

5.5. Complex Vector spaces. Complex Eigenvalues

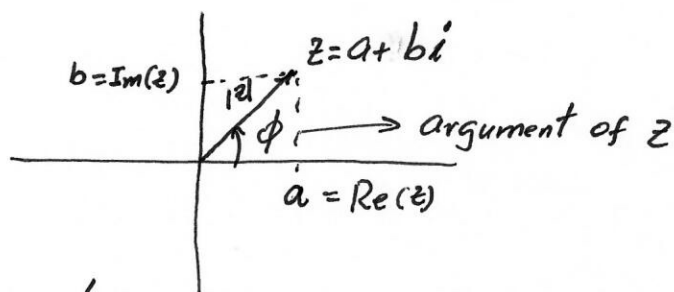
Complex Numbers:

$$z = 3 + 2i \quad \operatorname{Re}(z) = 3, \quad \operatorname{Im}(z) = 2$$

$$|z| = \sqrt{9+4} = \sqrt{13} : \text{Modulus}$$

Conjugate: $\bar{z} = 3 - 2i$, $z\bar{z} = (3+2i)(3-2i) = 9+4 = 13 = |z|^2$

Polar form:



$$\operatorname{Re}(z) = |z| \cos \phi, \quad \operatorname{Im}(z) = |z| \sin \phi$$

$$z = |z| (\cos \phi + \sin \phi i) \text{ Polar form of } z.$$

Complex Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors.

Consider

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Charact. Polyn: } |A - \lambda I| = P(\lambda) = \begin{vmatrix} -2-\lambda & -1 \\ 5 & 2-\lambda \end{vmatrix} =$$

$$= -(2+\lambda)(2-\lambda) + 5 = -(2^2 - \lambda^2) + 5$$

$$= \lambda^2 + 1$$

So Eigenvalues of A satisfy $P(\lambda) = \lambda^2 + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = i, \lambda_2 = -i$
 $\lambda = \pm \sqrt{-1}$

We conclude that a polynomial $P(\lambda) = \lambda^2 + 1$ with real coefficients can have complex roots.

$$\lambda_1 = i, \quad \lambda_2 = -i$$

And $P(\lambda)$ can be written as

$$P(\lambda) = \lambda^2 + 1 = (\lambda - i)(\lambda + i).$$

Def. (Complex Vector Space)

A vector space V in which scalars are allowed to be complex numbers is called a Complex Vector space

Def. ($\mathbb{C}^n$).

$\mathbb{C}^n$ is the vector space formed by

the complex vectors $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix}$, where $u_i \in \mathbb{C}$.

and the operations are the regular addition Componentwise and scalar multiplication where the scalars are $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

Prove $\mathbb{C}^n$ with the above operations is a vector space

Vectors in $\mathbb{C}^3$

$$\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 3-i \\ 5+2i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 2-i \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\operatorname{Re}(\vec{u}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \operatorname{Im}(\vec{u}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{u} = \operatorname{Re}(\vec{u}) + i\operatorname{Im}(\vec{u}).$$

Complex matrix 2×2 .

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2-i \\ 5-2i & 3i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\operatorname{Re}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \operatorname{Im}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \operatorname{Re}(A) + i\operatorname{Im}(A)$$

Complex Conjugate of A

$$\bar{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2+i \\ 5+2i & -3i \end{bmatrix}$$

Algebraic properties of the Complex Conjugate.

$$a) \bar{\bar{u}} = u, \quad b) \overline{k\bar{u}} = \bar{k} u, \quad k \in \mathbb{C}, \quad u \in \mathbb{C}^n, \quad v \in \mathbb{C}^n$$

$$c) \overline{u+v} = \bar{u} + \bar{v}$$

$$d) \bar{\bar{A}} = A, \quad e) \overline{(A^T)} = (\bar{A})^T, \quad f) \overline{AB} = \bar{A} \bar{B}.$$

where $A_{m \times n}$, $B_{n \times n}$ are complex matrices.

Thm.

