

## 10. Quadratic Forms

**10.1 Definition:** Let  $U$  be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . A **quadratic form** on  $U$  is a map  $K : U \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$  of the form  $K(u) = L(u, u)$  for some symmetric bilinear form  $L$  on  $U$ . Note that for  $u, v \in U$  we have

$$K(u+v) = L(u+v, u+v) = L(u, u) + L(u, v) + L(v, u) + L(v, v) = K(u) + 2L(u, v) + K(v)$$

and so when  $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}) \neq 2$  we have the **Polarization Identity**

$$L(u, v) = \frac{1}{2}(K(u+v) - K(u) - K(v)).$$

This shows that  $L$  is uniquely determined from  $K$ . Given a basis  $\mathcal{A}$  for  $U$ , we define the **matrix** of  $K$  with respect to  $\mathcal{A}$  to be the matrix of its (unique) associated symmetric bilinear form  $L$ , that is

$$[K]_{\mathcal{A}} = [L]_{\mathcal{A}}$$

so that for  $u \in U$  we have

$$K(u) = [u]_{\mathcal{A}}^T [K]_{\mathcal{A}} [u]_{\mathcal{A}}.$$

When  $\mathcal{A} = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$ , the matrix  $A = [K]_{\mathcal{A}} \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$  has entries  $A_{i,j} = L(u_j, u_i)$ , and writing  $x = [u]_{\mathcal{A}}$  we have

$$K(u) = x^T A x = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i A_{i,j} x_j = \sum_{i=1}^n A_{i,i} x_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i < j} A_{i,j} x_i x_j.$$

When we diagonalize the symmetric matrix  $A$  by choosing an invertible matrix  $P \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$  so that  $P^T A P = D = \text{diag}(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n)$ , if we write  $x = Pt$ , or equivalently  $t = P^{-1}x$ , then we have

$$K(u) = x^T A x = t^T P^T A P t = t^T D t = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i t_i^2.$$

**10.2 Example:** A polynomial or power series in the variables  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  can be written as

$$f(x) = \sum_{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n \geq 0} c_{i_1, \dots, i_n} x_1^{i_1} x_2^{i_2} \cdots x_n^{i_n} = \sum_{k \geq 0} f_k(x)$$

where

$$f_k(x) = \sum_{\substack{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n \geq 0 \\ i_1 + i_2 + \dots + i_n = k}} c_{i_1, \dots, i_n} x_1^{i_1} \cdots x_n^{i_n}.$$

For each  $k \geq 0$ , the polynomial  $f_k(x)$  is a **homogeneous** polynomial of degree  $k$ , which means that  $f_k(tx) = t^k f_k(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . By relabeling the coefficients, we can also write

$$f_0(x) = a, \quad f_1(x) = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} a_i x_i, \quad f_2(x) = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq j \leq n} a_{i,j} x_i x_j, \quad f_3(x) = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq j \leq k \leq n} a_{i,j,k} x_i x_j x_k$$

and so on. In particular, when  $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}) \neq 2$ , we have  $f_2(x) = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq j \leq n} a_{i,j} x_i x_j = x^T A x$

where  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$  is the matrix with entries  $A_{i,i} = a_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  and  $A_{i,j} = A_{j,i} = \frac{1}{2}a_{i,j}$  for  $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ . Thus a quadratic form on  $\mathbb{F}^n$  is the same thing as a homogeneous polynomial in  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  of degree 2.

