Euclidean pairs, Quasi Euclidean rings and Continuant Polynomials

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In all the talk R will stand for a unital associative ring.

- 1 The Euclidean pair (a, b) and its associated continuant polynomials.
- **Definitions 1.1.** (a) An ordered pair $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is a right Euclidean pair if there exist elements $(q_1, r_1), \ldots, (q_{n+1}, r_{n+1}) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ (for some $n \geq 0$) such that $a = bq_1 + r_1, b = r_1q_2 + r_2$, and

(*)
$$r_{i-1} = r_i q_{i+1} + r_{i+1}$$
 for $1 < i \le n$, with $r_{n+1} = 0$.

The notion of a *left Euclidean pair* is defined similarly.

- (b) A ring R is right quasi Euclidean if every pair $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is right Euclidean.
- (c) Let $T = \{t_1, t_2, ...\}$ be a countable set of noncommuting variables, and let $\mathbb{Z}\langle T \rangle$ be the free \mathbb{Z} -algebra generated by T. We define the *n*-th right continuant polynomials

$$p_n(t_1,\ldots,t_n) \in \mathbb{Z} \langle t_1,\ldots,t_n \rangle \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \langle T \rangle$$

by $p_0 = 1$, $p_1(t_1) = t_1$, and inductively for $i \ge 2$ by

$$p_i(t_1,\ldots,t_i) = p_{i-1}(t_1,\ldots,t_{i-1}) t_i + p_{i-2}(t_1,\ldots,t_{i-2}).$$

Thus, $p_2(t_1, t_2) = t_1t_2 + 1$, $p_3(t_1, t_2, t_3) = t_1t_2t_3 + t_3 + t_1$, etc.

Notation: $P(q) = \begin{pmatrix} q & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ Are there connections between these three notions ? Let us consider an easy example: $(a,b) = (22,8) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ we write $22 = 8 \times 2 + 6$ $8 = 6 \times 1 + 2$ $6 = 2 \times 3$ we then have:

$$(22,8) = (8,6) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(22,8) = (6,2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$(22,8) = (2,0) \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

In general for a Euclidean pair (a, b) $a = bq_1 + r_1$, $b = r_1q_2 + r_2$, and

(*)
$$r_{i-1} = r_i q_{i+1} + r_{i+1}$$
 for $1 < i \le n$, with $r_{n+1} = 0$.

We will get that

$$(a,b) = (r_n,0)P(q_{n+1})P(q_n)\cdots P(q_1)$$

Now, looking at a the product $P(t_1)P(t_2)\cdots P(t_n)$ we have

$$P(t_1)P(t_2) = \begin{pmatrix} t_1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t_2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} t_1t_2 + 1 & t_1 \\ t_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$P(t_1)P(t_2)P(t_3) = \begin{pmatrix} t_1t_2 + 1 & t_1 \\ t_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t_3 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} t_1t_2t_3 + t_1 + t_3 & t_1t_2 + 1 \\ t_2t_3 + 1 & t_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

In general:

$$P(t_1)P(t_2)\cdots P(t_n) = \begin{pmatrix} p_n(t_1,\ldots,t_n) & p_{n-1}(t_1,\ldots,t_{n-1}) \\ p_{n-2}(t_2,\ldots,t_n) & p_{n-2}(t_2,\ldots,t_{n-1}) \end{pmatrix}$$

- **Examples 1.2.** 1. (bq, b), (a, 0) are Euclidean pairs for any $a, b, q \in R$.
 - 2. If (a, b) is a Euclidean pair and $c \in R$ then (b, a), (ca, cb), (ac+b, a), (bc+a, b) are Euclidean pairs.
 - 3. If $a, b \in R$ are such that a + bq is right-invertible for some q, then (a, b) is a Euclidean pair. Hence if R is of stable range one, then every pair (a, b) with aR + bR = R is Euclidean.
 - 4. If $e = e^2$ is such that eRe = Re (e is said to be left semi central) then for any $b \in R$, (e, b) is a Euclidean pair.

