

## THE ZEROES OF NONNEGATIVE CURVATURE OPERATORS

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The Riemannian sectional curvature of a Riemannian manifold is a real-valued function  $\sigma$  on the Grassmann bundle of tangent 2-planes of  $M$ . Although there exists a large body of theorems relating the curvature of  $M$  to various topological and geometric properties of  $M$ , relatively little is known of a general nature about the behavior of the function  $\sigma$  itself. In particular, the critical point behavior of  $\sigma$  has been analyzed only in very special cases [3], [4]. In this paper we consider the pointwise behavior of  $\sigma$ ; that is, we consider the restriction of  $\sigma$  to the Grassmann manifold of tangent 2-planes at a point  $m \in M$ . We are then able to describe completely the structure of the sets of points in this manifold where  $\sigma$  assumes its minimum and maximum. In particular, for spaces of nonnegative curvature we describe the set of points where  $\sigma$  assumes the value zero.

To be more specific, let  $G$  denote the Grassmann manifold of oriented tangent 2-planes at  $m$ .  $G$  is in a natural way a submanifold of the vector space  $\Lambda^2$  of 2-vectors at  $m$ . Since  $G$  is a 2-fold covering space of the manifold of (unoriented) 2-planes at  $m$ , we may regard  $\sigma$  as a function on  $G$ . We shall show that the minimum and maximum sets of  $\sigma$  are intersections with  $G$  of linear subspaces of  $\Lambda^2$ . Moreover every such intersection can occur, for example as the minimum set of some curvature function  $\sigma$  on  $G$ .

The case of nonnegative curvature  $\sigma \geq 0$  will occupy most of our attention here. One reason for this is that the general result on the minimum set of  $\sigma$  is an elementary consequence of the result for  $\sigma \geq 0$ , and another is that this case is the one most likely to yield applications. For example, it follows from our description of the minimum set that if  $\sigma \geq 0$  and relative to some coordinate system the "diagonal" curvature components  $R_{ijij}$  are all zero at  $m$ , then in fact the curvature tensor  $R$  is zero at  $m$ .

Given a space  $M$  of nonnegative curvature and given  $m \in M$ , the linear subspace of  $\Lambda^2$  whose intersection with  $G$  is the zero set of  $\sigma$  is obtained as follows. The curvature tensor  $R$  of  $M$  at  $m$  can be regarded as a self-adjoint linear operator on  $\Lambda^2$ . Letting  $\mathcal{R}$  denote the vector space of all self-adjoint linear operators ("curvature operators") on  $\Lambda^2$ , the subset  $\mathcal{B}$  consisting of those

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which come from Riemannian structures (i.e., those satisfying the first Bianchi identity) is a linear subspace of  $\mathcal{R}$ . The orthogonal complement  $\mathcal{S}$  of  $\mathcal{B}$  in  $\mathcal{R}$  is the set of all curvature operators whose associated Riemannian curvature function is identically zero. Our theorem asserts that there exists an operator  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  such that the zero set of  $\sigma$  (also called the zero set of  $R$ ) is precisely  $G \cap \text{Ker}(R - S)$ .

The idea of the proof is first to show that for each  $P$  in the zero set there exists an  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  such that  $P \in \text{Ker}(R - S)$ , second to observe that there is a unique such  $S$  orthogonal to the subspace of  $\mathcal{S}$  annihilating  $P$ , and finally to piece these unique operators together to build one which works simultaneously for all  $P$  in the zero set.

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### 1. $\mathcal{S}$ and the Grassmann quadratic 2-relations

We begin by analyzing the space  $\mathcal{S}$  complementary in  $\mathcal{R}$  to the subspace  $\{R \in \mathcal{R} \mid R \text{ satisfies the Bianchi identity}\}$ . We shall exhibit a natural isomorphism between  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\Lambda^4$  and shall establish the relationship between  $\mathcal{S}$  and the Grassmann quadratic 2-relations which are necessary and sufficient conditions for decomposability of elements in  $\Lambda^2$ .

Let  $V$  be an  $n$ -dimensional real vector space with inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  (e.g.,  $V =$  the tangent space at a point of a Riemannian manifold). For  $k$  an integer  $\geq 0$ , let  $\Lambda^k = \Lambda^k(V)$  denote the space of  $k$ -vectors of  $V$ , equipped with inner product given by

$$\langle u_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge u_k, v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_k \rangle = \det [\langle u_i, v_j \rangle], \quad u_i, v_i \in V.$$

Let  $G$  denote the Grassmann manifold of oriented 2-dimensional subspaces of  $V$ ; we identify  $G$  with the submanifold of  $\Lambda^2$  consisting of decomposable 2-vectors of length 1 by  $P \leftrightarrow u \wedge v$  where  $\{u, v\}$  is any oriented orthonormal basis for  $P$ . Let  $\mathcal{R}$  denote the space of self-adjoint linear operators on  $\Lambda^2$ , equipped with inner product given by  $\langle R, S \rangle = \text{trace } R \circ S$ ,  $R, S \in \mathcal{R}$ . Elements of  $\mathcal{R}$  will be called curvature operators on  $V$ . Given  $R \in \mathcal{R}$ , its sectional curvature is the function  $\sigma_R: G \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  defined by  $\sigma_R(P) = \langle RP, P \rangle$ ,  $P \in G$ . Each  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  can be naturally identified with a 2-form on  $V$  with values in the vector space of skew-symmetric endomorphisms of  $V$  by

$$\langle R(u, v)(w), x \rangle = R(u \wedge v, w \wedge x), \quad u, v, w, x \in V.$$

We can then consider the subspace  $\mathcal{B}$  of  $\mathcal{R}$  consisting of those  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  which satisfy the first Bianchi identity:  $R \in \mathcal{B}$  if and only if

$$R(u, v)w + R(v, w)u + R(w, u)v = 0$$

for all  $u, v, w \in V$ . Set  $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{B}^\perp$ , the orthogonal complement of  $\mathcal{B}$  in  $\mathcal{R}$ .

