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## FIXED AND RESIDUAL MODULES

The article deals with the properties of fixed and residual endomorphism submodules of modules over arbitrary associative rings with 1 . It is shown how they can be used to represent formal matrices images of group homomorphisms generated by elementary transvections when 2 or 3 elements are circulating in the ring. The homomorphisms with condition $\left(^{*}\right)$ are described with the help of this approach.

У роботі розглядаються властивості нерухомих та лишкових підмодулів ендоморфізмів модулів над довільними асоціативними кільцями з одиницею. Покозано як з їх допомогою можна зображати формальними матрицями гомоморфні образи груп породжених елементарними трансвекціями у випадках коли елементи 2 або 3 є оборотними в кільці. За допомогою цього підходу описані гомоморфізми з умовою (*).

Introduction. Let $R$ and $K$ be associative ring with 1 . $E(n, R)$ is the subgroup of $G L(n, R)$, generated by all elementary transvections $t_{i j}(r)=1+r e_{i j}, r \in R$, $1 \leq i \neq j \leq n, t_{i j}=t_{i j}(-1) t_{j i}(1) t_{i j}(-1)$.

The group homomorphisms of $\Lambda: G \rightarrow G L(W), E(n, R) \subseteq G \subseteq G L(n, R), n \geq$ 4 described in [1], if $W$ is its left $K$-module of finite dimension, $\Lambda$ is an isomorphism, $G=G L(n, R)$ and $[2,3]$, if $W$ is an arbitrary (not necessarily free) left $K$-module and $\Lambda$ is an homomorphism with condition (*).

Recall that a homomorphism $\Lambda$ satisfies the condition $\left(^{*}\right)$ if for any nonzero nilpotent element $m \in E n d W, m^{2}=0$ there are natural numbers $s_{1}$ and, which are working in $K$ and $h \in G$ such that $\Lambda h=1+s_{1} m$ and of equality $\Lambda h \cdot \Lambda g=\Lambda g \cdot \Lambda h$, $g \in G$ it follows that $h^{s_{2}} g=g h^{s_{2}}$.

It turns out that while describing homomorphism with the condition $\left(^{*}\right)$ among which are isomorphisms, key role is played by fixed and residual submodules and modules that they generate. Since the possibility of such an approach is seen endless, it is justified to have a more thorough study of the properties of fixed and residual submodules. The article reflects the efforts of the authors on the above-mentioned direction.

1. General properties of fixed and residual submodules. Let $V$ be arbitrary $R$-module over the associative ring $R$ with $1, \sigma$ an arbitrary endomorphism of module $V$.

Residual and fixed submodules of $V$ module endomorphism $\sigma$ will be called submodules $R(\sigma)=(\sigma-1) V$ and $P(\sigma)=\operatorname{ker}(\sigma-1)$ respectively. Then $R(\sigma)=$ $\{(\sigma-1) v \mid v \in V\}$ and $P(\sigma)=\{v \in V \mid \sigma v=v\}$, also $R(1-\sigma)=\sigma V$ and $P(1-$ $\sigma)=\operatorname{ker} \sigma$.

It is easy to see that if $\sigma$ is an automorphism of module $V$, then with the equality $\sigma^{-1}-1=(\sigma-1)\left(-\sigma^{-1}\right)$ it follows that

$$
R\left(\sigma^{-1}\right)=R(\sigma) \text { and } P\left(\sigma^{-1}\right)=P(\sigma)
$$

Then $\sigma V_{0}=(\sigma-1+1) V_{0} \subseteq R(\sigma)+V_{0}, \sigma^{-1} V_{0}=\left(\sigma^{-1}-1+1\right) V_{0} \subseteq R\left(\sigma^{-1}\right)+V_{0}=$ $R(\sigma)+V_{0}$, if $V_{0}$ is a submodule of $V$. In particular if $R(\sigma) \subseteq V_{0}$ then $\sigma^{ \pm 1} V_{0} \subseteq V_{0}$ and $\sigma V_{0}=V_{0}$.

If $g$ is an arbitrary endomorphism of module $V$ such that $g \sigma=\sigma^{ \pm 1} g$, then $g(\sigma-1)=\left(\sigma^{ \pm 1}-1\right) g$ and $(\sigma-1) g=g\left(\sigma^{ \pm 1}-1\right)$. That is why

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$$
g R(\sigma) \subseteq R\left(\sigma^{ \pm 1}\right)=R(\sigma) \text { and } g P(\sigma) \subseteq P\left(\sigma^{ \pm 1}\right)=P(\sigma)
$$

It is followed that if $g$ is an automorphism of module $V$ such that $g \sigma g^{-1}=\sigma^{ \pm 1}$, then

$$
g R(\sigma)=R(\sigma) \text { and } g P(\sigma)=P(\sigma) .
$$

This statement also follows from the general formulas

$$
g R(\sigma)=R\left(g \sigma g^{-1}\right) \text { and } g P(\sigma)=P\left(g \sigma g^{-1}\right)
$$

which due to the equality $g \sigma g^{-1}-1=g(\sigma-1) g^{-1}$ is true for any endomorphism $\sigma$ of module $V$ and any isomorphism g of module $V$.

