A COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT NOTIONS OF RANKS OF SYMMETRIC TENSORS

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ABSTRACT. We introduce various notions of rank for a high order symmetric tensor, namely: rank, border rank, catalecticant rank, generalized rank, scheme length, border scheme length, extension rank and smoothable rank. We analyze the stratification induced by these ranks. The mutual relations between these stratifications, allow us to describe the hierarchy among all the ranks. We show that strict inequalities are possible between rank, border rank, extension rank and catalecticant rank. Moreover we show that scheme length, generalized rank and extension rank coincide.

INTRODUCTION

The tensor decomposition problem arises in many applications (see [27] and references therein). Because of many analogies with the matrix Singular Value Decomposition (SVD), this multilinear generalization to high order tensors that we are going to consider, is often called “higher-order singular value decomposition (HOSVD)” ([20]). HOSVD is a linear algebra method often used as a way to recover geometric or intrinsic informations, “hidden” in the tensor data. For a given tensor with a certain structure, this problem consists in finding the minimal decomposition into indecomposable tensors with the same structure. The best known and studied case is the one of completely symmetric tensors (see examples in [12], [17], [18]), i.e. homogeneous polynomials. The minimum number $r$ of indecomposable symmetric tensors $v_i^d$’s (pure powers of linear forms $l_i$’s) needed to write a given symmetric tensor $T$ of order $d$ (that is a homogeneous polynomial $f$ of degree $d$) is called the rank $r(T)$ of $T$ (the rank $r(f)$ of $f$):

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^{r} v_i^d, \quad f = \sum_{i=1}^{r} l_i^d.$$  

Observe that when $d = 2$, i.e. when the tensor $T$ is a matrix (i.e. when the homogeneous polynomial is a quadric), this coincides with the standard definition of rank of a matrix. In that case, a tensor decomposition of a symmetric matrix (that can be obtained by SVD computation) of rank $r$, will allow to write it as a linear combination of $r$ symmetric matrices of rank 1.

From now on, with an abuse of notation, we will denote with “$f$” both a symmetric tensor and its associate homogeneous polynomial.

From a geometric point of view, saying that a symmetric tensor $f$ has rank $r$, means that it is in the $r$-th secant of the Veronese variety in the projective space of polynomials of degree $d$. The order $r_\sigma(f)$ of the smallest secant variety to the Veronese variety containing a given $f$ is called the border rank of $T$ and may differs from the rank of $f$ (see Example 2.2).
A first method to decompose a high order symmetric tensor is classically attributed to Sylvester and it works for tensors $f \in V^\otimes d$ with $\dim V = 2$ (i.e. for binary forms). Such a method (see for a modern reference [16]) is based on the analysis of the kernel of so-called catalecticant matrices associated to the tensor. This leads to the notion of catalecticant rank $r_H(f)$ of a tensor $f$, which is also called “differential length” in [26][Definition 5.66, p.198].

Extending the apolarity approach of Sylvester, an algorithm to compute the decomposition and the rank of a symmetric tensor $f$ in any dimension was described in [7]. The main ingredient of this work is an algebraic characterization of the property of flat extension of a catalecticant matrix. This extension property is not enough to characterize tensors with a given rank, since the underlying scheme associated to the catalecticant matrix extension should also be reduced. To get a better insight on this difference, we introduce hereafter the notions of extension rank $r_E(f)$ and border extension rank $r_E(f)$ of $f$, and analyze the main properties.

Another approach leading to a different kind of algorithm is proposed in [5] and it is developed for some cases. The idea there, is to classify all the possible ranks of the polynomials belonging to certain secant varieties of Veronese varieties in relation with the structure of the embedded non reduced zero-dimensional schemes whose projective span is contained in that secant variety. In [9], the authors clarify the structure of the embedded schemes whose span is contained in the secant varieties of the Veronese varieties. Moreover they introduce an algebraic variety, namely the $r$-th cactus variety $K_d^r$. This lead us to the notion of what we will call the border scheme length $r_{sch}(f)$ of a polynomial $f$. We will show that this notion is related to the scheme length associated to $f$ defined in ([26][Definition 5.1, p. 135, Definition 5.66, p. 198]), we will call it the scheme length which is sometimes called the cactus rank of a homogeneous polynomial $f$ (see [32] for a first definition of it).

Another notion related to the scheme length and called the smoothable rank $r_{smooth}(f)$ of a homogeneous polynomial $f$ is also used in [26][Definition 5.66, p. 198] or [32]. Instead of considering all the schemes of length $r$ apolar to $f$, one considers only the smoothable schemes, that are the schemes which are the limits of smooth schemes of $r$ simple points. Analogously we can define the border smoothable rank $r_{smooth}(f)$ of a homogeneous polynomial $f$, as the smallest $r$ such that $f$ belongs to the closure of the set of tensors of smoothable rank $r$.

In relation with the “generalized additive decomposition” of a homogeneous polynomial $f$, there is the so called “length of $f$”: it was introduced for binary forms in [26][Definition 1.30, p. 22], and extended to any form in [26][Definition 5.66, p. 198]. In this paper we will describe a new generalization of the notion of generalized affine decomposition of a homogeneous polynomial $f$ (see Definition 2.16) and study the corresponding generalized rank $r_{G}(f)$. Again there is a notion of border generalized rank $r_{G}(f)$.

As in the classical tensor decomposition problem, the decompositions associated to these different notions of rank can be useful to analyze geometric information “hidden” in a high order tensor. The purpose of this paper is to relate all
these notions of rank. This will give an algebraic geometric insight to a multilinear algebra concept as HOSVD.

In Corollary 3.9 we will show that the generalized rank, the scheme length and the flat extension rank coincide:

\[ r_{G^0}(f) = r_{sch^0}(f) = r_{E^0}(f). \]

and hence their respective “border versions”: \( r_{G}(f) = r_{sch}(f) = r_{E}(f). \)

We can summarize the relations among the ranks in the following table:

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We denote by $\mathbb{P}^n := \mathbb{P}(k^{n+1})$ the projective space of dimension $n$. A point in $\mathbb{P}^n$ which is the class of the non-zero element $k = (k_0, \ldots, k_n) \in k^{n+1}$ modulo the collinearity relation is denoted by $[k] = (k_0 : \cdots : k_n)$. An ideal $I \subset S$ is homogeneous if it is generated by homogeneous polynomials. For a homogeneous ideal $I \subset S$, the set of points $[k] \in \mathbb{P}^n$ such that $\forall f \in I, f(k) = 0$ is denoted $V_p(I)$. We say that an ideal $I \subset S$ is zero-dimensional if $V_p(I)$ is finite and not empty. We say that $\zeta \in V_p(I)$ is simple if the localization $(S/I)_{\mathfrak{m}_\zeta}$ of $S/I$ at the maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}_\zeta$ associated to $\zeta$ is of dimension 1 (cf. [2]). An ideal $I$ of $S$ is saturated if $(I : S^1) = I$.

We will denote with $I^d$ the degree $d$ part of an ideal $I$. The Hilbert function associated to $I$ evaluated at $d \in \mathbb{N}$ is $H_{S/I}(d) = \dim(S^d/I^d)$. When $I$ is zero-dimensional, the Hilbert function becomes equal to a constant $r \in \mathbb{N}$ for $d \gg 0$. When moreover $I$ is saturated, this happens when $d \geq r$ (see e.g. [25] for more details).

For a homogeneous ideal $I \subset S$, let $\underline{I}$ be the ideal of $R$, generated by the elements $\underline{f}$ for $f \in I$. We recall that if $H_{S/I}(d) = r$ for $d \gg 0$ and if $x_0$ is a non-zero divisor in $S/I$, then $R/\underline{I}$ is a $k$-vector space of dimension $r$. Conversely, if $\overline{I}$ is an ideal of $R$ such that $\dim_k(R/\overline{I}) = r$ then the homogeneous ideal $I = \{ f^h | f \in \overline{I} \}$ is saturated, $x_0$ is a non-zero divisor in $S/I$ and $H_{S/I}(d) = r$ for $d \geq r$.

**Remark 1.1.** If $I$ is a saturated ideal of $S$ and $(I : x_0) = I$, then we have the natural isomorphism for $d \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$S^d/I^d \simeq R^{d}_{\underline{I}^{\leq d}}.$$ 

For a point $k = (k_0, \ldots, k_n) \in k^{n+1}$, we define a corresponding element $k(x) \in S^1$ as $k(x) = k_0 x_0 + \cdots + k_n x_n$. The element $k(x)$ is unique, up to a non-zero multiple: it corresponds to a unique element $[k(x)]$ in $\mathbb{P}(S^1)$. In the following, we will use the same notation $k = k(x)$ to denote either an element of $k^{n+1}$ or of $S^1$. The following product is sometimes called “Bombieri product” or “Sylvester product”.

