

# Lecture XXXVI: §4.6 Complex vector spaces, complex eigenvalues

Last time: Defined complex numbers  $z = a + ib$   $a = \operatorname{Re}(z)$ ,  $b = \operatorname{Im}(z)$  in  $\mathbb{R}$

•  $(a + ib) + (c + id) = (a + c) + i(b + d)$

•  $(a + ib) \cdot (c + id) = (ac - bd) + i(ad + bc) \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad i^2 = -1$

• Complex conjugation  $\overline{a + ib} = a + i(-b) = a - ib \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} (1) \quad \overline{z + w} = \overline{z} + \overline{w} \\ (2) \quad \overline{z \cdot w} = \overline{z} \cdot \overline{w} \end{array}$

• Modulus:  $|a + ib| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$

•  $z \overline{z} = |z|^2$ , so if  $z \neq 0$ , then  $z^{-1} = \frac{\overline{z}}{|z|^2}$

Fundamental Thm of Algebra: A degree  $n$  polynomial in  $\mathbb{C}[x]$  has exactly  $n$  roots in  $\mathbb{C}$  (counted with multiplicity)

Special case: If  $f$  in  $\mathbb{R}[x]$ , its roots come in 2 types:

- ① real roots
- ② non-real roots come in conjugate pairs  $(\alpha, \overline{\alpha})$ .

Example:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightsquigarrow P_A(t) = \det(A - tI_3) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1-t & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3-t & 1 \\ 0 & -2 & 1-t \end{bmatrix}$   
 $= (1-t)((3-t)(1-t) + 2)$   
 $= (1-t)(t^2 - 4t + 5)$

Roots:  $\frac{-(-4) \pm \sqrt{4^2 - 4 \cdot 5}}{2} = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{-4}}{2} = \frac{4 \pm 2\sqrt{-1}}{2} = 2 \pm i$  ↙  $2+i$   
↘  $2-i$  Complex conjugate

Eigenspaces for  $2+i$  &  $2-i$ ? They will be in  $\mathbb{C}^3$ .

## §1. Vectors in $\mathbb{C}^n$

The ideas & algorithms we developed for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  will translate directly to  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .

Def:  $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$  in  $\mathbb{C}^n$  means  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  in  $\mathbb{C}$

• Addition: entry-by-entry

• Scalar multiplication: scalars are now in  $\mathbb{C}$  & we operate entry-by-entry

Example:  $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 2+i \\ 4-i \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \vec{v} + \vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+(2+i) \\ i+(4-i) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3+i \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$   
 $i\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} i \\ i^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} i \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

⚠ Dot Product in  $\mathbb{C}^n$  needs to be modified from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  one.

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = \overline{v_1} \cdot w_1 + \overline{v_2} \cdot w_2 + \dots + \overline{v_n} \cdot w_n = \overline{\vec{w} \cdot \vec{v}} \quad (\text{not symmetric!})$$

Example:  $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 2+i \\ 4-i \end{bmatrix}$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = \overline{1} (2+i) + \overline{i} (4-i) = (2+i) - i(4-i) = 2+i - 4i - 1 = 1 - 3i$$

$$\vec{w} \cdot \vec{v} = \overline{2+i} \cdot 1 + \overline{4-i} \cdot i = 2-i + (4+i)i = 2-i + 4i - 1 = 1 + 3i$$

Q: Why this formula?

A: We want  $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} = |\vec{v}|^2$  to be a non-negative real number &

the formula from  $\mathbb{C}^n$  restricted to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  should agree with the old one.

$$|\vec{v}| = \sqrt{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}} = \sqrt{\overline{v_1} \cdot v_1 + \overline{v_2} \cdot v_2 + \dots + \overline{v_n} \cdot v_n} = \sqrt{\underbrace{|v_1|^2 + \dots + |v_n|^2}_{\geq 0}}$$

THEOREM 1  $\mathbb{C}^n$  with this addition & scalar multiplication is a vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$ . It satisfies the same 10 properties defining  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as a vector space but now using scalars in  $\mathbb{C}$  (see Lecture 14)

• Same ideas from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  allow us to define

① Subspaces of  $\mathbb{C}^n$ : sets  $\mathcal{W}$  satisfying 3 properties:

(S1)  $\vec{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is in  $\mathcal{W}$

(S2) If  $\vec{u}, \vec{v}$  are in  $\mathcal{W}$ , then so is  $\vec{u} + \vec{v}$

(S3) If  $\vec{u}$  is in  $\mathcal{W}$  &  $a$  is in  $\mathbb{C}$ , then  $a\vec{u}$  is in  $\mathcal{W}$ .