There are the obvious inclusions

$$
R\left(\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}\right) \subseteq R\left(\sigma_{1}\right)+R\left(\sigma_{2}\right), P\left(\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}\right) \supseteq P\left(\sigma_{1}\right) \bigcap P\left(\sigma_{2}\right),
$$

arising from the equalities $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}-1=\left(\sigma_{1}-1\right) \sigma_{2}+\sigma_{2}-1=\sigma_{1}\left(\sigma_{2}-1\right)+\sigma_{1}-1$.
In particular if $\left[\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right]=\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{1}^{-1} \sigma_{2}^{-1}$, then

$$
\begin{gathered}
R\left(\left[\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right]\right)=R\left(\sigma_{1}\right)+R\left(\sigma_{2} \sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}^{-1}\right) \subseteq R\left(\sigma_{1}\right)+\sigma_{2} R\left(\sigma_{1}\right) \subseteq R\left(\sigma_{1}\right)+R\left(\sigma_{2}\right), \\
P\left(\left[\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right]\right) \supseteq P\left(\sigma_{1}\right) \bigcap P\left(\sigma_{2}\right) .
\end{gathered}
$$

It is obviously that $\left(\sigma_{1}-1\right)\left(\sigma_{2}-1\right)=\left(\sigma_{2}-1\right)\left(\sigma_{1}-1\right)$ if and only if $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}=\sigma_{2} \sigma_{1}$ and $\left(\sigma_{1}-1\right)\left(\sigma_{2}-1\right)=\left(\sigma_{2}-1\right)\left(\sigma_{1}-1\right)=0$ if and only if $\left\{\begin{array}{l}R\left(\sigma_{1}\right) \subseteq P\left(\sigma_{2}\right) ; \\ R\left(\sigma_{2}\right) \subseteq P\left(\sigma_{1}\right) .\end{array}\right.$

Then, if $\left\{\begin{array}{l}R\left(\sigma_{1}\right) \subseteq P\left(\sigma_{2}\right) ; \\ R\left(\sigma_{2}\right) \subseteq P\left(\sigma_{1}\right),\end{array}\right.$ then $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}=\sigma_{2} \sigma_{1}$.
If $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}=\sigma_{2} \sigma_{1}$, then $\left(\sigma_{1}-1\right)\left(\sigma_{2}-1\right) V=\left(\sigma_{2}-1\right)\left(\sigma_{1}-1\right) V \subseteq R\left(\sigma_{1}\right) \bigcap R\left(\sigma_{2}\right)$, $\left(\sigma_{1}-1\right)\left(\sigma_{2}-1\right)\left(P\left(\sigma_{1}\right)+P\left(\sigma_{2}\right)\right)=\left(\sigma_{2}-1\right)\left(\sigma_{1}-1\right)\left(P\left(\sigma_{1}\right)+P\left(\sigma_{2}\right)\right)=0$. Then, if $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}=\sigma_{2} \sigma_{1} ; \\ R\left(\sigma_{1}\right) \bigcap R\left(\sigma_{2}\right)=0 \text { or } P\left(\sigma_{1}\right)+P\left(\sigma_{2}\right)=V,\end{array}\right.$ then $\left(\sigma_{1}-1\right)\left(\sigma_{2}-1\right)=\left(\sigma_{2}-1\right)\left(\sigma_{1}-\right.$ 1) $=0$. Then $\left\{\begin{array}{l}R\left(\sigma_{1}\right) \subseteq P\left(\sigma_{2}\right) \\ R\left(\sigma_{2}\right) \subseteq P\left(\sigma_{1}\right)\end{array}\right.$. It is easy to see that $\sigma^{2}=1$ if and only if $\sigma(\sigma-1)=-(\sigma-1)$ if and only if $\left.\sigma\right|_{R(\sigma)}=-1$. It turns out that fixed and residual submodules of finite order, which is reversible in the ring are matched with the Peirce decomposition of idempotents which they defined.

Lemma 1. Let $R$ be an associative ring with $1, V$ is left $R$ - module (not necessarily free), $\sigma \in G L(V), \sigma^{m}=1, m \in R^{*}, e=\left(1+\sigma+\cdots+\sigma^{m-1}\right) m^{-1}$. Then $e^{2}=$ $e$ is an idempotent, $V=R(\sigma) \oplus P(\sigma)$, where $P(\sigma)=\{v \in V \mid(\sigma-1) v=0\}=e V$ and

$$
R(\sigma)=\left\{v \in V \mid\left(1+\sigma+\cdots+\sigma^{m-1}\right) v=0\right\}=(1-e) V .
$$

