MATH 304

Linear Algebra

Lecture 24: Complexification. Orthogonal matrices. Rotations in space.

Complex numbers

$\mathbb{C}$: complex numbers.

Complex number: $\boxed{z = x + iy,}$

where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and $i^2 = -1$.

$i = \sqrt{-1}$: imaginary unit

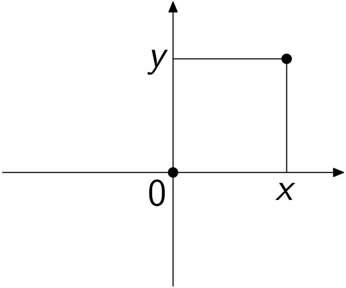
Alternative notation: $z = x + yi$.

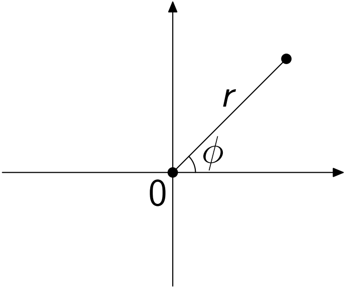
$x =$ real part of z,
$iy =$ imaginary part of z

$y = 0 \implies z = x$ (real number)
$x = 0 \implies z = iy$ (purely imaginary number)

Geometric representation

Any complex number $z = x + iy$ is represented by the vector/point $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$.





$x = r\cos\phi, \quad y = r\sin\phi$

$\implies \; z = r(\cos\phi + i\sin\phi) = re^{i\phi}.$

Fundamental Theorem of Algebra
Any polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$, with complex coefficients, has exactly n roots (counting with multiplicities).

Equivalently, if

$$p(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 z + a_0,$$

where $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$ and $a_n \neq 0$, then there exist complex numbers $z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n$ such that

$$p(z) = a_n (z - z_1)(z - z_2) \ldots (z - z_n).$$

Complex eigenvalues/eigenvectors

Example. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. $\det(A - \lambda I) = \lambda^2 + 1$.

Characteristic roots: $\lambda_1 = i$ and $\lambda_2 = -i$.

Associated eigenvectors: $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1, -i)$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, i)$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = i \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = -i \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}.$$

$\mathbf{v}_1$, $\mathbf{v}_2$ is a basis of eigenvectors. *In which space?*

Complexification

Instead of the real vector space $\mathbb{R}^2$, we consider a complex vector space $\mathbb{C}^2$ (all complex numbers are admissible as scalars).

The linear operator $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$, $f(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ is replaced by the complexified linear operator $F : \mathbb{C}^2 \to \mathbb{C}^2$, $F(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$.

The vectors $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1, -i)$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, i)$ form a basis for $\mathbb{C}^2$.

Dot product of complex vectors

Dot product of real vectors
$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \cdots + x_n y_n.$$

Dot product of complex vectors
$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \in \mathbb{C}^n$:

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1 \overline{y_1} + x_2 \overline{y_2} + \cdots + x_n \overline{y_n}.$$

If $z = r + it$ $(t, s \in \mathbb{R})$ then $\overline{z} = r - it$,
$z\overline{z} = r^2 + t^2 = |z|^2$.

Hence $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = |x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \cdots + |x_n|^2 \geq 0$.

Also, $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$.

The norm is defined by $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$.

Normal matrices

Definition. An $n \times n$ matrix A is called

- **symmetric** if $A^T = A$;
- **orthogonal** if $AA^T = A^T A = I$, i.e., $A^T = A^{-1}$;
- **normal** if $AA^T = A^T A$.

Theorem Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix with real entries. Then

(a) A is normal $\iff$ there exists an orthonormal basis for $\mathbb{C}^n$ consisting of eigenvectors of A;

(b) A is symmetric $\iff$ there exists an orthonormal basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$ consisting of eigenvectors of A.

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

- A is symmetric.
- A has three eigenvalues: 0, 2, and 3.
- Associated eigenvectors are $\mathbf{v}_1 = (-1, 0, 1)$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, 0, 1)$, and $\mathbf{v}_3 = (0, 1, 0)$, respectively.
- Vectors $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{v}_1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$ form an orthonormal basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$.

Theorem Suppose A is a normal matrix. Then for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ one has

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \iff A^T\mathbf{x} = \overline{\lambda}\mathbf{x}.$$

Thus any normal matrix A shares with A^T all real eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors. Also, $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \iff A\overline{\mathbf{x}} = \overline{\lambda}\,\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ for any matrix A with real entries.

