# EECE423-01: 현대제어이론

**Modern Control Theory** 

**Chapter 2: Review of Linear Algebra** 

Kim, Jung Hoon



- ◆ The main topics of this chapter are
- 1. Matrices, Vectors, Addition and Multiplication, Transpose

Linear Independence, Rank, Vector space, Image and Kernel space

3. Determinant, Inverse, Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

 Quadratic Form, Singular values, Cayley-Hamilton Theorem and Diagonalization

5. Jordan Canonical Form

1. Matrices, Vectors, Addition and Multiplication, Trai	ıspose

- ◆ What is a matrix?
- Matrix: A matrix is a rectangular array of numbers or functions enclosed in brackets

• Examples: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 3 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $\begin{bmatrix} e^{3t} & \cos t \\ \sin t & -\sin t \\ t+1 & -t^2+t \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & e^{-3t} \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 2t \\ -t \end{bmatrix}$ 

• An  $m \times n$  matrix: A matrix with m rows and n columns

• 
$$a_{11}, a_{12}, \ldots, a_{mn}$$
: Entries  $A = [a_{ij}] = egin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$ 

- Horizontal lines: Rows Vertical lines: Columns
- The matrix is called a square matrix if m = n
- $a_{11}, a_{22}, \dots, a_{nn}$ : Diagonal entries

- ◆ What is a vector?
- Vector: A vector is a matrix with only one row or column
  - Examples:  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & e^{-3t} \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 2t \\ -t \end{bmatrix}$
  - A column vector with n components:  $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$
  - A row vector with n components:  $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix}$  ( $x_1, \dots, x_n$ : components)
  - Two matrices A and B are said to be equal, written A = B, if and only if they have same size and the corresponding entries are equal.
  - Matrices that are not equal are called different.

#### Addition of matrices

The sum of two matrices  $A = [a_{ij}]$  and  $B = [b_{ij}]$  of the same size is written A + B and has the entries  $a_{ij} + b_{ij}$  obtained by adding the corresponding entries of A and B.

Remark: Matrices of different sizes cannot be added.

The product of any  $m \times n$  matrix  $A = [a_{ij}]$  and any scalar c is written cA and is the  $m \times n$  matrix  $cA = [ca_{ij}]$  obtained by multiplying each entry of A by c.

## Rules for matrix addition and scalar multiplication

• 
$$A + B = B + A$$

• 
$$(A+B)+C=A+(B+C)$$
 (written  $A+B+C$ )

• 
$$A + 0 = A$$

• 
$$A + (-A) = 0$$

$$\bullet \ c(A+B) = cA + cB$$

$$\bullet (c+k)A = cA + kA$$

• 
$$c(kA) = (ck)A$$
 (written  $ckA$ )

$$\bullet$$
  $1A = A$ 

### ◆ Examples

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

$$\bullet \left( \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} + \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

• 
$$2\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 2\\0 & 3\end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix}0 & 1\\1 & 1\end{bmatrix}\right) = 2\begin{bmatrix}1 & 2\\0 & 3\end{bmatrix} + 2\begin{bmatrix}0 & 1\\1 & 1\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}2 & 6\\2 & 8\end{bmatrix}$$

$$\bullet (2+1)\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = 2\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -3 \\ 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Multiplication of matrices

The product C = AB (in this order) of an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A = [a_{ij}]$  times an  $r \times p$  matrix  $B = [b_{ij}]$  is defined if n = r and the product  $C = [c_{ij}]$  is an  $m \times p$  matrix with entries

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj} = a_{i1} b_{1j} + a_{i2} b_{2j} + \dots + a_{in} b_{nj}$$

$$(i = 1, \dots, m, \ j = 1, \dots, p)$$

• Matrix multiplication is not commutative, i.e.,  $AB \neq BA$  in general

- Example: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Properties of matrix multiplication

• 
$$k(A)B = k(AB) = A(kB)$$
 (written  $kAB$  or  $AkB$ )

• 
$$(AB)C = A(BC)$$
 (written  $ABC$ )

$$\bullet \ (A+B)C = AC + BC$$

$$\bullet \ C(A+B) = CA + CB$$

# ◆ Examples

$$\bullet \quad \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\bullet \quad \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

- ◆ Transpose of a matrix, symmetric matrix
  - The **transpose** of an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A = [a_{ij}]$  is the  $n \times m$  matrix denoted by  $A^T$  and defined as

$$A^{T} = [a_{ji}] = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{m2} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

• If  $A = A^T$ , we call A is a symmetric matrix.