**Definition 1.2.** For all $f, g \in S^d$, we define the apolar product on $S^d$ as follows:

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \sum_{|\alpha| = d} f_\alpha g_\alpha \left( \begin{array}{c} d \\ \alpha \end{array} \right).$$

where $f = \sum_{|\alpha| = d} f_\alpha x^\alpha, \; g = \sum_{|\alpha| = d} g_\alpha x^\alpha, \; \left( \begin{array}{c} d \\ \alpha \end{array} \right) = \frac{d!}{\alpha_0! \cdots \alpha_n!}$ for $|\alpha| = \alpha_0 + \cdots + \alpha_n = d$. It can also be defined on $R^{d}_{\underline{I}^{\leq d}}$ in such a way that for all $f, g \in S^d$, $\langle f, g \rangle = \langle f, g \rangle$ (just by replacing $x_0$ by 1 in the previous formula).

For any vector space $E$, we denote by $E^* = \text{Hom}_k(E, k)$ its dual space. Notice that the dual $S^*$ is an $S$-module: $\forall \Lambda \in S^*, \forall p \in S, (p \cdot \Lambda : q \mapsto \Lambda(pq)).$

For any homogeneous polynomial $f \in S^d$, we define the element $f^* \in (S^d)^*$ as follows:

$$\forall g \in S^d, f^*(g) = \langle f, g \rangle.$$ 

Similarly, $f^{**} \in (R^{d}_{\underline{I}^{\leq d}})^*$ is defined so that $\forall g \in S^d, f^{**}(g) = \langle f, g \rangle = \langle f, g \rangle$.

Let $I$ be an ideal of $S$. The inverse system $I^\perp$ of $I$ is the $S$-submodule of elements of $S^*$ that vanish on $I$, i.e. $I^\perp = \{ \Lambda \in S^* | \forall f \in I, \Lambda(f) = 0 \}$. 


For \( D \subset R^* \), we define \( D^\perp \subset R \) as
\[
D^\perp := \{ p \in R \mid \forall \Lambda \in D, \Lambda(p) = 0 \}.
\]
We check that if \( D \) is a \( R \)-module, then \( D^\perp \) is an ideal.

When \( I \) is a homogeneous ideal, an element in \( I^\perp \) is a sum (not necessarily finite) of elements in \((I^d)^\perp\).

**Remark 1.3.** The dimension of the degree \( d \) part of the inverse system of an ideal \( I \subset S \) is the Hilbert function of \( S/I \) in degree \( d \):
\[
H_{S/I}(d) = \dim_R(I^d)^\perp = \text{codim}(I^d).
\]

We denote by \((d^\alpha)_{\alpha \mid d = d}\) the basis of \((S^d)^*\) that is dual to the standard monomial basis \((x^\beta)_{\beta \mid d = d}\) of \( S^d \), more precisely \( d^\alpha = d^\alpha_0 \cdots d^\alpha_n \) and \( d^\alpha(x^\beta) = 1 \) if \( \alpha = \beta \) and 0 otherwise. An element in \((S^d)^*\) is represented by a homogeneous polynomial of degree \( d \) in the dual variables \( d_0, \ldots, d_n \). It will also be called a dual polynomial.

We remark that \( x_i \cdot d^\alpha = d^\alpha_0 \cdots d^\alpha_{i-1}d^\alpha_i d^\alpha_{i+1} \cdots d^\alpha_n \) if \( \alpha_i > 0 \) and 0 otherwise. More generally, for any \( \Lambda \in (S^d)^* \) represented by a dual polynomial of degree \( d \), we have that \( x_i \cdot \Lambda \) is either 0 or a dual polynomial of degree \( d - 1 \). It is formally obtained by multiplying by \( d_i^{-1} \) and by keeping the terms with positive exponents. This property explains the name of inverse system introduced by F.S. Macaulay [31]. The dual monomials are also called divided powers in some works, when a structure of ring is given to \( S^* \) (see e.g. [26][Appendix A]), but this structure is not really needed in the following. It comes from the description of \( d^\alpha \) in terms of differentials: \( \forall p \in S \),
\[
d^\alpha(p) = \frac{1}{\alpha!} \partial^\alpha_0 \cdots \partial^\alpha_n(p)(0, \ldots, 0),
\]
where \( \alpha! = \prod_{i=0}^{n} \alpha_i! \).

For \( D \subset S^* \), we define the inverse system generated by \( D \) as the \( S \)-module of \( S^* \) generated by \( D \), that is the vector space spanned by the elements of the form \( x^\alpha \cdot \Lambda \) for \( \alpha \in \mathbb{N}^{n+1} \) and \( \Lambda \in D \).

**Example 1.4.** The inverse system generated by \( d_0 d_1 \) is \( \langle d_0 d_1, d_0, d_1, 1 \rangle \). It is a vector space of dimension 4 in \( \mathbb{K}[d_0, d_1] \).

By extension, the elements of \( S^* \) can be represented by a formal power series in the variables \( d_0, \ldots, d_n \).

By restriction, the elements \( R^* \) are represented by formal power series in the dual variables \( d_1, \ldots, d_n \). The elements of \((R^\leq t)^*\) are represented by polynomials of degree \( \leq t \) in the variables \( d_1, \ldots, d_n \). The structure of \( R \)-module of \( R^* \) shares the same properties as \( S^* \): \( x_i \) acts as the “inverse” of \( d_i \). We define the inverse system spanned by \( D \subset R^* \) as the \( R \)-module of \( R^* \) generated by \( D \).

For a non-zero point \( k \in \mathbb{K}^{n+1} \), we define the evaluation \( 1^d_k \in (S^d)^* \) at \( k \) as
\[
1^d_k : S^d \to \mathbb{K}
\]
\[
p \mapsto p(k)
\]
In the following, we may drop the exponent \( d \) to simplify notations when it is implicitly defined.
To describe the dual of zero-dimensional ideals defining points with multiplicities, we need to consider differentials. For \( k \in \mathbb{K}^{n+1} \) and \( \alpha = (\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{N}^{n+1} \), we defined
\[
1_k \circ \partial^\alpha : S \to \mathbb{K}
\]
\[p \mapsto \partial_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots \partial_n^{\alpha_n}(p)(k).
\]
We extend this definition by linearity, in order to define \( 1_k \circ \phi(\partial) \in S^* \) for any polynomial \( \phi(\partial) \) in the differential variables \( \partial_0, \ldots, \partial_n \). We check that the inverse system generated by \( 1_k \circ \phi(\partial) \) is the vector space spanned by the elements of the form \( 1_k \circ \phi'(\partial) \) where \( \phi' \) is obtained from \( \phi \) by possibly several derivations with respect to the differential variables \( \partial_0, \ldots, \partial_n \). It is a finite dimensional vector space.

This leads to the following result, which characterizes the dual of a zero-dimensional (affine) ideal (see e.g. [23] or [22][Theorem 7.34, p. 185]).

**Theorem 1.5.** Suppose that \( I \subset R \) is such that \( \dim_{\mathbb{K}}(R/I) = r < \infty \). Then \( \forall \Lambda \in I^\perp \), there exist distinct points \( \zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_s \in V_K(I) \) and differential polynomials \( \phi_1, \ldots, \phi_s \) in the variables \( \partial_1, \ldots, \partial_n \) such that
\[
\Lambda = \sum_{i=1}^s 1_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i(\partial).
\]

As a consequence, we check that the inverse system generated by \( \Lambda \) is the direct sum of the inverse systems \( D_i \) generated by \( 1_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i(\partial) \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, s \). The sum of the dimensions of these inverse systems is thus \( \leq \dim_{\mathbb{K}}(I^\perp) = \dim_{\mathbb{K}}(R/I) = r \).

**Proposition 1.6.** Let \( \Lambda = \sum_{i=1}^s 1_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i(\partial) \), \( D \) be the inverse system (or \( R \)-module) generated by \( \Lambda \) and \( D_i \) be the inverse system generated by \( 1_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i(\partial) \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, s \). Then \( D^\perp = Q_1 \cap \cdots \cap Q_s \) where
- \( Q_i = D_i^\perp \) is a primary ideal for the maximal ideal \( m_{\zeta_i} \) defining \( \zeta_i \),
- \( \mu_i = \dim_{\mathbb{K}}(D_i) = \dim_{\mathbb{K}}(R/Q_i) \) is the multiplicity of \( \zeta_i \),
- \( \dim R/D^\perp = \sum_{i=1}^s \mu_i \).

**Example 1.7.** Let us consider the ideal \( I = (x_1^2 + x_2 - 1, x_1^2 - 1) \) of \( R = \mathbb{K}[x_1, x_2] \). It defines the points \((0, 1), (\sqrt{2}, -1), (-\sqrt{2}, -1) \in \mathbb{K}^2 \). An element \( \Lambda \in I^\perp \) can be decomposed as
\[
\Lambda = 1_{(0,1)} \circ (a_1 \partial_1 + b_1) + \lambda_2 1_{(\sqrt{2}, 1)} + \lambda_3 1_{(-\sqrt{2}, -1)}
\]
where \( a_1, b_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3 \in \mathbb{K} \). If \( a_1 \neq 0, \lambda_2 \neq 0, \lambda_3 \neq 0 \), then the inverse system spanned by \( \Lambda \) is
\[
\langle 1_{(0,1)} \circ \partial_1, 1_{(0,1)}, 1_{(\sqrt{2}, 1)}, 1_{(-\sqrt{2}, -1)} \rangle.
\]

**Lemma 1.8.** Suppose that \( I \) is a saturated ideal defining \( r \) simple points \([\zeta_1], \ldots, [\zeta_r] \in \mathbb{P}^n \). Then \( (I^d)^\perp \) is spanned by \( 1_{\zeta_1}, \ldots, 1_{\zeta_r} \) for \( d \geq r \).

