

Section 5.5

Complex Eigenvalues

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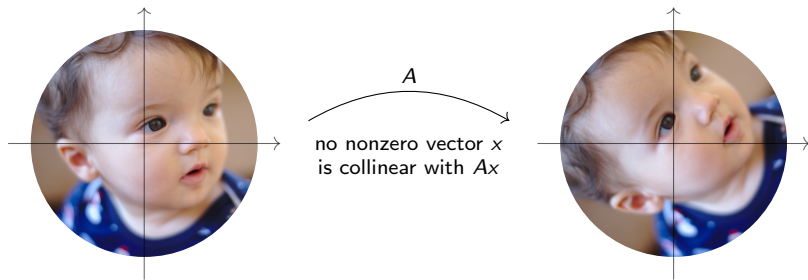
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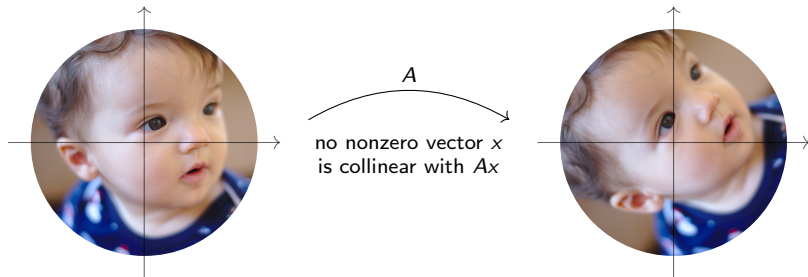


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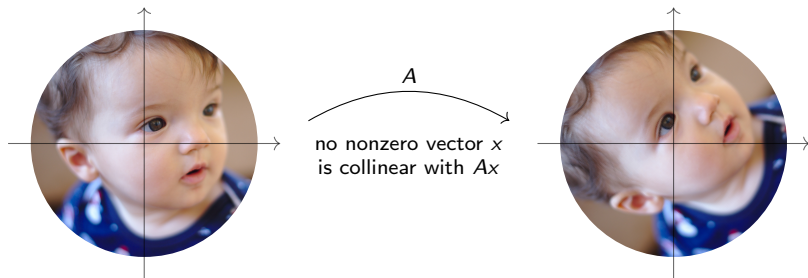
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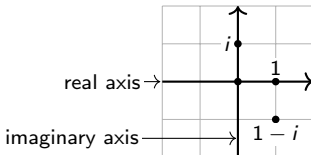
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We can identify \mathbf{C} with \mathbf{R}^2 by $a + bi \longleftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$. So when we draw a picture of \mathbf{C} , we draw the plane:



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An anachronistic historical aside

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So what's so strange about inventing a number i to solve the equation $x^2 + 1 = 0$?

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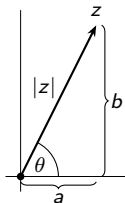
Real and imaginary part: $\operatorname{Re}(a + bi) = a$ $\operatorname{Im}(a + bi) = b$.

Polar Coordinates for Complex Numbers

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$$z = |z|(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta).$$

The angle θ is called the **argument** of z , and is denoted $\theta = \arg(z)$.

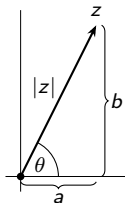


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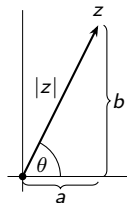


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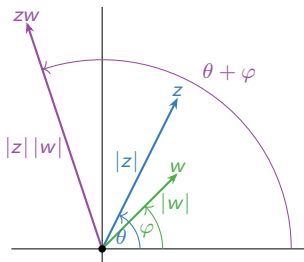
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When you multiply complex numbers, you multiply the absolute values and add the arguments:

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



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Equivalently, if $f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$ is a polynomial of degree n , then

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

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Important

If f is a polynomial with *real* coefficients, and if λ is a root of f , then so is $\bar{\lambda}$:

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

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

Important

If f is a polynomial with *real* coefficients, and if λ is a root of f , then so is $\bar{\lambda}$:

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

Therefore complex roots of real polynomials come in *conjugate pairs*.

The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

Examples

Degree 2: The quadratic formula gives you the (real or complex) roots of any degree-2 polynomial:

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

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Note the roots are complex conjugates if b, c are real.