Definition 1.3. A ring R is a right K-Hermite ring if for any $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ there exists an invertible 2×2 matrix $P \in GL_2(\mathbb{R})$ and an element $d \in \mathbb{R}$ such that (a, b)P = (d, 0).

Theorem 1.4. Let *a*, *b* be elements in a ring *R*. The following are equivalent:

- (1) (a,b) is a Euclidean pair.
- (2) For some $n \ge 0$ there exist $q_1, \ldots, q_{n+1} \in R$ and $r_n \in R$ such that

$$(a,b) = (r_n,0) P(q_{n+1}) \cdots P(q_1).$$

In particular, every right quasi-Euclidean ring is right K-Hermite.

(3) For some $n \ge 0$ there exist $q_1, \ldots, q_{n+1} \in R$ and $r_n \in R$ such that $a = r_n p_{n+1}(q_{n+1}, \ldots, q_1)$ and $b = r_n p_n(q_{n+1}, \ldots, q_2)$.

Now, let $(a,b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ be a Euclidean pair. Then

- (a) $aR + bR = r_n R$ where r_n is the last nonzero remainder of the Euclidean algorithm.
- (b) If r_n is either central or not a left zero-divisor in R, then $aR \cap bR$ is also principal.
- (c) $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is a product of n+2 idempotents in $\mathbb{M}_2(R)$.

Proof. Sketch of partial proof of (c) above (n=1):

Want to show that if

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} P(q_2)P(q_1)$$

then the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is a product of idempotents.

Write successively

 $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & r \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ q_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} P(q_1)$

Notice that the second matrix of the RHS is an idempotent. Conjugating with the last matrix $P(q_1)$ we get

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & r \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} P(q_1) P(q_1)^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ q_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} P(q_1)$$

and so,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ q_1 + r & 1 \end{pmatrix} P(q_1)^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ q_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} P(q_1)$$

More generally

 $a = bq_1 + r_1, \ b = r_1q_2 + r_2, \ r_1 = r_2q_3 + r_3, \dots, r_{n-1} = r_nq_{n+1}.$ Let us define:

$$Q_i = \begin{pmatrix} q_i & 1\\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad E_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0\\ q_i + 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad P_i = Q_i Q_{i-1} \cdots Q_1$$

We then have:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & r_n \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} E_1 E_2^{P_1} E_3^{P_2} \cdots E_{n+1}^{P_n}$$

Examples 1.5. (1) Let (a, b) = (14, 8) over $R = \mathbb{Z}$, for which n = 2, $q_1 = q_2 = 1$, $q_3 = 3$, and $r_2 = \gcd(14, 8) = 2$. Applying (c) above we get the following factorization of A into n + 2 = 4 idempotents:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 14 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ -4 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -7 & -4 \\ 14 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{M}_2(\mathbb{Z}).$$

Not unique: here is a shorter factorization:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 14 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -7 & -4 \\ 14 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{M}_2(\mathbb{Z}),$$

and it can be shown that this is in fact "a shortest" factorization for A.

(2) Statement (c) is only a necessary but not a sufficient condition for (a, b) to be a Euclidean pair. To see this, let $\theta = \sqrt{-5}$ and $R = \mathbb{Z}[\theta]$. The ideal $-2R + (\theta + 1)R$ is not principal.

The matrix $E = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & \theta + 1 \\ \theta - 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ over R has trace 1 and determinant 0, so $E^2 = E$.

