

## Supplement: Quadratic Forms and the Principal Axes Theorem

A quadratic form is a *homogeneous* polynomial of degree two with  $n$  variables (homogeneous: same degree for each monomial). In formula, it is just an algebraic expression of the form:

$$Q(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij}x_i x_j.$$

The study of quadratic forms has two origins. The first one is in number theory, like the study of Pythagorean triple  $(x, y, z)$  of integers such that  $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$ , or the “sum of four squares” problem: express every positive integer into a sum of four integer squares  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + w^2$  (prototype of quaternions). The second one is in calculus. In the Taylor’s expansion (with remainder) of a multi-variable, twice continuously differentiable function  $f$  about a point  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$ :

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{a}) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{a})(x_i - a_i) + \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}(\mathbf{a} + \theta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}))(x_i - a_i)(x_j - a_j), \quad 0 < \theta < 1.$$

The second-order term appears as a quadratic form. So at those critical points where the gradient vector vanishes:  $(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{a}), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{a})) = (0, \dots, 0)$ , the local behavior of  $f$  near the point  $\mathbf{a}$  will be determined by the second-order term. If the quadratic form is always “positive”,  $f$  should have a local minimum there.

### Matrix Representation of a Quadratic Form:

We note that by introducing an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A = (a_{ij})$ , we can rewrite a quadratic form into a matrix-vector product:

$$Q(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij}x_i x_j = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}.$$

(identify an  $1 \times 1$  matrix as a number.) Moreover, we can make  $A$  to be a symmetric matrix  $A'$  by choosing  $a'_{ij} = \frac{1}{2}(a_{ij} + a_{ji})$  [thus we have  $a_{ij}x_i x_j + a_{ji}x_j x_i = a'_{ij}x_i x_j + a'_{ji}x_j x_i$ ]. So from now on we can always assume that  $A$  is a *symmetric matrix* in the matrix representation of a quadratic form.

### “Extremal Values” of a Quadratic Form:

The extremal points (local maxima, local minima, saddle points) are important pieces of information when studying a multivariable function. As a quadratic form  $Q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$  will satisfy:

$$Q(c\mathbf{x}) = (c\mathbf{x})^T A (c\mathbf{x}) = c^2 \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} = c^2 Q(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{for any } c \in \mathbb{R},$$

it will not have extremal points in the usual sense. But we can study the extremal points of  $Q(\mathbf{x})$  when  $\mathbf{x}$  is restricted to the unit sphere  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 1$  instead. And it turns out that the eigenvectors of  $A$  will give all these extremal “directions”.

**Theorem 6** (P.441): Let  $Q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$  be the quadratic form given by an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix  $A$ . Then an extremal point of the restriction of  $Q(\mathbf{x})$  on the unit sphere  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 1$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is an eigenvector of  $A$ .

**Proof:** As we are finding the extremal points of a function in  $n$ -variables subject to a constraint  $\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 = 1$ , the method of Lagrange multipliers applies here. So we solve:

$$(*) \quad \begin{cases} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} [Q(\mathbf{x}) - \lambda(\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 - 1)] = 0, & 1 \leq k \leq n; \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 - 1 = 0. \end{cases}$$

Note that the first set of equations can be re-written as:

$$(**) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left\{ \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij}x_i x_j - \lambda \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - 1 \right) \right\} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ki}x_i - \lambda(2x_k), \quad 1 \leq k \leq n.$$

To verify the above claim, let us first fix an index  $i$  and consider the differentiation of the partial sum  $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_i x_j$  with respect to  $x_k$ .

(i) When  $i = k$ , we have:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj}x_k x_j = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left( a_{kk}x_k^2 + \sum_{j \neq k} a_{kj}x_k x_j \right) = 2a_{kk}x_k + \sum_{j \neq k} a_{kj}x_j = a_{kk}x_k + \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj}x_j.$$

(ii) When  $i \neq k$  (there are  $n - 1$  such  $i$ 's), we have:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_i x_j = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left( a_{ik}x_i x_k + \sum_{j \neq k} a_{ij}x_i x_j \right) = a_{ik}x_i + 0 = a_{ki}x_i,$$

since  $A^T = A$ , i.e.  $a_{ik} = a_{ki}$ .

So, when summing up the terms in (i) and (ii), we get:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_i x_j \right\} = \underbrace{a_{kk}x_k + \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj}x_j}_{(i)} + \underbrace{\sum_{i \neq k} a_{ki}x_i}_{(ii)} = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj}x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ki}x_i = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ki}x_i,$$

and this verifies (\*\*). Note that  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ki}x_i$  is exactly the  $k$ -th component of the matrix-vector product  $A\mathbf{x}$ . Hence the first vector equation of (\*) exactly says that  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ , and the second vector equation of (\*) says  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ .

Hence an extremal point of  $Q(\mathbf{x})$  restricted to  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 1$  should be an eigenvector of  $A$ .  $\square$

**Corollary:** An extremal value of the restriction of  $Q(\mathbf{x})$  on the unit sphere  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 1$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ .

**Proof:** By Theorem 6, an extremal value of  $Q(\mathbf{x})$  on  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 1$  should be attained at an eigenvector  $\mathbf{v}$  (with  $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$ ) of  $A$ . Let  $\lambda$  be the corresponding eigenvalue. Then:

$$Q(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v}^T A \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}^T (\lambda \mathbf{v}) = \lambda \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v} = \lambda \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = \lambda.$$

So the corresponding extremal value is simply the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ .  $\square$

## Positive-Definite Quadratic Forms

**Definition** (P.437): A quadratic form  $Q$  is called:

- a. *positive definite* if  $Q(\mathbf{x}) > 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ ,
- b. *negative definite* if  $Q(\mathbf{x}) < 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ ,
- c. *indefinite* if  $Q(\mathbf{x})$  assumes both positive and negative values.

An  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix  $A$  is called positive-definite (negative-definite or indefinite) if the associated quadratic form  $\mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$  is a positive-definite (negative-definite or indefinite) quadratic form.

**Remark:** Sometimes we will say that a quadratic form  $Q$  is *positive semi-definite* if  $Q(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$  for every  $\mathbf{x}$ . Similarly,  $Q$  is said to be *negative semi-definite* if  $Q(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0$  for every  $\mathbf{x}$ .

Intuitively speaking, when all the extremal values are positive (thus the minimal one is also positive), a multivariable function should remain positive over its domain. The following theorem verifies this claim.

**Theorem 5** (P.437): Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix. Then a quadratic form  $\mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$  is:

- a. positive definite if and only if the eigenvalues of  $A$  are *all positive*,
- b. negative definite if and only if the eigenvalues of  $A$  are *all negative*,
- c. indefinite if and only if  $A$  has *both* positive and negative eigenvalues.

**Proof:** As  $A$  is a symmetric matrix, we have an orthogonal diagonalization  $A = PDP^T$ , i.e.  $D = P^T A P$ . Let  $\mathbf{y} = P^T \mathbf{x}$ , thus  $\mathbf{x} = P\mathbf{y}$ . Then the quadratic form  $Q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$  can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\mathbf{x}) &= \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} = (P\mathbf{y})^T A (P\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y}^T (P^T A P) \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^T D \mathbf{y} \\ &= \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n^2. \end{aligned}$$

Now, since  $P$  is invertible,  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$  if and only if  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , so the results of the theorem can be concluded easily by the simple expression of  $Q(\mathbf{x})$  in terms of the coordinates of  $\mathbf{y}$ .  $\square$

The same proof will also shows that:

**Corollary:** Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix. Then a quadratic form  $\mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$  is:

- a. positive semi-definite if and only if the eigenvalues of  $A$  are *all non-negative*,
- b. negative semi-definite if and only if the eigenvalues of  $A$  are *all non-positive*.

The above change of variable  $\mathbf{x} = P\mathbf{y}$  actually proves the following result:

**Theorem 4** (Principal Axes Theorem, P.435): Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix. Then there is an orthogonal change of variable,  $\mathbf{x} = P\mathbf{y}$ , that transforms the quadratic form  $\mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$  into a quadratic form  $\mathbf{y}^T D \mathbf{y}$  with no cross-product term.

**Example:** Let  $f(x, y) = x^3 + 3xy^2 - y^3 - 75x$ . By direct computations, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= 3x^2 + 3y^2 - 75, & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= 6xy - 3y^2, \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} &= 6x, & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} &= 6y, & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} &= 6x - 6y.\end{aligned}$$

So the critical points of  $f$  are  $(-\sqrt{5}, -2\sqrt{5})$ ,  $(\sqrt{5}, 2\sqrt{5})$ ,  $(-5, 0)$  and  $(5, 0)$ . At these critical points, the corresponding matrices  $\left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}\right)$  are:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -6\sqrt{5} & -12\sqrt{5} \\ -12\sqrt{5} & 6\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 6\sqrt{5} & 12\sqrt{5} \\ 12\sqrt{5} & -6\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} -30 & 0 \\ 0 & -30 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 30 & 0 \\ 0 & 30 \end{bmatrix},$$

which have eigenvalues  $(-30, 30)$ ,  $(-30, 30)$ ,  $(-30, -30)$  and  $(30, 30)$  respectively.

The corresponding quadratic forms will be indefinite, indefinite, negative-definite, and positive-definite respectively. Using continuity argument, we can show that the behavior of quadratic forms will be the same in nearby points. So  $f$  has saddle points at  $(-\sqrt{5}, -2\sqrt{5})$  and  $(\sqrt{5}, 2\sqrt{5})$ , a local maximum point at  $(-5, 0)$ , and a local minimum point at  $(5, 0)$ .