

21-238, Math Studies Algebra 2, Department of Mathematical Sciences, Carnegie Mellon University
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Definition 8.1: If V is an E -vector space, a *quadratic form* on V is a mapping Q from V into E such that there exists a bilinear form B on $V \times V$ (into E) such that $Q(v) = B(v, v)$ for all $v \in V$.¹

Remark 8.2: If $\text{char}(E) \neq 2$ and V is an E -vector space, then every quadratic form Q on V can be written as $B_s(x, x)$ with a symmetric bilinear form B_s on $V \times V$. Indeed, one just has to define $B_s(x, y) = 2^{-1}(B(x, y) + B(y, x))$. If V has finite dimension n , then it means that $Q(x) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n A_{i,j} x_i x_j$ for a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix A (with entries in E).

If $\text{char}(E) = 2$, and V has dimension > 1 , then the result is not true, since V contains a copy of E^2 and on E^2 , $Q(x) = x_1 x_2$ cannot be written as $B_s(x, x)$, because $B_s(x, y) = \sum_{i,j=1}^2 a_{i,j} x_i y_j$ with $a_{1,2} = a_{2,1}$ implies $B_s(x, x) = a_{1,1} x_1^2 + a_{2,2} x_2^2$.

Lemma 8.3: (Gauss's decomposition theorem) If $\text{char}(E) \neq 2$ and V is an n -dimensional E -vector space, then every quadratic form Q on V can be written as $Q(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \kappa_j L_j^2(x)$, where $\kappa_1, \dots, \kappa_n \in E$, and L_1, \dots, L_n are linearly independent linear forms (i.e. elements of V^*).²

Proof: One uses an induction on n , and the result is clear if $n = 1$. One assumes then that $n \geq 2$ and that the result has been proved if the dimension of the space is at most $n - 1$, and one uses a basis of V , so that $Q(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i^2 + \sum_{i < j} b_{i,j} x_i x_j$, and one may assume that all x_i appear explicitly, since if it not the case the induction hypothesis applies.

If one of the coefficients a_i is $\neq 0$, one defines $L_i(x) = x_i + 2^{-1} a_i^{-1} \sum_{j \neq i} b_{i,j} x_j$, so that $Q(x) = a_i L_i(x)^2 + Q^*(x')$ where x' denotes the vector with components x_k for $k \neq i$; by the induction hypothesis, Q^* is a combination of $n - 1$ squares of linearly independent linear forms, and since they do not use the variable x_i while L_i does, one obtains n linearly independent linear forms by adjoining L_i .

If all coefficients a_i are 0, there exists a coefficient $b_{i,j} \neq 0$ with $i \neq j$, and one defines $\ell_i(x) = x_i + b_{i,j}^{-1} \sum_{k \neq i,j} b_{j,k} x_k$ and $\ell_j(x) = x_j + b_{i,j}^{-1} \sum_{k \neq i,j} b_{i,k} x_k$, so that $Q(x) = b_{i,j} \ell_i(x) \ell_j(x) + Q^{**}(x'')$ where x'' denotes the vector with components x_k for $k \neq i, j$; by the induction hypothesis, Q^{**} is a combination of $n - 2$ squares of linearly independent linear forms, and since they do not use the variables x_i or x_j while ℓ_i uses x_i but not x_j , and ℓ_j uses x_j but not x_i , one obtains n linearly independent linear forms by adjoining $\ell_i + \ell_j$ and $\ell_i - \ell_j$, noticing that $b_{i,j} \ell_i \ell_j = b_{i,j} 4^{-1} ((\ell_i + \ell_j)^2 - (\ell_i - \ell_j)^2)$.

Definition 8.4: A quadratic form Q on an \mathbb{R} -vector space V is said to be *positive definite* if $Q(x) > 0$ for all non-zero $x \in V$ (negative definite if $Q(x) < 0$ for all non-zero $x \in V$) and *positive semi-definite* if $Q(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in V$ (negative semi-definite if $Q(x) \leq 0$ for all $x \in V$).

