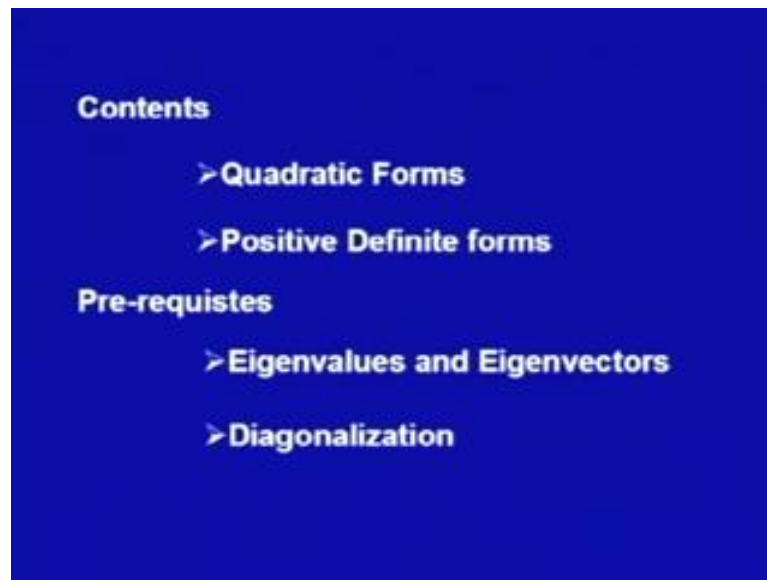


Mathematics - II
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Module - 2
Lecture - 15
Quadratic Forms

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Welcome viewers, today we will be discussing Quadratic Forms. This lecture includes quadratic forms and positive definite quadratic forms. The pre-requisite to this lecture is eigenvalues and eigenvectors, together with diagonalization. I suggest that before going through this lecture, the user must go through the eigenvalues and eigenvectors together with diagonalization. We start with quadratic forms.

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Quadratic forms :
 $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 = d$ (1)
for real a, b, c, d (1) represent a conic section in two dimensional plane

Conic section is obtained by cutting cone by planes

These forms are used in many applications

More general form
 $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 + dx + ey + f = 0$ (2)
It has quadratic terms and linear terms

We all are familiar with this quadratic form $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 = d$. We call it a quadratic form, because this has x^2 term, xy term and y^2 terms in this expression. And all these terms are quadratic. So, we say this form is a quadratic form; provided a, b, c and d are real numbers. And for these real numbers this expression represents a conic section, in two dimensional plane.

We call it a conic section, because it is obtained by cutting cones by planes. These forms are used in many applications. And that is why, we are discussing them in this lecture. This is a particular form, the more general form maybe $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 + dx + ey + f = 0$. This more general form than this. It has all the terms, which are quadratic. But, this may have linear terms also.

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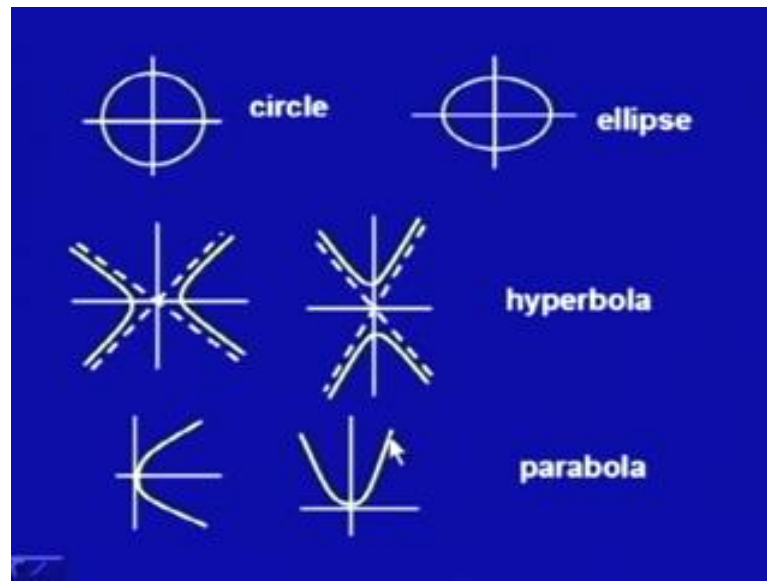
Standard forms:
Standard forms do not contain cross product terms and linear terms
Its centre is origin of rectangular coordinate system

$x^2 + y^2 = 1$	circle
$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$	ellipse
$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$	hyperbola
$y^2 = 4ax, x^2 = 4ay$	parabola

Now, general form is very difficult to recognize. So, we consider forms as a standard form, in which we do not have any cross product terms and linear terms. Like $x^2 + y^2$, x^2 square or y^2 square and terms like $dx + ey$, etcetera. So, the term an expression, which is free of these linear terms. As well as product terms is called a standard form. Its centre is origin of rectangular coordinate system, that is why this is preferred.

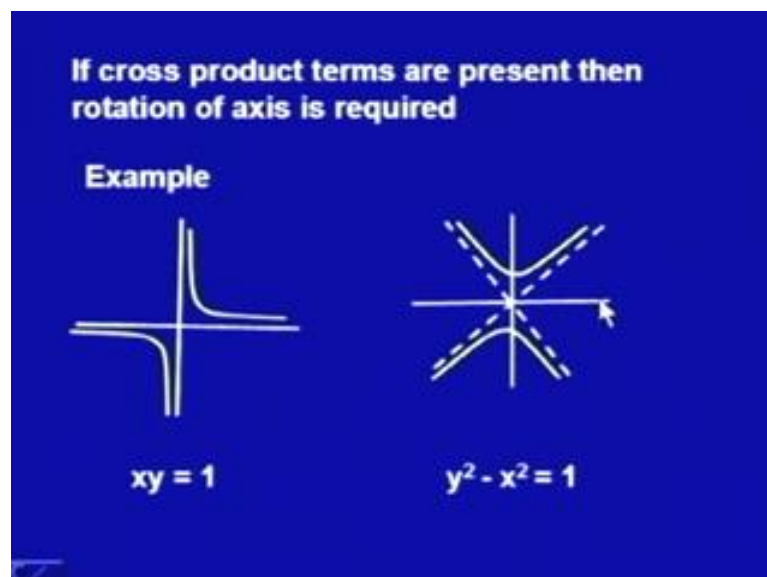
Like we have $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, we know it is a circle. It does not have any cross terms, does not have any linear terms. So, it is a standard form of a circle, having centre at origin and radius 1. Similarly, we have $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ represents an ellipse. Again this is free of cross terms and linear terms. Another form maybe $\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$, it represents hyperbola. And we may have a form $y^2 = 4ax$, $x^2 = 4ay$, it represents parabola.

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This is the circle we all are aware of this. Now, this represents an ellipse. Here these are equal, but in case of ellipse the major axis and minor axis, these components are different. Now, this represents a hyperbola, the yellow lines, the yellow curves. These are the axis and in fact, these are the asymptotes of the hyperbola. In case of parabola, this is a parabola or parabola maybe like this.

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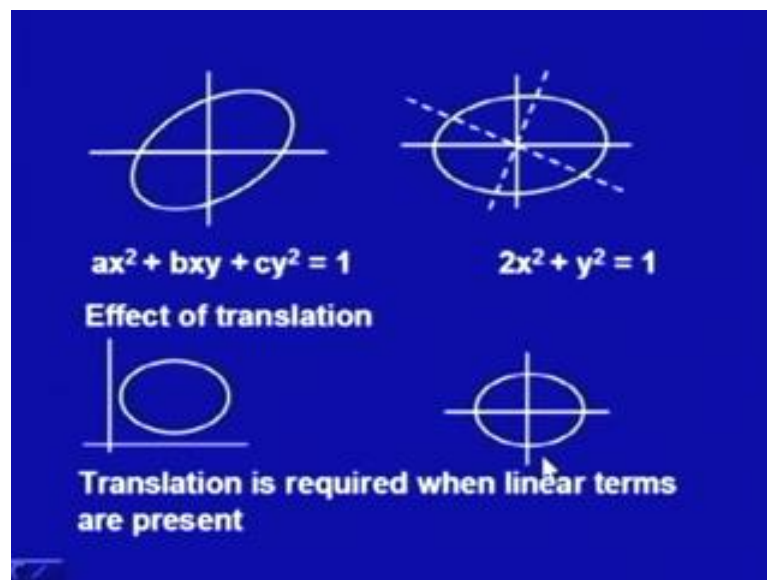


Now, if cross product terms are present. Then, we can bring again into standard form by suitably rotating the axis. So, if cross terms are present. Then, rotation of axis is required and we may get an expression which is in standard form. For example, $xy = 1$ is

this curve. So, we have rectangular axis and these are the curves representing $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. But, if you rotate this axis, then the curve will look like as this.