We construct, for each  $\xi \in A^4$ , an operator  $S_\xi \in \mathcal{S}$  as follows. Given  $\xi$ , define  $S_\xi: A^2 \rightarrow A^2$  by

$$\langle S_\xi(\alpha), \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha \wedge \beta, \xi \rangle, \quad \alpha, \beta \in A^2.$$

Clearly  $S_\xi \in \mathcal{R}$ . To see that  $S_\xi \in \mathcal{S}$  we need the following

**Lemma 1.1.** *Let  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  be an orthonormal basis for  $V$ . For  $1 \leq i, j, k, l \leq n$ , set  $S_{ijkl} = S_{e_i \wedge e_j \wedge e_k \wedge e_l}$ . Then, for  $R \in \mathcal{R}$ ,*

$$\begin{aligned} \langle R, S_{ijkl} \rangle &= 2[\langle R(e_i \wedge e_j), e_k \wedge e_l \rangle + \langle R(e_j \wedge e_k), e_i \wedge e_l \rangle \\ &\quad + \langle R(e_k \wedge e_l), e_j \wedge e_i \rangle]. \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} \langle R, S_{ijkl} \rangle &= \text{tr } R \circ S_{ijkl} = \sum_{\alpha < \beta} \langle R \circ S_{ijkl}(e_\alpha \wedge e_\beta), e_\alpha \wedge e_\beta \rangle \\ &= \sum_{\alpha < \beta} \langle S_{ijkl}(e_\alpha \wedge e_\beta), R(e_\alpha \wedge e_\beta) \rangle \\ &= \sum_{\alpha < \beta} \langle S_{ijkl}(e_\alpha \wedge e_\beta), \sum_{\gamma < \delta} \langle R(e_\alpha \wedge e_\beta), e_\gamma \wedge e_\delta \rangle e_\gamma \wedge e_\delta \rangle \\ &= \sum_{\alpha < \beta} \sum_{\gamma < \delta} \langle R(e_\alpha \wedge e_\beta), e_\gamma \wedge e_\delta \rangle \\ &\quad \times \langle e_\alpha \wedge e_\beta \wedge e_\gamma \wedge e_\delta, e_i \wedge e_j \wedge e_k \wedge e_l \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Collecting terms completes the proof.

**Proposition 1.2.**  $\xi \mapsto S_\xi$  maps  $A^4$  isomorphically onto  $\mathcal{S}$ . Moreover  $\xi \mapsto (1/\sqrt{6})S_\xi$  is an isometry.

*Proof.* Clearly  $\xi \mapsto S_\xi$  is a linear map from  $A^4$  into  $\mathcal{R}$ . Since  $\{e_i \wedge e_j \wedge e_k \wedge e_l \mid i < j < k < l\}$  is an (orthonormal) basis for  $A^4$ , and the images  $S_{ijkl}$  of the basis vectors are all in  $\mathcal{S}$  ( $\langle R, S_{ijkl} \rangle = 0$  for all  $R \in \mathcal{B}$  by Lemma 1.1), it follows that  $\xi \mapsto S_\xi$  maps  $A^4$  into  $\mathcal{S}$ . In fact, Lemma 1.1 implies that, given  $R \in \mathcal{R}, R \in \mathcal{B}$  if and only if  $\langle R, S_{ijkl} \rangle = 0$  for all  $i, j, k, l$ ; i.e., the  $S_{ijkl}$  span  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\xi \mapsto S_\xi$  maps onto  $\mathcal{S}$ . Injectivity and the fact that  $\xi \mapsto (1/\sqrt{6})S_\xi$  is an isometry follow from taking  $R = S_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta}$  in Lemma 1.1 to conclude that  $\{S_{ijkl} \mid i < j < k < l\}$  is an orthogonal set and that  $\|S_{ijkl}\|^2 = 6$ .

**Remark.** Using the natural isomorphism between  $A^4$  and its dual, the space of alternating 4-forms on  $V$ , given by the inner product we can also identify  $\mathcal{S}$  with this space of 4-forms. Explicitly, one identifies a 4-form  $\omega$  on  $V$  with the operator  $S_\omega \in \mathcal{S}$  given by

$$\langle S_\omega(v_1 \wedge v_2), v_3 \wedge v_4 \rangle = \omega(v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4).$$

**Proposition 1.3.** *Let  $\alpha \in A^2$ . Then  $\alpha$  is decomposable if and only if  $\langle S\alpha, \alpha \rangle = 0$  for all  $S \in \mathcal{S}$ .*

*Proof.* The necessity of the condition is clear since each  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  is of the form  $S_\xi$  for some  $\xi \in A^4$  and  $\langle S_\xi \alpha, \alpha \rangle = \langle \alpha \wedge \alpha, \xi \rangle = 0$  for  $\alpha$  decomposable.

Conversely, given an orthonormal basis  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  for  $V$ , it is well-known [2, p. 309 ff] (see also [1]) that the conditions  $\langle S_{ijkl}\alpha, \alpha \rangle = 0$  for all  $i < j < k < l$  are necessary and sufficient conditions for decomposability.

**Remark.** The conditions  $\langle S_{ijkl}\alpha, \alpha \rangle = 0$  are known as the Grassmann quadratic 2-relations.

**Remark.** It is clear from Proposition 1.3 that each curvature tensor  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  has sectional curvature  $\sigma_S$  identically zero. Conversely, it is easily checked that this property characterizes  $\mathcal{S}$ .

## 2. The uniqueness theorem

In this section we establish the basic uniqueness result which is at the heart of our building process. But first we need some additional notation.

For a subset  $Z$  of  $G$ , let

$$\mathcal{A}(Z) = \{S \in \mathcal{S} \mid S(P) = 0 \text{ for all } P \in Z\}.$$

Thus  $\mathcal{A}(Z)$  is the subspace of  $\mathcal{S}$  consisting of all elements of  $\mathcal{S}$  which annihilate  $Z$ . For a finite subset  $Z = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$  of  $G$ , we shall denote  $\mathcal{A}(\{P_1, \dots, P_k\})$  simply by  $\mathcal{A}(P_1, \dots, P_k)$ . By  $\mathcal{A}(Z)^\perp$  with  $Z \subset G$  we shall mean the orthogonal complement of  $\mathcal{A}(Z)$  in  $\mathcal{S}$ .