Thus, $A := \begin{pmatrix} -2 & \theta + 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \operatorname{diag}(1,0) E$. However, the ideal $-2R + (\theta + 1) R$ is not a principal ideal. In particular, $(-2, \theta + 1)$ is not a Euclidean pair over R, according to Theorem 1.4 (3),(a). (3) If the pair (a, b) is *left* Euclidean instead, a similar decomposition

into products of idempotents holds for the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

2 Euclidean pairs and Euclidean rings

- **Definitions 2.1.** 1. *R* is of stable range one if aR + bR = R implies that there exists $x \in R$ such that a + bx is invertible in *R*.
 - 2. R is a right Bézout ring if finitely generated ideals are principal.
 - 3. *R* is projective free if projective finitely generated right *R*-modules are free.
 - 4. R is a GE_2 -ring if $GL_2(R)$ is generated by elementary matrices and invertible diagonal matrices.

Theorem 2.2. Let R be a ring of stable range 1. Then $(a, b) \in R^2$ is a Euclidean pair if and only if the right ideal aR + bR is principal. In particular:

(1) If R is a right Bézout ring with stable range 1 (e.g. R can be any semilocal right Bézout ring), then R is right quasi-Euclidean.

(2) If R is a unit-regular ring, then all matrix rings $M_n(R)$ are right (and left) quasi-Euclidean.

Proof. Proof of the first statement:

The "only if" part is Theorem above (a).

For the "if" part, assume that aR + bR = dR for some $d \in R$, and write $a = da_0$, $b = db_0$, and d = ax + by. Letting $c = 1 - a_0x - b_0y$, we have dc = d - ax - by = 0, and $a_0x + (b_0y + c) = 1$. Since R has stable range 1, there exists $t \in R$ such that $u := a_0 + (b_0y + c)t$ is a unit. Left-multiplication by d then yields du = a + byt + dct = a + byt. We have now a = b(-yt) + du and $b = (du)(u^{-1}b_0)$, so (a, b) is a Euclidean pair. **Theorem 2.3.** For any ring R, the following statements are equivalent:

- (A) R is right quasi-Euclidean.
- (B) R is a GE-ring that is right K-Hermite.
- (C) R is a GE₂-ring that is right K-Hermite.

(D) For any $a, b \in R$, (a, b) = (r, 0) Q for some $r \in R$ and $Q \in GE_2(R)$.

(E) For any $a, b \in R$, (a, b) = (r, 0) Q for some $r \in R$ and $Q \in E_2(R)$.

If R is a domain there is another characterization. Recall that R is a projective-free if every finitely generated projective module is free.

Theorem 2.4. A domain R is right quasi-Euclidean if and only if R is a projective-free GE₂-ring such that every matrix $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is a product of idempotents in $\mathbb{M}_2(R)$.

As an application of Theorem 2.3 we obtain the following results:

- **Theorem 2.5.** 1. If R is a right quasi-Euclidean ring, so is $S = \mathbb{M}_k(R)$ for every $k \ge 1$.
 - 2. For any ideal $I \subseteq rad(R)$, R is right quasi-Euclidean if and only if R is right Bézout and R/I is right quasi-Euclidean.
 - 3. If R is a right Euclidean ring and S is a right denominator set then RS^{-1} is right Euclidean.

3 Left-Right Symmetry and Dedekind-Finiteness

Example 3.1. k a field and $a \in k \setminus \sigma(k)$ a non-surjective endomorphism of k. R stands for $R = k[x; \sigma]$.

- * $R = k[x; \sigma]$ is a left Euclidean domain with respect to the usual degree function; in particular, R is a left quasi-Euclidean domain.
- * One can check that $axR \cap xR = 0$, and that the right ideal direct sum axR + xR is non-principal.

- * $R\,$ is not right Bézout hence not a right quasi-Euclidean domain.
- * (ax, x) is a left Euclidean pair but it is *not* a right Euclidean pair.
- * R is a left PID hence it is a projective-free ring; Thus, by a previous lemma, the fact that axR + xR is non-principal implies that the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} ax & x \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is not a product of idempotent matrices over R.
- * for any two elements a, x in any ring, the "other" pair (xa, x) is obviously always a right Euclidean pair and indeed the matrix $B = \begin{pmatrix} xa & x \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is a product of idempotent matrices.

but under some circumstances there is a symmetry:

Theorem 3.2. (A) A left quasi-Euclidean ring R is right quasi-Euclidean if and only if it is right Bézout. In particular, a regular ring is left quasi-Euclidean if and only if it is right quasi-Euclidean.
(B) A left quasi-Euclidean domain R is right quasi-Euclidean if and only if it is a right Ore domain.

