

# Lec 35: Spectral Theory

## Eigenvalue Decomposition

## Preliminary: Complex Numbers to Complex Arrays

# Complex Numbers

In what follows, we assume all scalars, vectors, and matrices may be complex.

## Notation.

- $\mathbb{R}$ : the set of all real numbers
- $\mathbb{C}$ : the set of all complex numbers, *i.e.*,

$$\{z = x + iy \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}\} \quad \text{where } i = \sqrt{-1}.$$

# Complex Numbers in MATLAB

Let  $z = x + iy \in \mathbb{C}$ .

MATLAB	Name	Notation
<code>real(z)</code>	real part of $z$	$\operatorname{Re} z$
<code>imag(z)</code>	imaginary part of $z$	$\operatorname{Im} z$
<code>conj(z)</code>	conjugate of $z$	$\bar{z}$
<code>abs(z)</code>	modulus of $z$	$ z $
<code>angle(z)</code>	argument of $z$	$\arg(z)$

# Euler's Formula

- Recall that the Maclaurin series for  $e^t$  is

$$e^t = 1 + t + \frac{t^2}{2} + \cdots + \frac{t^n}{n!} + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!}, \quad -\infty < t < \infty.$$

- Replacing  $t$  by  $it$  and separating real and imaginary parts (using the cyclic behavior of powers of  $i$ ), we obtain

$$e^{it} = \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k t^{2k}}{(2k)!}}_{\cos(t)} + i \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k t^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}}_{\sin(t)}$$

- The result is called the **Euler's formula**.

$$e^{it} = \cos(t) + i \sin(t).$$

# Polar Representation and Complex Exponential

- **Polar representation:** A complex number  $z = x + iy \in \mathbb{C}$  can be written as  $z = re^{i\theta}$  where

$$r = |z|, \quad \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}.$$

- **Complex exponentiation:**

$$e^z = e^{x+iy} = e^x e^{iy} = e^x (\cos y + i \sin y).$$

# Complex Vectors

Denote by  $\mathbb{C}^n = \mathbb{C}^{n \times 1}$  the space of all column vectors of  $n$  *complex* elements.

- The **hermitian** or **conjugate transpose** of  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{C}^n$  is denoted by  $\mathbf{u}^*$ :

$$\mathbf{u}^* \in \mathbb{C}^{1 \times n}.$$

- The inner product of  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$  is defined by

$$\mathbf{u}^* \mathbf{v} = \sum_{k=1}^n \bar{u}_k v_k.$$

The 2-norm for complex vectors is defined in terms of this inner product:

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_2^2 = \mathbf{u}^* \mathbf{u}.$$

# Complex Matrices

Denote by  $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  the space of all complex matrices with  $m$  rows and  $n$  columns.

- The **hermitian** or conjugate transpose of  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  is denoted by  $A^*$ :

$$A^* = (\overline{A})^T = \overline{(A^T)} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}.$$

- A **unitary** matrix is a complex analogue of an orthogonal matrix. If  $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is unitary, then

$$U^*U = UU^* = I$$

and

$$\|U\mathbf{z}\|_2 = \|\mathbf{z}\|_2, \quad \text{for any } \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n.$$



# Complex Matrices: Some Analogies

	Real	Complex
Norm	$\ \mathbf{v}\ _2 = \sqrt{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}}$	$\ \mathbf{u}\ _2 = \sqrt{\mathbf{u}^* \mathbf{u}}$
Symmetry	$S^T = S$ (symmetric matrix)	$S^* = S$ (hermitian matrix)
Orthonormality	$Q^T Q = I$ (orthogonal matrix)	$U^* U = I$ (unitary matrix)
Householder	$H = I - \frac{2}{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T$	$H = I - \frac{2}{\mathbf{u}^* \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}^*$

## Eigenvalue Decomposition (EVD)

# Eigenvalue Decomposition

## Eigenvalue Problem

Find a scalar **eigenvalue**  $\lambda$  and an associated nonzero **eigenvector**  $\mathbf{v}$  satisfying

$$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}.$$

- The **spectrum** of  $A$  is the set of all eigenvalues; the **spectral radius** is  $\max_j |\lambda_j|$ .