**Proof.** Obviously \( \langle 1_{\zeta_1}, \ldots, 1_{\zeta_r} \rangle \subset (I^d)^\perp \). Moreover, as already observed in Remark 1.3, we have that \( \dim(I^d)^\perp = H_{S/I}(d) \). Therefore, for \( d \geq r \), \( \dim(I^d)^\perp = r = \dim(1_{\zeta_1}, \ldots, 1_{\zeta_r}) \) and \( (I^d)^\perp = \langle 1_{\zeta_1}, \ldots, 1_{\zeta_r} \rangle \).
1.2. Tensor decomposition problem. The main problem we are interested in, is the problem of decomposition of a symmetric tensor into a sum of minimal size of indecomposable terms which are the powers of a linear forms:

**Definition 1.9.** An element \( f \in S^d \) has a decomposition of size \( r \) if there exist distinct non-zero elements \( k_1, \ldots, k_r \in S^1 \) such that

\[
\langle g, k^d \rangle = g(k),
\]

where \( g(k) = g(k_0, \ldots, k_n) \).

**Proof.** By an explicit computation, we have

\[
f = k_1^d + \cdots + k_r^d.
\]

This problem is also called the Generalized Waring problem as it generalizes the problem of Waring in arithmetic [35].

In order to find a decomposition of \( f \in S^d \) as a sum of \( d \)-th powers of linear forms, we will consider the polynomials which are apolar to \( f \) and use the following result.

**Lemma 1.10.** For all \( g \in S^d, k \in S^1 \) with \( k = k_0x_0 + \cdots + k_nx_n, k_j \in \mathbb{K}, \) for \( j = 0, \ldots, n \), it turns out that

\[
\langle g, k^d \rangle = g(k),
\]

where \( g(k) = g(k_0, \ldots, k_n) \).

**Proof.** By an explicit computation, we have \( k^d = \sum_{|\alpha|=d} \binom{d}{\alpha} \prod_{j=0}^n k_j^{\alpha_j} \prod_{j=0}^n x_j^{\alpha_j} \).

Thus \( \langle g, k^d \rangle = \sum_{|\alpha|=d} \binom{d}{\alpha} g_\alpha \prod_{j=0}^n k_j^{\alpha_j} = g(k) \).

Thus if \( f = k_1^d + \cdots + k_r^d \) with \( k_i \in S^1 \) and if \( g \in S^k \) is such that \( g(k_i) = 0 \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, r \), then for all \( h \in S^{d-k} \) we have

\[
\langle gh, f \rangle = 0.
\]

This shows that the ideal of polynomials vanishing at the points \( k_1, \ldots, k_r \in \mathbb{P}^n \) is in the set of polynomials apolar to \( f \). It leads us to the following definition (see also [26] where the same definition is given via an apolar product that differs from our Definition 1.2 only because it is not defined as an inner product but as a product between \( S^d \) and \( S^d \)).

**Definition 1.11 (Apolar ideal).** Let \( f \in S^d \). We define the apolar ideal of \( f \) as the homogeneous ideal of \( S \) generated by \( S^{d+1} \) and by the polynomials \( g \in S^1 \) such that \( \langle gh, f \rangle = 0 \) for all \( h \in S^{d-i} \). It is denoted \( (f^\perp) \).

**Example 1.12.** For \( f := x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n} \) with \( \alpha_0 + \cdots + \alpha_n = d \), we have \( f^* = \binom{d}{\alpha}^{-1} d_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots d_n^{\alpha_n} \) and \( (f^\perp) = (x_0^{\alpha_0+1}, \ldots, x_n^{\alpha_n+1}) \).

Hereafter, we will need the following standard lemma.

**Lemma 1.13.** For any ideal \( I \subset S \), \( \langle I^d, f \rangle = 0 \) if and only if \( I \subset (f^\perp) \).

**Proof.** Clearly, if \( I \subset (f^\perp) \) then \( I^d \subset (f^\perp)^d \) so that \( \langle I^d, f \rangle = 0 \).

Let us prove the reverse inclusion. By definition of the apolar ideal \( J := (f^\perp) \), we have \( J^i : S^k = J^{i-k}, \forall 0 \leq i \leq d, 0 \leq k \leq i \). We also have \( I^d : S^k \supset I^{d-k}, \forall 0 \leq k \leq d \). The hypothesis \( \langle I^d, f \rangle = 0 \) implies that \( I^d \subset J^d \). We deduce that \( I^d \subset J^k, \forall 0 \leq i \leq d \). Since \( J^{d+1} = S^{d+1} \), we have the inclusion \( I \subset J = (f^\perp) \).

The tensor decomposition problem can be reformulated in terms of apolarity as follows via the well known Apolarity Lemma (cf. [26, Lemma 1.15]).
Proposition 1.14. A symmetric tensor \( f \in S^d \) has a decomposition of size \( s \leq r \) iff there exists an ideal \( I \subset S \) such that

(a) \( I \subset (f^\perp) \),
(b) \( I \) is saturated, zero dimensional, of degree \( \leq r \),
(c) \( I \) is defining simple points.

Proof. Suppose that \( f \) has a decomposition of size \( \leq r \): \( f = \sum_i w_i^d \) where \( w_i \in S^1 - \{0\} \) and \( s \leq r \). Then consider the homogeneous ideal \( I \) of polynomials vanishing at the points \( [w_i] \in \mathbb{P}^n, i = 1, \ldots, s \). By construction, for all \( g \in I^d \),

\[
\langle f, g \rangle = \sum_i \langle w_i^d, g \rangle = \sum_i g(w_i) = 0
\]

so that \( I \) is a saturated ideal, defining \( s (\leq r) \) simple points and with \( I \subset (f^\perp) \).

Conversely, suppose that \( I \) is an ideal of \( S \) satisfying (a), (b), (c). Let us denote by \([w_1], \ldots, [w_s]\) the simple points of \( \mathbb{P}^n \) defined by \( I \) and by \( w_1, \ldots, w_s \) corresponding elements in \( S^1 \). Then by Lemma 1.8, \((I^d)^\perp\) is spanned by \( 1_{w_1}, \ldots, 1_{w_s} \). As \( I \subset (f^\perp) \), we have \( f^* \in (I^d)^\perp \) so that there exists \( \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_s \in \mathbb{K} \) such that

\[
f^* = \sum_{i=1}^s \lambda_i 1_{w_i}.
\]

This implies that

\[
f = \sum_{i=1}^s \lambda_i w_i^d = \sum_{i=1}^s (\lambda_i^d w_i)^d
\]

and \( f \) has a decomposition of size \( \leq s \leq r \). \( \square \)

2. Ranks of symmetric tensors

In this section we introduce all the different notions of rank of a homogeneous polynomial \( f \in S^d \), that we will use all along the paper.

2.1. Rank and border rank. The following definition is nowadays a classical one, see e.g. [27] and references therein.

Definition 2.1 (Rank). Let \( \sigma_r^{0,d} \subset \mathbb{P}(S^d) \) be the set of projective classes of homogeneous polynomials defined by

\[
\sigma_r^{0,d} := \{ [f] \in \mathbb{P}(S^d) | \exists k_1, \ldots, k_s \in S^1 \text{ with } s \leq r \text{ s.t. } f = k_1^d + \cdots + k_s^d \}.
\]

For any \( f \in S^d \), the minimal \( r \) such that \([f] \in \sigma_r^{0,d}\) is called the rank of \( f \) and denoted \( r(f) \).

