

# TTK4225 - Systems Theory, Autumn 2020

Damiano Varagnolo



Linear algebra - why, if we are doing control?

# Roadmap

- why?
- spoilers

## Motivations, in very brief

$$\ddot{x} + a_1\dot{x} + a_0x = bu(t) \quad (1)$$

is equivalent to

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -a_0 & -a_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ b \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

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$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = A\mathbf{x} + Bu,$$

and every analysis problem on the system becomes a linear algebra one  
(*e.g., computing the equilibria*)

How does this connect with the first part of the course?

Via the scalar form:

$$\ddot{y} + a_1\dot{y} + a_0y = bu \quad \Longrightarrow \quad Y(s) = \frac{bU(s)}{s^2 + a_1s + a_0}$$

with the modes defined by the solutions of  $s^2 + a_1s + a_0 = 0$

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$$\begin{aligned} s\mathbf{X}(s) - A\mathbf{X}(s) &= BU(s) \\ (sI - A)\mathbf{X}(s) &= BU(s) \end{aligned}$$

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## Spoilers

- the poles of  $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$  will be the eigenvalues of  $A$
- the structure of  $A$  will determine the multiplicity of the poles and much more (*for the brave ones, check the “Rosenbrock’s theorem”, but only after the course has ended*)

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the concepts of eigenvalues, eigenvectors, eigenspaces plus their generalized counterparts are as fundamental as the concepts of modes

## List of the knowledge we used in the previous slides

- matrix inverses, i.e.,  $M$  and  $M^{-1}$
- adjugate of a matrix, i.e.,  $\text{adj}(M)$
- determinant of a matrix, i.e.,  $\det(M)$
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Suggested additional resources:

- 3blue1brown: Essence of linear algebra
- Khan Academy: 44 videos on linear algebra
- Khan Academy: Introduction to vectors
- Gilbert Strang: Linear algebra

?

## Basic operations

# Roadmap

- inner products
- matrix vector products
- matrix matrix products

# Notation

$$\text{matrices: } A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$$

$$\text{column vectors: } \boldsymbol{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\text{row vectors: } \boldsymbol{x} = [x_1 \quad \dots \quad x_m] \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

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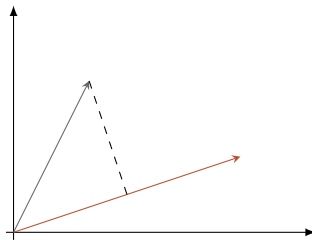
*Important:* saying “vector” means column vector; to indicate row vectors say “row vectors”!

# Transposition

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \implies \mathbf{x}^\top = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & \dots & x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \implies A^\top = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{n1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1m} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

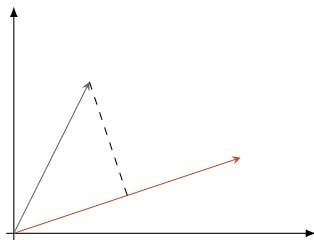
# Inner product



$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & \dots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n$$



## Geometrical meaning of inner product, some notes



*note:*  $x$  and  $y$  must live in the same space, thus they must have the same length

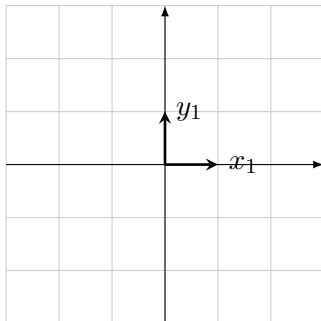
*suggested material:* 3 blue 1 brown, Dot products and duality, Essence of linear algebra, chapter 9

## Matrix-vector product, mathematical definition

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \star_1 \\ \vdots \\ \star_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1} \end{bmatrix} \star_1 + \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n2} \end{bmatrix} \star_2 + \begin{bmatrix} a_{13} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n3} \end{bmatrix} \star_3 + \dots$$

## Matrix-vector product, geometrically

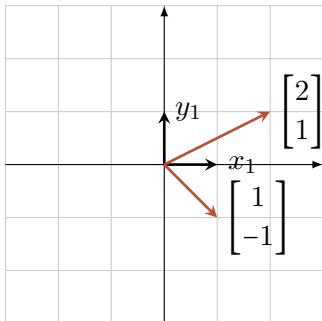
Starting point: canonical basis:  $x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$   $y_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$



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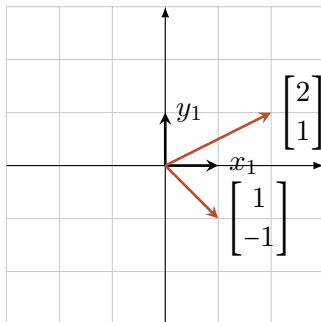
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what are then  $Ax_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $Ax_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  ?



# VERY IMPORTANT INTERPRETATION

*the columns of  $A$  are where the elements of the canonical basis are mapped by  $A$*

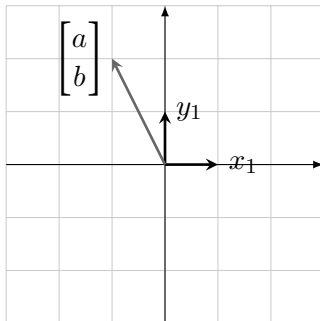


Remember: not all the  $A$ 's are square

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

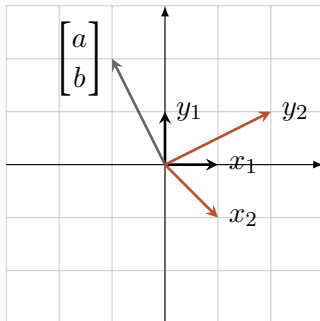
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$$c = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = ax_1 + by_1$$



## Matrix-vector product, geometrically

$$c = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = ax_1 + by_1 \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad Ac = ?$$

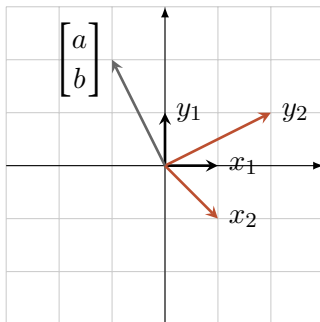




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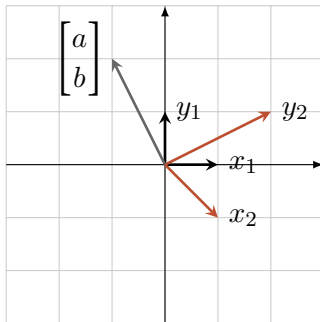
$$x_2 = Ax_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad y_2 = Ay_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



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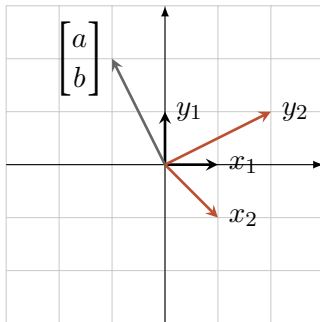
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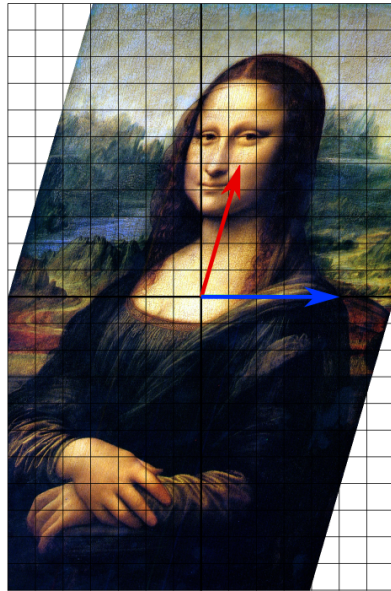
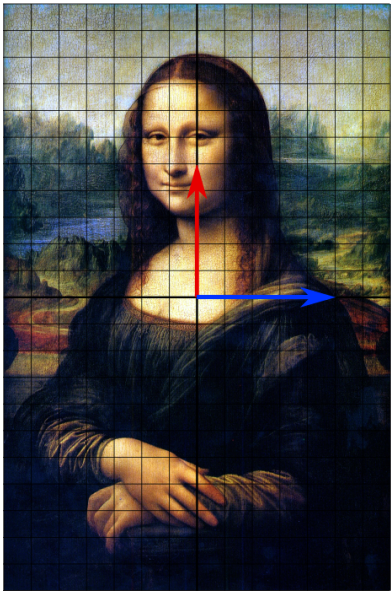


## Matrix-vector product, geometrically

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(By TreyGreer62 - Image:Mona Lisa-restored.jpg, CC0, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=12768508>)

?

How do we go now from

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to

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \star_1 & \Delta_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \star_n & \Delta_n \end{bmatrix} = ?$$

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$$AB = A \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{b}_p \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A\mathbf{b}_1 & \dots & A\mathbf{b}_p \end{bmatrix}$$

# Matrix multiplication

$$C = AB$$

*Discussion:* how must the dimensions of  $A$  and  $B$  be?

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r_A \times c_A}$
- $B \in \mathbb{R}^{r_B \times c_B}$



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- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r_A \times c_A}$
- $B \in \mathbb{R}^{r_B \times c_B}$
- $c_A = r_B$
- $\implies C \in \mathbb{R}^{r_A \times c_B}$

## Examples

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 & 4 \\ 19 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 2 \\ -3 & 11 & 4 \\ 3 & 15 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ -3 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

Do you see why this does *not* work?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

In general,  $AB \neq BA$

(even if it may actually happen, depending on the eigendecompositions of  $A$  and  $B \dots$ )

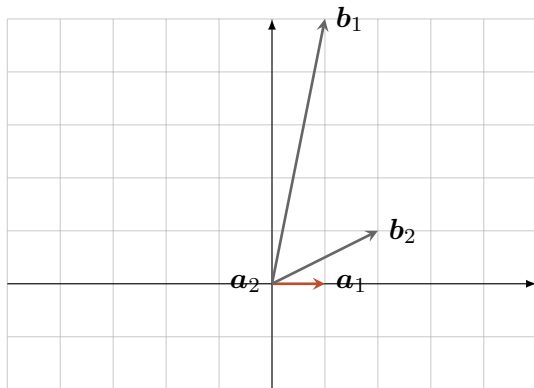
Numerical example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ok that in general  $AB \neq BA$ , but why?

