

## GEOMETRY HW 3

CLAY SHONKWILER

### 2.4.13

A *critical point* of a differentiable function  $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined on a regular surface  $S$  as a point  $p \in S$  such that  $df_p = 0$ .

(a) Let  $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be given by  $f(p) = |p - p_0|$ ,  $p \in S$ ,  $p_0 \notin S$ . Show that  $p \in S$  is a critical point of  $f$  if and only if the line joining  $p$  to  $p_0$  is normal to  $S$  at  $p$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\alpha(t)$  be a curve on  $S$  with  $\alpha(0) = p$ ,  $\alpha'(0) = w$ . Then  $p$  is a critical point if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = df_p(w) &= \frac{d}{dt} \|p - p_0\| \Big|_{t=0} \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} (\|\alpha(0) - p_0\|) \Big|_{t=0} \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} (\langle \alpha(0) - p_0, \alpha(0) - p_0 \rangle^{1/2}) \Big|_{t=0} \\ &= \frac{-1}{2\langle \alpha(0) - p_0, \alpha(0) - p_0 \rangle^{1/2}} \langle \alpha'(0), \alpha(0) - p_0 \rangle \langle \alpha(0) - p_0, \alpha'(0) \rangle \\ &= \frac{-1}{2\|p - p_0\|} \langle w, p - p_0 \rangle \langle p - p_0, w \rangle \\ &= \frac{-2\langle w, p - p_0 \rangle}{2\|p - p_0\|} \\ &= \frac{-\langle w, p - p_0 \rangle}{\|p - p_0\|} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we see that it must be the case that  $\langle w, p - p_0 \rangle = 0$ . Since this implies that the vector on the line joining  $p$  and  $p_0$  is orthogonal to  $w$ . Since  $w \in T_p(S)$  and our choice of  $\alpha$  was arbitrary, we see that the line joining  $p$  and  $p_0$  is normal to  $S$  at  $p$  if and only if  $p$  is a critical point of  $f$ .  $\square$

(b) Let  $h : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be given by  $h(p) = \langle p, v \rangle$ , where  $v \in \mathbb{R}^3$  is a unit vector. Show that  $p \in S$  is a critical point of  $h$  if and only if  $v$  is a normal vector of  $S$  at  $p$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\alpha(t)$  be a curve on  $S$  with  $\alpha(0) = p$  and  $\alpha'(0) = w$ . Then  $p$  is a critical point of  $h$  if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = dh_p(w) &= \frac{d}{dt} (\langle \alpha(t), v \rangle) \Big|_{t=0} \\ &= \langle \alpha'(0), v \rangle \\ &= \langle w, v \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $v$  and  $w$  are perpendicular. Since our choice of  $\alpha$  was arbitrary and  $w \in T_p S$ , we see that  $v$  must be perpendicular to  $T_p S$ , meaning  $v$  is a normal vector of  $S$  at  $p$  if and only if  $p$  is a critical point of  $h$ .  $\square$

## 2.4.17

Two regular surfaces  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  intersect *transversally* if whenever  $p \in S_1 \cap S_2$  then  $T_p(S_1) \neq T_p(S_2)$ . Prove that if  $S_1$  intersects  $S_2$  transversally, then  $S_1 \cap S_2$  is a regular curve.

*Proof.* First, we need the following lemma:

**Lemma 0.1.** *Suppose  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is a differentiable function and  $(a, b) \in f(U)$  is a regular value of  $f$ . Then  $f^{-1}(a, b)$  is a regular curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose  $f$  is as above, where

$$f(x, y, z) = (f_1(x, y, z), f_2(x, y, z))$$

and let  $p = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$  be an element of  $f^{-1}(a, b)$ . Then, since  $(a, b)$  is a regular value, it is possible to assume, by renaming axes if necessary, that the minor determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y}(p) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial z}(p) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y}(p) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial z}(p) \end{vmatrix} \neq 0.$$

Now, define  $F : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  such that

$$F(x, y, z) = (x, f_1(x, y, z), f_2(x, y, z)).$$

Let  $(u, v, t)$  indicate the coordinates of a point in the image of  $F$ . Then

$$dF_p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x}(p) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y}(p) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial z}(p) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x}(p) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y}(p) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial z}(p) \end{pmatrix},$$

so

$$\det dF_p = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y}(p) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial z}(p) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y}(p) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial z}(p) \end{vmatrix} \neq 0.$$