Example 2.2. Let us describe a decomposition of the monomial \( f := x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n} \) with \( \alpha_0 + \cdots + \alpha_n = d \) of minimal size, which yields to its rank. We consider the ideal \( I_\epsilon := (x_1^{\alpha_1+1} - \epsilon \alpha_1 x_1^{\alpha_1+1}, x_2^{\alpha_2+1} - \epsilon \alpha_2 x_2^{\alpha_2+1}, \ldots, x_n^{\alpha_n+1} - \epsilon \alpha_n x_n^{\alpha_n+1}) \) for some \( \epsilon \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\} \). It is defining \((\alpha_1 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_n + 1)\) simple points (which \( i^{th} \) coordinates are \( \epsilon \) times the \((\alpha_i + 1)\)-roots of unity). Let us consider the element \( \Lambda \) of \( S^* \) defined as follows:

\[
\Lambda := \frac{1}{(\alpha_1 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_n + 1)} (d) \sum_{k_1=0}^{\alpha_1} \cdots \sum_{k_n=0}^{\alpha_n} \epsilon^{\alpha_0 - d - \sum_{i=1}^n k_i} \epsilon^{k_1} \cdots \epsilon^{k_n} 1_{(\epsilon \zeta_1^{k_1}, \ldots, \epsilon \zeta_n^{k_n})}
\]
where ζ_i is a primitive \((\alpha_i + 1)\)-th root of unity for \(i = 1, \ldots, n\). Then for any monomial \(x^d = x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n}\), we have

\[
\Lambda(x^d) = \frac{1}{(\alpha_1 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_n + 1)} \sum_{k_1=0}^{\alpha_1} \cdots \sum_{k_n=0}^{\alpha_n} \epsilon^{\alpha_0 - d + \beta_1 + \cdots + \beta_n} \zeta_1^{(\beta_1 + 1)k_1} \cdots \zeta_n^{(\beta_n + 1)k_n}
\]

\[
= \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
\frac{1}{(d)} \epsilon^{\rho(l_1, \ldots, l_n) + \alpha_0 - d} & \text{if } \forall i = 1, \ldots, n, \exists l_i \in \mathbb{N}_+, \beta_i + 1 = l_i(\alpha_i + 1) \\
0 & \text{otherwise.}
\end{array} \right.
\]

where \(\rho(l_1, \ldots, l_n) = l_1(\alpha_1 + 1) + \cdots + l_n(\alpha_n + 1) - n\). Its minimal value on \(\mathbb{N}_n^r\) is \(\rho(1, \ldots, 1) = \alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n = d - \alpha_0\). The previous computation shows that

\[
\Lambda_{|S^d} = \frac{1}{(d)} \sum_{\epsilon \in \mathbb{N}^d, |d - \alpha_0| \leq \rho(l) \leq d} \epsilon^{\alpha_0 + \rho(l) - d} d_0^{d_0} d_1^{d_1} \cdots d_n^{d_n}.
\]

Assume that \(\alpha_0 = \min_{i=0, \ldots, d} \alpha_i\). Then the ideal \(I\) is included in \((f^\perp) = (x_0^{\alpha_0 + 1}, \ldots, x_n^{\alpha_n + 1})\). By Proposition 1.14, we deduce that \(f\) has a decomposition of size \(\prod_{\epsilon \in \mathbb{N}^d} (\alpha_i + 1)\).

As \(\rho(l) \leq d\) implies \(l = (1, \ldots, 1)\), we have

\[
\Lambda_{|S^d} = \frac{1}{(d)} \prod_{\epsilon \in \mathbb{N}^d} (\alpha_i + 1) = f^\ast
\]

which gives the decomposition of \(f^\ast\). The corresponding decomposition of \(f\) in terms of \(d^\text{th}\)-powers of linear forms is

\[
x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n} = \frac{1}{(\alpha_1 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_n + 1)} \times \sum_{k_1=0}^{\alpha_1} \cdots \sum_{k_n=0}^{\alpha_n} \epsilon^{d - \alpha_0} \zeta_1^{k_1} \cdots \zeta_n^{k_n} (x_0 + \epsilon \zeta_1^{k_1} x_1 + \cdots + \epsilon \zeta_n^{k_n} x_n)^d.
\]

It can be proved that this decomposition has a minimal size (see [13], [14]), so that we have

\[
r(x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n}) = \prod_{\epsilon \in \mathbb{N}^d} (\alpha_i + 1).
\]

This example also shows that the decomposition is not unique, since \(\epsilon\) is any non-zero constant.

For more details on rank of monomials see also [15], [32] and [10]; the example above was also shown with different approach in [10, §2] and in [13, Corollary 3.8].

**Definition 2.3** (Border rank). The Zariski closure of \(\sigma^0_{r,d} \subset \mathbb{P}(S^d)\), also known as the \(r\)-th secant variety of the Veronese variety of \(S^d\), is denoted \(\sigma^r_{d}\).

The minimal \(r\) such that \([f] \in \sigma^d_{r}\) is called the border rank of \(f\) and we denote it \(r_\sigma(f)\) (cf. [11, 18, 34]).
**Example 2.4.** Consider again \( f := x_0^n \cdots x_n^n \) with \( \alpha_0 + \cdots + \alpha_n = d \). Suppose now that \( \alpha_0 = \max_i \alpha_i \). Then the decomposition (3) is of the form

\[
f_t^* = f^* + \frac{1}{(d_i)} \sum_{l \in \mathbb{N}^* | d - d_0 < \rho(l) \leq d} e^{\alpha_0 + \rho(l) - d} d_0^{-\rho(l)} d_1^{\alpha_1 + 1 - 1} \cdots d_n^{\alpha_n + 1 - 1},
\]

with possibly some terms in the sum which involves positive powers of \( e \). This shows that \( \lim_{t \to 0} f_t^* = f^* \). As \( f_t^* \in I_t^* \) and \( I_t \) is defining simple points, the rank of \( f_t^* \) is \( \leq \frac{\prod_{l=0}^{\alpha_n+1}}{\max_i (\alpha_i + 1)} \).

We deduce that the border rank of \( f \) is less than \( \frac{\prod_{l=0}^{\alpha_n+1}}{\max_i (\alpha_i + 1)} \). In [28] it is shown that if \( \max \alpha_i \) is equal to the sum of all the others \( \alpha_i \)'s then such a bound is actually sharp.

Consider e.g. \( f = x_0 x_1^{d-1} \) (for \( d > 2 \)). This is the first well known case where the rank and border rank are different: from Example 2.2 we get that \( r(f) = d \), while here we have just seen that \( r_\sigma(f) = 2 \) (see also [16], [5], [28]).

**2.2. Smoothable rank.** Let \( \text{Hilb}^{\text{red}}_r(\mathbb{P}^n) \) be the set of schemes of length \( r \) which are the limit of smooth schemes of \( r \) points, and let us consider the two following definitions according e.g. to [32] and [6].

**Definition 2.5.** For any integers \( r \) and \( d \), we define \( S^0_d \subset \mathbb{P}(S^{d,0}) \), as the set

\[
S^{d,0}_r := \{ [f] \in \mathbb{P}(S^d) | \exists s \leq r, \exists I \in \text{Hilb}^{\text{red}}_r(\mathbb{P}^n), \langle I^d, f \rangle = 0 \}.
\]

This leads to the following definition.

**Definition 2.6** (Smoothable rank). The smallest \( r \) such that \( [f] \in S^{d,0}_r \) is called the smoothable rank of \( f \) and it is denoted \( r_\text{smooth}^0(f) \).

**Remark 2.7.** In [26, Lemma 5.17] it is shown that \( S^{d,0}_r \subset \sigma^d_r \). This proves that

\[
r_\sigma(f) \leq r_\text{smooth}^0(f).
\]

The following example is a personal communication from W. Buczyńska and J. Buczyński ([8]). It shows that strictly inequalities can occur.

**Example 2.8 ([8]).** The following polynomial has border rank \( \leq 5 \) but smoothable rank \( \geq 6 \):

\[
f = x_0^2 x_2 + 6x_1^2 x_3 - 3(x_0 + x_1)^2 x_4.
\]

One can easily check that the following polynomial

\[
f_\varepsilon = (x_0 + \varepsilon x_2)^3 + 6(x_1 + \varepsilon x_3)^3 - 3(x_0 + x_1 + \varepsilon x_4)^3 + 3(x_0 + 2 x_1)^3 - (x_0 + 3 x_1)^3
\]

has rank 5 for \( \varepsilon > 0 \), and that \( \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \varepsilon f_\varepsilon = f \).

Therefore \( r_\sigma(f) \leq 5 \).

An explicit computation of \((f^+)\) yields to the following Hilbert function for \( H_{R/(f^+)} = [1, 5, 5, 1, 0, \ldots] \). Let us prove, by contradiction, that there is no saturated ideal \( I \subset (f^+) \) of degree \( \leq 5 \). Suppose on the contrary that \( I \) is such an ideal. Then \( H_{R/I}(n) \geq H_{R/(f^+)}(n) \) for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \). As \( H_{R/I}(n) \) is an increasing function of \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) with \( H_{R/(f^+)}(n) \leq H_{R/I}(n) \leq 5 \), we deduce that \( H_{R/I} = [1, 5, 5, 5, \ldots] \). This shows that \( I^1 = \{0\} \) and that \( I^2 = (f^+)^2 \). As \( I \) is saturated, \( I^2 : (x_0, \ldots, x_4) = I^1 = \{0\} \) since \( H_{R/(f^+)}(1) = 5 \). But an explicit computation of \((f^+)^2 : (x_0, \ldots, x_4) = \langle x_2, x_3, x_4 \rangle \) gives \langle x_2, x_3, x_4 \rangle. We obtain a contradiction, so
that there is no saturated ideal of degree \( \leq 5 \) such that \( I \subset (f^+) \). Consequently, \( r_{\text{smooth}}(f) \geq 6 \) so that \( r_\sigma(f) < r_{\text{smooth}}(f) \).

