

Week 10: Unitary/Orthogonal Matrices, Bilinear Forms (textbook § 6.5, 6.8)

Spectral Theorems Revisited

Recall: $Q \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$ is
 unitary / orthogonal
 ($\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$) ($\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$)

$$\iff Q Q^* = Q^* Q = I$$

These matrices arise naturally as change of coordinate matrices.

Lemma: Let β and γ be orthonormal bases of a finite dim'd inner product space $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$. Then, the change of coordinate matrix $Q = [I]_{\beta}^{\gamma}$ is unitary/orthogonal.
 ($\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$) ($\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$)

"Proof": We "explain" the proof by the example that

$$V = \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \gamma = \text{standard basis}$$

$$\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\} \text{ O.N.B.}$$

In standard coordinates,

$$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \dots, \quad v_n = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1n} \\ a_{2n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

then the change of basis matrix is

$$Q = [I]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} \boxed{a_{11}} & \boxed{a_{12}} & \dots & \boxed{a_{1n}} \\ \boxed{a_{21}} & \boxed{a_{22}} & \dots & \boxed{a_{2n}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \boxed{a_{n1}} & \boxed{a_{n2}} & \dots & \boxed{a_{nn}} \end{pmatrix}$$

\parallel \parallel \parallel
 v_1 v_2 v_n

Taking transpose,

$$Q^t = \begin{pmatrix} \boxed{a_{11} \ a_{21} \ \dots \ a_{n1}} \\ \boxed{a_{12} \ a_{22} \ \dots \ a_{n2}} \\ \vdots \\ \boxed{a_{1n} \ a_{2n} \ \dots \ a_{nn}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{matrix} = v_1^t \\ = v_2^t \\ \vdots \\ = v_n^t \end{matrix}$$

Question: When is $Q^t Q = I$?

$$Q^t Q = \begin{pmatrix} \boxed{a_{11} \ a_{21} \ \dots \ a_{n1}} \\ \boxed{a_{12} \ a_{22} \ \dots \ a_{n2}} \\ \vdots \\ \boxed{a_{1n} \ a_{2n} \ \dots \ a_{nn}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \boxed{a_{11}} & \boxed{a_{12}} & \dots & \boxed{a_{1n}} \\ \boxed{a_{21}} & \boxed{a_{22}} & \dots & \boxed{a_{2n}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \boxed{a_{n1}} & \boxed{a_{n2}} & \dots & \boxed{a_{nn}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \langle v_1, v_1 \rangle & \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle v_1, v_n \rangle \\ \langle v_2, v_1 \rangle & \langle v_2, v_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle v_2, v_n \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle v_n, v_1 \rangle & \langle v_n, v_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle v_n, v_n \rangle \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{\text{red double arrow}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & 0 \\ & \ddots & & \\ 0 & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I$$

$\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$
is orthonormal !!

□

Corollary: Suppose β, γ are O.N.B. for $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$, and $T: V \rightarrow V$.

$$[T]_{\beta} = Q^{-1} [T]_{\gamma} Q = Q^* [T]_{\gamma} Q$$

where Q is unitary ($F = \mathbb{C}$) or orthogonal ($F = \mathbb{R}$).

Defⁿ: Two matrices $A, B \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ are $\begin{matrix} (F = \mathbb{C}) \\ \text{unitarily} / \end{matrix}$ $\begin{matrix} (F = \mathbb{R}) \\ \text{orthogonally} \end{matrix}$ equivalent if there exists a $\begin{matrix} (F = \mathbb{C}) \\ \text{unitary} / \end{matrix}$ $\begin{matrix} (F = \mathbb{R}) \\ \text{orthogonal} \end{matrix}$ matrix Q

s.t.

$$\boxed{A = Q^* B Q}$$

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Therefore, A, B are unitarily / orthogonally equivalent iff they represent the same linear operator T under different orthonormal bases!

As a result, we can restate the Spectral Theorems and Schur's Lemma in matrix form.

Spectral Theorems: (Matrix Form)

Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$. Then, A is unitarily / orthogonally equivalent to a diagonal matrix if and only if A is normal ($\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$) or self-adjoint ($\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$).

