Bilinear and quadratic forms

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1 Bilinear forms

Definition 1. Let V be a vector space over a field F. A function $b : V \times V \rightarrow F$ is a bilinear form if

 $b(u+v,w) = b(u,w) + b(v,w) \qquad b(u,v+w) = b(u,v) + b(u,w)$ $b(\alpha u,v) = \alpha b(u,v) \qquad b(u,\alpha v) = \alpha b(u,v)$

for all $u, v, w \in \mathbf{V}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}$.

The bilinear form b is <u>symmetric</u> if b(u, v) = b(v, u) for all $u, v \in \mathbf{V}$.

Remark: b(o, v) = b(v, o) = 0. Examples:

- $b(x,y) = \langle x,y \rangle$ in \mathbb{R}^n is bilinear and symmetric for any scalar product.
- $b((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) = x_1x_2 + 2x_1y_2 + 3y_1x_2 + 4y_1y_2$ is bilinear, but not symmetric.

Definition 2. Let $C = v_1, \ldots, v_n$ be a basis of **V** and let b be a bilinear form on **V**. The matrix of b with respect to C is

$$[b]_C = \begin{pmatrix} b(v_1, v_1) & b(v_1, v_2) & \dots & b(v_1, v_n) \\ b(v_2, v_1) & b(v_2, v_2) & \dots & b(v_2, v_n) \\ & & \dots & \\ b(v_n, v_1) & b(v_n, v_2) & \dots & b(v_n, v_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

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Lemma 1. Let $C = v_1, \ldots, v_n$ be a basis of \mathbf{V} and let b be a bilinear form on \mathbf{V} . For any $x, y \in \mathbf{V}$, we have

$$b(x, y) = [x]_C [b]_C [y]_C^T.$$

Proof. Let $[x]_C = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ and $[y]_C = (\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n)$. We have

$$b(x, y) = b(\alpha_1 v_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n v_n, \beta_1 v_1 + \ldots + \beta_n v_n)$$

= $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \beta_j b(v_i, v_j)$
= $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \beta_j ([b]_C)_{i,j}$
= $[x]_C [b]_C [y]_C^T.$

Remark: $[b]_C$ is the only matrix with this property. A bilinear form b is symmetric if and only if $[b]_C$ is a symmetric matrix.

Corollary 2. Let \mathbf{V} be a vector space over a field \mathbf{F} . Let $C = v_1, \ldots, v_n$ be a basis of \mathbf{V} . For every $n \times n$ matrix M over \mathbf{F} , there exists a unique bilinear form $b : \mathbf{V} \times \mathbf{V} \to \mathbf{F}$ such that $b(v_i, v_j) = M_{i,j}$ for $1 \le i, j \le n$.

Proof. Define $b(x, y) = [x]_C M[y]_C^T$ and observe that b is bilinear. No other bilinear form with this property exists, since any bilinear form satisfying the assumptions has matrix M, which by Lemma 1 uniquely determines the values of the bilinear form.

Example 1. The bilinear form $b((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) = x_1x_2 + 2x_1y_2 + 3y_1x_2 + 4y_1y_2$ has matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ with respect to the standard basis;

$$b((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) = (x_1, y_1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Lemma 3. Let $B = v_1, \ldots, v_n$ and C be two bases of \mathbf{V} and let b be a bilinear form on \mathbf{V} . Let $S = [id]_{B,C}$. Then

$$[b]_B = S^T[b]_C S.$$

Proof. We have

$$(S^{T}[b]_{C}S)_{i,j} = e_{i}^{T}S^{T}[b]_{C}Se_{j} = [v_{i}]_{B}S^{T}[b]_{C}S[v_{j}]_{B}^{T} = [v_{i}]_{C}[b]_{C}[v_{j}]_{C}^{T} = b(v_{i},v_{j}) = ([b]_{B})_{i,j}.$$

2 Quadratic forms

Definition 3. A function $f : \mathbf{V} \to \mathbf{F}$ is a <u>quadratic form</u> if there exists a bilinear form $b : \mathbf{V} \times \mathbf{V} \to \mathbf{F}$ such that f(x) = b(x, x) for every $x \in \mathbf{V}$.

