

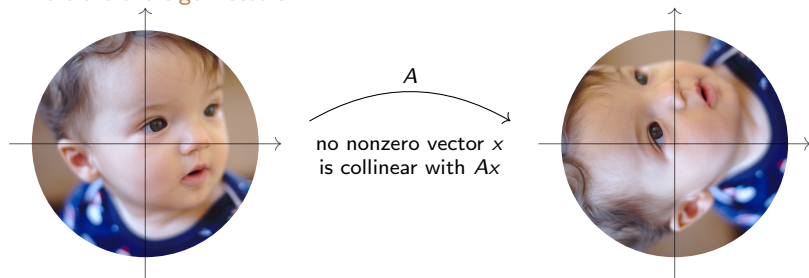
# Section 5.5

## Complex Eigenvalues

## Motivation: Describe rotations

Among transformations, *rotations are very simple* to describe geometrically.

Where are the eigenvectors?



The corresponding matrix has no real eigenvalues.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad f(\lambda) = \lambda^2 + 1.$$

# Complex Numbers

## Definition

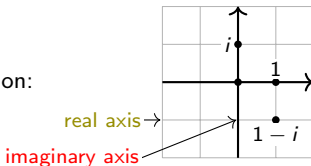
The **number**  $i$  is defined such that  $i^2 = -1$ .

Now we have to allow all possible combinations  $a + bi$

## Definition

A **complex number** is a number of the form  $a + bi$  for  $a, b$  in  $\mathbf{R}$ . The set of all complex numbers is denoted  $\mathbf{C}$ .

A picture of  $\mathbf{C}$  uses a plane representation:



# Operations on Complex Numbers (I)

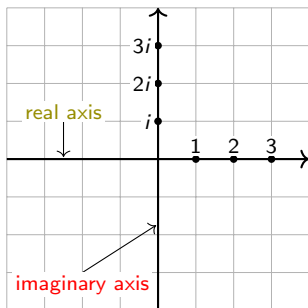
**Addition:** Same as vector addition

Usually, *vectors cannot be multiplied*, but complex numbers can!

**Multiplication:**

$$(a + bi)(c + di) =$$

A plane representation of **multiplication** of  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  by complex  $z =$



When  $z$  is a *real* number, multiplication *means stretching*.

When  $z$  has an imaginary part, **multiplication also means rotation**.

## Operations on Complex Numbers (II)

### The conjugate

For a complex number  $z = a + bi$ , the **complex conjugate** of  $z$  is  $\bar{z} = a - bi$ .

The following is a convenient definition because:

- ▶ If  $z = a + bi$  then

$$z\bar{z} =$$

- ▶ Note that the *length* of the vector  $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$  is  $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ ,
- ▶ There is no geometric interpretation of complex division, but if  $z \neq 0$  then:

$$\frac{z}{w} = \frac{z\bar{w}}{w\bar{w}} = \frac{z\bar{w}}{|w|^2}.$$

Example:

$$\frac{1+i}{1-i} =$$

# Notation and Polar coordinates

Real and imaginary part:  $\operatorname{Re}(a + bi) = a$        $\operatorname{Im}(a + bi) = b$ .

Absolute value:  $|a + bi| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ .

Some properties

$$\overline{z + w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w}$$

$$\overline{zw} = \bar{z} \cdot \bar{w}$$

$$|z| = \sqrt{z\bar{z}}$$

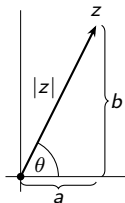
$$|zw| = |z| \cdot |w|$$

Any complex number  $z = a + bi$  has the **polar coordinates**: *angle and length*.

- ▶ The length is  $|z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$
- ▶ The angle  $\theta = \arctan(b/a)$  is called the **argument** of  $z$ , and is denoted  $\theta = \arg(z)$ .

The relation with cartesian coordinates is:

$$z = |z| \underbrace{(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)}_{\text{unit 'vector'}}$$



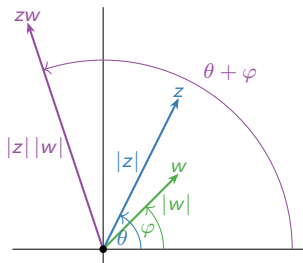
## More on multiplication

It turns out that multiplication has a **precise geometric meaning**:

### Complex multiplication

Multiply the absolute values and add the arguments:

$$|zw| = |z| |w| \quad \arg(zw) = \arg(z) + \arg(w).$$



- Note  $\arg(\bar{z}) = -\arg(z)$ .
- Multiplying  $z$  by  $\bar{z}$  gives a real number because the *angles cancel out*.

## Towards Matrix transformations

The point of using complex numbers is to find all eigenvalues of the characteristic polynomial.

### Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

Every **polynomial** of degree  $n$  has *exactly  $n$  complex roots*, counted *with multiplicity*. That is, if  $f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$  then

$$f(x) = (x - \lambda_1)(x - \lambda_2) \cdots (x - \lambda_n)$$

for (*not necessarily distinct*) complex numbers  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ .

#### Conjugate pairs of roots

If  $f$  is a polynomial with **real coefficients**, then the *complex roots* of real polynomials come in *conjugate pairs*. (Real roots are conjugate of themselves).



# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

## Degree 2 and 3

### Degree 2:

The quadratic formula gives the (real or complex) roots:

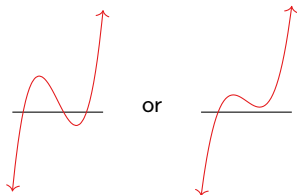
$$f(x) = x^2 + bx + c \implies x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4c}}{2}.$$

For **real polynomials**, the roots are *complex conjugates if  $b^2 - 4c$  is negative*.