**Remark 2.9.** If we indicate with \( r_{\text{smooth}}(f) \) the smallest \( r \) such that \( [f] \in \overline{S_d^r} := S^d_r \), then we can observe that \( S^d_r = \sigma^d_r \). Obviously \( \sigma^d_r \subset S^d_r \). The other inclusion follows from Remark 2.7. This shows that

\[
 r_\sigma(f) = r_{\text{smooth}}(f).
\]

In the introduction we called \( r_{\text{smooth}}(f) \) the border smoothable rank of \( f \).

### 2.3. Catalecticant rank

The apolar ideal \((f^+)\) can also be defined via the kernel of the following operators. Let us recall the following standard definition.

**Definition 2.10 (Catalecticant).** Given a homogeneous polynomial \( f \in S^d \) and a positive integer \( k \) such that \( k \leq d \), the Catalecticant of order \( k \) of \( f \), denoted by \( H^{k,d-k}_{f^*} \), is the application:

\[
 H^{k,d-k}_{f^*} : S^k \to (S^{d-k})^* \\
 p \mapsto p \cdot f^*.
\]

Its matrix in the monomial basis \( \{x^a\}_{|a|=k} \) of \( S^k \) and in the basis \( \{(\beta)^{-1}d^\beta\}_{|\beta|=d-k} \) of \( (S^{d-k})^* \) is denoted \( H^{k,d-k}_{f^*} \).

By construction, \( H^{k,d-k}_{f^*} \) is the component \((f^+)^k\) of degree \( k \) of the apolar ideal \((f^+)\) of \( f \).

Given two families of monomials \( B \subset S^k \) and \( B' \subset S^{d-k} \), we denote by \( H^{B',B}_{f^*} \) the “restriction” of \( H^{k,d-k}_{f^*} \) from the vector space spanned by \( B \) to the dual of the vector space spanned by \( B' \).

**Remark 2.11.** By symmetry of the apolar product, we have \( H^{k,d-k}_{f^*} = tH^{d-k,k}_{f^*} \) via the identification \( S^{d-i} \simeq (S^{d-i})^* \). In terms of matrices, we have \( H^{k,d-k}_{f^*} = tH^{d-k,k}_{f^*} \).

**Definition 2.12 (Catalecticant rank).** Let \( f \in S^d \). The maximal rank of the operators \( H^{k,d-k}_{f^*} \), for \( 0 \leq k \leq d \), is called the catalecticant rank of \( f \) and it is denoted \( r_H(f) \).

This rank was already introduced in [26][Definition 5.66, p.198] where it was called “the differential length of \( f \)” and denoted by \( \text{ldiff}(f) \).

**Definition 2.13.** Given an integer \( i \leq d \in \mathbb{N}^k \) and \( r \in \mathbb{N} \), we define the variety \( \Gamma^{d-i}_r \subset \mathbb{P}(S^d) \) as:

\[
 \Gamma^{d-i}_r := \{|[f]| \in \mathbb{P}(S^d) \mid \text{rank } H^{i,d-i}_{f^*} = \text{rank } H^{d-i,i}_{f^*} \leq r \}.
\]

**Remark 2.14.** The set \( \Gamma^{d-i}_r \subset \mathbb{P}(S^d) \) is the algebraic variety defined by the minors \((r+1) \times (r+1)\) of the catalecticant matrices \( H^{i,d-i}_{f^*} \) (or \( H^{d-i,i}_{f^*} \)). These minors give not necessary reduced equations but they represents in \( \mathbb{P}(S^d) \) the variety that is the union of linear spaces spanned by the images of the divisors (hypersurfaces...
in $\mathbb{P}(S^1)$ of degree $r$ on the Veronese $\nu_d(\mathbb{P}(S^1))$ (see e.g. [5] and [24]). If $i = 1$, such a variety is known as the “subspace variety in $\mathbb{P}(S^d)$” $\text{Sub}_r(S^d(V)) := \mathbb{P}\{f \in S^d(V) | \exists W \subset V, \dim(W) = r, f \in S^d(W)\}$. For a generic $i$, it can be geometrically obtained by intersecting $\mathbb{P}(S^d)$ with the $r$-th secant variety of the Segre variety of $\mathbb{P}(S^n) \times \mathbb{P}(S^{d-n})$ (for a better description of subspace varieties see [27, §17.4]).

Example 2.15. For a monomial $f = x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n}$ with $\alpha_0 + \cdots + \alpha_n = d$, the apolar ideal of $f$ is $J := (f^\perp) = (x_0^{\alpha_0+1}, \ldots, x_n^{\alpha_n+1})$. By Remark 1.3, the rank of $H^{1, d-i}_J$ is the dimension of $S^i/J^*$ that is the coefficient of $t^i$ in

$$h(t) = \prod_{i=0}^{n}(1 + t + \cdots + t^{\alpha_i}).$$

The maximum value of these coefficients which is the catalecticant rank is reached for the coefficients of the closest degree to $\frac{1}{2}(\alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n)$ (it is proved in [33] that the polynomial $h(t)$ is symmetric unimodal, which means that its coefficients are increasing up to the median degree(s) and then decreasing symmetrically). The exact value of the maximum is not known but asymptotic equivalents are known in some cases, see e.g. [19, p. 234–240].

Consider for instance the monomial $f = x_0 x_1^2 x_2^2$. The previous computation yields to the following Hilbert series for the apolar ideal:

$$H_{S/(f^\perp)}(t) = (1 + t)(1 + t + t^2)^2 = 1 + 3t + 5t^2 + 5t^3 + 3t^4 + t^5.$$

This shows that rank $H^{1,4}_J = \text{rank } H^{4,1}_J = 3$, rank $H^{2,3}_J = \text{rank } H^{3,2}_J = 5$ and thus that $r_H(f) = 5$.

According to Example 2.4, the border rank of $f = x_0 x_1^2 x_2^2$ is $(1+1)(2+1) = 6$, which shows that the border rank of $f$ is strictly bigger that its Catalecticant rank.

In [29, Theorems 1.2.3 and 4.2.7], it is shown that $\Gamma^{2,3}_5(\mathbb{P}^2)$ has codimension 5 in $\mathbb{P}(S^5)$ while the secant variety $\sigma^5_3(\mathbb{P}^2)$ has codimension 6. Therefore a generic element of $\Gamma^{2,3}_5(\mathbb{P}^2)$ has border rank strictly bigger than 5.

2.4. Generalized rank and border generalized rank.

Definition 2.16. A generalized affine decomposition of size $r$ of $f \in S^d$ is a decomposition of the form

$$f^* = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbf{1}_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i(\partial) \text{ on } R^{\leq d}$$

where $\zeta_i \in \mathbb{K}^n$ and $\phi_i(\partial)$ are differential polynomials, such that the dimension of the inverse systems spanned by $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbf{1}_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i(\partial)$ is $r$.

Notice that the inverse system generated by $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbf{1}_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i(\partial)$ is the direct sum of the inverse systems generated by $\mathbf{1}_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i(\partial)$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$. The inverse system generated by $\mathbf{1}_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i(\partial)$ is the vector space spanned by the elements $\mathbf{1}_{\zeta_i} \circ \partial_{\phi_1}^{\alpha_1} \cdots \partial_{\phi_n}^{\alpha_n} \phi_i(\partial)$ for all $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{N}^n$. 
This decomposition generalizes the (Waring) decomposition of Definition 1.9, since when $\phi_i(\partial) = \lambda_i \in \mathbb{K}$ are constant polynomials, we have the decomposition
\[
 f^* = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \mathbf{1}_{\zeta_i} \text{ iff } f = \sum_{i=1}^m (1 + \zeta_{i,1} x_1 + \cdots + \zeta_{i,n} x_n)^d.
\]

**Definition 2.17** (Generalized rank). Given two integers $r$ and $d$, we define $G_r^{d,0} \subset \mathbb{P}(S^d)$ by:
\[
 G_r^{d,0} := \bigcup_{[g] \in PGL(n+1)} \{ [f] \in \mathbb{P}(S^d) \mid g \cdot f^* \text{ has a generalized affine decomposition of size } \leq r \}.
\]
The smallest $r$ such that $[f] \in G_r^{d,0}$ is called the generalized rank of $f$ and it is denoted $r_{G}^0(f)$.

**Example 2.18.** The polynomial $f = x^3 y + y^3 z$ defines an inverse system of dimension 4 obtained as $\{1_{(1,0,0)}, 1_{(1,0,0)} \partial_y, 1_{(0,1,0)}, 1_{(0,1,0)} \partial_z\}$, therefore $r_{G}^0(f) = 4$. Moreover, we are in a case of a polynomial of border rank 4 and rank 7 (as described in [5, Theorem 44]). In this case $r_{G}^0(f) = 4 = r_\sigma(f) < r(f) = 7$.

