

# Chapter 7

## Bilinear and Quadratic Forms

### 7.1 Notes

10/18: • **Bilinear form:** A function  $L : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$L(\alpha \mathbf{x}_1 + \beta \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}) = \alpha L(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}) + \beta L(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}) \quad L(\mathbf{x}, \alpha \mathbf{y}_1 + \beta \mathbf{y}_2) = \alpha L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_1) + \beta L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_2)$$

$$- L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}).$$

• **Quadratic form:** A bilinear form  $L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$ .

$$- (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) \text{ is a polynomial of degree 2 in } \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n:$$

$$L(\lambda \mathbf{x}, \lambda \mathbf{x}) = (\lambda \mathbf{x}, \lambda \mathbf{x}) = \lambda^2 (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$$

• We have that

$$(A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = (A\lambda \mathbf{x}, \lambda \mathbf{x}) = \lambda^2 (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j,i=1}^n \alpha_{j,i} \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j$$

• The general form of a quadratic form:

$$- \text{Can any quadratic form on } \mathbb{R}^n \text{ be written as } (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})?$$

10/20: • Bilinear forms are linear in each argument when keeping the other fixed.

• Quadratic forms  $Q(\mathbf{x}) = L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$  are quadratic polynomials in the coordinates of  $x$ .

$$- \text{In particular, } Q(\lambda \mathbf{x}) = |\lambda|^2 Q(\mathbf{x}).$$

• If  $Q$  quadratic is real, then  $Q(\mathbf{x}) = (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$  where  $A$  is some square matrix.

$$- \text{If } \mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n \text{ is an orthonormal basis of } \mathbb{R}^n, \text{ then there exists a unique } A = A^* \text{ such that } (A)_{ij} = L(\mathbf{e}_i, \mathbf{e}_j).$$

$$- \text{Keeping } \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{e}_i \text{ fixed, we have}$$

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\mathbf{x}) &= L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) \\ &= L\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{e}_i, \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{x}_j \mathbf{e}_j\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i L\left(\mathbf{e}_i, \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{x}_j \mathbf{e}_j\right) \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j \underbrace{L(\mathbf{e}_i, \mathbf{e}_j)}_{A_{ij}} \end{aligned}$$

- We have that

$$\begin{aligned}(A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) &= (UDU^{-1}\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) \\ &= (DU^{-1}\mathbf{x}, U^{-1}\mathbf{x}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \underbrace{(U^{-1}\mathbf{x})_i}_{\mathbf{y}_i} \underbrace{(U^{-1}\mathbf{x})_i}_{\mathbf{y}_i}\end{aligned}$$

- Can we characterize the set  $\{\mathbf{x} : (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = 1\}$ ?
  - Note that this set is equivalent to  $\{\mathbf{y} : (D\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}) = 1\}$  by the above. This set is a rotation of the previous one. Ellipse?
- Positive quadratic form:
  - $Q$  is positive definite if  $Q(\mathbf{x}) > 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$  and  $Q$  is positive semidefinite if  $Q(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ .
  - Take a self-adjoint matrix  $A = A^*$ . It is positive definite if  $Q(\mathbf{x}) = (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$  is positive definite.
- Theorem: If  $A = A^*$ , then
  1.  $A$  is positive definite if and only if all eigenvalues of  $A$  are positive.
  2.  $A$  is positive semidefinite if and only if all eigenvalues of  $A$  are nonnegative.
  3.  $A$  is negative semidefinite if and only if all eigenvalues of  $A$  are nonpositive.
  4.  $A$  is negative definite if and only if all eigenvalues of  $A$  are negative.
  5.  $A$  is indefinite if and only if the eigenvalues of  $A$  have positive and negative values.
- Theorem:  $A = A^*$  is positive definite iff  $\det A_k > 0$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, n$  where  $A_k$  is the upper left  $k \times k$  submatrix.
- Minimax representation of eigenvalues of a self-adjoint  $A$ .
  - Let  $E$  be a subspace of  $X$  where  $\dim X < \infty$ . We define  $\text{codim}(E) = \dim E^\perp$ .
  - Thus,  $\dim E + \text{codim } E = \dim X$ .
  - Theorem: Let  $A = A^*$ ,  $\lambda_1 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$  eigenvalues of  $A$ . Then

$$\lambda_k = \max_{\substack{E \text{ subspace} \\ \dim E = k}} \min_{\substack{\mathbf{x} \in E \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|=1}} (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = \min_{\substack{F \text{ subspace} \\ \text{codim } F = k-1}} \max_{\substack{\mathbf{x} \in F \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|=1}} (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$$

