

Complex matrices

Matrices with all real entries can still have complex eigenvalues

⇒ We cannot avoid dealing with complex numbers !

Complex vectors

Length :

Given a vector $\underline{z} = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^n$

with complex entries

Q: How do we find its length?

Our old definition :

$$\underline{z}^T \underline{z} = [z_1 \dots z_n] \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(No good !)} \\ \text{(Not always} \\ \text{positive !)} \end{array}$$

Ex: $\underline{z} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$

$$\underline{z}^T \underline{z} = [1 \quad i] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad ?$$

Correct definition:

$$\|\underline{z}\|^2 = \underline{\bar{z}}^T \underline{z} = [\bar{z}_1 \dots \bar{z}_n] \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} \\ = |z_1|^2 + \dots + |z_n|^2 \geq 0$$

Ex:

$$\left(\text{length} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}\right)^2 = [1 \ -i] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} = 2 \quad (\checkmark)$$

Simplify notation:

$$\|\underline{z}\|^2 = \underline{z}^H \underline{z} \quad \text{where } \underline{z}^H = \underline{\bar{z}}^T$$

Same for matrices:

$$\text{If } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i \\ 0 & 1+i \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^H = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -i & 1-i \end{bmatrix}$$

Inner product

$$\underline{y}^H \underline{x} = \underline{\bar{y}}^T \underline{x} = \bar{y}_1 x_1 + \dots + \bar{y}_n x_n$$

Note:

$$\underline{y}^H \underline{x} \neq \underline{x}^H \underline{y} = \bar{x}_1 y_1 + \dots + \bar{x}_n y_n$$

= complex conjugate of $\underline{y}^H \underline{x}$

(order is important!)

$$\text{Ex: } \underline{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \underline{v} = \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{u}^H \underline{v} = [1 \ -i] \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad (\text{orthogonal})$$

Note: $(A\underline{u})^H \underline{v} = \underline{u}^H (A^H \underline{v})$

Reason: $(A\underline{u})^H = \overline{A\underline{u}}^T = \underline{u}^T \overline{A}^T = \underline{u}^H A^H$

(Inner product of $A\underline{u}$ with \underline{v} equals Inner product of \underline{u} with $A^H \underline{v}$)

Note: $(AB)^H = B^H A^H$

Hermitian matrices

Recall: For symmetric matrix $A = A^T$

\Rightarrow real eigenvalues

\Rightarrow there is a full set of orthogonal eigenvectors

\Rightarrow Diagonalising matrix $S = Q$ (orthogonal)

$\Rightarrow A = Q \Lambda Q^{-1}$ or $A = Q \Lambda Q^T$

(All this follows from $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ when A is real)

Now for complex matrices

We have Hermitian matrix $A = A^H$

where $a_{ij} = \overline{a_{ji}}$

Note: Every symmetric matrix is

Hermitian

($a_{ij} = a_{ji} = \overline{a_{ji}}$ for real a_{ji})

Ex: Hermitian matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3-3i \\ 3+3i & 5 \end{bmatrix} = A^H$$

Fact If $A = A^H$ and \underline{z} is any vector then $\underline{z}^H A \underline{z}$ is real

Proof: $\underline{z}^H A \underline{z}$ is 1×1 number

$$\Rightarrow (\underline{z}^H A \underline{z})^H = \underline{z}^H A^H (\underline{z}^H)^H = \underline{z}^H A \underline{z}$$

The number is real since it is equal to its conjugate

Back to example:

$$[\bar{z}_1 \ \bar{z}_2] \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3-3i \\ 3+3i & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \underbrace{2 \bar{z}_1 z_1 + 5 \bar{z}_2 z_2}_{\text{(diagonal)}} + \underbrace{(3-3i) \bar{z}_1 z_2 + (3+3i) z_1 \bar{z}_2}_{\text{(off-diagonal)}}$$

($2|z_1|^2$ & $5|z_2|^2$ are both real

the off-diagonal terms are conjugate of each other \Rightarrow sum is real)

Fact Every eigenvalue of a Hermitian matrix is real

Proof: Suppose $A\underline{z} = \lambda\underline{z}$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\underline{z}^H A \underline{z}}_{\text{real}} = \lambda \underbrace{\underline{z}^H \underline{z}}_{\text{real}} = \lambda |\underline{z}|^2$$

So λ must be real!

