

## Toeplitz & Hankel Matrices

Lemma: Polynomial multiplications can be expressed as multiplications of Toeplitz matrices with vectors.

Example:  $a(s) = -3 + 6s + 5s^2$   
 $b(s) = -8 + 7s$

$$\Rightarrow c(s) = a(s) \cdot b(s) \equiv b(s) \cdot a(s)$$
$$= 24 - 69s + 2s^2 + 55s^3$$

This can be written as:

$$c_s = T_e(a_s) \cdot b_s \equiv T_e(b_s) \cdot a_s$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -3 & 0 \\ 6 & -3 \\ 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -8 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 24 \\ -69 \\ 2 \\ 35 \end{bmatrix}$$

∴  $\begin{bmatrix} -8 & \phi & \phi \\ 7 & -8 & \phi \\ \phi & 7 & -8 \\ \phi & \phi & 7 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 6 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 24 \\ -69 \\ 2 \\ 35 \end{bmatrix}$

q.e.d.

Of course, if we reverse the order of the coefficients (start with the highest order coefficients), it works just as well, e.g.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 7 & \phi & \phi \\ -8 & 7 & \phi \\ \phi & -8 & 7 \\ \phi & \phi & -8 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 35 \\ 2 \\ -69 \\ 24 \end{bmatrix}$$

If only one of the polynomials is reversed, the Toeplitz-matrix turns into a Hankel-matrix:

$$\mathcal{H}_{up}\{\underline{a}_s\} \cdot R\{\underline{b}_s\} = \underline{c}_s$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -8 \\ 0 & -8 & 7 \\ -8 & 7 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 24 \\ -69 \\ 2 \\ 35 \end{bmatrix}$$

- As polynomial multiplications are so common in frequency domain operations, Toeplitz- and Hankel-matrices (their equivalent time-domain operators) must be equally common.
- The reversal-operator corresponds to replacing  $s \rightarrow (\frac{1}{s})$  in the frequency domain:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(s) &= 7 + 21s + 13s^2 + s^3 \\
 &\equiv s^3 \left( 7s^{-3} + 21s^{-2} + 13s^{-1} + 1 \right) \\
 &\equiv s^3 \left[ 1 + 13\left(\frac{1}{s}\right) + 21\left(\frac{1}{s}\right)^2 + 7\left(\frac{1}{s}\right)^3 \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

⇒ The coefficients have been reversed.

- This gives rise to yet another interpretation of the Markov parameters. From p. 81, we remember that:

$$P_s = f_{\text{flip}}(q_s) \cdot F$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & & & & a_{n-1} & 1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & & & \vdots & \\ a_{n-1} & & & & \ddots & \\ & \ddots & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix}$$

This can be reinterpreted in the light of our new discovery:

$$\begin{matrix} \text{A} \\ \left[ \begin{array}{cccccc} \phi & & & & & \\ a_0 & a_1 & & & & \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_{n-1} & & & \\ & a_2 & a_3 & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & & & a_{n-1} & \phi & \\ & & & & & 1 \end{array} \right] \\ \times \end{matrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_n \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_2 \\ \gamma_1 \\ b_0 \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Interpretation in the frequency domain:

$$q(s) \cdot \left[ s^n \cdot \beta\left(\frac{1}{s}\right) \right] =$$
$$\gamma_n + \gamma_{n-1}s + \dots + \gamma_2s^{n-2} + \gamma_1s^{n-1}$$
$$+ b_0s^n + b_1s^{n+1} + \dots + b_{n-1}s^{2n-1}$$

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$$\Rightarrow q(s) \cdot \beta\left(\frac{1}{s}\right) = g\left(\frac{1}{s}\right) + p(s)$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\beta\left(\frac{1}{s}\right)} = G(s) + \frac{g\left(\frac{1}{s}\right)}{q(s)}$$

where:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & & a_0 \\ & \ddots & a_1 \\ a_0 & a_1 & \ddots & a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} g_n \\ g_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ g_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

or:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & \cdots & a_{n-1} \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & a_0 \\ & & \ddots & a_1 \\ & & & a_0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} g_1 \\ g_2 \\ \vdots \\ g_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{g}} = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \{q_s\} \cdot \underline{\underline{\beta}}$$

## Eigenvalues:

Def: An eigenvalue of a square matrix is a scalar  $\lambda$  for which a non-trivial solution ( $\underline{x} \neq \phi$ ) of the equation

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

exists.

$$\Leftrightarrow \underbrace{(\lambda I - A)}_M \underline{x} = \begin{matrix} \phi \\ \underline{b} \end{matrix}$$

If  $M$  is regular:

$$\Rightarrow \underline{x} = M^{-1} \cdot \underline{b} \equiv \phi$$

$\Rightarrow$  only trivial solution exists.