Example 2.

 $f((x,y)) = x^2 + 5xy + 4y^2 \text{ is a quadratic form, since } f((x,y)) = b((x,y), (x,y))$ for the bilinear form $b((x_1,y_1), (x_2,y_2)) = x_1x_2 + 2x_1y_2 + 3y_1x_2 + 4y_1y_2.$

Also, $f((x, y)) = b_1((x, y), (x, y))$ for the symmetric bilinear form $b((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) = x_1x_2 + \frac{5}{2}(x_1y_2 + y_1x_2) + 4y_1y_2.$

Lemma 4. Let V be a vector space over a field F whose characteristic is not 2. For every quadratic form f, there exists a unique symmetric bilinear form b such that f(x) = b(x, x) for every $x \in V$.

Proof. Since f is quadratic, there exists a bilinear form b_0 such that $f(x) = b_0(x, x)$ for every $x \in \mathbf{V}$. Let $b(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(b_0(x, y) + b_0(y, x))$. Then b is a symmetric bilinear form and $b(x, x) = b_0(x, x)$ for every $x \in \mathbf{V}$. Hence, b is a symmetric bilinear form such that f(x) = b(x, x) for every $x \in \mathbf{V}$.

To show that b is unique, it suffices to note that

$$b(x,y) = \frac{b(x+y,x+y) - b(x,x) - b(y,y)}{2} = \frac{f(x+y) - f(x) - f(y)}{2}$$

whenever b is a symmetric bilinear form b satisfying f(x) = b(x, x) for every $x \in \mathbf{V}$.

Hence, if f is a quadratic form on **V** and C is a basis of **V**, then

$$f(x) = [x]_C A[x]_C^T$$

for a unique symmetric matrix A. We write $[f]_C = A$. Also, by Lemma 3, if B is another basis of **V** and $S = [id]_{B,C}$, then

$$[f]_B = S^T[f]_C S.$$

Lemma 5. Let $f : \mathbf{V} \to \mathbf{F}$ be a quadratic form. Let $B_1 = v_1, \ldots, v_n$ and $B_2 = w_1, \ldots, w_n$ be two bases of \mathbf{V} such that both $[f]_{B_1}$ and $[f]_{B_2}$ are diagonal matrices. Then $[f]_{B_1}$ and $[f]_{B_2}$ have the same number of positive entries.

Proof. For $i \in \{1, 2\}$, let a_i be the number of positive entries of $[f]_{B_i}$, and suppose for a contradiction that $a_1 > a_2$. Let $I = \{i : f(v_i) > 0\}, J = \{i : f(w_i) \le 0\}$. Let $\mathbf{U}_1 = \operatorname{span}(\{v_i : i \in I\})$ and $\mathbf{U}_2 = \operatorname{span}(\{w_i : i \in J\})$. Note that $\dim(\mathbf{U}_1) + \dim(\mathbf{U}_2) = a_1 + (\dim(\mathbf{V}) - a_2) > \dim(\mathbf{V})$, and thus there exists a non-zero vector $v \in \mathbf{U}_1 \cap \mathbf{U}_2$. However,

$$f(v) = [v]_{B_1}[f]_{B_1}[v]_{B_1}^T = \sum_{i \in I} ([v]_{B_1})_i^2 f(v_i) > 0$$

$$f(v) = [v]_{B_2}[f]_{B_2}[v]_{B_2}^T = \sum_{i \in J} ([v]_{B_2})_i^2 f(w_i) \le 0$$

This is a contradiction.

For integers a, b, and c, let D(a, b, c) be the diagonal matrix with

$$D_{i,i} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{for } i = 1, \dots, a, \\ -1 & \text{for } i = a + 1, \dots, a + b, \\ 0 & \text{for } i = a + b + 1, \dots, a + b + c. \end{cases}$$

Theorem 6 (Sylvester's law of inertia). If f is a quadratic form on a vector space \mathbf{V} over real numbers of finite dimension, then there exist unique integers a, b, and c and a basis B of \mathbf{V} such that $[f]_B = D(a, b, c)$.