The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

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Degree 3: A real cubic polynomial has either

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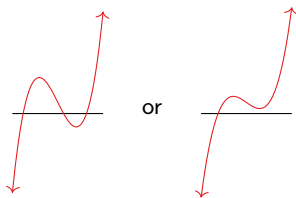
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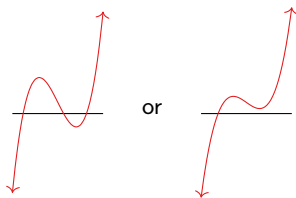


respectively.

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respectively.

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

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 $(1 \pm i)/\sqrt{2}$.

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Poll

Does A have any eigenvectors? If so, what are they?

A Matrix *with* an Eigenvector

Every matrix is guaranteed to have *complex* eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

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Using rotation by $\pi/4$ from before:

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So is $i \begin{pmatrix} -i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}$ (you can scale by *complex* numbers).

A Trick for Computing Eigenvectors of 2×2 Matrices

Very useful for complex eigenvalues

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Example:

$$A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda = \frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

Conjugate Eigenvectors

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

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Both eigenvalues and eigenvectors of real square matrices occur in conjugate pairs.

A 3×3 Example

Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{4}{5} & -\frac{3}{5} & 0 \\ \frac{3}{5} & \frac{4}{5} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

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$$\lambda = 2, \quad \frac{4+3i}{5}, \quad \frac{4-3i}{5}.$$

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We eyeball an eigenvector with eigenvalue 2 as $(0, 0, 1)$.

A 3×3 Example

Continued

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{4}{5} & -\frac{3}{5} & 0 \\ \frac{3}{5} & \frac{4}{5} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

To find the other eigenvectors, we row reduce:

Geometric Interpretation of Complex Eigenvectors

2×2 case

Theorem

Let A be a 2×2 matrix with complex (non-real) eigenvalue λ , and let v be an eigenvector. Then

$$A = PCP^{-1}$$

where

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} | & | \\ \operatorname{Re} v & \operatorname{Im} v \\ | & | \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} \operatorname{Re} \lambda & \operatorname{Im} \lambda \\ -\operatorname{Im} \lambda & \operatorname{Re} \lambda \end{pmatrix}.$$

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The matrix C is a composition of rotation by $-\arg(\lambda)$ and scaling by $|\lambda|$:

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} |\lambda| & 0 \\ 0 & |\lambda| \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos(-\arg(\lambda)) & -\sin(-\arg(\lambda)) \\ \sin(-\arg(\lambda)) & \cos(-\arg(\lambda)) \end{pmatrix}.$$

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A 2×2 matrix with complex eigenvalue λ is similar to (rotation by the argument of $\bar{\lambda}$) composed with (scaling by $|\lambda|$). This is multiplication by $\bar{\lambda}$ in $\mathbf{C} \sim \mathbf{R}^2$.

Geometric Interpretation of Complex Eigenvalues

2×2 example

What does $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ do geometrically?

Geometric Interpretation of Complex Eigenvalues

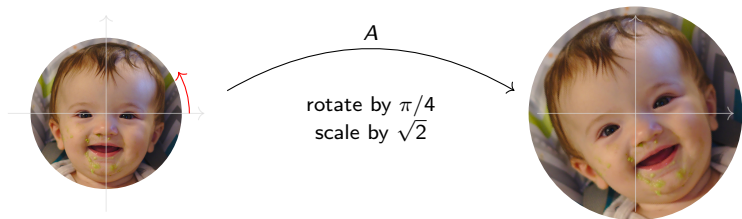
2×2 example, continued

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Geometric Interpretation of Complex Eigenvalues

Another 2×2 example

What does $A = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} + 1 & -2 \\ 1 & \sqrt{3} - 1 \end{pmatrix}$ do geometrically?

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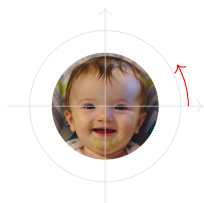
Another 2×2 example, continued

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Geometric Interpretation of Complex Eigenvalues

Another 2×2 example: picture

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C

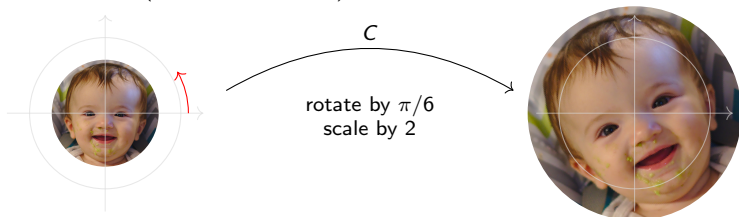
rotate by $\pi/6$
scale by 2



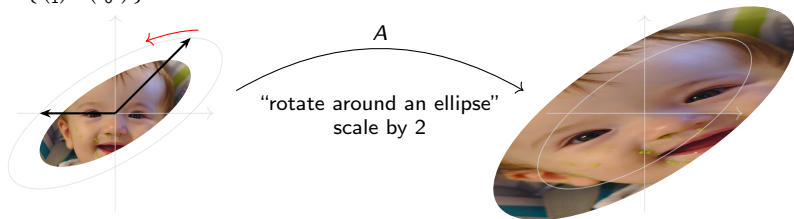
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$A = PCP^{-1}$ does the same thing, but with respect to the basis $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ of columns of P :



Classification of 2×2 Matrices with a Complex Eigenvalue

Triptych

Let A be a real matrix with a complex eigenvalue λ .

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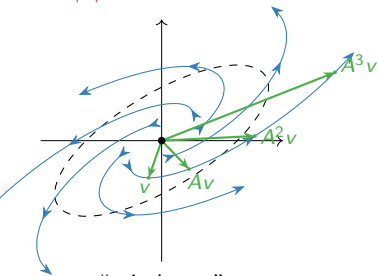
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$$|\lambda| > 1$$



"spirals out"

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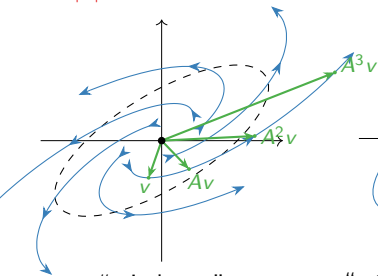
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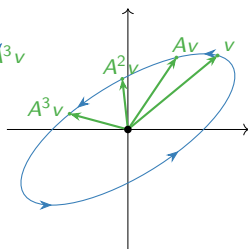
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"rotates around an ellipse"

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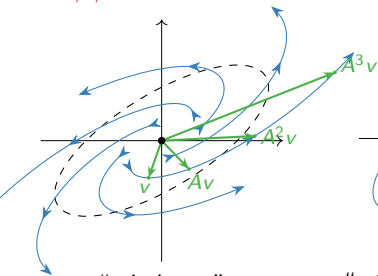
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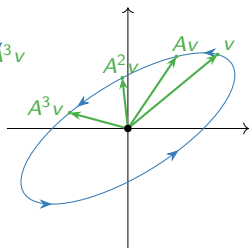


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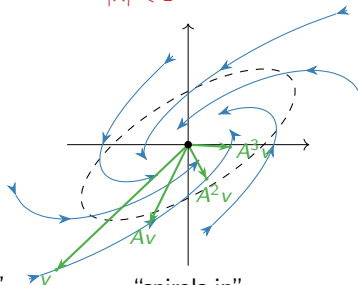


“rotates around an ellipse”

$$A = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3}+1 & -2 \\ 1 & \sqrt{3}-1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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“spirals in”

Complex Versus Two Real Eigenvalues

An analogy

Theorem

Let A be a 2×2 matrix with complex eigenvalue $\lambda = a + bi$ (where $b \neq 0$), and let v be an eigenvector. Then

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Let A be a 2×2 matrix with linearly independent eigenvectors v_1, v_2 and associated eigenvalues λ_1, λ_2 . Then

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scale x-axis by λ_1
scale y-axis by λ_2



Picture with 2 Real Eigenvalues

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

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

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Therefore, $A = PDP^{-1}$ with