And this $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ will transform to $y^2 - x^2 = 1$, by suitable transformation. And here, we do not have any cross term present over here. But, this curve is the same as this, only thing is we have to rotate this axis. So, after rotation, this was the previous axis before rotation. And when you rotate it, it will be the new axis. So, this curve and this curve they are same the only difference is that this curve is rotated. So, after rotation cross terms can be eliminated. And one can very easily recognize this to be hyperbola.

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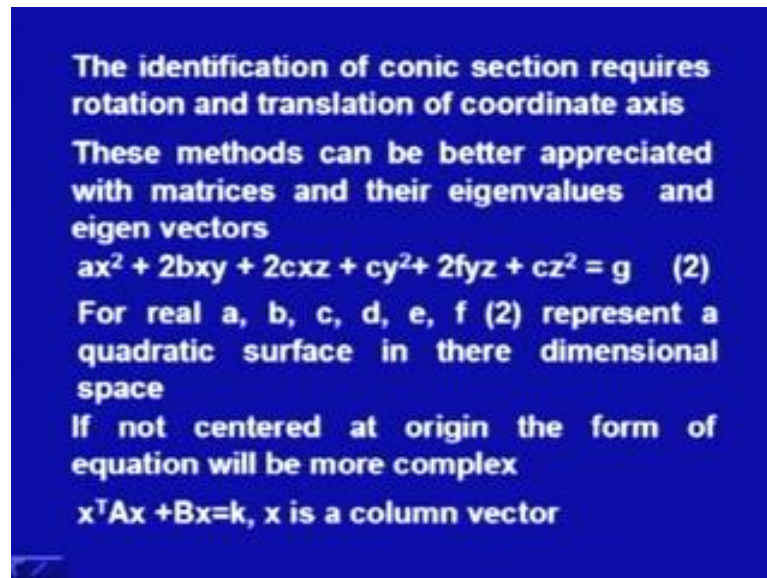


Similarly, this represents an ellipse, $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 = 1$, for suitable values of a , b and c , and then after rotation of axis this axis. Then, will have this ellipse. And the equation will be transformed to $2x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Now, this is the original axis and after rotation, this is the new axis. So, on the new axis it is $2x^2 + y^2 = 1$, which is standard form. And no cross terms are present over here.

Now, what will be the effect of translation. Translation is required, when linear terms are present to bring the system; to bring the given quadratic form into standard form. For example, if we have been given this ellipse. And the expression for this will require linear terms also. But, if you translate this axis. That means, to shift this origin to this

place, then it will be a normal form. So, you are shifting this origin to the centre of the ellipse. And this will now be in a standard form. So, whenever linear terms are present one has to shift, one has to perform translation to get the standard form of the quadratic.

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Now, the identification of conic section, requires rotation and translation of coordinate axis. So that, we can easily recognize by it is standard form. So, this rotation and translation are required, to bring the given quadratic into the standard form. And from there, one can easily recognize the quadratic. Now, these method can be better appreciated with matrices; and there eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

See what I have tried to explain here is, the case of two dimensions. But, if we are having three or more dimensions quadratic forms. Then, things will be difficult to visualize. But, with the help of matrices and eigenvalues and eigenvectors; one can very easily identify the quadratic forms. So, in general let us say we have three dimension surface. Or we call it a quadratic surface, which is $a x^2 + 2 b x y + 2 c x z + c y^2 + 2 f y z + c z^2 = g$.

So, this is a quadratic form in three dimensions, for a, b, c, d, e, f all the coefficients being real. Now, if not centered at origin the form of equation will be more complex. Now, there are no linear terms present in this. So, it is centered at the origin. But, if these terms are also there, then the surface will not be centered at the origin and form will be more difficult. In general form the quadratic is written as $x^T Ax + Bx = k$ x is

equal to k. This is the matrix equation, where A is the square matrix and x is a column vector.

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Quadratic forms:

Consider $q(x, y) = 2x^2 + 3xy + y^2$,

$$q(x, y) = X^T A X, X = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

(i) $(x, y) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$(2x, 3x+y) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = 2x^2 + 3xy + y^2$$

Now, we come to the quadratic forms, some examples. If we consider this quadratic form $2x^2 + 3xy + y^2$ in two variables. Then, we can write this quadratic form in the matrix form as $X^T A X$, where X is a column vector x and y . How we get the matrix A. A is a square matrix of order 2 by 2. So, we write this 2 and this one in the diagonals. And this quadratic cross term is written as 3 here and 0 here. And that makes the matrix A as $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. And let us see that this actually represents this quadratic.

So, let us multiply this, so we have $2x$. And this multiplied by this gives me $3x + y$. When multiplied by x and y , this gives me $2x^2 + 3xy + y^2$. So, this given quadratic is equivalent to this matrix representation, where A is this 2 by 2 matrix. But, this representation is not unique, you can check that.

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$$\begin{aligned} \text{(ii)} \quad q(x, y) &= (x, y) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (2x+y, 2x+y) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \\ &= 2x^2 + yx + 2xy + y^2 \\ &= 2x^2 + 3yx + y^2 \end{aligned}$$

We can write down the same quadratic in this form. Like we have A as 2 2 1 and 1. What we have done is that, we have broken down that 3, the cross term in two parts. So, 2 is here and 1 is here. And accordingly, when we multiply, it is 2 x plus y. And this multiplied by this is 2 x plus y. Multiplied by this column vector, will give the same expression 2 x square plus y x plus 2 x y plus y square equal to 2 x square plus 3 y x plus y square.

So, if we breakdown this term as 2 and 1 will be getting this. You can break it as 1 and 2, again one can check that we will be getting the same expression for the quadratic. And this is not unique, you can breakdown in any number of ways. And you can have corresponding matrix A.

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$q(x, y) = x^T A x$
A may have different values
However there is only way in which the matrix A is symmetric matrix
The product term is divided into two equal parts
(iii) $q(x, y) = 2x^2 + 3xy/2 + 3yx/2 + y^2$
 $q(x, y) = (x, y) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & \frac{3}{2} \\ \frac{3}{2} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$

So, this $q \times y$ can be written in many different ways, as x transpose $A \times x$ and A may have different values. However, there is only one way in which the matrix A is symmetric matrix. So, if we want to write down a matrix, which is symmetric. Then, we can have only one possible way to represent this quadratic as this matrix. So, let us see how we do this. For symmetric matrix, we divide the product term into two equal parts. That is if we have this quadratic. Then, $3 \times y$ is divided into two parts, $3 \times y$ by 2 here and $3 \times y$ by 2 here.

And that makes the matrix A as 2 and 1, 2 is this square term. This one is this square term, and 3 by 2 corresponding to this and 3 by 2 corresponding to this. So, this matrix is the associated matrix A , with this given quadratic. And one may notice that, this is a symmetric matrix.

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$$q(x, y, z) = 2x^2 + 3xy + y^2 + 2xz + yz + z^2$$

$$q(x, y, z) = (x, y, z) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & \frac{3}{2} & 1 \\ \frac{3}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$$

$$q(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n b_{ij} x_i x_j = \sum \frac{1}{2} (b_{ij} + b_{ji}) x_i x_j$$

$$a_{ii} = b_{ii}$$

$$a_{ij} = \frac{(b_{ij} + b_{ji})}{2}; a_{ji} = a_{ij}$$

Symmetric matrices

In the next example, I am considering a three dimensional surface. $2x^2$ plus $3xy$ plus y^2 plus $2xz$ plus yz plus z^2 . So, I need $q(x, y, z)$ is equal to x, y, z . And a three dimensional 3 by 3 square matrix A , multiplied by the column matrix x, y, z . So, this 3 by 3 matrix is obtained as first term 2 , corresponding to this term. Then, corresponding to this I have 1 here. From here, I will be having 1 here.

This $3 \times y$ is divided into two equal parts. So, 3 by 2 here and 3 by 2 here, only x and y part. But, $2xz$ will contribute, here and here, since it is 2 . So, half of half it 1 is here and half of this is appearing here. And yz will appear in this part, this yz . So, half of yz is coming here and another half is here. So, that is how I obtain this matrix A . In general, if I have quadratic expression in n variables. Then, this can be written in this form, summation $b_{ij} x_i x_j$ and j varies from 1 to n .