②.  $\text{Sp}_{\mathbb{C}}(\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p) =$  all  $\mathbb{C}$ -linear combinations of  $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p$   
 (Prototype of a subspace)  $= \{ a_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + a_p \vec{v}_p : a_1, \dots, a_p \text{ in } \mathbb{C} \}$   
 •  $\{ \vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p \}$  spans  $\mathbb{W}$  if  $\mathbb{W} = \text{Sp}_{\mathbb{C}}(\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p)$  arbitrary

③  $\mathbb{C}$ -linear independence:  $\{ \vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p \}$  are l.i. if  
 $a_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + a_p \vec{v}_p = \vec{0}$

has only 1 solution in  $a_1, \dots, a_p$ , namely  $a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_p = 0$

Solve the system with matrix  $\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_n & 0 \\ & & & \vdots \\ & & & 0 \end{array} \right]$ . This augmented matrix

has entries in  $\mathbb{C}$ ! Gauss-Jordan works verbatim but now we operate with complex numbers.

④ Bases:  $B = \{ \vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p \}$  is a basis for a subspace  $\mathbb{W}$  of  $\mathbb{C}^n$   
 if  $B$  spans  $\mathbb{W}$  &  $B$  is linearly indep.  $\implies \#B = \dim_{\mathbb{C}} \mathbb{W}$ .

## §2. Abstract Vector Spaces over $\mathbb{C}$ :

• They are defined using the same 8 properties, but now we use scalars in  $\mathbb{C}$ . There are 2 main examples:

①  $\text{Mat}_{m \times n}(\mathbb{C}) = m \times n$  matrices with entries in  $\mathbb{C}$

Addition: entry-by-entry, Scalar Mult = entry-by-entry

$\mathbb{0} =$  zero matrix of size  $m \times n$

Example:  $\begin{bmatrix} i & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ i & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} i & 2 \\ -1+i & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

$$i \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & i \\ -i & 3i \end{bmatrix}$$

Basis =  $\{ E_{11}, \dots, E_{mn} \}$  (same as for  $\text{Mat}_{m \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ )

$$\textcircled{2} \mathcal{P}_n(\mathbb{C}) = \{ p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n : a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \text{ in } \mathbb{C} \}$$

Usual formulas for addition & scalar multiplication (term-by-term)

Example:  $(1+ix) + (2-2ix^2) = 2+ix-2ix^2$ ;  $i(1+ix) = i-ix$

Basis =  $\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$  (same as for  $\mathcal{P}_n = \mathcal{P}_n(\mathbb{R})$ )

### §3 Eigenvectors in $\mathbb{C}^n$ :

Pick  $A = n \times n$  matrix with real entries &  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  an eigenvalue (ie  $P_A(\lambda) = 0$ ). Then:

$$E_\lambda := \{ \vec{v} \text{ in } \mathbb{C}^n : A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v} \} = \mathcal{N}(A - \lambda I_n) \text{ is a subspace of } \mathbb{C}^n.$$

Key: If  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , the  $E_\lambda$  has a basis with all vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , so

$$\dim_{\mathbb{R}}(\underbrace{E_\lambda \cap \mathbb{R}^n}_{\text{old eigenspace}}) = \dim_{\mathbb{C}} E_\lambda \quad (\text{we are allowing more scalars, but the dimension doesn't change!})$$

Q: How to find  $\mathcal{N}(A - \lambda I_n)$ ?

A: Use Gauss-Jordan to put  $A - \lambda I_n$  in REF allowing scalars in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Example:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$   $P_A(t) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 3-t & 1 \\ -2 & 1-t \end{bmatrix} = t^2 - 4t + 5$

Roots:  $\frac{-(-4) \pm \sqrt{16-4 \cdot 5}}{2} = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{-4}}{2} = \frac{4 \pm 2\sqrt{-1}}{2} = 2 \pm i$

$$E_{2+i} = \mathcal{N}(A - (2+i)I_2) = \mathcal{N} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 3-(2+i) & 1 \\ -2 & 1-(2+i) \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= \mathcal{N} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1-i & 1 \\ -2 & -1-i \end{bmatrix} \right) \quad |1-i|^2 = 2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1-i & 1 \\ -2 & -1-i \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 + (1-i)R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1-i & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (1-i)x + y = 0 \quad \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1-i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E_{2+i} = \text{Sp} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1-i \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$E_{2-i} = \mathcal{N} \left( A - (2-i)I_2 \right) = \mathcal{N} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 3-(2-i) & 1 \\ -2 & 1-(2-i) \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= \mathcal{N} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & 1 \\ -2 & 1+i \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

↖ complex conjugate of the other matrix!

