

Unit 063 Complex vectors - an introduction

Slide 01: In this unit, we will see a brief recap on complex numbers and introduce vectors with complex numbers as its components. Some of concepts discussed earlier for vectors in \mathbb{R}^n will now be extended to vectors in \mathbb{C}^n .

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Slide 02: You probably recall that a complex number z is normally written as $a + bi$.
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a is known as the real part of z while b is the imaginary part.

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The modulus or absolute value of z is defined to be the square root of the sum $a^2 + b^2$.

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The complex number $z = a + bi$ has its complex conjugate \bar{z} which is $a - bi$.

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A simple algebraic simplification will reveal that the product of z with its conjugate will give us the square of the modulus of z .

Slide 03: When we represent the complex number $z = a + bi$ like in the figure shown here, the angle θ is known as the argument of z . You can also think of this as decomposing z into its real part and imaginary part.

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From the figure it is easy to see that the real part of z is the modulus of z multiplied by $\cos(\theta)$ while the imaginary part of z is the modulus of z multiplied by $\sin(\theta)$.

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Lastly, you may be familiar with the polar form of a complex number as shown here.

Slide 04: In all the previous units, we have discussed vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , where the components of a vector are all real numbers.

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For example, the vector \mathbf{u} is a vector in \mathbb{R}^3 since each of its 3 components are real numbers.

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Since complex numbers can be represented as $a + bi$, where i is the square root of -1 ,

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it is a natural extension to define the set \mathbb{C}^n to be the set of all vectors \mathbf{v} with n components and each component is a complex number.

Slide 05: For example, the vector \mathbf{v} shown here is a vector in \mathbb{C}^3 . Note that the second component of \mathbf{v} is 3, which is real, but which can also be considered as a complex number with no imaginary part.

Slide 06: As seen previously, we can split a vector in \mathbb{C}^n into real and imaginary parts. More precisely,

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if \mathbf{v} is the vector in \mathbb{C}^n shown here,

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we can rewrite \mathbf{v} as the vector with components a_1, a_2 and so on plus i times the vector with components b_1, b_2 and so on.

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The first vector with components a_1, a_2 and so on is called the real part of \mathbf{v} while the second vector with components b_1, b_2 and so on is called the imaginary part of \mathbf{v} . So we have rewritten \mathbf{v} as $\text{Re}(\mathbf{v})$ plus i times $\text{Im}(\mathbf{v})$.

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By definition of conjugates, the conjugate of \mathbf{v} would be the following vector

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which can also be splitted into the real and imaginary parts.

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Thus the conjugate of \mathbf{v} is $\text{Re}(\mathbf{v})$ minus i times $\text{Im}(\mathbf{v})$.

Slide 07: Let us see some algebraic properties of complex conjugates. Suppose \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are vectors in \mathbb{C}^n and k is a scalar. Then

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it is clear that the conjugate of \mathbf{u} conjugate is just \mathbf{u} itself.

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The conjugate of the vector $k\mathbf{u}$ is the conjugate of k times the conjugate of \mathbf{u} .

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The conjugate of the sum $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ is the sum of the two conjugate vectors.

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And similarly, the conjugate of the difference $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ is the difference of the two conjugate vectors.

Slide 08: Analogous to the dot product between vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , we also have the complex dot product between vectors in \mathbb{C}^n . Let \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} be vectors in \mathbb{C}^n with components as shown.

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The complex dot product of \mathbf{u} with \mathbf{v} is defined as follows, where we multiply each component of \mathbf{u} with the conjugate of its corresponding component of \mathbf{v} and then sum up the n terms.

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The Euclidean norm of a vector \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{C}^n is similarly defined like its real vector counterparts. More precisely, it is the square root of the vector \mathbf{v} dot with itself.

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A unit vector is a vector with norm equals to 1

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and two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{C}^n are orthogonal if their complex dot product is 0.

Slide 09: Let us consider an example. Here we have two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{C}^3 .

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First, the complex dot product of \mathbf{u} with \mathbf{v} can be computed as follows. Recall that we multiply each component of \mathbf{u} with the conjugate of its corresponding component of \mathbf{v} and then sum up the three terms.

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A little simplification

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reveals the answer to be $-2 - 10i$.

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The complex dot product of \mathbf{v} with \mathbf{u} can be computed similarly.

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Again upon simplifying,

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we have the answer as $-2 + 10i$

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Notice that the two answers are in fact complex conjugates of each other. We will soon learn that this is by no means a coincidence.

