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ON THE HURWITZ PROBLEM OVER AN ARBITRARY FIELD II

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1. Introduction

This paper contains generalizations of some results presented in part I. Here, for an arbitrary field F of characteristic not two, the non-existence of normed maps $F^{4h+1} \times F^3 \to F^{4h+2}$ and $F^{4h+2} \times F^3 \to F^{4h+3}$ is proved. This extends to any h the particular results given in [1] only for h = 1. Observe that the similar generalization of (7.1) of [1] is not achieved and it is left as an open problem (see the remarks in the last section).

As shown before, the existence of a normed map $F^p \times F^q \to F^n$ is equivalent to having a set of q rectangular matrices of order $p \times n$ fulfilling certain conditions.

A first matrix of this set is characterized as the join of an identity matrix and a zero matrix. Then considering $F \subset K$, where K is an algebraically closed field, a second matrix is reduced to a special canonical form over K, for some values of (p, n). This is given in lemma (2.5) and the proof is a hard piece of work. It contains, however, significant simplifications regarding similar arguments already given in [1].

The proofs are completed in sections 3 and 4, where some very special arguments are used to establish the two above mentioned cases. In section 5 these results are used to determine the minimal n needed for the existence of a normed map for $1 \le q \le 3$ and any p.

All references here are made to [1] and to simplify the writing, in order to indicate a reference we will only use a square bracket without the 1. For instance, we will write [(6.1)] for [1; (6.1)].

2. Orthogonal equivalence of certain matrices

Let M be a rectangular $p \times n$ matrix over a field F of characteristic different from two. Assume that

$$MM^{t} = I_{p}$$

where M^t denotes the transpose of M and I_p is the identity matrix of order p. Also, assume that M decomposes into

$$(2.2) M = [A, B],$$

where $A^t = -A$, is an alternate matrix of order p, and B is a rectangular $p \times (n-p)$ matrix.

Let C be the alternate matrix of order two given by

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and define the following square matrices

(2.3)
$$U = \operatorname{diag}[C, \dots, C] \quad \text{and} \quad U_1 = \operatorname{diag}[0, U].$$

Then, U and U_1 are alternate matrices or order 2k and 2k + 1, respectively.

Now, consider

(2.4)
$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, D_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ D \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } D_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ D & D \end{bmatrix}$$

where D is a 2k-column of zeros and D, D_1 and D_2 as shown are regarded, respectively, as $2k \times 1$, $(2k + 1) \times 1$ and $(2k + 1) \times 2$ matrices.

Let K be a field containing the originally given field F, that is $K \supset F$. Recall that a $p \times n$ matrix M over F is said to be orthogonally equivalent over K to a $p \times n$ matrix N if there exist P and Q, two orthogonal matrices, respectively, of orders p and n, such that PMQ = N, where P, Q and N are considered as matrices over K. If the fields $K \supset F$ are clearly understood, then we will briefly write $M \sim N$ to indicate that M over F is orthogonally equivalent to N over K.

LEMMA (2.5). Let M = [A, B] be a $p \times n$ matrix over F fulfilling the conditions (2.1), (2.2), and suppose $K \supset F$ where K is an algebraically closed field. The following results hold:

(2.6)
$$if(p, n) = (2k, 2k + 1) then M \sim [U, D],$$

(2.7)
$$if(p, n) = (2k + 1, 2k + 2) then M \sim [U_1, D_1],$$

(2.8)
$$if(p, n) = (2k + 1, 2k + 3) then M \sim [U_1, D_2].$$

where U, U_1 , D, D_1 and D_2 are as in (2.3) and (2.4). Here the equivalence PMQ = N can be chosen so that $P[I_p, 0]Q = [I_p, 0]$. Hence, as in [(5.1)] it preserves the $p \times n$ matrix $[I_p, 0]$.