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Important points

- matrix multiplications are not commutative:  $AB \neq BA$
- if  $AB = BA$  then we say that  $A$  and  $B$  commute



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## Alternative way of expressing matrix - column multiplications

$$\left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c} \text{---} & \mathbf{a_1} & \text{---} \\ \text{---} & \mathbf{a_2} & \text{---} \\ & \vdots & \\ \text{---} & \mathbf{a_n} & \text{---} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c} | & | & & | \\ \mathbf{b_1} & \mathbf{b_2} & \dots & \mathbf{b_n} \\ | & | & & | \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c} \mathbf{a_1 b_1} & \mathbf{a_1 b_2} & \dots & \mathbf{a_1 b_n} \\ \mathbf{a_2 b_1} & \mathbf{a_2 b_2} & \dots & \mathbf{a_2 b_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{a_n b_1} & \mathbf{a_n b_2} & \dots & \mathbf{a_n b_n} \end{array} \right]$$

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different interpretations; typically (but not always):

- “columns of the product = linear combinations of the columns of  $A$ ” more useful when doing control
- “elements of the product = angles between the rows of  $A$  and columns of  $B$ ” more useful when doing data science

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How to change between bases, and why

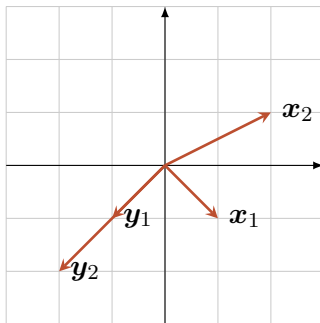
# Roadmap

- what is a basis?
- what happens when there are two bases?
- how do I change between the two bases?

# Linear independency

$\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are said to be *linearly independent* if and only if

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \lambda_1 = \dots = \lambda_m = 0$$



## Additional basic definitions

$\text{span}(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n) = \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \rangle =$  set of all the linear combinations of  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$



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dimension of a space: max. number of linearly independent vectors in that space

# Basis of a vector space

## Definition (basis)

$\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$  form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if they are linearly independent vectors

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## Definition (basis of a subspace $\mathcal{B}$ )

$v_1, \dots, v_m \in \mathcal{B} \subset \mathbb{R}^n, m < n$  are a basis for  $\mathcal{B}$  if they are linearly independent

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$v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$  form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if they are linearly independent vectors

## Definition (basis of a subspace $\mathcal{B}$ )

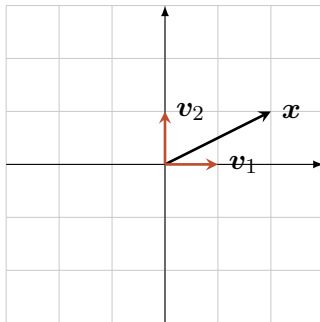
$v_1, \dots, v_m \in \mathcal{B} \subset \mathbb{R}^n, m < n$  are a basis for  $\mathcal{B}$  if they are linearly independent

important point: they must be as many as there are dimensions in the vectors space we are looking for a basis

## How to use a basis

if  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  then

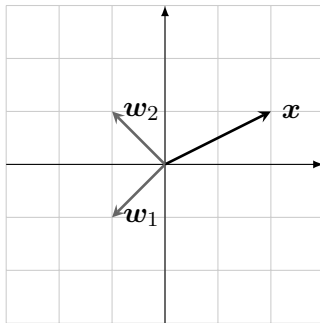
$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \exists \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad x = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \cdots \ v_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$



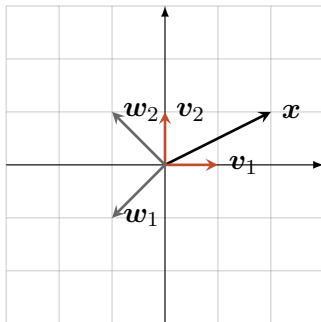
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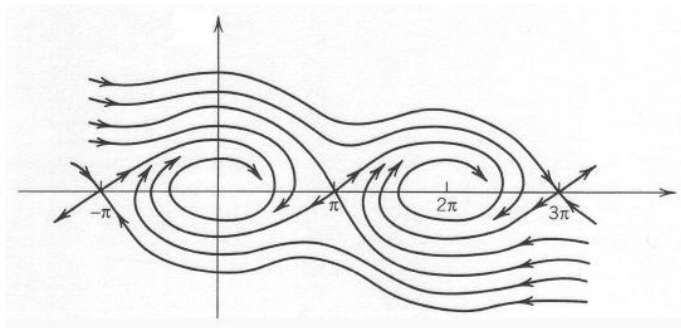
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Important message:  $\boldsymbol{x}$  is the same object, independently of the basis.  
Thus we must be able to “change” between the coordinate systems!



## Changing between bases - physical intuitions



the system is the same system, even if I decide to measure things in a different way

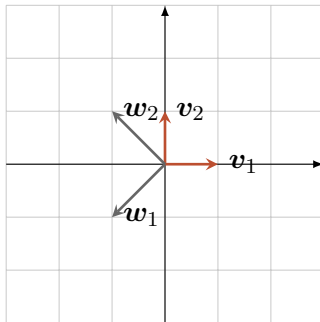


## Changing between bases

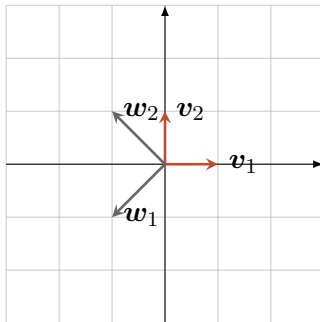
if  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  and  $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n$  are two separate bases of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  then

$$\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{w}_1 \ \mathbf{w}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{w}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_2 \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_n \end{bmatrix}$$

## Changing between bases

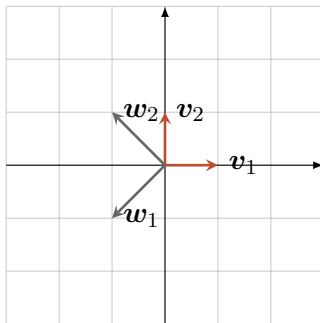


## Changing between bases



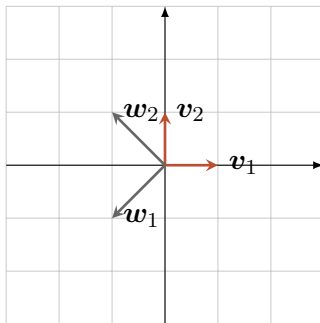
$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Changing between bases



$$\mathbf{v}_1 = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{w}_1 \ \mathbf{w}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{w}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{1 \rightarrow 1} \\ \gamma_{1 \rightarrow 2} \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_{1 \rightarrow n} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Changing between bases



$$\mathbf{v}_1 = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{w}_1 \ \mathbf{w}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{w}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{1 \rightarrow 1} \\ \gamma_{1 \rightarrow 2} \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_{1 \rightarrow n} \end{bmatrix} \implies \mathbf{v}_m = [\mathbf{w}_1 \ \mathbf{w}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{w}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{m \rightarrow 1} \\ \gamma_{m \rightarrow 2} \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_{m \rightarrow n} \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$[\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n] = [\mathbf{w}_1 \ \mathbf{w}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{w}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{1 \rightarrow 1} & \gamma_{2 \rightarrow 1} & \cdots & \gamma_{n \rightarrow 1} \\ \gamma_{1 \rightarrow 2} & \gamma_{2 \rightarrow 2} & \cdots & \gamma_{n \rightarrow 2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \gamma_{1 \rightarrow n} & \gamma_{2 \rightarrow n} & \cdots & \gamma_{n \rightarrow n} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or, compactly, } V = W\Gamma_{v \rightarrow w}$$



## Change of basis

$$V = W\Gamma_{v \rightarrow w}$$

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$$\boldsymbol{x} = [\boldsymbol{v}_1 \ \boldsymbol{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \boldsymbol{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$V = W\Gamma_{v \rightarrow w} \quad W = V\Gamma_{w \rightarrow v} \quad \implies \quad V = V\Gamma_{w \rightarrow v}\Gamma_{v \rightarrow w} \quad \implies \quad \Gamma_{w \rightarrow v} = \Gamma_{v \rightarrow w}^{-1}$$

$$\boldsymbol{x} = [\boldsymbol{v}_1 \ \boldsymbol{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \boldsymbol{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = V\boldsymbol{\lambda}$$

## Change of basis

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$$\boldsymbol{x} = [\boldsymbol{v}_1 \ \boldsymbol{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \boldsymbol{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = V\boldsymbol{\lambda} = W\Gamma_{v \rightarrow w}\boldsymbol{\lambda}$$

## Change of basis

$$V = W\Gamma_{v \rightarrow w} \quad W = V\Gamma_{w \rightarrow v} \quad \implies \quad V = V\Gamma_{w \rightarrow v}\Gamma_{v \rightarrow w} \quad \implies \quad \Gamma_{w \rightarrow v} = \Gamma_{v \rightarrow w}^{-1}$$

$$\boldsymbol{x} = [\boldsymbol{v}_1 \ \boldsymbol{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \boldsymbol{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = V\boldsymbol{\lambda} = W\Gamma_{v \rightarrow w}\boldsymbol{\lambda} = W\boldsymbol{\lambda}'$$



Exercise: change the basis of  $\mathbf{x}$  from  $V$  to  $W$

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{w}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{w}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{x} = V \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

hint: remember that  $\mathbf{v}_m = [\mathbf{w}_1 \ \mathbf{w}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{w}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{m \rightarrow 1} \\ \gamma_{m \rightarrow 2} \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_{m \rightarrow n} \end{bmatrix}$  and try to form  $[\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n]$

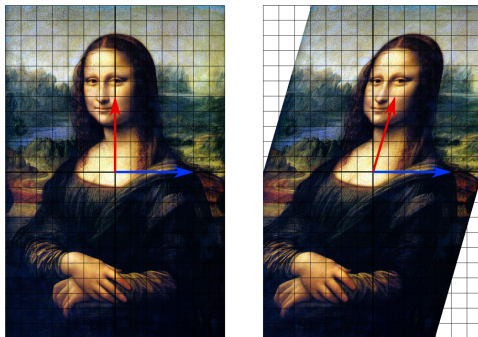
?

# Linear transformations

# Roadmap

- linear transformations as matrices
- the difference between “linear transformation” and “matrix”
- the effect of changing bases

# Linear transformations and matrices



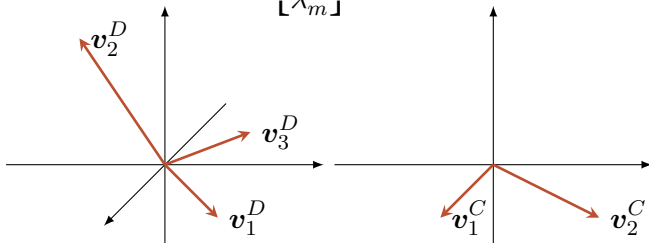
(By TreyGreer62 - Image:Mona Lisa-restored.jpg, CC0, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=12768508>)

linear transformation  $\mathcal{A} \neq$  matrix  $A$

## How can I express a linear transformation as a matrix?

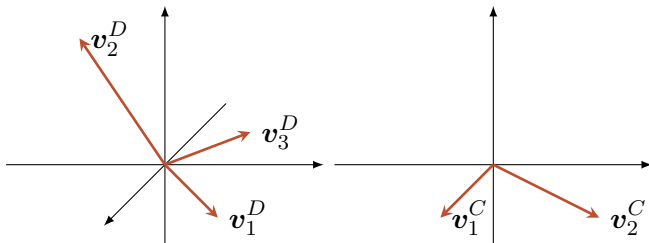
i.e., knowing  $\mathcal{A}: D \mapsto C$       $D = \mathbb{R}^m = \langle \mathbf{v}_1^D, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m^D \rangle$       $C = \mathbb{R}^n = \langle \mathbf{v}_1^C, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n^C \rangle$

how to go from  $\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{v}_1^D \ \mathbf{v}_2^D \ \dots \ \mathbf{v}_m^D] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^D \\ \lambda_2^D \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_m^D \end{bmatrix}$  to  $\mathbf{y} = \mathcal{A}\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{v}_1^C \ \mathbf{v}_2^C \ \dots \ \mathbf{v}_n^C] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^C \\ \lambda_2^C \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n^C \end{bmatrix}$ ?



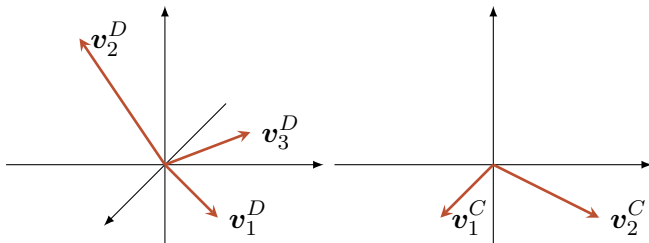
How can I express a linear transformation as a matrix?

$$\mathcal{A}v_1^D = [v_1^C \ v_2^C \ \cdots \ v_n^C] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{12} \\ \vdots \\ a_{1n} \end{bmatrix}$$



How can I express a linear transformation as a matrix?

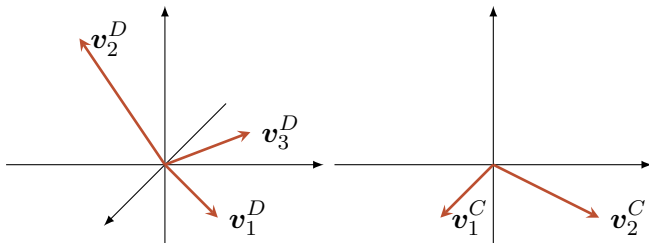
$$\mathcal{A}v_2^D = [v_1^C \ v_2^C \ \cdots \ v_n^C] \begin{bmatrix} a_{21} \\ a_{22} \\ \vdots \\ a_{2n} \end{bmatrix}$$





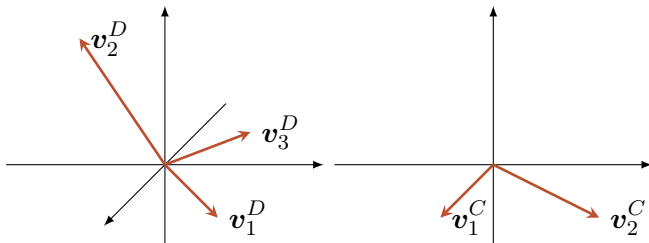
How can I express a linear transformation as a matrix?

$$\mathcal{A}v_3^D = [v_1^C \ v_2^C \ \cdots \ v_n^C] \begin{bmatrix} a_{31} \\ a_{32} \\ \vdots \\ a_{3n} \end{bmatrix}$$



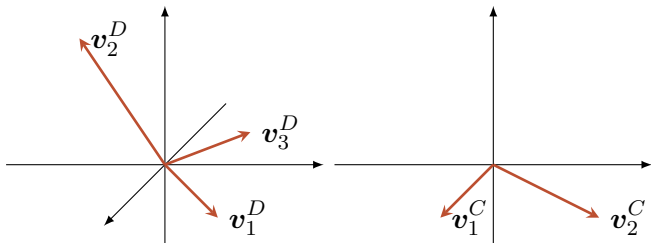
How can I express a linear transformation as a matrix?

$$[\mathcal{A}v_1^D \ \dots \ \mathcal{A}v_m^D] = [v_1^C \ v_2^C \ \dots \ v_n^C] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & \cdots & a_{m2} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$



How can I express a linear transformation as a matrix?

$$\mathcal{A}x = [\mathcal{A}v_1^D \ \mathcal{A}v_2^D \ \cdots \ \mathcal{A}v_m^D] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^D \\ \lambda_2^D \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_m^D \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{v}_1^C \ \mathbf{v}_2^C \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n^C] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & \cdots & a_{m2} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^D \\ \lambda_2^D \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_m^D \end{bmatrix}$$

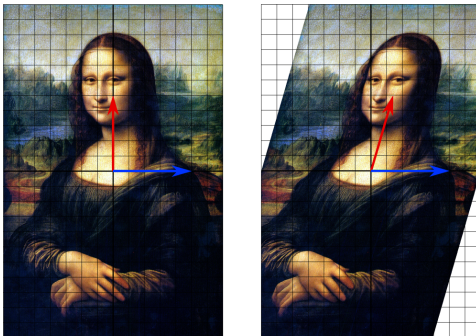


## Summary

$$\mathcal{A}\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{v}_1^C \ \mathbf{v}_2^C \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n^C] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & \cdots & a_{m2} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^D \\ \lambda_2^D \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_m^D \end{bmatrix} \implies "A\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{y}"$$

i.e., to go from  $\mathbf{x}$  to  $\mathbf{y}$  start from the coordinates of  $\mathbf{x}$  in the basis of the domain, transform the coordinates through the matrix  $A$  transforming the basis in the domain into the basis of the codomain, and consider the new coordinates  $\mathbf{y}$  as expressed in the basis of the codomain

# Linear transformations and matrices



(By TreyGreer62 - Image:Mona Lisa-restored.jpg, CC0, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=12768508>)

*the transformation is defined by  $\mathcal{A}$ , not by  $A$*

And what about *square* matrices?

if  $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n \implies C = D$  we can choose the same basis, i.e.,

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$$\{\mathbf{v}_1^D, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n^D\} = \{\mathbf{v}_1^C, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n^C\} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$$

$$\text{solution: } \mathcal{A}\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{n1} \\ a_{12} & \dots & a_{n2} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \implies "A\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{y}"$$

same concepts as before, just that both  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are expressed in the the same basis, so that  $A$  expresses how the elements *of the given basis* are transformed

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*how do  $A$  and  $A'$  relate?*

## Changes of bases (summary)

$\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  and  $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n$  bases of  $\mathbb{R}^n \implies$

$$\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{w}_1 \ \mathbf{w}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{w}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_2 \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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$\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  and  $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n$  bases of  $\mathbb{R}^n \implies$

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$$[\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n] = [\mathbf{w}_1 \ \mathbf{w}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{w}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{1 \rightarrow 1} & \gamma_{2 \rightarrow 1} & \cdots & \gamma_{n \rightarrow 1} \\ \gamma_{1 \rightarrow 2} & \gamma_{2 \rightarrow 2} & \cdots & \gamma_{n \rightarrow 2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \gamma_{1 \rightarrow n} & \gamma_{2 \rightarrow n} & \cdots & \gamma_{n \rightarrow n} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or, compactly, } V = W\Gamma_{v \rightarrow w}$$

## Effects of changing bases on the representations of $\mathcal{A}$

$$[\mathcal{A}v_1 \ \dots \ \mathcal{A}v_n] = [v_1 \ \dots \ v_n] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{n1} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = VA$$

$$[\mathcal{A}w_1 \ \dots \ \mathcal{A}w_n] = [w_1 \ \dots \ w_n] \begin{bmatrix} a'_{11} & \cdots & a'_{n1} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a'_{1n} & \cdots & a'_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = WA'$$



## Effects of changing bases on the representations of $\mathcal{A}$

$$V = W\Gamma_{v \rightarrow w} \quad W = V\Gamma_{w \rightarrow v}$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$A' = \Gamma_{v \rightarrow w} A \Gamma_{w \rightarrow v}$$

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operations of the type  $A' = T A T^{-1}$  with  $T$  full-rank  
mean changing the basis, i.e., “looking at the linear  
transformation from a different perspective” (more pre-  
cisely, the perspective defined by the columns of  $T$ )

?

The spaces associated to a matrix

# Roadmap

- rank and range
- determinants
- kernel
- connections among the various concepts

## Recall:

$\text{span}(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n) = \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \rangle =$  set of all the linear combinations of these vectors

$\text{range}(A) =$  span of the columns of  $A$

dimension of a space: max. number of linearly independent vectors

Just to make the importance of the concepts clear:

when does this system have a solution?

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{y}$$



## (Column) Rank of a matrix

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank} \left( \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{number of linearly independent columns}$$

## (Column) Rank of a matrix

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*Important result:* column-rank = row-rank (i.e., there are as many linearly independent rows as linearly independent columns)

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^T) = \text{rank}(A^T A) = \text{rank}(A A^T)$$

## (Column) Rank of a matrix

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank} \left( \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{number of linearly independent columns}$$

*Important result:* column-rank = row-rank (i.e., there are as many linearly independent rows as linearly independent columns)

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^\top) = \text{rank}(A^\top A) = \text{rank}(AA^\top)$$

Example: what is the maximal rank of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \end{bmatrix}$ ?

## Reconnecting with automatic control

$$\dot{x} = Ax$$

$\implies$  structure of  $A$  determines how the time derivative  $\dot{x}$  is, and how the time derivative is determines the stability and time-evolution properties of the system.

## Reconnecting with automatic control

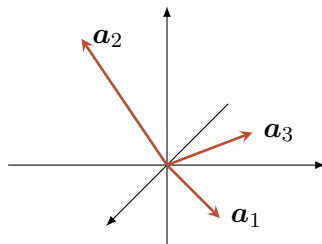
$$\dot{x} = Ax$$

$\implies$  structure of  $A$  determines how the time derivative  $\dot{x}$  is, and how the time derivative determines the stability and time-evolution properties of the system. E.g.,

$$\text{span}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} +1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \implies \text{if } x_1 \text{ grows then } x_2 \text{ diminishes, and viceversa}$$

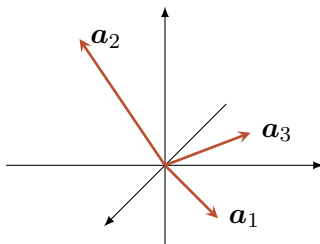
## Determinant of a square matrix

$$\det(A) = \det \left( \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{array}{l} \text{(signed) volume of the parallelepiped} \\ \text{defined by } \mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n \end{array}$$



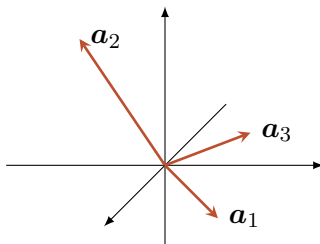
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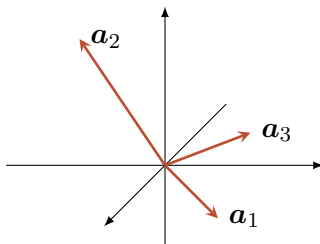
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thus “determinant = scaling factor of the linear transformation described by  $A$ ”





## Determinant of a square matrix

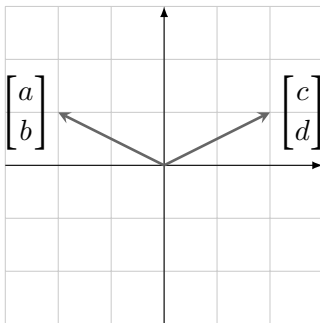
Remember:  $\begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \mathbf{a}_3 \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$  represent where the elements of the basis are mapped into  
thus “determinant = scaling factor of the linear transformation described by  $A$  (and thus defined by the linear transformation  $\mathcal{A}$ )



*the determinant is a property of the linear transformation  $\mathcal{A}$ ,  
thus if  $T$  is a change of basis then  $\det(A) = \det(TAT^{-1})$ ,  
since changing the basis does not change the underlying transformation*

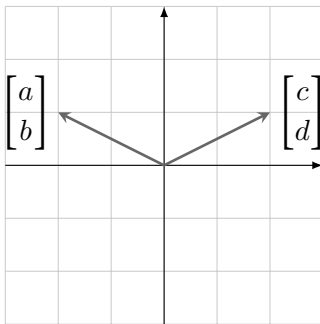
Likely the unique (other) case you should remember on how to compute determinants

$$\det \left( \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} \right) = ad - bc$$



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$$\det \left( \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} \right) = ad - bc$$



Which other case do you know? (you know for sure already one more)

# Determinants and invertibility of linear maps

Immediate implications:

$$\det(A) \neq 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{A} \text{ invertible}$$

$$\det(A) = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{A} \text{ not-invertible}$$

## Why is invertibility important?

because if you want to solve  $Ax = b$  for generic  $b$  then you need  $A^{-1}$

## Connections between the determinant and the rank of a square matrix

if  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  then  $\text{rank}(A) = n$  implies that the columns / rows of  $A$  are linearly independent

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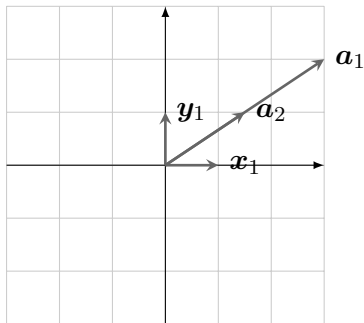
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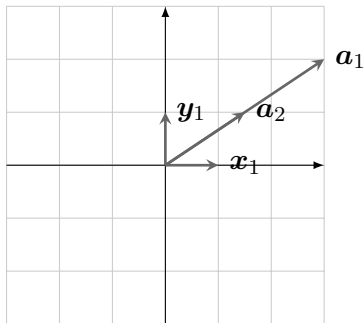
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What does it mean that the columns are linearly dependent?

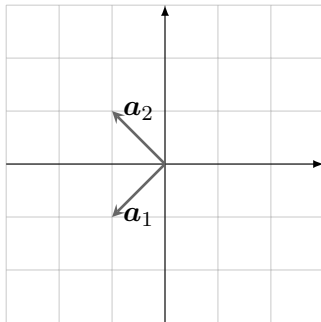


What does it mean that the columns are linearly dependent?



*indeed, in this case we cannot “un-map”...*

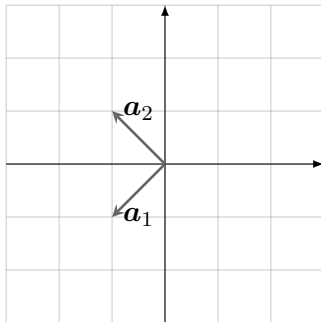
Summary until now and examples:  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$



determinant = *area* spanned by the columns of  $A$

- if  $\text{rank}(A) = 2$  then the column vectors span an area
- if  $\text{rank}(A) = 1$  then the column vectors span a line
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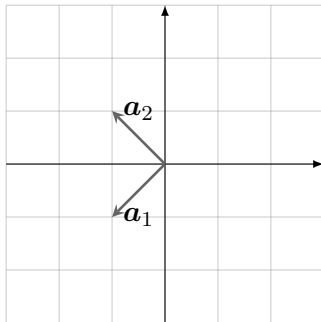
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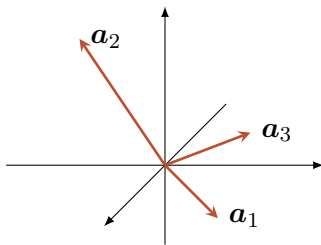


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Summary until now and examples:  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$



determinant = *volume* spanned by the columns of  $A$

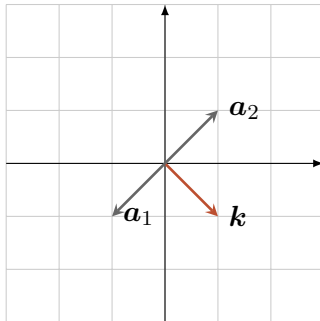
- if  $\text{rank}(A) = 3$  then the column vectors span a volume
- if  $\text{rank}(A) = 2$  then the column vectors span an area
- if  $\text{rank}(A) = 1$  then the column vectors span a line
- if  $\text{rank}(A) = 0$  then the column vectors span nothing

?

## Kernel (or null-space) of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$

$$\ker(A) = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m \text{ s.t. } A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}\}$$

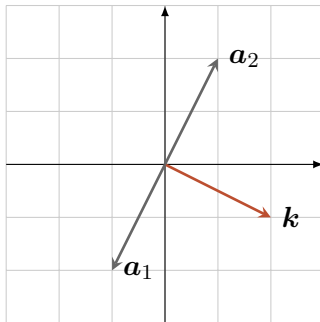
Example 1:  $\ker(A) = \text{span}(\mathbf{k})$  with  $\mathbf{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$



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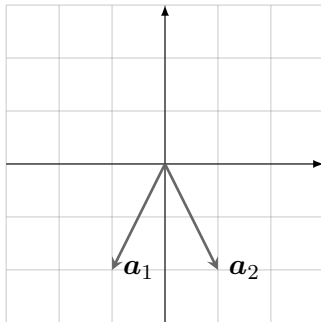
Example 2:  $\ker(A) = \text{span}(\mathbf{k})$  with  $\mathbf{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$



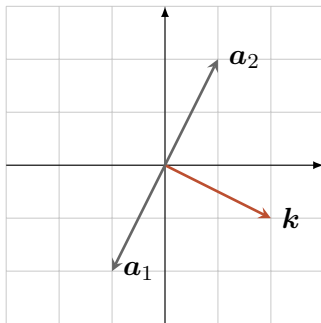
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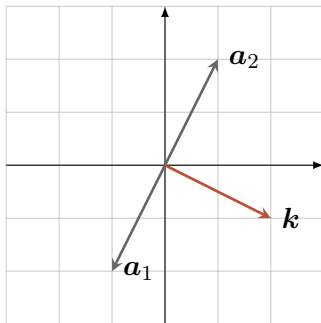
Example 3:  $\ker(A) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$



Extremely important result:  $\ker(A) \perp \text{range}(A)$



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$$\implies \text{rank}(A) + \dim(\ker(A)) = \text{number of columns of } A$$

## Alternative viewpoint on the kernel of $A$

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_m \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{x} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_m \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \mathbf{a}_i \perp \mathbf{x} \quad \forall i$$



## Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\ker(A) = ?$
- $\text{range}(A) = ?$

bigger matrices, and needing to compute ranges, determinants, or kernels?  
→ use Matlab, python, Wolfram Alpha, whatever

## Some useful general rules

$$(A^\top)^\top = A$$

$$(A + B)^\top = A^\top + B^\top$$

$$(cA)^\top = cA^\top$$

$$(AB)^\top = B^\top A^\top$$

$$\det(A^\top) = \det(A)$$

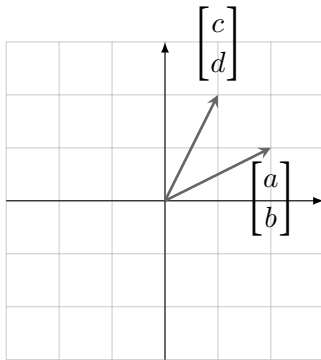
$$(A^{-1})^\top = (A^\top)^{-1}$$

Eigenvectors, eigenspaces, and eigenvalues of a square matrix

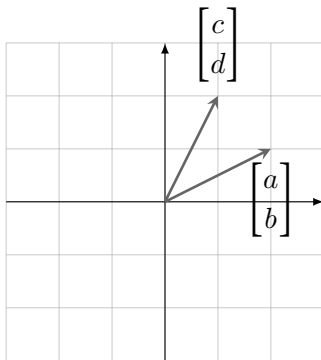
# Roadmap

- eigenvectors
- eigenspaces
- eigenvalues
- connections with ranks and determinants

# Eigenvectors

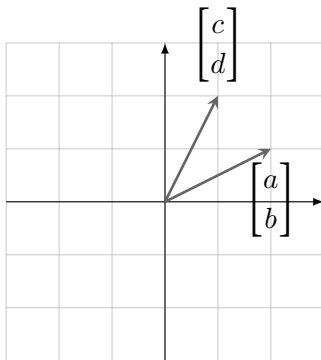


# Eigenvectors



*are there some directions that get only stretched, i.e., that do not rotate?*

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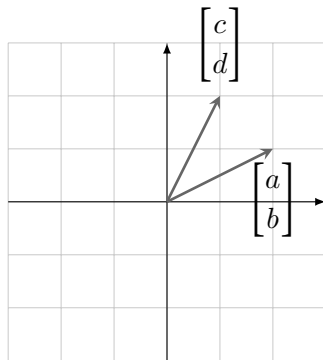


*are there some directions that get only stretched, i.e., that do not rotate?*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$



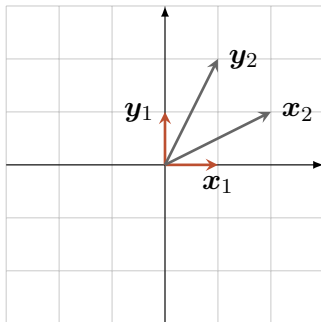
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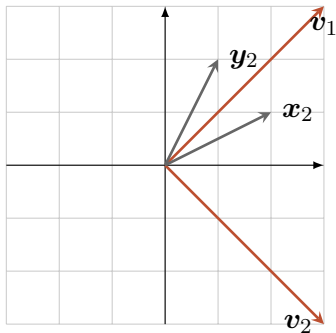
*are there some directions that get only stretched, i.e., that do not rotate?*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mapsto \quad \mathbf{v}_{\lambda=1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_{\lambda=3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvectors: sometimes you may see them from the transformation of the hypercube

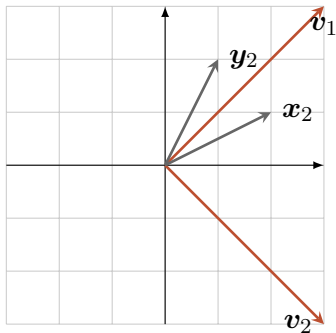


## Why do we like eigenvectors?



because they correspond to situations for which 
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*they are connected to (and actually generalize) the modes of a LTI system  
(more information in the next units)*

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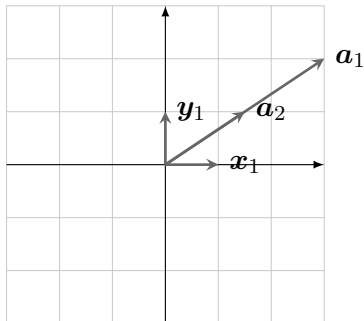
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$$\lambda \text{ eigenvalue iff } \det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

Remember: what does it mean that the determinant of  $A$  is zero?

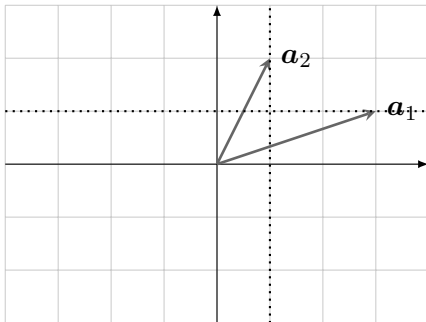
It means that the columns of  $A$  are linearly dependent, and this means



What does this mean, geometrically?

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \implies (A - \lambda I) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

question = is  $\det(A - \lambda I)$  zero, i.e., searching for stretchings that make *at least* 2 columns of  $A - \lambda I$  align



## How does one compute eigenvectors, more in general?

$$\lambda \text{ eigenvalue iff } \det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

- 1 consider  $s$  as a complex variable
- 2 find the polynomial  $\det(sI - A)$  (*here we flip  $A$  with  $sI$  just because it looks more pretty, but it is equivalent!*)
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*very important name:* characteristic polynomial  $= \det(sI - A)$

but why is it a polynomial?



In brief,  $\det(sI - A)$  is a polynomial because of how determinants are computed

$$\text{thus } A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \implies \det(sI - A) = \prod_{i=1}^n (s - \lambda_i) \text{ for opportune } \exists \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{C}$$

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*note: this is reminiscent of the RTFs in ZPK representation*  $H(s) = K \frac{\prod_j (s - z_j)}{\prod_i (s - p_i)}$

## How to find the eigenvalues: numerical example

Definition:

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad A\mathbf{x} - \lambda\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad (A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}.$$

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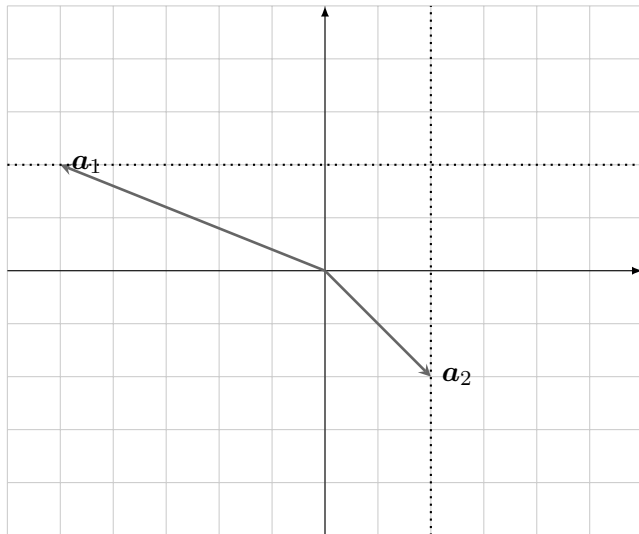
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$$\text{Eigenvalues} = \{-1, -6\}$$



The same example, graphically



?

## How do we find the associated eigenvectors?

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Numerically, for  $\lambda_1$  this means

$$\begin{bmatrix} -4 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## How do we find the associated eigenvectors?

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \quad \text{with} \quad (A - \lambda I) = \begin{bmatrix} -5 - \lambda & 2 \\ 2 & -2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_{1,2} = \{-1, -6\}$$

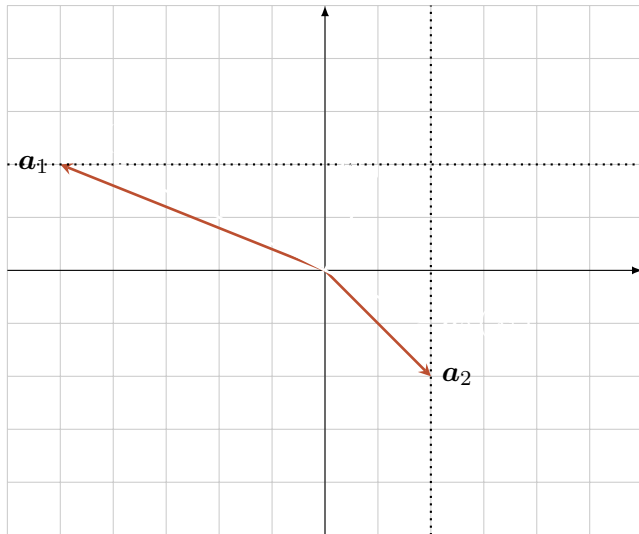
that implies looking for  $(A - \lambda_i I) \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$

Numerically, for  $\lambda_1$  this means

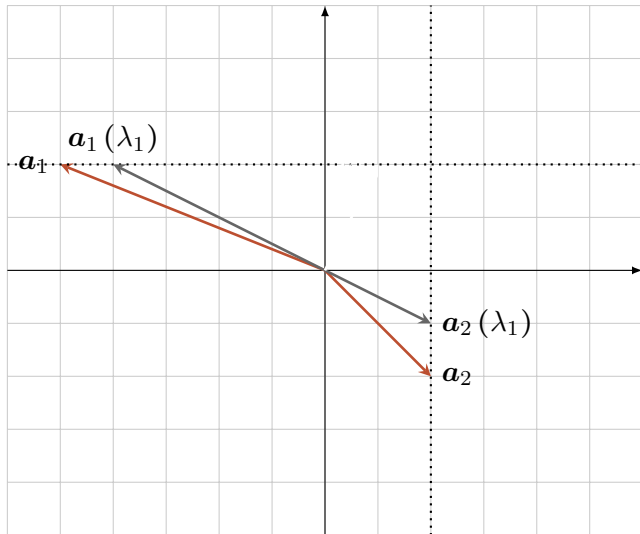
$$\begin{bmatrix} -4 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\implies x_2 = 2x_1$$

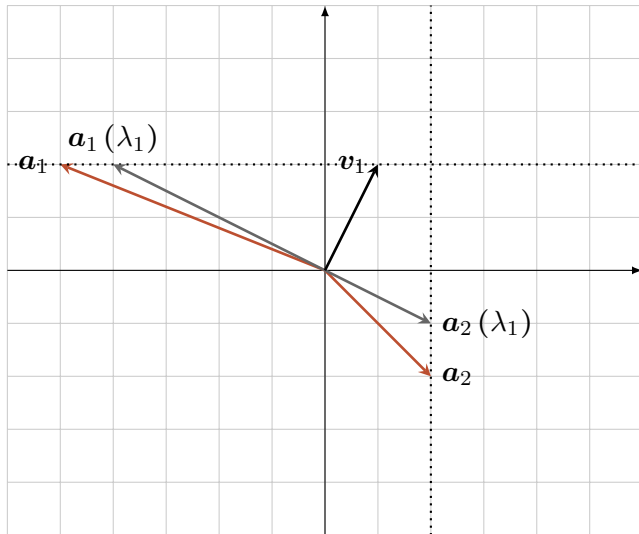
Again, graphically



Again, graphically

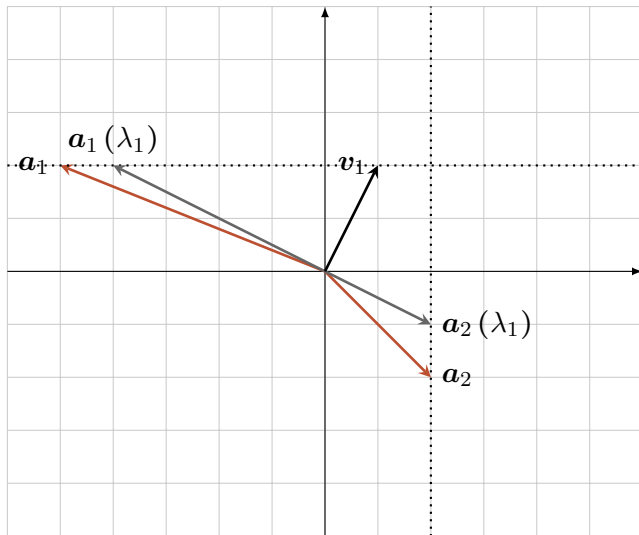


Again, graphically





Again, graphically



can you see what  $\lambda_2$  is, and what the corresponding  $v_2$  will be?

