

# Lecture VI

***Extensions to Complex Matrices, in particular Hermitian Matrices.***

***Key Notions:***

- \* Unitary matrices
- \* Unitary equivalence
- \* Schur's unitary triangularization
- \* QR factorization
- \* Congruence and simultaneous diagonalization

# Orthogonality Between Complex Vectors

Given any pair of (*complex*) vectors  $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ , the inner product is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, y \rangle &\triangleq y^* x \\ &= x_1 \bar{y}_1 + x_2 \bar{y}_2 + \cdots + x_n \bar{y}_n.\end{aligned}$$

They are said to be **orthogonal**, if

$$\langle x, y \rangle = 0.$$

# Facts about the Inner Product

It can be easily checked that the inner product enjoys the following properties:

- $\langle x, y + z \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \langle x, z \rangle, \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{C}^n.$
- $\langle x, \alpha y \rangle = \bar{\alpha} \langle x, y \rangle, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{C}, \text{ scalar.}$
- $\langle x, x \rangle = \begin{cases} \geq 0, & \forall x \in \mathbb{C}^n; \\ = 0, & \text{if and only if } x = 0. \end{cases}$

# Orthogonal & Orthonormal Sets of Vectors

- A set of vectors  $x^i \in \mathbb{C}^n$  is said to be **orthogonal**, if
$$\langle x^i, x^j \rangle = 0, \quad \forall 1 \leq i, j \leq k, i \neq j.$$
- A set of vectors  $x^i \in \mathbb{C}^n$  is said to be **orthonormal** if, additionally,  $\|x^i\| := \sqrt{\langle x^i, x^i \rangle} = 1, \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq k.$

## Remark

Any orthogonal set of **nonzero** vectors  $\{y^i\}_{i=1}^k$  can be made an orthonormal set, by defining

$$x^i := \frac{1}{\sqrt{\langle y^i, y^i \rangle}} y^i, \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq k.$$



# Fundamental Results

**1) Any orthogonal set of nonzero vectors is linearly independent.**

**2) Any orthonormal set of vectors is linearly independent.**

# Unitary Matrix

A matrix  $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is said to be **unitary** if  $U^*U = I$ . (Recall that  $U^* \triangleq \overline{U}^T$ )

Of course, a real orthogonal matrix  $O \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is unitary, but the converse is not true.  
Can you find some examples?

# Complex Orthogonal Matrix

A matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is said to be **complex orthogonal**, if:

$$A^T A = I.$$

Remark:

A complex orthogonal matrix is unitary if and only if it is real.



# Equivalent Characterizations

The following are equivalent:

- $U$  is unitary;
- $U$  is nonsingular and  $U^* = U^{-1}$ ;
- $UU^* = I$ ;
- $U^*$  is unitary;
- The columns of  $U$  form an orthonormal set;
- The rows of  $U$  form an orthonormal set;
- For any  $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ ,  $y = Ux$  satisfies  $y^* y = x^* x$ .

# Exercise

Are the following statements true or false?

1) For any given real parameters  $\theta_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,

$U = \text{diag} \{ e^{j\theta_k} \}$  is always unitary.

2) Any diagonal unitary matrix can always be put into the above form.

3) Any diagonalizable unitary matrix can be transformed to the above form.

# ***Question***

**How to apply a unitary matrix, instead of a real orthogonal matrix, to transform a Hermitian matrix into a canonical diagonal form?**

# Review: Canonical Form of a Real Symmetrical Matrix

Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be a real symmetric matrix. Then, it can be transformed into the diagonal form by using an orthogonal matrix  $O$  so that

$$O^T A O = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are the eigenvalues of  $A$ .

# Extension

It is possible to generalize this important result to (possibly complex) **Hermitian** matrices  $H$ , *i.e.*,  
 $H^* = H$ .

In this case, we use **unitary matrices**  $U$ , instead of orthogonal matrices, *i.e.*,  
 $U^*U = I$ .



# Examples

- The matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2+i \\ 2-i & -3 \end{pmatrix}$  is Hermitian.

- The matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2+i \\ 2+i & -3 \end{pmatrix}$  is **not** Hermitian,  
but is a complex symmetrical matrix.

# Eigenvalues of Hermitian Matrices

The eigenvalues of a Hermitian matrix are real, and eigenvectors associated with distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.

# Canonical Transformation

If  $H$  is a Hermitian matrix, there exists a unitary matrix  $U$  such that

$$U^* H U = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

In particular,  $U$  becomes a real orthogonal matrix when  $H$  is a real symmetric matrix.

