

Basic Information on Quadratic Forms in Two Dimensions.

We need to understand quadratic functions on \mathbb{R}^2 , that is, functions of the form $Q(x, y) = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$, $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. It is convenient for this purpose to think of Q as arising from the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$ as follows: $Q(x, y) = \langle A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \rangle$

where $A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ = the "matrix product" of $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ = $(ax + by, bx + cy)$. In particular, we are going to analyze Q in terms of the "eigenvalues" of the matrix A .

Recall that an eigenvalue λ of a matrix A is a solution of $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$. In our case, this becomes $\det \begin{pmatrix} a - \lambda & b \\ b & c - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = 0$. This quadratic equation for λ has real roots: the equation written out is $(a - \lambda)(c - \lambda) - b^2 = 0$ or $\lambda^2 - (a + c)\lambda + ac - b^2 = 0$. Its solutions are $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}(a + c \pm \sqrt{(a + c)^2 - 4(ac - b^2)})$ = $\frac{1}{2}(a + c \pm \sqrt{(a - c)^2 + 4b^2})$. Since $(a - c)^2 + 4b^2 \geq 0$, these solutions are real numbers (in general, eigenvalues can be complex numbers).

There are two cases:

(1) $(a - c)^2 + 4b^2 > 0$ and (2) $(a - c)^2 + 4b^2 = 0$.

In case (2), $a = c$ and $b = 0$. So $Q(x, y) = a(x^2 + y^2)$. ($A = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}$). The function Q is constant on the unit circle $\{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$, with cons. value a .

Case (1), $(a-c)^2 + 4b^2 > 0$, is more interesting 2
but less easy. In this case there are two real
eigenvalues λ_1, λ_2 with, say, $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2$ namely
 $\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{2}(a+c + \sqrt{(a-c)^2 + 4b^2})$ and $\lambda_2 = \frac{1}{2}(a+c - \sqrt{(a-c)^2 + 4b^2})$.

Now $\det \begin{pmatrix} a-\lambda & b \\ b & c-\lambda \end{pmatrix} = 0$ if and only if

there is a nonzero vector (x, y) with

$$A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \lambda(x, y), \text{ i.e. } ax + by = \lambda x \text{ \& } bx + cy = \lambda y.$$

[This is just a restatement of the basic idea of linear algebra that a system with two equations and two unknowns that is homogeneous has a nontrivial solution if and only if it has determinant = 0].

Let \vec{v}_1 be an "eigenvector" ($\neq \vec{0}$) for λ_1 , \vec{v}_2 for λ_2 ,
i.e. $A\vec{v}_1 = \lambda_1\vec{v}_1$ and $A\vec{v}_2 = \lambda_2\vec{v}_2$.

Without loss of generality we can take $\|\vec{v}_1\| = 1$ & $\|\vec{v}_2\| = 1$.

Lemma: If $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$, then $\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = 0$.

Proof: Direct calculation shows that $\langle A\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = \langle \vec{v}_1, A\vec{v}_2 \rangle$
for any two vectors \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 : This is just because A is symmetric.

But $\langle A\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = \langle \lambda_1\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = \lambda_1 \langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle$ while
(with \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 eigenvectors) $\langle \vec{v}_1, A\vec{v}_2 \rangle = \langle \vec{v}_1, \lambda_2\vec{v}_2 \rangle = \lambda_2 \langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle$

So $\langle A\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = \langle \vec{v}_1, A\vec{v}_2 \rangle$ gives $\lambda_1 \langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = \lambda_2 \langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle$

or $(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) \langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = 0$. Since $\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 \neq 0$, it follows
that $\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = 0$.

Now suppose (without loss of generality) that, as before, $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2$. If \vec{u} is a unit-length vector then $\vec{u} = \alpha \vec{v}_1 + \beta \vec{v}_2$ where $\alpha^2 + \beta^2 = 1$ (v_1, v_2 are unit and perpendicular and are hence an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^2). Then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A\vec{u}, \vec{u} \rangle &= \langle \alpha \lambda_1 v_1 + \beta \lambda_2 v_2, \alpha v_1 + \beta v_2 \rangle \\ &= \alpha^2 \lambda_1 + \beta^2 \lambda_2 \end{aligned}$$

(since $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = 0$
while $\langle v_1, v_1 \rangle = 1$
 $\langle v_2, v_2 \rangle = 1$)

Clearly $\alpha^2 \lambda_1 + \beta^2 \lambda_2$ is as large as possible (with α, β satisfying $\alpha^2 + \beta^2 = 1$) when $\alpha = \pm 1$ & $\beta = 0$ while it is as small as possible when $\alpha = 0$ & $\beta = \pm 1$. Thus, in summary:

The eigenvalues of $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$ are the maximum and minimum values of $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$ on the unit circle. If $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$ is not constant on the unit circle, then the maximum occurs exactly twice, at two antipodal points $\pm v_1$, and the minimum exactly twice at $\pm v_2$ for some v_2 , and $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = 0$. The vectors $\pm v_1$ and $\pm v_2$ are the ^(unit) eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = \max$ and $\lambda_2 = \min$ of $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$ on the unit circle.