**Theorem 2.1.** *Let  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  and  $Z \subset G$ , and suppose there exists  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  such that  $Z \subset \text{Ker}(R - S)$ . Then there exists a unique  $S_0 \in \mathcal{A}(Z)^\perp$  such that  $Z \subset \text{Ker}(R - S_0)$ . Moreover, given any  $S \in \mathcal{S}$ ,  $Z \subset \text{Ker}(R - S)$  if and only if the orthogonal projection of  $S$  onto  $\mathcal{A}(Z)^\perp$  is  $S_0$ .*

*Proof.* Existence: Let  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  be such that  $Z \subset \text{Ker}(R - S)$ , and let  $S_0$  denote the orthogonal projection of  $S$  onto  $\mathcal{A}(Z)^\perp$ . Then  $S = S_0 + S'$  for some  $S' \in \mathcal{A}(Z)$  and

$$Z \subset \text{Ker}(R - S) \cap \text{Ker } S' \subset \text{Ker}(R - S + S') = \text{Ker}(R - S_0).$$

Uniqueness: Suppose  $Z \subset \text{Ker}(R - S_0) \cap \text{Ker}(R - S'_0)$  for  $S_0, S'_0 \in \mathcal{A}(Z)^\perp$ . Then

$$Z \subset \text{Ker}[(R - S_0) - (R - S'_0)] = \text{Ker}(S'_0 - S_0).$$

Thus  $S'_0 - S_0 \in \mathcal{A}(Z)$ . But  $S'_0$  and  $S_0 \in \mathcal{A}(Z)^\perp$ , so  $S'_0 - S_0$  must be zero.

Finally, it is immediate from the above existence and uniqueness arguments that  $Z \subset \text{Ker}(R - S)$  implies  $S_0$  is the orthogonal projection of  $S$  onto  $\mathcal{A}(Z)^\perp$ . Conversely, if  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  is such that its orthogonal projection onto  $\mathcal{A}(Z)^\perp$  is  $S_0$ , then  $S = S_0 + S'$  for some  $S' \in \mathcal{A}(Z)$  and

$$Z \subset \text{Ker}(R - S_0) \cap \text{Ker } S' \subset \text{Ker}(R - S_0 - S') = \text{Ker}(R - S).$$

**Remark.** Note that if  $R \in \mathcal{R}$ ,  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  and  $P \in G \cap \text{Ker}(R - S)$ , then

$$\sigma_R(P) = \langle RP, P \rangle = \langle SP, P \rangle = \sigma_S(P) = 0 .$$

In particular, setting

$$Z(R) = \{P \in G \mid \sigma_R(P) = 0\} ,$$

we see that if, for some  $S \in \mathcal{S}$ , the subspace  $\text{Ker}(R - S)$  has non-null intersection with  $G$  then the set  $Z(R)$  of zeroes of  $\sigma_R$  is at least big enough to contain this intersection.

**Theorem 2.2.** *Let  $R \in \mathcal{R}$ , and suppose there exists  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  such that  $Z(R) = G \cap \text{Ker}(R - S)$ . Then there exists a unique  $S_0 \in \mathcal{A}(Z(R))^\perp$  such that  $Z(R) = G \cap \text{Ker}(R - S_0)$ .*

*Proof.* By Theorem 2.1, there exists a unique  $S_0 \in \mathcal{A}(Z(R))^\perp$  such that  $Z(R) \subset G \cap \text{Ker}(R - S_0)$ . But, by the remark above,  $G \cap \text{Ker}(R - S_0) \subset Z(R)$ . Hence we have the equality.

### 3. Critical zeroes

In studying the critical points of curvature functions, it suffices to consider critical points with critical value zero. For if  $\lambda$  is a critical value of  $\sigma_R$ ,  $R \in \mathcal{R}$ , then the set of critical points of  $\sigma_R$  with critical value  $\lambda$  is the same as the set of critical points of  $\sigma_{R-\lambda I}$  with critical value zero,  $I$  being the identity operator on  $A^2$ . In this section we show that if  $P$  is a critical zero of  $\sigma_R$ , then  $P \in \text{Ker}(R - S)$  for some  $S \in \mathcal{S}$ .

**Lemma 3.1.** *Let  $P \in G$ , and let  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  be an orthonormal basis for  $V$ . Then*

$$\{P\} \cup \{S_{ijkl}(P) \mid i < j < k < l\}$$

*spans the normal space to  $G \subset A^2$  at  $P$ . If the basis is chosen so that  $P = e_1 \wedge e_2$ , then*

$$\{P\} \cup \{S_{12kl}(P) \mid 2 < k < l\}$$

*is an orthonormal basis for this normal space.*

*Proof.* By Proposition 1.3,

$$G = \{\alpha \in A^2 \mid \langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle = 1 \text{ and } \langle S_{ijkl}(\alpha), \alpha \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } i < j < k < l\} .$$

Since the real valued functions  $\alpha \mapsto \langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle$  and  $\alpha \mapsto \langle S_{ijkl}\alpha, \alpha \rangle$  are constant on  $G$ , their gradients  $2P$  and  $2S_{ijkl}(P)$  at  $P \in G$  must be normal to  $G$  at  $P$ . To see that they span the normal space  $N_P$  of  $G$  at  $P$ , consider first the case where  $P = e_1 \wedge e_2$ . Then, for  $i < j < k < l$ ,

$$S_{ijkl}(P) = \begin{cases} e_k \wedge e_l , & \text{for } (i, j) = (1, 2) , \\ 0 , & \text{for } (i, j) \neq (1, 2) . \end{cases}$$

It follows that, in this case,  $\{P\} \cup \{S_{12kl}(P) \mid 2 < k < l\}$  is an orthonormal set

in  $N_P$ . Now the number  $[(n - 2)(n - 3)/2] + 1$  of elements in this set is equal to the codimension  $[n(n - 1)/2] - 2(n - 2)$  of  $G$  in  $A^2$  which in turn is equal to the dimension of  $N_P$ . Hence  $\{P\} \cup \{S_{12kl}(P) \mid 2 < k < l\}$  is an orthonormal basis for  $N_P$ .