Therefore, by the Inverse Function Theorem, there exist neighborhoods  $V$  and  $W$  of  $p$  and  $F(p)$ , respectively, such that  $F : V \rightarrow W$  is a diffeomorphism. Hence, the coordinate functions of  $F^{-1}$ , namely

$$x = u, \quad y = g(u, v, t), \quad z = h(u, v, t),$$

are differentiable. In particular,

$$y = g(u, a, b) = \bar{g}(u) \quad \text{and} \quad z = h(u, a, b) = \bar{h}(u)$$

are differentiable functions. Now, if we let  $I \subset W \cap \{(u, v, t) : v = a, t = b\}$  be an interval such that  $p \in F^{-1}(I)$ , then  $F^{-1}|_I$  is a diffeomorphism of  $I$  with a subset of  $f^{-1}(a, b) \cap V$ . Since our choice of  $p$  was arbitrary, we see that  $f^{-1}(a, b)$  is, indeed, a regular curve.  $\square$

With this lemma in hand, we are now ready to attack the problem. Since  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are regular surfaces, each is locally of the form  $f^{-1}(a)$ , where  $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a differentiable function and  $a$  is a regular value of  $f$ . Hence, suppose that  $S_1$  is given by  $f^{-1}(a)$  and  $S_2$  by  $g^{-1}(b)$  in a neighborhood of  $p$ . In this neighborhood,  $S_1 \cap S_2$  is given by  $F^{-1}(a, b)$ , where

$$F : U \subset \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

is defined by  $F(q) := (f(q), g(q))$ . Since  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  intersect transversally, the normal vectors  $(f_x, f_y, f_z)$  and  $(g_x, g_y, g_z)$  are not multiples of each other, and so are certainly linearly independent. Hence,

$$dF_p = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(p) & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(p) & \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(p) \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}(p) & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}(p) & \frac{\partial g}{\partial z}(p) \end{pmatrix}$$

has a minor with non-zero determinant, so  $(a, b)$  is a regular value of  $F$ . Therefore, by our lemma,  $S_1 \cap S_2$  is a regular curve.  $\square$

2.5.14

The *gradient* of a differentiable function  $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a differentiable map  $\text{grad} : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  which assigns to each point  $p \in S$  a vector  $\text{grad} f(p) \in T_p(S) \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  such that

$$\langle \text{grad} f(p), v \rangle = df_p(v) \quad \text{for all } v \in T_p(S).$$

Show that,

(a) If  $E, F, G$  are the coefficients of the first fundamental form in a parameterization  $\phi : U \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow S$ , then  $\text{grad} f$  on  $\phi(U)$  is given by

$$\text{grad} f = \frac{f_u G - f_v F}{EG - F^2} \Phi_1 + \frac{f_v E - f_u F}{EG - F^2} \Phi_2.$$

In particular, if  $S = \mathbb{R}^2$  with coordinates  $x, y$ ,

$$\text{grad} f = f_x e_1 + f_y e_2,$$

where  $\{e_1, e_2\}$  is the canonical basis of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $w \in T_p S$ . Then  $w = u_1 \Phi_1 + u_2 \Phi_2$  for some  $u_1, u_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $df_p(w) = u_1 f_u + u_2 f_v$ . Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} u_1 f_u + u_2 f_v &= df_p(w) \\ &= \langle \text{grad} f, w \rangle \\ &= \langle \alpha_1 \Phi_1 + \alpha_2 \Phi_2, u_1 \Phi_1 + u_2 \Phi_2 \rangle \\ &= \alpha_1 u_1 \langle \Phi_1, \Phi_1 \rangle + \alpha_1 u_2 \langle \Phi_1, \Phi_2 \rangle + \alpha_2 u_1 \langle \Phi_2, \Phi_1 \rangle + \alpha_2 u_2 \langle \Phi_2, \Phi_2 \rangle \\ &= \alpha_1 u_1 \langle \Phi_1, \Phi_1 \rangle + (\alpha_1 u_2 + \alpha_2 u_1) \langle \Phi_1, \Phi_2 \rangle + \alpha_2 u_2 \langle \Phi_2, \Phi_2 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Substituting  $E = \langle \Phi_1, \Phi_1 \rangle$ ,  $F = \langle \Phi_1, \Phi_2 \rangle$  and  $G = \langle \Phi_2, \Phi_2 \rangle$ , we see that

$$u_1 f_u + u_2 f_v = \alpha_1 u_1 E + (\alpha_1 u_2 + \alpha_2 u_1) F + \alpha_2 u_2 G = u_1 (\alpha_1 E + \alpha_2 F) + u_2 (\alpha_1 F + \alpha_2 G).$$