A right Euclidean is not necessarily Dedekind finite $(ab = 1 \Rightarrow ba \neq 1)$.

Example 3.3. (due to Bergman)

Let A = k[[x]] over a field k, and let K = k((x)) be the Laurent series field, which is the quotient field of A.

(A) $R = \{ f \in \text{End}_k(A) : \exists f_0 \in K \text{ such that } (f - f_0)(x^n A) = 0 \text{ for some } n \geq 1 \}.$ R is von Neuman regular but not Dedekind finite. Steps to prove that R is right Euclidean (and hence left Euclidean): (B) For any $f, g \in R$,

$$f \in R g \leftrightarrow \ker(g) \subseteq \ker(f)$$

(C) If n is chosen large enough so that $x^n A \cap \operatorname{im}(g) = 0$. Then

$$\ker\left(g+x^{n}f\right)=\ker\left(f\right)\cap\ker\left(g\right)$$

4 Applications.

A) Decomposition of singular matrices

Theorem 4.1. Let R be a right quasi-Euclidean domain and let $A \in M_2(R)$ be such that $l.ann(A) \neq 0$. Then A is a product of idempotent matrices.

Proposition 4.2. Let R be a right quasi-Euclidean domain and $A \in M_n(R)$. Then $l.ann(A) \neq 0$ implies that $r.ann(A) \neq 0$.

Theorem 4.3. Let R be a right and left quasi-Euclidean domain. Then every matrix $A \in M_n(R)$ with $l.ann(A) \neq 0$ (equivalently, $r.ann(A) \neq 0$) is a product of idempotent matrices.

A ring has the IP property if any singular matrix is a product of idempotent matrices. A ring has the IP_2 property if every 2×2 singular matrix is a product of idempotent matrices.

Corollaire 4.4. Let R be a domain which is any one of the following types:

(a) a Euclidean domain,

(b) a local domain such that its radical J = Rg = gR with $\cap Rg^n = 0$,

(c) a commutative principal ideal domain with IP_2 , or

(d) a local Bézout domain.

Then every singular matrix over R is a product of idempotent matrices (in other words, R has the IP property).

B) Rings with the SSP property.

More Euclidean pairs:

Using the fact that for a Euclidean pair (a, b), aR + bR is principal, one can show the following Theorem.

Theorem 4.5. For a ring R the following are equivalent

- (i) $idem(R).idem(R) \subseteq reg(R).$
- (ii) $reg(R)reg(R) \subseteq reg(R)$.
- (iii) $ureg(R).ureg(R) \subseteq reg(R).$
- (iv) R_R satisfies the SSP property.
- (v) $_{R}R$ satisfies the SSP property.

In a ring R which satisfies one of these equivalent statement one can show that a pair (a, b) where $a \in ureg(R)$ and $b \in reg(R)$ is automatically a Euclidean pair. Thus if e is an idempotent in a regular ring then (e, b) is an Euclidean pair for any $b \in R$.

5 Continuant polynomials.

Recall $p_n(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n) \in \mathbb{Z}\langle t_1, \ldots, t_n \rangle$ are such that $p_0 = 1, p_1(t_1) = t_1, p_2(t_1, t_2) = t_1t_2 + 1, p_r(t_1, t_2, t_3) = t_1t_2t_3 + t_1 + t_3, \ldots$ for $n \ge 2, p_n(t_1, \ldots, t_n) = p_{n-1}(t_1, \ldots, t_{n-1})t_n + p_{n-2}(t_1, \ldots, t_{n-2})$ They appear, for instance, in:

- Continued fractions
- Getting Generators for $GL_2(R)$ (P.M. Cohn).
- Characterizations of comaximal relations in certain rings (P.M. Cohn).
- Characterizations of Euclidean pairs and quasi Euclidean rings.