Proof. Clearly, M can be replaced by any matrix orthogonally equivalent (over K) to it. Since an equivalence of A can be extended to M [see (5.1)], it follows that A can be considered to have any of the possible canonical forms given in [(4.9)] for an alternate matrix. Hence,

(2.9)
$$A = \operatorname{diag}[W^{(d_1)}, \cdots, W^{(d_s)}; W_{a_1}^{(q_1,q_1)}, \cdots, W_{a_s}^{(q_r,q_r)}]$$

where $(\lambda - a_j)^{q_j}$, $(\lambda + a_j)^{q_j}$ and λ^{d_k} , with $j = 1, \dots, r$; $k = 1, \dots, s$ and each d_k an odd number, form a list of all the elementary divisors of A.

Since A is an alternate matrix its rank must be even. Also, from [(3.9)] it follows that rank $A \ge 2p - n$. Therefore,

$$(2.10) rank A = 2k,$$

if (p, n) is as in (2.6), (2.7) or (2.8).

In order to organize the proof the following auxiliary propositions will first be established.

(2.11) If (p, n) is as in (2.6) then all the characteristic values of A are nonzero. Hence, A has no components of the form $W^{(d)}$ and all the other components $W_{a_j}^{(q_j,q_j)}$ in (2.9) are with $a_j \neq 0$.

(2.12) If (p, n) is as in (2.7) or (2.8) then A has one and only one characteristic value equal to zero. Therefore, A has one and only one term $W^{(1)} = [0]$ in that part of (2.9) where the components $W^{(d)}$ appear and all the other components $W_{a_j}^{(q_j,q_j)}$ are with $a_j \neq 0$.

The proof of (2.11) is almost immediate. In fact, if (p, n) is as in (2.6) then (2.10) implies that det $A \neq 0$. Hence, zero is not a characteristic value of A. Therefore, A has in (2.9) neither $W^{(d)}$ nor $W_0^{(q,q)}$ as a component. This proves (2.11).

The proof of (2.12) is much more complex. First consider the case where (p, n) is as in (2.8). Since A is of odd order and each $W_a^{(q,q)}$ is of even order, it follows that A must contain at least one component $W^{(d)}$ of order d = 2e + 1.

A permutation of the components of A is given by an orthogonal similarity and it induces an orthogonal equivalence on M = [A, B] [see (section 5)]. Hence, we can suppose from the beginning that

(2.13)
$$A = \operatorname{diag}[W^{(2e+1)}, N],$$

where N denotes a suitable matrix.

Assume 2e + 1 > 1 and let

$$w^{(2e+1)} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ w_{2e+1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{where} \quad w_i \in K^{2e+1}.$$

From the explicit expression for $W^{(2e+1)}$ given in [(4.8)], the following relations are easily verified

(2.14)
$$\begin{cases} w_1 w_1^t = w_1 w_{2e+1}^t = w_{2e+1} w_{2e+1}^t = 0 & \text{if } e > 1, \\ w_1 w_2^t = w_2 w_{2e+1}^t = 0 & \text{for all } e, \\ w_2 w_2^t = 0 & \text{if } e = 1. \end{cases}$$

Under the map $w_i \to (w_i, 0, \dots, 0)$, the rows w_i of W^(2e+1) can be regarded, using the same notation, as rows of A and the above relations continue to hold in A.

Suppose (p, n) as in (2.8) and let

(2.15)
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ w_p \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & c_1 \\ \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot \\ b_p & c_p \end{bmatrix},$$

where $w_i \in K^p$ and b_i , $c_i \in K$. As in [(6.11)], the condition (2.1) becomes

where δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta.

There are three cases to be considered with regard to the component $W^{(d)}$ of A. They are, d > 3, d = 3 and d = 1.

Let d = 2e + 1 with e > 1. Since $w_1w_1^t = 0$, from [(7.4)] it follows that we can assume to have $b_1 = 1$ and $c_1 = 0$. Then substitution of these values in (2.16) gives

$$w_1w_j^t + b_j = 0$$
 for $j \neq 1$.