If λ is an eigenvalue of $A_{n \times n}$ ^{real matrix} and $\vec{x}$ is a corresponding eigenvector,

$$\boxed{A \vec{x} = \lambda \vec{x}}$$

then $\bar{\lambda}$ is an eigenvalue of A , and $\bar{\vec{x}}$ is a corresponding eigenvector.

$$\boxed{A \bar{\vec{x}} = \bar{\lambda} \bar{\vec{x}}}$$

Proof:

$$\overline{A \vec{x}} = \bar{A} \bar{\vec{x}} = A \bar{\vec{x}} \quad \text{A has real entries}$$

$$\text{Also } \overline{A \vec{x}} = \overline{\lambda \vec{x}} = \bar{\lambda} \bar{\vec{x}}$$

$$\Rightarrow A \bar{\vec{x}} = \bar{\lambda} \bar{\vec{x}} \Rightarrow \bar{\lambda} \text{ is an eigenvalue and } \bar{\vec{x}} \text{ is a corresponding eigenvector } \bar{\lambda}.$$

Remark: $z_1 = a_1 + ib_1 \Rightarrow \bar{z}_1 \bar{z}_2 = \overline{a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2 + i(a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1)} =$
 $z_2 = a_2 + ib_2 \Rightarrow \bar{z}_1 \bar{z}_2 = a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2 - i(a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1) = (a_1 - ib_1)(a_2 - ib_2) = \bar{z}_1 \bar{z}_2$

Consider

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 12 \\ -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

back

$$\det(A) = (-21)(24) = 504 \neq 0 \Rightarrow A \text{ invertible.}$$

Eigenvalues:

$$P(\lambda) = |A - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} -3-\lambda & 12 \\ -2 & 7-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$\Downarrow$
 $\lambda=0$ is not
 eigenvalue.

$$\text{or } -(3+\lambda)(7-\lambda) + 24 = 0$$

$$(\lambda-7)(\lambda+3) + 24 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lambda^2 - 4\lambda - 21 + 24 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 3 = 0 \Leftrightarrow (\lambda-3)(\lambda-1) = 0$$

or Eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 3$.

To find eigenvectors corresponding to $\boxed{\lambda_1 = 1}$

We need to find $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$ such that

$$(A - 1I)\vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

So

$$\begin{bmatrix} -3-1 & 12 \\ -2 & 7-1 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} = \vec{0} \Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 12 \\ -2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

What do we expect of the columns of A ?

Which is equivalent to the Linear System

$$\begin{cases} -4x_1 + 12x_2 = 0 & \text{Eq. (1)} \\ -2x_1 + 6x_2 = 0 & \text{Eq. (2)} \end{cases}$$

Obviously, Eq. (1) is a multiple of Eq. (2). Why is this expected?

So we can only use one of them to obtain x_1 and x_2

From Eq. (1) $\leadsto$ $\boxed{-4x_1 + 12x_2 = 0}$
 $\boxed{x_1 = 3x_2}$

Therefore,

$$\vec{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 3x_2 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

So $\lambda_1 = 1$ Eigenvalue $\vec{X}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ Corresp. eigenvector.

Reconsider the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

We already know eigenvalues are complex

$$\boxed{\lambda_1 = i, \quad \lambda_2 = -i}$$

To find eigenvectors corresponding to $\lambda_1 = i$

We need to solve the matrix equation:

$$(A - iI)\vec{x} = \vec{0}, \quad \vec{x} \neq \vec{0}.$$

Why are we sure that there are $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$ satisfying this equation?

$$(A - iI)\vec{x} = \vec{0} \Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -2-i & -1 \\ 5 & 2-i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

which is also equivalent to the linear system

$$\begin{cases} -(2+i)x_1 - x_2 = 0 & (5.1) \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} 5x_1 + (2-i)x_2 = 0 & (5.2) \end{cases}$$

What do we expect of the columns of A and the rows of A ?

Notice that

$$(2-i)(2+i) = 4 - (i)^2 = 4 + 1 = 5.$$

then row-reducing $A - iI$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2-i & -1 & 0 \\ 5 & 2-i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 2+i & +1 & 0 \\ 5 & 2-i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sim \begin{bmatrix} 2+i & +1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ row 2} - (2-i)(\text{row 1})$$

then, $(2+i)x_1 + x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 = -(2+i)x_1$

So for $\lambda_1 = i$
 eigenvectors are $x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -(2+i) \end{bmatrix}$ Examples: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2-i \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2-i \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$

Using that if λ is an eigenvalue with $\vec{v}$ assoc. eigenvector, then $A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$

An eigenvector for $\lambda_2 = -i = \bar{i} = \bar{\lambda}_1$

Should be

$$\bar{\vec{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2+i \end{bmatrix} \text{ and any multiple (complex) of this.}$$

Summarizing,

For $A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$P(\lambda) = \lambda^2 + 1$ is the characteristic polyn. of A .