**10.3 Example:** Sketch or describe the curve  $3x^2 - 4xy + 6y^2 = 10$ .

Solution: Let  $K$  be the quadratic form on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  given by  $K(x, y) = 3x^2 - 4xy + 6y^2$ . Note that

$$K(x, y) = (x \ y) A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{where} \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -2 & 6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The characteristic polynomial of  $A$  is

$$f_A(x) = \det(A - xI) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 3-x & -2 \\ -2 & 6-x \end{pmatrix} = (x^2 - 9x + 14) = (x-7)(x-2)$$

so the eigenvalues of  $A$  are  $\lambda_1 = 7$  and  $\lambda_2 = 2$ . We have

$$A - \lambda_1 I = \begin{pmatrix} -4 & -2 \\ -2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \cong \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and so  $u_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(1, -2)^T$  is a unit eigenvector for  $\lambda_1$ . Since  $A$  is symmetric, the eigenspace of  $\lambda_2$  is orthogonal to the eigenspace of  $\lambda_1$ , so  $u_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(2, 1)^T$  is a unit eigenvector for  $\lambda_2$ . Thus we have

$$P^T A P = D \quad \text{where} \quad P = (u_1, u_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We make a change in coordinates by writing  $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = P \begin{pmatrix} s \\ t \end{pmatrix}$ , and then we have

$$K(x, y) = (x \ y) A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = (s \ t) P^T A P \begin{pmatrix} s \\ t \end{pmatrix} = (s \ t) D \begin{pmatrix} s \\ t \end{pmatrix} = 7s^2 + 2t^2$$

and so

$$K(x, y) = 10 \iff 7s^2 + 2t^2 = 10 \iff \frac{s^2}{10/7} + \frac{t^2}{5} = 1.$$

Thus, in the  $st$ -plane, the curve is the ellipse with vertices at  $\pm(\sqrt{\frac{10}{7}}, 0)$  and  $\pm(0, \pm\sqrt{5})$ . Since our change of coordinate matrix  $P$  is an orthogonal matrix it preserves inner product, norm and angle (indeed  $P$  is a rotation matrix), in the  $xy$ -plane, the curve is an ellipse of the same shape with vertices at

$$\begin{aligned} P \begin{pmatrix} \pm\sqrt{\frac{10}{7}} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} &= \pm\sqrt{\frac{10}{7}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \pm\sqrt{\frac{2}{7}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and} \\ P \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \pm\sqrt{5} \end{pmatrix} &= \pm\sqrt{5} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \pm \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

**10.4 Theorem:** Let  $U$  be an  $n$ -dimensional inner product space over  $\mathbb{R}$  and let  $K : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a quadratic form on  $U$ . Let  $\mathcal{A} = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$  be an orthonormal basis for  $U$  such that  $[K]_{\mathcal{A}} = D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$  with  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$ . Then

$$\max_{u \in U, |u|=1} K(u) = K(u_1) = \lambda_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \min_{u \in U, |u|=1} K(u) = K(u_n) = \lambda_n.$$

Proof: Let  $u \in U$  and write  $x = [u]_{\mathcal{A}}$ . Note that  $|x| = |u|$  since  $\mathcal{A}$  is orthonormal. When  $|u| = |x| = 1$  we have

$$K(u) = x^T D x = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_1 x_i^2 = \lambda_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = \lambda_1 |x|^2 = \lambda_1$$

and when  $u = u_1$  we have  $x = [u_1]_{\mathcal{A}} = e_1$  so that  $K(u) = K(u_1) = e_1^T D e_1 = \lambda_1$ . This shows that  $\max_{u \in U, |u|=1} K(u) = K(u_1) = \lambda_1$ , and the proof that  $\min_{u \in U, |u|=1} K(u) = K(u_n) = \lambda_n$  is similar.

**10.5 Theorem:** Let  $U$  and  $V$  be finite dimensional inner product spaces over  $\mathbb{R}$  and let  $L : U \rightarrow V$  be a linear map. Then

$$\max_{u \in U, |u|=1} |L(u)| = |L(u_1)| = \sigma_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \min_{u \in U, |u|=1} |L(u)| = |L(u_n)| = \sigma_n$$

where  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_n$  are the largest and smallest singular values of  $L$  and  $u_1$  and  $u_n$  are unit eigenvectors of the map  $L^* L$  for the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 = \sigma_1^2$  and  $\lambda_n = \sigma_n^2$ .