Proof. Because $e \sigma^{i}=\sigma^{i} e=e$ to all $i \geq 0$, then

$$
e^{2}=e\left(1+\sigma+\cdots+\sigma^{m-1}\right) m^{-1}=e
$$

is an idempotent and the Peirce decomposition is used $V=e V \oplus(1-e) V$, where $v=e v+(1-e) v, v \in V$. It is clear that

$$
e V=\{v \in V \mid(1-e) v=0\}=\operatorname{ker}(1-e)
$$

and $(1-e) V=\{v \in V \mid e v=0\}=$ ker $e$. Because $e(1-\sigma)=(1-\sigma) e=0$ and $1-e=(1-\sigma) t$, where $t \in E n d V$ and $\sigma t=t \sigma$, then $e V \subseteq P(\sigma) \subseteq$ $\operatorname{ker}(1-e)=e V$ and $(1-e) V \subseteq R(\sigma) \subseteq \operatorname{ker} e=(1-e) V$. Thus it is proved that $P(\sigma)=e V=\operatorname{ker}(1-e)=\{v \in V \mid(\sigma-1) v=0\}, R(\sigma)=(1-e) V=$ ker $e=\left\{v \in V \mid\left(1+\sigma+\cdots+\sigma^{m-1}\right) v=0\right\}$.

Note that $\sigma-1$ is a reversible element to $R(\sigma)$. Indeed, $e-1=\left(\sigma^{m-1}-1+\cdots\right.$ $+\sigma-1) m^{-1}, e R(\sigma)=0, \sigma^{m-1}-1+\cdots+\sigma-1=-m E$ to $R(\sigma)$. Similarly, $\sigma^{-1}-1$ is a reversible element to $R\left(\sigma^{-1}\right)=R(\sigma)$.

In particular, if $m=2 \in K^{*}$, then $P(\sigma)=\{v \in V \mid \sigma v=v\}, R(\sigma)=\{v \in V \mid \sigma v$ $=-v\}$.

If $m=3 \in K^{*}$, then $\sigma^{3}=1, P(\sigma)=\{v \in V \mid \sigma v=v\}, R(\sigma)=\{v \in V \mid(1+\sigma$ $\left.\left.+\sigma^{2}\right) v=0\right\}$.

Lemma 2. Let $K$ be an associative ring with $1, m \in K^{*}, a, b \in E n d V, a^{m}=$ $b^{m}=1, a b=b a$. Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
P(a) \bigcap P(a b)=P(a) \bigcap P(b)=P(b) \bigcap P(a b), \\
P(a) \bigcap R(a b)=P(a) \bigcap R(b), P(b) \bigcap R(a b)=P(b) \bigcap R(a), \\
R(a) \bigcap P(a b) \subseteq R(a) \bigcap R(b), R(b) \bigcap P(a b) \subseteq R(b) \bigcap R(a) .
\end{gathered}
$$

Proof. From the properties of fixed and residual submodules of the elements of finite order, which are described in Lemma 1 the equalities arise,

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ P ( a ) \bigcap P ( a b ) = P ( a ) \bigcap P ( b ) ; } \\
{ P ( b ) \bigcap P ( a b ) = P ( a ) \bigcap P ( b ) , }
\end{array} \quad \left\{\begin{array}{l}
P(a) \bigcap R(a b)=P(a) \bigcap R(b) ; \\
P(b) \bigcap R(a b)=P(b) \bigcap R(a) .
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$

Let $v \in P(a b)$ be. Then $a b v=v$ and $a v=b^{-1} v, b v=a^{-1} v$. By induction $a^{l} v=b^{-l} v, b^{l} v=a^{-l} v$ to all $l \geq 0$. That is why $R(a) \bigcap P(a b) \subseteq R(a) \bigcap R(b)$, $R(b) \bigcap P(a b) \subseteq R(b) \bigcap R(a)$.

Corollary 1. Let $K$ be an associative ring with $1, m \in K^{*}, a, b \in \operatorname{EndV}$, $a^{m}=b^{m}=1, a b=b a$. If $m=2 \in K^{*}$, then $R(a) \bigcap R(b)=R(a) \bigcap P(a b)=$ $R(b) \bigcap P(a b)$. If $m=3 \in K^{*}$, then $b=a$ on $R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap R(a b)$ and $b=a^{2}$ on $R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap P(a b)$.

