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DECOMPOSABLE SYMMETRIC TENSORS

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A k-field is a field over which every polynomial of degree less than or equal to k splits completely. The main theorem characterizes the maximal decomposable subspaces of the kth symmetric space $\bigvee_k V$, where V is finite-dimensional vector space over an infinite k-field. They come in three forms:

- (1) $\{x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_k : x_k \in V\}, x_1, \cdots, x_{k-1} \text{ fixed };$
- (2) $\langle a, b \rangle_k = \{x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_k : x_i \in \langle a, b \rangle\}$; and
- (3) $\{\mathbf{x}_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_{k-r} \vee \langle a, b \rangle_{(r')}\}, x_1, \cdots, x_{k-r} \text{ fixed};$

where a and b are linearly independent vectors in V and $\langle a, b \rangle$ is the subspace spanned by a and b.

We consider symmetric tensor products of vector spaces and the problem of characterizing their maximal decomposable subspaces. This problem has been resolved in the skew-symmetric case by Westwick [4] using results due to Wei-Liang Chow [1, Lemma 5] when the underlying field is algebraically closed with characteristic zero.

A k-field is a field F over which every polynomial of degree at most k splits completely. In this paper we determine the maximal decomposable subspaces in the symmetric case when the underlying vector space is finite-dimensional over an infinite k-field whose characteristic (if any) exceeds the length of the product.

1. Let F be a field and V a vector space over F. The k-fold Cartesian product of V will be denoted by V^k where 1 < k. A rank k symmetric tensor space is a vector space together with a k-multilinear symmetric mapping σ which is universal for k-multilinear symmetric maps of V^k and is spanned by $\sigma(V^k)$. We will use the notation $\mathbf{V}_k V$ for this space. (The anti-symmetric or Grassman space is usually denoted by $\mathbf{\Lambda}^k V$.)

If $\bigvee_k V$ with $\sigma \colon V^k \to \bigvee_k V$ is a symmetric tensor space, the decomposable symmetric tensors or "symmetric products" are those elements of $\bigvee_k V$ in the set $\sigma(V^k)$. We will denote $\sigma(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ by $x_1 \vee \dots \vee x_k$. A subspace S of $\bigvee_k V$ is decomposable if $S \subseteq \sigma(V^k)$. Trivial decomposable subspaces are the zero subspace and those consisting of scalar multiples of a single product. The factors of the product $x_1 \vee \dots \vee x_k$ are the 1-dimensional subspaces $\langle x_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle x_k \rangle$ of V.

If V is n-dimensional, it is well-known that $\bigvee_k V$ is vector space isomorphic to the space of homogeneous polynomials of degree k over F [3, p. 428]. Any linear mapping $f: V \to V$ induces a unique linear mapping $\bigvee_k f: \bigvee_k V \to \bigvee_k V$ obtained by extending the mapping

 $f^k \colon V^k \to \bigvee_k V$ defined by $f^k(x_1, \dots, x_k) = f(x_1) \vee \dots \vee f(x_k)$. This mapping will be denoted by simply \bigvee_f when the length of the product is not in question.

PROPOSITION 1. If x and y are decomposable symmetric tensors with k-1 common factors (counting repetitions), then x + y is decomposable.

Proof. The mapping σ is multilinear.

If U is any subspaces of V and x_1, \dots, x_k vectors of V then $\{x_1 \vee \dots \vee x_k \vee u \mid u \in U\}$ is a decomposable subspace of $\mathbf{V}_{k+1}V$ and will be denoted by $x_1 \vee \dots \vee x_k \vee U$. Clearly,

$$x_1 \lor \cdots \lor x_k \lor U \subseteq x_1 \lor \cdots \lor x_k \lor V$$
.

Decomposable subspaces of the form $x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_{k-1} \vee V$ will be called *type* 1 *subspaces*.

2. Let x be a product $x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_k$ in $\sigma(V^k)$. If $w \in V$ then $w \vee x$ denotes the product $w \vee x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_k$ in $\sigma(V^{k+1})$.