Properties of transpose

$$\bullet \ (A^T)^T = A$$

$$\bullet (A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$$

$$\bullet (cA)^T = cA^T$$

$$\bullet \ (AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

- If A is a square matrix,  $|A| = |A^T|$
- If A is a nonsingular matrix,  $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$
- If A is a square matrix, the eigenvalues of A coincide with those of  $A^T$

### ◆ Examples

$$\bullet \quad \left( \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)^T = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\bullet \left(2\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\\0 & 1\end{bmatrix}\right)^T = 2\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\\0 & 1\end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix}2 & 0\\2 & 2\end{bmatrix}$$

$$\bullet \quad \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right)^T = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\bullet \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \right| = \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T \right| = 5$$

$$\bullet \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T \right)^{-1} = \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \right)^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

2. Linear Independence, Rank, Vector space, Image and Kernel space

- ◆ Linear independence
- Linear combination of a set of n vectors  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$ :

$$\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$$

where  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n$  are scalars.

• A set of n vectors  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$  is said to be linearly independent if

$$\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n = 0$$

implies  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \cdots = \alpha_n = 0$ .

• A set of n vectors  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$  is said to be **linearly dependent** if there exist scalars  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n$  that are not all zero such that

$$\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n = 0$$

## ◆ Examples

• 
$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$ : linearly dependent

• 
$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ : linearly independent

• 
$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $v_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ : linearly independent

#### ◆ Rank of a matrix

■ The **rank** of a matrix A is the maximal number of linearly independent columns of A. It is denoted by rank (A).

#### - Examples

$$\operatorname{rank}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1\\ 2 & 1\\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = 2, \quad \operatorname{rank}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2\\ 2 & 4\\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = 1,$$

$$\operatorname{rank}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) = 3, \quad \operatorname{rank}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = 2$$

### Properties of rank

- Interchange of two rows (or columns) does not alter the value of the rank. Addition of a multiple of a row (or column) to another row (or column) does not alter the value of the rank.
- Multiplication of a row (or column) by a nonzero constant c does not alter the value of the rank.
- $\blacksquare$  rank  $(A) = \operatorname{rank}(A^T)$ .
- When A is an  $n \times m$  matrix, rank  $(A) \leq \min(n, m)$ .
- rank  $(AB) \leq \min(\operatorname{rank}(A), \operatorname{rank}(B))$ .

### ◆ Vector space

- A nonempty set V of elements a, b, ... is called a real vector space (or real linear space), and these elements are called vectors, if, in V, there are defined two algebraic operations (called vector addition and scalar multiplication).
  - I. Vector addition  $(a + b \in V, \forall a, b \in V)$ 
    - I.1. Commutativity: a + b = b + a,  $\forall a, b \in V$
    - I.2. Associativity:  $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c), \forall a, b, c \in V$
    - I.3.  $\exists$  unique  $0 \in V$ , such that a + 0 = a,  $\forall a \in V$
    - I.4. For every a in V, there exists a unique vector in V, denoted by -a, and is such that a + (-a) = 0.
  - II. Scalar multiplication  $(ca \in V, \forall c \in R, \forall a \in V)$ 
    - II.1. Distributivity: c(a + b) = ca + cb,  $\forall c \in R, \forall a, b \in V$
    - II.2. Distributivity: (c + k)a = ca + ka,  $\forall c, k \in R, \forall a \in V$
    - II.3. Associativity: c(ka) = (ck)a,  $\forall c, k \in R, \forall a \in V$
    - II.4.  $\forall a \in V$ , 1a = a

◆ Dimension, span and basis

- The maximum number of linearly independent vectors in V is called the **dimension** of V and is denoted by  $\dim V$ .
- The set of all linear combinations of given vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$  is called the **span** of these vectors.

