# Linear Systems (034032) lecture no. 12 

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## Previously on Linear Systems . . .

An input / output (I/O) system $G: u \mapsto y$ is a mapping between input and output signals, whose domain is $\mathbb{R}$ (or $\mathbb{Z}$, in the discrete case). To analyze them at time instances $t \geq 0$ we need to

- either know the whole input history in $t<0$
- or assume that all inputs have support in $\mathbb{R}_{+}$


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- either know the whole input history in $t<0$
- or assume that all inputs have support in $\mathbb{R}_{+}$

The LTI system

$$
G:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{x}(t)=A x(t)+B u(t) \\
y(t)=C x(t)+D u(t)
\end{array}\right.
$$

is solved via its state, as

$$
x(t)=\int_{-\infty}^{t} \mathrm{e}^{A(t-s)} B u(s) \mathrm{d} s \Longrightarrow y(t)=\int_{-\infty}^{t} C e^{A(t-s)} B u(s) \mathrm{d} s+D u(t)
$$

## Outline

## Initial conditions

Stability of unforced motion (Lyapunov stability)

Modal behavior

Coda

## Outline

## Initial conditions

## Example


whose dynamics are

$$
m \ddot{y}(t)+c \dot{y}(t)+k y(t)=c \dot{u}(t)+k u(t)
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Suppose that we do not know $u(t)$ in $t \leq 0$ and that $u(t)=0$ for all $t>0$. The question of interest (a variation on the initial value problem) is

- can we determine $y(t)$ for $t>0$ from the knowledge of $y(0)$ and $\dot{y}(0)$ ?


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- can we determine $y(t)$ for $t>0$ from the knowledge of $y(0)$ and $\dot{y}(0)$ ?

To answer this question, select $m=1, c=2$, and $k=1+\pi^{2} \approx 10.870$ (so that $\omega_{\mathrm{n}} \approx 3.3, \zeta \approx 0.3$, and $\left.\omega_{\mathrm{d}}=\pi\right)$ and consider input signals of the form $u=\alpha \mathbb{S}_{2} \mathbb{1}+(\beta-\alpha) \mathbb{S}_{\tau} \mathbb{1}-\beta \mathbb{1}$, i.e.

$$
u(t)=\alpha \mathbb{1}(t+2)+(\beta-\alpha) \mathbb{1}(t+\tau)-\beta \mathbb{1}(t)=\underset{-2}{\prod_{-\tau} \prod_{0}^{\beta}}
$$

for some $\tau \in(0,2)$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$.

## Example (contd)

Consider two choices:

1. $\tau=1, \alpha=\frac{1}{1+\mathrm{e}^{-1}}$, and $\beta=1$ yields

2. $\tau=1-\frac{1}{\pi} \arctan \left(\frac{2 \pi}{\pi^{2}-1}\right), \alpha=0$, and $\beta=\frac{1}{1+\mathrm{e}^{-\tau}}$ yields


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In both cases, $y(0)=1$ and $\dot{y}(0)=0$, but we have different $y(t)$ for $t>0$.
The question now is

- what information does enable us to disregard past inputs?


## State as history accumulator

Given $t_{0}$, let us take another look at the state solution at $t_{0}+t>t_{0}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
x\left(t_{0}+t\right) & =\int_{-\infty}^{t_{0}+t} \mathrm{e}^{A\left(t_{0}+t-s\right)} B u(s) \mathrm{d} s \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{t_{0}} \mathrm{e}^{A\left(t_{0}+t-s\right)} B u(s) \mathrm{d} s+\int_{t_{0}}^{t_{0}+t} \mathrm{e}^{A\left(t_{0}+t-s\right)} B u(s) \mathrm{d} s
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\end{aligned}
$$

and because $\mathrm{e}^{A\left(t_{0}+t-s\right)}=\mathrm{e}^{A t} \mathrm{e}^{A\left(t_{0}-s\right)}$ and $\mathrm{e}^{A t}$ does not depend on $s$,

$$
=\mathrm{e}^{A t} \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{t_{0}} \mathrm{e}^{A\left(t_{0}-s\right)} B u(s) \mathrm{d} s}_{x\left(t_{0}\right)}+\underbrace{\int_{t_{0}}^{t_{0}+t} \mathrm{e}^{A\left(t_{0}+t-s\right)} B u(s) \mathrm{d} s}_{u(s) \text { for } s>t_{0}}
$$

Therefore, the knowledge of $x\left(t_{0}\right)$ and $u(t)$ for $t>t_{0}$ is enough to compute $x(t)$ for all $t>t_{0}$.