PROPOSITION 2. If D is a decomposable subspace of $\bigvee_k V$ then $w \vee D$ is a decomposable subspace of $\bigvee_{k+1} V$.

Proof. We will show that if $x + y = z \in \sigma(V^k)$ and $w \in V$ then $w \vee x + w \vee y = w \vee z$.

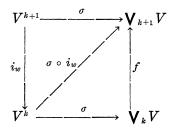
Define an injection $i: V^k \to V^{k+1}$ by

$$i_w(v_1, \dots, v_k) = (w, v_1, \dots, v_k)$$
.

The universal property of $\bigvee_k V$ implies there is a unique linear $f:\bigvee_k V \to \bigvee_{k+1} V$ such that

$$f(x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_k) = w \vee x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_k$$
.

The desired result follows because f is linear.



Clearly f is injective. Moreover the image of a decomposable subspace of $\mathbf{V}_k V$ under f is decomposable.

PROPOSITION 3. $x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_k = 0$ if and only if some $x_i = 0$.

Proof. Suppose x_1, \dots, x_k are nonzero vectors. Choose any basis $(e_i)_{i \in I}$ of V over a field F. For each x_i assume the p_i^{th} coordinate to be nonzero. Let $p = (p_1, \dots, p_k)$. Define a multilinear and symmetric mapping $f_p: V^k \to F$ by

$$f_p(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \alpha(1, p_1) \dots \alpha(k, p_k)$$

where each vector x_i has coordinates $(\alpha(i,j))_{j\in I}$. Then $f_p(x_1,\dots,x_k)$ is nonzero and since $f_p = \sigma \circ \overline{f}_p$, where \overline{f}_p is the extension of f_p to $\bigvee_k V$, $x_1 \vee \dots \vee x_k$ could not be zero.

Since σ is multilinear $x_i=0$ for some $i=1, \dots, k$ implies $x_1 \vee \dots \vee x_k=0$.

 S_k denote the set of k! permutations of $\{1, \dots, k\}$.

Proposition 4. Let V be an n-dimensional vector space. The identity

$$x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_k = y_1 \vee \cdots \vee y_k \neq 0$$

holds if and only if there is a $\pi \in S_k$ and scalars $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ such that

$$\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \cdots \lambda_k = 1$$

and

$$x_i = \lambda_i y_{\pi(i)}$$
 $i = 1, \dots, k$.

Proof. This is a result of the fact that the rank k symmetric tensor space is isomorphic to the k^{th} component of the polynomial algebra in n indeterminants over F [3, p. 428]. The latter is a unique factorization domain.

In what follows we will suppose $x=x_1 \lor \cdots \lor x_k$ and $y=y_1 \lor \cdots \lor y_k$ are independent products such that x+y is decomposable, say $x+y=z_1 \lor \cdots \lor z_k$. We will often use the assumption that x and y are nonzero products without explicit mention. The subspace of V spanned by the vectors x_1, \cdots, x_k will be denoted [x] and its dimension by |x|. For notational convenience we set

$$x \cap y = [x] \cap [y]$$

$$x \cup y = [x] + [y]$$
.

If S is a subspace of V then $S_{(k)}$ is the set $\{x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_k \mid x_i \in S\}$. In general $S_{(k)}$ is not a subspace. If U is a subspace of $\bigvee_k V$ then the one-dimensional subspace $\langle v \rangle$ of V is a factor of U if

$$U \subseteq v \vee V \vee \cdots \vee V$$
.

We will frequently denote a repeated product $U \vee \cdots \vee U$ by $U_{(k)}$.

REMARK. If x + y = z it is always true that $[z] \subseteq x \cup y$. For, if some $z_i \notin x \cup y$ and B is a basis of $x \cup y$ we may choose $f \in L$ (V, V) so that

$$f(z_i) = 0$$

$$f(b) = b b \in B.$$

Then, $x + y = (\mathbf{V}f)$ z = 0, contradicting our standing assumption that x and y are independent.

PROPOSITION 5. If B is a basis of [y] and there are i, j such that $B \cup \{x_i, z_j\}$ is an independent set then x and y have a common factor.