So, how to get b_{ij} 's, so I write b_{ij} as b_{ij} plus b_{ji} by 2 multiplied by $x_i x_j$. So, I am writing this expression in this form. And from here, I can get the matrix a_{ij} . So, a_{ij} is a typical element of the matrix A ; and this is equal to b_{ii} , when i is equal to j . And when i is not equal to j , that means corresponding to the cross terms, I will write down this as b_{ij} plus b_{ji} by 2 . And if this is what I am doing here, this is b_{ij} and b_{ji} is 3 here. So, divided by 2 , that is a_{ij} .

And if I define my matrix a_{ij} in this manner. Then, one can easily observe, that a_{ij} is equal to a_{ji} , because if i is equal to j they are equal. And when i and j are not equal,

then a_{ij} is equal to a_{ji} . So, for the matrix A I have a_{ij} is equal to a_{ji} . And that simply means, that the matrix is symmetric. So, with this definition I can always represent a given quadratic in the matrix form, where the matrix is a symmetric matrix.

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Definition : If A is a symmetric matrix then the real valued function

$$g: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$$

$$g(x) = x^T A x, \quad x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^T$$

is called a real quadratic form in x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .
 A is matrix of Quadratic form

Example (i) : $x = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}, A = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ c & b \end{pmatrix}$

$x^T A x$ defines a quadratic form

Now, I formally define quadratic form. We say that if A is symmetric matrix. Then, the real valued function g from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^1 defined as $g(x)$ is equal to $x^T A x$, where x is a column vector; x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n transpose. It is called a real quadratic form in the variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . So, if we can define such a function $g(x)$, represented as $x^T A x$. Then, this $g(x)$ is a quadratic form in variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . The matrix A is a matrix of quadratic form. For example, if I have a two dimensional vector x . So, we have $x = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ is a column vector A is a symmetric matrix, a and b in the diagonals and c in the non-diagonal terms. Then, $x^T A x$ defines a quadratic form, one can check it easily.

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$$(ii) \quad x = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} a & d & c \\ d & b & f \\ e & f & c \end{pmatrix}$$

Let $q(x) = x^T A x$ defines a quadratic form

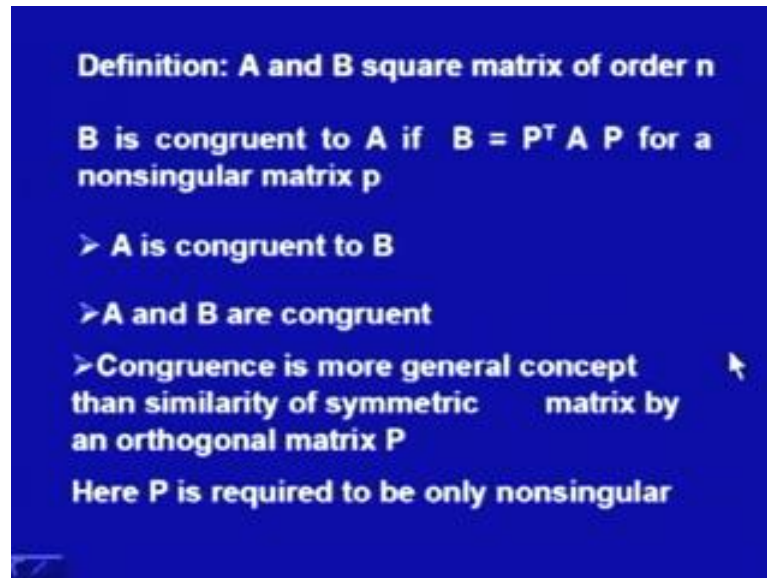
Change of variable $x = Py$, P is non singular

$$q(x) = (Py)^T A (Py)$$
$$\Rightarrow y^T (P^T A P) y = y^T B y$$
$$q_1(y) = y^T B y$$

In the second example I have a three dimensional column vector x . And A is this symmetric form, d and d here c and c here f and f here. So, it is a quadratic form. By suitably changing the variable x is equal to $P y$; where P is a non-singular matrix. We can write down the quadratic expression $P x$. X is a column vector is equal to $P y$ transpose. That what I am writing for x transpose A multiplied by $P y$, one can simplify it.

It is y transpose P transpose. So, P transpose into A and P multiplied by y , Because, multiplication is associative. So, you can regroup the terms and what we have is y transpose $B y$. Now, we can say this $q x$ is not transform to another quadratic in y , we call it $q_1 y$, it is y transpose $B y$. So, quadratic can be transformed to another system. And this transformation will be x is equal to $P y$. So, we have given initially $q x$ and then we have transform it into $q_1 y$.

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Definition: A and B square matrix of order n

B is congruent to A if $B = P^T A P$ for a nonsingular matrix p

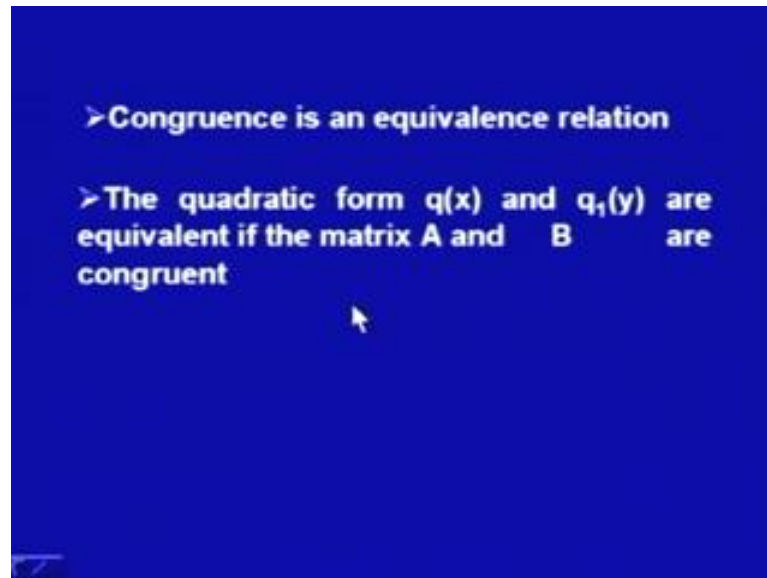
- > A is congruent to B**
- > A and B are congruent**
- > Congruence is more general concept than similarity of symmetric matrix by an orthogonal matrix P**

Here P is required to be only nonsingular

Now, we define that, if A and B are square matrices of order n. Then, B is congruent to A provided B is equal to P transpose A P, for a given nonsingular matrix P. So, the two matrices A and B are congruent, if they are related by this expression. So, B is equal to P transpose A P, for some non-singular matrix P. Then, B and A are congruent; and we can also say that A is congruent to B. If this condition is satisfied and maybe, we can in shot say that A and B are congruent.

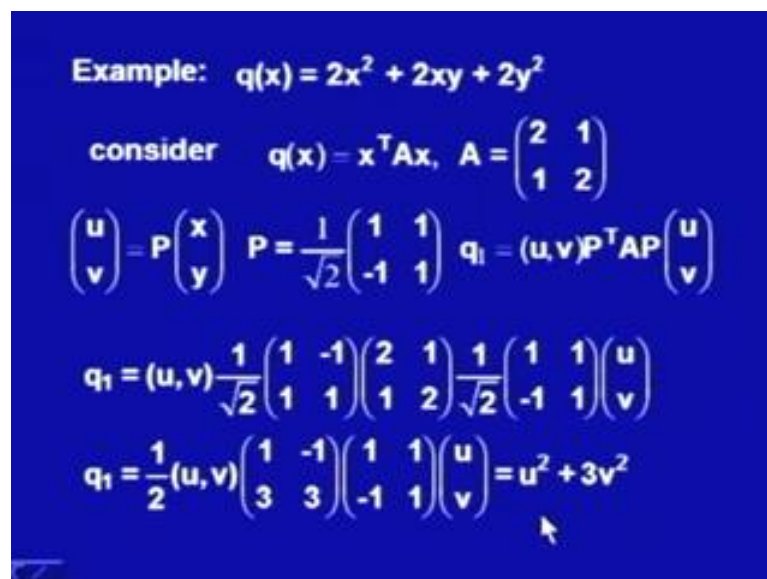
In fact, congruence is more general concept, then similarity of symmetric matrixes by an orthogonal matrix P. Since, we have already gone through this lecture, on similar matrices. We say that, B is equal to P inverse A P. Then, B is similar to A, and when P happens to be an orthogonal matrix. Then, P inverse and P transpose, they are same. And in that case, we can say that this is nothing but B is similar to A; where P happens to be an orthogonal matrix. But, congruence is a more generalized concept. Then, simply symmetric matrix, or it is more general concept, then similarity of symmetric matrices by an orthogonal matrix P. Hence, here for this concept, we require P has to be a nonsingular, which is not the case in this relationship.