Remark 8.5: If V is an n -dimensional Euclidean space, and Q is a quadratic form on V , it can be written as $Q(x) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n A_{i,j} x_i x_j$ for a real symmetric $n \times n$ matrix A , and since there exists an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors $e_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ of A , with eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$, one has $Q(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i (e_i, x)^2$: one deduces that Q is positive definite if and only if $\lambda_i > 0$ for all i , and that it is positive semi-definite if and only if $\lambda_i \geq 0$ for all i .

Lemma 8.6: (Sylvester's law of inertia) If V is an n -dimensional Euclidean space, and Q is a quadratic form on V , then all decompositions $Q(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \kappa_i L_i(x)^2$ with L_1, \dots, L_n linearly independent have the same number of positive κ_i (corresponding to $i \in I$), the same number of zero κ_j (corresponding to $j \in J$), and the same number of negative κ_k (corresponding to $k \in K$, so that I, J, K is a partition of $\{1, \dots, n\}$).

¹ If $e_i, i \in I$, is a basis of V , one may put a total order on I , and then Q can be written as $\sum_{i \leq j} q_{i,j} v_i v_j$ (where $v = \sum_i v_i e_i$). If V has dimension n , it is then any polynomial function in v_1, \dots, v_n of degree ≤ 2 which has no terms of degree 0 or 1.

² If E is a field in which every element is a square, then one could replace L_j by $\ell_j L_j$ with $\ell_j^2 = \kappa_j$, and write Q as a sum of squares of linear forms, but since some κ_j may be 0, one must change the statement of independence, and say that the non-zero L_j are linearly independent.

Proof: One write $Q(x) = (Ax, x)$ for a symmetric A , and one denotes V_+ the direct sum of the eigen-spaces of A with positive eigenvalues and d_+ its dimension, V_0 the kernel of A and d_0 its dimension, and V_- the direct sum of the eigen-spaces of A with negative eigenvalues and d_- its dimension. Let $W_+ = \{x \in V \mid L_j(x) = 0, j \in J, L_k(x) = 0, k \in K\}$ (having dimension $|I|$), $W_0 = \{x \in V \mid L_i(x) = 0, i \in I, L_k(x) = 0, k \in K\}$ (having dimension $|J|$), and $W_- = \{x \in V \mid L_i(x) = 0, i \in I, L_j(x) = 0, j \in J\}$ (having dimension $|K|$). On W_+ , the restriction of Q is positive definite, so that W_+ cannot intersect $V_0 \oplus V_-$ on which Q is negative semi-definite, hence $|I| + d_0 + d_- \leq n$, i.e. $|I| \leq d_+$. On $W_+ \oplus W_0$, the restriction of Q is positive semi-definite, so that $W_+ \oplus W_0$ cannot intersect V_- on which Q is negative definite, hence $|I| + |J| \leq d_+ + d_0$. On W_- , the restriction of Q is negative definite, so that W_- cannot intersect $V_+ \oplus V_0$ on which Q is positive semi-definite, hence $|K| \leq d_-$. Since $|I| + |J| + |K| = n = d_+ + d_0 + d_-$, one deduces that $|I| = d_+$, $|J| = d_0$, and $|K| = d_-$.

Definition 8.7: If V_1, V_2, W are \mathbb{C} -vector spaces, a mapping f from V_1 into W is said to be *anti-linear* if $f(x+y) = f(x) + f(y)$ for all $x, y \in V_1$, and $f(\lambda x) = \bar{\lambda} f(x)$ for all $x \in V, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. A mapping g from $V_1 \times V_2$ into W is said to be *sesqui-linear* if $x \mapsto g(x, y)$ is linear from V_1 into W for all $y \in V_2$, and $y \mapsto g(x, y)$ is anti-linear from V_2 into W for all $x \in V_1$. A sesqui-linear mapping h from $V_1 \times V_1$ into W is said to be *Hermitian symmetric* if $h(y, x) = \overline{h(x, y)}$ for all $x, y \in V_1$.³