We collect a bunch of relations for these polynomials

Proposition 5.1. • $p_n(t_1, \ldots, t_n) = t_1 p_{n-1}(t_2, \ldots, t_n) + p_{n-2}(t_3, \ldots, t_n).$

• $p_n(0, t_2, \ldots, t_n) = p_{n-2}(t_3, \ldots, t_n).$

- $p_n(1, t_2, \ldots, t_n) = p_{n_1}(t_2 + 1, t_3, \ldots, t_n).$
- for $1 \le k \le n$, we have $p_n(t_1, \ldots, t_n) = p_k(t_1, \ldots, t_k)p_{n-k}(t_{k+1}, \ldots, t_n) + p_{k-1}(t_1, \ldots, t_{k-1})p_{n-k-1}(t_{k+2}, \ldots, t_n).$
- Relations coming from the fact that the inverse of $P(t_1) \cdots P(t_n)$ is equal to $P(0)P(-t_n)P(-t_{n-1}) \cdots P(-t_1)P(0)$.
- For $1 \le m \le n$, one has $\frac{\partial p_n(t_1,...,t_n)}{\partial t_m} = p_{m-1}(t_1,\ldots,t_{m-1})p_{n-m}(t_{m+1},\ldots,t_n).$

First leapfrog construction

- 0) The first term of p_n is $t_1 t_2 \cdots t_n$.
- 1) The next terms are obtained by erasing two consecutive indeterminates (the frog jumps over them) from $t_1t_2\cdots t_n$ to get the sum: $t_3t_4\cdots t_n + t_1t_4t_5\cdots t_n + t_1t_2t_5\cdots t_n + \ldots$
- 2) We erase 2 pairs of consecutive indeterminates (2 jumps) and get the terms

$$\sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 - 1 \le n} t_1 \cdots \widehat{t_{i_1}} \widehat{t_{i_1+1}} \cdots \widehat{t_{i_2}} \widehat{t_{i_2+1}} \cdots t_n$$

3) We then continue adding terms corresponding to 3 leaps, 4 leaps, and so on. Finally, we can write

$$p_n(t_1,\ldots,t_n) = \sum_{i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_j} t_1 \cdots \widehat{t_{i_1}t_{i_1+1}} \cdots \widehat{t_{i_2}t_{i_2+1}} \cdots \widehat{t_{i_j}t_{i_j+1}} \cdots t_n$$

where $1 \leq j \leq \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ and $i_j + 1 < i_{j+1}$ for every j,

Second leapfrog construction

Remark that

- p_{2n} is a sum of monomials with an even number of factors.
- p_{2n+1} is a sum of monomials with an odd number of factors.

Put $x_n = t_{2n-1}$, $y_n = t_{2n}$ and $G_n = p_{2n}$, $H_n = p_{2n-1}$.

So G_n is a polynomial in the indeterminates $x_1, y_1, \ldots, x_n, y_n$, and H_n is a polynomial in the indeterminates $x_1, y_1, \ldots, y_{n-1}, x_n$.