Returning to the general case, let  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  be an arbitrary orthonormal basis for  $V$ , and let  $\{e'_1, \dots, e'_n\}$  be one such that  $P = e'_1 \wedge e'_2$ . Let  $\{S_{ijkl} \mid i < j < k < l\}$  and  $\{S'_{ijkl} \mid i < j < k < l\}$  be the corresponding bases for  $\mathcal{S}$ . Then, from above,  $\{P\} \cup \{S'_{12kl}(P) \mid 2 < k < l\}$  spans  $N_P$ . But each  $S'_{12kl}$  is a linear combination of the  $S_{ijkl}$  and hence each  $S'_{12kl}(P)$  is a linear combination of the  $S_{ijkl}(P)$ . Thus  $\{P\} \cup \{S_{ijkl}(P) \mid i < j < k < l\}$  spans  $N_P$ .

**Theorem 3.2.** *Let  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  and suppose  $P \in G$  is a critical zero of  $\sigma_R$ . Then there exists  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  such that  $P \in \text{Ker}(R - S)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  be an orthonormal basis for  $V$  such that  $P = e_1 \wedge e_2$ . Since  $P$  is a critical point of  $\sigma_R$ , and  $\sigma_R$  is the restriction to  $G$  of the function  $\alpha \mapsto \langle R(\alpha), \alpha \rangle$ , the gradient  $2R(P)$  of this function at  $P$  must be normal to  $G$  at  $P$ . By Lemma 3.1, this implies that

$$RP = \lambda P + \sum_{2 < k < l} \mu_{kl} S_{12kl}(P)$$

for some  $\lambda, \mu_{kl} \in \mathbf{R}$ . But  $\lambda = \langle RP, P \rangle = \sigma_R(P) = 0$ , so  $P \in \text{Ker}(R - S)$  where  $S = \sum_{2 < k < l} \mu_{kl} S_{12kl}$ .

**Corollary 3.3.** *Let  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  and suppose  $P \in G$  is a critical zero of  $\sigma_R$ . Then there exists a unique  $S \in \mathcal{A}(P)^\perp$  such that  $P \in \text{Ker}(R - S)$ .*

*Proof.* Immediate from Theorems 3.2 and 2.1.

**Remark.** The operator  $S$  constructed in the proof of Theorem 3.2 is in fact the unique  $S \in \mathcal{A}(P)^\perp$  such that  $P \in \text{Ker}(R - S)$ . Indeed, by Lemma 1.1 together with the fact that each  $S' \in \mathcal{S}$  is an  $S_\omega$  for some alternating 4-form  $\omega$  on  $V$ , we have

$$\langle S', S_{12kl} \rangle = 6 \langle S'(e_1 \wedge e_2), e_k \wedge e_l \rangle,$$

and this is zero for all  $S' \in \mathcal{A}(P)$ ; thus  $S_{12kl} \in \mathcal{A}(P)^\perp$  for  $2 < k < l$ .

Note also that, since  $\{S_{12kl} \mid 2 < k < l\}$  is linearly independent, the numbers  $\mu_{kl}$  above are uniquely determined. In fact, they are curvature components of  $R$  relative to the basis  $\{e_i\}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{kl} &= \left\langle \sum_{2 < \alpha < \beta} \mu_{\alpha\beta} e_\alpha \wedge e_\beta, e_k \wedge e_l \right\rangle = \left\langle \sum_{2 < \alpha < \beta} \mu_{\alpha\beta} S_{12\alpha\beta}(e_1 \wedge e_2), e_k \wedge e_l \right\rangle \\ &= \langle R(e_1 \wedge e_2), e_k \wedge e_l \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

#### 4. The case $n = 4$

We consider now the case when  $V$  has dimension 4, and establish our main theorem in this case. The validity of the result in dimension 4 will play a crucial role in establishing the theorem in general.

**Theorem 4.1.** *Let  $\dim V = 4$ , and suppose  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  is such that  $\sigma_R \geq 0$  and  $Z(R) \neq \emptyset$ . Then there exists a unique  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  such that  $Z(R) = G \cap \text{Ker}(R - S)$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $\dim V = 4$ ,  $\mathcal{S}$  is 1-dimensional. Given  $\{e_1, \dots, e_4\}$  an orthonormal basis for  $V$ , the operator  $S_{1234}$  is just the Hodge star operator  $*$  and so  $\{*\} = \{S_{1234}\}$  is a basis for  $\mathcal{S}$ . Given  $P \in Z(R)$ ,  $P$  is a minimum, hence a critical point, of  $\sigma_R$  so by Theorem 3.2 there exists  $\mu \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $P \in \text{Ker}(R - \mu*)$ ; i.e., such that

$$RP = \mu * P .$$

If  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are two zeroes of  $\sigma_R$ , then  $RP_i = \mu_i * P_i$  for some  $\mu_i \in \mathbf{R} (i = 1, 2)$ . We shall show that  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ . This is clear if  $\{P_1, P_2\}$  is linearly dependent in  $\Lambda^2$ , so we may assume linear independence. We have

$$\mu_1 \langle *P_1, P_2 \rangle = \langle RP_1, P_2 \rangle = \langle P_1, RP_2 \rangle = \mu_2 \langle P_1, *P_2 \rangle = \mu_2 \langle *P_1, P_2 \rangle .$$

Hence, if  $\langle *P_1, P_2 \rangle \neq 0$  we must have  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ . On the other hand, if  $\langle *P_1, P_2 \rangle = 0$ , then  $\langle P_1 + P_2, *(P_1 + P_2) \rangle = 0$ , so  $P_1 + P_2$  is decomposable. Let  $Q = (P_1 + P_2)/l$  where  $l = \|P_1 + P_2\|$ . Then  $Q \in G$  and

$$RQ = (\mu_1 * P_1 + \mu_2 * P_2)/l ,$$

so  $\sigma_R(Q) = \langle RQ, Q \rangle = 0$ . Thus  $Q$  is also a zero of  $\sigma_R$ ; hence  $RQ = \mu * Q$  for some  $\mu \in \mathbf{R}$ , and

$$\mu_1 * P_1 + \mu_2 * P_2 = lRQ = l\mu * Q = \mu(*P_1 + *P_2) .$$

This implies that

$$(\mu_1 - \mu)P_1 + (\mu_2 - \mu)P_2 = 0 ,$$

and hence  $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu$  since  $\{P_1, P_2\}$  is linearly independent in  $\Lambda^2$ .