The product $\lambda_1 \lambda_2$ of the eigenvalues of $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$

4

Proof of the Lemma: λ_1 and λ_2 are the solutions of $(a-\lambda)(c-\lambda) - b^2 = 0$. By usual algebra, their product is the constant term of the equation, namely $ac - b^2$. \square

We are going to combine this lemma with the observations about λ_1 and λ_2 as maximum values and minimum values to prove the following comparison (we need the lemma for the second statement here):

Theorem: Suppose $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$ and $\hat{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{a} & \hat{b} \\ \hat{b} & \hat{c} \end{pmatrix}$ are two symmetric matrices. Let $Q(x, y) = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$ and $\hat{Q}(x, y) = \hat{a}x^2 + 2\hat{b}xy + \hat{c}y^2$. And suppose that for all (x, y) with $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, $Q(x, y) \geq \hat{Q}(x, y)$. Then

- (1) If λ_1, λ_2 are the max and min eigenvalues of A and $\hat{\lambda}_1, \hat{\lambda}_2$ are the max and min eigenvalues of \hat{A} , then $\lambda_1 \geq \hat{\lambda}_1$ and $\lambda_2 \geq \hat{\lambda}_2$.
- (2) If $\hat{\lambda}_1$ and $\hat{\lambda}_2$ are nonnegative, then $\det A = ac - b^2$ is $\geq \det \hat{A} = \hat{a}\hat{c} - \hat{b}^2$.

Proof: Statement (2) follows from $\det A = \lambda_1 \lambda_2$ and $\det \hat{A} = \hat{\lambda}_1 \hat{\lambda}_2$ together with statement (1): If $\lambda_1 \geq \hat{\lambda}_1 \geq 0$ and $\lambda_2 \geq \hat{\lambda}_2 \geq 0$, then $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \geq \hat{\lambda}_1 \hat{\lambda}_2$.

To prove statement (1), suppose \hat{v}_1 is such that $\hat{Q}(\hat{v}_1)$ is maximal, so that $\hat{Q}(\hat{v}_1) = \hat{\lambda}_1$. Then $\hat{\lambda}_1 = \hat{Q}(\hat{v}_1) \leq Q(\hat{v}_1) \leq \max Q$ on unit circle = λ_1 . For the $\lambda_2, \hat{\lambda}_2$ estimate, suppose v_2 (\in unit circle) is such that

$Q(v_2)$ is minimal (for Q on unit circle) and hence $\lambda_2 = Q(v_2)$. Then $\lambda_2 = Q(v_2) \geq \hat{Q}(v_2) \geq \min \hat{Q}$ on unit circle $= \hat{\lambda}_2$. \square

Application: Suppose $f(x, y)$ and $\hat{f}(x, y)$ are such that $f(0, 0) = 0 = \hat{f}(0, 0)$ and $f_x|_{(0,0)} = f_y|_{(0,0)} = 0$ and $\hat{f}_x|_{(0,0)} = \hat{f}_y|_{(0,0)} = 0$. And finally suppose $f(x, y) \geq \hat{f}(x, y)$ for all (x, y) in a neighborhood of $(0, 0)$. Then, supposing that $\hat{f}(x, y) \geq 0$ for all (x, y) in a neighborhood of $(0, 0)$, the Gauss curvature of the graph $z = f(x, y)$ at $(0, 0)$ is \geq the Gauss curvature of $z = \hat{f}(x, y)$ at $(0, 0)$.

Proof of the application: Set $Q(x, y) = f_{xx}|_{(0,0)} x^2 + 2f_{xy}|_{(0,0)} xy + f_{yy}|_{(0,0)} y^2$ and similarly for \hat{Q} (with f replaced by \hat{f}). Note that $Q(x, y) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2} f(tx, ty)|_{(0,0)}$

[This is a standard step in the development of Taylor's expansion in two variables. It is proved via the Chain Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dt} f(tx, ty) = x f_x|_{(tx, ty)} + y f_y|_{(tx, ty)}$$

$$\text{So } \frac{d^2}{dt^2} f(tx, ty)|_{(0,0)} = x(x f_{xx}|_{(0,0)} + y f_{xy}|_{(0,0)}) + y(x f_{xy}|_{(0,0)} + y^2 f_{yy}|_{(0,0)}) = Q(x, y)$$

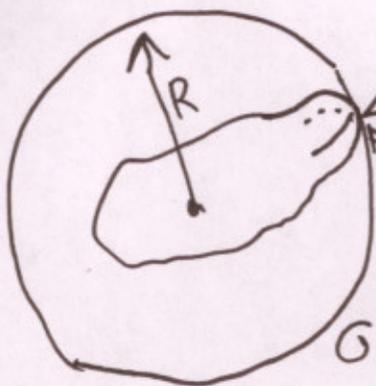
] We fix $(x, y) \in$ unit circle, i.e. $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

(Supposing still $(x, y) \in$ unit circle):

Now $f(tx, ty)$ and $\hat{f}(tx, ty)$ are both $= 0$ when $t=0$ and have first t -derivative $= 0$ when $t=0$ (since $f_x = f_y = 0$ at $(0, 0)$). So $f(tx, ty) \geq \hat{f}(tx, ty)$ for small $|t|$, implies $(d^2/dt^2) f(tx, ty)|_{t=0} \geq \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \hat{f}(tx, ty)|_{t=0}$. Thus $\hat{Q}(x, y) \geq Q(x, y)$, from $Q(x, y) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2} f(tx, ty)|_{t=0}$ and same for

The conclusion of the Application follows from \hat{Q} . statement (2) of the theorem, together with the fact that $\hat{\lambda}_1$ and $\hat{\lambda}_2$ are nonnegative, this latter following from $\hat{f} \geq 0$ near $(0, 0)$. \square

This application completes the proof already given in class that a closed surface S in \mathbb{R}^3 has a point of positive Gauss curvature: Choose an arbitrary $p \in \mathbb{R}^3$ say $p = (0, 0, 0)$. The function $x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ has a positive maximum on S , say R^2 ($R > 0$). Then the sphere of radius R around $(0, 0, 0)$ contains S and S is tangent to the sphere at some point.



Graphing the S surface and the sphere over the tangent plane at the point (of both of them) puts one in the position of the Application and gives G -curvature of $S \geq$ Gauss curv of sphere $\frac{1}{R^2} > 0$.