We have:

 $G_0 = 1, \quad G_1 = x_1y_1 + 1, \quad G_2 = x_1y_1x_2y_2 + x_1y_1 + x_1y_2 + x_2y_2 + 1, \\G_3 = x_1y_1x_2y_2x_3y_3 + x_1y_1x_2y_2 + x_1y_1x_2y_3 + x_1y_1x_3y_3 + x_1y_1x_2y_2 + x_1y_1x_2y_3 + x_1y_1x_3y_3 + x_1y_1x_2y_3 + x_1y_1x_3y_3 + x_1y_1x_2y_3 + x_1y_1x_3y_3 + x_1y_1x_2y_3 + x_1y_1x_3y_3 + x_1y_1x_3y_3 + x_1y_1x_2y_3 + x_1y_1x_3y_3 + x_1y_1x_2y_3 + x_1y_1x_2y_2y_3 + x_1y_1x_2y_2y_3 + x_1y_1x_2y_3 + x_1y_1x_$

 $+x_1y_2x_3y_3 + x_2y_2x_3y_3 + x_1y_1 + x_1y_2 + x_1y_3 + x_2y_2 + x_2y_3 + x_3y_3 + 1$ and

 $H_0 = 0, \quad H_1 = x_1, \quad H_2 = x_1 y_1 x_2 + x_1 + x_2,$

 $H_3 = x_1 y_1 x_2 y_2 x_3 + x_1 y_1 x_2 + x_1 y_1 x_3 + x_1 y_2 x_3 + x_2 y_2 x_3 + x_1 + x_2 + x_3.$

Now consider the following directed graph (quiver) Γ_n with two vertices A and B:



Thus Γ_n has 2n arrows, of which n goes from A to B and are indexed by the indeterminates x_i , and n from B to A indexed by the indeterminates y_i .

Let k be a field, consider the quiver algebra $k\Gamma_n$ and the ideal I of $k\Gamma_n$ generated by all paths $x_iy_j: A \xrightarrow{x_i} B \xrightarrow{y_j} A$ with i > j and all paths $y_ix_j: B \xrightarrow{y_i} A \xrightarrow{x_j} B$ with $i \ge j$.

Theorem 5.2. Let $R = k\Gamma_n/I$.

- 1) The k-algebra R is finite dimensional.
- 2) The Jacobson radical J(R) is a nilpotent ideal that contains all nilpotent elements of R.
- 3) $R = R_0 \oplus R_1$ is 2-graded, where R_0 corresponds to the paths of even length and R_1 to the paths of odd length.
- 4) The images of the polynomials G_n in R are in R_0 and the images of the polynomials H_n are in R_1 .
- 5)

$$H_n = \left(1 - \sum_{1 \le i \le j \le n} x_i y_j\right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i=1} x_i\right) \quad and \quad G_n = \left(1 - \sum_{1 \le i \le j \le n} x_i y_j\right)^{-1}$$
for every $n \ge 0$.

6 Generalized Fibonacci Polynomials

Definition 6.1. The polynomials $f_n \in \mathbb{Z}\langle x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, \ldots, \rangle$ are defined by the recursion formulae: (6.I)

The first of these polynomials f_n are

$$f_{0} = 1, \qquad f_{1} = x_{1}, \qquad f_{2} = x_{1}x_{2} + y_{2}, \\f_{3} = x_{1}x_{2}x_{3} + x_{1}y_{3} + y_{2}x_{3}, \\f_{4} = x_{1}x_{2}x_{3}x_{4} + x_{1}x_{2}y_{4} + x_{1}y_{3}x_{4} + y_{2}x_{3}x_{4} + y_{2}y_{4}, \\f_{5} = x_{1}x_{2}x_{3}x_{4}x_{5} + x_{1}x_{2}x_{3}y_{5} + x_{1}x_{2}y_{4}x_{5} + x_{1}y_{3}x_{4}x_{5} + \\ + x_{1}y_{3}y_{5} + y_{2}x_{3}x_{4}x_{5} + y_{2}x_{3}y_{5} + y_{2}y_{4}x_{5}, \dots$$

- The number of monomials in each f_n is the (n + 1)-th Fibonacci number F_{n+1} .
- When we specialize all the indeterminates y_i to 1, we get back the continuant polynomials i.e. $f_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n, 1, \ldots, 1) = p_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$.
- If we specialize further: $f_n(x, \ldots, x, 1, 1, \ldots, 1) = F_n(x)$, i.e. we get the commutative Fibonacci polynomials.
- The polynomials f_n are homogeneous of degree n if we give the x_i degree one and the y_i degree 2.
- Notice that the indeterminate y_1 does not appear in any polynomial $f_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_n)$.

