FACTORIZATION OF CURVATURE OPERATORS

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ABSTRACT. Let V be a real finite-dimensional vector space with inner product and let R be a curvature operator, i.e., a symmetric linear map of the bivector space $\Lambda^2 V$ into itself. Necessary and sufficient conditions are given for R to admit factorization as $R = \Lambda^2 L$, with L a symmetric linear map of V into itself. This yields a new characterization of Riemannian manifolds that admit local isometric embedding as hypersurfaces of Euclidean space.

1. Introduction. A curvature operator is a symmetric linear map $R: \Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$, where V is a real n-dimensional vector space with inner product and $\Lambda^2 V$ is the associated $\binom{n}{2}$ -dimensional bivector space, supplied with the inner product induced from V. The problem solved in this paper is the following: to characterize those curvature operators $R: \Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$ that can be factored as $R = \Lambda^2 L$ for suitable symmetric linear maps $L: V \to V$.

This problem is closely related to the local embedding problem for Riemannian manifolds. Namely, if M^n is an abstract Riemannian manifold, one asks for the least integer p for which M^n is locally isometrically embeddable into Euclidean space E^{n+p} . It is known that $p \le \frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$ in the C^{∞} case, and that p depends on the curvature tensor of M^n . At each point of M^n , this tensor can be represented as a symmetric linear map $R: \Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$, where V is the tangent space, endowed with the inner product given by the metric tensor. If M^n is isometrically embeddable into E^{n+p} , then R must at each point admit factorization as a sum $R = \Lambda^2 L_1 + \cdots + \Lambda^2 L_p$ for some symmetric linear maps $L_i: V \to V$. In general, it is not known how to determine the minimum-length factorization of R. The purpose of this paper is to characterize those R which admit the shortest possible factorization, namely, p = 1.

For this case, the factorization is in fact equivalent to local embeddability into E^{n+1} . Namely, T. Y. Thomas has shown [8] that an abstract Riemannian manifold M^n with rank $R \ge 6$ admits local isometric embedding into E^{n+1} if and only if R can be factored as $R = \Lambda^2 L$ at each point. Hence, the main result of the present paper provides necessary and sufficient conditions for local isometric embedding into E^{n+1} when curvature has rank ≥ 6 .

The p=1 local embedding problem has been considered before by several authors, each working with quite different methods. Namely, T. Y. Thomas [8] obtained a solution by algebraic means, involving certain 3×3 determinants in the

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matrix components of R. Rozenson [7] noted that the determinants in Thomas' solution were not coordinate-invariant; she obtained some rather complicated tensor expressions involving R, and gave a solution in terms of these tensors. Yanenko [11] gave essentially the same solution as Thomas, although he worked with differential 2-forms rather than just the matrix components of R.

The methods of this paper are different. The solution given here involves the properties of R in relation both to the vector space structure and to the exterior product structure of the space $\Lambda^2 V$. In fact, the principal condition on R is that it must preserve the decomposability of bivectors. It is hoped that the methods used here will be useful also for studying the $p \ge 2$ case.

The main result of the paper is Theorem 7.8, contained in §7 below.

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2. Plan of work. Let $R: \Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$ be a curvature operator. Our problem is to find conditions on R that permit R to be factored as $R = \Lambda^2 L$, for a suitable linear map $L: V \to V$. This problem was solved in [9] for the case of nonsingular R, by means of a two-stage procedure. Namely, R was first factored as $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ and then the minus sign was removed. The results obtained in [9] can be applied to the case of an R with nontrivial kernel as follows.

Since R is symmetric, the vector space $\Lambda^2 V$ admits the orthogonal decomposition $\Lambda^2 V = \ker R + \operatorname{im} R$, and R splits into the sum $R = R_0 + R_1$, where R_1 : $\operatorname{im} R \to \operatorname{im} R$ is a nonsingular linear map, and R_0 : $\ker R \to \operatorname{im} R$ is identically zero. If it happens that the subspace $\operatorname{im} R$ of $\Lambda^2 V$ is of the form $\Lambda^2 U$ for some subspace U of V, then the first result of [9] (cf. Proposition 7.1 below) can be used to factor the map R_1 as $R_1 = \pm \Lambda^2 L_1$, for a suitable linear map L_1 : $U \to U$. The full factorization $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ is then obtained by setting $L = L_0 + L_1$, where L_0 : $V \to U$ is the zero map. Finally, the minus sign can be removed by the same technique as in [9].

Therefore, the first task in this paper is to find conditions on R that allow its image to be factored as im $R = \Lambda^2 U$, for a suitable subspace U of V.

We assume the elements of multilinear algebra (cf. [6], [10], and [4] especially for inner products).

3. Decomposability preserving maps and the subspace U. A linear map R: $\Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$ is said to preserve decomposability if each nonzero decomposable bivector either has a nonzero decomposable image or gets mapped to zero. Since we include zero in the set G of decomposable bivectors, this happens precisely when $R(G) \subset G$.

Preservation of decomposability is the main condition on R which is needed to factor the image of R as im $R = \Lambda^2 U$. In this section we give some equivalent formulations and general consequences of this condition, and we also define the subspace $U \subset V$. The proofs are omitted, since they are straightforward. We remind the reader that decomposable bivectors α , β are called *adjacent* if $\alpha\beta = 0$.