Proof. In the case of $m=2 \in K^{*}$ the inclusions of Lemma 2 are converted to equality. Indeed, in this case, $R(a) \bigcap R(b)=\{v \in V \mid a v=-v, b v=-v\} \subseteq$ $\{v \in V \mid a b v=v\} \subseteq P(a b)$. That is why $R(a) \bigcap R(b)=R(a) \bigcap P(a b)=R(b) \bigcap$ $P(a b)$. In particular,

$$
R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap R(a b)=0, R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap P(a b)=R(a) \bigcap R(b)
$$

In the case of $m=3$ it is revealed $(b-a) \nu=0$, if $\nu \in R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap R(a b)$ and $\left(b-a^{2}\right) \nu=0$, if $\nu \in R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap P(a b)$. Indeed, if $\nu \in R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap R(a b)$, then

$$
\left(a^{2}+a+1\right) \nu=\left(b^{2}+b+1\right) \nu=\left((a b)^{2}+a b+1\right) \nu=0
$$

So, $(a b-1)(a-b) \nu=\left(a^{2}+a b+a\right)(a-b) \nu=a(a+b+1)(a-b) \nu=a\left(a^{2}-b^{2}\right.$ $+a-b) \nu=0$. Consequently there is the equality

$$
0=\left((a b)^{2}+a b+1\right)(a-b) \nu=3(a-b) \nu
$$

Thus it is proved that $(a-b) \nu=0$ for $\nu \in R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap R(a b)$.
Obviously, if $\nu \in R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap P(a b)$, then $a b \nu=\nu$ and $\left(b-a^{2}\right) \nu=0$.
Lemma 3. Let $a, b$ be some elements of associative ring $K$ with $1,3 \in K^{*}$ such that $b^{2}=1, a^{2}+a+1=0, b a b^{-1}=a^{2}, e=(1-a)(1-b) 3^{-1}$. Then $e^{2}=e$, eae $=(1-e) a^{2}(1-e)=0$.

Proof. It is hard not to see that $b(1-b)=-(1-b)$ and $(1-b)(1-a)$ $(1-b)=(1-a-b+b a)(1-b)=\left(1-a+1-a^{2}\right)(1-b)=3(1-b)$. That is why $(3 e)^{2}=(1-a) 3(1-b)=9 e$ and $e^{2}=e$. Similarly, it can be proved that $(1-b) a(1-a)(1-b)=\left(a-a^{2}-b a+b a^{2}\right)(1-b)=\left(a-a^{2}+a^{2}-a\right)(1-b)=$

0 . That is why 9eae $=(1-a)(1-b) a(1-a)(1-b)=0$ and $e a e=0$. So, $e a^{2} e=e(-1-a) e=-e$. It is easy to see that $(1-b) a^{2}+a^{2}(1-b)=2 a^{2}-$ $\left(a+a^{2}\right) b=2 a^{2}+b$. That is why $3\left(e a^{2}+a^{2} e\right)=(1-a)\left((1-b) a^{2}+a^{2}(1-b)\right)=$ $(1-a)\left(2 a^{2}+b\right)$. Thus it is proved that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 3(1-e) a^{2}(1-e)=3 a^{2}-3\left(e a^{2}+a^{2} e\right)+3 e a^{2} e=3 a^{2}-(1-a)\left(2 a^{2}+b\right)-3 e= \\
& =3 a^{2}-(1-a)\left(2 a^{2}+b+1-b\right)=3 a^{2}-(1-a)\left(2 a^{2}+1\right)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

and $(1-e) a^{2}(1-e)=0$.
Lemma 3 implies that $a e=(1-e) a e$ and $a^{2}(1-e)=e a^{2}(1-e)$. It is possible to convince that $e_{1}=e-a \mathrm{~b}$ is also an idempotent which satisfies the equality $e_{1} a e_{1}=\left(1-e_{1}\right) a^{2}\left(1-e_{1}\right)=0$. Besides that $\left(a^{2} b-1\right) e_{1}=0$. It can be proved that $e_{1}$ is unambiguously certain idempotent which is a linear combination of elements of group $\langle a, b\rangle$ with the whole coefficients and satisfies above-mentioned equalities.

## 2. Image of endomorphism by formal matrices.

Lemma 4. Let $K$ be an associative ring with $1,3 \in K^{\star}$, $W$ be left $K$-module, a, $b$ be elements $G L(W)$ such that $a^{3}=b^{2}=1, b a b^{-1}=a^{-1}$. Then there are isomorphism modules $g: W \longrightarrow W_{g}$, which induces isomorphism $\Lambda_{g}: G L(W) \longrightarrow G L\left(W_{g}\right)$ so that the elements $\Lambda_{g} a, \Lambda_{g} b$ can be represented by formal matrices

$$
\Lambda_{g} a=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & -1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right), 1\right), \Lambda_{g} b=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\alpha & \beta \\
\alpha+\beta & -\alpha
\end{array}\right), \gamma\right)
$$

where $\alpha, \beta \in E n d L, \gamma \in E n d P, \alpha \beta=\beta \alpha, \alpha^{2}+\alpha \beta+\beta^{2}=1, \gamma^{2}=1, W_{g}=L \oplus L \oplus P$. In particular, if $W=R(a)$, then