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1+i & 1 \\ -2 & 1+i \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 + (1-i)R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (1+i)x + y = 0 \quad \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1+i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{So } E_{2-i} = \text{Sp} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1+i \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

Observation:  $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$  in  $E_{2+i}$ , then  $\overline{\vec{v}} = \begin{bmatrix} \overline{v_1} \\ \overline{v_2} \end{bmatrix}$  in  $E_{\overline{2+i}} = E_{2-i}$

This is true whenever  $A$  has REAL entries.

Advantage,  $E_{2-i}$  comes for free once we compute  $E_{2+i}$ .

RULE: If  $A$   $n \times n$  matrix has real entries and  $\lambda, \overline{\lambda}$  are complex roots of  $P_A(t)$  (recall roots of real polynomials come in conjugate pairs!) then

$B = \{ \vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p \}$  is a basis for  $E_\lambda$  if, and only if,

$$\overline{B} = \{ \overline{\vec{v}_1}, \dots, \overline{\vec{v}_p} \} \xrightarrow{\quad \quad \quad} E_{\overline{\lambda}}$$

Why? If  $A \vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v}$ , then  $\overline{A \vec{v}} = \overline{\lambda \vec{v}}$ , so  $\overline{\vec{v}}$  is in  $E_{\overline{\lambda}}$ .

$$\vec{v} \neq \vec{0} \quad \overline{A \vec{v}} = \overline{A} \overline{\vec{v}} = \overline{\lambda} \overline{\vec{v}}$$

Conclude: Once we compute  $B$ , computing  $\overline{B}$  is very easy!

Example 2:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$   $P_A(t) = \det \begin{bmatrix} -t & 1 \\ -1 & -t \end{bmatrix} = t^2 + 1 = (t-i)(t+i)$

Eigenvalues:  $i$  &  $-i$ , each with algebraic multiplicity 1.

$$E_i = \mathcal{N}(A - iI_2) = \mathcal{N} \left( \begin{bmatrix} -i & 1 \\ -1 & -i \end{bmatrix} \right) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} : \begin{array}{l} -ix + y = 0 \\ -x - iy = 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$1^{\text{st}} \text{ eqn} = i(2^{\text{nd}} \text{ eqn}) \quad \text{so solns } \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ -ix \end{bmatrix} = x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E_i = \text{Sp} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{bmatrix} \right) \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad E_{-i} = \text{Sp} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{Sp} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

geom mult for  $i$  &  $-i$  is 1

Conclude:  $A$  is non-defective & eigenvalues are in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

$A$  is diagonalizable over  $\mathbb{C}$ , but not over  $\mathbb{R}$ !

$$S^{-1} A S = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{with } S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -i & i \end{bmatrix} \quad \det S = 2i$$

$$S^{-1} = \frac{1}{2i} \begin{bmatrix} i & -1 \\ i & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{same rule} \\ \text{to invert as} \\ \text{with real entries} \end{array} \right)$$

Consequence If  $A$  is real symmetric, then all eigenvalues are real.

Why? Pick  $\lambda$  in  $\mathbb{C}$  root of  $P_A(t)$  &  $\vec{v}$  in  $\mathbb{C}^n, \vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$  with  $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$ .

Take  $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$  & multiply each side by  $\overline{\vec{v}}^T$ .

$$\overline{\vec{v}}^T A \vec{v} = \overline{\vec{v}}^T \lambda \vec{v} = \lambda \overline{\vec{v}}^T \vec{v} = \boxed{\lambda \|\vec{v}\|^2} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{But } \overline{\vec{v}}^T A \vec{v} = \overline{\vec{v}}^T (\lambda \vec{v}) = [\overline{v_1}, \dots, \overline{v_n}] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda v_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda v_n \end{bmatrix} = [\lambda v_1, \dots, \lambda v_n] \begin{bmatrix} \overline{v_1} \\ \vdots \\ \overline{v_n} \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda \vec{v})^T \overline{\vec{v}} &= (A\vec{v})^T \overline{\vec{v}} = \overline{\vec{v}}^T A^T \vec{v} = \overline{\vec{v}}^T A \vec{v} = \overline{\vec{v}}^T \lambda \vec{v} = \overline{\lambda} [\overline{v_1}, \dots, \overline{v_n}] \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \overline{\lambda} \overline{\vec{v}}^T \vec{v} = \boxed{\overline{\lambda} \|\vec{v}\|^2} \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

Compare (1) & (2) to get  $\lambda \underbrace{\|\vec{v}\|^2}_{\neq 0} = \overline{\lambda} \underbrace{\|\vec{v}\|^2}_{\neq 0}$ , so  $\lambda = \overline{\lambda}$ , meaning  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .