

## LECTURE 19: BILINEAR AND SYMMETRIC BILINEAR FORMS

Here are some nice consequences of the equality  $[f]_B^B = [L_f]_{B^*}^B$ .

1. The definition of rank of  $f$  does not depend on the choice of basis  $B$ . Indeed, let  $C$  be another basis. Then

$$\text{rank}(f) = \text{rank}[f]_B^B = \text{rank}([L_f]_{B^*}^B) = \text{rank}([L_f]_{C^*}^C) = \text{rank}[f]_C^C .$$

The third equality follows from the fact that the rank of the matrix of  $L_f$  does not depend on the bases used to represent it.

2. We can equally well define  $R_f$  to be the map from  $V$  to  $V^*$  by

$$R_f(v)(w) = f(w, v) .$$

Then  $[R_f]_{B^*}^B = [f]_B^B$ . The reason is as follows. Define  $g(v, w) = f(w, v)$ . Then  $L_g = R_f$ . Now the matrix  $[g]_B^B$  is easily seen to be the transpose of  $[f]_B^B$  (its  $(i, j)$ -th entry is  $g(v_j, v_i) = f(v_i, v_j)$ ). So

$$[f]_B^B = ([g]_B^B)^t = [L_g]_{B^*}^B = [R_f]_{B^*}^B .$$

3. We say that a bilinear form is *degenerate* if its rank is not equal to  $\dim V$ . We can now state many equivalent conditions for this: the following are equivalent when  $f \in \text{Bil}(V, \mathbb{F})$  and  $\dim V = n < \infty$ .

- (a)  $f$  is degenerate.
- (b) Define the nullspace of  $f$  to be

$$N(f) = \{v \in V : f(v, w) = 0 \text{ for all } w \in V\} .$$

(This is also called the left nullspace.) Then  $N(f) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$ .

- (c) Defining the right nullspace by

$$N_R(f) = \{v \in V : f(w, v) = 0 \text{ for all } w \in V\} ,$$

then  $N_R(f) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$ .

Note here that  $N(f) = N(L_f)$  and  $N_R(f) = N(R_f)$ . By this representation, we have

$$\text{rank}(f) + \dim N(f) = \dim V .$$

This comes from the rank-nullity theorem applied to  $L_f$ .

**Theorem 0.1.** *Let  $V$  be finite-dimensional. The map  $\Phi_L : \text{Bil}(V, \mathbb{F}) \rightarrow L(V, V^*)$  given by*

$$\Phi_L(f) = L_f$$

*is an isomorphism.*

*Proof.* First we show linearity. Given  $f, g \in \text{Bil}(V, \mathbb{F})$  and  $c \in \mathbb{F}$ , we want to show that

$$\Phi_L(cf + g) = c\Phi_L(f) + \Phi_L(g) .$$

To do this, we need to show that when we apply each side to a vector  $v \in V$ , we get the same result. The result will be in the dual space, so we need to show this result, applied to a vector  $w \in V$ , is the same. Thus we compute

$$(\Phi_L(cf + g)(v))(w) = (cf + g)(v, w) = cf(v, w) + g(v, w)$$

and the right side is

$$\begin{aligned} ((c\Phi_L(f) + \Phi_L(g))(v))(w) &= (c(\Phi_L(f)(v)) + \Phi_L(g)(v))(w) \\ &= c((\Phi_L(f)(v))(w)) + (\Phi_L(g)(v))(w) \\ &= cf(v, w) + g(v, w) . \end{aligned}$$

To show bijectivity, we note that the dimension of  $\text{Bil}(V, \mathbb{F})$  is  $n^2$ , the same as that of  $L(V, V^*)$  (since the map sending a bilinear form to a matrix is an isomorphism). Thus we need only show one-to-one. If  $\Phi_L(f) = 0$ , then  $\Phi_L(f)(v) = 0$  for all  $v \in V$ , meaning for all  $w \in V$ ,

$$0 = (\Phi_L(f)(v))(w) = f(v, w) .$$

This being true for all  $v, w$  means  $f$  is zero, so  $\Phi_L$  is injective.  $\square$

Now we move to changing coordinates. This is one big difference between the matrix of a linear transformation and the matrix of a bilinear form. Instead of conjugating by a change of basis matrix as before, we multiply on the right by the change of basis matrix and on the left by its transpose.

**Proposition 0.2.** *Let  $f$  be a bilinear form on  $V$ , a finite-dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$ . If  $B, B'$  are bases of  $V$  then*

$$[f]_{B'}^{B'} = \left([I]_B^{B'}\right)^t [f]_B^B [I]_B^{B'} .$$

*Proof.* For any  $v, w \in V$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} [w]_{B'}^t \left( \left([I]_B^{B'}\right)^t [f]_B^B [I]_B^{B'} \right) [v]_{B'} &= \left([I]_B^{B'} [w]_{B'}\right)^t [f]_B^B \left([I]_B^{B'} [v]_{B'}\right) \\ &= [w]_B^t [f]_B^B [v]_B \\ &= f(v, w) . \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

Another way to see the theorem is that if a matrix  $A$  represents a bilinear form in some basis and  $P$  is an invertible matrix, then  $P^t A P$  represents the bilinear form in a different basis.

## SYMMETRIC BILINEAR FORMS

**Definition 0.3.** A form  $f \in \text{Bil}(V, \mathbb{F})$  is called *symmetric* if  $f(v, w) = f(w, v)$  for all  $v, w \in V$ . The space of symmetric bilinear forms is denoted  $\text{Sym}(V, \mathbb{F})$ .

Symmetric forms are represented by symmetric matrices. That is, if  $f$  is symmetric and  $B$  is a basis, then  $[f]_B^B$  is equal to its transpose  $([f]_B^B)^t$ . One of the fundamental theorems about symmetric bilinear forms is that they can be diagonalized.

**Definition 0.4.** A basis  $B$  of  $V$  is called *orthogonal relative to*  $f \in \text{Bil}(V, \mathbb{F})$  if  $f(v, w) = 0$  for all distinct  $v, w \in B$ .

The basis  $B$  being orthogonal relative to  $f$  is equivalent to  $[f]_B^B$  being a diagonal matrix.

**Theorem 0.5** (Diagonalization of symmetric bilinear forms). *Let  $V$  be a finite-dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$ , a field of characteristic not equal to 2. If  $f \in \text{Sym}(V, \mathbb{F})$  then  $V$  has basis orthogonal relative to  $f$ .*

**Remark.** Equivalently, if  $A \in M_{n,n}(\mathbb{F})$  is symmetric, then there is an invertible  $P \in M_{n,n}(\mathbb{F})$  such that  $P^t A P$  is diagonal.

*Proof.* First note that if  $f$  is the zero form then the theorem is trivially true. So assume  $f \neq 0$ .

We will argue by induction on the dimension of  $V$ . For the base case, if  $V$  has dimension 1, then any basis is orthogonal relative to  $f$ . If  $\dim(V) = n > 1$  then we begin by finding a first element of our basis. To do this, let  $v \in V$ ; we will need to make sure that  $v$  can be chosen such that  $f(v, v) \neq 0$ . For this, we use a lemma.

**Lemma 0.6.** *Let  $f \in \text{Sym}(V, \mathbb{F})$  be nonzero. If  $\mathbb{F}$  does not have characteristic two then*

$$f(v, v) = 0 \text{ for all } v \in V \Rightarrow f = 0 .$$

*Proof.* The idea of the proof is to develop a so-called “polarization identity.” For  $v, w \in V$ ,

$$f(v + w, v + w) - f(v - w, v - w) = 4f(v, w) ,$$

so

$$f(v, w) = \frac{1}{4}(f(v + w, v + w) - f(v - w, v - w)) .$$

Note that what we have written as  $1/4$  is actually the inverse of 4 in  $\mathbb{F}$ . This exists because  $\mathbb{F}$  does not have characteristic 2. Therefore if  $f(z, z) = 0$  for all  $z$ , we apply this for  $z = v + w$  and  $z = v - w$  to find  $f(v, w) = 0$ .  $\square$

From the lemma, since  $f \neq 0$ , we can find  $v \in V$  such that  $f(v, v) \neq 0$ . This implies that  $v$  itself is nonzero. Now consider the function  $L_f(v)$ . Since it is a nonzero linear functional (for instance  $L_f(v)(v) \neq 0$ ) its nullspace must be of dimension  $n - 1$ . Define  $\hat{f}$  to be  $f$  restricted to  $N(L_f(v))$  and note that  $\hat{f}$  is a symmetric bilinear form on  $N(L_f(v))$ . Since this

has dimension strictly less than that of  $V$ , we use induction to find  $\{v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}\}$ , a basis for  $N(L_f(v))$  that is orthogonal relative to  $\hat{f}$ .

Since  $v \notin N(L_f(v))$ , it follows that  $\{v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, v\}$  is a basis for  $V$ . It is also orthogonal because  $f(v_i, v_j) = \hat{f}(v_i, v_j) = 0$  whenever  $i, j \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}$  and for  $i = 1, \dots, n-1$  we have

$$f(v_i, v) = f(v, v_i) = 0 \text{ since } v_i \in N(L_f(v)) .$$

This completes the proof. □