- A set of vectors is a basis for a vector space V if
  - (1) the vectors in the set are linearly independent
  - (2) all the elements in V can be described by a linear combination of the vectors (i.e., the vectors span V)

◆ Image (range)

• Given an  $m \times n$  matrix M, the **image** or range of M is the span (set of all possible linear combinations) of its column vectors.

$$\operatorname{Im} M := \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \exists x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \ y = Mx \}$$

■ The **image** of M is a linear subspace of  $R^m$ , and its dimension coincides with the rank of the matrix M.

◆ Kernel space (null space)

• Given an  $m \times n$  matrix M, the **kernel** or null space of M is the set

$$\text{Ker } M := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Mx = 0 \}$$

■ The **kernel** of M is a linear subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and its dimension is called the nullity of the matrix M.

# ◆ Fundamental theorem of linear equations

• For every  $m \times n$  matrix M, the following relation holds:

$$\dim \operatorname{Ker} M + \dim \operatorname{Im} M = n$$

■ Example 
$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\operatorname{Ker} M = \left\{ c_1 \begin{bmatrix} -1\\4\\1 \end{bmatrix} \middle| \forall c_1 \in R \right\}$$

$$\operatorname{Im} M = \left\{ c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \mid \forall c_1, c_2 \in R \right\}$$

$$\rightarrow \dim \operatorname{Ker} M + \dim \operatorname{Im} M = 1 + 2 = 3$$

3.	<b>Determinant</b>	. Inverse.	Eigenvalu	ues and E	iaenvectors
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#### **♦** Determinant

- A determinant is a scalar and is defined for a square matrix.
- The **determinant** of an  $n \times n$  matrix A is denoted by |A|.
- |A| is defined as follows:

$$|A| := \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} M_{ij}$$

or

$$|A| := \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} M_{ij}$$

where  $M_{ij}$  is the determinat of the submatrix of A obtained from omitting the ith row and jth column.

- Properties of determinant
  - Interchange of two rows (or columns) multiplies the value of the determinant by -1.
  - Addition of a multiple of a row (or column) to another row (or column) does not alter the value of the determinant.
  - Multiplication of a row (or column) by a nonzero constant c
     multiplies the value of the determinant by c.
  - When A and B are  $n \times n$  matrices, |AB| = |A||B|
  - When A is an  $n \times n$  matrix, rank (A) = n if and only if  $|A| \neq 0$

## ◆ Examples

$$\bullet \left| \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & 4 \\ -1 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \right| = 1 \left| \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \right| - 3 \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \right| + 0 \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right| = -12$$

$$\bullet \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \right| = -1 \left| \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \right| = -1$$

$$\bullet \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \right| = \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 7 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \right| = -1$$

$$\bullet \left| \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 6 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \right| = 2 \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \right| = -2$$

$$\bullet \quad \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right| = \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right| = \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right| \left| \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right| = -1$$

◆ Inverse matrix

The **inverse** of an  $n \times n$  matrix A is denoted by  $A^{-1}$  and is an  $n \times n$  matrix such that  $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$ .

If A has an inverse, the inverse is unique.

• If A has an inverse, then A is called a nonsingular matrix. If A has no inverse, then A is called a singular matrix.

- Computation method for a inverse matrix
  - The inverse of a nonsingular matrix A  $(n \times n)$  can be given by

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \operatorname{adj}(A)$$

where adj(A) is adjoint matrix with its (i, j)th element  $A_{ij}$  given by

$$A_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} M_{ji}$$

 $(M_{ij} \text{ is the determinat of the submatrix of } A \text{ obtained from}$ omitting the ith row and jth column)

If you want to compute a inverse matrix by hand, a numerical method such as Gauss Elimination can be helpful, but this course omits the details for a limited time. Properties of a inverse matrix

■ The inverse  $A^{-1}$  of an  $n \times n$  matrix A exists if and only if  $|A| \neq 0$ 

■ If A  $(n \times n)$  and B  $(n \times n)$  are nonsingular,  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$ 

- If A  $(n \times n)$  is a nonsingular matrix and  $\alpha$  is a scalar,  $(\alpha A)^{-1} = A^{-1}/\alpha$
- If A  $(n \times n)$  is a nonsingular matrix,  $|A^{-1}| = 1/|A|$

## ◆ Examples

- For  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ , there is no inverse of A
- $\bullet \left( \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$
- $\bullet \left(2\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\\0 & 1\end{bmatrix}\right)^{-1} = \frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix}1 & -1\\0 & 1\end{bmatrix}$
- $\bullet \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \right| = 1 / \left| \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \right| = \frac{1}{5}$

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

• For a given  $n \times n$  matrix A, if there exists a scalar  $\lambda$  such and a nonzero vector v such that

$$Av = \lambda v$$

Then, v is called an **eigenvector** of A corresponding to this **eigenvalue**  $\lambda$ .

Properties of eigenvalues

■ The **eigenvalues** of an  $n \times n$  matrix A are the roots of the characteristic equation

$$\det(sI - A) = 0$$

• When A is an  $n \times n$  matrix and has the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  (allowed for multiplicity), |A| is equal to  $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \cdots \lambda_n$ 

### **♦** Example

• 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 has its characteristic equation given by

$$\det(sI - A) = s^3 + s^2 - 21s - 45 = (s - 5)(s + 3)^2 = 0$$

For 
$$\lambda_1 = 5$$
,  $(\lambda_1 I - A)v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -2 & 3 \\ -2 & 4 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} \\ v_{12} \\ v_{13} \end{bmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

For 
$$\lambda_2 = -3$$
,  $(\lambda_2 I - A)v_2 = \begin{vmatrix} -1 & -2 & 3 \\ -2 & -4 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & -3 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} v_{21} \\ v_{22} \\ v_{23} \end{vmatrix} = 0$ 

$$\rightarrow v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2\\1\\0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} 3\\0\\1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Summary of determinant, inverse matrix and eigenvalue

• For an  $n \times n$  matrix A, the followings are equivalent:

- (a) A is a nonsingular (i.e., there exists a  $A^{-1}$ ).
- (b)  $|A| \neq 0$ .
- (c) rank (A) = n.
- (d) 0 is not an eigenvalue of A.

◆ Advanced issue 1 - Characteristics of Determinant

• When A is an  $n \times n$  matrix and D is an  $m \times m$  matrix, we obtain the following relations:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \end{vmatrix} = |A||D - CA^{-1}B| \quad \text{(when } |A| \neq 0\text{)}$$
$$= |D||A - BD^{-1}C| \quad \text{(when } |D| \neq 0\text{)}$$

• When B is an  $n \times m$  matrix and C is an  $m \times n$  matrix, we obtain the following relation:

$$|I_n + BC| = |I_m + CB|$$

- Advanced issue 2 Matrix Inversion Lemma
  - If A is an  $n \times n$  matrix and D is an  $m \times m$  matrix,

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} + A^{-1}BS^{-1}CA^{-1} & -A^{-1}BS^{-1} \\ -S^{-1}CA^{-1} & S^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
where  $S = D - CA^{-1}B$ 

$$(\text{when } |A| \neq 0, |S| \neq 0)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} K^{-1} & -K^{-1}BD^{-1} \\ -D^{-1}CK^{-1} & D^{-1} + D^{-1}CK^{-1}BD^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
where  $K = A - BD^{-1}C$ 

$$(\text{when } |D| \neq 0, |K| \neq 0)$$

• If A is an  $n \times n$  nonsingular matrix and B is an  $n \times m$  matrix and C is an  $m \times n$  matrix,

$$(A + BC)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(I_m + CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1}$$

4. Quadratic Form, Singular values, Cayley-Hamilton Theorem and Diagonalization

#### ◆ Quadratic form

• A quadratic form in the components  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  of a vector  $x := [x_1 \cdots x_n]^T$  is a sum of  $n^2$  terms, namely,

$$x^{T}Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}x_{i}x_{j}$$

#### • Example

$$2x_1^2 - 2x_1x_2 + 4x_1x_3 + x_2^2 + 6x_3$$

$$= 2x_1^2 - x_1x_2 + 2x_1x_3 + x_2^2 - x_2x_1 + 6x_3^2 + 2x_3x_1$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### ◆ Positive definite matrix

• A symmetric matrix  $A(=A^T)$  is said to be positive definite, if  $x^TAx > 0 \quad (\forall x \neq 0)$ 

• A symmetric matrix  $A(=A^T)$  is said to be semi-positive definite, if  $x^TAx \geq 0 \quad (\forall x \neq 0)$ 

### ◆ Basic property of a (semi-)positive definite matrix

•  $\lambda_i$  (i = 1, ..., n): Eigenvalues of an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix A

(1) A is a positive definite matrix  $\Leftrightarrow \lambda_i > 0 \ (\forall i)$ 

(2) A is a semi-positive definite matrix  $\Leftrightarrow \lambda_i \geq 0 \ (\forall i)$ 

\*All eigenvalues of a real symmetric matrix are real

◆ Advanced properties of a (semi-)positive definite matrix

- The followings are equivalent for a symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix Q.
  - (1) Q is a positive definite matrix.