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We further prove that, congruence is an equivalence relation. By equivalence relation, I mean to say that, A is congruent to A . And if A is congruent to B , then B is also congruent to A , that is symmetric relation. And finally, transitive, that is if A is congruent B and B is congruent to C . Then, A is congruent to C . So, these things can be very easily proved. And we conclude that, congruence is a equivalence relation. The quadratic forms $q x$ and $q_1 y$ are equivalent. If the matrices A and B are congruent, so this is what we derive.

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Let us check in the example, if $q(x)$ is $2x^2 + 2xy + 2y^2$. Then, $q(x)$ can be written as $x^T A x$, where A is the corresponding matrix. It is 2×2 and this term is 1 and 1 . So, this is the representation for $q(x)$. Let us write down changed system u, v is equal to P times the original system x, y , where the matrix P is. Let us take this matrix P is $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

How we arrive at this matrix, that I am not discussing at the moment. But, if we use this transformation, then $q(x)$ comes out to be $u^2 + 3v^2$. And that means, if you perform this multiplication, then $q(x)$ comes out to be. We substitute these values here, $q(x)$ comes out to be $u^2 + 3v^2$. The idea is I have started with this quadratic, in which some cross terms are present, but after this transformation, which I have applied here.

The congruent form is free of cross product term. So, it is now written as $u^2 + 3v^2$. That means, given a quadratic, we can transform into a form, where cross term will not be present. And we know that handling, such things are simpler as compared to this.

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$q(x)$ can be transformed to a more suitable equivalent form = $u^2 + 3v^2$

Free of product term

Principal Axes Theorem:

The quadric form $q(x) = x^T A x$ is equivalent to

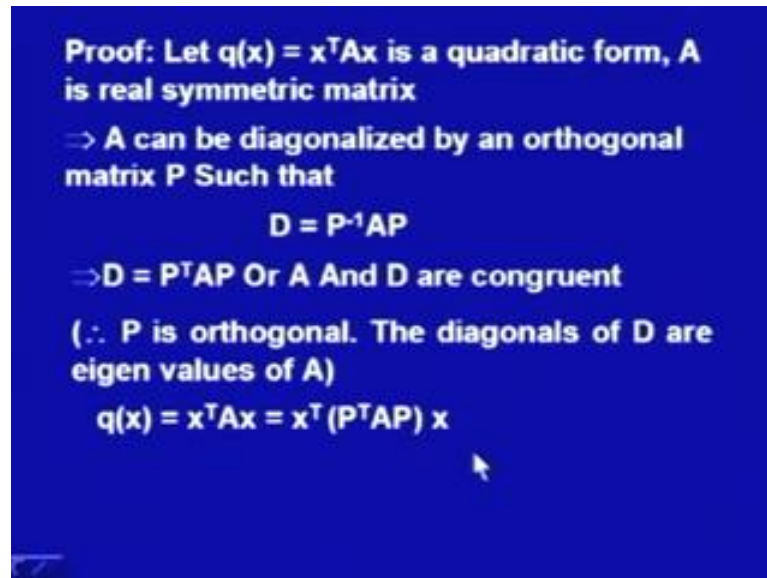
$$q_1(y) = y^T B y = \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n^2$$

Where $B = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$

So, $q(x)$ can be transformed to a more suitable equivalent form, as $u^2 + 3v^2$, it is free of product term. And this can be done for this is an example only. This can be done in general and for that, we will have principal axes theorem. According to this, the quadratic form $q(x) = x^T A x$ is equivalent to this form. $Q_1(y)$ is

equal to $y^T B y$, which is $\lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n^2$, where $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ happens to be the eigenvalues of the matrix associated with this quadratic A . So, B is a diagonal matrix. And these terms are the eigenvalues of the matrix A . So, this is called principal axes theorem. So, for symmetric matrix, this is possible. So, let us try to prove this, here is the proof.

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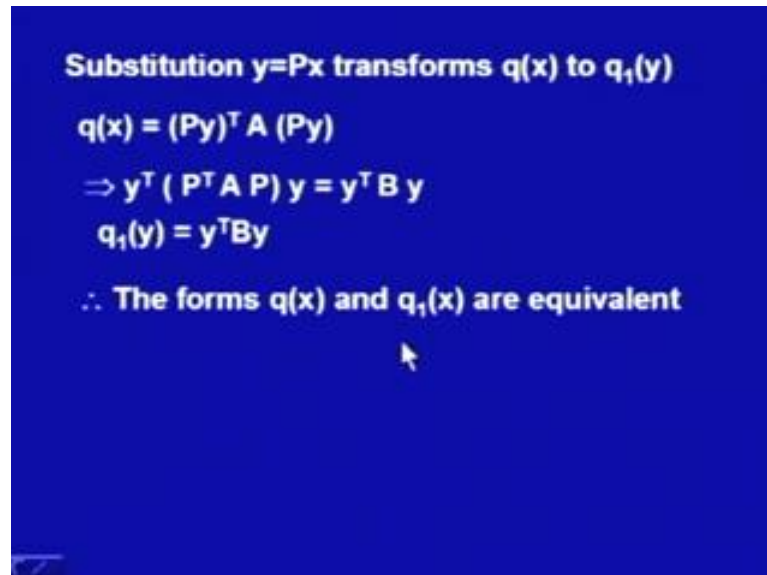
We consider $q(x)$ is a quadratic represented, as $x^T A x$, A is the associated matrix. And it is a real symmetric matrix. Now, A can be diagonalized by an orthogonal matrix P . Such that, D is equal to $P^{-1} A P$, this is the result, which we have already discussed in my earlier lectures. So, if A is the real symmetric matrix. Then, it can always be diagonalized by an orthogonal matrix P , which is the matrix of eigenvectors of this matrix A .

So, if P is the matrix of eigenvectors, then P is invertible. So, P^{-1} exist, in that case D is equal to $P^{-1} A P$ will be a diagonal matrix. And since, it is this P^{-1} I can write it as P^T . Because, it is a orthogonal matrix. So, P^{-1} is equal to P^T . So, D will be $P^T A P$ or we can say, if we can write down D in this form, then by the definition of congruent. We can say that, A and D matrices are congruent.

Now, this is possible, because P is orthogonal. That is I have already explained and the diagonals of D are eigenvalues of A . So, all this requires the earlier lectures, where on

diagonalization. And with this $q(x)$ is represented as $x^T A x$ equal to $x^T P^T A P x$.

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Substitution $y=Px$ transforms $q(x)$ to $q_1(y)$

$$q(x) = (Py)^T A (Py)$$
$$\Rightarrow y^T (P^T A P) y = y^T B y$$
$$q_1(y) = y^T B y$$

\therefore The forms $q(x)$ and $q_1(x)$ are equivalent

And then we can use this substitution y is equal to $P x$. And then we can easily check that, $q(x)$ will transform to $q_1(y)$. So, $q(x)$ is written as $y^T P^T A P y$, this simplifies to $y^T P^T A P y$. We can regroup the terms. And it is $y^T P^T A P y$. We can write down $P^T A P$ as B . So, this expression becomes $y^T B y$. So, this $q(x)$ is now transformed to $q_1(y)$, where this is again a quadratic form. But, the associated matrix is B , so A and B are congruent matrices. So, the forms $q(x)$ and $q_1(x)$ are equivalent.

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→Application of orthonal diagonalization does not require the matrix P
→or eigen vectors need not be computed only eigen values of A are required

Example: Consider the Quadratic form given by $4(x_1x_2+x_2x_3+x_1x_3)$ Determine its equivalent quadratic form $q_1(x,y,z)$

Solution : The Matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

And application of orthogonal diagonalization, does not require the matrix P. Or eigenvectors need not be computed only eigenvalues of A are required. That is the advantage of this form. We do not have to require the matrix P,, only the eigenvalues are required. This is illustrated in the example. So, let us consider the quadratic form 4 multiplied by $x_1 x_2$ plus $x_2 x_3$ plus $x_1 x_3$, are quadratic in three dimensions.

