1 Background in Hermitian Geometry

In this section, we'll define and introduce introduce several objects that will be used throughout the paper. Some definitions:

- A ring is said to be **local** if it has a unique maximal left ideal or unique maximal right ideal.
- The **Jacobson radical** of a ring R, denoted $J(R)$ is the intersection of all maximal left (right) ideals. In a local ring, $J(R)$ coincides with the unique maximal left ideal and unique maximal right ideal, showing that the maximal ideal is two sided.

Throughout the paper, the following objects will be fixed.

- Let A be a local ring with identity.
- Let $\mathfrak{r}$ be the Jacobsen radical of A. Because A is local, $\mathfrak{r}$ is maximal, two-sided, and contains all non-units of A.
- Let $*$ be an involution of A. Assume that elements fixed by $*$ are in the center of A, forming a ring $R = \{a \in A : a^* = a\}$. Note that R is local as well, with maximal ideal $R \cap \mathfrak{r}$. This is because any element of R that is not in $R \cap \mathfrak{r}$ is invertible by definition, and cannot be contained in any ideal.
- Let $Q : A^* \to R^* : a \mapsto aa^*$ denote the norm-map.

Let V be a right A-module and $h : V \times V \to A$ be a Hermitian form. By definition, h is linear in the second variable and $h(v, u) = h(u, v)^*$ for $u, v \in V$. Then $h(u, u) = h(u, u)^*$ and $h(u, u) \in R \subseteq Z(A)$ for all $u \in V$.

Now consider the dual space V^*. Define an operation $V^* \times A \to V^*$ by $(\alpha a)(v) = a^*\alpha(v)$ where $\alpha \in V^*, a \in A, v \in V$. Under this operation, V^* is a right A-module. Now we can define a homomorphism of right A-modules $\gamma_h : V \to V^*$ associated with h given by $\gamma_h(u) = h(u, -)$.

Additionally, for the remainder of the paper:

- Assume that h is non-degenerate; γ_h is an isomorphism.
- Let U be the subgroup of $GL(V)$ preserving h. I'm guessing that this means for $\varphi \in U, u, v \in V$, $h(\varphi(u), \varphi(v)) = h(u, v)$.
- Assume the existence of an element $d \in A$ such that $d + d^* = 1$.

- Assume that V is a free A-module of rank $m \geq 1$.

For the remainder of this section, let $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$ be a basis of V.

Lemma 1.1. *There is a vector $u \in V$ such that $h(u,u) \in R^*$.*

Proof. Assume otherwise; that $h(u,u) \in \mathfrak{m}$ for all $u \in V$. Then using the linearity of h:

$$h(u,v) + h(u,v)^* = h(u+v,u+v) - h(u,u) - h(v,v) \in \mathfrak{m}$$

for all $u, v \in V$. Let $\alpha \in V^*$ be the linear functional such that $\alpha(v_1) = d$ and $\alpha(v_i) = 0$ for all $i > 1$. Because h is assumed to be non-degenerate, there exists $u \in V$ such that $h(u, -) = \alpha$. Then $d = \alpha(v_1) = h(u, v_1)$ and $1 = d + d^* = h(u, v_1) + h(u, v_1)^* \notin \mathfrak{m}$, contradicting the original hypothesis. $\square$

Lemma 1.2. *V has an orthogonal basis $u_1, u_2, \ldots u_m$. Any such basis satisfies $h(u_i, u_i) \in R^*$.*

Proof. Prove with induction on m. Assume that $m = 1$. By lemma 1.1, there exists $u \in V$ such that $h(u,u) \in R^*$. Then $u = v_1 a_1$ for some $a_1 \in A^*$, and $h(u,u) = h(v_1 a_1, v_1 a_1) = a_1^* h(v_1, v_1) a_1 \in R*$ implying that $h(v_1, v_1) \in R^*$. Now assume that $m > 1$ and that the hypothesis holds for $m-1$. Once again, there exists $u \in V$ such that $h(u,u) \in R^*$. Then $u = v_1 a_1 + \cdots + v_m a_m$ with $a_i \in A$. If all $a_i \in \mathfrak{r}$, then $h(u,u) \in \mathfrak{m}$, a contradiction. Without loss of generality, assume that $a_1 \notin \mathfrak{r}$. Then if $u_1 = v_1 a_1$, the set $\{u_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$ is a basis of V. For $1 < i \leq m$, set

$$u_i = v_i - u_1[h(u_1, v_i)/h(u_1, u_1)]$$

Then $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m$ is a basis of V satisfying $h(u_1, u_i) = 0$ for $1 < i \leq m$. Let $V_1 = u_1 A$ and $V_2 = \operatorname{span}\{u_2, \ldots, u_m\}$. Then $V = V_1 \perp V_2$ and the restriction of h to V_2 induces an isomorphism $V_2 \to V_2^*$. Applying the inductive hypothesis to this space completes the proof. $\square$

