

Hermitian Forms & Hermitian Matrices

We want to look at the quadratic form:

$$p(\underline{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \bar{x}_i \cdot x_j$$

Such a form is called Hermitian iff $p(\underline{x})$ is real for any vector $\underline{x}$ (the components of $\underline{x}$ can be arbitrary complex).

In a matrix notation:

$$p(\underline{x}) = \underline{x}^* \cdot A \cdot \underline{x}$$

↑ conj. complex transpose.

Question: Which conditions exist on A to make $p(\underline{x})$ a Hermitian form?

$$p(x) = \text{real} \iff p(x) \equiv p^*(x)$$

$$p^*(x) = [x^* A x]^* = x^* A^* x$$

$$\equiv p(x) = x^* A x$$

for any x

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{A^* = A}$$

- A matrix with this property is called a Hermitian matrix.
- An important subclass of the Hermitian matrices are the symmetric real matrices.

Properties of Hermitian Matrices:

- (1) Lemma: The eigenvalues of Hermitian matrices are always real.

Proof : $A \cdot \underline{v}_i = \lambda_i \underline{v}_i$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\underline{v}_i^* \cdot A \cdot \underline{v}_i}_{\text{real}} = \lambda_i \underbrace{\underline{v}_i^* \underline{v}_i}_{\text{pos. \& real}}$$

$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{\lambda_i = \text{real}}}$ q.e.d.

(2) Lemma: Hermitian matrices have always a diagonal Jordan form $\iff$ The modal matrix is nonsingular

Proof: Assume there exists a generalized eigenvector of grade $k > 1$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \begin{array}{l} (A - \lambda_i I)^k \cdot \underline{v}_i = \underline{0} \\ (A - \lambda_i I)^{k-1} \cdot \underline{v}_i \neq \underline{0} \end{array} \right|$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\left[(A - \lambda; I)^k \underline{v}_i \right]^*}_{\phi} \cdot \left[(A - \lambda; I)^{k-2} \cdot \underline{v}_i \right] = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_i^* \left[(A - \lambda; I)^k \right]^* \cdot \left[(A - \lambda; I)^{k-2} \cdot \underline{v}_i \right] = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_i^* \left[(A - \lambda; I)^* \right]^k \cdot \left[(A - \lambda; I)^{k-2} \cdot \underline{v}_i \right] = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_i^* \left[(A - \lambda; I)^k \right] \cdot \left[(A - \lambda; I)^{k-2} \cdot \underline{v}_i \right] = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_i^* \cdot (A - \lambda; I)^{k-1} \cdot (A - \lambda; I)^{k-1} \cdot \underline{v}_i = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_i^* \cdot \left[(A - \lambda; I)^* \right]^{k-1} \cdot \left[(A - \lambda; I)^{k-1} \cdot \underline{v}_i \right] = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_i^* \cdot \left[(A - \lambda; I)^{k-1} \right]^* \cdot \left[(A - \lambda; I)^{k-1} \cdot \underline{v}_i \right] = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[(A - \lambda; I)^{k-1} \cdot \underline{v}_i \right]^* \cdot \left[(A - \lambda; I)^{k-1} \cdot \underline{v}_i \right] = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \left\| (A - \lambda; I)^{k-1} \cdot \underline{v}_i \right\| = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow (A - \lambda; I)^{k-1} \cdot \underline{v}_i = \phi$$

$\Rightarrow$ contradiction q.e.d.

(3) Lemma: The eigenvectors of a Hermitian matrix corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal to each other.

Proof: Given $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j \Rightarrow \underline{v}_i \neq \underline{v}_j$

$$A \underline{v}_i = \lambda_i \underline{v}_i ; \quad A \underline{v}_j = \lambda_j \underline{v}_j$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_j^* A \underline{v}_i = \lambda_i \underline{v}_j^* \underline{v}_i ; \quad \underline{v}_i^* A \underline{v}_j = \lambda_j \underline{v}_i^* \underline{v}_j$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$[\underline{v}_j^* A \underline{v}_i]^* = [\lambda_i \underline{v}_j^* \underline{v}_i]^*$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_i^* A^* \underline{v}_j = \lambda_i \underline{v}_i^* \underline{v}_j$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_i^* A \underline{v}_j = \lambda_i \underline{v}_i^* \underline{v}_j \equiv \lambda_j \underline{v}_i^* \underline{v}_j$$

$$\Rightarrow (\underbrace{\lambda_i - \lambda_j}_{\neq 0}) \underbrace{\underline{v}_i^* \underline{v}_j}_{=0} \equiv 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_j \perp \underline{v}_i$$

q.e.d.