Schur's Lemma: (Matrix Form)

Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$. If the characteristic polynomial of A splits over \mathbb{F} , then A is unitarily / orthogonally equivalent to an upper triangular matrix.

Example: Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \in M_{3 \times 3}(\mathbb{R}) \quad \boxed{\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}}$$

Find an orthogonal matrix P s.t. $P^t A P$ is a diagonal matrix.

Solution: First of all, $A^t = A$ (i.e. A is self adjoint), so such a P exists. Finding P is equivalent to finding an orthonormal eigenbasis for A .

Finding eigenvalues: $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= \det \begin{pmatrix} 4-\lambda & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4-\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 4-\lambda \end{pmatrix} = (4-\lambda) \det \begin{pmatrix} 4-\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 4-\lambda \end{pmatrix} - 2 \cdot \det \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4-\lambda \end{pmatrix} \\
&\quad + 2 \cdot \det \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4-\lambda \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \\
&= (4-\lambda) [(4-\lambda)^2 - 4] - 2 [2(4-\lambda) - 4] \\
&\quad + 2 [4 - 2(4-\lambda)] \\
&= (4-\lambda) (\lambda^2 - 8\lambda + 12) - 8(2-\lambda) \\
&\stackrel{(?)}{=} -(\lambda-4)(\lambda-6)(\lambda-2) + 8(\lambda-2) \\
&= (\lambda-2) [-(\lambda^2 - 10\lambda + 24) + 8] \\
&= (\lambda-2) [-(\lambda^2 - 10\lambda + 16)] \\
&= -(\lambda-2)^2 (\lambda-8).
\end{aligned}$$

The eigenvalues and multiplicities are

$\lambda_1 = 2$,	$m_1 = 2$
$\lambda_2 = 8$,	$m_2 = 1$

Finding orthonormal eigenvectors:

$\lambda_1 = 2$ $E_{\lambda_1} = N(A - 2I) = N \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

NOT orthonormal !!

extra step { Apply Gram-Schmidt!

$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$

$v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}}{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \\ -\frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$

Hence, $\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is an O.N.B. for E_{λ_1} .

$$\boxed{\lambda_2 = 8} \quad E_{\lambda_2} = N(A - 8I) = N \begin{pmatrix} -4 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & -4 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & -4 \end{pmatrix} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

Hence, $\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is an O.N.B. for E_{λ_2} .

Putting all these together,

$\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is an **orthonormal eigenbasis** for \mathbb{R}^3 .

The required orthogonal matrix P is thus given by

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ 0 & \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}.$$

and $P^t A P = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 \end{pmatrix}.$

Midterm 2 up to here □

Bilinear Forms

Recall that an inner product was a 2-variable scalar-valued function

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \longrightarrow \mathbb{F}$$

which satisfies some properties (Ex: what are they?).

We know that $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is linear in the 1st variable but only

conjugate linear in the 2nd variable! (Note: There is no such different though when $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$.)

Now, we study 2-variable functions which are more "symmetric" in the two variables.

Defⁿ: Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} .

A **bilinear form** is a function

$$H: V \times V \longrightarrow \mathbb{F}$$

which is **linear** in each variable:

$$H(a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2, y) = a_1 H(x_1, y) + a_2 H(x_2, y)$$

$$H(x, a_1 y_1 + a_2 y_2) = a_1 H(x, y_1) + a_2 H(x, y_2)$$

for all $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{F}$, $x_1, x_2, x, y_1, y_2, y \in V$.

Remark: Even though many interesting applications are concerned with general fields \mathbb{F} (e.g. \mathbb{Z}_2), for simplicity, we will mainly be focusing on the case $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ or \mathbb{R} .

Example: If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$, any inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is a bilinear form.

Example: Given any $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$, the function

$$H: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

defined by $H(x, y) = x^t A y$ is a bilinear form.

e.g. $H\left(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}\right) = (x_1 \ x_2) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$

$$= 2x_1 y_1 + 3x_1 y_2 + 4x_2 y_1 - x_2 y_2$$

Given any matrix $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$, I can associate to it a bilinear form H as above. Does all bilinear forms come from some matrix?



The Space of Bilinear Forms $\mathcal{B}(V)$

Question: What can we do with bilinear forms?