This equality and the relations $w_1w_2^t = w_1w_{2e+1}^t = 0$ of (2.14), imply that

$$(2.17) b_2 = b_{2e+1} = 0.$$

Also, using the relations $w_2 w_{2e+1}^{t} = w_{2e+1} w_{2e+1}^{t} = 0$ of (2.14) in (2.16), we get

(2.18)
$$\begin{cases} b_2 b_{2e+1} + c_2 c_{2e+1} = 0, \\ b_{2e+1}^2 + c_{2e+1}^2 = 1. \end{cases}$$

Now, a substitution of (2.17) in (2.18) gives $c_2c_{2e+1} = 0$ and $c_{2e+1}^2 = 1$. Hence, $c_2 = 0$ and, since $b_2 = 0$, again from (2.16) it follows that $w_2w_2^t = 1$. But a direct computation in $W^{(2e+1)}$, using the expression [(4.8)], gives

$$w_2 w_2^{t} = \begin{cases} \frac{i}{2} & \text{if } e = 2, \\ 0 & \text{if } e > 2 \end{cases}$$

and this is a contradiction. Therefore, the component $W^{(d)}$ cannot be in A for d > 3.

Let d = 3 and e = 1. As shown in (2.14), in this case $w_2w_2^t = 0$. Then, from [(7.4)], as before it can be assumed that $b_2 = 1$ and $c_2 = 0$.

With these values and the relations $w_1w_2^t = w_2w_3^t = 0$ of (2.14) in (2.16), we obtain $b_1 = b_3 = 0$. Therefore, from (2.16), we get

(2.19)
$$w_1w_1^t + c_1^2 = 1$$
 and $w_3w_3^t + c_3^2 = 1$

Using the explicit form of $W^{(3)}$, given in [(4.8)], and the known values of b_i and c_j , the matrix M becomes

(2.20)
$$M = [W^{(3)}, B] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & (1+i)/2 & 0 \\ -(1+i)/2 & 0 & (-1+i)/2 \\ 0 & (1-i)/2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & c_1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The rows of M must satisfy the conditions (2.16). These conditions express that each row has norm 1 and that different rows are orthogonal. Applying them to the first and third rows, they give $c_1^2 = 1 - \frac{i}{2}$ and $c_3^2 = 1 + \frac{i}{2}$. Then the product of c_1^2 and c_3^2 , from these expressions becomes $c_1^2 c_3^2 = \frac{5}{4}$. On the

other hand, the first and third rows being orthogonal, imply that $c_1c_3 = -\frac{1}{2}$. Hence, $c_1^2c_3^2 = \frac{1}{4}$. This is a contradiction and it rules out the case d = 3. Consequently, d = 1 and $W^{(1)} = [0]$ is a component of A. Then, the expression (2.13) becomes

$$A = \operatorname{diag}[0, N],$$

and since the order of N is 2k and rank A = 2k, it follows that N does not have zero as a characteristic value. This proves (2.12) for (p, n) as in (2.8).

The proof of (2.12) for (p, n) as in (2.7) is obtained as an especial case of the above proof, by taking out the elements c_1, \dots, c_p . We will point out the main steps of the arguments.

From the beginning all the steps hold up to the expressions (2.15) and (2.16) where the c_i 's need to be deleted. Then the proof continues until (2.18) where, after taking out c_{2e+1} , it follows that $b_{2e+1}^2 = 1$, in direct contradiction with (2.17) where it is stated that $b_{2e+1} = 0$. Therefore, $W^{(2e+1)}$ with e > 1 cannot be in (2.13).

Now, let e = 1, hence d = 3. Again all the steps of the above argument remain valid after removing the c_i 's. Then, from (2.19), it follows that $w_1w_1^t =$

1 and the first row of (2.20) gives $w_1 w_1^t = \frac{i}{2}$ and this is a contradiction. Hence, the component $W^{(3)}$ cannot be in A.

The rest of the argument goes as before and this ends the proof of (2.12) for (p, n) as in (2.7). Hence, (2.12) is established.