# Idea of Proof

As in the case of real symmetric matrices, we use the **Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization Process**, noting the following:

For complex vectors  $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ , the inner product is defined as follows:

$$\langle x, y \rangle \triangleq \bar{y}^T x \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \bar{y}_i.$$

# Exercise

Compute the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  of

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2+i \\ 2-i & -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

and find a unitary matrix  $U$  that

reduces  $H$  to the diagonal form  $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$ .

(**Hint:** use  $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \bar{y}_i$  for *complex* vectors

$x, y$  in the orthogonalization process.)



# Schur's Unitary Triangularization

For *any* square, **not** necessarily Hermitian,  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , there is a unitary matrix  $U$  for which

$$U^*AU = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & * & \cdots & * \\ 0 & & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & * \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

with  $*$  being zero or nonzero scalars.

# Algorithm

*Step 1:* Take a normalized eigenvector  $x^1$  of  $A$  associated with an eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$ , and find  $(n-1)$  vectors  $\{y^2, \dots, y^n\}$  so that  $x^1, y^2, \dots, y^n$  are linearly independent.

# Algorithm

*Step 2:* Apply the Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization procedure to  $x^1, y^2, \dots, y^n$  to produce an orthonormal set  $x^1, z^2, \dots, z^n$ .

Define  $U_1 = \begin{bmatrix} x^1, z^2, \dots, z^n \end{bmatrix}$  which, clearly, is a unitary matrix.

# Algorithm

*Step 2 (cont'd):* Under  $U_1 = [x^1, z^2, \dots, z^n]$ ,

$$U_1^* A U_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & * \\ 0 & A_1 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ with } A_1 \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-1) \times (n-1)}.$$

Of course,  $A_1$  has eigenvalues  $\lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ .

# Algorithm

*Step 3:* For  $A_1 \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-1) \times (n-1)}$ , apply Steps 1-2

to arrive at an orthonormal set  $x^2, z_1^3, \dots, z_1^n$   
 $\in \mathbb{C}^{n-1}$  and a unitary matrix

$$U_2 = \begin{bmatrix} x^2, & z_1^3, & \dots, & z_1^n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-1) \times (n-1)}$$

so that

$$U_2^* A_1 U_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_2 & * \\ 0 & A_2 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ with } A_2 \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-2) \times (n-2)}$$



# Algorithm

*Step 4:* It is easy to check that,

$$V_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & U_2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } U_1 V_2 \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$$

are both unitary. In addition,

$$(U_1 V_2)^* A (U_1 V_2) = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & * & * & * \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & * & * \\ \text{---} & \text{---} & \text{---} & \text{---} \\ O_{(n-2) \times 2} & & A_2 & \end{pmatrix}$$

# Algorithm

*Last Step:* Continuing these steps to arrive at the last step, where we have produced unitary matrices  $U_i \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-i+1)(n-i+1)}$ , and  $V_i \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ ,  $i = 2, 3, \dots, n-1$  so that

- $U = U_1 V_2 \cdots V_{n-1}$ , and

- $U^* A U = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & * & \cdots & * \\ \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}.$

# Some Applications of Schur's Theorem

- **Useful for solving algebraic, differential or difference linear equations.**

***Do you know why?***

# Applications of Schur's Theorem

- **Cayley-Hamilton Theorem**

Let  $p_A(\lambda)$  be the characteristic polynomial of  $A$ ,  
*that is*,  $p_A(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A) = \lambda^n + \alpha_1 \lambda^{n-1} + \cdots + \alpha_n$ .  
Then,  $p_A(A) := A^n + \alpha_1 A^{n-1} + \cdots + \alpha_n I = 0$ .

**See the textbook of Horn & Johnson (2<sup>nd</sup> ed., 2013),  
pp. 109~110.**

# *Comment*

Cayley-Hamilton Theorem is extremely important in linear systems theory.



# Technical Remark

For any square  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , for any integer  $i \geq n$ , there exist constants  $c_{i1}, \dots, c_{in}$  such that

$$A^i = c_{i1}A^{n-1} + \dots + c_{in-1}A + c_{in}I, \quad \forall i \geq n.$$

# Exercise

Consider the matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

- Use Cayley-Hamilton Theorem to express  $A^2$ ,  $A^3$ ,  $A^4$  as linear combinations of  $A$ ,  $I$ .
- Use Cayley-Hamilton Theorem to find the inverse  $A^{-1}$ .

# QR Factorization

For any (possibly nonsquare) matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ ,  
with  $n \geq m$ ,  $\exists Q \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ ,  $R \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  such that

- The columns of  $Q$  form an orthonormal set,  
and  $R$  is an upper triangular matrix;
- $A = QR$ .

If, in addition,  $A$  is nonsingular, then the diagonal entries of  $R$  are positive. Moreover, in this case,  $Q$  and  $R$  are unique.