Theorem 6.2. 1. $f_n(2, 2, ..., 2, -1, -1, ..., -1) = n$

2.
$$f_n(x+1, x+1, \dots, x+1, -x, -x, \dots, -x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^{n-1}.$$

3. We have:

$$\mathcal{F}_{n} := \begin{pmatrix} x_{1} & 1 \\ y_{1} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} x_{n} & 1 \\ y_{n} & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \\
= \begin{pmatrix} f_{n}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \dots, y_{n}) & f_{n-1}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n-1}, y_{1}, \dots, y_{n-1}) \\ y_{1}f_{n-1}(x_{2}, \dots, x_{n}, y_{2}, \dots, y_{n}) & y_{1}f_{n-2}(x_{2}, \dots, x_{n-1}, y_{2}, \dots, y_{n-1}) \end{pmatrix}$$

4.

 ∂y_k

$$\mathcal{F}_{n} = \begin{pmatrix} f_{k}(x_{1}, \dots, y_{k}) & f_{k-1}(x_{1}, \dots, y_{k-1}) \\ y_{1}f_{k-1}(x_{2}, \dots, y_{k}) & y_{1}f_{k-2}(x_{2}, \dots, y_{k-1}) \end{pmatrix} \cdot \\ & \cdot \begin{pmatrix} f_{n-k}(x_{k+1}, \dots, y_{n}) & f_{n-k-1}(x_{k+1}, \dots, y_{n-1}) \\ y_{k+1}f_{n-k-1}(x_{k+2}, \dots, y_{n}) & y_{k+1}f_{n-k-2}(x_{k+2}, \dots, y_{n-1}) \end{pmatrix} \\ 5. \ f_{n}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}, y_{1}, x_{1}x_{2}, x_{2}x_{3}, x_{3}x_{4}, \dots, x_{n-1}x_{n}) = F_{n+1}x_{1}x_{2}\dots x_{n} \cdot \\ 6. \ f_{n}(x_{1}, \dots, y_{n}) = f_{k}(x_{1}, \dots, y_{k})f_{n-k}(x_{k+1}, \dots, y_{n}) + \\ & + f_{k-1}(x_{1}, \dots, y_{k-1})y_{k+1}f_{n-k-1}(x_{k+2}, \dots, y_{n}) \\ 7. \ f_{n}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \dots, y_{n}) = \\ & = x_{1}f_{n-1}(x_{2}, \dots, x_{n}, y_{2}, \dots, y_{n}) + y_{2}f_{n-2}(x_{3}, \dots, x_{n}, y_{3}, \dots, y_{n}) \cdot \\ 8. \ f_{n}(x_{1}, x_{2}, \dots, y_{n}) = \\ & = f_{k+1}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{k}, f_{n-k}(x_{k+1}, \dots, y_{n}), y_{1}, \dots, y_{k}, f_{n-k-1}(x_{k+2}, \dots, y_{n}))) \\ 9. \ \frac{\partial f_{n}(x_{1}, \dots, y_{n})}{\partial x_{k}} = f_{k-1}(x_{1}, \dots, y_{k-1})f_{n-k}(x_{k+1}, \dots, y_{n}), \text{ for } 1 \leq k \leq n \cdot \\ & \frac{\partial f_{n}(x_{1}, \dots, y_{n})}{\partial y_{n}} = f_{k-2}(x_{1}, \dots, y_{k-2})f_{n-k}(x_{k+1}, \dots, y_{n}), \text{ for } 2 \leq k \leq n \cdot \\ \end{cases}$$

It is also possible to describe the generalized Fibonacci polynomials via leapfrog constructions and a path algebra can also be defined based on this definition.