It follows that  $Z(R) \subset \text{Ker}(R - \mu*)$  for some unique  $\mu \in \mathbf{R}$ . By the Remark in § 2,  $G \cap \text{Ker}(R - \mu*) \subset Z(R)$ . Hence, setting  $S = \mu*$  we have  $Z(R) = G \cap \text{Ker}(R - S)$ .

**Corollary 4.2.** *Let  $\dim V = 4$  and  $R \in \mathcal{R}$ , and let  $\lambda$  denote the minimum (or maximum) value of  $\sigma_R$ . Then there exists a unique  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  such that*

$$\{P \in G \mid \sigma_R(P) = \lambda\} = G \cap \text{Ker}(R - \lambda I - S) .$$

*Proof.* Follows immediately from Theorem 4.1 upon replacing  $R$  in that theorem by  $R - \lambda I$  (or, in the case where  $\lambda$  is the maximum value of  $\sigma_R$ , by  $\lambda I - R$ ).

**Remark.** The hypotheses of Corollary 4.2 cannot be weakened to include the case where  $\lambda$  is an arbitrary critical value of  $\sigma_R$ . Indeed, if we define  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  by

$$\begin{aligned} R(e_1 \wedge e_2) &= e_3 \wedge e_4, & R(e_3 \wedge e_4) &= e_1 \wedge e_2, \\ R(e_1 \wedge e_3) &= 0, & R(e_2 \wedge e_4) &= 0, \\ R(e_2 \wedge e_3) &= -e_1 \wedge e_4, & R(e_1 \wedge e_4) &= -e_2 \wedge e_3, \end{aligned}$$

then each of the basis planes  $e_i \wedge e_j$  is a critical zero of  $\sigma_R$  (critical because  $(\text{grad } \sigma_R)(e_i \wedge e_j) = 2R(e_i \wedge e_j) = \pm 2 * e_i \wedge e_j$  which is normal to  $G$  at  $e_i \wedge e_j$ ). Hence, if either  $\sigma_R^{-1}(0)$  or the critical set of  $\sigma_R$  with critical value zero were the intersection of  $G$  with a linear subspace of  $\mathcal{A}^2$ , it would have to be all of  $G$ . But this is not the case: setting

$$Q = \frac{1}{2}(e_1 \wedge e_2 + e_3 \wedge e_4 + e_2 \wedge e_3 - e_1 \wedge e_4)$$

we have  $Q \in G$  and  $\sigma_R(Q) = 1$ .

Note that the  $R$  of this example satisfies the first Bianchi identity, and also observe that this example illustrates the necessity of the assumption  $\sigma_R \geq 0$  (or  $\sigma_R \leq 0$ ) in Theorem 4.1.

**Remark.** Perhaps a word about the 3-dimensional case is in order at this point, even though it is included in the general case to be considered in the next section. For  $n = 3$ , every 2-vector is decomposable and hence  $G$  is the entire unit sphere in  $\mathcal{A}^2$ . Hence the critical values of  $\sigma_R$  are just the eigenvalues of  $R$ , and the set of critical points of  $\sigma_R$  with critical value  $\lambda$  is just the intersection with  $G$  of the  $\lambda$ -eigenspace of  $R$ . Note that this description (in dimension 3) is valid for each critical value  $\lambda$ , not just for the minimum and maximum values.

## 5. The main theorem

We now proceed to our main result by way of a sequence of rather technical lemmas.

**Lemma 5.1.** *Let  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  be such that  $\sigma_R \geq 0$ , and suppose  $P, Q \in Z(R)$ . Then there exists  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  such that  $\{P, Q\} \subset \text{Ker}(R - S)$ .*

*Proof.* Choose an orthonormal basis  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  for  $V$  such that  $P = e_1 \wedge e_2$  and  $Q$  is contained in the span of  $\{e_1, \dots, e_i\}$ , so that  $Q = \sum_{i < j \leq 4} q_{ij} e_i \wedge e_j$  for some  $q_{ij} \in \mathbf{R}$ . Since  $Q$  is a critical point (a minimum) of  $\sigma_R$ ,  $RQ = \frac{1}{2}(\text{grad } \sigma_R)(Q)$  is normal to  $G$  at  $Q$  so, by Lemma 3.1,

$$(1) \quad RQ = \sum_{i < j < k < l} \nu_{ijkl} S_{ijkl}(Q)$$

for some  $\nu_{ijkl} \in \mathbf{R}$  (the component of  $RQ$  in the direction of  $Q$  is zero since  $\langle RQ, Q \rangle = \sigma_R(Q) = 0$ ). Note that the  $\nu_{ijkl}$  are not uniquely determined since the  $S_{ijkl}(Q)$  are not linearly independent.

Similarly (see the proof of Theorem 3.2),

$$(2) \quad RP = \sum_{2 < k < l} \mu_{12kl} S_{12kl}(P),$$



where now the  $\mu_{12kl}$  are uniquely determined since the  $S_{12kl}(P)$  are orthonormal. Moreover, by the Remark following Corollary 3.3,  $S_1 = \sum \mu_{12kl} S_{12kl}$  is the unique operator in  $\mathcal{A}(P)^\perp$  such that  $P \in \text{Ker}(R - S_1)$ . Thus, by Theorem 2.1, it suffices to construct an  $S_2 \in \mathcal{S}$  such that  $Q \in \text{Ker}(R - S_2)$  and such that the orthogonal projection of  $S_2$  onto  $\mathcal{A}(P)^\perp$  is just  $S_1$ . But  $\{S_{ijkl} \mid i < j < k < l\}$  is an orthogonal set in  $\mathcal{S}$ ,  $S_{12kl} \in \mathcal{A}(P)^\perp$  for  $2 < k < l$ , and  $S_{ijkl} \in \mathcal{A}(P)$  for  $(i, j) \neq (1, 2)$ , and so the orthogonal projection into  $\mathcal{A}(P)^\perp$  of  $\sum_{i < j < k < l} \nu_{ijkl} S_{ijkl}$  is just  $\sum_{2 < k < l} \nu_{12kl} S_{12kl}$ . Thus we must show that we can choose  $\tilde{\nu}_{ijkl} \in \mathbf{R}$  such that

$$RQ = \sum_{i < j < k < l} \tilde{\nu}_{ijkl} S_{ijkl}(Q) \text{ and } \tilde{\nu}_{12kl} = \mu_{12kl} \quad \text{for } 2 < k < l.$$