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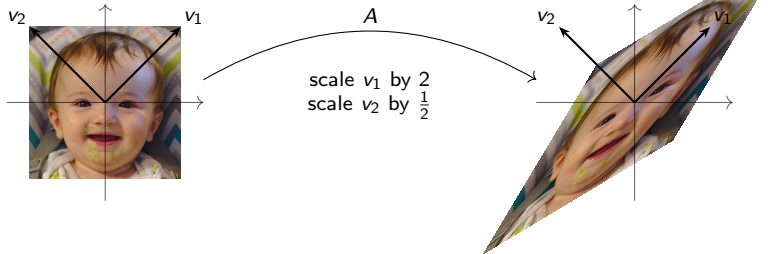
This has eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = 2$ and $\lambda_2 = \frac{1}{2}$, with eigenvectors

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

Therefore, $A = PDP^{-1}$ with

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

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



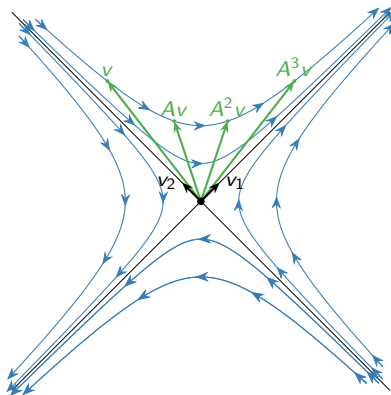
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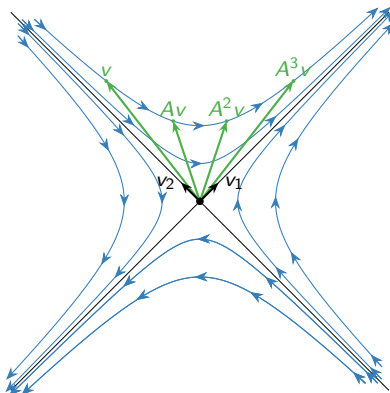
$$A = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_1 = 2 \quad \lambda_2 = \frac{1}{2}$$
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Exercise: Draw analogous pictures when $|\lambda_1|, |\lambda_2|$ are any combination of $< 1, = 1, > 1$.

The Higher-Dimensional Case

Theorem

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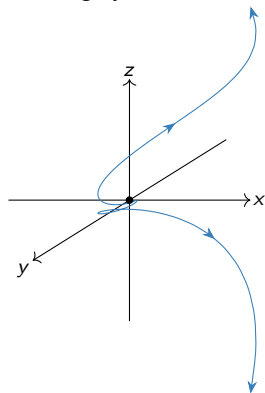
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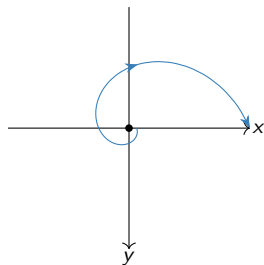
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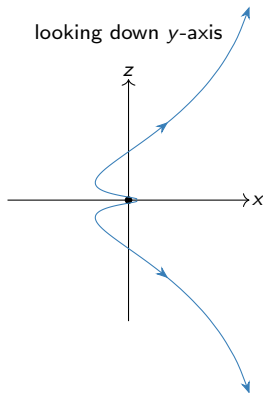
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from above



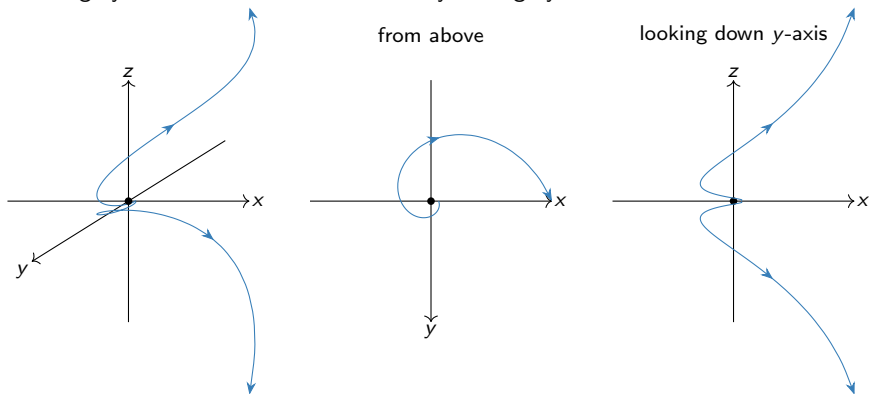
looking down y-axis



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Remember, in general $A = PCP^{-1}$ is only *similar* to such a matrix C : so the x, y, z axes have to be replaced by the columns of P .