(4) Lemma: The modal matrix of a Hermitian matrix is a Unitary matrix.

Proof: Follows directly from (3). If we have a multiple eigenvalue λ_i with multiplicity $m_i \Rightarrow$

$$\text{Rank}\{(\lambda_i I - A)\} \equiv n - m_i$$

as there are no generalized eigenvectors.

$$\underline{v}_i \cdot \underline{v}_j = 0, \quad \forall i \neq j$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda_i I - A) \underline{v}_i = 0$$

spans a subspace in which it is possible to choose all vectors perpendicular to each other, and which as a whole is perpendicular to all other eigenvectors.

Lemma: The inverse of a unitary matrix is its Hermitian transpose.

Proof: $A = V \cdot \Lambda \cdot V^{-1}$

$$\begin{aligned} &\equiv A^* = (V \cdot \Lambda \cdot V^{-1})^* \\ &= (V^{-1})^* \cdot \Lambda^* \cdot V^* \\ &\quad \uparrow \text{diagonal \& real} \\ &\equiv (V^*)^{-1} \cdot \Lambda \cdot (V^*) \\ &\Rightarrow \boxed{V^{-1} \equiv V^*} \end{aligned}$$

q.e.d.

Examples of Hermitian matrices:

$$(1) \quad M = A + A^* \quad ; \quad A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$$

$$\text{e.g.} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} (a+jb) & (c+jd) \\ (e+jf) & (g+jh) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow M = A + A^* = \begin{bmatrix} (2a) & [(c+e)+j(d-f)] \\ [(c+e)+j(f-d)] & (2g) \end{bmatrix}$$

$\Rightarrow M$ is Hermitian as $M^* \equiv M$.

$$(2) \quad M = A^* A \quad ; \quad A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$$

$$\text{e.g.} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & (5+j) & -7 \\ 0 & 3 & (2-3j) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow A^* A &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ (5-j) & 3 \\ -7 & (2+3j) \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 & (5+j) & -7 \\ 0 & 3 & (2-3j) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & (10+2j) & -14 \\ (10-2j) & 35 & (-29-2j) \\ -14 & (-29+2j) & 62 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow A^*A$ is Hermitian.

(3) $M = A \cdot A^*$; $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & (s+j) & -7 \\ 0 & 3 & (2-3j) \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ (s-j) & 3 \\ -7 & (2+3j) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 79 & (1-18j) \\ (1+18j) & 22 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\Rightarrow A \cdot A^*$ is Hermitian.

(4) $M = A - A^*$; $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$

A as in (1)

$$\Rightarrow M = A - A^* = \begin{bmatrix} (2jb) & [(c-e) + j(d+f)] \\ [(e-c) + j(d+f)] & (2jR) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} (2jb) & +[(c-e) + j(d+f)] \\ -[(c-e) - j(d+f)] & (2jR) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow m_{ji} = -\overline{m_{ij}}$$

$\Rightarrow A - A^*$ is skew-Hermitian.

Lemma: Any matrix can be split into the sum of two matrices out of which one is Hermitian, the other is skew-Hermitian:

$$A = A_H + A_{SH}$$

Proof (by construction):

$$A_H = \frac{1}{2}(A + A^*) \text{ is Hermitian}$$

$$A_{SH} = \frac{1}{2}(A - A^*) \text{ is skew-Hermitian}$$

$$A_H + A_{SH} \equiv A \quad \text{q.e.d.}$$

Lemma: A Hermitian matrix is called positive definite

$$(A > \emptyset)$$

↑ pos. def.

iff the quadratic form:

$$\underline{x}^* A \underline{x} > 0 \quad ; \quad \forall \underline{x} \neq (\underline{x} = 0)$$

Example:

$M = A^* A$ is a Hermitian matrix. M is positive definite ($M > 0$) since:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{x}^* M \underline{x} &= \underline{x}^* A^* A \underline{x} = (A \underline{x})^* \cdot (A \underline{x}) \\ &= \|A \underline{x}\|_e^2 > 0 \quad \text{q.e.d.} \end{aligned}$$

Of course: $\tilde{M} = A \cdot A^*$ is also positive definite.