So, determinate it is equivalent quadratic form $q_1(x, y, z)$, in which the associated matrix is a diagonal matrix. Or this form is free of cross terms. So, let us consider the matrix corresponding to this. Since, all the diagonal term, all the square terms are absent, so diagonal will be 0. And it is 4 times, so it is 2 here and 2 here corresponding to $x_1 x_2$. And this 2 and 2 corresponding to $x_1 x_3$, and this 2 and this 2 corresponding to 4 times $x_2 x_3$. So, this is the associative matrix with this quadratic form.

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To find eigen values consider

$$\begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & -\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & -\lambda & 2 \\ 0 & 2+\lambda & -2-\lambda \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{vmatrix} -(\lambda+2) & (2+\lambda) & 0 \\ 2 & -\lambda & 2 \\ 0 & (2+\lambda) & -(2-\lambda) \end{vmatrix}$$
$$(-\lambda+2)[\lambda(2+\lambda) - 2(2+\lambda)] + 2(2+\lambda)^2 = 0$$

Simplifying $\lambda = -2, -2, 4$

Now, to find eigenvalues consider this characteristic equation. It is determinant of lambda i minus a. So, this is lambdas, minus lambda will appear in the diagonal. And this is rest of it is a, so it is a minus lambda i equal to 0. And you simplify it, the characteristic equation will come out to be, this is the simplification. And this gives me, this expression, which will be further simplified to give lambda is equal to minus 2. And minus 2 and one eigenvalue is 4. So, two roots are repeated and one is 4. We have three eigenvalues for this given matrix A.

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∴ The equivalent quadratic form
 $q_1(y) = -2y_1^2 - 2y_2^2 + 4y_3^2$

another equivalent form
 $q_1(y) = 4y_1^2 - 2y_2^2 - 2y_3^2$

The principal axes of the quadratic surface lie along the y_1, y_2, y_3 axes in new system

- > eigen values of symmetric matrix are real
- > existence of $q_1(y)$ is guaranteed

$\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigen values of A : $q(x) = x^T A x$

So, the equivalent quadratic form is simply $-2y_1^2 - 2y_2^2 + 4y_3^2$. And we do not have to compute P and P^T . And perform the multiplication to arrive at this quadratic form, only eigenvalues are needed. So, there are two eigenvalues -2 and -2 . So, we have two terms, $-2y_1^2 - 2y_2^2$ corresponding to them. And third term is $4y_3^2$, because the eigenvalue is 4 .

So, we have here $4y_3^2$, the another equivalent form maybe this. Here, again I am having two eigenvalues -2 and -2 and one value 4 . But, what I am doing here is, I am associating these two negative values with y_2 and y_1 and $4y_3^2$ is associated with y_3 . In this case 4 was associated with y_3 . So, these are alternative forms and they are equivalent. Now, we say of this theorem as a principal axes theorem. Because, y_1, y_2, y_3 are actually the principal axes of the quadratic surface.

And these axis lie along y_1, y_2, y_3 axis, in the new system, and that is the reason, we say this, that this form is a standard form. And the theorem changes our coordinate axis to corresponding principal axis. And that is why, we say the theorem as principal axis theorem. Now, these are some of the results, which we have obtained earlier. And the actually, these forms the basis for finding out $Q^{-1}y$.

We know that eigenvalues of symmetric matrices are real. So, these values are real, so we always have. We can always transform our given quadratic in this form, where all these coefficients are real. Because, eigenvalues are real, so this is always possible. If Eigen values of a matrix are complex. Then, this would not have been possible, but since the matrix is a symmetric matrix. So, the eigenvalues are always real, and we can always find out this form. And existence of $Q^{-1}y$ is guaranteed, due to the real eigenvalues. So, if $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A .

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Rearrange eigen values : all +ve, all -ve, and zeros

$\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_p$ are real
 $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r$ are real
 $\lambda_{p+1}, \lambda_{p+2}, \dots, \lambda_n$ are zero

Consider H diagonal matrix with diagonal element

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\lambda_p}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{p+1}}}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{-\lambda_r}}, 1, \dots, 1, \dots, 1$$

Then the $q \times q$, which is given as $x^T A x$ can be transformed to the real eigenvalues. $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are arranged in a manner. So, that all positive eigenvalues appear first. And then all negative values and finally, the zeros eigenvalues. So, if $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_p$ are real positive values. And $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r$ are real values. Then, $\lambda_{p+1}, \lambda_{p+2}, \dots, \lambda_n$ are 0 values.

So, r happens to be the rank of the matrix p and out of these r , p are positive and remaining will be negative, while λ_{p+1} to λ_n or eigenvalues are 0. Now, we consider another diagonal matrix, H with diagonal elements, as $1/\lambda_1, 1/\lambda_p, 1/\sqrt{\lambda_{p+1}}$. And then the negative terms are written with minus sign under root. So, λ_r is negative, so we write it as $-\lambda_r$ it is under root. And then we write down 1, 1, 1 corresponding to these zero value. So, I form a matrix H with these eigenvalues.

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Diagonal element of $D_1 = H^T D H$ are $1, \dots, 1, -1, \dots, -1, 0, \dots, 0$

D and D_1 are congruent

A quadratic form $q(x)$ is equivalent to quadratic form

$$q_2(y) = y_1^2 + y_2^2 + \dots + y_p^2 - y_{p+1}^2 - y_{p+2}^2 - \dots - y_r^2$$

This is called the canonical form

p is fixed, q_2 is unique

Now, let us consider this matrix D_1 as $H^T D H$. Now, H , D and H are all diagonal matrices. And H is having term, positive terms as 1 over under root lambda. And H^T is also having 1 over under root lambda, while, D is having under root lambda. So, when you multiply this every term in the diagonal of D_1 , will be either having 1 or will be having minus 1 ; depending whether the corresponding eigenvalue is positive or negative.

And then the values corresponding to 0 , will be having 0 over here. So, D_1 will either be having 1 or minus 1 or 0 . So, this way we can write down the diagonal matrix D_1 . And once we can express D_1 as this matrix, we can say that D and D_1 are congruent. And that means, a given quadratic $q(x)$ is equivalent to a quadratic form $q_2(y)$, which is equal to y_1^2 plus y_2^2 plus y_p^2 positive terms minus y_{p+1}^2 minus y_{p+2}^2 up to y_r^2 with negative terms.

The rank of this associated matrix was r . So, we will have at the most r terms some of them will be positive, some of them will be negative. The difference between $q_1(y)$ and $q_2(y)$ is in the coefficients. In $q_1(y)$ the coefficients are eigenvalues. But, in $q_2(y)$ the coefficients are plus 1 , or minus 1 depending upon the sign of corresponding eigenvalue. So, for a given matrix $q(x)$, we can always transform it into a form; where $q_2(y)$ is y_1^2 plus y_2^2 plus y_p^2 minus y_{p+1}^2 up to minus y_r^2 .

So, this particular form is called canonical form. So, when p is fixed, q_2 is unique. So, this is the result, which we are having. And given polynomial can always be transformed to the corresponding canonical form; and it is a unique form.

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inertia (pos, neg, zero)

The difference between no. of positive eigen values and negative eigen values is called the signature of quadratic form

$$s = p - (r - p) = 2p - r$$

> If q_1 and q_2 are equivalent quadratic forms then they have same rank and signature

> q_1 and q_2 have same rank and signature then they are equivalent

Now, I will introduce a term inertia, which is a trial consisting of three values. This first value represents, how many eigenvalues are positive. The second term represents the number of negative eigenvalues. And zero is the number of 0 eigenvalues. So, inertia of associated with the given quadratic is trial, indicating the number of positive eigenvalues. Negative eigenvalues and zero eigenvalues and from there, one can find out the canonical form.

Now, the difference between the number of positive eigenvalues, and negative eigenvalues is called the signature of quadratic form. So, if I am having p number of eigenvalues, which are positive and r being the rank. Then, r minus p will be the negative eigenvalues remaining will be 0. So, p minus r minus p is equal to $2p$ minus r . So, we say that $2p$ minus r is the signature of the quadratic form. We say, if q_1 and q_2 are equivalent quadratic forms. Then, they have same rank and same signature, this result is easy to prove. Then the next result is that q_1 and q_2 have same rank and signature. Then they are equivalent, it is just converse of this.