Proof. Let A be a matrix of f with respect to any basis C of V. We need to find a regular matrix S (which will serve as the transition matrix from basis B to C) such that $S^T A S = D(a, b, c)$ for some a, b, and c. Perform Gaussian elimination, applying the same operations to the rows and columns of A, until we obtain a diagonal matrix with only +1, -1, or 0 on the diagonal.

For the uniqueness, suppose that $[f]_{B_1} = D(a_1, b_1, c_1)$ and $[f]_{B_2} = D(a_2, b_2, c_2)$ for some bases B_1 and B_2 . Let $S = [id]_{B_1,B_2}$; hence, $D(a_1, b_1, c_1) = S^T D(a_2, b_2, c_2)S$. Since S is regular, we have rank $(D(a_1, b_1, c_1)) = \operatorname{rank}(D(a_2, b_2, c_2))$, and thus $c_1 = c_2$. Also, by Lemma 5, we have $a_1 = a_2$, and thus $b_1 = b_2$. \Box

Definition 4. We say that a quadratic form f on a vector space \mathbf{V} of finite dimension has <u>signature</u> (a, b, c) if there exists a basis B such that $[f]_B = D(a, b, c)$.

Example 3. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & -3 & -1 \\ 1 & 7 & -1 & 5 \\ -3 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 5 & 1 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$. By performing simultaneous

row and column operations, we have

$$A \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & -3 & -1 \\ 0 & 8 & -4 & 4 \\ -3 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 5 & 1 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & -3 & -1 \\ 0 & 8 & -4 & 4 \\ -3 & -4 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 4 & 1 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & -3 & -1 \\ 0 & 8 & -4 & 4 \\ 0 & -4 & 8 & 4 \\ -1 & 4 & 1 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 8 & -4 & 4 \\ 0 & -4 & 8 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 4 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & -4 & 4 \\ 0 & -4 & 8 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 4 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & -4 & 4 \\ 0 & -4 & 8 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 4 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & -4 & 8 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & 8 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 6 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{6} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence, the signature of A is (2, 1, 1).

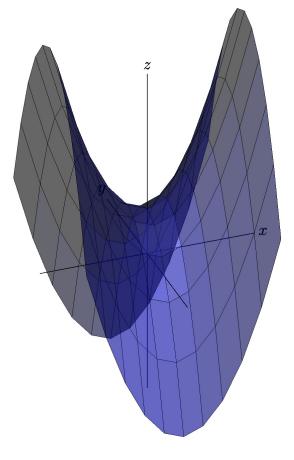
Corollary 7. Let A be a real symmetric $n \times n$ matrix and let $f(x) = x^T A x$ for $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$. If f has signature (a, b, c), then the sum of algebraic multiplicities of the positive eigenvalues of A is a, and the sum of algebraic multiplicities of the negative eigenvalues of A is b.

Proof. Recall that since A is real and symmetric, we have $A = Q^{-1}DQ = Q^T DQ$ for a diagonal matrix D and an orthogonal matrix Q, where A and D have the same eigenvalues, equal to the diagonal entries of D. Equivalently, we have $[f]_{B_1} = D$, where B_1 is the basis formed by the columns of Q^T . Since the signature of A is (a, b, c), there exists a basis B_2 such that $[f]_{B_2} = D(a, b, c)$. The claim follows by Lemma 5.

3 Quadrics and conics

Definition 5. For any $n \times n$ symmetric real matrix A, a real row vector b and a real number γ , the set $\{x \in \mathbf{R}^n : x^T A x + b x + \gamma = 0\}$ is called a quadric. If n = 2, it is called a <u>conic</u>.