Eigenvalues
are

$$\lambda_1 = i$$

$$\lambda_2 = -i = \bar{\lambda}_1$$

Corresponding
eigenvectors
are

$$\hat{V}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2-i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{V}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2+i \end{bmatrix} = \bar{\hat{V}}_1$$

So complex eigenvalues of a real matrix A
appear as conjugate pairs $\lambda, \bar{\lambda}$
and the corresponding eigenvectors are also
conjugates of one another.

(Alternative to pages 5' and 5'')

6

Notice that

$$(2-i) \times \text{Eq. (1)} \Leftrightarrow (2-i)(2+i)x_1 + (2-i)x_2 = 0$$

$$\text{or } 5x_1 + (2-i)x_2 = 0$$

Which is exactly Eq. (5.2)

So Eq (5.2) is a multiple of Eq. (5.1) as expected.

From this equation:

$$x_1 = \left(-\frac{2}{5} + \frac{1}{5}i\right)x_2$$

or

$$\vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{5} + \frac{1}{5}i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ eigenvectors corresponding to } \lambda_1 = i.$$

The Set $B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{5} + \frac{1}{5}i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to $\lambda_1 = i$.

We also know that $\lambda_2 = -i$

is an eigenvalue of A . We could proceed as above to find its corresponding eigenvectors, $\vec{z}$.

However using thm in page 4, we know

$$\lambda_2 = \overline{\lambda_1} = \overline{i} = -i \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{z} = \overline{\vec{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{5} - \frac{1}{5}i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is a corresponding eigenvector to } \lambda_2$$

Summarizing

For $A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$P(\lambda) = \lambda^2 + 1$ is the characteristic polynomial of A

Eigenvalues: $\lambda_1 = i$ and $\lambda_2 = \bar{\lambda}_1 = -i$

Eigenvectors:

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{5} + \frac{1}{5}i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{z} = \bar{\vec{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{5} - \frac{1}{5}i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice

$$\operatorname{Re}(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{5} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \operatorname{Im}(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{5} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\operatorname{Re}(\vec{z}) = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{5} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \operatorname{Im}(\vec{z}) = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{5} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 9.1

The eigenvalues of the real matrix

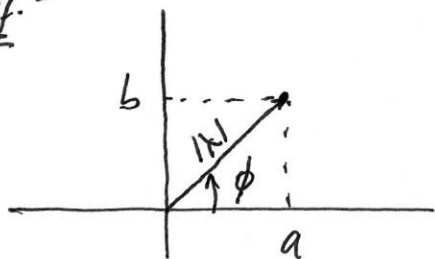
$$C = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

are $\lambda = a \pm ib$. If a or b are not ^{both} zero, then this matrix can be factored as

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} |\lambda| & 0 \\ 0 & |\lambda| \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{bmatrix} \quad (8.1)$$

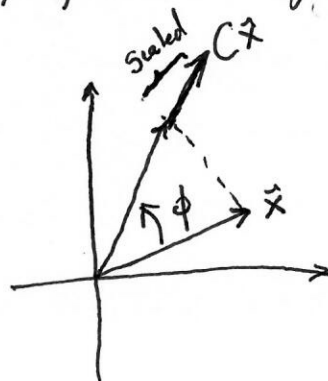
where ϕ is the angle from the positive x -axis to the ray that joins the origin to the point (a, b) .

Proof. -



$$\cos \phi = \frac{a}{|\lambda|}, \quad \sin \phi = \frac{b}{|\lambda|} \quad (8.2)$$

Equ. (8.1) means that $C\vec{x}$ can be viewed as a rotation of vector $\vec{x}$ by an angle ϕ followed by a scaling with factor $|\lambda|$.



$$P(\lambda) = |C - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} a - \lambda & -b \\ b & a - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (a - \lambda)^2 + b^2$$

$$\text{So } P(\lambda) = 0 \Leftrightarrow (a - \lambda)^2 = -b^2 \Rightarrow \boxed{\lambda = a \pm ib}$$

From (8.2), it follows

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} |\lambda| \cos \phi & -|\lambda| \sin \phi \\ |\lambda| \sin \phi & |\lambda| \cos \phi \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} |\lambda| & 0 \\ 0 & |\lambda| \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{bmatrix}$$

So $C\bar{x}$, means a rotation by a ϕ angle followed by a scaling through a factor $|\lambda|$.