$\Rightarrow$  A non-trivial solution  $\lambda$  exists only if  $M$  is singular

$$\Leftrightarrow \text{Rank } (\lambda I - A) < n$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \det(\lambda I - A) = \phi$$

$$\text{As } G(s) = \underline{c}' (\underline{sI} - \underline{A})^{-1} \underline{b} + d \\ = \underline{c}' (\underline{sI} - \underline{A})^+ \underline{b} + d \mid (\underline{sI} - \underline{A}) \\ \mid (\underline{sI} - \underline{A})$$

$$(\Rightarrow) \begin{cases} q(s) = \det(\underline{sI} - \underline{A}) \\ p(s) = \underline{c}' \text{adj}(\underline{sI} - \underline{A}) \underline{b} + d \cdot \det(\underline{sI}) \end{cases}$$

• The roots of  $q(s)$  are identical with the eigenvalues of  $\underline{A}$ . The polynomial  $\det(\lambda I - \underline{A})$  is called the characteristic polynomial of the system matrix  $\underline{A}$ .

- One (good!) way to compute the Roots of a polynomial is to find a matrix which has the same characteristic

polynomial, and solve for its eigenvalues, e.g.

$$q(s) = q_0 + q_1 s + q_2 s^2 + \dots + q_{n-1} s^{n-1}$$
$$\Rightarrow A = \begin{bmatrix} & & & \emptyset \\ & \ddots & & \\ \emptyset & & \ddots & \\ -q_0 & -q_1 & \dots & -q_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

is such a matrix.

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\text{Roots}\{q(s)\} \equiv \text{Eig}\{\mathcal{L}_0\{q_s\}\}}$$

This is the reason why the above matrix is often called companion matrix.

- As the transfer function is unique  $\Rightarrow$  eigenvalues are insensitive to similarity transformations.

Direct Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\det(\lambda I - \hat{A}) &= \det(\lambda I - TAT^{-1}) \\&= \det(\lambda TT^{-1} - TAT^{-1}) \\&= \det[T(\lambda I - A)T^{-1}] \\&= \det(T) \cdot \det(\lambda I - A) \cdot \det(T^{-1}) \\&= \det(T) \cdot \det(T^{-1}) \cdot \det(\lambda I - A) \\&= \det(T \cdot T^{-1}) \cdot \det(\lambda I - A) \\&= \det(I) \cdot \det(\lambda I - A) \\&= \det(\lambda I - A) \quad \text{q.e.d.}\end{aligned}$$

Eigen vectors:

Defn: Eigen vectors  $\underline{v}_i$  of eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  are solutions to the equation:

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

Or:

$$(\lambda_i I - A) \cdot \underline{v}_i = \phi$$

$$\text{Rank}(\lambda; I - A) = g_i < n$$

$\Rightarrow$  There exist as many linearly independent eigenvectors as the Rank deficiency (nullity) of  $(\lambda; I - A)$  indicates:

$$\Leftrightarrow \boxed{\#\underline{v}_i \equiv \lambda_i = n - g_i}$$

- We notice that eigenvectors are not totally determined.

Proof:  $(\lambda; I - A) \cdot \underline{v}_i = \emptyset$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha \cdot (\lambda; I - A) \cdot \underline{v}_i = \emptyset ; \forall \alpha \neq$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda; I - A) \cdot \underbrace{(\alpha \cdot \underline{v}_i)}_{\text{this is also}} = \emptyset$$

this is also  
an eigenvector.

$\Rightarrow$  Eigenvectors are only determined up to their lengths. Can be normalized.