Example 4. The set $\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbf{R}^3 : x^2 - y^2 - z + 1 = 0\}$:



Consider a quadric $C = \{x \in \mathbf{R}^n : x^T A x + bx + \gamma = 0\}$. We have $A = Q^T D Q$ for an orthogonal matrix Q and a diagonal matrix D. Let $b' = bQ^T$ and $C' = \{y \in \mathbf{R}^n : y^T D y + b'y + \gamma = 0\}$. Observe that $x \in C$ if and only if $Qx \in C'$, and thus thus the sets C' and C only differ by the isometry described by Q. Let (p, n, z) be the signature of A; without loss of generality, the first p entries of D are positive, the next n entries are negative and the last z are zeros. Furthermore, since C' is also equal to $\{y \in \mathbf{R}^n : y^T(-D)y - b'y - \gamma = 0\}$, we can assume that $p \ge n$.

For any vector d, let $b_d = 2d^T D + b'$, $\gamma_d = d^T D d + b' d + \gamma$ and $C_d = \{v \in \mathbf{R}^n : v^T D v + b_d v + \gamma_d\}$. Note that $v \in C_d$ if and only if $v + d \in C'$, and thus C_d is obtained from C' by shifting it by the vector d (another isometry). Choose the first p + n coordinates of d so that the first p + n coordinates of the vector $2d^T D$ are equal to the first p + n coordinates of -b' (the remaining coordinates of $2d^T D$ are always 0). Furthermore, if z > 0 and at least one of the last z entries of b' is not 0, we can choose the last z coordinates of d so that γ_d is 0.

Thus, we get the following.

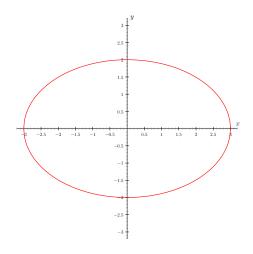
Lemma 8. Every quadric is up to isometry equal to a quadric $\{x \in \mathbf{R}^n : x^T A x + b x + \gamma = 0\}$ satisfying the following conditions:

- A is diagonal with the first p entries positive, the next n entries negative and the last z equal to 0 for some $p \ge n$,
- the first p + n entries of b are equal to 0, and
- either $b = o \text{ or } \gamma = 0$.

Example 5. Classification of conics:

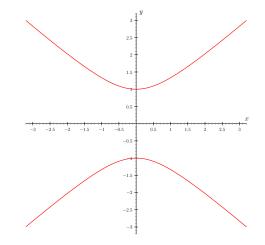
p = 2: $\alpha_1 x_1^2 + \alpha_2 x_2^2 = \gamma$ for $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 > 0$.

- empty if $\gamma < 0$,
- the point (0,0) if $\gamma = 0$,
- an <u>ellipse</u> with axes $\sqrt{\gamma/\alpha_1}$ and $\sqrt{\gamma/\alpha_2}$ if $\gamma > 0$.



 $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{1}$: $\alpha_1 x_1^2 - \alpha_2 x_2^2 = \gamma \text{ for } \alpha_1, \alpha_2 > 0.$

- Two intersecting lines $|x_1| = \sqrt{\alpha_2/\alpha_1} |x_2|$ if $\gamma = 0$.
- <u>Hyperbola</u> if $\gamma \neq 0$.

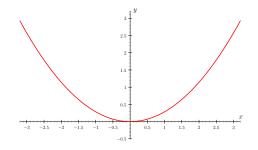


 $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{1}, \ \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{o}: \ \alpha x_1^2 = \gamma \ for \ \alpha > 0.$

• Empty, a line, or two parallel lines depending on γ .

 $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{1}, \ \mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{o}, \ \gamma = \mathbf{0}: \ \alpha x_1^2 = \beta x_2 \ for \ \alpha, \beta \neq 0.$

• A parabola.



 $z = 2, b = o: \gamma = 0.$

• Empty or \mathbf{R}^2 depending on γ .

 $z = 2, b \neq o, \gamma = 0: \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 = 0.$

• A line.

Similarly, we can classify quadrics in higher dimensions, based on their signatures.