Lemma 1.3. *(a) Suppose $u_1, \ldots, u_s \in V$ are orthogonal and satisfy $h(u_i, u_i) \in R^*$. Then $u_1, \ldots, u_s \in V$ can be extended to an orthogonal basis of V with the same property.*

(b) If V_1 is a submodule of V such that the restriction of h to V_1 is non-degenerate there is another such submodule V_2 of V such that $V = V_1 \perp V_2$.

Proof. (a) Because $\{v_1, \ldots, v_m\}$ is a basis of v, $u_1 = v_1a_1 + \cdots + v_ma_m$ for some $a_i \in A$. Since $h(u_1, u_1) \in R^*$ (by lemma 1.1), one of the scalars must be a unit. Without loss of generality, assume $a_i \in A*$. Thus $u_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m$ is a basis of V. Suppose $1 \leq t \leq s$ and the list $u_1, \ldots, u_t, u_{t+1}, \ldots, v_m$ is a basis of V. Then

$$u_{t+1} = u_1b_1 + \cdots + u_tb_t + v_{t+1}b_{t+1} + \cdots + v_mb_m$$

for some $b_i \in A$. Suppose, if possible, that $b_i \in \mathfrak{r}$ for all $i \geq t+1$. Then for every $i \leq t$,

$$0 = h(u_i, u_{t+1}) = h(u_i, u_i)b_i + h(u_i, v_{t+1})b_{t+1} + \cdots + h(u_i, v_m)b_m$$

implying that $b_i \in \mathfrak{r}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq t$, contradicting the assumptino that $h(u_{t+1}, u_{t+1}) \in R^*$. Thus at least one of $b_{t+1}, \ldots, b_m$ is a unit (assume b_{t+1} and $u_1, \ldots u_t, u_{t+1}, v_{t+2}, \ldots, v_m$ is a basis of V.

This process can be repeated to extend $u_1, \ldots, u_s$ to a basis $u_1, \ldots, u_s, u_{s+1}, \ldots u_m$ of V. For $s < i \leq m$, let

$$z_i = u_i - ([u_1h(u_1, u_i)/h(u_1, u_1)] + \cdots + u_sh(u_s, u_i)/h(u_s, u_s)].$$

Then $u_1, \ldots, u_s, z_1, \ldots, z_{m-s}$ is a basis of V satisfying $h(u_i, z_j) = 0$. If follows that the restriction of h to $M = \mathrm{span}\{z_1, \ldots, z_{m-s}\}$ is non-degenerate and by lemma 1.2 that M has an orthogonal basis with $h(z_i, z_i) \in R^*$ for any $i \leq m-s$.

(b) Follows from (a) and lemma 1.2 □

Lemma 1.4. *Let $u_1, \ldots u_s \in V$, with corresponding Gram matrix $M \in M_s(A)$, defined by $M_{ij} = h(u_i, u_j)$. If $M \in GL_m(A)$, then $u_1, \ldots, u_s$ are linearly independent.*

Proof. Suppose $a_1, \ldots, a_s$ satisfy $u_1a_1 + \cdots + u_sa_s = 0$. Then for $1 \leq i \leq s$

$$0 = h(u_i, u_1a_1 + \cdots + u_sa_s) = h(u_i, u_1)a_1 + \cdots + h(u_i, u_s)a_s$$

implying that

$$M \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since M is inverible, the desired result follows. □

2 Classification of Hermitian Forms

A vector $v \in V$ is said to be **primitive** if $v \notin V\mathfrak{r}$. This is equivalent to saying that v belongs to a basis of V. We say that h is **isotropic** if there is a primitive vector $v \in V$ such that $h(v, v) = 0$.