### Degree 3:

A **real cubic polynomial** has either *three real* roots, or *one real* root and a *conjugate pair* of complex roots.

The graph looks like:



respectively.

# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

## Examples

Example Degree 2:

If  $f(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \sqrt{2}\lambda + 1$  then

$$\lambda =$$

Example Degree 3:

Let  $f(\lambda) = 5\lambda^3 - 18\lambda^2 + 21\lambda - 10$ .

Since  $f(2) = 0$ , we can do polynomial long division by  $\lambda - 2$ :

The characteristic polynomial of

$$A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

is  $f(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \sqrt{2}\lambda + 1$ . This has two complex roots  $(1 \pm i)/\sqrt{2}$ .

# Conjugate Eigenvectors

Allowing *complex numbers* both eigenvalues and eigenvectors of **real square matrices** occur in conjugate pairs.

## Conjugate eigenvectors

Let  $A$  be a **real square matrix**. If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue with *eigenvector*  $v$ , then  $\bar{\lambda}$  is an eigenvalue with *eigenvector*  $\bar{v}$ .

Conjugate pairs of roots in polynomial:

If  $\lambda$  is a root of  $f$ , then so is  $\bar{\lambda}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \overline{f(\lambda)} = \overline{\lambda^n + a_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1\lambda + a_0} \\ &= \bar{\lambda}^n + a_{n-1}\bar{\lambda}^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1\bar{\lambda} + a_0 = f(\bar{\lambda}). \end{aligned}$$

Conjugate pairs of eigenvectors:

$$Av = \lambda v \implies A\bar{v} = \overline{Av} = \overline{\lambda v} = \bar{\lambda}\bar{v}.$$

# Classification of $2 \times 2$ Matrices with no Real Eigenvalue

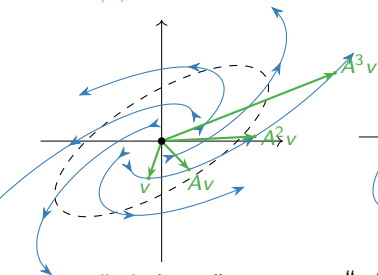
Triptych

Pictures of *sequence of vectors*  $v, Av, A^2v, \dots$   $M = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3}+1 & -2 \\ 1 & \sqrt{3}-1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$A = \sqrt{2}M$$

$$\lambda = \frac{\sqrt{3}-i}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|\lambda| > 1$$

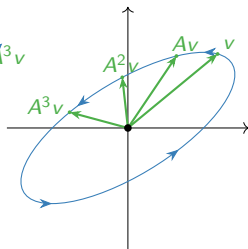


“spirals out”

$$A = M$$

$$\lambda = \frac{\sqrt{3}-i}{2}$$

$$|\lambda| = 1$$

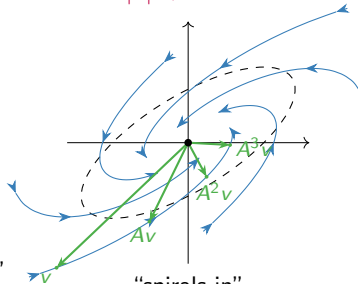


“rotates around an ellipse”

$$A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}M$$

$$\lambda = \frac{\sqrt{3}-i}{2\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|\lambda| < 1$$



“spirals in”

## Picture with 2 Real Eigenvalues

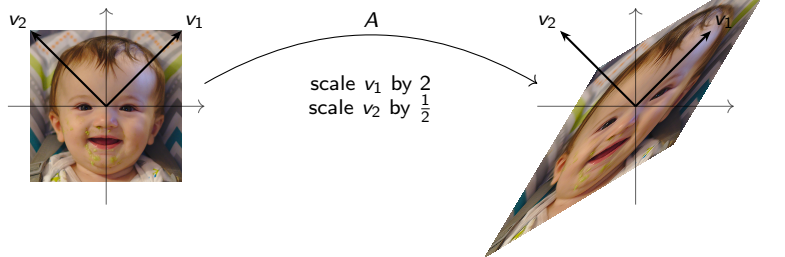
Recall the pictures for a matrix with 2 real eigenvalues.

**Example:** Let  $A = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$ .

This has eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 = 2$  and  $\lambda_2 = \frac{1}{2}$ , with eigenvectors

$$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

So  $A$  expands the  $v_1$ -direction by 2 and shrinks the  $v_2$ -direction by  $\frac{1}{2}$ .



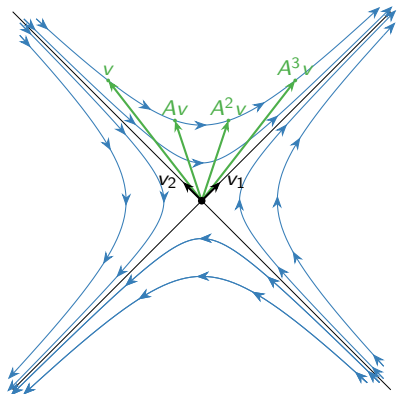
## Picture with 2 Real Eigenvalues

We can also draw the *sequence of vectors*  $v, Av, A^2v, \dots$

$$A = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 2 \qquad \lambda_2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|\lambda_1| > 1 \qquad |\lambda_2| < 1$$



**Exercise:**

Draw analogous pictures when  $|\lambda_1|, |\lambda_2|$  are any combination of  $< 1, = 1, > 1$ .