PROPOSITION 3.1. (i) If R preserves decomposability, then it also preserves adjacence.

- (ii) R preserves decomposability if and only if $R(x_1x_2)R(x_3x_4) = -R(x_1x_3)R(x_2x_4)$ for all $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 \in V$.
- (iii) R preserves decomposability if and only if there exists a well-defined linear map $\Lambda^2 R: \Lambda^4 V \to \Lambda^4 V$ satisfying the equation $\Lambda^2 R(\alpha \beta) = R \alpha R \beta$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in \Lambda^2 V$.
- (iv) If R preserves decomposability and is symmetric, then for all α , $\beta \in \text{im } R$, $\alpha\beta = 0$ if and only if $R\alpha R\beta = 0$.

DEFINITION 3.2. Let $U \subset V$ be the subspace spanned by all planes $\{\omega\}$ belonging to decomposable bivectors $\omega \in \text{im } R$.

PROPOSITION 3.3. (i) If im R is spanned by decomposable bivectors $\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_N$, then U is spanned by the planes $\{\omega_1\}, \ldots, \{\omega_N\}$ of V, and im $R \subset \Lambda^2 U$.

(ii) If R preserves decomposability, then im $R \subset \Lambda^2 U$.

Definition 3.2 is suitable for defining U only when R preserves decomposability. We shall indicate some more general definitions for U, since these permit dim U to be related to other known numerical invariants of R. Define the absolute nullspace of a curvature operator R to be the subspace N in V consisting of all vectors x such that Rxy = 0 for all y in V; define its "rank" subspace to be the smallest subspace W in V such that im $R \subset \Lambda^2 W$. Then dim N is called the nullity index of R (cf. [5, p. 347]), and dim W is called the "rank" of R (cf. [11, §9 on p. 34 and §4 on p. 76]). The codimension of N is called the conullity or type of R. Clearly, it can also be described as the rank of the linear mapping $F: V \to \operatorname{Hom}(V, \Lambda^2 V)$, where F(x)y = Rxy (cf. [8, p. 186]).

PROPOSITION 3.4. (i) $W = N^{\perp}$; hence "rank" R = type R.

- (ii) If R preserves decomposability, then $U = W = N^{\perp}$; hence dim U = type R.
- (iii) If $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ for some linear map $L: V \to V$, then U = im L; hence dim U = type R = rank L.
- **4. Factoring** im R when $\Lambda^2 R \neq 0$. Henceforth we assume R is a decomposability-preserving curvature operator. In this section we obtain the factorization im $R = \Lambda^2 U$ for the case $\Lambda^2 R \neq 0$.

Any pair of decomposable bivectors α_1 , α_2 with $\alpha_1\alpha_2 \neq 0$ can be written as $\alpha_1 = a_1a_2$, $\alpha_2 = a_3a_4$, where a_1 , a_2 , a_3 , a_4 are independent. If we suppose that $R\alpha_1R\alpha_2 \neq 0$, then we can similarly write $R\alpha_1 = b_1b_2$, $R\alpha_2 = b_3b_4$, where b_1 , b_2 , b_3 , b_4 are independent.

LEMMA 4.1. We may assume that

$$Ra_{1}a_{2} = b_{1}b_{2}, Ra_{1}a_{3} = b_{1}b_{3},$$

$$Ra_{2}a_{3} \atop Ra_{1}a_{4} = b_{2}b_{4}, Ra_{3}a_{4} = b_{3}b_{4}.$$

$$Ra_{2}a_{4} = b_{2}b_{4}, Ra_{3}a_{4} = b_{3}b_{4}.$$

$$(both + or -),$$

PROOF. Consider the planes $\{Ra_ia_j\}$ in U. Define vectors b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4 by the conditions

$$\{Ra_1a_2\} \cap \{Ra_1a_3\} = \{b_1\}, \qquad \{Ra_1a_2\} \cap \{Ra_2a_4\} = \{b_2\},$$

 $\{Ra_1a_3\} \cap \{Ra_3a_4\} = \{b_3\}, \qquad \{Ra_2a_4\} \cap \{Ra_3a_4\} = \{b_4\}.$

Then these b_i are independent and $Ra_1a_2 = x_1b_1b_2$, $Ra_3a_4 = x_2b_3b_4$, $Ra_1a_3 = x_3b_1b_3$, $Ra_2a_4 = x_4b_2b_4$, where x_i are nonzero scalars. Put $b'_1 = x_3b_1$, $b'_2 = x_1b_2/x_3$, $b'_3 = b_3$, $b'_4 = x_2b_4$; then $Ra_1a_2 = b'_1b'_2$, $Ra_3a_4 = b'_3b'_4$, and $Ra_2a_4 = yb'_2b'_4$. But now Proposition 3.1(ii) implies that $b'_1b'_2b'_3b'_4 = -yb'_1b'_3b'_2b'_4$, whence y = 1. Dropping the primes, we have the first two and the last two of the desired equations.

To get the remaining equations, set $\alpha = Ra_1a_4$, $\beta = Ra_2a_3$. Then Proposition 3.1(ii) implies $\alpha\beta = b_1b_2b_3b_4$, which in turn implies α , $\beta \in \Lambda^2\{b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4\}$. Moreover, since α , β are both adjacent to the four bivectors b_1b_2 , b_1b_3 , b_2b_4 and b_3b_4 , we must have

$$\alpha = xb_2b_3 + yb_1b_4$$
 and $\beta = zb_2b_3 + wb_1b_4$

where x, y, z and w are scalars. Since $\alpha\alpha = 0$ and $\beta\beta = 0$, and $\alpha\beta = b_1b_2b_3b_4$, it follows that xy = 0, zw = 0 and xw + yz = 1. This implies that either x = 0, w = 0, yz = 1, or y = 0, z = 0, xw = 1. Therefore, these two cases hold.

Case (i).
$$\alpha = zb_1b_4$$
, $\beta = z^{-1}b_2b_3$ or Case (ii). $\alpha = zb_2b_3$, $\beta = z^{-1}b_1b_4$.

For Case (i), set $b_1' = |z|^{1/2}b_1$, $b_2' = |z|^{-1/2}b_2$, $b_3' = |z|^{-1/2}b_3$, $b_4' = |z|^{1/2}b_4$. Then $b_1'b_2' = b_1b_2$, $b_1'b_3' = b_1b_3$, $b_2'b_4' = b_2b_4$, $b_3'b_4' = b_3b_4$. However, $b_2'b_3' = |z|^{-1}b_2b_3 = \pm z^{-1}b_2b_3 = \pm Ra_2a_3$, and $b_1'b_4' = |z|b_1b_4 = \pm \alpha = \pm Ra_1a_4$, where both signs are + when z > 0 and both are - when z < 0.

For Case (ii) set $b_1' = |z|^{-1/2}b_1$, $b_2' = |z|^{1/2}b_2$, $b_3' = |z|^{1/2}b_3$, $b_4' = |z|^{-1/2}b_4$. Then $b_1'b_2' = b_1b_2$, $b_1'b_3' = b_1b_3$, $b_2'b_4' = b_2b_4$ and $b_3'b_4' = b_3b_4$. However, $b_2'b_3' = |z|b_2b_3 = \pm zb_2b_3 = \pm Ra_1a_4$, and $b_1'b_4' = |z|^{-1}b_1b_4 = \pm z^{-1}b_1b_4 = \pm \beta = \pm Ra_2a_3$, with the same type of sign. Q.E.D.

LEMMA 4.2. Let ω_1 and ω_2 be decomposable bivectors in im R, such that $\omega_1\omega_2 \neq 0$. Then the 4-dimensional subspace $U_1 = \{\omega_1\} + \{\omega_2\}$ of V has the property that $\Lambda^2U_1 \subset \operatorname{im} R$.

PROOF. Let $\omega_1 = R\alpha_1$ and $\omega_2 = R\alpha_2$. By the orthogonal decomposition of $\Lambda^2 V$ given in §2, it may be assumed that α_1 and α_2 are in im R. But then Proposition 3.1(iv) implies that both α_1 and α_2 are decomposable and that $\alpha_1\alpha_2 \neq 0$. Hence α_1 , α_2 can be expressed as $\alpha_1 = a_1a_2$, $\alpha_2 = a_3a_4$. Let $\omega_1 = b_1b_2$ and $\omega_2 = b_3b_4$. Then $\{b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4\} + \{b_1b_2\} = \{b_3b_4\} = \{\omega_1\} + \{\omega_2\} = U_1$. Now Lemma 4.1 implies that each of the bivectors b_1b_2, \ldots, b_3b_4 in the basis of $\Lambda^2 U_1$ is an image by R of a bivector in $\Lambda^2 V$; hence $\Lambda^2 U_1$ must be contained in im R. Q.E.D.

PROPOSITION 4.3. If $R: \Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$ is a curvature operator which preserves decomposability, and if $\Lambda^2 R \not\equiv 0$, then im $R = \Lambda^2 U$. Moreover, dim U > 4 and rank R > 6.

PROOF. Let U be defined by Definition 3.2. Then by Proposition 3.3(ii), im $R \subset \Lambda^2 U$, and it suffices to prove that $\Lambda^2 R \not\equiv 0$ implies $\Lambda^2 U \subset \operatorname{im} R$. To establish this inclusion, it is enough to show that each decomposable bivector of $\Lambda^2 U$ is in im R, i.e., that $x, y \in U$ implies $xy \in \operatorname{im} R$.

Let $x, y \in U$. By definition of U, there exist decomposable bivectors $\omega_1, \omega_2 \in \operatorname{im} R$ such that $x \in \{\omega_1\}, y \in \{\omega_2\}$.

If $\omega_1\omega_2 \neq 0$, then Lemma 4.2 implies that $\Lambda^2U_1 \subset \operatorname{im} R$, where $U_1 = \{\omega_1\} + \{\omega_2\}$. But both x and y are in U_1 , so that xy is in Λ^2U_1 ; hence $xy \in \operatorname{im} R$.