Lemma 2.1. *Suppose h is isotropic. Then, given any $r \in R$ there is a primitive vector v satisfying $h(v, v) = r$.*

Proof. By assumption, h is isotropic so there is a primitive vector $u \in V$ such that $h(u, u) = 0$. Because h is assumed to be non-degenerate, there exists $w \in V$ such that $h(u, w) = d$. Set $s = r - h(w, w) \in R$ and $v = us + w$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} h(v, v) &= h(us + w, us + w) \\ &= sh(u, w) + sh(u, w) + sh(w, u) + h(w, w) \\ &= s(d + d^*) + h(w, w) \\ &= s + h(w, w) \\ &= r - h(w, w) + h(w, w) \\ &= r \end{aligned}$$

□

We assume for the remainder of the paper that the squaring map of the 1-group $1 + \mathfrak{m}$ is an epimorphism and that $R/\mathfrak{m} = F_q$ is a field of finite order q and odd characteristic. Thus $[F_q^* : F_q^{*2}] = 2$. To see this, pick $r \in F_q^* \backslash F_q^{*2}$. Then the minimal polynomial of x is $t^2 - r^2 \in F_q^{*2}[t]$. A similar argument shows that $[R^* : R^{*2}] = 2$. We can now fix an element $\varepsilon \in R^* \backslash R^{*2}$. Since $R^{*2} \subseteq Q(A^*)$, we infer $Q(A^*) = R^*$ if Q is surjective and $Q(A^*) = R^{*2}$ otherwise.

Proposition 2.2. *The division ring $A/\mathfrak{r}$ is commutative. Moreover,*

(a) *If the involution that $*$ induces on $A/\mathfrak{r}$ is the identity then Q is not surjective and $A/\mathfrak{r} \cong F_q$.*

(b) *If the involution that $*$ induces on $A/\mathfrak{r}$ is not the identity then Q is surjective and $A/\mathfrak{r} \cong F_{q^q}$.*

Proof. We begin embedding $R/\mathfrak{m}$ in $A/\mathfrak{r}$ using the mapping $x + \mathfrak{m} \mapsto x + \mathfrak{r}$ for $x \in R$. Thus $R/\mathfrak{m}$ can be viewed as a subfield of $A/\mathfrak{r}$. Now let $\circ$ be the involution that $*$ induces on $A/\mathfrak{r}(a + \mathfrak{r} \mapsto a^* + \mathfrak{r})$ and let $k = \{a \in A/\mathfrak{r} :$

$a^\circ = a\}$ be the set of all elements of $A/\mathfrak{r}$ that are fixed by $\circ$. Then $R/\mathfrak{m} \subseteq k$ (by definition, R is fixed under $*$). Conversely, assume that $a + \mathfrak{r} \in k$. Then $a - a^* \in \mathfrak{r}$, so

$$a = \frac{a + a^*}{2} + \frac{a - a*}{2} \in R + \mathfrak{r}$$

and $k \subseteq (R + \mathfrak{r})/\mathfrak{r} = R/\mathfrak{m}$. Thus $k = R/m$.

(a) In this case, $A/\mathfrak{r} = k = R/\mathfrak{m}$ and the norm map $(A/\mathfrak{r})^* \to (R/\mathfrak{m})^*$ (induced by Q) is the squaring map of F_q^*. This map is not surjective, so the norm map Q is not surjective.

(b) In this case, we assume that $A/\mathfrak{r}$ properly contains k. Then for any $f \in A/\mathfrak{r}\backslash k$, the minimal polynomial of f is $(t - f)(t - f^\circ) = t^2 - (f + f^\circ)t + ff^\circ \in k[t]$.

Let $f, e \in A/\mathfrak{r}$. The goal is to show that f and e commute. Let $f_1 = f - (f + f^\circ)/2$ and $e_1 = e - (e + e^\circ)/2$. Since $(f + f^\circ)/2, (e + e^\circ)/2 \in k$ (which is a field), it is sufficient to show that f_1 and e_1 commute. Note that $f_1^\circ = -f_1$ and $e_1^\circ = -e_1$. Then

$$(e_1 f_1 + f_1 e_1)^\circ = f_1^\circ e_1^\circ + e_1^\circ f_1^\circ = f_1 e_1 + e_1 f_1$$

and $e_1 f_1 + f_1 e_1 \in k$. Thus $k\langle f_1, e_1\rangle$ is the k-span of $1, f_1, e_1, f_1 e_1$ and $k\langle f_1, e_1\rangle$ is a finite dimensional division algebra over k. Thus by Wedderburn's theorem, $k\langle f_1, e_1$ is a field, implying that f and e commute.