**Example 2.19.** For a monomial $f = x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n}$ with $\alpha_0 + \cdots + \alpha_n = d$, we have
\[
 f^* = \frac{1}{d!} 1_{(1,0,0,\ldots,0)} \cdot \partial_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots \partial_n^{\alpha_n}.
\]
The inverse system spanned by $1_{(1,0,0,\ldots,0)} \cdot \partial_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots \partial_n^{\alpha_n}$ is of dimension $(\alpha_1 + 1) \times \cdots \times (\alpha_n + 1)$. Assuming that $\alpha_0 = \max_i \alpha_i$, the previous decomposition is a generalized decomposition of minimal size (according to Corollary 3.9 and Example 2.28). Therefore we have
\[
r_{G}^0(x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n}) = \prod_{i=0}^n (\alpha_i + 1) / \max_i (\alpha_i + 1).
\]
Notice that $[f] \in G_r^{d,0}$ iff there exists a change of coordinates such that in the new set of coordinates $f$ has a generalized affine decomposition of size $\leq r$.

This notion of generalized affine decomposition and of generalized rank is related to the generalized additive decomposition introduced in [26, Definition 1.30, p. 22] for binary forms, called “the length of $f$” and denoted $l(f)$. However, the extension to forms in more variables proposed in [26, Definition 5.66, p. 198] does not correspond to the one we propose, in fact it corresponds to the border rank. For binary forms, the border rank and the generalized rank coincide as we will see in the sequel.

**Definition 2.20** (Border generalized rank). Given two integers $r$ and $d$, we define $G_r^d \subset \mathbb{P}(S^d)$ to be the Zariski closure of $G_r^{d,0}$ defined above. The smallest $r$ such that $[f] \in G_r^d$ is called the border generalized rank of $f$ and it is denoted $r_G(f)$.

25. Flat extension rank and border flat extension rank. We describe here a new notion of rank based on the property of extension of bounded rank of the catalecticant matrices.

**Definition 2.21.** For any integers $r$ and $d$, we define $E_r^{d,0} \subset \mathbb{P}(S^d)$, as the set
\[
 E_r^{d,0} := \{ [f] \in \mathbb{P}(S^d) \mid \exists u \in S^1 \setminus \{0\}, \exists [\tilde{f}] \in \Gamma_r^{m,m'} \text{ with } \\
m = \max\{r, \left\lfloor \frac{d}{2} \right\rfloor \}, m' = \max\{r - 1, \left\lfloor \frac{d}{2} \right\rfloor \} \text{ s.t. } u^{m+m' - d} \cdot \tilde{f}^* = f^* \}.
\]
By definition, \( m + m' \geq \left\lceil \frac{d}{2} \right\rceil + \left\lfloor \frac{d}{2} \right\rfloor = d \). Moreover, if \( d \geq 2r - 1 \) then \( E_r^d = \Gamma_{r,m,m'}^d \)
since \( m = \left\lceil \frac{d}{2} \right\rceil \), \( m' = \left\lfloor \frac{d}{2} \right\rfloor \) and \( m + m' - d = 0 \).

**Definition 2.22** (Flat extension rank). The smallest \( r \) such that \([f] \in E_r^{r,0}\) is called the flat extension rank of \( f \) and it is denoted \( r_{E^0}(f) \).

A \([\tilde{f}] \in \Gamma_{r,m,m'}^d\) such that \( \exists u \in S^1 \setminus \{0\} \) with \( u^{m + m' - d}.\tilde{f}^* = f^* \) and rank \( H_{r,m,m'}^1 = r \) is called a flat extension of \( f \in S^d \) of rank \( r \).

**Example 2.23.** For a monomial \( f = x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n} \) with \( \alpha_0 + \cdots + \alpha_n = d \), the element

\[
\tilde{f}^* = \frac{1}{d!} 1_{(1,0,\ldots,0)} \cdot \partial_i^{\alpha_i} \cdots \partial_n^{\alpha_n} \in S^* \]
defines, by restriction, a Hankel operator \( H_{f_i}^{r,r-1} \) from \( S^r \) to \((S^{r-1})^*\) where \( r = (\alpha_1 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_n + 1) \). We check that the image of \( H_{f_i}^{r,r-1} \) is the vector space of \((S^{r-1})^*\) spanned by \( 1_{(1,0,\ldots,0)} \cdot \partial_i^{\beta_i} \cdots \partial_n^{\beta_n} \) for \( 0 \leq \beta_i \leq \alpha_i \). Thus \( H_{f_i}^{r,r-1} \) is of rank \( r \). According to Example 2.19 and Theorem 3.5, \( \tilde{f} \) is a flat extension of \( f \) of minimal rank when \( \alpha_0 = \max_i \alpha_i \). We deduce that

\[
r_{E^0}(x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n}) = \frac{\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} (\alpha_i + 1)}{\max_i (\alpha_i + 1)} \]

Notice that \([f] \in E_r^{r,0}\) iff there exists a change of coordinates such that after this change of coordinates we have \( u = x_0 \) so that \( \tilde{f}^* \in (R^{m + m'})^* \) is such that

- \( \tilde{f}^* \mid_{R^{\leq d}} = f^* \) and
- \( \text{rank } H_{r,m,m'}^1 \leq r \).

In other words, \([f] \in E_r^{r,0}\) iff after a change of coordinates, \( f^* \in (R^{\leq d})^* \) can be extended to a linear form \( \tilde{f}^* \in (R^{\leq m + m'})^* \) with rank \( H_{r,m,m'}^1 \leq r \). We will see hereafter that we can choose a generic change of coordinates.

A simple way to characterize a flat extension of a given rank is given by the following result.

**Theorem 2.24** ([30], [3], [4]). Let \( M, M' \) be sets of \( R, B \subset M \) and \( B' \subset M' \) be two monomial sets of size \( r \) connected to 1 such that \( M \cdot M' \) contains \( B \cdot B' \).

If \( \Lambda \in (M \cdot M')^* \) is such that rank \( H_{\Lambda}^{B,B'} = \text{rank } H_{\Lambda}^{M,M'} = r \), then there exists an extension \( \tilde{\Lambda} \in R^* \) of \( \Lambda \) such that \( \text{rank } H_{\tilde{\Lambda}} = r \). Moreover, we have \( \ker H_{\tilde{\Lambda}} = (H_{\Lambda}^{M,M'}) \).

**Definition 2.25** (border flat extension rank). For any integers \( r \) and \( d \), we define \( E_r^d \subset \mathbb{P}(S^d) \), as the Zariski closure of set \( E_r^{r,0} \) defined above and the smallest \( r \) such that \([f] \in E_r^d \) is called the border flat extension rank of \( f \) and it is denoted \( r_{E}(f) \).

2.6. **Scheme length and border scheme length.** We recall that \( \text{Hilb}_s(\mathbb{P}^n) \) is the set of 0-dimensional schemes \( Z \) of \( s \) points (counted with multiplicity). It can be identified with the set of homogeneous saturated ideals \( I \subset S \) such that the algebra \( S/I \) has a constant Hilbert polynomial equal to \( s \).
Definition 2.26. For any integers \( r \) and \( d \), we define \( \mathcal{K}^{d,0}_r \subset \mathbb{P}(S^d) \), as the set 

\[
\mathcal{K}^{d,0}_r := \{ f \in \mathbb{P}(S^d) \mid \exists s \leq r, \exists I \in \text{Hilb}_s(\mathbb{P}^n), (I^d, f) = 0 \}.
\]

In [9], the \( r \)-cactus variety \( \mathcal{K}^d_r \) is defined as the closure of \( \mathcal{K}^{d,0}_r \).

Definition 2.27 (Scheme length and border scheme length). The smallest \( r \) such that \( [f] \in \mathcal{K}^{d,0}_r \) is called the scheme length (or cactus rank in [32]) of \( f \) and it is denoted \( r^\text{sch} (f) \). The smallest \( r \) such that \( [f] \in \mathcal{K}^d_r \) is called the border scheme length of \( f \) and it is denoted \( r^\text{sch} (f) \).

Example 2.28. For a monomial \( f = x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n} \) with \( \alpha_0 + \cdots + \alpha_n = d \), the ideal \( I = (x_1^{\alpha_1+1}, \ldots, x_n^{\alpha_n+1}) \) is an ideal of length \((\alpha_1 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_n + 1)\), which is apolar to \( f \). Assuming that \( \alpha_0 = \max_i \alpha_i \), this length \( \prod_{i=0}^n (\alpha_i + 1) / \max_i (\alpha_i + 1) \) is minimal as proved in [32, Cor. 2], using Bezout theorem.

Thus, the scheme length of \( f \) is:

\[
r^\text{sch} (x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n}) = \prod_{i=0}^n (\alpha_i + 1) / \max_i (\alpha_i + 1).
\]

This is an example where the border rank and scheme length coincide but they differ from the rank (see Example 2.4). In the next example, we have a case where the scheme length is strictly smaller than the border rank.

Example 2.29. In the case of cubic polynomials, the scheme length of a generic form is smaller than its border rank for forms in 9 variables. The border rank of a generic cubic form in 9 variables is in fact 19 (this is Alexander and Hirschowitz Theorem [1]), while the scheme length is smaller or equal than 18 (see [6]).