Now we go back to the proof of lemma (2.5) and its three propositions (2.6), (2.7) and (2.8). First consider the case (2.8) and let A and B be as in (2.15). From (2.12) it follows that A can be arranged so that $w_1 = 0$. The argument already used [see (7.4)] allows us to assume that $b_1 = 1$ and $c_1 = 0$ and from (2.16) it follows that $b_1b_j = b_j = 0$, for $j = 2, \dots, p$. Let us reindex the rows of A and B, to have

		F 0 7			1	0	7
		w_1			0	c_1	
(2.21)	A =	•	and	R =	•	•	
(2.21)	21 -	•	ana	D	•	•	1.
		•			•	•	
		w_{p-1}			0	c_{p-1}	

To study the form of the components of A, suppose that $(\lambda - a)^q$, $(\lambda + a)^q$ with $a \neq 0$ and $q \geq 1$, are elementary divisors of A. Then the matrix $W_a^{(q,q)}$ of order 2q, constructed in [(4.7)], is a component of A. Therefore, we can suppose that

$$A = \operatorname{diag}[0, W_a^{(q \cdot q)}, S],$$

where S is a suitable matrix. Also, as before the rows w_1, \dots, w_{2q} of A can be identified with the corresponding rows of $W_a^{(q,q)}$, where

$$W_a^{(q,q)} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ w_{2q} \end{bmatrix}$$

Using the expression [(4.7)] of $W_a^{(q,q)}$ it is easy to verify the following relations

(2.22)
$$w_j w_j^t = -a^2$$
, if $j = 1, \dots, 2q$,
 $w_1 w_2^t = -2a$, if $q > 1$,
 $w_1 w_{2a}^t = 0$.

Clearly, the corresponding rows of A also fulfill the conditions (2.22).

From (2.16) and (2.21) it follows that $w_j w_j^t + c_j^2 = 1$ for $j = 1, \dots, p-1$, and using (2.22), we get

(2.23)
$$c_j^2 = 1 + a^2$$
 for $j = 1, \dots, 2q$.

Then, $c_1^2 = \cdots = c_{2q}^2$. From (2.16) it follows that $w_1 w_{2q}^t + c_1 c_{2q} = 0$, and from (2.22) we get that $w_1 w_{2q}^t = 0$. Hence, $c_1 c_{2q} = 0$ and this together with $c_1^2 = \cdots = c_{2q}^2$ implies that $c_1 = \cdots = c_{2q} = 0$. Therefore, $a^2 + 1 = 0$ and $ia = \pm 1$.

Now, if q > 1, from (2.16) it follows that $w_1w_2^t = 0$ and (2.22) gives $w_1w_2^t = -2a \neq 0$. This contradiction rules out the case q > 1.

Then, A has the component

$$W_a^{(1,1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & ia \\ -ia & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

with $ia = \pm 1$, and the argument used in [(6.12)] shows that the sign can be chosen so that ia = 1. Thus, $W_a^{(1,1)} = C$, and by induction it follows that

$$A = \operatorname{diag}[0, C, \cdots, C].$$

Consequently, $M \sim [U_1, D_2]$, and this ends the proof of (2.8).

To proceed with the proof of lemma (2.5) consider now the case (2.7). As in the proof of (2.12), here, the proof of (2.7) is also obtained from the proof of (2.8), by taking out the elements c_1, \dots, c_p . As before, we will point out the main steps of the arguments.

Set out with the expressions obtained from (2.15) and (2.16) when the c_i 's are deleted. That is

(2.24)
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ w_p \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ b_p \end{bmatrix}$$

and

Then, the arguments of the proof follow without any problem until (2.21), where A is as stated there, after changing the indices of its rows, and $B = D_1$. The proof continues until (2.23) where this equality becomes $0 = 1 + a^2$. From there, following the last two paragraphs of the proof of (2.8), in a straightforward form, the proof of (2.7) is completed.

Finally, let us consider the case (2.6) of lemma (2.5). Let M = [A, B] where A is an alternate matrix of order p = 2k and B is a rectangular $2k \times 1$ matrix. Using the notation (2.24), it follows that the rows of A and the elements of B satisfy the relations (2.25).