Thus $A/\mathfrak{r}$ is a field, algebraic over $k = R/\mathfrak{m}$, where every element of $A/\mathfrak{r}\backslash k$ has degree 2 over k. Since every algebraic extension of k is separable, the primitive element theorem implies that $[A/\mathfrak{r} : k] = 2$.

We now want to show that the norm map $\hat{Q} : (A/\mathfrak{r})^* \to k^*$ induced by $*$ is surjective. Because $k \subseteq A/\mathfrak{r}$, if $r \in k^2$, then there exists $s \in k$ with s fixed under $*$ and $s^2 = r$. Thus $\hat{Q}(s) = s^2 = r$. Now pick $x \in k\backslash k^2$. Then $\sqrt{x} \notin k$.

Consider two cases:

Case 1: Assume $-x \notin k^2$. Then $A/\mathfrak{r} \cong F_{q^2} = k(\sqrt{-x})$. Every element of $A/\mathfrak{r}$ can be written in the form $a + b\sqrt{-x}$ with $a, b \in k$ and

$$\hat{Q}(a + b\sqrt{-x}) = a^2 - b^2 \cdot -x = a^2 + b^2 x.$$

Then taking $s = \sqrt{-x}$ gives $\hat{Q}(s) = x$ and $x \in \hat{Q}\left(A/\mathfrak{r}\right))$.

Case 2: Assume that $-x \in k^2$. Because exactly half of the elements in k^* have square roots, there must exist some element $z \in k^*$ where $\sqrt{z} \in k^*$ and $\sqrt{z+1} \notin k^*$. Then $F_{q^2} = k(\sqrt{z+1})$. Now take $s = \sqrt{-x}\sqrt{z} + \sqrt{-x}\sqrt{z+1}$. Then

$$\hat{Q}(s) = (-xz) - (-x(z+1)) = (z+1)x - zx = x$$

and $\hat{Q}$ is surjective.

It follows that the norm map $(A/\mathfrak{r})^* \to (R/\mathfrak{m})^*$ induced by $\star$ is surjective, implying that the norm map $A^* \to R^*$ is as well since the squaring map of $1 + \mathfrak{m}$ is surjective. $\square$

Proposition 2.3. *Suppose $m \geq 2$. Then given any unit $r \in R$ there is a primitive vector $v \in V$ satisfying $h(v, v) = r$.*

Proof. Cosider two cases:

- h is isotropic. Then 2.1 applies.
- h is non-isotropic.

By lemma 1.2, there is an orthogonal basis $u_1, u_2, \ldots u_m$ of V such that $h(u_i, u_i) \in R^\star$. Let $a = h(u_1, u_2) \in R^\star$ and $b = h(u_2, u_2) \in R^*$. if $t_1, t_2 \in R^*$, then $v = u_1t_1 + u_2t_2$ is primitive (because it is part of a basis), so

$$0 \neq h(v, v) = at_1^2 + bt_2^2.$$

Dividing by a and letting $c = b/a \in R^*$,

$$0 \neq t_1^2 + ct^2$$

implying that $-c$ is not a square in R^*. Let $S = R[t]/(t^2 + c)$ and $\delta = t + (t^2 + c) \in S$. Then $S = R[\delta], \delta^2 = -c$ and every element of S can be uniquely written in teh form $t_1 + t_2\delta$ with $t_1, t_2 \in R$. We have an involution $s \mapsto \hat{s}$ defined by $t_1 + t_2\delta \mapsto t_1 - t_2\delta$, whose corresponding norm map $J : S^* \to R^*$ given by $s \mapsto s\hat{s}$, or $t_1 + t_2\delta \mapsto t_1^2 + ct_2^2$.