Example :

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

$$\Rightarrow \det(\lambda I - A) = \begin{vmatrix} \lambda & -1 & \phi \\ \phi & (\lambda+1) & -1 \\ \phi & \phi & (\lambda+2) \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \lambda(\lambda+1)(\lambda+2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\lambda_1 = \phi} ; \underline{\lambda_2 = -1} ; \underline{\lambda_3 = -2}$$


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$$(\lambda_i I - A) \underline{v_i} = \phi$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & -1 & \phi \\ \phi & (\lambda_i+1) & -1 \\ \phi & \phi & (\lambda_i+2) \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} v_{1i} \\ v_{2i} \\ v_{3i} \end{bmatrix} = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} \lambda_i v_{1i} - v_{2i} = \phi \\ (\lambda_i+1) v_{2i} - v_{3i} = \phi \\ (\lambda_i+2) v_{3i} = \phi \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\underline{\lambda}_1 = \phi : \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} -v_{21} = \phi \\ v_{21} - v_{31} = \phi \\ 2v_{31} = \phi \end{array} \right|$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{21} = v_{31} = \phi$$

We can choose  $v_{ii}$  freely, e.g.

$$\underline{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \phi \\ \phi \end{bmatrix} ; \quad |\underline{v}_1| = 1$$

$$\underline{\lambda}_2 = -1 : \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} -v_{12} - v_{22} = \phi \\ -v_{32} = \phi \\ v_{32} = \phi \end{array} \right|$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{32} = \phi ; \quad v_{22} = -v_{12}$$

e.g.

$$\underline{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ \phi \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Normalization: } |\underline{v}_2| = \sqrt{1+1} = \sqrt{2}$$

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$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.707 \\ -0.707 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\lambda_3 = -2$ : 
$$\left| \begin{array}{l} -2v_{13} - v_{23} = \phi \\ -v_{23} - v_{33} = \phi \\ \phi = \phi \end{array} \right|$$

e.g.  $\underline{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$|\underline{v}_3| = \sqrt{1+4+4} = \sqrt{9} = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ -2/3 \\ 2/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Without proof:

- Distinct eigenvalues have always exactly one eigenvector associated with them.

## Multiple Eigenvalues:

Example:

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

$$\Rightarrow \det(\lambda I - A) = \begin{vmatrix} (\lambda-1) & \phi & \phi \\ -1 & (\lambda-1) & -1 \\ 1 & \phi & \lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \lambda(\lambda-1)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\lambda_1 = \phi} ; \quad \underline{\lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 1}$$


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$$(\lambda_i I - A) v_{i,:} = \phi$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} (\lambda_i - 1) & \phi & \phi \\ -1 & (\lambda_i - 1) & -1 \\ 1 & \phi & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} v_{1,i} \\ v_{2,i} \\ v_{3,i} \end{bmatrix} = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} (\lambda_i - 1) v_{1,i} = \phi \\ -v_{1,i} + (\lambda_i - 1) v_{2,i} - v_{3,i} = \phi \\ v_{1,i} + \lambda_i v_{3,i} = \phi \end{cases}$$

$$\lambda_1 = \phi : \quad v_{11} = \phi ; \quad v_{21} = -v_{31}$$

e.g.  $\underline{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \phi \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$|\underline{v}_1| = \sqrt{2} \Rightarrow \underline{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \phi \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 1 : \quad v_{32} = -v_{12}$$

e.g.  $\underline{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \phi \\ 1 \\ \phi \end{bmatrix}; \quad \underline{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \phi \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

normalized:

$$\underline{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \phi \\ 1 \\ \phi \end{bmatrix}; \quad \underline{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \phi \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$\underline{v}_2$  and  $\underline{v}_3$  are linearly independent.  $\iff$

$$\text{Rank}(\lambda_2 I - A) = \text{Rank} \begin{bmatrix} \phi & \phi & \phi \\ -1 & \phi & -1 \\ 1 & \phi & 1 \end{bmatrix} =$$

- We notice that, in this example, the multiple eigenvalue led to multiple eigenvectors.

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \det(\lambda I - A) = \begin{vmatrix} (\lambda - 1) & -1 \\ 0 & (\lambda - 1) \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (\lambda - 1)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} (\lambda_i - 1) & -1 \\ 0 & (\lambda_i - 1) \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} v_{1i} \\ v_{2i} \end{bmatrix} = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} (\lambda_i - 1)v_{1i} - v_{2i} = \phi \\ (\lambda_i - 1)v_{2i} = \phi \end{cases}$$

$$\underline{\lambda_1 = 1} : \quad v_{21} = \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}_i = [\phi^i]$$

- We observe that multiple eigenvalues need not lead to multiple eigenvectors:

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} m_i &= \text{mult}\{\lambda_i\} \\ \Rightarrow d_i &\leq m_i \end{aligned}}$$

- Similarly to the above given definition for right eigenvectors, we can create a definition for left eigenvectors:

$$\underline{w}_i^T A = \lambda_i \underline{w}_i^T$$

$$\text{or: } \underline{w}_i^T (\lambda_i I - A) = \phi$$

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