If $\omega_1\omega_2=0$, then we have $\omega_1=xz$, $\omega_2=zy$ for a suitable vector z, and we may assume x,y,z independent. In this case Lemma 4.2 cannot be applied directly, so an auxiliary subspace must be used from which to get decomposable vectors of im R that are not adjacent to ω_1 or ω_2 . For this purpose, let e_1,\ldots,e_n be a basis of V. Then Proposition 3.1(iii) implies that if $\Lambda^2R \not\equiv 0$ then not all $Re_ie_jRe_ke_l$ with i < j < k < l can vanish. By relabeling the basis, it may be assumed that $Re_1e_2Re_3e_4 \neq 0$. Then Lemma 4.2 implies that $\Lambda^2U_0 \subset \operatorname{im} R$, where $U_0 = \{Re_1e_2\} + \{Re_3e_4\}$. Let us consider the relative positions of the 4-dimensional space U_0 and the 3-dimensional space $W_0 = \{\omega_1\} + \{\omega_2\} = \{x,y,z\}$.

If $W_0 \subset U_0$, then $x, y \in U_0$, so $xy \in \Lambda^2 U_0$, whence $xy \in \operatorname{im} R$, and we are done. On the other hand, if $W_0 \downarrow U_0$, then $U_0 \cap W_0$ has dimension ≤ 2 . Hence $(U_0 \cap W_0)^{\perp} \cap U_0$ has dimension ≥ 2 and therefore contains a pair of independent vectors v_1, v_2 . Setting $\omega_3 = v_1 v_2$, we have $\omega_3 \in \operatorname{im} R$, $\omega_2 \omega_3 \neq 0$ and z, y, v_1, v_2 independent. Now we can apply Lemma 4.2 to ω_2 , ω_3 to conclude $\Lambda^2 U_1 \subset \operatorname{im} R$, where $U_1 = \{\omega_2\} + \{\omega_3\}$.

If $\{\omega_1\} \subset U_1$, then $x, y \in U_1$, whence $xy \in \operatorname{im} R$, and we are done. If $\{\omega_1\} \subset U_1$, put $\omega_4 = yv_2$; then $\omega_1\omega_4 \neq 0$, because $\omega_1\omega_4 = 0$ would imply $\{\omega_1\} \subset U_1$. We again apply Lemma 4.2 to ω_1 , ω_4 , to conclude $\Lambda^2U_2 \subset \operatorname{im} R$, where $U_2 = \{\omega_1\} + \{\omega_4\} = \{x, y, z, v_2\}$. Thus $xy \in \operatorname{im} R$. Q.E.D.

5. Correlations. The special case $\Lambda^2 R \neq 0$, rank R = 6 presents an anomalous feature—the possibility of R being a correlation—which must be excluded later. Therefore we include here a discussion of this case.

It follows from Proposition 4.3 that im $R = \Lambda^2 U$ and dim U = 4. Hence the nonsingular map $R \mid \text{im } R: \Lambda^2 U \to \Lambda^2 U$ satisfies the equations of Lemma 4.1, where a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4 and b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4 are now two bases of U. If $Ra_2a_3 = \pm b_2b_3$ and $Ra_1a_4 = \pm b_1b_4$, R is called a *collineation*, whereas if $Ra_2a_3 = \pm b_1b_4$ and $Ra_1a_4 = \pm b_2b_3$, R is a *correlation*.

If our R has the form $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$, then clearly it is a collineation. Hence for the case $\Lambda^2 R \neq 0$, rank R = 6, the condition that R is not a correlation is necessary for R to admit factorization as $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$.

The following three results give criteria for deciding whether R is a collineation or a correlation.

PROPOSITION 5.1. Let $R: \Lambda^2V \to \Lambda^2V$ be a decomposability-preserving curvature operator having rank 6. Let e_1, \ldots, e_n be a basis of V such that e_1, \ldots, e_4 is a basis of V. If $Re_1e_2 = b_1b_2$, $Re_1e_3 = b_1b_3$, $Re_2e_3 = \pm b_2b_3$, then R is a collineation,

whereas if $Re_2e_3 = \pm b_1b_4$, then R is a correlation. (The vectors b_1, \ldots, b_4 are a suitable independent set in U.)

PROOF. Clear.

PROPOSITION 5.2. R is a collineation or a correlation according to whether $\{Ra_1a_2\}$ + $\{Ra_1a_3\}$ + $\{Ra_2a_3\}$ is a 3- or 4-dimensional subspace of V, respectively, where a_1, a_2, a_3 is an arbitrary independent set in V.

PROOF. Consider the mapping of planes of V into planes of V defined by $\{xy\} \rightarrow \{Rxy\}$. If R is a collineation, then the set of planes containing a given line gets mapped onto a set of planes that also contain a common line, and the set of planes contained in a given 3-space gets mapped onto a set of the same type. But if R is a correlation, these types of sets of planes get reversed (cf. [3, p. 107]). Q.E.D.