We claim that S is local with maximal ideal $S\mathfrak{m}$. Let $t_1, t_2 \in R$, not both in $\mathfrak{m}$, and consider $J(t_1 + t_2\delta) = t_1^2 + ct_2^2$. If one of t_1, t_2 is in m, then $t_1^2 + ct_2^2 \in R^*$. To see this, assume that either t_1 or $t_2 \notin \mathfrak{m}$. Then if $t_1^2 + ct_2^2 \in \mathfrak{m}$, $t_1^2 = -ct_2^2 + m$ and $ct_2^2 = -t_1^2 - m$ for some $m \in \mathfrak{m}$. Since either t_1, t_2 is invertible, this implies that both $t_1, t_2 \in \mathfrak{m}$, a contradiction.

Thus $t_1^2 + ct_2^2 \in R^*$ and $t_1 + t_2\delta \in S^\star$. Now suppose that both $t_1, t_2 \in R^*$ but $t_1 + t_2\delta \notin S^\star$. Then $t_1^2 + ct_2^2 = f \in \mathfrak{m}$, and

$$-c = (t_1^{-1})^2(t_1^2 - f) = (t_2^{-1})^2 t_1^2(1 - (t_1^{-1})^2 f)$$

. By assumption (because A is a local ring), $1 - (t_1^{-1})^2 f \in R^{*2}$, implying that $-c \in R^{*2}$, a contradiction. Thus S is local with maximal ideal $S\mathfrak{m}$.

Thus $S/S\mathfrak{m}$ is a field. The imbedding $R/\mathfrak{m} \to S/S\mathfrak{m}$ allows us to view $S/S\mathfrak{m}$ as a vector space over $R/\mathfrak{m}$, with $\{1 + S\mathfrak{m}, \delta + \mathfrak{m}\}$ as a basis. Thus $S/S\mathfrak{m}$ is a quadratic extension of $R/\mathfrak{m}$. The involution of S induces the $R/\mathfrak{m}$-automorphism of $S/S\mathfrak{m}$ of orer 2 and the norm map J induces the norm map $(S/S\mathfrak{m})^* \to (R/\mathfrak{m})^*$.

Since $R/\mathfrak{m}$ is known to be F_q, this map is known to be surjective. We claim that J is surjective. Indeed, pick $e \in R^*$. Then by the surjectivity of the norm map, there is $s \in S$ and $f \in \mathfrak{m}$ such that

$$j(s) = e + f = e(1 + e^{-1}f).$$

Since $1 + e^{-1}f \in R^{*2}$ (by surjectivity of squaring map of $1 + \mathfrak{m}$), it follows that e is in the image of J, as claimed.

By the claim there are $t_1, t_2 inR$ with at least one in R^*, such that $t_1^2 + t_2^2 c = r/a$. Then $v = u_1t_1 + u_2t_2$ is primitive and

$$h(v, v) = at_1^2 + bt_2^2 = r.$$

This completes the proof. $\square$

Theorem 2.4. *There is an orthogonal basis $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m$ of V satisfying*

$$\begin{aligned} h(v_1, v_1) = \cdots = h(v_{m-1}, v_{m-1}) = 1 \text{ and} \\ h(v_m, v_m) = 1 \text{ if } QA^* = R^* \\ h(v_m, v_m) \in \{1, \varepsilon\} \text{ if } Q(A^*) = R^{*2} \end{aligned}$$

Proof. To prove this, we'll use induction on m. Assume that $m = 1$. By lemma 1.2, V has a basis $\{u_1\}$ such that $h(u_1, u_1) \in R^*$. If $Q(A^*) = R^*$, then $h(u_1, u_1) = aa^*$ for some $a \in A^*$. Let $v = u_1a^{-1}$. Then

$$h(v, v) = a^{-1} * a^{-1} h(u, u) = 1.$$

If $Q(A^*) = R^{*2}$, then $h(u_1, u_1) = \varepsilon b$ for some $b \in R^{*2}$ (note that from earlier result, $[R^* : R^{*2}] = 2$). Then $b = r^2$ for some $r \in R^*$. Let $v = r^{-1}u_1$. Then

$$h(v, v) = (r^{-1})^2 h(u, u) = b^{-1}\varepsilon b = \varepsilon.$$

Now assume that $m > 1$ and that the hypothesis is true for $m-1$. By proposision 2.4, there exists u_1 such that $h(u_1, u_1) = 1$. Using lemma 2.3, this can be extended to a basis $u_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m$. But $V' = \text{span}\{v_2, \ldots v_m\}$ has dimension $m-1$ and thus there is a basis $u_2, \ldots u_m$ of V'. Then $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m\}$ is a basis of V with the desired property. $\square$

Let $\mathfrak{i}$ be a $*$ invariant ideal of A and let $\overline{A} = A/\mathfrak{i}$. Then $*$ induces an involution on $\overline{A}$. Moreover, $\overline{V} = V/V\mathfrak{i}$ is a free $\overline{A}$ module of rank m and the map $\overline{h} : \overline{V} \times \overline{V} \to \overline{A}$, given by $\overline{h}(v + V\mathfrak{i}, w + V\mathfrak{i}) = h(v, w)$ is a non-degenerate hermitian form.