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Example: Given

$$q_1(y) = 4y_1^2 - 2y_2^2 - 2y_3^2 = y^T B y$$

Eigen values are 4, -2, -2, $D = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ & -2 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$

Eigen values of H $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

$$D_1 = H^T D H = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & & \\ & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \\ & & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & & \\ & -2 & \\ & & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & & \\ & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \\ & & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Let us illustrate this with an example, I have been given a quadratic $4y_1^2 - 2y_2^2 - 2y_3^2$. Its eigenvalues are 4, -2, -2 and D is $\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ & -2 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$. Actually this quadratic is been taken from earlier example. And we have already computed the eigenvalues of that matrix, as -2 and -2. So, for this quadratic eigenvalues are 4, -2, -2. And correspondingly, we have the diagonal matrix as $\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ & -2 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$ and of diagonal terms are all zeros.

Then, the eigenvalues of H will be $\frac{1}{2}$ it is under root of 1 by 4. So, it is $\frac{1}{2}$ and then the next eigenvalue will be $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ of the eigenvalue. So, that is why, it is coming out to be $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$. And another eigenvalue of H will be $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$. Now, let us now compute D_1 as a $H^T D H$. So, I am writing H transpose, now H is a diagonal matrix. So, its transpose will be the same as H.

And the values in the diagonal will be $\frac{1}{2}$, which is under root of 1 by 4. Then, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ under root of 1 by 2, it is under root of minus of -2. So, it is $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ and we have $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$. Then, this is the matrix D diagonal elements, I have not shown here. But, they are zero elements and will have this diagonal matrix H. And you multiply it ((Refer Time: 39:54)), this multiplied by this and this multiplied by this is 1, this, this. And this multiplication gives me -1, this, this and this is -1.

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$$D_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$q_2(y) = y_1^2 - y_2^2 - y_3^2$$

Then it has 1 +ve and 2 -ve eigenvalues
 $p = 1, r = 3, r - p = 2$
inertia (1,2,0) signature $s = -1$

And correspondingly, we have D_1 is equal to a diagonal matrix with 1 minus 1 and minus 1. Accordingly $q_2(y)$, comes out to be $y_1^2 - y_2^2 - y_3^2$. So, these are two negative eigenvalues. So, it is minus $y_2^2 - y_3^2$. And since, it has one positive eigenvalue and two negative eigenvalues. So, we can say p is equal to 1 rank of this matrix is 3. So, number of negative values will be $r - p$ that is 2.

And from here, inertia is positive value is 1, negative value is 2, 0 value is 0. So, number of 0 values is 0 here, so inertia is destroyed. And signature of this quadratic form is s is equal to minus 1. Because we are having more negative eigenvalues compared to positive eigenvalue; so signature come out to be negative.

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Conversion to standard form:
 $x^T A x + B x + d = 0$

If A is not diagonal, rotate it: $x = P y$

If $B \neq 0$ translate axis

Classification $A x = \lambda x$

Identification for 2 D surfaces

$\lambda_1, \lambda_2 > 0$	ellipse	(2, 0, 0)
$\lambda_1, \lambda_2 < 0$	hyperbola	(1, 1, 0)
$\lambda_1 = 0$ or $\lambda_2 = 0$	parabola	(1, 0, 1)

Now, we start with the general form of the quadratic equation, x transpose A x plus B x plus d equal to 0. Of course, we have till now concentrated on this part x transpose A x . So, let us consider, we have a general form x transpose A x plus B x plus D is equal to 0. Then, if A is not diagonal matrix. Then, we rotate it by this transformation, x is equal to P y . And it will become diagonal matrix and if B is not 0. Then, we translate the axis, so that we can get rid of this.

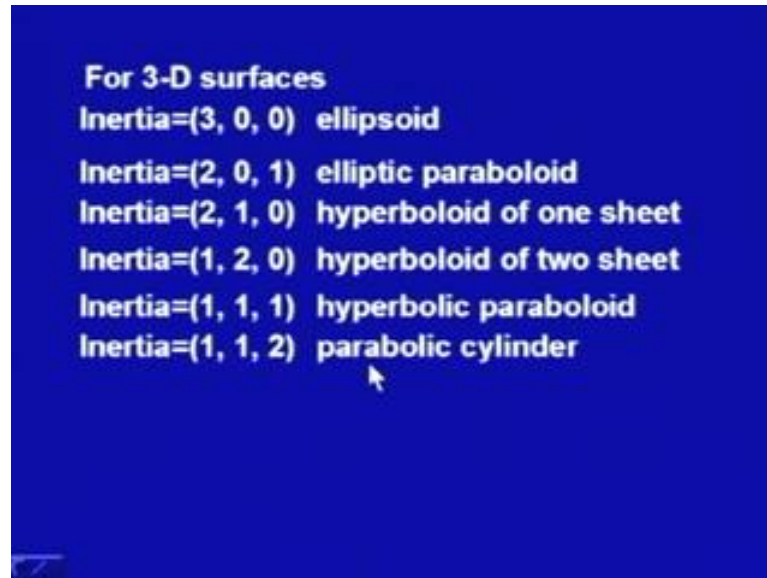
And we finally, have x transpose B x , or we can say y transpose B y plus D equal to 0. So, this can be easily converted into a standard form. And the classification of this standard form, actually depends upon this eigenvalue problem A x is equal to λ x . And that is how, we identify or classify 2 D surfaces. See this eigenvalue problem, if it has 2 eigenvalues which are positive. Then, the corresponding standard form will be an ellipse, its inertia will be 2. Because, number of eigenvalues are 2, it is two dimensions.

So, negative values will be 0 and no eigenvalue is 0 in this case, it is hyperbola when both the eigenvalues are negative, when the product λ_1 and λ_2 is negative. So, one eigenvalue is positive and one eigenvalue is negative in this case. So, one for number of positive values, one negative eigenvalues no value which is 0, and it is parabola, when one eigenvalue is 0.

So, either λ_1 is equal to 0 or λ_2 is equal to 0. Then, it will represent a parabola, it has one positive value, it has no negative value and 1, 0 value. So, depending

upon the inertia corresponding to given matrix in the given representation. We can classify the quadratic as ellipse hyperbola or parabola; and corresponding inertia is given as this.

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For 3-D surfaces	
Inertia=(3, 0, 0)	ellipsoid
Inertia=(2, 0, 1)	elliptic paraboloid
Inertia=(2, 1, 0)	hyperboloid of one sheet
Inertia=(1, 2, 0)	hyperboloid of two sheet
Inertia=(1, 1, 1)	hyperbolic paraboloid
Inertia=(1, 1, 2)	parabolic cylinder

Now, for 3 D surfaces we can similarly classify a quadratic surfaces. We say if inertia is 3, 0, 0, then it is ellipsoid. That means, all the 3 eigenvalues are positive. No eigenvalue is 0 and nothing is 0, no eigenvalue is 0 in this case. Then, we have ellipsoid. And when inertia is 2, 0, 1. Then, we call it elliptic parabolic. So, 2 eigenvalues are positive, one value is 0, no eigenvalue is negative, we will have elliptic parabolic.

Then, inertia is 2, 1, 0 that means, 2 positive eigenvalues, 1 negative eigenvalue. Then, we say it is hyperboloid of one sheet. Then, 1, 2, 0 is inertia, we have 1 positive value, 2 negative eigenvalues. Then, we will have hyperboloid of 2 sheets. And when inertia is 1, 1, 1. That means, we will have 1 positive, 1 negative and one 0 eigenvalue. Then, we call that surface as hyperbolic parabolic 1, 1, 2 represents a parabolic cylinder.

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Example: Identify the conic section
 $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 4xy = 4$

Solution: Consider $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

The characteristic equation is

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda-1 & +2 & 0 \\ +2 & \lambda-1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda-1 \end{vmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow (\lambda-1)[(\lambda-1)^2 - 4] = 0$$
$$(\lambda-1)(\lambda-1-2)(\lambda-1+2) = 0$$
$$(\lambda-1)(\lambda+1)(\lambda-3) = 0$$

inertia (2, 1, 0) hyperboloid of one sheet

So, that is how we classify a different surface. Now, in this example you have to identify the conic section. So, the conic section is given, as x square plus y square plus z square minus $4xy$ is equal to 4 . It is a three dimension surface. So, to identify what it represent, we have to calculate it is inertia. For that, we have to first write down the corresponding matrix A . And terms in the diagonal are $1, 1, 1$. And this minus 4 corresponds to minus 2 and minus 2 , in this position in the matrix A .