PROPOSITION 5.3. Let $R: \Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$ be a decomposability-preserving curvature operator having rank 6. Let e_1, \ldots, e_n be a basis of V such that e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4 is a basis of U, and let R_{kl}^{ij} be the matrix of R with respect to the basis $e_i e_j$, i < j, of $\Lambda^2 V$. Then R is a collineation if and only if the following matrix has rank 4.

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_{12}^{23} & -R_{12}^{13} & R_{12}^{12} & 0 \\ R_{12}^{24} & -R_{12}^{14} & 0 & R_{12}^{12} \\ R_{13}^{23} & -R_{13}^{13} & R_{13}^{12} & 0 \\ R_{13}^{24} & -R_{13}^{14} & 0 & R_{13}^{12} \\ R_{23}^{23} & -R_{23}^{13} & R_{23}^{12} & 0 \\ R_{23}^{24} & -R_{23}^{14} & 0 & R_{23}^{12} \end{bmatrix}$$

PROOF. For a decomposable bivector α in $\Lambda^2 U$ the plane $\{\alpha\}$ spanned by it in V is given by

$$\{\alpha\} = \{x | \alpha x = 0\} = \{x | x^i \alpha^{jk} - x^j \alpha^{ik} + x^k \alpha^{ij} = 0 \text{ for } 1 \le i < j < k \le 4\},$$
where $\alpha = \sum_i \alpha^{ij} e^i e^j$ with $1 \le i \le i \le 4$. Since α is decomposable $\alpha \alpha = 0$, where $\alpha = 1$ is decomposable $\alpha = 1$.

where $\alpha = \sum \alpha^{ij} e_i e_j$ with $1 \le i < j \le 4$. Since α is decomposable, $\alpha \alpha = 0$, which gives $\alpha^{12} \alpha^{34} - \alpha^{13} \alpha^{24} + \alpha^{14} \alpha^{23} = 0$. From this equation it can be seen that the four equations describing $\{\alpha\}$ are dependent, and that those two with indices i, j, k equal to 1, 2, 3 and 1, 2, 4 are independent. Hence, as a subset of \mathbb{R}^4 , $\{\alpha\}$ is the nullspace of the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha^{23} & -\alpha^{13} & \alpha^{12} & 0 \\ \alpha^{24} & -\alpha^{14} & 0 & \alpha^{12} \end{pmatrix}.$$

If $\alpha = Re_1e_2$, then the corresponding matrix is given by the first two rows of the 6×4 matrix in the statement of this proposition; its nullspace is precisely $\{Re_1e_2\}$, considered as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^4 . The next two pairs of rows of that matrix correspond to $\{Re_1e_3\}$ and $\{Re_2e_3\}$. Therefore, the nullspace of the whole 6×4 matrix corresponds to the space $\{Re_1e_2\} \cap \{Re_1e_3\} \cap \{Re_2e_3\}$. Now R is a collineation if and only if this space is $\{0\}$, which occurs exactly when the 6×4 matrix has maximal rank. Q.E.D.

6. The case $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$. It is easy to see from Proposition 3.1 that $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$ if and only if $R(x_1x_2)R(x_3x_4)=0$ for all x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 in V. This is a rather severe restriction on R; as a consequence, we can perform the factorings im $R = \Lambda^2 U$ and $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ both at the same time.

PROPOSITION 6.1. Let $R: \Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$ be a curvature operator which preserves decomposability and satisfies $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$. Then $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ for a suitable linear map $L: V \to V$ if and only if rank R = 0 or 1, or rank R =type R = 3. Moreover, in case rank R = 0 or 1, the + sign may be assumed to hold, with L symmetric.

PROOF. Let a_1, \ldots, a_k be a basis of U, with U as in Definition 3.2. Since R preserves decomposability, Proposition 3.3 states that im $R \subset \Lambda^2 U$. Hence R restricts to a linear map $\Lambda^2 U \to \Lambda^2 U$ which still has the same set as image. Therefore the bivectors Ra_ia_j for $1 \le i < j \le k$ span im R, and $U = \sum \{Ra_ia_j\}$ accordingly. Since $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$, all the nonzero bivectors among these Ra_ia_j must be adjacent to each other, so that all the corresponding planes $\{Ra_ia_j\}$ have 1-dimensional intersections. But then the result of [1, p. 16] implies that either (i) all of them contain one 1-dimensional subspace of V or (ii) they are all contained in one 3-dimensional subspace of V.

In case (i), $Ra_ia_j = b_1b_{ij}$ for all $1 \le i < j \le k$, where b_1 is a fixed vector in U, and b_{ij} is taken equal to b_1 when $Ra_ia_j = 0$. By definition, U is spanned by the planes $\{Ra_ia_j\} = \{b_1, b_{ij}\}$ corresponding to the nonzero Ra_ia_j . This means that these vectors $b_1, \ldots, b_{ij}, \ldots$ span U, which implies that k of them are independent, including b_1 . Denote these vectors by b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k ; they are a basis of U, and consequently the k-1 bivectors b_1b_2, \ldots, b_1b_k are a basis of im R. Therefore R has rank k-1.

In case (ii), all the planes $\{Ra_ia_j\}$ lie in one 3-dimensional subspace of V, whence U has dimension $k \leq 3$.