# Summarizing

**eigenvectors:** directions along which  $A$  does not introduce rotations

**eigenspaces:** set of all the vectors in these directions

**eigenvalues:** amplification that  $A$  causes along the eigenspaces

*(remember: along each direction there may be a different amplification!)*

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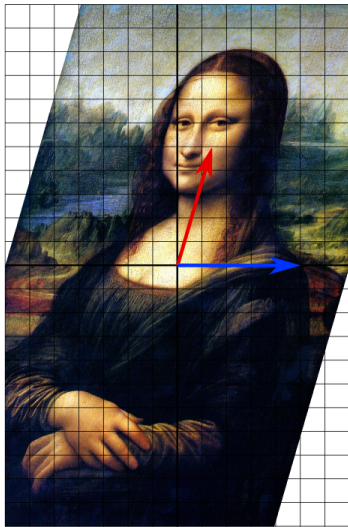
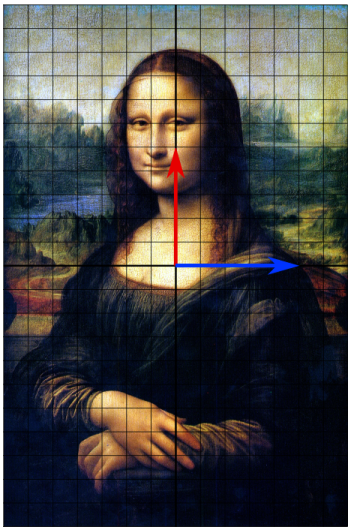
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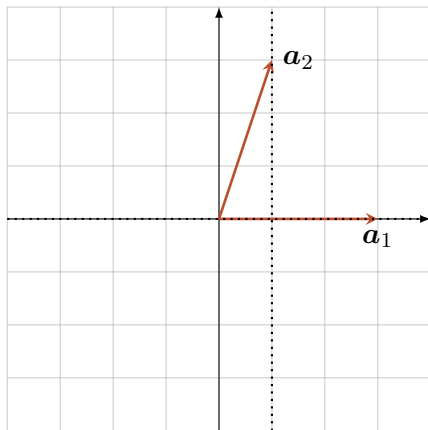
**characteristic polynomial:**  $\det(sI - A)$

**algebraic multiplicity of the eigenvalues:** the power  $\mu(\lambda'_i)$  associated to each  $\lambda_i$  in the characteristic polynomial

Discussion: what are the eigenspaces in this case?



Generalizing to the case of a Jordan miniblock (something that will be an extremely important case)



how many “stretchings” can we find so to make the stretched columns align?

## Important result

there may be fewer 1-dimensional eigenspaces than columns of  $A$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

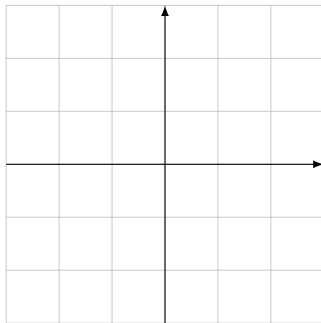
?



## Connections between determinant and rank

$$\det(A) = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad A \text{ rank-deficient}$$

since  $\det(A) = 0$  means that the unitary hypercube gets mapped into a degenerate parallelepiped, and this is equivalent to say that  $A$  has linearly dependent columns



## Connections between determinant and eigenvalues

$$\det(A) = \prod_i \lambda_i$$

i.e., the volume of the mapped parallelepiped is equal to the product of the expansions along the eigenspaces<sup>1</sup>

this is immediate and obvious when considering the Jordan form of  $A$

---

<sup>1</sup>Kind of imprecise; correct in case the algebraic multiplicity of the eigenvalues is 1. Otherwise they need to be considered with their multiplicities

## Connections between determinant and rank

From the previous episodes:

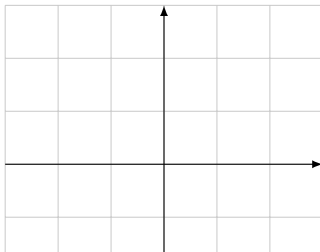
$$\det(A) = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad A \text{ rank-deficient}$$

and

$$\det(A) = \prod_i \lambda_i$$

thus

$$\exists \lambda_i = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad A \text{ rank-deficient}$$

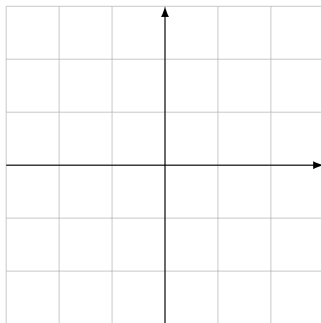


## Connections between eigenvalues and invertibility

$$\exists \lambda_i = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad A \text{ rank-deficient}$$

but also

$$A \text{ rank-deficient} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad A \text{ not invertible}$$



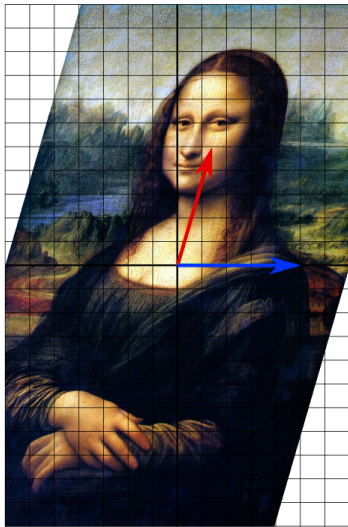
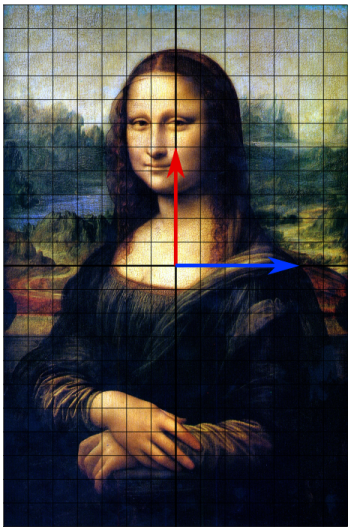
# Definitions

singular matrix = non-invertible matrix

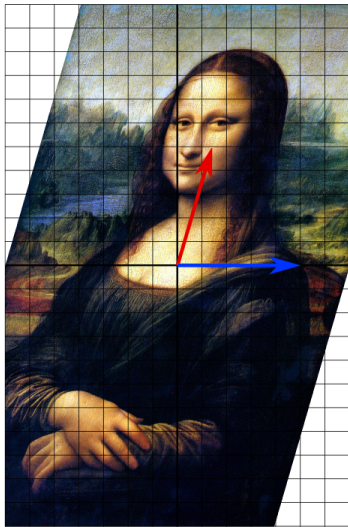
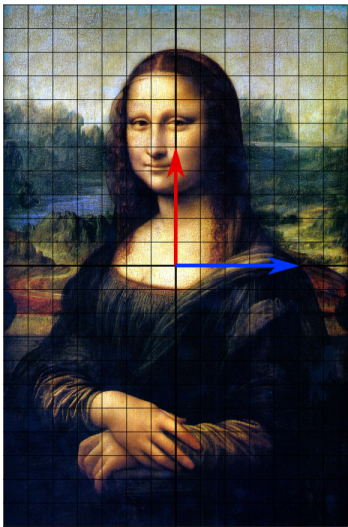
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Do eigenvalues change if we do a change of basis?



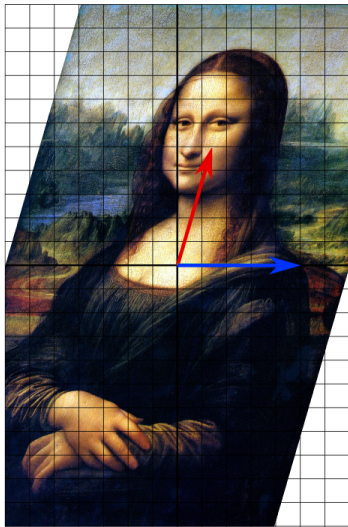
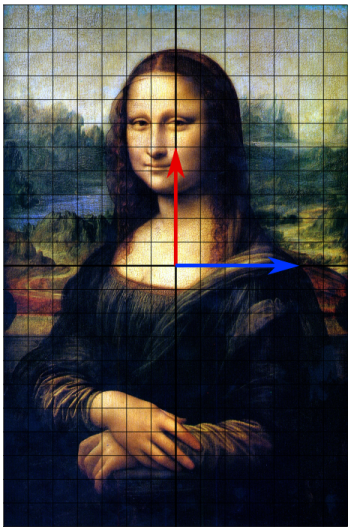
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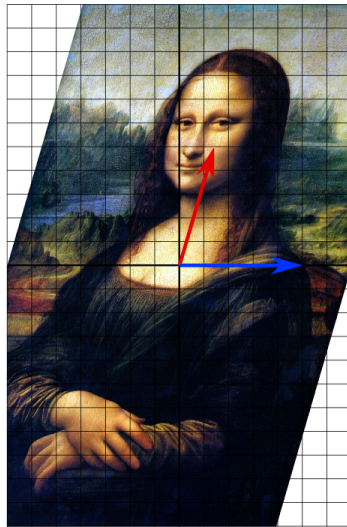
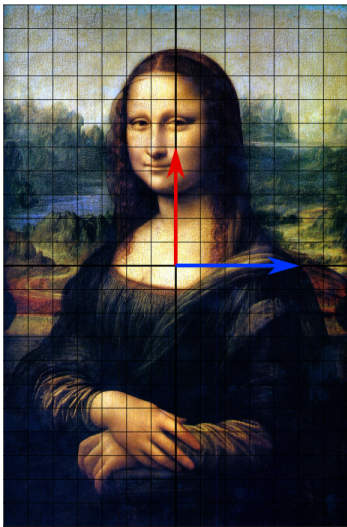
obviously not!



Do eigenspaces change if we do a change of basis?



Do eigenspaces change if we do a change of basis?



they change “name”, but from a physical perspective they are the same object!

Extremely important facts!!!

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Assume  $T$  to be a generic change of basis. Then:

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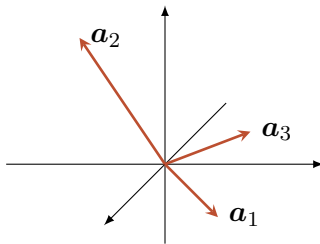
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# Diagonalization

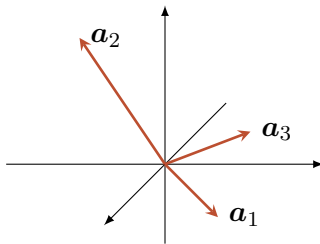
# Roadmap

- what happens if the eigenvectors of  $A$  form a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ?
- what diagonalization means algebraically
- what diagonalization means geometrically
- what diagonalization means in practice

An interesting case: what if the eigenvectors of  $A$  form a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ?

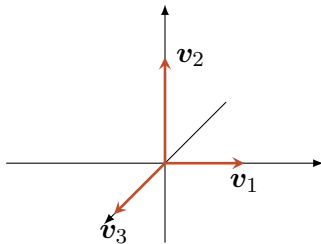


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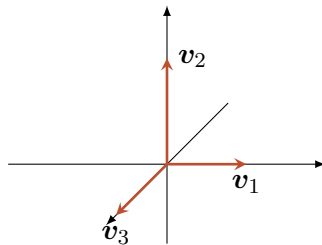
*what happens if in this case I choose a new basis formed by  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ ?*

An interesting case: what if the eigenvectors of  $A$  form a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ?



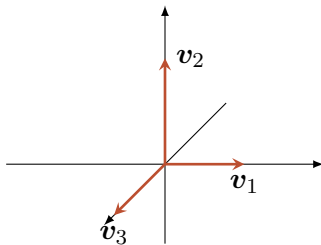


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How does  $\mathcal{A}$  look like, with respect to this basis?

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How does  $\mathcal{A}$  look like, with respect to this basis?

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

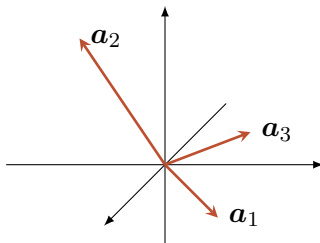
Note that the  $\lambda_i$ 's may also be the same! Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2.3 & & & \\ & 2.3 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 2.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Diagonalizing a square matrix

hypothesis:  $A$  is s.t. there exist  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  linearly independent eigenvectors

thesis:  $T = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n]$  is s.t.  $\Lambda = T^{-1}AT = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$



## Diagonalizing a square matrix: proof that $AT = T\Lambda$

$$AT \stackrel{(1)}{=} A[\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n] \stackrel{(2)}{=} [A\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, A\mathbf{v}_n] \stackrel{(3)}{=} [\lambda_1\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \lambda_n\mathbf{v}_n] \stackrel{(4)}{=} T\Lambda$$

- (1) recall that the columns of  $T$  are the eigenvectors
- (2) this follows by the geometrical interpretation of matrix-columns multiplications
- (3) this is because  $\mathbf{v}_i$  is an eigenvector
- (4) we can rewrite things as a product with a diagonal matrix

## What about matrices with multiple eigenvalues?

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies \det(A - sI) = -s^3 - s^2 + 21s + 45 = (s - 5)(s + 3)^2$$

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Eigenspaces-eigenvectors couples:

$$\left\{ \lambda_1, \operatorname{span} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \right\} \quad \left\{ \lambda_2 = \lambda_3, \operatorname{span} \left( \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \right\}$$



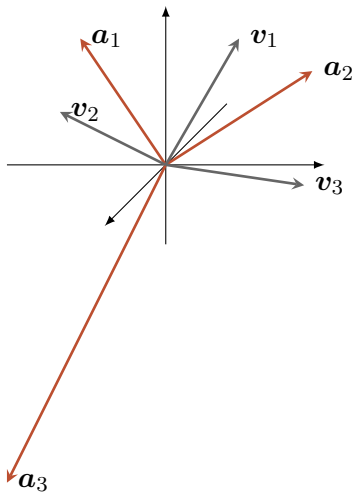
important point: to diagonalize we need  $n$  different and linearly independent eigenvectors, not  $n$  different eigenvalues

## Graphically

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Lambda = T^{-1}AT = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$



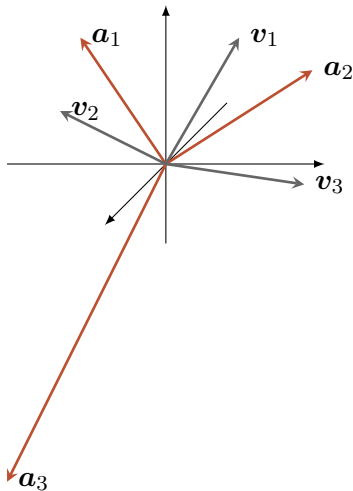
## Diagonalization, in numbers

$$A = T\Lambda T^{-1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.125 & 0.25 & -0.375 \\ -0.250 & 0.50 & 0.750 \\ 0.125 & 0.25 & 0.625 \end{bmatrix}$$

# What does diagonalization mean, graphically?

*I look at the world considering as the new axes the eigenspaces*



## What does diagonalization mean, physically?

Original system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \\ \dot{x}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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The same system, but after the change of basis  $T$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{\tilde{x}}_1 \\ \dot{\tilde{x}}_2 \\ \dot{\tilde{x}}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}_1 \\ \tilde{x}_2 \\ \tilde{x}_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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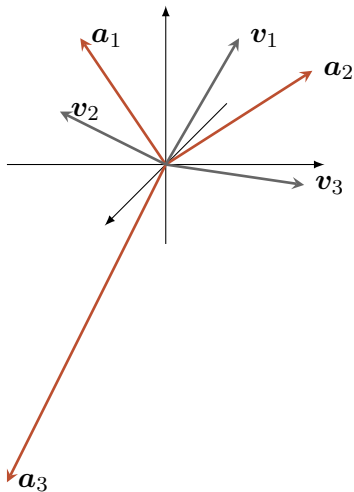
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*this means that the original system is actually the juxtaposition of 3 independent systems that evolve “ignoring” what is happening in the other ones*

Thus diagonalizing = decomposing the dynamics in a set of independent 1-dimensional dynamics

*the eigenspaces are where these 1-dimensional dynamics live*





## Messages of this unit:

- to be able to diagonalize means to be able to split up a system in independent pieces

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- to be able to diagonalize means to be able to split up a system in independent pieces
- however we can do this diagonalization only if the eigenvectors of  $A$  form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and this is not guaranteed in general

## Generalization

Consider

$$\tilde{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{A}_1 & & & \\ & \tilde{A}_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \tilde{A}_k \end{bmatrix};$$

also this means “dividing the system in independent sub-systems”! However “diagonalizing” means finding independent subsystems of dimension 1, while in this general case the dimensions are potentially bigger than 1

?

Towards stranger things: recall that state space representations are ways of expressing LTI systems

$$\ddot{y} + a_1\dot{y} + a_0y = bu(t)$$

is equivalent to

$$\begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -a_0 & -a_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ b \end{bmatrix} u(t) \\ y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \end{cases}$$

and thus to

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\mathbf{x}} = A\mathbf{x} + Bu \\ y = C\mathbf{x} \end{cases}$$

Towards stranger things: how was this connecting with the first part of the course?

$$\ddot{y} + a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = bu \quad \Longrightarrow \quad Y(s) = \frac{bU(s)}{s^2 + a_1 s + a_0} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \text{modes} = \text{solutions of } s^2 + a_1 s + a_0$$

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Towards stranger things: how was this connecting with the first part of the course?

$$\ddot{y} + a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = bu \quad \Longrightarrow \quad Y(s) = \frac{bU(s)}{s^2 + a_1 s + a_0} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \text{modes} = \text{solutions of } s^2 + a_1 s + a_0$$

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with the denominator of the TF equal to  $\det(sI - A)$

## Towards stranger things: remember this basic fact

$$Y(s) = C \frac{\text{adj}(sI - A)}{\det(sI - A)} BU(s)$$

- changing the basis does not change the characteristic polynomial, thus

$$\det(sI - A) = \det(sI - T^{-1}AT)$$

*(in other words, changing the basis for the state space does not change the poles of the TF, and thus the modes of the LTI system – as it should obviously be)*

## Stranger things

... but if  $A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  implies  $\det(A - sI) = (s - 5)(s + 3)^2$  then there is a double pole in  $-3$ , corresponding to a mode of the type  $te^{-3t}$ ;

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what is happening here?

Solution (and we will see this in the next unit): the presence or not of the mode  $te^{-3t}$  depends on the structure of the eigenspaces of  $A \rightarrow$  we need to study Jordan forms

*doing systems theory for LTI systems means  
studying the inner structure of  $\dot{x} = Ax$*

?