An *Hermitian space* V is a \mathbb{C} -vector space equipped with a Hermitian symmetric *scalar product* $B(x, y)$, usually simply denoted (x, y) , such that $(x, x) > 0$ for all non-zero $x \in V$, and the norm of $v \in V$ is $\|v\| = \sqrt{(v, v)}$. One says that x is orthogonal to y if $(x, y) = 0$; an orthogonal basis is a basis $e_i, i \in I$, such that $(e_i, e_j) = 0$ whenever $i \neq j$; an orthonormal basis is a basis $e_i, i \in I$, such that $(e_i, e_j) = \delta_{i,j}$ for all $i, j \in I$.

Remark 8.8: As for an Euclidean space, one has $|(x, y)| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$ for all $x, y \in V$,⁴ since if $(x, y) = r e^{i\theta}$, so that $(y, x) = r e^{-i\theta}$, then for $t \in \mathbb{R}$ one has $0 \leq (x + t e^{i\theta} y, x + t e^{i\theta} y) = \|x\|^2 + 2tr + t^2 \|y\|^2$, and because it is true for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$, one deduces that $r^2 \leq \|x\|^2 \|y\|^2$. As a consequence, $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$ defines a (translation invariant) metric, since the triangle inequality means $\|a + b\| \leq \|a\| + \|b\|$, and $\|a + b\|^2 = \|a\|^2 + \|b\|^2 + 2\Re(a, b)$ while $(\|a\| + \|b\|)^2 = \|a\|^2 + \|b\|^2 + 2\|a\| \|b\|$.

Remark 8.9: An Hermitian space is also called a (complex) pre-Hilbert space, and it is called a Hilbert space if the space is complete, i.e. if every Cauchy sequence converges.⁵

One should pay attention to a difference in notation with physicists, who use DIRAC's notation: mathematicians write $(x, y) \in \mathbb{C}$, which is linear in x and anti-linear in y , while physicists write $\langle b | a \rangle$, which is linear in a and anti-linear in b ; it means that the *ket* $|a\rangle$ is an element of a Hilbert space H , while the *bra* $\langle b|$ is an element of the dual H' . Then the notation $|a\rangle \langle b|$ denotes a linear operator from H into itself, which mathematicians write $a \otimes b$ (and which is the mapping $x \mapsto (b, x) a$).

³ If h is Hermitian symmetric, one has $h(x, x) \in \mathbb{R}$ for all $x \in V_1$. Conversely, a sesqui-linear mapping h from $V_1 \times V_1$ into W which satisfies $h(x, x) \in \mathbb{R}$ for all $x \in V_1$ is Hermitian symmetric: for all $x, y \in V_1$, one has $h(x, y) + h(y, x) = h(x + y, x + y) - h(x, x) - h(y, y) \in \mathbb{R}$, and replacing x by λx with $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, one deduces that $\lambda h(x, y) + \bar{\lambda} h(y, x) \in \mathbb{R}$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, which implies $h(y, x) = \overline{h(x, y)}$.

⁴ However, $|\cdot|$ denotes the modulus of a complex number, since $(x, y) \in \mathbb{C}$.

⁵ The space ℓ^0 of complex sequences with only a finite number of non-zero terms is a Hermitian space with the scalar product $(x, y) = \sum_n x_n \overline{y_n}$, but it is not complete, and its completion is isometric to ℓ^2 , the space of square integrable complex sequences, i.e. $\|x\|^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^2 < +\infty$, with the scalar product $(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n \overline{y_n}$. The space $C([0, 1])$ of continuous complex functions on $[0, 1]$ with the scalar product $(u, v) = \int_0^1 u(x) \overline{v(x)} dx$ (where the integral is the Riemann integral), is a (complex) pre-Hilbert space but it is not complete; however, describing its completion requires inventing the Lebesgue integral, since the completion is isometric to $L^2((0, 1))$, the space of (equivalence classes) of square integrable complex functions, i.e. $\|u\|^2 = \int_0^1 |u(x)|^2 dx < +\infty$, but where the integral is the Lebesgue integral.