Now, we need to solve for  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ .

$$u_1 f_u = u_1 (\alpha_1 E + \alpha_2 F)$$

so

$$\alpha_1 = \frac{f_u - \alpha_2 F}{E}.$$

Now,

$$u_2 f_v = u_2(\alpha_1 F + \alpha_2 G)$$

so, substituting for  $\alpha_1$ , we see that

$$f_u F - \alpha_2 F^2 + \alpha_2 EG = f_v E.$$

Solving for  $\alpha_2$  and replacing that value into the expression for  $\alpha_1$ , we see that

$$\text{grad} f = \alpha_1 \Phi_1 + \alpha_2 \Phi_2 = \frac{f_u G - f_v F}{EG - F^2} \Phi_1 + \frac{f_v E - f_u F}{EG - F^2} \Phi_2.$$

□

(b) If you let  $p \in S$  be fixed and  $v$  vary in the unit circle  $|v| = 1$  in  $T_p S$ , then  $df_p(v)$  is maximum if and only if  $v = \text{grad} f / |\text{grad} f|$ .

*Proof.* By the definition of  $\text{grad}$ , we know that

$$df_p(v) = \langle \text{grad} f(p), v \rangle.$$

Applying the Schwarz inequality, we see that

$$df_p(v) = \langle \text{grad} f(p), v \rangle \leq \|\text{grad} f(p)\| \|v\| = \|\text{grad} f(p)\|.$$

Now, if  $v = \text{grad} f / |\text{grad} f|$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} df_p(v) &= \langle \text{grad} f(p), \text{grad} f / \|\text{grad} f\| \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\|\text{grad} f(p)\|^2} \langle \text{grad} f(p), \text{grad} f(p) \rangle \\ &= \frac{\|\text{grad} f(p)\|^2}{\|\text{grad} f(p)\|^2} \\ &= \|\text{grad} f(p)\|, \end{aligned}$$

the maximum value for  $df_p(v)$ . On the other hand, if  $df_p(v)$  is maximized, then  $df_p(v) = \|\text{grad} f(p)\|$  (since we've just seen that this maximum is achieved), so, working backwards through the above chain of inequalities, we see that  $v = \text{grad} f / \|\text{grad} f\|$ . Therefore, we conclude that  $df_p(v)$  is maximum if and only if  $v = \text{grad} f / \|\text{grad} f\|$ . □

(c) If  $\text{grad} f \neq 0$  at all points of the *level curve*  $C = \{q \in S; f(q) = \text{const}\}$ , then  $C$  is a regular curve on  $S$  and  $\text{grad} f$  is normal to  $C$  at all points of  $C$ .

*Proof.* Based on the lemma we proved for problem 2.4.17 above, we see immediately that  $C$  is in fact a regular curve. Suppose it is given by a smooth function  $\alpha : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $\alpha(0) = p$  and  $\alpha'(0) = w$ . Let  $\beta = f \circ \alpha$ . Then  $\beta$  is merely a constant map, so  $\beta' \equiv 0$ . Therefore

$$\langle \text{grad} f, w \rangle = df_p(w) = \beta'(0) = 0.$$

Since  $w \in T_p S$ ,  $\text{grad} f \neq 0$  at  $p$  and our choice of  $p$  was arbitrary, we see that, in fact,  $\text{grad} f$  is normal to  $C$  at all points of  $C$ . □

2.6.4

Prove that a regular, connected, orientable surface can have only two distinct orientations.

*Proof.* As we saw in class, any orientation determines a normal vector field  $N$  on the regular, connected, orientable surface  $S$ . Since  $-N$  will also be a normal vector field on  $S$ , we see that there are at least two orientations for any such  $S$ .