## Jordan forms

# Roadmap

- non-diagonalizable matrices
- Jordan forms
- connections with dynamical systems
- summary of the differences between diagonalizable and non-diagonalizable matrices

## A small trick, to make things faster

if  $A$  is upper triangular or lower triangular then its characteristic polynomial is given by  $\prod (s - d_i)$  with the  $d_i$ 's the elements on the diagonal, i.e.,

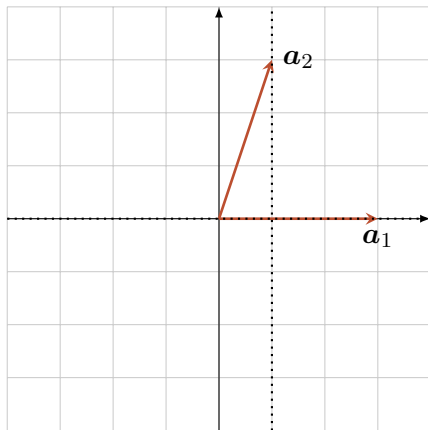
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & * & * & \cdots \\ 0 & d_2 & * & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d_n \end{bmatrix} \implies \det(sI - A) = \prod_i (s - d_i)$$



## The case of Jordan miniblocks

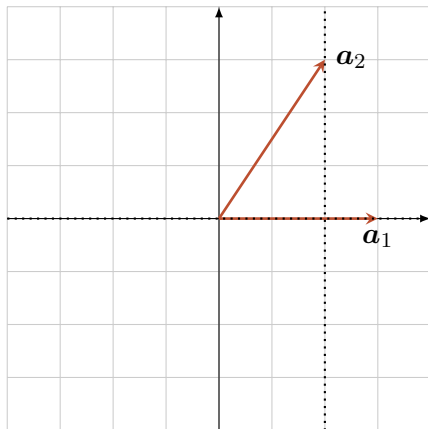
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \implies \text{characteristic polynomial} = (s - \lambda)^2$$

How many 1-dimensional eigenspaces do Jordan miniblocks have?



in this case there is only one “stretching” for which the stretched columns align

Note that this can be generalized to Jordan miniblocks with  $\alpha$  instead of 1



(we though like more to write Jordan miniblocks as  $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$ )

“The eigenspaces of Jordan miniblocks have dimension 1”:  
algebraic proof

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \implies \det(sI - A) = (s - \lambda)^3$$

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remember:  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$  is an eigenvector if  $(\lambda I - A)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$

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$$\text{and thus } \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \star \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Summarizing

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & & \\ & \lambda & 1 & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

- the eigenspace is 1-dimensional and it is equal to  $\ker(\lambda I - A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$



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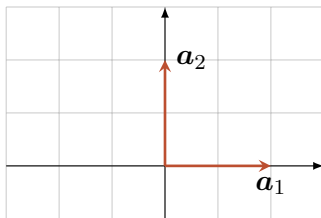
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- thus we cannot find a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  composed by eigenvectors
- thus we cannot diagonalize, i.e., we cannot write  $A = T\Lambda T^{-1}$
- thus the system  $\dot{\mathbf{y}} = A\mathbf{y}$  cannot be divided into a series of independent 1-dimensional dynamics

?

An example, to make things in practice. System “N”:

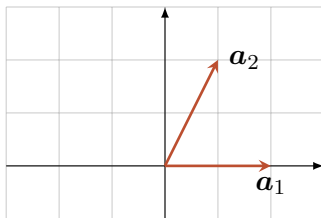
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$\implies$  two independent 1-dimensional systems, each with a mode  $e^{2t}$

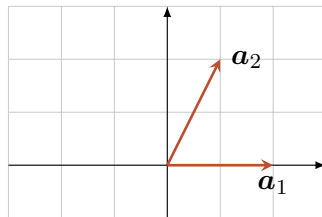
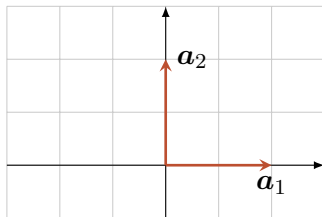
An example, to make things in practice. System “J”:

$$\begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} u \\ y = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & c_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \end{cases} \implies \dim(\ker(2I - A)) = 1$$



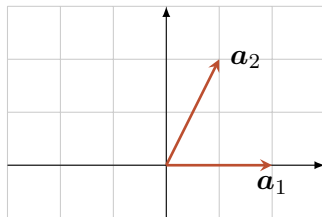
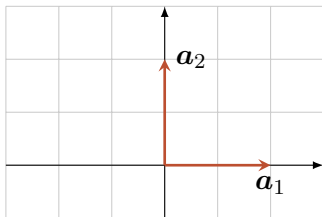
$\implies$  a truly 2-dimensional system, with modes  $e^{2t}$  and  $te^{2t}$

## Comparing “N” against “J”:



“J” contains an intrinsic shearing that “N” does not contain  
(*but remember that for the case “N” we are looking at the space through the directions defined by its eigenvectors*)

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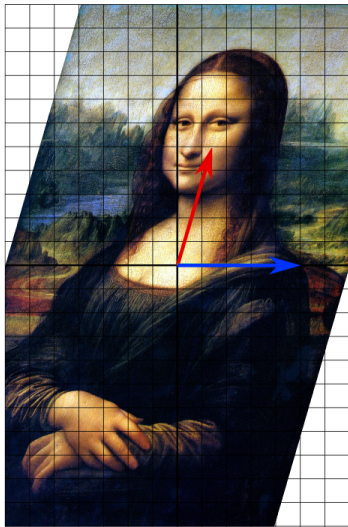
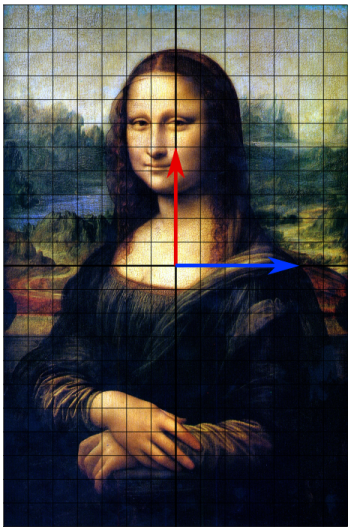


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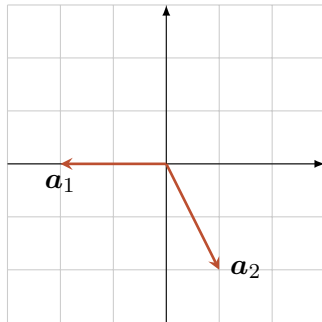
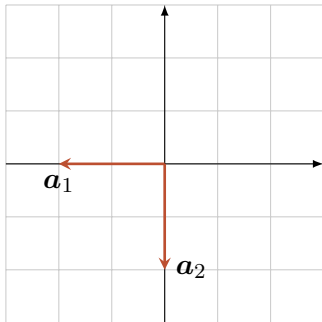
the same applies to  $J = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ & \lambda & 1 \\ & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$  or the higher-dimensions cases



Discussion: is this due to a Jordan map?



Watch out that to have asymptotic stability the eigenvalues must have real part strictly negative!



?

## Summarizing

$$\det(sI - A) = \prod_{i=1}^d (s - \lambda_i)^{\mu(\lambda_i)}$$

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- $\ker(\lambda_i I - A) :=$  eigenspace associated to  $\lambda_i$
- $\dim(\ker(\lambda_i I - A)) :=$  geometric multiplicity of  $\lambda_i$

$$\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}, \quad A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$$

$$\dim\left(\ker(\lambda_i I - A)\right)$$

$$\det(sI - A) = \prod_{i=1}^d (\lambda - \lambda'_i)^{\mu(\lambda'_i)}$$

$$\mu(\lambda'_i)$$

our aim: understand how these components relate  
 $\implies$  need to go back to the geometric interpretations  
*(but, before, we need a couple of theoretical results)*



### Definition (diagonalizable matrix)

*A is diagonalizable if  $\exists T$  s.t.  $T^{-1}AT = \Lambda$  with  $\Lambda$  diagonal*

### Theorem

*A is diagonalizable if and only if A has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors*

### Theorem

*not all the A's are diagonalizable; e.g., Jordan matrices are not*

## Theorem (Jordan canonical form)

*all the matrices that can not be diagonalized can always be transformed, by using an opportune change of coordinates, to a block diagonal matrix*

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & & 0 \\ & \dots & \\ 0 & & A_{n'} \end{bmatrix}$$

*with  $n' < n$  and at least one block  $A_i$  of the form*

$$A_i = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & & & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example

$$A \mapsto \tilde{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & & & & & & & & \\ & 2 & 1 & & & & & & \\ & & 2 & & & & & & \\ & & & 2 & 1 & & & & \\ & & & & 2 & 1 & & & \\ & & & & & 2 & & & \\ & & & & & & 3 & & \\ & & & & & & & 3 & 1 \\ & & & & & & & & 3 & 1 \\ & & & & & & & & & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- algebraic multiplicity = dimension of the Jordan block (*since each element on the diagonal adds a term " $(s - \lambda)$ " in the characteristic polynomial*)
- geometric multiplicity = number of Jordan miniblocks (*since each miniblock adds its own  $\dim(\ker(2I - A)) = 1$* )

## Extremely important facts to remember!!!

Assume  $T$  to be a generic change of basis. Then:

- ① the eigenvectors and eigenvalues depend only on  $\mathcal{A}$ , and not on the used basis:  
 $\lambda_i$  eigenvalue of  $A \Leftrightarrow \lambda_i$  eigenvalue of  $A' = TAT^{-1}$

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- ⑤ the geometric multiplicities depend only on  $\mathcal{A}$ , and not on the used basis

## Recap of the connections

If  $A$  is diagonalizable then:

- there exist a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that is composed of eigenvectors of  $A$
- the sum of the geometric multiplicities of the various eigenspaces of  $A$  is  $n$
- the various eigenspaces of  $A$  span the whole  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- the associated system  $\dot{x} = Ax$  is actually a series of independent 1-dimensional systems
- the modes of the associated system  $\dot{x} = Ax$  are of the form  $e^{\lambda t}$

## Recap of the connections

### The case “ $A$ is not diagonalizable”

- in any case there exists a change of basis that maps  $A$  into its Jordan form
- there must be at least one Jordan minibloc, and the effect of this miniblock is to introduce some sort of shearing in some directions
- the eigenvectors of  $A$  do not span the entire  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , but only a part of it
- the sum of the geometric multiplicities of the various eigenspaces of  $A$  is smaller than  $n$ ; actually it is equal to the number of Jordan miniblocks
- the associated system  $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = A\mathbf{x}$  is actually a series of independent systems, each one corresponding to one of the Jordan miniblocks
- the modes of the associated system  $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = A\mathbf{x}$  are not only of the form  $e^{\lambda t}$ , but there must be some  $te^{\lambda t}$  or even higher powers of  $t$

## How do we find Jordan forms?

i.e., how can we go from  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 8 \\ 1 & -5 & 2 \\ -5 & 9 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  to  $J = TAT^{-1}$ ?

→ needs the concepts of generalized eigenvectors, but this is a bit too much for this course ... In any case just use numerical tools!

?