Proof. Choose $f \in L(V, V)$ so that

$$f(x_i) = x_i$$

$$f(z_j) = 0$$

$$f(b) = b \qquad \qquad b \in B \; .$$

Then,

$$f(x_1) \vee \cdots \vee x_i \vee \cdots \vee f(x_k) = -y_1 \vee \cdots \vee y_k$$
.

Proposition 4 now implies $\langle x_i \rangle$ is also a factor of y.

PROPOSITION 6. If x and y have no common factors and $[y] \nsubseteq [x]$ then for all $i = 1, \dots, k$

$$y_i \notin [x]$$
 and $z_i \notin [x]$.

Proof. Let $y_j \notin [x]$. If B is any basis of [x] we may complete the independent set $B \cup \{y_j\}$ to a basis of V. Consequently there is $f \in L(V, V)$ such that

$$f\left(y_{j}
ight)=0$$

$$f\left(b
ight)=b \qquad \qquad b\in B \; . \label{eq:beta}$$

If some $z_i \in [x]$ we have

$$x_1 \lor \cdots \lor x_k = f(z_1) \lor \cdots \lor z_i \lor \cdots \lor f(z_k)$$
.

Proposition 4 implies $\langle z_i \rangle$ is then a factor of x. The choice of any $g \in L(V, V)$ with ker $g = \langle z_i \rangle$ together with Proposition 4 shows $\langle z_i \rangle$ is also a factor of y. We have shown that if x and y have no common factors then no $z_i \in [x]$.

Choose some z_i and complete the independent set $B \cup \{z_i\}$ to a basis. Define $h \in L(V, V)$ by

$$h(z_i) = 0$$

$$h(b) = b b \in B,$$

Then

$$x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_k = -h(y_1) \vee \cdots \vee h(y_k)$$

and we obtain a common factor whenever some $y_i \in [x]$ since then $h(y_i) = y_i$.

PROPOSITION 7. If B is any basis of [y] and for some i and j $B \cup \{x_i, x_j\}$ is an independent set then x and y have a common factor.

Proof. Choose $f \in L(V, V)$ such that either $f(x_i) = 0$ or $f(x_j) = 0$ and f(b) = b for every $b \in B$. Then

$$y_1 \vee \cdots \vee y_k = f(z_1) \vee \cdots \vee f(z_k)$$
.

If some $z_i \in [y]$ then it is a common factor. Assume no $z_i \in [y]$. We claim one of the following is the zero subspace:

$$[y] \cap \langle x_i, z_i \rangle$$

$$[y] \cap \langle x_j, z_i \rangle$$
.

For, if both are nonzero there are scalars α , β such that

$$z_i = \alpha x_i + y' = \beta x_j + y''$$
 where $y', y'' \in [y]$.

Hence,

$$\alpha x_i - \beta x_j \in [y]$$
.

Since $z_1 \notin [y]$, both α and β are nonzero. But this violates the hypothesis. If $[y] \cap \langle x_i, z_i \rangle = 0$ we apply Proposition 5 to $B \cup \{x_i, z_i\}$ and conclude x and y have a common factor.

3. F is a k-field if every polynomial over F of degree at most k splits completely over F. Let L_k denote $\{x \in \bigvee_k V \colon |x| = 1\}$. L_k is composed of all products $\alpha x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_1$ where $\alpha \in F$, $x_1 \in V$. If F is a k-field then in particular

$$\alpha x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_1 = (\alpha^{1/k} x_1) \vee \cdots \vee (\alpha^{1/k} x_1)$$
.

However L_k need not be a subspace unless $k = p^r$ where r is a positive

integer and p is the prime characteristic of F. That it is a subspace in this case is apparent because $\binom{p^k}{m}$ for $m=1, \dots, p^k-1$ and so

$$x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_1 + y_1 \vee \cdots \vee y_1 = (x_1 + y_1) \vee \cdots \vee (x_1 + y_1)$$
.

PROPOSITION 8. If F has prime characteristic p and $k = p^r$, r a positive integer, then dim $L_k = \dim V$.

Proof. Under these conditions it is not difficult to show that x_1, \dots, x_m are linearly independent in V if and only if $x_1 \vee \dots \vee x_1, \dots, x_m \vee \dots \vee x_m$ are linearly independent in L_k .