From (2.11), we can assume that

$$A = \operatorname{diag}[W_a^{(q,q)}, N],$$

where $a \neq 0$, and, as before, identifying the rows of $W_a^{(q,q)}$ with the corresponding rows of A, it follows that the first 2q rows of A fulfill the conditions (2.22). Then, from $w_j w_j^t + b_j^2 = 1$ and $w_j w_j^t = a^2$, we get that $b_j^2 = 1 + a^2$. Hence, $b_1^2 = \cdots = b_{2q}^2$. On the other hand, $w_1 w_{2q}^t = 0$ implies that $b_1 b_{2q} = 0$. Therefore, $b_1 = \cdots = b_{2q} = 0$, $w_j w_j^t = -a^2 = 1$ for $j = 1, \cdots, 2q$ and $ia = \pm 1$.

Now, if q > 1, then, from (2.22), $w_1 w_2^t = -2a \neq 0$ and, from (2.25), $w_1 w_2^t = 0$. Thus, q = 1.

As before, the sign can be chosen so that ia = 1, and by induction it follows that A = U and B = D. This ends the proof of lemma (2.5)

Remark. The proposition (2.8) will not be used here since it is related to the case mentioned in the introduction to be left unsettled.

3. Nonexistence of normed maps for p = 4h + 1, q = 3 and n = 4h + 2

The following generalization of [(6.1)] will be established.

THEOREM (3.1). For any field F of characteristic different from two, no normed map $F^{4h+1} \times F^3 \rightarrow F^{4h+2}$ can exist.

Proof. Suppose that such map exists over some field $F \subset K$, where K is an algebraically closed field. Let M_1 , M_2 and M_3 be the $(4h + 1) \times (4h + 2)$ matrices of [(2.5)] associated with the map. Then, from [(5.1)] and (2.7), it follows that $M_1 = [I_{4h+1}, D]$, $M_2 = [U_1, D_1]$ and $M_3 = [A_3, B_3]$, can be considered as matrices over K, where U_1 , D and D_1 are as in (2.3) and (2.4), with k = 2h and p = 4h + 1. With the usual notation, set

$$A_3 = (a_{ij}) = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ w_p \end{bmatrix}, B_3 = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ b_p \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } U_1 = (b_{ij}),$$

where $w_i \in K^p$, $b_j \in K$ and $1 \le i, j \le p$. Recall that the matrices A_3 and U_1 are alternate of order p. Easily, it follows from (2.3) that the elements b_{ij} of U_1 are

given by

(3.2)
$$\begin{cases} b_{2i, 2i+1} = -b_{2i+1, 2i} = 1 & \text{if } 1 \le i \le 2h, \\ b_{i,r} = 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The matrix M_3 must satisfy the condition

$$M_3 M_2{}^t + M_2 M_3{}^t = 0,$$

and this is equivalent with [see (3.8)]

$$A_3 U_1 + U_1 A_3 = B_3 D_1^t + D_1 B_3^t.$$

Now, a direct computation gives

(3.3)
$$B_{3}D_{1}^{t} + D_{1}B_{3}^{t} = \begin{array}{cccc} 2b_{1} & b_{2} & \cdots & b_{p} \\ b_{2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ b_{p} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{array}$$

On the other hand, if $C = (c_{ij}) = A_3 U_1 + U_1 A_3$, then C is a symmetric matrix and each

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{r=1}^{p} (a_{ir}b_{rj} + b_{ir}a_{rj}).$$

Then, replacing the values of (3.2) in these expressions for c_{ij} , many terms become zero and it follows that

(3.4)
$$\begin{cases} c_{1,1} = 0, c_{1,2j} = -a_{1,2j+1}, c_{1,2j+1} = a_{1,2j}, \\ c_{2i,2j} = c_{2i+1,2j+1} = a_{2i+1,2j} - a_{2i,2j+1}, \\ c_{2i,2j+1} = c_{2j+1,2i} = a_{2i+1,2j+1} + a_{2i,2j}, \end{cases}$$

where only $1 \leq j$ is significant.

