

EECS 205003 Session 28

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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 $\mathbf{z} = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^n$

with complex entries

Q: How do we find its length?

Our old definition:

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

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

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

Correct definition:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{z}\|^2 &= \bar{\mathbf{z}}^T \mathbf{z} = [\bar{z}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \bar{z}_n] \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= |z_1|^2 + \cdots + |z_n|^2 \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

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Ex:

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

simplify notation:

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

Same for matrices:

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

Inner product

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

Note:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}^H \mathbf{x} &\neq \mathbf{x}^H \mathbf{y} = \bar{x}_1 y_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_n y_n \\ &= \text{complex conjugate of } \mathbf{y}^H \mathbf{x} \end{aligned}$$

(order is important !)

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

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

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

$$\text{Reason: } (A\mathbf{u})^H = \overline{A\mathbf{u}}^T = \bar{\mathbf{u}}^T \bar{A}^T = \mathbf{u}^H A^H$$

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

$$\text{Note: } (AB)^H = B^H A^H$$

Hermitian matrices

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

⇒ real eigenvalues

⇒ there is a full set of orthogonal eigenvectors

⇒ Diagonalizing matrix $S = Q$ (orthogonal)

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

(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

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

Ex: Hermitian matrix

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

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

proof: $\mathbf{z}^H A \mathbf{z}$ is 1×1 number

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

the number is real since it is equal to its conjugate

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Back to example:

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

$(2|z_1|^2 \text{ \& } 5|z_2|^2 \text{ are both real and the off-diagonal terms are conjugate of each other } \Rightarrow \text{sum is real})$

Fact Every eigenvalue of a Hermitian matrix is real

proof: Suppose $A\mathbf{z} = \lambda\mathbf{z}$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{z}^H A \mathbf{z} = \lambda \mathbf{z}^H \mathbf{z} = \lambda |\mathbf{z}|^2$$

real

real

so λ must be real !

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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 different eigenvalues)

If $A\mathbf{z} = \lambda\mathbf{z}$ & $A\mathbf{y} = \beta\mathbf{y}$ & $\lambda \neq \beta$ then $\mathbf{y}^H\mathbf{z} = 0$

proof:

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

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

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

Back to example:

$$(A - 8I)\mathbf{z} = \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 3 - 3i \\ 3 + 3i & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{z} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 + i \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - i \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

Note: Eigenvectors have length $\sqrt{3}$. After dividing by $\sqrt{3}$, they are orthonormal

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\Rightarrow They go into eigenvector matrix S that diagonalize A
(When A is real & symmetric, S is Q -orthogonal. When A is complex & Hermitian eigenvectors are complex & orthonormal
 $\Rightarrow S$ is like Q but complex)
(Complex & orthogonal \Rightarrow unitary)

Unitary matrices

A unitary matrix U is a complex square matrix that has orthonormal columns

(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), $Q^T Q = I$

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

Use new definition of inner product

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

$$Q = [\mathbf{q}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{q}_n] \Rightarrow Q^H Q = I$$

Fact Every matrix U with orthonormal columns has $U^H U = I$
If U is square, then $U^H = U^{-1}$

Fact If U is unitary, then $\|Uz\| = \|z\|$
 $\Rightarrow U\mathbf{z} = \lambda\mathbf{z}$ leads to $|\lambda| = 1$

proof: $\|U\mathbf{z}\|^2 = \mathbf{z}^H U^H U \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}^H \mathbf{z} = \|\mathbf{z}\|^2$

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Back to example:

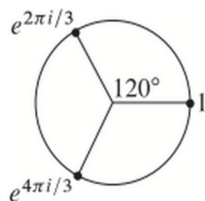
$$U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1-i \\ 1+i & -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ both Hermitian \& unitary}$$

\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 $F = F_3$.

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Q: Is it Hermitian ?

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

Q: Is it unitary ?

The squared length of each column = $\frac{1}{3}(1 + 1 + 1) = 1$ (unit vectors)

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

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

$\Rightarrow F$ is unitary !

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