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$$

Therefore, the knowledge of $x\left(t_{0}\right)$ and $u(t)$ for $t>t_{0}$ is enough to compute $x(t)$ for all $t>t_{0}$. In other words,

- $x(t)$ at a given $t$ accumulates the effect of the input history up to $t$.


## Example (contd)

Returning to our mass-spring-damper example, what we need to determine $y(t)$ for $t>0$ is a

- state at $t=0$.

This is a realization-dependent issue.

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This is a realization-dependent issue. Pick the observer form, viz.

$$
(A, B, C, D)=\left(\left[\begin{array}{ll}
-c / m & 1 \\
-k / m & 0
\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{l}
c / m \\
k / m
\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0
\end{array}\right], 0\right)
$$

for which (see Lect. 11, Slide 23)

$$
x=\left[\begin{array}{c}
y \\
\dot{y}+\frac{c}{m}(y-u)
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Hence, the information about the system at $t=0$ required to start up is

$$
y(0) \quad \text { and } \quad \dot{y}(0)-\frac{c}{m} u(0) \quad(\text { effectively, } \dot{y}(0) \text { and } u(0))
$$

and $u(0)$ was different in the two studied cases (1 vs. 0.691 ).

## Starting point

The reasoning above implies that

- systems can be analyzed from any time point $t=t_{0}$ if $x\left(t_{0}\right)$ is known. In the time-invariant case this starting point can be always chosen as $t=0$. Consequently, $\mathbb{R}_{+}$is taken as the domain of all involved signals and systems are considered in the form

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{x}(t)=A x(t)+B u(t), \quad x(0)=x_{0} \\
y(t)=C x(t)+D u(t)
\end{array}\right.
$$

with an initial condition $x_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. In other words,

- systems may be treated as mappings $\left(x_{0}, u\right) \mapsto y$ operating on $\mathbb{R}_{+}$ in the state space.
Remark: It shall be emphasized that "operating on $\mathbb{R}_{+}$" is not the same as "having support in $\mathbb{R}_{+}$" assumed when systems were studied from pure I/O perspectives. Unless $x_{0}=0$, the presence of initial conditions implies that involved signals acted in $\mathbb{R}_{-}$as well. The notion of the state just enables us to ignore their particular forms. All we need to know is the state at $t=0$.


## Finite-dimensional systems

Since dynamical systems are those with memory, the property of a state to hold the whole history suggests that

- the dimension of $x(t)$ may be regarded as a measure of the complexity of corresponding dynamics. Systems admitting a finite vector as their state are then called finite dimensional.


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Since dynamical systems are those with memory, the property of a state to hold the whole history suggests that

- the dimension of $x(t)$ may be regarded as a measure of the complexity of corresponding dynamics. Systems admitting a finite vector as their state are then called finite dimensional.

We know that

- an LTI system with a state realization has a proper \& rational transfer function
- an LTI system with a proper \& rational transfer function always admits a state-space realization (cf. canonical realizations)
Hence, an LTI system (with a proper transfer function) is
- finite dimensional iff its transfer function is rational.

Systems with irrational transfer functions, such as the delay element ( $\mathrm{e}^{-\tau s}$ ) or finite-memory integrator $\left(\left(1-\mathrm{e}^{-\mu s}\right) / s\right)$, are infinite dimensional.

## Solution with initial conditions

If

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{x}(t)=A x(t)+B u(t), \quad x(0)=x_{0} \\
y(t)=C x(t)+D u(t)
\end{array}\right.
$$

then

$$
x(t)=\mathrm{e}^{A t} x_{0}+\int_{0}^{t} \mathrm{e}^{A(t-s)} B u(s) \mathrm{d} s
$$

(we already saw that) and

$$
y(t)=C \mathrm{e}^{A t} x_{0}+\int_{0}^{t} C \mathrm{e}^{A(t-s)} B u(s) \mathrm{d} s+D u(t)
$$

As a matter of fact,

- effect of initial conditions on the state is $\mathrm{e}^{A t} x_{0}$
- effect of $u=\delta$ on the state is $\mathrm{e}^{A t} B$

Thus, response to nonzero initial condition and the Dirac delta at the input are closely related, although the former is richer ( $x_{0}$ is arbitrary, $B$ is fixed).