- We can add two bilinear forms:

$$(H_1 + H_2)(x, y) := H_1(x, y) + H_2(x, y)$$

- We can scalar-multiply:

$$(\lambda H)(x, y) := \lambda H(x, y)$$

FACT: The space of bilinear forms $\mathcal{B}(V)$ on a given vector space V forms a vector space (over the same field \mathbb{F} as V).

Question: What is $\dim \mathcal{B}(V)$?

Answer: $\dim \mathcal{B}(V) = n^2$ if $\dim V = n$.

In fact, there exists a vector space isomorphism

$$\mathcal{B}(V) \xrightarrow[\text{not canonical}]{\cong} M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F}) \quad \text{if } \dim_{\mathbb{F}} V = n$$

! Does it look familiar? !

$$\mathcal{L}(V) := \{T: V \rightarrow V \text{ linear}\} \xrightarrow[\text{not canonical}]{\cong} M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$$

We have such a correspondence once we choose a basis β

(hence not entirely "natural")

Let $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis for V .

Using bilinearity.

$$H\left(\underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i}_x, \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^n b_j v_j}_y\right) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_i b_j \underbrace{H(v_i, v_j)}_{\text{these } n \times n = n^2 \text{ "coefficients" determine } H \text{ completely.}}$$

Defⁿ: Let $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis for V . If $H \in \mathcal{B}(V)$, (8)

$$\Psi_{\beta}(H) := \begin{pmatrix} H(v_1, v_1) & H(v_1, v_2) & \dots & H(v_1, v_n) \\ H(v_2, v_1) & H(v_2, v_2) & \dots & H(v_2, v_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ H(v_n, v_1) & H(v_n, v_2) & \dots & H(v_n, v_n) \end{pmatrix} = (H(v_i, v_j))$$

is the matrix representation of H w.r.t. β .

Example: Consider $H: \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ to be the "determinant":

$$H\left(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}\right) := \det \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & y_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1$$

By properties of \det , H is a bilinear form.

Fix the standard basis $\beta = \{e_1, e_2\}$

$$H(e_1, e_1) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$H(e_1, e_2) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = 1$$

$$H(e_2, e_1) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = -1$$

$$H(e_2, e_2) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Psi_{\beta}(H) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

skew-symmetric
" $A^t = -A$ "

By a very similar argument in establishing $\mathcal{L}(V) \cong M_{n \times n}(F)$,

we have:

Theorem: The map $\Psi_{\beta}: \mathcal{B}(V) \xrightarrow{\cong} M_{n \times n}(F)$ is an isomorphism between vector spaces over F .

Proof: Exercise (see textbook Thm. 6.32 if you got stuck.)

Change of Basis Formula

Recall that for a linear operator $T: V \rightarrow V$, if we have two bases β and γ for V , then the matrices $[T]_{\beta}$, $[T]_{\gamma}$ are

related by $(*)_T \quad [T]_{\gamma} = Q^{-1} [T]_{\beta} Q$ where Q is an invertible matrix.

? What about for bilinear forms ?

Theorem: Given a bilinear form $H \in \mathcal{B}(V)$, if β and γ are two bases for V , then the matrices $\Psi_{\beta}(H)$ and $\Psi_{\gamma}(H)$ are related by

$$(*)_H \quad \Psi_{\gamma}(H) = Q^t \Psi_{\beta}(H) Q$$

where $Q = [I]_{\gamma}^{\beta}$ is the invertible change of basis matrix from γ to β .

Caution! The matrix Q in $(*)_H$ may not be orthogonal, i.e. $Q^t \neq Q$ in general.

Note: Comparing $(*)_T$ and $(*)_H$, we see that although both linear operators T and bilinear forms H are represented by matrices, they transform differently when we change basis. Hence T and H are somewhat different in some fundamental way. In the language of "tensors", $T \in V \otimes V^*$ but $H \in V^* \otimes V^*$.

Proof of $(*_H)$:

Let Q be the change of coordinate matrix from γ to β ,

ie $(\#)$ $[v]_{\beta} = Q [v]_{\gamma}$ for all $v \in V$.

Now, by definition of matrix representation of H , we have

$$H(x, y) = [x]_{\beta}^t \Psi_{\beta}(H) [y]_{\beta} \quad \& \quad H(x, y) = [x]_{\gamma}^t \Psi_{\gamma}(H) [y]_{\gamma}$$
$$\stackrel{(\#)}{=} [x]_{\gamma}^t Q^t \Psi_{\beta}(H) Q [y]_{\gamma} \quad \leftarrow \text{compare these expressions!}$$

Because of $(*_H)$, we identify matrices which represent the same bilinear form H but in different bases.

Defⁿ: Two matrices $A, B \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ are **congruent** if there exists invertible $Q \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ st. $B = Q^t A Q$

Diagonalizability

Since we can represent bilinear forms H as matrices, we have a similar notion of "diagonalizability":

Defⁿ: $H \in \mathcal{B}(V)$ is **diagonalizable** iff there exists a basis β for V st. $\Psi_{\beta}(H)$ is diagonal.

In terms of matrices, it is the same as asking:

Given $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$, does there exist an invertible $Q \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ st. $Q^t A Q$ is diagonal?

! This is different from our usual notion of diagonalizing a matrix!

Symmetric Bilinear Forms

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Fixing a basis β for V , we have a 1-1 correspondence

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{B}(V) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F}) & \dim V = n \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\ H & \longleftrightarrow & \Psi_{\beta}(H) & \end{array}$$

As symmetric matrices are particularly nice in many aspects,

we ask: For which H is $\Psi_{\beta}(H)$ a symmetric matrix?

Defⁿ: $H \in \mathcal{B}(V)$ is symmetric iff $H(x, y) = H(y, x) \forall x, y \in V$

FACT: $H \in \mathcal{B}(V)$ symmetric $\Leftrightarrow \Psi_{\beta}(H)$ symmetric

Pf: Exercise!

The following is the most important result about symmetric bilinear forms:

Theorem: Let V be a finite dim'l vector space over $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} .

$H \in \mathcal{B}(V)$ is diagonalizable

\Leftrightarrow

H is a symmetric bilinear form

Caution: This is different from the Spectral Theorems we discussed since there is NO inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ involved!

Proof: By induction on $n = \dim V$.

$n = 1$: trivial

Assume theorem is true for $n = k - 1$.

Suppose now $n = \dim V = k$. WLOG, assume $H \neq 0$.

Claim: $H(x, x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in V$

Proof of claim: $H \neq 0 \Rightarrow H(u, v) \neq 0$ for some $u, v \in V$

Let $x = u + v$. Suppose $H(u, u) = H(v, v) = 0$. Otherwise we are done. Then

$$\begin{aligned} H(x, x) &= H(u + v, u + v) && \text{H symmetric} \\ \text{(bilinearity)} &= H(u, u) + \underbrace{H(u, v)} + \underbrace{H(v, u)} + H(v, v) \\ &= 0 + 2H(u, v) + 0 \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Fix some $0 \neq x \in V$ s.t. $H(x, x) \neq 0$.

Consider the linear map $L_x : V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ defined by

"fixing one of the variable to be x ", i.e.

$$\boxed{L_x(y) := H(x, y)}$$

Since $L_x(x) = H(x, x) \neq 0$ by our choice of x , L_x is onto.

By rank-nullity theorem,

$$\dim N(L_x) = \dim V - \dim R(L_x) = k - 1.$$

Therefore, $H : \underbrace{N(L_x)}_{\dim = k-1} \times N(L_x) \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ is again a symmetric bilinear form

and is thus diagonalizable by some basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_{k-1}\}$ for $N(L_x)$.

Then, $\{v_1, \dots, v_{k-1}, x\}$ is a basis for V which diagonalize H .

Quadratic Forms

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Recall that an inner product induces a norm :

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \rightsquigarrow \|x\|^2 := \langle x, x \rangle$$

(Note: But NOT vice versa, unless we have a "nice" norm)
(see Exercise #27 in 6.1)

We have something similar for bilinear forms which are symmetric :

Defⁿ: For a symmetric bilinear form $H \in \mathcal{B}(V)$ we associate a quadratic form $K: V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ where

$$K(x) := H(x, x) \quad \text{for all } x \in V$$

Example: (Conic sections)

Remember that any symmetric bilinear form H on \mathbb{R}^2 is represented by a 2×2 symmetric real matrix :

$$H\left(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}\right) = (x_1 \ x_2) \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The quadratic form associated to H is simply

$$K\left(\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}\right) = (x \ y) \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = Ax^2 + 2Bxy + Cy^2$$

which is just a homogeneous quadratic polynomial in x and y .

For example, if $A=1, B=2, C=5$.

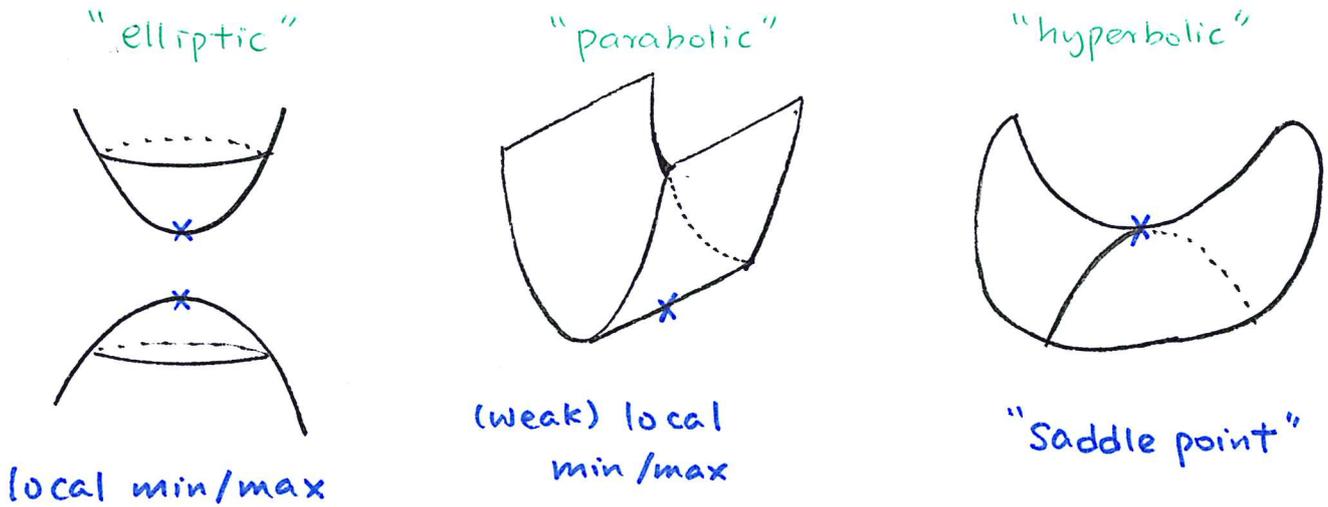
$$K(x, y) = x^2 + 4xy + 5y^2 = (x+2y)^2 + y^2 = u^2 + v^2$$

if we change coordinates $\begin{cases} u = x + 2y \\ v = y \end{cases}$

By a linear change of coordinates, we can always express it in one of the following forms (Exercise: Can you prove this?)

$$K(u, v) = \begin{cases} u^2 + v^2 \text{ or } -u^2 - v^2 & \text{"elliptic"} \\ \pm u^2 & \text{"parabolic"} \\ -u^2 + v^2 & \text{"hyperbolic"} \end{cases}$$

Locally near (0,0), their graphs look like



Example: Does the function $f(x, y) = 5x^2 + 4xy + 2y^2$ have a local min./max or saddle point at (0,0) ?

Solution: By "completing the square",

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= 5x^2 + 4xy + 2y^2 = 3x^2 + 2(x + y)^2 \\ &= u^2 + v^2 \quad \text{if we let } u = \sqrt{3}x, \quad v = \sqrt{2}(x + y) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, (0,0) is a local minimum.

Alternatively, f is represented by the symmetric 2x2 matrix

$$\begin{matrix} x & y \\ y & x \end{matrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ which has eigenvalues } 1 \text{ and } 6 \xrightarrow[\text{positive}]{\text{both}} \text{local min}$$

Char. eqⁿ: $(5 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda) - 4 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 6 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 1 \text{ or } 6$