3. The generalized decomposition

The objective of this section is to relate the scheme length, generalized rank and flat extension rank.

Lemma 3.1. Given two integers \( r \) and \( d \), we have \( \mathcal{G}^{d,0}_r \subset \mathcal{K}^{d,0}_r \).

Proof. To prove this inclusion, we show that if \( g \cdot f^* \) has a generalized affine decomposition of size \( r \) of the form:

\[
g \cdot f^* = \sum_{i=1, \ldots, m} 1_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i (\partial),
\]

on \( R^d \), then \( f^* \in (I^d)^\perp \) for some ideal \( I \in \text{Hilb}_s(\mathbb{P}^n) \) with \( s \leq r \).

By a change of coordinates, we can assume that \( g = \text{Id}_{n+1} \). Then the linear form:

\[
\Lambda = \sum_{i=1, \ldots, m} 1_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i (\partial) \in R^s
\]

coincides with \( f^* \) on \( R^{\leq d} \). By Proposition 1.6, as the dimension of the inverse system generated by \( \Lambda \) is \( s \leq r \), \( \Lambda = \ker H_\Lambda \subset R \) is a zero-dimensional ideal of
multiplicity $s \leq r$. We denote by $I \subset S$ the homogenization of $\underline{L}$ with respect to $x_0$. Then,

$$I \in \text{Hilb}_s(\mathbb{P}^n).$$

As $f^* = \Delta$ on $R^{d}$, we have:

$$f^* \in (I^d)^{\perp},$$

which proves the inclusion. \hfill \Box

Lemma 3.2. Given integers $r$, $d$ and $i$ such that $0 \leq i \leq d$, we have $K_{r}^{d,0} \subset \Gamma_{r}^{i,d-i}$.

Proof. Let us prove that for all $f \in S^d$ such that $\langle I^d, f \rangle = 0$ with $I \in \text{Hilb}_s(\mathbb{P}^n)$ and $s \leq r$, we have:

$$\text{rank}(H_{f}^{i,d-i}) \leq s \leq r$$

for all $0 \leq i \leq d$. By Lemma 1.13, we have $I \subset J := (f^{\perp})$ so that $I^i \subset J^i$ for $0 \leq i \leq d$.

As the Hilbert function of a saturated ideal $I \in \text{Hilb}_s(\mathbb{P}^n)$ is increasing until degree $s$ and then it is constantly equal to $s$, we have

$$\text{dim} \ S^i/I^i \leq s, \ \forall \ 0 \leq i \leq d.$$

By the above inclusion, this implies that

$$\text{dim} \ S^i/J^i \leq s, \ \forall \ 0 \leq i \leq d.$$

As $J^i := \ker H_{f}^{i,d-i}$, we deduce that

$$\text{rank} \ H_{f}^{i,d-i} \leq s, \ \forall \ 0 \leq i \leq d.$$

Consequently as $s \leq r$, $f \in \Gamma_{r}^{i,d-i}$ and $K_{r}^{d,0} \subset \Gamma_{r}^{i,d-i}$. \hfill \Box

Corollary 3.3. For any homogeneous polynomial $f$ we have that $r_H(f) \leq r_{\text{sch}}(f) \leq r_{\text{sch}^0}(f)$.

Proof. By Lemma 3.2 we have that $K_{r}^{d,0} \subset \Gamma_{r}^{i,d-i}$. Now since $\Gamma_{r}^{i,d-i}$ is closed by definition, we get that $K_{r}^{d,0} \subset \Gamma_{r}^{i,d-i} \subset \Gamma_{r}^{i,d-i}$ that implies that $r_H(f) \leq r_{\text{sch}}(f) \leq r_{\text{sch}^0}(f)$. \hfill \Box

Lemma 3.4. Let $d \geq r$ and $E \subset S^d$ such that $S^d/E$ is of dimension $r$. Then for a generic change of coordinates $g \in PGL(n + 1)$, $S^d/g \cdot E$ has a monomial basis of the form $x_0 B$ with $B \subset S^{d-1}$. Moreover, $\underline{B}$ is connected to 1.

Proof. Let $\succ$ be the lexicographic ordering such that $x_0 \succ \cdots \succ x_n$. By [21][Theorem 15.20, p. 351], after a generic change of coordinates, the initial $J$ of the ideal $I = (E)$ for $\succ$ is Borel fixed. That is, if $x_i x^a \in J$ then $x_j x^a \in J$ for $j > i$.

To prove that there exists a subset $B$ of monomials of degree $d - 1$ such that $x_0 B$ is a basis of $S^d/I^d$, we show that $J^d + x_0 S^{d-1} = S^d$. Let $J^d = (J^d + x_0 S^{d-1})/x_0 S^{d-1}$, $S^d = S^d/x_0 S^{d-1} = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ and $L = (J : x_0)$. Then we have the exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow S^{d-1}/L^{d-1} \xrightarrow{\mu_{x_0}} S^d/J^d \rightarrow S^d/J^d,$$

where $\mu_{x_0}$ is the multiplication by $x_0$. Let us denote by $s_k = \dim S^k$ and $q(k) = s_k - r$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $\dim S^d/J^d > 0$, then $\dim L^{d-1} > s_{d-1} - r = q(d - 1)$. As $d \geq r$ and $r$ is the Gotzmann regularity of $q$, by [25, (2.10), p. 66]
we have \( \dim S^1 L^{d-1} > q(d) \). As \( J \) is Borel fix, i.e. \( x_0 p \in J \) implies \( x_i p \in J \) for \( i \geq 0 \), we have \( S^1 L^{d-1} \subset J \), so that \( \dim J^d \geq \dim S^1 L^{d-1} > q(d) = s_d - r \). This implies that \( \dim S^d / J^d = \dim S^d / I^d = \dim S^d / E < r \), which contradicts the hypothesis on \( E \). Thus \( J^d + x_0 S^{d-1} = S^d \).

Let \( B' \) be the complementary of \( J^d \) in the set of monomials of degree \( d \). The sum \( S^d = J^d + x_0 S^{d-1} \) shows that \( B' = x_0 B \) for some subset \( B \) of monomials of degree \( d - 1 \).

As \( J^d \) is Borel fix and different from \( S^d \), its complementary \( B' \) contains \( x_0^d \). Similarly we check that if \( x_0^{\alpha_0} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n} \in B' \) with \( \alpha_1 = \cdots = \alpha_{k-1} = 0 \) and \( \alpha_k \neq 0 \) then \( x_0^{\alpha_0+1} x_k^{\alpha_k-1} x_{k+1}^{\alpha_{k+1}} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n} \in B' \). This shows that \( B' = B \) is connected to \( 1 \). \( \square \)

The equality \( \mathcal{K}^d = \Gamma^d \) for \( d \geq 2r \) and \( r \leq i \leq d - r \), that appears in the following theorem was proved, with a different technique, in [9, Theorem 1.7].

**Theorem 3.5.** For integers \( r, d \) and \( i \) such that \( d \geq 2r \), \( r \leq i \leq d - r \), we have

\[
\mathcal{G}^d = \mathcal{E}^d = \mathcal{K}^d = \mathcal{E}^d_r = \mathcal{E}^d = \Gamma^d.
\]

**Proof.** Let \( d \geq 2r \) and \( r \leq i \leq d - r \). We first prove the following inclusion:

\[
\Gamma^d \subset \mathcal{G}^d.
\]

Let us fix \([f] \in \Gamma^d\) for an integer \( r \leq i \leq d - r \). Let us denote \( E := \ker(H^d) \) and \( F := \ker(H^d) \) and \( k \leq r \) the rank of \( H^d \). We recall that:

\[
H^d = t H^d.
\]

The quotients \( S^i / E \) and \( S^{d-i} / F \) are thus of dimension \( k \). As \( k \leq r \leq i \) and \( k \leq r \leq d - i \), by Lemma 3.4 and a generic change of coordinates we may assume that there exists a family \( B \) (resp. \( B' \)) of \( k \) monomials of \( S^i \) (resp. \( S^{d-i} \)) such that \( x_0 B \) (resp. \( x_0 B' \)) is a basis of \( S^i / E \) (resp. \( S^{d-i} / F \)) and that

\[
B \subset R^{i-1} \quad \text{and} \quad B' \subset R^{d-i-1}
\]

are connected to \( 1 \). Notice then that

\[
H^d B = H^d x_0 B
\]

is an invertible matrix of size \( k \times k \). As the monomials of \( B \) are in \( R^{i-1} \) (resp. \( R^{d-i-1} \)), the monomials of \( B^t \) (resp. \( B^t \)) are in the set \( M \) (resp. \( M' \)) of monomials of degree \( \leq i \) (resp. \( \leq d - i \)) and \( B^t \cdot B^t \subset M \cdot M' \). Moreover, we have

\[
\operatorname{rank} H^d B = \operatorname{rank} x_0 B = \operatorname{rank} M' = k.
\]

By Theorem 2.24, there exists a linear form \( \Lambda \in R^* \) which extends \( f^* \) such that \( \dim \ker f / I^d = r \) where \( I_h = \ker H^d \). By Theorem 1.5, as \( \Lambda \in I^d \), there exists \( \zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_m \in \mathbb{K}^n \), differential polynomials \( \phi_1, \ldots, \phi_m \in \mathbb{K}[\partial_1, \ldots, \partial_n] \) such that

\[
\Lambda = \sum_{i=1}^m 1_{\zeta_i} \circ \phi_i(\partial).
\]
As the inverse system spanned by $\Lambda$ is included in $(I_\Lambda)^\perp$ which is of dimension $s$ and as $\Lambda$ coincides with $f^*$ on $R^{d,d}$, $f$ has a generalized affine decomposition of size $\leq s \leq r$ and $[f] \in G_r^{d,0}$. This proves that $\Gamma_r^{i,d-i} \subseteq G_r^{d,0}$.