## Initial conditions and similarity transformations

Nothing really special, still the transformation $x \rightarrow \tilde{x}=T x$. Just remember that in the new coordinates

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{\tilde{x}}(t)=\left(T A T^{-1}\right) \tilde{x}(t)+(T B) u(t), \quad \tilde{x}(0)=T_{x_{0}} \\
y(t)=\left(C T^{-1}\right) \tilde{x}(t)+D u(t)
\end{array}\right.
$$

i.e. initial conditions are also affected by $T$.

## Systems with initial conditions in the Laplace domain

In

$$
\dot{x}(t)=A x(t)+B u(t), \quad x(0)=x_{0}
$$

we

- no longer assume that the state $x$ has support in $\mathbb{R}_{+}$
- do not know how $x$ behaved on $\mathbb{R}_{-}$

As such,

- it is natural to switch from the bilateral to unilateral Laplace analysis.

The main consequence of that is the differentiation rule, which is now

$$
y(t)=\dot{x}(t) \Longrightarrow Y(s)=s X(s)-x_{0}
$$

Thus, the state equation reads

$$
X(s)=(s I-A)^{-1} x_{0}+(s I-A)^{-1} B U(s)
$$

## Unforced (autonomous) motion

Given

$$
G:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{x}(t)=A x(t)+B u(t) \\
y(t)=C x(t)+D u(t)
\end{array}\right.
$$

the equation

$$
\dot{x}(t)=A x(t), \quad x(0)=x_{0}
$$

i.e. the state equation with zero inputs, is known as the unforced motion (or autonomous motion) of the system, where the state responds only to initial conditions. Because the

- initial conditions response is a richer form of the impulse response, the unforced motion fully represents properties of the system $G$, while being easier to analyze.

Also worth emphasizing is that for every $t_{0} \geq 0$,

- the behavior of $x(t)$ in $t>t_{0}$ is completely determined by $x\left(t_{0}\right)$, no matter how this $x\left(t_{0}\right)$ was reached.


## Discrete version

The state is still the history accumulator, with the state representation

$$
G:\left\{\begin{aligned}
x[t+1] & =A x[t]+B u[t], \quad x[0]=x_{0} \\
y[t] & =C x[t]+D u[t]
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

and its solution

$$
x[t]=A^{t} x_{0}+\sum_{s=0}^{t} A^{t-s} B u[s] \& y[t]=C A^{t} x_{0}+\sum_{s=0}^{t} C A^{t-s} B u[s]+D u[t]
$$

In the $z$-domain the state variable is

$$
X(z)=(z I-A)^{-1} x_{0}+(z I-A)^{-1} B U(z)
$$

because, again, the need to switch to the unilateral $z$ transform.

## Outline

Stability of unforced motion (Lyapunov stability)

## Lyapunov stability: nonlinear case

An equilibrium $x_{\text {eq }} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ of autonomous dynamics $\dot{x}=f(x)$ is said to be

- stable if for every $\epsilon>0$ there is $\delta=\delta(\epsilon)>0$ such that

$$
\left\|x(0)-x_{\mathrm{eq}}\right\|<\delta \Longrightarrow\left\|x(t)-x_{\mathrm{eq}}\right\|<\epsilon, \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}_{+}
$$

- asymptotically stable if it is stable and there is $\delta>0$ such that

$$
\left\|x(0)-x_{\mathrm{eq}}\right\|<\delta \Longrightarrow \lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}\left\|x(t)-x_{\mathrm{eq}}\right\|=0
$$

The region of attraction of an asymptotically stable equilibrium is the set of initial conditions $x(0)$ that generate states $x$ converging to $x_{\text {eq }}$. If the region of attraction is the whole set $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, then the equilibrium is said to be globally asymptotically stable.
Remark 1: In principle, we may assume w.l.o.g. that $x_{\mathrm{eq}}=0$ in the definition. Otherwise, just rewrite the dynamics in terms of deviations $x_{\delta}=x-x_{\text {eq }}$.
Remark 2: $\delta(\epsilon)$ is clearly a monotonically increasing function of $\epsilon$. But unless the stability property is global, it is not strictly monotonic and often saturates.