Now, from the equality of the matrix C with the explicit expression given by (3.3), it follows that

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$$(3.5) b_1 = 0, b_{2j} = -a_{1,2j+1}, b_{2j+1} = a_{1,2j}.$$

Also we get that

(3.6)
$$c_{ij} = 0 \text{ for } i > 1 \text{ and } j > 1.$$

Thus, (3.5) implies that

$$(3.7) B_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\ -a_{13}\\ a_{12}\\ -a_{15}\\ \cdot\\ \cdot\\ \cdot\\ \cdot\\ a_{1,4h} \end{bmatrix},$$

and from (3.6) and (3.4), it follows that

(3.8)
$$\begin{cases} a_{2i+1,2j} = a_{2i,2j+1}, \\ a_{2i+1,2j+1} = -a_{2i,2j}. \end{cases}$$

In particular, if i = j, from (3.8) and the alternate property of A_3 , it follows that (3.9) $a_{2i,2i+1} = a_{2i+1,2i} = a_{jj} = 0.$

Write

$$A_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{1} \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ w_{p} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & v_{1} \\ a_{21} & v_{2} \\ \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot \\ a_{p1} & v_{p} \end{bmatrix}$$

Where $v_j = (a_{j2}, a_{j3}, \dots, a_{jp})$. The relations (3.9) imply that the following two consecutive components of v_j are zero:

$$a_{2i,2i} = a_{2i,2i+1} = 0$$
 if $j = 2i$,
 $a_{2i+1,2i} = a_{2i+1,2i+1} = 0$ if $j = 2i+1$.

Now, using the identities (3.8), the rows v_j of odd index j = 2i+1 can be written as follows,

 $v_{2i+1} = (a_{2i,3}, -a_{2i,2}, \cdots, -a_{2i,2i-1}, 0, 0, a_{2i,2i+1}, \cdots, -a_{2i,p-1}),$

and then it is easy to verify that

$$v_{2i+1} = -v_{2i}U$$
,

where U is the matrix of order p - 1 defined in (2.3). Also, it follows from (3.7) that

$$(3.10) B_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\ (v_1 U)^t \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then, since $a_{i1} = -a_{1i}$, the matrix M_3 can be written in the following form

(3.11)
$$M_{3} = [A_{3}, B_{3}] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & v_{1} & 0 \\ -v_{1}^{t} \\ -v_{1}^{t} \\ \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{2} \\ -v_{2}U \\ v_{4} \\ -v_{4}U \\ \vdots \\ -v_{p-1U} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (v_{1}U)^{t} \\ \vdots \\ -v_{p-1U} \end{bmatrix}$$

Now, it will be established that the existence of a normal map $F^{4h+1} \times F^3 \to F^{4h+2}$ implies the existence of a Hurwitz-Radon map $K^{4h+2} \times K^3 \to K^{4h+2}$. This last statement is equivalent to the existence of two alternate square matrices N_2 and N_3 over K, each of order 4h + 2, such that [(see p. 34)]

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$$N_2 N_2{}^t = N_3 N_3{}^t = I_{4h+2}$$
 and $N_2 N_3{}^t + N_3 N_2{}^t = 0.$

Set N_2 and N_3 in terms of M_2 and M_3 , as follows

$$N_2 = \begin{bmatrix} M_2 \\ [-D_1^t, 0] \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $N_3 = \begin{bmatrix} M_3 \\ [-B_3^t, 0] \end{bmatrix}$.

Clearly, these matrices are alternate. To verify the above conditions proceed directly as follows. First, that

$$N_2 N_2^{t} = \begin{bmatrix} M_2 \\ [-D_1^{t}, 0] \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} M_2^{t} \begin{bmatrix} -D_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} = I_{4h+2},$$

it is obtained from the equalities

$$M_2 M_2{}^t = I_{4h+1}, M_2 \begin{bmatrix} -D_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $[-D_1{}^t, 0] \begin{bmatrix} -D_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = D_1{}^t D_1 = 1.$

Recall that the conditions $M_3M_3^t = I_{4h+1}$ means that any two rows of M_3 are orthogonal and that the norm of any row of M_3 is equal to 1. The matrix N_3 is constructed by adding to M_3 the expression $[-B_3^t, 0] = [0, -v_1U, 0]$ as its (4h + 2)-row. Consequently, to prove that $N_3N_3^t = I_{4h+2}$ it is enough to show that the row $[0, -v_1U, 0]$ has norm 1 and that it is orthogonal to all other rows of M_3 . These conditions are established using the form for M_3 given in (3.11) and the fact that $[0, v_1, 0]$ is its first row. Thus, because U is orthogonal and v_1 has norm 1, it follows that $[0, -v_1U, 0]$ has also norm 1. Because U is alternate, it follows that

$$(v_1U)v_1^{t} = v_1(v_1U)^{t} = (v_1U^{t})v_1 = -(v_1U)v_1,$$

hence, $2(v_1U)v_1^t = 0$. Therefore, $[0, v_1, 0]$ and $[0, -v_1U, 0]$ are orthogonal.