(2) All eigenvalues of Q are strictly positive.

(3) There exists an  $n \times n$  nonsingular matrix H such that  $Q = H^T H$ .

### ◆ Example

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

- $x^T A x = (x_1 x_2)^2 + (x_1 + 2x_3)^2 + 2x_3^2$   $\rightarrow x^T A x = 0$  only if  $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = 0$  $\rightarrow A$  is a positive definite matrix
- $\det(sI A) = (s 2)(s^2 7s + 1) = 0$  $\rightarrow$  Eigenvalues  $\lambda = 2, (7 \pm \sqrt{5})/2$  are larger than 0 + A is a positive definite matrix

# ◆ Singular values

Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix, and consider the matrix  $A^T A$ .

Because  $A^T A$  is an  $n \times n$  (semi-)positive definite matrix,

- its eigenvalues are real
- its eigenvalues are equal or larger than 0
- let  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  denote the eigenvalues of  $A^T A$  with repetitions.

The numbers  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n$   $(\sigma_i := \sqrt{\lambda_i})$  are called the **singular values** of A.

### ◆ Example

For 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 \\ -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

•  $|\lambda I - A| = \lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 6 = 0$  $\rightarrow$  Eigenvalues:  $\lambda = 2, 3$ 

•  $|\lambda I - A^T A| = \lambda^2 - 38\lambda + 36 = 0$  $\rightarrow$  Singular values:  $\sigma = \sqrt{19 + 5\sqrt{13}}, \sqrt{19 - 5\sqrt{13}}$ 

# ◆ Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

• For an  $n \times n$  matrix A whose characteristic equation given by

$$a(s) = s^{n} + a_{1}s^{n-1} + a_{2}s^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1}s + a_{n} = 0$$

the following relation holds:

$$a(A) = A^{n} + a_1 A^{n-1} + a_2 A^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1} A + a_n I = 0$$

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

$$a(s) = s^2 - s - 3 = 0$$

$$a(A) = A^{2} - A - 3I = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

### ◆ Diagonalizable matrix

- A square  $n \times n$  matrix A is called diagonalizable if there exist matrices P and  $P^{-1}$  such that  $P^{-1}AP$  is a diagonal matrix.
- An  $n \times n$  matrix A is diagonalizable if and only if A has n linearly independent eigenvectors.

• If  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$  are linearly independent eigenvectors of A corresponding to the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ , respectively,

$$P^{-1}AP = \Lambda := \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}, \text{ where } P := \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\to A^n = P\Lambda^n P^{-1}$$

### Sufficient condition for diagonalizability

• If a square  $n \times n$  matrix A has different eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  (i.e.,  $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j, \forall i, j$ ), A is a diagonalizable matrix.

#### ◆ Example

For 
$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $\lambda_1 = 1$ ,  $\lambda_2 = -1$  and  $v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$ 

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

→ diagonalizable matrix

# ◆ Issues on diagonalizablity of a matrix

• If the characteristic equation det(sI - A) = 0for an  $n \times n$  matrix A has multiple roots, there could exist a case such that A is non-diagonalizable.

• It is not true that a matrix whose characteristic equation has multiple roots is always non-diagonalizable.

• In contrast to the case of a nonsingular matrix, |A| = 0 does not mean A is non-diagonalizable and  $|A| \neq 0$  does not mean A is diagonalizable.