$$
\Lambda_{g} a=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & -1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right), \Lambda_{g} b=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\alpha & \beta \\
\alpha+\beta & -\alpha
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Proof. Let $R(a)=(a-1) W$ and $P(a)=\operatorname{ker}(a-1)$. Submodule $R(a)$ and $P(a)$ is relatively invariant $a$ and $b, a^{2}+a+1=0$ for submodules $R(a)$ and $a=1$ for submodules $P(a)$. Let $e=(1-a)(1-b) 3^{-1}$, where 1 means a unit of $G L(W)$. Obviously, submodules $R(a)$ and $P(a)$ are relatively invariant $e$. Narrowing items $a, b, e$ for submodules $R(a)$ satisfying lemma 4 . Because $e P(a) \subseteq(1-a) P(a)=0$, then $e^{2}=e=0$ on $P(a)$. Therefore $e^{2}=e$-idempotent on $R(a)$. This means that $e^{2}=e$ - idempotent rings $E n d W$, which defines the schedule module $W$,

$$
W=R(a) \oplus P(a)=e R(a) \oplus(1-e) R(a) \oplus P(a), \text { where }
$$

$$
R(a)=e R(a) \oplus(1-e) R(a) .
$$

Let $L=e R(a), P=P(a)$. Since $a \neq 1$, then $R(a) \neq 0$. Under the lemma 4 $a e R(a) \subseteq(1-e) R(a)$ and $a^{2}(1-e) R(a) \subseteq e R(a),(1-e) R(a) \subseteq a e R(a)$. So, $(1-e) R(a)=a e R(a)=a L$. Thus it is proved that $R(a)=L \oplus a L, L \neq 0$, $W=L \oplus a L \oplus P$. Let $W_{g}=L \oplus L \oplus P$ and $g: W \longrightarrow W_{g}$ be an isomorphism of modules, which is defined by the rules $g\left(l_{1}+a l_{2}+p\right)=l_{1}+l_{2}+p$, where $l_{1} \in L$, $1 \leq i \leq 2, p \in P$, and $\Lambda_{g}: G L(W) \longrightarrow G L\left(W_{g}\right)$ - induced $g$ group isomorphism. This means that the elements of the ring $\operatorname{End}\left(W_{g}\right)$ can be represented by formal $3 \times 3$ matrices

$$
\Lambda_{g} a=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & a_{1} \\
1 & a_{2}
\end{array}\right), 1\right), \Lambda_{g} b=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}
b_{1} & b_{2} \\
b_{3} & b_{4}
\end{array}\right), \gamma\right)
$$

Given equality $\left(1+a+a^{2}\right) R(a)=0$ get that $a_{1}=a_{2}=-1$. With equality $b a=a^{-1} b$ it follows that $b_{3}=b_{2}, b_{4}=-b_{1}$ and with equality $b^{2}=1$ get that $b_{1} b_{2}=b_{2} b_{1}$, $b_{1}^{2}+b_{1} b_{2}+b_{2}^{2}=1$. Let $\alpha=b_{1}$ and $\beta=b_{2}$. Then

$$
\Lambda_{g} a=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right), 1\right), \Lambda_{g} b=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\alpha & \beta \\
\alpha+\beta & -\alpha
\end{array}\right), \gamma\right)
$$

where $\alpha, \beta \in \operatorname{EndL}, \gamma \in \operatorname{EndP}, \alpha \beta=\beta \alpha, \alpha^{2}+\alpha \beta+\beta^{2}=1 . \gamma^{2}=1$.
If instead of the idempotent $e$ we choose the idempotent $e_{1}=e-a b$ it is possible to prove that $\alpha=0$ as $\beta=1$.

Lemma 5. Let $K$ be an associative ring with $1,3 \in K^{*}, V$ be a left $K$-module, $a, b \in G L(V), a^{3}=b^{3}=1, a b=b a$. Then $a$ and $b$ can be represented by the formal matrices $a=\operatorname{diag}(z, E, x, y, E), b=\operatorname{diag}\left(E, z_{1}, x, y^{2}, E\right)$, where $x^{2}+x+1=0$, $y^{2}+y+1=0, z^{2}+z+1=0, z_{1}^{2}+z+1=0$.

Proof. Submodules $R(a), R(b), P(a), P(b)$ are invariant relatively to the elements $a$ and $b$ and there are decompositions $V=R(a) \oplus P(a), R(a)=$ $R(a) \bigcap R(b) \oplus R(a) \bigcap P(b), P(a)=P(a) \bigcap R(b) \oplus P(a) \bigcap P(b)$ Because of $(a b)^{3}=1$, the decompositions is also occured

$$
R(a) \bigcap R(b)=R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap R(a b) \oplus R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap P(a b)
$$