PROPOSITION 9. L_k is a decomposable subspace if and only if F has characteristic p and $k = p^m$, m a positive integer.

Proof. We have seen that this condition is sufficient. If u, v are independent vectors in V then $u_{(k)} = u \lor \cdots \lor u, v_{(k)} = v \lor \cdots \lor v$ are in L_k and part of a basis for $\bigvee_k V$ by Proposition 8. Since L_k is decomposable there is a nonzero scalar γ and vector w such that

$$(1) u_{(k)} + v_{(k)} = \gamma w_{(k)}.$$

The remark preceding Proposition 5 implies there are scalars α , β such that $w = \alpha u + \beta v$. By induction,

$$egin{align} w_{\scriptscriptstyle(k)} &= lpha^k u_{\scriptscriptstyle(k)} + inom{k}{1} lpha^{k-1} u_{\scriptscriptstyle(k-1)} ee v + \cdots \ &+ inom{k}{r} lpha^{k-r} eta^r u_{\scriptscriptstyle(k-r)} ee v_{\scriptscriptstyle(r)} + \cdots \ &+ eta^k v_{\scriptscriptstyle(k)} \,. \end{split}$$

Since the products $u_{\scriptscriptstyle (k-r)} \lor v_{\scriptscriptstyle (r)}$ are part of a basis of $\bigvee_k V$ we obtain

$$egin{aligned} \gamma lpha^k &= \gamma eta^k = 1 \ \gamma \left(egin{aligned} k \ r \end{aligned}
ight) lpha^{k-r} eta_r = 0 \end{aligned} \qquad r = 1, \, \cdots, \, k\!-\!1 \; . \end{aligned}$$

Because both α and β are nonzero α^{k-r} β^r is and so

$$\begin{pmatrix} k \\ r \end{pmatrix} \cdot 1 = 0 \qquad \qquad r = 1, \cdots, k-1.$$

Hence F has characteristic p and

$$p\left|\binom{k}{r}\right| \qquad r=1,\,\cdots,\,k-1$$
.

It is not difficult to show that this implies k is a power of p.

4. If a and b are two independent vectors in V then the set $\{x_1 \lor \cdots \lor x_k \mid x_i \in \langle a, b \rangle\}$ is denoted by $\langle a, b \rangle_{(k)}$. Let $F[\alpha]$ denote the polynomial algebra in one variable over F and define a linear mapping $g: \langle a, b \rangle \to F[\alpha]$ by $g(a) = \alpha$, g(b) = 1. If $f: V \to \langle a, b \rangle$ is a projection on $\langle a, b \rangle$ then $\bigvee_k g \circ f: \bigvee_k V \to F[\alpha]$ is a linear mapping obtained by extending $(g \circ f)^k: \bigvee_k V \to F[\alpha]$ defined by

$$(g \circ f)^k (v_1, \dots, v_k) = \prod_{i=1}^k g \circ f(v_i)$$
. $v_i \in V$.

Ιf

$$t = \prod_{i=0}^k \gamma_i \; a_{(k-i)} \vee b_i \qquad \qquad \gamma_i \in F$$

is any element of $\langle a, b \rangle_{(k)}$ then

$$(\mathbf{V}_k g \circ f) \ t = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \alpha + \cdots + \gamma_k \alpha^k .$$

The equality (2) implies that the restriction of $\bigvee_k g \circ f$ to $\langle a, b \rangle_{(r)}$ is a linear isomorphism onto $F[\alpha]$ which preserves "products", i.e., a decomposable tensor corresponds to a product of k linear polynomials.

PROPOSITION 10. F is a k-field if and only if each $\langle a, b \rangle_{(k)}$ is a decomposable subspace of $\bigvee_k V$.

Proof. Assume F is a k-field. If x and y are products in $\langle a,b\rangle_{(k)}$ let $P(\alpha)=(\bigvee_k g\circ f)\ (x+y)$. There are elements r_i in F such that $P(\alpha)=r_0(\alpha-r_1)\cdots(\alpha-r_k)$. Consider

$$z = r_0(a - r_1 b) \vee \cdots \vee (a - r_k b) \in \langle a, b \rangle_{(k)}$$
.