To see that there are at most two, suppose there were three orientations for  $S$ , yielding three normal vector fields  $N_1, N_2, N_3$ . Now, define maps  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3 : S \rightarrow \{0, 2\}$  such that

$$\gamma_1(p) = \|N_1(p) - N_2(p)\|, \gamma_2(p) = \|N_1(p) - N_3(p)\|, \gamma_3(p) = \|N_2(p) - N_3(p)\|,$$

where  $N_i(p)$  is the element of  $N_i$  associated with  $p$  and  $p \in S$ . This is a well-defined functions, since each  $N_i(p)$  is of length 1 for all  $p \in S$ . Now, since  $\gamma_i$  is merely the norm of a difference of continuous functions,  $\gamma_i$  is continuous for  $i = 1, 2, 3$ . Now, the continuous image of  $S$  is connected, since  $S$  is connected, so  $Im(\gamma_i) = \{0\}$  or  $Im(\gamma_i) = \{2\}$ . Now, since  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  are associated with distinct orientations of  $S$ , it must be the case that  $Im(\gamma_1) = \{2\}$ , which implies  $N_2(p) = -N_1(p)$  for all  $p \in S$ .

On the other hand, since  $N_1$  and  $N_3$  are associated with distinct orientations of  $S$ , it must be the case that  $Im(\gamma_2) = \{2\}$  as well. This implies that  $N_3(p) = -N_1(p)$  for all  $p \in S$ . Therefore, we see that

$$N_2(p) = -N_1(p) = N_3(p)$$

for all  $p$ , so  $N_2$  and  $N_3$  are the same normal vector field. However, this contradicts our assumption that  $N_1, N_2$  and  $N_3$  are associated with distinct orientations of  $S$ . From this contradiction, we conclude that there can be at most two orientations on any regular, connected, orientable surface.  $\square$

2.6.5

Let  $\phi : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  be a diffeomorphism.

(a) Show that  $S_1$  is orientable if and only if  $S_2$  is orientable.

*Proof.* Now, suppose  $\{(U, \phi^{-1})\}$  gives a coherent atlas for  $S_1$  that induces an orientation. Now,  $\{(U, \phi^{-1} \circ f^{-1})\}$  gives an atlas on  $S_2$ , since  $f$  is a diffeomorphism.

Suppose  $\psi := \phi \circ f : U \rightarrow V \subseteq S_2$  and  $\psi' := f \circ \phi' : U' \rightarrow V' \subseteq S_2$  are two overlapping coordinate charts in this atlas. Then  $\psi$  induces an orientation on  $T_p S$  given by  $[\Psi_1, \Psi_2]$  and  $\psi'$  induces an orientation given by  $[\Psi'_1, \Psi'_2]$ . Furthermore,

$$\Psi'_1 = \Psi_1 \frac{\partial u}{\partial u'} + \Psi_2 \frac{\partial v}{\partial u'}$$

and

$$\Psi'_2 = \Psi_1 \frac{\partial u}{\partial v'} + \Psi_2 \frac{\partial v}{\partial v'}.$$

Hence, the change of basis matrix is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial u'} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial u'} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial v'} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial v'} \end{pmatrix}.$$

However, this is precisely the change of basis between  $[\Phi_1, \Phi_2]$  and  $[\Phi'_1, \Phi'_2]$  in  $S_1$ . Since  $\{(U, \phi^{-1})\}$  gives a coherent atlas on  $S_1$ , we see that

$$\frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(u', v')} > 0$$

so the orientations induced by  $\psi : U \rightarrow V \subseteq S_2$  and  $\psi' : U' \rightarrow V' \subseteq S_2$  are the same. Since our choice of overlapping coordinate charts in the atlas  $\{(U, \phi^{-1} \circ f^{-1})\}$  was arbitrary, we see that this atlas is coherent, so  $S_2$  is orientable.  $\square$

(b) Let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be orientable and oriented. Prove that the diffeomorphism  $\phi$  induces an orientation in  $S_2$ . Use the antipodal map of the sphere to show that this orientation may be distinct from the initial one.

*Proof.* In the proof of part (a) above, we demonstrated that an orientation of  $S_1$  induces an orientation on  $S_2$ .  $\square$

## 1

A *skew-symmetric* bilinear form on a real vector space  $V$  is a bilinear map  $\Omega : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\Omega(u, v) = -\Omega(v, u)$  for any  $u, v \in V$ . Our goal is to prove the following theorem.