*Step I.* Given any  $\nu_{ijkl}(i < j < k < l)$  such that (1) is satisfied, we shall show that  $\nu_{1234} = \mu_{1234}$ . Let  $W = e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge e_3 \wedge e_4 \in \Lambda^4$ . Identifying  $W$  with the oriented 4-dimensional subspace of  $V$  spanned by  $\{e_1, \dots, e_4\}$  we have  $P \subset W$  and  $Q \subset W$ , i.e.,  $P, Q \in \Lambda^2(W) \subset \Lambda^2(V)$ . Letting  $\pi_W: \Lambda^2(V) \rightarrow \Lambda^2(W)$  denote orthogonal projection, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \nu_{1234} &= \langle \nu_{1234} S_{1234}(Q), S_{1234}(Q) \rangle = \langle \pi_W \sum \nu_{ijkl} S_{ijkl}(Q), S_{1234}(Q) \rangle \\ &= \langle \pi_W \circ R(Q), *_{\mathcal{W}} Q \rangle, \end{aligned}$$

where  $*_{\mathcal{W}}$  is the star operator of  $W$ . Similarly,

$$\mu_{1234} = \langle \pi_W \circ R(P), *_{\mathcal{W}} P \rangle.$$

But the restriction of  $\pi_W \circ R$  to  $\Lambda^2(W)$  is a curvature operator (with sectional curvature  $\geq 0$ ) on the 4-dimensional space  $W$ , and  $\{P, Q\}$  is contained in the zero set of this curvature operator. Hence, by Theorem 4.1, there exists a unique  $\mu \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $P, Q \in \text{Ker}(\pi_W \circ R - S')$  where  $S' = \mu *_{\mathcal{W}}$ . Thus

$$\nu_{1234} = \langle \pi_W \circ R(Q), *_{\mathcal{W}} Q \rangle = \langle \mu *_{\mathcal{W}} Q, *_{\mathcal{W}} Q \rangle = \mu,$$

and similarly  $\mu_{1234} = \mu$ , so  $\nu_{1234} = \mu_{1234}$ .

*Step II.* We shall take advantage of the non-uniqueness of the remaining  $\nu_{ijkl}$  in (1) to make essential alterations. In terms of the basis  $\{e_i \wedge e_j \mid i < j\}$  for  $\Lambda^2$ , (1) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} (3) \quad RQ &= \nu_{1234} S_{1234}(Q) + \sum_{5 \leq k} [(\nu_{123k} q_{23} + \nu_{124k} q_{24} + \nu_{134k} q_{34}) e_1 \wedge e_k \\ &\quad + (-\nu_{123k} q_{13} - \nu_{124k} q_{14} + \nu_{234k} q_{34}) e_2 \wedge e_k \\ &\quad + (\nu_{123k} q_{12} - \nu_{134k} q_{14} - \nu_{234k} q_{24}) e_3 \wedge e_k \\ &\quad + (\nu_{124k} q_{12} + \nu_{134k} q_{13} + \nu_{234k} q_{23}) e_4 \wedge e_k] \\ &\quad + \sum_{5 \leq k < l} [\nu_{12kl} q_{12} + \nu_{13kl} q_{13} + \nu_{14kl} q_{14} \\ &\quad + \nu_{23kl} q_{23} + \nu_{24kl} q_{24} + \nu_{34kl} q_{34}] e_k \wedge e_l. \end{aligned}$$

*Case I.* Assume  $q_{34} \neq 0$ . Then, given  $\nu_{ijkl}$  satisfying (1), we can choose, for each  $k \geq 5$ ,  $\tilde{\nu}_{134k}$  and  $\tilde{\nu}_{234k} \in \mathbf{R}$  so that

$$(4) \quad \mu_{123k}q_{23} + \mu_{124k}q_{24} + \tilde{\nu}_{134k}q_{34} = \nu_{123k}q_{23} + \nu_{124k}q_{24} + \nu_{134k}q_{34},$$

$$(5) \quad -\tilde{\mu}_{123k}q_{13} - \mu_{124k}q_{14} + \tilde{\nu}_{234k}q_{34} = -\nu_{123k}q_{13} - \nu_{124k}q_{14} + \nu_{234k}q_{34}.$$

(Compare (4) and (5) with the coefficients of  $e_1 \wedge e_k$  and  $e_2 \wedge e_k$  in (3).) Having chosen  $\tilde{\nu}_{134k}$  and  $\tilde{\nu}_{234k}$  to satisfy (4) and (5), note that

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{123k}q_{12} - \tilde{\nu}_{134k}q_{14} - \tilde{\nu}_{234k}q_{24} &= \nu_{123k}(q_{13}q_{24} - q_{14}q_{23})/q_{34} \\ &\quad - \nu_{134k}q_{14} - \nu_{234k}q_{24} + \mu_{123k}[q_{12} + (q_{14}q_{23} - q_{13}q_{24})/q_{34}]. \end{aligned}$$

But

$$q_{12}q_{34} + q_{14}q_{23} - q_{13}q_{24} = \frac{1}{2} \langle Q, *_W Q \rangle = 0,$$

so the above equation reduces to

$$(6) \quad \mu_{123k}q_{12} - \tilde{\nu}_{134k}q_{14} - \tilde{\nu}_{234k}q_{24} = \nu_{123k}q_{12} - \nu_{134k}q_{14} - \nu_{234k}q_{24}.$$

(Compare (6) with the coefficient of  $e_3 \wedge e_k$  in (3).)

Similarly we can check that

$$(7) \quad \mu_{124k}q_{12} + \tilde{\nu}_{134k}q_{13} + \tilde{\nu}_{234k}q_{23} = \nu_{124k}q_{12} + \nu_{134k}q_{13} + \nu_{234k}q_{23}.$$

(Compare (7) with the coefficient of  $e_4 \wedge e_k$  in (3).)