Clearly, $P(\alpha) = \bigvee_{k} (g \circ f) z$ which implies x + y = z because the restriction of $\bigvee_{k} g \circ f$ to $\langle a, b \rangle_{(k)}$ is injective. Therefore $\langle a, b \rangle_{(k)}$ is decomposable.

Conversely if $\langle a, b \rangle_{(k)}$ is decomposable and

$$P(\alpha) = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \alpha + \cdots + \gamma_k \alpha^k \in F[\alpha]$$

then (2) implies $P(\alpha) = (\bigvee_k g \circ f) \ t$ for some $t \in \langle a, b \rangle_{(k)}$. But t is a product, say

$$t = (\lambda_1 a + \mu_1 b) \vee \cdots \vee (\lambda_k a + \mu_k b).$$

Hence

$$P(\alpha) = (\lambda_1 + \mu_1 \alpha) \cdots (\lambda_k + \mu_k \alpha)$$
.

LEMMA 11. If F is infinite and $\langle x, y \rangle \subseteq \sigma(V^k)$ then |x| > 2 implies x and y a common factor.

Proof. Assume x_1, x_2, x_3 are independent and are contained in a basis B of V. For every $\lambda \in F$ there is a product $z(\lambda) = z_1(\lambda) \vee \cdots \vee z_k(\lambda)$ such that $x + \lambda y = z(\lambda)$. Define three linear mappings of V by

$$f_{i}\left(x_{i}
ight)=0$$
 $i=1,\,2,\,3$. $f\left(b
ight)=b\in B-\left\{ x_{1},\,x_{2},\,x_{3}
ight\}$

Extending each mapping to $\bigvee_k V$ we obtain for each $\lambda \in F$:

$$(\mathbf{y}f_i)y = (\mathbf{y}f_i)z(\lambda) \qquad \qquad i = 1, 2, 3.$$

If (3) is zero for some i we infer from Proposition 3 that $f_i(y_j) = 0$ for some $j = 1, \dots, k$. This means that $\langle x_i \rangle = \langle y_j \rangle$ is a common factor of x and y. For each λ , the vectors $z_1(\lambda), \dots, z_k(\lambda)$ may be chosen so that (3) and Proposition 4 imply

(4)
$$f_1(y_j) = f_1(z_j(\lambda))$$
 $j = 1, \dots, k$.

Let $z_i(\lambda)$ and y_j have coordinates $(\alpha_{ib}(\lambda):b\in B)$ and $(\beta_{jb}:b\in B)$ respectively. For each $\lambda\in F$ (4) implies

(5)
$$\alpha_{jb}(\lambda) = \beta_{jb}$$
 $b \neq x_1$.

If i=2 then (3) and Proposition 4 implies for each $\lambda \in F$

$$f_2(z_j(\lambda)) = c_j(\lambda) f_2(y_{\pi(j)}) \qquad j = 1, \dots, k.$$

where $\pi \in S_k$ and the $c_j(\lambda)$ are scalars such that $\prod_{j=1}^k c_j(\lambda) = 1$. Therefore,

(6)
$$\alpha_{jb}(\lambda) = c_j(\lambda) \beta_{\pi(j)b} b \neq x_2 \qquad j = 1, \dots, k.$$

If for some j, $\alpha_{jb}(\lambda) = 0$ for every $b \neq x_2$ then $\langle z_k \rangle = \langle x_2 \rangle$ is a common factor of x and $z(\lambda)$; hence a common factor of x and y. Accordingly, we may assume for each j there is a basis element $b(j) \neq x_2$ such that $\beta \pi_{(j)b(j)} \neq 0$. If for some j $b(j) \neq x_1$ as well, then (5) and (6) imply

$$(7) c_j(\lambda) = \beta_{jb(j)} \beta_{\pi(j)b(j)}^{-1} .$$

On the other hand, suppose $b(j)=x_1$ for some j and $\beta_{\pi(j)b}=0$ for all b distinct from x_1 and x_2 . From (3) with i=3 we obtain

(8)
$$\alpha_{jb}(\lambda) = d_j(\lambda) \, \beta_{\omega(j)b} \qquad \qquad j = 1, \, \cdots, \, k \, .$$

where $\omega \in S_n$ and the $d_i(\lambda)$ are scalars such that $\prod_{j=1}^k d_j(\lambda) = 1$.

Were $\beta_{\omega(j)x_2} = 0$ then $\langle z_j(\lambda) \rangle = \langle x_1 \rangle$ would be a common factor of x and $z(\lambda)$, hence a factor of y as well. If $\beta_{\omega(j)x_2} \neq 0$ then (5) together with $b = x_2$ in (8) imply

$$(\, 9\,) \qquad \qquad d_{j}(\lambda) = eta_{j_{m{x}_{2}}} eta_{\omega(i)_{m{x}_{2}}}^{-1}.$$

From (5) we know that for any $\lambda \in F$ all coordinates of $z(\lambda)$ except $b = x_1$ are in the finite set $C_1 = \{\beta_{jb} : j = 1, \dots, k; b \in B\}$. For each $i = 1, \dots, k$ we have from (6)

(10)
$$\alpha_{jx_1}(\lambda) = c_j(\lambda) \, \beta_{\pi(j)x_1}$$

and from (8) we obtain

$$\alpha_{jx_1}(\lambda) = c_j(\lambda) \, \beta_{\pi(j)x_1}$$
.

Now if $b(j) \neq x_1$ then (7) and (10) imply

$$\alpha_{jx_1}(\lambda) = \beta_{jb(j)}\beta_{\pi(j)b(j)}^{-1}\beta_{\pi(j)x_1}$$

and if $b(j) = x_1$ then (8) and (9) imply

$$\alpha_{jx_1}(\lambda) = \beta_{jx_2} \beta_{\omega(j)x_2}^{-1} \beta_{\omega(j)x_1}.$$

We conclude that for any $\lambda \in F$ the coordinates of each $z_j(\lambda)$ are contained in the finite set

$$C_1 \cup \{eta_{jb(j)} \, eta_{\pi(j)b(j)}^{-1} \, eta_{\pi(j)x_1}, \, eta_{jx_2} \, eta_{\omega(j)x_2}^{-1} \, eta_{\omega(j)x_1} \colon j = 1, \, \cdots, \, k \}$$
 .

Accordingly, the number of vectors $z_j(\lambda)$ is finite and there are only a finite number of distinct products $z(\lambda) = z_1(\lambda) \vee \cdots \vee z_k(\lambda)$. But F is infinite. Hence there are distinct scalars λ, λ' such that $x + \lambda y = x + \lambda' y$ which implies y = 0. This contradicts our standing assumption that x and y are nonzero products and completes the proof.

We need the following lemma in order to prove Theorem 13.

LEMMA 12. Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space over a field F and $\mathscr C$ any collection of proper subspaces of V. If $V = \bigcup \mathscr C$ then $\operatorname{Card} F \subseteq \operatorname{Card} \mathscr C$.

Proof. When $\dim V = 1$, V has no proper subspaces and the conclusion is vacuously true.

If b_1, \dots, b_n is any basis of V denote the (n-1)-dimensional subspace $\langle b_1, \dots, b_{n-2}, b_{n-1} + \lambda b_n \rangle$ by S_{λ} , where λ is a scalar. Then Card $\{S_{\lambda} \colon \lambda \in F\} = \text{Card}$ F. For, if $S_{\lambda} = S_{\lambda}$, then in particular

$$b_{n-1} + \lambda b_n = \alpha_1 b_1 + \cdots + \alpha_{n-2} b_{n-2} + \alpha_{n-1} (b_{n-1} + \lambda' b_n)$$

for some scalars $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{n-1}$. Thus $\alpha_i = 0$ for $i = 1, \dots, n-2$. and $\alpha_{n-1} = 1$ which implies $\lambda = \lambda'$.