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $\Omega : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a skew symmetric bilinear form. Then there exists a basis  $B = \{u_1, \dots, u_k, e_1, \dots, e_n, f_1, \dots, f_n\}$  for  $V$  such that*

- (i)  $\Omega(u_i, v) = 0$  for all  $v \in V$ .
- (ii)  $\Omega(e_i, e_j) = 0 = \Omega(f_i, f_j)$  for all  $i, j = 1, \dots, n$ .
- (iii)  $\Omega(e_i, f_j) = \delta_{ij}$  for all  $i, j = 1, \dots, n$ .

(a) Prove the above theorem.

*Proof.* Let  $U = \{u \in V : \Omega(u, v) = 0 \forall v \in V\}$ . Then, if  $u, u' \in U$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$\Omega(au + bu', v) = a\Omega(u, v) + b\Omega(u', v) = 0 + 0 = 0$$

so  $au + bu' \in U$ . Hence,  $U$  is a subspace of  $V$ , so there exists a basis  $\{u_1, \dots, u_k\}$  for  $U$ . Now, define  $W$  to be a complement of  $U$  in  $V$ , meaning that  $V = U \oplus W$ .

Now, let  $e_1 \in W$ . Then there must exist  $f'_1 \in V$  such that  $\Omega(e_1, f'_1) \neq 0$ , since, if there were no such  $f'_1$ , then it would be the case that  $\Omega(e_1, v) = 0$  for all  $v \in V$ , meaning that  $e_1 \in U$  and, hence,  $e_1 \notin W$ . Now, since  $V = U \oplus W$ ,  $f'_1 = u' + f_1$ , where  $u' \in U$ ,  $f_1 \in W$ . Hence

$$0 \neq \Omega(e_1, f'_1) = \Omega(e_1, u' + f_1) = \Omega(e_1, u') + \Omega(e_1, f_1) = \Omega(e_1, f_1).$$

Suppose,  $f_1 \in \text{Span}(e_1)$ . Then  $f_1 = ae_1$  for  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , meaning

$$\Omega(e_1, f_1) = \Omega(e_1, ae_1) = a\Omega(e_1, e_1).$$

However, since  $\Omega$  is skew symmetric,

$$\Omega(e_1, e_1) = -\Omega(e_1, e_1), \quad \text{so } \Omega(e_1, e_1) = 0.$$

Since  $\Omega(e_1, f_1) \neq 0$ , we see that, in fact,  $f_1 \notin \text{Span}(e_1)$ . If  $\Omega(e_1, f_1) = \alpha$ , then  $\Omega(e_1, f_1/\alpha) = 1$ , so we may assume, without loss of generality, that  $\Omega(e_1, f_1) = 1$ .

Now, define  $W_1 := \text{Span}(e_1, f_1)$  and  $W_1^\Omega := \{w \in W : \Omega(w, v) = 0 \forall v \in W_1\}$ . Suppose  $w \in W_1 \cap W_1^\Omega$ . Then, since  $w \in W_1$ ,  $w = ae_1 + bf_1$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Furthermore, since  $w \in W_1^\Omega$ , for all  $v \in W_1$ ,  $v = ce_1 + df_1$  for some  $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$  and

$$0 = \Omega(w, v) = \Omega(ae_1 + bf_1, ce_1 + df_1) = ac\Omega(e_1, e_1) + (ad - bc)\Omega(e_1, f_1) + bd\Omega(f_1, f_1).$$

Since this is true for all  $v \in W_1$ , we may as well let  $c = a$  and  $d = b$ , which, if the above equality is to hold, implies that  $a = b = 0$ , meaning  $w = 0$ . Since our choice of  $w$  was arbitrary, we see that  $W_1 \cap W_1^\Omega = 0$ .

Now, let  $f_v : W \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be given by

$$w \mapsto \Omega(w, v)$$

for  $v \in W$ . Since  $f_{e_1}(f_1) = \Omega(e_1, f_1) = 1$  and  $f_{f_1}(e_1) = \Omega(f_1, e_1) = -1$ , we see that  $\dim(\text{Image}(f_{e_1})) = \dim(\text{Image}(f_{f_1})) = 1$ . Hence, by the rank theorem,