Then, we calculate the eigenvalues. For this, we consider the characteristic equation as this. And this simplifies to this equation characteristic equation, λ minus 1 multiplied by λ minus 1 square minus 4 . And further simplification will give me λ , minus 1 minus 2 and λ minus 1 plus 2 . So, then eigenvalues are given from this expression, and they are 1 minus 1 and 3 . So, we will have two positive eigenvalues namely 1 and 3 . And one negative value minus 1 . So, the inertia for this given matrix is $2, 1, 0$. And according to the classification, this surface is hyperboloid of one sheet.

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Positive Definite Quadratic Form:
Conditions which ensures that
 $d = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 \sim x^T A x$
is always positive

Definition: The quadratic form is positive definite if $x^T A x > 0$ for $x > 0$
 $q(0) = 0$ for $x = 0$

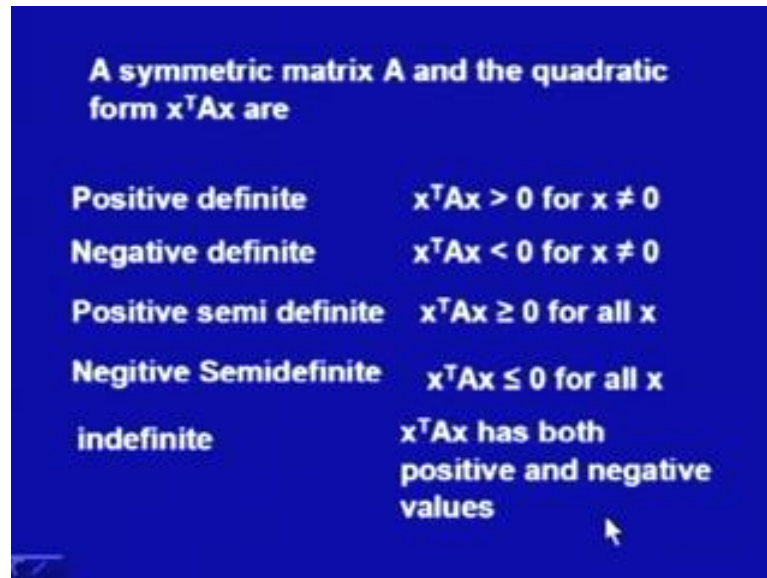
The quadratic form is positive semidefinite when d can be positive for some nonzero x

The quadratic form is negative semidefinite when d can be negative for some nonzero x

Now, we will discuss positive definite quadratic forms. Many times, we are interested to know the sign of this expression $a x^2 + 2 b x y + c y^2$, it is a quadratic expression. Let us say it is equal to d and in matrix notation, we write it as $x^T A x$. So, we want to know, whether this expression is positive or negative. So, we want to know under, what condition this expression is positive. Under what condition it may be negative and under what conditions, it is always positive.

So, those conditions refer to positive definite quadratic form. So, I will define the quadratic form is positive definite. If $x^T A x$ is always positive, for positive x and it is 0 only when x is equal to 0. So, expression $x^T A x$, if it is always positive. Then, that expression is or that quadratic form is positive definite. The quadratic form is positive semi definite when d can be positive for some nonzero x . It may be positive for other values. But, there may be some value of x which is not 0, but d is positive. The quadratic form is negative semi definite, when d can be negative for some nonzero x also.

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A symmetric matrix A and the quadratic form $x^T Ax$ are	
Positive definite	$x^T Ax > 0$ for $x \neq 0$
Negative definite	$x^T Ax < 0$ for $x \neq 0$
Positive semi definite	$x^T Ax \geq 0$ for all x
Negative Semidefinite	$x^T Ax \leq 0$ for all x
indefinite	$x^T Ax$ has both positive and negative values

So, a symmetric matrix A and the quadratic form $x^T Ax$ are positive definite if $x^T Ax$ is positive for $x \neq 0$. We call then the form as negative definite, when $x^T Ax$ is negative for some for $x \neq 0$. And positive semi definite is $x^T Ax$ maybe positive or maybe 0 for all x . Negative semi definite, when $x^T Ax$ is negative for all x , negative or 0 for all x . And we say the form is indefinite, if we cannot determine the sign of $x^T Ax$.

If it is positive always, we call it positive definite. If it is negative always, then we call it negative definite for nonzero values of x . And a positive semi definite or semi indefinite, negative semi definite, when we will have this expressions, and if the sign cannot be determined, then it maybe indefinite.

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The quadratic form is indefinite when d can be both positive and negative

Example: decide positive definiteness of the quadratic forms associated with the given matrices

(i) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$ (ii) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ (iii) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

Solution: $q(x) = x^2 + 2xy + 5y^2$

$$x^2 + 2xy + 5y^2 = (x + y)^2 + 4y^2$$

$q(0) = 0, q(x) > 0$ Positive definite

The quadratic form is indefinite. When d can be both positive and negative, we can take any value. So, in this example, we try to decide the positive definiteness of the given quadratic form. So, in the first we have the associated matrix as 1 1 1 5. In the second, we will have the associated matrix 1 3 3 1. And in the third, we will have this matrix, we will go one by one.

This matrix is associated, with this quadratic expression x square plus 5 y square plus 2 x y. We can write down this form as x plus y whole square, I am rewriting this expression plus 4 y square. See x plus y square is equal to x square plus y square plus 2 x y. So, 2 x y is coming here and y square I have taken from this. So, what remains here is 4 y square, now this expression is 0 when x is equal to 0 and y is equal to 0. And for all values of x, what whether positive or negative this expression will always be 0 or we can say that this expression is positive definite. Or this quadratic form is positive definite quadratic form is positive definite.

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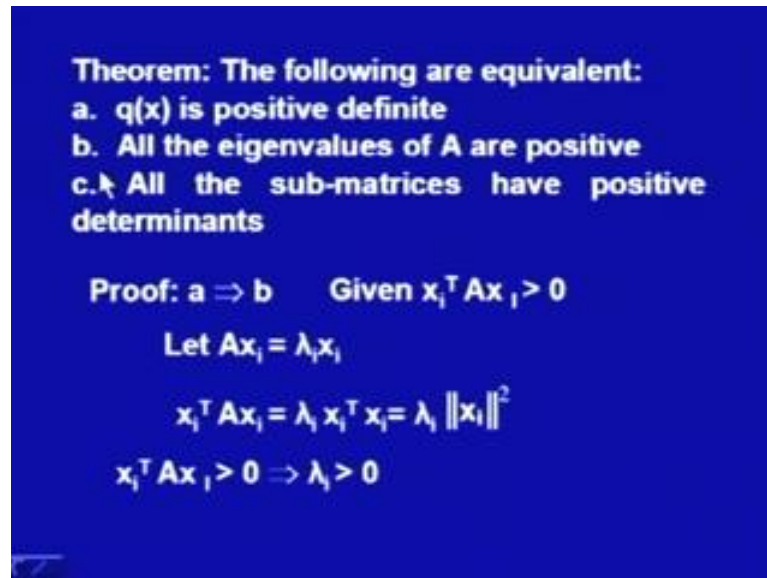
(ii) $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
 $q(x) = x^2 + 6xy + y^2 = (x + 3y)^2 - 8y^2$
For $x = -2$ and $y = 1$ $q(x) < 0$
Not positive definite

(iii) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = x^2 + 2y^2 - 3z^2$
For $(0, 0, 1)$ $q(x)$ is negative
Not positive definite

In the second example, I have this matrix. And corresponding to this matrix, I have this form $x^2 + 6xy + y^2$. And this form, I write it as $(x + 3y)^2 - 8y^2$. And one can notice that, for x is equal to minus 2 and y is equal to 1. Then, this term will be more than this term; and that makes $q(x)$ negative. So, this is not positive definite, because its sign will be $q(x)$ is negative for value x is equal to minus 2 and y is equal to 1. So, this is not positive definite.

In the other example, the 3 by 3 matrix it is a diagonal matrix. It comes out to be $x^2 + 2y^2 - 3z^2$. One can notice that, if x is equal to 0 y is equal to 0. Then if z is, whatever be the values of z , then this is negative. So, it is again not positive definite, so $(0, 0, 1)$, $q(x)$ is negative and it is not positive definite.