Corollary All eigenvalues λ of a symmetric matrix are real ($\overline{\lambda} = \lambda$). All eigenvalues λ of an orthogonal matrix satisfy $\overline{\lambda} = \lambda^{-1} \iff |\lambda| = 1$.

Example. $A_\phi = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\phi & -\sin\phi \\ \sin\phi & \cos\phi \end{pmatrix}$.

- $A_\phi A_\psi = A_{\phi+\psi}$
- $A_\phi^{-1} = A_{-\phi} = A_\phi^T$
- A_ϕ is orthogonal
- $\det(A_\phi - \lambda I) = (\cos\phi - \lambda)^2 + \sin^2\phi$.
- Eigenvalues: $\lambda_1 = \cos\phi + i\sin\phi = e^{i\phi}$,
$\lambda_2 = \cos\phi - i\sin\phi = e^{-i\phi}$.
- Associated eigenvectors: $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1, -i)$,
$\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, i)$.
- Vectors $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{v}_2$ form an orthonormal basis for $\mathbb{C}^2$.

Consider a linear operator $L : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$, $L(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$, where A is an $n\times n$ orthogonal matrix.

Theorem There exists an orthonormal basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$ such that the matrix of L relative to this basis has a diagonal block structure

$$\begin{pmatrix} D_{\pm 1} & O & \dots & O \\ O & R_1 & \dots & O \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ O & O & \dots & R_k \end{pmatrix},$$

where $D_{\pm 1}$ is a diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are equal to 1 or -1, and

$$R_j = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\phi_j & -\sin\phi_j \\ \sin\phi_j & \cos\phi_j \end{pmatrix}, \ \ \phi_j \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Why are orthogonal matrices called so?

Theorem Given an $n \times n$ matrix A, the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) A is orthogonal: $A^T = A^{-1}$;
(ii) columns of A form an orthonormal basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$;
(iii) rows of A form an orthonormal basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

Proof: Entries of the matrix $A^T A$ are dot products of columns of A. Entries of AA^T are dot products of rows of A.

Thus an orthogonal matrix is the transition matrix from one orthonormal basis to another.

Consider a linear operator $L : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$, $L(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$, where A is an $n\times n$ matrix.

Theorem The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $|L(\mathbf{x})| = |\mathbf{x}|$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$;
(ii) $L(\mathbf{x}) \cdot L(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ for all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$;
(iii) the matrix A is orthogonal.

Definition. A transformation $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is called an **isometry** if it preserves distances between points: $|f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{y})| = |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|$.

Theorem Any isometry $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ can be represented as $f(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}_0$, where $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and A is an orthogonal matrix.

Classification of 2×2 orthogonal matrices:

	$\begin{pmatrix} \cos\phi & -\sin\phi \\ \sin\phi & \cos\phi \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
	rotation about the origin	reflection in a line
Determinant:	1	-1
Eigenvalues:	$e^{i\phi}$ and $e^{-i\phi}$	-1 and 1

Classification of 3×3 orthogonal matrices:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\phi & -\sin\phi \\ 0 & \sin\phi & \cos\phi \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

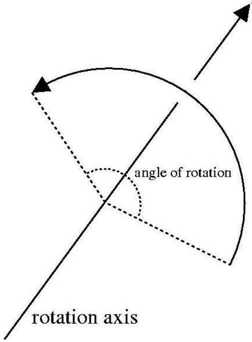
$$C = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\phi & -\sin\phi \\ 0 & \sin\phi & \cos\phi \end{pmatrix}.$$

$A =$ rotation about a line; $B =$ reflection in a plane; $C =$ rotation about a line combined with reflection in the orthogonal plane.

$\det A = 1$, $\det B = \det C = -1$.

