## 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.

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad f(\lambda)=\lambda^{2}+1
$$

## Complex Numbers

## Definition

The number $i$ is defined such that $i^{2}=-1$.
Now we have to allow all possible combinations $a+b i$

## Definition

A complex number is a number of the form $a+b i$ 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:


- C expands R: real numbers are written $a+0 i$.
- Vector representation of $a+b i$ : 2-coordinates $\binom{a}{b}$.
- What does it mean that $\binom{1}{0}$ and $\binom{0}{1}$ are linearly independent?


## Operations on Complex Numbers (I)

Addition: Same as vector addition $(a+b i)+(c+d i)=(a+b)+(b+d) i$.
Usually, vectors cannot be multiplied, but complex numbers can!

## Multiplication:

$$
(a+b i)(c+d i)=a c+(b c+a d) i+b d i^{2}=(a c-b d)+(b c+a d) i
$$

A plane representation of multiplication of $\{1,2,3, \ldots\}$ by complex $z=1+i$


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 $z=a+b i$, the complex conjugate of $z$ is $\bar{z}=a-b i$.

The following is a convenient definition because:

- If $z=a+b i$ then

$$
z \bar{z}=(a+b i)(a-b i)=a^{2}-b^{2} i^{2}=a^{2}+b^{2}
$$

which is a real number!

- Note that the length of the vector $\binom{a}{b}$ 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:

$$
\frac{1+i}{1-i}=\frac{(1+i)^{2}}{1^{2}+(-1)^{2}}=\frac{1+2 i+i^{2}}{2}=i
$$

## Notation and Polar coordinates

Real and imaginary part: $\operatorname{Re}(a+b i)=a \quad \operatorname{Im}(a+b i)=b$.
Absolute value: $|a+b i|=\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}$.

## Some properties

$$
\begin{aligned}
\overline{z+w} & =\bar{z}+\bar{w} & & |z|=\sqrt{z \bar{z}} \\
\overline{z w} & =\bar{z} \cdot \bar{w} & & |z w|=|z| \cdot|w|
\end{aligned}
$$

Any complex number $z=a+b i$ 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 coordiantes 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:

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



- 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 $f(x)=x^{n}+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{1} x+a_{0}$ then

$$
f(x)=\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)\left(x-\lambda_{2}\right) \cdots\left(x-\lambda_{n}\right)
$$

for (not necessarily distinct) complex numbers $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$.

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:

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

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

For real polynomials, the roots are complex conjugates if $b^{2}-4 c$ 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:

or


## The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

## Examples

## Example Degree 2:

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

$$
\lambda=\frac{\sqrt{2} \pm \sqrt{-2}}{2}=\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}(1 \pm i)=\frac{1 \pm i}{\sqrt{2}} .
$$

## 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 $\lambda-2$ : We get $f(\lambda)=(\lambda-2)\left(5 \lambda^{2}-8 \lambda+5\right)$. Using the quadratic formula, the second polynomial has a root when

$$
\lambda=\frac{8 \pm \sqrt{64-100}}{10}=\frac{4}{5} \pm \frac{\sqrt{-36}}{10}=\frac{4 \pm 3 i}{5}
$$

Therefore,

$$
f(\lambda)=5(\lambda-2)\left(\lambda-\frac{4+3 i}{5}\right)\left(\lambda-\frac{4-3 i}{5}\right)
$$

## Poll

The characteristic polynomial of

$$
A=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & -1 \\
1 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

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

Poll
Let's allow vectors with complex entries. What are the eigenvectors of $A$ ?

> the eigenvalue $\frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}}$ has eigenvector $\binom{i}{1}$. the eigenvalue $\frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}}$ has eigenvector $\binom{-i}{1}$.

Do you notice a pattern?

## 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:

$$
A v=\lambda \Longrightarrow A \bar{v}=\overline{A v}=\overline{\lambda v}=\bar{\lambda} \bar{v}
$$

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

## Triptych

Pictures of sequence of vectors $v, A v, A^{2} v, \ldots M=\frac{1}{2}\left(\begin{array}{cc}\sqrt{3}+1 & -2 \\ 1 & \sqrt{3}-1\end{array}\right)$ (in general, a real matrix with not real eigenvalues, depending on the length of eigenvalues).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A=\sqrt{2} M \\
& A=M \\
& \lambda=\frac{\sqrt{3}-i}{2} \\
& |\lambda|=1 \\
& \begin{array}{l}
A=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} M \\
\lambda=\frac{\sqrt{3}-i}{2 \sqrt{2}}
\end{array} \\
& |\lambda|<1
\end{aligned}
$$




## Picture with 2 Real Eigenvalues

Recall the pictures for a matrix with 2 real eigenvalues.
Example: Let $A=\frac{1}{4}\left(\begin{array}{ll}5 & 3 \\ 3 & 5\end{array}\right)$.
This has eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}=2$ and $\lambda_{2}=\frac{1}{2}$, with eigenvectors

$$
v_{1}=\binom{1}{1} \quad \text { and } \quad v_{2}=\binom{-1}{1}
$$

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 $v, A v, A^{2} v, \ldots$

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
A & =\frac{1}{4}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
5 & 3 \\
3 & 5
\end{array}\right) \\
\lambda_{1} & =2 & \lambda_{2} & =\frac{1}{2} \\
\left|\lambda_{1}\right| & >1 & & \left|\lambda_{1}\right|
\end{array}
$$



## Exercise:

Draw analogous pictures when $\left|\lambda_{1}\right|,\left|\lambda_{2}\right|$ are any combination of $<1,=1,>1$.