This means that there is a decomposition of the module $V$ in to the direct sum of modules (some of which may be zero)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V=R(a) \bigcap P(b) \oplus P(a) \bigcap R(b) \oplus R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap R(a b) \oplus \\
& \oplus R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap P(a b) \oplus P(a) \bigcap P(b)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus it is proved that the elements $a$ and $b$ have a image which is shown in Lemma 5. Because of $(x-1)(x+2)=-3=\left(x^{2}-1\right)(x+1)$, then $x-1, x^{2}-1$ and similarly $y-1, y^{2}-1, z-1, z^{2}-1, z_{1}-1, z_{1}^{2}-1$ are circulating on the respective non-zero submodules. It is followed from Lemma 5 that if such an element $t \in E n d V$ commutes with the product $a b=\operatorname{diag}\left(z, z_{1}, x^{2}, E, E\right)$ then $t$ has a form of $t=\operatorname{diag}\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right)$, where $t_{1}$ commutes with $\operatorname{diag}\left(z, z_{1}, x^{2}\right)$. In particular if $t \in$ $G L(V), R(a) \bigcap P(b)=R(b) \bigcap P(a)=0$, then $V=R(a) \bigcap R(b) \oplus P(a) \bigcap P(b)$, $a b=\operatorname{diag}\left(x^{2}, E, E\right), a b^{2}=\operatorname{diag}\left(E, y^{2}, E\right), t_{1}$ commute with $x^{2}$ and as it followed that with $x=-x^{2}+1,[a, t]=\operatorname{diag}(E, *),[b, t]=\operatorname{diag}(E, *)$. In this case the elements in the form of $\operatorname{diag}(T, 0,0)$ commute with the elements $a b^{2},[a, t],[b, t]$ for any $T \in \operatorname{End}(R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap R(a b))$.

Lemma 6. Let $K$ be an associative ring with $1,3 \in K^{*}, V$ be a left $K$-module, $a, b, c, d, t \in G L(V), a^{3}=b^{3}=1, a b=b a, b \neq a^{2}, c a c^{-1}=a^{2}, c b c^{-1}=b^{2}$, $c^{2}=1, d a d^{-1}=b, d^{2}=1, t a b=a b t$. Let to any $m \in E n d V, m^{2}=0$ in condition of $m$ commutes with $a b^{2},[a, t],[b, t]$ it is followed that $m$ commutes with $a$. Then $R(a) \bigcap P(b) \neq 0$.

Proof. Let $R(a) \bigcap P(b)=0$. Then $R(b) \bigcap P(a)=d(R(a) \bigcap P(b))=0, V=$ $R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap R(a b) \oplus R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap P(a b) \oplus P(a) \bigcap P(b), a=\operatorname{diag}(x, y$, $E), b=\operatorname{diag}\left(x, y^{2}, E\right)$, where $x^{2}+x+1=0, y^{2}+y+1=0$. Because of $b \neq$ $a^{2}$, then $R(a) \bigcap R(b) \bigcap R(a b) \neq 0$. According to Lemma 4 we can assume that $x=\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right)$. Let $m=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right), 0,0\right)$. As noted above, $m$ commutes with $a b^{2},[a, t],[b, t]$. According to the condition $m$ commutes with $a$. However, according to the form $m$ does not commutes with $a$. From this contradiction it is followed that $R(a) \bigcap P(b) \neq 0$.

Theorem 1. Let $K$ be an associative ring with $1,2 \in K^{*}$, $W$ be left $K$-module, $a, b, c, d$ be the elements of group $G L(W)$ such that $a^{2}=b^{2}=1, a b=b a, c a=$ $a c, c b c^{-1}=a b, d b=b d, d a d^{-1}=a b, a \neq 1$. Then there is the isomorphism of modules $g: W \rightarrow W_{g}$, which induces isomorphism $\Lambda_{g}: G L(W) \rightarrow G L\left(W_{g}\right)$ so that the elements $\Lambda_{g} a, \Lambda_{g} b, \Lambda_{g} c, \Lambda_{g} d$ can be represented by formal matrices $\Lambda_{g} a=$ $\operatorname{diag}(-1,-1,1,1), \Lambda_{g} b=\operatorname{diag}(1,-1,-1,1), \Lambda_{g} c=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & \alpha \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right), \beta, \gamma\right), \Lambda_{g} d=$ $\operatorname{diag}\left(\beta_{1},\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & \alpha_{1} \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right), \gamma_{1}\right)$, where $\alpha, \beta, \alpha_{1}, \beta_{1} \in E n d L, \gamma, \gamma_{1} \in E n d P, W_{g}=L \oplus L \oplus$ $L \oplus P$.

Proof. By condition $R(a) \neq 0, b R(a)=R(a), b P(a)=P(a)$. Therefore, there is a decomposition $W=R(a) \oplus P(a)=R(a) \bigcap R(b) \oplus R(a) \bigcap P(b) \oplus P(a) \bigcap$ $R(b) \oplus P(a) \bigcap P(b)$. Let $L=R(a) \bigcap P(b), P=P(a) \bigcap P(b)$. Then $c L=$ $R(a) \bigcap P(a b)=R(a) \bigcap R(b)$ and $d c L=R(a b) \bigcap R(b)=P(a) \bigcap R(b)$. Because of $R(a)=L \oplus c L \neq 0$, than $L \neq 0$ and $W=L \oplus c L \oplus d c L \oplus P$, where $W_{g}=L \oplus L \oplus L \oplus P$. Let us consider the isomorphism of the modules $g: W \rightarrow W_{g}$, which is defined by the rule $g\left(l_{1}+c l_{2}+d c l_{3}+p\right)=l_{1}+l_{2}+l_{3}+p$, where $l_{i} \in L, 1 \leq i \leq 3, p \in P$ and group homomorphism $\Lambda_{g}: G L(W) \rightarrow G L\left(W_{g}\right)$ which is induced by the isomorphism of the modules $g: W \rightarrow W_{g}$, where $\Lambda_{g} \sigma=g \sigma g^{-1}$ for all. We represent the elements of the ring by formal matrices. In particular, we find that $\Lambda_{g} a=\operatorname{diag}(-1,-1,1,1)$, $\Lambda_{g} b=\operatorname{diag}(1,-1,-1,1)$, where 1 is a unit of $E n d L$ or $E n d P$ a ring respectively. Beside this,

