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# Spaces of Matrices of Fixed Rank. II 

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#### Abstract

When $\min \{m, n\}=k+1$, the exact value of $l(k, m, n)$, the maximum dimension of all possible linear spaces of rank $k$ matrices of order $m \times n$, is known. The situation when $\min l(k, m, n) \geqslant k+2$ is not clear. Partial results are obtained for $l(k, k+2, k+2)$ in this paper.


The maximum dimension $l(k, n, m)$ of a linear space $H \subseteq \mathscr{L}\left(\mathbb{C}^{n}, \mathbb{C}^{m}\right)$ each of whose nonzero members have rank $k$ has been determined when $\min \{m, n\}$ is $k+1$. By using Chern classes, an upper bound is obtained, and with examples these upper bounds are confirmed as best possible. The results are contained in [6], [7], and [8]. The situation when $\min \{m, n\}=k+2$ is not as pleasant. The upper bound using the Chern classes is no longer necessarily the best possible.

In this paper we begin the second phase of determining $l(k, n, m)$ by considering $l(k, k+2, k+2)$. The general theory in [7] shows that the value of $l(k, k+2, k+2)=l$ is one of 3,4 , or 5 . The following is a summary of the results obtained.

Theorem. Let $l=l(k, k+2, k+2)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
k \equiv 1(\bmod 3) \Rightarrow l=3 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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$$
\begin{align*}
k \equiv & 0(\bmod 3) \Rightarrow l \geqslant 4 \\
& \text { and we have equality when } k \not \equiv 0(\bmod 4)  \tag{2}\\
k \equiv & 2(\bmod 3) \text { does not determine } l \\
& \text { since } \quad l(2,4,4)=3 \text { and } l(8,10,10)=4 \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

No examples have been found for which $l=5$.
All examples of an $H$ of dimension 4 apart from the case $k=8$ come from the 4 -dimensional $(k, k+1, k+2)$-spaces. Since $l(8,9,10)=3$, the 4 -dimensional ( $8,10,10$ )-space given is new.

For $l(k, k+2, k+2)=5$ we must have $k \geqslant 32$.
In what follows the base space for the bundles is the complex projective space on $H$. The trivial line bundle is denoted by $\xi$, and the tautological line bundle by $\mu$. The bundle map determined by $H$ referred to below is found in [5].

Proof. The bundle map

$$
\varphi: \mu \otimes \xi^{k+2} \rightarrow \xi^{k+2}
$$

determined by $H$ produces three elements

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x=[\operatorname{Ker} \varphi] \\
& y=[\operatorname{Rng} \varphi] \\
& z=\left[\xi^{k+2} / \operatorname{Rng} \varphi\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

in the $\lambda$-ring $K$, where $K$ is the ring determined by the equivalence classes of vector bundles over $P(H)$. See [2] for details. It is well known that $K$ is isomorphic to $Z[t] /(t-1)^{l}$, and the isomorphism is induced by $s \rightarrow t$, where $s=[\mu]$ is the equivalence class of the tautological line bundle. See [1, p. 84]. These satisfy

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x+y=(k+2) s \\
& y+z=(k+2)
\end{aligned}
$$

Both $x$ and $z$ are equivalence classes of 2-bundles. We let $c_{t}: K \rightarrow$ $Z[t] / t^{l}$ be the Chern class homomorphism from the additive group of $K$ to the multiplicative group of units in $Z[t] / t^{l}$. Then $x$ and $z$ have images
$1+a_{1} t+a_{2} t^{2}$ and $1+c_{1} t+c_{2} t^{2}$ respectively, where $a_{1}, a_{2}, c_{1}, c_{2}$ are integers. We apply the Chern character ring homomorphism ch: $K \rightarrow Q[t] / t^{l}$ on both sides of the equation $(k+2)(s-1)=x-z$ to get

$$
\begin{aligned}
k+2 & =a_{1}-c_{1} \\
& =a_{1}^{2}-c_{1}^{2}-2\left(a_{2}-c_{2}\right) \\
& =a_{1}^{3}-c_{1}^{3}-3\left(a_{1} a_{2}-c_{1} c_{2}\right) \\
& =a_{1}^{4}-c_{1}^{4}-4\left(a_{1}^{2} a_{2}-c_{1}^{2} c_{2}\right)+2\left(a_{2}^{2}-c_{2}^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

These are obtained from the Hirzebruch polynomials, indicated in [2, pp. 18-19].

Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha=a_{1}-c_{1} \\
& \beta=a_{1}+c_{1} \\
& \gamma=a_{2}-c_{2} \\
& \delta=a_{2}+c_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{align*}
k+2 & =\alpha  \tag{4}\\
& =\alpha \beta-2 \gamma  \tag{5}\\
& =\alpha \frac{\alpha^{2}+3 \beta^{2}}{4}-\frac{3(\alpha \delta+\beta \gamma)}{2} . \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

If $l \geqslant 4$, then (4), (5) and (6) must have integer solutions. These imply

$$
\begin{align*}
& 2 \gamma=\alpha(\beta-1)  \tag{7}\\
& 6 \delta=\alpha^{2}+3 \beta-4 \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

From (8) we have no integer solution if $\alpha \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. Therefore $k+2 \equiv 0(\bmod 3) \Rightarrow l \leqslant 3$, and since $l(k, k+2, k+2) \geqslant 3$ for all $k$, we have proved (1).

When $(k+2) \not \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$, there are integer solutions, and so no more is available here.

If $l \geqslant 5$, then in addition to (4), (5), and (6) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
k+2=\frac{\alpha \beta}{2}\left(\alpha^{2}+\beta^{2}\right)-\left(\alpha^{2}+\beta^{2}\right) \gamma-2 \alpha \beta \gamma+2 \gamma \delta \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

These now imply

$$
\alpha^{2}(2-\beta)=2-\beta
$$

and because $\alpha=k+2 \neq 0$, we have

$$
\beta=2
$$

Then $\alpha=2 \gamma$ and $3 \delta=2 \gamma^{2}+1$. Since $k=\alpha-2$, it follows that $k \equiv 1$ $(\bmod 2)$ implies $l \leqslant 4$. Since $\delta$ is odd and $\delta+\gamma=2 a_{2}$ is even, we must have $\gamma$ odd also. Then $k$ is divisible by 4. Therefore

$$
k \not \equiv 0(\bmod 4) \Rightarrow l \leqslant 4,
$$

and (2) follows.
In order that $l \geqslant 5$ we must have $m$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
k & =4 m \\
\alpha & =2(2 m+1) \\
\beta & =2 \\
\gamma & =2 m+1 \\
3 \delta & =8 m^{2}+8 m+3
\end{aligned}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{1}=2(m+1) \\
& a_{2}=\frac{(m+1)(4 m+3)}{3} \\
& c_{1}=-2 m \\
& c_{2}=\frac{m(4 m+1)}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

For $a_{2}$ and $c_{2}$ to be integers we need $m(m+1) \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. When $m=3 n$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{1}=2(3 n+1) \\
& a_{2}=(3 n+1)(4 n+1) \\
& c_{1}=-6 n \\
& c_{2}=n(12 n+1)
\end{aligned}
$$

and when $m=3 n-1$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{1}=6 n \\
& a_{2}=n(12 n-1) \\
& c_{1}=-6 n+2 \\
& c_{2}=(3 n-1)(4 n-1)
\end{aligned}
$$

We apply the Schwartzenberger conditions (see [5, p. 113] or [3, p. 166]).
When $m=3 n$, we have $k=12 n$ and then the $s_{4}^{2}$-condition implies

$$
n(7 n+1) \equiv 0(\bmod 12)
$$

When $m=3 n-1, k=12 n-4$. Then we have

$$
n(5 n+1) \equiv 0(\bmod 12)
$$

In the first case

$$
n \equiv 0,5,8,9(\bmod 12)
$$

and in the second case

$$
n \equiv 0,3,4,7(\bmod 12)
$$

The first value of $k$ for which $l=5$ is possible is $n=3$, so that $k=32$.
Finally, we must deal with the two special cases $k=2$ and $k=8$. The matrix

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrrrrrr}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & A & B & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & A & B & 0 & C \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -A & B & 0 & C & D \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & A & B & 0 & C & D & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -A & 0 & 0 & C & -D & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & A & -B & 0 & 0 & D & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -A & -B & 0 & -C & -D & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
-A & -B & 0 & -C & D & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
-B & 0 & -C & -D & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -C & -D & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

is skew symmetric, has zero determinant and is of rank $\geqslant 8$ when any of $A$, $B, C$, or $D$ is nonzero. It therefore represents a 4 -dimensional ( 8,10 , 10)-space.

When $k=2$, in the notation of Sylvester, there is an $\eta$ satisfying (1), (2), and (3) (see [6, p. 2]), namely $\eta=1-2 \alpha+2 \alpha^{2}\left(\bmod \alpha^{4}\right)$. Here we have $\eta^{-1}=1+2 \alpha+2 \alpha^{2}\left(\bmod \alpha^{4}\right)$ and $(1+\alpha)^{4} \eta=1+2 \alpha\left(\bmod \alpha^{4}\right)$. However, there does not exist a 4 -dimensional (2,4,4)-space. This follows easily from Theorem 3A of [4], which states that such a space is either 2-decomposable or equivalent to a space of $3 \times 3$ matrices. In both cases the maximal dimension of the space is three.

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