Lemma: The eigenvalues of a positive definite matrix are all positive and real.

Proof: $A \cdot \underline{v}_i = \lambda_i \underline{v}_i$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\underline{v}_i^* \cdot A \cdot \underline{v}_i}_{> 0} = \lambda_i \cdot \underbrace{\underline{v}_i^* \cdot \underline{v}_i}_{> 0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{\lambda_i > 0}}$$

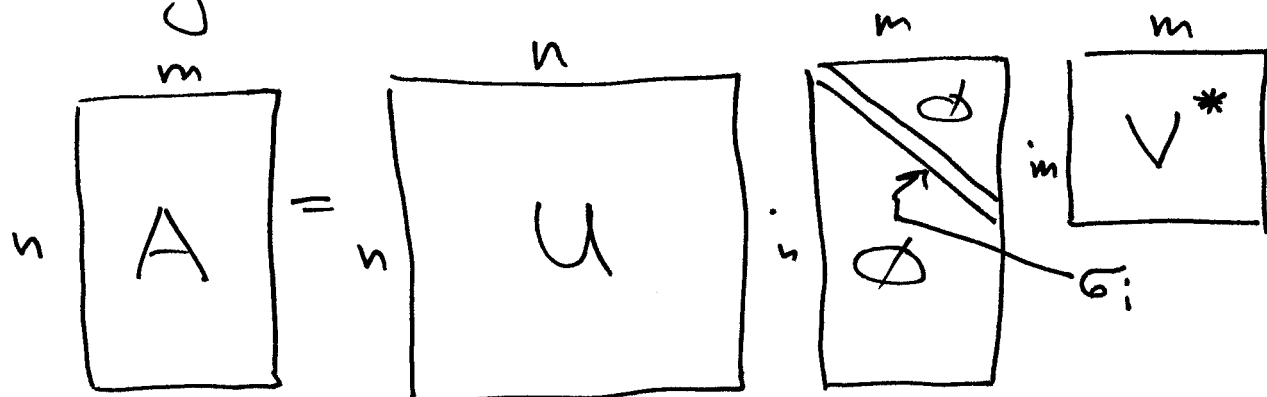
q.e.d.

The Singular Value Decomposition

Def: Any (even non-square) matrix can be decomposed into:

$$A = U \cdot \Sigma \cdot V^*$$

where U and V are two unitary matrices, and Σ is a diagonal matrix.



In Matlab:

$s = \text{svd}(A)$; "s" is a vector containing σ_i , the singular values.

$[U, S, V] = \text{svd}(A)$; returns three matrices, where $S = \text{diag}(S)$.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \quad A \cdot A^* &= (U \cdot \Sigma \cdot V^*) \cdot (V \cdot \Sigma^* \cdot U^*) \\ &= U \cdot \Sigma \cdot \underbrace{V^* \cdot V}_I \cdot \underbrace{\Sigma^*}_{\Sigma} \cdot U^* \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{A \cdot A^* = U \cdot \Sigma^2 \cdot U^*}$$

= spectral decomposition of $(A \cdot A^*)$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \sigma_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \sigma_n \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \underline{\underline{\{\sigma_i\} = \sqrt{\text{Eig}(A \cdot A^*)}}}$$

U is the right modal matrix of $A \cdot A^*$.

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \quad A^* \cdot A &= (V \cdot \Sigma^* \cdot U^*) \cdot (U \cdot \Sigma \cdot V^*) \\ &= V \cdot \underbrace{\Sigma^*}_{\Sigma} \cdot \underbrace{U^* \cdot U}_I \cdot \Sigma \cdot V^* \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{A^* \cdot A = V \cdot \Sigma^2 \cdot V^*}$$

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$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{\sigma_i = \sqrt{\text{Eig}(A \cdot A^*)} \equiv \sqrt{\text{Eig}(A^* \cdot A)}}}$$

σ_i are positive real.

V is the right modal matrix of $A^* \cdot A$.

Def: The σ_i are called the singular values of A . They are usually sorted such that:

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n$$

Algorithm:

$$[U, S2] = \text{eig}(A^* A');$$

$$s2 = \text{diag}(S2);$$

$$s = \text{sqr}(s2);$$

$$[V, S2] = \text{eig}(A' * A);$$

$$SS = U' * A * V;$$

for $i = 1:n$,

if $SS(i,i) < 0$,

$$V(:, i) = -V(:, i);$$

end

end

$$A = U \cdot \Sigma \cdot V^*$$

As U, V are unitary

$$\Rightarrow \text{Rank}(\Sigma) \equiv \text{Rank}(A)$$

$\Rightarrow$ The Rank of A equals the # of non zero singular values of A .

$\Rightarrow$ The Nullity of A equals the # of zero singular values of A .

- As A^*A and AA^* are Hermitian, the two eigenvalue problems are very well conditioned $\Rightarrow$ the SVD-algorithm is numerically benign.

- This is the algorithm that CTRL-C uses to determine the RANK of a matrix.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ U_1 & U_2 \\ | & | \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \overbrace{\Sigma}^r & \emptyset \\ \hline \emptyset & \emptyset \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ V_1^* & V_2^* \\ \hline \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Rank}(A) = r < n$$

$$\Rightarrow A = U \cdot (\Sigma \cdot V^*) = U_1 \cdot (\Sigma \cdot V_1^*) + U_2 \cdot$$

As U is unitary

$\Rightarrow U_1$ is a column-image of A
 U_2 is a column-nullspace of A

$$A^* = (U \Sigma V^*)^* = V \Sigma^* U^* = V \Sigma U^*$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^* &= \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ V_1 & V_2 \\ | & | \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \overbrace{\Sigma}^r & \emptyset \\ \hline \emptyset & \emptyset \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ U_1^* & U_2^* \\ \hline \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ V_1 & V_2 \\ | & | \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma U_1^* \\ \hline \emptyset \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

As V is unitary

$\Rightarrow V_1^*$ is a row-image of A
 V_2^* is a row-nullspace of A

$\Rightarrow$ One SVD gives all
Images and Nullspaces
at once. (This is even
better, though more expensive,
than QR.)

Norms and Inner Product:

- (1) Vector Norms: A norm
is a metric that maps
vectors into scalars. It
is basically a generalization
of the concept of "length".

The following rules must apply:

(a) $\|x\| = \begin{cases} > 0 & ; x \neq 0 \\ = 0 & ; x = 0 \end{cases}$

(b) $\| \alpha \cdot \underline{x} \| = |\alpha| \cdot \| \underline{x} \|$

(c) $\|x_1 + x_2\| \leq \|x_1\| + \|x_2\|$

(without justification!)

Certainly, the length of the vector fulfills these conditions.

$$|x| \equiv \|x\|_E \equiv \|x\|_2$$

↑
↑
 Euclidean L2-Norm
 Norm

Frequently used:

$$\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$$

$$\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2} = \|x\|_m$$

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$$\|\underline{x}\|_{\infty} = \max_i |x_i| = \|\underline{x}\|_H$$

↑
H-infinity norm

In Matlab:

$$k = \text{norm}(x, p) \\ \equiv \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

for any $p > 0$, integer

$$k = \text{norm}(x) \equiv \text{norm}(x, 2)$$

$$k = \text{norm}(x, 'inf') \\ \Rightarrow \text{infinity norm.}$$

(2) Matrix Norms:

It is common to define the norms of matrices through the equivalent norms of vectors:

$$\|A\| \doteq \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|}$$

This can be done with any definition of the underlying vector-norms, yielding different results, e.g.

$$\|A\|_1 = \max_j \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |a_{ij}| \right)$$

$$\|A\|_\infty = \max_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}| \right) \equiv \|A\|$$

$$\|A\|_2 = \sigma_1 \equiv \|A\|_L$$

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other definitions:

$$\|A\|_E = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2 = \text{Tr}(A \cdot A^*)$$

↑ Euclidean norm ↑ "trace"

$$\left[\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(A) &= \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii} \\ &= \text{sum}(\text{diag}(A)) \end{aligned} \right]$$

$$\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\text{Tr}(A^*A)} \equiv \sqrt{\text{Tr}(A \cdot A^*)}$$