# ◆ Example1

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 has the characteristic equation  $(s-1)^2 = 0$  and only one corresponding eigenvector  $v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

→ non-diagonalizable matrix

# ◆ Example2

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ has the characteristic equation } (s-3)s = 0$$
and the corresponding eigenvectors  $v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$ 

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

→ diagonalizable matrix

# ◆ Example3

$$A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ has the characteristic equation } (s-2)(s+1)^2 = 0$$

and the corresponding eigenvectors 
$$v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, v_{-11} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, v_{-12} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

→ diagonalizable matrix

#### 5. Jordan Canonical Form

- ◆ Jordan canonical form (for a non-diagonalizable matrix)
  - For every  $n \times n$  matrix A, there exists a nonsingular matrix P that transforms A into

$$J = P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} J_{p_1}(\lambda_1) & & & \\ & J_{p_2}(\lambda_2) & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & J_{p_N}(\lambda_N) \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $J_{p_i}(\lambda_i)$  is a Jordan block defined as

$$J_{p_i}(\lambda_i) = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_i & 1 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix} \quad (p_i \times p_i)$$

and each  $\lambda_i$  is an eigenvalue of A.

# Geometric and Algebraic Multiplicities

- For an eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  of an  $n \times n$  matrix A, assume that
  - 1. There are  $\kappa_i$  Jordan blocks which have  $\lambda_i$  as diagonal elements
  - 2. Each Jordan block has size of  $n_{ip} \times n_{ip}$   $(p = 1, ..., \kappa_i)$

Then, the geometric and algebraic multiplicaties are defined as follows:

- $\kappa_i$ : Geometric Multiplicity  $\operatorname{rank}(A \lambda_i I) = n \kappa_i$

- $n_i := n_{i1} + \dots + n_{i\kappa_i}$ : Algebraic Multiplicity  $\det(sI A) = \prod_{i=1}^l (s \lambda_i)^{n_i}$

### ◆ Non-derogatory matrix and derogatory matrix

Case I: For all eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$ ,  $\kappa_i = n_i$  (i = 1, ..., l).

- $\rightarrow$  All the Jordan blocks have size of  $1 \times 1$ .
- $\rightarrow A$  is diagonalizable.

Case II: For all eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$ ,  $\kappa_i = 1$  (i = 1, ..., l).

- $\rightarrow$  There exists only one Jordan block for each eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ .
- $\rightarrow$  In this case, we call A a **non-derogatory** matrix.

Case III: There exist an eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  such that  $\kappa_i \geq 2$ .

- $\rightarrow$  There exist two or more Jordan blocks for an eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ .
- $\rightarrow$  In this case, we call A a **derogatory** matrix.

lacktriangle Non-derogatory case (one Jordan block for each eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ )

Let us assume for an  $n \times n$  matrix A that

$$\det(sI - A) = (s - \lambda_1)^{n_1} (s - \lambda_2)^{n_2} \cdots (s - \lambda_l)^{n_l}$$
$$(\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j, \ \forall i, j; \quad n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_l = n)$$

For an eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  with the algebraic multiplicity  $n_i$ ,

let us define the vectors  $v_{i,1}, \ldots, v_{i,n_i}$  as follows:

$$(\lambda_i I - A)v_{i,1} = 0$$

$$(\lambda_i I - A)v_{i,2} = -v_{i,1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$(\lambda_i I - A)v_{i,n_i} = -v_{i,n_i-1}$$

Then, we define the  $n \times n_i$  matrix  $P(\lambda_i)$  as

$$P(\lambda_i) := \begin{bmatrix} v_{i,1} & v_{i,2} & \cdots & v_{i,n_i} \end{bmatrix}$$

Applying this procedure to all the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_l$  leads to

$$P(\lambda_1) := [v_{1,1} \quad \cdots \quad v_{1,n_1}], \ldots, P(\lambda_l) := [v_{l,1} \quad \cdots \quad v_{l,n_l}]$$

Here, if we define the  $n \times n$  matrix P as

$$P := \begin{bmatrix} P(\lambda_1) & P(\lambda_2) & \cdots & P(\lambda_l) \end{bmatrix}$$

we can obtain the following Jordan canonical form:

$$J = P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} J_{n_1}(\lambda_1) & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & J_{n_l}(\lambda_l) \end{bmatrix}$$

### **♦** Example

For 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -5 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$
, we have  $\det(sI - A) = (s+1)^2(s+2) = 0$ 

For 
$$\lambda_1 = -1$$
, rank $(\lambda_1 I - A) = \text{rank} \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = 2 = 3 - 1$ 

 $\rightarrow A$  is a non-derogatory matrix.

From 
$$(\lambda_1 I - A)v_{1,1} = 0$$
,  $(\lambda_1 I - A)v_{1,2} = -v_{1,1}$ ,

$$v_{1,1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad v_{1,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

On the other hand, for  $\lambda_2 = -2$ ,

$$(\lambda_2 I - A)v_{2,1} = 0$$
 leads to  $v_{2,1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$ 

By defining 
$$P := \begin{bmatrix} v_{1,1} & v_{1,2} & v_{2,1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1/2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$
,

lacktriangle Derogatory case  $(p_i \text{ Jordan block for each eigenvalue } \lambda_i)$ 

Let us assume for an  $n \times n$  matrix A that

$$\det(sI - A) = (s - \lambda_1)^{n_1} (s - \lambda_2)^{n_2} \cdots (s - \lambda_l)^{n_l}$$
$$(\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j, \ \forall i, j; \quad n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_l = n)$$

For an eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  with the geometric multiplicity  $p_i$ , i.e.,

$$rank(\lambda_i I - A) = n - p_i \ (p_i \ge 2)$$

we can compute the following r vectors through trial and error:

$$(\lambda_{i}I - A)v_{i,1,1} = 0 \qquad (\lambda_{i}I - A)v_{i,p_{i},1} = 0 (\lambda_{i}I - A)v_{i,1,2} = -v_{i,1,1} \qquad (\lambda_{i}I - A)v_{i,p_{i},2} = -v_{i,p_{i},1} \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots (\lambda_{i}I - A)v_{i,1,m_{i1}} = -v_{i,1,m_{i1}-1} \qquad (\lambda_{i}I - A)v_{i,p_{i},m_{ip_{i}}} = -v_{i,p_{i},m_{ip_{i}}-1} m_{i1} + m_{i2} + \dots + m_{ip_{i}} = n_{i}$$

Then, we define the  $n \times n_i$  matrix  $P(\lambda_i)$  as

$$P(\lambda_i) := \begin{bmatrix} v_{i,1,1} & \cdots & v_{i,1,m_{i1}} & \cdots & v_{i,p_i,1} & \cdots & v_{i,p_i,m_{ip_i}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Applying this procedure to all the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_l$  leads to

$$P := \begin{bmatrix} P(\lambda_1) & P(\lambda_2) & \cdots & P(\lambda_l) \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, we can obtain the following Jordan canonical form:

$$J = P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} J_{m_{11}}(\lambda_1) & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & \\ & & J_{m_{1p_1}}(\lambda_1) & & & & \\ & & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & & J_{m_{l1}}(\lambda_l) & & & \\ & & & & \ddots & & \\ & & & & & J_{m_{lp_{lo2}}}(\lambda_l) \end{bmatrix}$$

### ◆ Example

For 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $\det(sI - A) = (s+1)^3 s = 0$ 

For 
$$\lambda_1 = -1$$
,
$$\operatorname{rank}(\lambda_1 I - A) = \operatorname{rank} \left( \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = 2 = 4 - 2$$

 $\rightarrow A$  is a derogatory matrix.

For  $\lambda_1 = -1$ , there exsit 2 (=geometric multiplicity) Jordan blocks and the sum of their sizes is 3 (=algebraic multiplicity)

 $\rightarrow$  Jordan blocks for  $\lambda_1$  have sizes of 1 and 2.

From  $(\lambda_1 I - A)v_{1,k,1} = 0$  (k = 1, 2),

$$v_{1,1,1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad v_{1,2,1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Becuase  $v_{1,1,1} \notin \text{Im } (\lambda_1 I - A)$ , there is no  $v_{1,1,2}$  but  $v_{1,2,2}$  such that

$$(\lambda_1 I - A)v_{1,2,2} = -v_{1,2,1}$$
 and thus  $v_{1,2,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

On the other hand, for  $\lambda_2 = 0$ ,

$$(\lambda_2 I - A)v_{2,1,1} = 0$$
 leads to  $v_{2,1,1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ 

By defining 
$$P := \begin{bmatrix} v_{1,1,1} & v_{1,2,1} & v_{1,2,2} & v_{2,1,1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
,

$$\rightarrow P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$