Recall that when A is commutative the discriminant of h is the element of $R^*/Q(A^*)$ obtained by taking the determinanat of the Gram matrix of h relative to any basis of V.

Corollary 2.5. *Let h_1 and h_2 be non-degenerate hermitian forms on V. Then the following conditions are equivalent:*

(a) h_1 and h_2 are equivalent.

(b) The reductions $\overline{h_1}$ and h_2 modulo $\mathfrak{r}$ are equivalent.

(c) The discriminants of $\overline{h_1}$ and $\overline{h_2}$ are the same.

Proof. (a) implies (b): Assume that h_1 and h_2 are equivalent. Then there exists some isomorphism $A : V \to V$ sych that $h_1(v, w) = h_2(Av, Aw)$ for all $v, w \in V$. Then

$$\overline{h_1}(v + V\mathfrak{r}, w + V\mathfrak{r}) = h_1(v, w) = h_2(Av, Aw) = \overline{h_2}(Av + V\mathfrak{r}, Aw + V\mathfrak{r})$$

and $\overline{h_1}$ is equivalent to $\overline{h_2}$.

(b) implies (c): Assume that $v_1 + V\mathfrak{r}, \ldots, v_m + V\mathfrak{r}$ is the basis for $\overline{V}$ given in theorem 2.4 and that $\overline{h_1}(v + V\mathfrak{r}, w + V\mathfrak{r}) = \overline{h_2}(Av + V\mathfrak{r}, Aw + V\mathfrak{r})$ for some invertible A. Then $Av_1 + V\mathfrak{r}, \ldots, Av_m + V\mathfrak{r}$ is a basis; and is orthogonal with respect to $\overline{h_2}$. Let d represent the discriminant function. Using the fact that the determinant is invariant under choice of basis:

$$\begin{aligned} d(\overline{h_1}) &= \prod_{i=1}^{m} \overline{h}_1(v_i + V\mathfrak{r}, v_i + V\mathfrak{r}) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{m} \overline{h_2}(Av_i + V\mathfrak{r}, Av_i + V\mathfrak{r}) \\ &= d(\overline{h2}) \end{aligned}$$

(c) implies (a): Assume that the discriminants of $\overline{h_1}$ and $\overline{h_2}$ are the same. Let $v_1, \ldots, v_m$ and $w_1, \ldots, w_m$ be orthoginal bases satisfying theorem 2.4 for h_1 and h_2 respectively. Then $h_1(v_i, v_i) = h_2(w_i, w_i)$ for all i (because the discriminants are equal, it is ensured that $h_1(v_m, v_m) = h_2(w_m, w_m)$. Let $A : V \to V$ be defined by $v_i \mapsto w_i$. Then for $x, y \in V$:

$$
\begin{aligned}
h_1(x,y) &= \sum_{i=1}^{m} h_1(v_i x_i, v_i y_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i^* y_i h_i(v_i, v_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i^* y_i h_2(Av_i, Av_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{m} h_2(Av_i x_i, Av_i y_i) \\
&= h_2(Ax, Ay)
\end{aligned}
$$

and h_1 and h_2 are equivalent.

□

Given $r_1, \ldots, r_m \in R^*$ we say that h is of type $\{r_1, \ldots, r_m\}$ if there is a basis B of V relative to which h has matrix $\text{diag}\{r_1, \ldots, r_m\}$.

Lemma 2.6. *h is of type $\{r_1, \ldots, r_m\}$ and $\{s_1, \ldots, s_m\}$ if and only if $(r_1 \cdots r_m)(s_1 \cdots s_m)^{-1} \in Q(A^*)$.*

Proof. Assume that h is of type $\{r_1, \ldots, r_m\}$ and of type $\{s_1, \ldots s_m\}$. Because the determinant is invariant under the choice of basis, $r_1 \cdots r_m = s_1 \cdots s_m$ and $(r_1 \cdots r_m)(s_1 \cdots s_m)^{-1} = 1 \in Q(A*)$.