- The problem is equivalent to

$$(\lambda I - A)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}.$$

- An eigenvalue of  $A$  is a root of the **characteristic polynomial**

$$\det(\lambda I - A).$$

# Eigenvalue Decomposition (cont')

Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  and suppose that  $A\mathbf{v}_k = \lambda_k \mathbf{v}_k$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}[1, n]$ .

- Then

$$\begin{bmatrix} A\mathbf{v}_1 & A\mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & A\mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 & \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix},$$

$$A \left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\implies AV = VD.$$

(works for any square matrix.)

- If  $V$  is nonsingular, we can further write

$$A = VDV^{-1},$$

which is called an **eigenvalue decomposition (EVD)** of  $A$ . If  $\mathbf{v}$  is an eigenvector of  $A$ , then so is  $c\mathbf{v}$ ,  $c \neq 0$ . Thus an EVD is not unique.

# Eigenvalue Decomposition (cont')

If  $A$  has an EVD, we say that  $A$  is **diagonalizable**; otherwise **nondiagonalizable**.

## Theorem 1 (Diagonalizability)

If  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  has  $n$  distinct eigenvalues, then  $A$  is diagonalizable.

### Notes.

- Let  $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ . We say that  $B$  is **similar** to  $A$  if there exists a nonsingular matrix  $X$  such that

$$B = XAX^{-1}.$$

- So *diagonalizability is similarity to a diagonal matrix*.
- Similar matrices share the same eigenvalues.

# Calculating EVD in MATLAB

- $E = \text{eig}(A)$   
produces a column vector  $E$  containing the eigenvalues of  $A$ .
- $[V, D] = \text{eig}(A)$   
produces  $V$  and  $D$  in an EVD of  $A$ ,  $A = VDV^{-1}$ .

# Understanding EVD: Change of Basis

Let  $X \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  be a nonsingular matrix.

- The columns  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  of  $X$  form a basis of  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .
- Any  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$  is uniquely written as

$$\mathbf{z} = X\mathbf{u} = u_1\mathbf{x}_1 + u_2\mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + u_n\mathbf{x}_n.$$

- The scalars  $u_1, \dots, u_n$  are called the **coordinates** of  $\mathbf{z}$  with respect to the columns of  $X$ .
- The vector  $\mathbf{u} = X^{-1}\mathbf{z}$  is the representation of  $\mathbf{z}$  with respect to the basis consisting of the columns of  $X$ .

## Upshot

Left-multiplication by  $X^{-1}$  performs a **change of basis** into the coordinates associated with the columns of  $X$ .

## Understanding EVD: Change of Basis (cont')

Suppose  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  has an EVD  $A = VDV^{-1}$ . Then, for any  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{z}$  can be written as

$$V^{-1}\mathbf{y} = D V^{-1}\mathbf{z}.$$

### Interpretation

The matrix  $A$  is a diagonal transformation in the coordinates with respect to the  $V$ -basis.



# What Is EVD Good For?

Suppose  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  has an EVD  $A = VDV^{-1}$ .

- Economical computation of powers  $A^k$ :

$$A^k = VD^kV^{-1}.$$

- Analyzing convergence of iterates  $(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots)$  constructed by

$$\mathbf{x}_{j+1} = A\mathbf{x}_j, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots$$

If  $\mathbf{x}_1$  is an eigenvector associated to eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , then

$$\mathbf{x}_1 \longrightarrow \lambda\mathbf{x}_1 \longrightarrow \lambda^2\mathbf{x}_1 \longrightarrow \dots \longrightarrow \lambda^{k-1}\mathbf{x}_1 \longrightarrow \dots$$

# Conditioning of Eigenvalues

## Theorem 2 (Bauer-Fike)

Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  be diagonalizable,  $A = VDV^{-1}$ , with eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ . If  $\mu$  is an eigenvalue of  $A + \delta A$  for a complex matrix  $\delta A$ , then

$$\min_{1 \leq j \leq n} |\mu - \lambda_j| \leq \kappa_2(V) \|\delta A\|_2.$$