Finally, since  $q_{34} \neq 0$  we can choose, for each  $l > k \geq 5$ ,  $\tilde{\nu}_{34kl}$  such that

$$(8) \quad \mu_{12kl}q_{12} + \tilde{\nu}_{34kl}q_{34} = \nu_{12kl}q_{12} + \nu_{34kl}q_{34}.$$

(Compare (8) with the coefficient of  $e_k \wedge e_l$  in (3).)

Then, setting  $\tilde{\nu}_{12kl} = \mu_{12kl}$  for  $2 < k < l$  and  $\tilde{\nu}_{ijkl} = \nu_{ijkl}$  for all  $i, j, k, l$  for which  $\tilde{\nu}_{ijkl}$  has not been previously defined, it follows from (1)–(8), together with step I, that

$$RQ = \sum \nu_{ijkl} S_{ijkl}(Q) = \sum \tilde{\nu}_{ijkl} S_{ijkl}(Q),$$

and  $\tilde{\nu}_{12kl} = \mu_{12kl}$  for  $2 < k < l$ . This completes the proof in the case where  $q_{34} \neq 0$ .

*Case II.* Suppose  $q_{34} = 0$ . Then

$$0 = q_{34} = \langle Q, e_3 \wedge e_4 \rangle = \langle Q, *_W e_1 \wedge e_2 \rangle = \langle Q, *_W P \rangle = \langle P \wedge Q, W \rangle.$$

But  $P, Q \in \Lambda^2(W)$  implies  $P \wedge Q$  is a multiple of  $W$ . Therefore  $P \wedge Q = 0$ . It follows that the 2-planes  $P$  and  $Q$  have non-trivial intersection. Hence we can choose our basis  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  for  $V$  so that  $P = e_1 \wedge e_2$  and

$$Q = e_1 \wedge (q_{12}e_2 + q_{13}e_3) = q_{12}e_1 \wedge e_2 + q_{13}e_1 \wedge e_3$$

for some  $q_{12}, q_{13} \in \mathbf{R}$ . Since  $q_{14} = q_{23} = q_{24} = q_{34} = 0$ , (3) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} (3') \quad RQ &= \nu_{1234}S_{1234}(Q) + \sum_{5 \leq k} [\nu_{123k}(-q_{13}e_2 \wedge e_k + q_{12}e_3 \wedge e_k) \\ &\quad + (\nu_{124k}q_{12} + \nu_{134k}q_{13})e_4 \wedge e_k] \\ &\quad + \sum_{5 \leq k < l} (\nu_{12kl}q_{12} + \nu_{13kl}q_{13})e_k \wedge e_l. \end{aligned}$$

Now  $\nu_{1234} = \mu_{1234}$  since  $P$  and  $Q$  both lie in the 4-plane  $e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge e_3 \wedge e_4$  (Step I). Similarly,  $\nu_{123k} = \mu_{123k}$  for all  $k \geq 4$  since  $P$  and  $Q$  both lie in the 4-plane  $e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge e_3 \wedge e_k$ . Moreover,  $q_{13} \neq 0$  since  $Q \neq P$ , and hence we can choose  $\tilde{\nu}_{134k} (k \geq 5)$  and  $\tilde{\nu}_{13kl} (l > k \geq 5)$  such that

$$(7') \quad \mu_{124k}q_{12} + \tilde{\nu}_{134k}q_{13} = \nu_{124k}q_{12} + \nu_{134k}q_{13},$$

$$(8') \quad \mu_{12kl}q_{12} + \tilde{\nu}_{13kl}q_{13} = \nu_{12kl}q_{12} + \nu_{13kl}q_{13}.$$

Then, setting  $\tilde{\nu}_{12kl} = \mu_{12kl}$  for  $2 < k < l$  and  $\tilde{\nu}_{ijkl} = \nu_{ijkl}$  for all  $i, j, k, l$  for which  $\tilde{\nu}_{ijkl}$  has not been previously defined, it follows from (1), (3'), (7') and (8') that  $RQ = \sum \tilde{\nu}_{ijkl}S_{ijkl}(Q)$  and  $\tilde{\nu}_{12kl} = \mu_{12kl}$  for  $2 < k < l$ , as required.

**Lemma 5.2.** *Let  $Z \subset G$ . Then there exists a finite subset  $\{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$  of  $Z$  such that if  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  and  $P_i \in \text{Ker}(R)$  for all  $i \leq k$ , then  $Z \subset \text{Ker} R$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose not. Then there exists an infinite sequence  $\{P_k\}$  in  $Z$  such that, for each  $k, P_{k+1} \notin \text{Ker}(R)$  for some  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  with  $\{P_1, \dots, P_k\} \subset \text{Ker}(R)$ . But then

$$\mathcal{R}_k = \{R \in \mathcal{R} \mid \{P_1, \dots, P_k\} \subset \text{Ker}(R)\}$$

is a strictly decreasing infinite sequence of subspaces of  $\mathcal{R}$ , contradicting the finite dimensionality of  $\mathcal{R}$ .

**Lemma 5.3.** *Let  $X$  be an inner product space, and  $X_i (1 \leq i \leq k)$  subspaces of  $X$  such that  $X = \sum_{i=1}^k X_i$ . Let  $\pi_i: X \rightarrow X_i$  and  $\pi_{ij}: X \rightarrow X_i \cap X_j$  ( $1 \leq i, j \leq k$ ) denote orthogonal projections, and  $x_i \in X_i (1 \leq i \leq k)$  be such that  $\pi_{ij}x_i = \pi_{ij}x_j$  for all  $i \neq j$ . Then there exists a unique  $x \in X$  such that  $\pi_i x = x_i$  for all  $i$ .*

*Proof.* An easy induction on  $k$ .