## Examples

Pendulum has essentially 2 nontrivial equilibria (assuming no dry friction):

stable

unstable

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## Lyapunov stability: linear case

If the system is linear, i.e. $f(x)=A x$ for some $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, then the stability analysis is greatly simplified.

Theorem
An equilibrium of the system $\dot{x}=A x$ is

- stable iff $\operatorname{spec}(A) \in\{s \in \mathbb{C} \mid \operatorname{Re} s \leq 0\}$ and the geometric multiplicity of every pure imaginary eigenvalue equals its algebraic multiplicity
- asymptotically stable iff $\operatorname{spec}(A) \in\{s \in \mathbb{C} \mid \operatorname{Re} s<0\}$ and those properties are global.

Remark: Because poles of the transfer function belong to $\operatorname{spec}(A)$, a system is I/O stable whenever its state-space realization is asymptotically stable by Lyapunov.

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and those properties are global.
Remark: Because poles of the transfer function belong to $\operatorname{spec}(A)$, a system is I/O stable whenever its state-space realization is asymptotically stable by Lyapunov.

An equilibrium of a linear system must satisfy $A x_{\mathrm{eq}}=0$. Hence,

- if $\operatorname{det}(A) \neq 0$, then the only equilibrium is $x_{\text {eq }}=0$
- if $\operatorname{det}(A)=0$, then there is an infinite number of equilibrium points spanned by all right eigenvectors associated with the eigenvalues of $A$ at the origin


## Connecting linear and nonlinear

Theorem (Lyapunov's indirect method)
Let $\dot{x}=f(x)$ for a continuously differentiable $f: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}, x_{\mathrm{eq}} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be its equilibrium, and

$$
A=\left.\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x}\right|_{x=x_{\mathrm{eq}}} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}
$$

be the corresponding Jacobian.

- If $\operatorname{spec}(A) \in \mathbb{C} \backslash \overline{\mathbb{C}}_{0}$, then $x_{\text {eq }}$ is asymptotically stable.
- If $A$ has at least one eigenvalue in $\mathbb{C}_{0}$, then $x_{\text {eq }}$ is unstable.

Remark: It is worth emphasizing that the equivalence in the asymptotic stability conditions above is normally only local, even though linear properties are global. In other words, if the linearized dynamics $\dot{x}=A x$ are (globally) asymptotically stable, its nonlinear original might still be asymptotically stable only locally.

## Connecting linear and nonlinear (contd)

If the rightmost eigenvalue of the Jacobian matrix is on the imaginary axis, then the stability conclusion is no longer unambiguous.

## Example

Let $\dot{x}=\alpha x^{3}$ for $\alpha \neq 0$. Its only equilibrium is at $x_{\text {eq }}=0$ and the Jacobian $A=0$, for any $\alpha$. The linearized dynamics, $\dot{x}_{\delta}=0$, are stable then.

## Connecting linear and nonlinear (contd)

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$$
x(t)=\frac{x(0)}{\sqrt{1-2 \alpha x^{2}(0) t}}= \begin{cases}x(0) & \text { if } \alpha<0 \\ \underbrace{t}_{0,0} \underbrace{t}_{t_{e} t} & \text { if } \alpha>0\end{cases}
$$

(finite escape point at $t=t_{\mathrm{e}}:=1 /\left(2 \alpha x^{2}(0)\right)$ if $\alpha>0$ ). Thus, the system is

- asymptotically stable if $\alpha<0$
- unstable if $\alpha>0$


## Outline

Modal behavior

## Examples 1 and 2

Consider autonomous linear dynamics

$$
\dot{x}(t)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
-5 & -6
\end{array}\right] x(t) \quad \text { and } \quad \dot{x}(t)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
5 & -4
\end{array}\right] x(t)
$$

whose characteristic polynomials are $(s+5)(s+1)$ and $(s+5)(s-1)$, i.e. one of them is asymptotically stable and another one is unstable. The initial condition responses can be visualized in the state (phase) plane by plotting $x_{2}(t)$ vs. $x_{1}(t)$ as $t$ grows from 0 to $\infty$ :



Responses are qualitatively different for different initial conditions. Why?

## Background: diagonalization

If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is not defective, then all its $n$ (right) eigenvectors $\eta_{i}$ are linearly independent and the matrix having them as columns is nonsingular. Define

$$
T:=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
\eta_{1} & \cdots & \eta_{n}
\end{array}\right] \quad \text { and } \quad T^{-1}=:\left[\begin{array}{c}
v_{1}^{\prime} \\
\vdots \\
v_{n}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right] \quad \Longrightarrow \quad T^{-1} T=\left[v_{i}^{\prime} \eta_{j}\right]
$$

(i.e. $v_{i}$ is the transpose complex conjugate of the $i$ th row of $T^{-1}$ ) such that $v_{i}^{\prime} \eta_{j}=\delta_{i j}$ (Kronecker delta). In this case

$$
A=T \Lambda_{A} T^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
\eta_{1} & \cdots & \eta_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{lll}
\lambda_{1} & & 0 \\
& \ddots & \\
0 & & \lambda_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
v_{1}^{\prime} \\
\vdots \\
v_{n}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right]
$$

If $\lambda_{j}=\overline{\lambda_{i}}$, then ${ }^{1} \eta_{j}=\overline{\eta_{i}}$ and $v_{j}=\overline{v_{i}}$ as well.
${ }^{1}$ Just conjugate $A \eta_{i}=\eta_{i} \lambda_{i}$ and remember that $A$ is real valued to convince yourselves.

## State solution: real eigenvalues

Consider the autonomous state equation

$$
\dot{x}(t)=A x(t), \quad x(0)=x_{0}
$$

and assume that $A$ is not defective with real eigenvalues. The solution

$$
\begin{aligned}
x(t) & =\mathrm{e}^{A t} x_{0}=\mathrm{e}^{T \Lambda_{A} T^{-1} t} x_{0}=T \mathrm{e}^{\Lambda_{A} t} T^{-1} x_{0} \\
& =\left[\begin{array}{lll}
\eta_{1} & \cdots & \eta_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathrm{e}^{\lambda_{1} t} & & 0 \\
& \ddots & \\
0 & & \mathrm{e}^{\lambda_{n} t}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
v_{1}^{\prime} x_{0} \\
\vdots \\
v_{n}^{\prime} x_{0}
\end{array}\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \eta_{i} \mathrm{e}^{\lambda_{i} t}\left(v_{i}^{\prime} x_{0}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Defining $\mu_{i}\left(x_{0}\right):=v_{i}^{\prime} x_{0}:=\left\langle x_{0}, v_{i}\right\rangle \in \mathbb{R}$, we get

$$
x(t)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \eta_{i} \mathrm{e}^{\lambda_{i} t} \mu_{i}\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

where the initial conditions only affect the constant scalar coefficients $\mu_{i}$.

## Modes

The form

$$
x(t)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \eta_{i} \mathrm{e}^{\lambda_{i} t} \mu_{i}\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

means that solutions to unforced systems are a superposition of elementary exponential signals $\exp _{\lambda_{i}}$, each one of which is shaped by the corresponding eigenvectors, $\eta_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. The signal

- $\eta_{i} \exp _{\lambda_{i}}$ is known as the $i$ th mode of the system and the scalar
- $\mu_{i}\left(x_{0}\right)=v_{i}^{\prime} x_{0}$ is called the degree of excitation of the $i$ th mode by $x_{0}$.


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- $\mu_{i}\left(x_{0}\right)=v_{i}^{\prime} x_{0}$ is called the degree of excitation of the $i$ th mode by $x_{0}$. In fact, $\mu_{i}\left(x_{0}\right)$ is the $i$ th coordinate of $x_{0}$ with respect to the eigenbasis $\left\{\eta_{i}\right\}$ of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, cf.
and then

$$
x_{0}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \eta_{i} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \alpha_{i}=v_{i}^{\prime} x_{0}
$$

- $\mathrm{e}^{\lambda_{i} t} \mu_{i}\left(x_{0}\right)$ is the corresponding coordinate of $x(t)$.


## Modal response in the phase plane: Example 1

 Return to the stable 2-order system with $\lambda_{1}=-5$ and $\lambda_{2}=-1$.

The initial conditions $x(0)=\eta_{1}$ and $x(0)=\eta_{2}$ generate the traverse of $x(t)$ along the corresponding eigenvectors

## Modal response in the phase plane: Example 1

 Return to the stable 2-order system with $\lambda_{1}=-5$ and $\lambda_{2}=-1$.


The initial conditions $x(0)=\eta_{1}$ and $x(0)=\eta_{2}$ generate the traverse of $x(t)$ along the corresponding eigenvectors, while $x(0)=-1.25 \eta_{1}-\eta_{2}$ results in a superposition of two modes.

## Modal response in the phase plane: Example 1

 Return to the stable 2-order system with $\lambda_{1}=-5$ and $\lambda_{2}=-1$.


The initial conditions $x(0)=\eta_{1}$ and $x(0)=\eta_{2}$ generate the traverse of $x(t)$ along the corresponding eigenvectors, while $x(0)=-1.25 \eta_{1}-\eta_{2}$ results in a superposition of two modes. Some observations:

- trajectories can never cross the eigenvector lines if do not start there
- asymptotic stability $\Longrightarrow$ every trajectory converges to the origin
- trajectories eventually approach the eigenvector of the slowest mode


## Modal response in the phase plane: Example 2

Return to the unstable 2-order system with $\lambda_{1}=-5$ and $\lambda_{2}=1$.



The initial conditions $x(0)=\eta_{1}$ and $x(0)=\eta_{2}$ generate the traverse of $x(t)$ along the corresponding eigenvectors, while $x(0)=-\eta_{1}-0.25 \eta_{2}$ results in a superposition of two modes.

## Modal response in the phase plane: Example 2

Return to the unstable 2-order system with $\lambda_{1}=-5$ and $\lambda_{2}=1$.



The initial conditions $x(0)=\eta_{1}$ and $x(0)=\eta_{2}$ generate the traverse of $x(t)$ along the corresponding eigenvectors, while $x(0)=-\eta_{1}-0.25 \eta_{2}$ results in a superposition of two modes. Additional observations:

- instability $\Longrightarrow$ every trajectory with $\mu_{2}(x(0)) \neq 0$ diverges
- trajectories eventually approach the eigenvector of the unstable mode


## Modal response in the phase plane: Example 3

Consider

$$
\dot{x}(t)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
0 & -2
\end{array}\right] x(t)
$$

with $\left(\lambda_{1}, \eta_{1}\right)=\left(-2,\left[\begin{array}{c}-1 \\ 2\end{array}\right] / \sqrt{5}\right)$ and $\left(\lambda_{2}, \eta_{2}\right)=\left(0,\left[\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 0\end{array}\right]\right)$. Its second mode is stable, but not asymptotically (aka neutrally stable). The phase plane is


Starting on $x(0)=\eta_{2}$ results in a point $(x=x(0))$, other initial conditions generate the traverse along a line parallel to $\eta_{1}$ and shifted by $\mu_{2}(x(0))$, so all converge to $\mu_{2}(x(0)) \eta_{2}$, like those from $x(0)=\eta_{1}, x(0)=-\eta_{1}-0.6 \eta_{2}$, and $x(0)=-\eta_{1}+0.4 \eta_{2}$.

## Second-order complex eigenvalues

If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ has eigenvalues at $\sigma \pm \mathrm{j} \omega$, then $\exists \eta_{\mathrm{r}}, \eta_{\mathrm{i}}, v_{\mathrm{r}}, v_{\mathrm{i}} \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ such that

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\eta_{\mathrm{r}}+\mathrm{j} \eta_{\mathrm{i}} & \eta_{\mathrm{r}}-\mathrm{j} \eta_{\mathrm{i}}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\sigma+\mathrm{j} \omega & 0 \\
0 & \sigma-\mathrm{j} \omega
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
v_{\mathrm{r}}^{\prime}+\mathrm{j} v_{\mathrm{i}}^{\prime} \\
v_{\mathrm{r}}^{\prime}-\mathrm{j} v_{\mathrm{i}}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x(t)= \mathrm{e}^{A t} x_{0}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\eta_{\mathrm{r}}+\mathrm{j} \eta_{\mathrm{i}} & \eta_{\mathrm{r}}-\mathrm{j} \eta_{\mathrm{i}}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\mathrm{e}^{(\sigma+\mathrm{j} \omega) t} & 0 \\
0 & \mathrm{e}^{(\sigma-\mathrm{j} \omega) t}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
v_{\mathrm{r}}^{\prime}+\mathrm{j} v_{\mathrm{i}}^{\prime} \\
v_{\mathrm{r}}^{\prime}-\mathrm{j} v_{\mathrm{i}}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right] x_{0} \\
&= \mathrm{e}^{\sigma t}\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\eta_{\mathrm{r}}+\mathrm{j} \eta_{\mathrm{i}} & \eta_{\mathrm{r}}-\mathrm{j} \eta_{\mathrm{i}}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \omega t} & 0 \\
0 & \mathrm{e}^{-\mathrm{j} \omega t}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
v_{\mathrm{r}}^{\prime}+\mathrm{j} v_{\mathrm{i}}^{\prime} \\
v_{\mathrm{r}}^{\prime}-\mathrm{j} v_{\mathrm{i}}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right] x_{0} \\
&=\left(\eta_{\mathrm{r}} \cos (\omega t)-\eta_{\mathrm{i}} \sin (\omega t)\right) \mathrm{e}^{\sigma t} \mu_{\mathrm{r}}\left(x_{0}\right) \\
& \quad \quad+\left(\eta_{\mathrm{i}} \cos (\omega t)+\eta_{\mathrm{r}} \sin (\omega t)\right) \mathrm{e}^{\sigma t} \mu_{\mathrm{i}}\left(x_{0}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where

- $\mu_{\mathrm{r}}\left(x_{0}\right):=2 v_{\mathrm{r}}^{\prime} x_{0}$ and $\mu_{\mathrm{i}}\left(x_{0}\right):=-2 v_{\mathrm{i}}^{\prime} x_{0}$ are degrees of excitation
$-\left(\eta_{\mathrm{r}} \cos (\omega t)-\eta_{\mathrm{i}} \sin (\omega t)\right) \mathrm{e}^{\sigma t}$ and $\left(\eta_{\mathrm{i}} \cos (\omega t)+\eta_{\mathrm{r}} \sin (\omega t)\right) \mathrm{e}^{\sigma t}$ are modes


## Modal response in the phase plane: Example 4

Consider

$$
\dot{x}(t)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
-\sigma^{2}-\omega^{2} & \sigma
\end{array}\right] x(t)
$$

whose eigenvalues are at $\sigma \pm \mathrm{j} \omega$. The phase plane plots for $\omega=2$ are




These pictures are representative, namely

- if $\sigma<0$ (asymptotically stable), then spirals converging to the origin
- if $\sigma=0$ (neutrally stable), then ellipses
- if $\sigma>0$ (unstable), then diverging spirals


## Outline

Coda

## Math literacy

## - complex numbers

- the imaginary unit $j$
- canonical ( $\operatorname{Rec}+j \operatorname{lm} c$ ) and polar $\left(|c| \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{jarg} c}\right)$ representations
- operations with complex numbers
- complex plane
- complex functions
- poles and removable singularities
- rational functions, their poles, zeros, properness
- partial fraction expansion of rational functions, residues
- linear algebra
- eigenvalues and eigenvectors
- similarity transformations and diagonalization
- Cayley-Hamilton and its meaning
- matrix power, functions of matrices (especially, matrix exponential)
- computing functions of matrices
- matrix calculus


## Notions to understand

- signals in time and transformed domains
- main properties, viz. support, decay, convergence, periodicity
- standard signals, viz. step, ramp, sinc, exponential, harmonic, Dirac delta
- oprations on signals, viz. scaling (also of time $\mathbb{P}_{S}$ ), shift ( $\mathbb{\$}_{\tau}$ ), convolution
- signal norms, viz. $L_{1}, L_{2}, L_{\infty}$, as well as $\ell_{1}, \ell_{2}, \ell_{\infty}$; energy and power
- Fourier series and transforms, their meaning in terms of harmonic content
- sampling in time and frequency domains, frequency aliasing, $\omega_{\mathrm{s}}$ and $\omega_{\mathrm{N}}$
- Laplace and $z$ transforms, with RoC and use in solving diff [. . .] equations
- systems and their classifications
- systems as constraints on interrelated signals, I/O systems as mappings
- dynamic vs. static, SISO vs. MIMO, time invariant vs. time varying, linear vs. nonlinear, finite dimensional vs. infinite dimensional, causality
- block-diagrams; series, parallel, and feedback interconnections of systems