To prove that the new row $[0, -v_1U, 0]$ is orthogonal to all the other rows, use the relations $v_{2i}v_1^t = 0$ and $(v_{2i}U)v_1^t = 0$ of M_3 , as follows:

$$v_{2i}(v_1U)^t = (v_{2i}U^t)v_1^t = -(v_{2i}U)v_1^t = 0,$$

 $(v_{2i}U)(v_1U)^t = v_{2i}(UU^t)v_1^t = v_{2i}v_1^t = 0.$

Consequently, the condition $N_3N_3^{t} = I_{4h+2}$ holds.

The verification of the condition $N_2N_3^t + N_3N_2^t = 0$ is automatic and is based on the fact that the same relation holds for M_2 and M_3 . The details are omitted.

4. Nonexistence of normed maps for p = 4h + 2, q = 3 and n = 4h + 3

Now the following generalization of [(8.1)] will be proved.

THEOREM (4.1). For any field F of characteristic different from two, no normed map $F^{4h+2} \times F^3 \rightarrow F^{4h+3}$ can exist.

Proof. As before, suppose that the map of (4.1) exists over some field $F \subset K$,

where K is algebraically closed. Let M_1 , M_2 and M_3 be the $(4h + 2) \times (4h + 3)$ matrices of [(2.5)] associated with the map. Then, from [(5.1)] and (2.6), it follows that $M_1 = [I_{4h+2}, D]$, $M_2 = [U, D]$ and $M_3 = [A_3, B_3]$, can be regarded as matrices over K, where U and D are as in (2.3) and (2.4).

Let $U = (b_{ij})$ and $A_3 = (a_{ij})$ where $1 \le i, j \le p$ and p = 4h + 2. The elements b_{ij} of U are given by

(4.2)
$$\begin{cases} b_{2i-1,2i} = -b_{2i,2i-1} = 1 & \text{if } 1 \le i \le 2h+1, \\ b_{ij} = 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Since D is the zero p-column, condition [(3.8)] becomes

$$A_3U + UA_3 = 0.$$

In the same form that (3.8) was obtained, here, using (4.2) in the above relation, it follows that

(4.3)
$$\begin{cases} a_{2i-1,2j} = a_{2i,2j-1}, \\ a_{2i-1,2j-1} = -a_{2i,2j}. \end{cases}$$

In particular, if i = j, from (4.3) and the fact that A_3 is an alternate matrix, it follows that

$$(4.4) a_{2i-1,2i} = a_{2i,2i-1} = a_{jj} = 0.$$

Let

$$A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_p \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $B_3 = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_p \end{bmatrix}$,

where $w_j = (a_{j1}, \dots, a_{jp})$ and $b_j \in K$. As before, the relations (4.4) imply that the following two consecutive components of each w_j are zero:

$$\begin{cases} a_{2i,2i-1} = a_{2i,2i} = 0 & \text{if } j = 2i, \\ a_{2i-1,2i-1} = a_{2i-1,2i} & \text{if } j = 2i - 1. \end{cases}$$

Then, using the identities (4.3) the w_{2i} can be written as follows,

$$w_{2i} = [a_{2i-1,2}, \cdots, -a_{2i-1,2i-3}, 0, 0, a_{2i-1,2i}, \cdots, -a_{2i-1,p-1}].$$

Then, it is easy to check that

$$(4.5) w_{2i} = -w_{2i-1}U.$$

Using this relation (4.5) and the fact that the alternate matrix U is orthogonal, the *p*-column B_3 will be shown to be the zero column.