Now suppose $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ for some linear map $L: V \to V$. It follows from Proposition 3.4 that $U = \operatorname{im} L$ and $\Lambda^2 U = \operatorname{im} R$. This implies that rank $R = \dim \Lambda^2 U = \binom{k}{2}$. In Case (i), this means $\binom{k}{2} = k - 1$, which implies k = 1 or 2, so that rank R = 0 or 1. In Case (ii), $k \leq 3$, i.e., k = 0, 1, 2 or 3. Therefore, rank $R = \binom{k}{2} = 0$, 1, or 3. Hence $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ implies the rank and dimension conditions in the proposition, noting that by Proposition 3.4(ii), dim $U = \operatorname{type} R$.

To prove the converse, start with rank R = 0. Then $R \equiv 0$, so $R = \Lambda^2 L$ for $L \equiv 0$. Next, suppose rank R = 1. This implies that $Re_i e_j \neq 0$ for some i < j, where e_1, \ldots, e_n is any basis of V. This nonzero $Re_i e_j$ must be decomposable, since R preserves decomposability; it also must span im R. Let v_1, v_2 be an orthonormal basis of the corresponding plane $\{Re_i e_j\}$. Therefore $v_1 v_2$ also spans im R; in fact, im $R = \Lambda^2 U$, where $U = \{v_1, v_2\}$. Since $R \mid \text{im } R$ is nonsingular, there is a scalar $c \neq 0$ such that $Rv_1v_2 = cv_1v_2$. Extend v_1, v_2 to an orthonormal basis $v_1, v_2, v_3, \ldots, v_n$ of V; then $v_1v_2, v_1v_3, \ldots, v_{n-1}v_n$ is an orthonormal basis of $\Lambda^2 V$. Since R is symmetric, $\Lambda^2 V$ splits into the orthogonal sum $\Lambda^2 V = \ker R + \operatorname{im } R$. This implies that $v_1v_3, \ldots, v_{n-1}v_n$ is a basis of $\ker R$, so that $Rv_iv_j = 0$ when

 $(i, j) \neq (1, 2)$. Now set $Lv_1 = cv_1$, $Lv_2 = v_2$, $Lv_i = 0$ for $3 \le i$. Then $R = \Lambda^2 L$. Note that L is symmetric, and that rank R = 1 implies $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$.

Finally, suppose that rank R = type R = 3, i.e., dim U = 3. By the first part of this proof, three of the bivectors Ra_ia_j for $1 \le i < j \le k$, are independent and their planes span U. Now either Case (i) or Case (ii) holds.

In Case (i), it was shown above that U has a basis b_1, \ldots, b_k and that the bivectors b_1b_2, \ldots, b_1b_k are a basis of im R. Since rank R = 3, this basis contains exactly 3 bivectors, which implies k = 4. But this contradicts the hypothesis that dim U = 3, which rules out this case.

In Case (ii), the planes $\{Ra_ia_j\}$ are all contained in a 3-dimensional subspace of V, which implies dim $U \le 3$, so that also dim $\Lambda^2 U \le 3$. Since by Proposition 3.3 im $R \subset \Lambda^2 U$ and, by hypothesis, rank R = 3, we have im $R = \Lambda^3 U$ and dim U = 3. Let v_1, v_2, v_3 be an orthonormal basis of U. Then v_1v_2, v_1v_3, v_2v_3 is an orthonormal basis of $\Lambda^2 U = \text{im } R$ and the planes $\{Rv_1v_2\}, \{Rv_1v_3\}, \{Rv_2v_3\}$ span U.

Consequently, these planes intersect each other in three distinct lines $\{b_1\}$, $\{b_2\}$, $\{b_3\}$, where the vectors b_1 , b_2 , b_3 can be chosen so that $Rv_1v_2 = b_1b_2$, $Rv_1v_3 = b_1b_3$, $Rv_2v_3 = cb_2b_3$, with c a nonzero scalar. It is not hard to see that the lengths and directions of the vectors b_1 , b_2 , b_3 can be adjusted to get $Rv_1v_2 = b_1b_2$, $Rv_1v_3 = b_1b_3$, $Rv_2v_3 = \pm b_2b_3$. Now extend the basis v_1 , v_2 , v_3 to an orthonormal basis v_1 , v_2 , v_3 , v_4 , ..., v_n of V. Then v_1v_2 , v_1v_3 v_1v_4 , ..., $v_{n-1}v_n$ is an orthonormal basis of Λ^2V . Just as in the case of rank R = 1 above, it follows from the symmetry of R that $Rv_iv_i = 0$ when (i, j) is not one of the pairs (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3).

Set $Lv_1 = \pm b_1$, $Lv_2 = b_2$, $Lv_3 = b_3$ and $Lv_i = 0$ for $4 \le i$. Then $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$. Q.E.D.

7. The main factorization theorems. Here we bring together the results of the previous sections to obtain first $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ and then $R = \Lambda^2 L$. As indicated in §2, we shall use the results of [9] in a formulation extended to include the case dim V = 4.

PROPOSITION 7.1. A nonsingular curvature operator $R: \Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$, with dim $V \geqslant 4$, can be factored as $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$, for a suitable linear map $L: V \to V$, if and only if R preserves decomposability and is not a correlation in the case dim V = 4.