Thm 9.2

1) $A_{2 \times 2}$ real matrix

2) $\lambda = a \pm ib$ Complex eigenvalues ($b \neq 0$)

3) $\bar{x}$ an eigenvector of A corresponding to $\lambda = a - ib$

$$4) P = [\operatorname{Re}(\bar{x}) \quad \operatorname{Im}(\bar{x})]$$

Then a) P is invertible.

and b)

$$A = P \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$$

In our previous example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda = \pm i$$

For $\lambda = -i$ Eigenvector $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{5} - \frac{1}{5}i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Then

$$P = [\operatorname{Re}(\vec{x}) \quad \operatorname{Im}(\vec{x})] = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{5} & -\frac{1}{5} \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

So according to thm 9.2

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \overset{P}{\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{5} & -\frac{1}{5} \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}} \overset{\begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}} \overset{P^{-1}}{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}}$$

Verify this!.

Geometrical Interpretation

Symmetric Matrices Have Real Eigenvalues

Our next result, which is concerned with the eigenvalues of real symmetric matrices, is important in a wide variety of applications. The key to its proof is to think of a real symmetric matrix as a complex matrix whose entries have an imaginary part of zero.

THEOREM 5.3.6 *If A is a real symmetric matrix, then A has real eigenvalues.*

Proof Suppose that λ is an eigenvalue of A and $\mathbf{x}$ is a corresponding eigenvector, where we allow for the possibility that λ is complex and $\mathbf{x}$ is in C^n . Thus,

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

where $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$. If we multiply both sides of this equation by $\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T$ and use the fact that

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T A \mathbf{x} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}^T (\lambda \mathbf{x}) = \lambda (\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{x}) = \lambda (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}) = \lambda \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$$

then we obtain

$$\lambda = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T A \mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|^2}$$

Since the denominator in this expression is real, we can prove that λ is real by showing that

$$\overline{\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T A \mathbf{x}} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}^T A \mathbf{x} \quad (14)$$

But, A is symmetric and has real entries, so it follows from the second equality in (14) and properties of the conjugate that

$$\overline{\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T A \mathbf{x}} = \overline{\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T} \overline{A \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}^T \overline{A \mathbf{x}} = (\overline{A \mathbf{x}})^T \mathbf{x} = (\overline{A \mathbf{x}})^T \mathbf{x} = (\overline{A \mathbf{x}})^T \mathbf{x} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}^T A \mathbf{x} \quad \blacktriangleleft$$

A Geometric Interpretation of Complex Eigenvalues

The following theorem is the key to understanding the geometric significance of complex eigenvalues of real 2×2 matrices.

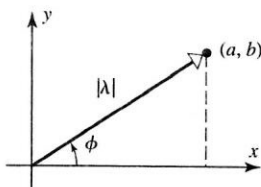
THEOREM 5.3.7 *The eigenvalues of the real matrix*

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} \quad (15)$$

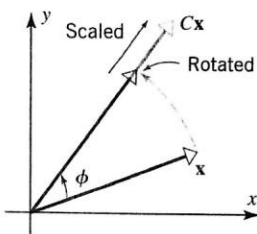
are $\lambda = a \pm bi$. If a and b are not both zero, then this matrix can be factored as

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} |\lambda| & 0 \\ 0 & |\lambda| \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{bmatrix} \quad (16)$$

where ϕ is the angle from the positive x -axis to the ray that joins the origin to the point (a, b) (Figure 5.3.2).



▲ Figure 5.3.2



▲ Figure 5.3.3

Geometrically, this theorem states that multiplication by a matrix of form (15) can be viewed as a rotation through the angle ϕ followed by a scaling with factor $|\lambda|$ (Figure 5.3.3).