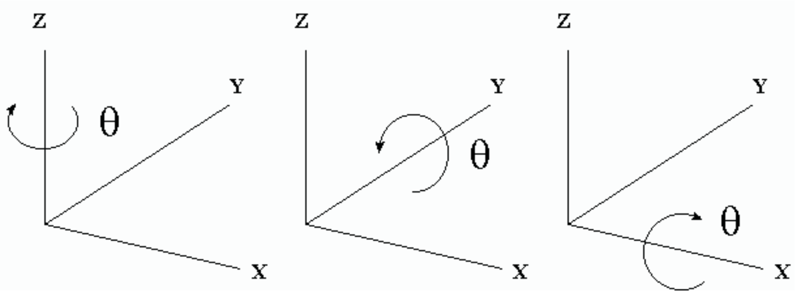
A has eigenvalues 1, $e^{i\phi}$, $e^{-i\phi}$. B has eigenvalues -1, 1, 1. C has eigenvalues -1, $e^{i\phi}$, $e^{-i\phi}$.

Rotations in space



If the axis of rotation is oriented, we can say about *clockwise* or *counterclockwise* rotations (with respect to the view from the positive semi-axis).

Clockwise rotations about coordinate axes



$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta & 0 \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & 0 & -\sin\theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin\theta & 0 & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ 0 & -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix}$$

Problem. Find the matrix of the rotation by 90^{o} about the line spanned by the vector $\mathbf{c} = (1, 2, 2)$. The rotation is assumed to be counterclockwise when looking from the tip of $\mathbf{c}$.

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$ is the matrix of (counterclockwise) rotation by 90^{o} about the z-axis.

We need to find an orthonormal basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$ such that $\mathbf{v}_3$ has the same direction as $\mathbf{c}$. Also, the basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$ should obey the same hand rule as the standard basis. Then B is the matrix of the given rotation relative to the basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$.

Let U denote the transition matrix from the basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$ to the standard basis (columns of U are vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$). Then the desired matrix is $A = UBU^{-1}$.

Since $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$ is going to be an orthonormal basis, the matrix U will be orthogonal. Then $U^{-1} = U^T$ and $A = UBU^T$.

Remark. The basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$ obeys the same hand rule as the standard basis if and only if $\det U > 0$.

Hint. Vectors $\mathbf{a} = (-2, -1, 2)$, $\mathbf{b} = (2, -2, 1)$, and $\mathbf{c} = (1, 2, 2)$ are orthogonal.

We have $|\mathbf{a}| = |\mathbf{b}| = |\mathbf{c}| = 3$, hence $\mathbf{v}_1 = \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{b}$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{c}$ is an orthonormal basis.

Transition matrix: $U = \frac{1}{3}\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$\det U = \frac{1}{27}\begin{vmatrix} -2 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{27} \cdot 27 = 1.$$

(In the case $\det U = -1$, we should interchange vectors $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$.)

$$A = UBU^T$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \frac{1}{3}\begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{9}\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{9}\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 8 \\ 8 & 4 & 1 \\ -4 & 7 & 4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$U = \frac{1}{3}\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{is an orthogonal matrix.}$$

$\det U = 1 \implies U$ is a rotation matrix.

Problem. (a) Find the axis of the rotation.
(b) Find the angle of the rotation.

The axis is the set of points $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \iff (U - I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. To find the axis, we apply row reduction to the matrix $3(U - I)$:

$$3U - 3I = \begin{pmatrix} -5 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -5 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \to \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 3 & 0 \\ -1 & -5 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\to \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -5 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \to \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -6 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \to$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -6 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \to \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \to \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\to \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \to \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1/3 \\ 0 & 1 & -1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \iff \begin{cases} x - z/3 = 0 \\ y - z/3 = 0 \end{cases}$

The general solution is $x = y = t/3$, $z = t$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$.
$\implies$ $\mathbf{d} = (1, 1, 3)$ is the direction of the axis.

$$U = \frac{1}{3}\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Let ϕ be the angle of rotation. Then the eigenvalues of U are 1, $e^{i\phi}$, and $e^{-i\phi}$. Therefore

$$\det(U - \lambda I) = (1 - \lambda)(e^{i\phi} - \lambda)(e^{-i\phi} - \lambda).$$

Besides, $\det(U - \lambda I) = -\lambda^3 + c_1\lambda^2 + c_2\lambda + c_3$, where $c_1 = \mathrm{Tr}\, U$ (the sum of diagonal entries). It follows that

$$\mathrm{Tr}\, U = 1 + e^{i\phi} + e^{-i\phi} = 1 + 2\cos\phi.$$

$$\mathrm{Tr}\, U = -2/3 \implies \cos\phi = -5/6 \implies \phi \approx 146.44^{\mathrm{o}}$$