PROOF. This is just [9, Theorem 1], extended to include dim V = 4 (cf. [2, p. 38]). By Proposition 5.1, maps of form $R = \pm \Lambda^{T}L$ are collineations, not correlations. Q.E.D.

Define two scalar invariants of R as follows (cf. [9, p. 201]). Set

$$\phi(R) = R_{kl}^{ij} R_{iq}^{kp} R_{jp}^{lq}, \qquad \psi(R) = R_{kl}^{ij} R_{pq}^{kl} R_{ij}^{pq},$$

where summation is understood over repeated indices, and R_{kl}^{ij} is the matrix of R with respect to any basis $e_i e_j$, i < j, corresponding to a basis e_1, \ldots, e_n of V.

PROPOSITION 7.2 [9, THEOREM 3]. Suppose R is a nonsingular curvature operator such that $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ for a symmetric linear map L: $V \to V$, with dim $V \ge 3$. Then $R = \Lambda^2 L$ if and only if $\phi(R) + \frac{1}{4}\psi(R) > 0$. Moreover, in case $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, this inequality may be replaced by det R > 0.

THEOREM 7.3. Let $R: \Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$ be a curvature operator. Then $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ for some linear map $L: V \to V$ if and only if R preserves decomposability and satisfies one of the following additional conditions.

- (i) $\Lambda^2 R \neq 0$ and R is not a correlation in case rank R = 6.
- (ii) $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$ and either rank R = 0 or 1, or rank R = type R = 3.

PROOF. Suppose $\Lambda^2 R \not\equiv 0$. If R preserves decomposability, then by Proposition 4.3, rank $R \geqslant 6$ and im $R = \Lambda^2 U$, with dim $U \geqslant 4$. If R is nonsingular, then U = V. If R is not a correlation, then $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ follows from Proposition 7.1. If R is singular, then by §2, $R_1 = R | \text{im } R: \Lambda^2 U \to \Lambda^2 U$ is a nonsingular symmetric linear map. By Proposition 7.1, it factors as $R_1 = \pm \Lambda^2 L_1$, provided R_1 is not a correlation (note that R is a correlation if and only if R_1 is one). Therefore §2 gives $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$, for a linear $L: V \to V$. Thus if R preserves decomposability and satisfies (i), then $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$.

Suppose now that $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$ and let R preserve decomposability. Then Proposition 6.1 shows that (ii) implies $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$.

Conversely, assume $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$; clearly R preserves decomposability. If $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$, then Proposition 6.1 implies statement (ii). If $\Lambda^2 R \not\equiv 0$ and rank R = 6, then Proposition 5.1 implies that R is not a correlation. Q.E.D.

COROLLARY 7.4. If $R: \Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$ is a curvature operator that preserves decomposability and has rank > 6, then it admits factorization as $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ if and only if $\Lambda^2 R \not\equiv 0$.

In order to state the next theorem, we recall the Bianchi identity of Riemannian geometry. R is said to satisfy the Bianchi identity if

$$\langle Rx_1x_2, x_3x_4\rangle + \langle Rx_2x_3, x_1x_4\rangle + \langle Rx_3x_1, x_2x_4\rangle = 0$$

for all x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 in V.

THEOREM 7.5. Suppose R is a curvature operator such that $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ for a linear map L: $V \to V$ with rank $L \geqslant 3$. Then L is symmetric if and only if R satisfies the Bianchi identity.

PROOF. Substituting $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ into the left side of the Bianchi identity gives

$$\langle Lx_3, x_4 \rangle (\langle Lx_2, x_1 \rangle - \langle Lx_1, x_2 \rangle) + \langle Lx_2, x_4 \rangle (\langle Lx_1, x_3 \rangle - \langle Lx_3, x_1 \rangle) + \langle Lx_1, x_4 \rangle (\langle Lx_3, x_2 \rangle - \langle Lx_2, x_3 \rangle).$$

If L is symmetric, this clearly reduces to zero. Conversely, if the Bianchi identity holds, this expression is identically zero. Consider any two vectors x_1 , x_2 . It was observed in the proof of Proposition 6.1 that $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ implies U = im L and $\Lambda^2 U = \text{im } R$. Hence, rank $R = \binom{k}{2}$, where $k = \dim U$. Consequently, the hypothesis, rank $L \ge 3$, implies that dim $U \ge 3$. Therefore the vectors Lx_1 , Lx_2 are in U

and do not span all of U. Hence there exists a nonzero vector $x_4 \in U$ such that $x_4 \perp$ both Lx_1 and Lx_2 . This gives the equation

$$\langle Lx_3, x_4 \rangle (\langle Lx_2, x_1 \rangle - \langle Lx_1, x_2 \rangle) = 0.$$

Now the map $L_1^{-1} = (L|U)^{-1}$: $U \to U$ is well defined. Set $x_3 = L_1^{-1}x_4$; then $Lx_3 = L_1x_3 = x_4$ and consequently $\langle Lx_3, x_4 \rangle = \langle x_4, x_4 \rangle \neq 0$, since x_4 was chosen nonzero. Therefore, the term in parentheses in the above equation vanishes, whence L is symmetric. Q.E.D.