Consider $\mathscr{C}_{\lambda} = \{S_{\lambda} \cap T : T \in \mathscr{C}\}$. Because $V = \bigcup \mathscr{C}$ we have $S_{\lambda} = \bigcup \mathscr{C}_{\lambda}$. The set mapping from \mathscr{C} to \mathscr{C}_{λ} defined by $T \to S_{\lambda} \cap T$ is onto. Consequently, Card $C_{\lambda} \leq \operatorname{Card} \mathscr{C}$. Since dim $S_{\lambda} = n-1$ induction yields Card $F \leq \operatorname{Card} \mathscr{C}_{\lambda}$, completing the proof.

If D is a decomposable subspace of $\bigvee_k V$ and $v \in V$ then D(v) denotes $\{t \in D \mid \langle v \rangle \text{ is a factor of } t\}$. Any D(v) is a subspace of D and is the zero subspace when v is a factor of no product in D. A nontrivial decomposable subspace can have at most k-1 factors. We have already remarked that any decomposable subspace with exactly k-1 factors (counting repetitions) is contained in a type 1 subspace. At the other extreme we have:

LEMMA 13. If V is finite dimensional over an infinite k-field either without characteristic or with characteristic p > k then the only maximal nontrivial decomposable subspaces of $\bigvee_k V$ without factors are those of the form $\langle a, b \rangle_{(k)}$.

Proof. Let D be a maximal decomposable subspace without factors. If Char F=p then Proposition 8 and p>k imply L_k is not a subspace. Thus, we can assume $D\neq L_k$; i.e., D contains at least one product x with |x|>1. We proceed by showing first that D cannot contain a product x with |x|>2:

Assume, on the contrary, that $x = x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_k$ is such a product of D.

For every product $y \in D$ we have $\langle x,y \rangle \subseteq D \subseteq \sigma(V^k)$. Lemma 11 implies each nonzero $y \in D$ must have a factor in common with x. Hence $D = \bigcup_{i=1}^k D(x_i)$, where each $D(x_i)$ must be a proper subspace since D is without factors. Since V is finite-dimensional Lemma 12 implies $\operatorname{Card} F < k$, contrary to hypothesis. Accordingly $|x| \leq 2$ for every $x \in D$. Since D is not L_k , D contains a product x with |x| = 2. In what follows we suppose x_1, x_2 are independent.

Were $y \in D$ and |y| = 1 then $y = \alpha y_1 \lor \cdots \lor y_1$. If $y_1 \notin [x]$ Proposition 7 implies x and y have a common factor and so $y_1 \in [x]$, a contradiction. Therefore $[y] \subseteq [x]$ for every $y \in D$ with |y| = 1.

Suppose $y \in D$, |y| = 2 but $[y] \nsubseteq [x]$. The rest of the proof is in two parts and we consider first such y with no factors in common with x:

Complete x_1, x_2 to a basis B and define $f \in L(V, V)$ by

(11)
$$f(x_i) = x_1 i = 1, 2$$
$$f(b) = b b \in B - \{x_1, x_2\}.$$

Were $(\mathbf{V}_F) y = 0$ then some $y_i \in [x]$, contrary to Proposition 6. If $|(\mathbf{V}_F)y| = 1$ then

(12)
$$\alpha x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_1 + \beta f(y_1) \vee \cdots \vee f(y_k) = (\mathbf{V}_F) z \neq 0$$

would imply (as in § 3) that the underlying field has characteristic p and $k = p^r$ for some prime p and positive integer r, contrary to hypothesis. (If $(\mathbf{V}_F)z = 0$ then some $z_i \in [x]$, again contradicting Proposition 6.) The remaining alternative is $|(\mathbf{V}_F)y| = 2$. Since we are assuming x and y have no common factors, (12) and Proposition 7 imply for some $i = 1, \dots, k$

$$\langle x_1 \rangle = \langle f(y_i) \rangle.$$

But (11) and (13) imply $y_i \in [x]$, a contradiction of Proposition 6 again.