Using Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2, we have
\begin{equation} \tag{5} \Gamma_r^{i,d-i} \subseteq G_r^{d,0} \subseteq K_r^{d,0} \subseteq \Gamma_r^{i,d-i}. \end{equation}
By definition, $E_r^{d,0} = \Gamma_r^{r,d-r}$ when $d \geq 2r$. As $\Gamma_r^{i,d-i}$ is closed, the previous inclusions show that $G_r^{d,0} = G_r^{d} = K_r^{d,0} = E_r^{d,0} = E_r^{d} = \Gamma_r^{r,d-i}$. $\square$

To analyze the relationship between the sets $G_r^{d,0}$, $E_r^{d,0}$, $K_r^{d,0}$ for general $r, d \in \mathbb{N}$, we need the following lemma.

**Lemma 3.6.** Given $r, d \in \mathbb{N}$, $u \in S^1$, $f \in S^d$ and $I \in \text{Hilb}_r(\mathbb{P}^n)$ such that $u \neq 0$ is a non-zero divisor for $I$, there exists a flat extension $\tilde{f} \in \Gamma_r^{m,m'}$ of $f$ such that $u^{m+m'-d} \cdot \tilde{f}^* = f^*$, and we have $K_r^{d,0} \subseteq E_r^{d,0}$.

**Proof.** Let $f \in S^d$ with $f^* \in (I^d)^\perp$, $I \in \text{Hilb}_r(\mathbb{P}^n)$.

Let $u \in S^1$ be a linear form such that $(I : u) = I$. By a change of coordinates, we can assume that $u = x_0$. We denote by $\overline{I} \subseteq R$ the dehomogenization of $I \subseteq S$ (setting $x_0 = 1$). As $I \in \text{Hilb}_r(\mathbb{P}^n)$ and $(I : x_0) = I$, the quotient algebra $R/\overline{I}$ is a $K$-vector space of dimension $r$. By the following natural isomorphism:
\begin{equation} \tag{6} (I^d)^\perp \simeq (S^d/I^d)^* \simeq (R^d/\overline{I}^{\leq d})^*. \end{equation}
a linear form $f^* \in (I^d)^\perp$ corresponds to a linear form $\underline{f}^* \in (R^d/\overline{I}^{\leq d})^*$. As
\[ R^d/\overline{I}^{\leq d} \hookrightarrow R/\overline{I}, \]
the linear form $\underline{f}^* \in (R^d/\overline{I}^{\leq d})^*$ can be extended (not necessary in a unique way) to a linear form $\hat{f}^* \in (R/\overline{I})^*$.

As the ideal $I\hat{\phi} = \ker \hat{H}_\phi$ contains $\overline{I}$ and $\dim R/\overline{I} = r$, we deduce that $\hat{H}_\phi$ is of rank $\leq r$. By restriction, $\hat{H}_\phi^{m,m}$ is of rank $\leq r$, where $\hat{\phi} = \phi|_{R_{\leq 2m}}$. The restriction of $\hat{\phi}$ to $R^{d,d}$ is $\hat{f}^*$.

For any $[f] \in K_r^{d,0}$, there exists $I \in \text{Hilb}_r(\mathbb{P}^n)$ such that $f^* \in (I^d)^\perp$. As $I$ is a saturated ideal, it is always possible to find $u \in S^1$ such that $u \neq 0$ is non-zero divisor for $I$. By the previous construction, we can find a flat extension $[\tilde{f}] \in \Gamma_r^{m,m'}$ of $[f]$, which this shows that $[f] \in E_r^{d,0}$ and that $K_r^{d,0} \subseteq E_r^{d,0}$. $\square$

**Theorem 3.7.** Let $f \in S^d$. The following are equivalent:

- There exists a zero-dimensional saturated ideal $I$ defining $\leq r$ points counted with multiplicity such that $I \subseteq (f^d)$;
- $f$ has a generalized decomposition of size $\leq r$;
- $f$ has a flat extension of size $\leq r$.

In other words,
\begin{equation} \tag{7} G_r^{d,0} = K_r^{d,0} = E_r^{d,0}. \end{equation}
and $r_{G^0}(f) = r_{sch^0}(f) = r_{E^0}(f)$. 

Corollary 3.9. For any homogeneous polynomial $f$ we have $\mathcal{G}^d_r \subset \mathcal{K}^d_r$. By Lemma 3.6, we have $\mathcal{K}^d_r \subset \mathcal{E}^d_r$.

Let us prove that $\mathcal{E}^d_r \subset \mathcal{G}^d_r$. For any $[f] \in \mathcal{E}^d_r$, there exists $[\tilde{f}] \in \mathcal{G}^d_r$ and concludes the proof of the theorem.

By Lemma 3.1, we have $u^{m-r} \cdot \tilde{f}$ by derivation. As $\phi_i'$ is obtained from $\phi_i$ by derivation, the inverse system spanned by $1_i \circ \phi_i'(\partial)$ is included in the inverse system spanned by $1_i \circ \phi_i(\partial)$. Thus $f$ has an affine generalized decomposition of the form:

$$\tilde{f}^* = \sum_{i=1,\ldots,m} 1_i \circ \phi_i(\partial).$$

As $f^* = u^{m-r} \cdot \tilde{f}^*$, we have

$$f^* = u^{m-r} \cdot \tilde{f}^* = \sum_{i=1,\ldots,m} u^{m-r} \cdot (1_i \circ \phi_i(\partial)) = \sum_{i=1,\ldots,m} 1_i \circ \phi_i'(\partial)$$

and concludes the proof of the theorem.

Corollary 3.8. $\mathcal{G}^d_r = \mathcal{K}^d_r = \mathcal{E}^d_r$ and $r_G(f) = r_{sch}(f) = r_{E}(f)$.

Corollary 3.9. For any homogeneous polynomial $f$ we have that:

$$r_H(f) \leq r_G(f) = r_{sch}(f) = r_{E}(f) \leq$$

$$\leq r_{\mathcal{G}^d_0}(f) = r_{\mathcal{sch}^d_0}(f) = r_{\mathcal{E}^d_0}(f) \leq r(f).$$

Proof. Form Corollary 3.3 we get that $r_H(f) \leq r_{sch}(f) \leq r_{sch}^d(f)$. By definitions of $\mathcal{G}^d_r$, $\mathcal{K}^d_r$ and $\mathcal{E}^d_r$ we obviously have that $r_G(f) \leq r_{\mathcal{G}^d_0}(f)$, $r_G(f) \leq r_{\mathcal{E}^d_0}(f)$, $r_G(f) \leq r_{\mathcal{E}^d_0}(f)$. Finally Theorem 3.7 and Corollary 3.8 end the proof.

Remark 3.10. Obviously $S^d_r \subset \mathcal{K}^d_r$ and $\mathcal{S}^d_r \subset \mathcal{K}^d_r$. This justify $r_H(f) \leq r_G(f) = r_{sch}(f) = r_{E}(f)$ and $r_{\mathcal{G}^d_0}(f) = r_{\mathcal{sch}^d_0}(f) = r_{\mathcal{E}^d_0}(f) \leq r_{\mathcal{smooth}^d_0}(f)$. Now, in order to complete table (1), it is sufficient to use Remarks 2.7 and 2.9.

Remark 3.11. At the beginning of the proof of Theorem 3.5, we showed that if $d \geq 2r$ and $r \leq i \leq d - r$, then $\mathcal{G}^d_r = \mathcal{K}^d_r$, $\mathcal{K}^d_r = \mathcal{E}^d_r$ and $\mathcal{E}^d_r = \mathcal{E}^d_r$. Observe that in Example 2.8 the condition $d \geq 2r$ is not satisfied. Since, by Corollary 3.9, we have that $r_{\mathcal{G}^d_0}(f) = r_{\mathcal{sch}^d_0}(f)$, then Example 2.8 gives also an example of a polynomial $f$ such that $r_G(f) = r_{sch}(f) = r_{E}(f) < r_{\mathcal{G}^d_0}(f) = r_{\mathcal{sch}^d_0}(f) = r_{\mathcal{E}^d_0}(f)$.

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References


A COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT NOTIONS OF RANKS OF SYMMETRIC TENSORS


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