## Notions to understand (contd)

- LTI systems, I/O viewpoint
- LTI systems and convolution, impulse response
- transfer functions and system properties via them (stability and causality)
- BIBO and $L_{2} / \ell_{2}$ stability conditions, also in the rational case
- stability tests (checking if a polynomial is Hurwitz or Schur)
- step responses, steady state and transients
- transients characteristics: over- and undershoot, raise time, settling time
- step responses of 1 - and 2-order systems (including effects of zeros)
- frequency response, magnitude and phase, processing harmonic inputs
- frequency response plots: Bode (construct and read) and polar (read)
- systems as filters (low-pass, high-pass, band-pass, band-stop, notch)
- LTI systems, state-space viewpoint
- state-space realizations
- from state space to transfer functions and back again
- linearization technique (equilibrium, Jacobian, et alii)
- state as history accumulator
- initial conditions and unforced motion
- Lyapunov stability and its visualization on the phase plane


## Formulae to memorize

- convolution of signals, $x * y$, in both time and transformed domains
- the sifting property of the Dirac delta,

$$
\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) \delta\left(t-t_{0}\right) \mathrm{d} t=f\left(t_{0}\right)
$$

- frequency response of sampled signals,

$$
\bar{X}\left(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \theta}\right)=\frac{1}{h} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} X\left(\mathrm{j} \frac{\theta+2 \pi i}{h}\right) \quad \text { or } \quad \bar{X}\left(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \omega h}\right)=\frac{1}{h} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} X\left(\mathrm{j}\left(\omega+2 \omega_{N} i\right)\right)
$$

and the Nyquist frequency $\omega_{\mathrm{N}}:=\pi / h$

- time shift property $\left(\$_{\tau} x\right)$ of Fourier, Laplace, and $z$ transforms,

$$
\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \omega \tau} X(\mathrm{j} \omega), \quad \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \theta \tau} X\left(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \theta}\right), \quad \mathrm{e}^{\tau s} X(s), \quad z^{\tau} X(z)
$$

- inverse Laplace transforms of $\frac{1}{s}, \frac{1}{s+a}, \frac{s \sin \phi+\omega \cos \phi}{s^{2}+\omega^{2}}$ when $\operatorname{RoC}=\mathbb{C}_{\alpha}$


## Formulae to memorize (contd)

- condition for $a_{2} s^{2}+a_{1} s+a_{0}$ and $a_{3} s^{3}+a_{2} s^{2}+a_{1} s+a_{0}$ being Hurwitz - standard forms of 1- and 2-order transfer functions, i.e.

$$
\frac{k_{\mathrm{st}}}{\tau s+1} \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{k_{\mathrm{st}} \omega_{\mathrm{n}}^{2}}{s^{2}+2 \zeta \omega_{\mathrm{n}} s+\omega_{\mathrm{n}}^{2}}
$$

- values in dB of $0.01,0.1,1 / \sqrt{2}, 1, \sqrt{2}, 10,100$
- Bode plots of basic blocks (gain, 1- and 2-order), quantitatively
- bandwidth of the frequency response of a system with $G(s)=\frac{1}{\tau s+1}$
- solution to the state equation, $x(t)=\mathrm{e}^{A t} x_{0}+\int_{0}^{t} \mathrm{e}^{A(t-s)} B u(s) \mathrm{d} s$
- canonical companion and observer state-space realizations, viz.

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cccc:c}
0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \\
-a_{0} & -a_{1} & \cdots & -a_{n-1} & 1 \\
\hdashline b_{0} & b_{1} & \cdots & b_{n-1} & 0
\end{array}\right] \quad \text { and } \quad\left[\begin{array}{cccc:c}
-a_{n-1} & 1 & \cdots & 0 & b_{n-1} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
-a_{1} & 0 & \cdots & 1 & b_{1} \\
-a_{0} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & b_{0} \\
\hdashline 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