THEOREM 7.6. Suppose R is a curvature operator such that $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ for a symmetric linear map L: $V \to V$ having rank $L \ge 3$. Then $R = \Lambda^2 L$ if and only if $\phi(R) + \frac{1}{4}\psi(R) > 0$. Moreover, in case $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, this inequality may be replaced by $\det(R \mid \text{im } R) > 0$.

PROOF. Since $L: V \to V$ is a symmetric linear map, V splits into the orthogonal sum $V = \ker L + \operatorname{im} L$, and $U = \operatorname{im} L$. Then each $x \in V$ can be written as $x = x_0 + x_1$ with $x_0 \in \ker L$ and $x_1 \in U$. Note $Lx = Lx_1 = L_1x_1$ where $L_1 = L \mid U: U \to U$ is a nonsingular symmetric linear map. This implies

$$Rxy = \pm LxLy = \pm L_1x_1L_1y_1 = \pm \Lambda^2L_1(x_1y_1).$$

As noted in §2 the space $\Lambda^2 V$ can be written as $\Lambda^2 V = \ker R + \operatorname{im} R$, with $\Lambda^2 U = \operatorname{im} R$ here. Then $xy = (x_0 + x_1)(y_0 + y_1) = x_0y_0 + x_0y_1 + x_1y_0 + x_1y_1 = (xy)_0 + (xy)_1$ and $(xy)_1 = x_1y_1$. Hence $Rxy = R(xy)_1 = R_1x_1y_1$, where $R_1 = R | \Lambda^2 U$ is a nonsingular symmetric linear map.

It follows from the above two equations for Rxy that $R = \Lambda^2 L$ if and only if $R_1 = \Lambda^2 L_1$.

Let e_1, \ldots, e_n be a basis of V such that e_1, \ldots, e_k is a basis of $U = \operatorname{im} L$ and e_{k+1}, \ldots, e_n is a basis of ker L. Then $Re_je_j = R_1(e_ie_j)$ for $1 \le i, j \le k$ and $Re_ie_p = Re_pe_q = 0$ for $k+1 \le p, q \le n$. It follows that $\phi(R) = \phi(R_1)$ and $\psi(R) = \psi(R_1)$, since all terms not involving only the matrix of R_1 must vanish. Therefore $\phi(R) + \frac{1}{4}\psi(R) = \phi(R_1) + \frac{1}{4}\psi(R_1)$, and the conclusion of the theorem follows from Proposition 7.2 applied to $R_1: \Lambda^2U \to \Lambda^2U$ and $L_1: U \to U$. Q.E.D.

REMARK. The sign in $\pm \Lambda^2 L$ actually determines two disjoint classes of maps. Namely, if L, $M: V \to V$ are symmetric linear maps of rank > 3, then $\Lambda^2 L \neq -\Lambda^2 M$. This follows from the remark in [9, top of p. 201], via the equation $\Lambda^2 L(xy) = \Lambda^2 L_1(x_1y_1)$ obtained in the proof of Theorem 7.6 above.

The following theorem is the main result of this paper.

THEOREM 7.7. A curvature operator $R: \Lambda^2 V \to \Lambda^2 V$ of rank > 1 can be factored as $R = \Lambda^2 L$, for a suitable symmetric linear map $L: V \to V$, if and only if it satisfies each of the following conditions.

- (i) R preserves decomposability.
- (ii) R satisfies the Bianchi identity.
- (iii) $\phi(R) + \frac{1}{4}\psi(R) > 0$. (If $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then $\det(R|\text{im }R) > 0$ may be substituted.)
- (iv) Either $\Lambda^2 R \not\equiv 0$ and R is not a correlation if rank R = 6 or $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$ and rank R = type R = 3.

In case rank $R \le 1$, the conditions (ii), (iii), and (iv) are deleted.

PROOF. For rank R > 1, see Theorems 7.3, 7.5, 7.6 and the subsequent Remark. For rank ≤ 1 , see Proposition 6.1 and its proof; in this case $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$. Q.E.D.

In conclusion, we make some observations about curvature operators not factorizable as $R = \Lambda^2 L$. First, if one is willing to concede condition (iii) above, then one should consider the factorization $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$. Second, if one wants R to preserve decomposability and have rank > 3, then Theorem 7.3 and Corollary 7.4 force $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$.

Example. Let e_1, \ldots, e_n be an othonormal basis of V and define (for i < j)

$$Re_i e_j = \begin{cases} e_1 e_j, & \text{if } i = 1, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Clearly $\Lambda^2 R \equiv 0$ and R preserves decomposability. Since rank R = n - 1, this R is not factorizable as $R = \pm \Lambda^2 L$ when n > 4. Note that U = V and that R satisfies the Bianchi identity.

The general nonfactorizable curvature operator does not preserve decomposability. If it satisfies the Bianchi identity, then it has the decomposition $R = \Lambda^2 L_1 + \cdots + \Lambda^2 L_p$ mentioned in §1 (cf. [4, p. 102]).

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