Back to example:

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & 3-3i \\ 3+3i & 5-\lambda \end{vmatrix} &= \lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 10 - |3+3i|^2 \\ &= \lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 10 - 18 \\ &= (\lambda - 8)(\lambda + 1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 8 \text{ \& } -1$$

Fact The eigenvectors of a Hermitian matrix are orthogonal (when they correspond to diff. eigenvalues)

If $A\underline{z} = \lambda\underline{z}$ & $A\underline{y} = \beta\underline{y}$ & $\lambda \neq \beta$

then $\underline{y}^H \underline{z} = 0$

Proof:

$$A\underline{z} = \lambda\underline{z} \Rightarrow \underline{y}^H A \underline{z} = \lambda \underline{y}^H \underline{z}$$

$$\underline{y}^H A^H = \beta \underline{y}^H \Rightarrow \underline{y}^H A^H \underline{z} = \beta \underline{y}^H \underline{z}$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda - \beta) \underline{y}^H \underline{z} = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{y}^H \underline{z} = 0 \text{ if } \lambda \neq \beta$$

Back to example:

$$(A - \lambda I) \underline{z} = \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 3 - 3\lambda \\ 3 + 3\lambda & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{z} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 + \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(A + I) \underline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 - 3\lambda \\ 3 + 3\lambda & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{y}^H \underline{z} = [1 + \lambda \quad -1] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 + \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

Note: Eigenvectors have length $\sqrt{3}$

After dividing by $\sqrt{3}$, they are orthonormal

\Rightarrow They go into eigenvector matrix S
that diagonalize A

(When A is real & symmetric,
 S is \mathbb{Q} -orthogonal)

When A is complex & Hermitian
eigenvectors are complex & orthonormal

$\Rightarrow S$ is like \mathbb{Q} but complex)

(Complex & orthogonal \Rightarrow unitary)

Unitary matrices

A unitary matrix U is a complex square matrix that has orthonormal cols.

(U is a complex equivalent of Q)

Ex: Eigenvector matrix of A

$$U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1-i \\ 1+i & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Recall: For orthonormal matrix Q (real)
 $Q^T Q = I$

Q: What does it mean for complex vectors $\underline{\delta}_1, \dots, \underline{\delta}_n$ to be orthonormal?

Use new definition of inner product

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\delta}_j^H \underline{\delta}_k = \begin{cases} 0 & , j \neq k \\ 1 & , j = k \end{cases}$$

$$Q = [\underline{\delta}_1 \dots \underline{\delta}_n] \Rightarrow Q^H Q = I$$

Fact Every matrix U with orthonormal cols has $U^H U = I$

If U is square, then $U^H = U^{-1}$

Fact If U is unitary, then $\|Uz\| = \|z\|$

$\Rightarrow Uz = \lambda z$ leads to $|\lambda| = 1$

Proof: $\|Uz\|^2 = z^H U^H U z = z^H z = \|z\|^2$

Back to example:

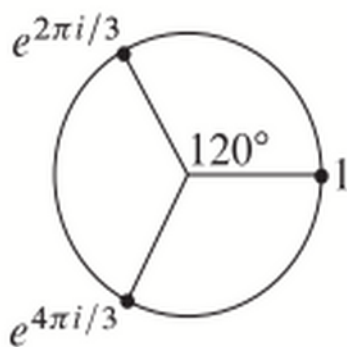
$$U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1-i \\ 1+i & -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ both Hermitian \& unitary}$$

\Rightarrow real eigenvalues & $|\lambda| = 1$

$\Rightarrow \lambda = 1$ or -1

Since trace = 0 $\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = -1$

Ex: 3×3 Fourier matrix



Fourier matrix $F = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & e^{2\pi i/3} & e^{4\pi i/3} \\ 1 & e^{4\pi i/3} & e^{2\pi i/3} \end{bmatrix}$

Figure 61: The cube roots of 1 go into the Fourier matrix $F = F_3$.

Q: Is it Hermitian?

$$F^H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ e^{-2\pi i/3} & e^{-4\pi i/3} & e^{-2\pi i/3} \end{bmatrix} \neq F$$

Q: Is F unitary?

The squared length of each col.

$$= \frac{1}{3} (1+1+1) = 1 \quad (\text{unit vectors})$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{col } 1)^H (\text{col } 2) &= \frac{1}{3} (1 + e^{2\pi i/3} + e^{4\pi i/3}) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{col } 2)^H (\text{col } 3) &= \frac{1}{3} (1 \cdot 1 + e^{-2\pi i/3} e^{4\pi i/3} \\ &\quad + e^{-4\pi i/3} e^{2\pi i/3}) = \frac{1}{3} (1 + e^{2\pi i/3} + e^{-2\pi i/3}) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow F$ is unitary!

(Read real v.s. complex, p. 506)