Proof: Choose an orthonormal basis  $\mathcal{A} = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$  for  $U$  such that

$$[L^* L]_{\mathcal{A}} = D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

where  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  are the eigenvalues of  $L^* L$  with  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$ , and let  $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$ . Choose any orthonormal basis  $\mathcal{B}$  for  $V$  and let  $A = [L]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{A}}$ . Note that

$$A^T A = A^* A = [L^*]_{\mathcal{A}}^{\mathcal{B}} [L]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{A}} = [L^* L]_{\mathcal{A}} = D.$$

Let  $u \in U$  and write  $x = [u]_{\mathcal{A}}$ . Note that  $|x| = |u|$  and

$$|L(u)|^2 = |[L(u)]_{\mathcal{B}}|^2 = |[L]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{A}}[u]_{\mathcal{A}}|^2 = |Ax|^2 = (Ax)^T (Ax) = x^T A^T A x = x^T D x.$$

As in the proof of the previous theorem, we see that

$$\max_{u \in U, |u|=1} |L(u)|^2 = |L(u_1)|^2 = \lambda_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \min_{u \in U, |u|=1} |L(u)|^2 = |L(u_n)|^2 = \lambda_n$$

and so

$$\max_{u \in U, |u|=1} |L(u)| = |L(u_1)| = \sigma_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \min_{u \in U, |u|=1} |L(u)| = |L(u_n)| = \sigma_n.$$

**10.6 Theorem:** Let  $U$  and  $V$  be non-trivial subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $U \cap V = \{0\}$ . Then  $\theta(U, V) = \cos^{-1}(\sigma_1)$  where  $\sigma_1$  is the largest singular value of the map  $P : U \rightarrow V$  given by  $P(x) = \text{Proj}_V(x)$ .

Proof: The proof is left as an exercise.

**10.7 Example:** Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set with  $a \in U$ . Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be smooth (meaning that the partial derivatives of all orders all exist in  $U$ ). The Taylor polynomial of degree 2 centred at  $x = a$  for a smooth function of the variables  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  can be written as

$$T(x) = f(a) + Df(a)(x - a) + (x - a)^T Hf(a)(x - a)$$

where  $Df(a) \in M_{1 \times n}(\mathbb{R})$  and  $Hf(a) \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$  are the matrices with entries

$$Df(a)_i = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) \quad \text{and} \quad Hf(a)_{i,j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(a).$$

**10.8 Theorem:** (The Second Derivative Test) Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set with  $a \in U$ . Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be smooth. Suppose that  $Df(a) = 0$ . Then

- (1) if  $Hf(a)$  is positive definite then  $f(x)$  has a local minimum at  $x = a$ ,
- (2) if  $Hf(a)$  is negative definite then  $f(x)$  has a local maximum at  $x = a$ , and
- (3) if  $Hf(a)$  is indefinite then  $f(x)$  has a saddle point at  $x = a$ .

Proof: We omit the proof. This theorem is often proven in a calculus course.

**10.9 Remark:** Let  $U$ ,  $V$  and  $W$  be vector spaces over  $\mathbb{C}$ . A map  $L : U \times V \rightarrow W$  is called **sesquilinear** when

$$\begin{aligned} L(x_1 + x_2, y) &= L(x_1, y) + L(x_2, y) \quad , \quad L(tx, y) = t L(x, y) , \\ L(x, y_1 + y_2) &= L(x, y_1) + L(x, y_2) \quad \text{and} \quad L(x, ty) = \overline{t} L(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

for all  $x, x_1, x_2 \in U$ , and all  $y, y_1, y_2 \in V$  and for all  $t \in \mathbb{C}$ . A **Hermitian form** is a sesquilinear map  $L : U \times U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  with the property that  $L(y, x) = \overline{L(x, y)}$  for all  $x, y \in U$ , and a **skew-Hermitian form** is a sesquilinear map  $L : U \times U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $L(y, x) = -\overline{L(x, y)}$  for all  $x, y \in U$ .

**10.10 Example:** As an exercise, think about how the theory of bilinear and quadratic forms, from this and the previous chapter, carry over to Hermitian forms.