Now assume that h is of type $\{r_1, \ldots, r_m\}$ with respect to basis R and $(r_1 \cdots r_m)(s_1 \cdots s_m)^{-1} \in Q(A^*)$. It's clear that if $m = 1$ that this implies that h is of type $\{s_1\}$. Consider the case that $m > 1$ and assume also that h is not of type $\{s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_m\}$. Then for every orthogonal basis B of V where $h(v_i, v_i) \in R^*$ for $v_i \in B$, let k_B denote the number of $v_i \in V$ such that $h(v_i, v_i) \neq s_i$, and let $k = \min\{k_B : B \text{ is a basis of } V\}$. Because h is not of type $\{s_1, \ldots, s_m\}$, $k > 0$. Similarly, by proposition 3.4, $k <= m - 1$. Without loss of generality, assume that $h(v_i, v_i) = s_i$ when $i <= m - k$ and $h(v_i, v_i) = d_i s_i$ where $d_i \neq 1 \pmod{Q(A^*)}$ when $i > m - k$. Because h is of type $\{h(v_i, v_i) : 1 \leq i \leq m\}$, and $\det(h)$ is invariant under choice of basis,

$$\prod_{i=1}^{m} r_i = \prod_{i=1}^{m} h(v_i, v_i) = \left(\prod_{i=1}^{m-k} s_i\right)\left(\prod_{i=m-k}^{m} d_i s_i\right)$$

and by assumption,

$$\prod_{i=m-k}^{m} d_i = 1 \mod Q(A^*).$$

This result shows that $k > 1$. Now let $V_1 = \text{span}\{v_i : i \leq m-k\}$ and $V_2 = \text{span}\{v_i : i > m-k\}$. Because $k \geq 2$, by proposition 2.3 there exists an orthogonal basis $\{w_1, \ldots, w_k\}$ with $h(w_1, w_1) = s_{m-k+1}$. But then $V' = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_{m-k}, w_1, \ldots, w_k\}$ is a basis for V with $k_{V'} < k$, contradicting the assumption that k was minimized. Thus $d_i = 1$ (mod $Q(A^*)$) for all i, and for some basis V, h is of type $\{s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_m\}$. $\square$

Lemma 2.7. *When m is even then h is of type $\{1, -1, \ldots, 1, -1\}$ (define this as kind I) or $\{1, -1, \ldots, 1, -\varepsilon\}$ (kind II). When m is odd then h is of type $\{1, -1, \ldots, 1, -1, -1\}$ (kind I) or of type $\{1, -1, \ldots, 1, -1, -\varepsilon\}$ (kind II).*

Proof. By theorem 2.4, we know that h is of type $\{1, 1, \ldots, 1\}$ or $\{1, 1, \ldots, \varepsilon\}$. If $-1 \in Q(A^*)$, then the result is immediate. Assume that Q is not surjective and that $-1 \notin Q(A^*)$. Let $r = 1$ if h is of type $\{1, 1, \ldots, 1\}$ and $r = \varepsilon$ if h is of type $\{1, 1, \ldots, \varepsilon\}$. Let $k = \frac{m}{2}$ if m is even, and $k = \frac{m}{2} + 1$ if m is odd. By the previous result, if $r(-1)^k\delta^{-1}$, then h is of type $\{1, -1, \ldots, 1, -\delta\}$ (m even) or $\{1, -1, \ldots, 1, -1, -\delta\}$ (m odd), where $\delta \in \{1, \varepsilon\}$. Note that because $-1 \notin Q(A^*) = R^{*2}$ and $\varepsilon \notin Q(A^*)$, because $[R^* : R^{*2}] = 2$, $-\varepsilon \in Q(A^*)$. Consider 4 cases:

Case 1: $r = 1$ and k even Let $\delta = 1$. Then $r(-1)^k\delta = 1 \in Q(A*)$ and h is of type $\{1, -1, \ldots, -1\}$.

Case 2: $r = 1$ and k odd Let $\delta = \varepsilon$. Then $r(-1)^k\delta = -\varepsilon \in Q(A)$ and h is of type $\{1, -1, \ldots, -\varepsilon\}$.

