\ & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & c_1 c_2^{-1} \\ c_1^{-1} & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now we find the basis $\{v, Av, A^2v, \ldots, A^dv\}$ such that the matrices representing A (resp. B, C) is left cyclic (resp. diagonal, right-cyclic).

Hence (A, B, C) is a cyclic triple.

 $((i) \Longrightarrow (ii))$ By Theorem 2.4, it is obvious that there exists three nonzero complex numbers α, β and γ such that $A^{d+1} = \alpha I$, $B^{d+1} = \beta I$, and $C^{d+1} = \gamma I$. By the condition (i) in Definition 1.2, there exists a basis $\{u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_d\}$ such that the matrices representing A (resp. B, C) is left-cyclic (resp. diagonal, right-cyclic) as follows

$$A : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & a_{0} \\ a_{1} & 0 & & & \\ & a_{2} & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & & & a_{d} & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

(res. B :
$$\begin{pmatrix} b_{0} & & & 0 \\ & b_{1} & & & \\ & & b_{2} & & \\ & & & b_{2} & & \\ & & & b_{d} \end{pmatrix},$$

C :
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & c_{1} & & & 0 \\ & 0 & c_{2} & & \\ & & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & c_{d} \\ c_{0} & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}).$$

 Set

$$v_0 = u_0$$
 and $v_i = a_1 a_2 \dots a_i u_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, d$.

For the basis $\{v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_d\}$, the matrix representing C (resp. B, A) is right-cyclic (resp. left-cyclic, diagonal) as

$$C : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & x_1 & & 0 \\ 0 & x_2 & & \\ & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & x_d \\ x_0 & & & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

(resp.

$$A : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \alpha \\ 1 & 0 & & & \\ & 1 & 0 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, B : \begin{pmatrix} \xi & & & 0 \\ & \xi q & & & \\ & & \xi q^2 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & & \xi q^d \end{pmatrix}),$$

with $\alpha = a_0 a_1 \dots a_d$, $\xi \neq 0$, and q is a primitive root of unity of order d+1. We know that BA = qAB, and by direct computation

$$CB : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & x_1 \xi q & & 0 \\ & 0 & x_2 \xi q^2 & & \\ & & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & x_d \xi q^d \\ x_0 \xi & & & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$BC : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & x_1\xi & & 0 \\ & 0 & x_2\xi q & & \\ & & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & x_d\xi q^{d-1} \\ & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence we have

$$BA = qAB, \ CB = qBC. \tag{3.1}$$

Similarly, by condition (ii) in Definition 1.2 we have

$$AC = q'CA, CB = q'BC, \tag{3.2}$$

where q' is a primitive root of unity of order d+1. By (3.1) and (3.2), CB = qBC = q'BC. It implies q = q', so that BA = qAB, CB = qBC, AC = qCA.

 $((iii) \implies (ii))$ By direct computation, $A^{d+1} = \alpha I, B^{d+1} = \beta I, C^{d+1} = \gamma I$, where $\alpha = \eta^{d+1}, \beta = \xi^{d+1}, \gamma = \zeta^{d+1}$, and then



Hence BA = qAB, CB = qBC, AC = qCA.

 $((i) \text{ and } (ii) \Longrightarrow (iii))$ Let v be the eigenvector of B with corresponding eigenvalue ξ , and let η be an eigenvalue of A. Then for the basis $v, \eta^{-1}q^2Av, \eta^{-2}q^{2+4}A^2v, \ldots, \eta^{-d}q^{2+4+\ldots+2d}A^dv$, where q is the primitive root of unity of order d+1 that satisfies (ii), the matrices representing A (resp. B) is left-cyclic (resp. diagonal) as follows

$$A : \eta \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & 1 \\ q^{-2} & 0 & & \\ & q^{-4} & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & & q^{-2d} & 0 \end{pmatrix} (rep. \ B : \xi \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & 0 \\ & q & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & q^{d-1} \\ 0 & & & q^d \end{pmatrix}),$$

and the matrix representing C is right-cyclic as

$$C : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & c_1 & & & 0 \\ & 0 & c_2 & & \\ & & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & c_d \\ & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence

$$AC: \begin{pmatrix} c_0 & & & 0 \\ & q^{-2}c_1 & & & \\ & & q^{-4}c_2 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & q^{-2d}c_d \end{pmatrix}, CA: \begin{pmatrix} q^{-2}c_1 & & & 0 \\ & q^{-4}c_2 & & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & q^{-2d}c_d & \\ 0 & & & & c_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

We find $c_{i+1} = qc_i$ for i = 0, 1, ..., d-1 and $c_0 = qc_d$, since AC = qCA. Hence the matrix representing C is as follows

$$C : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & qc_0 & & 0 \\ 0 & q^2c_0 & & \\ & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & q^dc_0 \\ c_0 & & & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \zeta \begin{pmatrix} 0 & q & & 0 \\ 0 & q^2 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & 0 & q^d \\ 1 & & & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\zeta = c_0$. The proof is completed.

4 Remarks

The study of a pair or a triple of linear transformations with specified combinatorial properties was first appeared in [4] with the motivation from the study of P- and Q-polynomial schemes. Also see [5] for a survey on this topic. These are related to the representation theory of some algebra defined from relations. See [2] for reference. To finish the thesis we propose the following conjecture.

Conjecture 4.1. Let **V** denote a vector space over \mathbb{C} with dimension d + 1. Let $A : \mathbf{V} \longrightarrow \mathbf{V}$, $B : \mathbf{V} \longrightarrow \mathbf{V}$, and $C : \mathbf{V} \longrightarrow \mathbf{V}$ denote linear transformations. The following (i) and (ii) are equivalent.

- (i) (A, B), (B, C), (C, A) are cyclic pairs.
- (ii) (A, B, C) is a cyclic triple.

References

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