It remains to consider those $y \in D$ with |y| = 2 which have factors in common with x. If for such y, $[y] \neq [x]$ then $x \cap y$ is 1-dimensional. Let $x \cap y = \langle u \rangle$ and assume $\langle u \rangle$ occurs at least r times as a factor of both x and y. Consider the products

$$\overline{x} = x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_{k-r}$$

$$\overline{y} = y_1 \vee \cdots \vee y_{k-r}$$

in $\sigma(V^{k-r})$. We may suppose that \overline{x} and \overline{y} have no common factors. Since $x+y\in\sigma(V^k)$ and iterations of the mapping f in (0) are also injective we have $\overline{x}+\overline{y}\in\sigma(V^{k-r})$. If either $|\overline{x}|=2$ or $|\overline{y}|=2$ then Lemma 10 implies

(14)
$$[\overline{x}] \subseteq [\overline{y}]$$
 or $[\overline{y}] \subseteq [\overline{x}]$.

Either statement in (14) implies [x] = [y].

If $|\bar{x}| = |\bar{y}| = 1$ then either $[\bar{x}] = [\bar{y}]$ or $\bar{x} \cap \bar{y} = 0$. We will show $\bar{x} \cap \bar{y} = 0$ is contradictory:

Let
$$\overline{x} = \alpha x_1 \lor \dots \lor x_1 = (\alpha^{1/r} x_1) \lor \dots \lor (\alpha^{1/r} x_1)$$
 $\overline{y} = \beta y_1 \lor \dots \lor y_1 = (\beta^{1/r} y_1) \lor \dots \lor (\beta^{1/r} y_1)$.

This is possible since F is an r-field for every positive $r \leq k$. Replace u and v by $\alpha^{1/r} x_1$ and $\beta^{1/r} w_1$ in (1). Then Char F is a prime p and $r = p^m$ for some positive integer m. But by hypothesis p > k > r, a contradiction.

We conclude $[y] \subseteq [x]$ in all cases. Thus, $D \subseteq \langle a, b \rangle_{(k)}$ where $\{a, b\}$ is any basis of [x]. Since D was assumed maximal the proof is complete.

THEOREM. If V is finite-dimensional over an infinite k-field F either without characteristic or with characteristic p > k then the maximal nontrivial decomposable subspaces of $\mathbf{V}_k V$ are:

- (i) type 1 subspaces and for every independent pair of vectors a, b in v:
 - (ii) $\langle a, b \rangle_{(k)}$
- (iii) $x_1 \lor \cdots \lor x_{k-r} \lor \langle a, b \rangle_{(r)}$ where $x_i \notin \langle a, b \rangle$ for every $i = 1, \cdots, k-r$ and 1 < r < k.

Proof. Lemma 13 states that the only decomposable subspace without factors are those of the form (ii). The image of a decomposable subspace under the mapping f in (0) is a decomposable subspace with at least one factor. Iterations of f in (0) yield decomposable subspaces in spaces of greater length. Thus, when F is a k-field, $\langle a,b\rangle_{(r)}$ is a decomposable subspace of \mathbf{V}_rV for every 1 < r < k and subspaces of the form

$$x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_{k-r} \vee \langle a, b \rangle_{(r)}$$

are decomposable. If x_{k-r} , say, is in $\langle a, b \rangle$ then

$$x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_{k-r} \vee \langle a, b \rangle_{(r)} \subseteq x_1 \vee \cdots \vee x_{k-r-1} \vee \langle a, b \rangle_{(r+1)}$$
.

Accordingly, subspaces of this type could be maximal only when $x_i \notin \langle a, b \rangle$ for each $i = 1, \dots, k-r$.

Conversely, if a decomposable subspace has exactly k-r factors it is the image of a decomposable subspace of $\mathbf{V}_r V$ without factors under a composition of k-r mappings f in (0). Lemma 13 states that subspace must be of the form $\langle a,b\rangle_{(r)}$. Hence (ii) and (iii) are the only types of decomposable subspaces with factors.

Routine arguments show that a space of one type cannot be properly contained in another of the same type or a different type. Since every decomposable subspace is contained in a maximal decomposable subspace the proof is completed.

Part of this work was contained in the author's thesis written under R. Westwick at the University of British Columbia. The author is indebted to conversations with B. N. Moyls.

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