$$
\begin{gathered}
c^{2} L=c R(a) \cap P(b)=R(a) \cap P(a b)=L, \\
c d c L=c d R(a) \cap R(b)=P(a) \cap R(a b)=c L, \\
c P=P(a) \cap P(a b)=P .
\end{gathered}
$$

Therefore

$$
\Lambda_{g} c=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & \alpha \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \beta, \gamma\right)
$$

where $\alpha, \beta \in E n d L, \gamma \in E n d P$. Similarly proved that $d c L=c L, d^{2} L=L, d P=P$ and

$$
\Lambda_{g} d=\operatorname{diag}\left(\beta_{1},\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & \alpha_{1} \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \gamma_{1}\right)
$$

where $\alpha_{1}, \beta_{1} \in E n d L, \gamma_{1} \in E n d P$.
In particular, if $c^{2}=a$, then $\alpha=-1, \beta^{2}=1, \gamma^{2}=1$. If $c^{2}=1$, then $\alpha=1$, $\beta^{2}=1, \gamma^{2}=1$. Thus, Theorem 1 is proved.

Remark 1. If $G$ be a group such that $E(n, R) \subseteq G \subseteq G L(n, R)$, where $R$ is an associative ring with $1, n \geq 3$ and $\Lambda: G \longrightarrow G L(W)$ is non-trivial arbitrary homomorphism, who in the group $G L(W)$ as elements $a, b, c, d$, appearing in the Theorem 1, provided $\Lambda t_{i j}(2) \neq 1$ you can choose

$$
\begin{gathered}
a=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}(-1,-1,1, \ldots, 1), b=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}(1,-1,-1,1, \ldots, 1), \\
c=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), 1, \ldots, 1\right), d=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}\left(1,\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), 1, \ldots, 1\right) .
\end{gathered}
$$

This $c^{2}=a, d^{2}=b$. If $\Lambda t_{i j}(2) \neq 1$ for some, and hence for all $1 \leq i \neq j \leq n$, then as elements $a, b, c, d$ elements can be selected $a=\Lambda t_{12}(1), b=\Lambda t_{13}(1), c=\Lambda t_{32}(-1)$, $d=\Lambda t_{23}(-1)$.

In fact, according to the formula $\left[t_{i j}, t_{j k}(1), t_{i j}(r)\right]=t_{i k}(-r)$, where $1 \leq$
$i, j, k \leq n$ are pairly different numbers, there is an inequality $a \neq 1$.
Theorem 2. Let $K$ be an associative ring with $1,3 \in K^{*}, W$ be a left $K$ module, $a, b, c, d$ are the elements of group $G L(W)$ such that $a^{3}=b^{3}=1, a b=b a$, $c a c^{-1}=a^{-1}, c b c^{-1}=b^{-1}, c^{2}=1, d a d^{-1}=b, d^{2}=1, d c=c d, R(a) \bigcap P(b) \neq$ 0 . Then there is the isomorphism of modules $g: W \rightarrow W_{g}$, which induces the isomorphism of group $\Lambda_{g}: G L(W) \rightarrow G L\left(W_{g}\right)$ so that the elements $\Lambda_{g} a, \Lambda_{g} b$, $\Lambda_{g} c, \Lambda_{g} d$ can be represented by formal matrices $\Lambda_{g} a=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right), 1,1, \alpha\right)$, $\Lambda_{g} b=\operatorname{diag}\left(1,1,\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right), \beta\right), \Lambda_{g} c=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right), \gamma\right), \Lambda_{g} d=$ $\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & E \\ E & 0\end{array}\right), \delta\right)$ where $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in E n d P, \alpha^{2}=\beta^{2}=1, \gamma^{2}=\delta^{2}=1, \alpha \beta=\beta \alpha$, $\gamma \alpha=\alpha^{2} \gamma, \delta \alpha=\beta \delta, E=\operatorname{diag}(1,1), 1$ is a unit EndL or EndP respectively.