Slide 10: The norm of \mathbf{u} is the square root of \mathbf{u} dot \mathbf{u}

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which gives us

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$\sqrt{13}$ as the norm of \mathbf{u} .

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Similarly, we can now compute the norm of \mathbf{v}

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which gives us $\sqrt{22}$ as the norm of \mathbf{v} .

Slide 11: The following theorem gives us some fundamental results involving complex dot products. Let \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} be vectors in \mathbb{C}^n and let k be a scalar. Now

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The complex dot product of \mathbf{u} with \mathbf{v} is the complex conjugate of the complex dot product of \mathbf{v} with \mathbf{u} . This is known as the antisymmetry property of complex dot product. Recall that if \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , then $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ will always be equals to $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$. This is obviously not the case for complex dot products.

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Similar to real vectors dot products, we also have the distributive property as shown here.

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The scalar k can be multiplied to the result $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ or multiplied to \mathbf{u} first then compute the dot product with \mathbf{v} . The two numerical results will be the same.

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The complex dot product of \mathbf{u} with $k\mathbf{v}$ is the conjugate of k multiplied with the complex dot product of \mathbf{u} with \mathbf{v} .

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Lastly, we have the analogous result from real vectors dot product in the sense that even if the vector \mathbf{v} is in \mathbb{C}^n , the dot product of \mathbf{v} with itself is still non negative. In fact, the only time where $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ is zero is when \mathbf{v} is the zero vector.

Slide 12: Let us turn our attention to a recent topic of eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a square matrix. This theorem states that if \mathbf{A} is a square matrix of order n where all

its entries are real numbers, then whenever λ is an eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} , the conjugate of λ will also be an eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} . Furthermore, if \mathbf{x} is an eigenvector of \mathbf{A} associated with λ , then the conjugate of \mathbf{x} will also be an eigenvector of \mathbf{A} associated with the conjugate of λ .

Slide 13: To best understand this result, we will look at an example. In this example, we would like to show that \mathbf{A} is diagonalizable by finding an invertible matrix \mathbf{P} with complex entries that will diagonalize \mathbf{A} .

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We start off in the same way as before, which is to compute the characteristic polynomial of \mathbf{A} .

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This simplifies to $\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 5$.

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The roots of the characteristic equation, in this case

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are the conjugate pair $2 + i$ and $2 - i$. Thus \mathbf{A} has two eigenvalues $2 + i$ and $2 - i$ which are conjugates of each other.

Slide 14: Let λ_1 be the eigenvalue $2 + i$. We will proceed to investigate the eigenspace E_{λ_1} by solving the homogeneous linear system as shown.

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While we perform elementary row operations, note that we are able to take a complex scalar multiple of one row to add to another row, as shown here.

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We arrive at the row-echelon form of the augmented matrix as shown here

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and this allows us to write a general solution for the system

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which leads us to the conclusion that the eigenspace E_{λ_1} is spanned by a single vector in \mathbb{C}^2 , namely the vector $\begin{pmatrix} 1 - i \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$.

Slide 15: Consider the second eigenspace E_{λ_2} . We will again solve the homogeneous linear system as shown

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and by performing the elementary row operation as shown, we have

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the following row-echelon form of the augmented matrix.

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This allows us to write down a general solution for the system

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which leads us to the conclusion that the eigenspace E_{λ_2} is spanned by a single vector in \mathbb{C}^2 , namely the vector $\begin{pmatrix} 1 + i \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$.

Slide 16: We now see the results of the previous theorem.

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The two eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} are indeed complex conjugates of each other.

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While their corresponding eigenvectors $\begin{pmatrix} 1-i \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1+i \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ are also complex conjugates of each other.

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If we let \mathbf{P} be the matrix as shown, where the columns of \mathbf{P} are once again the linearly independent eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} , we see that \mathbf{A} can now be written as \mathbf{PDP}^{-1}

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where the diagonal matrix \mathbf{D} would contain the two eigenvalues along the diagonal.

Slide 17: Let us summarise the main points in this unit.

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We started off with a quick review of complex numbers, giving definitions for terms like modulus and conjugate.

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We extended the definition of \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{C}^n . Remember that a vector in \mathbb{C}^n is one that has n components, each of which is a complex number.

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We also introduced complex dot product and saw some of its properties. Notice the difference between real vectors dot product and complex dot products.

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Lastly, we presented a theorem that states that complex eigenvalues always happen in pairs. In fact, so do their corresponding eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} .