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Theorem: The following are equivalent:

- a. $q(x)$ is positive definite
- b. All the eigenvalues of A are positive
- c. All the sub-matrices have positive determinants

Proof: a \Rightarrow b Given $x_i^T A x_i > 0$

Let $Ax_i = \lambda_i x_i$

$$x_i^T A x_i = \lambda_i x_i^T x_i = \lambda_i \|x_i\|^2$$
$$x_i^T A x_i > 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_i > 0$$

Now, in this theorem we will like to state the conditions under, which we can ensure that a given quadratic is always positive definite. So, the theorem states that, the three conditions, the following three conditions are equivalent. One condition is if $q(x)$ is positive definite. Second is all the eigenvalues of A are positive, third is all the sub-matrices have positive determinants. So, I will start with a given quadratic $x_i^T A x_i$ is positive.

I will first prove that a implies b means, if $q(x)$ is positive definite. Then, it implies all the eigenvalues of A are positive. So, with this given positive definite form, let us consider an eigenvalue problem $Ax_i = \lambda_i x_i$. Now, in this form A is a symmetric matrix. So, for this form we can multiply this matrix by x_i^T from left, as well as on the right. So, $x_i^T A x_i = \lambda_i x_i^T x_i$. And we know $x_i^T x_i$ is nothing but the norm of x_i which is always positive.

So, $x_i^T A x_i$ is always positive provided λ_i is positive. So, if a given form is quadratic definite, then all the eigenvalues of A should be positive. So, I have started with positive definite form. And I have proved that it has all eigenvalues, which are positive, so a implies b.

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$b \Rightarrow a$

λ are positive

The matrix A is symmetric. The eigenvalues form set of n independent eigenvectors

$$x = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + \dots + c_n x_n$$
$$Ax = c_1 Ax_1 + c_2 Ax_2 + \dots + c_n Ax_n$$
$$x^T Ax = (c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + \dots + c_n x_n)^T (c_1 Ax_1 + c_2 Ax_2 + \dots + c_n Ax_n)$$
$$= c_1^2 \lambda_1 + c_2^2 \lambda_2 + \dots + c_n^2 \lambda_n$$

Now, to consider b implies a , I will start with all positive eigenvalues. And I will show that the corresponding matrix is positive definite. So, assuming all lambdas are positive and the matrix A is symmetric, because this matrix is related with the quadratic. Then, the eigenvalues form set of n independent eigenvectors. This is the result, which I am deriving from my earlier lectures on eigenvalues and eigenvectors. So, they form n independent eigenvectors.

So, we can write down x , any vector x as a linear combination of these n independent eigenvectors. So, will have x is equal to $c_1 x_1$ plus $c_2 x_2$ plus $c_n x_n$ I multiply it by A . So, Ax is equal to $c_1 Ax_1$ plus $c_2 Ax_2$ plus $c_n Ax_n$; then I multiply it by x transpose pre-multiplication. So, it is $x^T Ax$ is equal to $c_1^2 \lambda_1$ plus $c_2^2 \lambda_2$ plus $c_n^2 \lambda_n$, this is $x^T Ax$. $x^T Ax$ is nothing but this is $x^T Ax$ multiplied by $c_1 Ax_1$ plus $c_2 Ax_2$ plus $c_n Ax_n$, whatever I have obtained here. And then if you perform this multiplication it is column this it is transpose. So, if we multiply this will have $c_1^2 \lambda_1$ plus $c_2^2 \lambda_2$ plus $c_n^2 \lambda_n$.

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Since c's are arbitrary
 $x^T A x > 0 \Rightarrow$ Eigenvalues are positive

a \Rightarrow c
Given that q(x) is positive definite
 \Rightarrow eigenvalues are positive

det (A) is product of eigenvectors

$$x^T A x = (x_k^T \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} A_k & * \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_k \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= x_k^T A_k x_k$$
$$x^T A x > 0 \Rightarrow x_k^T A_k x_k > 0$$

Since c's are arbitrary, so $x^T A x$ is positive. And that means, eigenvalues are positive, because the eigenvalues are positive will have $x^T A x$ is positive. And that means, we will have positive definite quadratic form. So, we have started with positive eigenvalues. And we could prove that, we have positive definite quadratic form. So, b implies c is proved, now let us try a implies c.

So, given that $q(x)$ is a positive definite, this that is the meaning of a. We assume we are having eigenvalues are positive, because $q(x)$ is positive definite. So, b means eigenvalues are positive, so we have this. Then, what is determinant of A, determinant A is product of eigenvectors. Now, we consider $x^T A x$ as $x_k \neq 0$. What is x_k transpose is a vector, which is having nonzero values and rest of them are zeros.

So, I reduce this matrix A into k by k matrix, that is A_k and rest of them are these elements in A. So, I write it as x_k transpose and rest of the elements are 0. So, I am considering only those values, which are corresponding to A_k they are nonzero and rest of them are 0. So, this particular $x^T A x$ is chosen. So, accordingly we will have this column vector. So, when we perform this multiplication, I will have x_k transpose $A_k x_k$ transpose, but $x^T A x$ is positive.

So, x_k transpose A_k multiplied by x_k transpose is positive provided determination of A_k is positive. This means the sub matrix A_k has positive determinant. But, what is A_k , A_k is a sub matrix of A. And this can be any order matrix, it can be order 1, order 2,

order there. And so on, in fact this result should be true for all values of k . And that means, if we have a positive definite form. Then, all sub matrices will have positive determinant.

Now, that proves c that means, starting from a we can prove the c , the reverse of this that is if we have a matrix having all sub matrices determinant 0. Then, we can prove that it is a positive definite form that is c implies a . I leave this is an exercise for the viewer. In this example, we are using the theorem, which I have just now stated. And with the help of that theorem, we like to see whether a given quadratic form is positive definite or not.

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Example

(i) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$ (ii) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ (iii) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

Determinant is positive in (i) and negative in (ii) and (iii)

Only (i) is positive definite

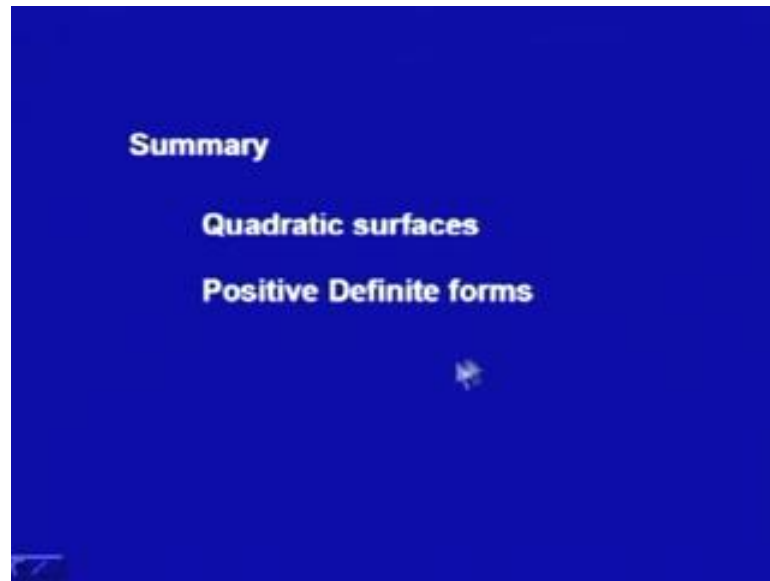
> If A is positive definite then A^2 and A^{-1} are also positive definite

So, if in the first example if I have a 2 by 2 matrix, then one can notice its determinant is 1 into 5 minus 1 is positive. And since, it has a positive determinant and all sub matrices have positive determinant. So, it has all positive eigenvalues and it is a positive definite form. So, first is positive definite form, but in the second case first sub matrix is having determinant positive.

But, if you consider this sub matrix, then its determinant is 1 minus 9 is negative. So, it is not positive definite and in the third case again one of the eigenvalue is negative. So, again this is also not positive definite form. So, in this example, we will have only one positive definite form. In the second example determinant is negative, so will have will not have a positive definite form.

In this example, one eigenvalue is negative, then it is this is also not positive definite form. So, only one is positive further if A is positive definite matrix. Then, A square is also positive definite, I leave this as an exercise for the viewer to prove this. Further, if A inverse is also positive definite, if A is positive definite. So, these are two exercises user can try easily.

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That gives that comes with this we come to the end of the lecture. Today, we have covered quadratic surfaces. We have discussed, when under what conditions a given quadratic form is positive definite quadratic form; that is all.

Thank you.