↑ Frobenius norm

In Matlab:

There is no "trace"-function provided; however, this can be easily generated, since:

$$\text{tr}(A) \equiv \text{sum}(\text{diag}(A))$$

also:

$$\text{tr}(A) \equiv \text{sum}(\text{eig}(A))$$

Among the matrix norms, the following are provided in Matlab:

$$\text{norm}(A, 1) \equiv \|A\|_1$$

$$\text{norm}(A, 2) = \text{norm}(A) \equiv \|A\|_2$$

$$\text{norm}(A, 'inf') = \|A\|_\infty$$

$$\text{norm}(A, 'fro') = \|A\|_F$$

There is no Euclidean norm provided, however:

$$\|A\|_E = \text{sum}(\text{diag}(A' * A))$$

$$\text{or } \|A\|_E = \text{norm}(A, 'fro')^2$$

(3) Inner Product :

Very often, we have operated on quadratic forms:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{x}^* \cdot A \cdot \underline{x} &\equiv \underline{x}^* \cdot (A \cdot \underline{x}) \\ &\equiv (A^* \cdot \underline{x})^* \cdot \underline{x} \end{aligned}$$

These products of a row vector with a column-vector are

frequently termed "inner product"
and often written as :

$$\langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle ::= \underline{x}^* \cdot \underline{y}$$

Thus, $\underline{x}^* A \underline{x} = \langle \underline{x}, A \underline{x} \rangle$
 $= \langle A^* \underline{x}, \underline{x} \rangle$

and:

$$\Rightarrow \|\underline{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2} = \sqrt{\underline{x}^* \underline{x}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\langle \underline{x}, \underline{x} \rangle} \quad \underline{etc.}$$

(4) The outer product of two
vectors is defined as :

$$\rangle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \langle ::= \underline{x} \cdot \underline{y}^*$$

is a $(n \times n)$ -matrix.

Of course: $\text{Rank}(\underline{x} \cdot \underline{y}^*) = 1$

and: $\langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle = \text{Tr}(\rangle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \langle)$

Properties of Quadratic Forms:

Given a general square matrix

$$A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$$

$$\Rightarrow p(\underline{x}, A) = \underline{x}^* A \underline{x} \in \mathbb{C}$$

However: $A = A_H + A_{SH}$

Question: What are $p(\underline{x}, A_H)$ and $p(\underline{x}, A_{SH})$?

$$\begin{aligned} p(\underline{x}, A_H) &= \underline{x}^* A_H \underline{x} = \frac{1}{2} \underline{x}^* (A + A^*) \underline{x} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \underline{x}^* A \underline{x} + \frac{1}{2} \underline{x}^* A^* \underline{x} \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \underline{x}^* A \underline{x}}_{\alpha + j\beta} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} (\underline{x}^* A \underline{x})^*}_{\alpha - j\beta} = \alpha \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{p(\underline{x}, A_H) \equiv \operatorname{Re} \{ p(\underline{x}, A) \}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(x, A_{SH}) &= x^* A_{SH} x = \frac{1}{2} x^* (A - A^*) x \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} x^* A x - \frac{1}{2} x^* A^* x \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{x^* A x}_{\alpha + j\beta} - \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{(x^* A x)^*}_{\alpha - j\beta} = j\beta
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{p(x, A_{SH}) \equiv j \operatorname{Im} \{ p(x, A) \}}$$

Remark: We have seen that the eigenvalues of Hermitian matrices are always real:

$$\boxed{\operatorname{Im} \{ \operatorname{Eig}(A_H) \} = \emptyset}$$

It is also true that the eigenvalues of skew-Hermitian matrices are always purely imaginary:

$$\boxed{\operatorname{Re} \{ \operatorname{Eig}(A_{SH}) \} = \emptyset}$$

However:

$$A = A_H + A_{SH}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Eig}(A_H) &\neq \text{Re} \{ \text{Eig}(A) \} \\ -j \cdot \text{Eig}(A_{SH}) &\neq \text{Im} \{ \text{Eig}(A) \} \end{aligned}$$

as sometimes stated in text books !!! (Therefore, we do not define positive definiteness for arbitrary square matrices as some text books do!)