- Proof:  $A$  diagonal equals  $(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ .
- An orthonormal basis of  $X$  such that  $\dim E = k$ ,  $\text{codim } F = k-1$ ,  $\dim F = n-k+1$ .
- There exists an  $\mathbf{x}_0 \neq \mathbf{0}$  such that  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in E \cap F$ .
- Note that if  $B = B^*$ , then the max and min of  $(B\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$  over the unit sphere is the maximal and minimal eigenvalue of  $B$ .
- Thus,

$$\min_{\substack{\mathbf{x} \in E \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|=1}} (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) \leq (A\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}_0) \leq \max_{\substack{\mathbf{x} \in F \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|=1}} (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$$

- This is true for any  $E, F$  subspaces.  $\dim E = k$ ,  $\text{codim } F = k-1$ ,  $E_0 = \text{span}(\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_k)$  and  $F_0 = \text{span}(\mathbf{e}_k, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n)$ .
- Thus,

$$\min_{\substack{E_0 \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|=1}} (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = \lambda_k = \max_{\substack{F_0 \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|=1}} (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$$

■ Additionally,

$$\lambda_{k_1} \leq \max_{\dim E=k} \min_{\mathbf{x}} (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) \leq \min_{\text{codim } F=k-1} \max_{\mathbf{x}} (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) \leq \lambda_k$$

- Corollary: Let  $A = A^* = (a_{jk})_{1 \leq j, k \leq n}$  with eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  listed in decreasing order. Let  $\tilde{A} = (a_{j,k})_{1 \leq j, k \leq n-1}$  with eigenvalues  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_{n-1}$  listed in decreasing order. Then  $\lambda_1 \geq \mu_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \mu_2 \geq \dots \geq \mu_{n-1} \geq \lambda_n$ .

– Consider  $(A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$  on  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$ , but then restrict yourself to  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$  on  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_{n-1}\}$ .

## 7.2 Chapter 7: Bilinear and Quadratic Forms

From Treil (2017).

10/25: • **Bilinear form** (on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ): A function  $L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  of two arguments  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  that is linear in each argument.

– Linearity in each argument:

$$L(\alpha\mathbf{x}_1 + \beta\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}) = \alpha L(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}) + \beta L(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}) \quad L(\mathbf{x}, \alpha\mathbf{y}_1 + \beta\mathbf{y}_2) = \alpha L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_1) + \beta L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_2)$$

- If  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^T$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) &= \sum_{j,k=1}^n a_{j,k} x_k y_j \\ &= (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \\ &= \mathbf{y}^T A\mathbf{x} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & \cdots & a_{1,n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n,1} & \cdots & a_{n,n} \end{pmatrix}$$

–  $A$  is uniquely determined by  $L$ .

- **Quadratic form** (on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ): The diagonal of a bilinear form  $L$ , i.e., a bilinear form  $Q[\mathbf{x}] = L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$ .

– Alternatively: A homogeneous polynomial of degree 2, i.e., a polynomial in  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  with only  $ax_k^2$  and  $cx_jx_k$  terms.

- There are infinitely many ways to write a quadratic form as  $(A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$ .

– However, there is a unique representation  $(A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$  where  $A$  is a (real) symmetric matrix.

- **Quadratic form** (on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ ): A function of the form  $Q[\mathbf{x}] = (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$  where  $A$  is self-adjoint.

- Lemma 7.1.1: Let  $(A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$  be real for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ . Then  $A = A^*$ .

- To classify quadratic forms, consider the set of points  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  defined by  $Q[\mathbf{x}] = 1$  for some quadratic form  $Q$ .

– If the matrix of  $Q$  is diagonal, i.e.,  $Q[\mathbf{x}] = a_1x_1^2 + \dots + a_nx_n^2$ , then the set of points can easily be visualized.

- The standard method of diagonalizing a quadratic form is change of variables.
- Orthogonal diagonalization.

- Let  $Q[\mathbf{x}] = (A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$  in  $\mathbb{F}^n$ .
- Suppose  $\mathbf{y} = S^{-1}\mathbf{x}$  where  $S$  is an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix. Then

$$Q[\mathbf{x}] = Q[S\mathbf{y}] = (AS\mathbf{y}, S\mathbf{y}) = (S^*AS\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y})$$

so in the new variables  $\mathbf{y}$ , the quadratic form has matrix  $S^*AS$ .

- Thus, we can let  $A = UDU^*$ , choose  $D = U^*AU$  as our new (diagonal) matrix, and let this matrix act on the variables  $\mathbf{y} = U^*\mathbf{x}$ .
- Non-orthogonal diagonalization:
    - Completing the square:
      - Eliminate all  $x_i x_j$  terms by completing the square. Then substitute in a  $y_k$  for each squared term.
    - Row/column operations:
      - Augment  $(A|I)$ . Row reduce  $A$  to  $D$ . Then  $I \rightarrow S^*$ .