Proof. Let $e=(1-a)(1-c) 3^{-1}, f=(1-b)(1-c) 3^{-1}$ as in the Lemma 4. Then $e^{2}=e$, eae $=0, f^{2}=f, f b f=0$, ded ${ }^{-1}=f, d f d^{-1}=e . W=$ $R(a) \bigcap P(b) \oplus R(b) \bigcap P(a) \oplus R(a) \bigcap R(b) \oplus P(a) \bigcap P(b), R(a)=e R(a) \oplus$ $(1-e) R(a), R(b)=f R(b) \oplus(1-e) R(b)$ As in the Lemma 4 we have $c e R(a)=$ $(1-e) R(a)$, cf $R(b)=(1-f) R(b)$. Under the condition $d R(a) \bigcap P(b)=R(b) \bigcap$ $P(a)$. Let $L=e R(a) \bigcap P(b), P=R(a) \bigcap R(b) \oplus P(a) \bigcap P(b)$. Then $R(a) \bigcap P(b)$ $=L \oplus c L, L \neq 0, d L=f R(b) \bigcap P(a), R(b) \bigcap P(a)=d L \oplus d c L$. Thus it is proved that $W=L \oplus c L \oplus d L \oplus d c L \oplus P$. Let $W_{g}=L \oplus L \oplus L \oplus L \oplus P, g: W \rightarrow W_{g}$ be an isomorphism of modules, which is defined by the rule $g\left(l_{1}+c l_{2}+d l_{3}+d c l_{4}+p\right)=$ $l_{1}+l_{2}+l_{3}+l_{4}+p$, where $l_{i} \in L, 1 \leq i \leq 4, p \in P$ and $\Lambda_{g}: G L(W) \rightarrow$ $G L\left(W_{g}\right)$ is an induced group homomorphism. Represent the elements of the ring $\operatorname{End}\left(W_{g}\right)$ by formal $5 \times 5$ matrices $\Lambda_{g} a=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right), 1,1, \alpha\right), \Lambda_{g} b=$ $\operatorname{diag}\left(1,1,\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right), \beta\right), \Lambda_{g} c=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right), \gamma\right), \Lambda_{g} d=\operatorname{diag}$ $\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & A^{-1} \\ A & 0\end{array}\right), \delta\right)$ where $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in E n d P$ and $A \in(E n d L)_{2}$ are formal $2 \times 2$ matrix that commute with formal $2 \times 2$ matrices $\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right)$ and $\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right)$, where $1 \in E n d L$. Therefore, up to conjugation, in the formal matrix $\operatorname{diag}(A, 1,1)$ we can assume that $A=1$. Thus, Theorem 2 is proved.

Remark 2. If $G$ is a group such that $E(n, R) \subseteq G \subseteq G L(n, R)$, where $R$ is an associative ring with $1, n \geq 4$, and $\Lambda: G \rightarrow G L(W)$ is an arbitrary non-trivial homomorphism with condition $\left({ }^{*}\right)$ on $E(n, R)$, then the elements $a, b, c, d$, which appear in the theorem 2 in group you can choose $a=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right), 1, \ldots, 1\right)$, $b=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}\left(1,1,\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right), 1, \ldots, 1\right), c=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right), 1, \ldots, 1\right)$, $d=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & E \\ E & 0\end{array}\right), 1, \ldots, 1\right)$, where $E=\operatorname{diag}(1,1)$ is a single $2 \times 2$ matrix.

In fact, according to the formula $\left[t_{i j} t_{i j}(-1), t_{j k}(1), t_{j i}(r)\right]=t_{i k}(-r)$, where $1 \leq i, j, k \leq n$ are pairly different numbers, there is an inequality $a \neq b^{2}$. As $\Lambda$ is a
homomorphism with the condition $\left(^{*}\right)$, so all the other conditions of Lemma 6 are fulfilled. Therefore, if you put $t=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}E & E \\ 0 & E\end{array}\right), E\right)$ in Lemma 6, then $t$ commutes with $a b$, where $a=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}(A, E, E), b=\operatorname{Adiag}(E, A, E), A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right) \in$ $G L(2, R)$. Let $m$ be an arbitrary element of the ring $E n d W, m^{2}=0$, which commutes with $a b^{2},[a, t],[b, t]$. It can be considered that $m \neq 0$. Under condition (*) there is an element $h \in G L(n, R)$ such that $\Lambda h=1+s_{1} m$ and $h^{s_{2}}$ commutes with $\operatorname{diag}\left(A, A^{2}, E\right), \operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}E & A-E \\ 0 & E\end{array}\right), E\right), \operatorname{diag}\left(\left(\begin{array}{cc}E & 0 \\ A-E & E\end{array}\right), E\right)$. In this case, as the test shows, $h^{s_{2}}$ commutes with $\operatorname{diag}(A, E, E)$. That is why the element $\Lambda h^{s_{2}}=1+s_{1} s_{2} m$ and, consequently, the element mcommute with $a$. According to the Lemma $6 R(a) \bigcap P(b) \neq 0$. Therefore the above mentioned elements $a, b, c, d$ satisfy the conditions of the theorem 2 .

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