$$\dim(\text{Ker}(f_{e_1})) = \dim(\text{Ker}(f_{f_1})) = \dim W - 1.$$

Let us denote  $\text{Ker } f_v$  by  $S_v$ . If  $w \in W_1^\Omega$ , then

$$\Omega(w, e_1) = \Omega(w, f_1) = 0,$$

so  $w \in S_{e_1} \cap S_{f_1}$ , meaning  $W_1^\Omega \subseteq S_{e_1} \cap S_{f_1}$ . On the other hand, if  $w' \in S_{e_1} \cap S_{f_1}$ , then  $w'$  certainly cannot be a linear combination of  $e_1$  and  $f_1$ , so  $w' \in W_1^\Omega$ . Therefore,  $W_1^\Omega = S_{e_1} \cap S_{f_1}$ . Now, we know that

$$\dim(S_{e_1} \cup S_{f_1}) = \dim(S_{e_1}) + \dim(S_{f_1}) - \dim(S_{e_1} \cap S_{f_1}).$$

Re-arranging to solve for  $\dim(W_1^\Omega) = \dim(S_{e_1} \cap S_{f_1})$ , we see that

$$\dim(W_1^\Omega) = \dim(S_{e_1}) + \dim(S_{f_1}) - \dim(S_{e_1} \cup S_{f_1}).$$

Now,  $e_1 \in S_{e_1}$ , but, since  $\Omega(e_1, f_1) = 1$ ,  $e_1 \notin S_{f_1}$ . Since  $\dim(S_{f_1}) = \dim W - 1$ , as we saw above, it must be true that

$$\dim(S_{e_1} \cup S_{f_1}) \geq \dim W.$$

Since  $S_{e_1} \cup S_{f_1} \subseteq W$ , we see that, in fact,  $\dim(S_{e_1} \cup S_{f_1}) = \dim W$ . Hence, plugging into the equation for  $\dim(W_1^\Omega)$  above, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \dim(W_1^\Omega) &= \dim(S_{e_1}) + \dim(S_{f_1}) - \dim(S_{e_1} \cup S_{f_1}) \\ &= 2\dim W - 2 - \dim W \\ &= \dim W - 2. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\dim(W_1) + \dim(W_1^\Omega) = \dim W$  and  $W_1 \cap W_1^\Omega = \{0\}$ , we see that, in fact,

$$W = W_1 \oplus W_1^\Omega.$$

Now, repeat this same process on  $W_1^\Omega$ , iterating until all elements of  $V$  have been exhausted. Each iteration yields a pair  $(e_i, f_i)$ , meaning, at the end of this process, we will have a basis

$$\{u_1, \dots, u_k, e_1, \dots, e_n, f_1, \dots, f_n\}$$

that fulfills the requirements of the theorem.  $\square$

(b) What is the matrix of  $\Omega$  with respect to the basis  $B$ ? That is, find a  $(k+2n) \times (k+2n)$ -matrix  $A$  such that with respect to  $B$  we have  $\Omega(u, v) = uAv^t$ , where  $u, v$  are row vectors.

**Answer:** Let  $A = (a_{ij})$ . Then if we let

$$\{b_1, \dots, b_{k+2n}\} = \{u_1, \dots, u_k, e_1, \dots, e_n, f_1, \dots, f_n\}$$

as an ordered basis, then

$$a_{ij} = \Omega(b_i, b_j).$$

Hence, if  $i \leq k$ , then

$$a_{ij} = \Omega(b_i, b_j) = \Omega(u_i, b_j) = 0.$$

Similarly, if  $j \leq k$ ,  $a_{ij} = 0$ . Now, if  $k < i, j \leq k+n$ , then

$$a_{ij} = \Omega(b_i, b_j) = \Omega(e_{i-k}, e_{j-k}) = 0 = \Omega(e_{j-k}, e_{i-k}) = \Omega(b_j, b_i) = a_{ji}.$$

Now, finally, if  $k < i \leq k+n$  and  $j > k+n$ , then

$$a_{ij} = \Omega(b_i, b_j) = \Omega(e_{i-k}, f_{j-(k+n)}) = \begin{cases} 0 & i \neq j \\ 1 & i = j \end{cases}$$

Similarly, if  $i > k+n$  and  $k < j \leq k+n$ , then

$$a_{ij} = \Omega(b_i, b_j) = \Omega(f_{i-(k+n)}, e_{j-k}) = \begin{cases} 0 & i \neq j \\ -1 & i = j \end{cases}$$

Hence, as a block matrix,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_1 \\ 0 & A_2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are  $n \times n$  matrices such that

$$A_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & & & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$



DRL 3E3A, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA  
*E-mail address:* shonkwil@math.upenn.edu