

Spectral Decomposition:

In the last section, we solved the eigenvalue/eigenvector equation:

$$A \cdot V = V \cdot \Lambda$$

for Λ :

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

However, we can also solve it for A :

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

This is called the spectral decomposition of the square matrix A . It is very useful for many purposes.

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Polynomials in A:

Let us compute A^2 :

$$\begin{aligned}A^2 &= (V \cdot \Lambda \cdot V^{-1})^2 \\&= (V \cdot \Lambda \cdot V^{-1}) \cdot (V \cdot \Lambda \cdot V^{-1}) \\&= V \cdot \Lambda \cdot (V^{-1} \cdot V) \cdot \Lambda \cdot V^{-1} \\&= V \cdot \Lambda \cdot I^{(n)} \cdot \Lambda \cdot V^{-1} \\&= V \cdot \Lambda \cdot \Lambda \cdot V^{-1} \\&= V \cdot \Lambda^2 \cdot V^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

Similarly:

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

┌ This is how Matlab actually
computes A^n . ┘

Transcendental Functions:

We have already seen the Taylor-series expansion of e^{At} :

$$e^{At} = I^{(n)} + At + \frac{A^2 t^2}{2!} + \frac{A^3 t^3}{3!} + \dots$$

Until now, we computed e^{At} using:

$$e^{At} = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ (sI^{(n)} - A)^{-1} \right\}$$

The spectral decomposition offers a new way to compute e^{At} :

$$\begin{aligned} e^{At} &= V \cdot I^{(n)} \cdot V^{-1} + V \cdot \Lambda \cdot t \cdot V^{-1} + \frac{V \cdot \Lambda^2 t^2 \cdot V^{-1}}{2!} + \dots \\ &= V \left[I^{(n)} + \Lambda t + \frac{\Lambda^2 t^2}{2!} + \frac{\Lambda^3 t^3}{3!} + \dots \right] V^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{At} = V \cdot e^{\Lambda t} \cdot V^{-1}$$

Since $\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \emptyset \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ \emptyset & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$

is a diagonal matrix (if all eigenvalues are distinct),

$$\Rightarrow e^{\Lambda t} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} & & \emptyset \\ & e^{\lambda_2 t} & \\ \emptyset & & \ddots \\ & & & e^{\lambda_n t} \end{bmatrix}$$

can be written at once.

[This is how Matlab computes $\text{expm}(A * t)$.]

The concept can be generalized to all functions that have Taylor-series expansions.

For example:

$$\sin(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \sin(A) = A - \frac{A^3}{3!} + \frac{A^5}{5!} - \frac{A^7}{7!} + \dots$$

can be computed as:

$$\sin(A) = V \cdot \sin(\Lambda) \cdot V^{-1}$$

Obviously:

$$e^{jA} = \cos(A) + j \cdot \sin(A)$$

works now also for matrices.

Functions that have a Taylor-series expansion are called transcendental functions.

Cayley-Hamilton Theorem:

Given a matrix A , e.g.

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

Square matrices have a characteristic polynomial:

$$\begin{aligned} & (\lambda+1)(\lambda+2)(\lambda+3) \\ & = \lambda^3 + 6\lambda^2 + 11\lambda + 6 \end{aligned}$$

The roots of the characteristic polynomial are the eigenvalues of A . They can be found

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from the equation:

$$\lambda^3 + 6\lambda^2 + 11\lambda + 6 = 0$$

The Cayley-Hamilton theorem states that every square matrix satisfies its own characteristic polynomial, i.e. :

$$A^3 + 6 \cdot A^2 + 11 \cdot A + 6 \cdot I^{(4)} = 0$$

Proof:

$$V [\lambda^3 + 6\lambda^2 + 11\lambda + 6 \cdot I^{(4)}] \cdot V^{-1} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^3 + 6V^2 + 11\lambda + 6 \cdot I^{(4)} = 0$$

However, since:

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$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \phi & \phi \\ \phi & \lambda_2 & \phi \\ \phi & \phi & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} (\lambda_1^3 + 6\lambda_1^2 + 11\lambda_1 + 6) & \phi & \phi \\ \phi & (\lambda_2^3 + 6\lambda_2^2 + 11\lambda_2 + 6) & \phi \\ \phi & \phi & (\lambda_3^3 + 6\lambda_3^2 + 11\lambda_3 + 6) \end{bmatrix} = \phi$$

which is obviously true.

q.e.d.

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{A^3 = -6 \cdot I^{(n)} - 11 \cdot A - 6 \cdot A^2}$$

A square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ has the property that A^n is linearly dependent on powers of $A < n$.

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We can expand the previous equation by A :

$$A^4 = -6A - 11 \cdot A^2 - 6 \cdot A^3 \\ \text{etc.}$$

⇒ All higher powers of A can be computed as linear combinations of lower powers.