Tilings and general recurrence sequences. 7

Definition 7.1. A *linear tiling* of a row of squares (a $1 \times n$ strip of square cells) is a covering of the strip of squares with squares and dominos (which cover two squares).

For instance, the polynomial $f_3 = x_1x_2x_3 + x_1y_3 + y_2x_3$ parametrizes the set of the three linear tilings



of a row of three squares. Here x_i denotes the *i*-th square and y_i denotes the domino that covers the (i-1)-th and the *i*-th square (the

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domino that "ends on the *i*-th square".) The Fibonacci number F_n represents the number of tilings of a strip of length n using length 1 squares and length 2 dominos.

Now consider the following family of polynomials g_n , with $n \ge 0$. To define them, we need countably many non-commutative indeterminates x_{ij} , where $1 \le i \le j$. Set $g_0 = 1$ and

(7.I)
$$g_n = \sum_{i=1}^n g_{i-1} x_{in}, \text{ for } n \ge 1.$$

For instance, the first polynomials g_n are

$$g_{1} = x_{11}, \quad g_{2} = x_{12} + x_{11}x_{22}, \quad g_{3} = x_{13} + x_{11}x_{23} + x_{12}x_{33} + x_{11}x_{22}x_{33}, \\ g_{4} = x_{14} + x_{11}x_{24} + x_{12}x_{34} + x_{11}x_{22}x_{34} + x_{13}x_{44} + x_{11}x_{23}x_{44} + \\ + x_{12}x_{33}x_{44} + x_{11}x_{22}x_{33}x_{44}.$$

For every $n \ge 1$, the polynomial $g_n \in \mathbb{Z}\langle x_{ij} | 1 \le i \le j \le n \rangle$. The polynomial g_n is a sum of monic monomials that parametrize all linear tilings of a strip of n square cells, that is, all coverings of the strip of squares with rectangles of any length $1, 2, \ldots, n$. The indeterminate x_{ij} indicates the rectangle of length j - i + 1 that starts from the *i*-th square and ends covering the *j*-th square.

For instance, $g_3 = x_{13} + x_{11}x_{23} + x_{12}x_{33} + x_{11}x_{22}x_{33}$ and, correspondingly, the tilings of a strip of three squares are



We can get back the polynomials p_n and f_n by different specializations.

We have:

$$(g_1, \dots, g_n) = (g_0, \dots, g_{n-1}) \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1n} \\ 0 & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & x_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

Since, for $1 \le l \le n$, a tiling of a strip of length n is obtained by a tile of length l followed by a tiling of length n - l, the following formula,

where we have specified explicitly the indeterminates ("the tiles") for each polynomial, is easy to get:

$$g_n(x_{ij}; 1 \le i \le j \le n) = \sum_{l=1}^n x_{1l} g_{n-l}(x_{l+i,l+j}; 1 \le i \le j \le n-l)$$

R a ring, define a mapping perm: $M_n(R) \to R$ setting, for every matrix $A = (a_{i,j})_{i,j} \in M_n(R)$,

$$\operatorname{perm}(A) := \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} a_{1,\sigma(1)} \dots a_{n,\sigma(n)}$$

If $A_{i,j}$ denotes the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ -matrix that results from A removing the *i*-th row and the *j*-th column, then perm $(A) := \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{1,j} \text{perm}(A_{1,j}) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \text{perm}(A_{n,j})a_{n,j}$ (it is possible to easily expand our permanent along the first row or the last row only).

Theorem 7.2. For every $n \ge 1$, we have:

$$g_n(x_{ij}) = \operatorname{perm}(A_n) = \operatorname{perm}(A_n^t)$$

where

$$A_n = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} & \dots & x_{1n} \\ 1 & x_{22} & x_{23} & \dots & x_{2n} \\ 0 & 1 & x_{33} & \ddots & x_{3n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 & x_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

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THANK YOU !

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