## ***Remark***

**The factors  $Q$  and  $R$  may be taken real, if  $A$  is a real matrix.**

***Proof:*** See the textbook, pp.89~90, for the constructive procedure closely tied to the Gram-Schmidt (G-S) algorithm.

# An Example

What is the  $QR$  factorization of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$



## Solution

For simplicity, denote  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} := (a^1 \ a^2)$ .

Then, let  $q^1 = a^1 / \|a^1\| = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \end{pmatrix}^T$  and,

like in the G-S process, compute

$$y^2 = a^2 - (q^{1*} a^2) q^1 = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{6}{5} & \frac{3}{5} \end{pmatrix}^T$$

## Solution (cont'd)

Now, let  $q^2 = y^2 / \|y^2\| = \begin{pmatrix} -2/\sqrt{5} & 1/\sqrt{5} \end{pmatrix}^T$ .

Set  $Q = (q^1 \ q^2)$  which, by construction, is orthonormal. Then,  $R = (r_{ij})$ , (with  $r_{kj} = 0 \forall k > j$ ) can be determined according to the general formula:

$$a^j = \sum_{k=1}^j r_{kj} q^k, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

**m = 2, here**

**R is upper-triangular.**

## Solution (end)

$$\text{So, } r_{11} = \sqrt{5}, \quad r_{21} = 0, \quad r_{12} = \frac{6}{\sqrt{5}}, \quad r_{22} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{5}}.$$

$$\text{That is: } R = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{5} & \frac{6}{\sqrt{5}} \\ 0 & \frac{3}{\sqrt{5}} \end{pmatrix}$$

It is directly verified that  $A = QR$ .

# Application to Cholesky factorization

By means of  $QR$  factorization, any matrix  $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  taking the form  $B = A^* A$ , with  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ , can be written as:  $\longrightarrow$  B: Positive semi-definite

$$B = LL^*, \text{ with } L \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \text{ lower triangular.}$$

Moreover, this factorization is unique, if  $A$  is nonsingular.

Indeed, it suffices to write  $A = QR$  to obtain  $L = R^*$ .

# QR Numerical Algorithm

**This is a powerful tool for computing the eigenvalues of a matrix.**



# QR Numerical Algorithm

*Step 1:* For any given  $A_0 \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ , factorize

$$A_0 = Q_0 R_0$$

*Step 2:* Define  $A_1 = R_0 Q_0$ , and factorize

$$A_1 = Q_1 R_1$$

Continuing this process, we have

$$\forall k \geq 1, \begin{cases} A_k = Q_k R_k \\ A_{k+1} = R_k Q_k \end{cases}$$

# Proposition

- Each  $A_k$  is unitarily equivalent to  $A_0$ , and thus they have the same eigenvalues.
- If  $A_0$  has distinct eigenvalues, then  $A_k$  converges to an upper triangular matrix.

# A Numerical Exercise

Use MATLAB simulation to validate the  $QR$  algorithm for the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

# Congruence

Consider two matrices  $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ .

- (1)  $B$  is said to be *\*congruent to*  $A$ , if  $B = SAS^*$  for some nonsingular matrix  $S$ .
- (2)  $B$  is said to be *congruent, or  $T$  congruent to*  $A$ , if  $B = SAS^T$  for some nonsingular matrix  $S$ .

Notice that both congruence are **equivalence relations**.  
(Horn-Johnson, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed., 2013; p. 281)



# Inertia

Consider a Hermitian matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ .

Its **inertia** is defined as the ordered triple:

$$i(A) = (i_+(A), i_-(A), i_0(A))$$

*where*

$i_+(A)$  = the number of positive eigenvalues of  $A$ ;

$i_-(A)$  = the number of negative eigenvalues of  $A$ ;

$i_0(A)$  = the number of zero eigenvalues of  $A$ .



# Sylvester's Law of Inertia

Hermitian matrices  $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  are  $*$ congruent if and only if they have the same inertia, i.e., the same number of positive eigenvalues and the same number of negative eigenvalues.

For the proof, see (Horn-Johnson, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed., 2013, p. 282)

# Simultaneous Diagonalization

Consider two Hermitian matrices  $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ .

There is a unitary matrix  $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  and real diagonal matrices  $\Lambda, M$  such that  $A=U\Lambda U^*$ ,  $B=UMU^*$  iff  $AB$  is Hermitian, that is,  $AB = BA$ .

See (Horn-Johnson, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, 2013, page 286.)

# Homework VI

1. Transform the following Hermitian matrix

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 5 & -6 \\ -1 & -6 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

into a diagonal form.

2. If a (real) Hermitian matrix  $H$  is positive definite, prove that  $H = P^2$ , for a positive definite matrix  $P$ .