Case 3: $r = \varepsilon$ and k even Let $\delta = \varepsilon$. Result follows similarly.

Case 4: $r = \varepsilon$ and k odd Let $\delta = 1$. Result follows similarly.

$\square$

Additionally, it is clear from these prior results that h is of kind I and kind II if and only if $Q(A^*) = R^*$.

Even when Q is not surjective, if m is odd there is only one unitary group of rank m, regardless of h, since h and εh are non-equivalent and have the same unitary group.

Lemma 2.8. *Let Λ be the set of all values $h(u,u)$ with $u \in V$ primitive. Assume that the involution $*$ induces on $A/\mathfrak{r}$ is the identity.*

(a) *Suppose $m = 1$. If h is of type $\{1\}$ then $\Lambda = R^{*2}$ and if h is of type $\{\varepsilon\}$ then $\Lambda = R^*/R^{*2}$.*

(b) *Suppose $m = 2$. If h is of type $\{1,-1\}$, then $\Lambda = R$ and if h is of type $\{1,-\varepsilon\}$ then $\Lambda = R^*$.*

(c) *If $m > 2$ then $\Lambda = R$.*

Proof. (a) Assume $m = 1$. Assume that h is of type $\{1\}$. Then $\{u_1\}$ is a basis of V with $h(u_1,u_1) = 1$. Pick $r \in R^{*2}$. Because $*$ is the identity on $A/\mathfrak{r}$, $Q(A^*) = R^{*2}$. Pick $r \in R^{*2}$. Then $r = Q(a) = aa^*$ for some $a \in A^*$ and $h(u_1a^*, u_1a^*) = aa^* = r$. Thus $R^{*2} \subseteq \Lambda$. Now let $v \in V$ be primitive. Because $m = 1$, $v = u_1a$ for some $a \in A^*$ and $h(v,v) \in Q(A) = R^{*2}$. Thus $\Lambda = R^{*2}$. A similar argument shows that $\Lambda = R\backslash R^{*2}$ when h is of type $\{\varepsilon\}$.

(b) Assume $m = 2$ and h is of type $\{1,-1\}$ with corresponding basis vectors u_1, u_2. Then $u_1 + u_2$ is primitive and $h(u_1+u_2, u_1+u_2) = 0$. Applying Lemma 3.1 shows that $\Lambda = R$.

Suppose instead that h is of type $\{1,-\varepsilon\}$. Assume that $v = u_1a_1 + u_2a_2$ is primitive and $h(v,v) \in \mathfrak{m}$. That is, $a_1a_1^* - \varepsilon a_2a_2^* = f \in \mathfrak{m}$. Because v is primitive, at least one a_1, a_2 is a unit. Without loss of generality, assume that $a_1 \in A^*$. Then a_2 is also a unit because $\varepsilon a_2 a_2\star \neq 0$ in $A/\mathfrak{r}$. Becuase $Q(A) = R^{*2}$, $a_1^2 = b_1b_1^*$ and $a_2^2 = b_2b_2^*$ for some $b_1, b_2 \in R^*$. Then $b_1b_1^* - \varepsilon b_2b_2^* = f$ and $c_1^2 - \delta c_2^2 = 0$ in $A/\mathfrak{r}$ with $c_1, c_2, \delta \neq 0$. But $\delta = c_1^2(c_2^{-1})^2 = (c_1c_2^{-1})^2$, contradicting the assumption that $\varepsilon \notin R^{*2}$. Thus $h(v,v) \in R^*$ for all primitive v. Because h is of type $\{-1,\varepsilon\}$ as well as $\{1,-\varepsilon\}$ there are primitive vectors u and v with $h(u,u) = 1$ and $h(v,v) = \varepsilon$. Thus $\Lambda = R^*$.

(c) Assume that $u_1, u_2, \ldots u_m$ is an orthogonal basis of V with $h(u_i,u_i) \in R^*$. Then $-h(u_3,u_3) \in R^*$ an by proposition 2.3, there exists a primitive vector $v \in u_1A \oplus u_2A$ with $h(v,v) = -h(v_3,v_3)$. Then $u = v + u_3$ is primitive with $h(u,u) = 0$, and applying lemma 3.1 shows that $\Lambda = R$. □