Proof The characteristic equation of C is $(\lambda - a)^2 + b^2 = 0$ (verify), from which it follows that the eigenvalues of C are $\lambda = a \pm bi$. Assuming that a and b are not both zero, let ϕ be the angle from the positive x -axis to the ray that joins the origin to the point (a, b) . The angle ϕ is an argument of the eigenvalue $\lambda = a + bi$, so we see from Figure 5.3.2 that

$$a = |\lambda| \cos \phi \quad \text{and} \quad b = |\lambda| \sin \phi$$

Power Sequences There are many problems in which one is interested in how successive applications of a matrix transformation affect a specific vector. For example, if A is the standard matrix for an operator on R^n and $\mathbf{x}_0$ is some fixed vector in R^n , then one might be interested in the behavior of the power sequence

$$\mathbf{x}_0, A\mathbf{x}_0, A^2\mathbf{x}_0, \dots, A^k\mathbf{x}_0, \dots$$

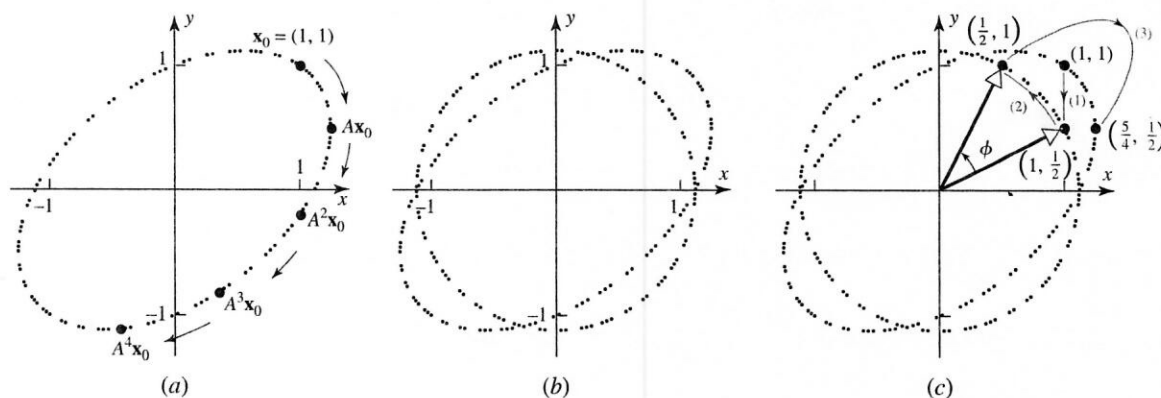
For example, if

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{3}{4} \\ -\frac{3}{5} & \frac{11}{10} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

then with the help of a computer or calculator one can show that the first four terms in the power sequence are

$$\mathbf{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A\mathbf{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1.25 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^2\mathbf{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 \\ -0.2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^3\mathbf{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.35 \\ -0.82 \end{bmatrix}$$

With the help of MATLAB or a computer algebra system one can show that if the first 100 terms are plotted as ordered pairs (x, y) , then the points move along the elliptical path shown in Figure 5.3.4a.



▲ Figure 5.3.4

To understand why the points move along an elliptical path, we will need to examine the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A . We leave it for you to show that the eigenvalues of A are $\lambda = \frac{4}{5} \pm \frac{3}{5}i$ and that the corresponding eigenvectors are

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{4}{5} - \frac{3}{5}i: \quad \mathbf{v}_1 = \left(\frac{1}{2} + i, 1\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_2 = \frac{4}{5} + \frac{3}{5}i: \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \left(\frac{1}{2} - i, 1\right)$$

If we take $\lambda = \lambda_1 = \frac{4}{5} - \frac{3}{5}i$ and $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}_1 = \left(\frac{1}{2} + i, 1\right)$ in (17) and use the fact that $|\lambda| = 1$, then we obtain the factorization

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{3}{4} \\ -\frac{3}{5} & \frac{11}{10} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{4}{5} & -\frac{3}{5} \\ \frac{3}{5} & \frac{4}{5} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad (19)$$

$$A = P R_\phi P^{-1}$$

where R_ϕ is a rotation about the origin through the angle ϕ whose tangent is

$$\tan \phi = \frac{\sin \phi}{\cos \phi} = \frac{3/5}{4/5} = \frac{3}{4} \quad \left(\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{3}{4} \approx 36.9^\circ\right)$$

The matrix P in (19) is the transition matrix from the basis

$$B = \{\operatorname{Re}(\mathbf{x}), \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{x})\} = \left\{\left(\frac{1}{2}, 1\right), (1, 0)\right\}$$



▲ Figure

Concept Review

- Real part of a complex number
- Imaginary part of a complex number
- Modulus of a complex number
- Complex conjugate of a complex number
- Argument of a complex number
- Polar form of a complex number

Skills

- Find the real and imaginary parts of a complex number
- Find the modulus and argument of a complex number
- Find complex conjugates