The condition $M_3M_3^t = I_p$ is equivalent in terms of w_i and b_j , with the set of conditions given in (2.25). Then, from

$$w_{2i}w_{2i}^{t} = (w_{2i-1}U)(w_{2i-1}U)^{t} = w_{2i-1}w_{2i-1}^{t},$$

it follows that $b_{2i}^2 = b_{2i-1}^2$. On the other hand, since U is alternate, it quickly

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follows that

$$w_{2i-1}w_{2i}^{t} = -w_{2i-1}(w_{2i-1}U) = 0.$$

Hence, $b_{2i-1}b_{2i} = 0$. Therefore $b_1 = \cdots = b_p = 0$, and B_3 is the zero *p*-column. Thus, in the case, we have

$$B_1 = B_2 = B_3 = \begin{vmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

Now, under the assumption that the matrices M_1 , M_2 and M_3 over K, satisfy conditions [(2.5)], by taking out the part B_i in each M_i , it follows that the three square matrices $A_1 = I_{4h+2}$, $A_2 = U$ and A_3 also fulfill conditions [(2.5)]. Consequently, the existence of these matrices imply the existence of a normed map $K^{4h+2} \times K^3 \to K^{4h+2}$ and its restriction $K^{4h+1} \times K^3 \to K^{4h+2}$ is also a normed map. But this implies a contradiction with (3.1). Hence, this ends proof of (4.1).

5. Minimal values of *n* for $1 \le q \le 3$

The results of the last two sections will be used to prove the following generalizations of the first three cases of [(9.1)].

THEOREM (5.1). Let F be a field of characteristic different from two and let $1 \le q \le 3$. Then, for any p, the minimal n for the existence of a normed map $F^p \times F^q \to F^n$ is independent of F and its value is given by the following table:

q/p	4h + 1	4h + 2	4h + 3	4 <i>h</i> +4
1	4h + 1	4h + 2	4h + 3	4h + 4
2	4h + 2	4h + 2	4h + 4	4h + 4
3	4h + 3	4h + 4	4h + 4	4h + 4

Proof. The same arguments already given in [(9.1)] are used here to construct the maps and to prove that the values of n are minimal.

The main difficulty is to settle the cases (p, q) = (4h + 1, 3) and (p, q) = (4h + 2, 3). For these cases, the results (3.1) and (4.1) imply, respectively, that $n \ge 4h + 3$ and that $n \ge 4h + 4$. On the other hand, the direct sum of $F^{4h} \times F^3 \rightarrow F^{4h}$ and $F^1 \times F^3 \rightarrow F^3$, constructs the map for the first case and the restriction of $F^{4h+4} \times F^4 \rightarrow F^{4h+4}$ to $F^{4h+4} \times F^2 \subset F^{4h+4} \times F^4$, gives the map for the second case. Hence, these two cases are decided. All other details are omitted and this ends the proof.

ON THE HURWITZ PROBLEM II

6. Concluding remarks

Independent of the field, the results already established imply that n = 4h + 4 is the minimal value for the existence of a normed map, in the following three cases: (p, q) = (4h + i, 4), for i = 2, 3, 4.

The case (p, q) = (4h + 1, 4) with h > 1 has not been settled and we have the following question:

Does there exists for some field F a normed map $F^{4h+1} \times F^4 \to F^{4h+3}$?

If h = 1 this was proved not to exist in [(7.1)]. If h > 1 the answer is not known even if F = C is the complex field and h = 2.

If F is a formally real field the Hopf theorem [(1.6)] gives a negative answer to the existence of such map. For other fields, the possibility of having isotropic vectors seems to complicate the problem. A difficult general question appears to be the following:

Does the Hopf theorem hold for any field of characteristic not two?

Added remark. After this paper was written, and due to some delay in the publication of the Boletín, I can report that in July 1982 K. Y. Lam and T. Y. Lam informed me that they had settled the two above problems for any field of characteristic zero. The problems remain open for fields of characteristic p > 0. Also, quite recently, D. B. Shapiro has informed me of some extensions and substantial simplifications he has obtained regarding the results of this paper.

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