**Theorem 5.4.** *Let  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  be such that  $\sigma_R \geq 0$ . Then there exists  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  such that  $Z(R) = G \cap \text{Ker}(R-S)$ .*

*Proof.* We shall construct the unique (see Theorem 2.2)  $S \in \mathcal{A}(Z(R))^\perp$  which will do the job. By Lemma 5.2, there exists a finite subset  $\{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$  in  $Z(R)$  such that every curvature operator which annihilates  $\{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$  annihilates  $Z(R)$ . In particular,

$$\mathcal{A}(Z(R)) = \mathcal{A}(P_1, \dots, P_k) = \bigcap_{1 \leq i \leq k} \mathcal{A}(P_i),$$

and

$$\mathcal{A}(Z(R))^\perp = \sum_{i=1}^k \mathcal{A}(P_i)^\perp.$$

For  $i, j \leq k$ , let  $\pi_i: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}(P_i)^\perp$  and  $\pi_{ij}: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}(P_i)^\perp \cap \mathcal{A}(P_j)^\perp$  denote orthogonal projections. By Corollary 3.3, for each  $i \leq k$  there exists  $S_i \in \mathcal{A}(P_i)^\perp$  such that  $P_i \in \text{Ker}(R - S_i)$ . Moreover, for  $i \neq j$ ,  $\pi_{ij}(S_i) = \pi_{ij}(S_j)$ . Indeed, by Lemma 5.1, there exists  $S_{ij} \in \mathcal{S}$  such that  $\{P_i, P_j\} \subset \text{Ker}(R - S_{ij})$  and, by Theorem 2.1,  $S_i = \pi_i(S_{ij})$  and  $S_j = \pi_j(S_{ij})$  so  $\pi_{ij}(S_i) = \pi_{ij}(S_{ij}) = \pi_{ij}(S_j)$ . Hence, by Lemma 5.3, there exists  $S \in \sum \mathcal{A}(P_i)^\perp = \mathcal{A}(Z(R))^\perp$  such that  $\pi_i(S) = S_i$  for all  $i \leq k$ . By Theorem 2.1 again, this implies that  $P_i \in \text{Ker}(R - S)$  for all  $i \leq k$ , and hence  $Z(R) \subset \text{Ker}(R - S)$  by the defining property of the set  $\{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ . Finally,  $G \cap \text{Ker}(R - S) \subset Z(R)$  by the remark in §2 and so we have the equality.

**Corollary 5.5.** *Let  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  and let  $\lambda$  denote the minimum (or maximum) value of  $\sigma_R$ . Then there exists  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  such that*

$$\{P \in G \mid \sigma_R(P) = \lambda\} = G \cap \text{Ker}(R - \lambda I - S).$$

*Proof.* Immediate from Theorem 5.4 upon replacing  $R$  in that theorem by  $R - \lambda I$  (or, in the maximum case, by  $\lambda I - R$ ).

**Remarks.** (i) It is interesting to note that the only use of the assumption that  $\lambda$  be the minimum or maximum of  $\sigma_R$  or, in Theorem 5.4, the assumption that  $\sigma_R \geq 0$ , occurs in the proof of the 4-dimensional case (Theorem 4.1). Thus, if it were true for 4-dimensional spaces that the set of critical points of  $\sigma_R$  with critical value  $\lambda$  were of the form  $G \cap \text{Ker}(R - S)$  for some  $S \in \mathcal{S}$ , then it would be true in general. Of course, it is not. The counterexample in §4 easily extends to all dimensions  $\geq 4$ .

(ii) Corollary 5.5 implies that there are linear subspaces  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  of  $A^2$  such that  $G \cap L_1$  is the minimum set of  $\sigma_R$  and  $G \cap L_2$  is the maximum set of  $\sigma_R$ . These subspaces can have non-trivial intersection. For example, let  $\dim V = 4$  and let  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  be defined by

$$\begin{aligned} R(e_1 \wedge e_2) &= R(e_3 \wedge e_4) = e_1 \wedge e_2 + e_3 \wedge e_4, \\ R(e_1 \wedge e_3) &= R(e_2 \wedge e_4) = 0, \\ R(e_1 \wedge e_4) &= R(e_2 \wedge e_3) = -e_1 \wedge e_4 - e_2 \wedge e_3. \end{aligned}$$

Then  $L_1 = \text{Ker}(R + I + *)$ ,  $L_2 = \text{Ker}(R - I - *)$ , and  $\dim(L_1 \cap L_2) = 3$ .

(iii) Given any linear subspace  $L$  of  $A^2$ , there exists  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  such that  $\sigma_R \geq 0$  and  $Z(R) = G \cap L$ . Indeed, given  $L$ , the curvature operator  $R$  which is zero on  $L$  and identity on  $L^\perp$  will have these properties. Moreover, the curvature

operator obtained by projecting the one just described orthogonally onto  $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{S}^\perp$  will have these properties and will in addition satisfy the first Bianchi identity.

(iv) It is a consequence of Corollary 5.5 that if  $M$  is an almost Kaehler manifold with almost complex structure  $J$  and  $m \in M$ , then both the set of holomorphic 2-planes at  $m$  (planes invariant under  $J$ ) and the set of anti-holomorphic 2-planes at  $m$  (planes  $P$  such that  $v \in P$  implies  $Jv \perp P$ ) are intersections with  $G$  of linear subspaces of  $\Lambda^2(V)$  where  $V = M_m$  is the tangent space of  $M$  at  $m$ . Indeed, the automorphism  $J$  of  $V$  induces a curvature operator, also denoted by  $J$ , on  $V$  by  $J(u \wedge v) = Ju \wedge Jv$  ( $u, v \in V$ ) and one easily checks that  $\sigma_J$  assumes its maximum value 1 on holomorphic 2-planes and its minimum value 0 on anti-holomorphic 2-planes. A further computation verifies that in fact  $P \in G$  is holomorphic if and only if  $P \in \text{Ker}(J - I)$ , and  $P \in G$  is anti-holomorphic if and only if  $P \in \text{Ker}(J - S)$  where  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  is the operator corresponding under the isomorphisms of §1 to the 4-form  $\varphi \wedge \varphi$ ,  $\varphi$  being the fundamental 2-form given by  $\varphi(u, v) = \langle Ju, v \rangle$ .

**Added in proof.** Theorem 5.4 has recently been generalized by A. Stehney to curvature operators on  $\Lambda^p$  for arbitrary  $p$ . Using her techniques, it is possible to eliminate the intricate computations in the proof of Lemma 5.1.

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